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Determinación de parámetros de polarización en representación matricial: contribución teórica y realización de un dispositivo automático

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Tesis Doctoral

DETERMINACIÓN DE PARÁMETROS DE
POLARIZACIÓN EN REPRESENTACIÓN
MATRICIAL: CONTRIBUCIÓN TEÓRICA Y
REALIZACIÓN DE UN DISPOSITIVO AUTOMÁTICO

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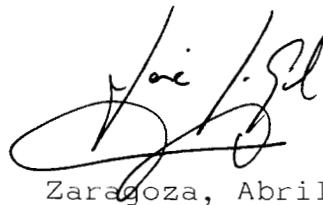
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DETERMINACION DE PARAMETROS DE POLARIZACION
EN REPRESENTACION MATRICIAL. CONTRIBUCION
TEORICA Y REALIZACION DE UN DISPOSITIVO
AUTOMATICO.

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por JOSE JORGE GIL PEREZ

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Jose J. Gil', written in a cursive style.

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I. INTRODUCCION

El análisis de luz polarizada, y la determinación de parámetros ópticos característicos de medios activos a la polarización, constituyen un área de trabajo de la óptica que ha repercutido desde hace tiempo en diversas ramas de la física y de otras ciencias de la naturaleza. No obstante, recientemente se ha apreciado un renovado interés en este área, que se ha concretado en la aparición de una nueva y abundante literatura. En el campo de la elipsometría cabe destacar los trabajos de R.M.A. Azzam y N.M. Bashara, realizados en su mayor parte con ayuda del formalismo matemático de R.C. Jones¹, y que han dado lugar a un completo tratado² en el que se recogen las técnicas estáticas y dinámicas más modernas de determinación de parámetros ópticos, así como aplicaciones concretas al estudio de películas delgadas, formación de coágulos de sangre, etc... P.S. Theocaris y E.E. Gdoutos³ han presentado un estudio riguroso de la teoría matricial de la fotoelasticidad, en el que se hace uso de los formalismos de R.C. Jones y H. Mueller. Merece mención también el trabajo de H.C. Van de Hulst⁴, en el que se estudia el fenómeno de dispersión de luz por partículas con diferentes formas y tamaños, dando modelos matriciales en el formalismo de Mueller para cada uno de los casos. Este trabajo ha dado pie, muy recientemente, a estudios sobre la atmósfera natural, aerosoles artificiales, hidrosoles marinos, etc...⁵

Otros temas relacionados de notable interés y desarrollo actual son también el estudio de filtros espectrales birrefringentes ó dicróicos⁶, poder rotatorio natural⁷, birrefringencia en fibras ópticas⁸, etc...

El estudio del comportamiento de medios ópticos

activos a la polarización puede abordarse en forma general por medio del formalismo Stokes-Mueller^{4,9,10,11,12}. Ahora bien, los elementos de la matriz de Mueller asociada a un cierto medio óptico no dan por sí solos información directa de los parámetros relevantes en el comportamiento físico de dicho medio, por lo que resulta conveniente realizar un estudio previo que permita hacer una clasificación de las matrices de Mueller de acuerdo con las propiedades de los medios ópticos a que corresponden, y que facilite la extracción de parámetros con interpretación física directa a partir de dichas matrices. Diversos autores, como K.D. Abhyankar y A.L. Fymat¹³, R. Barakat¹⁴, E.S. Fry y G.W. Kattawar¹⁵, y R.W. Schaefer¹⁶ han estudiado las relaciones existentes entre los elementos de cualquier matriz de Mueller. Por otra parte, R.C. Jones¹, J.R. Priebe¹⁷ y C. Whitney¹⁸ han establecido diversos teoremas en los que, desde el punto de vista de la polarización, se demuestra la equivalencia entre sistemas complejos y sistemas sencillos constituidos por pocos medios ópticos. Además de ello, en los últimos años se ha notado una tendencia al desarrollo de dispositivos dinámicos de determinación de parámetros ópticos¹⁹. Así P.S. Hauge y H. Dill²⁰ han presentado un método dinámico de análisis de luz polarizada, que junto con un trabajo de E. Collet²¹, en el que se estudia la luz polarizada emergente de un cierto dispositivo que contiene un retardador rotatorio, fueron la base de nuestro trabajo previo, presentado como Tesis de Licenciatura²², en el que desarrollamos un dispositivo experimental que contiene dos retardadores rotatorios y dos polarizadores lineales fijos. Posteriormente, otros autores han presentado diferentes dispositivos que hacen uso de retardadores rotatorios no ideales, como el debido a P.S. Hauge²³, ó bien moduladores electroópticos como el construido por R.C. Thomson, J.B. Bottiger y E.S. Fry²⁴.

El propósito de nuestro trabajo ha sido el desarrollo de un método dinámico de determinación de matrices de Mueller y de análisis de luz polarizada, lo más general posible, y que permita un autocalibrado, es decir, que evite la utilización de test ópatrones en la operación de calibrado, obviando así problemas de ajuste y puesta a punto del dispositivo, los cuales conllevan limitaciones instrumentales y conducen a errores sistemáticos no fáciles de identificar en los resultados experimentales.

Para la realización de nuestro trabajo hemos considerado las aportaciones de numerosos autores, quienes utilizan en sus trabajos diferentes formalismos de representación y tratamiento para la luz polarizada y los medios ópticos activos a ella, respectivamente. Ello nos ha inducido a incluir en esta memoria un capítulo dedicado a la presentación e interpretación de los diferentes formalismos, analizando las relaciones existentes entre ellos y recogiendo los teoremas más importantes relativos a equivalencia y reciprocidad de los sistemas ópticos. Este capítulo II pretende dar autosuficiencia a la memoria y, si bien, en gran medida, constituye una labor de síntesis y puesta a punto, contiene también algunas aportaciones de carácter original.

En el Capítulo III, se obtienen y analizan las expresiones que relacionan los elementos de una matriz de Mueller genérica con los parámetros ópticos característicos de diferentes sistemas equivalentes. Asimismo, analizamos con detalle las relaciones restrictivas entre los elementos de una matriz de Mueller, justificándolas a partir de hechos físicos, e interpretándolas en otros formalismos. Todo ello nos ha permitido establecer un teorema que resulta de utilidad en orden a distinguir las matrices asociadas a medios que no despolarizan la luz, de las asociadas a los que sí lo hacen, y además,

definir una serie de parámetros que indican el grado de polarización, ó despolarización, introducido por un medio óptico cualquiera.

En el capítulo IV presentamos nuestro método dinámico de determinación de matrices de Mueller, basado en el análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz que emerge después de atravesar un cierto sistema que incluye dos retardadores lineales no ideales en rotación, entre los que se sitúa el medio óptico cuya matriz de Mueller se desea determinar. El dispositivo de medida contiene diversos componentes ópticos, cuyos parámetros característicos se determinan por medio de una operación de calibrado del dispositivo. Este calibrado tiene la particularidad de que se realiza a partir de la señal generada por el propio dispositivo, sin utilizar ningún medio óptico como test ó patrón.

La particularización del mencionado método de medida para el caso de análisis de luz polarizada se incluye en el capítulo V, en el que también se dá un método de calibrado.

En el capítulo VI, hacemos una descripción del dispositivo experimental de medida desarrollado y diseñado por nosotros, analizando los principales efectos que pueden ser fuente de error en las medidas.

En el capítulo VII se presentan los resultados correspondientes al calibrado de nuestro dispositivo experimental de medida, los cuales permiten hacer una estimación de la precisión del mismo. Además de ello, se recogen los resultados correspondientes a diferentes sistemas ópticos. Dichos resultados son analizados con ayuda de las relaciones y teoremas dados en los capítulos II y III, y sirven también para ilustrar el comportamiento de nuestro dispositivo experimental.

II. FORMALISMOS DE REPRESENTACION DE LUZ POLARIZADA Y DE MEDIOS OPTICOS

De acuerdo con la teoría electromagnética de la luz, ésta se propaga en el espacio en forma de ondas electromagnéticas transversales, que, matemáticamente, se presentan como soluciones de las ecuaciones de Maxwell, y pueden descomponerse en suma de ondas planas monocromáticas.

Se define el vector luz como el vector campo eléctrico. Dicho vector está bien definido para cada tipo particular de luz totalmente polarizada, y por lo tanto, la luz polarizada puede describirse usando los conceptos del cálculo vectorial. Con esta descripción vectorial pueden resolverse todos los problemas relativos a la propagación, refracción y reflexión de luz polarizada en medios ópticos. Sin embargo, los cálculos son frecuentemente muy complicados, y hacen difícil la solución de los problemas. Esta es la razón por la que se han introducido otras descripciones de la luz polarizada. Para cada una de dichas descripciones existe también un modelo matricial que permite describir las propiedades ópticas de aquellos medios materiales que afectan a la polarización de la luz que los atraviesa. Aquí y en adelante se utiliza la palabra "atravesar" para indicar genéricamente los casos de transmisión y reflexión de luz.

En general, los haces de luz son policromáticos. Una onda se dice que es monocromática cuando sólo contiene una frecuencia discreta de anchura espectral nula. Un caso intermedio es el de las ondas casi-monocromáticas, que se caracterizan por una estrecha línea espectral de anchura muy pequeña pero no nula.

Es importante señalar que en todo fenómeno de interacción de luz polarizada con medios ópticos, los casos de luz monocromática y casi-monocromática totalmente polarizada son indistinguibles en cuanto a polarización? Este hecho justifica el suponer monocromaticidad para ondas que realmente son casi-monocromáticas, pero totalmente polarizadas.

II.1 VECTOR CAMPO ELECTRICO Y ELIPSE DE POLARIZACION.

Con objeto de presentar una notación consistente y uniforme a lo largo de nuestro trabajo, se hace necesaria la introducción de la descripción vectorial de la luz polarizada.

Una onda plana monocromática uniforme que se propaga en un medio homogéneo e isótropo según el eje Z de un sistema cartesiano de referencia XYZ puede expresarse de la forma

$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \vec{i} + E_y \vec{j}, \quad (\text{II.1})$$

donde \vec{i} , \vec{j} , son vectores unitarios en las direcciones X, Y respectivamente, y las componentes vienen dadas por

$$E_x = A_x \cos\left(-\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda} + \delta_x\right) = A_x \cos(\nu + \delta_x), \quad (\text{II.2.a})$$

$$E_y = A_y \cos\left(-\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda} + \delta_y\right) = A_y \cos(\nu + \delta_y), \quad (\text{II.2.b})$$

con $\nu = -\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda}$; ó bien, en notación compleja

$$E_x = A_x e^{i(\nu + \delta_x)}, \quad (\text{II.3.a})$$

$$E_y = A_y e^{i(\nu + \delta_y)}, \quad (\text{II.3.b})$$

entendiendo que en éstas últimas expresiones, la parte imaginaria no tiene sentido físico.

Los parámetros A_x, A_y , son las amplitudes según los ejes X e Y, λ es la longitud de onda, ω es la frecuencia angular; y δ_x, δ_y son constantes de fase.

A partir de (II.3) es fácil demostrar^{3,25}, usando algunas relaciones trigonométricas, que se cumple la siguiente relación

$$\frac{E_x^2}{A_x^2} + \frac{E_y^2}{A_y^2} - 2 \frac{E_x E_y}{A_x A_y} \cos \delta = \sin^2 \delta, \quad (\text{II.4.a.})$$

con
$$\delta = (\delta_y - \delta_x) \quad (\text{II.4.b})$$

La ecuación (II.4) representa una elipse denominada elipse de polarización (Fig. II.1), cuya excentricidad y orientación de ejes en el plano XY depende de δ , pero no de t ni de Z .

Sea α el ángulo dado por

$$\tan \alpha \equiv \frac{A_y}{A_x}, \quad (\text{II.5})$$

ψ la elipticidad de la elipse de polarización, y χ el azimuth del semieje mayor de la elipse con respecto a la dirección positiva del eje X. Estos ángulos están representados en la Fig. II.2 y puede demostrarse que cumplen las siguientes relaciones^{25,26}

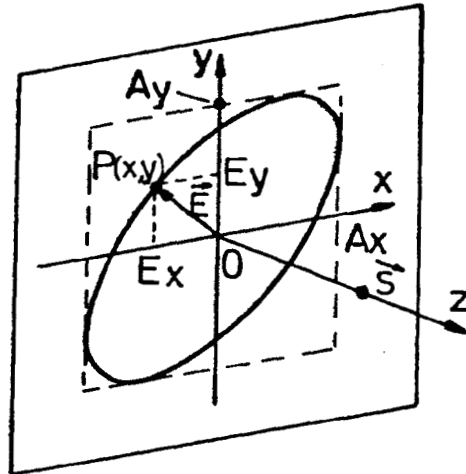


Fig.II.1.- Elipse de polarización.

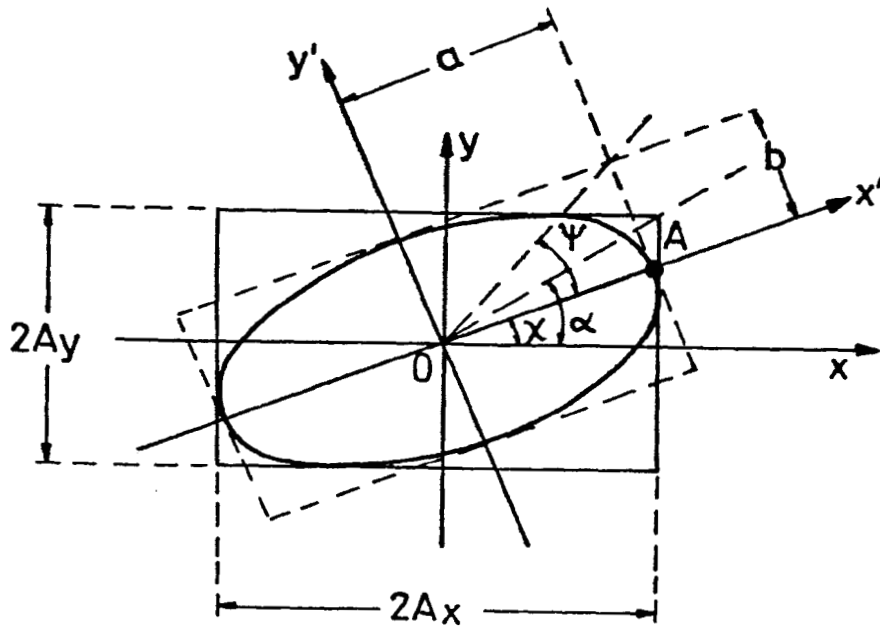


Fig.II.2.- Representación geométrica de los parámetros asociados a la elipse de polarización.

$$\operatorname{tang} 2\chi = \operatorname{tang} 2\alpha \cos \delta, \quad (\text{II.6.a})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} 2\psi = \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \delta, \quad (\text{II.6.b})$$

$$\cos 2\alpha = \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi, \quad (\text{II.6.c})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} \delta = \frac{\operatorname{tang} 2\psi}{\operatorname{sen} 2\chi}. \quad (\text{II.6.d})$$

II.2. CALCULO DE JONES

Un vector de Jones es un vector columna compuesto de dos elementos complejos que son las componentes E_x y E_y del vector luz \mathbf{E} . El vector de Jones, en el caso más general de polarización elíptica, es¹

$$\mathcal{E} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} = e^{iu} \begin{pmatrix} A_x e^{-i\delta/2} \\ A_y e^{i\delta/2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.7})$$

con
$$u = v + \frac{\delta_x + \delta_y}{2}, \quad (\text{II.8.a})$$

$$\delta = \delta_y - \delta_x. \quad (\text{II.8.b})$$

Aunque para definir la elipse de polarización basta con las dos amplitudes A_x , A_y y con la fase relativa δ , es de observar que el vector \mathcal{E} mantiene información de ambas fases δ_x , δ_y por separado. Este hecho muestra que, en

general, un vector de Jones queda caracterizado por dos números complejos independientes; es decir, por cuatro magnitudes reales

Existen problemas en los que la fase absoluta es irrelevante. En tales casos el vector de Jones se escribe

$$\mathcal{E} = \begin{pmatrix} A_x e^{-i\delta/2} \\ A_y e^{i\delta/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.9})$$

En otros casos se usa el vector de Jones normalizado de forma que la intensidad valga la unidad. Es decir $\mathcal{E}^\dagger \mathcal{E} = A_x^2 + A_y^2 = 1$.

Dos estados de polarización de vectores de Jones \mathcal{E} y \mathcal{E}' , se dicen ortogonales cuando $\mathcal{E}'^\dagger \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}^\dagger \mathcal{E}' = 0$. Los vectores ortogonales corresponden a elipses de polarización con igual elipticidad, distinto sentido de giro y con sus ejes mayores perpendiculares entre sí.

La superposición coherente de dos haces de luz polarizada puede expresarse como la suma de sus correspondientes vectores de Jones.

Cuando una onda de luz monocromática como la dada por (II.1) atraviesa un medio óptico lineal que no produce efectos incoherentes, la onda emergente es una transformación lineal de ella del tipo⁴

$$\begin{aligned} E'_x &= A_1 E_x + A_3 E_y, \\ E'_y &= A_4 E_x + A_2 E_y, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.10})$$

donde A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 , son coeficientes complejos que dependen de la naturaleza del medio óptico. Por lo tanto, la transformación (II.10) puede escribirse de la forma

$$\begin{pmatrix} E'_x \\ E'_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.11})$$

ó bien

$$\mathcal{E}' = \mathbf{J} \mathcal{E}, \quad (\text{II.12})$$

siendo \mathbf{J} la matriz compleja definida por

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{II.13})$$

A la matriz \mathbf{J} se le denomina matriz de Jones asociada al medio óptico considerado. Los elementos de \mathbf{J} se suelen denotar de dos formas alternativas, que son

$$\mathbf{J} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} J_{11} & J_{12} \\ J_{21} & J_{22} \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} J_1 & J_3 \\ J_4 & J_2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{II.14})$$

En adelante, cuando se denote una matriz con la letra \mathbf{J} , deberá entenderse que se trata de una matriz de Jones.

La matriz de Jones asociada a una sucesión de medios ópticos, se puede obtener como el producto ordenado de las

respectivas matrices de Jones asociadas a dichos medios². Ello se comprueba fácilmente aplicando (II.12) sucesivamente.

De la definición de vector de Jones dada en (II.7) se deduce que éste solo está definido para luz totalmente polarizada. Este hecho implica a su vez que un medio que disminuya el grado de polarización del haz de luz que lo atraviesa, nunca puede representarse por medio de una matriz de Jones.

La matriz de Jones asociada a un conjunto de medios ópticos, atravesados en paralelo por un haz de luz coherente, viene dada por la suma de las matrices de Jones asociadas a dichos medios.

La utilidad del formalismo JCF* se restringe a los problemas relativos a luz totalmente polarizada.

En adelante, se entenderá como medios ópticos "de tipo N" a aquéllos que son representables por una matriz de Jones, y "de tipo G" en caso general.

II.3. FORMALISMO DE STOKES-MUELLER

Presentamos a continuación un resumen del formalismo de vectores de Stokes y matrices de Mueller, al que denominaremos abreviadamente SMF.

Un vector de Stokes es un vector columna compuesto por cuatro elementos reales S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3 ; que cuando corresponden a un haz de luz totalmente polarizada, están definidos del modo siguiente²⁷

* Por razones de comodidad, utilizaremos abreviaturas para indicar los distintos formalismos. Así, usamos JCF para indicar el formalismo de cálculo de Jones.

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_0 &= E_x E_x^* + E_y E_y^* , \\
 S_1 &= E_x E_x^* - E_y E_y^* , \\
 S_2 &= E_x E_y^* + E_y E_x^* , \\
 S_3 &= i(E_x E_y^* - E_y E_x^*) , \quad (\text{II.15})
 \end{aligned}$$

donde se ha adoptado la notación compleja para E_x y E_y .

Otra forma de escribir los parámetros de Stokes es

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_0 &= A_x^2 + A_y^2 , \\
 S_1 &= A_x^2 - A_y^2 , \\
 S_2 &= 2A_x A_y \cos \delta , \\
 S_3 &= 2A_x A_y \operatorname{sen} \delta , \quad (\text{II.16})
 \end{aligned}$$

ó bien, teniendo en cuenta (II.6)

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_0 &= I , \\
 S_1 &= I \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi = I \cos 2\alpha , \\
 S_2 &= I \cos 2\psi \operatorname{sen} 2\chi = I \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha \cos \delta , \\
 S_3 &= I \operatorname{sen} 2\psi = I \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \delta . \quad (\text{II.17})
 \end{aligned}$$

Es de señalar que en éste caso de luz totalmente polarizada se cumple la relación

$$S_0^2 = S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2 . \quad (\text{II.18})$$

En general, la luz se presenta como una superposición de gran número de trenes de ondas simples con fases independientes. La superposición incoherente de un número cualquiera de haces de luz viene caracterizada por un vector de Stokes que es la suma de los vectores de Stokes asociados a dichos haces. Los parámetros de Stokes del haz total son²⁷

$$S_0 = \sum_i S_0^i , \quad S_1 = \sum_i S_1^i , \quad S_2 = \sum_i S_2^i , \quad S_3 = \sum_i S_3^i ; \quad (\text{II.19})$$

donde el superíndice i denota cada onda simple independiente .

De acuerdo con (II.19), el haz de luz total estará parcialmente polarizado, y sus parámetros de Stokes se podrán obtener también del modo siguiente²⁸

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= \langle A_x^2 + A_y^2 \rangle , \\ S_1 &= \langle A_x^2 - A_y^2 \rangle , \\ S_2 &= \langle 2A_x A_y \cos \delta \rangle , \\ S_3 &= \langle 2A_x A_y \sin \delta \rangle ; \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.20})$$

donde los corchetes indican el promedio temporal sobre cada uno de los parámetros .

Las expresiones (II.20) pueden considerarse como la definición más general de los parámetros de Stokes, que están sujetos a la condición

$$S_0^2 \geq S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2 , \quad (\text{II.21})$$

en la que la igualdad se cumple sólo si se trata de luz totalmente polarizada. En el caso de luz natural, los promedios se anulan salvo para S_0 , y el vector de Stokes correspondiente es

$$S_N = \begin{pmatrix} I_N \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} . \quad (\text{II.22})$$

Conviene recordar ahora el principio de equivalencia óptica de estados de polarización, que puede enunciarse del siguiente modo: "Por medio de un experimento físico es imposible distinguir entre varios estados de polarización de luz que son sumas incoherentes de diferentes estados puros, y que tienen asociado el mismo vector de Stokes".²⁷

En virtud de este principio, un haz de luz parcialmente polarizada puede considerarse como la superposición incoherente de dos haces, uno de los cuales es de luz totalmente polarizada, y el otro de luz no polarizada. En el formalismo SMF este hecho se expresa como

$$S = S_p + S_N , \quad (\text{II.23})$$

donde

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} S_0 \\ S_1 \\ S_2 \\ S_3 \end{pmatrix} , \quad S_p = \begin{pmatrix} I_p \\ S_1 \\ S_2 \\ S_3 \end{pmatrix} , \quad S_N = \begin{pmatrix} I_N \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} ; \quad (\text{II.24.a})$$

con

$$I_p = (S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2)^{1/2} , \quad I_N = S_0 - I_p . \quad (\text{II.24.b})$$

Se define el grado de polarización G de un haz de luz de vector de Stokes S como

$$G = \frac{I_p}{S_0} . \quad (\text{II.25})$$

Asimismo nos interesa definir la forma cuadrática semidefinida positiva

$$F = S_0^2 - S_1^2 - S_2^2 - S_3^2 \quad (\text{II.26})$$

que está relacionada con G del siguiente modo

$$F = S_0^2 (1 - G^2), \quad (\text{II.27})$$

ó bien

$$G = \left(1 - \frac{F}{S_0^2}\right)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{II.28})$$

Las magnitudes G y F adoptan valores en los siguientes rangos

$$0 \leq G \leq 1, \quad (\text{II.29.a})$$

$$0 \leq F \leq S_0^2, \quad (\text{II.29.b})$$

de forma que para luz totalmente polarizada: $G=1$, $F=0$; y para luz natural: $G=0$, $F=S_0^2$.

Un vector de Stokes puede definirse en términos de la intensidad total I , el grado de polarización G , el azimuth χ y la elipticidad ψ del haz de luz al que corresponde, en la forma

$$S = I \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ G \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi \\ G \cos 2\psi \operatorname{sen} 2\chi \\ G \operatorname{sen} 2\psi \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{II.30})$$

De esta expresión se deduce que el vector de Stokes contiene toda la información acerca de la elipse de polarización y del grado de polarización. Sin embargo, al contrario que

el vector de Jones, el vector de Stokes no contiene información acerca de la fase absoluta del haz de luz al que corresponde.

En el formalismo SMF los sistemas ópticos lineales se representan por medio de matrices reales 4x4 (matrices de Mueller). Estas matrices, que denotamos genéricamente como

$$M \equiv (m_{ij}) \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3, 0 \quad (\text{II.31})$$

contienen dieciséis elementos m_{ij} , que en general son independientes.

Cuando un haz de luz de vector de Stokes S atraviesa un medio caracterizado por la matriz de Mueller M , el vector S' asociado al haz emergente viene dado por

$$S' = M S . \quad (\text{II.32})$$

Al igual que en el formalismo JCF, la matriz de Mueller de una sucesión de medios ópticos, se obtiene como el producto ordenado de sus respectivas matrices de Mueller asociadas?

Por otra parte, la matriz de Mueller asociada a un conjunto de medios ópticos atravesados en paralelo por un haz de luz incoherente viene dada por la suma de las matrices de Mueller asociadas a dichos medios.²⁷

Una matriz de Mueller puede representar a medios ópticos que afecten a cualquier parámetro relacionado con el vector de Stokes asociada al haz de luz que los atraviesa; Así, por ejemplo, en el formalismo SMF son representables todo tipo de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos), polarizadores totales ó parciales (lineales, circulares ó elípticos), sistemas que despolarizan la luz, ó cualquier combina--

ción de ellos por complicada que sea. Sin embargo, no son representables aquellos medios que introducen un retardo uniforme en la luz que los atraviesa (láminas de fase).

En adelante se usarán las letras **S** y **M** para denotar vectores de Stokes y matrices de Mueller respectivamente. Se entenderá por matrices de Mueller de tipo N, a aquéllas que correspondan a medios ópticos de tipo N.

II.4. FORMALISMOS MATRIZ DE COHERENCIA Y VECTOR DE COHERENCIA

Consideremos un haz de luz monocromática, caracterizado por un vector campo eléctrico **E** que, en general, será una superposición de vectores del tipo (II-4), pero con diferentes fases δ_x, δ_y . Llamamos matriz de coherencia (o matriz densidad) ρ asociada a dicho haz de luz, a la definida como²⁹

$$\rho \equiv \langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{E}^\dagger \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \langle E_x E_x^* \rangle & \langle E_x E_y^* \rangle \\ \langle E_y E_x^* \rangle & \langle E_y E_y^* \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle A_x^2 \rangle & \langle A_x A_y e^{i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{-i\delta} \rangle & \langle A_y^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.33})$$

donde los corchetes indican promedio temporal y \times denota el producto de Kronecker.

Los elementos de ρ los denotamos de la forma

$$\rho \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_1 & \rho_3 \\ \rho_4 & \rho_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.34})$$

La matriz \mathcal{P} es hermítica, y está definida a partir de los mismos parámetros que el vector de Stokes \mathcal{S} . De hecho, es inmediato comprobar las siguientes relaciones entre los elementos de \mathcal{P} y de \mathcal{S} asociados al mismo haz de luz ^{28,30}

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= \mathcal{P}_1 + \mathcal{P}_2, \\ S_1 &= \mathcal{P}_1 - \mathcal{P}_2, \\ S_2 &= \mathcal{P}_3 + \mathcal{P}_4, \\ S_3 &= i(\mathcal{P}_3 - \mathcal{P}_4); \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.35})$$

o bien,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_1 &= \frac{1}{2}(S_0 + S_1), \\ \mathcal{P}_2 &= \frac{1}{2}(S_0 - S_1), \\ \mathcal{P}_3 &= \frac{1}{2}(S_2 - iS_3), \\ \mathcal{P}_4 &= \frac{1}{2}(S_2 + iS_3). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.36})$$

La superposición incoherente de un número cualquiera de haces de luz, está caracterizada por una matriz de coherencia \mathcal{P} , que es suma de las matrices de coherencia \mathcal{P}_i asociadas a dichos haces. Por lo tanto

$$\mathcal{P}_1 = \sum_i \mathcal{P}_1^i, \quad \mathcal{P}_2 = \sum_i \mathcal{P}_2^i, \quad \mathcal{P}_3 = \sum_i \mathcal{P}_3^i, \quad \mathcal{P}_4 = \sum_i \mathcal{P}_4^i \quad (\text{II.37})$$

donde el superíndice i denota cada onda simple independiente.

La forma cuadrática F viene ahora dada por

$$F = 4 \det \mathcal{P} \quad (\text{II.38})$$

y, de acuerdo con (II.29.b), vemos que

$$0 \leq 4 \det \mathcal{P} \leq S_0^2 \quad (\text{II.39})$$

Si el haz es de luz totalmente polarizada, entonces

$$\det g = 0, \quad (\text{II.40})$$

y si es de luz natural

$$\det g = \frac{1}{4} S_0^2 \quad (\text{II.41})$$

Análogamente a lo que ocurre con el vector de Stokes, toda matriz \mathcal{S} puede escribirse como la suma de dos matrices de coherencia, de la forma siguiente

$$\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}_P + \mathcal{S}_N, \quad (\text{II.42.a})$$

con

$$\det \mathcal{S}_P = 0, \quad (\text{II.42.b})$$

$$\det \mathcal{S}_N = \frac{1}{4} I_N^2. \quad (\text{II.42.c})$$

La matriz \mathcal{S}_N corresponde a un haz de luz no polarizada de intensidad I_N , y \mathcal{S}_P corresponde a un haz de luz totalmente polarizada.

II.4. 1. MEDIOS OPTICOS DE TIPO N

Denominamos formalismo de la matriz de coherencia (CMF), al que utiliza dicha matriz para representar el estado de polarización de la luz.

Consideremos un haz de luz de matriz de coherencia $\mathcal{S} = \langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{E}^\dagger \rangle$ que atraviesa un medio óptico de tipo N de matriz de Jones \mathbf{J} . El haz emergente tendrá asociada una matriz de coherencia \mathcal{S}' tal que²⁷

$$\mathcal{S}' = \langle \mathbf{E}' \times \mathbf{E}'^\dagger \rangle = \langle \mathbf{J} \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{E}^\dagger \mathbf{J}^\dagger \rangle = \mathbf{J} \langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{E}^\dagger \rangle \mathbf{J}^\dagger = \mathbf{J} \mathcal{S} \mathbf{J}^\dagger. \quad (\text{II.43})$$

Para el caso de luz totalmente polarizada, el formalismo CMF es equivalente al JCF, con la salvedad de que en el CMF no se puede manejar información acerca de la fase absoluta de la onda de luz, sino sólomente acerca de las características de la elipse de polarización. De esta discusión concluimos que, cuando se tratan fenómenos relativos a luz totalmente polarizada, el formalismo JCF además de ser más sencillo, es más completo que el CMF, ya que contiene información de la fase absoluta.

Cuando se estudian fenómenos con luz parcialmente polarizada y medios ópticos de tipo N, no es aplicable el formalismo JCF, puesto que éste no permite la representación de estados de polarización parcial de la luz. Por lo tanto, en general, el formalismo CMF es más potente que el JCF en cuanto a representación de estados de luz, pero no lo es en la representación de medios ópticos, ya que éstos están representados por matrices de Jones en ambos formalismos.

II.4.2. MEDIOS OPTICOS DE TIPO G

Llamamos vector de coherencia (ó vector densidad) D asociado a un haz de luz, al definido, como^{14,28}

$$D \equiv \langle E \times E^* \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \langle A_x^2 \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{-i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_y^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad (II.44)$$

Los elementos de \mathbf{D} los denotamos de la forma

$$\mathbf{D} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} d_0 \\ d_1 \\ d_2 \\ d_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.45})$$

y vienen dados por los elementos ρ_i de la matriz de coherencia asociada al mismo haz de luz del siguiente modo

$$\begin{aligned} d_0 &= \rho_1, \\ d_1 &= \rho_3, \\ d_2 &= \rho_4, \\ d_3 &= \rho_2. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.46})$$

Las relaciones (II.35) y (II.36) pueden expresarse en forma vectorial como

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{II.47})$$

ó bien

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}^{-1} \mathbf{S} \quad (\text{II.48})$$

donde \mathbf{U} es la siguiente matriz unitaria

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i & -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.49})$$

El vector \mathbf{D} asociado a un haz de luz que es superposición incoherente de un cierto número de haces de luz, viene dado por la suma de sus vectores de coherencia correspondientes.

Como ya dijimos, la matriz ρ , y por lo tanto el vector \mathbf{D} , contienen exactamente la misma información que el vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} correspondiente. Veremos ahora cómo

quedan caracterizados los sistemas ópticos en el formalismo del vector de coherencia (CVF), en función de sus correspondientes matrices de Mueller.

Consideremos un medio óptico de matriz de Mueller asociada M , sobre el que incide un haz de luz de vector de Stokes S y de vector de coherencia D . Los vectores de Stokes S' y de coherencia D' asociados al haz emergente han de cumplir

$$D' = U^{-1} S' = U^{-1} M S = U^{-1} M U D, \quad (\text{II.50})$$

lo cual indica que para toda matriz de Mueller M , existe una única matriz V tal que

$$V = U^{-1} M U, \quad (\text{II.51})$$

$$D' = V D \quad (\text{II.52})$$

Los elementos de la matriz S están sometidos a la condición de hermiticidad³⁰ $S = S^\dagger$, es decir

$$\text{Im}(\beta_1) = \text{Im}(\beta_2) = 0, \quad (\text{II.53.a})$$

$$\beta_3^* = \beta_4, \quad (\text{II.53.b.})$$

y, por lo tanto

$$\text{Im}(d_0) = \text{Im}(d_3) = 0, \quad (\text{II.54.a})$$

$$d_2^* = d_1. \quad (\text{II.54.b})$$

Las componentes d'_i ($i=0,1,2,3$) del vector D' dado por (II.52), están sujetas también a las condiciones (II.54). Esto implica que los 16 elementos complejos de una matriz V han de estar sometidos a un conjunto de 16 restricciones, de forma que, en general, sólo dependa de 16 parámetros independientes, al igual que la matriz de Mueller M .

Imponiendo las condiciones (II.54) a los vectores D y D' , se comprueba que los elementos v_{ij} de la matriz V

están sujetos a las siguientes restricciones¹⁴

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{V}_{10} &= \mathcal{V}_{20}^* , \\
 \mathcal{V}_{01} &= \mathcal{V}_{02}^* , \\
 \mathcal{V}_{13} &= \mathcal{V}_{23}^* , \\
 \mathcal{V}_{31} &= \mathcal{V}_{32}^* , \\
 \mathcal{V}_{11} &= \mathcal{V}_{12}^* , \\
 \mathcal{V}_{21} &= \mathcal{V}_{12}^* , \\
 \text{Im}(\mathcal{V}_{00}) &= \text{Im}(\mathcal{V}_{03}) = \text{Im}(\mathcal{V}_{30}) = \text{Im}(\mathcal{V}_{33}) = 0 . \quad (\text{II.55})
 \end{aligned}$$

De acuerdo con estas expresiones una matriz genérica está caracterizada por 10 parámetros correspondientes a partes reales y 6 que corresponden a partes imaginarias.

Existe una equivalencia total entre los formalismos CVF y SMF. Ante un caso concreto, ambos formalismos son igualmente poderosos, aunque generalmente resulta más práctico el SMF, ya que éste sólo utiliza números reales. El formalismo CVF es especialmente útil cuando se desea expresar los cálculos ó resultados con la matriz de coherencia.

En adelante cuando se utilicen las letras **D** y **V** se entenderá que corresponden a vectores densidad y matrices del formalismo CVF. Asimismo diremos que una matriz **V** es de tipo N, cuando corresponde a un medio óptico de tipo N.

II.5. RELACIONES ENTRE LOS DIFERENTES FORMALISMOS

II.5.1. ALGUNAS CONSIDERACIONES FORMALES

En el espacio de matrices complejas 2x2 podemos considerar la base formada por las matrices^{3,18}

$$\sigma_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.56})$$

Las matrices de Pauli $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$, suelen agruparse en el siguiente vector matricial

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) . \quad (\text{II.57})$$

Una matriz de coherencia ρ puede expresarse como²⁷

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^3 S_i \sigma_i . \quad (\text{II.58})$$

Teniendo en cuenta que tanto la matriz ρ , como las matrices σ_i ($i=0,1,2,3$) son hermiticas, es fácil comprobar que los coeficientes S_i ($i=0,1,2,3$) han de ser reales^{27,31}.

Si comparamos las expresiones (II.58) y (II.36) vemos que los coeficientes S_i son precisamente los parámetros de Stokes correspondientes a la matriz ρ , y se verifica la relación

$$S_i = \text{tr}(\rho \sigma_i) = \text{tr}(\sigma_i \rho) . \quad (\text{II.59})$$

Cabe considerar la expresión (II.58) como un desarrollo de la matriz densidad ρ en un conjunto completo de observables ortogonales (σ_i), en el que los coeficientes S_i , corresponden, salvo una constante, a los valores esperados de dichos operadores.

Consideremos un haz de luz que tiene asociados una matriz densidad ρ y un vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} , y que atraviesa un medio óptico de tipo N caracterizado por una matriz de Jones \mathbf{J} . El vector de Stokes \mathbf{S}' asociado al haz de luz emergente viene dado por

$$S'_i = \text{tr}(\sigma_i \rho') = \text{tr}(\sigma_i J \rho J^\dagger) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(\sigma_i J \sum_{j=0}^3 S_j \sigma_j J^\dagger) =$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \sum_{j=0}^3 (\sigma_i J \sigma_j J^\dagger) S_j = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} S_j, \quad (\text{II.60})$$

donde la matriz M , cuyos elementos son

$$m_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(\sigma_i J \sigma_j J^\dagger), \quad (\text{II.61})$$

es precisamente la matriz de Mueller asociada al mismo medio óptico representado por la matriz de Jones J .

II.5.2. RELACIONES RELATIVAS A CARACTERIZACION DE LA LUZ.

En el caso de luz totalmente polarizada es fácil comprobar que se cumple la relación³

$$S_j = \mathcal{E}^\dagger \sigma_j \mathcal{E}, \quad (\text{II.62})$$

ó bien, en forma explícita

$$S_0 = |\mathcal{E}_1|^2 + |\mathcal{E}_2|^2,$$

$$S_1 = |\mathcal{E}_1|^2 - |\mathcal{E}_2|^2,$$

$$S_2 = 2 \mathcal{E}_1 \mathcal{E}_2 \cos \delta,$$

$$S_3 = 2 \mathcal{E}_1 \mathcal{E}_2 \text{sen} \delta; \quad (\text{II.63.a})$$

con

$$\delta = (\arg \mathcal{E}_2 - \arg \mathcal{E}_1). \quad (\text{II.63.b})$$

Recíprocamente

$$|\mathcal{E}_1|^2 = \frac{1}{2} (S_0 + S_1),$$

$$|\mathcal{E}_2|^2 = \frac{1}{2} (S_0 - S_1),$$

$$\text{tang} \delta = S_3 / S_2. \quad (\text{II.64})$$

Las relaciones del vector de Jones con la matriz de coherencia y vector de coherencia asociados al mismo haz de luz

totalmente polarizada, son las siguientes

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1 &= d_0 = |\varepsilon_1|^2, \\ \rho_2 &= d_3 = |\varepsilon_2|^2, \\ \rho_3 &= d_1 = \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 e^{-i\delta}, \\ \rho_4 &= d_2 = \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 e^{i\delta}, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.65})$$

ó, recíprocamente

$$\begin{aligned} |\varepsilon_1|^2 &= \rho_1 = d_0, \\ |\varepsilon_2|^2 &= \rho_2 = d_3, \\ \delta &= \arg \rho_4 = -\arg \rho_3 = \arg d_2 = -\arg d_1. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.66})$$

Las relaciones entre la matriz de coherencia y los parámetros de Stokes ya se vieron en (II.35) y (II.36), y son válidas independientemente del grado de polarización de la luz.

II.5.3. RELACIONES RELATIVAS A CARACTERIZACION DE MEDIOS OPTICOS.

Un sistema óptico de tipo N tiene asociada una matriz de Jones \mathbf{J} , y también una matriz de Mueller \mathbf{M} . Supongamos que sobre el sistema incide un haz de luz de vector de Jones \mathbf{E} y vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} .

El haz emergente se caracterizará también por unos vectores de Jones y de Stokes \mathbf{E}' , \mathbf{S}' respectivamente. Estos vectores se obtienen, según (II.12) y (II.32), como

$$\mathbf{E}'_k = \sum_{l=1}^2 J_{kl} \mathbf{E}_l, \quad k=1,2; \quad (\text{II.67})$$

$$\mathbf{S}'_i = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \mathbf{S}_j, \quad i=0,1,2,3. \quad (\text{II.68})$$

Teniendo en cuenta (II.58), podemos escribir (II.68) del siguiente modo.

$$\mathcal{E}'^\dagger \sigma_i \mathcal{E}' = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} (\mathcal{E}^\dagger \sigma_j \mathcal{E}), \quad (\text{II.69})$$

ó bien

$$\mathcal{E}'^\dagger \sigma_i \mathcal{E}' = \mathcal{E}^\dagger \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \sigma_j \right) \mathcal{E}. \quad (\text{II.70})$$

De (II.69) y (II.12) obtenemos

$$\mathcal{E}'^\dagger \sigma_i \mathcal{E}' = \mathcal{E}^\dagger (J^\dagger \sigma_i J) \mathcal{E}, \quad (\text{II.71})$$

que junto con (II.70), conduce a

$$J^\dagger \sigma_i J = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \sigma_j, \quad i=0,1,2,3. \quad (\text{II.72})$$

Esta última expresión sirve para obtener los elementos de una matriz en función de la otra, como indicamos a continuación³

$$\begin{aligned} 2 m_{00} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{21} + J_{22}^* J_{22}, \\ 2 m_{01} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{12} - J_{22}^* J_{22}, \\ 2 m_{02} &= J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{22} + J_{12}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{21}, \\ 2 m_{03} &= i (J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{11} - J_{22}^* J_{21}), \\ 2 m_{10} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{12} - J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{22}, \\ 2 m_{11} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{22} - J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{12}, \\ 2 m_{12} &= J_{12}^* J_{11} + J_{11}^* J_{12} - J_{22}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{22}, \\ 2 m_{13} &= i (J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{22}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{11}), \\ 2 m_{20} &= J_{11}^* J_{21} + J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{22} + J_{22}^* J_{12}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
2 m_{21} &= J_{11}^* J_{21} + J_{21}^* J_{11} - J_{12}^* J_{22} - J_{22}^* J_{12} , \\
2 m_{22} &= J_{11}^* J_{22} + J_{21}^* J_{12} + J_{12}^* J_{21} + J_{22}^* J_{11} , \\
2 m_{23} &= i(J_{11}^* J_{22} + J_{21}^* J_{12} - J_{12}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{11}) , \\
2 m_{30} &= i(J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{12} - J_{11}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{22}) , \\
2 m_{31} &= i(J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{22} - J_{11}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{12}) , \\
2 m_{32} &= i(J_{21}^* J_{12} + J_{22}^* J_{11} - J_{11}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{21}) , \\
2 m_{33} &= J_{22}^* J_{11} + J_{11}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{12} ; \quad (\text{II.73})
\end{aligned}$$

y recíprocamente, denotando los elementos $J_{\kappa\ell}$ ($\kappa, \ell = 1, 2$) en forma polar como

$$J_{\kappa\ell} = |J_{\kappa\ell}| e^{i\theta_{\kappa\ell}}, \quad (\text{II.74.a})$$

se puede comprobar que

$$2 |J_{11}|^2 = m_{00} + m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} ,$$

$$2 |J_{12}|^2 = m_{00} - m_{01} + m_{10} - m_{11} ,$$

$$2 |J_{21}|^2 = m_{00} + m_{01} - m_{10} - m_{11} ,$$

$$2 |J_{22}|^2 = m_{00} - m_{01} - m_{10} + m_{11} ,$$

$$\cos(\theta_{12} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{m_{02} + m_{12}}{[(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2]^{1/2}} ,$$

$$\text{sen}(\theta_{12} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{-(m_{03} + m_{13})}{[(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2]^{1/2}} ,$$

$$\cos(\theta_{21} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{m_{20} + m_{21}}{[(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2]^{1/2}} ,$$

$$\operatorname{sen}(\theta_{21} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{m_{30} + m_{31}}{[(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2]^{1/2}},$$

$$\cos(\theta_{22} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{m_{22} + m_{33}}{[(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{01})^2]^{1/2}},$$

$$\operatorname{sen}(\theta_{21} - \theta_{11}) = \frac{m_{32} - m_{23}}{[(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{01})^2]^{1/2}} \quad (\text{II.74.b.})$$

Es de señalar que al pasar de la matriz de Jones a la de Mueller, se pierde la información acerca del retardo global que introduce el sistema óptico correspondiente.

Una forma más compacta de presentar la relaciones (II.73), es la siguiente ^{4,9,32}

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) & \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) & \beta_{13} + \beta_{42} & -\gamma_{13} - \gamma_{42} \\ \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) & \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) & \beta_{13} - \beta_{42} & -\gamma_{13} + \gamma_{42} \\ \beta_{14} + \beta_{32} & \beta_{14} - \beta_{32} & \beta_{12} + \beta_{34} & -\gamma_{12} + \gamma_{34} \\ \gamma_{14} + \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{14} - \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{12} + \gamma_{34} & \beta_{12} - \beta_{34} \end{pmatrix}$$

(II.75.a)

donde

$$\alpha_i^2 = J_i J_i^* = |J_i|^2, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4;$$

$$\beta_{ij} = \beta_{ji} = \operatorname{Re}(J_i J_j^*) = \operatorname{Re}(J_j J_i^*),$$

$$\gamma_{ij} = -\gamma_{ji} = \operatorname{Im}(J_i J_j^*) = \operatorname{Im}(J_j J_i^*),$$

$$i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4.$$

(II.75.b)

La matriz (II.75) puede obtenerse directamente a partir de (II.61).

Si a una matriz de Jones J le corresponde una matriz de Mueller M , ésta tiene la forma (II.75), y es inmediato comprobar que a las matrices de Jones J^+ y J^T les corresponden las matrices de Mueller M^+ y M' respectivamente, siendo M' la matriz siguiente³³

$$M' = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} & m_{10} & m_{20} & -m_{30} \\ m_{01} & m_{11} & m_{21} & -m_{31} \\ m_{02} & m_{12} & m_{22} & -m_{32} \\ -m_{03} & -m_{13} & -m_{23} & +m_{33} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.76})$$

que puede escribirse como

$$M' = Q M^T Q \quad (\text{II.77.a})$$

con

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.77.b})$$

La matriz diagonal Q es ortogonal, con $\det Q = -1$ y no corresponde a ningún sistema óptico con entidad física real.

A continuación, buscamos las relaciones que ligan la matriz de Jones J con la matriz V asociada al mismo medio óptico de tipo N.

Si tenemos en cuenta (II.12) y (II.44), vemos que²⁸

$$V = J \times J^*, \quad (\text{II.78})$$

es decir

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} J_1 J_1^* & J_1 J_3^* & J_3 J_1^* & J_3 J_3^* \\ J_1 J_4^* & J_1 J_2^* & J_3 J_4^* & J_3 J_2^* \\ J_4 J_1^* & J_4 J_3^* & J_2 J_1^* & J_2 J_3^* \\ J_4 J_4^* & J_4 J_2^* & J_2 J_4^* & J_2 J_2^* \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.79})$$

Recíprocamente, obtenemos los elementos $J_i = |J_i| e^{i\theta_i}$ en función de los elementos v_{ij}

$$|J_1|^2 = v_{00} ,$$

$$|J_2|^2 = v_{33} ,$$

$$|J_3|^2 = v_{03} ,$$

$$|J_4|^2 = v_{30} ,$$

$$\theta_1 - \theta_2 = \arg(v_{11}) = -\arg(v_{22}) ,$$

$$\theta_1 - \theta_3 = \arg(v_{01}) = -\arg(v_{02}) ,$$

$$\theta_1 - \theta_4 = \arg(v_{10}) = -\arg(v_{20}) \quad . \quad (\text{II.80})$$

Las relaciones (II.75) y (II.79) únicamente son válidas para medios ópticos de tipo N, debido a que en caso contrario, las matrices de Jones no están definidas

Finalmente, daremos cuenta de las relaciones que ligan las matrices M y V que corresponden a un mismo medio óptico de tipo G.

Según (II.51) sabemos que $V = U^{-1} M U$, donde U es la matriz dada en (II.49). Como U es unitaria podemos escribir

$$M = U V U^{-1} \quad (\text{II.81})$$

Desarrollando (II.51) y (II.81) en forma explícita obtenemos⁴¹

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} + m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} & m_{02} + m_{12} + i(m_{03} + m_{13}) & m_{02} + m_{12} - i(m_{03} + m_{13}) & m_{00} - m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} \\ m_{20} + m_{21} - i(m_{30} + m_{31}) & m_{22} + m_{33} + i(m_{23} - m_{32}) & m_{22} - m_{33} - i(m_{23} + m_{32}) & m_{20} - m_{21} - i(m_{30} - m_{31}) \\ m_{20} + m_{21} + i(m_{30} + m_{31}) & m_{22} - m_{33} + i(m_{23} + m_{32}) & m_{22} + m_{33} - i(m_{23} - m_{32}) & m_{20} - m_{21} + i(m_{30} - m_{31}) \\ m_{00} + m_{01} - m_{10} - m_{11} & m_{02} - m_{12} + i(m_{03} - m_{13}) & m_{02} - m_{12} - i(m_{03} - m_{13}) & m_{00} - m_{01} - m_{10} + m_{11} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.82.a})$$

y recíprocamente

$$M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33} & v_{00} - v_{03} + v_{30} - v_{33} & v_{01} + v_{02} + v_{31} + v_{32} & -i(v_{01} - v_{02} + v_{31} - v_{32}) \\ v_{00} + v_{03} - v_{30} - v_{33} & v_{00} - v_{03} - v_{30} + v_{33} & v_{01} + v_{02} - v_{31} - v_{32} & -i(v_{01} - v_{02} - v_{31} + v_{32}) \\ v_{10} + v_{13} + v_{20} + v_{23} & v_{10} - v_{13} + v_{20} - v_{23} & v_{11} + v_{12} + v_{21} + v_{22} & -i(v_{11} - v_{12} + v_{21} - v_{22}) \\ i(v_{10} - v_{20} + v_{13} - v_{23}) & i(v_{10} - v_{20} - v_{13} + v_{23}) & i(v_{11} + v_{12} - v_{21} + v_{22}) & v_{11} - v_{12} - v_{21} + v_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.82.b})$$

A partir de (II.79) y (II.81), vemos que, si a una matriz V le corresponden las matrices de Jones y de Mueller J y M respectivamente, a V^{\dagger} le corresponden J^{\dagger} y M^{\dagger} ; y a V^{T} le corresponden J^{T} y M' .

Las figuras (II.3) y (II.4) muestran esquemáticamente las relaciones existentes entre los diferentes formalismos.

II. 6. MEDIOS OPTICOS . NOTACION

A lo largo de nuestro trabajo estudiaremos sistemas compuestos por medios ópticos de tipo N. El conjunto de dichos medios puede separarse en dos categorías atendiendo a

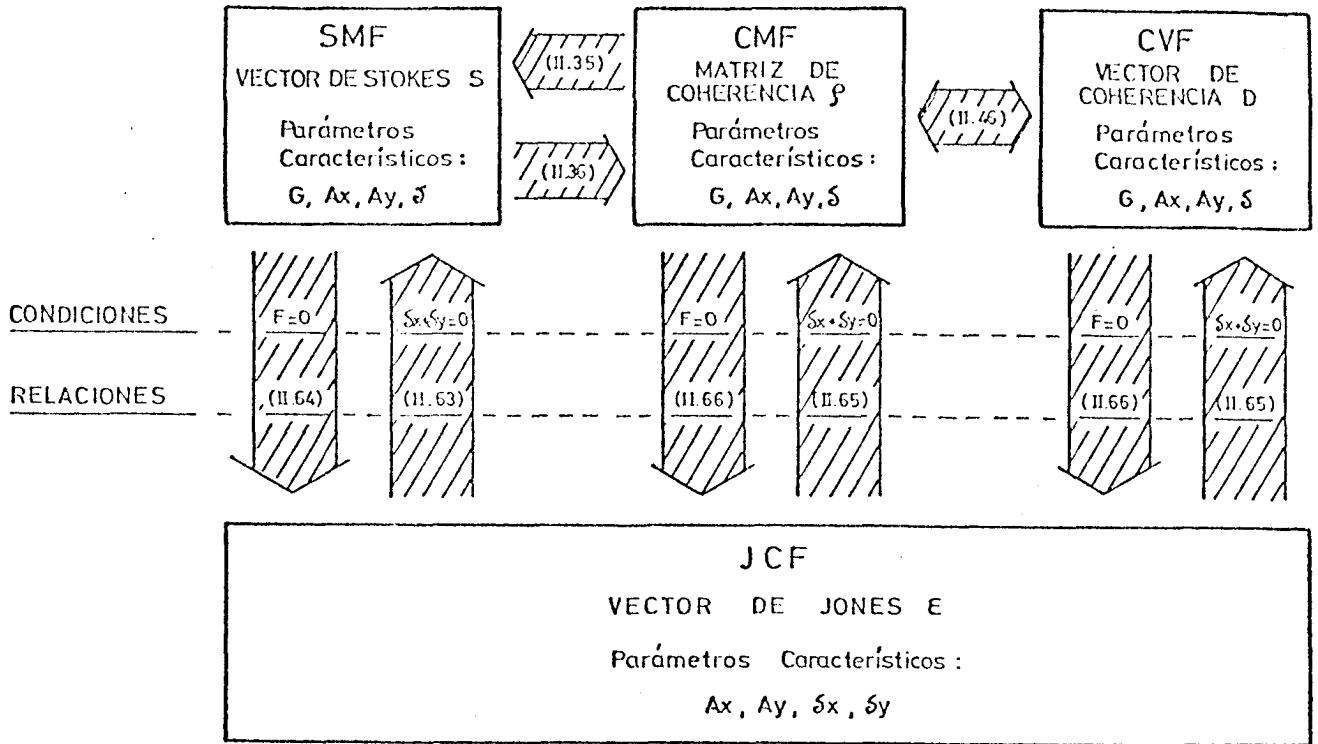


Fig.II.3.- Esquema de las relaciones relativas a caracterización de la luz, entre los formalismos SMF, CMF, CVF y JCF.

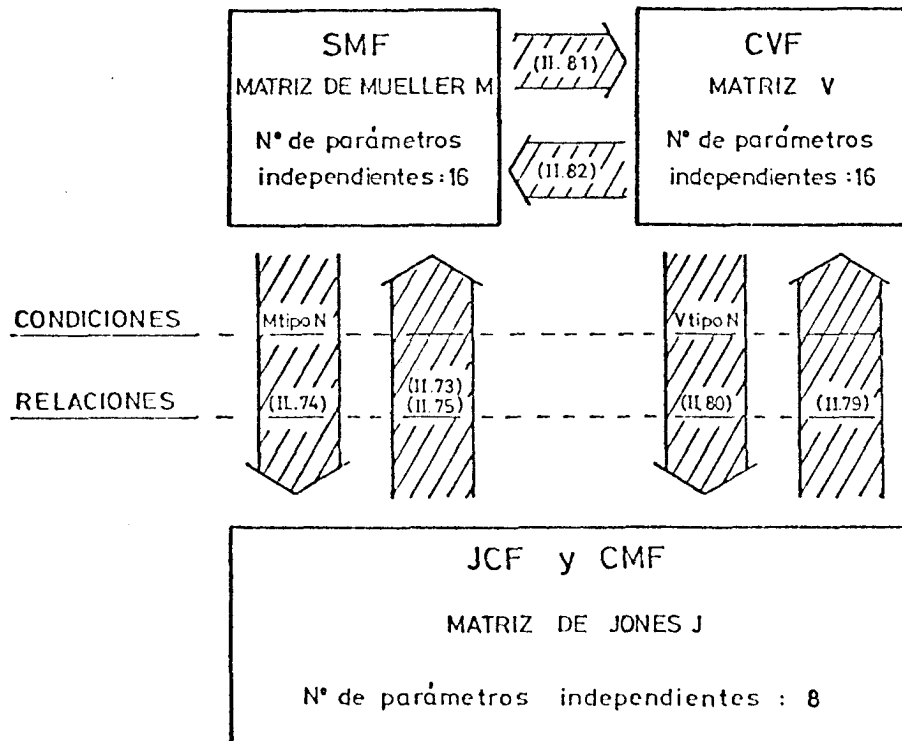


Fig.II.4.- Esquema de las relaciones relativas a caracterización de medios ópticos, entre los formalismos SMF, CVF, JCF y CMF.

la naturaleza de sus efectos sobre la luz polarizada. Unos producen un determinado retardo entre dos estados de polarización ortogonales que son invariantes bajo la acción del medio considerado (retardadores), y otros una absorción ó reflexión selectiva (polarizadores).

Tanto los retardadores como los polarizadores, ya sean éstos parciales ó totales, pueden ser lineales, circulares ó elípticos, según el tipo de autoestados de polarización que dejen invariantes.

Como veremos más adelante, todo retardador elíptico equivale a un sistema compuesto por un retardador lineal y un rotor (retardador circular). Este hecho servirá para expresar todos los fenómenos de retardo en función de retardadores lineales y rotores.

Por otra parte, veremos que un polarizador parcial (total) que sea circular ó elíptico, es ópticamente equivalente a una cierta combinación de dos retardadores lineales y un polarizador parcial (total) lineal.

Las anteriores consideraciones permiten afirmar que todo sistema óptico compuesto por medios de tipo N, es ópticamente equivalente a una cierta combinación de retardadores lineales, rotores y polarizadores parciales lineales.

Denotaremos por $L(\theta, \delta)$ a un retardador lineal de retardo de fase δ y ángulo θ de su eje rápido respecto a un eje de referencia X prefijado. Por $R(\gamma)$ entenderemos un retardador circular que introduce un retardo 2γ entre sus dos autoestados de polarización circular. Finalmente, un polarizador parcial lineal con coeficientes principales de transmisión en amplitud p_1 , p_2 y ángulo α de su eje de

polarización con el eje X de referencia, se denotará por $P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$. Si el polarizador es total, es decir, $p_2 = 0$, lo denotaremos por $P(\alpha)$.

Las matrices asociadas a retardadores lineales, rotores, polarizadores parciales lineales y polarizadores totales lineales las denotaremos como $B_L(\theta, \delta)$, $B_R(\gamma)$, $B_P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$ y $B_P(\alpha)$ respectivamente, donde B puede ser una matriz de Mueller M , una matriz de Jones J , ó bien una matriz V según el formalismo que se esté considerando.

II.6.1. POLARIZADORES PARCIALES

En el formalismo JCF un polarizador parcial se caracteriza por una matriz hermítica con autovalores reales no negativos.¹ Dichos autovalores son precisamente los coeficientes principales de transmisión en amplitud p_1 , p_2 , del polarizador. Un polarizador parcial se denomina lineal, circular ó elíptico según los autovectores de su matriz de Jones asociada H correspondan a polarizaciones lineales, circulares ó elípticas.³ Excluimos de la siguiente discusión el caso de polarizadores totales (siguiente sección), y consideramos que $p_1, p_2 \neq 0$. También supondremos, por concretar, que $p_1 > p_2$.

Los coeficientes p_1, p_2 pueden tomar valores tales que

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq p_1 \leq 1, \\ 0 < p_2 < 1. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.83})$$

Si tenemos en cuenta (II.83) y que $\det H = p_1 p_2$, vemos que

$$0 < \det H < 1. \quad (\text{II.84})$$

Esto significa que la matriz H tiene inversa H^{-1} . Sin embargo H^{-1} no es una matriz de Jones, pues

$$\det H^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det H} > 1. \quad (\text{II.85})$$

La interpretación de este hecho es clara, ya que al pasar la luz por un polarizador, se produce una pérdida de intensidad a la salida, la cual no puede ser compensada por ningún medio óptico pasivo como los que estamos considerando. No obstante, existe un medio óptico cuya matriz de Jones es

$$H' = \lambda H^{-1}, \quad (\text{II.86})$$

donde λ es un número real tal que $\lambda < \det H$, y por tanto

$$HH' = \lambda I \quad (\text{II.87})$$

El polarizador parcial de matriz de Jones H' puede considerarse inverso del de matriz de Jones H , en el sentido de que un haz de luz que los atraviese sucesivamente, presenta a la salida el mismo estado de polarización que a la entrada, si bien se produce una pérdida en la intensidad del haz de luz

En el formalismo SMF todo polarizador parcial viene representado por una matriz de Mueller K que es simétrica con cuatro autovalores $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, (\kappa_1, \kappa_2)^{1/2}$ (doble). El autovalor $(\kappa_1, \kappa_2)^{1/2}$ corresponde a autovectores de Stokes S, S' , con $S_0 = S'_0 = 0$, y que por lo tanto no tienen sentido físico²⁹. Los otros dos autovalores κ_1, κ_2 , corresponden a los coeficientes principales de transmisión en intensidad, es decir, $\kappa_1 = p_1^2, \kappa_2 = p_2^2$.

La matriz K es tal que $\det K = \kappa_1^2 \kappa_2^2$, y análogamente a lo que ocurre con la matriz H , se cumple lo siguiente

te

$$0 < \det K < 1 . \quad (\text{II.88})$$

Es de interés señalar que si H y K corresponden a un mismo polarizador parcial

$$\det K = (\det H)^4 . \quad (\text{II.89})$$

De (II.88) se deduce que existe una matriz K^{-1} , la cual no representa ningún medio óptico pasivo. Sin embargo, la matriz $K' = \mu K^{-1}$, con $\mu < \det K$, sí que representa a un medio óptico pasivo que produce un efecto óptico inverso en cuanto a polarización, al producido por el polarizador al que corresponde la matriz K .

En ocasiones, en orden al tratamiento formal y sistemático de las matrices asociadas a polarizadores parciales, es interesante normalizar éstas dividiéndolas por su determinante, de forma que tengan determinante unidad. Las matrices, una vez normalizadas se denotan como

$$H_N = \frac{1}{\det H} H , \quad (\text{II.90.a})$$

$$K_N = \frac{1}{\det K} K . \quad (\text{II.90.b})$$

En el formalismo JCF, un polarizador lineal queda representado por una matriz de Jones H_p , que referida a sus ejes es diagonal, de la forma

$$H_p = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & 0 \\ 0 & p_2 \end{pmatrix} , \quad (\text{II.91})$$

y en el formalismo SMF, por la matriz de Mueller K_p , que referida también a sus ejes es^{10,26}

$$K_P = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} P_1^2 + P_2^2 & P_1^2 - P_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ P_1^2 - P_2^2 & P_1^2 + P_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2P_1P_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2P_1P_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.92})$$

La matriz K_P puede ponerse en forma diagonal K_D por medio de la matriz C (llamada matriz modal) del modo siguiente ¹⁰

$$K_D = C K_P C^{-1} \quad (\text{II.93})$$

ó bien,

$$K_P = C^{-1} K_D C \quad (\text{II.94})$$

donde

$$K_D = \begin{pmatrix} P_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P_1P_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & P_1P_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.95})$$

y

$$C = C^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{II.96})$$

Según la expresión (II.96), la matriz C es ortogonal, ya que $CC^T = CC = CC^{-1} = I$, y además, vemos que $\det C = -1$.

La transformación (II.93) conserva la traza, y por tanto

$$\text{tr } K_D = \text{tr } K_P = (P_1 + P_2)^2. \quad (\text{II.97})$$

II.6.2. POLARIZADORES TOTALES

Las matrices H_T y K_T , asociadas a un polarizador total (lineal, circular o elíptico) en los formalismos JCF y SMF respectivamente, se caracterizan por tener nulo uno de sus autovalores, y por lo tanto, son matrices singulares. Debido a este hecho, H_T y K_T no son normalizables en el sentido dado en (II.90).

Una propiedad interesante de H_T y K_T es que son idempotentes ($H_T^2 = H_T$, $K_T^2 = K_T$). Estas matrices realizan el papel de proyectores en los espacios de Jones y de Stokes respectivamente.

Un polarizador total lineal queda representado por una matriz de Jones H_{TP} , que referida a sus ejes, tiene la forma¹

$$H_{TP} = \begin{pmatrix} P_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.98})$$

y por la siguiente matriz de Mueller K_{TP} (también referida a sus ejes)

$$K_{TP} = \frac{P_1^2}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.99})$$

que puede escribirse como¹⁰

$$K_{TP} = C K_{TD} C^{-1} \quad (\text{II.100.a})$$

con

$$K_{TD} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{II.100.b})$$

II.6.3. RETARDADORES IDEALES

La matriz de Mueller \mathcal{R} asociada a un retardador ideal (lineal, circular ó elíptico), tiene la propiedad de que deja invariante el parámetro S_0 (intensidad), y produce un giro del vector de Stokes en la esfera de Poincaré. Ello permite escribir \mathcal{R} en la forma³

$$\mathcal{R} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \left(\begin{matrix} \Omega_{ij} \end{matrix} \right) \\ 0 & & & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.101})$$

donde la submatriz $\Omega \equiv (\Omega_{ij})$ es una matriz 3x3 asociada a una rotación genérica en el subespacio que contiene las coordenadas S_1, S_2, S_3 .

El conjunto de matrices Ω ortogonales 3x3 con $\det \Omega = +1$, forma un grupo dependiente de tres parámetros denominado O_3^+ (grupo de reotaciones en el espacio ordinario). Los tres parámetros independientes que hay en Ω pueden ser, por ejemplo, los tres ángulos de Euler³⁴. Sin embargo resultan más útiles como parámetros el azimuth y la elipticidad ψ de los dos autoestados de polarización ortogonales que son invariantes bajo el retardador, junto con el retardo δ introducido entre ellos.³⁵

Un retardador ideal queda representado en el formalismo JCF por una matriz unitaria U tal que $\det U = +1$. Dicha matriz corresponde a una rotación de determinado ángulo ϕ del vector de Stokes en la esfera de Poincaré, en torno a un cierto eje cuya dirección está dada por un vector unitario \hat{u} . Ello permite escribir³⁶

$$U = \exp[(-i\phi/2)\hat{u}\sigma]. \quad (\text{II.102})$$

El conjunto de las matrices U complejas 2×2 unitarias con $\det U = +1$, forma un grupo denominado $SU(2C)$ (grupo especial unitario de matrices complejas 2×2).³¹ Existe una correspondencia biunívoca entre el conjunto formado por pares de matrices $(U, -U)$ pertenecientes al grupo $SU(2C)$, y el de matrices R tales que Ω pertenece al grupo O_3^+ .

II.6.4. RETARDADORES NO IDEALES.

Es conocido el hecho de que por efecto de las reflexiones internas múltiples, todo retardador lineal presenta en realidad diferente transmitancia para luz polarizada lineal según sus dos líneas neutras.³⁷ El efecto es equivalente al producido por un retardador lineal ideal junto con un polarizador parcial lineal alineado con él. La matriz de Mueller M_L asociada a un retardador lineal no ideal, referida a sus propios ejes, puede escribirse como

$$M_L = M_L(0, \delta) M_P(0, P_1, P_2) = M_P(0, P_1, P_2) M_L(0, \delta), \quad (\text{II.103})$$

donde δ es el retardo de fase efectivo característico del retardador, y P_1, P_2 son los coeficientes principales de transmisión en amplitud según las líneas neutras del retardador.

La matriz M_L obtenida a partir de (II.103) es

$$M_L(0, \delta, K_a, K'_a) = \frac{1}{2K_a} \begin{pmatrix} 1+K & 1-K & 0 & 0 \\ 1-K & 1+K & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2\sqrt{K} \cos \delta & 2\sqrt{K} \sin \delta \\ 0 & 0 & -2\sqrt{K} \sin \delta & 2\sqrt{K} \cos \delta \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{II.104.a})$$

donde

$$K_a \equiv P_1^2, \quad K'_a \equiv P_2^2, \quad K \equiv \frac{K'_a}{K_a}. \quad (\text{II.104.b})$$

Si el eje rápido del retardador presenta un ángulo β con el eje X referencia, la matriz asociada al retardador viene dada por

$$M_L(\beta, \delta, \kappa_a, \kappa'_a) = M_R(-\beta) M_L(0, \delta, \kappa_a, \kappa'_a) M_R(\beta) =$$

$$\frac{1}{2\kappa_a} \begin{pmatrix} 1+\kappa & (1-\kappa)\cos 2\beta & (1-\kappa)\sin 2\beta & 0 \\ (1+\kappa)\cos 2\beta & (1+\kappa)\cos^2 2\beta + 2\sqrt{\kappa}\cos\delta\sin^2 2\beta & (1+\kappa-2\sqrt{\kappa}\cos\delta)\frac{1}{2}\sin 4\beta & -2\sqrt{\kappa}\sin\delta\sin 2\beta \\ (1-\kappa)\sin 2\beta & (1+\kappa-2\sqrt{\kappa}\cos\delta)\frac{1}{2}\sin 4\beta & (1+\kappa)\sin^2 2\beta + 2\sqrt{\kappa}\cos\delta\cos^2 2\beta & 2\sqrt{\kappa}\sin\delta\cos 2\beta \\ 0 & 2\sqrt{\kappa}\sin\delta\sin 2\beta & -2\sqrt{\kappa}\sin\delta\cos 2\beta & 2\sqrt{\kappa}\cos\delta \end{pmatrix}$$

(II.105)

En ocasiones se utilizará también la notación

$$M_L(\beta, \delta, \kappa) \equiv 2\kappa_a M_L(\beta, \delta, \kappa_a, \kappa'_a).$$

(II.106)

II-6.5. GRUPO $SL(2C)$ Y GRUPO DE LORENTZ.

El conjunto de matrices A complejas 2×2 con $\det A = 1$ forma un grupo denominado $SL(2C)$ (grupo unimodular de matrices complejas 2×2). Toda matriz de Jones no singular puede normalizarse del modo indicado en (II.90.a), y por lo tanto, una vez normalizada, pertenece al grupo $SL(2C)$.

El conjunto de matrices L reales 4×4 que dejan invariante la forma cuadrática F , forma un grupo denominado grupo de Lorentz. Si además se cumple que $\det L = 1$ y $L_{00} \geq 1$, entonces se denomina subgrupo de Lorentz propio octócrono, ó bien, subgrupo de Lorentz restringido L_+ . Toda matriz de Mueller M de tipo N no singular puede normalizarse de forma que $\det M_N = 1$ y $(M_N)_{00} \geq 1$. El conjunto de matrices de

Mueller así normalizadas es isomorfo al grupo L_+ , y éste a su vez es homomorfo 2:1 con el grupo $SL(2C)$ de la forma $\pm A \leftrightarrow L$, con $L \in L_+$ ³¹.

