

# Geometrical representation of a monochromatic electromagnetic wave using the tangential vector approach

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**Abstract** — The aim of this work is to develop a coherent polarimetric model and to find a geometrical description of a monochromatic wave. The spinor form of the electrical field, its links to the coherency matrix and the Poincare' sphere are introduced with the aim to obtain a geometrical representation of the spinor. It consists, from the "polarization point of view", on the polarization vector and a tangential plane to the Poincare' sphere where it is possible to visualize the zero phase.

**Keywords** — *polarimetric, coherent model, Poincare' sphere.*

## 1. Introduction

Pulse radar has a very narrow band, so, to describe the state of the signal, it is possible to consider one single pulse like a monochromatic electromagnetic wave, which is completely polarized [1, 2]. A very useful representation of the electrical field is its spinor form which contains the complete information even the zero phase<sup>1</sup>. The aim of this work is to develop a coherent polarimetric description which has a geometrical representation.

## 2. Spinors and quadrivectors – the coherency matrix

The two-component complex field of the Jones representation may be treated as a spinor  $\eta^A$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \eta^1 \\ \eta^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_x e^{i\delta_x} \\ a_y e^{i\delta_y} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where  $a_x$ ,  $a_y$  are the amplitudes and  $\delta_x$ ,  $\delta_y$  are the phases of the phasor representation of a RF signal.

A quadrivector  $x^\mu = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  may be regarded as a Hermitian second-rank spinor. The spin matrix  $X$  [3]:

$$\begin{aligned} X = x^0 + (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) &= \begin{vmatrix} x^0 + x^4 & x^1 - ix^2 \\ x^1 + ix^2 & x^0 - x^4 \end{vmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} X^{11} & X^{12} \\ X^{21} & X^{22} \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

is transformed like a second rank spinor namely the coefficients in the law for the transformation of the components of the spin matrix  $X^{A\dot{V}}$  are identical with the coefficient in the law for the transformation of the second rank

<sup>1</sup>D. H. O. Bebbington, "Analytical foundations of polarimetry: I" – to be published.

spinor  $\chi^{A\dot{V}}$  (the dots are used for the conjugate complex, not transpose). In more compact form:

$$X^{A\dot{V}} = [x^0 + (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{\sigma})]^{A\dot{V}} = x^\mu \sigma_\mu^{A\dot{V}} \quad (\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3), \quad (3)$$

where  $\sigma_0$  is the unit matrix and  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$ ,  $\sigma_3$  are the Pauli matrices:

$$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = -\sigma_2 \sigma_1 = i\sigma_3 \quad (4)$$

and cyclic permutations. In this way a geometric representation of the spinor  $\eta^A$  which the spinor form of the Jones vector, is possible. Then, if  $X^{A\dot{V}}$  is calculated as

$$X^{A\dot{V}} = \eta^A (\bar{\eta})^{\dot{V}} \quad (5)$$

it results:  $X^{11} = E_x E_x^*$ ,  $X^{12} = E_x E_y^*$ ,  $X^{21} = E_y E_x^*$ ,  $X^{22} = E_y E_y^*$ , which are the components of the coherency matrix  $J$  [4] (where  $E_i^*$  is the conjugate complex of the complex number  $E_i$ ).

The correspondent 4-vector  $x^\mu$  is obtained from the Eq. (3) and from Eq. (5):

$$\begin{vmatrix} x^0 + x^1 & x^2 - ix^3 \\ x^2 + ix^3 & x^0 - x^1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \eta^1 \bar{\eta}^1 & \eta^1 \bar{\eta}^2 \\ \eta^2 \bar{\eta}^1 & \eta^2 \bar{\eta}^2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad (6)$$

where the cyclic permutation:  $\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2$ ,  $\sigma_2 \rightarrow \sigma_3$ ,  $\sigma_3 \rightarrow \sigma_1$  is considered. Substituting the components of the Jones vector, the components of the Stokes vector are found:

$$x^0 = \frac{1}{2} g^0, \quad x^1 = \frac{1}{2} g^1, \quad x^2 = \frac{1}{2} g^2, \quad x^3 = \frac{1}{2} g^3. \quad (7)$$

For a monochromatic wave,  $(g^0, g^1, g^2, g^3)$  is a real null 4-vector

$$\begin{aligned} (g^0)^2 - (g^1)^2 - (g^2)^2 - (g^3)^2 &= 0 \Rightarrow (x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 + \\ &- (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2 = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

