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Optimized Stokes imaging for highly resolved optical speckle fields, part II: Optimal acquisition & estimation strategies

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Abstract: In this second article of a three-paper series focusing on Stokes polarimetry of 8 optical speckle fields resolved at the individual speckle grain scale, a theoretical study based 9 on numerical simulations is presented in order to establish the optimum sensing, estimation 10 and processing strategies that guarantee the best precision, accuracy and robustness for Stokes 11 polarimetry in this specific context. In particular, it is demonstrated that the so-called State 12 Of Polarization Analysis by Full Projection on the Poincaré space (SOPAFP) approach can be 13 optimized in order to ensure best estimation performance. These numerical simulations also make 14 it possible to establish that the SOPAFP approach provides better results in terms of robustness to 15 residual experimental imperfections of the setup when compared to classical Stokes polarimetry 16 approaches. 17

18 1. Introduction

This article is the second of a three-paper series titled "Optimized Stokes imaging for highly 19 resolved optical speckle fields". In the first article of the series [1], we have extensively described 20 an optimized experimental Stokes polarimetric imaging system resolved at the speckle grain 21 scale, and shown some preliminary results validating the experimental setup. In this second 22 article, we will rely on numerical simulations to investigate and establish the optimal sensing and 23 estimation strategies to perform Stokes imaging in the context of highly resolved speckle pattern. 24 For that purpose, we will compare the performances of various estimation schemes for 25 (full-Stokes) polarimetry: 26

either with approaches commonly used in standard polarimetric imaging involving a limited
 number (≥ 4) of intensity measurements along different polarization analyzing directions;

 or with the so-called SOPAFP approach (State Of Polarization Analysis by Full Projection on the Poincaré space) proposed initially in [2], and which, as its name suggests, probes numerous (several 10's to several 100's) polarimetric states located at the surface of the Poincaré sphere.

These various approaches and the optimal choice for these probe states are discussed in 33 Section 3, after Section 2 recalls the mathematical formalism required. In Section 4, based on 34 numerical simulations of realistic experiments, we evidence (for the first time to our knowledge) 35 the fundamental interest of the SOPAFP approach by showing how it allows to guarantee the 36 highest estimation accuracy and precision independently of the signal-to-noise (SNR) level or 37 the degree of polarization (DOP) of light, while superseding classical approaches in terms of 38 robustness or unbiasedness to certain experimental imperfections (such as calibration defects, 39 misalignments,...). These comparisons are based on numerical simulations to evaluate various 40 experimental influences encountered when studying the speckle field in a highly resolved manner. 41 Indeed, the influence of SNR, orientation error and polarimetric analyzer calibration error on the 42 quality of estimation of the state of polarization is evaluated, as is the ability of each approach to 43 estimate partially depolarized states. 44

45 2. Mathematical formalism and notations

Throughout this paper, we will rely on the so-called Mueller/Stokes formalism to describe the 46 polarimetric light-matter (linear) interaction by matrix calculation. The polarimetric state S^{out} 47 resulting from the interaction of an incident polarization state S^{in} with a given sample can be 48 calculated as follows [3] as $S^{out} = M S^{in}$, where M denotes a real 4 × 4 Mueller matrix which 49 characterizes the polarimetric response of the sample. In the above equation, S^{in} (respectively 50 S^{out}) denotes the Stokes vector (4-component real, column vector) of the input (resp. output 51 light). This Stokes formalism is widely used in polarimetric imaging due to its ability to 52 describe any polarimetric state of a light source, whether the light is fully polarized or not, 53 and to the accessibility of its parameters through experimental intensity measurements. It 54 is therefore perfectly suited for polarimetric imaging of highly resolved speckle fields and is 55 classically defined [4] as $\mathbf{S} = [S_0, S_1, S_2, S_3]^T$, where T denotes matrix transposition and with $S_0 = E_{0x}^2 + E_{0y}^2$, $S_1 = E_{0x}^2 - E_{0y}^2$, $S_2 = E_{0x}^2 E_{0y}^2 \cos(\phi)$ and $S_3 = E_{0x}^2 E_{0y}^2 \sin(\phi)$, E_{0x} (respectively E_{0y}) denoting the horizontal (respectively vertical) component of the transverse electric field 56 57 58 of the light. S_0 represents the total intensity, S_1 is the portion of light linearly polarized along 59 the vertical or horizontal axis, S_2 is the portion linearly polarized along the $\pm 45^{\circ}$ axes and S_3 60 represents the portion circularly polarized right or left [4]. The degree of polarization can be 61 determined from the Stokes vector as follows: 62