Dentro del grupo L_+ pueden distinguirse dos tipos de transformaciones³¹: Las denominadas de Lorentz puras, y las rotaciones espaciales. Las primeras están caracterizadas por matrices de Mueller K simétricas que corresponden a polarizadores parciales, y las segundas, por matrices R ortogonales que corresponden a retardadores.

Es conocido que un elemento genérico M_N del grupo L_+ , puede expresarse de modo único en la forma siguiente³¹

$$M_N = RK = K_1 R_1 . \quad (\text{II.107})$$

Análogamente, un elemento genérico A del grupo $SL(2C)$ puede expresarse de modo único en la forma

$$A = UH = H_1 U_1 . \quad (\text{II.108})$$

Existen sistemas ópticos de tipo N tales que sus matrices de Jones J y de Mueller M asociadas no pueden normalizarse a determinante unidad porque son singulares. Dichos sistemas están compuestos por un conjunto de medios ópticos, entre los cuales hay al menos un polarizador total.

Esta afirmación se basa en que, como veremos en el siguiente apartado, todo sistema óptico de tipo N equivale a una cierta combinación de retardadores y polarizadores, de forma que si sus matrices J y M asociadas en los formalismos JCF y SMF respectivamente tienen determinante nulo, es porque uno de los componentes es un polarizador total.

Los sistemas ópticos que despolarizan, en mayor ó menor grado, la luz que los atraviesa, no tienen matriz de Jones asociada, y su matriz de

Mueller M asociada no puede normalizarse de forma que M_N pertenezca al grupo L_+ . Vemos pues, que únicamente quedan fuera del grupo L_+ las matrices de Mueller asociadas a sistemas que no son de tipo N, y las asociadas a sistemas que contienen algún polarizador total. Análogamente, las únicas matrices de Jones que no pertenecen al grupo $SL(2C)$ son aquéllas que corresponden a sistemas que contienen algún polarizador total.

II.7. DESCOMPOSICION POLAR

Las expresiones (II.107) y (II.108) muestran un caso particular del teorema de descomposición polar de un operador lineal,³⁸ en virtud del cual, toda matriz de Mueller M puede escribirse de la forma

$$M = RK = K_1 R_1, \quad (\text{II.109.a})$$

y toda matriz de Jones J puede escribirse de la forma

$$J = UH = H_1 U_1. \quad (\text{II.109.b})$$

Las matrices K, K_1, H, H_1 , son siempre únicas, y las matrices R, R_1, U, U_1 , son únicas salvo en el caso de que M y J sean singulares.

II.8. TEOREMAS.

En los trabajos, ya clásicos, de R.C. Jones¹ se demuestran una serie de teoremas de equivalencia, establecidos para medios de tipo N y para una longitud de onda dada. En dichos trabajos, los teoremas se demuestran utilizando el cálculo

matricial introducido por el propio Jones. Posteriormente

C. Whitney¹⁸ generaliza algunos de estos teoremas, basando sus consideraciones en el álgebra de Pauli y en el teorema de descomposición polar de una matriz correspondiente a un operador lineal. A continuación enunciamos y discutimos los teoremas más importantes, algunos de los cuales han sido establecidos por nosotros,³⁹ y otros lo son por primera vez en este trabajo. Todos los teoremas siguientes, salvo T11 y T12, están enunciados para medios ópticos de tipo N y para una longitud de onda dada.

T1.- Un sistema óptico que contiene un número cualquiera de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos) es ópticamente equivalente a un retardador elíptico.

T2.- Todo retardador elíptico es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema compuesto por un retardador lineal y un rotor.

T3.- Todo retardador elíptico es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema compuesto por dos retardadores lineales. (no de modo único).

T4.- Un sistema óptico compuesto por un número cualquiera de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos), es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema que contiene un retardador lineal y un rotor.¹

T5.- Un sistema óptico compuesto por un número cualquiera de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos), es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema que contiene dos retardadores lineales (no de modo único).¹⁸

Los anteriores teoremas pueden demostrarse a partir del teorema de Rodrigues-Hamilton.¹⁸

T6.- Un polarizador elíptico parcial (total) es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema formado por un polarizador par-

cial (total) lineal situado entre dos retardadores lineales iguales cuyos ejes son perpendiculares.¹⁸

T7.- Un sistema óptico compuesto por un número cualquiera de polarizadores parciales lineales y rotores, es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema formado por un polarizador parcial lineal y rotor.¹

T8: Teorema de Descomposición Polar (TDP).-

Un sistema óptico compuesto por un número cualquiera de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos) y polarizadores parciales (lineales, circulares ó elípticos) es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema formado por un retardador elíptico y un polarizador parcial elíptico.¹⁸

En éste último teorema se distinguen dos casos atendiendo a la naturaleza del sistema óptico de tipo N considerado. Un caso es aquél en que el sistema contiene algún polarizador total, entonces la matriz de Jones que lo representa es singular, y puede escribirse como producto de una matriz singular hermítica (polarizador total elíptico) por una matriz unitaria (retardador) no siendo ésta única. En el caso contrario, el sistema equivalente es único y está compuesto por un polarizador parcial elíptico y un retardador.

T9: Teorema General de Equivalencia (TGE).-

Un sistema óptico compuesto por un número cualquiera de retardadores (lineales, circulares ó elípticos) y polarizadores parciales (lineales, circulares ó elípticos), es ópticamente equivalente a un sistema formado por cuatro elementos: un polarizador parcial entre dos retardadores lineales, y un rotor en una cualquiera de las cuatro posiciones posibles.¹

Los dos teoremas anteriores están enunciados para un sistema de tipo N cualquiera. Aunque el teorema TDP es más sintetizado que el TGE, éste último presenta un gran interés, puesto

que da un sistema equivalente formado por medios ópticos sencillos, como son los retardadores lineales y circulares, y los polarizadores lineales.

T10: Teorema de Reciprocidad en los Formalismos JCF y CMF.-

La matriz de Jones asociada a un sistema óptico que es atravesado por un haz de luz en un cierto sentido, debe transponerse en orden a obtener la matriz de Jones del mismo sistema óptico cuando éste es atravesado por el haz de luz en sentido opuesto.^{1,3}

T11: Teorema de Reciprocidad en el Formalismo CVF.-

La matriz V asociada en el formalismo CVF a un sistema óptico que es atravesado por un haz de luz en un cierto sentido, debe transponerse en orden a obtener la matriz asociada al mismo sistema óptico, en el mismo formalismo, cuando éste es atravesado por el haz de luz en sentido opuesto.

T12: Teorema de Reciprocidad en el formalismo SMF.-

Si un sistema óptico tiene asociada una matriz de Mueller M cuando la luz lo atraviesa en un cierto sentido, la matriz de Mueller asociada al mismo sistema óptico cuando la luz lo atraviesa en sentido opuesto, viene dada por M' según las expresiones (II.76) y (II.77).

Cuando se trata de medios ópticos de tipo N, la demostración de los dos teoremas anteriores es inmediata, ya que según el teorema T10, sabemos que a una matriz de Jones J le corresponde J^T cuando la luz pasa en sentido opuesto. En el apartado II.6.3 vimos que si a J le corresponden las matrices M y V en los formalismos SMF y CVF respectivamente, a J^T le corresponde M' y V^T . En el caso de que el sistema sea de tipo G, sus matrices M y V asociadas pueden considerarse como sumas de matrices de tipo N, de la forma

$$M = \sum_i M_i \quad , \quad V = \sum_i V_i \quad ; \quad (II.110)$$

con M_i y V_i de tipo N para todo i .

Si la luz atraviesa el sistema en sentido opuesto, las matrices M_1 y V_1 correspondientes serán

$$M_1 = \sum_i M_i' = M', \quad V_1 = \sum_i V_i^T = V^T; \quad (\text{II.111})$$

con lo cual quedan demostrados los teoremas T11 y T12 para el caso general de medios ópticos de tipo G.

T13: Teorema del Rotor Transcendente (TRT).-

Un sistema óptico compuesto por dos retardadores lineales de media onda, es ópticamente equivalente a un rotor de giro igual al doble del ángulo formado por los ejes rápidos de aquéllos.^{39,17}

T14: Teorema del Compensador de Retardo Lineal (TCRL).-

Un sistema óptico compuesto por tres retardadores lineales, de forma que los de los extremos son iguales y tienen sus ejes rápidos alineados, es ópticamente equivalente a un retardador lineal.³⁹

III. PROPIEDADES DE LAS MATRICES QUE REPRESENTAN A MEDIOS OPTICOS

En este capítulo presentamos las expresiones analíticas de los elementos de una matriz de Mueller de tipo N genérica, en función de los parámetros asociados a sistemas ópticos equivalentes dados por los teoremas TGE y TDP. Posteriormente analizamos con detalle las restricciones existentes en las matrices asociadas a medios ópticos en los formalismos SMF y CVF. Dichas restricciones se presentan en forma de sistemas de igualdades y desigualdades, y, a partir de ellas, se establece finalmente una condición necesaria y suficiente para que un medio óptico sea de tipo N (condición de la norma), interpretándose este resultado en los formalismos SMF, CVF y JCF. El estudio realizado resulta de utilidad para la extracción de toda la información existente en las matrices asociadas a medios ópticos sometidos a medida, permitiendo ajustes teoría-experiencia en función de unos pocos parámetros, y también la calificación de dichos medios de una forma sencilla y sistemática.

En la presentación de éste capítulo hemos preferido hacer un tratamiento riguroso y compacto, unificando notaciones y aglutinando resultados de otros autores, que ordenadamente incluimos junto a nuestras aportaciones originales. Es por ello que en todos los casos en que usamos aportaciones de otros autores, los referimos explícitamente, siendo todo lo restante aportación propia.

III.1. GRADO DE POLARIZACION EN LOS DIFERENTES FORMALISMOS.

El grado de polarización G de un haz de luz se define

como el cociente entre la intensidad de la parte de luz totalmente polarizada (cualquiera que sea el estado de polarización), y la intensidad total.

Todo haz de luz de vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} puede descomponerse de la forma (II.23), y por lo tanto

$$G = \frac{I_P}{I_T} = \frac{I_P}{I_P + I_N} = \frac{(S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2)^{1/2}}{S_0} \quad (\text{III.1})$$

La expresión de G en función de los elementos de la matriz de coherencia \mathcal{g} es la siguiente

$$G = \frac{(g_1^2 + g_2^2 - 2g_1g_2 + 4g_3g_4)^{1/2}}{(g_1 + g_2)} \quad (\text{III.2})$$

ó bien,⁴⁰

$$G = \frac{[(\text{tr} \mathcal{g})^2 - 4 \det \mathcal{g}]^{1/2}}{\text{tr} \mathcal{g}} \quad (\text{III.3})$$

Otra magnitud de interés es la forma cuadrática F , cuya relación con G se vió en (II.27), y cuya expresión en función de la matriz de coherencia \mathcal{g} es

$$F = 4 \det \mathcal{g} \quad (\text{III.4})$$

Un haz de luz totalmente polarizada se caracteriza por los valores $G=1$ y $F=0$, es decir,

$$S_0^2 = S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2, \quad (\text{III.5})$$

$$\det \mathcal{g} = 0. \quad (\text{III.6})$$

Las magnitudes G y F no son relevantes en el formalismo JCF, ya que en éste sólo son representables estados de luz totalmente polarizada.

III.2. CONSTRUCCION DE UNA MATRIZ DE MUELLER GENERICAMENTE

III.2.1. TEOREMA GENERAL DE EQUIVALENCIA

Consideremos un sistema formado por una sucesión de medios ópticos de tipo N. Según el teorema TGE, existe un sistema equivalente que, por concretar, podemos suponer en el siguiente orden: rotor $R(\omega)$, retardador lineal $L(\theta_1, \delta_1)$, polarizador parcial $P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$, y retardador lineal $L(\theta_2, \delta_2)$.

La matriz de Mueller M asociada al sistema equivalente se obtiene como producto ordenado de las matrices asociadas a los distintos medios del modo siguiente

$$M = M_L(\theta_2, \delta_2) M_P(\alpha, p_1, p_2) M_L(\theta_1, \delta_1) M_R(\omega). \quad (\text{III.7})$$

Para toda matriz de Mueller $M(\varphi)$ asociada a un medio genérico cuyo eje principal presenta un ángulo φ respecto al eje X de referencia, se cumplen las propiedades

$$M(\theta + \varphi) = M_R(-\theta) M(\varphi) M_R(\theta), \quad (\text{III.8})$$

$$M_R(\alpha + \beta) = M_R(\alpha) M_R(\beta). \quad (\text{III.9})$$

Aplicando estas propiedades en (III.7), ésta se puede escribir como

$$M = M_R(\tau_4) M_L(0, \delta_2) M_R(\tau_3) M_P(0, p_1, p_2) M_R(\tau_2) M_L(0, \delta_1) M_R(\tau_1), \quad (\text{III.10.a})$$

donde

$$\tau_1 = \theta_1 + \omega, \quad \tau_2 = \alpha - \theta_1, \quad \tau_3 = \theta_2 - \alpha, \quad \tau_4 = -\theta_2. \quad (\text{III.10.b})$$

Para los senos y cosenos usaremos la notación abreviada

$$\begin{aligned} s &\equiv \text{sen } \delta_1, \quad c \equiv \text{cos } \delta_1, \quad s' \equiv \text{sen } \delta_2, \quad c' \equiv \text{cos } \delta_2, \\ c_i &\equiv \text{cos } 2\tau_i, \quad s_i \equiv \text{sen } 2\tau_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.11})$$

Los tipos de matrices que aparecen en (III.10.a) tienen la forma genérica siguiente³

$$M_R(\gamma) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos 2\gamma & \operatorname{sen} 2\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -\operatorname{sen} 2\gamma & \cos 2\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{III.12})$$

$$M_L(\theta, \delta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \delta & -\operatorname{sen} \delta \\ 0 & 0 & \operatorname{sen} \delta & \cos \delta \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{III.13})$$

$$M_P(\theta, P_1, P_2) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} P_1^2 + P_2^2 & P_1^2 - P_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ P_1^2 - P_2^2 & P_1^2 + P_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2P_1P_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2P_1P_2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{III.14})$$

Una vez realizado el producto indicado en (III.10.a) obtenemos las expresiones de los elementos m_{ij} de la matriz de Mueller genérica M , en función de los parámetros característicos del sistema equivalente. Dichas expresiones son

$$m_{00} = q_1,$$

$$m_{01} = q_2 (C_1 C_2 - S_1 S_2 C),$$

$$m_{02} = q_2 (S_1 C_2 + C_1 S_2 C),$$

$$m_{03} = q_2 S_2 S' ,$$

$$m_{10} = q_2 (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') ,$$

$$m_{11} = q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c) (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') , \\ - q_3 (c_1 s_2 + s_1 s_2 c) (c_4 s_3 + c_3 s_4 c') + q_3 s_1 s_4 s s' ,$$

$$m_{12} = q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c) (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') \\ + q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c) (c_4 s_3 + c_3 s_4 c') - q_3 c_1 s_4 s s' ,$$

$$m_{13} = q_1 s_2 s (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') + q_3 c_2 s (c_4 s_3 + c_3 s_4 c') + q_3 s_4 c s' ,$$

$$m_{20} = -q_2 (s_4 c_3 + s_3 c_4 c') ,$$

$$m_{21} = -q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c) (c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') \\ - q_3 (c_1 s_2 + s_1 c_2 c) (-s_3 s_4 + c_3 c_4 c') + q_3 s_1 s c_4 s' ,$$

$$m_{22} = -q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c) (c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') \\ + q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c) (-s_3 s_4 + c_3 c_4 c') - q_3 c_1 s c_4 s' ,$$

$$m_{23} = -q_1 s_2 s (c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') + q_3 c_2 s (-s_4 s_3 + c_3 c_4 c') + q_3 c_4 c s' ,$$

$$m_{30} = q_2 s_3 s' ,$$

$$m_{31} = q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c) s_3 s' + q_3 (c_1 s_2 + s_1 c_2 c) c_3 s' + q_3 s_1 s c' ,$$

$$m_{32} = q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c) s_3 s' - q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c) c_3 s' - q_3 c_1 s c' ,$$

$$m_{33} = q_1 s_2 s_3 s s' - q_3 c_2 c_3 s s' + q_3 c c' , \quad (\text{III.15.a})$$

donde

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{2} (p_1^2 + p_2^2), \quad q_2 = \frac{1}{2} (p_1^2 - p_2^2), \quad q_3 = p_1 p_2. \quad (\text{III.15.b})$$

III.2.2. TEOREMA DE DESCOMPOSICION POLAR

En el teorema TDP se comprueba el hecho de que las propiedades de polarización que posee un medio óptico de tipo N, vienen caracterizadas, en general, por siete parámetros independientes, de los que cuatro corresponden al polarizador parcial equivalente y tres al retardador equivalente.

Dado un polarizador parcial elíptico, éste tiene asociada una matriz de Jones J_{PE} de la forma

$$J_{PE} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1' c^2 + p_2' s^2 & (p_1' - p_2') c s e^{-i\delta} \\ (p_1' - p_2') c s e^{i\delta} & p_1' s^2 + p_2' c^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.16.a})$$

con $c \equiv \cos \nu$, $s \equiv \sin \nu$; (III.16.b)

donde p_1' , p_2' son los coeficientes principales de transmisión en amplitud para los dos autoestados de polarización ortogonales invariantes, que vienen definidos por azimuths χ y $\chi + \frac{\pi}{2}$, y elipticidades w y $-w$ respectivamente, tales que

$$\text{tang } 2\chi = \text{tang } 2\nu \cos \delta, \quad (\text{III.17.a})$$

$$\text{sen } 2w = \text{sen } 2\nu \text{ sen } \delta. \quad (\text{III.17.b})$$

La matriz J_{PE} puede obtenerse de acuerdo con el teorema T6, el cual se puede aplicar eligiendo la orientación del polarizador parcial lineal equivalente de forma que los ejes de los dos retardadores equivalentes estén alineados con los ejes X e Y de un sistema de referencia cartesiana prefijado. Este hecho nos permite escribir

$$J_{PE} = J_L \left(0, -\frac{\delta}{2}\right) J_R(-\nu) J_P(0, p_1', p_2') J_R(\nu) J_L \left(0, \frac{\delta}{2}\right).$$

(III.18)

Análogamente, la matriz de Mueller M_{PE} asociada al mismo polarizador parcial elíptico se obtiene como

$$M_{PE} = M_L(0, -\frac{\delta}{2}) M_R(-\nu) M_P(0, p_1, p_2) M_R(\nu) M_L(0, \frac{\delta}{2}). \quad (\text{III.19})$$

Por otra parte, de acuerdo con el teorema T2, la matriz de Mueller M_E asociada a un retardador elíptico puede escribirse de la forma

$$M_E = M_L(\alpha, \delta') M_R(\beta). \quad (\text{III.20})$$

En virtud del teorema TDP, toda matriz de Mueller M de tipo N se puede poner del modo siguiente

$$M = M_{PE} M_E \quad (\text{III.21})$$

De acuerdo con el teorema T4, existen dos matrices $M_L(\xi, \Delta_1)$ y $M_R(\gamma)$ tales que

$$M_R(\nu) M_L(0, \frac{\delta}{2}) M_L(\alpha, \delta') M_R(\beta) = M_L(\xi, \Delta_1) M_R(\gamma). \quad (\text{III.22})$$

Las anteriores expresiones permiten escribir

$$M = M_L(0, -\Delta_2) M_R(-\nu) M_P(0, p_1, p_2) M_L(\xi, \Delta_1) M_R(\gamma), \quad (\text{III.23.a})$$

donde hemos llamado

$$\Delta_2 \equiv -\frac{\delta}{2}, \quad (\text{III.23.b})$$

ó bien,

$$M = M_L(0, \Delta_2) M_R(-\nu) M_P(0, p_1, p_2) M_R(-\xi) M_L(0, \Delta_1) M_R(\xi + \gamma). \quad (\text{III.24})$$

Comparando las expresiones (III.10) y (III.24) vemos que ésta es un caso particular de aquélla, pues corresponde a

$$\tau_1 = \xi + \gamma, \quad \tau_2 = -\xi, \quad \tau_3 = -\nu, \quad \tau_4 = 0, \quad \Delta_1 = \delta_1, \quad \Delta_2 = \delta_2, \quad p_1' = p_1, \quad p_2' = p_2. \quad (\text{III.25})$$

El hecho de poder elegir $\tau_4 = 0$ se debe a que el sistema equivalente dado por la expresión (III.10) depende de ocho parámetros ($\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4, \delta_1, \delta_2, \rho_1, \rho_2$), de los que sólo siete son independientes, lo que da libertad en la elección de τ_4 .

Escribiendo explícitamente la expresión (III.24) para los elementos m_{ij} de la matriz genérica M obtenemos

$$m_{00} = q'_1 \quad ,$$

$$m_{01} = q'_2 (c'_1 c'_2 - s'_1 s'_2 c'') \quad ,$$

$$m_{02} = q'_2 (s'_1 c'_2 + c'_1 s'_2 c'') \quad ,$$

$$m_{03} = q'_2 s'_2 s'' \quad ,$$

$$m_{10} = q'_2 c'_3 \quad ,$$

$$m_{11} = q'_1 (c'_1 c'_2 - s'_1 s'_2 c'') - q'_3 (c'_1 s'_2 + s'_1 c'_2 c'') s'_3 \quad ,$$

$$m_{12} = q'_1 (s'_1 c'_2 + c'_1 s'_2 c'') - q'_3 (s'_1 s'_2 - c'_1 c'_2 c'') s'_3 \quad ,$$

$$m_{13} = q'_1 s'_2 c'_3 s'' + q'_3 c'_2 s'_3 s'' \quad ,$$

$$m_{20} = -q'_2 s'_3 c''',$$

$$m_{21} = -q'_1 (c'_1 c'_2 - s'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 c''' - q'_3 (c'_1 s'_2 + s'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 c''' \\ + q'_3 s'_1 s'' s''',$$

$$m_{22} = -q'_1 (s'_1 c'_2 + c'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 c''' - q'_3 (s'_1 s'_2 - c'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 c''' \\ - q'_3 c'_1 s'' s''',$$

$$m_{23} = -q'_1 s'_2 s'_3 s'' c''' + q'_3 c_2 c_3 s'' c''' + q'_3 c'' s''',$$

$$m_{30} = q'_2 s'_3 s''',$$

$$m_{31} = q'_1 (c'_1 c'_2 - s'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 s''' + q'_3 (c'_1 s'_2 + s'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 s''' \\ + q'_3 s'_1 s' c''',$$

$$m_{32} = q'_1 (s'_1 c'_2 + c'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 s''' + q'_3 (s'_1 s'_2 - c'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 s''' \\ - q'_3 c'_1 s'' c''',$$

$$m_{33} = q'_1 s'_2 s'_3 s'' s''' - q'_3 c'_2 c'_3 s'' s''' + q'_3 c'' c''', \quad (\text{III.26.a})$$

donde

$$c'_1 = \cos 2(\xi + \gamma), \quad c'_2 = \cos(-2\xi), \quad c'_3 = \cos(-2\nu)$$

$$s'_1 = \sin 2(\xi + \gamma), \quad s'_2 = \sin(-2\xi), \quad s'_3 = \sin(-2\nu)$$

$$c'' = \cos \Delta_1, \quad c''' = \cos \Delta_2 = \cos(-\delta/2),$$

$$s'' = \sin \Delta_1, \quad s''' = \sin \Delta_2 = \sin(-\delta/2). \quad (\text{III.26.b})$$

La ventaja que presenta el aplicar el teorema TDP con respecto al teorema TGE, consiste en que a partir de aquél se obtienen todos los elementos de una matriz de Mueller genérica en función de un conjunto mínimo de parámetros independientes (siete), y que por otra parte, sintetiza el sistema equivalente a partir de sólo dos medios ópticos (un polarizador y un retardador), y no de cuatro como en el TGE. Sin embargo, al poner la matriz genérica obtenida a partir del teorema TDP en función de matrices sencillas, asociadas a retardadores lineales, rotores y polarizadores lineales, se pone de manifiesto un sistema equivalente compuesto por cinco elementos simples (dos retardadores lineales, dos rotores y un polarizador parcial lineal).

A partir de las expresiones (III.15) y (III.26), es fácil comprobar las siguientes relaciones

$$q'_1 = q_1 = m_{00} \quad , \quad (III.27.a)$$

$$q'^2_2 = q^2_2 = (m^2_{01} + m^2_{02} + m^2_{03}) = (m^2_{10} + m^2_{20} + m^2_{30}) \quad , \quad (III.27.b)$$

y, por lo tanto,

$$p'_1 = p_1 \quad , \quad p'_2 = p_2 \quad (III.28)$$

III.3. CLASIFICACION DE LAS MATRICES DE MUELLER DE TIPO N

Los siete parámetros que según (III.26) caracterizan al sistema equivalente son Δ_1 , Δ_2 , p_1 , p_2 , ν , ξ , γ . En orden a la obtención de dichos parámetros en función de los elementos m_{ij} se pueden distinguir tres casos:

CASO.1. : $(m^2_{01} + m^2_{02} + m^2_{03})^{1/2} = 0$.

En este caso $q_2 = 0$, y, según (III.27), los ele-

mentos de la primera fila y de la primera columna, salvo m_{00} , son nulos. La matriz corresponde a un retardador elíptico, cuya forma genérica es³⁰

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_1^2 - A_2^2 - A_3^2 + A_4^2 & 2(A_1 A_2 + A_3 A_4) & -2(A_1 A_3 + A_2 A_4) \\ 0 & 2(A_1 A_2 - A_3 A_4) & -A_1^2 + A_2^2 - A_3^2 + A_4^2 & 2(A_1 A_4 - A_2 A_3) \\ 0 & -2(A_1 A_3 - A_2 A_4) & -2(A_1 A_4 + A_2 A_3) & -A_1^2 - A_2^2 + A_3^2 + A_4^2 \end{pmatrix},$$

(III.29.a)

donde

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \cos 2\omega \cos 2\psi \operatorname{sen} \Delta/2, \\ A_2 &= \cos 2\omega \operatorname{sen} 2\psi \operatorname{sen} \Delta/2, \\ A_3 &= \operatorname{sen} 2\omega \operatorname{sen} \Delta/2, \\ A_4 &= \cos \Delta/2, \end{aligned}$$

(III.29.b)

siendo ψ el azimuth, ω la elipticidad de sus dos autoestados elípticos ortogonales, y Δ el retardo introducido entre ellos.

Los parámetros Δ , ω , ψ se obtienen como

$$\cos^2 \Delta/2 = \frac{1}{4} (\operatorname{tr} M) = \frac{1}{4} (m_{00} + m_{11} + m_{22} + m_{33}), \quad (\text{III.30.a})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} 2\omega = \frac{(m_{12} - m_{21})}{2 \operatorname{sen} \Delta}, \quad (\text{III.30.b})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} 2\psi = \frac{(m_{31} - m_{13})}{2 \cos 2\omega \operatorname{sen} \Delta}. \quad (\text{III.30.c})$$

Es de señalar que si $\omega = \pm \pi/4$, la matriz M corresponde a un rotor, y si $\omega = 0$, corresponde a un retardador lineal.

CASO. 2.: $0 < (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \leq m_{00}$ y $M^T = M$.

La matriz M corresponde a un polarizador parcial elíptico, y tiene la forma genérica

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & q_2 c_\nu & q_2 s_\nu c_\delta & -q_2 s_\nu s_\delta \\ q_2 c_\nu & q_1 c_\nu^2 + q_3 s_\nu^2 & c_\nu s_\nu c_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & -c_\nu s_\nu s_\delta (q_1 - q_3) \\ q_2 s_\nu c_\delta & c_\nu s_\nu c_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & c_\delta^2 (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2) + q_3 s_\delta^2 & -c_\delta s_\delta (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2 - q_3) \\ -q_2 s_\nu s_\delta & -s_\nu c_\nu s_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & -c_\delta s_\delta (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2 - q_3) & (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2) s_\delta^2 + q_3 c_\delta^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.31.a})$$

donde

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{2}(P_1^2 + P_2^2), \quad q_2 = \frac{1}{2}(P_1^2 - P_2^2), \quad q_3 = P_1 P_2$$

$$c_\nu = \cos 2\nu, \quad s_\nu = \sin 2\nu, \quad c_\delta = \cos(-\delta/2), \quad s_\delta = \sin(-\delta/2).$$

(III.31.b)

El significado de P_1 , P_2 , ν , δ , es el mismo que el de P_1' , P_2' , ν , δ en la expresión (III.16), y vienen dados por

$$\tan\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right) = \frac{m_{30}}{m_{20}} = \frac{m_{03}}{m_{02}} = \frac{m_{13}}{m_{12}} = \frac{m_{31}}{m_{21}}, \quad (\text{III.32.a})$$

$$\tan(2\nu) = \frac{m_{20}}{m_{10}} \cos \delta/2 = -\frac{m_{30}}{m_{10}} \sin \delta/2, \quad (\text{III.32.b})$$

$$P_1^2 = \left(m_{00} + \frac{m_{10}}{\cos 2\nu} \right) , \quad (\text{III.32.c})$$

$$P_2^2 = \left(m_{00} - \frac{m_{10}}{\cos 2\nu} \right) . \quad (\text{III.32.d})$$

CASO.3. : $0 < (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \leq m_{00}$ y $M^T \neq M$.

A partir de (III.26) vemos que

$$q_1 \neq 0 , \quad q_2 \neq 0 , \quad (\text{III.33})$$

y, además

$$q_2 < q_1 , \quad (\text{III.34})$$

de donde

$$P_1 \neq P_2 , \quad P_1 \neq 0 , \quad P_2 \neq 0 \quad (\text{III.35})$$

La matriz corresponde a un sistema que posee propiedades de retardo y de polarización parcial simultáneamente, y sus parámetros equivalentes son

$$\text{tang} \left(\frac{\delta}{2} \right) = \frac{m_{30}}{m_{20}} , \quad (\text{III.36.a})$$

$$\text{tang} (2\nu) = \frac{(m_{30}^2 + m_{10}^2)^{1/2}}{m_{10}} , \quad (\text{III.36.b})$$

$$P_1^2 = m_{00} + (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} , \quad (\text{III.36.c})$$

$$P_2^2 = m_{00} - (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} , \quad (\text{III.36.d})$$

$$\text{cotg} (2\xi) = \frac{1}{\text{sen} 2\nu} \left(\frac{q_2 m_{13}}{q_3 m_{03}} - \frac{q_1}{q_3} \cos 2\nu \right) , \quad (\text{III.36.e})$$

$$\text{sen} \Delta_1 = - \frac{m_{03}}{q_2 \text{sen} 2\xi} , \quad (\text{III.36.f})$$

$$\text{sen} 2(\xi + \gamma) = \frac{m_{20}}{m_{30} q_3 \text{sen} \Delta_1} \left[\frac{q_1 m_{01}}{q_2 \text{sen} 2\nu} + m_{11} \text{cotg} (2\nu) - \frac{m_{21}}{\cos \xi/2} \right] . \quad (\text{III.36.g})$$

Las expresiones (III.36) nos dan los parámetros correspondientes a un sistema equivalente T cuyos elementos son

$$T \equiv L(0, \delta/2) R(-\nu) P(0, p_1, p_2) L(\xi, \Delta_1) R(\gamma) . \quad (\text{III.37})$$

Los parámetros δ , ν , p_1 , p_2 , caracterizan al polarizador elíptico equivalente mencionado en el teorema TDP. Resulta de interés ahora, obtener asimismo los parámetros que caracterizan al retardador elíptico equivalente, en orden a que, dada una matriz de Mueller, sepamos obtener las características del polarizador y retardador equivalentes.

La expresión (III.22) puede ponerse de la forma

$$\begin{aligned} M_R(\nu) M_L(0, \delta/2) M_L(\alpha, \delta') M_R(\beta) &= M_L(\xi, \Delta_1) M_R(\gamma) = \\ M_R(\nu) M_R(-\nu) M_L(\xi, \Delta_1) M_R(\nu) M_R(-\nu) M_R(\gamma) M_R(-\beta) M_R(\beta) &= \\ M_R(\nu) M_L(\eta, \Delta_1) M_R(\mu) M_R(\beta) , & \quad (\text{III.38.a}) \end{aligned}$$

con

$$\eta = \nu + \xi \quad \text{y} \quad \mu = \gamma - \nu - \beta ; \quad (\text{III.38.b})$$

de donde obtenemos la igualdad

$$M_L(0, \delta/2) M_L(\alpha, \delta') = M_L(\eta, \Delta_1) M_R(\mu) , \quad (\text{III.39})$$

ó bien, en el formalismo JCF

$$J_L(0, \delta/2) J_L(\alpha, \delta') = J_L(\eta, \Delta_1) J_R(\mu) . \quad (\text{III.40})$$

En primer lugar trataremos de obtener los parámetros desconocidos α , δ' , β , que caracterizan al retardador lineal $L(\alpha, \delta')$ y al rotor $R(\beta)$, en función de los otros parámetros

ya conocidos. Una vez hecho ésto, podremos poner la matriz de Mueller M como producto de las matrices asociadas a un polarizador parcial elíptico, un retardador lineal y un rotor, de características conocidas. Posteriormente despejaremos los parámetros que caracterizan al retardador elíptico equivalente al sistema formado por el retardador lineal y el rotor.

Realizando el producto matricial indicado en cada miembro de (III.40) obtenemos

$$J = J_L(\alpha, \frac{\delta}{2}) J_L(\alpha, \delta) = \begin{pmatrix} c^2 e^{i(q+t)} + s^2 e^{i(t-q)} & sc(e^{i(q+t)} - e^{i(t-q)}) \\ sc(e^{-i(t-q)} - e^{-i(t+q)}) & s^2 e^{i(q-t)} + c^2 e^{-i(q+t)} \end{pmatrix},$$

(III.41.a)

con $c = \cos \alpha$, $s = \operatorname{sen} \alpha$, $t = \delta/4$, $q = \delta'/2$; (III.41.b)

y por otra parte,

$$J' = J_L(\eta, \Delta) J_R(\mu) = \begin{pmatrix} c_2(c_1^2 e^{ir} + s_1^2 e^{-ir}) - & s_2(c_1^2 e^{ir} + s_1^2 e^{-ir}) + \\ 2i s_1 s_2 c_1 \operatorname{sen} r & 2i s_1 c_2 c_1 \operatorname{sen} r \\ -s_2(s_1^2 e^{ir} + c_1^2 e^{-ir}) + & c_2(s_1^2 e^{ir} + c_1^2 e^{-ir}) + \\ 2i s_1 c_2 c_1 \operatorname{sen} r & 2i s_1 s_2 c_1 \operatorname{sen} r \end{pmatrix}$$

(III.42.a)

con

$$c_1 = \cos \eta, \quad s_1 = \operatorname{sen} \eta,$$

$$c_2 = \cos \mu, \quad s_2 = \operatorname{sen} \mu,$$

$$r = \Delta/2.$$

(III.42.b)

La igualdad $J = J'$ es equivalente a

$$J_1 + J_2 = J'_1 + J'_2, \quad (\text{III.43.a})$$

$$J_1 - J_2 = J'_1 - J'_2, \quad (\text{III.43.b})$$

$$J_3 + J_4 = J'_3 + J'_4, \quad (\text{III.43.c})$$

$$J_3 - J_4 = J'_3 - J'_4, \quad (\text{III.43.d})$$

de donde tras algunas operaciones sencillas, obtenemos

$$\cos \mu \cos r = \cos \varphi \cos t - \cos 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \varphi \operatorname{sen} t, \quad (\text{III.44.a})$$

$$\operatorname{sen}(\mu - 2\nu) \operatorname{sen} r = \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \varphi \cos t, \quad (\text{III.44.b})$$

$$\cos(\mu - 2\nu) \operatorname{sen} r = \cos \varphi \operatorname{sen} t + \cos 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \varphi \cos t, \quad (\text{III.44.c})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} \mu \cos r = -\operatorname{sen} 2\alpha \operatorname{sen} \varphi \operatorname{sen} t. \quad (\text{III.44.d})$$

Despejando en (III.44) los parámetros incógnita, éstos quedan como

$$\cotg \mu = \frac{\cos 2\eta - \cotg t \cotg r}{\operatorname{sen} 2\eta}, \quad (\text{III.45.a})$$

$$\beta = \gamma - \nu - \mu, \quad (\text{III.45.b})$$

$$\cos \delta'/2 = \cos \delta/4 \cos \Delta'/2 \cos \mu + \operatorname{sen} \delta/4 \operatorname{sen} \Delta'/2 \cos(\mu - 2\eta), \quad (\text{III.45.c})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} 2\alpha = -\frac{\operatorname{sen} \mu \cos \Delta/2}{\operatorname{sen} \delta'/2 \operatorname{sen} \delta/4}, \quad (\text{III.45.d})$$

$$\cos 2\alpha = \frac{\cos \delta'/2 \cos \delta/4 - \cos \Delta/2 \cos \mu}{\operatorname{sen} \delta'/2 \operatorname{sen} \delta/4}. \quad (\text{III.45.e})$$

El sistema formado por el retardador lineal $L(\alpha, \delta')$ y el rotor $R(\beta)$ equivalentes, equivale asimismo a un cierto retardador elíptico con autoestados de polarización ortogonales de azimuth χ_1 , y elipticidad ψ_1 , y que introduce un retardo Δ entre ellos.

Como se vió en (II.7), existen dos parámetros σ y τ tales que

$$\operatorname{tang} 2\chi_1 = \operatorname{tang} 2\sigma \cos \tau, \quad (\text{III.46.a})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} 2\psi_1 = \operatorname{sen} 2\sigma \operatorname{sen} \tau. \quad (\text{III.46.b})$$

Imponiendo ahora la igualdad de la matriz de Jones asociada a este retardador elíptico con la matriz $J'' \equiv J_L(\alpha, \delta') J_R(\beta)$, y operando de forma similar al caso anterior, obtenemos finalmente

$$\cos \Delta/2 = \cos \delta'/2 \cos \beta, \quad (\text{III.47.a})$$

$$\cos 2\sigma = \frac{\operatorname{sen} \delta'/2 \cos(\beta - 2\alpha)}{\operatorname{sen} \Delta/2}, \quad (\text{III.47.b})$$

$$\operatorname{sen} \tau = \frac{\cos \delta'/2 \operatorname{sen} \beta}{\operatorname{sen} 2\sigma \operatorname{sen} \Delta/2}, \quad (\text{III.47.c})$$

$$\cos \tau = \frac{\operatorname{sen} \delta'/2 \operatorname{sen}(\beta + 2\alpha)}{\operatorname{sen} 2\sigma \operatorname{sen} \Delta/2}. \quad (\text{III.47.d})$$

III.4. RELACIONES RESTRICTIVAS EN UNA MATRIZ DE MUELLER

Como ya hemos visto, las características de un sistema óptico de tipo N vienen dadas en general por siete parámetros independientes. Ello nos dice que debe existir un conjunto de nueve restricciones entre los elementos de toda matriz de Mueller de tipo N. Un medio óptico de tipo N se caracteriza por el hecho de que si sobre él incide un haz de luz totalmente polarizada, la luz del haz emergente ha de estar también totalmente polarizada. A continuación imponemos esta condición de forma matricial en el formalismo SMF. Sea M la matriz de Mueller asociada al sistema, y S , S' , los vectores de Stokes correspondientes a los haces de luz incidente y emergente respectivamente. Dichos vectores están relacionados de la forma

$$S'_i = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} S_j ; \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3 . \quad (\text{III.48})$$

Elevando esta expresión al cuadrado obtenemos

$$S_i'^2 = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 S_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{il} m_{ik} S_l S_k . \quad (\text{III.49})$$

La condición de que el vector S' corresponda a un haz de luz totalmente polarizada, es decir,

$$S_0'^2 = S_1'^2 + S_2'^2 + S_3'^2 , \quad (\text{III.50})$$

nos permite escribir

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{0j}^2 S_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{0l} m_{0k} S_l S_k = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 S_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{il} m_{ik} S_l S_k \right) . \quad (\text{III.51})$$

La relación (III.51) debe cumplirse para todo vector de Stokes \underline{S} correspondiente a un haz de luz totalmente polarizada tal que

$$S_0^2 = S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2. \quad (\text{III.52})$$

En particular, (III.51) se cumple para los vectores de Stokes siguientes

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad (\text{III.53})$$

lo que da lugar a las relaciones

$$(m_{01} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{11} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.54.a})$$

$$(m_{01} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{11} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} - m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.54.b})$$

$$(m_{02} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{12} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{20} + m_{22})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.55.a})$$

$$(m_{02} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{12} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.55.b})$$

$$(m_{03} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{13} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.56.a})$$

$$(m_{03} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{13} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} - m_{30})^2. \quad (\text{III.56.b})$$

Sumando respectivamente los pares de igualdades (III.54), (III.55) y (III.56) obtenemos

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{11}^2 + m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.57.a})$$

$$m_{02}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{12}^2 + m_{22}^2 + m_{32}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.57.b})$$

$$m_{03}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{13}^2 + m_{23}^2 + m_{33}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2; \quad (\text{III.57.c})$$

y, por lo tanto

$$m_{01} m_{00} = m_{11} m_{10} + m_{21} m_{20} + m_{31} m_{30} , \quad (\text{III.58.a})$$

$$m_{02} m_{00} = m_{12} m_{10} + m_{22} m_{20} + m_{32} m_{30} , \quad (\text{III.58.b})$$

$$m_{03} m_{00} = m_{13} m_{10} + m_{23} m_{20} + m_{33} m_{30} . \quad (\text{III.58.c})$$

De (III.57), (III.58) y (III.51) deducimos

$$m_{01} m_{02} = m_{11} m_{12} + m_{21} m_{22} + m_{31} m_{32} , \quad (\text{III.59.a})$$

$$m_{01} m_{03} = m_{11} m_{13} + m_{21} m_{23} + m_{31} m_{33} , \quad (\text{III.59.b})$$

$$m_{02} m_{03} = m_{12} m_{13} + m_{22} m_{23} + m_{32} m_{33} . \quad (\text{III.59.c})$$

El conjunto de relaciones formado por las (III.57) y las (III.58) es equivalente al formado por las (III.54). Añadiendo las (III.59) a dichos conjuntos obtenemos dos sistemas de relaciones restrictivas entre los elementos m_{ij} . Llamaremos \mathcal{R}_1 al sistema de igualdades formado por las (III.54), (III.55), (III.56), y (III.59); y \mathcal{R}_2 al formado por las (III.57), (III.58) y (III.59).

Los sistemas \mathcal{R}_1 y \mathcal{R}_2 son equivalentes, y expresan de formas diferentes las restricciones existentes en la matriz M . Más adelante veremos que existen otros sistemas de restricciones equivalentes a \mathcal{R}_1 y \mathcal{R}_2 . La utilidad de estudiar las diferentes formas en que se presentan las restricciones reside, como se verá, en que ello permite obtener con facilidad interesantes resultados que, de otro modo, quedarían enmascarados por la complicación matemática de las expresiones.

Consideremos ahora que la matriz de Mueller está asociada a un medio óptico de tipo G , que puede producir incluso despolarización. Entonces la única condición que se ha de cumplir es

$$S_0^2 \geq S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2, \quad (\text{III.60})$$

y por lo tanto, teniendo en cuenta (III.59), obtenemos

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{0j}^2 S_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{\ell, k=0 \\ \ell \neq k}}^3 m_{0\ell} m_{0k} S_\ell S_k \geq \sum_{l=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{lj}^2 S_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{\ell, k=0 \\ \ell \neq k}}^3 m_{l\ell} m_{lk} S_\ell S_k \right). \quad (\text{III.61})$$

La desigualdad (III.61) se cumple para todo vector de Stokes S , y en particular, para los vectores (III.53), que llevados a (III.61) dan lugar a las desigualdades siguientes

$$(m_{01} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{11} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.62.a})$$

$$(m_{01} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{11} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} - m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.62.b})$$

$$(m_{02} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{12} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.62.c})$$

$$(m_{02} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{12} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.62.d})$$

$$(m_{03} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{13} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} + m_{30})^2, \quad (\text{III.62.e})$$

$$(m_{03} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{13} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} - m_{30})^2. \quad (\text{III.62.f})$$

Las desigualdades correspondientes a las igualdades (III.57) son

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{11}^2 + m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.63.a})$$

$$m_{02}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{12}^2 + m_{22}^2 + m_{32}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.63.b})$$

$$m_{03}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{13}^2 + m_{23}^2 + m_{33}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2. \quad (\text{III.63.c})$$

El sistema R_2 puede obtenerse por otra vía. Para ello consideremos un haz de luz de vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} y matriz de coherencia ρ , que atraviesa un sistema óptico de tipo N cuyas matrices asociadas en los formalismos SMF y JCF son M y J respectivamente. El haz de luz emergente vendrá caracterizado por un vector de Stokes $\mathbf{S}' = M\mathbf{S}$ y una matriz de coherencia $\rho' = J\rho J^\dagger$, de donde deducimos que

$$\det \rho' = |\det J|^2 \det \rho, \quad (\text{III.64})$$

ó bien, teniendo en cuenta (III.4)

$$F' = |\det J|^2 F, \quad (\text{III.65})$$

siendo

$$F = S_0^2 - S_1^2 - S_2^2 - S_3^2, \quad F' = S_0'^2 - S_1'^2 - S_2'^2 - S_3'^2. \quad (\text{III.66})$$

La forma cuadrática F , asociada al vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} , puede escribirse como

$$F = \mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{S}, \quad (\text{III.67})$$

donde \mathbf{g} es la matriz

$$\mathbf{g} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.68})$$

y S^T es el vector fila transpuesto del vector columna S .
Teniendo en cuenta que

$$S'^T = S^T M^T, \quad (\text{III.69})$$

podemos escribir

$$F' = S'^T g S' = S^T M^T g M S. \quad (\text{III.70})$$

A partir de (III.71) y (III.65) obtenemos la relación

$$S^T M^T g M S = |\det J|^2 S^T g S, \quad (\text{III.71})$$

que ha de cumplirse para todo vector de Stokes S , y por lo tanto ⁴¹

$$M^T g M = |\det J|^2 g. \quad (\text{III.72})$$

Escribiendo (III.72) en función de los elementos m_{ij} , y eliminando $|\det J|^2$, se obtiene de nuevo el sistema R_2 .

Este último desarrollo es similar al presentado por R. Barakat ¹⁴ en un reciente artículo, el cual sin embargo, está realizado sobre la base de consideraciones acerca del grupo de Lorentz propio ortócrono L_+ . Ello obliga a no considerar matrices singulares, que corresponden a sistemas que contienen algún polarizador total. Dichas matrices no pueden normalizarse de forma que pertenezcan al grupo L_+ .

Por el teorema T12 sabemos que dada una matriz de Mueller M , la matriz M' dada por (II.76) y (II.77) es también una matriz de Mueller. Todas las expresiones que han sido establecidas para M , son también válidas para M' , resultando nuevas relaciones entre los elementos m_{ij} , que se pueden obtener de las ya vistas, sin más que transponer los subíndices de todos los elementos. Así, en el caso de que

M sea de tipo N, M' también es de tipo N, y las nuevas relaciones son

$$(m_{i0} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{i1} + m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} + m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} + m_{03})^2, \quad (\text{III.73.a})$$

$$(m_{i0} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{i1} - m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} - m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} - m_{03})^2, \quad (\text{III.73.b})$$

$$m_{i0}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{i1}^2 + m_{i2}^2 + m_{i3}^2 + m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2, \quad (\text{III.74})$$

$$m_{i0} m_{00} = m_{i1} m_{01} + m_{i2} m_{02} + m_{i3} m_{03}, \quad (\text{III.75})$$

con $i = 1, 2, 3$;

$$m_{i0} m_{j0} = m_{i1} m_{j1} + m_{i2} m_{j2} + m_{i3} m_{j3}, \quad (\text{III.76})$$

con

$$i, j = 1, 2, 3; \quad i \neq j$$

En el caso de que M es de tipo G, M' también es de tipo G, y tenemos las desigualdades

$$(m_{i0} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{i1} + m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} + m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} + m_{03})^2, \quad (\text{III.77.a})$$

$$(m_{i0} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{i1} - m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} - m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} - m_{03})^2, \quad (\text{III.77.b})$$

$$m_{i0}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{i1}^2 + m_{i2}^2 + m_{i3}^2 + m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2, \quad (\text{III.78})$$

con $i = 1, 2, 3$.

Es de señalar que el sistema de desigualdades formado por las (III.63) y las (III.78), el sistema (III.62), y el sistema (III.77) son totalmente equivalentes. Así pues, al conjunto de nueve igualdades existentes entre los elementos de una matriz de Mueller de tipo N, corresponde un conjunto de seis desigualdades entre los elementos de una matriz de Mueller de tipo G.

Las nuevas relaciones que se han obtenido a partir de M' corresponden también a la matriz M^T , lo que indica que si M es una matriz de Mueller, M^T es asimismo una matriz de Mueller del mismo tipo que M .

La igualdad (III.72) puede escribirse también sustituyendo M por M' ó por M^T , obteniéndose respectivamente

$$M^T g M' = |\det J^T|^2 g, \quad (\text{III.79})$$

$$M g M^T = |\det J^T|^2 g; \quad (\text{III.80})$$

y teniendo en cuenta que

$$|\det J| = |\det J^T| = |\det J^T|, \quad (\text{III.81})$$

obtenemos la condición

$$M^T g M = M g M^T = M^T g M' = |\det J|^2 g, \quad (\text{III.82})$$

de la que se pueden deducir todas las igualdades restrictivas encontradas hasta ahora.

A continuación vamos a obtener otro conjunto de nueve igualdades entre los elementos de una matriz de Mueller de tipo N, que son diferentes, aunque equivalentes, a las ya vistas.

Los elementos de una matriz de Jones J los podemos escribir conforme a la notación dada en (II.10) y (II.11) como

$$J \equiv \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{III.83.a})$$

pudiéndose escribir en forma módulo-argumental

$$A_k \equiv \alpha_k e^{i\beta_k}. \quad (\text{III.83.b})$$

De acuerdo con la notación usada por Fry y Kattawar¹⁵, definimos los parámetros

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varepsilon &= \beta_1 - \beta_2 \\
 \delta &= \beta_3 - \beta_1 \\
 \gamma &= \beta_2 - \beta_4 \\
 \sigma &= \beta_4 - \beta_1 \\
 \lambda &= \beta_2 - \beta_3 \\
 \eta &= \beta_4 - \beta_3
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{III.84}$$

Con esta notación, y teniendo en cuenta (II.75) los elementos de la matriz de Mueller correspondiente al mismo medio óptico que \mathbf{J} se pueden poner del modo siguiente

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_{00} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) , \\
 m_{01} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) , \\
 m_{02} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_3 \cos \delta + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \cos \gamma , \\
 m_{03} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_3 \sin \delta - \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \sin \gamma , \\
 m_{10} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) , \\
 m_{11} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) , \\
 m_{12} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_3 \cos \delta - \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \cos \gamma , \\
 m_{13} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_3 \sin \delta + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \sin \gamma , \\
 m_{20} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \cos \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \cos \lambda , \\
 m_{21} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \cos \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \cos \lambda , \\
 m_{22} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cos \varepsilon + \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos \eta ,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{23} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \operatorname{sen} \varepsilon + \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen} \eta \\
m_{30} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen} \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \operatorname{sen} \lambda \\
m_{31} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen} \sigma - \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \operatorname{sen} \lambda \\
m_{32} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \operatorname{sen} \varepsilon - \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen} \eta \\
m_{33} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cos \varepsilon - \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos \eta
\end{aligned} \tag{III.85}$$

Con las expresiones (III.85) para los elementos m_{ij} , puede comprobarse que se cumplen las nueve igualdades siguientes

$$(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{10})^2 = (m_{22} + m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{23})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_2^2, \tag{III.86.a}$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{10})^2 = (m_{22} - m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{23})^2 = 4\alpha_3^2 \alpha_4^2, \tag{III.86.b}$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 = (m_{02} + m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} + m_{13})^2 = 4\alpha_2^2 \alpha_3^2, \tag{III.86.c}$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{11})^2 = (m_{02} - m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} - m_{13})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_4^2, \tag{III.86.d}$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 = (m_{20} + m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} + m_{31})^2 = 4\alpha_2^2 \alpha_4^2, \tag{III.86.e}$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} - m_{11})^2 = (m_{20} - m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} - m_{31})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_3^2, \tag{III.86.f}$$

$$m_{02} m_{03} - m_{12} m_{13} = m_{22} m_{23} + m_{32} m_{33} = -2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen}(\beta_1 - \beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_4), \tag{III.87.a}$$

$$m_{03} m_{12} - m_{02} m_{13} = m_{31} m_{20} - m_{30} m_{21} = -2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen}(\beta_1 + \beta_2 - \beta_3 - \beta_4), \tag{III.87.b}$$

$$m_{20} m_{30} - m_{21} m_{31} = m_{22} m_{32} + m_{23} m_{33} = 2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \operatorname{sen}(\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \beta_3 + \beta_4). \tag{III.87.c}$$

Las igualdades (III.87) pueden sustituirse por las tres siguientes

$$m_{22}^2 - m_{23}^2 + m_{32}^2 - m_{33}^2 = m_{02}^2 - m_{03}^2 - m_{12}^2 + m_{13}^2 =$$

$$4 d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \cos(\beta_1 - \beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_4) ,$$

$$m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2 + m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2 = m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 - m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 =$$

$$4 d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \cos(\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \beta_3 + \beta_4) ,$$

$$m_{20}^2 - m_{21}^2 + m_{30}^2 - m_{31}^2 = m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 + m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 =$$

$$4 d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \cos(\beta_1 + \beta_2 - \beta_3 - \beta_4) . \quad (\text{III.88})$$

Las relaciones (III.86) han sido obtenidas por Abhyankar y Fymat¹³, completando el sistema de nueve igualdades con tres relaciones cuárticas. Posteriormente, Fry y Kattawar¹⁵ han demostrado que dichas relaciones cuárticas pueden sustituirse por las (III.87) ó (III.88), que son más sencillas. El sistema de nueve igualdades independientes formado por las (III.86) junto con las (III.87) ó las (III.88) es, como ya se ha dicho, equivalente a los otros sistemas de nueve igualdades restrictivas independientes ya estudiados

A partir de las relaciones (III.57) y (III.74) es fácil obtener dos igualdades interesantes, que son

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 = m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 , \quad (\text{III.89})$$

$$\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 = 4 m_{00}^2 . \quad (\text{III.90})$$

La igualdad (III.89) ya se obtuvo en (III.27.b) a partir de la forma explícita de una matriz de Mueller de tipo N genérica en función de sus parámetros equivalentes, de acuerdo con los teoremas TGE y TDP. Por otra parte, la igualdad (III.90), que también se obtiene sumando las relaciones (III.86) expresa una propiedad que, como veremos, es de gran utilidad en orden a distinguir los medios ópticos de tipo N, de los que despolarizan la luz.

Consideremos ahora una matriz de Mueller M de tipo G como suma de un cierto número de matrices de Mueller de tipo N. Teniendo en cuenta este hecho puede demostrarse que se cumplen las siguientes desigualdades¹⁵

$$(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{10})^2 \geq (m_{22} + m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{23})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.a})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{10})^2 \geq (m_{22} - m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{23})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.b})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{02} + m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} + m_{13})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.c})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{02} - m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} - m_{13})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.d})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{20} + m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} + m_{31})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.e})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} - m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{20} - m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} - m_{31})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.f})$$

A la igualdad (III.90) le corresponde ahora la desigualdad

$$\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \leq 4 m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.92})$$

Para finalizar este apartado obtendremos un conjunto de desigualdades, de carácter distinto a las ya estudiadas, que se cumplen para toda matriz de Mueller.

Los elementos de una matriz de Mueller M de tipo N , pueden escribirse con la notación dada en (II.75). Aplicando la desigualdad

$$x^2 + y^2 \geq \pm 2xy, \quad (\text{III.93})$$

en las expresiones (II.75.b.) comprobamos que

$$\alpha_i^2 + \alpha_j^2 \geq \pm 2\beta_{ij}, \quad (\text{III.94.a})$$

$$\alpha_i^2 + \alpha_j^2 \geq \pm 2\gamma_{ij}, \quad (\text{III.94.b})$$

Teniendo ahora en cuenta la expresión (II.75.a), es fácil comprobar que se cumplen las siguientes desigualdades

$$m_{00} + m_{11} \geq \pm (m_{22} + m_{33}),$$

$$m_{00} + m_{11} \geq \pm (m_{32} - m_{23}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{11} \geq \pm (m_{22} - m_{33}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{11} \geq \pm (m_{32} - m_{23}),$$

$$m_{00} + m_{10} \geq \pm (m_{02} + m_{12}),$$

$$m_{00} + m_{10} \geq \pm (m_{03} + m_{13}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{10} \geq \pm (m_{02} - m_{12}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{10} \geq \pm (m_{03} - m_{13}),$$

$$m_{00} + m_{01} \geq \pm (m_{20} + m_{21}),$$

$$m_{00} + m_{01} \geq \pm (m_{30} + m_{31}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{01} \geq \pm (m_{20} - m_{21}),$$

$$m_{00} - m_{01} \geq \pm (m_{30} - m_{31}), \quad (\text{III.95.a})$$

$$m_{00} \geq \pm m_{ij} \quad \forall i, j. \quad (\text{III.95.b})$$

Estas desigualdades, que son aditivas y por lo tanto deben cumplirse para toda matriz de Mueller sin excepción, han sido puestas de manifiesto recientemente por R.W. Schaefer¹⁶, a quien se debe también el argumento usado aquí para su deducción.

III.5. RELACIONES RESTRICTIVAS EN UNA MATRIZ V DEL FORMALISMO CVF.

Del mismo modo que las matrices de Mueller, las matrices V de tipo N dependen, en general, de siete parámetros independientes. Ello implica que debe existir un conjunto de nueve restricciones entre sus elementos, (además de las (II.55), que son inherentes a la propia definición de la matriz V).

La expresión (II.79) muestra la forma de una matriz V en función de su correspondiente matriz de Jones J , y en ella se observa que el producto de los elementos extremos de una columna, fila ó diagonal de V es igual al producto de sus correspondientes elementos intermedios. Este hecho se traduce en la existencia de las diez igualdades siguientes¹³

$$v_{00} v_{03} = v_{01} v_{02} , \quad (\text{III.96.a})$$

$$v_{00} v_{30} = v_{10} v_{20} , \quad (\text{III.96.b})$$

$$v_{30} v_{33} = v_{31} v_{32} , \quad (\text{III.96.c})$$

$$v_{03} v_{33} = v_{13} v_{23} , \quad (\text{III.96.d})$$

$$v_{00} v_{33} = v_{11} v_{22} , \quad (\text{III.96.e})$$

$$v_{03} v_{30} = v_{12} v_{21} , \quad (\text{III.96.f})$$

$$v_{01} v_{31} = v_{11} v_{21} , \quad (\text{III.96.g})$$

$$v_{10} v_{13} = v_{11} v_{12} , \quad (\text{III.96.h})$$

$$v_{02} v_{32} = v_{12} v_{22} , \quad (\text{III.96.i})$$

$$v_{20} v_{23} = v_{21} v_{22} . \quad (\text{III.96.j})$$

De estas igualdades sólo ocho son independientes, así, por ejemplo, son independientes las ocho primeras. La novena igualdad independiente puede ser una cualquiera de las siguientes

$$v_{01} v_{32} = v_{10} v_{23} , \quad (\text{III.97.a})$$

$$v_{02} v_{31} = v_{20} v_{13} , \quad (\text{III.97.b})$$

$$v_{02} v_{31} = v_{10}^* v_{23}^* , \quad (\text{III.97.c})$$

$$v_{20} v_{13} = v_{01}^* v_{32}^* . \quad (\text{III.97.d})$$

Las igualdades (III.96.a-g) contienen únicamente cantidades reales, pudiéndose completar el sistema de nueve igualdades, añadiendo las (III.96.h.), (III.96.i) y (III.97.a) las cuales, teniendo en cuenta (II.55), pueden reducirse a expresiones reales de la forma

$$v_{01} v_{31} + v_{22} v_{12} = v_{11} v_{21} + v_{02} v_{32} , \quad (\text{III.98.a})$$

$$v_{10} v_{13} + v_{22} v_{21} = v_{11} v_{12} + v_{20} v_{23} , \quad (\text{III.98.b})$$

$$v_{01} v_{32} + v_{20} v_{13} = v_{10} v_{23} + v_{02} v_{31} . \quad (\text{III.98.c})$$

A continuación vamos a estudiar otros sistemas de nueve restricciones en las matrices V de tipo N que, aunque equivalen todos entre sí, se presentan de modo diferente y

en ocasiones son de utilidad.

En el formalismo CVF, la forma cuadrática F correspondiente a un haz de luz de vector de coherencia D asociado, puede escribirse como

$$F = 2 D^T h D, \quad (\text{III.99})$$

donde D^T es el vector fila transpuesto del vector columna D y h es la matriz

$$h = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.100})$$

Consideremos un haz de luz caracterizado por una matriz de coherencia ρ y un vector de coherencia D , que atraviesa un medio óptico de tipo N cuyas matrices asociadas en los formalismos CMF y CVF son J y V respectivamente. El haz de luz emergente vendrá caracterizado por una matriz de coherencia ρ' , así como por un vector de coherencia D' dados por

$$\rho' = J \rho J^T \quad (\text{III.101})$$

$$D' = V D \quad (\text{III.102})$$

Teniendo en cuenta las expresiones (III.64), (III.99), (III.101) y (III.102), podemos escribir

$$F' = 2 D'^T h D' = 2 D^T V^T h V D, \quad (\text{III.103})$$

$$F' = 4 \det \rho' = 4 |\det J|^2 \det \rho = 2 |\det J|^2 D^T h D, \quad (\text{III.104})$$

de donde obtenemos

$$D^T V^T h V D = |\det J|^2 D^T h D . \quad (\text{III.105})$$

La igualdad (III.105) se cumple para todo vector D y por lo tanto,

$$V^T h V = |\det J|^2 h . \quad (\text{III.106})$$

Escribiendo (III.106) en función de los elementos v_{ij} de la matriz V y eliminando $|\det J|^2$, obtenemos el siguiente sistema de nueve igualdades restrictivas

$$\begin{aligned} v_{30} v_{03} + v_{00} v_{33} + v_{31} v_{02} + v_{01} v_{32} &= v_{20} v_{13} + v_{10} v_{23} + v_{21} v_{12} + v_{11} v_{22} , \\ v_{30} v_{01} + v_{00} v_{31} &= v_{20} v_{11} + v_{10} v_{21} , \\ v_{30} v_{02} + v_{00} v_{32} &= v_{20} v_{12} + v_{10} v_{22} , \\ v_{31} v_{03} + v_{01} v_{33} &= v_{21} v_{13} + v_{11} v_{23} , \\ v_{32} v_{03} + v_{02} v_{33} &= v_{22} v_{13} + v_{12} v_{23} , \\ v_{00} v_{30} &= v_{20} v_{10} , \\ v_{01} v_{31} &= v_{21} v_{11} , \\ v_{02} v_{32} &= v_{22} v_{12} , \\ v_{03} v_{33} &= v_{23} v_{13} . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.107})$$

Sabemos que si a una matriz de Mueller M de tipo N le corresponde una cierta matriz V de tipo N , a M^T le corresponde V^T . La matriz V^T representa, por tanto, a un medio óptico de tipo N , y ha de estar sujeta a las mismas restricciones que en (III-107) se dan para V , es decir,

se ha de cumplir la igualdad

$$V^* h V^\dagger = |\det J^\dagger|^2 h. \quad (\text{III.108})$$

Esta igualdad da lugar a un sistema de nueve igualdades restrictivas entre los elementos v_{ij} , que es equivalente al expresado en (III.107) y se obtiene de él transponiendo los índices de todos los elementos.

A partir de (III.106) y (III.108), y teniendo en cuenta que $|\det J^\dagger| = |\det J|$ deducimos la siguiente igualdad matricial

$$V^\dagger h V = V^* h V^\dagger = |\det J|^2 h, \quad (\text{III.109})$$

que incluye a (III.106) y (III.108) como casos particulares.

III.6. CONDICION DE LA NORMA EN MATRICES DE MUELLER

Dada una matriz de Mueller M cualquiera, podemos definir una norma $\Gamma_M(M)$ definida positiva como⁴²

$$\Gamma_M(M) \equiv [\text{tr}(M^\dagger M)]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(M M^\dagger)]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2}. \quad (\text{III.110})$$

Según hemos visto en (III.92), $\Gamma_M(M)$ está sujeta a la condición

$$\Gamma_M^2(M) \leq 4 m_{00}^2, \quad (\text{III.111})$$

cumpléndose la igualdad

$$\Gamma_M^2(M) = 4 m_{00}^2, \quad (\text{III.112})$$

cuando la matriz de Mueller M está asociada a un medio óptico de tipo N. Es de señalar que el elemento m_{00} representa la transmitancia T_N del medio óptico para luz no polarizada.

Hemos visto que (III.112) es una condición neces-

ria para que M sea de tipo N. A continuación vamos a demostrar que (III.112) es, además, una condición suficiente.

Supongamos que se cumple la condición (III.112). Entonces deben cumplirse las seis igualdades (III.86), ya que, en caso contrario, se cumplirá al menos una de las desigualdades (III.91), y necesariamente se obtendría que $\Gamma_M^2(M) < 4m_{00}^2$, lo cual es contrario a la hipótesis. Falta ahora por demostrar que se cumplen tres igualdades restrictivas más, como por ejemplo las (III.88), tales que formen con las seis anteriores un sistema de nueve restricciones independientes.

Las desigualdades (III.63) y (III.78) pueden escribirse de la forma

$$X_1 \geq \gamma_1, \quad (\text{III.113.a})$$

$$Y_1 \geq \gamma_1, \quad (\text{III.113.b})$$

$$Z_1 \geq \gamma_1, \quad (\text{III.113.c})$$

$$X_2 \geq \gamma_2, \quad (\text{III.114.a})$$

$$Y_2 \geq \gamma_2, \quad (\text{III.114.b})$$

$$Z_2 \geq \gamma_2; \quad (\text{III.114.c})$$

donde se han definido los parámetros

$$\gamma_1 = m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 - m_{00}^2, \quad (\text{III.115.a})$$

$$X_1 = m_{01}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{31}^2, \quad (\text{III.115.b})$$

$$Y_1 = m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2, \quad (\text{III.115.c})$$

$$Z_1 = m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 - m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2, \quad (\text{III.115.d})$$

$$r_2 = m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 - m_{00}^2, \quad (\text{III.116.a})$$

$$X_2 = m_{10}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{13}^2, \quad (\text{III.116.b})$$

$$Y_2 = m_{20}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{23}^2, \quad (\text{III.116.c})$$

$$Z_2 = m_{30}^2 - m_{31}^2 - m_{32}^2 - m_{33}^2. \quad (\text{III.116.d})$$

De las igualdades (III.86.c-f) se deduce que (III.113.a) y (III.114.a) son las igualdades $X_1 = r_1$ y $X_2 = r_2$ respectivamente.

Las igualdades (III.88) pueden escribirse como

$$Y_1 = Z_1, \quad (\text{III.117.a})$$

$$Y_2 = Z_2, \quad (\text{III.117.b})$$

$$Y_1 = Y_2. \quad (\text{III.117.c})$$

Para demostrar que se cumplen las igualdades (III.117), supondremos que siendo $\Gamma_M^2(M) = 4m_{00}^2$, alguna de ellas no se cumple, y veremos que ello nos conduce a un absurdo. El hecho de que falle alguna de las igualdades (III.117) implica que no puede cumplirse la igualdad simultáneamente en (III.113.b-c) y (III.114.b-c), ó bien que $r_1 \neq r_2$.

Sumando por una parte las (III.113), y por otra, las (III.114) obtenemos

$$4m_{00}^2 + 2(a-b) \geq \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2, \quad (\text{III.118})$$

$$4m_{00}^2 + 2(b-a) \geq \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2; \quad (\text{III.119})$$

donde

$$\begin{aligned} a &= m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 \\ b &= m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.120})$$

Como estamos suponiendo que $\Gamma_M^2(M) = 4m_{00}^2$, de (III.118) y (III.119) deducimos que

$$a = b, \quad (\text{III.121})$$

y, por lo tanto,

$$r_1 = r_2. \quad (\text{III.122})$$

Las únicas posibilidades que quedan son

$$y_1 > r_1, \text{ ó } z_1 > r_1, \text{ ó } y_2 > r_2, \text{ ó } z_2 > r_2. \quad (\text{III.123})$$

En los dos primeros casos, sumando las (III.113), obtenemos

$$4m_{00}^2 > \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2, \quad (\text{III.124})$$

y en los dos casos restantes, sumando las (III.114), volvemos a obtener (III.124), expresión que muestra un absurdo, puesto que hemos partido de la hipótesis (III.112). Queda, pues demostrado que si se cumple la condición (III.112), debe cumplirse el sistema de nueve igualdades independientes formado por las (III.86) y las (III.87), ó cualquier otro sistema de igualdades equivalente. Esto significa que M corresponde a un medio óptico de tipo N.

Podemos resumir las anteriores consideraciones enunciando el siguiente teorema⁴²: "Dada una matriz de Mueller M , la condición necesaria y suficiente para que M corresponda a un medio óptico de tipo N, es que $\Gamma_M^2(M) = 2m_{00}$ ".

El interés de este teorema es que, dada una matriz de Mueller, podemos saber si ésta representa a un medio óptico de tipo N ó nc, atendiendo solamente a la condición (III.112) (condición de la norma), no siendo necesario verificar las nueve igualdades independientemente.

Como se expone más adelante, la condición de la norma resulta de gran utilidad en el desarrollo teórico de nuestro método dinámico de determinación de matrices de Mueller.

Dada una matriz de Mueller M , ésta puede normalizarse de la forma

$$\bar{M} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} M. \quad (\text{III.125})$$

La matriz \bar{M} corresponde a un medio óptico con idénticas propiedades que el representado por M , salvo que aquél presenta una transmitancia unidad para luz no polarizada ($\bar{m}_{00} = 1$). La normalización (III.125), cuando M es de tipo N, da lugar a la igualdad

$$\Gamma_M(\bar{M}) = 2, \quad (\text{III.126})$$

ya que

$$\Gamma_M(\bar{M}) = \left[\text{tr}(\bar{M}^T \bar{M}) \right]^{1/2} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2} = 2. \quad (\text{III.127})$$

Una consecuencia interesante de (III.95.b) y (III.112), es que una matriz de Mueller de tipo N ha de tener, al menos, cuatro elementos no nulos (salvo en el caso trivial de matriz nula).

III.7. CONDICION DE LA NORMA EN MATRICES DE JONES.