All the directions of the 4-vectors  $x^\mu$  in the Minkowski space-time for which the components satisfy (8) are null directions and they build the null cone [5]. The space of the null directions can be represented in the Euclidean space by the intersections of the null cone with the hyper planes  $x^0 = const$  and so  $g^0 = const$  (with the same intensity of the electrical field, because  $g^0 = I$ ). If the  $const = \pm 1$ , the intersection is a sphere which can be regarded as a Riemann sphere of an Argand plane, which is the Poincare'

sphere. But in general for any value of the constant, unless  $g^0 = 0$ , we get from the relation (8):

$$\left(\frac{g^1}{g^0}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{g^2}{g^0}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{g^3}{g^0}\right)^2 = 1 \quad (9)$$

and we can define

$$p^1 = \frac{g^1}{g^0}, \quad p^2 = \frac{g^2}{g^0}, \quad p^3 = \frac{g^3}{g^0} \quad (10)$$

which are the components of the polarization vector. The equation of the Poincare' sphere is in general:

$$(p^1)^2 + (p^2)^2 + (p^3)^2 = 1. \quad (11)$$

The exterior of the sphere represents space-like directions namely unpolarized or partially polarized light.

Multiplying the spinor  $\eta^A$  by a complex number  $p = \lambda e^{i\theta}$  ( $\lambda$  and  $\theta$  real) the 4-vector  $x^\mu$  is stretched of  $\lambda^2$  but is unchanged in direction (cfr. (5)), namely it is independent from the choice of the angle  $\theta$ . The 4-vector is uniquely defined by the spinor but to a 4-vector correspond a lot of spinors, which differ by the multiplicative factor  $e^{i\theta}$ .

On the other side we want find a coherent description of a monochromatic wave, which contains the so-called "zero phase"  $\alpha = \delta_x$  ( $0 < \alpha < 2\pi$ ). In order to do this, we look at the spinor in its polarization vector form [6]:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \eta^1 \\ \eta^2 \end{pmatrix} = \sqrt{\frac{I}{2}} e^{i\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} (1+p^1)^{1/2} \\ (1+p^1)^{-1/2}(p^2+ip^3) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

This form of the spinor contains explicitly the zero phase and, as we have stated below, the corresponding 4-vector ( $g^0, g^1, g^2, g^3$ ), is unaffected by the choice of the angle  $\alpha$ .

### 3. The tangential plane and the angle $\alpha$

Let us consider the spinor mate [3]  $\xi^B$  of  $\eta^A$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \xi^1 \\ \xi^2 \end{pmatrix} = \sqrt{\frac{I}{2}} e^{-i\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} -(1+p^1)^{-1/2}(p^2-ip^3) \\ (1+p^1)^{1/2} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

The spinor and the spinor mate so defined satisfy the condition:

$$\eta_A \xi^A = I. \quad (14)$$

They build a basis normalized to  $I$  and if we consider  $I = 1$  the two spinor build a basis normalized to 1. The spinor and the spinor mate are linked by the equations:

$$\eta^A \xi^B - \xi^A \eta^B = \varepsilon^{AB} \quad (A, B = 1, 2), \quad (15)$$

where  $\varepsilon^{AB}$  is an antisymmetric symbol such that:  $\varepsilon^{12} = \varepsilon_{12} = 1$ ,  $\varepsilon^{AB} = -\varepsilon^{BA}$ . The spinor and the spinor mate constitute a spinor basis.

As we have stated below that  $X^{A\dot{V}}$  is transformed like a second rank spinor  $\chi^A \bar{\xi}^{\dot{V}}$ , we can calculate the component of  $Q^{A\dot{V}}$  using the spinor mate:

$$Q^{A\dot{V}} = \eta^A (\bar{\xi})^{\dot{V}}. \quad (16)$$

Now multiplying the spinor  $\eta^A$  by a complex number  $\rho = \lambda e^{i\theta}$ , the vector is stretched but also it depends on the choice of the angle  $\theta$  and in particular it depends on  $2\theta$ . The calculation of  $Q^{A\dot{V}}$  gives:

$$\begin{aligned} Q^{11} &= -\frac{I}{2} e^{2i\alpha} (p^2 + ip^3), & Q^{12} &= \frac{I}{2} e^{2i\alpha} (1 + p^1), \\ Q^{21} &= -\frac{I}{2} e^{2i\alpha} (1 + p^1)^{-1} (p^2 + ip^3)^2, & Q^{22} &= \frac{I}{2} e^{2i\alpha} (p^2 + ip^3) \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