$$DOP = \frac{\sqrt{S_1^2 + S_2^2 + S_3^2}}{S_0} = \sqrt{s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2} = ||\mathbf{s}||, \qquad (1)$$

where the $s_i = S_i/S_0$, $_{i=1,...,3}$ are the components of the reduced 3-dimensional Stokes vector **s** and with $\|.\|$ denoting the vector quadratic norm.

Experimental estimation of the full Stokes vector therefore requires a minimum of four 65 intensity measurements I_k resulting from the projection of the incident state S^{in} with the 66 probed polarimetric state $S_{PSA,k}$ where k represents the index of the probed state of the 67 polarimetric analyzer. The intensity measured for each acquisition of index k results from a 68 scalar product of the input Stokes vector with the analysis Stokes vector, as $I_k = \mathbf{S}_{PSA k}^T \cdot \mathbf{S}^{in}$. 69 More generally, the set of measured intensities I can be written as a k-dimensional column 70 vector: $\mathbf{I} = [I_1, \dots, I_k, \dots, I_N]^T = W \mathbf{S}^{in}$ where W represents the *analysis* matrix composed of 71 N probe states $S_{PSA,k}$ ($k \in [1, N]$). The matrix can be defined through the following equation: 72 $W^T = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{PSA,1} \dots \mathbf{S}_{PSA,N} \end{bmatrix}.$ 73

The concept of estimating the polarization state using a Mueller matrix description of the 74 polarization state analyzer is not new and has provided a rich (both theoretical and experimental) 75 literature even recently with non standard approaches [5–7]. Thus, to estimate the Stokes vector 76 for a single polarization state, there exists a variety of available W sensing matrices. The selection 77 of this analysis matrix depends mainly on the experimental conditions, such as the accessibility 78 of the probe states and the number of states to be probed as a function of the available time to 79 perform the measurement. Some probe states are more easily accessible with conventional optical 80 elements, but the use of a variable delay phase plates such as liquid-crystal variable retarders 81 (LCVRs) now makes it possible to access to any probe state. Indeed, as extensively described 82 in the Part I of this article series [1], using a pair of LCVRs with appropriate orientations, 83 followed by a polarizer, it is possible to access any probe state across the Poincaré's sphere, 84 by addressing the LCVR1 (respectively LCVR2) with voltage level V_1 (resp. V_2), inducing an 85 optical phase delay ϕ_1 (resp. ϕ_2) which is deduced from V_1 from a calibration step performed 86 at fixed temperature and given wavelength. It is important to notice that, troughout this article 87 series, experiments and simulations were performed at a fixed monochromatic wavelength of 88 $\lambda = 532$ nm. Non-monochromatic illuminations could also be envisaged, but would require 89 accounting for the dispersion of the optical elements and the optical phase delay of LCVRs. The 90

optimal choice of the W analysis matrix is discussed in more details in next section.