El propósito del presente apartado es obtener, análogamente al apartado anterior, una relación entre los elementos

de una matriz de Jones genérica, en función de la transmitancia T_N del medio para luz natural. Es de señalar que, aunque en el formalismo JCF no son representables estados de luz parcialmente polarizada, las matrices de Jones contienen información de T_N , pues como vamos a ver, T_N puede obtenerse como la semisuma de las transmitancias en intensidad máxima y mínima para variaciones arbitrarias del vector de luz incidente.

Dada una matriz de Jones J , siempre podemos asociarle dos números $\gamma(J)$ y $\tau(J)$, donde γ y τ son, respectivamente, el máximo y mínimo valor del cociente

$$\frac{|J\mathcal{E}|}{|\mathcal{E}|}, \quad (\text{III.128})$$

con respecto a variaciones arbitrarias de las dos componentes del vector de Jones \mathcal{E} .

Toda matriz de Jones U unitaria deja invariante el módulo del vector de Jones \mathcal{E} , y, por lo tanto

$$\gamma(U) = \tau(U) = 1. \quad (\text{III.129})$$

En virtud del teorema TGE, toda matriz de Jones J puede escribirse de la forma

$$J = U_1 J_p (p_1, p_2) U_2, \quad (\text{III.130})$$

donde U_1 y U_2 son matrices unitarias, y J_p es la matriz asociada a un polarizador parcial cuyas transmitancias principales en amplitud son p_1 y p_2 . Teniendo en cuenta las expresiones (III.129) y (III.130) obtenemos

$$\gamma(J) = \gamma(J_p) = p_1, \quad (\text{III.131.a})$$

$$\tau(J) = \tau(J_p) = p_2. \quad (\text{III.131.b})$$

De acuerdo con las expresiones (III.15) y (III.26), el elemento m_{00} de una matriz de Mueller M de tipo N genérica correspondiente a la matriz de Jones J , puede

escribirse como

$$m_{00} = \frac{1}{2} (P_1^2 + P_2^2) = \frac{1}{2} [\gamma^2(J) + \tau^2(J)] . \quad (\text{III.132})$$

Por otra parte, según (II.73), m_{00} puede expresarse en función de los elementos de la matriz J , del siguiente modo

$$m_{00} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 , \quad (\text{III.133})$$

de donde

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 = P_1^2 + P_2^2 . \quad (\text{III.134})$$

La expresión (III.133) nos indica que la semisuma de los cuadrados de los módulos de los elementos de una matriz de Jones es igual a la transmitancia en intensidad para luz natural, del medio considerado.

A toda matriz de Jones J podemos asociarle una norma $\Gamma_J(J)$, definida positiva, dada por⁴²

$$\Gamma_J(J) = [\text{tr}(J^\dagger J)]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(J J^\dagger)]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 \right]^{1/2} , \quad (\text{III.135})$$

o bien, teniendo en cuenta (III.133),

$$\Gamma_J^2(J) = 2 m_{00} = 2 T_N . \quad (\text{III.136})$$

Comparando (III.136) con (III.112) vemos que

$$\Gamma_M(M) = \Gamma_J^2(J) . \quad (\text{III.137})$$

La expresión (III.136) muestra que la condición de la norma (III.112) para una matriz de Mueller \bar{M} , es una manifestación de la definición de la norma (III.135), para la matriz de Jones \bar{J} que está asociada al mismo medio óptico de tipo N que \bar{M} . Dichas matrices \bar{M} y \bar{J} pueden normalizarse conjuntamente de la forma

$$\bar{M} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} M, \quad (\text{III.138.a})$$

$$\bar{J} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m_{00}}} J; \quad (\text{III.138.b})$$

y, entonces,

$$\Gamma_{\bar{M}}(\bar{M}) = \Gamma_{\bar{J}}^2(\bar{J}) = 2. \quad (\text{III.139})$$

III.8. CONDICION DE LA NORMA EN MATRICES V DEL FORMALISMO CVF.

A toda matriz V del formalismo CVF podemos asociarle una norma $\Gamma_V(V)$, definida positiva, tal que⁴²

$$\Gamma_V(V) = [\text{tr}(V^\dagger V)]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(V V^\dagger)]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 |v_{ij}|^2 \right]^{1/2}. \quad (\text{III.140})$$

Vimos en (II.78) que una matriz V de tipo N puede escribirse en función de su correspondiente matriz de Jones como

$$V = J \times J^*, \quad (\text{III.141})$$

donde \times indica el producto de Kronecker. A partir de (III.140) y (III.141) es fácil comprobar que

$$\Gamma_V(V) = \text{tr}^2(J J^\dagger) = \text{tr}^2(J^\dagger J). \quad (\text{III.142})$$

La expresión (III.142), junto con (III.135), (III.136) y (III.137) nos permite escribir

$$\Gamma_V(V) = \Gamma_M(M) = \Gamma_J^2(J) = 2 m_{00}, \quad (\text{III.143})$$

donde las matrices V , M y J corresponden al mismo medio óptico de tipo N. Si el medio considerado es de tipo G, M y V están relacionadas según (II.51), y entonces,

$$\Gamma_V(V) = [\text{tr}(V^\dagger V)]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(U^{-1} M^\dagger U U^{-1} M U)]^{1/2}. \quad (\text{III.144})$$

Teniendo en cuenta que U es unitaria y que $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$, la expresión (III.144) se convierte en

$$\Gamma_V(V) = \Gamma_M(M), \quad (\text{III.145})$$

relación que queda, pues, establecida para todo medio óptico de características cualesquiera.

Toda matriz V puede normalizarse de la forma

$$\bar{V} = \left(\frac{2}{v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}} \right) V, \quad (\text{III.146})$$

donde

$$\frac{v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}}{2} = T_N = m_{00}. \quad (\text{III.147})$$

De modo análogo al caso de matrices de Mueller, es inmediato comprobar que la condición necesaria y suficiente para que una matriz V corresponda a un medio óptico de tipo N es

$$\Gamma_V(V) = (v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}), \quad (\text{III.148})$$

ó bien,

$$\Gamma_V(\bar{V}) = 2. \quad (\text{III.149})$$

III.9. INDICES DE POLARIZACION Y DESPOLARIZACION

Dado un medio óptico O , éste tiene asociadas dos matrices de Mueller M y M' , que corresponden a los dos sentidos en que la luz puede incidir sobre O . Por convenio diremos que M corresponde a O cuando la luz incide en sentido "directo", y M' cuando la luz incide en sentido "opuesto".

Consideremos el conjunto de vectores de Stokes

$$S_{p1} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, S_{p2} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, S_{p3} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, S_{n1} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, S_{n2} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, S_{n3} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad (\text{III.150})$$

que denotaremos abreviadamente como

$$S_{pi}, S_{ni} \quad \text{con } i=1,2,3.$$

Tanto las matrices como los vectores están referidos a un mismo sistema cartesiano de ejes XY . Los vectores S_{pi}, S_{ni} corresponden a haces de luz totalmente polarizada, de modo que sus formas cuadráticas asociadas son

$$F_{pi} = 0, F_{ni} = 0; \quad i=1,2,3.$$

Cuando el medio óptico O es atravesado en sentido directo por un haz de luz cuyo vector de Stokes $S_{pi}(S_{ni})$ asociado es uno de los dados por (III.150), el haz de luz emergente tendrá asociado un vector de Stokes $S'_{pi}(S'_{ni})$, para el cual la forma cuadrática toma el valor

$$F'_{pi} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{j0}^2 + m_{ji}^2 + 2 m_{j0} m_{ji}), \quad (\text{III.151.a})$$

ó bien

$$F'_{ni} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{j0}^2 + m_{ji}^2 - 2 m_{j0} m_{ji}), \quad (\text{III.151.b})$$

$$i=1,2,3.$$

Los valores promedio de estas formas cuadráticas para cada dos vectores de Stokes asociados a haces de luz de estados de polarización ortogonales S_{pi} , S_{ni} son

$$F'_1 \equiv \frac{1}{2} (F'_{p1} + F'_{n1}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{01}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{31}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.152.a})$$

$$F'_2 \equiv \frac{1}{2} (F'_{p2} + F'_{n2}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.152.b})$$

$$F'_3 \equiv \frac{1}{2} (F'_{p3} + F'_{n3}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 - m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2, \quad (\text{III.152.b})$$

y el promedio total es

$$F'_0 \equiv \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^3 F'_i = m_{00}^2 - (m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2) + \frac{1}{3} (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2) - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^3 m_{ki}^2. \quad (\text{III.153})$$

El valor de F'_0 nos da el promedio de los cuadrados de las intensidades de luz despolarizada que emerge de O para haces de luz de vectores de Stokes S_{pi} , S_{ni} que inciden en sentido directo.

Si analizamos con detalle el significado de las formas cuadráticas (III.152), vemos que F'_{pi} (F'_{ni}) = 0 si, y sólo si, O no despolariza la luz de vector de Stokes S_{pi} (S_{ni}) que le incide en sentido directo. Además de acuerdo con la desigualdad $X^2 + Y^2 \geq \pm 2XY$ sabemos que

$$F'_{pi} \geq 0,$$

$$F'_{ni} \geq 0; \quad i = 1, 2, 3; \quad (\text{III.154})$$

y entonces, para luz incidente en sentido directo podemos establecer que

$$F'_1 = 0 \iff O \text{ no despolariza la luz polarizada lineal según los ejes } XY,$$

$$F'_2 = 0 \iff O \text{ no despolariza la luz polarizada lineal a } \pm 45^\circ \text{ con los ejes } XY,$$

$$F'_3 = 0 \iff O \text{ no despolariza la luz polarizada circular (dextro ó levo).}$$

De (III.152) y (III.154) deducimos:

$$F'_i \geq 0, \quad i=1,2,3; \quad (\text{III.155})$$

Y

$$F'_D \geq 0. \quad (\text{III.156})$$

Por lo tanto

$$F'_D = 0 \Leftrightarrow F'_{pi} = F'_{ni} = 0 \quad i=1,2,3. \quad (\text{III.157})$$

Este último resultado nos dice que F'_D es condición necesaria y suficiente para que O no despolarice luz de vectores de Stokes S_{pi} , S_{ni} asociados a haces de luz que inciden en sentido directo. Sin embargo, puede haber luz de otras características, que incidiendo en sentido directo resulte despolarizada a la salida.

Haciendo un desarrollo análogo al anterior, pero considerando que la luz incide sobre O en sentido opuesto, es decir, en el sentido en que O está caracterizado por la matriz de Mueller M' , los vectores de Stokes S''_{pi} , S''_{ni} correspondientes a los haces de luz emergentes, tendrán asociadas las formas cuadráticas

$$F''_{pi} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{0j}^2 + m_{ij}^2 + 2 m_{0j} m_{ij}), \quad (\text{III.158.a})$$

$$F''_{ni} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{0j}^2 + m_{ij}^2 - 2 m_{0j} m_{ij}). \quad (\text{III.158.b})$$

El promedio F''_D de los cuadrados de las intensidades de luz despolarizada que emerge de O para haces de luz de vectores de Stokes S_{pi} , S_{ni} que inciden en sentido opuesto es

$$F''_D \equiv \frac{1}{6} \sum_{l=1}^3 (F''_{pi} + F''_{ni}) =$$

$$m_{00}^2 - (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2) - \frac{1}{3} (m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2) - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k,\ell=1}^3 m_{k\ell}^2. \quad (\text{III.159})$$

Todas las conclusiones obtenidas para F_{pi}' , F_{ni}' , F_D' cuando O es atravesado en sentido directo, son válidas para F_{pi}'' , F_{ni}'' , F_D'' cuando O es atravesado en sentido opuesto.

La forma cuadrática semidefinida positiva

$$F_D \equiv \frac{1}{2} (F_D' + F_D'') = m_{oo}^2 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 - m_{oo}^2 \right) = \frac{1}{3} \left(4m_{oo}^2 - \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right), \quad (\text{III.160})$$

puede considerarse como un promedio del cuadrado de intensidades de luz no polarizada emergente, para haces de luz de vectores de Stokes S_{pi} , S_{ni} , incidentes en ambos sentidos.

Comparando las definiciones (III.110) y (III.160) vemos que

$$F_D = \frac{1}{3} \left(4m_{oo}^2 - \Gamma_M^2(M) \right). \quad (\text{III.161})$$

De acuerdo con el teorema de la norma enunciado en el apartado (III.6), podemos afirmar que $F_D = 0$ si, y sólo si, el medio óptico O no despolariza luz de ningún tipo sea cual sea el sentido en que es atravesado. Este hecho nos da una interpretación del significado físico de la norma ya que

$$\Gamma_M^2(M) = 4m_{oo}^2 - 3F_D, \quad (\text{III.162})$$

y esta expresión nos dice que $\Gamma_M^2(M)$ es igual a la diferencia entre cuatro veces el cuadrado de la transmitancia del medio para luz no polarizada y tres veces el promedio F_D .

A la magnitud $F_D(M) = F_D(M')$, la denominaremos Factor de Despolarización, ya que da una idea global de la despolarización que produce el medio óptico O .

Por analogía con las expresiones (II.27) y (II.28)

que relacionan el grado de polarización G de un haz de luz, con su correspondiente forma cuadrática F dada por (II.26), podemos definir el Índice de Despolarización correspondiente al medio óptico O como

$$G_D \equiv \left(\frac{\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 - m_{00}^2}{3 m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F_D}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{III.163})$$

Los rangos de valores posibles de F_D y G_D son

$$0 \leq F_D \leq m_{00}^2, \quad (\text{III.164})$$

$$0 \leq G_D \leq 1; \quad (\text{III.165})$$

donde los valores $F_D=0$, $G_D=1$ corresponden a medios de tipo N , y $F_D=m_{00}^2$, $G_D=0$ corresponden a un despolarizador ideal, es decir, a un medio óptico tal que despolarice totalmente todo haz de luz que incida sobre él en un sentido u otro.

La matriz de Mueller correspondiente a tal medio es

$$M = M' = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{III.166})$$

Consideremos ahora que sobre un medio óptico O incide luz no polarizada de intensidad unidad, en sentido directo. El vector de Stokes S' correspondiente al haz emergente viene dado por

$$S' = M \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} \\ m_{10} \\ m_{20} \\ m_{30} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{III.167})$$

Definimos el Factor de Polarización Directo del medio óptico O como la forma cuadrática F'_P asociada al vector

S' de acuerdo con la definición (III.26), es decir

$$F'_P = m_{00}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 . \quad (\text{III.168})$$

Análogamente definimos el Factor de Polarización Recíproco del medio óptico O , como la forma cuadrática correspondiente al vector

$$S'' = M' \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} \\ m_{01} \\ m_{02} \\ -m_{03} \end{pmatrix} , \quad (\text{III.169})$$

que es

$$F''_P = m_{00}^2 - m_{01}^2 - m_{02}^2 - m_{03}^2 . \quad (\text{III.170})$$

A partir de F'_P y F''_P , podemos definir el Índice de Polarización Directo G'_P e Índice de Polarización Recíproco G''_P como

$$G'_P = \left(\frac{m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F'_P}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} , \quad (\text{III.171})$$

$$G''_P = \left(\frac{m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F''_P}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} . \quad (\text{III.172})$$

Los parámetros F'_P , F''_P , ó bien G'_P , G''_P nos dan información acerca de la capacidad que tiene un medio óptico O para polarizar luz no polarizada. Los rangos de valores posibles de dichos parámetros son

$$0 \leq F'_P \leq m_{00}^2 , \quad (\text{III.173.a})$$

$$0 \leq F''_P \leq m_{00}^2 , \quad (\text{III.173.b})$$

$$0 \leq G'_P \leq 1 , \quad (\text{III.174.a})$$

$$0 \leq G''_P \leq 1 . \quad (\text{III.174.b})$$

En el caso de que O sea de tipo N, se cumple la relación (III.27.b), que llevada a (III.168) y (III.170) conduce a la igualdad

$$F'_P = F''_P . \quad (\text{III.175})$$

A partir de (II.82) y (III.107) se puede comprobar que en el formalismo CVF las expresiones correspondientes a F_D, F'_P, F''_P son las siguientes

$$F_D = \frac{1}{3} \left[(\nu_{00} + \nu_{03} + \nu_{30} + \nu_{33})^2 - \mathcal{I}'^2(\nu) \right] , \quad (\text{III.176})$$

$$F'_P = 4 (\nu_{00} \nu_{33} + \nu_{03} \nu_{30} - \nu_{10} \nu_{23} - \nu_{20} \nu_{13}) , \quad (\text{III.177.a})$$

$$F''_P = 4 (\nu_{00} \nu_{33} + \nu_{03} \nu_{30} - \nu_{01} \nu_{32} - \nu_{02} \nu_{31}) . \quad (\text{III.177.b})$$

Por otra parte, si O es de tipo N, las expresiones correspondientes en el formalismo JCF son

$$F_D = 0 , \quad (\text{III.178})$$

$$F'_P = F''_P = |J_1|^2 + |J_2|^2 + |J_3|^2 + |J_4|^2 - 2 \operatorname{Re} (J_1 J_2 J_3^* J_4^*) . \quad (\text{III.179})$$

IV. METODO DINAMICO DE DETERMINACION DE MATRICES DE MUELLER

En el presente capítulo exponemos el fundamento teórico de nuestro método dinámico de determinación de matrices de Mueller. El dispositivo de medida que se propone consta básicamente de dos retardadores lineales situados entre dos polarizadores lineales. En el espacio intermedio entre los dos retardadores se sitúa el medio óptico cuya matriz de Mueller M asociada se desea determinar. Un haz colimado de luz monocromática incide sobre el medio óptico problema tras atravesar el primer polarizador y el primer retardador. El haz emergente de dicho medio óptico atraviesa el segundo retardador y el segundo polarizador, en éste orden. La intensidad I del haz de luz que emerge finalmente, depende de la matriz M y de las orientaciones de los polarizadores y retardadores respecto a un eje de referencia.

Para que el dispositivo opere de modo automático, los retardadores rotan en planos perpendiculares a la dirección de propagación del haz de luz que los atraviesa, con una determinada relación fija entre sus velocidades angulares constantes. La intensidad I varía periódicamente, y por medio de un detector y de un instrumento de registro se obtiene el registro de un periodo de la señal correspondiente al medio óptico problema. A partir de un análisis de Fourier de dicha señal se pueden obtener los dieciséis elementos de la matriz de Mueller M . El análisis de Fourier se puede realizar con la ayuda de un ordenador electrónico.

El dispositivo experimental de medida puede diseñarse adecuadamente para el estudio de fenómenos de transmisión.

reflexión, difusión ó difracción.

Si los retardadores rotatorios utilizados en el montaje de medida son acromáticos, el dispositivo permite realizar una espectroscopia de matrices de Mueller, ya que variando la longitud de onda λ del haz de luz utilizado, se obtiene la matriz de Mueller correspondiente a cada longitud de onda λ . Por otra parte, si se utiliza un haz laser como luz de sondeo, se puede realizar un estudio local en diferentes zonas de la muestra.

IV.1. DISPOSITIVO DE MEDIDA

En la Fig.IV.1 se muestra esquemáticamente el dispositivo de medida de matrices de Mueller, que está compuesto principalmente por dos polarizadores lineales totales $P_1(\theta_1), P_2(\theta_2)$; dos retardadores lineales no ideales L_1, L_2 y un medio óptico O cuya matriz de Mueller M asociada se desea determinar. "A" representa una fuente de luz monocromática, "DT" un detector de intensidad de luz, y "RG" un instrumento de registro de las señales detectadas por DT.

Las orientaciones de los ejes principales de los medios ópticos están referidas a la dirección positiva del eje X del sistema de coordenadas de referencia XYZ mostrado en la figura.

El haz de luz que emerge tras atravesar el sistema $P_1 L_1 O L_2 P_2$, está caracterizado por un vector de Stokes

$$S'' = \frac{1}{16 K_a K_b} M_P(\theta_2) M_L(\beta_2, \delta_2, \kappa_2) M M_L(\beta_1, \delta_1, \kappa_1) M_P(\theta_1) S \quad (\text{IV.1.a})$$

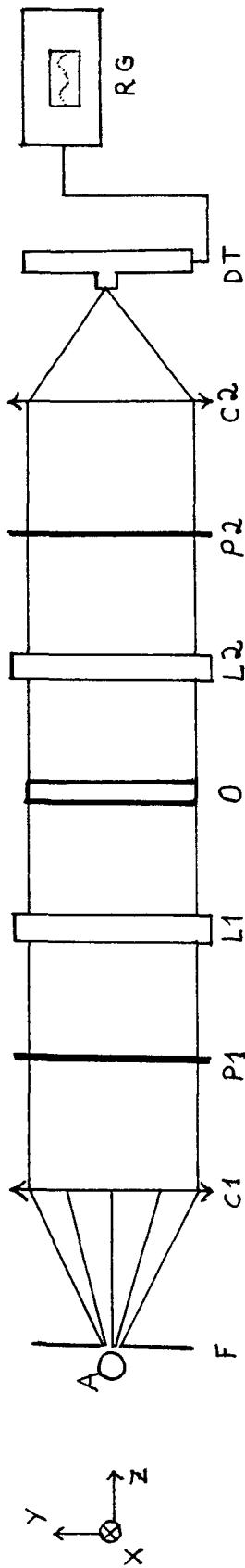


Fig. IV.1.1.- Esquema del dispositivo dinámico de determinación de matrices de Mueller.

F: fuente de luz monocromática; C1: colimador; P1: polarizador lineal total; L1: retardador lineal rotatorio; O: medio óptico cuya matriz de Mueller se desea determinar; L2: retardador lineal rotatorio; P2: polarizador lineal total; C2: lente colectora; DT: detector; RG: instrumento de registro.

donde

$$K_1 = \frac{K'_a}{K_a} , \quad K_2 = \frac{K'_b}{K_b} ; \quad (\text{IV.1.b})$$

y \mathbf{S} es el vector de Stokes asociado al haz de luz natural emitido por la fuente A , tal que.

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} I \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} .$$

El dispositivo de medida puede considerarse dividido en dos partes. La primera de ellas está compuesta por P_1, L_1 y O , y en ella se generan estados de polarización del haz de luz emergente, que dependen de los valores de $\theta_1, \beta_1, \delta_1, K_1$ y de los elementos m_{ij} de la matriz de Mueller M . Dicho estado de polarización viene dado por un vector de Stokes

$$\mathbf{S}' = \frac{I}{4K_a} M M_L(\beta_1, \delta_1, K_1) M_P \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} , \quad (\text{IV.2})$$

cuyos elementos, una vez realizado el producto indicado, resultan ser

$$\begin{aligned} S'_i = \frac{I}{4K_a} \left\{ \right. & [1 + K_1 + (1 - K_1)(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1)] m_{i0} + \\ & [(1 - K_1)c'_1 + (1 + K_1)c'_1(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1) + 2r_1 \cos \delta_1 s'_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i1} + \\ & [(1 - K_1)s'_1 + (1 + K_1)s'_1(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1) - 2r_1 \cos \delta_1 c'_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i2} + \\ & \left. [2r_1 \sin \delta_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i3} \right\} , \quad (\text{IV.3.a}) \end{aligned}$$

donde usamos la notación

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= \sin 2\theta_1 , \quad c_1 = \cos 2\theta_1 , \\ s'_1 &= \sin 2\beta_1 , \quad c'_1 = \cos 2\beta_1 , \\ r_1 &= (K_a K'_a)^{1/2} . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{IV.3.b})$$

La segunda parte es el sistema compuesto por L_2 y P_2 , y sirve para analizar el estado de polarización de la luz que incide sobre él. La matriz de Mueller B asociada a dicho sistema es

$$B = \frac{1}{2K_b} M_P(\theta_2) M_L(\beta_2, \delta_2, \kappa_2). \quad (\text{IV.4})$$

Ahora podemos escribir (IV.1.) del siguiente modo

$$S'' = B S'. \quad (\text{IV.5})$$

El detector DT es sensible a la intensidad de luz u_0 que incide sobre él, que es

$$u_0 = S''_0 = b_{00} S'_0 + b_{01} S'_1 + b_{02} S'_2 + b_{03} S'_3, \quad (\text{IV.6})$$

donde los elementos b_{0i} ($i=0,1,2,3$) de la matriz B , obtenidos de (IV.4) son

$$b_{00} = \frac{1}{4K_b} [1 + \kappa_2 + (1 - \kappa_2)(c'_2 c_2 + s'_2 s_2)],$$

$$b_{01} = \frac{1}{4K_b} [(1 - \kappa_2)c'_2 + (1 + \kappa_2)c'_2(c'_2 c_2 + s'_2 s_2) + 2r_2 \cos \delta_2 s'_2 (s'_2 c_2 - c'_2 s_2)],$$

$$b_{02} = \frac{1}{4K_b} [(1 - \kappa_2)s'_2 + (1 + \kappa_2)s'_2(c'_2 c_2 + s'_2 s_2) - 2r_2 \cos \delta_2 c'_2 (s'_2 c_2 - c'_2 s_2)],$$

$$b_{03} = \frac{1}{4K_b} [2r_2 \sin \delta_2 (c'_2 s_2 - s'_2 c_2)] \quad (\text{IV.7.a})$$

donde

$$s_2 = \sin 2\theta_2, \quad c_2 = \cos 2\theta_2,$$

$$s'_2 = \sin 2\beta_2, \quad c'_2 = \cos 2\beta_2, \quad r_2 = (K_b K'_b)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{IV.7.b})$$

Para simplificar la notación, definimos también los parámetros

$$a_1 = K_a + K'_a, \quad b_1 = K_a - K'_a,$$

$$a_2 = K_b + K'_b, \quad b_2 = K_b - K'_b. \quad (\text{IV.8})$$

En orden a que el estado de polarización del haz de luz que emerge de O , generado por la primera parte del dispositivo, varíe de modo continuo con el tiempo, supondremos que el retardador L_1 rota en torno al eje óptico Z con velocidad angular ω_1 . Análogamente, para que la segunda parte del dispositivo analice dinámicamente el estado de polarización de la luz que lo atraviesa, supondremos que el retardador L_2 rota en torno al eje óptico Z con velocidad angular ω_2 . Por lo tanto podemos escribir

$$\beta_1 = \omega_1 t, \quad (\text{IV.9.a})$$

$$\beta_2 = \omega_2 t + \alpha_2. \quad (\text{IV.9.b})$$

Como se ve en (IV.9), suponemos que en el instante $t=0$, el eje rápido de L_1 , está alineado con el eje X de referencia, y que el eje rápido de L_2 forma un ángulo α_2 con el eje X .

Como ya se indicado, pretendemos obtener los elementos m_{ij} a partir de un análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz periódica $u_0(t)$. Para que ésta función presente el aspecto de una serie de Fourier truncada a partir de un cierto término armónico, es necesario imponer una relación

$$\omega_2 = R \omega_1, \quad (\text{IV.10})$$

entre las velocidades angulares de rotación de los retardadores, donde R es un número racional.

Tras realizar la operación indicada en (IV.6) y haciendo uso de (IV.9) y (IV.10) se obtiene

$$\begin{aligned}
u_0 = & h_0 + g_1 \operatorname{sen} 2\beta_1 + h_1 \cos 2\beta_1 + g_2 \operatorname{sen} 4\beta_1 + \\
& h_2 \cos 4\beta_1 + g_3 \operatorname{sen} 2R\beta_1 + h_3 \cos 2R\beta_1 + \\
& g_4 \operatorname{sen} (2R-2)\beta_1 + h_4 \cos (2R-2)\beta_1 + g_5 \operatorname{sen} (2R+2)\beta_1 + \\
& h_5 \cos (2R+2)\beta_1 + g_6 \operatorname{sen} (2R-4)\beta_1 + h_6 \cos (2R-4)\beta_1 + \\
& g_7 \operatorname{sen} (2R+4)\beta_1 + h_7 \cos (2R+4)\beta_1 + g_8 \operatorname{sen} 4R\beta_1 + \\
& h_8 \cos 4R\beta_1 + g_9 \operatorname{sen} (4R-2)\beta_1 + h_9 \cos (4R-2)\beta_1 + \\
& g_{10} \operatorname{sen} (4R+2)\beta_1 + h_{10} \cos (4R+2)\beta_1 + g_{11} \operatorname{sen} (4R-4)\beta_1 + \\
& h_{11} \cos (4R-4)\beta_1 + g_{12} \operatorname{sen} (4R+4)\beta_1 + h_{12} \cos (4R+4)\beta_1,
\end{aligned}$$

(IV.11)

donde h_i , g_j son coeficientes que dependen de los elementos m_{ij} y de los parámetros K_1 , K_2 , δ_1 , δ_2 , θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 .

La expresión (IV.11) puede considerarse un desarrollo en serie de Fourier en múltiplos de la frecuencia β_1 . Por medio de un análisis de Fourier de la señal registrada u_0 , pueden obtenerse los coeficientes de Fourier h_i , g_j . Estos coeficientes dependen linealmente de los elementos m_{ij} , formando un sistema de ecuaciones en el que las incógnitas son dichos elementos.

Dependiendo del valor que asignemos a R podemos conseguir hasta un número de doce frecuencias múltiplos de β_1 , más el término constante h_0 . Sin embargo, en orden a una mayor sencillez en los cálculos y en el procesamiento de las señales, nos interesa hallar un valor de R tal que, generando un número de coeficientes de Fourier suficiente para obtener los elementos m_{ij} , dé lugar a un desarrollo en serie de Fourier lo más corto posible. Los valo-

res $R=1, 2$, conducen a desarrollos en serie de Fourier con número de armónicos insuficiente en ambos casos. El valor $R=3/2$ conduce a un desarrollo en serie de Fourier del tipo ⁴³

$$16 u_0 = A_0 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{10} (B_{\ell} \operatorname{sen} \ell \beta_1 + A_{\ell} \cos \ell \beta_1). \quad (\text{IV.12})$$

Al escribir los coeficientes A_i, B_j en función de los dieciséis incógnitas m_{ij} , se obtiene un sistema de diecinueve ecuaciones, de las que sólo quince son linealmente independientes. En el caso de que tengamos alguna información adicional acerca del medio óptico O al que corresponde M , como por ejemplo que sepamos que O es de tipo N , ó que conozcamos el valor T_N de su transmitancia en intensidad para luz no polarizada, podemos completar el sistema de dieciséis ecuaciones con la relación ⁴²

$$4 m_{00}^2 = \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2, \quad (\text{IV.13})$$

ó con

$$m_{00} = T_N, \quad (\text{IV.14})$$

respectivamente.

Para una total generalidad del método de determinación de la matriz M , resulta más deseable un valor de R que dé lugar a dieciséis ecuaciones linealmente independientes. Los valores de R que cumplen dicha condición son

$$R = \frac{2n_1 + 1}{n_2}, \quad (\text{IV.15})$$

donde n_1, n_2 son números naturales y $n_1 \geq 2$.

Por razones de simplicidad en el montaje experimental, interesa que las velocidades angulares ω_1 y ω_2 difieran lo menos posible.

Los anteriores requisitos se cumplen de modo óptimo escogiendo el valor

$$R = 5/2, \quad (\text{IV.16})$$

que llevado a (IV.7), y habida cuenta de (IV.3) y (IV.8) conduce a

$$u_0 = A_0 + \sum_{l=1}^{14} (B_l \operatorname{sen} l\beta_1 + A_l \cos l\beta_1), \quad (\text{IV.17})$$

donde los coeficientes de Fourier son

$$A_0 = a_1 a_2 m_{00} + a_2 t_1 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) + a_1 t_2 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) \\ + t_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) + s_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})],$$

$$B_1 = \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [s_{11} m_{01} - c_{11} m_{02} - s_7 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_7 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\ - \frac{1}{2} r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 d_1 (c_{11} m_{31} + s_{11} m_{32}),$$

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [c_{11} m_{01} + s_{11} m_{02} + c_{11} (m_{11} + m_{22}) + s_7 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\ + \frac{1}{2} r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 d_1 (s_{11} m_{31} - c_{11} m_{32}),$$

$$B_2 = a_2 b_1 (s_1 m_{00} + m_{02}) + 2a_2 r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 c_1 m_{03} \\ + b_1 t_2 [s_1 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) + c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22}] \\ + 2r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 t_2 c_1 (c_2 m_{13} + s_2 m_{23}),$$

$$A_2 = a_2 b_1 (c_1 m_{00} + m_{01}) - 2a_2 r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 s_1 m_{03} \\ + b_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) + c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}] \\ - 2r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 t_2 s_1 (c_2 m_{13} + s_2 m_{23}),$$

$$\begin{aligned}
B_3 = & \frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 [s_{11} m_{00} + s_5 m_{01} - c_5 m_{02} - s_7 m_{10} + c_7 m_{20} \\
& - s_3 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_3 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\
& - b_2 r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 (c_{11} m_{03} + c_7 m_{13} + s_7 m_{23}) \\
& - b_2 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 (c_{11} m_{30} + c_5 m_{31} + s_5 m_{32}) \\
& - 2 r_1 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 s_{11} m_{33} ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
A_3 = & \frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 [c_{11} m_{00} + c_5 m_{01} + s_5 m_{02} + c_7 m_{10} + s_7 m_{20} \\
& + c_3 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + s_3 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\
& + b_2 r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 (s_{11} m_{03} - s_7 m_{13} + c_7 m_{23}) \\
& + b_1 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 (s_{11} m_{30} + s_7 m_{31} - c_7 m_{32}) \\
& - 2 r_1 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 c_{11} m_{33} ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
B_4 = & a_2 d_1 (s_1 m_{01} + c_1 m_{02}) + d_1 t_2 [s_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) \\
& + c_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})] ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
A_4 = & a_2 d_1 (c_1 m_{01} - s_1 m_{02}) + d_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) \\
& - s_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})] ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
B_5 = & a_1 b_2 (s_5 m_{00} - s_3 m_{10} + c_3 m_{20}) \\
& + b_2 t_1 [s_5 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) - s_3 (c_1 m_{11} + s_1 m_{12}) + c_3 (c_1 m_{21} + s_1 m_{22})] \\
& - 2 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 c_5 [a_1 m_{30} + t_1 (c_1 m_{31} + s_1 m_{32})] ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
A_5 = & a_1 b_2 (c_5 m_{00} + c_3 m_{10} + s_3 m_{20}) \\
& + b_2 t_1 [c_5 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) + c_3 (c_1 m_{11} + s_1 m_{12}) + s_3 (c_1 m_{21} + s_1 m_{22})] \\
& + 2 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 s_5 [a_1 m_{30} + t_1 (c_1 m_{31} + s_1 m_{32})] ,
\end{aligned}$$

$$B_6 = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [S_{13} (m_{11} + m_{22}) + C_{13} (m_{21} - m_{12})] ,$$

$$A_6 = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [C_{13} (m_{11} + m_{22}) - S_{13} (m_{21} - m_{12})] ,$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_7 = \frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 [& S_{10} m_{00} + S_5 m_{01} + C_5 m_{02} + S_8 m_{10} + C_8 m_{20} \\ & - S_3 (m_{11} - m_{22}) + C_3 (m_{12} + m_{21})] \\ & + b_2 r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 (C_{10} m_{03} + C_8 m_{13} - S_8 m_{23}) \\ & - b_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 (C_{10} m_{30} + C_5 m_{31} - S_5 m_{32}) \\ & + 2 r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 S_{10} m_{33} , \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_7 = \frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 [& C_{10} m_{00} + C_5 m_{01} - S_5 m_{02} + C_8 m_{10} - S_8 m_{20} \\ & + C_3 (m_{11} - m_{22}) + S_3 (m_{12} + m_{21}) \\ & - b_2 r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 (S_{10} m_{03} + S_8 m_{13} + C_8 m_{23}) \\ & + b_2 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 (S_{10} m_{30} + S_5 m_{31} + C_5 m_{32}) \\ & + 2 r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 C_{10} m_{33} , \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_8 = \frac{1}{2} b_1 d_2 [& S_{13} m_{10} + C_{13} m_{20} + S_9 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + C_9 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\ & + r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 d_2 (S_{13} m_{23} - C_{13} m_{13}) , \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_8 = \frac{1}{2} b_1 d_2 [& S_{13} m_{10} - C_{13} m_{20} + C_9 (m_{11} + m_{22}) - S_9 (m_{21} - m_{12})] \\ & + r_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 d_2 (C_{13} m_{23} + S_{13} m_{13}) , \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_9 = \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [& S_{10} m_{01} + C_{10} m_{02} + S_8 (m_{11} - m_{22}) + C_8 (m_{12} + m_{21})] \\ & + r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 d_1 (S_{10} m_{32} - C_{10} m_{31}) , \end{aligned}$$

$$A_9 = \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [c_{10} m_{01} - s_{10} m_{02} + c_8 (m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_8 (m_{12} + m_{21})] \\ + r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 d_1 (c_{10} m_{32} + s_{10} m_{31}) ,$$

$$B_{10} = a_1 d_2 (s_9 m_{10} + c_9 m_{20}) \\ + t_1 d_2 [c_1 (s_9 m_{11} + c_9 m_{21}) + s_1 (s_9 m_{12} + c_9 m_{22})] ,$$

$$A_{10} = a_1 d_2 (c_9 m_{10} - s_9 m_{20}) \\ + t_1 d_2 [c_1 (c_9 m_{11} - s_9 m_{21}) + s_1 (c_9 m_{12} - s_9 m_{22})] ,$$

$$B_{11} = A_{11} = 0 ,$$

$$B_{12} = \frac{1}{2} b_1 d_2 [s_{12} m_{10} + c_{12} m_{20} + s_9 (m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_9 (m_{12} + m_{21})] \\ + r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 d_2 (c_{12} m_{13} - s_{12} m_{23}) ,$$

$$A_{12} = \frac{1}{2} b_1 d_2 [c_{12} m_{10} - s_{12} m_{20} + c_9 (m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_9 (m_{12} + m_{21})] \\ - r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 d_2 (s_{12} m_{13} + c_{12} m_{23}) ,$$

$$B_{13} = A_{13} = 0 ,$$

$$B_{14} = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [s_{12} (m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_{12} (m_{12} + m_{21})] ,$$

$$A_{14} = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [c_{12} (m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_{12} (m_{12} + m_{21})] ; \quad (\text{IV.18})$$

En (IV.18) y en adelante usamos la notación

$$t_1 = \frac{1}{2} a_1 + r_1 \cos \delta_1 ,$$

$$t_2 = \frac{1}{2} a_2 + r_2 \cos \delta_2 ,$$

$$d_1 = \frac{1}{2} a_1 - r_1 \cos \delta_1 ,$$

$$d_2 = \frac{1}{2} a_2 - r_2 \cos \delta_2 ,$$

$$\tau_1 = \theta_1 ,$$

$$\tau_2 = \theta_2 ,$$

$$\tau_3 = \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_4 = \theta_2 - \theta_1 ,$$

$$\tau_5 = \theta_2 - \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_6 = \theta_1 + \theta_2 ,$$

$$\tau_7 = \theta_1 + \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_8 = \theta_1 - \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_9 = \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_{10} = \theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_{11} = \theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_{12} = \theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2 ,$$

$$\tau_{13} = \theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2 ,$$

$$s_i = \text{sen } 2\tau_i ,$$

$$c_i = \text{cos } 2\tau_i , \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 13 . \quad (\text{IV.19})$$

La inversión del sistema de ecuaciones (IV.18) considerando los elementos m_{ij} como incógnitas y todos los demás parámetros como datos, conduce a

$$m_{11} = \frac{S_{13} B_6 + C_{13} A_6 + S_{12} B_{14} + C_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{22} = \frac{S_{13} B_6 + C_{13} A_6 - S_{12} B_{14} - C_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{12} = \frac{-C_{13} B_6 + S_{13} A_6 + C_{12} B_{14} - S_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{21} = \frac{C_{13} B_6 - S_{13} A_6 + C_{12} B_{14} - S_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{01} = \frac{S_1 B_4 + C_1 A_4 - d_1 t_2 (C_2 m_{11} + S_2 m_{21})}{a_2 d_1} ,$$

$$m_{02} = \frac{C_1 B_4 - S_1 A_4 - d_1 t_2 (C_2 m_{12} + S_2 m_{22})}{a_2 d_1} ,$$

$$m_{10} = \frac{S_9 B_{10} + C_9 A_{10} - t_1 d_2 (C_1 m_{11} + S_1 m_{12})}{a_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{20} = \frac{C_9 B_{10} - S_9 A_{10} - t_1 d_2 (C_1 m_{21} + S_1 m_{22})}{a_1 d_2} ,$$

$$m_{13} = \frac{2(C_{12}B_{12} - S_{12}A_{12}) - b_1 d_2 [m_{20} + S_1(m_{22} - m_{11}) + C_1(m_{12} + m_{21})]}{2r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 d_2},$$

$$m_{23} = \frac{-2(S_{12}B_{12} + C_{12}A_{12}) + b_1 d_2 [m_{10} + C_1(m_{11} - m_{22}) + S_1(m_{12} + m_{21})]}{2r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 d_2},$$

$$m_{31} = \frac{2(S_{11}A_1 - C_{11}B_1) - b_2 d_1 [m_{02} + S_2(m_{11} + m_{22}) + C_2(m_{12} - m_{21})]}{2r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 d_1},$$

$$m_{32} = \frac{-2(S_{11}B_1 + C_{11}A_1) + b_2 d_1 [m_{01} + C_2(m_{11} + m_{22}) - S_2(m_{12} - m_{21})]}{2r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2 d_1},$$

$$m_{00} = \frac{A_0 - (\frac{1}{2}a_1 a_2 + a_2 r_1 \cos \delta_1 + a_1 r_2 \cos \delta_2)(C_1 m_{01} + S_1 m_{02} + C_2 m_{10} + S_2 m_{20})}{a_1 a_2}$$

$$- \frac{t_1 t_2 [C_1(C_2 m_{11} + S_2 m_{21}) + S_1(C_2 m_{12} + S_2 m_{22})]}{a_1 a_2},$$

$$m_{03} = \frac{C_1 B_2 - S_1 A_2 - a_2 b_1 (C_1 m_{02} - S_1 m_{01}) + b_1 d_2 [S_1(C_2 m_{11} + S_2 m_{21}) - C_1(C_2 m_{12} + S_2 m_{22})]}{2a_2 r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1}$$

$$- \frac{t_2 (C_2 m_{13} + S_2 m_{23})}{a_2},$$

$$m_{30} = \frac{-C_5 B_5 + S_5 A_5 - a_1 b_2 (S_2 m_{10} - C_2 m_{20}) - b_2 d_1 [S_2(C_1 m_{11} + S_1 m_{12}) - C_2(C_1 m_{21} + S_1 m_{22})]}{2a_1 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2}$$

$$- \frac{t_1 (C_1 m_{31} + S_1 m_{32})}{a_1},$$

$$m_{33} = \frac{2(S_{10}B_7 + C_{10}A_7) - b_1 b_2 [m_{00} + C_1 m_{01} + S_1 m_{02} + C_2 m_{10} + S_2 m_{20} + C_6(m_{11} - m_{22}) + S_6(m_{21} - m_{12})]}{4r_1 r_2 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_2}$$

$$- \frac{b_1 (C_1 m_{32} - S_1 m_{31})}{2r_1 \operatorname{seu} \delta_1},$$

(IV.20)

IV.2. CALIBRADO

El dispositivo de medida queda especificado por una serie de parámetros, que son $\delta_1, \delta_2, k_1, k_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2, R$. En el apartado anterior se ha discutido la elección del valor de R , habiéndolo fijado definitivamente en $R = 5/2$.

Los retardadores L_1 y L_2 pueden escogerse de forma que su valor de retardo nominal coincida con valores preestablecidos, pero dicho valor nominal siempre está sujeto a un cierto margen de error, que en parte es debido al efecto de las reflexiones internas múltiples^{37,44,45}.

Por otra parte k_1 y k_2 siempre difieren de su valor ideal, que es $k_1 = k_2 = 1$.

Los parámetros angulares $\theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$ son fáciles de controlar, sin embargo, el imponer unos valores preestablecidos, puede inducir a errores en las medidas.

Las anteriores consideraciones hacen aconsejable un calibrado del dispositivo, en orden a obtener los valores efectivos de los parámetros característicos del mismo.

En el presente apartado exponemos la forma de realizar un calibrado, que tiene la ventaja de que no precisa de ningún medio óptico como test, el cual inevitablemente induciría a errores adicionales en la determinación de los parámetros.

La matriz de Mueller correspondiente al caso en que no se ha colocado ningún medio óptico problema en el dispositivo, es la matriz identidad, y entonces el sistema

(IV.18) se convierte en

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_0 &= a_1 a_2 + t_1 t_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1) , \\
 B_1 &= -b_2 d_1 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) , \\
 A_1 &= b_2 d_1 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) , \\
 B_2 &= b_1 (a_2 s_1 + t_2 s_2) , \\
 A_2 &= b_1 (a_2 c_1 + t_2 c_2) , \\
 B_3 &= \frac{1}{2} (b_1 b_2 - 4r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2) \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2) - b_1 b_2 s_3 , \\
 A_3 &= \frac{1}{2} (b_1 b_2 - 4r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2) \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2) - b_1 b_2 c_3 , \\
 B_4 &= d_1 t_2 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2) , \\
 A_4 &= d_1 t_2 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2) , \\
 B_5 &= b_2 [a_1 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 - \alpha_2) + t_1 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_1 - \alpha_2)] , \\
 A_5 &= b_2 [a_1 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \alpha_2) + t_1 \cos 2(\theta_1 - \alpha_2)] , \\
 B_6 &= d_1 d_2 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 A_6 &= d_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 B_7 &= \left(\frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 + 2r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2\right) \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2) , \\
 A_7 &= \left(\frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 + 2r_1 r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_1 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2\right) \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2) , \\
 B_8 &= b_1 d_2 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 A_8 &= b_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 B_{10} &= t_1 d_2 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 A_{10} &= t_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) , \\
 B_9 &= A_9 = B_{12} = A_{12} = B_{14} = A_{14} = 0 .
 \end{aligned}$$

(IV.21)

A partir de estas expresiones es fácil comprobar que

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2) = \frac{B_4}{A_4} \quad , \quad (\text{IV.22.a})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_6}{A_6} \quad , \quad (\text{IV.22.b})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_{10}}{A_{10}} \quad , \quad (\text{IV.22.c})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2) = \frac{B_7}{A_7} \quad , \quad (\text{IV.22.d})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) = -\frac{B_1}{A_1} \quad , \quad (\text{IV.22.e})$$

$$\operatorname{tang} 2(\theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_8}{A_8} \quad . \quad (\text{IV.22.f})$$

Es de señalar que en los retardadores, los valores de K_1 y K_2 son próximos a la unidad, y por lo tanto los parámetros b_1 , b_2 son muy cercanos a cero. Ello hace aconsejable que, cuando sea posible, los parámetros incógnita se extraigan a partir de coeficientes de Fourier que no incluyan b_1 ó b_2 como factor global. En este sentido, para obtener θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 se han de utilizar tres de las cuatro primeras relaciones (IV.22).

Ahora ya podemos considerar los ángulos θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 , como datos, y con ellos obtener todos los parámetros angulares definidos en (IV.19). Para simplificar posteriores expresiones definimos

$$D_1 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{B_{10} S_{13}}{B_6 S_{12}} - 1 \right)}{\left(\frac{B_{10} S_{13}}{B_6 S_{12}} + 1 \right)} \quad , \quad D_2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{B_4 S_{13}}{B_6 S_6} - 1 \right)}{\left(\frac{B_4 S_{13}}{B_6 S_6} + 1 \right)} \quad . \quad (\text{IV.23})$$

A partir de (IV.21) se puede comprobar que

$$a_1 a_2 = \frac{S_6 B_4 + C_6 A_4}{\left(\frac{1}{2} - D_1\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} + D_2\right)} = \frac{S_{13} B_6 + C_{13} A_6}{\left(\frac{1}{2} - D_1\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - D_2\right)} = \frac{S_{12} B_{10} + C_{12} A_{10}}{\left(\frac{1}{2} + D_1\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - D_2\right)} =$$

$$\frac{A_0}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + D_1\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} + D_2\right) C_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.a})$$

$$b_1 b_2 = \frac{S_{11} A_3 - C_{11} B_3}{S_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.b})$$

$$a_1 b_2 = \frac{C_8 B_5 - S_8 A_5}{S_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.c})$$

$$a_2 b_1 = \frac{S_2 A_2 - C_2 B_2}{S_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.d})$$

Por otra parte, definimos

$$X_1 \equiv (a_1 a_2 + a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 + b_1 b_2) = 4 K_a K_b, \quad (\text{IV.25.a})$$

$$X_2 \equiv (a_1 a_2 - a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 + b_1 b_2) = 4 K'_a K'_b, \quad (\text{IV.25.b})$$

$$X_3 \equiv (a_1 a_2 - a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 - b_1 b_2) = 4 K_a K'_b, \quad (\text{IV.25.c})$$

$$X_4 \equiv (a_1 a_2 + a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 - b_1 b_2) = 4 K'_a K_b. \quad (\text{IV.25.d})$$

Los parámetros $K_1, K_2, \delta_1, \delta_2$ pueden calcularse del siguiente modo

$$K_1 = \frac{X_4}{X_1} = \frac{X_2}{X_3}, \quad (\text{IV.26.a})$$

$$K_2 = \frac{X_2}{X_4} = \frac{X_3}{X_1} , \quad (\text{IV.26.b})$$

$$\cos \delta_1 = D_1 \frac{1+K_1}{K_1^{1/2}} , \quad (\text{IV.27.a})$$

$$\cos \delta_2 = D_2 \frac{1+K_2}{K_2^{1/2}} . \quad (\text{IV.27.b})$$

Para δ_1 , δ_2 , podemos fijar el siguiente rango de variación

$$0 \leq \delta_i \leq \pi , \quad i = 1, 2 ; \quad (\text{IV.28})$$

ya que los valores

$$\pi < \delta_i < 2\pi , \quad i = 1, 2 ;$$

equivalen a valores del tipo (IV.28) pero con un giro de $\frac{\pi}{2}$ de los ejes del retardador. Es por ello, que δ_1 , δ_2 quedan determinados con (IV.27), sin necesidad de conocer los signos de $\text{sen } \delta_1$, $\text{sen } \delta_2$, ya que éstos son positivos.

Para que en los sistemas (IV.20) y (IV.24) no se produzcan indeterminaciones, deben cumplirse algunas condiciones en los parámetros característicos del dispositivo. Tales condiciones son

$$\theta_1 \neq \theta_2 , \quad (\text{IV.29})$$

$$\delta_i \neq 0, \pi \quad i = 1, 2 . \quad (\text{IV.30})$$

Los rangos de valores aceptables de los parámetros pueden resumirse en

$$0 < \delta_1, \delta_2 < \pi , \quad (\text{IV.31})$$

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2 \leq \frac{\pi}{2} , \quad (\text{IV.32})$$

con la condición (IV.29).

El calibrado del dispositivo se consigue por medio de un análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz correspondiente al caso en que no se ha colocado ningún medio óptico problema en el dispositivo. Los coeficientes de Fourier de dicho análisis son los dados en (IV.21), y a partir de ellos se pueden calcular los valores de los parámetros δ_1 , δ_2 , K_1 , K_2 , θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 , por medio de las relaciones (IV.22.a.d.), (IV.26) y (IV.27). Una vez conocidos dichos parámetros, ya se pueden realizar medidas de matrices de Mueller, cuyos elementos se obtienen con (IV.20), donde los coeficientes de Fourier A_i , B_j corresponden al análisis de Fourier de la señal registrada en cada medida.

En ocasiones puede resultar conveniente una regulación de los valores δ_1 y δ_2 de los retardadores. Ello puede realizarse utilizando como retardadores L_1 y L_2 , dos compensadores de Soleil. Otra forma de hacerlo, que presenta ventajas en cuanto a montaje en un mecanismo que produzca la rotación de los compensadores, es utilizar como tales sendos conjuntos de tres láminas de retardo comerciales, de forma que los de los extremos son iguales y tienen sus ejes rápidos alineados. Cada uno de dichos conjuntos puede tipificarse como $L(\alpha, \delta) L(\alpha, \delta') L(\alpha, \delta)$, y según el teorema T14, equivale a un retardador lineal $L(\theta, \Delta)$ de forma que³⁹

$$\operatorname{tang} 2\theta = \frac{\operatorname{sen} 2\alpha}{\operatorname{sen} \delta \operatorname{cotg}(\delta'/2) + \cos \delta \cos 2\alpha}, \quad (\text{IV.33})$$

$$\cos(\Delta/2) = \cos \delta \cos(\delta'/2) - \operatorname{sen} \delta \operatorname{sen}(\delta'/2) \cos 2\alpha. \quad (\text{IV.34})$$

De acuerdo con estas expresiones vemos que regulando la orientación α del retardador intermedio obtenemos diferentes retardadores lineales equivalentes con valores de θ y Δ en los siguientes rangos

$$|\theta| \leq \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc\,tang} \frac{\operatorname{sen}(\delta/2)}{[\operatorname{sen}^2\delta - \operatorname{sen}^2(\delta/2)]} , \quad (\text{IV.35})$$

$$|2\delta - \delta'| \leq \Delta \leq 2\delta + \delta' . \quad (\text{IV.36})$$

En lugar de utilizar dos conjuntos de tres retardadores, podemos utilizar dos conjuntos iguales de dos láminas de retardo lineal. Uno de dichos conjuntos lo tipificamos como $L(\alpha, \delta) L(0, \delta')$, y, según el teorema T4, sabemos que equivale a un sistema $L(\theta, \Delta) R(\gamma)$ compuesto por un retardador lineal y un rotor equivalentes tales que³⁹

$$\operatorname{tang} \gamma = \frac{\operatorname{sen} 2\alpha}{\cos 2\alpha - \operatorname{cotg}(\delta/2) \operatorname{cotg}(\delta'/2)} , \quad (\text{IV.37})$$

$$\operatorname{tang}(2\theta - \gamma) = \frac{\operatorname{sen} 2\alpha}{\cos 2\alpha + \operatorname{cotg}(\delta/2) \operatorname{cotg}(\delta'/2)} , \quad (\text{IV.38})$$

$$\cos^2 \Delta/2 = \cos^2 \left(\frac{\delta + \delta'}{2} \right) \cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \left(\frac{\delta - \delta'}{2} \right) \operatorname{sen}^2 \alpha . \quad (\text{IV.39})$$

Si utilizamos como retardador L_1 el sistema $L(\alpha, \delta) L(0, \delta')$ y como L_2 el sistema $L(0, \delta') L(\alpha, \delta)$, el efecto del rotor equivalente de un sistema se compensa con el del otro, ya que ambos rotores introducen un giro igual y de sentido opuesto. El parámetro γ del rotor equivalente de cada sistema no depende de la orientación absoluta de éste, y por lo tanto el efecto de los rotores se compensa incluso cuando los dos sistemas de dos retardadores

están en rotación.

IV.3. SEÑAL APARATO

En el apartado anterior se ha visto que los parámetros característicos del dispositivo se obtienen a partir de un registro realizado sin colocar en el dispositivo ningún medio óptico problema. A toda señal obtenida en un registro del tipo mencionado, la denominaremos señal aparato. Los parámetros obtenidos a partir de dicha señal pueden utilizarse para generar, por medio de un ordenador, la gráfica de una señal ideal correspondiente a dichos parámetros, y que se obtiene con la ayuda de (IV.21). La gráfica de la señal aparato ideal así obtenida puede compararse con la correspondiente al registro experimental, dando una idea cualitativa visual de la precisión en las medidas. Cuanto más se asemejen las dos señales, más preciso será el dispositivo*. Ejemplos de señales ideales correspondientes a diferentes valores de los parámetros característicos del dispositivo se muestran en Fig. IV.2-IV.5.

IV.4 ANALISIS DE FOURIER POR ORDENADOR DE LA SEÑAL REGISTRADA.

Para la obtención de los coeficientes de Fourier correspondientes a una función tabulada $u_0(x)$ proveniente de un registro de medida, nos hemos basado en un algoritmo similar al propuesto por A. Ralston y H. Wilf⁴⁶. Los datos

* En el capítulo VI se analizan y discuten los principales efectos que pueden inducir divergencias entre la señal aparato ideal y la experimental.

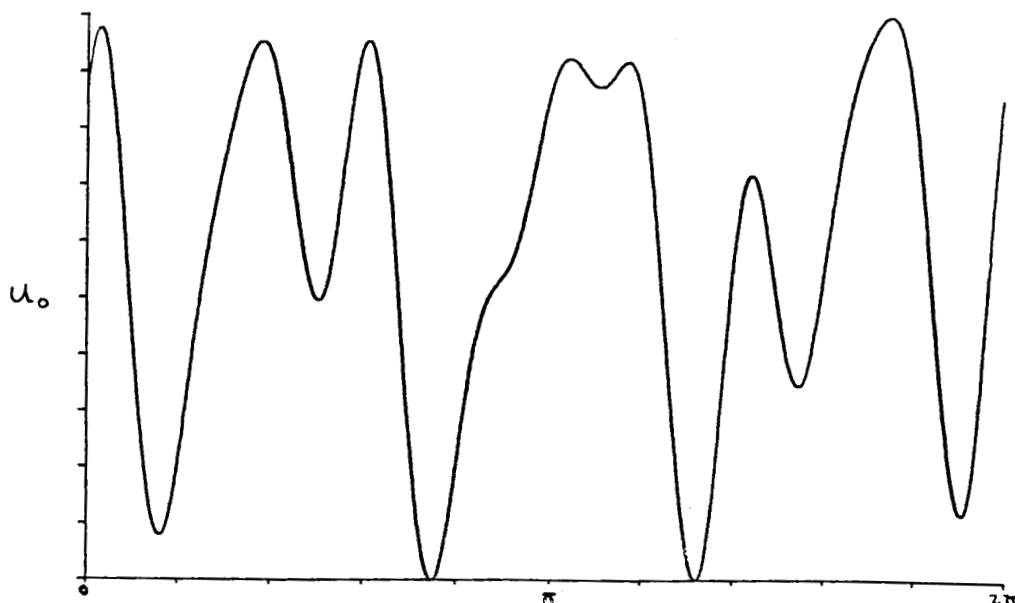


Fig.IV.2.- Señal aparato correspondiente a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 22.5^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$.

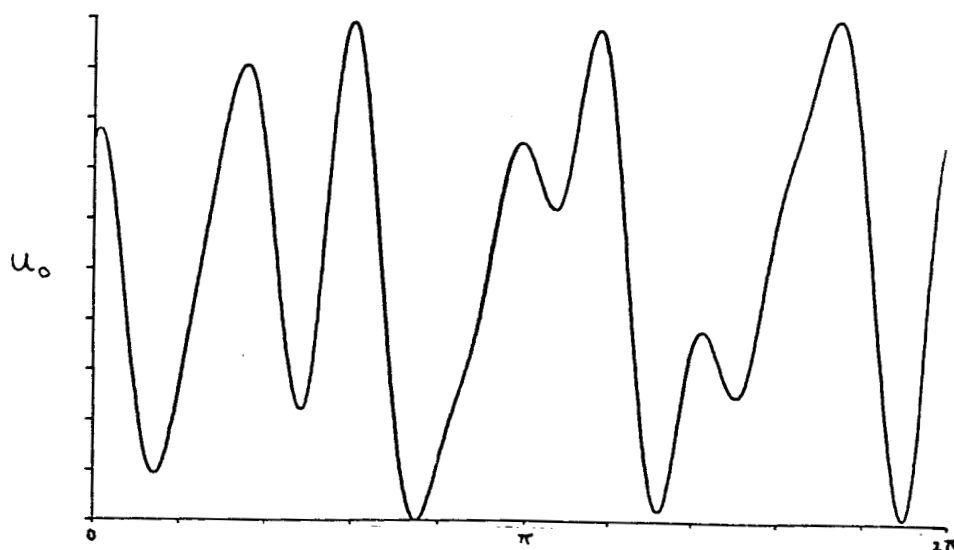


Fig.IV.3.- Señal aparato correspondiente a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller: $\alpha_2 = 22.5^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 45^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 0.980$.

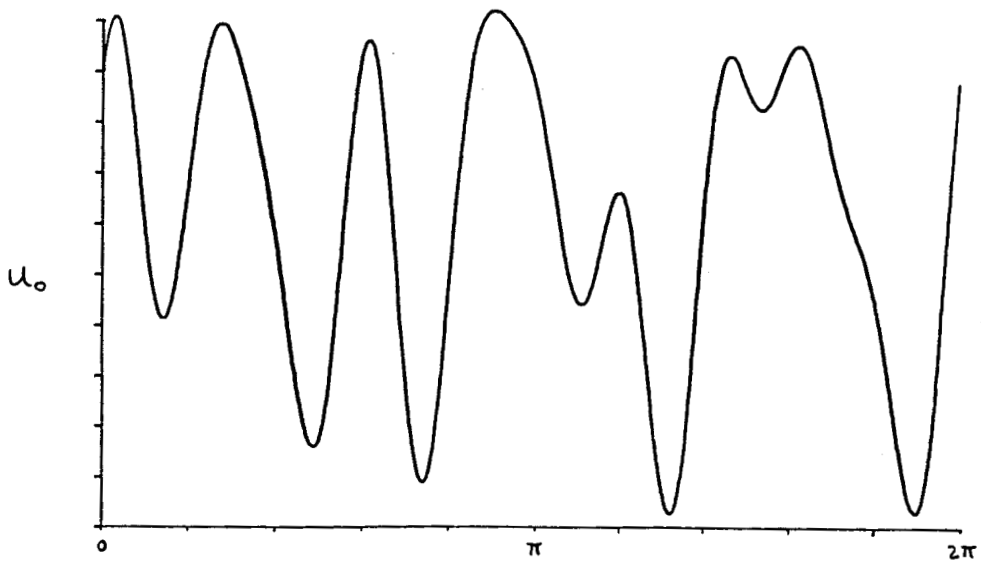


Fig.IV.4.- Señal aparato correspondiente a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 22.5^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$, $\theta_2 = 0^\circ$.

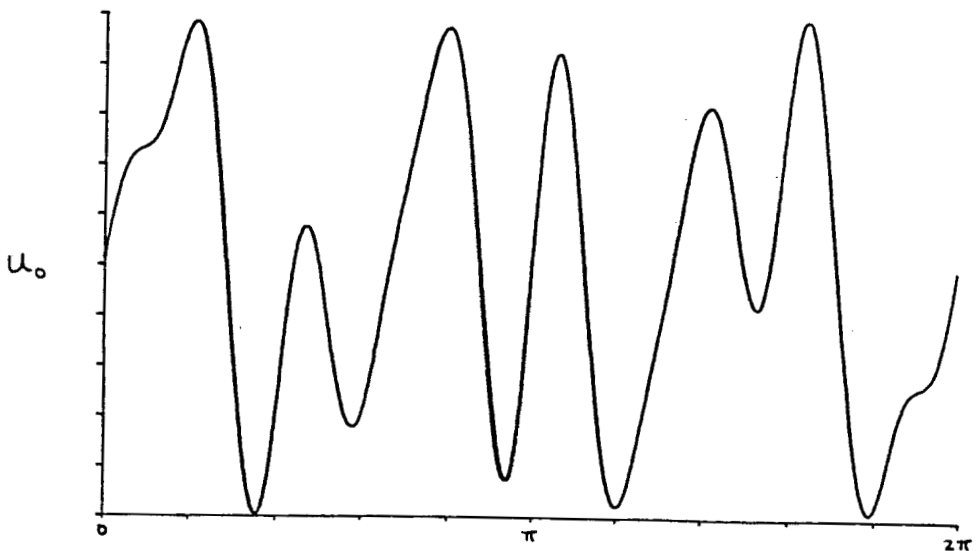


Fig.IV.5.- Señal aparato correspondiente a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller: $\alpha_2 = 45^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 90^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$.

requeridos por nuestra subrutina de análisis de Fourier son los siguientes

- 1- Valor entero N , tal que hay $2N+1$ puntos tabulados, que son

$$\frac{2k\pi}{2N+1}, \quad k=0, 1, 2, \dots, 2N. \quad (\text{IV.40})$$

- 2- Valores de la función $u(x)$ para $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$, tabulados en intervalos de $2\pi/(2N+1)$.

- 3- Orden M de coeficientes de Fourier deseados, tal que $0 \leq M \leq N$

En nuestro caso $M=14$, y el número mínimo de puntos-dato requeridos es $2M+1=29$.

V. METODO DINAMICO DE ANALISIS DE LUZ POLARIZADA

El estudio realizado en el capítulo anterior puede particularizarse para el caso en que se desee determinar el vector de Stokes asociado a un haz de luz problema. Veremos que ello se puede conseguir realizando en primer lugar un calibrado del dispositivo para la longitud de onda de dicho haz, y registrando después la señal de intensidad de luz del haz problema tras atravesar éste el dispositivo de medida.

V.1. DISPOSITIVO DE ANALISIS

En el apartado IV.1. se comentó que el dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller, esquematizado en la Fig. IV.1, puede considerarse dividido en dos partes. Una de ellas, la que contiene a L_2 y P_2 , sirve para analizar el estado de polarización de la luz que incide sobre él. El esquema de la Fig. V.1. muestra el dispositivo utilizado para obtener los parámetros de Stokes correspondientes a un haz de luz problema

La matriz de Mueller correspondiente al sistema formado por L_2 y P_2 , es la matriz B dada en (IV.7). El vector de Stokes u correspondiente al haz de luz emergente, cuando incide sobre el dispositivo un haz de luz problema de vector de Stokes S es

$$u = B S, \quad (V.1)$$

y la intensidad de luz emergente es

$$u_0 = b_{00} S_0 + b_{01} S_1 + b_{02} S_2 + b_{03} S_3. \quad (V.2)$$

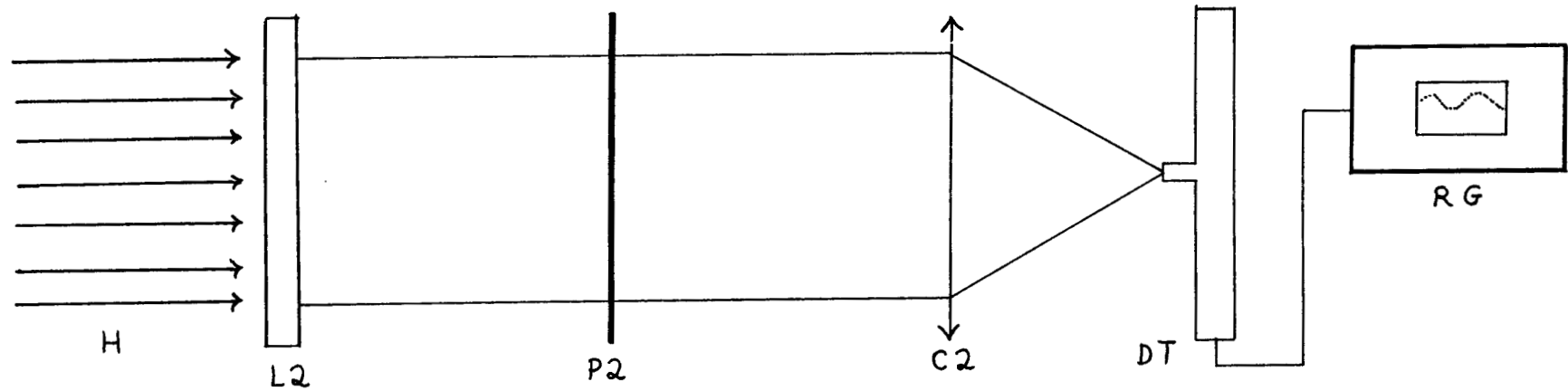


Fig.V.1.- Esquema del dispositivo dinámico de análisis de luz polarizada.

H: haz colimado de luz monocromática.

L2:retardador rotatorio

P2:polarizador lineal

C2:lente colectora

DT:detector

RG:instrumento de registro

A partir de (IV.7) y (V.2) y utilizando algunas relaciones trigonométricas se obtiene²⁰

$$u_o = A_o + B_1 \operatorname{sen} \omega + A_1 \cos \omega + B_2 \operatorname{sen} 2\omega + A_2 \cos 2\omega, \quad (\text{V.3})$$

donde

$$\omega = 2\omega_2$$

$$A_o = (1+k_2)S_o + \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] (S_1 \cos 2\theta_2 + S_2 \operatorname{sen} 2\theta_2),$$

$$B_1 = (1-k_2) \left[S_o \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) + S_1 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 + S_2 \cos 2\alpha_2 \right] - 2r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 S_3 \cos 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2),$$

$$A_1 = (1-k_2) \left[S_o \cos 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) + S_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - S_2 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 \right] + 2r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 S_3 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2),$$

$$B_2 = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \left[S_1 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) + S_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) \right],$$

$$A_2 = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \left[S_1 \cos 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) - S_2 \operatorname{sen} 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) \right].$$

(V.4)

Hasta ahora se han dejado libres los dos parámetros angulares θ_2 , α_2 . Para concretar consideraremos un sistema cartesiano de ejes de referencia XYZ, de forma que la luz se propaga en la dirección del eje Z, y el eje de polarización del polarizador lineal P_2 coincide con el eje X. Con esta elección, $\theta_2 = 0$, y α_2 es el ángulo que forma el eje rápido de L_2 con el eje X en el instante inicial. Las expresiones (V.4) se convierten ahora en

$$A_o = (1+k_2)S_o + \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] S_1,$$

$$B_1 = (1-k_2) \left[S_o \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 + S_1 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 + S_2 \cos 2\alpha_2 \right] - 2r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 S_3 \cos 2\alpha_2,$$

$$A_1 = (1-k_2) \left[S_o \cos 2\alpha_2 + S_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - S_2 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 \right] + 2r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2 S_3 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2,$$

$$B_2 = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] (S_1 \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2 + S_2 \cos 4\alpha_2),$$

$$A_2 = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] (S_1 \cos 4\alpha_2 - S_2 \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2). \quad (\text{V.5})$$

Por medio de un análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz u_0 , se pueden obtener los coeficientes de Fourier de la serie (V.3). Si conocemos los parámetros δ_2, K_2, α_2 , característicos del dispositivo de análisis, a partir de (V.5) es fácil comprobar que los elementos del vector de Stokes S correspondiente al haz de luz problema son

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_1 &= \frac{B_2 \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2 + A_2 \cos 4\alpha_2}{\frac{1}{2}(1+K_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2} , \\
 S_2 &= \frac{B_2 \cos 4\alpha_2 - A_2 \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2}{\frac{1}{2}(1+K_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2} , \\
 S_3 &= \frac{A_1 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 - B_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - (1-K_2)S_2}{2r_2 \operatorname{sen} \delta_2} , \\
 S_0 &= \frac{A_0 - \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+K_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] S_1}{1 + K_2} .
 \end{aligned} \tag{V.6}$$

V.2. CALIBRADO.