which corresponds to a complex point. Infact, by the Eq. (3) the components of the corresponding 4-vector  $q^\mu$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} q^0 &= 0, \\ q^1 &= -\frac{I}{2} e^{2i\alpha} (p^2 + ip^3), \\ q^2 &= \frac{I}{4} e^{2i\alpha} \frac{(1+p^1)^2 - (p^2+ip^3)^2}{1+p^1}, \\ q^3 &= -\frac{I}{4i} \frac{(p^2+ip^3) - (1+p^1)^2}{1+p^1}. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

If the real and imaginary parts are separated, the two real 4-vectors have components  $q_R^\mu = (0, \vec{q}_R)$  and  $q_I^\mu = (0, \vec{q}_I)$  which are:

$$\begin{aligned} q_R^0 &= 0, \\ q_R^1 &= I(-p^2 \cos 2\alpha + p^3 \sin 2\alpha), \\ q_R^2 &= I\left(\frac{p^1(1+p^1) + (p^3)^2}{1+p^1} \cos 2\alpha + \frac{p^2 p^3}{1+p^1} \sin 2\alpha\right), \\ q_R^3 &= I\left(-\frac{p^2 p^3}{1+p^1} \cos 2\alpha - \frac{p^1(1+p^1) + (p^2)^2}{1+p^1} \sin 2\alpha\right). \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

$$\begin{aligned} q_I^0 &= 0, \\ q_I^1 &= I(-p^2 \sin 2\alpha - p^3 \cos 2\alpha), \\ q_I^2 &= I\left(\frac{p^1(1+p^1) + (p^3)^2}{1+p^1} \sin 2\alpha - \frac{p^2 p^3}{1+p^1} \cos 2\alpha\right), \\ q_I^3 &= I\left(-\frac{p^2 p^3}{1+p^1} \sin 2\alpha + \frac{p^1(1+p^1) + (p^2)^2}{1+p^1} \cos 2\alpha\right). \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The 4-vector  $q^\mu$  is space-like and in particular of magnitude equal to  $I$ . The 4-vector  $p^\mu(1, p^1, p^2, p^3)$ ,  $q_R^\mu(0, \vec{q}_R)$ ,  $q_I^\mu(0, \vec{q}_I)$  are orthogonal in the sense:

$$p^\mu (q_R)_\mu = 0, \quad p^\mu (q_I)_\mu = 0, \quad (q_I)^\mu (q_R)_\mu = 0. \quad (21)$$

And it is easy to see that even  $\vec{g} = (g^1, g^2, g^3)$ ,  $\vec{q}_R = (q_R^1, q_R^2, q_R^3)$  and  $\vec{q}_I = (q_I^1, q_I^2, q_I^3)$  are orthogonal and of modul equal to 1 in the Euclidean space. So the vectors  $\vec{q}_R$  and  $\vec{q}_I$  provide basis vectors ( $I = 1$ ) in the two-dimensional space which is the tangential plane at the point  $\vec{p}$  on the Poincare' sphere. When the angle  $\alpha$  varies, the vectors  $\vec{q}_R$  and  $\vec{q}_I$  rotate in the tangential plane.

The aim is now to visualize the angle  $\alpha$  and to find a reference for  $\alpha = 0$ . For the horizontal polarization  $\vec{p}_H = (1, 0, 0)$  and for  $\alpha = 0$ ,  $\vec{q}_R$  is the tangential vector to the equatorial great circle. If  $\alpha$  increases,  $\vec{q}_R$  rotates in the tangential plane clockwise through an angle of  $2\alpha$ . Keeping  $\alpha = 0$ , the fact that the point  $\vec{p}_H$  moves into the point  $\vec{p}$  corresponds to a rotation applied to the spinor  $\eta^A$ . This means a change of the basis, which means different  $\vec{q}_{R(\alpha=0)}$  and  $\vec{q}_{I(\alpha=0)}$ . The rotation matrix, which preserves the angle  $\alpha$  and which moves the point  $\vec{p}_H$  to the point  $\vec{p}$  is:

$$R = \left( \frac{1}{1 + |\rho|^2} \right)^{-1/2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -|\rho|e^{-i\delta} \\ |\rho|e^{i\delta} & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (22)$$