32 3. Analysis matrices *W* and associated estimation methods

This section describes the classical polarization analysis states (or equivalently, the analysis 93 matrices W) commonly used in polarimetric imaging and the associated estimation approaches. 94 The most widely used sets of polarization analysis states will be referred here as Stokes-4 95 (abbreviated St-4) and Stokes-6 (abbr. St-6), and are represented respectively on the top left and 96 top right corners of Fig. 1. The bottom left corner of Fig. 1 shows the classical *Tetrahedron* (abbr. 97 *Tet*) analysis matrix for which optimality results for the estimation performance under various 98 noise models hold [8–14]. The last set of polarization analysis states, represented in the bottom 99 right part of Fig. 1, and which will be referred to as Spiral (abbr. Sp), is much less widespread 100 in the polarimetric imaging community. However, it has shown great experimental interest for 101 polarimetric imaging of highly resolved speckle fields [15], and is at the core of the so-called 102 103 SOPAFP approach described above.



Fig. 1. Poincaré's sphere representation of various sets of polarization analysis states used in Stokes polarimetric imaging: (top left) *Stokes-4*, (top right) *Stokes-6*, (bottom left) *Tetrahedron* and (bottom right) *Spiral*.

All of these approaches are based on the measurement of a set of intensity values, related to 104 the incident polarimetric state by a system of linear equations recalled above. The performance 105 of the various sets of analysis states (i.e., of matrices W) in solving such system is studied in 106 the following sections, in terms of estimation accuracy and precision, as well as robustness to 107 experimental imperfections. For this purpose, we need to introduce the condition number (CN) of 108 an analysis matrix W, defined as $CN(W) = ||W|| \cdot ||W^{-1}||$ [16], where ||.|| denotes the Euclidian 109 matrix norm. In this case, this CN is equal to the ratio between the largest and the smallest 110 singular value of the matrix W. In dimension 4, for the mathematical space of the Stokes vectors, 111 it is well known that its optimal value is $\sqrt{3}$ ($\simeq 1.7321$) [11]. 112

113 3.1. Stokes-4

The *Stokes-4* acquisition analysis matrix enables all these parameters to be evaluated in a minimum of four measurements. Typically, the four intensities measured are I_H , I_V , I_{+45} and I_L , corresponding to analyzing the light through standard directions of polarizations. These intensities are easily accessible with conventional optical elements (polarizer, quarter-wave phase plate, etc.), and correspond to the linear probe states (horizontal, vertical and +45°) and the

circular probe state (circular left in our case). The resulting conditioning number is not optimal
 and is equal to 3.226. With this configuration, the estimates of the incident Stokes vector are

¹²¹ generally obtained directly through:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{S}}_{St-4} = \begin{cases} S_0 = I_H + I_V \\ S_1 = I_H - I_V \\ S_2 = 2 \cdot I_{+45} - S_0 \\ S_3 = 2 \cdot I_L - S_0 \end{cases}$$
(2)

- where $\widehat{\mathbf{S}}_{St-4}$ represents the estimated Stokes vector.
- 123 3.2. Stokes-6

The *Stokes-6* analysis matrix is used to determine the Stokes vector from the following six intensity measurements: I_H , I_V , I_{+45} , I_{-45} , I_G and I_D . These intensities correspond to the six probe states: horizontal, vertical, $\pm 45^{\circ}$ and circular left and right. They are easily accessible experimentally, as described above. However, since this analysis matrix forms a regular octahedron within the Poincaré sphere (platonic solid), it allows an optimal CN equal to $\sqrt{3}$ to be obtained. The incident Stokes vector is also estimated by a direct computation of:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{S}}_{SI-6} = \begin{cases} S_0 = I_H + I_V \\ S_1 = I_H - I_V \\ S_2 = I_{+45} - I_{-45} \\ S_3 = I_L - I_R \end{cases}$$
(3)

130 3.3. Tetrahedron

With technological advances, and in particular owing to the democratization of variable delay LCVRs, it has become possible to choose the polarization analysis states at will across the Poincaré's sphere. As a result, it is well-established that the optimum CN is obtained with minimum of 4 measurements when these states are located on the summits of a regular tetrahedron [8–14]. The incident Stokes vector is in that case estimated by a direct inversion of the analysis matrix *W* (full-rank) as follows:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{S}} = W^{-1}\mathbf{I} \tag{4}$$