Una forma de obtener los parámetros δ_2, K_2, α_2 , es realizar un registro cuando incide sobre el dispositivo un haz de luz polarizada lineal según el eje X de referencia. En este caso

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

y los coeficientes de Fourier correspondientes al análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz u_0 son

$$A_0 = \frac{A'_0}{f} = \frac{3}{2} (1 + K_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \quad ,$$

$$B_1 = \frac{B'_1}{f} = 2 (1 - K_2) \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 \quad ,$$

$$A_1 = \frac{A'_1}{f} = 2 (1 - K_2) \cos 2\alpha_2 \quad ,$$

$$B_2 = \frac{B'_2}{f} = \left[\frac{1}{2} (1 + K_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2 \quad ,$$

$$A_2 = \frac{A'_2}{f} = \left[\frac{1}{2} (1 + K_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \cos 4\alpha_2 \quad ; \quad (V.7)$$

donde los coeficientes A'_i, B'_j ; que suponemos conocidos, vienen afectados por un factor global de escala f .

Los parámetros Z_1, Z_2, h , definidos como

$$Z_1 \equiv B'_2 \operatorname{sen} 4\alpha_2 + A'_2 \cos 4\alpha_2 + A'_0 = 2f(1 + K_2) \quad ,$$

$$Z_2 \equiv B'_1 \operatorname{sen} 2\alpha_2 + A'_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 = 2f(1 - K_2) \quad ,$$

$$h \equiv \frac{Z_2}{Z_1} \quad ; \quad (V.8)$$

permiten obtener $\delta_2, K_2, \alpha_2, f$, del siguiente modo

$$\operatorname{tang} 4\alpha_2 = \frac{B'_2}{A'_2} \quad ,$$

$$K_2 = \frac{1-h}{1+h} \quad ,$$

$$f = \frac{Z_1}{2(1+K_2)} \quad ,$$

$$\cos \delta_2 = \frac{A'_0/f - 3/2 (1+K_2)}{r_2} \quad . \quad (V.9)$$

Para que las expresiones (V.6) no den lugar a indeterminaciones hemos de imponer la condición

$$\delta_2 \neq 0, \pi .$$

Como acabamos de ver, el calibrado del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada se consigue realizando un registro cuando incide sobre el dispositivo un haz de luz polarizada lineal según el eje X. Por medio de un análisis de Fourier por ordenador de la señal registrada, se obtienen los coeficientes de Fourier correspondientes, y a partir de ellos calculamos los parámetros del dispositivo según (V.9).

El análisis de Fourier de la señal se realiza de modo análogo al indicado en el apartado IV.5. La única diferencia es que en este caso sólo existen dos términos armónicos, y por lo tanto $M=2$. El número mínimo de puntos-dato requeridos por el programa de análisis de Fourier por ordenador es 5.

V.3. SENSIBILIDAD DE LA SEÑAL APARATO RESPECTO A LOS PARAMETROS DE CALIBRADO

Con objeto de apreciar la influencia de los diferentes parámetros de calibrado en la señal aparato hemos procedido a estudiar ésta variando sistemáticamente cada uno de los parámetros de calibrado, dejando fijos los restantes.

Las Fig. V.2, V.3 y V.4 recogen las señales obtenidas para variaciones de los parámetros α_2 , δ_2 y K_2 , respectivamente (línea de puntos), en relación con la señal aparato correspondiente a los valores $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$ y $K_2 = 1$ (línea continua). De ellas se infiere que una

variación del valor de α_2 se traduce en un corrimiento global de toda la señal (la Fig. V.2 muestra el caso de una variación de $+3^\circ$ en α_2); la disminución del valor δ_2 es acompañada de una elevación de los mínimos (Fig. V.3), mientras que su aumento produce una mayor elongación de la señal; finalmente, la variación del parámetro K_2 genera una diferencia significativa entre los valores de cada dos máximos consecutivos (Fig. V.4).

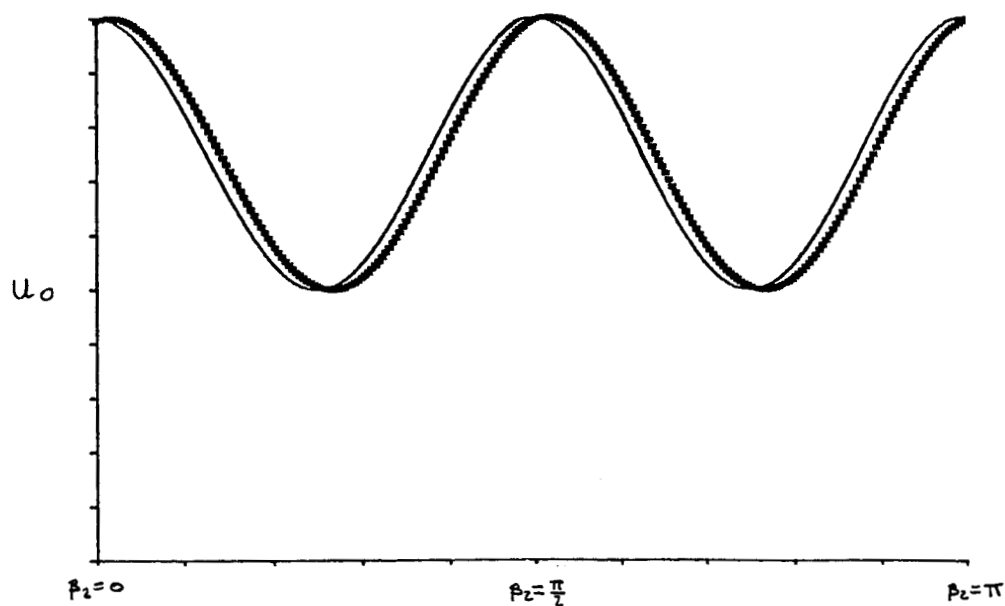


Fig.V.2.- Señales aparato correspondientes a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada
a) Línea continua: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $K_2 = 1$
b) Línea de puntos: $\alpha_2 = 3^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $K_2 = 1$

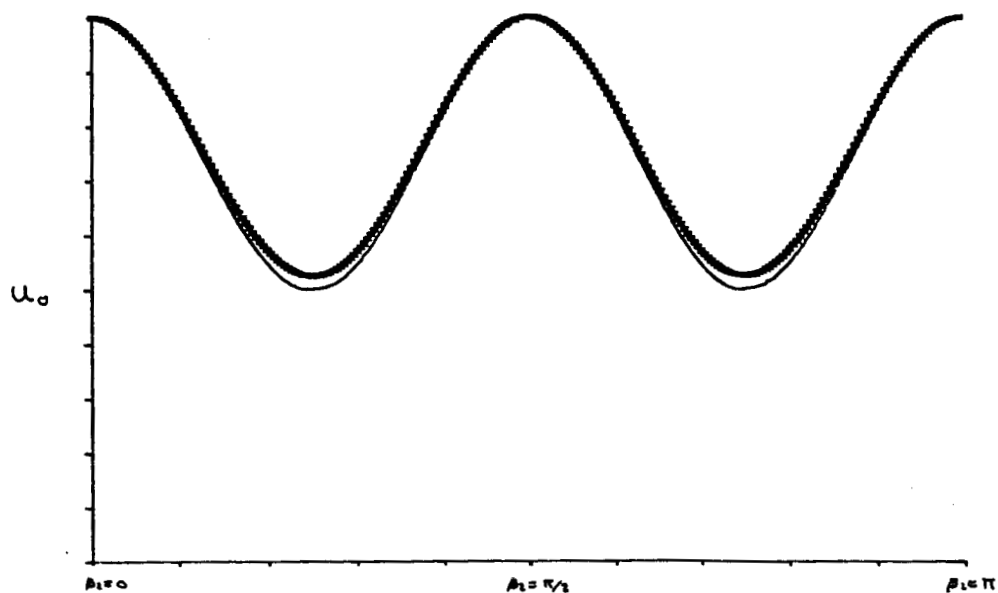


Fig.V.3.- Señales aparato correspondientes a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada

a) Línea continua: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $K_2 = 1$
 b) Línea de puntos: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 87^\circ$, $K_2 = 1$

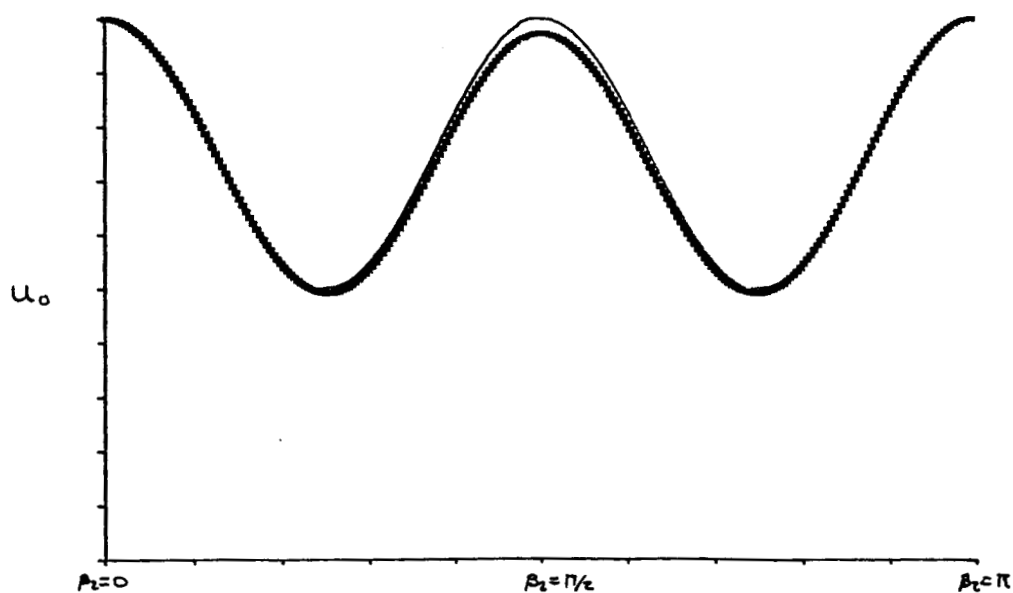


Fig.V.4.- Señales aparato correspondientes a los siguientes valores de los parámetros del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada

a) Línea continua: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $K_2 = 1$
 b) Línea de puntos: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $K_2 = 0.97$

VI. DISPOSITIVO EXPERIMENTAL

Los métodos dinámicos de determinación de matrices de Mueller y parámetros de Stokes descritos en los capítulos IV y V, requieren para su utilización práctica, de un adecuado dispositivo experimental. En base a ello hemos diseñado y puesto a punto un montaje experimental que permite la determinación de matrices de Mueller asociadas a medios ópticos que operan por transmisión. Suprimiendo uno de los retardadores rotatorios, el mismo montaje sirve también para la determinación de los parámetros de Stokes de un haz de luz problema.

VI.1. MONTAJE EXPERIMENTAL GENERAL

En la Fig. VI.1 se muestra un esquema general del montaje experimental utilizado para la obtención de medidas de matrices de Mueller*

En lo que sigue hacemos una enumeración y descripción de los componentes del dispositivo

- (a) Láser He-Ne
- (b) Retardador L_1
- (c) Mecanismo productor de la rotación de los retardadores

* Este montaje está diseñado para aplicación a medios ópticos que operan por transmisión, pero puede ser adecuadamente modificado para el estudio de medios reflectores ó difusores.

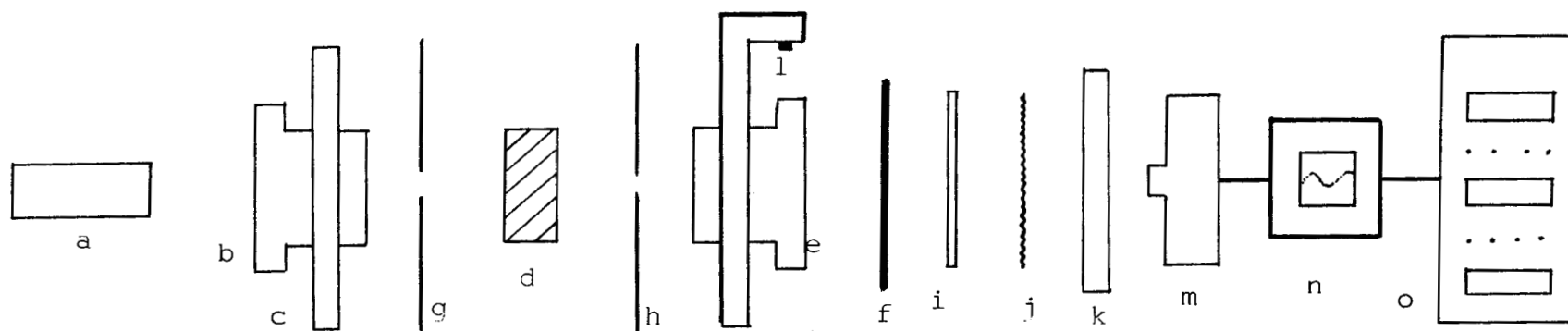


Fig.VI.1.- Esquema del montaje experimental utilizado para determinación de matrices de Mueller y análisis de luz polarizada.

a: laser He-Ne; b: retardador lineal; c: mecanismo productor de la rotación de los retardadores; d: medio óptico problema e: retardador lineal; f: polarizador lineal total; g,h: diafragmas; i: filtro neutro; j: difusor; k: filtro interferencial; l: dispositivo electrónico de determinación de origen y periodo; m: detector; n: instrumento de registro; o: ordenador electrónico.

- (d) Medio óptico problema 0 , cuya matriz de Mueller M se desea determinar.
- (e) Retardador L_2
- (f) Polarizador lineal total P_2
- (g) Diafragma F_1
- (h) Diafragma F_2
- (i) Filtro neutro N
- (j) Difusor DF
- (k) Filtro interferencial FI
- (l) Dispositivo electrónico DE que permite determinar el origen y periodo de la señal registrada
- (m) Detector DT
- (n) Aparato de registro
- (o) Ordenador electrónico

Como fuente luminosa hemos utilizado un láser He-Ne Spectra-Physics modelo 120 A ($\lambda = 6328 \text{ \AA}$).

El empleo del haz de luz láser sin expandir como haz de sondeo, permite realizar una exploración local de la muestra que se coloca en el dispositivo.

Como la luz sale del láser polarizada linealmente, no es necesario utilizar ningún polarizador lineal P_1 . El polarizador lineal P_2 es del tipo Polaroid HN-22, cuyos valores nominales de los coeficientes principales de transmisión en intensidad para $\lambda = 6500 \text{ \AA}$ son

$$K = 0.48 \quad ,$$

$$K' = 2 \times 10^{-6} \quad ,$$

de donde

$$K_2 = \frac{K'}{K} \approx 4 \times 10^{-6} \quad ,$$

lo cual justifica la suposición teórica de que P_2 es un polarizador lineal total. Por otra parte, como la orientación de P_2 es fija durante cada medida, no se producen errores sistemáticos debidos a la diferente respuesta del detector para diferentes estados de polarización de la luz que le incide, efecto éste que hemos comprobado en el laboratorio con muy diversos detectores.

Como retardadores L_1 , L_2 , hemos utilizado láminas comerciales Polaroid, que presentan un valor nominal de retardo $140 \pm 20 \text{ m}\mu$, para una longitud de onda $\lambda = 5600 \text{ \AA}$.

El cometido de los diafragmas F_1 y F_2 es evitar que se produzcan reflexiones múltiples entre los diferentes componentes que son atravesados por el haz de luz. Dichas reflexiones producirían haces de luz parásitos incidentes sobre el detector.

El filtro neutro N así como el difusor DF sirven para atenuar la intensidad de luz que incide sobre el detector cuando éste es un fotomultiplicador.

La finalidad del filtro interferencial es evitar que incida sobre el detector luz ambiente de longitud de onda diferente de la longitud de onda del láser.

En la Fig. VI.2 se muestra un esquema del mecanismo que produce la rotación de los retardadores L_1 y L_2 . Dicho mecanismo consiste en un acoplamiento de dos engranajes paralelos exteriores, movidos por un motor asíncrono (MA) que va adosado a la cara anterior del soporte de aluminio que sirve de sustento del aparato. El motor va conectado a la red y tiene una velocidad en vacío de 3.500 r.p.m., con una potencia de 200 W aproximadamente. Dicho motor transmite

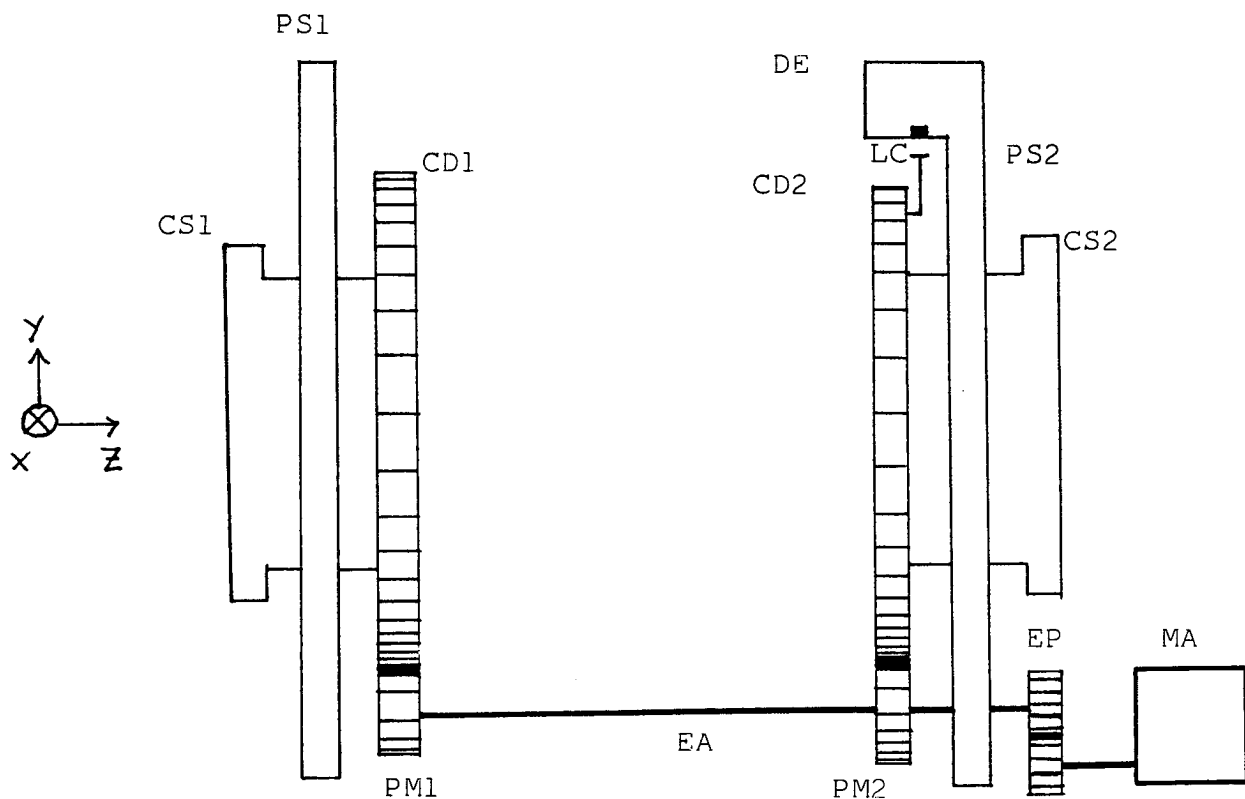


Fig.VI.27+ Esquema del mecanismo productor de la rotación de los retardadores.

- MA: Motor asíncrono
- EA: Eje de acero
- EP: Engranaje paralelo
- PM1, PM2: Piñones motrices
- CD1, CD2: Coronas dentadas
- PS1, PS2: Placas de soporte
- CS1, CS2: Carcasas para la sujeción de los retardadores.
- LC: Lámina de cobre
- DE: Dispositivo electrónico de disparo, activado periódicamente por LC.

el movimiento al eje de acero (EA) por medio de un engranaje paralelo (EP). Este eje rota en unos pequeños rodamientos, y solidarios a él van dos piñones motrices (PM1) y (PM2). Las ruedas resistentes del engranaje son las coronas dentadas (CD1) y (CD2), que son solidarias a sendos casquillos cilíndricos que van engastados en las placas - soporte (PS1) y (PS2). Dichos casquillos rotan en sendos acoplamientos de dos rodamientos a bolas. El hecho de haber colocado estos rodamientos dispuestos de dos en dos tiene como finalidad que no se produzcan movimientos laterales de los casquillos. Por las caras exteriores sobresale cada uno de los mencionados casquillos, a los que van adosadas las carcasas (CS1) y (CS2) que sirven de soporte para las láminas de retardo. Por medio de un conjunto de tres tornillos se puede regular la perpendicularidad de cada lámina con el eje óptico del sistema.

Para mantener la consistencia de la maquinaria, las placas (PS1) y (PS2) van unidas por otras dos placas laterales (PL1) y (PL2). Todo el conjunto va fijado por medio de cuatro "patas" a la base del banco óptico.

El espacio intermedio entre las dos coronas dentadas permite la colocación del medio óptico problema, que puede desplazarse en el plano XY, y así estudiar sus propiedades en diferentes puntos.

En orden a fijar el origen de las señales detectadas, se ha diseñado el dispositivo electrónico esquematizado en la Fig. VI.3., y que contiene una bobina en la que se inducen corrientes de Foucault cuando un conductor se mueve en su proximidad. La bobina va conectada con un sistema flip-flop que convierte los picos en una señal almena.

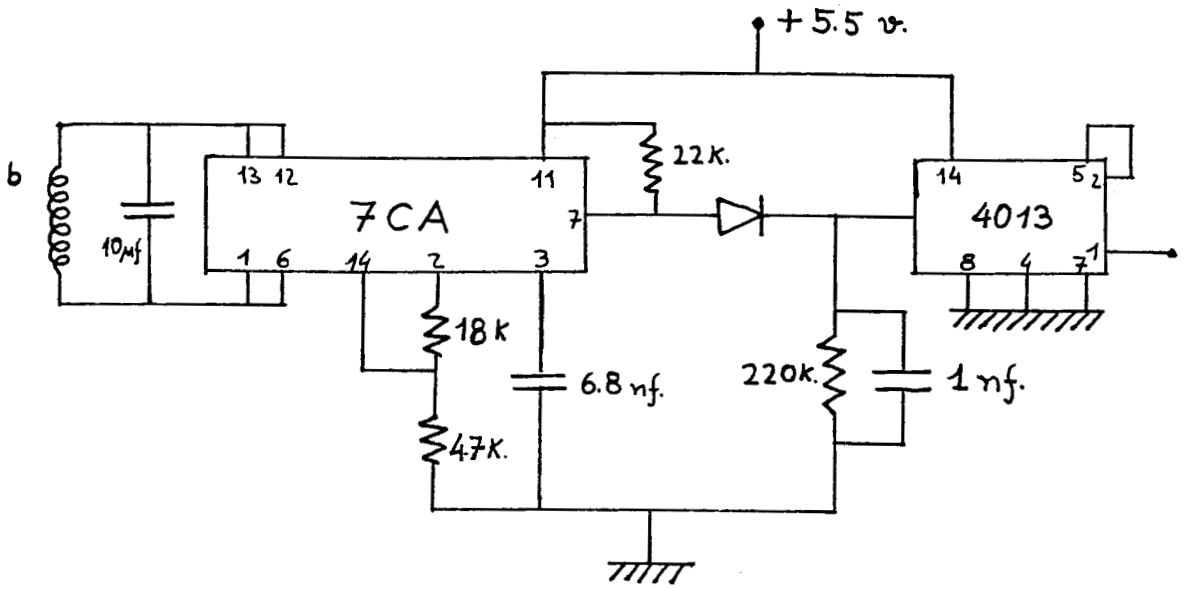


Fig.VI.3.- Esquema del dispositivo electrónico para la determinación del origen y período de las señales registradas.

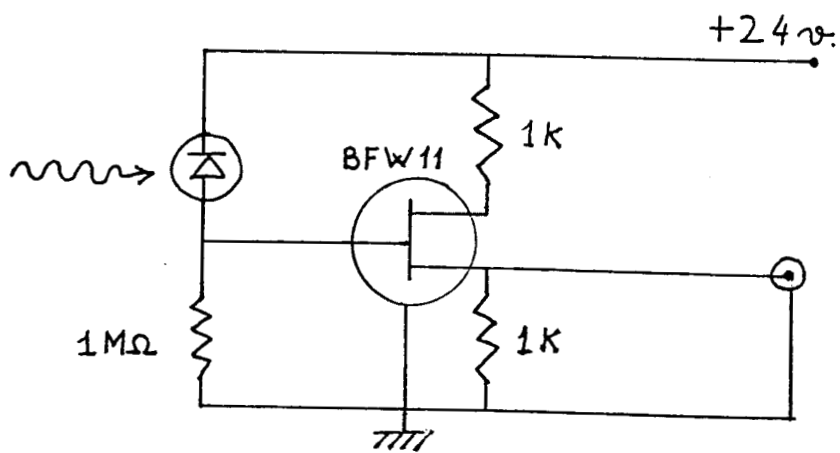


Fig.VI.4.- Esquema del circuito utilizado para polarizar al fotodiodo detector Harshaw 38.

Sujeta a la corona (CD2) va una pequeña lámina de cobre (LC), que acciona electrónicamente el instrumento de registro cada vez que pasa por el lugar donde se ha colocado la bobina, y hace que dicho instrumento se dispare periódicamente con el mismo periodo propio de la señal de intensidad de luz que incide sobre el detector DT. El periodo de tiempo entre dos posiciones equivalentes del dispositivo de medida es $T \sim 0.1$ s.

Como detector DT hemos utilizado un fotomultiplicador Oriel 7060. Para que DT trabaje en régimen de respuesta lineal es necesario atenuar el haz de luz láser con la ayuda del filtro neutro N y del difusor DF. Otro detector también utilizado ha sido un fotodiodo Harsaw 38 polarizado según el circuito de la Fig. VI.4. Este tipo de detector, si bien es más económico, introduce un cierto nivel de voltaje continuo sobre la señal que detecta. Dicho nivel se puede determinar con facilidad, y debe sustraerse de la señal registrada.

El instrumento de registro utilizado es un analizador multicanal HP 5480B, que registra la señal proveniente del detector, y que inicia los registros según la pauta marcada por el dispositivo electrónico de disparo DE.

La longitud de onda de trabajo ($\lambda = 6.328 \text{ \AA}$) no corresponde a la zona de respuesta óptima del fotomultiplicador que utilizamos, y ello hace necesario realizar un filtrado del ruido de aleatorio de fotones introducido por él. Ello se lleva a cabo gracias a un número de 2^8 barridos de la señal, promediados con el algoritmo propio del analizador multicanal. Este número de barridos se ha estimado adecuado para obtener un cociente señal/ ruido suficientemente elevado ($s/N \gtrsim 100$).

El procesado de los datos de las señales lo hemos realizado por medio de un ordenador electrónico HP2000.

VI.2 CAUSAS POSIBLES DE ERROR EN LAS MEDIDAS

En este apartado analizamos las principales causas posibles de error en las medidas que se obtienen con nuestro dispositivo experimental.

- Despolarización del haz de luz de sondeo².

En el tratamiento teórico de nuestros métodos dinámicos de medida no se ha tenido en cuenta el posible efecto de despolarización que pueden producir en el haz de luz de sondeo los diferentes elementos que éste va atravesando en el dispositivo, como son los retardadores rotatorios y el polarizador lineal P_2 . Pequeñas motas de polvo, o imperfecciones en las superficies de dichos elementos producen difracción del haz de luz, lo cual conlleva un ligero efecto de despolarización.

- Desviaciones en la dirección del haz de luz.

La falta de perpendicularidad de las superficies de los elementos atravesados por el haz de luz con respecto a la dirección de éste hace que dichos elementos tengan un comportamiento que difiere del previsto teóricamente. Por otra parte, como durante la medida los retardadores están en rotación, el ángulo de incidencia sobre ellos y sobre el polarizador P_2 puede cambiar constantemente, aunque periódicamente.

Ya hemos comentado que el mecanismo productor de la rotación de los retardadores va provisto de un dis

positivo de ajuste de la perpendicularidad de las superficies de las láminas de retardo con la dirección de propagación de la luz. Sin embargo, no resulta fácil realizar dicho ajuste con gran perfección, debido a que las caras de las láminas no son perfectamente planas, sino que presentan pequeñas inhomogeneidades, e incluso una cierta curvatura global. Por otra parte, un ajuste perfecto no es deseable ya que conduciría a un solapamiento del haz de luz directo con los diferentes haces reflejados, haciendo imposible evitar que éstos últimos incidan en el detector y produzcan el consiguiente empeoramiento de la calidad de la señal. El mencionado solapamiento resulta más nocivo que un pequeño defecto en la perpendicularidad de las láminas de retardo^{47,48}, el cual permite la eliminación de haces parásitos por medio de diafragmas.

La no perpendicularidad con el eje de propagación de la luz, de la lámina de retardo L_1 , tiene como consecuencia que la orientación de los ejes propios respecto al plano de incidencia varía periódicamente con el mismo periodo de la señal $T = 2\pi/\omega_1$. Ello hace que los valores efectivos de δ_1 y κ_1 varíen asimismo periódicamente. El efecto producido por la rotación de L_2 es más complicado, ya que el haz de luz que le incide cambia su ángulo respecto al eje Z con periodo $2\pi/\omega_1$ y la orientación de los ejes propios de L_2 respecto a unos ejes fijos varía con un periodo $T_2 = 2\pi/\omega_2 = 4\pi/5\omega_1 = 2/5 T$. Por lo tanto, como $2T = 5T_2$, la situación se repite con periodo doble al propio de cada señal (T).

Una forma de estimar la influencia del citado fenómeno, y de ajustar la inclinación de los retardadores de modo que dicha influencia sea mínima, es comprobar visualmente, en la propia pantalla del multicanal, las diferencias

existentes en la forma de cada dos periodos consecutivos.

- Reflexiones internas múltiples en L_1 y L_2 .

Este efecto se contempla ya en la teoría, al considerar que los retardadores L_1 y L_2 no son ideales. Los valores efectivos de δ_1 , δ_2 , K_1 y K_2 se obtienen del calibrado.

- Imperfecciones del dispositivo mecánico.

El mecanismo que produce la rotación de las láminas está sometido a vibraciones durante la medida, debidas a holguras en los engranajes, y se pueden producir desajustes que consecuentemente acarrear errores.

- Errores de calibrado.

El calibrado del dispositivo ha de ser cuidadoso, ya que los errores en los parámetros característicos del mismo se transmiten sistemáticamente a todas las medidas que se realicen.

- Errores de detección.

La diferente sensibilidad del detector según la polarización de la luz que le incide no se pone de manifiesto, ya que durante cada medida la posición del polarizador P_2 permanece fija. Sin embargo es necesario asegurarse de que el detector trabaje en su zona de respuesta lineal.

- Errores producidos en el procesado de datos

Hemos comprobado que los errores que se producen en el propio proceso de cálculo por ordenador son del orden del 0.05%²² y como se verá en el siguiente capítulo, el introducir un número elevado de puntos-dato de la señal registrada en la subrutina de análisis de Fourier no conlleva ventajas en la calidad de las medidas.

VI.3. PROCESADO DE DATOS POR ORDENADOR

Cada registro que se obtiene con el analizador multicanal está compuesto de 1000 puntos-dato, de los cuales aproximadamente 713 son ocupados por un periodo completo de la señal registrada. Estos datos pueden suministrarse al ordenador conectando éste con un voltímetro digital por medio de una interface HP-IB (mod. 82937 A) y con el analizador multicanal, ó bien con el propio detector. El suministro de datos puede hacerse también por medio de tarjetas perforadas etc...

Una vez en el ordenador, los datos quedan almacenados en ficheros. Para el tratamiento de los datos existen cuatro tipos de programas:

- Programa MAPAR de tratamiento de señales-aparato obtenidas con el dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller.
- Programa MEREL de tratamiento de señales correspondientes a medios ópticos problema.

- Programa MEPOL de tratamiento de señales-aparato obtenidas con el dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada.
- Programa STOKES de tratamiento de señales correspondientes a haces de luz problema.

6.3.1. PROGRAMA MAPAR

El cometido de este programa es la obtención de los parámetros de calibrado del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller.

Datos requeridos:

- Nombre del fichero de datos correspondiente a la señal-aparato que se desea procesar.
- Número NP de puntos-dato que se desean introducir en la subrutina de análisis de Fourier.
- Nivel continuo introducido por el detector en la señal, en el caso de que dicho nivel exista.

El programa MAPAR consta de tres partes:

- MAPAR.1.- Entre el número total de puntos-dato del fichero, se seleccionan NP por medio de una interpolación lineal. Dicha interpolación está justificada por la proximidad relativa entre cada dos puntos-dato del registro, y requiere $2NP$ de ellos, con los que se calculan los NP datos ya interpolados.
- MAPAR.2.- Se suministran los puntos-dato ya interpolados a la subrutina AJTE de análisis de Fourier, con

lo que se obtienen los coeficientes de Fourier A_i, B_j .

- MAPAR.3.- A partir de los coeficientes de Fourier A_i, B_j , se calculan los parámetros característicos del dispositivo, que son $\delta_1, \delta_2, K_1, K_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$. Es de observar que ninguno de éstos parámetros depende del factor de escala que afecta a toda la señal.

VI.3.2. PROGRAMA MEREL.

Este programa sirve para obtener la matriz de Mueller M asociada al sistema óptico sometido a medida.

Datos requeridos:

- Nombre del fichero de datos correspondiente a la señal que se desea procesar.
- Número NP de puntos-dato que se desean introducir en la subrutina de análisis de Fourier.
- Nivel continuo introducido por el detector en la señal.
- Valores de los parámetros $\delta_1, \delta_2, K_1, K_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$.

El programa MEREL consta de tres partes ó subprogramas. De ellos los dos primeros MEREL.1 y MEREL.2 son en todo análogos a MAPAR.1 y a MAPAR.2

- MEREL.3.- A partir de los coeficientes A_i, B_j , calculados en MEREL.2, se calculan los elementos m_{ij} de la matriz de Mueller M . Dichos elementos se obtienen por medio de las

expresiones (IV.20), y vienen afectados por un mismo factor, que proviene del factor de escala de la señal. El programa da como resultado la matriz de Mueller M_N normalizada de la forma

$$M_N = \frac{1}{m_{00}} M .$$

Tanto el programa MAPAR como el MEREL están preparados para representar gráficamente los puntos de las señales.

VI.3.3. PROGRAMAS MEPOL Y STOKES

La finalidad del programa MEPOL es análoga a la de MAPAR, y el tipo de datos requeridos es el mismo. El programa MEPOL permite realizar un calibrado del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada. Para ello calcula los parámetros δ_1 , K_2 , α_2 , por medio de las ecuaciones (V.9).

El programa STOKES es análogo al MEREL y permite obtener el vector de Stokes S asociado al haz de luz problema. Dicho vector se obtiene normalizado de forma que $S_0 = 1$.

VII. CALIBRADO Y ALGUNOS RESULTADOS

En este capítulo se recogen los resultados correspondientes al calibrado de los dispositivos experimentales, a medidas de parámetros de Stokes asociados a haces de luz y a la determinación de matrices de Mueller asociadas a diversos sistemas ópticos. Dichos resultados se analizan y discuten con la ayuda de diferentes relaciones y teoremas indicados en los capítulos II y III, y en los casos de calibrado se comparan con los resultados teóricos ideales. A partir de esto último se estudia la precisión de los resultados experimentales y se compara con la que se consigue con otros tipos de métodos y dispositivos de medida dinámicos y estáticos.

Los montajes experimentales utilizados respectivamente para los casos de análisis de luz polarizada y de determinación de matrices de Mueller son los descritos en el capítulo anterior.

Todos los resultados que se presentan en este capítulo se han obtenido a partir de señales de intensidad detectadas con un fotomultiplicador y registradas realizando un promediado de 2^8 barridos con el analizador multicanal, tal como se indica en el capítulo VI.

VII. 1. DETERMINACION DE PARAMETROS DE STOKES.

VII.1.1. CALIBRADO

De acuerdo con las expresiones (V.9) hemos realizado un calibrado del dispositivo utilizado para la determinación de parámetros de Stokes. En el procesado de

datos por ordenador hemos observado que los valores de los coeficientes de Fourier obtenidos no cambian apreciablemente para diferentes números de puntos-dato utilizados. Dichos coeficientes de Fourier son

$$\begin{aligned} A'_0 &= 5.804 \\ A'_1 &= -0.088 & B'_1 &= -0.066 \\ A'_2 &= 0.834 & B'_2 &= 1.902 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{VII.1})$$

y de ellos obtenemos los siguientes parámetros del dispositivo

$$\alpha_2 = 106.6^\circ \quad \delta_2 = 90.0^\circ \quad K_2 = 0.974 \quad (\text{VII.2})$$

Para hacer una estimación del error que se produce en el cálculo de los parámetros de Stokes, hemos supuesto que los coeficientes (VII.1) corresponden a un haz de luz problema, en lugar de presuponer que se trata de luz polarizada linealmente en la dirección X. Considerando (VII.2) como datos, por medio de (V.6) obtenemos el vector de Stokes \mathbf{S} correspondiente al haz, cuyas componentes son

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= 1.000 \\ S_1 &= 1.000 \\ S_2 &= 0.000 \\ S_3 &= -0.002 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{VII.3})$$

El grado de polarización del haz de luz es

$$G = 1.000 \quad (\text{VII.4})$$

Los resultados (VII.3-4) han de compararse con los valores ideales $S_0 = S_1 = 1$, $S_2 = S_3 = 0$, $G = 1$.

En la fig. VII.1. se representa la señal de intensidad de luz obtenida experimentalmente (puntos) y la señal teórica ideal correspondiente a los valores (VII.2) (trazo continuo).

VII.1.2. POLARIZACION ELIPTICA.

Para ilustrar el comportamiento del dispositivo de medida de parámetros de Stokes, hemos analizado un haz de luz problema en un cierto estado de polarización elíptica.

En este caso particular los coeficientes de Fourier obtenidos son

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= 1.844, \\ A_1 &= -0.889, & B_1 &= 1.313, \\ A_2 &= -0.141, & B_2 &= 0.282, \end{aligned} \tag{VII.5}$$

y corresponden a los siguientes parámetros de Stokes

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= 1.000, \\ S_1 &= 0.231, \\ S_2 &= 0.275, \\ S_3 &= 0.930 \end{aligned} \tag{VII.6}$$

El grado de polarización del haz de luz es

$$G = 0.997 \tag{VII.7}$$

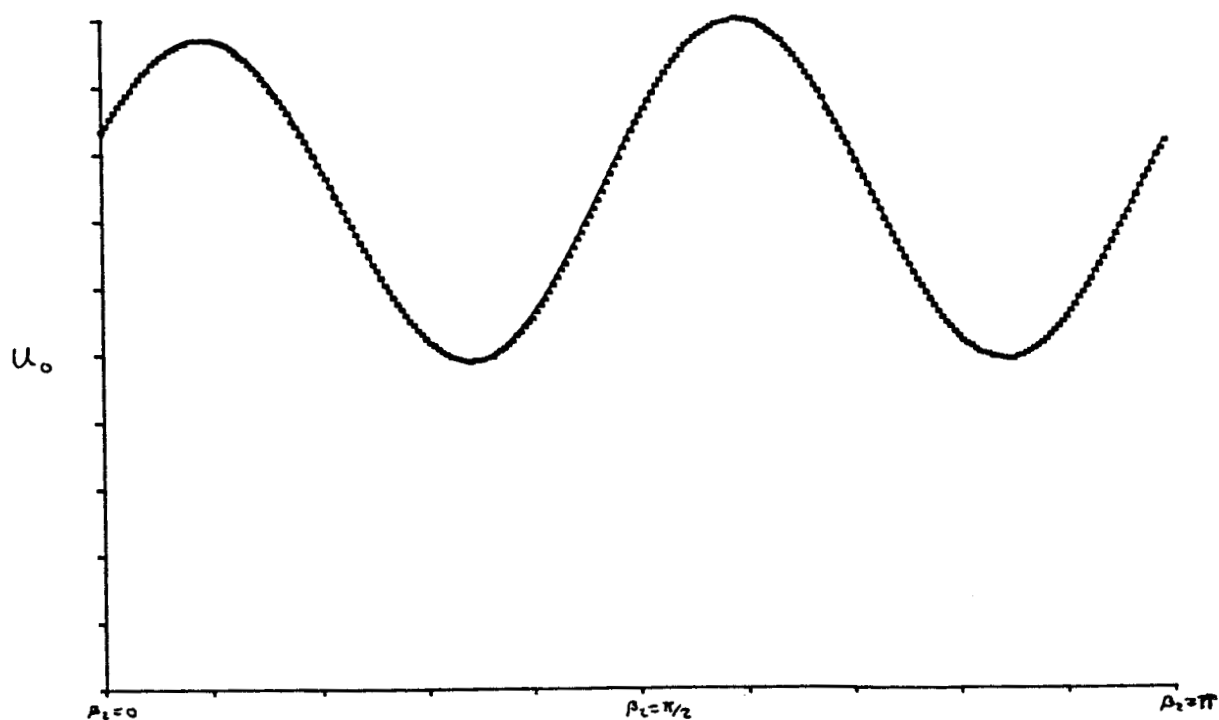


Fig.VII.1.- Señal aparato de calibrado del dispositivo de análisis de luz polarizada con valores $\alpha_2 = 106.6^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90.0^\circ$, $\kappa_2 = 0.974$. Señal experimental (línea de puntos) frente a la señal teórica ideal para los mismos valores (línea continua).

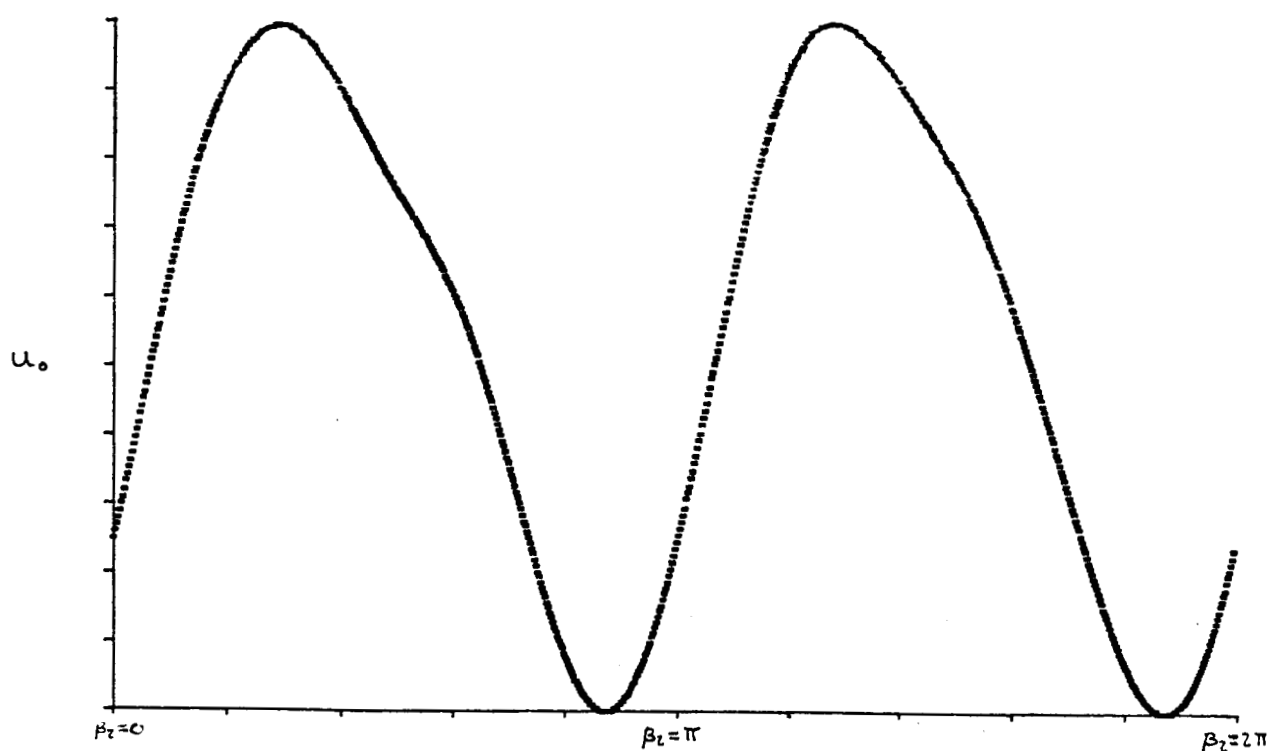


Fig.VII.2.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un haz de luz polarizada elíptica de parámetros de Stokes $S_0 = 1.000$, $S_1 = 0.231$, $S_2 = 0.275$, $S_3 = 0.930$.

En la Fig. VII.2 vemos la forma de la señal de intensidad de luz registrada.

VII.2. DETERMINACION DE MATRICES DE MUELLER

VII.2.1. CALIBRADO

De la forma indicada en el apartado IV.2 se ha realizado un calibrado del dispositivo experimental de determinación de matrices de Mueller.

Del análisis de la señal de calibrado se obtienen los coeficientes de Fourier

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 A_0 = 1.735, & \\
 A_1 = -0.026, & B_1 = 0.006, \\
 A_2 = -0.008, & B_2 = -0.015, \\
 A_3 = -1.065, & B_3 = 0.085, \\
 A_4 = -0.068, & B_4 = -0.462, \\
 A_5 = 0.007, & B_5 = -0.015, \\
 A_6 = -0.566, & B_6 = -0.216, \\
 A_7 = -0.293, & B_7 = 1.038, \\
 A_8 = -0.007, & B_8 = 0.011, \\
 A_9 = -0.006, & B_9 = 0.011, \\
 A_{10} = 0.435, & B_{10} = -0.474, \\
 A_{11} = -0.001, & B_{11} = 0.027, \\
 A_{12} = 0.006, & B_{12} = 0.000, \\
 A_{13} = -0.003, & B_{13} = -0.005, \\
 A_{14} = 0.005, & B_{14} = -0.002.
 \end{array}
 \tag{VII.8}$$

A partir de estos coeficientes se obtienen los siguientes parámetros del dispositivo,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta_1 &= 27.8^\circ \\
 \theta_2 &= -77.0^\circ \\
 \alpha_2 &= 77.4^\circ \\
 \delta_1 &= 88.4^\circ \\
 \delta_2 &= 92.5^\circ \\
 \kappa_1 &= 0.981 \\
 \kappa_2 &= 0.982 \quad .
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{VII.9}$$

Para estimar el error que aparece en las matrices de Mueller, podemos considerar la señal aparato de coeficientes de Fourier (VII.8) como una señal problema, y obtener la matriz de Mueller por medio de (IV.23), siendo (VII.9) los valores de los parámetros del dispositivo. Dicha matriz resulta

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.004 & 0.000 & 0.002 \\ -0.004 & 1.021 & 0.003 & 0.007 \\ 0.002 & 0.003 & 1.004 & -0.007 \\ -0.009 & 0.000 & 0.008 & 0.998 \end{pmatrix} \quad .
 \tag{VII.10}$$

Para un instrumento de medida perfecto ideal, la matriz de Mueller obtenida debería ser la matriz identidad ya que la señal de intensidad de luz de que proviene se ha obtenido sin haber ningún medio óptico problema bajo medida.

Los valores de la norma y de los índices de polarización y despolarización correspondientes a la matriz

(VII.10) son

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_n &= 2.012, & G_b &= 0.992, & G_p' &= 0.009, \\ G_p'' &= 0.012. \end{aligned} \tag{VII.11}$$

Un periodo completo de la señal de intensidad de luz ocupa 713 puntos-dato en el registro. Los coeficientes (VII.8) se han obtenido seleccionando 513 puntos-dato por interpolación lineal. Esta interpolación está justificada por la proximidad de los puntos-dato originales del registro.

Como ya se dijo en el capítulo VI, el número mínimo de puntos-dato que se puede suministrar a la subrutina de análisis de Fourier es 29. Seleccionando únicamente 29 puntos-dato, se obtienen unos coeficientes de Fourier que apenas presentan diferencia con los (VII.8). La matriz obtenida en este caso es

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.000 & -0.005 & 0.000 \\ 0.000 & 1.018 & -0.010 & 0.002 \\ 0.006 & -0.009 & 1.000 & -0.010 \\ -0.009 & -0.003 & 0.007 & 0.998 \end{pmatrix} \tag{VII.12}$$

La comparación de (VII.10) con (VII.12) nos dice que el número de puntos-dato utilizados para el cálculo de los coeficientes de Fourier no influye de modo apreciable en los resultados, y para un número mínimo de 29 puntos-dato los resultados pueden considerarse aceptables.

A partir de las señales correspondientes a cuatro

series de registros realizados en análogas condiciones, hemos calculado sus respectivos coeficientes de Fourier, con los que hemos obtenido los respectivos parámetros de calibrado, y con ellos, considerando cada señal aparato como señal problema, hemos calculado las correspondientes matrices de Mueller. Realizando una estadística de los resultados hemos obtenido los valores

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta_1 &= 27.6^\circ \pm 0.8^\circ, \\
 \theta_2 &= -77.1^\circ \pm 1.0^\circ, \\
 \alpha_2 &= 77.1^\circ \pm 0.3^\circ, \\
 \delta_1 &= 88.7^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ, \\
 \delta_2 &= 92.3^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ, \\
 \kappa_1 &= 0.978 \pm 0.006, \\
 \kappa_2 &= 0.984 \pm 0.005.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{VII.13}$$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix}
 1 & 0.002 \pm 0.002 & -0.002 \pm 0.002 & -0.001 \pm 0.003 \\
 -0.001 \pm 0.002 & 1.013 \pm 0.001 & -0.002 \pm 0.005 & 0.004 \pm 0.007 \\
 0.003 \pm 0.002 & -0.002 \pm 0.004 & 1.009 \pm 0.011 & -0.003 \pm 0.006 \\
 -0.007 \pm 0.004 & 0.005 \pm 0.009 & 0.008 \pm 0.007 & 0.998 \pm 0.002
 \end{pmatrix}.
 \tag{VII.14}$$

Estos resultados indican una buena reproducibilidad de las medidas, con un error accidental medio del orden de 0.5% en la determinación de los elementos de las matrices de Mueller.

Comparando (VII.14) con la matriz identidad, que sería el resultado que se obtendría con un instrumento perfecto ideal, y teniendo en cuenta tanto los errores accidentes

tales como los sistemáticos podemos estimar un error medio mejor que el 1% en los resultados.

En fig. VII.3-VII.5 se representan diferentes señales aparato obtenidas experimentalmente (líneas de puntos), junto con las señales aparato ideales correspondientes (líneas continuas). Estas gráficas permiten visualizar la calidad del ajuste conseguido experimentalmente.

VII.2.2 RETARDADOR COMERCIAL.

Presentamos aquí los resultados correspondientes a la determinación de la matriz de Mueller asociada a una lámina de retardo lineal comercial tipo Polaroid de retardo $140 \pm 20 \text{ m}\mu$ para una longitud de onda $\lambda = 5890 \text{ \AA}$.

La matriz de Mueller M_{L1} obtenida para una cierta orientación de los ejes propios del retardador respecto a los de referencia es

$$M_{L1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.012 & 0.004 & 0.033 \\ 0.014 & 1.035 & -0.162 & 0.181 \\ 0.000 & -0.115 & 0.182 & 0.971 \\ 0.004 & -0,143 & -0.984 & 0,129 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.16})$$

y de ella se obtiene

$$\Gamma_M = 2.031, \quad G_D = 0.983, \quad G'_P = 0.014, \quad G''_P = 0.036 \quad (\text{VII.17})$$

Si prescindimos de los ligeros efectos de despolarización y de polarización parcial, es decir, si consideramos que en (VII.16) se cumple

$$m_{i0}, m_{oi} \approx 0 \quad i = 1, 2, 3 ;$$

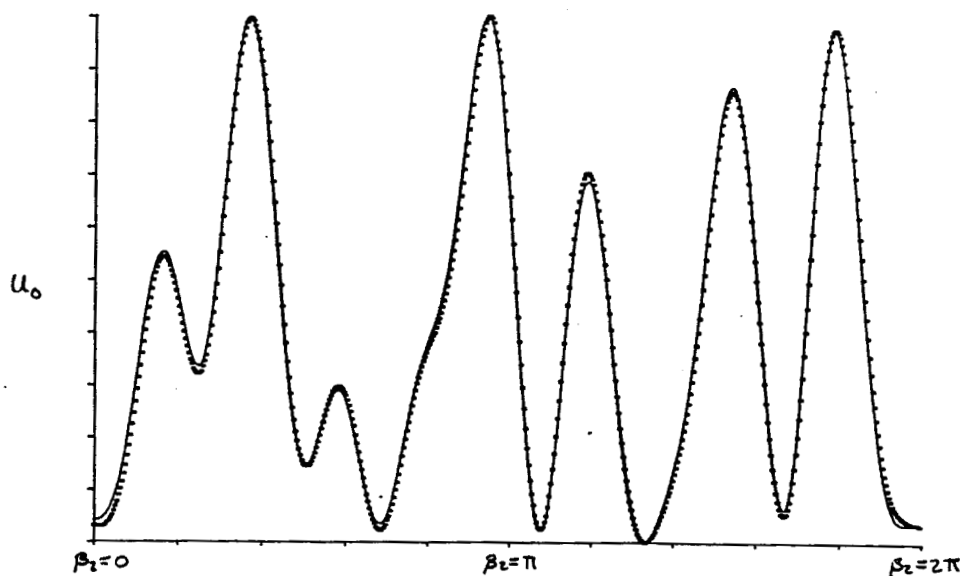


Fig.VII.3.- Señal aparato de calibrado del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller, con valores $\theta_1 = 27,8^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -77.0^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 88.4^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 92.5^\circ$, $\alpha_1 = 77.4^\circ$, $K_1 = 0.981$, $K_2 = 0.982$. Señal experimental (línea de puntos) frente a la señal teórica ideal para los mismos valores (línea continua).

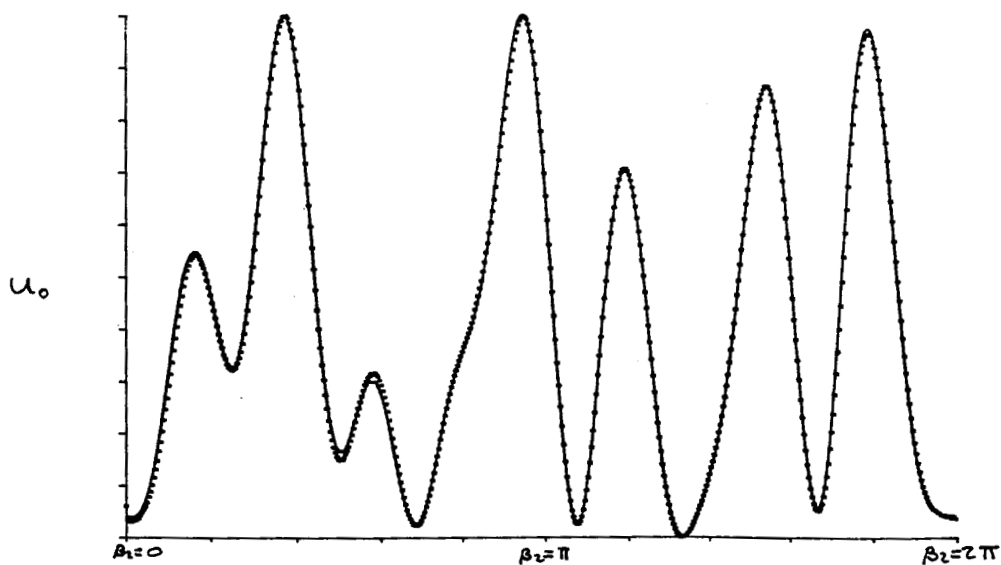


Fig.VII.4.- Señal aparato de calibrado del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller, con valores $\theta_1 = 28.5^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -78.5^\circ$, $\alpha_1 = 76.7^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 88.1^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 91.5^\circ$, $K_1 = 0.971$, $K_2 = 0.980$. Señal experimental (línea de puntos) frente a la señal teórica ideal para los mismos valores (línea continua).

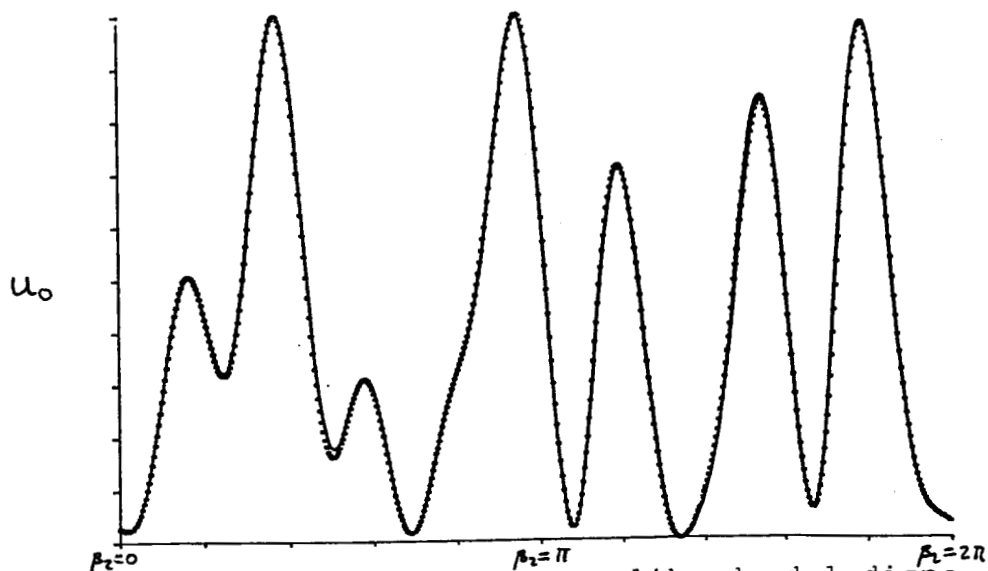


Fig.VII.5.- Señal aparato de calibrado del dispositivo de determinación de matrices de Mueller, con valores $\theta_1 = 26.6^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -75.9^\circ$, $\alpha_2 = 77.2^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 89.6^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 92.9^\circ$, $k_1 = 0.966$, $k_2 = 0.991$. Señal experimental (línea de puntos) frente a la señal teórica ideal para los mismos valores (línea continua)

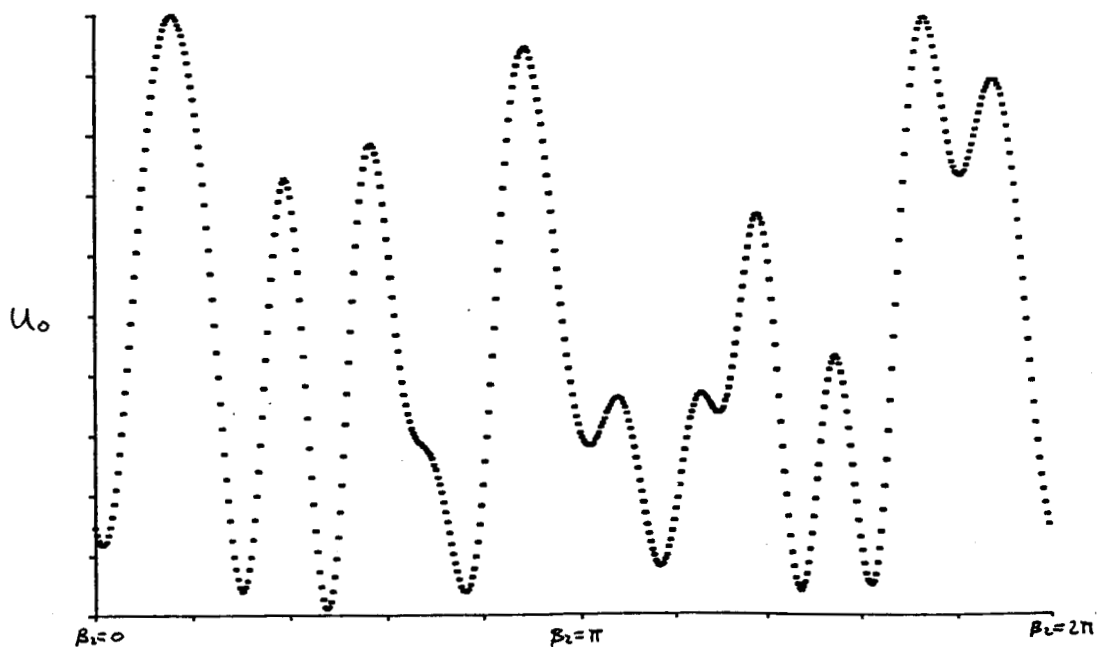


Fig.VII.6.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un retardador lineal comercial de parámetros $\Delta = 80.0^\circ$, $\psi = -0.5^\circ$, $K = 0.975$.

según se vió en el apartado II.4, el medio se comporta prácticamente como un retardador ideal.

A partir de (III.30) obtenemos

$$\Delta = 80.0^\circ, \quad \omega = 1.2^\circ, \quad \psi = -0.5^\circ. \quad (\text{VII.18})$$

El retardador deja invariantes los estados de polarización de azimuth ψ y elipticidad $\pm\omega$, introduciendo entre ellos un retardo de fase Δ .

Puesto que $|\omega| \approx 0$, el retardador se comporta, en efecto, como un retardador lineal.

Con la ayuda de (III.36.c-d) podemos calcular el cociente K entre los coeficientes principales de transmisión y obtenemos.

$$K = 0.975. \quad (\text{VII.19})$$

Como cabía esperar, el valor de K difiere ligeramente de la unidad, pues obviamente, el retardador no es ideal.

En la Fig. VII.6 se representa la señal de intensidad de luz correspondiente a esta medida.

Para estudiar el funcionamiento del dispositivo y del aparato de cálculo, se ha realizado otro registro con el mismo medio óptico, pero variando la orientación de éste respecto al dispositivo, así como el sentido en que es atravesado por el haz de luz. La matriz de Mueller obtenida es

$$M_{L_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.010 & 0.000 & 0.019 \\ -0.016 & 0.335 & 0.402 & -0.852 \\ -0.002 & 0.360 & 0.799 & 0.525 \\ 0.006 & 0.875 & -0.460 & 0.114 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{VII.20})$$

de donde

$$\Delta = 82.8^\circ, \quad \omega = 1.3^\circ, \quad \psi = 30.2^\circ. \quad (\text{VII.21})$$

Estos resultados están en buen acuerdo con (VII.18), ya que Δ y ω no difieren apreciablemente en ambos casos. El valor de ψ ha cambiado puesto que se ha variado la orientación del medio óptico.

VII.2.3 POLARIZADOR LINEAL COMERCIAL

Se ha considerado un polarizador lineal comercial del tipo Polaroid HN42 como medio óptico problema.

La matriz de Mueller M_P obtenida para una cierta posición del eje propio del polarizador respecto a los ejes de referencia en el dispositivo de medida es

$$M_P = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.856 & -0.668 & -0.018 \\ -0.864 & 0.685 & 0.520 & -0.007 \\ -0.675 & 0.534 & 0.413 & -0.003 \\ -0.007 & 0.045 & -0.015 & -0.005 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{VII.22})$$

Los valores de la norma e índices correspondientes a M_P son

$$\Gamma_M = 2.033, \quad G_D = 0.976, \quad G_P' = 0.897, \quad G_P'' = 0.917. \quad (\text{VII.23})$$

Si despreciamos el ligero efecto de despolarización, y observamos en (VII.22) que

$$M_P^T \approx M_P \quad , \quad (m_{o1}^2 + m_{o2}^2 + m_{o3}^2)^{1/2} \approx m_{o0} \quad ;$$

según vimos en el apartado III.4, la matriz M_P corresponde a un polarizador de parámetros

$$\delta = 0.0^\circ, \quad \nu = 19.0^\circ, \quad K = 0.041. \quad (\text{VII.24})$$

Estos resultados indican que se trata de un polarizador lineal ($\delta = 0^\circ$).

En la Fig. VII.7, donde se representa la señal de intensidad correspondiente a M_P , se observa que dicha señal es doblemente periódica (salvo pequeñas diferencias), lo cual es característico de sistemas cuyo último elemento es un polarizador lineal total.

VII.2.4. SISTEMA DE DOS RETARDADORES LINEALES.

Se ha determinado la matriz de Mueller asociada a un sistema compuesto por dos retardadores lineales comerciales Polaroid de cuarto de onda para una longitud de onda $\lambda = 5.890 \text{ \AA}$. Para una cierta disposición de sus ejes respecto a los de referencia, la matriz obtenida es

$$M_{2L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.002 & 0.001 & -0.031 \\ -0.008 & 0.659 & 0.057 & 0.850 \\ 0.004 & -0.320 & -0.905 & 0.215 \\ 0.044 & 0.759 & -0.375 & -0.507 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.25})$$

de donde

$$P_M = 2.026, \quad G_D = 0.982, \quad G_P' = 0.045, \quad G_P'' = 0.031. \quad (\text{VII.26})$$

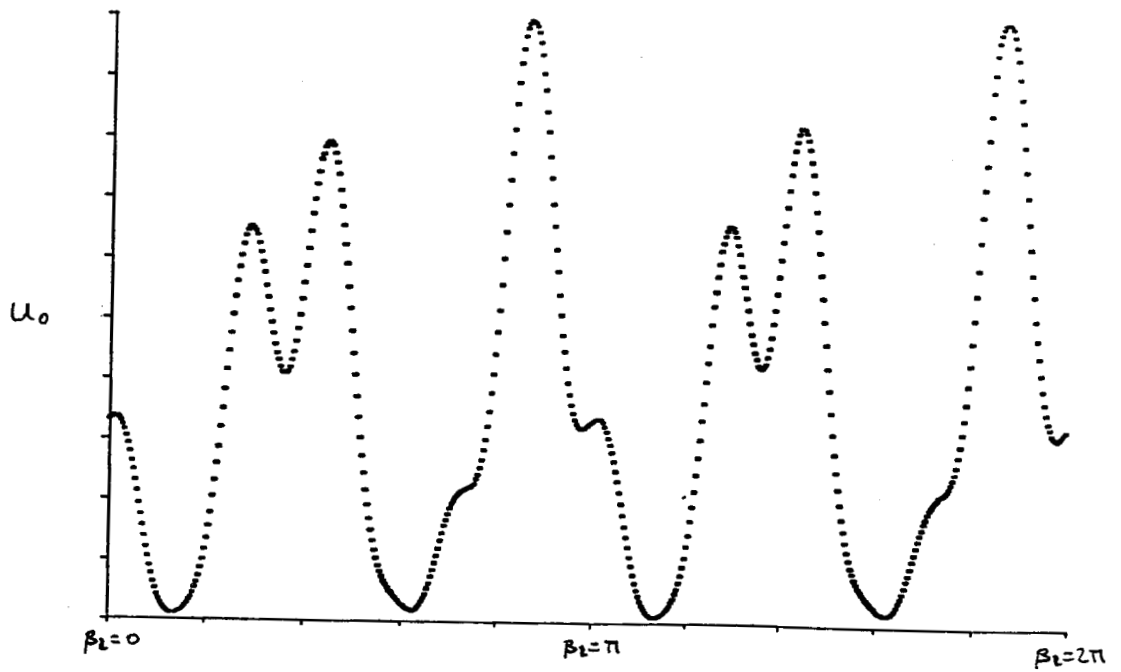


Fig. VII.7.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un polarizador lineal de parámetros $\nu = 19.0^\circ$, $\kappa = 0.041$.

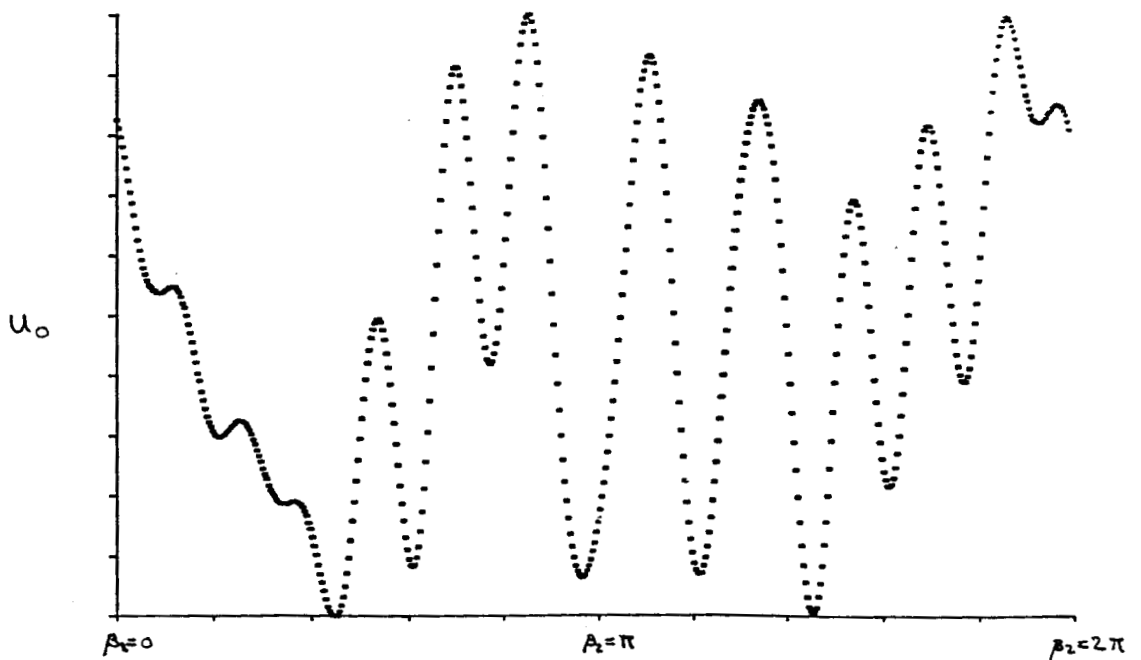


Fig. VII.8.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un sistema de dos retardadores lineales equivalente a un retardador elíptico de parámetros $\Delta = 151,2^\circ$, $\omega = 25,7^\circ$, $\psi = -4.3^\circ$, $\kappa = 0.938$.

Estos resultados nos indican que el comportamiento del sistema es semejante al de un retardador elíptico idel de parámetros

$$\Delta = 151.2^\circ, \quad \omega = 25.7^\circ, \quad \psi = -4.3^\circ. \quad (\text{VII.27})$$

La relación K entre los coeficientes principales de transmisión en intensidad es

$$K = 0.938, \quad (\text{VII.28})$$

lo cual nos dice que el efecto de polarización parcial es mayor ahora que cuando se trata de un solo retardador del mismo tipo.

En la Fig. VII.8 se representa la señal de intensidad correspondiente a M_{L2} .

VII.2.5 SISTEMA DE TRES RETARDADORES LINEALES.