where  $\rho = \frac{E_y}{E_x} = |\rho|e^{i\delta}$  ( $\delta = \delta_y - \delta_x$ , cfr. (1)) is the polarization ratio. This is a rotation around the axis  $\vec{n}(0, -\sin \delta, \cos \delta)$  through an angle such that  $\cos \theta = \frac{1 - |\rho|^2}{1 + |\rho|^2} = p^1$ . The rotation (22) preserves the angle between the directions but not the direction, so the vector  $\vec{q}_{R(\alpha=0)}$  changes its direction. The direction  $r$  (cfr. Fig. 1), obtained by the intersection of the great circle through  $\vec{p}_H$  and  $\vec{p}$ , forms with the vector  $\vec{q}_{R(\alpha=0)}$  an angle  $\delta$  and with the vector  $\vec{q}_R$  the angle  $2\alpha + \delta$ . It is very important to find a reference for  $\alpha = 0$  because  $\vec{q}_R$  forms an angle  $\delta$  with the direction  $r$  but  $\delta$  is different for every point on the sphere. To solve this problem, let us consider  $\vec{p}$  and  $\vec{q}_R$  and  $\vec{q}_I$  for any  $\alpha$ , consider the correspondent spinor, apply the rotation which preserves the

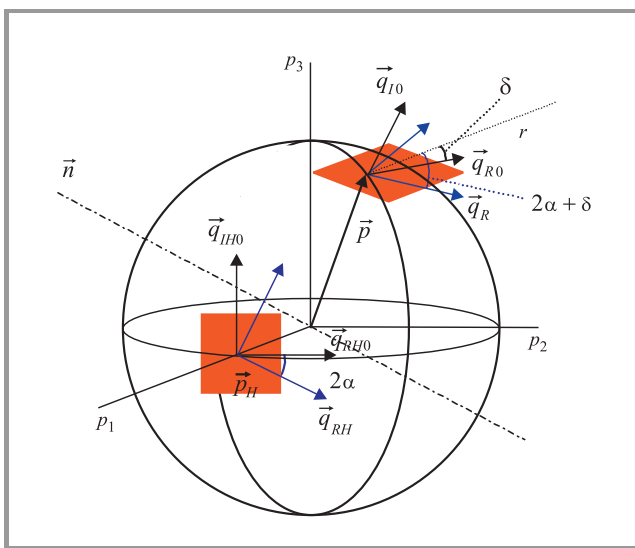


Fig. 1. The Poincare' sphere and the tangential planes in the point  $\vec{p}_H$  and in the point  $\vec{p}$ .

angle  $\alpha$  and move the vector  $\vec{p}$  in the point  $\vec{p}_H$  to obtain the vector  $\vec{q}_{RH}$  and the angle  $2\alpha$  is the angle between  $\vec{q}_{RH}$  and  $\vec{q}_{RH(\alpha=0)}$ .

The spinor and the spinor mate constitute a spinor basis. It is easy to see that the correspondent 4-vectors (cfr. Eq. (6)) fix on the Poincare' sphere two antipodal points ( $(p^1, p^2, p^3)$  and  $(-p^1, -p^2, -p^3)$ ) which are the basis states of polarization [7]. If the corresponding  $\vec{q}_R$  and  $\vec{q}_I$  vectors are calculated, the result is:

$$\vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{q}_R, \vec{q}_I \quad -\vec{p} \rightarrow -\vec{q}_R, \vec{q}_I. \quad (23)$$

With the help of the spinor, the change of basis is easy because it corresponds to a unitary transformation of the spinor which corresponds to a rotation in the three dimensional space. Infact the group of two-dimensional special unitary transformations (with unit determinants), which preserve the invariants, are homomorphic to the three-dimensional rotation group [5]. The general form of the spin rotation matrix is:

$$R = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} (\sigma_1 n_1 + \sigma_2 n_2 + \sigma_3 n_3), \quad (24)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle of rotation,  $(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  are the components of the axis  $\vec{n}$  of rotation in the Euclidean space and  $\sigma_i$  are the Pauli matrices. The transformation law of a spinor is:

$$\eta \rightarrow \eta' = R \eta. \quad (25)$$

It is possible to show that the rotation spin matrix is a unitary matrix and its determinant is necessarily unity.

## Acknowledgment

Laura Carrea is supported by the TMR Network for Radar Polarimetry, Theory and Applications (Network Contract number: ERB-FMRX-CT98-0211).

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