137 3.4. SOPAFP approaches

An alternative introduced as SOPAFP (State Of Polarization Analysis by Full Projection on 138 the Poincaré space) was implemented for the first time by J. Dupont et al. in the context of 139 Stokes imaging of highly resolved speckle grains [2, 15]. It consists in probing an important 140 number N of polarimetric states uniformly distributed across the surface of the Poincaré's sphere. 141 This approach makes it possible to acquire finer polarimetric results than previous approaches, 142 particularly in low-intensity areas, at the expense of a longer acquisition time. In this seminal 143 work, the distribution of the analysis states formed a spiral across the Poincaré's sphere, and we 144 shall refer to this set as "Spiral". 145

146 3.4.1. Spiral

The set of states used in [15] were chosen so as to form a spiral winding around the S_3 axis (see bottom right of Fig. 1). In this work, the Stokes vector was estimated at each pixel of the CCD

sensor by using a non-linear regression [2, 15] applied to an intensity curve obtained at each pixel of the sensor. Indeed, when the various sensing states are applied successively, the measured intensity at each pixel describes a curve as a function of the polarization state probed, and the shape of the curve unequivocally correspond to a given input state. An example of such curve is shown in Fig. 6 of the first article of this series [1], for a spiral composed of N = 96 states, providing a CN of $1.742 > \sqrt{3}$, but close to the optimal value.

This approach, coupled to a non-linear regression estimation technique, was applied to the 155 experimental bench in our laboratory and has been tested in this work on simulation results in 156 order to compare the performance with other estimation approaches. In our implementation, a 157 non-linear regression was applied to each intensity curve to estimate the parameters p, χ and ψ 158 corresponding respectively to the DOP, the polarization ellipticity and the polarization azimuth 159 of the input light polarization, at a given pixel. These estimated parameters were finally used to 160 derive the incident reduced Stokes vector, described in spherical coordinates as $\mathbf{s}_{in}^T = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \end{bmatrix}^T$, 161 with $s_1 = p \cos(2\psi) \cos(2\chi)$, $s_2 = p \sin(2\psi) \cos(2\chi)$ and $s_3 = p \sin(2\chi)$. 162

We can note that this approach is similar to that used by Dupont, *et al.* in [2, 15], except that they relied on a different parameterization of the input Stokes vector. In our case, the intensity measured by the CCD sensor can be rewritten as a function of the three parameters p, χ and ψ of the incident Stokes vector and of the optical delays ϕ_1 , k and ϕ_2 , k introduced by the LCVR1 and LCVR2 plates for each state k = 1, ..., N to be analyzed as:

$$I_{k} = \frac{I_{0}}{2} \Big[1 - p \cdot \cos(2\chi) \cos(2\psi) \cos(\phi_{2,k}) \\ - p \cdot \sin(2\chi) \cos(\phi_{1,k}) \sin(\phi_{2,k}) \\ + p \cdot \cos(2\chi) \sin(2\psi) \sin(\phi_{1,k}) \sin(\phi_{2,k}) \Big],$$
(5)

with I_0 the total intensity of the input state. As described in Section 4, this equation has been used in the present work to simulate the intensity measurements (direct model).

¹⁷⁰ On the other hand, to evaluate the Stokes vector at each pixel from the measured intensity ¹⁷¹vector, we used an optimization algorithm (implemented on GNU Octave using the function ¹⁷²fminsearch() [17]), to determine the parameters p, χ and ψ , given that the values of ϕ_1 , k and ¹⁷³ ϕ_2 , k are in principle perfectly known and correspond to the optical phase delays introduced by ¹⁷⁴the LCVRs if the system is properly calibrated. The criterion to minimize simply consisted in a ¹⁷⁵root-mean-square (RMS) error, defined as :

$$\hat{\epsilon}(p,\chi,\psi) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} |I_{simul,k}(p,\chi,\psi,\phi_{1,k},\phi_{2,k}) - I_k|^2$$
(6)