La matriz de Mueller obtenida experimentalmente con un sistema compuesto por tres retardadores lineales comerciales del mismo tipo que el analizado en el apartado VII.2.2, para una cierta orientación de sus ejes propios respecto a los de referencia es

$$M_{3L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.035 & 0.019 & 0.014 \\ -0.002 & 0.619 & -0.205 & 0.777 \\ 0.048 & 0.817 & 0.163 & -0.607 \\ -0.032 & 0.027 & 0.990 & 0.313 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{VII.29})$$

de donde

$$P_M = 2.043, \quad G_D = 0.970, \quad G'_P = 00.42, \quad G''_P = 0.062. \quad (\text{VII.30})$$

La matriz M_{3L} corresponde aproximadamente a un retardador elíptico ideal tal que

$$\Delta = 87.2^\circ, \quad \omega = 15.4^\circ, \quad \psi = 12.9^\circ \quad (\text{VII.31})$$

El efecto de polarización parcial que hace que el sistema no se comporte exactamente como un retardador ideal viene dado por

$$K = 0.919 \quad (\text{VII.32})$$

En la Fig. VII.9 se muestra la forma de la señal de intensidad correspondiente a este caso.

Disponiendo el mismo sistema anterior de forma que el haz de luz lo atreviese en sentido opuesto obtenemos la matriz.

$$M'_{3L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.008 & -0.014 & 0.028 \\ -0.029 & 0.594 & 0.854 & -0.056 \\ 0.017 & -0.200 & 0.259 & -0.977 \\ -0.008 & -0.807 & 0.535 & 0.309 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{VII.33})$$

que aproximadamente corresponde a un retardador elíptico dado por

$$\Delta = 85.3^\circ, \quad \omega = -15.9^\circ, \quad \psi = 13.1^\circ \quad (\text{VII.34})$$

Estos resultados están en concordancia con el teorema T12 de reciprocidad en el formalismo SMF. Al invertir el sentido en que la luz atraviesa el medio óptico, la matriz de Mueller M'_{3L} obtenida debe cumplir las relaciones (II.76) y (II.77) respecto a M_{3L} . Por ello, como era de esperar, los parámetros Δ, ω son próximos a los obtenidos en

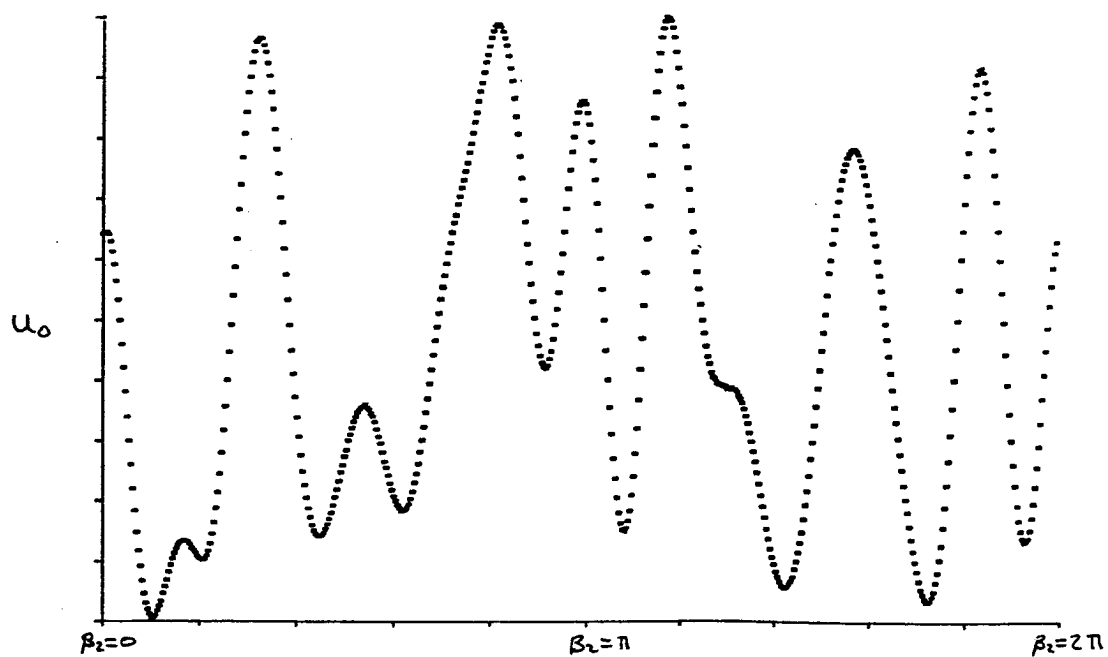


Fig.VII.9.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un sistema de tres retardadores lineales equivalente a un retardador elíptico de parámetros $\Delta = 87.2^\circ$,
 $\omega = 15.4^\circ$, $\psi = 12.9^\circ$, $K = 0.919$.

(VIII.31), y Ψ aparece en (VII.34) con signo cambiado respecto a (VII.31) y con módulo aproximadamente igual.

Las discrepancias entre los valores (VII.35) y (VII.36) respecto a los que corresponderían a (VII.29) y (VII.31) por el teorema de reciprocidad TR, pueden deberse a una falta de perpendicularidad de la muestra, y también a que la reciprocidad no es exacta, ya que se producen reflexiones internas cuyo efecto puede ser diferenciado según cuál sea el sentido de incidencia de la luz sobre el sistema.

VII.2.6. SISTEMA COMPUESTO POR UN POLARIZADOR Y UN RETARDADOR

Se ha sometido a estudio con nuestro dispositivo un sistema formado por un polarizador lineal tipo Polaroid HN42 y un retardador lineal Polaroid de valor nominal de retardo $140 \pm 20 \text{ m}\mu$ para una $\lambda = 5.600 \text{ \AA}$.

Para una cierta orientación de los ejes propios del retardador y del polarizador respecto a los de referencia se ha obtenido la matriz de Mueller

$$M_{LP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.861 & 0.426 & 0.188 \\ 0.935 & 0.816 & 0.403 & 0.201 \\ 0.315 & 0.280 & 0.156 & 0.018 \\ 0.009 & 0.001 & -0.012 & 0.008 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{VII.35})$$

de donde

$$\Gamma_M = 1.974, \quad G_D = 0.982, \quad G'_P = 0.985, \quad G''_P = 0.977 \quad (\text{VII.36})$$

La aplicación del teorema T8, haciendo uso de (III.26) ó (III.36), nos da los siguientes parámetros para el sistema equivalente.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_1 &= 85.4^\circ, & \Delta_2 &= 1.7^\circ, & \nu &= 9.3^\circ, & \gamma &= 9.3^\circ, \\ \xi &= 21.9^\circ, & K_{LP} &= 0.033. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{VII.37})$$

Llevando estos resultados a la expresión (III.23) vemos que el sistema se comporta como el tipificado por

$$R(\gamma) L(\xi, \Delta_1) P(0, K_{LP}) R(-\nu) L(0, \Delta_2),$$

y teniendo en cuenta que

$$\Delta_2 \approx 0, \quad \gamma \approx \nu;$$

vemos que se trata de un retardador lineal seguido de un polarizador lineal cuyo eje de polarización forma un ángulo ξ con el eje rápido del retardador, y un ángulo $-\nu$ con el eje X de referencia.

El haz de luz atraviesa primero el retardador, y después el polarizador, y la matriz M_{LP} puede expresarse de la forma

$$M_{LP} = M_R(-\nu) M_P(0, K_{LP}) M_L(\xi, \Delta_1) M_R(\nu). \quad (\text{VII.38})$$

En la Fig. VII.10 se muestra la señal de intensidad de luz correspondiente a M_{LP} , y puede apreciarse que un periodo total de la señal consta de dos semiperiodos casi iguales, hecho que ocurre cuando el último elemento del sistema analizado es un polarizador.

Para comprobar la calidad de los resultados se ha realizado otro registro habiendo invertido el orden de

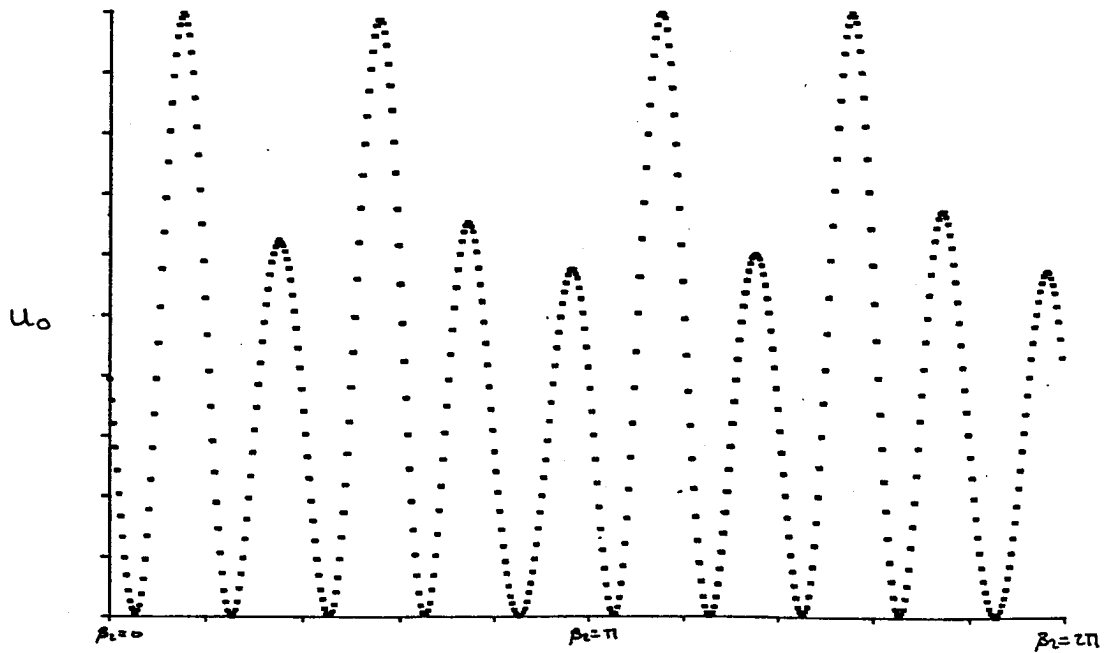


Fig.VII.10.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un sistema compuesto por un polarizador lineal y un retardador lineal tipificado como
 $L(31.2^\circ, 85.4^\circ) P(9.3^\circ, 0.033)$

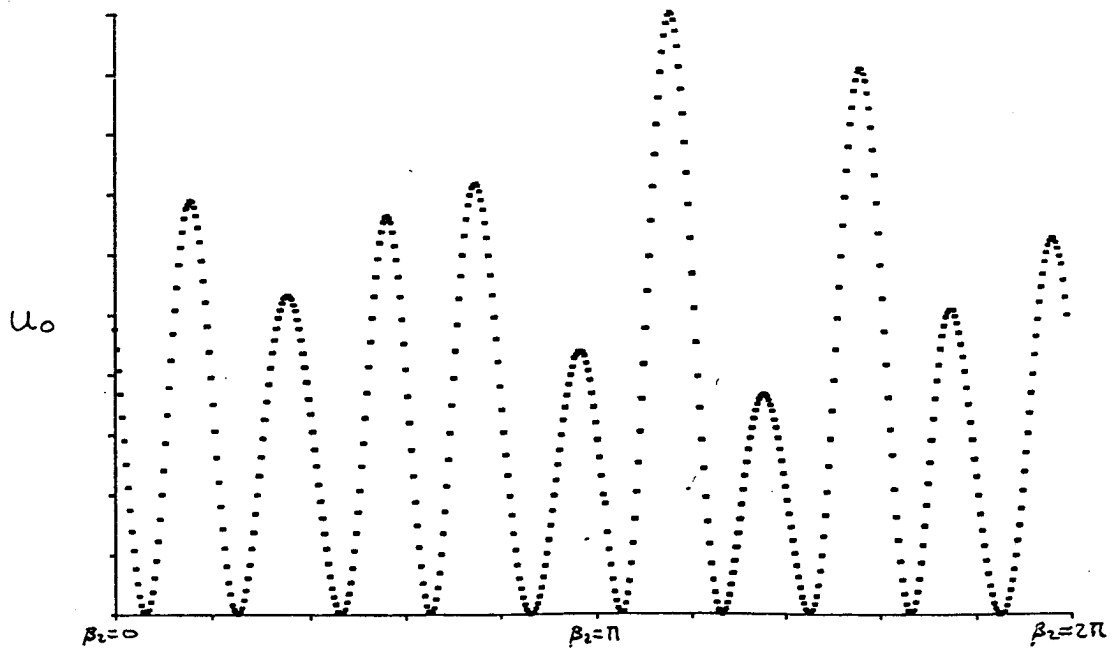


Fig.VII.11.- Señal experimental correspondiente a un sistema compuesto por un polarizador lineal y un retardador lineal tipificado como
 $P(17.4^\circ, 0.026) L(32.0^\circ, 87.0^\circ)$.

los elementos y sus orientaciones respecto al eje de referencia. Así se ha obtenido la matriz

$$M_{PL} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.843 & 0.587 & 0.029 \\ 0.876 & 0.733 & 0.503 & 0.042 \\ 0.486 & 0.393 & 0.281 & 0.020 \\ 0.199 & 0.145 & 0.121 & 0.008 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (\text{VII.39})$$

La aplicación del Teorema T9, usando las expresiones (III.15) nos lleva a un sistema equivalente tipificado por

$$P(\alpha, K_{PL}) L(\theta, \delta),$$

de modo que

$$M_{PL} = M_L(\theta, \delta) M_P(\alpha, K_{PL}), \quad (\text{VII.40})$$

donde

$$\delta = 87.0^\circ, \quad \theta = 32.0^\circ, \quad \alpha = 17.4^\circ, \quad K_{PL} = 0.026. \quad (\text{VII.41})$$

El valor de δ en (VII.41) se corresponde con el de Δ , en (VII.37). La diferencia entre ambos valores no necesariamente se debe a falta de precisión en las medidas, ya que en (VII.38) y (VII.40) hemos supuesto que el retardador es ideal.

En la Fig. VII.11 vemos la gráfica de la señal de intensidad correspondiente a M_{PL} , en la que se observa que el número de máximos y la posición de éstos coincide con los de la Fig. VII.9 correspondiente a M_{LP} .

VII.3 DISCUSION

Entre los métodos estáticos de análisis de luz polarizada destacan las técnicas de elipsometría por ajuste a cerc, con las que se llega a conseguir una precisión del orden de 0.01° en medidas experimentales de parámetros angulares². Sin embargo, dichas técnicas no son utilizables para la determinación de matrices de Mueller²³. Algunos autores¹⁹ han propuesto dispositivos dinámicos para la determinación de matrices de Mueller, pero existen pocas referencias de que tales dispositivos se hayan desarrollado y construido experimentalmente. En este sentido es de mencionar el trabajo de Thomson y col.²⁴, en el que se describe un dispositivo que utiliza cuatro moduladores electroópticos. La operación de calibrado de dicho dispositivo requiere el uso de diversos test, consistentes en ciertas combinaciones de polarizadores y retardadores de propiedades conocidas previamente.

La precisión que se cita para medidas obtenidas con tal dispositivo es del orden del 3%.

Los resultados experimentales obtenidos con nuestro dispositivo permiten estimar una precisión mejor que el 1% en los valores de los elementos de matrices de Mueller.

VIII. CONCLUSIONES

Hemos desarrollado un método dinámico de análisis de polarización de la luz, que permite la especificación de los parámetros de Stokes de un haz de luz dado y la determinación de los elementos de la matriz de Mueller asociada a cualquier medio activo a la polarización. Ambas determinaciones se basan en el análisis de Fourier de la señal de intensidad de luz suministrada por el dispositivo.

La especificación del estado de polarización de un haz de luz se realiza mediante un dispositivo constituido por un retardador lineal rotatorio y un polarizador lineal fijo.

El dispositivo para la determinación de los elementos de matrices de Mueller, está constituido por dos polarizadores lineales fijos y dos retardadores lineales que giran en planos perpendiculares a la dirección de propagación del haz de luz, situándose el medio problema entre los dos retardadores rotatorios.

El análisis de la señal suministrada requiere una previa operación de autocalibrado, que se realiza a partir de la señal generada por el dispositivo en medio vacío, sin recurrir por lo tanto a patrones de calibrado.

Hemos discutido los valores posibles de la relación entre las velocidades angulares de rotación de los retardadores rotatorios, encontrando que el valor más adecuado es $5/2$.

Para extraer la máxima información física en la determinación de parámetros característicos de la polarización, hemos realizado un estudio teórico de diversos aspectos de la representación matricial, que ha conducido a aportaciones originales entre las que destacamos:

- i) El estudio de las relaciones restrictivas que existen entre los elementos de una matriz de Mueller, que nos ha permitido establecer el siguiente teorema: "Dada una matriz de Mueller M , la condición necesaria y suficiente para que M corresponda a un medio óptico que no despolarice la luz, es que $\text{tr}(M^T M) = 4m_{00}^2$ ". Teorema que hemos interpretado en los formalismos de Jones y del vector de Coherencia.
- ii) Hemos establecido teoremas de reciprocidad en los formalismos de Stokes-Mueller y del Vector de Coherencia respectivamente.
- iii) Hemos establecido teoremas de equivalencia que permiten el diseño de rotores, compensadores y moduladores de retardo a partir de retardadores lineales.
- iv) Asimismo, para conocer el comportamiento de un medio óptico respecto al cambio en el grado de polarización, hemos definido una serie de parámetros que denominamos factores e índices de polarización y despolarización, característicos del medio óptico considerado y obtenibles a partir de su matriz de Mueller asociada.

Los métodos dinámicos de análisis de luz polarizada y de determinación de los elementos de matrices de Mueller introducidos por nosotros, se concretan en un adecu

do dispositivo experimental que hemos diseñado y realizado con las siguientes características:

- i) Como fuente de luz de sondeo utilizamos un láser de He-Ne, lo que permite la exploración local de las muestras, que es de utilidad en el estudio de medios inhomogéneos.
- ii) Los retardadores rotatorios empleados son láminas de tipo comercial, cuyos valores de retardo y de transmittancias principales no es necesario que estén prefijadas. Dichos valores se calculan en la operación de autocalibrado.
- iii) El dispositivo incluye un sistema electromecánico que permite fijar el origen y determinar el periodo de las señales, que, una vez detectadas por un fotomultiplicador y registradas por un analizador multicanal, son objeto de un análisis de Fourier por ordenador.

Con objeto de conocer las limitaciones y analizar las fuentes de error en las medidas que se obtienen con nuestro dispositivo experimental, hemos realizado un estudio de varios registros de autocalibrado, y de determinación de las matrices de Mueller asociadas a diferentes sistemas ópticos simples y compuestos. De todo ello se concluye:

- i) Que en los resultados experimentales obtenidos subyacen errores sistemáticos que, pensamos, se deben a despolarización por difracción del haz de luz de son-

deo al atravesar los distintos componentes del dispositivo, y a falta de perpendicularidad de las superficies de los retardadores rotatorios respecto a la dirección de propagación de dicho haz.

- ii) Que la repetitividad de las medidas y los errores sistemáticos estimados permiten asegurar a nuestro dispositivo un error relativo medio inferior al 1% en la determinación de los elementos de una matriz de Mueller.
- iii) Y finalmente, diversos teoremas de equivalencia, relaciones entre los elementos de matrices de Mueller, y utilidad de los índices de polarización y despolarización, han sido verificados experimentalmente con las determinaciones de matrices de Mueller realizadas mediante nuestro dispositivo.

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Determination of polarization parameters in matricial representation

Theoretical contribution and development of an automatic measurement device

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Thesis presented at the Faculty of Sciences of the University of Zaragoza in order to apply for the PhD degree in Physics, by Jose Jorge Gil Pérez.

Zaragoza, April 1983.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, reading 'Jose J. Gil Pérez', with a large, stylized flourish at the end.

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Chapter I
Introduction

The analysis of polarized light and the determination of characteristic optical parameters of media with respect to the polarization phenomena represent a work area in Optics that has had an impact on several physical subjects and in other sciences. Nevertheless, a renewed interest in this area has been recently appreciated, and a new and plentiful literature has arisen. In the field of the ellipsometry it is worth mentioning the works of R.M.A. Azzam and N.M. Bashara, mainly developed on the basis of the of R.C. Jones [1] mathematical formalism, that produced a complete treatise [2] with both, the latest dynamic and static techniques to determine optical parameters and concrete application for thin films study, blood coagulum formation, etc. P.S. Theocaris and E.E. Gdoutos [3] have presented a rigorous study of the photoelasticity matricial theory in which R.C. Jones and H. Mueller formalism is used. The work of H.C. Van de Hulst [4] is also worth mentioning, because of the study of light dispersion by means of particles with several forms and sizes, giving matricial models in the Mueller formalism for each case. This work has recently prompt to diverse studies about natural atmosphere, artificial aerosols, marine hydrosols, etc [5].

Other related subjects of interest that are being developed nowadays are the study of birefringent or dichroic spectral filters [6], natural rotatory power [7], birefringence in optical fibers [8], etc.

The behavior of optical media that are active to the polarization can be studied by means of the Stokes-Mueller's formalism [4,9,10,11,12]. However, the elements of the Mueller matrix associated with an optical medium don't include direct information about the relevant parameters of the physical behavior of the medium, so it is necessary to do a previous study to classify the Mueller matrices according to the corresponding properties of the optical medium in order to facilitate the extraction of the parameters with direct physical interpretation. Several authors like K.D. Abhyankar and A.L. Fymat [13], R. Barakat [14], E.S. Fry and G.W. Kattawar [15], and R.W. Schaefer [16] have studied the relation among the elements of any Mueller matrix. Furthermore, R.C. Jones [1], J.R. Priebe [17] and C. Whitney [18] have established several theorems where the polarimetric equivalence between complex and simple systems with few optical media is demonstrated. Moreover, in the latest years there has been a tendency to the development of dynamic devices for the determination of optical parameters [19]. So, P.S. Hauge and H. Dill [20] have presented a dynamic method for the analysis of the polarized light. The work of Hauge and Dill work, together with the paper of E. Collet [21], in which the polarized light that emerges from a device with a rotatory retarder is considered, were the basis of our previous work, presented as Degree Thesis [22], where an experimental device with two rotatory retarders and two fixed linear polarizer was developed. Later, other authors have presented different devices that use non ideal rotatory retarders, like P.S. Hauge's [23] one, or electro-optic modulator as the built by R.C. Thomson, J.B. Bottiger and E.S. Fry [24].

The aim of this work has been the development of a dynamic method, as general as possible, for the determination of Mueller matrices and the analysis of polarized

light. This method has to admit a self-calibration, avoiding the use of tests and patterns during the calibrate operation and, thus, the problems related to the set-up, which generate instrumental limitations and systematic errors that are difficult to identify within the experimental results.

In our work we have considered the contribution of numerous authors, who use different formalisms for the representation and treatment of polarimetric properties of light and media. This fact has prompt us to include in this memory a chapter dedicated to the presentation and interpretation of the different formalisms, analyzing the relations among them and including the most important theorems relative to the equivalence and reciprocity of the optical systems. This Chapter II tries to give self-sufficiency to the memory and, although it includes a summary of the theoretical framework, it also contains some original contributions.

In Chapter III the relations between the elements of a generic Mueller matrix and the optical parameters that are characteristics of different equivalent systems are obtained and analyzed. Likewise, we analyze in detail the restrictive relations among the elements of the Mueller matrix, justifying them on physical bases and interpreting them in the framework of other formalisms. All of this has allowed us to establish a theorem that is useful to distinguish nondepolarizing systems from depolarizing ones, and furthermore, we have defined a set of parameters that indicate the degree of polarization and the degree of depolarization, introduced by any optical medium.

In Chapter IV, we present our dynamic method for the determination of Mueller matrices. It is based on the Fourier analysis of the intensity signal of the light emerging from a system with two rotating non-ideal linear retarders, where the optical medium whose Mueller matrix is to be measured is placed in the middle of them. The measurement device has several optical components, whose characteristic parameters are determined by means of a calibration operation. This calibration has the peculiarity of being made with the signal generated by the device, without any optical medium used like test or pattern.

The particularization of this measurement method for the analysis of polarized light is included in Chapter V, together with a calibration method.

In Chapter VI we describe the experimental measurement device, developed and designed by us, analyzing the main effects that can be sources of errors in the measurements.

In Chapter VII, the results corresponding with the self-calibration of our experimental device are presented, allowing us to estimate its accuracy. Furthermore, the results corresponding to several optical systems under measurement are presented. These results are analyzed with the help of the relations and theorems given in chapters II and III, and they are also used for illustrating the behavior of our experimental device.

Chapter II

**Formalisms of representation of
polarized light and optical media**

According to the electromagnetic theory, light propagates in space by means of transverse electromagnetic waves, mathematically represented by the solutions of the Maxwell equations, which can be split as a sum of plane monochromatic waves.

The light vector is defined by means of the electric field vector. This vector is well defined for each particular type of totally polarized light and, thus, any polarized light can be described using the concepts of vectorial calculus. With this vectorial description any problem related with the propagation, refraction and reflection of polarized light through optical media can be managed. However, calculations are usually very complicated and make it difficult to solve the problems. This is the reason for introducing other descriptions for the polarized light. For each one of these descriptions, there is a matricial model that allows us to describe the optical properties of those material media that affect to the polarization of the light going through them. Hereafter, we will use the expression ‘going through’ to indicate the cases of transmission and reflection of light.

In general, light beams are polychromatic. A wave is said to be monochromatic when it only contains one discrete frequency with zero spectral width. An intermediate case is a quasi-monochromatic wave, characterized by a thin spectral line, with a very small, but nonzero width.

It is important to point out that the cases of totally polarized monochromatic and quasi-monochromatic light are polarimetrically indistinguishable [2], in any interaction phenomenon with optical media. This fact justifies the supposition of monochromaticity for totally polarized quasi-monochromatic waves.

II.1 Electric field vector and polarization ellipse

It is necessary to introduce a vectorial description of the polarized light in order to present a consistent and uniform notation along our work.

A uniform and plane monochromatic wave propagating in a homogenous and isotropic medium along Z axis in a Cartesian system of reference XYZ can be expressed in the form

$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \vec{\mathbf{i}} + E_y \vec{\mathbf{j}} \quad (\text{II.1})$$

where \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} are unit vectors along X and Y directions, respectively, and the components of \mathbf{E} are given by

$$E_x = A_x \cos\left(-\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda} + \delta_x\right) = A_x \cos(\nu + \delta_x) \quad (\text{II.2.a})$$

$$E_y = A_y \cos\left(-\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda} + \delta_y\right) = A_y \cos(\nu + \delta_y) \quad (\text{II.2.b})$$

with $\nu \equiv -\omega t + \frac{2\pi z}{\lambda}$; or in complex notation

$$E_x = A_x e^{i(\nu + \delta_x)} \quad (\text{II.3.a})$$

$$E_y = A_y e^{i(\nu + \delta_y)} \quad (\text{II.3.b})$$

knowing that the imaginary part of these expressions has not physical meaning.

The parameters A_x , A_y are the amplitudes according to the X and Y axes, λ is the wavelength, ω is the angular frequency; and δ_x , δ_y are phase constants.

From (II.3) and using some trigonometric relations, it is easy to demonstrate the following relation [3, 25]

$$\frac{E_x^2}{A_x^2} + \frac{E_y^2}{A_y^2} - 2 \frac{E_x E_y}{A_x A_y} \cos \delta = \sin^2 \delta \quad (\text{II.4.a})$$

where

$$E_y = A_y e^{i(\nu + \delta_y)}, \quad \delta = (\delta_x - \delta_y) \quad (\text{II.4.b})$$

Equation (II.4) represents an ellipse that is called *the polarization ellipse* (Fig. II.1). Its eccentricity and axes orientation on the plane XY depends on δ , but neither t nor Z.

Let α be the angle given by

$$\tan \alpha \equiv \frac{A_y}{A_x} \quad (\text{II.5})$$

ψ the ellipticity of the polarization ellipse, and χ the azimuth of the major semi-axis of the ellipse with respect to the positive direction of the X axis. These angles are represented in Fig. II.2 and the following relations can be demonstrated [25, 26]

$$\tan 2\chi = \tan 2\alpha \cos \delta \quad (\text{II.6.a})$$

$$\sin 2\psi = \sin 2\alpha \sin \delta \quad (\text{II.6.b})$$

$$\cos 2\alpha = \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi \quad (\text{II.6.c})$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\tan 2\psi}{\sin 2\chi} \quad (\text{II.6.d})$$

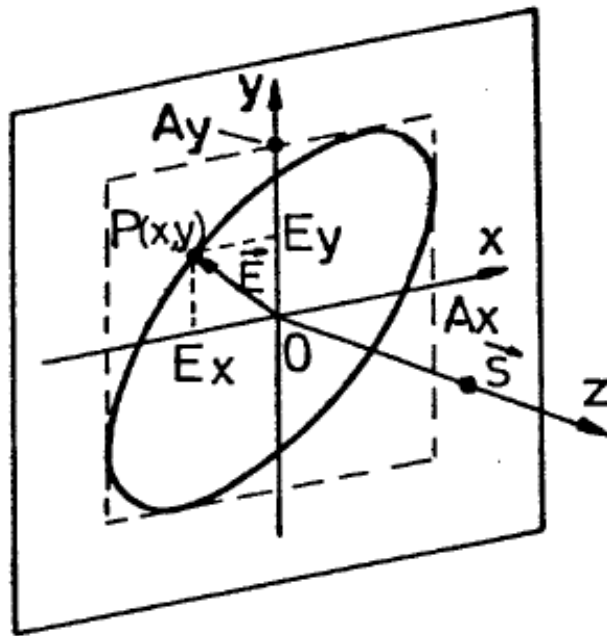


Fig. II.1 – Polarization ellipse

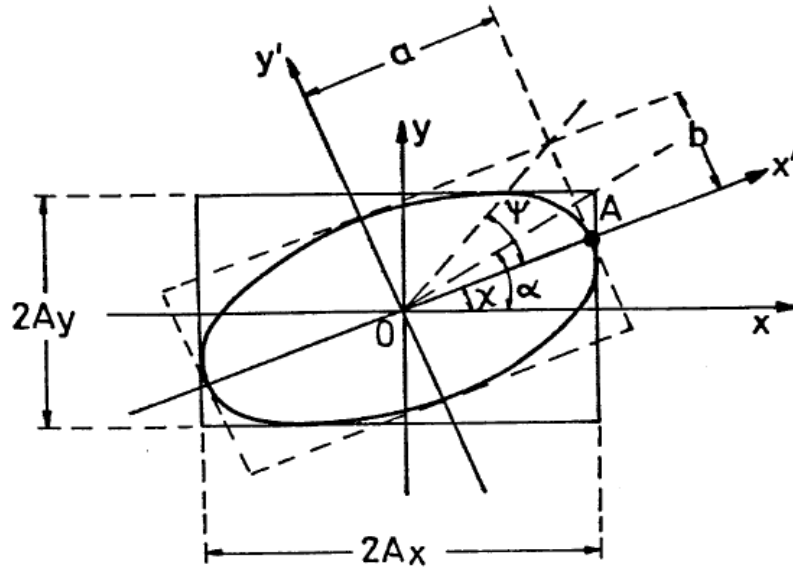


Fig. II.2 – Geometric representation of the parameters associated with the polarization ellipse

II.2 Jones calculus

A Jones vector is a column vector composed of two complex elements, namely the components E_x and E_y of the electric vector \mathbf{E} of the light beam. The Jones vector, for the more general case of elliptical polarization, is defined as [1]

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} = e^{iu} \begin{pmatrix} A_x e^{-i\delta/2} \\ A_y e^{i\delta/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.7})$$

with

$$u = \nu + \frac{\delta_x + \delta_y}{2} \quad (\text{II.8.a})$$

$$\delta = \delta_y - \delta_x \quad (\text{II.8.b})$$

The amplitudes A_x , A_y and the relative phase δ are enough to define the polarization ellipse. However, the vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ has information of the both phases, δ_x and δ_y , separately. This fact shows that, in general, a Jones vector is characterized by two independent complex numbers, i.e. by four real quantities.

There are problems in which the absolute phase is irrelevant. In such cases we can write the Jones vector as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} A_x e^{-i\delta/2} \\ A_y e^{i\delta/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.9})$$

In other cases, the Jones vector is normalized in such a way that the intensity value is unity $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = A_x^2 + A_y^2 = 1$.

Two states of polarization with Jones vectors $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'$ are called orthogonal when $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^+ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = 0$. The orthogonal vectors correspond to polarization ellipses with the same ellipticity, opposite rotation directions and perpendicular major axes.

The coherent superposition of two beams of polarized light can be expressed as the sum of their corresponding Jones vectors.

When a monochromatic wave of light, as the one indicated in (II.1), passes through a linear optical medium that does not produce incoherent effects, the emerging wave is a linear transformation

$$\begin{aligned} E'_x &= A_1 E_x + A_3 E_y \\ E'_y &= A_4 E_x + A_2 E_y \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.10})$$

where A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 are complex coefficients that depend on the nature of the optical medium. Thus, the transformation (II.10) can be written as follows

$$\begin{pmatrix} E'_x \\ E'_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.11})$$

or

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (\text{II.12})$$

\mathbf{J} being the complex matrix defined by

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.13})$$

Matrix \mathbf{J} matrix is called the Jones matrix associated with the optical medium considered. The elements of \mathbf{J} are usually written in two alternative ways

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} J_{11} & J_{12} \\ J_{21} & J_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} J_1 & J_3 \\ J_4 & J_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.14})$$

Hereafter, when a matrix is represented with the **J** letter, it must be understood that it is a Jones matrix.

The Jones matrix associated with a succession of optical media can be obtained as the product of the matrices associated with the respective medium [2]. This is easily proved if we apply (II.12) successively.

From the definition of the Jones vector given in (II.7) we see that this vector is only defined for totally polarized light. This implies that we cannot represent with a Jones matrix a medium that reduces the degree of polarization of the light beam going through it.

The Jones matrix associated with a group of optical media, which are passed through in parallel by a coherent light beam, is given by the sum of the Jones matrices associated with these media.

The utility of the JCF* formalism is restricted to the problems related to totally polarized light.

Hereafter, we understand like “N type” those optical media that are represented by a Jones matrix, and “G type” those in general.

II.3 Stokes-Mueller formalism

Next we present a summary of the Stokes vector and Mueller matrices formalism, whose abbreviated name is SMF.

A Stokes vector is a column vector composed of four real elements S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3 ; in the case of a totally polarized light beam they are defined as follows [27]

* For the sake of simplicity, we will use abbreviations to indicate the mathematical formalism. In this way, we use JCF to indicate the Jones calculus formalism.

$$\begin{aligned}
s_0 &= E_x E_x^* + E_y E_y^* \\
s_1 &= E_x E_x^* - E_y E_y^* \\
s_2 &= E_x E_y^* + E_y E_x^* \\
s_3 &= i(E_x E_y^* - E_y E_x^*)
\end{aligned} \tag{II.15}$$

where the complex notation for E_x and E_y has been adopted.

There is the following alternative way to write the Stokes parameters

$$\begin{aligned}
s_0 &= A_x^2 + A_y^2 \\
s_1 &= A_x^2 - A_y^2 \\
s_2 &= 2A_x A_y \cos \delta \\
s_3 &= 2A_x A_y \sin \delta
\end{aligned} \tag{II.16}$$

and, taking into account (II.6)

$$\begin{aligned}
s_0 &= I \\
s_1 &= I \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi = I \cos 2\alpha \\
s_2 &= I \cos 2\psi \sin 2\chi = I \sin 2\alpha \cos \delta \\
s_3 &= I \sin 2\psi = I \sin 2\alpha \sin \delta
\end{aligned} \tag{II.17}$$

It is important to point out that in this case of totally polarized light the following relation is satisfied

$$s_0^2 = s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2 \tag{II.18}$$

In general, light is presented as a superposition of a great number of simple wavelets with independent phases. The incoherent superposition of any number of light beams is characterized by a Stokes vector that is the sum of the Stokes vectors associated with them. The Stokes parameters of the total beam are

$$s_0 = \sum_i s_0^i, \quad s_1 = \sum_i s_1^i, \quad s_2 = \sum_i s_2^i, \quad s_3 = \sum_i s_3^i, \tag{II.19}$$

where the superscript “ i ” denotes each independent simple wave.

According to (II.19), the whole light beam is partially polarized, and its Stokes parameters can be obtained as follows [28]

$$\begin{aligned}
s_0 &= \langle A_x^2 + A_y^2 \rangle \\
s_1 &= \langle A_x^2 - A_y^2 \rangle \\
s_2 &= \langle 2A_x A_y \cos \delta \rangle \\
s_3 &= \langle 2A_x A_y \sin \delta \rangle
\end{aligned} \tag{II.20}$$

where the brackets indicate the temporal average of each parameter.

The expressions (II.20) can be considered as the most general definitions for the Stokes parameters, which are subject to the condition

$$s_0^2 \geq s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2 \tag{II.21}$$

The equality is satisfied only for totally polarized light. In the case of natural light (unpolarized light), the averages are zero except for s_0 , and the corresponding Stokes vector is

$$\mathbf{S}_N = \begin{pmatrix} I_N \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{II.22}$$

It is worth remembering now the optical equivalence principle of the states of polarization, which can be formulated as follows: “*By means of any physical experiment, is impossible to distinguish among several states of polarization of light that are incoherent sums of different pure states with the same Stokes vector associated*”. [27]

According to this principle, a beam of partially polarized light can be considered as the incoherent superposition of two beams, one totally polarized, and the other one unpolarized. In the SMF formalism this fact is expressed as follows

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}_p + \mathbf{S}_N \tag{II.23}$$

where

$$\mathbf{S} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} s_0 \\ s_1 \\ s_2 \\ s_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_P \equiv \begin{pmatrix} I_P \\ s_1 \\ s_2 \\ s_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_N \equiv \begin{pmatrix} I_N \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.24.a})$$

with

$$I_P = (s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2)^{1/2}, \quad I_N = s_0 - I_P \quad (\text{II.4.b})$$

The degree of polarization, G , for a light beam with a Stokes vector \mathbf{S} is defined as

$$G = \frac{I_P}{s_0} \quad (\text{II.25})$$

We are also interested in defining the positive semidefinite quadratic form

$$F = s_0^2 - s_1^2 - s_2^2 - s_3^2 \quad (\text{II.26})$$

which is related with G as follows

$$F = s_0^2 (1 - G^2) \quad (\text{II.27})$$

or

$$G = \left(1 - \frac{F}{s_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{II.28})$$

The values of the quantities G and F are restricted by the following limits

$$0 \leq G \leq 1 \quad (\text{II.29.a})$$

$$0 \leq F \leq s_0^2 \quad (\text{II.29.b})$$

Thus, for totally polarized light, $G = 1$, $F = 0$; and for natural light $G = 0$, $F = s_0^2$.

A Stokes vector can be defined in terms of the total intensity I , the degree of polarization G , the azimuth χ and the ellipticity Ψ of the corresponding light beam

$$\mathbf{S} = I \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ G \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi \\ G \cos 2\psi \sin 2\chi \\ G \sin 2\psi \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.30})$$

This expression shows that the Stokes vector contains all the information about the polarization ellipse and the degree of polarization. However, the Stokes vector, unlike the Jones vector, does not contain information about the absolute phase of the corresponding light beam.

In the SMF formalism, linear optical systems are represented by means of 4x4 real matrices (Mueller matrices). These matrices are generically denoted as

$$\mathbf{M} \equiv (m_{ij}) \quad i, j = 0, 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{II.31})$$

and contain 16 elements m_{ij} , generally independent.

When a light beam with a Stokes vector \mathbf{S} passes through a medium that is characterized by the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , the vector \mathbf{S}' associated with the emerging beam is given by

$$\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{S} \quad (\text{II.32})$$

As in JCF formalism, the Mueller matrix of a series of optical media is obtained as the product of the associated Mueller matrices [2].

On the other hand, the Mueller matrix associated with a group of optical media, which are passed through in parallel by an incoherent light beam, is given by the sum of the Mueller matrices associated with these media [27].

A Mueller matrix can represent any optical medium that affect to any parameter related with the Stokes vector associated with the incoming light beam. So, for example, all kind of retarders (linear, circular and elliptic), total or partial polarizers (linear, circular and elliptic), systems that depolarizes the light, or any complicated combination of them can be represented in SMF formalism. However, those media that introduce a uniform phase shift on light passing through them (phase plate) cannot be represented by means of the SMF formalism.

Hereafter we will use \mathbf{S} and \mathbf{M} to indicate Stokes vectors and Mueller matrices respectively. It must be understood as N-type Mueller matrices those corresponding to N-type optical media.

II.4 Coherency matrix and coherency vector formalisms

Let us consider a monochromatic light beam, characterized by an electric field vector \mathbf{E} that, in general, can be thought as a superposition of vectors like (II.4), but with different phases δ_x, δ_y . We call coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ associated with such a light beam to the following [29]

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \times \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \mathbf{E}_x \mathbf{E}_x^* \rangle & \langle \mathbf{E}_x \mathbf{E}_y^* \rangle \\ \langle \mathbf{E}_y \mathbf{E}_x^* \rangle & \langle \mathbf{E}_y \mathbf{E}_y^* \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle A_x^2 \rangle & \langle A_x A_y e^{i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{-i\delta} \rangle & \langle A_y^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.33})$$

where the brackets indicate temporal average and \times denotes the Kronecker product.

We denote the elements of $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_1 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_4 & \rho_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.34})$$

The matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ is a Hermitian matrix and it is defined on the basis of the same parameters as the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} .

In fact, it is straightforward to prove the following relations between the elements of $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ and \mathbf{S} associated with the same light beam [28,30].

$$\begin{aligned} s_0 &= \rho_1 + \rho_2 \\ s_1 &= \rho_1 - \rho_2 \\ s_2 &= \rho_3 + \rho_4 \\ s_3 &= i(\rho_3 - \rho_4) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.35})$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1 &= \frac{1}{2}(s_0 + s_1) \\ \rho_2 &= \frac{1}{2}(s_0 - s_1) \\ \rho_3 &= \frac{1}{2}(s_2 - is_3) \\ \rho_4 &= \frac{1}{2}(s_2 + is_3) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.36})$$

The incoherent superposition of any number of light beams is characterized by a coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, which is the sum of the coherency matrices $\boldsymbol{\rho}_i$ associated with the respective beams. Thus

$$\rho_1 = \sum_i \rho_1^i, \quad \rho_2 = \sum_i \rho_2^i, \quad \rho_3 = \sum_i \rho_3^i, \quad \rho_4 = \sum_i \rho_4^i, \quad (\text{II.37})$$

where the superscript “*i*” denotes each independent simple wave.

The quadratic form F is now given by

$$F = 4 \det \mathbf{p} \quad (\text{II.38})$$

and, according to (II.29.b)

$$0 \leq 4 \det \mathbf{p} \leq s_0^2 \quad (\text{II.39})$$

When the light beam is totally polarized, then

$$\det \mathbf{p} = 0 \quad (\text{II.40})$$

and when the light beam is totally unpolarized (natural light)

$$\det \mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{4} s_0^2 \quad (\text{II.41})$$

Similarly to the treatment of the Stokes vector, any matrix \mathbf{p} can be written as the sum of two coherency matrices as follows

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_P + \mathbf{p}_N \quad (\text{II.42.a})$$

with

$$\det \mathbf{p}_P = 0 \quad (\text{II.2.b})$$

$$\det \mathbf{p}_N = \frac{1}{4} I_N^2 \quad (\text{II.42.c})$$

The matrix \mathbf{p}_N corresponds with a beam of unpolarized light with intensity I_N , and \mathbf{p}_P corresponds with a beam of totally polarized light.

II.4.1 N-type optical media

We call formalism of the coherency matrix, CMF, to that one that uses the coherency matrix to represent the state of polarization of light.

Let us consider a light beam with a coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho} = \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \times \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \rangle$ that passes through an N-type optical medium with a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} . The emerging light beam will have an associated coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}'$ like this [27]

$$\boldsymbol{\rho}' = \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \times \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^+ \rangle = \langle \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \times \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \mathbf{J}^+ \rangle = \mathbf{J} \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \times \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \rangle \mathbf{J}^+ = \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{J}^+ \quad (\text{II.43})$$

In the case of totally polarized light, the CMF formalism is equivalent to the JCF one, except for the fact that in the CMF it is no possible to handle information about the absolute phase of the wave of the light, but only about the characteristics of the polarization ellipse. In the present discussion we conclude that, when the phenomena are relative to totally polarized light, the JCF formalism is both simpler and more complete than the CMF one, given the fact that it contains information about the absolute phase.

The formalism JCF is not applicable to the study of phenomena with partially polarized light and N-type optical media, because this formalism does not allow the representation of states of partial polarization of the light. Thus, in general, the CMF formalism is more powerful than the JCF one, concerning the representation of states of light, but it is not concerning the representation of optical media because they are represented by Jones matrices in both formalisms.

II.4.2. G-type optical media

We call coherency vector, or density vector, \mathbf{D} associated with a light beam, to the defined as follows

$$\mathbf{D} = \langle \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{E}^* \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \langle A_x^2 \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{-i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_x A_y e^{i\delta} \rangle \\ \langle A_y^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.44})$$

We denote the elements of \mathbf{D} as

$$\mathbf{D} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} d_0 \\ d_1 \\ d_2 \\ d_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.45})$$

They are given by the elements ρ_i of the coherency matrix associated with the same light beam

$$\begin{aligned} d_0 &= \rho_1 \\ d_1 &= \rho_3 \\ d_2 &= \rho_4 \\ d_3 &= \rho_2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II.46})$$

Relations (II.35) and (II.36) can be expressed as the following vectorial form

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D} \quad (\text{II.47})$$

or

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S} \quad (\text{II.48})$$

where \mathbf{U} is the following unitary matrix

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i & -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II.49})$$

The vector \mathbf{D} associated with a light beam that is an incoherent superposition of a certain number of light beams is given by the sum of the corresponding coherency vectors.

As we said above, the matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, and therefore the vector \mathbf{D} , contain exactly the same information than the corresponding Stokes vector \mathbf{S} . Next we will see how the optical systems are characterized in the coherency vector formalisms (CVF), as a function of the corresponding Mueller matrices.

Let us consider an optical medium with the associated Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , with an incident light beam with Stokes vector \mathbf{S} and coherency vector \mathbf{D} . The Stokes, \mathbf{S}' , and

coherency, \mathbf{D}' , vectors associated with the emerging beam fulfill the following relations

$$\mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{MS} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{MUD} \quad (\text{II.50})$$

and consequently, for every Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , there is a unique matrix \mathbf{V} in such a manner that

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{MU} \quad (\text{II.51})$$

$$\mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{VD} \quad (\text{II.52})$$

The values of the elements of the matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ are restricted by the Hermiticity condition [30] $\boldsymbol{\rho} = \boldsymbol{\rho}^+$, i.e.

$$I_m(\rho_1) = I_m(\rho_2) = 0 \quad (\text{II.53.a})$$

$$\rho_3^* = \rho_{41} \quad (\text{II.53.b})$$

and, thus

$$I_m(d_0) = I_m(d_3) = 0 \quad (\text{II.54.a})$$

$$d_2^* = d_1 \quad (\text{II.54.b})$$

The components d'_i ($i = 0,1,2,3$) of the vector \mathbf{D}' given by (II.52) are also restricted to the conditions (II.54). This implies that the 16 complex elements of a matrix \mathbf{V} must satisfy a set of 16 restrictions in such a manner that, in general, it only depends on the 16 independent real parameters, in the same way as the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} .

By imposing the conditions (II.54) to the vectors \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{D}' , we see that the elements v_{ij} of the matrix \mathbf{V} must satisfy the following restrictions [14]

$$\begin{aligned}
V_{10} &= V_{20}^* \\
V_{01} &= V_{02}^* \\
V_{13} &= V_{23}^* \\
V_{31} &= V_{32}^* \\
V_{11} &= V_{12}^* \\
V_{21} &= V_{12}^* \\
I_m(V_{00}) &= I_m(V_{03}) = I_m(V_{30}) = I_m(V_{33}) = 0
\end{aligned} \tag{II.55}$$

According to these expressions, a generic matrix \mathbf{V} is characterized by 10 parameters corresponding to the real parts, and 6 parameters corresponding to the imaginary parts.

There is a total equivalence between the formalisms CVF and SMF. Both of them are equally powerful in any concrete case. Usually SMF is more practical because it only uses real numbers. The CVF formalism is especially useful to express the calculations or the results in relation to the coherency matrix.

Hereafter it must be understood that the use of the letters \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{V} corresponds to the density vectors and matrices of the CVF formalism. Likewise, we will say that a matrix \mathbf{V} is N-type when it corresponds to an N-type optical medium.

II.5 Relations between the different formalisms

II.5.1 Some formal considerations

In the space of complex matrices 2x2 we can consider the base formed by the matrices [3, 18]

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{II.56}$$

The Pauli matrices $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_3$ are usually grouped in the following matricial vector

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_3) \tag{II.57}$$

A coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ can be expressed as [27]

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^3 s_i \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \quad (\text{II.58})$$

Taking into account the fact that the matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ and the matrices $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i$ ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$) are Hermitian, it is easy to prove that the coefficients s_i ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$) must be real [27, 31].

If we compare the expressions (II.58) and (II.36) we see that the coefficients s_i are just the Stokes parameters corresponding to the matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, and the following relation is fulfilled

$$s_i = \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i) \quad (\text{II.59})$$

We can consider the expression (II.58) as the development of the density matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ in a complete set of orthogonal observables ($\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i$) in such a manner that the coefficients s_i correspond, except for a constant, with the eigenvalues of these operators.

Let us consider a light beam that has associated a density matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ and a Stokes vector \mathbf{S} , and that passes through an N-type optical medium characterized by a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} . Then, the Stokes vector \mathbf{S}' associated with the emerging light beam is given by

$$s'_i = \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \boldsymbol{\rho}') = \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{J}^+) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \mathbf{J} \sum_{j=0}^3 s_j \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \mathbf{J}^+ \right) = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \sum_{j=0}^3 (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \mathbf{J}^+) s_j = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} s_j \quad (\text{II.60})$$

where the matrix \mathbf{M} , whose elements are

$$m_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \sum_{j=0}^3 (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \mathbf{J}^+) \quad (\text{II.61})$$

is just the Mueller matrix associated with the same optical medium represented by the Jones matrix \mathbf{J} .

II.5.2 Relations about the characterization of light

In the case of totally polarized light it is easy to prove the following relation [3]

$$s_j = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (\text{II.62})$$

or, in an explicit way

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_0 &= |\varepsilon_1|^2 + |\varepsilon_2|^2 \\
 s_1 &= |\varepsilon_1|^2 - |\varepsilon_2|^2 \\
 s_2 &= 2\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 \cos \delta \\
 s_3 &= 2\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 \sin \delta
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{II.63.a}$$

with

$$\delta = (\arg \varepsilon_2 - \arg \varepsilon_1)
 \tag{II.63.b}$$

Reciprocally

$$|\varepsilon_1|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(s_0 + s_1), \quad |\varepsilon_2|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(s_0 - s_1), \quad \tan \delta = \frac{s_3}{s_2}
 \tag{II.64}$$

The relations between the Jones vector, the coherency matrix and the coherency vector associated with the same beam of totally polarized light are the following

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho_1 &= d_0 = |\varepsilon_1|^2 \\
 \rho_2 &= d_3 = |\varepsilon_2|^2 \\
 \rho_3 &= d_1 = \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 e^{-i\delta} \\
 \rho_4 &= d_2 = \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 e^{i\delta}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{II.65}$$

or, reciprocally

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\varepsilon_1|^2 &= \rho_1 = d_0 \\
 |\varepsilon_2|^2 &= \rho_2 = d_3 \\
 \delta &= \arg \rho_4 = -\arg \rho_3 = \arg d_2 = -\arg d_1
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{II. 66}$$

The relations between the coherency matrix and the Stokes parameters were considered in (II.35) and (II.36), and are valid regardless the value of the degree of polarization of the light beam.

II.5.3 Relations about the characterization of optical media

An N-type optical medium has associated a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} and a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} . Let us consider the Jones vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} associated with the incident light beam over the medium.

The emerging beam is also characterized by the Jones and Stokes vectors $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'$ and \mathbf{S}' respectively. These vectors are obtained, according to (II.12) and (II.32), as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'_k = \sum_{l=1}^2 J_{kl} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_l, \quad k = 1, 2 \quad (\text{II. 67})$$

$$\mathbf{s}'_i = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \mathbf{s}_j, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{II. 68})$$

Taking into account (II.58), we can write (II.68) as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^+ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \quad (\text{II. 69})$$

or

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^+ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \right) \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (\text{II. 70})$$

From (II.69) and (II.12) we obtain

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^+ \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^+ (\mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \mathbf{J}^+) \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (\text{II. 71})$$

Together with (II.70), this expression leads to

$$\mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \mathbf{J}^+ = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_j, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{II. 72})$$

This last expression is useful to obtain the elements of one matrix as a function of the other in the following manner

$$\begin{aligned}
2m_{00} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{21} + J_{22}^* J_{22} \\
2m_{01} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{12} - J_{22}^* J_{22} \\
2m_{02} &= J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{22} + J_{12}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{21} \\
2m_{03} &= i \left(J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{21}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{11} - J_{22}^* J_{21} \right) \\
2m_{10} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{12} - J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{22} \\
2m_{11} &= J_{11}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{22} - J_{21}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{12} \\
2m_{12} &= J_{12}^* J_{11} + J_{11}^* J_{12} - J_{22}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{22} \\
2m_{13} &= i \left(J_{11}^* J_{12} + J_{22}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{11} \right) \\
2m_{20} &= J_{11}^* J_{21} + J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{22} + J_{22}^* J_{12} \\
2m_{21} &= J_{11}^* J_{21} + J_{21}^* J_{11} - J_{12}^* J_{22} - J_{22}^* J_{12} \\
2m_{22} &= J_{11}^* J_{22} + J_{21}^* J_{12} + J_{12}^* J_{21} + J_{22}^* J_{11} \\
2m_{23} &= i \left(J_{11}^* J_{22} + J_{21}^* J_{12} - J_{12}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{11} \right) \\
2m_{30} &= i \left(J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{22}^* J_{12} - J_{11}^* J_{21} - J_{12}^* J_{22} \right) \\
2m_{31} &= i \left(J_{21}^* J_{11} + J_{12}^* J_{22} - J_{11}^* J_{21} - J_{22}^* J_{12} \right) \\
2m_{32} &= i \left(J_{21}^* J_{12} + J_{22}^* J_{11} - J_{11}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{21} \right) \\
2m_{33} &= J_{22}^* J_{11} + J_{11}^* J_{22} - J_{12}^* J_{21} - J_{21}^* J_{12}
\end{aligned} \tag{II. 73}$$

and reciprocally, by denoting the elements J_{kl} ($k, l = 1, 2$) in polar form as

$$J_{kl} = |J_{kl}| e^{i\theta_{kl}} \tag{II. 74.a}$$

it can be proved the following relations

$$\begin{aligned}
2|J_{11}|^2 &= m_{00} + m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} \\
2|J_{12}|^2 &= m_{00} - m_{01} + m_{10} - m_{11} \\
2|J_{21}|^2 &= m_{00} + m_{01} - m_{10} - m_{11} \\
2|J_{22}|^2 &= m_{00} - m_{01} - m_{10} + m_{11}
\end{aligned} \tag{II. 74.b}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\theta_{12} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{m_{02} + m_{12}}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 \right]^{1/2}} \\ \sin(\theta_{12} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{-(m_{03} + m_{13})}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 \right]^{1/2}} \\ \cos(\theta_{21} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{m_{20} + m_{21}}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 \right]^{1/2}} \\ \sin(\theta_{21} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{m_{30} + m_{31}}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 \right]^{1/2}} \\ \cos(\theta_{22} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{m_{22} + m_{33}}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 \right]^{1/2}} \\ \sin(\theta_{22} - \theta_{11}) &= \frac{m_{32} + m_{23}}{\left[(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{01})^2 \right]^{1/2}}\end{aligned}$$

It should be noted that the transformation of the Jones matrix in the Mueller matrix provokes the loss of information concerning the global retardation introduced by the corresponding optical system.

A more compacted way to present the relations (II.73) is the following [4, 9, 32]

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) & \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) & \beta_{13} + \beta_{42} & -\gamma_{13} - \gamma_{42} \\ \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) & \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) & \beta_{13} - \beta_{42} & -\gamma_{13} + \gamma_{42} \\ \beta_{14} + \beta_{32} & \beta_{14} - \beta_{32} & \beta_{12} + \beta_{34} & -\gamma_{12} + \gamma_{34} \\ \gamma_{14} + \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{14} - \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{12} + \gamma_{34} & \beta_{12} - \beta_{34} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 75.a})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_i^2 &= J_i J_i^* = |J_i|^2, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4 \\ \beta_{ij} &= \beta_{ji} = \text{Re}(J_i J_j^*) = \text{Re}(J_j J_i^*) \\ \gamma_{ij} &= -\gamma_{ji} = \text{Im}(J_i J_j^*) = \text{Im}(J_j J_i^*), \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4\end{aligned} \quad (\text{II. 75.b})$$

The matrix (II.75) can be obtained directly from (II.61).

If a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} corresponds to a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} , the former has the form (II.75), and it is easy to prove that the Mueller matrices \mathbf{M}^T and \mathbf{M}' correspond to the Jones matrices \mathbf{J}^+ and \mathbf{J}^T , where \mathbf{M}' is given by

$$\mathbf{M}' = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} & m_{10} & m_{20} & -m_{30} \\ m_{01} & m_{11} & m_{21} & -m_{31} \\ m_{02} & m_{12} & m_{22} & -m_{32} \\ -m_{03} & -m_{13} & -m_{23} & m_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 76})$$

which can be written as

$$\mathbf{M}' = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{Q} \quad (\text{II. 77.a})$$

with

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 77.b})$$

The diagonal matrix \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal, with $\det \mathbf{Q} = -1$, and does not correspond to any optical system with real physical entity.

Next we will search the relations between the Jones matrix \mathbf{J} and the matrix \mathbf{V} associated with the same N-type optical medium.

If we take into account (II.12) and (II.44), we see that [28]

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{J}^* . \quad (\text{II. 78})$$

That is to say

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} J_1 J_1^* & J_1 J_3^* & J_3 J_1^* & J_3 J_3^* \\ J_1 J_4^* & J_1 J_2^* & J_3 J_4^* & J_3 J_2^* \\ J_4 J_1^* & J_4 J_3^* & J_2 J_1^* & J_2 J_3^* \\ J_4 J_4^* & J_4 J_2^* & J_2 J_4^* & J_2 J_2^* \end{pmatrix} . \quad (\text{II. 79})$$

Reciprocally, we obtain the elements $J_i = |J_i| e^{i\theta_i}$ as a function of the elements v_{ij}

$$\begin{aligned}
|J_1|^2 &= \nu_{00} \\
|J_2|^2 &= \nu_{33} \\
|J_3|^2 &= \nu_{03} \\
|J_4|^2 &= \nu_{30}
\end{aligned} \tag{II. 80}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_1 - \theta_2 &= \arg(\nu_{11}) = -\arg(\nu_{22}) \\
\theta_1 - \theta_3 &= \arg(\nu_{01}) = -\arg(\nu_{02}) \\
\theta_1 - \theta_4 &= \arg(\nu_{10}) = -\arg(\nu_{20})
\end{aligned}$$

The relations (II.75) and (II.79) are only valid for N-type optical media, because otherwise the Jones matrices are not defined.

Finally, we will see the relations between the matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{V} that correspond to the same G-type optical medium.

According to (II.51), we know that $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{U}$, where \mathbf{U} is the matrix given in (II.49). As \mathbf{U} is a unitary matrix we can write

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{U}^{-1} \tag{II. 81}$$

Developing (II.51) and (II.81) in the explicit form we obtain [41]

$$\mathbf{V} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} + m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} & m_{02} + m_{12} + i(m_{03} + m_{13}) & m_{02} + m_{12} - i(m_{03} + m_{13}) & m_{00} - m_{01} + m_{10} + m_{11} \\ m_{20} + m_{21} - i(m_{30} + m_{31}) & m_{22} + m_{33} + i(m_{23} + m_{32}) & m_{22} - m_{33} - i(m_{23} + m_{32}) & m_{20} - m_{21} - i(m_{30} - m_{31}) \\ m_{20} + m_{21} + i(m_{30} + m_{31}) & m_{22} - m_{33} + i(m_{23} + m_{32}) & m_{22} + m_{33} - i(m_{23} - m_{32}) & m_{20} - m_{21} + i(m_{30} - m_{31}) \\ m_{00} + m_{01} - m_{10} - m_{11} & m_{02} - m_{12} + i(m_{03} - m_{13}) & m_{02} - m_{12} - i(m_{03} - m_{13}) & m_{00} - m_{01} - m_{10} + m_{11} \end{pmatrix} \tag{II. 82.a}$$

and, reciprocally

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{00} + \nu_{03} + \nu_{30} + \nu_{33} & \nu_{00} + \nu_{03} + \nu_{30} - \nu_{33} & \nu_{01} + \nu_{02} + \nu_{31} + \nu_{32} & -i(\nu_{01} - \nu_{02} + \nu_{31} - \nu_{32}) \\ \nu_{00} + \nu_{03} - \nu_{30} - \nu_{33} & \nu_{00} - \nu_{03} - \nu_{30} + \nu_{33} & \nu_{01} + \nu_{02} - \nu_{31} - \nu_{32} & -i(\nu_{01} - \nu_{02} - \nu_{31} + \nu_{32}) \\ \nu_{10} + \nu_{13} + \nu_{20} + \nu_{23} & \nu_{10} - \nu_{13} + \nu_{20} - \nu_{23} & \nu_{11} + \nu_{12} + \nu_{21} + \nu_{22} & -i(\nu_{11} - \nu_{12} + \nu_{21} - \nu_{22}) \\ -i(\nu_{10} - \nu_{20} + \nu_{13} - \nu_{23}) & -i(\nu_{10} - \nu_{20} - \nu_{13} + \nu_{23}) & -i(\nu_{11} + \nu_{12} - \nu_{21} + \nu_{22}) & \nu_{11} - \nu_{12} - \nu_{21} + \nu_{22} \end{pmatrix} \tag{II. 82.b}$$

From (II.79) and (II.81) we see that if the Jones and Mueller matrices \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{M} correspond to a matrix \mathbf{V} , then the matrices \mathbf{J}^+ and \mathbf{M}^T correspond to \mathbf{V}^+ , and \mathbf{J}^T , \mathbf{M}^+ correspond to \mathbf{V}^T .

The figures (II.3) and (II.4) show schematically the relations between the different formalisms.

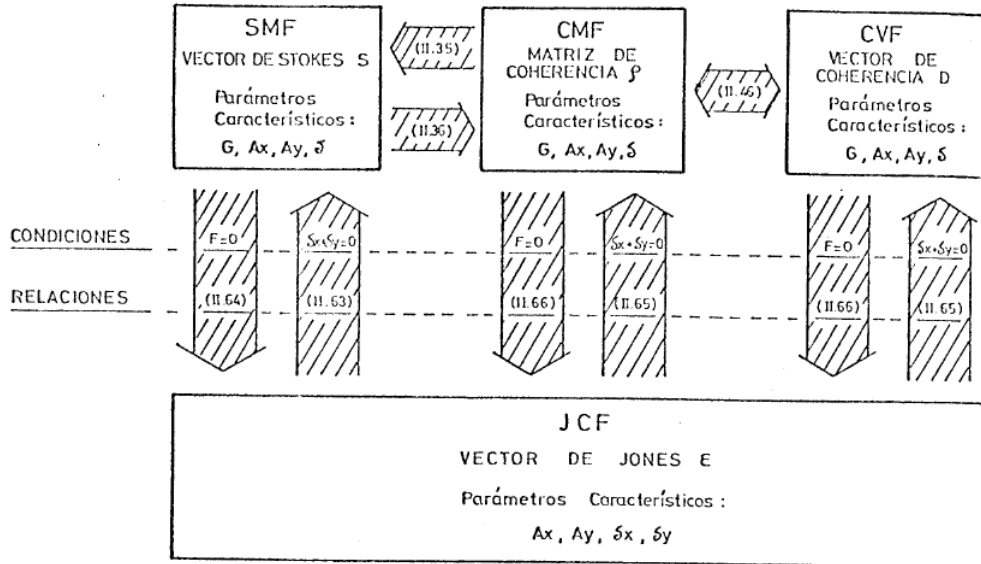


Fig. II.3: Scheme of the relations, regarding the characterization of the light, among the formalisms SMF, CMF, CVF and JCF.

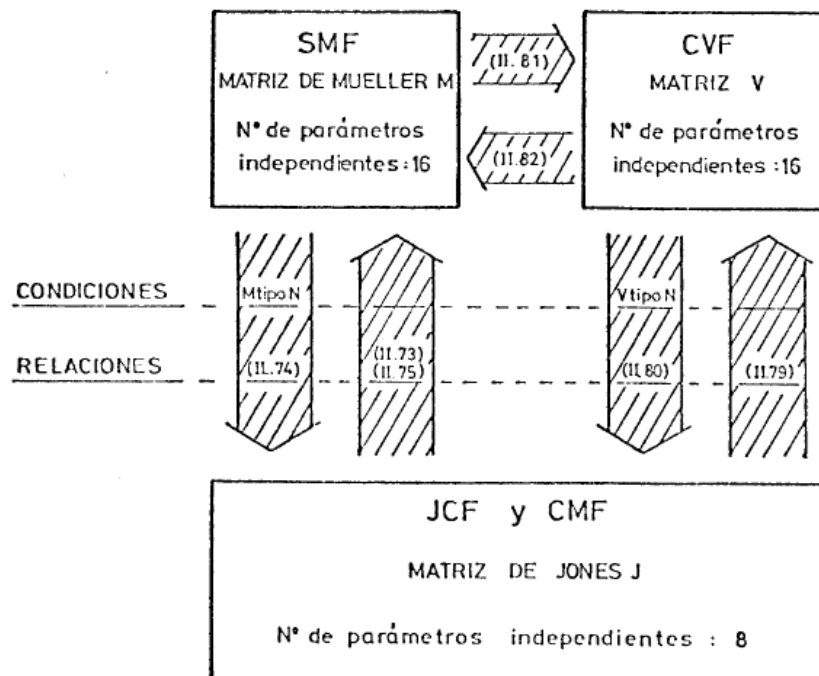


Fig. II.4: Scheme of the relations, regarding the characterization of optical media, among the formalisms SMF, CMF, CVF and JCF.

11.6. Optical media. Notation

Along our work, we will study systems composed of N-type optical media. The set of these media can be divided into two categories, regarding the nature of the effects produced over the polarized light. Some of them produce retardation between two orthogonal states of polarization that are invariant under the action of the considered medium (retarders), and others produce a selective absorption or reflection (polarizers).

Both of them, retarders and polarizers, total or partial ones, can be linear, circular or elliptic, depending on the invariant eigenstates of polarization.

As we will see, any elliptic retarder is equivalent to a system composed of a linear retarder and a rotator (circular retarder). This fact allows us to express every phenomenon of retardation by means of linear retarders and rotators.

Otherwise, we will see that a partial (total) polarizer, circular or elliptic, is optically equivalent to a certain combination of two linear retarders and a linear partial (total) polarizer.

These considerations let us to state that any optical system composed of N-type elements, is optically equivalent to a certain combination of linear retarders, rotators and linear partial polarizers.

We denote by $L(\theta, \delta)$ the linear retarders with a phase retardation δ and an angle θ of its fast axis respect to a prefixed reference axis X. By $R(\gamma)$, we understand a circular retarder that introduces a retardation of 2γ between its two eigenstates of circular polarization. Finally, a linear partial polarizer with principal coefficients of transmission in amplitude p_1, p_2 , and angle α of its axis of polarization with the reference axis X, will be denoted by $P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$. If the polarizer is total, that is, $p_2 = 0$, we will denote it by $P(\alpha)$.

The matrices associated with linear retarders, linear partial polarizers and linear total polarizers will be denoted by $\mathbf{B}_L(\theta, \delta)$, $\mathbf{B}_R(\gamma)$, $\mathbf{B}_P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$ and $\mathbf{B}_P(\alpha)$, respectively, where \mathbf{B} can be a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} or a matrix \mathbf{V} depending on the formalism considered.

11.6.1. Partial polarizer

In JCF formalism, a partial polarizer is characterized by a Hermitian matrix with no negative real eigenvalues [1]. These eigenvalues are just the principal coefficients of the transmission in amplitude p_1, p_2 , of the polarizer. A partial polarizer is called linear, circular or elliptic depending on the eigenvectors of the associated Jones

matrix \mathbf{H} , which can correspond with linear, circular or elliptical polarizations [3]. We exclude for the following discussion the case of total polarizers (seen on the next section), so we will consider that $p_1, p_2 \neq 0$. We will also suppose, for the sake of concreteness, that $p_1 > p_2$.

The coefficients p_1, p_2 can take values in the following ranges

$$0 < p_2 < p_1 \leq 1 \quad (\text{II. 83})$$

-There is an erratum in the original that has been corrected here-

If we take into account (II.83) and the fact that $\det \mathbf{H} = p_1 p_2$, we see that

$$0 < \det \mathbf{H} < 1 \quad (\text{II. 84})$$

This means that the matrix \mathbf{H} has an inverse \mathbf{H}^{-1} . However, \mathbf{H}^{-1} is not a Jones matrix because

$$\det \mathbf{H}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{H}} > 1 \quad (\text{II. 85})$$

The interpretation of this fact is clear, because the passing of the light through a polarizer produces a loss of intensity in the emerging beam, which cannot be compensated by any passive optical medium. However there is a physically realizable optical medium whose Jones matrix is

$$\mathbf{H}' = \lambda \mathbf{H}^{-1} \quad (\text{II. 86})$$

where λ is the real number such as $\lambda < \det \mathbf{H}$, and thus

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}' = \lambda \mathbf{I} \quad (\text{II. 87})$$

The partial polarizer of the Jones matrix \mathbf{H}' can be considered as the inverse of the Jones matrix \mathbf{H} , in the sense that a light beam passing through them successively presents at the exit the same state of polarization as at the input, although a loss in the intensity of the light beam is produced.

In the SMF formalism, any partial polarizer is represented by a Mueller matrix \mathbf{K} that is symmetric with four eigenvalues $k_1, k_2, (k_1 k_2)^{1/2}$ (double). The eigenvalue $(k_1 k_2)^{1/2}$ corresponds to eigenvectors \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{S}' , with $s_0 = s'_0 = 0$, so that these eigenvectors have not physical meaning [29]. The other two eigenvalues k_1, k_2 , correspond to the principal coefficients of transmission in intensity $k_1 = p_1^2$ and $k_2 = p_2^2$.

The matrix \mathbf{K} is such that $\det \mathbf{K} = k_1^2 k_2^2$, and, as in the case of the matrix \mathbf{H} , the following condition is fulfilled

$$0 < \det \mathbf{K} < 1 \quad (\text{II. 88})$$

It is worth mentioning that if \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{K} correspond to the same partial polarizer, then

$$\det \mathbf{K} = (\det \mathbf{H})^4 \quad (\text{II. 89})$$

From (II.88) is deduced that there is a matrix \mathbf{K}^{-1} that does not represent any passive optical medium. However, the matrix $\mathbf{K}' = \mu \mathbf{K}^{-1}$, with $\mu < \det \mathbf{K}$, does represent a passive optical medium that, regarding the polarization, produces an inverse optical effect to the produced by the polarizer corresponding with the matrix \mathbf{K} .

In some occasions, for the sake of systematic and formal treatment of the matrices associated with partial polarizers, is interesting to normalize them by dividing by their determinants, so that they have the unity as the determinant. Once normalized, the matrices are denoted as follows

$$\mathbf{H}_N = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{H}} \mathbf{H} \quad (\text{II. 90.a})$$

$$\mathbf{K}_N = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{K}} \mathbf{K} \quad (\text{II. 90.b})$$

In JCF formalism, a linear polarizer is represented by a Jones matrix \mathbf{H}_P , which is diagonal as follows

$$\mathbf{H}_P = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & 0 \\ 0 & p_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 91})$$

In SMF formalism, a linear polarizer is represented by the Mueller matrix \mathbf{K}_P , which transformed to be referred to their own axes, is [10,26]

$$\mathbf{K}_P = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} p_1^2 + p_2^2 & p_1^2 - p_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ p_1^2 - p_2^2 & p_1^2 + p_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2p_1 p_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2p_1 p_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 92})$$

The matrix \mathbf{K}_P can be written in diagonal form by means of the matrix \mathbf{C} (called modal matrix) as follows

$$\mathbf{K}_D = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{K}_P\mathbf{C}^{-1} \quad (\text{II. 93})$$

or

$$\mathbf{K}_P = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_D\mathbf{C} \quad (\text{II. 94})$$

where

$$\mathbf{K}_D = \begin{pmatrix} p_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p_1p_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & p_1p_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 95})$$

and

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 96})$$

According to the expression (II.96), the matrix \mathbf{C} is orthogonal, because $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^T = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$, and moreover we see that $\det \mathbf{C} = -1$.

The transformation (II.93) conserves the trace and, thus

$$\text{tr}\mathbf{K}_D = \text{tr}\mathbf{K}_P = (p_1 + p_2)^2 \quad (\text{II. 97})$$

II.6.2. Total polarizers

The matrices \mathbf{H}_T and \mathbf{K}_T , associated with a total polarizer (linear, circular or elliptic) in the formalisms JCF and SMF respectively, are characterized by having one zero eigenvalue and, consequently, they are singular matrices. Because of this fact, \mathbf{H}_T and \mathbf{K}_T cannot be normalized in the sense given in (II.90).

An interesting property of \mathbf{H}_T and \mathbf{K}_T is that they are idempotent ($\mathbf{H}_T^2 = \mathbf{H}_T$, $\mathbf{K}_T^2 = \mathbf{K}_T$). These matrices play the role of projectors in the of Jones and Stokes spaces respectively.

A linear total polarizer is represented by a Jones matrix \mathbf{H}_{TP} , which referring to their own polarization axes, is expressed as [1]

$$\mathbf{H}_{TP} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 98})$$

and by the following Mueller matrix \mathbf{K}_{TP} (also referring to their own axes)

$$\mathbf{K}_{TP} = \frac{p_1^2}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 99})$$

which can be written as [10]

$$\mathbf{K}_{TP} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{K}_{TD}\mathbf{C}^{-1} \quad (\text{II. 100.a})$$

where

$$\mathbf{K}_{TD} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 100.b})$$

II.6.3. Ideal retarders

The Mueller matrix \mathbf{R} associated with an ideal retarder (linear, circular or elliptic) has the property of leaving invariant the parameter s_0 (intensity), and produces a rotation of the vector (s_1, s_2, s_3) in the Poincaré sphere. This fact let us write \mathbf{R} in the form

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ 0 & (\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{ij}) & & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 101})$$

where the submatrix $\boldsymbol{\Omega} \equiv (\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{ij})$ is a 3x3 matrix associated with a generic rotation in the subspace that contains the variables s_1, s_2, s_3 .

The set of 3x3 orthogonal matrices $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ with $\det \boldsymbol{\Omega} = +1$ constitutes a group dependent of three parameters called O_3^+ (group of rotations in the ordinary space). The three independent parameters in $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ can be, for example, the three Euler angles [34]. However, the azimuth χ and the ellipticity ψ of the two orthogonal eigenstates of polarization, which are invariant under the action of the retarder, with the retardation δ introduced between them, are more useful as parameters [35].

An ideal retarder is represented in the JCF formalism by a unitary matrix \mathbf{U} such as $\det \mathbf{U} = +1$. This matrix \mathbf{U} corresponds to a rotation of a certain angle ϕ of the Stokes vector in the Poincaré sphere around a certain axis whose direction is given by a unitary vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$. This let us write [36]

$$\mathbf{U} = \exp \left[\left(-i \frac{\phi}{2} \right) \hat{\mathbf{u}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \right] \quad (\text{II. 102})$$

The set of 2x2 unitary complex matrices \mathbf{U} with $\det \mathbf{U} = +1$ constitutes a group called SU (2C) (special unitary group of 2x2 complex matrices) [31]. There is a biunivocal correspondence between the set made by pairs of matrices (\mathbf{U} , $-\mathbf{U}$) belonging to the group SU(2C), and the set of matrices \mathbf{R} such as $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ belongs to the group O_3^+ .

II.6.4. Non-ideal retarders

It is well known that, by the effect of multiple internal reflections, every linear retarder presents different transmittance for the two linear polarized eigenstates [37]. The effect is equivalent to that produced by an ideal linear retarder followed (or preceded) by a linear partial polarizer whose polarization axes are aligned with the ones of the retarder. The Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_L associated with a non-ideal linear retarder, referring to its own polarization axes, can be written as follows

$$\mathbf{M}_L = \mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta) \mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) = \mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta) \quad (\text{II. 103})$$

where δ is the characteristic effective phase retardation of the retarder, and p_1, p_2 are the principal coefficients of transmission in amplitude depending on the neutral lines (polarization axes) of the retarder.

The matrix \mathbf{M}_L obtained by means of (II.103) is

$$\mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta, k_a, k'_a) = \frac{1}{2k_a} \begin{pmatrix} 1+k & 1-k & 0 & 0 \\ 1-k & 1+k & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta & 2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta \\ 0 & 0 & -2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta & 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II. 104.a})$$

where

$$k_a \equiv p_1^2, \quad k'_a \equiv p_2^2, \quad k = \frac{k'_a}{k_a} \quad (\text{II. 104.b})$$

If the fast axis of the retarder presents an angle β with respect to the X axis of reference, the matrix associated with the retarder is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{M}_L(p, \delta, k_a, k'_a) &= \mathbf{M}_R(-\beta) \mathbf{M}_L(p, \delta, k_a, k'_a) \mathbf{M}_R(\beta) = \\ &= \frac{1}{k_a} \begin{pmatrix} 1+k & (1-k) \cos 2\beta & (1-k) \sin 2\beta & 0 \\ (1-k) \cos 2\beta & (1+k) \cos^2 2\beta + 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta \sin^2 2\beta & (1+k - 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta) \frac{1}{2} \sin 4\beta & -2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta \sin 2\beta \\ (1-k) \sin 2\beta & (1+k - 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta) \frac{1}{2} \sin 4\beta & (1+k) \sin^2 2\beta + 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta \cos^2 2\beta & 2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta \cos 2\beta \\ 0 & 2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta \sin 2\beta & -2\sqrt{k} \sin \delta \cos 2\beta & 2\sqrt{k} \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{II. 105})$$

Hereafter we will use the following notation

$$\mathbf{M}_L(\beta, \delta, k) \equiv 2k_a \mathbf{M}_L(\beta, \delta, k_a, k'_a) \quad (\text{II.106})$$

II.6.5. SL(2C) group and Lorentz group

The set of 2x2 complex matrices \mathbf{A} with $\det \mathbf{A} = +1$ constitutes a group called SL(2C) (unimodular group of complex matrices 2x2). Every Jones matrix that is non-singular can be normalized in the way indicated in (II.90.a), and thus, once normalized it belongs to the SL(2C) group.

The set of 4x4 real matrices \mathbf{L} leaving invariant the quadratic form F , makes a group called the Lorentz group. When it is also satisfied $\det \mathbf{L} = 1$ and $L_{00} \geq 1$, then it is called Lorentz orthochronous subgroup or restricted Lorentz subgroup “ L_+ ”. Every non-singular N-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} can be normalized so that $\det \mathbf{M}_N = 1$ and $((\mathbf{M}_N)_{00}) \geq 1$. The set of matrices normalized in this way is isomorphic to the L_+ group, and this one is also homomorphic 2:1 to SL(2C) group, in the way $\pm \mathbf{A} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{L}$, with $\mathbf{L} \in L_+$ [31].

Within the L_+ group can be distinguished two types of transformations [31]: the pure Lorentz ones and the spatial rotations. The former are characterized by symmetric Mueller matrices \mathbf{K} that correspond to partial polarizers, and the last are characterized by orthogonal matrices \mathbf{R} that correspond to retarders.

It is known that a generic element \mathbf{M}_N of the L_+ group can be expressed, in a unique way, as follows [31]

$$\mathbf{M}_N = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{K}_1\mathbf{R}_1 \quad (\text{II.107})$$

Similarly, a generic element \mathbf{A} of the SL(2C) group can be expressed, in a unique way, in the form

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}_1\mathbf{U}_1 \quad (\text{II.108})$$

There are N-type optical systems such as their associated Jones and Mueller matrices, \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{M} respectively, cannot be normalized to have the determinant equal to one because they are singular matrices. Such systems are composed of a set of optical media, in which there is at least a total polarizer.

This statement is based on the fact that, as we will see in the next section, any N-type optical system is equivalent to a certain combination of retarders and polarizers, in such a way that, if their associated matrices \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{M} in the formalism JCF and SMF respectively have zero determinant is because one of the components is a total polarizer.

The optical systems that depolarize, in more or less extent, the light passing through them, have not an associated Jones matrix, and their associated Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} cannot be normalized in such a way that \mathbf{M}_N belong to the L_+ group. Then, we see that only the Mueller matrices associated with non N-type systems and the Mueller

matrices associated with systems that contain a total polarizer are out of the L_+ group. Similarly, the Jones matrices corresponding to systems that contain a total polarizer are the only ones that are out of the $SL(2C)$ group.

II.7 Polar decomposition

The expressions (II.107) and (II.108) show a particular case of the polar decomposition theorem for a linear operator [38]. As a consequence of this theorem, any Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} can be written as follows

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{K}_1\mathbf{R}_1 \quad (\text{II.109.a})$$

and any Jones matrix \mathbf{J} can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}_1\mathbf{U}_1 \quad (\text{II.109.b})$$

The matrices \mathbf{K} , \mathbf{K}_1 , \mathbf{H} , \mathbf{H}_1 are always unique, and the matrices \mathbf{R} , \mathbf{R}_1 , \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{U}_1 are unique except for the case in which \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{J} are singular.

II.8. Theorems

The classic works of R.C. Jones [1] states a series of theorems of equivalence, established for N-type media transforming quasi-monochromatic light. In these works, the theorems are proved by means of the matricial calculus introduced by Jones himself. Later, C Whitney [18] generalizes some of these theorems, basing his considerations on the Pauli algebra and the theorem of polar decomposition of a matrix corresponding to a linear operator. Now, we formulate and discuss the most important theorems, including some results that have been established by us [39] as well as other ones that are stated for the first time in this work. The following theorems, except for T11 and T12, are formulated for N-type optical media transforming monochromatic light.

T1.- An optical system that contains a series of any number of retarders (linear, circular or elliptic) is optically equivalent to an elliptic retarder.

T2.- Any elliptic retarder is optically equivalent to a system composed of a sequence of a linear retarder and a rotator.

T3.- Any elliptic retarder is optically equivalent to a serial system composed of two linear retarders (in a non-unique way).

T4.- Any optical system composed of a series of any number of retarders (linear, circular or elliptic) is optically equivalent to a system that contains a sequence of a linear retarder and a rotator [1]

T5.- Any optical system composed of a series of any number of retarders (linear, circular or elliptic) is optically equivalent to a system that contains a series of two linear retarders (in a non-unique way) [18].

The previous theorems can be proved by means of the Rodrigues-Hamilton theorem [18].

T6.- A partial (total) elliptic polarizer is optically equivalent to a system composed of a partial (total) linear polarizer placed between two equal linear retarders whose axes are perpendicular.

T7.- An optical system composed of a series of any number of linear partial polarizers and rotators is optically equivalent to a system composed of a sequence of a linear partial polarizer and a rotator [1].

T8.-The polar decomposition theorem (PDT)

An optical system composed of a series of any number of retarders (linear, circular or elliptic) and partial polarizers (linear, circular or elliptic) is optically equivalent to a serial system composed of an elliptic retarder and an elliptic partial polarizer [18].

In this last theorem we can distinguish between two cases, regarding the nature of the N-type optical system considered. In one case, the system contains a total polarizer, and then the Jones matrix associated to it is singular, and can be written as the product between a Hermitian singular matrix (elliptic total polarizer) and a unitary matrix (retarder), which is non-unique. In the other case, the equivalent system is unique and it is composed of a series of an elliptic partial polarizer and a retarder.

T9.- Equivalence general theorem (EGT)

An optical system composed of a series of any number of retarders (linear, circular or elliptic) and partial polarizers (linear, circular or elliptic) is optically equivalent to a serial system composed of four elements: one partial polarizer between two linear retarders, and a rotator in any of the four possible positions [1].

The two last theorems are formulated for any N-type system. Although the PDT theorem is more synthesized than the EGT, the last one is of great interest because it provides us an equivalent system composed of simple optical media, i.e. circular and linear retarders and linear polarizers.

T10.- Reciprocity theorem of in JCF and CMF formalisms

The Jones matrix associated with an optical system that is passed through by a light beam on a certain direction must be transposed in order to obtain the Jones matrix of the same optical system when it is passed through by a light beam on the opposite direction [1, 3].

T11.- Reciprocity theorem in CVF formalism

The matrix \mathbf{V} associated, in CVF formalism, with an optical system that is passed through by a light beam on a certain direction, must be transposed in order to obtain the associated matrix of the same optical system, in the same formalism, when it is passed through by a light beam on the opposite direction.

T12.- Theorem of reciprocity in SMF formalism

If an optical system has associated a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , then the Mueller matrix associated with the same optical system when the light beam passes through it in the opposite direction is given by \mathbf{M}' , according to the expressions (II.76) and (II.77).

In the case of N-type optical media, the proof of the last two theorems is immediate, because, according to the theorem T10, we know that a matrix \mathbf{J}^T corresponds to a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} if the light beam is passing through in the opposite direction. In section II.6.3 we saw that if the matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{V} correspond to a matrix \mathbf{J} , in SMF and CVF formalisms respectively, the matrices \mathbf{M}' and \mathbf{V}^T correspond to \mathbf{J}^T . In the case of G-type systems, their associated matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{V} can be considered as the sum of N-type matrices, in the following form

$$\mathbf{M} = \sum_i \mathbf{M}_i, \quad \mathbf{V} = \sum_i \mathbf{V}_i \quad (\text{II.110})$$

where \mathbf{M}_i and \mathbf{V}_i are N-type for any i .

If the light passes through on the opposite direction, the corresponding matrices \mathbf{M}_1 and \mathbf{V}_1 are given by

$$\mathbf{M}_1 = \sum_i \mathbf{M}'_i = \mathbf{M}', \quad \mathbf{V}_1 = \sum_i \mathbf{V}_i^T = \mathbf{V}^T \quad (\text{II.111})$$

Thus, the theorems T11 and T12 have been demonstrated for the general case of G-type optical media.

T13.- Transcendent rotator theorem (TRT)

An optical system composed of a series of two half wave linear retarders is optically equivalent to a rotator that produces a rotation equal to the double of the angle formed by the fast axes of the half wave plates[39, 17].

T14.- Linear retardation compensator theorem (LRCT)

An optical system composed of a series of three linear retarders, in such a way that the placed at the extremes are equal and whose fast axes are aligned, is optically equivalent to a linear retarder [39].

Chapter III

**Properties of the matrices that
represent optical media**

In this chapter we present the analytic expressions of the elements of a generic N-type Mueller matrix. Each element is expressed as a function of the parameters associated with the equivalent optical systems given by the theorems EGT and PDT. Later we analyze in detail the mathematical restrictions affecting the matrices associated with optical media in the SMF and CVF formalisms. These restrictions are presented as systems of equalities and inequalities; and from these restrictions is finally established a necessary and sufficient condition for an optical medium to be N-type (norm condition). This result is formulated in the SMF, CVF and JCF formalisms. The study of these characteristic properties is useful for the extraction of the physical information contained in the matrices associated with the measured optical media, letting us obtaining theory-experience adjustments as a function of few parameters, and performing the classification of these media in a systematic and simple way.

In the development of this chapter we have preferred to make a rigorous and compact treatment, unifying notations and bringing together results from other authors, which we include with our original contributions in an organized manner. Consequently, we indicate explicitly the contributions from other authors, and the remainder must be understood as original contribution.

III.1. Degree of polarization in the different formalisms

The degree of polarization G of a light beam is defined as the ratio between the intensity of the part of the light that is totally polarized (whatever the state of polarization) and the total intensity.

Any light beam with Stokes vector \mathbf{S} can be decomposed in the form (II.23), and thus

$$G = \frac{I_P}{I_T} = \frac{I_P}{I_P + I_N} = \frac{(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2)^{1/2}}{s_0} \quad (\text{III.1})$$

The expression of G as a function of the elements of the coherency matrix $\mathbf{\rho}$ is the following

$$G = \frac{(\rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2 - 2\rho_1\rho_2 + 4\rho_3\rho_4)^{1/2}}{(\rho_1 + \rho_2)} \quad (\text{III.2})$$

or [40]

$$G = \frac{\left[(tr\mathbf{p})^2 - 4 \det \mathbf{p} \right]^{1/2}}{tr\mathbf{p}} \quad (\text{III.3})$$

Another quantity of interest is the quadratic form F , whose relation with G has been expressed in (II.27), and whose expression as a function of the coherency matrix \mathbf{p} is

$$F = 4 \det \mathbf{p} \quad (\text{III.4})$$

A beam of totally polarized light is characterized by the values $G = 1$, $F = 0$, that is

$$s_0^2 = s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2 \quad (\text{III.5})$$

$$\det \mathbf{p} = 0 \quad (\text{III.6})$$

Since the JCF only support the representation of totally polarized states, the quantities G and F are out of the JCF framework.

III.2. Construction of a generic Mueller matrix

III.2.1 Equivalence general theorem

Let us consider a system constituted by a series of N-type optical media arranged successively in the path of the light beam interacting with them. According to the EGT theorem, there is an equivalent system that, in order to be specific, we can suppose in the following order: a rotator $R(\omega)$, a linear retarder $L(\theta_1, \delta_1)$, a partial polarizer $P(\alpha, p_1, p_2)$ and a linear retarder $L(\theta_2, \delta_2)$.

The Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} associated with the equivalent system is obtained as the ordered product of the associated matrices as follows

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}_L(\theta_2, \delta_2) \mathbf{M}_P(\alpha, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{M}_L(\theta_1, \delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\omega) \quad (\text{III.7})$$

For any Mueller matrix $\mathbf{M}(\varphi)$ associated with a generic medium whose polarization axis has an angle φ with the reference X axis, the following properties are fulfilled

$$\mathbf{M}(\theta + \varphi) = \mathbf{M}_R(-\theta) \mathbf{M}(\varphi) \mathbf{M}_R(\theta) \quad (\text{III.8})$$

$$\mathbf{M}(\alpha + \beta) = \mathbf{M}_R(\alpha) \mathbf{M}_R(\beta) \quad (\text{III.9})$$

By applying these properties in (III.7), we can write

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}_R(\tau_4) \mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta_2) \mathbf{M}_R(\tau_3) \mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{M}_R(\tau_2) \mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\tau_1) \quad (\text{III.10.a})$$

where

$$\tau_1 = \theta_1 + \omega, \quad \tau_2 = \alpha - \theta_1, \quad \tau_3 = \theta_2 - \alpha, \quad \tau_4 = -\theta_2 \quad (\text{III.10.b})$$

Wherever appropriate, will use the following abbreviated notation in order to simplify mathematical expressions

$$s \equiv \sin \delta, \quad c \equiv \cos \delta, \quad s' \equiv \sin \delta_2, \quad c' \equiv \cos \delta_2 \quad (\text{III.11})$$

The matrices shown in (III.10.a) have the following generic form [3]

$$\mathbf{M}_R(\gamma) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos 2\gamma & \sin 2\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin 2\gamma & \cos 2\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.12})$$

$$\mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \delta & -\sin \delta \\ 0 & 0 & \sin \delta & \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.13})$$

$$\mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} p_1^2 + p_2^2 & p_1^2 - p_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ p_1^2 - p_2^2 & p_1^2 + p_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2p_1p_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2p_1p_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.14})$$

Once the product indicated in (III.10.a) has been carried out, we obtain the expressions of the elements m_{ij} of the generic Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , as a function of the characteristic parameters of the equivalent system. These expressions are

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{00} &= q_1 \\
m_{01} &= q_2 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c) \\
m_{02} &= q_2 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c) \\
m_{03} &= q_2 s_2 s \\
m_{10} &= q_2 (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') \\
m_{11} &= q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c)(c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') - q_3 (c_1 s_2 - s_1 c_2 c)(c_4 c_3 + c_3 s_4 c') + q_3 s_1 s_4 s s' \\
m_{12} &= q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c)(c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') + q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c)(c_4 c_3 + c_3 s_4 c') - q_3 c_1 s_4 s s' \\
m_{13} &= q_1 s_2 s (c_3 c_4 - s_3 s_4 c') + q_3 c_2 s (c_4 c_3 + c_3 s_4 c') + q_3 s_4 c s' \\
m_{20} &= -q_2 (s_4 c_3 + s_3 c_4 c') \\
m_{21} &= -q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c)(c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') - q_3 (c_1 s_2 + s_1 c_2 c)(-s_3 s_4 + c_3 c_4 c') + q_3 s_1 c_4 s s' \\
m_{22} &= -q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c)(c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') + q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c)(-s_3 s_4 + c_3 c_4 c') - q_3 c_1 c_4 s s' \\
m_{23} &= -q_1 s_2 s (c_3 s_4 + s_3 c_4 c') + q_3 c_2 s (-s_4 s_3 + c_3 c_4 c') + q_3 c_4 c s' \\
m_{30} &= q_2 s_3 s' \\
m_{31} &= q_1 (c_1 c_2 - s_1 s_2 c) s_3 s' + q_3 (c_1 s_2 + s_1 c_2 c) c_3 s' + q_3 s_1 s c' \\
m_{32} &= q_1 (s_1 c_2 + c_1 s_2 c) s_3 s' - q_3 (-s_1 s_2 + c_1 c_2 c) c_3 s' - q_3 c_1 s c' \\
m_{33} &= q_1 s_2 s_3 s s' - q_3 c_2 c_3 s s' + q_3 c c'
\end{aligned} \tag{III.15.a}$$

where

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 + p_2^2), \quad q_2 = \frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 - p_2^2), \quad q_3 = p_1 p_2 \tag{III.15.b}$$

III.2.2. Polar decomposition theorem

The PDT theorem implies that the polarization properties of an N-type optical medium are characterized in general by seven independent parameters, four of which correspond to the equivalent partial polarizer and three correspond to the equivalent retarder.

Given an elliptic partial polarizer, its associated Jones matrix \mathbf{J}_{PE} is given by

$$\mathbf{J}_{\text{PE}} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1' \cos^2 \nu + p_2' \sin^2 \nu & (p_1' - p_2') \cos \nu \sin \nu . e^{-i\delta} \\ (p_1' - p_2') \cos \nu \sin \nu . e^{i\delta} & p_1' \sin^2 \nu + p_2' \cos^2 \nu \end{pmatrix} \tag{III.16.a}$$

with

$$c \equiv \cos \nu, \quad s \equiv \sin \nu \quad (\text{III.16.b})$$

where p'_1, p'_2 are the principal coefficients of the amplitude transmission corresponding to the two invariant orthogonal eigenstates of polarization. These eigenstates are defined by azimuths χ and $\chi + \pi/2$, and ellipticities ω and $-\omega$ respectively, such that

$$\tan 2\chi = \tan 2\nu \cos \delta \quad (\text{III.17.a})$$

$$\sin 2\omega = \sin 2\nu \sin \delta \quad (\text{III.17.b})$$

The matrix \mathbf{J}_{PE} can be obtained through the theorem T6, which can be applied choosing the orientation of the equivalent linear partial polarizer in such a manner that the axes of the two equivalent retarders are aligned with the axes X and Y of a prefixed Cartesian reference system. Thus

$$\mathbf{J}_{\text{PE}} = \mathbf{J}_{\text{L}} \left(0, -\frac{\delta}{2} \right) \mathbf{J}_{\text{R}}(-\nu) \mathbf{J}(0, p'_1, p'_2) \mathbf{J}_{\text{R}}(\nu) \mathbf{J}_{\text{L}} \left(0, \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \quad (\text{III.18})$$

Analogously, the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_{PE} associated with the same elliptic partial polarizer is obtained as

$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{PE}} = \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}} \left(0, -\frac{\delta}{2} \right) \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(-\nu) \mathbf{M}_{\text{P}}(0, p'_1, p'_2) \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\nu) \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}} \left(0, \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \quad (\text{III.19})$$

On the other hand, according to the theorem T2, the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_{E} associated with an elliptic retarder can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{E}} = \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}}(\alpha, \delta') \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\beta) \quad (\text{III.20})$$

According to the PDT theorem, every N-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} can be written as follows

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}_{\text{PE}} \mathbf{M}_{\text{E}} \quad (\text{III.21})$$

According to the theorem T4, there are two matrices $\mathbf{M}_{\text{L}}(\zeta, \Delta_1)$ and $\mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\gamma)$ such as

$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\nu) \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}} \left(0, \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}}(\alpha, \delta') \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\beta) = \mathbf{M}_{\text{L}}(\xi, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}}(\gamma) \quad (\text{III.22})$$

The last expressions let us write

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}_L(0, -\Delta_2) \mathbf{M}_R(-\nu) \mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{M}_L(\xi, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \quad (\text{III.23.a})$$

where

$$\Delta_2 \equiv \delta/2 \quad (\text{III.23.b})$$

or

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}_L(0, -\Delta_2) \mathbf{M}_R(-\nu) \mathbf{M}_P(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{M}_R(-\xi) \mathbf{M}_L(0, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\xi + \gamma) \quad (\text{III.24})$$

By comparing the expressions (III.10) and (III.24) we see that (III.24) is a particular case of (III.10), with the following correspondence between the parameters

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_1 &= \xi + \gamma, & \tau_2 &= -\xi, & \tau_3 &= -\nu, & \tau_4 &= 0, \\ \Delta_1 &= \delta_1, & \Delta_2 &= \delta_2, & p_1' &= p_1, & p_2' &= p_2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.25})$$

Since the equivalent system given by the expression (III.10) depends on 8 parameters $(\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4, \delta_1, \delta_2, p_1, p_2)$, seven of which are independent, we have the freedom of choosing an arbitrary value for τ_4 . A convenient choice, in order to simplify subsequent calculations is $\tau_4 = 0$.

By writing explicitly the expression (III.24) for the elements m_{ij} of the generic matrix \mathbf{M} we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} m_{00} &= q_1' \\ m_{01} &= q_2' (c_1' c_2' - s_1' s_2' c'') \\ m_{02} &= q_2' (s_1' c_2' + c_1' s_2' c'') \\ m_{03} &= q_2' s_2' s'' \\ m_{10} &= q_2' c_3' \\ m_{11} &= q_1' (c_1' c_2' - s_1' s_2' c'') - q_3' (c_1' s_2' + s_1' c_2' c'') s_3' \\ m_{12} &= q_1' (s_1' c_2' + c_1' s_2' c'') - q_3' (s_1' s_2' - c_1' c_2' c'') s_3' \\ m_{13} &= q_1' s_2' c_3' s'' + q_3' c_2' s_3' s'' \\ m_{20} &= -q_2' s_3' c''' \\ m_{21} &= -q_1' (c_1' c_2' - s_1' s_2' c'') s_3' c''' - q_3' (c_1' s_2' + s_1' c_2' c'') c_3' c''' + q_3' s_1' s'' s''' \\ m_{22} &= -q_1' (s_1' c_2' + c_1' s_2' c'') s_3' c''' - q_3' (s_1' s_2' - c_1' c_2' c'') c_3' c''' - q_3' c_1' s'' s''' \\ m_{23} &= -q_1' s_2' s_3' s'' c''' + q_3' c_2' c_3' s'' c''' + q_3' c'' s''' \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.26.a})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{30} &= q'_2 s'_3 c''' \\
m_{31} &= q'_1 (c'_1 c'_2 - s'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 s''' + q'_3 (c'_1 s'_2 + s'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 s''' + q'_3 s'_1 s' c''' \\
m_{32} &= -q'_1 (s'_1 c'_2 + c'_1 s'_2 c'') s'_3 s''' + q'_3 (s'_1 s'_2 - c'_1 c'_2 c'') c'_3 s''' - q'_3 c'_1 s' c''' \\
m_{33} &= q'_1 s'_2 s'_3 s''' - q'_3 c'_2 c'_3 s''' + q'_3 c'' c'''
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
c'_1 &= \cos 2(\xi + \gamma), & c'_2 &= \cos(-2\xi), & c'_3 &= \cos(-2\nu), \\
s'_1 &= \sin 2(\xi + \gamma), & s'_2 &= \sin(-2\xi), & s'_3 &= c \sin(-2\nu), \\
c'' &= \cos \Delta_1, & c''' &= \cos \Delta_2 = \cos(-\delta/2), \\
s'' &= \sin \Delta_1, & s''' &= \sin \Delta_2 = \sin(-\delta/2)
\end{aligned} \tag{III.26.b}$$

The advantage of applying the PDT theorem, instead of the EGT theorem, is on the one hand the obtainment of all the elements of a generic Mueller matrix as functions of a minimum set of independent parameters (seven) and, on the other hand, the PDT theorem let us synthesize the equivalent system with only two optical media (a polarizer and a retarder) instead of four (as in the EGT theorem). However, when we write the generic matrix obtained by means of the PDT theorem as a function of simpler matrices, associated with linear retarders, rotators and linear polarizers, the equivalent system is composed of five simple elements (two linear retarders, two rotators and a linear partial polarizer).

From the expressions (III.15) and (III.26), it is easy to obtain the following relations

$$q'_1 = q_1 = m_{00} \tag{III.27.a}$$

$$q_2'^2 = q_2^2 = (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2) = (m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2) \tag{III.27.b}$$

and, thus

$$p'_1 = p_1, \quad p'_2 = p_2 \tag{III.28}$$

III.3. Classification of the N-type Mueller matrices

According to (III.26), the seven parameters that characterize the equivalent system are Δ_1 , Δ_2 , p_1 , p_2 , ν , ξ , γ . In order to obtain these parameters as functions of the elements m_{ij} , we can distinguish among three cases

CASE 1: $(m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} = 0$

In this case $q_2 = 0$, and according to (III.27) the elements of the first row and first column, except m_{00} , are zero. The matrix corresponds to an elliptic retarder, whose generic form is [30]

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_1^2 - A_2^2 - A_3^2 + A_4^2 & 2(A_1A_2 + A_3A_4) & -2(A_1A_3 + A_2A_4) \\ 0 & 2(A_1A_2 - A_3A_4) & -A_1^2 + A_2^2 - A_3^2 + A_4^2 & 2(A_1A_4 - A_2A_3) \\ 0 & -2(A_1A_3 - A_2A_4) & -2(A_1A_4 + A_2A_3) & -A_1^2 - A_2^2 + A_3^2 + A_4^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.29.a})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \cos 2\omega \cos 2\psi \sin(\Delta/2) \\ A_2 &= \cos 2\omega \sin 2\psi \sin(\Delta/2) \\ A_3 &= \sin 2\omega \sin(\Delta/2) \\ A_4 &= \cos(\Delta/2) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.29.b})$$

being ψ the azimuth, ω the ellipticity of its two orthogonal elliptic eigenstates, and Δ the retardation introduced between them.

The parameters Δ , ω , ψ are obtained as

$$\cos^2(\Delta/2) = \frac{1}{4}(\text{tr}\mathbf{M}) = \frac{1}{4}(m_{00} + m_{11} + m_{22} + m_{33}) \quad (\text{III.30.a})$$

$$\sin 2\omega = \frac{(m_{12} - m_{21})}{2 \sin \Delta} \quad (\text{III.30.b})$$

$$\sin 2\psi = \frac{(m_{21} - m_{12})}{2 \cos 2\omega \sin \Delta} \quad (\text{III.30.c})$$

It is worth mentioning that when $\omega = \pm\pi/4$, the matrix \mathbf{M} corresponds to a rotator; and if $\omega = 0$, then it corresponds to a linear retarder.

CASE 2: $0 < (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \leq m_{00}$ and $\mathbf{M}^T = \mathbf{M}$

The matrix \mathbf{M} corresponds to an elliptic partial polarizer with the generic form

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & q_2 c_\nu & q_2 s_\nu c_\delta & -q_2 s_\nu s_\delta \\ q_2 c_\nu & q_1 c_\nu^2 + q_3 s_\nu^2 & c_\nu s_\nu c_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & -c_\nu s_\nu s_\delta (q_1 - q_3) \\ q_2 s_\nu c_\delta & c_\nu s_\nu c_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & c_\delta^2 (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2) + q_3 s_\delta^2 & -c_\delta s_\delta (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2 - q_3) \\ -q_2 s_\nu s_\delta & -c_\nu s_\nu s_\delta (q_1 - q_3) & -c_\delta s_\delta (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2 - q_3) & (q_1 s_\nu^2 + q_3 c_\nu^2) s_\delta^2 + q_3 c_\delta^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.31.a})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} q_1 &= \frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 + p_2^2), & q_2 &= \frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 - p_2^2), & q_3 &= p_1 p_2, \\ c_\nu &= \cos 2\nu, & s_\nu &= \sin 2\nu, & c_\delta &= \cos(-\delta/2), & s_\delta &= \sin(-\delta/2) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.31.b})$$

The meaning of p_1, p_2, ν, δ is the same as of p'_1, p'_2, ν, δ in the expression (III.16). These parameters are given by

$$\tan(\delta/2) = \frac{m_{30}}{m_{20}} = \frac{m_{03}}{m_{02}} = \frac{m_{13}}{m_{12}} = \frac{m_{31}}{m_{21}} \quad (\text{III.32.a})$$

$$\tan(2\nu) = \frac{m_{20}}{m_{10}} \cos(\delta/2) = -\frac{m_{30}}{m_{10}} \sin(\delta/2) \quad (\text{III.32.b})$$

$$p_1^2 = \left(m_{00} + \frac{m_{10}}{\cos 2\nu} \right) \quad (\text{III.32.c})$$

$$p_2^2 = \left(m_{00} - \frac{m_{10}}{\cos 2\nu} \right) \quad (\text{III.32.d})$$

CASE 3: $0 < (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \leq m_{00}$ and $\mathbf{M}^T \neq \mathbf{M}$

From (III.26) we see that

$$q_1 \neq 0, \quad q_2 \neq 0 \quad (\text{III.33})$$

and, moreover

$$q_2 < q_1 \quad (\text{III.34})$$

so that

$$p_1 \neq p_2, \quad p_1 \neq 0, \quad p_2 \neq 0 \quad (\text{III.35})$$

The matrix corresponds to a system with simultaneous properties of retardation and partial polarization. The equivalent parameters are

$$\tan(\delta/2) = m_{30}/m_{20} \quad (\text{III.36.a})$$

$$\tan(2\nu) = \frac{(m_{30}^2 + m_{20}^2)^{1/2}}{m_{10}} \quad (\text{III.36.b})$$

$$p_1^2 = m_{00} + (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.36.c})$$

$$p_2^2 = m_{00} - (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.36.d})$$

$$\cot(2\xi) = \frac{1}{\sin 2\nu} \left(\frac{q_2 m_{13}}{q_3 m_{03}} - \frac{q_1}{q_3} \cos 2\nu \right) \quad (\text{III.36.e})$$

$$\sin \Delta_1 = -\frac{m_{03}}{q_2 \sin 2\xi} \quad (\text{III.36.f})$$

$$\sin 2(\xi + \gamma) = \frac{m_{20}}{m_{30} q_3 \sin \Delta_1} \left[\frac{q_1 m_{01}}{q_2 \sin 2\nu} + m_{11} \cot(2\nu) - \frac{m_{21}}{\cos(\delta/2)} \right] \quad (\text{III.36.g})$$

The expressions (III.36) give us the parameters that correspond to an equivalent system T, whose elements are

$$\mathbf{T} \equiv \mathbf{L}(0, \delta/2) \mathbf{R}(-\nu) \mathbf{P}(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{L}(\xi, \Delta_1) \mathbf{R}(\gamma) \quad (\text{III.37})$$

The parameters p_1, p_2, ν, δ characterize the equivalent elliptic polarizer mentioned in the PDT theorem.

Given a Mueller matrix, it is interesting now to obtain the parameters that characterize the equivalent elliptic retarder, in order to determine the equivalent polarizer and the equivalent retarder.

The expression (III.22) can be written in the form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \mathbf{M}_L\left(0, \frac{\delta}{2}\right) \mathbf{M}_L(\alpha, \delta') \mathbf{M}_R(\beta) &= \mathbf{M}_L(\xi, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\gamma) = \\ &= \mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \mathbf{M}_R(-\nu) \mathbf{M}_L(\xi, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \mathbf{M}_R(-\nu) \mathbf{M}_R(-\beta) \mathbf{M}_R(\beta) = \\ &= \mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \mathbf{M}_L(\eta, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\mu) \mathbf{M}_R(\beta) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.38.a})$$

with

$$\eta = \nu + \xi, \quad \mu = \gamma - \nu - \beta \quad (\text{III.38.b})$$

from which we obtain the equality

$$\mathbf{M}_L(0, \delta/2) \mathbf{M}_L(\alpha, \delta') = \mathbf{M}_L(\eta, \Delta_1) \mathbf{M}_R(\mu) \quad (\text{III.39})$$

or, in JCF formalism

$$\mathbf{J}_L(0, \delta/2) \mathbf{J}_L(\alpha, \delta') = \mathbf{J}_L(\eta, \Delta_1) \mathbf{J}_L(\mu) \quad (\text{III.40})$$

First of all we will try to obtain the unknown parameters α , δ' , β that characterize the linear retarder $L(\alpha, \delta')$ and the rotator $R(\beta)$ as functions of the known parameters. Later, we will write the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} as a product of the matrices associated with an elliptic partial polarizer, a linear retarder and a rotator with known characteristics. Finally, we will obtain the parameters that characterize the elliptic retarder equivalent to the system composed of the linear retarder and the rotator.

By performing the matricial product indicated in each member of (III.40), we obtain

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} c^2 e^{i(q+t)} + s^2 e^{i(t-q)} & sc [e^{i(q+t)} - e^{i(t-q)}] \\ sc [e^{-i(t-q)} - e^{-i(t+q)}] & s^2 e^{i(q-t)} + c^2 e^{-i(q+t)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.41.a})$$

with

$$c = \cos \alpha, \quad s = \sin \alpha, \quad t = \delta/4, \quad q = \delta'/4 \quad (\text{III.41.b})$$

and, on the other hand,

$$\mathbf{J}' = \mathbf{J}_L(\eta, \Delta) \mathbf{J}_R(\mu) \begin{pmatrix} c_2 (c_1^2 e^{i\tau} + s_1^2 e^{-i\tau}) - 2is_1s_2c_1 \sin \tau & s_2 (c_1^2 e^{i\tau} + s_1^2 e^{-i\tau}) + 2is_1c_2c_1 \sin \tau \\ -s_2 (s_1^2 e^{i\tau} + c_1^2 e^{-i\tau}) + 2is_1c_2c_1 \sin \tau & c_2 (s_1^2 e^{i\tau} + c_1^2 e^{-i\tau}) - 2is_1s_2c_1 \sin \tau \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.42.a})$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= \cos \eta, & s_1 &= \sin \eta, \\ c_2 &= \cos \mu, & s_2 &= \sin \mu, \\ \nu &= \Delta_1/2. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.42.b})$$

The equality $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{J}'$ is equivalent to

$$J_1 + J_2 = J'_1 + J'_2 \quad (\text{III.43.a})$$

$$J_1 - J_2 = J'_1 - J'_2 \quad (\text{III.43.b})$$

$$J_3 + J_4 = J'_3 + J'_4 \quad (\text{III.43.c})$$

$$J_3 - J_4 = J'_3 - J'_4 \quad (\text{III.43.d})$$

from which we obtain, after some simple operations

$$\cos \mu \cos \tau = \cos q \cos t - \cos 2\alpha \sin q \sin t \quad (\text{III.44.a})$$

$$\sin(\mu - 2\nu) \sin \tau = \sin 2\alpha \sin q \cos t \quad (\text{III.44.b})$$

$$\cos(\mu - 2\nu) \sin \tau = \cos q \sin t + \cos 2\alpha \sin q \cos t \quad (\text{III.44.c})$$

$$\sin \mu \cos \tau = -\sin 2\alpha \sin q \sin t \quad (\text{III.44.d})$$

Working out the unknown parameters in (III.44)

$$\cot \mu = \frac{\cos 2\eta - \cot t \cot \tau}{\sin 2\eta} \quad (\text{III.45.a})$$

$$\beta = \gamma - \nu - \mu \quad (\text{III.45.b})$$

$$\cos(\delta'/2) = \cos(\delta/4) \cos(\Delta_1/4) \cos \mu + \sin(\delta/4) \sin(\Delta_1/4) \cos(\mu - 2\eta) \quad (\text{III.45.c})$$

$$\sin 2\alpha = \frac{\sin \mu \cos(\Delta_1/2)}{\sin(\delta'/2) \sin(\delta/4)} \quad (\text{III.45.d})$$

$$\cos 2\alpha = \frac{\cos(\delta'/2) \cos(\delta/4) - \cos(\Delta_1/2) \cos \mu}{\sin(\delta'/2) \sin(\delta/4)} \quad (\text{III.45.e})$$

The system composed of the equivalent linear retarder $L(\alpha, \delta')$ and the rotator $R(\beta)$, is equivalent to a certain elliptic retarder with orthogonal eigenstates of polarization with azimuth χ_1 , ellipticity ψ_1 and a retardation Δ between them.

As seen in (II.7), there are two parameters σ, τ such as

$$\tan 2\chi_1 = \tan 2\sigma \cos \tau \quad (\text{III.46.a})$$

$$\sin 2\psi_1 = \sin 2\sigma \sin \tau \quad (\text{III.46.b})$$

Taking into account the equality between the Jones matrix associated with this elliptic retarder and the matrix $\mathbf{J}'' \equiv \mathbf{J}_L(\alpha, \delta') \mathbf{J}_R(\beta)$, and operating in a similar way than before, we finally obtain

$$\cos(\Delta/2) = \cos(\delta'/2) \cos \beta \quad (\text{III.47.a})$$

$$\cos 2\sigma = \frac{\sin(\delta'/2) \cos(\beta - 2\alpha)}{\sin(\Delta/2)} \quad (\text{III.47.b})$$

$$\sin \tau = \frac{\cos(\delta'/2) \sin \beta}{\sin 2\sigma \sin(\Delta/2)} \quad (\text{III.47.c})$$

$$\cos \tau = \frac{\sin(\delta'/2) \sin(\beta + 2\alpha)}{\sin 2\sigma \sin(\Delta/2)} \quad (\text{III.47.d})$$

III.4. Restrictive relations in a Mueller matrix

As we have seen, the characteristics of an N-type optical system are given, in general, by seven independent parameters. This implies that there must be a set of nine restrictions among the elements of any N-type Mueller matrix. An N-type optical medium is characterized by the fact that if a beam of totally polarized light passes through it, the emerging beam must also be totally polarized. We impose now this condition in a matricial way in the SMF formalism. Let \mathbf{M} be the Mueller matrix associated with the system, and \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{S}' , the Stokes vectors corresponding to the incident and emerging light beams respectively. These vectors are related as follows

$$s'_i = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij} s_j \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.48})$$

By squaring this expression we obtain

$$s_i'^2 = \sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 s_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{il} m_{ik} s_l s_k \quad (\text{III.49})$$

The following condition for the vector \mathbf{S}' to correspond to a totally polarized light beam

$$s_0'^2 = s_1'^2 + s_2'^2 + s_3'^2 \quad (\text{III.50})$$

let us write

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{0j}^2 s_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{0l} m_{0k} s_l s_k = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 s_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{il} m_{ik} s_l s_k \right) \quad (\text{III.51})$$

The relation (III.51) must be fulfilled for any Stokes \mathbf{S} vector corresponding to a beam of totally polarized light

$$s_0^2 = s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2 \quad (\text{III.52})$$

In particular, the relation (III.51) is fulfilled for the following Stokes vectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.53})$$

which lead to the relations

$$(m_{01} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{11} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} + m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.54.a})$$

$$(m_{01} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{11} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.54.b})$$

$$(m_{02} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{12} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{20} + m_{22})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.55.a})$$

$$(m_{02} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{12} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.55.b})$$

$$(m_{03} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{13} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} + m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.56.a})$$

$$(m_{03} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{13} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.56.b})$$

By adding respectively the pairs (III.54), (III.55) and (III.56) we obtain

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{11}^2 + m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.57.a})$$

$$m_{02}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{12}^2 + m_{22}^2 + m_{32}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.57.b})$$

$$m_{03}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{13}^2 + m_{23}^2 + m_{33}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.57.c})$$

and thus

$$m_{01}m_{00} = m_{11}m_{10} + m_{21}m_{20} + m_{31}m_{30} \quad (\text{III.58.a})$$

$$m_{02}m_{00} = m_{12}m_{10} + m_{22}m_{20} + m_{32}m_{30} \quad (\text{III.58.b})$$

$$m_{03}m_{00} = m_{13}m_{10} + m_{23}m_{20} + m_{33}m_{30} \quad (\text{III.58.c})$$

From (III.57), (III.58) and (III.51) we deduce

$$m_{01}m_{02} = m_{11}m_{12} + m_{21}m_{22} + m_{31}m_{32} \quad (\text{III.59.a})$$

$$m_{01}m_{03} = m_{11}m_{13} + m_{21}m_{23} + m_{31}m_{33} \quad (\text{III.59.b})$$

$$m_{02}m_{03} = m_{12}m_{13} + m_{22}m_{23} + m_{32}m_{33} \quad (\text{III.59.c})$$

The set of relations constituted by (III.57) together with (III.58) is equivalent to (III.54). By adding the relations (III.59) to these sets, we obtain two systems of restrictive relations among the elements m_{ij} . We call R_1 to the system of equalities composed of (III.54), (III.55), (III.56) and (III.59); and R_2 to the composed of (III.57), (III.58) and (III.59).

The systems R_1 and R_2 are equivalent, and they express the restrictions in the \mathbf{M} matrix in two different ways. Afterwards we will see other systems of restrictions that are equivalent to R_1 and R_2 . The usefulness of the study of different kinds of presentations for the restrictions consists in the fact that, as we will see, this let us easily obtain interesting results that otherwise would be masked by the mathematical complexity of the expressions.

Now, let us consider a Mueller matrix associated with a G-type optical medium, which can even produce depolarization. Then, the unique condition that must be fulfilled is

$$s_0'^2 \geq s_1'^2 + s_2'^2 + s_3'^2 \quad (\text{III.60})$$

and thus, taking into account (III.59), we obtain

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{0j}^2 s_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{0l} m_{0k} s_l s_k \geq \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 s_j^2 + \sum_{\substack{l,k=0 \\ l \neq k}}^3 m_{il} m_{ik} s_l s_k \right) \quad (\text{III.61})$$

The inequality (III.61) is fulfilled for any Stokes vector \mathbf{S} , and in particular, for the vectors in (III.53), which can be taken to (III.61) in order to give the following inequalities

$$(m_{01} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{11} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} + m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.62.a})$$

$$(m_{01} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{11} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{21} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{31} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.62.b})$$

$$(m_{02} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{12} + m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} + m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.62.c})$$

$$(m_{02} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{12} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{22} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.62.d})$$

$$(m_{03} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{13} - m_{10})^2 + (m_{23} - m_{20})^2 + (m_{33} - m_{30})^2 \quad (\text{III.62.f})$$

The inequalities that correspond to the equalities (III.57) are

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{11}^2 + m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.63.a})$$

$$m_{02}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{12}^2 + m_{22}^2 + m_{32}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.63.b})$$

$$m_{03}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{13}^2 + m_{23}^2 + m_{33}^2 + m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.63.c})$$

The system R_2 can be obtained by other way. Let us consider a light beam with Stokes vector \mathbf{S} and coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, which passes through an N-type optical system whose associated matrices in the formalisms SMF and JCF are \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{J} respectively. The emerging light beam is characterized by a Stokes vector $\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{MS}$, and a coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}' = \mathbf{J}\boldsymbol{\rho}\mathbf{J}^+$, from which we deduce

$$\det \boldsymbol{\rho}' = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \det \boldsymbol{\rho} \quad (\text{III.64})$$

or, taking into account (III.4)

$$F' = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 F \quad (\text{III.65})$$

being

$$F = s_0^2 + s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2, \quad F' = s_0'^2 + s_1'^2 + s_2'^2 + s_3'^2 \quad (\text{III.66})$$

The quadratic form F , associated with the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} , can be written as

$$F = \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{s} \quad (\text{III.67})$$

where \mathbf{g} is the matrix

$$\mathbf{g} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.68})$$

and \mathbf{S}^T is the transposed row vector of the column vector \mathbf{S} . Taking into account that

$$\mathbf{s}'^T = \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{M}^T \quad (\text{III.69})$$

we can write

$$F' = \mathbf{s}'^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{s}' = \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{s} \quad (\text{III.70})$$

From (III.71) and (III.65) we obtain the relation

$$\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{s} = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{s} \quad (\text{III.71})$$

that must be fulfilled for any Stokes vector \mathbf{S} and, thus [41]

$$\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{M} = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{III.72})$$

By writing (III.72) as a function of the elements m_{ij} , and eliminating $|\det \mathbf{J}|^2$, we obtain the new system R_2 .

This last development is similar to the presented by R. Barakat [14] in a recent article, which by contrast is carried out on the basis of considerations about the Lorentz orthochronous L_+ group. This obliges us to avoid singular matrices, which correspond to systems including total polarizers, because they cannot be normalized in order to belong to L_+ group.

Because of the theorem T12, we know that given a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , the matrix \mathbf{M}' given by (II.76) and (II.77) is also a Mueller matrix. Any expression that has been established for \mathbf{M} is also valid for \mathbf{M}' , and new relations result among the elements m_{ij} , which can be obtained from the relations seen before by transposing the subscripts of all elements. So, in an N-type matrix \mathbf{M} case, \mathbf{M}' is also N-type and the new relations are

$$(m_{i0} + m_{00})^2 = (m_{i1} + m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} + m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} + m_{03})^2 \quad (\text{III.73.a})$$

$$(m_{i0} - m_{00})^2 = (m_{i1} - m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} - m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} - m_{03})^2 \quad (\text{III.73.b})$$

$$m_{i0}^2 + m_{00}^2 = m_{i1}^2 + m_{i2}^2 + m_{i3}^2 + m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 \quad (\text{III.74})$$

$$m_{i0}m_{00} = m_{i1}m_{01} + m_{i2}m_{02} + m_{i3}m_{03}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.75})$$

with $i = 1, 2, 3$;

$$m_{i0}m_{j0} = m_{i1}m_{j1} + m_{i2}m_{j2} + m_{i3}m_{j3}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3; i \neq j \quad (\text{III.76})$$

with $i, j = 1, 2, 3; i \neq j$.

In a G-type \mathbf{M} matrix case, \mathbf{M}' is G-type and we have the inequalities

$$(m_{i0} + m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{i1} + m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} + m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} + m_{03})^2 \quad (\text{III.77.a})$$

$$(m_{i0} - m_{00})^2 \geq (m_{i1} - m_{01})^2 + (m_{i2} - m_{02})^2 + (m_{i3} - m_{03})^2 \quad (\text{III.77.b})$$

$$m_{i0}^2 + m_{00}^2 \geq m_{i1}^2 + m_{i2}^2 + m_{i3}^2 + m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.78})$$

with $i = 1, 2, 3$.

It is worth mentioning the fact that the system of inequalities formed by (III.63) together with (III.78), and the systems (III.62) together with (III.77) are totally equivalent. Thus, a set of six inequalities among the elements of a G-type Mueller matrix corresponds to the set of nine inequalities among the elements of an N-type Mueller matrix.

The new relations obtained from \mathbf{M}' also correspond to the matrix \mathbf{M}^T , what indicates to us that if \mathbf{M} is a Mueller matrix, \mathbf{M}^T is a Mueller matrix of the same type.

The equality (III.72) can be written by replacing \mathbf{M} with \mathbf{M}' , or \mathbf{M}^T , obtaining respectively

$$\mathbf{M}'^T \mathbf{g} \mathbf{M}' = |\det \mathbf{J}^T|^2 \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{III.79})$$

$$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{g} \mathbf{M}^T = |\det \mathbf{J}^T|^2 \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{III.80})$$

and taking into account that

$$|\det \mathbf{J}| = |\det \mathbf{J}^T| = |\det \mathbf{J}^+| \quad (\text{III.81})$$

we obtain the condition

$$\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{gM} = \mathbf{MgM}^T = \mathbf{M}'^T \mathbf{gM}' = \left| \det \mathbf{J}^T \right|^2 \mathbf{g} \quad (\text{III.82})$$

from which all restrictive inequalities found so far can be deduced.

Next we will obtain another set of nine inequalities among the elements of an N-type Mueller matrix, which are different, although equivalent, from the ones seen before.

The elements of a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} can be written by means of the notation given in (II.10) and (II.11) as

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_3 \\ A_4 & A_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.83.a})$$

We can write it in modulus-argument form as follows

$$A_k \equiv \alpha_k e^{i\beta_k} \quad (\text{III.83.b})$$

According to the notation used by Fry and Kattawar [15], we define the parameters

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon &= \beta_1 - \beta_2 \\ \delta &= \beta_3 - \beta_1 \\ \gamma &= \beta_2 - \beta_4 \\ \sigma &= \beta_4 - \beta_1 \\ \lambda &= \beta_2 - \beta_3 \\ \eta &= \beta_4 - \beta_3 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.84})$$

With this notation, and taking into account (II.75), we can write the elements of the Mueller matrix corresponding to the same optical medium than \mathbf{J} as follows

$$\begin{aligned} m_{00} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) \\ m_{01} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 + \alpha_4^2) \\ m_{02} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_3 \cos \delta + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \cos \gamma \\ m_{03} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_3 \sin \delta - \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \sin \gamma \\ m_{10} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 - \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) \\ m_{11} &= \frac{1}{2} (\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 - \alpha_3^2 - \alpha_4^2) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.85})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{12} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_3 \cos \delta - \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \cos \gamma \\
m_{13} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_3 \sin \delta + \alpha_2 \alpha_4 \sin \gamma \\
m_{20} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \cos \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \cos \lambda \\
m_{21} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \cos \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \cos \lambda \\
m_{22} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cos \varepsilon + \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos \eta \\
m_{23} &= -\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \sin \varepsilon + \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \sin \eta \\
m_{30} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \sin \sigma + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \sin \lambda \\
m_{31} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_4 \sin \sigma - \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \sin \lambda \\
m_{32} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \sin \varepsilon - \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \sin \eta \\
m_{33} &= \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cos \varepsilon - \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos \eta
\end{aligned}$$

With the expressions (III.85) for the elements m_{ij} the fulfillment of the nine following equalities can be proved

$$(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{10})^2 = (m_{22} + m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{23})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_2^2 \quad (\text{III.86.a})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{10})^2 = (m_{22} - m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{23})^2 = 4\alpha_3^2 \alpha_4^2 \quad (\text{III.83.b})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 = (m_{02} + m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} + m_{13})^2 = 4\alpha_2^2 \alpha_3^2 \quad (\text{III.83.c})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{11})^2 = (m_{02} - m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} - m_{13})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_4^2 \quad (\text{III.83.d})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 = (m_{20} + m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} + m_{31})^2 = 4\alpha_2^2 \alpha_4^2 \quad (\text{III.83.e})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} - m_{11})^2 = (m_{20} - m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} - m_{31})^2 = 4\alpha_1^2 \alpha_3^2 \quad (\text{III.83.f})$$

$$m_{02} m_{03} - m_{12} m_{13} = m_{22} m_{23} + m_{32} m_{33} = -2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \sin(\beta_1 - \beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_4) \quad (\text{III.87.a})$$

$$m_{02} m_{12} - m_{02} m_{13} = m_{31} m_{20} - m_{30} m_{21} = -2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \sin(\beta_1 + \beta_2 - \beta_3 - \beta_4) \quad (\text{III.87.b})$$

$$m_{20} m_{30} - m_{21} m_{31} = m_{22} m_{32} + m_{23} m_{33} = 2\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \sin(\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \beta_3 + \beta_4) \quad (\text{III.87.c})$$

The equalities (III.87) can be replaced by the following three

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{22}^2 - m_{23}^2 + m_{32}^2 - m_{33}^2 &= m_{02}^2 - m_{03}^2 - m_{12}^2 + m_{13}^2 = 4\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos(\beta_1 - \beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_4) \\
m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2 + m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2 &= m_{29}^2 - m_{30}^2 - m_{21}^2 + m_{31}^2 = 4\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos(\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \beta_3 + \beta_4) \quad (\text{III.88}) \\
m_{20}^2 - m_{21}^2 + m_{30}^2 - m_{31}^2 &= m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 + m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 = 4\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 \cos(\beta_1 + \beta_2 - \beta_3 - \beta_4)
\end{aligned}$$

The relations (III.86) have been obtained by Abhyankar and Fymat [13], by completing the system of nine equalities with three quartic relations. Later, Fry and Kattawar [15] have shown that these quartic relations can be replaced by the (III.87) or (III.88), which are simpler. The system of nine independent equalities formed by the (III.86) with (III.87) or (III.88) is, as we have shown, equivalent to the other systems of nine restrictive independent equalities studied before.

From the relations (III.57) and (III.74) it is easy to obtain the following two interesting equalities

$$m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 = m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.89})$$

$$\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 = 4m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.90})$$

The equality (III.89) was yet obtained in (III.27.b) from an explicit form of a generic N-type Mueller matrix as a function of the equivalent parameters, according with the theorems EGT and PDT. Besides, the equality (III.90), which is also obtained by adding the relations (III.86), expresses a property that, as we will see, is very useful in order to distinguish the N-type optical media from those that depolarize the light.

Let us consider now the G-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} as the sum of a certain number of N-type Mueller matrices. Taking into account this fact, it can be shown that the following inequalities are fulfilled [15]

$$(m_{00} + m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{10})^2 \geq (m_{22} + m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} - m_{23})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.a})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{11})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{10})^2 \geq (m_{22} - m_{33})^2 + (m_{32} + m_{23})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.b})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} + m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{02} + m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} + m_{13})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.c})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{10})^2 - (m_{01} - m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{02} - m_{12})^2 + (m_{03} - m_{13})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.d})$$

$$(m_{00} + m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} + m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{20} + m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} + m_{31})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.e})$$

$$(m_{00} - m_{01})^2 - (m_{10} - m_{11})^2 \geq (m_{20} - m_{21})^2 + (m_{30} - m_{31})^2 \quad (\text{III.91.f})$$

To the equality (III.90) corresponds now the inequality

$$\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \leq 4m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.92})$$

To finish this section, we will obtain a set of inequalities that are fulfilled for any Mueller matrix.

The elements of an N-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} can be written by means of the notation given in (II.75). By applying the inequality

$$x^2 + y^2 \geq \pm 2xy \quad (\text{III.93})$$

in the expressions (II.75.b) we see that

$$\alpha_i^2 + \alpha_j^2 \geq \pm 2\beta_{ij} \quad (\text{III.94.a})$$

$$\alpha_i^2 + \alpha_j^2 \geq \pm 2\gamma_{ij} \quad (\text{III.94.b})$$

Now, taking into account the expression (II.75.a) it is easy to demonstrate that the following inequalities are fulfilled

$$\begin{aligned} m_{00} + m_{11} &\geq \pm(m_{22} + m_{33}) \\ m_{00} - m_{11} &\geq \pm(m_{22} - m_{33}) \\ m_{00} - m_{11} &\geq \pm(m_{32} - m_{23}) \\ m_{00} + m_{10} &\geq \pm(m_{02} + m_{12}) \\ m_{00} + m_{10} &\geq \pm(m_{03} + m_{13}) \\ m_{00} - m_{10} &\geq \pm(m_{02} - m_{12}) \\ m_{00} - m_{10} &\geq \pm(m_{03} - m_{13}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.95.a})$$

$$\begin{aligned} m_{00} + m_{01} &\geq \pm(m_{20} + m_{21}) \\ m_{00} + m_{01} &\geq \pm(m_{30} + m_{31}) \\ m_{00} - m_{01} &\geq \pm(m_{20} - m_{21}) \\ m_{00} - m_{01} &\geq \pm(m_{30} - m_{31}) \\ m_{00} &\geq \pm m_{ij}, \quad \forall i, j \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.95.b})$$

These inequalities, which are additive and thus must be fulfilled for any Mueller matrix without exception, have been recently shown by R.W. Schaefer [16], whose argument for the deduction has been used here.

III.5. Restrictive relations in a Matrix \mathbf{V} in the CVF formalism

As the Mueller matrices, the N-type \mathbf{V} matrices depend, in general, on seven independent parameters. This implies that, in addition to the restrictions (II.55), which are inherent to the definition of the matrix \mathbf{V} , there must be a set of nine restrictions among its elements.

The expression (II.79) shows the form of a matrix \mathbf{V} as a function of its corresponding Jones matrix \mathbf{J} . In (II.79) we can see that the product of the extreme elements of a row, column or diagonal, is equal to the product of their corresponding intermediate elements. This fact implies the existence of the ten following equalities [13]

$$v_{00}v_{03} = v_{01}v_{02} \quad (\text{III.96.a})$$

$$v_{00}v_{30} = v_{10}v_{20} \quad (\text{III.96.b})$$

$$v_{30}v_{33} = v_{31}v_{32} \quad (\text{III.96.c})$$

$$v_{03}v_{33} = v_{13}v_{23} \quad (\text{III.96.d})$$

$$v_{00}v_{33} = v_{11}v_{22} \quad (\text{III.96.e})$$

$$v_{03}v_{30} = v_{12}v_{21} \quad (\text{III.96.f})$$

$$v_{01}v_{31} = v_{11}v_{21} \quad (\text{III.96.g})$$

$$v_{10}v_{13} = v_{11}v_{12} \quad (\text{III.96.h})$$

$$v_{02}v_{32} = v_{12}v_{22} \quad (\text{III.96.i})$$

$$v_{20}v_{23} = v_{21}v_{22} \quad (\text{III.96.j})$$

Only eight of these equalities are independent. So, for example, the first eight are independent. The ninth independent equality can be either one of the following

$$v_{01}v_{32} = v_{10}v_{23} \quad (\text{III.97.a})$$

$$v_{02}v_{31} = v_{20}v_{13} \quad (\text{III.97.b})$$

$$v_{02}v_{13} = v_{10}^*v_{23}^* \quad (\text{III.97.c})$$

$$v_{20}v_{13} = v_{01}^*v_{32}^* \quad (\text{III.97.d})$$

The equalities (III.96.a-g) only contain real quantities. We can complete the system of nine equalities by adding the (III.96.h), (III.96.i) and (III.97.a), which, taking into account (II.55), can be reduced to real expressions of the form

$$v_{01}v_{31} + v_{22}v_{12} = v_{11}v_{21} + v_{02}v_{32} \quad (\text{III.98.a})$$

$$v_{10}v_{13} + v_{22}v_{21} = v_{11}v_{12} + v_{20}v_{23} \quad (\text{III.98.b})$$

$$v_{01}v_{32} + v_{20}v_{13} = v_{10}v_{23} + v_{02}v_{31} \quad (\text{III.98.c})$$

Now, we are going to study others systems of nine restrictions in N-type matrices \mathbf{V} that, although equivalent among them, are presented in a different way and are occasionally useful.

In the CVF formalism, the quadratic form F corresponding to a light beam with an associated coherence vector \mathbf{D} , can be written as

$$\mathbf{F} = 2\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{III.99})$$

where \mathbf{D}^T is the transposed row vector of the column vector \mathbf{D} , and \mathbf{h} is the matrix

$$\mathbf{h} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.100})$$

Let us consider a light beam characterized by a coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ and a coherency vector \mathbf{D} , which passes through an N-type optical medium whose associated matrices in the formalisms CMF and CVF are \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{V} respectively. The emerging light beam will be characterized by a coherency matrix $\boldsymbol{\rho}'$ and a coherency vector \mathbf{D}' given by

$$\boldsymbol{\rho}' = \mathbf{J} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{J}^+ \quad (\text{III.101})$$

$$\mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{III.102})$$

Taking into account the expressions (III.64), (III.99), (III.101) and (III.102), we can write

$$F' = 2\mathbf{D}'^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{D}' = 2\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{III.103})$$

$$F' = 4 \det \boldsymbol{\rho}' = 4 |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \det \boldsymbol{\rho} = 4 |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{III.104})$$

so that

$$\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{D} \quad (\text{III.105})$$

The equality (III.105) is satisfied for any vector \mathbf{D} , and thus

$$\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V} = |\det \mathbf{J}|^2 \mathbf{h} \quad (\text{III.106})$$

By writing (III.106) as a function of the elements v_{ij} of the matrix \mathbf{V} , and eliminating $|\det \mathbf{J}|^2$, we obtain the following system of nine restrictive equalities

$$\begin{aligned} v_{30}v_{03} + v_{00}v_{33} + v_{31}v_{02} + v_{01}v_{32} &= v_{20}v_{13} + v_{10}v_{23} + v_{21}v_{12} + v_{11}v_{22} \\ v_{30}v_{01} + v_{00}v_{31} &= v_{20}v_{11} + v_{10}v_{21} \\ v_{30}v_{02} + v_{00}v_{32} &= v_{20}v_{12} + v_{10}v_{22} \\ v_{31}v_{03} + v_{01}v_{33} &= v_{21}v_{13} + v_{11}v_{23} \\ v_{32}v_{03} + v_{02}v_{33} &= v_{22}v_{13} + v_{12}v_{23} \\ v_{00}v_{30} &= v_{20}v_{10} \\ v_{01}v_{31} &= v_{21}v_{11} \\ v_{02}v_{32} &= v_{22}v_{12} \\ v_{03}v_{33} &= v_{23}v_{13} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{III.107})$$

We know that if a certain N-type matrix \mathbf{V} corresponds to an N-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{V}^+ corresponds to \mathbf{M}^T . Thus, the matrix \mathbf{V}^+ represents an N-type optical medium and must satisfy the same restrictions than \mathbf{V} , given in (III.107). So, the following equality must be fulfilled

$$\mathbf{V}^* \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V}^+ = |\det \mathbf{J}^+|^2 \mathbf{h} \quad (\text{III.108})$$

This equality gives a system of nine restrictive equalities among the elements v_{ij} , which is equivalent to the expressed in (III.107) and it is obtained by transposing the indexes of all the elements.

From (III.106) and (III.108), and taking into account that $|\det \mathbf{J}^T| = |\det \mathbf{J}|$, we deduce the following matricial equality

$$\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}^* \mathbf{h} \mathbf{V}^+ = |\det \mathbf{J}^+|^2 \mathbf{h} \quad (\text{III.109})$$

which includes (III.106) and (III.108) as particular cases.

III.6. Norm condition in Mueller matrices

Given any Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} we can define a positive defined norm $\Gamma_M(\mathbf{M})$ as [42]

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M}) \equiv \left[\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{M}) \right]^{1/2} = \left[\text{tr}(\mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}^T) \right]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.110})$$

As we have seen in (III.92), $\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M})$ satisfy the condition

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}^2(\mathbf{M}) \leq 4m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.111})$$

so that the equality

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}^2(\mathbf{M}) = 4m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.112})$$

occurs when a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} is associated with an N-type optical medium. It is worth mentioning that the element m_{00} represents the transmittance T_N of the optical medium for incoming non-polarized light.

We have seen that (III.112) is a necessary condition for \mathbf{M} to be an N-type one. Now we are going to demonstrate that (III.112) is also a sufficient condition.

Let us supposed the condition (III.112) is fulfilled. Then, the six equalities (III.86) must be fulfilled, because if not, at least one of the inequalities (III.91) must be fulfilled and thus we would obtain $\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}^2(\mathbf{M}) < 4m_{00}^2$, which is not in agreement with the hypothesis. In order to obtain a system of nine independent restrictions we need three more, as for example the (III.88).

The inequalities (III.63) and (III.78) can be written as

$$x_1 \geq r_1 \quad (\text{III.113.a})$$

$$y_1 \geq r_1 \quad (\text{III.113.b})$$

$$z_1 \geq r_1 \quad (\text{III.113.c})$$

$$x_2 \geq r_2 \quad (\text{III.114.a})$$

$$y_2 \geq r_2 \quad (\text{III.114.b})$$

$$z_2 \geq r_2 \quad (\text{III.114.c})$$

where the following parameters have been defined

$$r_1 = m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2 - m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.115.a})$$

$$x_1 = m_{01}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{31}^2 \quad (\text{III.115.b})$$

$$y_1 = m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2 \quad (\text{III.115.c})$$

$$z_1 = m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 - m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2 \quad (\text{III.115.d})$$

$$r_2 = m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 - m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.116.a})$$

$$x_2 = m_{10}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{13}^2 \quad (\text{III.116.b})$$

$$y_2 = m_{20}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{23}^2 \quad (\text{III.116.c})$$

$$z_2 = m_{30}^2 - m_{31}^2 - m_{32}^2 - m_{33}^2 \quad (\text{III.116.d})$$

From the equalities (III.86.c-f) we deduce that (III.113.a) and (III.114.a) are the equalities $x_1 = r_1$ and $x_2 = r_2$ respectively.

The equalities (III.88) can be written as

$$y_1 = z_1 \quad (\text{III.117.a})$$

$$y_2 = z_2 \quad (\text{III.117.b})$$

$$y_1 = y_2 \quad (\text{III.117.c})$$

In order to demonstrate the fulfillment of the equalities (III.117) we will suppose that $\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}^2(\mathbf{M}) = 4m_{00}^2$ and that some of the equalities is not fulfilled, obtaining as a result an absurd. The fact that some of the equalities (III.117) is not fulfilled implies that the equalities in (III.113.b-c) and (III.114.b-c) cannot be fulfilled simultaneously, or that $r_1 \neq r_2$.