This optimization algorithm, which is based on the Nelder-Maed's [18] method, requires an 176 approximate knowledge of the values of the parameters to be determined (initialization values) 177 to prevent the optimisation of the algorithm from converging to a local minimum. To satisfy 178 this requirement, an intensity look-up-table (LUT) has been generated for the phase shifts $\phi_{1,k}$ 179 and $\phi_{2,k}$ by varying each parameter p, χ and ψ from 0 to 1 in steps of 0.1. In this way, 1331 180 intensity curves were simulated in the LUT, allowing the initialization value of the parameters 181 vector in the optimization algorithm to be determined by picking up the set of parameters that 182 minimizes the RMS residual error described by (6) between the measured intensity curve and 183 the 1331 tabulated curves. Once seeded with such initialization, the minimization algorithm 184 was shown to converge easily towards an estimated value. An example of a result obtained is 185 shown in Fig. 6 of the first paper of this series [1], where we simulated the intensity curve that 186 would be obtained by illuminating a metal plate with a light source with left circular incident 187 polarization, and analyzing the backscattered light through N = 96 spiral analysis states. The 188

curve I_{th} corresponds to the theoretical polarization input state, whereas I_{opt} stands for the intensity variation obtained with the parameters estimated by numerical optimization.

¹⁹¹ However, in an imaging context, this optimization must be carried out at each location (pixel) ¹⁹² of the image, which requires significant post-processing time for images of the order of 700×700

¹⁹³ pixels. For example, with a 4x4 pixel binning factor, the post-processing time lasts about

 $_{194}$ 5.3 × 10³s, i.e. almost 90 minutes on an ordinary computer. To minimize this processing time,

we proposed to rely on a classical direct inversion scheme, involving the pseudo-inverse of W,

¹⁹⁶ since in this case *W* is not an invertible square matrix anymore, i.e.,

$$\widehat{\mathbf{S}}_{Sp} = (W^T W)^{-1} W^T \mathbf{I}.$$
(7)

¹⁹⁷ As shown below, such inversion improves the processing time by several orders of magnitude.

¹⁹⁸ 3.4.2. Spiral of tetrahedrons analyzing states

As stated in the previous subsection, for N = 96 states probed, the *Spiral* analysis matrix is close 199 to the optimum CN, but it has the disadvantage that this CN depends on the number of states 200 probed (see Fig. 2.b). By optimizing the location of the polarization probe states, it is possible to 201 ensure that the CN of the selected matrix W is strictly equal to $\sqrt{3}$. For that purpose, we propose 202 to use a set of analysis states, referred to as Spiral of tetrahedrons (abbr. SpTet), which consists 203 of a set of N_T regular tetrahedrons inscribed in the Poincaré's sphere, providing $N = 4 N_T$ probe 204 states (i.e., a $4 \times N$ analysis matrix). As a result it is possible to build a set of states with optimum 205 CN of any size N, provided N is a multiple of 4. An example of such set of states is provided 206 in Fig. 2.a: N = 96 states have been generated from $N_T = 24$ tetrahedrons using the following 207 method (detailed in Supplemental Information 1): starting with a first reference tetrahedron, 208 regular rotations are applied so that one of the vertices of the tetrahedrons follows the trajectory 209 of a spiral wounded along the S3 axis (blue markers in Fig. 2.a) according to the previous Spiral 210 approach. However, this rotation does not modify all four vertices in the same way, producing a 211 less uniform distribution on the surface of the Poincaré's sphere, and the procedure detailed in 212 Supplemental Information 1 is used to warrant the maximal uniformity of the N probe states 213 accross the sphere. 214



Fig. 2. (a) Distribution of analysis states for the *Spiral of tetrahedrons* analysis matrix, where each colour represents the state resulting from the rotation of one of the vertices of the reference tetrahedron. (b) Evolution of the CN of three analysis matrices (*Spiral of tetrahedrons, Spiral*, and uniformly distributed random set of points) as a function of the number of states $N \in \{16, 52, 100, 324, 500, 1000, 5000, 10000\}$.