By adding on one hand the (III.113) and on the other hand the (III.114) we obtain

$$4m_{00}^2 + 2(a-b) \geq \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \quad (\text{III.118})$$

$$4m_{00}^2 + 2(b-a) \geq \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \quad (\text{III.119})$$

where

$$a = m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2 \quad (\text{III.120})$$

$$b = m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2$$

As we are supposing that $\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}^2(\mathbf{M}) = 4m_{00}^2$, from (III.118) and (III.119) we deduce that

$$a = b \quad (\text{III.121})$$

and thus

$$r_1 = r_2 \quad (\text{III.122})$$

The only remaining possibilities are

$$y_1 \geq r_1, \text{ or } z_1 \geq r_1, \text{ or } y_2 \geq r_2, \text{ or } z_2 \geq r_2 \quad (\text{III.123})$$

In the first two cases, by adding Eq. (III.113) we obtain

$$4m_{00}^2 > \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \quad (\text{III.124})$$

and in the other two remaining cases, by adding (III.114), we obtain again (III.124), which is an absurd because of the starting hypothesis (III.112). Then, it is demonstrated that if the condition (III.112) is fulfilled, the system of nine independent equalities formed by the (III.86) and (III.87), or any other equivalent system of equalities, must be fulfilled. This means that \mathbf{M} corresponds to an N-type optical medium.

We can summarize these considerations in the following theorem [42]: “Given a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , the necessary and sufficient condition for \mathbf{M} to correspond to an N-type optical medium is $\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M}) = 2m_{00}$ ”.

The interest in this theorem is derived from the fact that, given a Mueller matrix, we can know if it corresponds to an N-type optical medium by only attending the condition (III.112) (the norm condition), without the verification of the nine independent equalities.

As we will see, the norm condition is very useful in the theoretical development of our dynamic method for the determination of Mueller matrices.

Given a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , it can be normalized as

$$\bar{\mathbf{M}} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} \mathbf{M} \quad (\text{III.125})$$

The matrix $\bar{\mathbf{M}}$ corresponds to an optical medium with the same properties than \mathbf{M} , except for the fact that the former presents a unity transmittance for non-polarized light ($\bar{m}_{00} = 1$). When \mathbf{M} is N-type, the normalization (III.125) gives the equality

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\bar{\mathbf{M}}) = 2 \quad (\text{III.126})$$

because

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\bar{\mathbf{M}}) \equiv \left[\text{tr}(\bar{\mathbf{M}}^T \bar{\mathbf{M}}) \right]^{1/2} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2} = 2 \quad (\text{III.127})$$

An interesting consequence of (III.95.b) and (III.112) is that an N-type Mueller matrix must have, at least, four nonzero elements (except for the trivial case of the zero matrix).

III.7. Norm condition in Jones matrices

The purpose of this section is to obtain, similarly to the last section, a relation among the elements of a generic Jones matrix as a function of the transmittance T_N of the medium for natural light. It is worth mentioning that, although the states of partially polarized light are not able to be represented by means of the formalism JCF, the Jones matrices contain information of T_N , because, as we will see, T_N can be obtain as the semi-sum of the transmittances in minimum and maximum intensities for random variations of the incident light vector.

Given a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} , we always can associate two numbers $\gamma(\mathbf{J})$, $\tau(\mathbf{J})$, where γ and τ are, respectively, the maximum and minimum value of the division

$$\frac{|\mathbf{J}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|}{|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|} \quad (\text{III.128})$$

with respect to the random variations of the two components of the Jones vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ [1].

Any unitary Jones matrix \mathbf{U} leaves invariant the module of the Jones vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, and thus

$$\gamma(\mathbf{U}) = \tau(\mathbf{U}) = 1 \quad (\text{III.129})$$

According to the theorem EGT, any Jones matrix \mathbf{J} can be written as

$$\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{J}_p(0, p_1, p_2) \mathbf{U}_2 \quad (\text{III.130})$$

where \mathbf{U}_1 , \mathbf{U}_2 are unitary matrices, and \mathbf{J}_p is the matrix associated with a partial polarizer whose principal transmittances in amplitude are p_1 , p_2 . Taking into account the expressions (III.129) and (III.130) we obtain

$$\gamma(\mathbf{J}) = \gamma(\mathbf{J}_p) = p_1 \quad (\text{III.131.a})$$

$$\tau(\mathbf{J}) = \tau(\mathbf{J}_p) = p_2 \quad (\text{III.131.b})$$

According to the expressions (III.15) and (III.26), the element m_{00} of a generic N-type Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} corresponding to a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} can be written as

$$m_{00} = \frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 + p_2^2) = \frac{1}{2}[\gamma^2(\mathbf{J}) + \tau^2(\mathbf{J})] \quad (\text{III.132})$$

Besides, according to (II.73), m_{00} can be expressed as a function of the elements of the matrix \mathbf{J} as follows

$$m_{00} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 \quad (\text{III.133})$$

and, consequently

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 = p_1^2 + p_2^2 \quad (\text{III.134})$$

The expression (III.133) indicates to us that the one half of the sum of the squares of the modules of the elements of a Jones matrix is equal to the transmittance in intensity for natural light, of the considered medium.

We can associate to any Jones matrix \mathbf{J} a norm $\Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}(\mathbf{J})$, defined as positive, given by [42]

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}(\mathbf{J}) \equiv [\text{tr}(\mathbf{J}^+ \mathbf{J})]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(\mathbf{J} \mathbf{J}^+)]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=1}^2 |J_{ij}|^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.135})$$

or, taking into account (III.133)

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}^2(\mathbf{J}) = 2m_{00} = 2T_N \quad (\text{III.136})$$

By comparing (III.136) with (III.112) we see that

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M}) = \Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}^2(\mathbf{J}) \quad (\text{III.137})$$

The expression (III.136) shows that the norm condition (III.112) for a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} is a manifestation of the norm definition (III.135) for a Jones matrix \mathbf{J} associated

with the same N-type optical medium than \mathbf{M} . These matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{J} can be normalized as

$$\bar{\mathbf{M}} = \frac{1}{m_{00}} \mathbf{M} \quad (\text{III.138.a})$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{J}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m_{00}}} \mathbf{J} \quad (\text{III.138.b})$$

so that

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\bar{\mathbf{M}}) = \Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}^2(\bar{\mathbf{J}}) = 2 \quad (\text{III.139})$$

III.8. Norm condition in matrices \mathbf{V} of the formalism CVF.

Given a matrix \mathbf{V} of the formalism CVF, we can associate to it the positive definite norm $\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V})$ [42]

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) \equiv [\text{tr}(\mathbf{V}^+ \mathbf{V})]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(\mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^+)]^{1/2} = \left[\sum_{i,j=0}^3 v_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.140})$$

We saw in (II.78) that an N-type matrix \mathbf{V} can be written as a function of its corresponding Jones matrix as

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{J}^* \quad (\text{III.141})$$

where \times indicates the Kronecker product. From (III.140) and (III.141) it is easy to obtain

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) = \text{tr}^2(\mathbf{J} \mathbf{J}^+) = \text{tr}^2(\mathbf{J}^+ \mathbf{J}) \quad (\text{III.142})$$

The expression (III.142), with (III.135), (III.136) and (III.137) let us to write

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) = \Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M}) = \Gamma_{\mathbf{J}}^2(\mathbf{J}) = 2m_{00} \quad (\text{III.143})$$

where the matrices \mathbf{V} , \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{J} correspond to the same N-type optical medium. If the considered medium is G-type, \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{V} are related according to (II.51), and then

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) = [\text{tr}(\mathbf{V}^+\mathbf{V})]^{1/2} = [\text{tr}(\mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{U})]^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.144})$$

Taking into account that \mathbf{U} is unitary and that $\text{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BA})$, the expression (III.144) can be written as

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) = \Gamma_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{M}) \quad (\text{III.145})$$

Thus, this relation has been established for any optical medium with any characteristics.

Any matrix \mathbf{V} can be normalized as

$$\bar{\mathbf{V}} = \left(\frac{2}{v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}} \right) \mathbf{V} \quad (\text{III.146})$$

where

$$\frac{v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}}{2} = T_N = m_{00} \quad (\text{III.147})$$

In analogy with the case of Mueller matrices, it is straightforward to demonstrate that the necessary and sufficient condition for a matrix \mathbf{V} to correspond to an N-type optical medium is

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}) = (v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33}) \quad (\text{III.148})$$

or

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{V}}(\bar{\mathbf{V}}) = 2 \quad (\text{III.149})$$

III.9. Indices of polarization and depolarization.

Given an optical medium \mathcal{O} , this has associated two Mueller matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{M}' , which correspond to the two possible directions of the incident light over \mathcal{O} . By convention we say that \mathbf{M} corresponds to \mathcal{O} when light passes through \mathcal{O} in the ‘forward’ direction, and \mathbf{M}' when light passes through \mathcal{O} in the ‘reverse’ direction.

Let us consider the set of Stokes vectors

$$\mathbf{S}_{p_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_{p_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_{p_3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_{n_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_{n_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S}_{n_3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.150})$$

which we denote in an abbreviated form as $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i} \quad i = 1, 2, 3$.

The matrices and the vectors are referred to the same Cartesian system of axis XY. The vectors $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$ correspond to beams of totally polarized light, so that their associated quadratic forms are $F'_{p_i} = 0, F'_{n_i} = 0$ with $i = 1, 2, 3$.

When the optical medium \mathcal{O} is passed through in the forward direction by a light beam whose associated Stokes vector $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}(\mathbf{S}_{n_i})$ is one of the given in (III.150), the Stokes vector $\mathbf{S}'_{p_i}(\mathbf{S}'_{n_i})$ of the emerging light beam have associated the corresponding quadratic form

$$F'_{p_i} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{j0}^2 + m_{ji}^2 + 2m_{j0}m_{ji}) \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.151.a})$$

or

$$F'_{n_i} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{j0}^2 + m_{ji}^2 - 2m_{j0}m_{ji}) \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.151.b})$$

The mean values of these quadratic forms for each two Stokes vectors associated with light beams with orthogonal states of polarization $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$ are

$$F'_1 = \frac{1}{2}(F'_{p_1} + F'_{n_1}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{01}^2 - m_{11}^2 - m_{21}^2 - m_{31}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.152.a})$$

$$F'_2 = \frac{1}{2}(F'_{p_2} + F'_{n_2}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{02}^2 - m_{12}^2 - m_{22}^2 - m_{32}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.152.b})$$

$$F'_3 = \frac{1}{2}(F'_{p_3} + F'_{n_3}) = m_{00}^2 + m_{03}^2 - m_{13}^2 - m_{23}^2 - m_{33}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.152.c})$$

The global mean value is

$$F'_D = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^3 F'_i = m_{00}^2 - (m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2) + \frac{1}{3} (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2) - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k,l=1}^3 m_{kl}^2 \quad (\text{III.153})$$

The value of F'_D gives us the mean value of the squares of the intensities of the depolarized light emerging from \mathcal{O} in the case of light beams passing through \mathcal{O} in the forward direction with Stokes vectors $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$.

If we analyze in detail the meaning of the quadratic forms (III.152), we see that $F'_{p_i} (F'_{n_i}) = 0$ if and only if \mathcal{O} does not depolarize the light passing through in the forward direction with Stokes vector $\mathbf{S}_{p_i} (\mathbf{S}_{n_i})$. Thus, taking into account the inequality $X^2 + Y^2 \geq \pm 2XY$ we obtain

$$F'_{p_i} \geq 0, \quad F'_{n_i} \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.154})$$

and, consequently, for light passing through \mathcal{O} in the forward direction we can state that

$F'_1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{O}$ does not depolarize the incoming light linearly polarized along the axes X or Y

$F'_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{O}$ does not depolarize the incoming light linearly polarized along the axes at an angle of $\pm 45^\circ$ with the axes X and Y

$F'_3 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{O}$ does not depolarize the incoming circular polarized light (dextro or levo).

From (III.152) and (III.154) we obtain

$$F'_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.155})$$

and

$$F'_D \geq 0 \quad (\text{III.156})$$

Thus

$$F'_D = 0 \Leftrightarrow F'_{p_i} = F'_{n_i} \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.157})$$

This last result shows to us that $F'_D = 0$ is a necessary and sufficient condition for \mathcal{O} not to depolarize the light with Stokes vectors $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$, associated with light beams that passes through \mathcal{O} in the forward direction. However, there can be light with other characteristics that, passing through in the forward direction, is depolarized.

By making a similar development, but considering the light passing through \mathcal{O} in the reverse direction, that is, \mathcal{O} is characterized by the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}' , the Stokes vectors $\mathbf{S}''_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}''_{n_i}$ corresponding to the emerging light beams have associated the following respective quadratic forms

$$F''_{p_i} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{0j}^2 + m_{ij}^2 + 2m_{0j}m_{ij}) \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.158.a})$$

$$F''_{n_i} = \sum_{j=0}^3 (m_{0j}^2 + m_{ij}^2 - 2m_{0j}m_{ij}) \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (\text{III.158.b})$$

The mean value F''_D of the squares of the intensities of the depolarized light emerging from \mathcal{O} in the case of light passing through \mathcal{O} in the reverse direction with Stokes vectors $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$ is given by

$$F''_D = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^3 (F''_{p_i} + F''_{n_i}) = m_{00}^2 - (m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2) - \frac{1}{3} (m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2) - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k,l=1}^3 m_{kl}^2 \quad (\text{III.159})$$

All the conclusions obtained for F'_{p_i}, F'_{n_i}, F'_D when \mathcal{O} is passed through in the forward direction are also valid for $F''_{p_i}, F''_{n_i}, F''_D$ when \mathcal{O} is passed through in the reverse direction.

The positive semidefinite quadratic form

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} (F'_D + F''_D) = m_{00}^2 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 - m_{00}^2 \right) = \frac{1}{3} \left(4m_{00}^2 - \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 \right) \quad (\text{III.160})$$

can be considered as a mean value of the square of the intensity of the unpolarized emerging light, in the case of light beams with Stokes vectors $\mathbf{S}_{p_i}, \mathbf{S}_{n_i}$ passing through \mathcal{O} in both forward and reverse direction.

By comparing the definitions (III.110) and (III.160) we see that

$$F_D = \frac{1}{3} [4m_{00}^2 - \Gamma_M(\mathbf{M})] \quad (\text{III.161})$$

According to the theorem of the norm given in section (III.6), we can say that $F_D = 0$ if, and only if, the optical medium \mathcal{O} does not depolarize light of any kind whatever the direction that \mathcal{O} is passed through. This fact leads to an interpretation of the physical meaning of the norm, because

$$\Gamma_M^2(\mathbf{M}) = 4m_{00}^2 - 3F_D \quad (\text{III.162})$$

and this expression shows that $\Gamma_M^2(\mathbf{M})$ is equal to the difference between four times the square of the transmittance of the medium for non-polarized light and three times the mean value of F_D .

We will call *Depolarization Factor* to the quantity $F_D(\mathbf{M}) = F_D(\mathbf{M}')$, because it gives us a global information about the depolarization produced by the optical medium \mathcal{O} .

Taking into account the expressions (II.27) and (II.28), which relate the degree of polarization G of a light beam with its corresponding quadratic form F , given by (II.26), we can define the *Depolarization Index* that corresponds to the optical medium \mathcal{O} as follows

$$G_D = \left(\frac{\sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2 - m_{00}^2}{3m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F_D}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.163})$$

The ranges of possible values for F_D and G_D are the following

$$0 \leq F_D \leq m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.164})$$

$$0 \leq G_D \leq 1 \quad (\text{III.165})$$

where the values $F_D = 0$, $G_D = 1$ correspond to N-type media, and $F_D = m_{00}^2$, $G_D = 0$ correspond to an ideal depolarizer, that is, an optical medium that totally depolarizes any light beam passing through it in any direction.

The Mueller matrix corresponding to this medium is

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}' = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.166})$$

Let us consider now that a unpolarized light beam with intensity equal to the unity is passing through an optical medium \mathcal{O} in the forward direction. The Stokes vector \mathbf{S}' corresponding to the emerging beam is given by

$$\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{M} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} \\ m_{10} \\ m_{20} \\ m_{30} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.167})$$

We define the *Forward Factor of Polarization* of the optical medium \mathcal{O} as the quadratic form F'_p associated with the Stokes vector \mathbf{S}' according with the definition (III.26). That is to say

$$F'_p = m_{00}^2 - m_{10}^2 - m_{20}^2 - m_{30}^2 \quad (\text{III.168})$$

Similarly we define the *Reciprocal Factor of Polarization* of the optical medium \mathcal{O} as the quadratic form corresponding to the vector

$$\mathbf{S}'' = \mathbf{M}' \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{00} \\ m_{01} \\ m_{02} \\ -m_{03} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{III.169})$$

which is

$$F''_p = m_{00}^2 - m_{01}^2 - m_{02}^2 - m_{03}^2 \quad (\text{III.170})$$

From F'_p and F''_p , we can define the respective *Forward Index of Polarization* G'_p and the *Reciprocal Index of Polarization* G''_p as

$$G'_p = \left(\frac{m_{10}^2 + m_{20}^2 + m_{30}^2}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F'_p}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.171})$$

$$G_p'' = \left(\frac{m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} = \left(1 - \frac{F_p''}{m_{00}^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{III.172})$$

The parameters F_p' and F_p'' or G_p' and G_p'' give us information about the capacity of the optical medium \mathcal{O} to polarize non-polarized light. The ranges of possible values of these parameters are

$$0 \leq F_p' \leq m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.173.a})$$

$$0 \leq F_p'' \leq m_{00}^2 \quad (\text{III.173.b})$$

$$0 \leq G_p' \leq 1 \quad (\text{III.174.a})$$

$$0 \leq G_p'' \leq 1 \quad (\text{III.174.b})$$

If \mathcal{O} is N-type, the relation (III.27.b) is fulfilled, which taking with (III.168) and (III.170) gives us the equality

$$F_p' = F_p'' \quad (\text{III.175})$$

From (II.82) and (III.107) it is easy to see that in the formalism CVF the expressions corresponding to F_D , F_p' and F_p'' are the following

$$F_D = \frac{1}{3} \left[(v_{00} + v_{03} + v_{30} + v_{33})^2 - \Gamma_V^2(V) \right] \quad (\text{III.176})$$

$$F_p' = 4(v_{00}v_{33} + v_{03}v_{30} - v_{10}v_{23} - v_{20}v_{13}) \quad (\text{III.177.a})$$

$$F_p'' = 4(v_{00}v_{33} + v_{03}v_{30} - v_{01}v_{32} - v_{02}v_{31}) \quad (\text{III.177.b})$$

Moreover, if \mathcal{O} is N-type, the corresponding expressions in the formalism JCF are

$$F_D = 0 \quad (\text{III.178})$$

$$F_p' = F_p'' = |J_1|^2 + |J_2|^2 + |J_3|^2 + |J_4|^2 - 2 \operatorname{Re}(J_1 J_2 J_3^* J_4^*) \quad (\text{III.179})$$

Chapter IV

**Method for the dynamic
determination of Mueller matrices**

In this chapter we expose the theoretical basis of our dynamic method for the determination of Mueller matrices. The proposed measurement device is basically composed of two linear retarders placed between two linear polarizers. In the space between the retarders is placed the optical medium whose associated Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} is to be measured. A collimated beam of quasi-monochromatic light arrives to the optical medium after passing through the first polarizer and the first retarder. The emerging beam from this medium passes through the second retarder and the second polarizer, in this order. The intensity I of the final emerging light beam depends on the matrix \mathbf{M} and the orientations of the polarizers and retarders respect to a reference axis.

In order to perform an automatic operation of the device, the retarders rotate in planes perpendicular to the propagation direction of the light beam passing through them, with a fixed relation between the respective constant angular velocities. The intensity I varies periodically, and by means of a detector and a recorder is obtained the record of the signal corresponding to the considered optical medium. The sixteen elements of the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} can be obtained from the Fourier analysis of this signal. The Fourier analysis can be made with the help of a computer.

The experimental device for the measurement can be designed for the study of transmission, reflection, diffusion or diffraction phenomena.

If the rotating retarders used in the measurement device are achromatic, it is possible to make a spectroscopy of Mueller matrices by varying the wavelength λ of the light beam and obtaining the corresponding Mueller matrix. Otherwise, if we use a laser beam we can make a local study in different spatial zones of the sample.

IV.1. Measurement device

The figure IV.1 shows schematically the device for the measurement of Mueller matrices, which is mainly composed of two total linear polarizers $P_1(\theta_1)$, $P_2(\theta_2)$; two non-ideal linear retarders L_1 , L_2 and an optical medium \mathcal{O} whose associated Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} is to be measured. “A” represents a source of quasi-monochromatic light, “DT” a detector of the intensity of light, and “RG” a recorder for the signals detected by DT.

The orientations of the principal axes of the optical media are referred to the positive direction of the X axis of the reference system of coordinates XYZ shown in the figure.

The emerging light beam after passing through the system $P_1 L_1 \mathcal{O} L_2 P_2$ is characterized by the Stokes vector

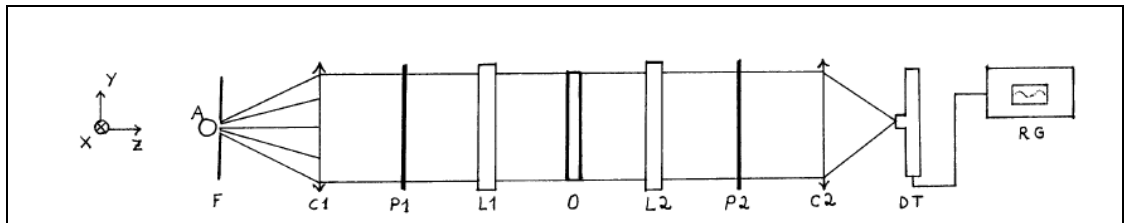
$$\mathbf{S}'' = \frac{1}{16k_a k_b} \mathbf{M}_P(\theta_2) \mathbf{M}_L(\beta_2, \delta_2, k_2) \mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}_L(\beta_1, \delta_1, k_1) \mathbf{M}_P(\theta_1) \mathbf{S} \quad (\text{IV.1.a})$$

where

$$k_1 = k'_a/k_a, \quad k_2 = k'_b/k_b \quad (\text{IV.1.b})$$

and \mathbf{S} is the Stokes vector associated with the beam of natural light emitted by the source A, so that

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} I \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



(Fig. IV.1) Arrangement of the dynamic device for the determination of Mueller matrices.

The measurement device can be considered as divided into two parts. The first one is composed of P_1, L_1 and \mathcal{O} , where the states of polarization of the emerging light beam are generated, which depend on the values of $\theta_1, \beta_1, \delta_1, k_1$ and the elements m_{ij} of the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} . This state of polarization is given by the Stokes vector

$$\mathbf{S}' = \frac{1}{4k_a} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}_L(\beta_1, \delta_1, k_1) \mathbf{M}_P \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{IV.2})$$

whose elements result in

$$S'_i = \frac{I}{4k_a} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [1 + k_1 + (1 - k_1)(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1)] m_{i0} + \\ + [(1 - k_1)c'_1 + (1 + k_1)c'_1(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1) + 2r_1 \cos \delta_1 s'_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i1} + \\ + [(1 - k_1)s'_1 + (1 + k_1)s'_1(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1) - 2r_1 \cos \delta_1 c'_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i2} + \\ + [2r_1 \sin \delta_1 (s'_1 c_1 - c'_1 s_1)] m_{i23} \end{array} \right\} \quad (\text{IV.3.a})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= \sin 2\theta_1, & c_1 &= \cos 2\theta_1, \\ s'_1 &= \sin 2\beta_1, & c'_1 &= \cos 2\beta_1, \\ r_1 &= (k_a k'_a)^{1/2}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{IV.3.b})$$

The second part is the system composed of L_2 and P_2 , and it is used to analyze the state of polarization of the light. The Mueller matrix \mathbf{B} associated with this system is

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{2k_b} \mathbf{M}_P(\theta_2) \mathbf{M}_L(\beta_2, \delta_2, k_2) \quad (\text{IV.4})$$

Now, we can write (IV.1) as follows

$$\mathbf{S}'' = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{S}' \quad (\text{IV.5})$$

The detector DT is sensitive to the intensity of light u_0 falling on it

$$u_0 = s''_0 = b_{00}s'_0 + b_{01}s'_1 + b_{02}s'_2 + b_{03}s'_3 \quad (\text{IV.6})$$

where the elements b_{oi} ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$) of the matrix \mathbf{B} , obtained from (IV.4), are

$$\begin{aligned} b_{00} &= \frac{1}{4k_b} [1 + k_1 + (1 - k_1)(c'_1 c_1 + s'_1 s_1)] \\ b_{01} &= \frac{1}{4k_b} [(1 - k_2)c'_2 + (1 + k_2)c'_2(c'_2 c_2 + s'_2 s_2) + 2r_2 \cos \delta_2 s'_2 (s'_2 c_2 - c'_2 s_2)] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{IV.7.a})$$

$$b_{02} = \frac{1}{4k_b} \left[(1-k_2)s'_2 + (1+k_2)s'_2(c'_2c_2 + s'_2s_2) + 2r_3 \cos \delta_2 c'_2 (s'_2c_2 - c'_2s_2) \right]$$

$$b_{03} = \frac{1}{4k_b} \left[2r_2 \sin \delta_2 (c'_2s_2 - s'_2c_2) \right]$$

where

$$s_2 = \sin 2\theta_2, \quad c_2 = \cos 2\theta_2,$$

$$s'_2 = \sin 2\beta_2, \quad c'_2 = \cos 2\beta_2, \quad r_2 = (k_b k'_b)^{1/2} \quad (\text{IV.7.b})$$

In order to simplify the notation we also define the following parameters

$$a_1 = k_a + k'_a, \quad b_1 = k_a - k'_a, \quad a_2 = k_b + k'_b, \quad b_2 = k_b - k'_b \quad (\text{IV.8})$$

We will suppose that the retarder L_1 rotates around the axis Z with angular velocity ω_1 , so that the state of polarization of the light beam emerging from \mathcal{O} , generated by the first part of the device, varies continuously with time. Similarly, we will suppose that the retarder L_2 rotates on the axis Z with angular velocity ω_2 , so that the second part of the device analyzes dynamically the state of polarization emerging from \mathcal{O} . Thus, we can write

$$\beta_1 = \omega_1 t \quad (\text{IV.9.a})$$

$$\beta_2 = \omega_2 t + \alpha_2 \quad (\text{IV.9.b})$$

As seen in (IV.9) we suppose that, at the instant $t = 0$, the fast axis of L_1 is aligned with the reference axis X , and that the fast axis of L_2 presents an angle α_2 with the axis X .

As we have mentioned above, our aim is to obtain the elements m_{ij} from the Fourier analysis of the periodic intensity signal of the emerging light $u_0(t)$. To obtain a mathematical expression with the form of a Fourier series with a finite number of harmonic components, it is required to force the following relation between the angular velocities of the rotating retarders

$$\omega_2 = R\omega_1 \quad (\text{IV.10})$$

where R is a rational number

After making the operation indicated in (IV.6), and taking into account (IV.9) and (IV.10), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
u_0 = & h_0 + g_1 \sin 2\beta_1 + h_1 \cos 2\beta_1 + g_2 \sin 4\beta_1 + \\
& + h_2 \cos 4\beta_1 + g_3 \sin 2R\beta_1 + h_3 \cos 2R\beta_1 + \\
& + g_4 \sin(2R-2)\beta_1 + h_4 \cos(2R-2)\beta_1 + g_5 \sin(2R+2)\beta_1 + \\
& + h_5 \cos(2R+2)\beta_1 + g_6 \sin(2R-4)\beta_1 + h_6 \cos(2R-4)\beta_1 + \\
& + g_7 \sin(2R+4)\beta_1 + h_7 \cos(2R+4)\beta_1 + g_8 \sin 4R\beta_1 + \\
& + h_8 \cos 4R\beta_1 + g_9 \sin(4R-2)\beta_1 + h_9 \cos(4R-2)\beta_1 + \\
& + g_{10} \sin(4R+2)\beta_1 + h_{10} \cos(4R+2)\beta_1 + g_{11} \sin(4R-4)\beta_1 + \\
& + h_{11} \cos(4R-4)\beta_1 + g_{11} \sin(4R+4)\beta_1 + h_{12} \cos(4R+4)\beta_1
\end{aligned} \tag{IV.11}$$

where h_i, g_j are coefficients that depend on the elements m_{ij} and also depend on the parameters $k_1, k_2, \delta_1, \delta_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$.

The expression (IV.11) can be considered as a Fourier series expansion on the multiples of the frequency β_1 . We can obtain the Fourier coefficients h_i, g_j by means of the Fourier analysis of the recorded signal u_0 . These coefficients depend linearly on the elements, leading to a system of equations in which the unknowns are these elements m_{ij} .

Depending on the value assigned to R we can get up to twelve frequencies that are multiples of β_1 , plus the constant term h_0 . However, in order to simplify the calculations, it is interesting to obtain a value for R so that the Fourier series development is as short as possible, and generates enough number of Fourier coefficients to obtain the elements m_{ij} . The values $R = 1, 2$ lead to Fourier series expansions with not sufficient number of harmonics. The value $R = 3/2$ leads to the following Fourier series expansion [43]

$$16u_0 = A_0 + \sum_{l=1}^{10} (B_l \sin l\beta_1 + A_l \cos l\beta_1) \tag{IV.12}$$

By writing the coefficients A_i, B_j as functions of the sixteen unknowns m_{ij} , we obtain a system of nineteen equations, where only fifteen are linearly independent. If we have some additional (independent) information about the optical medium \mathcal{O} corresponding to \mathbf{M} , the corresponding relations should be considered in combination with the above-mentioned fifteen linearly independent equations. For example, if we know that \mathcal{O} is N-type, the following equation should be added [42] in order to obtain the system of sixteen independent equations that is necessary to obtain the sixteen unknowns m_{ij}

$$4m_{00}^2 = \sum_{i,j=0}^3 m_{ij}^2. \tag{IV.13}$$

If the value of the transmittance of intensity for non-polarized light T_N is previously known, then we can add the following equation to the system of equations

$$m_{00} = T_N \quad (IV.14)$$

For a total generality of the method for the determination of the matrix \mathbf{M} , it is more useful a value for R so that we get sixteen linearly independent equations. The values for R that satisfy this condition are

$$R = \frac{2n_1 + 1}{n_2} \quad (IV.15)$$

where n_1, n_2 are natural numbers, and $n_1 \geq 2$.

For the sake of simplicity in the experimental assembly, the angular velocities ω_1, ω_2 should be as similar as possible.

These requirements are optimally fulfilled for the value

$$R = 5/2 \quad (IV.16)$$

which, combined with (IV.7), (IV.3) and (IV.8) leads to

$$u_0 = A_0 + \sum_{l=1}^{14} (B_l \sin l\beta_1 + A_l \cos l\beta_1) \quad (IV.17)$$

where the Fourier coefficients are given by

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= a_1 a_2 m_{00} + a_2 t_1 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) + a_1 t_2 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) + \\ &+ t_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) + s_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})] \\ B_1 &= \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [s_{11} m_{01} - c_{11} m_{02} - s_7 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_7 (m_{21} - m_{12})] - \\ &- \frac{1}{2} r_2 \sin \delta_2 d_1 (c_{11} m_{31} + s_{11} m_{32}) \\ A_1 &= \frac{1}{2} b_2 d_1 [c_{11} m_{01} + s_{11} m_{02} + c_{11} (m_{11} + m_{22}) + s_7 (m_{21} - m_{12})] + \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} r_2 \sin \delta_2 d_1 (s_{11} m_{31} - c_{11} m_{32}) \end{aligned} \quad (IV.18)$$

$$B_2 = a_2 b_1 (s_1 m_{00} + m_{02}) + 2a_2 r_1 \sin \delta_2 c_1 m_{03} + \\ + b_1 t_2 [s_1 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) + c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22}] + \\ + 2r_1 \sin \delta_1 t_2 c_1 (c_2 m_{13} + s_2 m_{23})$$

$$A_2 = a_2 b_1 (c_1 m_{00} + m_{01}) - 2a_2 r_1 \sin \delta_1 s_1 m_{03} + \\ + b_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{10} + s_2 m_{20}) + c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}] - \\ - 2r_1 \sin \delta_1 t_2 s_1 (c_2 m_{13} + s_2 m_{23})$$

$$B_3 = \frac{1}{2} b_2 b_2 [s_{11} m_{00} + s_5 m_{01} - c_5 m_{02} - s_7 m_{10} + c_7 m_{20} - s_3 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_3 (m_{21} - m_{12})] - \\ - b_2 r_1 \sin \delta_1 (c_{11} m_{03} + c_7 m_{13} + s_7 m_{23}) - b_2 r_2 \sin \delta_2 (c_{11} m_{30} + c_5 m_{31} + s_5 m_{32}) - \\ - 2r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_3 s_{11} m_{33}$$

$$A_3 = \frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 [c_{11} m_{00} + c_5 m_{01} + s_5 m_{02} + c_7 m_{10} + s_7 m_{20} + c_3 (m_{11} + m_{22}) + s_3 (m_{21} - m_{12})] + \\ + b_2 r_1 \sin \delta_1 (s_{11} m_{03} - s_7 m_{13} + c_7 m_{23}) + b_1 r_2 \sin \delta_2 (s_{11} m_{30} + s_7 m_{31} - c_7 m_{32}) - \\ - 2r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2 c_{11} m_{33}$$

$$B_4 = a_2 d_1 (s_1 m_{01} + c_1 m_{02}) + d_1 t_2 [s_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) + c_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})]$$

$$A_4 = a_2 d_1 (c_1 m_{01} - s_1 m_{02}) + d_1 t_2 [c_1 (c_2 m_{11} + s_2 m_{21}) - s_1 (c_2 m_{12} + s_2 m_{22})]$$

$$B_5 = a_1 b_2 (s_5 m_{00} - s_3 m_{10} + c_3 m_{20}) + \\ + b_2 t_1 [s_5 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) - s_3 (c_1 m_{11} + s_1 m_{12}) + c_3 (c_1 m_{21} + s_1 m_{22})] - \\ - 2r_1 \sin \delta_2 c_5 [a_1 m_{30} + t_1 (c_1 m_{31} + s_1 m_{32})]$$

$$A_5 = a_1 b_2 (c_5 m_{00} + c_3 m_{10} + s_3 m_{20}) + \\ + b_2 t_1 [c_5 (c_1 m_{01} + s_1 m_{02}) + c_3 (c_1 m_{11} + s_1 m_{12}) + s_3 (c_1 m_{21} + s_1 m_{22})] + \\ + 2r_2 \sin \delta_2 s_5 [a_1 m_{30} + t_1 (c_1 m_{31} + s_1 m_{32})]$$

$$B_6 = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [s_{13} (m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_{13} (m_{21} - m_{12})]$$

$$A_6 = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 [c_{13} (m_{11} + m_{22}) - s_{13} (m_{21} - m_{12})]$$

$$B_7 = \frac{1}{2}b_2b_2 \left[s_{10}m_{00} + s_5m_{01} + c_5m_{02} + s_8m_{10} + c_8m_{20} - s_3(m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_3(m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] +$$

$$+ b_2r_1 \sin \delta_1 (c_{10}m_{03} + c_8m_{13} - s_8m_{23}) - b_1r_2 \sin \delta_2 (c_{10}m_{30} + c_5m_{31} - s_5m_{32}) +$$

$$+ 2r_1r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2 s_{10}m_{33}$$

$$A_7 = \frac{1}{2}b_2b_2 \left[c_{10}m_{00} + c_5m_{01} - s_5m_{02} + c_8m_{10} - s_8m_{20} + c_3(m_{11} - m_{22}) + s_3(m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] -$$

$$- b_2r_1 \sin \delta_1 (s_{10}m_{03} + s_8m_{13} + c_8m_{23}) + b_2r_2 \sin \delta_2 (s_{10}m_{30} + s_5m_{31} + c_5m_{32}) +$$

$$+ 2r_1r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2 c_{10}m_{33}$$

$$B_8 = \frac{1}{2}b_1d_2 \left[s_{13}m_{10} + c_{13}m_{20} + s_9(m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_9(m_{21} - m_{12}) \right] +$$

$$+ r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2 (s_{13}m_{23} - c_{13}m_{13})$$

$$A_8 = \frac{1}{2}b_2d_1 \left[s_{13}m_{10} - c_{13}m_{20} + c_9(m_{11} + m_{22}) - s_9(m_{21} - m_{12}) \right] +$$

$$+ r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2 (c_{13}m_{23} + s_{13}m_{13})$$

$$B_9 = \frac{1}{2}b_2d_1 \left[s_{10}m_{01} + c_{10}m_{02} + s_8(m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_8(m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] +$$

$$+ r_2 \sin \delta_2 d_1 (s_{10}m_{32} - c_{10}m_{31})$$

$$A_9 = \frac{1}{2}b_2d_1 \left[c_{10}m_{01} - s_{10}m_{02} + c_8(m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_8(m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] +$$

$$+ r_2 \sin \delta_2 d_1 (c_{10}m_{32} + s_{10}m_{31})$$

$$B_{10} = a_1d_2 (s_9m_{10} + c_9m_{20}) + t_1d_2 \left[c_1 (s_9m_{11} + c_9m_{21}) + s_1 (s_9m_{12} + c_9m_{22}) \right]$$

$$A_{10} = a_1d_2 (c_9m_{10} - s_9m_{20}) + t_1d_2 \left[c_1 (c_9m_{11} - s_9m_{21}) + s_1 (c_9m_{12} - s_9m_{22}) \right]$$

$$B_{11} = A_{11} = 0$$

$$B_{12} = \frac{1}{2}b_1d_2 \left[s_{12}m_{10} + c_{12}m_{20} + s_9(m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_9(m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] +$$

$$+ r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2 (c_{12}m_{13} - s_{12}m_{23})$$

$$A_{12} = \frac{1}{2} b_1 d_2 \left[c_{12} m_{10} - s_{12} m_{20} + c_9 (m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_9 (m_{12} + m_{21}) \right] - r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2 (s_{12} m_{13} + c_{12} m_{23})$$

$$B_{13} = A_{13} = 0$$

$$B_{14} = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 \left[s_{12} (m_{11} - m_{22}) + c_{12} (m_{12} + m_{21}) \right]$$

$$A_{14} = \frac{1}{2} d_1 d_2 \left[c_{12} (m_{11} - m_{22}) - s_{12} (m_{12} + m_{21}) \right]$$

In (IV.18) and hereafter we use the notation

$$t_1 = \frac{1}{2} a_1 + r_1 \cos \delta_1, \quad t_2 = \frac{1}{2} a_2 + r_2 \cos \delta_2$$

$$d_1 = \frac{1}{2} a_1 - r_1 \cos \delta_1, \quad d_2 = \frac{1}{2} a_2 - r_2 \cos \delta_2$$

$$\tau_1 = \theta_1, \quad \tau_2 = \theta_2, \quad \tau_3 = \alpha_2, \quad \tau_4 = \theta_2 - \theta_1, \quad \tau_5 = \theta_2 - \alpha_2,$$

$$\tau_6 = \theta_1 + \theta_2, \quad \tau_7 = \theta_1 + \alpha_2, \quad \tau_8 = \theta_1 - \alpha_2, \quad \tau_9 = \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2,$$

$$\tau_{10} = \theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2, \quad \tau_{11} = \theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2, \quad \tau_{12} = \theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2,$$

$$\tau_{13} = \theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2,$$

$$s_i = \sin 2\tau_i, \quad c_i = \cos 2\tau_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 13$$

(IV.19)

Now, by considering the elements m_{ij} as the unknowns and the remainder parameters as the known data, the inversion of the system of equations (IV.18), leads to

$$m_{11} = \frac{s_{13} B_6 + c_{13} A_6 + s_{12} B_{14} + c_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2}$$

$$m_{22} = \frac{s_{13} B_6 + c_{13} A_6 - s_{12} B_{14} - c_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2}$$

$$m_{12} = \frac{-c_{13} B_6 + s_{13} A_6 + c_{12} B_{14} - s_{12} A_{14}}{d_1 d_2}$$

(IV.20)

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{11} &= \frac{s_{13}B_6 + c_{13}A_6 + s_{12}B_{14} + c_{12}A_{14}}{d_1d_2} \\
m_{22} &= \frac{s_{13}B_6 + c_{13}A_6 - s_{12}B_{14} - c_{12}A_{14}}{d_1d_2} \\
m_{12} &= \frac{-c_{13}B_6 + s_{13}A_6 + c_{12}B_{14} - s_{12}A_{14}}{d_1d_2} \\
m_{21} &= \frac{c_{13}B_6 - s_{13}A_6 + c_{12}B_{14} - s_{12}A_{14}}{d_1d_2} \\
m_{01} &= \frac{s_1B_4 + c_1A_4 - d_1t_2(c_2m_{11} + s_2m_{21})}{a_2d_1} \\
m_{02} &= \frac{c_1B_4 - s_1A_4 - d_1t_2(c_2m_{12} + s_2m_{22})}{a_2d_1} \\
m_{10} &= \frac{s_9B_{10} + c_9A_{10} - t_1d_2(c_1m_{11} + s_1m_{12})}{a_1d_2} \\
m_{20} &= \frac{c_9B_{10} - s_9A_{10} - t_1d_2(c_1m_{21} + s_1m_{22})}{a_1d_2} \\
m_{13} &= \frac{2(c_{12}B_{12} - s_{12}A_{12}) - b_1d_2[m_{20} + s_1(m_{22} - m_{11}) + c_1(m_{12} + m_{21})]}{2r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2} \\
m_{23} &= \frac{-2(s_{12}B_{12} + c_{12}A_{12}) + b_1d_2[m_{10} + c_1(m_{11} - m_{22}) + s_1(m_{12} + m_{21})]}{2r_1 \sin \delta_1 d_2} \\
m_{31} &= \frac{2(s_{11}A_1 - c_{11}B_1) - b_2d_1[m_{02} + s_2(m_{11} + m_{22}) + c_2(m_{12} - m_{21})]}{2r_2 \sin \delta_2 d_1} \\
m_{00} &= \frac{A_0 - (\frac{1}{2}a_1a_2 + a_2r_1 \cos \delta_1 + a_1r_2 \cos \delta_2)(c_1m_{01} + s_1m_{02} + c_2m_{10} + s_2m_{20})}{a_1a_2} \\
&\quad - \frac{t_1t_2[c_1(c_2m_{11} + s_2m_{21}) + s_1(c_2m_{12} + s_2m_{22})]}{a_1a_2} \\
m_{03} &= \frac{c_1B_2 - s_1A_2 - a_2b_1(c_1m_{02} - s_1m_{01}) + b_1d_2[s_1(c_2m_{11} + s_2m_{21}) - c_1(c_2m_{12} + s_2m_{22})]}{2a_2r_1 \sin \delta_1} \\
&\quad - \frac{t_2(c_2m_{13} + s_2m_{23})}{a_2}
\end{aligned}$$

IV.2. Calibration

The polarimetric characteristics of the measurement device (absolute Mueller polarimeter) are defined by the parameters $\delta_1, \delta_2, k_1, k_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2, R$. In the last section the possible values for R has been discussed, with a definitive choice for $R = 5/2$.

The retarders L_1 and L_2 can be chosen so that the nominal value of the retardation is equal to a previously established value, but it should be noted that this nominal value is always subject to a certain margin of error, partly caused by the effects of the multiple internal reflections [37, 44, 45]. Moreover, k_1 and k_2 always differ from the ideal value, i.e. $k_1 = k_2 = 1$ [37].

The angular parameters $\theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$ are easily controllable. However, the imposing of previously established values can induce errors in the measurements.

These considerations make advisable a calibration on the device to obtain the effective values of the characteristics parameters of the system.

In this section we expose the calibration procedure, with the advantage of not being necessary an optical medium as test, which would induce additional errors on the determination of the parameters.

If the system does not have any optical medium in the place of the sample, the associated Mueller matrix is the Identity matrix, and then the system of equations (IV.18) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_0 &= a_1 a_2 + t_1 t_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1) \\
 B_1 &= -b_2 d_1 \sin 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) \\
 A_1 &= b_2 d_1 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) \\
 B_2 &= b_1 (a_2 s_1 + t_2 s_2) \\
 A_2 &= b_1 (a_2 c_1 + t_2 c_2) \\
 B_3 &= \frac{1}{2} (b_1 b_2 - 4r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2) \sin 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2) - b_1 b_2 s_3 \\
 A_3 &= \frac{1}{2} (b_1 b_2 - 4r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2) \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - \alpha_2) - b_1 b_2 s_3 \\
 B_4 &= d_1 t_2 \sin 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2)
 \end{aligned} \tag{IV.21}$$

$$A_4 = d_1 t_2 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2)$$

$$B_5 = b_2 [a_1 \sin 2(\theta_2 - \alpha_2) + t_1 \sin 2(\theta_1 - \alpha_2)]$$

$$A_5 = b_2 [a_1 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \alpha_2) + t_1 \cos 2(\theta_1 - \alpha_2)]$$

$$B_6 = d_1 d_2 \sin 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$A_6 = d_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$B_7 = \left(\frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 + 2r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2 \right) \sin 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2)$$

$$A_7 = \left(\frac{1}{2} b_1 b_2 + 2r_1 r_2 \sin \delta_1 \sin \delta_2 \right) \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2)$$

$$B_8 = b_1 d_2 \sin 2(\theta_2 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$A_8 = b_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$B_{10} = t_1 d_2 \sin 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$A_{10} = t_1 d_2 \cos 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2)$$

$$B_9 = A_9 = B_{12} = A_{12} = B_{14} = A_{14} = 0$$

From these expressions it is easy to prove that

$$\tan 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2) = \frac{B_4}{A_4} \quad (\text{IV.22.a})$$

$$\tan 2(\theta_2 - \theta_1 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_6}{A_6} \quad (\text{IV.22.b})$$

$$\tan 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_{10}}{A_{10}} \quad (\text{IV.22.c})$$

$$\tan 2(\theta_1 + \theta_2 - \alpha_2) = \frac{B_7}{A_7} \quad (\text{IV.22.d})$$

$$\tan 2(\theta_1 + \alpha_2) = -\frac{B_1}{A_1} \quad (\text{IV.22.e})$$

$$\tan 2(\theta_1 - 2\alpha_2) = \frac{B_8}{A_8} \quad (\text{IV.22.f})$$

It is worth mentioning that the values of k_1, k_2 are close to unity in the retarders, and thus, the parameters b_1, b_2 are close to zero. This makes advisable that, when possible, the unknown parameters are extracted from coefficients of Fourier that do not include b_1 or b_2 as global factor. In this sense, to obtain θ_1, θ_2 and α_2 three of the four first relations (IV.22) must be used.

Now, we can consider the angles $\theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$ as data, and obtain from them all the angular parameters defined in (IV.19). To simplify later expressions we define

$$D_1 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{B_{10}s_{13}}{B_6s_{12}} - 1 \right)}{\left(\frac{B_{10}s_{13}}{B_6s_{12}} + 1 \right)}, \quad D_2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{B_4s_{13}}{B_6s_6} - 1 \right)}{\left(\frac{B_4s_{13}}{B_6s_6} + 1 \right)} \quad (\text{IV.23})$$

From (IV.21) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a_1a_2 &= \frac{s_6B_4 + c_6A_4}{\left(\frac{1}{2} - D_1 \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - D_2 \right)} = \frac{s_{13}B_6 + c_{13}A_6}{\left(\frac{1}{2} - D_1 \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - D_2 \right)} = \frac{s_{12}B_{10} + c_{12}A_{10}}{\left(\frac{1}{2} - D_1 \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - D_2 \right)} = \\ &= \frac{A_0}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + D_1 \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} + D_2 \right) c_4} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{IV.24.a})$$

$$b_1b_2 = \frac{s_{11}A_3 - c_{11}B_3}{s_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.b})$$

$$a_1b_2 = \frac{c_8B_5 - s_8A_5}{s_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.c})$$

$$a_2b_1 = \frac{s_2A_2 - c_2B_2}{s_4} \quad (\text{IV.24.d})$$

We also define the following parameters

$$x_1 \equiv (a_1a_2 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 + b_1b_2) = 4k_a k_b \quad (\text{IV.25.a})$$

$$x_2 \equiv (a_1a_2 - a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 + b_1b_2) = 4k'_a k'_b \quad (\text{IV.25.b})$$

$$x_3 \equiv (a_1a_2 - a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 - b_1b_2) = 4k_a k'_b \quad (\text{IV.25.c})$$

$$x_4 \equiv (a_1a_2 + a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 - b_1b_2) = 4k'_a k_b \quad (\text{IV.25.d})$$

The parameters of the instrument $k_1, k_2, \delta_1, \delta_2$ can be calculated as follows

$$k_1 = \frac{x_4}{x_1} = \frac{x_2}{x_3} \quad (\text{IV.26.a})$$

$$k_2 = \frac{x_2}{x_4} = \frac{x_3}{x_1} \quad (\text{IV.26.b})$$

$$\cos \delta_1 = D_1 \frac{1+k_1}{k_1^{1/2}} \quad (\text{IV.27.a})$$

$$\cos \delta_2 = D_2 \frac{1+k_2}{k_2^{1/2}} \quad (\text{IV.27.b})$$

For δ_1, δ_2 we can fix the following range of variation

$$0 \leq \delta_i \leq \pi, \quad i=1,2 \quad (\text{IV.28})$$

this is convenient because the values $\pi \leq \delta_i < 2\pi, \quad i=1,2$ are equivalent to the values indicated in (IV.28) but with a rotation of $\pi/2$ in the optical axes of the retarder. So, δ_1, δ_2 are determined by (IV.27), not being necessary to know the signs of $\sin \delta_1, \sin \delta_2$, because these are positive.

To avoid indeterminations in the systems (IV.20) and (IV.24), some conditions in the characteristic parameters of the device must be fulfilled. These conditions are

$$\theta_1 \neq \theta_2 \quad (\text{IV.29})$$

$$\delta_i \neq 0, \pi \quad i=1,2 \quad (\text{IV.30})$$

The ranges of the acceptable values for the parameters can be summarized in

$$0 < \delta_1, \delta_2 < \pi \quad (\text{IV.31})$$

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2 \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \quad (\text{IV.32})$$

together with the condition (IV.29)

We get the self-calibration of the device by means of a Fourier analysis of the signal of the light intensity corresponding to the case where there is not any optical medium as sample in the polarimeter. The Fourier coefficients of this analysis are given in (IV.21), and from them the values of the parameters $\delta_1, \delta_2, k_1, k_2, \theta_1, \theta_2, \alpha_2$ can be calculated by means of the relations (IV.22.a.d), (IV.26) and (IV.27). Once these parameters are measured, we can make the measurements of the Mueller matrices,

whose elements are obtained with (IV.20), where the Fourier coefficients A_i , B_j correspond to the Fourier analysis of the signal recorded in each measurement.

Sometimes, a tuning of the values δ_1 and δ_2 of the retarders can be convenient. This can be made by means of the use of two Soleil compensators as the retarders L_1 and L_2 . Other alternative option, which presents some advantages, is the using of respective sets, each one composed of three commercial retardation sheets, so that the two extreme sheets are equal and with their fast axes aligned. Each of these sets can be called as $L(0, \delta) L(\alpha, \delta') L(0, \delta)$, and according to the theorem T14 is equivalent to a lineal retarder $L(\theta, \Delta)$ so that [39]

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{\sin 2\alpha}{\sin \delta \cot(\delta'/2) + \cos \delta \cos 2\alpha} \quad (IV.33)$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos \delta \cos(\delta'/2) - \sin \delta \sin(\delta'/2) \cos 2\alpha \quad (IV.34)$$

According to these expressions we see that by means of the tuning of the orientation α of the intermediate retarder we get different equivalent linear retarders with values for θ, Δ in the following ranges

$$|\theta| \leq \frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{\sin(\delta'/2)}{\left[\sin^2 \delta - \sin^2(\delta'/2) \right]} \quad (IV.35)$$

$$|2\delta - \delta'| \leq \Delta \leq 2\delta + \delta' \quad (IV.36)$$

Another possibility is the using of two equal sets of two linear retardation sheets. One of these sets are called as $L(\alpha, \delta) L(0, \delta')$, and according to the theorem T4 is equivalent to a system $L(\theta, \Delta) R(\gamma)$ composed of a linear retarder and a rotator so that [39]

$$\tan \gamma = \frac{\sin 2\alpha}{\cos 2\alpha - \cot(\delta/2) \cot(\delta'/2)} \quad (IV.37)$$

$$\tan(2\theta - \gamma) = \frac{\sin 2\alpha}{\cos 2\alpha + \cot(\delta/2) \cot(\delta'/2)} \quad (IV.38)$$

$$\cos^2(\Delta/2) = \cos^2\left(\frac{\delta + \delta'}{2}\right) \cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2\left(\frac{\delta - \delta'}{2}\right) \sin^2 \alpha \quad (IV.39)$$

If we use the system $L(\alpha, \delta) L(0, \delta')$ as the retarder L_1 , and the system $L(0, \delta') L(\alpha, \delta)$ as L_2 , the effect of the equivalent rotator of a system is compensated by the other one, because both of the rotators introduce an equal rotation but in the opposite

sense. The parameter γ of the equivalent rotator of each system does not depend on its absolute orientation, so the effect of the rotators is compensated even when the two systems of two retarders are rotating.

IV.3 Apparatus signal

In the last section we have seen that the characteristic parameters of the instrument are obtained from a record without any optical medium in the assembly. Hereafter, we will call apparatus signal to any signal obtained on a record of this kind. The parameters obtained from this signal can be used to generate, with the help of a computer, the graphic of an ideal signal corresponding to these parameters, so that it is obtained from (IV.21). In order to get a visual qualitative idea of the accuracy of the measurement, the graphic of the ideal apparatus signal obtained can be compared with the one obtained in the experimental record. The more similar the two signals, the more accurate will be the device*. Examples of ideal signal corresponding to several values of the characteristic parameters of the device are shown in Fig. IV.2-IV.5.

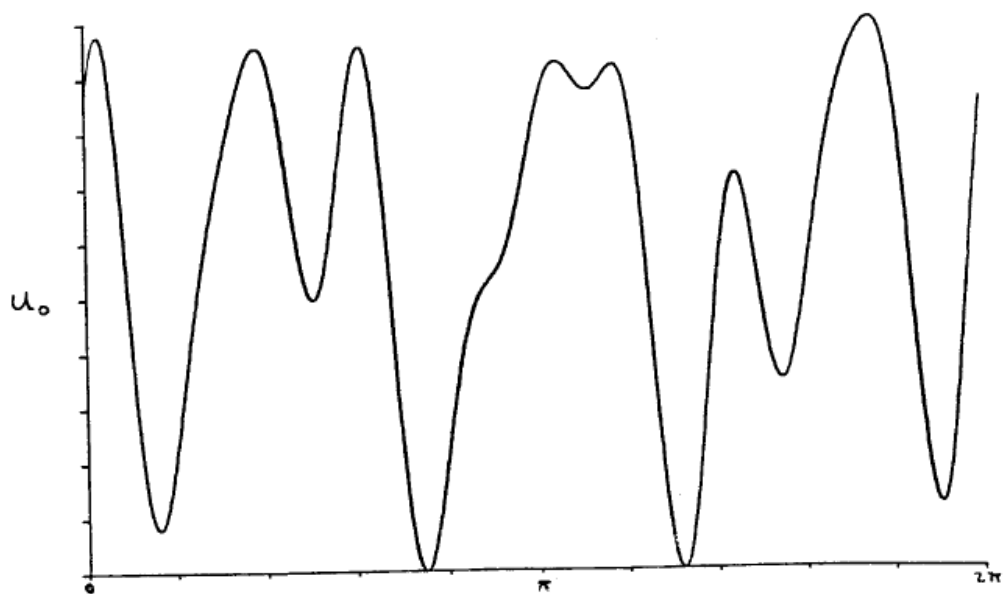


Fig. IV.2. Apparatus signal corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the Mueller polarimeter: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 22.5^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$.

**In chapter VI the principal effects that can induce divergences between the ideal apparatus signal and the experimental one, are analyzed and discussed.*

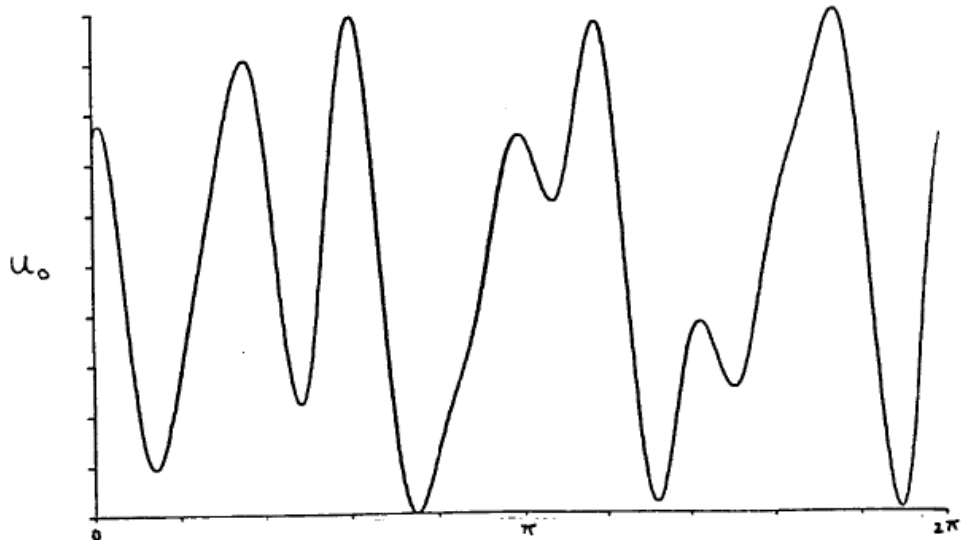


Fig. IV.3 Apparatus signal corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the Mueller polarimeter: $\alpha_2 = 22.5^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 45^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 0.980$.

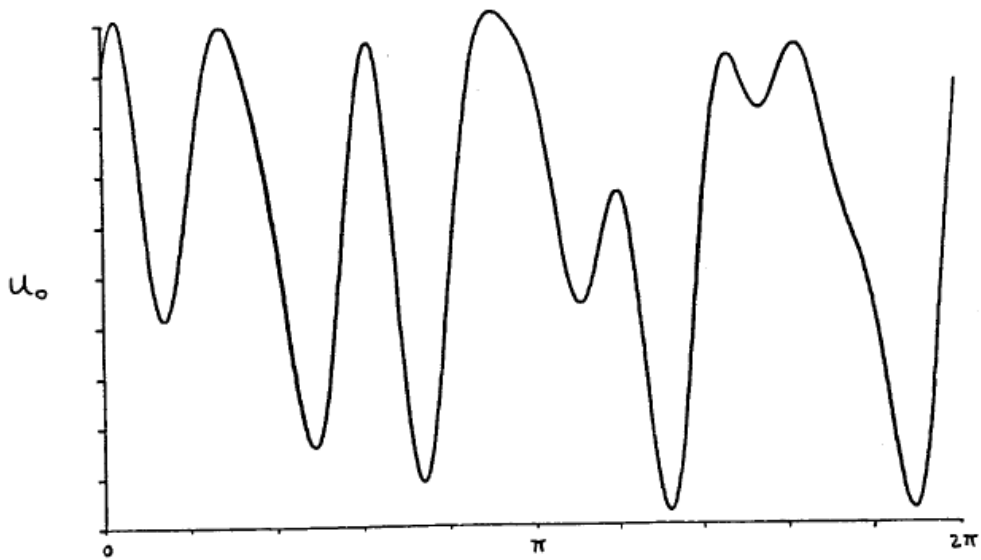


Fig. IV.4 Apparatus signal corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the Mueller polarimeter: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 22.5^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$.

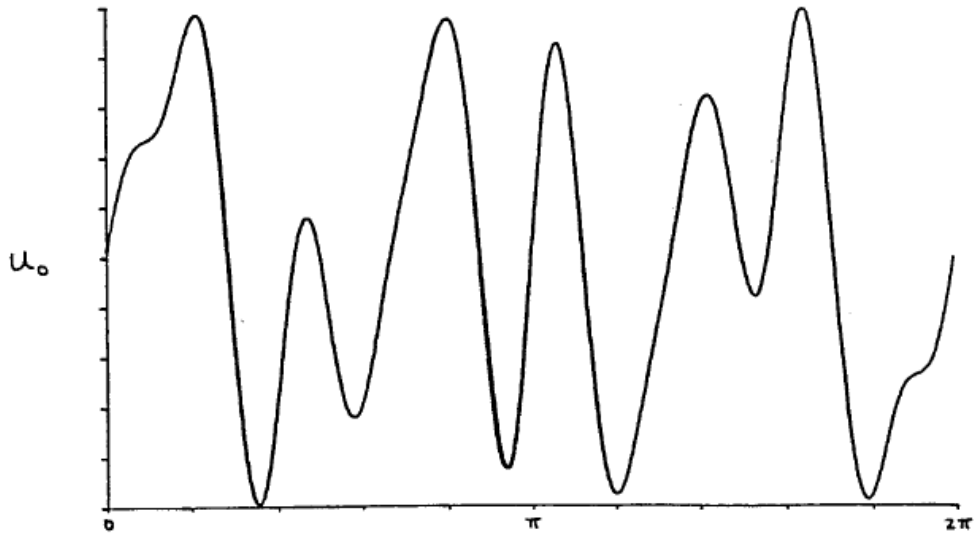


Fig. IV.5 Apparatus signal corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the Mueller polarimeter: $\alpha_2 = 45^\circ$, $\theta_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 90^\circ$, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $g_1 = g_2 = 1$.

IV.4. Computerized Fourier analysis of the recorded signal.

In order to obtain the Fourier coefficients corresponding to a tabulated function $u_0(x)$ from a measurement record, we have used a similar algorithm to the proposed by A. Ralston and H. Wilf [46]. The required data by our subroutine for Fourier analysis are the following

1- Entire value for N , so that there is an array of $2N + 1$ distributed homogeneously inside the angular range as

$$\frac{2k\pi}{2N+1}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 2N \quad (\text{IV.40})$$

2- Values of the function $u(x)$ for $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$, arranged in intervals of $2\pi/(2N+1)$.

3- Order M of the highest frequency harmonic in the Fourier series so that $0 \leq M \leq N$.

In our case, $M = 14$ and the minimum number of required data points is $2M + 1 = 29$.

Chapter V

**Dynamic method for the analysis of
polarized light**

The study presented in the precedent chapter can be particularized to obtain the Stokes vector associated with a light beam. We will see that this can be obtained by means of a calibration of the device for the wavelength of the beam and a record of the intensity signal of the light beam after passing through the analyzing branch of the instrument (composed of L_2 and P_2).

V.I. Analysis device

In section IV.I we have seen that the device for the determination of Mueller matrices, schematized in Fig. IV.I, can be considered as divided into two parts. One of them, which contains L_2 and P_2 , is used for the analysis of the state of polarization of the light that passes through it. The scheme of the Fig. V.I. shows the device used for the obtainment of the Stokes parameters corresponding to the light beam under study.

The Mueller matrix corresponding to the system formed by L_2 and P_2 is the matrix \mathbf{B} given in (IV.7). Given an incoming light beam whose Stokes vector \mathbf{S} is to be measured, the Stokes vector \mathbf{U} corresponding to the light beam that emerges from the device is

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{S} \quad (\text{V.1})$$

and the intensity of the emerging light is given by

$$u_0 = b_{00}s_0 + b_{01}s_1 + b_{02}s_2 + b_{03}s_3 \quad (\text{V.2})$$

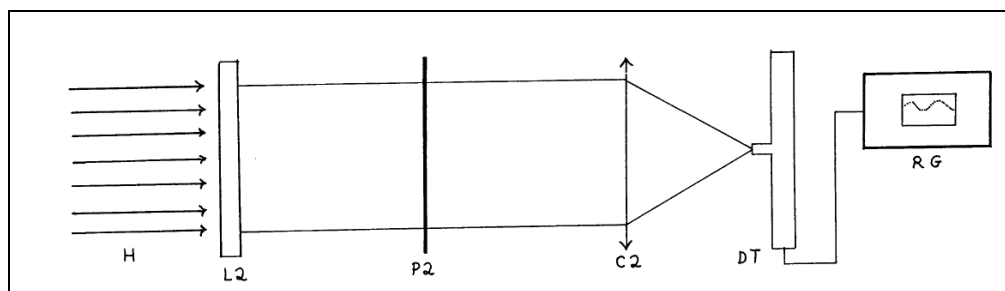


Fig.V.I: Scheme of the dynamic device for the analysis of polarized light.

H: collimated beam of monochromatic light

L2: rotatory retarder

P2: linear polarizer

C2: collector lens

DT: detector

RG: recorder

From (IV.7) and (V.2), and by using some trigonometric relations, we obtain [20]

$$u_0 = A_0 + B_1 \sin \omega + A_1 \cos \omega + B_2 \sin 2\omega + A_2 \cos 2\omega \quad (\text{V.3})$$

where

$$\omega = 2\omega_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= (1+k_2)s_0 + \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] (s_1 \cos 2\theta_2 + s_2 \sin 2\theta_2) \\ B_1 &= (1-k_2) \left[s_0 \sin 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) + s_1 \sin 2\alpha_2 + s_2 \cos 2\alpha_2 \right] - \\ &\quad - 2r_2 \sin \delta_2 s_3 \cos 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) \\ A_1 &= (1-k_2) \left[s_0 \cos 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) + s_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - s_2 \sin 2\alpha_2 \right] + \\ &\quad + 2r_2 \sin \delta_2 s_3 \cos 2(\theta_2 + \alpha_2) \\ B_2 &= \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] + \left[s_1 \sin 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) + s_2 \cos 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) \right] \\ A_2 &= \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] + \left[s_1 \cos 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) - s_2 \sin 2(\theta_2 + 2\alpha_2) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{V.4})$$

The two angular parameters θ_2 , α_2 have not been specified in the previous expressions. In order to concrete, we will consider a Cartesian system of reference axes XYZ, so that the light propagates on the Z axis direction, and the polarization axis of the linear polarizer P₂ coincides with the X axis. With this choice, $\theta_2 = 0$, and α_2 being the angle formed by the fast axis of L₂ and the axis X at the initial instant, the expressions (V.4) are transformed into

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= (1+k_2)s_0 + \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] s_1 \\ B_1 &= (1-k_2) \left[s_0 \sin 2\alpha_2 + s_1 \sin 2\alpha_2 + s_2 \cos 2\alpha_2 \right] - 2r_2 \sin \delta_2 s_3 \cos 2\alpha_2 \\ A_1 &= (1-k_2) \left[s_0 \cos 2\alpha_2 + s_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - s_2 \sin 2\alpha_2 \right] + 2r_2 \sin \delta_2 s_3 \sin 2\alpha_2 \\ B_2 &= \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] + \left[s_1 \sin 4\alpha_2 + s_2 \cos 4\alpha_2 \right] \\ A_2 &= \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] + \left[s_1 \cos 4\alpha_2 + s_2 \sin 4\alpha_2 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{V.5})$$

By means of the Fourier analysis of the intensity signal U_0 , the Fourier coefficients of the series (V.3) can be obtained. If we know the parameters δ_2 , k_2 , α_2 , which are characteristic of the analysis device, it is easy to prove from (V.5) that the elements of the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} corresponding to the light beam under study are

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_1 &= \frac{B_2 \sin 4\alpha_2 + A_2 \cos 4\alpha_2}{\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2} \\
 s_2 &= \frac{B_2 \cos 4\alpha_2 - A_2 \sin 4\alpha_2}{\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2} \\
 s_3 &= \frac{A_1 \sin 2\alpha_2 - B_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 - (1-k_2)s_2}{2r_2 \sin \delta_2} \\
 s_0 &= \frac{A_0 - \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] s_1}{1+k_2}
 \end{aligned} \tag{V.6}$$

V.2. Calibration

A procedure to obtain the parameters δ_2 , k_2 , α_2 , is the obtainment of a record when a beam of X - linear polarized light falls on the device. In this case

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the Fourier coefficients corresponding to the Fourier analysis of the intensity signal U_0 are

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_0 &= \frac{A'_0}{f} = \frac{3}{2}(1+k_2) + r_2 \cos \delta_2 \\
 B_1 &= \frac{B'_1}{f} = 2(1-k_2) \sin 2\alpha_2, \quad A_1 = \frac{A'_1}{f} = 2(1-k_2) \cos 2\alpha_2 \\
 B_2 &= \frac{B'_2}{f} = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \sin 4\alpha_2, \quad A_2 = \frac{A'_2}{f} = \left[\frac{1}{2}(1+k_2) - r_2 \cos \delta_2 \right] \cos 4\alpha_2
 \end{aligned} \tag{V.7}$$

where the coefficients A'_i, B'_i are affected by a global scale factor f introduced by the instrument response.

The parameters Z_1, Z_2, h , defined as

$$\begin{aligned} Z_1 &\equiv B'_2 \sin 4\alpha_2 + A'_2 \cos 4\alpha_2 + A'_0 = 2f(1+k_2) \\ Z_2 &\equiv B'_1 \sin 2\alpha_2 + A'_1 \cos 2\alpha_2 = 2f(1-k_2) \\ h &= Z_2/Z_1 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{V.8})$$

let us to obtain $\delta_2, k_2, \alpha_2, f$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \tan 4\alpha_2 &= B'_2/A'_2 \\ k_2 &= (1-h)/(1+h) \\ f &= \frac{Z_1}{2(1+k_2)} \\ \cos \delta_2 &= \frac{\frac{A'_0}{f} - \frac{3}{2}(1+k_2)}{r_2} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{V.9})$$

To avoid indeterminations in the expressions (V.6) we have to impose the condition $\delta_2 \neq 0, \pi$

As we have just seen, the calibration of the analysis device is obtained by the realization of a record with a beam of X - linear polarized light falling on the device. By means of the computerized Fourier analysis of the recorded signal, the Fourier coefficients are obtained, and from them we calculate the parameters of the device according to (V.9).

The Fourier analysis of the signal is made in a similar way to that shown in section IV.5. The only difference is the existence of two harmonic terms, so that $M = 2$. Thus, the minimum number of data-points required by the computer program of Fourier analysis is 5.

V.3. Sensitivity of the apparatus signal with respect to the calibration parameters

In order to appreciate the influence of the several calibration parameters in the apparatus signal we have studied it systematically by varying each of the calibration parameters, and fixing the remainder.

Figures V.2, V.3 and V.4 show the recorded signal obtained by the variations of the parameters α_2 , δ_2 and k_2 , respectively (dotted line), in relation with the apparatus signal corresponding to the values $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$ and $k_2 = 1$ (continuous line). From them we deduce that a variation of the value α_2 implies a global translation of the signal (Fig. V.2 shows a variation of $+3^\circ$ in α_2); the decrease of the value δ_2 is followed by an increase of the minimums (Fig. V.3), but the increase of the value δ_2 produces a grater elongation of the signal. Finally, the variation of the parameter k_2 generates a significant difference among the values for every two consecutive maximums (Fig. V.4).

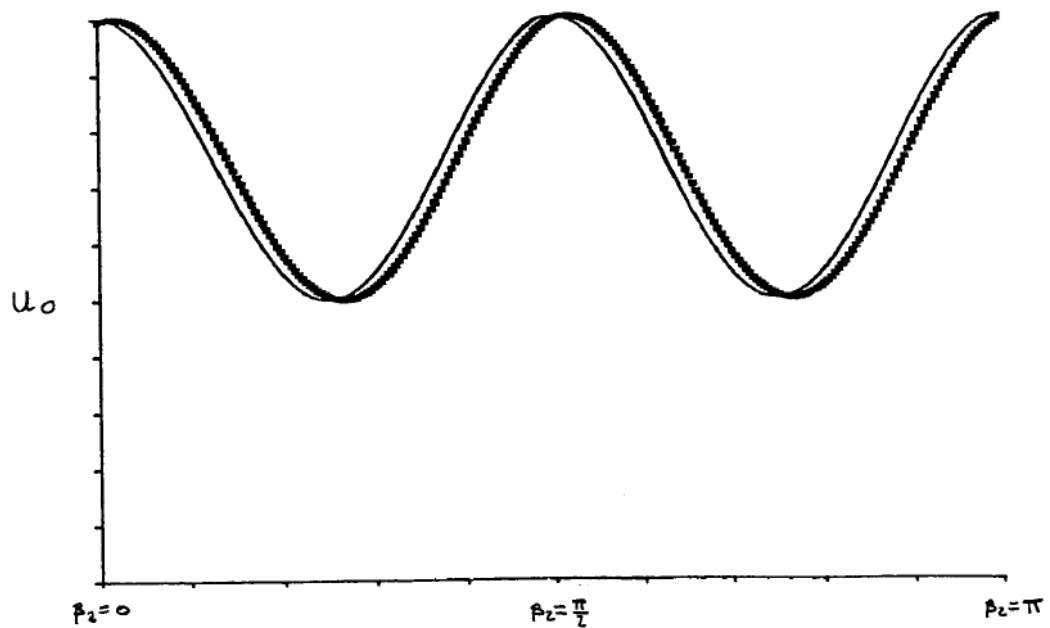


Fig. V.2: Apparatus signals corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the device for the analysis of polarized light

- a) Continuous line: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $k_2 = 1$
- b) Dotted line: $\alpha_2 = 3^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $k_2 = 1$

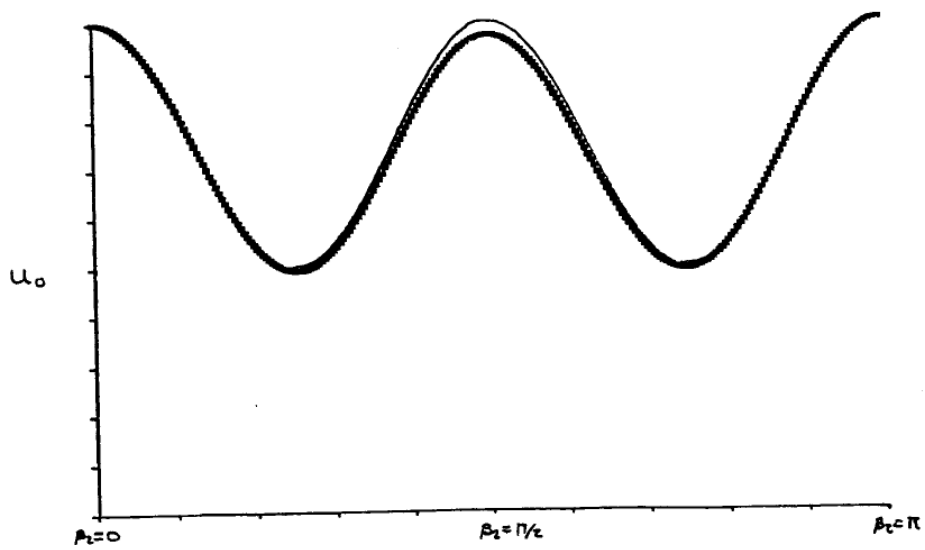


Fig. V.3: Apparatus signals corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the device for the analysis of polarized light

- a) Continuous line: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $k_2 = 1$
- b) Dotted line: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 87^\circ$, $k_2 = 1$

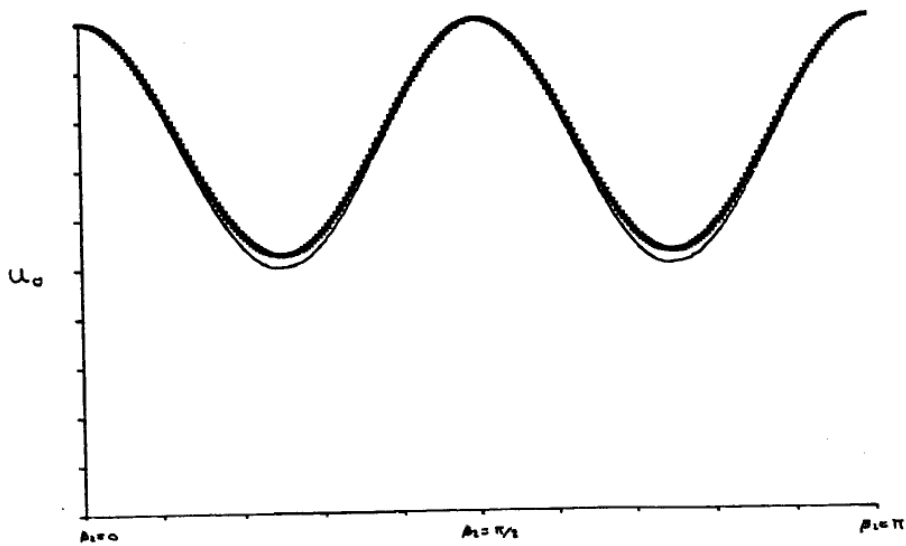


Fig. V.4: Apparatus signals corresponding to the following values of the parameters of the device for the analysis of polarized light

- a) Continuous line: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $k_2 = 1$
- b) Dotted line: $\alpha_2 = 0^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 90^\circ$, $k_2 = 0.97$

Chapter VI

Experimental device

The dynamic methods for the determination of Mueller matrices and Stokes parameters described in chapters IV and V require an adequate experimental device for a practical use. We have developed and performed an experimental assembly that let us the determination of the Mueller matrices associated with optical media operating by transmission. By the suppression of one of the rotatory retarders, the same assembly is also valid for the determination of the Stokes parameters of the studied light beam.

VI.1. General experimental assembly

Fig. VI.1 shows a general scheme of the experimental assembly used as Mueller polarimeter*.

Now, we make a numeration and description of the components of the device.

- (a) He-Ne Laser
- (b) Retarder L_1
- (c) Mechanism producing the rotation of the retarders
- (d) Studied optical medium \mathcal{O} , whose Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} is to be measured
- (e) Retarder L_2
- (f) Total linear polarizer P_2
- (g) Diaphragm F_1
- (h) Diaphragm F_2
- (i) Neutral filter N
- (j) Diffuser DF
- (k) Interferential filter FI
- (l) Electronic device DE , which allows us to determine the origin and period of the recorded signal
- (m) Detector DT
- (n) Recorder
- (o) Computer

* This experimental set-up is designed to be applied to optical media operating by transmission, but it can be easily adapted to the study of reflecting and scattering media.

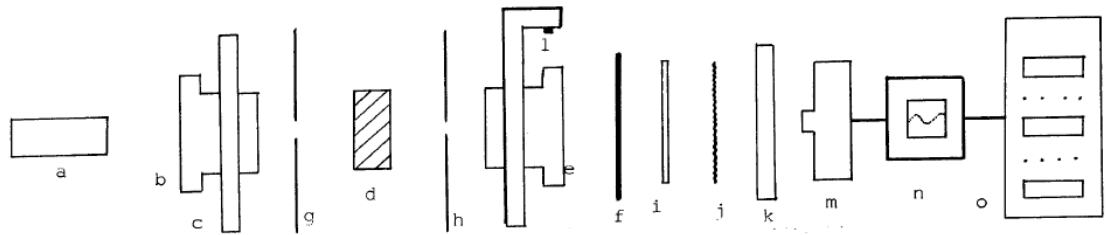


Fig. VI.1: Scheme of the experimental assembly used for the determination of Mueller matrices and the analysis of polarized light.

- a) He-Ne Laser
- b) Linear retarder
- c) Mechanism producing the rotation of the retarders
- d) Studied optical medium
- e) Linear retarder
- f) Total linear polarizer
- g) Diaphragm
- h) Diaphragm
- i) Neutral filter
- j) Diffuser
- k) Interferential filter
- l) Electronic device for the determination of the origin and period
- m) Detector
- n) Recorder
- o) Electronic computer

As source of light we have used a Spectra-Physics He-Ne laser, model 120 A ($\lambda = 632.8 \text{ nm}$).

The using of a laser light beam without expansion as test beam allows us the realization of a local exploration of the sample placed in the device.

We do not need to use any linear polarizer P_1 because the light from the laser is linearly polarized. The linear polarizer P_2 is a Polaroid HN-22 sheet, whose nominal values for the principal coefficients of the transmission in intensity for $\lambda = 650 \text{ nm}$ are

$$k = 0.48$$

$$k' = 2 \cdot 10^{-6}$$

and consequently

$$k_2 = \frac{k'}{k} \approx 4 \cdot 10^{-6} .$$

This justifies the theoretical assumption of P_2 as a total linear polarizer. Moreover, as the orientation of P_2 remains fixed on each measurement, there are not systematical errors originated by the different response of the detector for different states of polarization of the light falling on it. This effect has been proved in laboratory with several detectors.

We have used Polaroid commercial sheets as the retarders L_1 , L_2 . These sheets have a retardation nominal value of $140 \pm 20 \mu\text{m}$, for a wavelength of $\lambda = 560 \text{ nm}$.

The functionality of the diaphragms F_1 , F_2 is to avoid the production of multiple reflections among the several components passed through by the light beam. These reflections would produce parasitic light beams falling on the detector.

The neutral filter N and the diffuser DF are used to decrease the intensity of light falling on the detector, in the case of being a photomultiplier.

The functionality of the interferential filter is to avoid the falling on the detector of ambient light with a wavelength different from the laser one.

A scheme of the mechanism that produces the rotation of the retarders L_1 and L_2 is shown in Fig. VI.2. This mechanism consists of a connection between two exterior parallel gears, which are moved by a non-synchronic motor (MA) placed against the front face of the aluminum holder used as support of the device. The motor, with an approximate power of 200 W, has a velocity of 3.500 r.p.m. This motor transmits the movement to the steel axis (EA) by means of a parallel gear (EP). This axis rotates around little bearings, and two motor pinions, ($PM1$) and ($PM2$), rotates with it. The resistant wheels of the gear are the cogged wheels ($CD1$) and ($CD2$), which rotate with two cylindrical screws placed on the holder-sheets ($PS1$) and ($PS2$). These screws rotate on two connections of two ball bearings. We have put these ball bearings in pairs to avoid lateral movement of the screws. These screws sticks out the exterior faces, and the carcasses ($CS1$) and ($CS2$) are against them, used as holder for the retardation sheets. By means of a set of three screws we can regulate the perpendicularity of each sheet with the optical axis of the system.

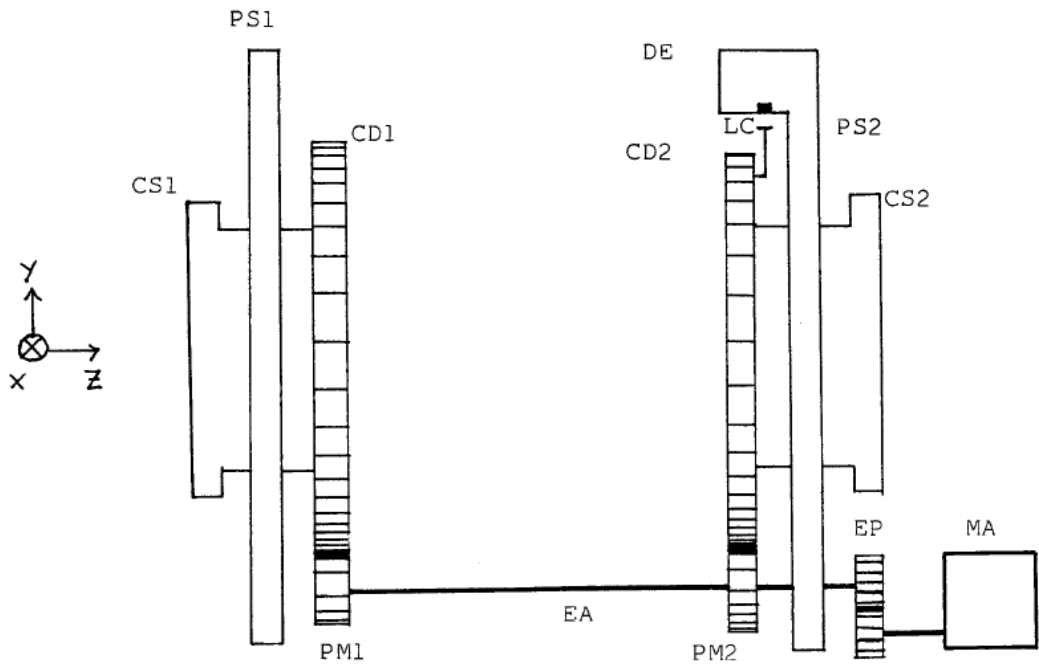


Fig. VI.2: Scheme of the mechanism that generates the rotation of the retarders.

MA: Non-synchronous motor

EA: Steel axis

EP: Parallel gear

PM1, PM2: Motor pinions

CD1, CD2: Cogged wheels

PS1, PS2: Holder sheets

CS1, CS2: Carcasses used as holder of the retarder

LC: Cooper sheet

DE: Shoot electronic device, periodically activated by LC

To keep the consistence of the machinery, the sheets (PS1) and (PS2) are united by other two lateral sheets (PL1) and (PL2). The set is fixed by means of four “legs” to the base of the optical bench.

The intermediate space between the cogged wheels let us the placing of the optical medium to be studied, which can be moved on the XY plane so that its properties in several points can be studied.

In order to fix the origin of the detected signals, the electronic device schematized in Fig. VI.3 has been designed, which contains a coil where Foucault currents are induced when a conductor is moved near it. The coil is connected to a flip-flop system that transforms the peaks into a squared-signal.

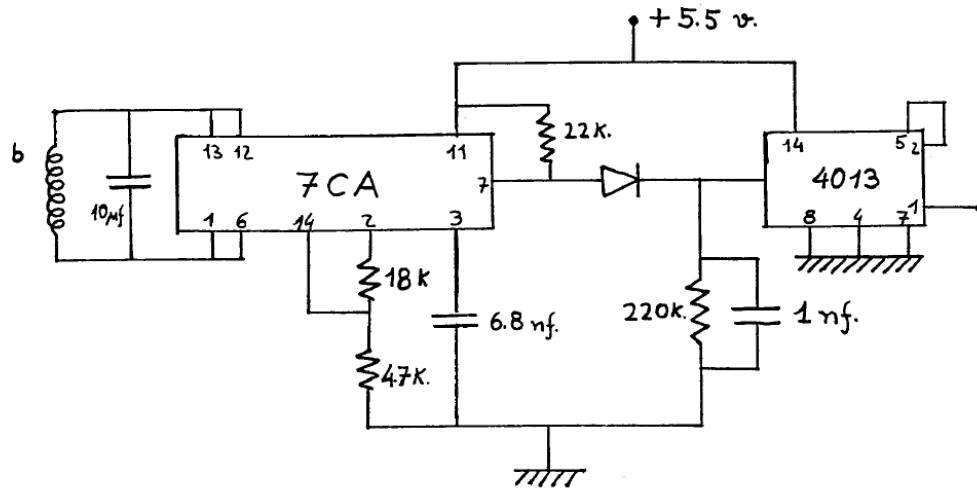


Fig. VI.3: Scheme of the electronic device for the determination of the origin and period of the recorded signals.

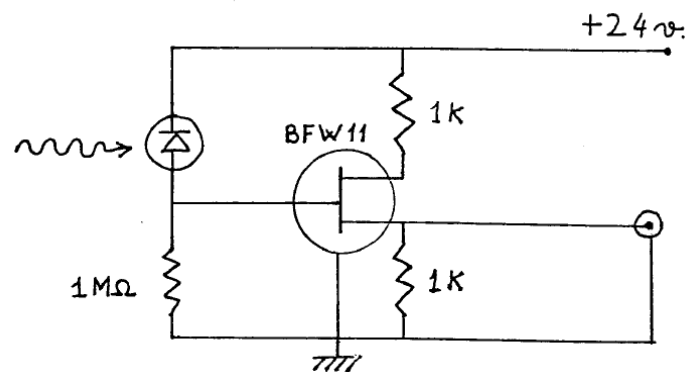


Fig. VI.4: Scheme of the circuit used to polarize the detector photodiode Harsaw 38.

Fixed to the cogged wheel CD2, there is a small cooper sheet (LC), which automatically activates the recorder when it passes by the place where the coil is. Thus, this device is periodically activated with the same period as the signal of the intensity of the light that falls on the detector DT. The period of time between two equivalent positions of the measurement device is $T \sim 0.1$ s.

We have used a photomultiplier Oriel 7060 as detector DT. It is necessary to decrease the laser light beam with the help of a neutral filter N and the diffuser DF so that DT works in linear response regime. Other detector also used is the photodiode Harsaw 38, polarized according to the circuit shown in Fig. VI.4. This kind of detector, although cheaper, introduce a certain level of continuous voltage over the detected signal. This level can be easily determined and must be subtracted from the recorded signal.

The recorder used is a multichannel analyzer HP 648OB, which records the signal from the detector and starts the records according to the rhythm of the shoot electronic device DE.

The work wavelength ($\lambda = 632.8$ nm) does not correspond to the optimum response zone of the photomultiplier used here, and thus we need to filter the random noise originated by the photons falling on it. This is made by means of a number of 2^8 signal scans, averaged with an algorithm of the multichannel analyzer. This number of scans has been considered adequate to obtain a signal/noise ratio high enough ($s/N \geq 100$).

We have used a computer HP2000 for the processing of the signal data.

VI.2 Possible causes of errors in the measurements

In this section we analyze the principal possible causes of errors in the measurements obtained with our experimental device.

- Depolarization of the test light beam [2].

In the theoretical treatment of our dynamic methods of measurement, we haven't taking into account the possible effect of depolarization of the test light beam produced by the several elements of the device, as the rotatory retarders and the linear polarizer P_2 . Small specks of dust or imperfections on the surface of the elements can produce diffraction of the light beam, and thus a slight effect of depolarization.

- Deviations from the direction of the light beam

The lack of perpendicularity of the surfaces of the elements with respect to the propagation direction of the light beam provokes a behavior of these elements different from the theoretically predicted. Otherwise, the angle of incidence over them and the polarizer P_2 can change constantly, although periodically, because of the rotation of the retarders during the measurement.

We have yet said that the mechanism for the rotation in the retarders has a device for the adjustment of the perpendicularity of the retardation sheets respect to the propagation direction of light. However, it is no easy to make the adjustment with great perfection because of the fact that the sheets are not perfectly flat, with small inhomogeneities and a certain global curvature. Otherwise, a perfect adjustment is not desirable because it would produce an overlapping of the direct light beam with the several reflected beams, which would fall over the detector and would produce a deterioration of the quality of the signal. This overlapping is worse than a little defect on the perpendicularity of the retardation sheets [47, 48], which allows us the elimination of parasitic beams by means of diaphragms.

The lack of perpendicularity between the retardation sheet L_1 and the direction of light propagation has the consequence of a periodic variation of the orientation of the own axis respect to the impact plane, with the same period of the signal $T = 2\pi/\omega_1$. This provokes that the effective values δ_1 and k_1 also vary periodically. The effect produced by the rotation of L_2 is more complicated, because the light beam that falls on it varies its angle respect to the axis Z with a period $2\pi/\omega_1$ and the orientation of the own axis of L_2 respect to a fixed axis varies with a period $T_2 = 2\pi/\omega_2 = 4\pi/5\omega_1 = 2T/5$. And thus, as $2 T = 5 T_2$, the situation is repeated with a double period for each signal.

One way to estimate the influence of this phenomenon, and to adjust the tilt of the retarders so that we obtain a minimum influence, is to check visually, on the screen of the multichannel, the differences in the shape of two consecutive periods.

- Multiple internal reflection in L_1 and L_2

This effect is included in the theory, by considering the retarders L_1 and L_2 as non ideal. The effective values of δ_1 , δ_2 , k_1 and k_2 are obtained by means of the calibration.

- Imperfections on the mechanical device.

The mechanism for the rotation of the sheets is subject to vibrations during the measurements and it can produce some disruption reflected in the results.

- Calibration errors.

We must carefully calibrate the device because the errors in the characteristic parameters are transmitted systematically to all the measurements.

- Detection errors.

The dependence of the sensitivity of the detector with the polarization of the light does not become apparent, because the position of the polarizer P_2 remains fixed during each measurement. However, we must be sure that the detector is working on its linear response zone.

- Errors produced during the processing of the data.

We have seen that the errors produced in the process of the computerized calculations are of the order of 0.05 % [22] and, as we will see in the next chapter, the introduction of a high number of data-points of the recorded signal in the Fourier analysis subroutine does not give us advantages in the quality of the measurements.

VI.3. Computerized data processing

Each record obtained with the multichannel analyzer is composed of 1000 data-points, where approximately 713 correspond to a complete period of the recorded signal. By connecting the computer with a digital voltmeter and the multichannel analyzer we can insert the data by means of an interface HP-IB (mod. 82937 A), or we can also connect the computer with the detector.

Once in the computer, the data are stored in files. There are four types of programs for the treatment of these data.

- MAPAR program for the treatment of apparatus signals obtained with the device for the determination of Mueller matrices.
- MEREL program for the treatment of the signal corresponding to the studied optical media.
- MEPOL program for the treatment of apparatus signals obtained with the device for the analysis of polarized light.
- STOKES program for the treatment of signals corresponding to studied beams of light.

VI.3.1. MAPAR program

The aim of this program is the obtainment of the calibration parameters of the device for the determination of the Mueller matrices.

Required data:

- Name of the data file corresponding to the apparatus-signal to be processed.
- Number NP of data-point to be inserted into the subroutine for the Fourier analysis.
- Continuous level introduced in the signal by the detector, if it exists.

The MAPAR program has three parts:

-MAPAR.1.

- By means of a linear interpolation, NP data points are selected among the total inserted in the file. This interpolation is justified by the relative proximity between two data-points of the record, and it needs 2NP data-points, from which are calculated the NP interpolated data.

-MAPAR.2.

- The interpolated data-points are inserted into the subroutine AJTE of Fourier analysis, and the Fourier coefficients A_i , B_j are obtained.

-MAPAR.3.

- The characteristic parameters of the device δ_1 , δ_2 , k_1 , k_2 , θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 are calculated from the Fourier coefficients A_i , B_j . It is easy to observe that none of these parameters depend on the scale factor that affects the signal.

VI.3.2. MEREL program

This program is used to obtain the Mueller matrix **M** associated with the measured optical system.

Required data:

- Name of the data file corresponding to the signal to be processed.
- Number NP of data-point to be inserted into the subroutine for the Fourier analysis.
- Continuous level introduced in the signal by the detector, if it exists.
- Values of the parameters δ_1 , δ_2 , k_1 , k_2 , θ_1 , θ_2 , α_2 .

The MEREL program has three parts or subprograms. MEREL.1 and MEREL.2 are analogous to MAPAR.1 and MAPAR.2.

-MEREL.3.

- From the coefficients A_i , B_j , calculated in MEREL.2, the elements m_{ij} of the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} are calculated. These elements are obtained by means of the expressions (IV.20), and are affected by a unique factor, related with the scale factor of the signal. The program gives as a result the Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_N , normalized as $\mathbf{M}_N = \mathbf{M}/m_{00}$

The programs MAPAR and MEREL are prepared to represent graphically the signal points.

VI.3.3. MEPOL and STOKES programs

The aim of the MEPOL program is analog to the MAPAR one, and the type of required data is the same. The MEPOL program let us make a calibration of the device for the analysis of polarized light, by calculating the parameters δ_2 , k_2 , α_2 with the equations (V.9).

The Stokes program is analog to MEREL and let us to obtain the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} associated with the studied light beam. This vector is obtained by normalizing \mathbf{S} so that $s_0 = 1$.

Chapter VII

Calibration and some results

In this chapter we present the experimental results corresponding to the calibration of the Mueller and Stokes polarimeters as well some measurements of Stokes vectors and Mueller matrices. These results are analyzed and discussed with the help of several relations and theorems included in chapters II and III. The calibration measurements are compared with the ideal theoretical results, so that the precision of the instrument is studied and compared with the obtained by means of other kind of methods and dynamic and static measurement devices.

The experimental assemblies used for the analysis of polarized light and the determination of Mueller matrices are described in the previous chapter.

All the results presented in this chapter have been obtained from intensity signals detected by a photomultiplier and recorded by making an average of 2^8 scans with the multichannel analyzer, as indicated in chapter VI.

VII.1. Determination of Stokes parameters

VII.1.1. Calibration

According to the expressions (V.9) we have made a calibration of the device used for the determination of Stokes parameters. In the data processing made by the computer we have seen that the obtained values for the Fourier coefficients do not change significantly for different numbers of data-points. The measured Fourier coefficients are

$$A'_0 = 5.804, \quad A'_1 = -0.088, \quad B'_1 = -0.066, \quad A'_2 = 0.834, \quad B'_2 = 1.902 \quad (\text{VII.1})$$

which lead to the following parameters of the device

$$\alpha_2 = 106.6^\circ \quad \delta_2 = 90.0^\circ \quad k_2 = 0.974 \quad (\text{VII.2})$$

In order to make an estimation of the error produced during the calculation of the Stokes parameters we have considered that the coefficients (VII.1) correspond to the studied light beam, instead of assuming that the incoming light is linearly polarized along X direction. By considering (VII.2) as data we obtain the Stokes vector \mathbf{S} corresponding to the beam by means of (V.6). The measured vector components are

$$s_0 = 1.000, \quad s_1 = 1.000, \quad s_2 = 0.000, \quad s_3 = -0.002 \quad (\text{VII.3})$$

The degree of polarization of the light beam is

$$G = 1.000 \quad (\text{VII.4})$$

The results (VII.3-4) must be compared with the ideal values $s_0 = s_1 = 1, s_2 = s_3 = 0, G = 1$.

Fig. VII.1 shows the intensity signal obtained experimentally (dotted line) and the ideal theoretical signal corresponding to the values (VII.2) (continuous line).

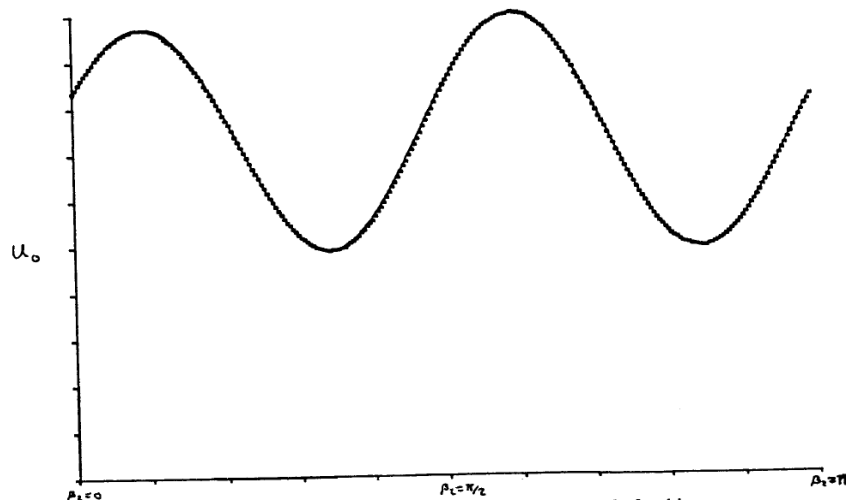


Fig. VII.1: Calibration apparatus-signal of the Stokes polarimeter with values $\alpha_2 = 106.6^\circ, \delta_2 = 90.0^\circ, k_2 = 0.974$. Experimental signal (dotted line) versus ideal theoretical signal for the same values (continuous line).

VII.1.2. Elliptical polarization

To illustrate the behavior of the Stokes polarimeter we have analyzed a light beam with a certain state of elliptical polarization.

In this particular case, the obtained Fourier coefficients are

$$A_0 = 1.844, \quad A_1 = -0.889, \quad B_1 = 1.313, \quad A_2 = -0.141, \quad B_2 = 0.282 \quad (\text{VII.5})$$

which correspond to the following Stokes parameters

$$s_0 = 1.000, \quad s_1 = 0.231, \quad s_2 = 0.275, \quad s_3 = 0.930 \quad (\text{VII.6})$$

The degree of polarization of the light beam is

$$G = 0.997 \quad (\text{VII.7})$$

In Fig. VII.2 we see the shape of the recorded intensity signal.

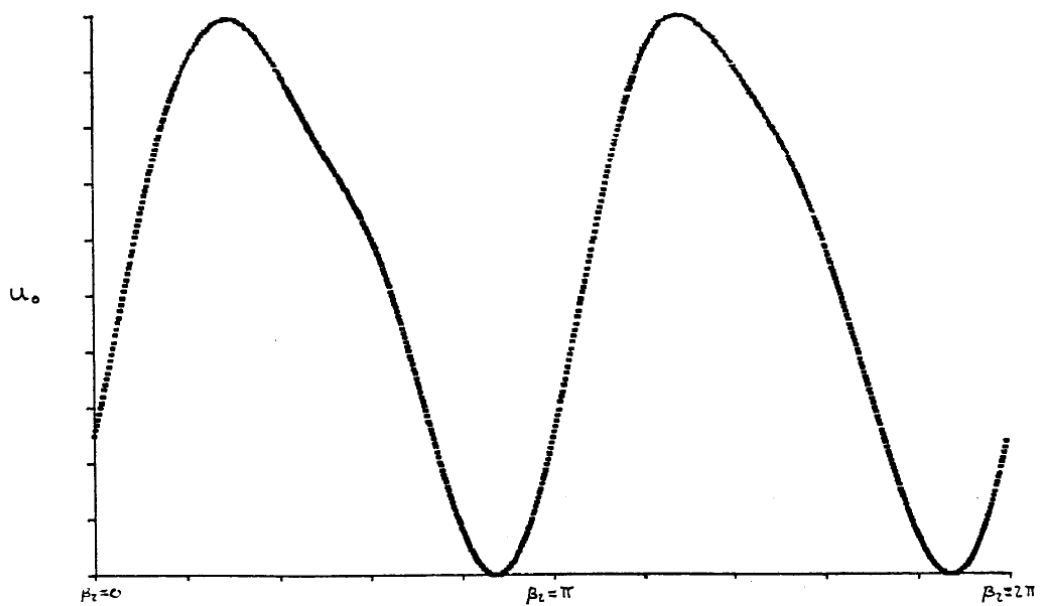


Fig. VII.2: Experimental signal corresponding to an elliptically polarized light beam with Stokes parameters $s_0 = 1.000$, $s_1 = 0.231$, $s_2 = 0.275$, $s_3 = 0.930$.

VII.2. Determination of Mueller matrices

VII.2.1. Calibration

We have made a calibration of the Mueller polarimeter as indicated in section IV.2.

The Fourier coefficients are obtained from the analysis of the calibration signal

$$\begin{aligned}
A_0 &= 1.735 \\
A_1 &= -0.026 & B_1 &= 0.006 \\
A_2 &= -0.008 & B_2 &= -0.015 \\
A_3 &= -1.065 & B_3 &= 0.085 \\
A_4 &= -0.068 & B_4 &= -0.462 \\
A_5 &= 0.007 & B_5 &= -0.015 \\
A_6 &= -0.566 & B_6 &= -0.216 \\
A_7 &= -0.293 & B_7 &= 1.038 \\
A_8 &= -0.007 & B_8 &= 0.011 \\
A_9 &= -0.006 & B_9 &= 0.011 \\
A_{10} &= 0.435 & B_{10} &= -0.474 \\
A_{11} &= -0.001 & B_{11} &= 0.027 \\
A_{12} &= 0.006 & B_{12} &= 0.000 \\
A_{13} &= -0.003 & B_{13} &= -0.005 \\
A_{14} &= 0.005 & B_{14} &= -0.002
\end{aligned} \tag{VII.8}$$

From these coefficients, the following parameters of the device are obtained

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_1 &= 27.8^\circ, \quad \theta_2 = -77.0^\circ, \\
\alpha_2 &= 77.4^\circ, \\
\delta_1 &= 88.4^\circ, \quad \delta_2 = 92.5^\circ, \\
k_1 &= 0.981, \quad k_2 = 0.982.
\end{aligned} \tag{VII.9}$$

To estimate the error in the values of the elements of the measured Mueller matrices, we have considered the Fourier coefficients of the apparatus-signal as the corresponding to a Mueller measurement, in such a manner that we have obtained the Mueller matrix from (IV.23), using (VII.9) as the values of the parameters of the device. This measured Mueller matrix is

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.004 & 0.000 & 0.002 \\ -0.004 & 1.021 & 0.003 & 0.007 \\ 0.002 & 0.003 & 1.004 & -0.007 \\ -0.009 & 0.000 & 0.008 & 0.998 \end{pmatrix} \tag{VII.10}$$

For an ideal and perfect measurement device, the Mueller matrix obtained by means of this self-calibration procedure should be the identity matrix because the signal of light intensity has been obtained without any optical medium placed as a sample.

The values of the norm and the values of the polarization and depolarization indices corresponding to this measured matrix are

$$I_M = 2.012, \quad G_D = 0.992, \quad G'_p = 0.009, \quad G''_p = 0.012 \quad (\text{VII.11})$$

A complete period of the intensity signal takes up 713 data-points in the record. The coefficients (VII.8) have been obtained by selecting 513 data-points by means of linear interpolation. This interpolation is justified by the proximity among the original data-points of the record.

As said in chapter VI, the minimum number of data-points to insert into the Fourier analysis subroutine is 29. By selecting only 29 data-points we obtain Fourier coefficients very similar to the (VII.8). The obtained matrix in this case is

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.000 & -0.005 & 0.000 \\ 0.000 & 1.018 & -0.010 & 0.002 \\ 0.006 & -0.009 & 1.000 & -0.010 \\ -0.009 & -0.003 & 0.007 & 0.998 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.12})$$

The comparison between (VII.10) and (VII.12) tells us that the number of data-points used for the calculation of Fourier coefficients does not affect significantly to the results, and we can consider these results as acceptable even for a minimum number of 29 data-points.

From the signals corresponding to four series of records made in similar conditions and by considering each apparatus-signal as the problem signal, we have calculated the respective Fourier coefficients, and from them we have obtained the respective calibration parameters as well as the corresponding Mueller matrices. By making a statistical study of the results we have obtained the following values

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_1 &= 27.6^\circ \pm 0.8^\circ, \quad \theta_2 = -77.1^\circ \pm 1.0^\circ, \\ \alpha_2 &= 77.1^\circ \pm 0.3^\circ \\ \delta_1 &= 88.7^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ, \quad \delta_2 = 92.3^\circ \pm 0.6^\circ \\ k_1 &= 0.978 \pm 0.006, \quad k_2 = 0.984 \pm 0.005 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{VII.13})$$

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.002 \pm 0.002 & -0.000 \pm 0.002 & -0.001 \pm 0.003 \\ -0.001 \pm 0.002 & 1.013 \pm 0.001 & -0.002 \pm 0.005 & 0.004 \pm 0.007 \\ 0.003 \pm 0.002 & -0.003 \pm 0.004 & 1.009 \pm 0.011 & -0.003 \pm 0.006 \\ -0.007 \pm 0.004 & 0.005 \pm 0.009 & 0.008 \pm 0.007 & 0.998 \pm 0.002 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.14})$$

These results reveal a good reproducibility on the measurements, with an average accidental error of approximately 0.5 % in the determination of the elements of the Mueller matrices.

By comparing (VII.14) with the identity matrix, which would be the result obtained with an ideal and perfect instrument, and taking into account the accidental and systematic errors, we can estimate a mean error less than 1 % in the results.

In Figures VII.3-VII.5 several apparatus-signals obtained experimentally (dotted line), are represented combined with the corresponding ideal apparatus-signals (continuous line). These graphics give visual information about the quality of the experimental set-up.

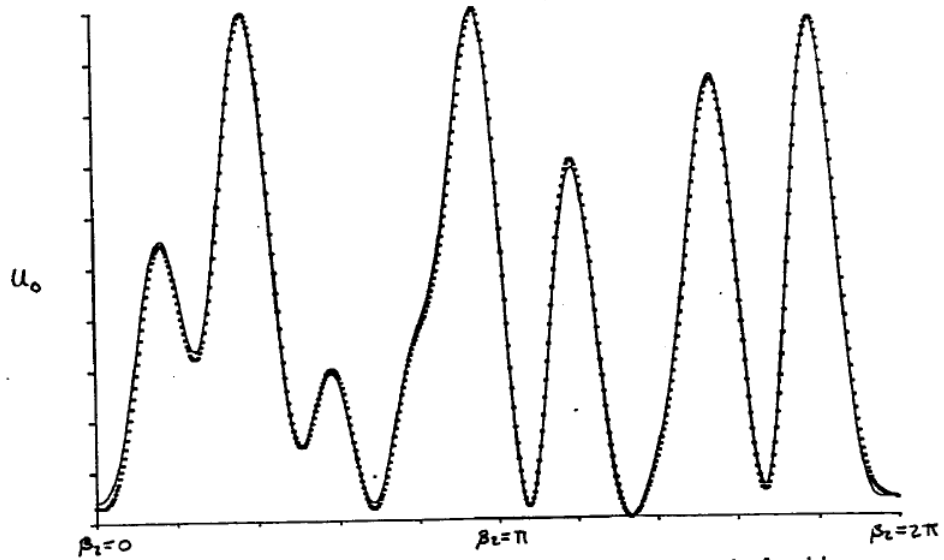


Fig. VII.3: Calibration apparatus-signal of the Mueller polarimeter, with values $\theta_1 = 27.8^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -77.0^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 88.4^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 92.5^\circ$, $\alpha_2 = 77.4^\circ$, $k_1 = 0.981$, $k_2 = 0.982$. Experimental signal (dotted line) versus ideal theoretical signal for the same values (continuous line).

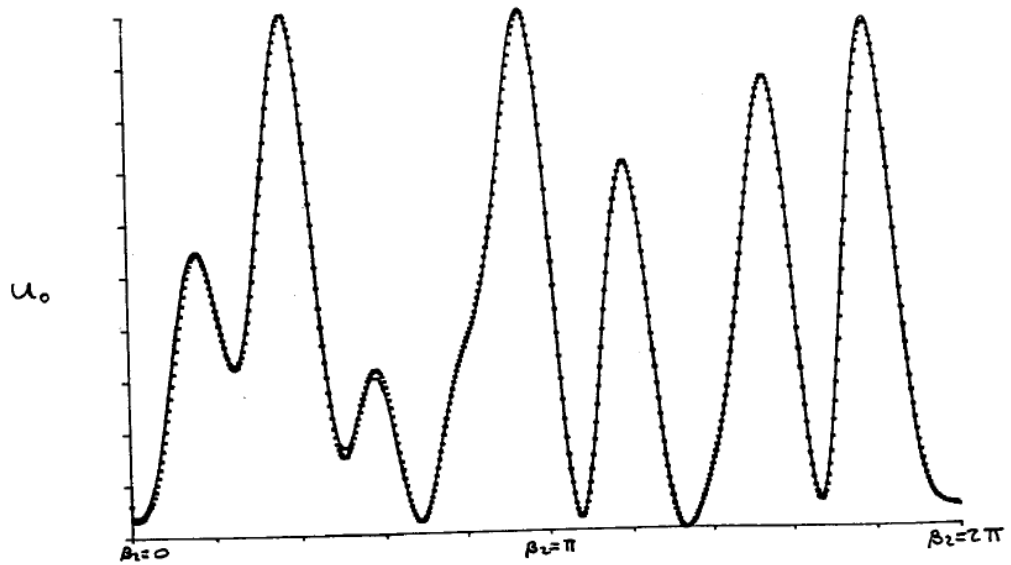


Fig. VII.4: Calibration apparatus-signal of the Mueller polarimeter, with values $\theta_1 = 28.5^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -78.5^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 88.4^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 91.5^\circ$, $\alpha_2 = 76.7^\circ$, $k_1 = 0.971$, $k_2 = 0.980$. Experimental signal (dotted line) versus ideal theoretical signal for the same values (continuous line).

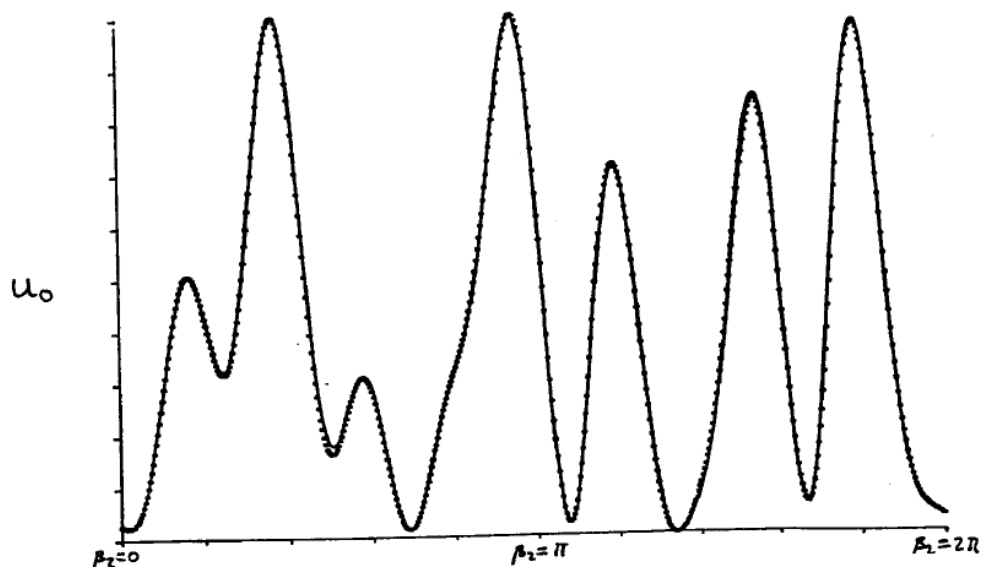


Fig. VII.5: Calibration apparatus-signal of the Mueller polarimeter, with values $\theta_1 = 26.6^\circ$, $\theta_2 = -75.9^\circ$, $\delta_1 = 89.6^\circ$, $\delta_2 = 92.9^\circ$, $\alpha_2 = 77.2^\circ$, $k_1 = 0.966$, $k_2 = 0.991$. Experimental signal (dotted line) versus ideal theoretical signal for the same values (continuous line).

VII.2.2. Commercial retarder

We present here the results corresponding to the measurement of the Mueller matrix associated with a Polaroid commercial linear retardation sheet, with a nominal retardation value of $140 \pm 20 \text{ m}\mu$ for a wavelength of $\lambda = 589 \text{ nm}$.

The Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_{L_1} obtained for a certain orientation of the retarder axes respect to the reference axes is

$$\mathbf{M}_{L_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.012 & 0.004 & 0.033 \\ 0.014 & 1.035 & -0.162 & 0.181 \\ 0.000 & -0.115 & 0.182 & 0.971 \\ 0.004 & -0.143 & -0.984 & 0.129 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.16})$$

from which we obtain

$$F_M = 2.031, \quad G_D = 0.983, \quad G'_P = 0.014, \quad G''_P = 0.036 \quad (\text{VII.17})$$

In the case of neglecting the small effects of partial polarization and depolarization, that is, if we consider that the following conditions are fulfilled in (VII.16) $m_{i0}, m_{0i} \approx 0, \quad i = 1, 2, 3$; then, as we have seen in section II.4, the medium behaves as an ideal retarder.

From (III.30) we obtain

$$\Delta = 80.0^\circ, \quad \omega = 1.2^\circ, \quad \psi = -0.5^\circ \quad (\text{VII.18})$$

The retarder preserves invariant the states of polarization with azimuth Ψ and ellipticity $\pm\omega$, introducing between them a retardation phase Δ .

Because of $|\omega| \approx 0$, the retarder behaves as a linear retarder.

With the help of (III.36.c-d) we can calculate the ratio k between the principal coefficients of transmission, and we obtain

$$k = 0.975 \quad (\text{VII.19})$$

As expected, the value k is slightly different from the unity, because the retarder is not ideal.

The intensity signal corresponding to this measurement is represented in Fig. VII.6.

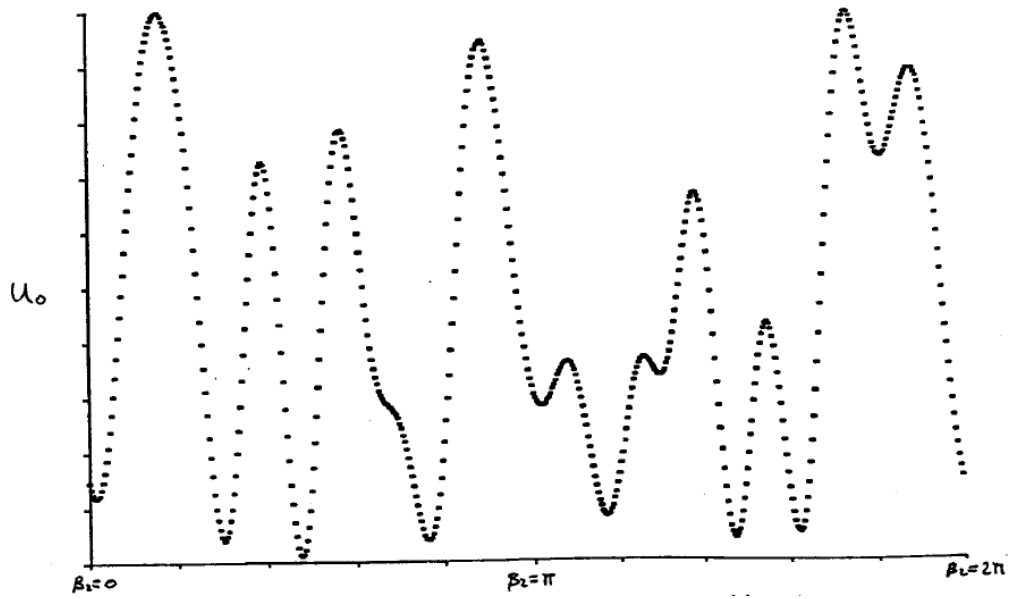


Fig. VII.6: Experimental signal corresponding to a commercial linear retarder with parameters $\Delta = 80.0^\circ$, $\Psi = -0.5^\circ$, $k = 0.975$.

To study the operating of the device and the calculation apparatus, we have made another record with the same optical medium, but with a different orientation respect to the device. The measured Mueller matrix is

$$\mathbf{M}_{L_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.010 & 0.000 & 0.019 \\ -0.016 & 0.335 & 0.402 & -0.852 \\ -0.002 & 0.360 & 0.799 & 0.525 \\ 0.006 & 0.875 & -0.460 & 0.114 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.20})$$

from where

$$\Delta = 82.8^\circ, \quad \omega = 1.3^\circ, \quad \psi = 30.2^\circ \quad (\text{VII.21})$$

These results are in good accordance with (VII.18) because Δ and ω are not significantly different in both cases. The value of Ψ has changed because the orientation of the optical medium has changed.

VII.2.3. Commercial linear polarizer

In this case we have considered a Polaroid HN42 commercial linear polarizer as the sample under measurement.

The measured Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}_P for a certain orientation of the polarization axis of the polarizer respect to the reference axes of the polarimeter is

$$\mathbf{M}_P = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.856 & -0.668 & -0.018 \\ -0.864 & 0.685 & 0.520 & -0.007 \\ -0.675 & 0.534 & 0.413 & -0.003 \\ -0.007 & 0.045 & -0.015 & -0.005 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.22})$$

The measured values of the norm and indices corresponding to \mathbf{M}_P are

$$G_M = 2.033, \quad G_D = 0.976, \quad G'_P = 0.897, \quad G''_P = 0.917 \quad (\text{VII.23})$$

If the small effect of depolarization is neglected and considering that, according to (VII.22), $\mathbf{M}_P^T \approx \mathbf{M}_P$, $(m_{01}^2 + m_{02}^2 + m_{03}^2)^{1/2} \approx m_{00}$; then, in agreement with section III.4, the matrix \mathbf{M}_P corresponds to a polarizer with parameters

$$\delta = 0.0^\circ, \quad \nu = 19.0^\circ, \quad k = 0.041 \quad (\text{VII.24})$$

These results indicates that this system is a linear polarizer ($\delta = 0^\circ$).

In Fig. VII.7, where the intensity signal corresponding to \mathbf{M}_P is represented, we can see that (except for slight differences) the signal is doubly periodic. This is a characteristic property for systems whose last element is a total linear polarizer.

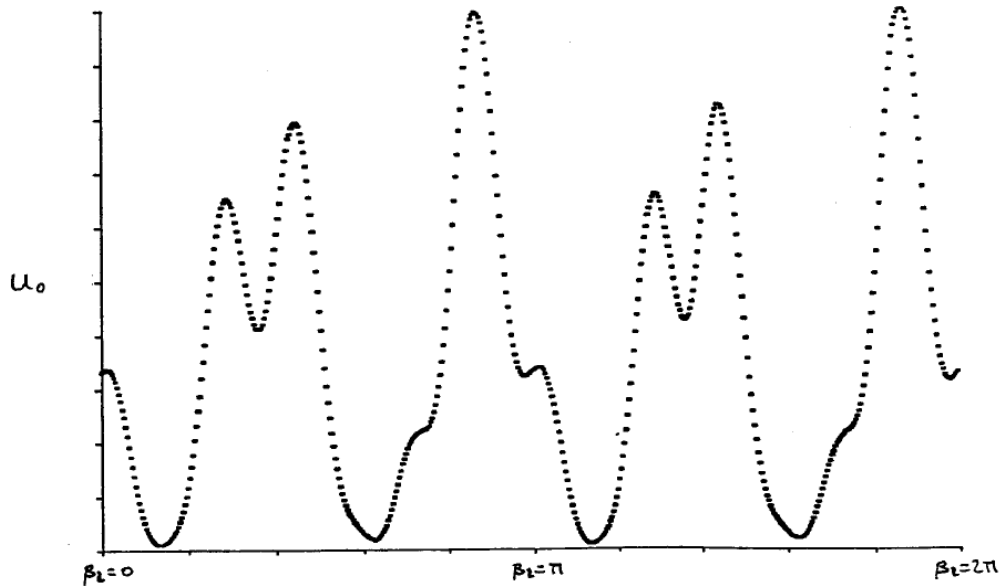


Fig. VII.7: Experimental signal corresponding to a linear polarizer with parameters $\nu = 19^\circ$, $k = 0.041$.

VII.2.4. System of two linear retarders.

We have obtained the Mueller matrix associated with a system composed of two Polaroid commercial quarter-wave linear retarders for a wavelength $\lambda = 598$ nm. For a certain position of the axes respect to the reference ones, the measured matrix is

$$\mathbf{M}_{2L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.002 & 0.001 & -0.031 \\ -0.008 & 0.659 & 0.057 & 0.850 \\ 0.004 & -0.320 & -0.905 & 0.215 \\ 0.044 & 0.759 & -0.375 & -0.507 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.25})$$

so that

$$\Gamma_M = 2.026, \quad G_D = 0.982, \quad G'_p = 0.045, \quad G''_p = 0.031 \quad (\text{VII.26})$$

These results indicate that the behavior of the system is similar to the behavior of an elliptic retarder with parameters

$$\Delta = 151.2^\circ, \quad \omega = 25.7^\circ, \quad \psi = -4.3^\circ \quad (\text{VII.27})$$

The ratio k between the principal coefficients of intensity transmission is

$$k = 0.938 \quad (\text{VII.28})$$

which tells us that the effect of partial polarization is bigger now than in the case with one retarder of the same kind.

The intensity signal corresponding to \mathbf{M}_{L2} is represented in Fig. VII.8.

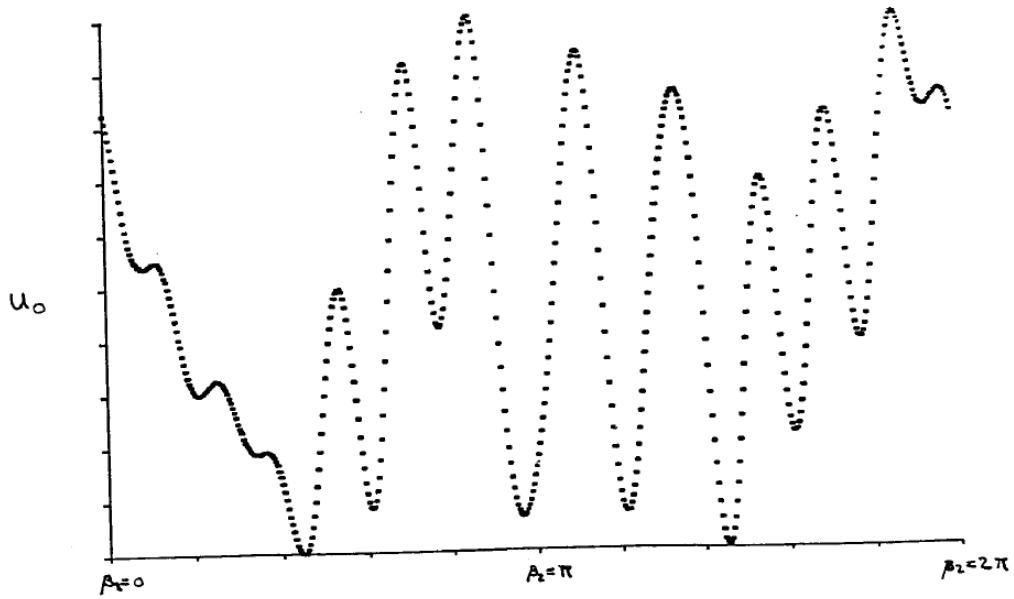


Fig.VII.8: Experimental signal corresponding to a system with two linear retarders equivalent to an elliptic retarder with parameters $\Delta = 151.2^\circ$, $\omega = 25.7^\circ$, $\Psi = -4.3^\circ$, $k = 0.938$.

VII.2.5. System with three linear retarders

The Mueller matrix experimentally obtained for a system composed of three commercial linear retarders of the same kind as the analyzed in section VII.2.2, for a certain orientation of its own axes respect to the reference ones is

$$\mathbf{M}_{3L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.035 & 0.019 & 0.014 \\ -0.002 & 0.619 & -0.205 & 0.777 \\ 0.048 & 0.817 & 0.163 & -0.607 \\ -0.032 & 0.027 & 0.990 & 0.313 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.29})$$

from where

$$G_M = 2.043, \quad G_D = 0.970, \quad G'_P = 0.042, \quad G''_P = 0.062 \quad (\text{VII.30})$$

The matrix \mathbf{M}_{3L} approximately corresponds to an ideal elliptic retarder with parameters

$$\Delta = 87.2^\circ, \quad \omega = 15.4^\circ, \quad \psi = 12.9^\circ \quad (\text{VII.31})$$

The effect of partial polarization, which produces a behavior different than the one of an ideal retarder, is given by

$$k = 0.919 \quad (\text{VII.32})$$

The shape of the intensity signal corresponding to this case is shown in Fig. VII.9.

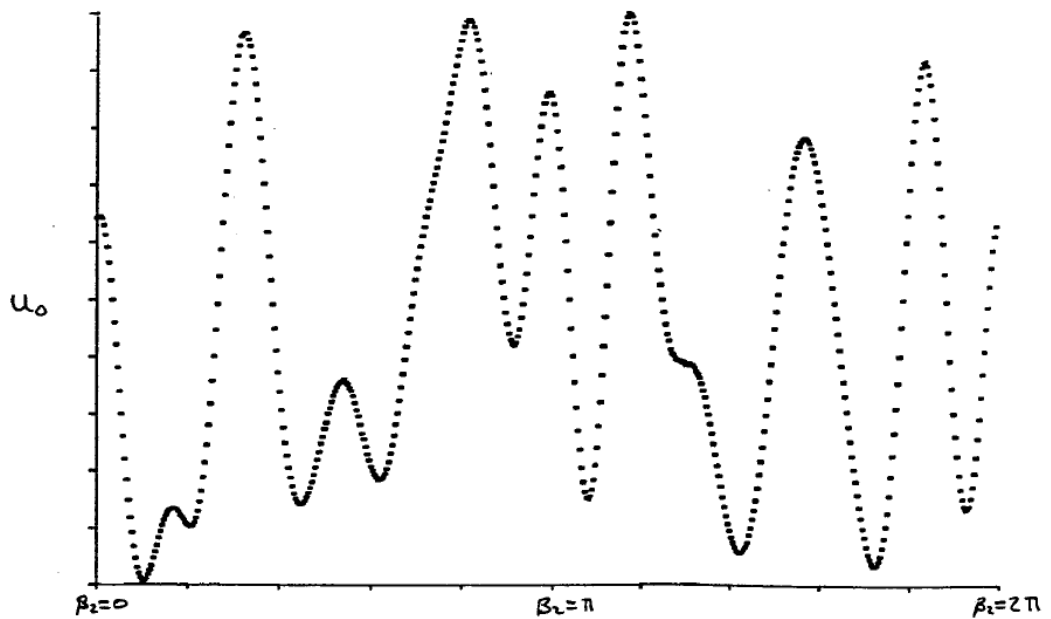


Fig. VII.9: Experimental signal corresponding to a system with three linear retarders equivalent to an elliptic retarder with parameters $\Delta = 87.2^\circ$, $\omega = 15.4^\circ$, $\psi = 12.9^\circ$, $k = 0.919$.

If light passes through the same system in the reverse direction we obtain the following matrix

$$\mathbf{M}'_{3L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & -0.008 & -0.014 & 0.028 \\ -0.029 & 0.594 & 0.854 & -0.056 \\ 0.017 & -0.200 & 0.259 & -0.977 \\ -0.008 & -0.807 & 0.535 & 0.309 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.33})$$

which approximately corresponds to an elliptic retarder given by

$$\Delta = 85.3^\circ, \quad \omega = -15.9^\circ, \quad \psi = 13.1^\circ \quad (\text{VII.34})$$

These results are in agreement with the reciprocity theorem T12 (in the formalism SMF). If the direction of the light through the optical medium is reversed, the obtained Mueller matrix \mathbf{M}'_{3L} must satisfy the relations (II.76) and (II.77) respect to \mathbf{M}_{3L} . Thus, as expected, the parameters Δ , ω are similar to the obtained in (VII.31), and the sign of ψ in (VII.34) is opposite to the sign of ψ in (VII.31) but with approximately the same value of the modulus.

According to the reciprocity theorem TR, the differences between the values (VII.35) and (VII.36) respect to the corresponding to (VII.29) and (VII.31), can be due to a lack of perpendicularity of the sample, and to an inexact reciprocity because of the internal reflections whose effect can be distinguished according to the direction of the light through the system.

VII.2.6. System composed of a polarizer and a retarder.

We have applied the Mueller polarimeter to the study of a system composed of a Polaroid HN42 linear polarizer and a Polaroid linear retarder with nominal retardation value $140 \pm 20 \text{ m}\mu$ for $\lambda = 560 \text{ nm}$.

For a certain orientation of the eigen-axes of the retarder and polarizer respect to the reference axes we have measured the following Mueller matrix

$$\mathbf{M}_{LP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.861 & 0.426 & 0.188 \\ 0.935 & 0.816 & 0.403 & 0.201 \\ 0.315 & 0.280 & 0.156 & 0.018 \\ 0.009 & 0.001 & -0.012 & 0.008 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.35})$$

from where

$$G_M = 1.974, \quad G_D = 0.982, \quad G'_p = 0.985, \quad G''_p = 0.977 \quad (\text{VII.36})$$

The application of the theorem T8 together with (III.26) or (III.36), gives us the following parameters for the equivalent system

$$\Delta_1 = 85.4^\circ, \quad \Delta_2 = 1.7^\circ, \quad \nu = 9.3^\circ, \quad \xi = 21.9^\circ, \quad k_{LP} = 0.033. \quad (\text{VII.37})$$

Taking these results to the expression (III.23) we see that the system behaves as the following

$$\mathbf{R}(\gamma)\mathbf{L}(\xi, \Delta_1)\mathbf{P}(0, k_{LP})\mathbf{R}(-\nu)\mathbf{L}(0, \Delta_2)$$

and taking into account that $\Delta_2 \approx 0$, $\gamma \approx \nu$, we see that we have a linear retarder and a linear polarizer whose axis of polarization has an angle ξ with the fast axis of the retarder, and an angle $-\nu$ with the X axis of reference.

The light beam passes first through the retarder, and then through the polarizer, and the matrix \mathbf{M}_{LP} can be expressed as follows

$$\mathbf{M}_{LP} = \mathbf{M}_R(-\nu)\mathbf{M}_P(0, k_{LP})\mathbf{M}_L(\xi, \Delta_1)\mathbf{M}_R(\nu) \quad (\text{VII.38})$$

The intensity signal corresponding to \mathbf{M}_{LP} is shown in Fig. VII.10, and it can be observed that the total period of the signal is formed by two almost equal semi periods. This fact occurs when the last element of the analyzed system is a total polarizer.

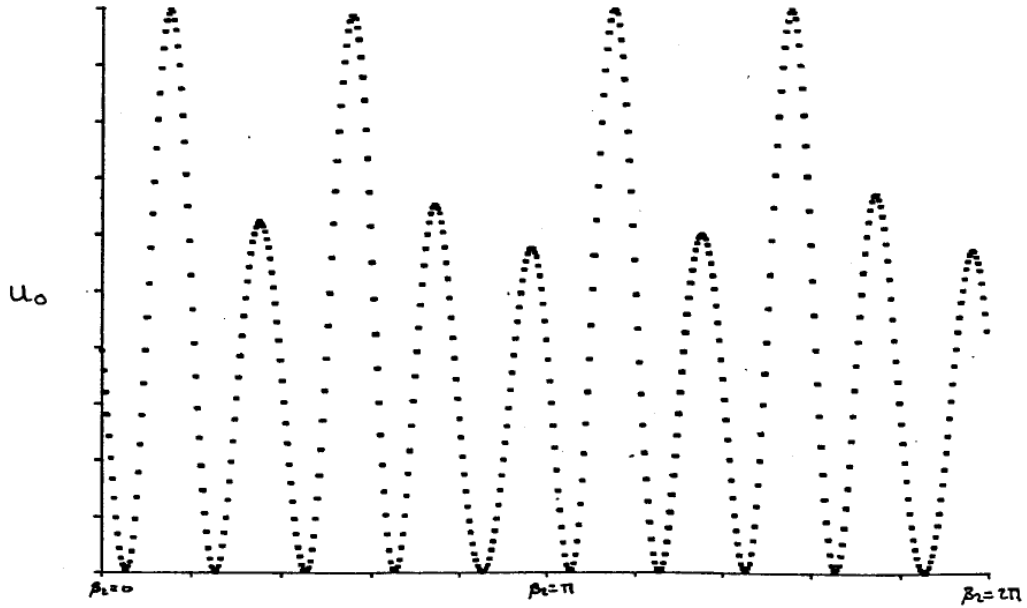


Fig. VII.10: Experimental signal corresponding to a system composed of a linear polarizer and a linear retarder categorized as L (31.2°, 85.4°) P (9.3°, 0.033).

To check the quality of the results we have made another record with an inverse order of the elements and reversing their orientations respect to the reference axis. The measured matrix is

$$\mathbf{M}_{PL} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.000 & 0.843 & 0.587 & 0.029 \\ 0.876 & 0.733 & 0.503 & 0.042 \\ 0.486 & 0.393 & 0.281 & 0.020 \\ 0.199 & 0.145 & 0.121 & 0.008 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{VII.39})$$

The application of the theorem T9 together with the expressions (III.15), takes us to an equivalent system categorized as

$$\mathbf{P}(\alpha, k_{LP})\mathbf{L}(\theta, \delta)$$

so that

$$\mathbf{M}_{LP} = \mathbf{M}_L(\theta, \delta)\mathbf{M}_P(\alpha, k_{LP}) \quad (\text{VII.40})$$

where

$$\delta = 87.0^\circ, \quad \theta = 32.0^\circ, \quad \alpha = 17.4^\circ, \quad k_{LP} = 0.026 \quad (\text{VII.41})$$

The value of δ in (VII.41) corresponds to the value of Δ_1 in (VII.37). The difference between the values is not necessarily caused by a lack of precision in the measurements, because in (VII.38) and (VII.40) we have supposed an ideal retarder.

In Fig. VII.11 we see the graphic of the intensity signal corresponding to \mathbf{M}_{PL} , in which is observed that the number of maximums and their positions are the same as in Fig VII.9, corresponding to \mathbf{M}_{LP} .

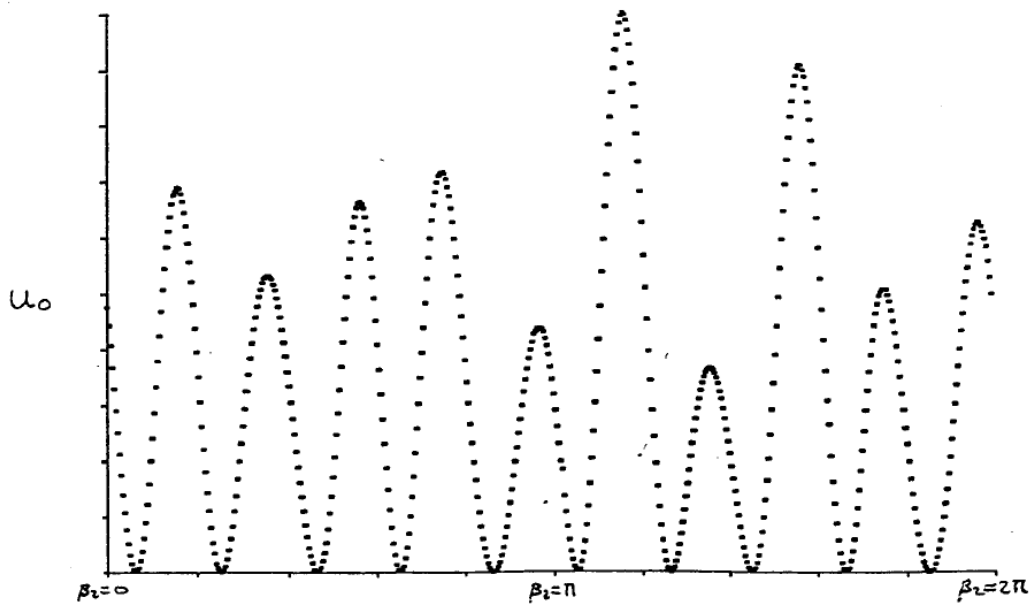


Fig. VII.11: Experimental signal corresponding to a system composed of a linear polarizer and a linear retarder categorized as P (17.4°, 0.026) L (32.0°, 87.0°).

VII.3 Discussion

Among the static methods for the analysis of polarized light we can emphasize the techniques of null ellipsometry. These techniques get a precision of the order of 0.01° in experimental measurements of angular parameters [2]. However, these techniques are not useful for the determination of Mueller matrices [23]. Some authors have proposed dynamic devices for the determination of Mueller matrices, but there are few references about the development and experimental building of such devices. In this sense it is worth mentioning the work of Thomson et al. [24], in which is described a device with four electro-optic modulators. The calibration operation of this device requires the use of several tests, with certain combinations of polarizers and retarders whose properties are previously known.

The precision cited for the measurements obtained with such device is of order of 3%.

The experimental results obtained with our device let us estimate a precision better than 1% in the values of the elements of the Mueller matrices.

Chapter VIII
Conclusions

We have developed a dynamic method for the analysis of the polarization of the light, which let us the measurement of the Stokes parameters of a given light beam and the measurement of the elements of the Mueller matrix associated with any medium active to the polarization. Both kinds of measurements are based on the Fourier analysis of the signal of light intensity supplied by the device.

The measurement of the state of polarization of a light beam is made by means of a device composed of a rotatory linear retarder and a fixed linear polarizer.

The device for the measurement of the elements of the Mueller matrices is composed of two fixed linear polarizers and two linear retarders that rotate in planes perpendicular to the direction of propagation of the light beam, with the sample medium placed between the two rotatory retarders.

The analysis of the recorded signal requires a previous self-calibration operation, which is made from the signal generated by the device in vacuum, not being necessary external calibration patterns.

We have discussed the possible values of the relation between the angular velocities of rotation of the rotatory retarders, and we have found that the most suitable value is $5/2$.

To obtain the maximum physical information in the measurements of the characteristic polarimetric parameters of the material samples, we have made a theoretical study of several aspects of matricial representation, which have taken us to original contributions. Among them, we can emphasize the following:

- i) The study of the restrictive relations among the elements of a Mueller matrix, which has let us to state the following theorem: "Given a Mueller matrix \mathbf{M} , the necessary and sufficient condition for \mathbf{M} to correspond to a non-depolarizing optical is $\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{M}) = 4m_{00}^2$ ". We have interpreted this theorem in the Jones and Coherence Vector formalisms.
- ii) We have established reciprocity theorems in the Stokes-Mueller and Coherence Vector formalisms.
- iii) We have established equivalence theorems that allow the design of rotators, compensators and retardation modulators from linear retarders.
- iv) Also, to know the behavior of an optical medium respect to the change in the grade of polarization, we have defined a series of parameters called Factors and Indices of Polarization and Depolarization, characteristic of

the considered optical medium and obtainable from the associated Mueller matrix.

The dynamic methods for the analysis of polarized light and for the measurement of the elements of Mueller matrices introduced by us are concreted in an adequate experimental device designed and developed with the following characteristics:

- i) As source of test light we use a He-Ne laser, which let us the local exploration of the samples, which is very useful in the study of inhomogeneous media.
- ii) The rotatory retarders are commercial sheets, whose values of principal retardation and transmittance are not prefixed. These values are calculated during the self-calibration operation.
- iii) The device has an electro-mechanic system that let us fix the origin and determine the period of the signals. Once detected by a photomultiplier and recorded by a multichannel analyzer, these signals are submitted to a computerized Fourier analysis.

In order to know the limitations and to analyze the sources of errors in the measurements obtained with our experimental device, we have made a study of several records of self-calibration and measurement of the Mueller matrices associated with several optical systems. From this, we conclude:

- i) In the obtained experimental results there are systematical errors originated, we think, by the depolarization caused by the diffraction of the test light beam during the passing of the light through the several components of the device, and by the lack of perpendicularity of the surfaces of the rotatory retarders respect to the direction of propagation of the light beam.
- ii) The reproducibility of the measurements and the estimated systematical errors let us be obtain an average relative error lower than 1% in the determination of the elements of Mueller matrices by means of our device.
- iii) And finally, several equivalence theorems, relations among the elements of Mueller matrices, and the usefulness of the Indices of Polarization and Depolarization, have been experimentally verified with the determination of Muller matrices achieved with our device.

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