In Fig. 2.b, we represented the relative excess in CN, with respect to the minimum optimal value of $\sqrt{3}$, for three different sets of probe states with increasing number of points $N \in$ {16, 52, 100, 324, 500, 1000, 5000, 10000}: the *Spiral of tetrahedrons* set, the *Spiral* set, and a uniformly distributed random set of states. This plot confirms that, by construction, the *Spiral of tetrahedrons* set maintains optimal CN of the matrix *W* independently of the number of probe states. The conditioning of the "Spiral" matrix is very close to the optimal value when the number

- of probe states is above 100. Finally, the CN obtained with the random set is very dependent on
- the number of states and increases very rapidly when the number of probe states decreases.



Fig. 3. Example of histogram of the DOP estimated by non-linear regression (blue) or direct inversion (red) on an experimental speckle image of 10^4 pixels. Inset: The number of pixels in each class obtained by the direct inversion method is plotted against those obtained by non-linear regression.

To conclude this section, we provide a comparison between the estimation results obtained on 223 experimental data by the non-linear regression approach (as used in anterior implementations 224 of the SOPAFP method [2, 15], and by the direct inversion procedure of Eq. (7) in order to 225 validate that this latter approach is able to provide the same results but with a huge acceleration 226 in processing time. In Fig. 3, we plotted the histogram of the DOP values estimated on 10^4 pixels 227 of a speckle image obtained by illuminating a metal plate with a vertically polarized incident 228 homogeneous light beam. The experimental setup corresponds to the one described in the first 229 part of this article series [1]. This graph shows that the two estimation methods are very similar, 230 which is confirmed by the coefficient of determination R^2 of 0.999. Across the whole field 231 of view of 700×700 pixels accessible in this experiment, using a binning factor of 2×2 , the 232 non-linear regression estimation requires $> 2 \times 10^4$ s, whereas only 14.4 s are required for direct 233 inversion, i.e., an speed-up factor of more than 1500 times. In the following of this article series, 234 direct inversion estimation will then be used when the SOPAFP approach is implemented, and in 235 particular in the simulation results presented in the next section. 236

237 4. Comparative performances of analysis matrices for Stokes imaging

In this section, we describe the methodology and performance metrics used to generate exhaustive
simulations of the estimation performances (in terms of accuracy and precision) of the various
sensing strategies detailed above. We then comparatively analyze the efficiency of these various
matrices *W* while varying the simulated experimental conditions in terms of signal-to-noise ratio
(SNR), DOP and influence of an imperfect calibration/alignment of the experimental setup.

243 4.1. Simulation methodology

The five choices of analysis matrices *W* presented above will be compared in this section in terms of Stokes vector estimation performance. To compare these various sensing approaches on a fair basis, we will consider a set of N = 96 simulated experimental measurements for each matrix *W*. For all matrices *W* requiring fewer analysis states, we will consider a repetition of independent measurements in order to obtain the same number of N = 96 intensity measurements, as summarized in Table 1.

Now, in order to characterize the "average" estimation performance of each analysis matrix Wover all the input polarimetric states S_{in} that could be encountered, we further simulated $M = 10^3$ randomly selected input Stokes vectors. These randomly simulated states were in practice

Matrix W	Stokes 4	Stokes 6	Tetrahedron	Spiral	Spiral of tetrahe- drons
# distinct states	4	6	4	96	96
# repetitions	24	16	24	1	1
Total measures	N = 96				

Table 1. Comparison between the number of analysis and repetition states for each analysis matrix.

produced so as to obtain Stokes vectors corresponding to a purely polarized light (DOP = 1), by drawing $M = 10^3$ independent uniformly distributed values between -1 and 1 of the three reduced Stokes parameters s_1 , s_2 and s_3 . After normalization of the vector \mathbf{s}_{in} , and multiplication

by a constant value S_0 , we obtain the set of simulated Stokes vectors as: $S_{in}^T = S_0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{\mathbf{s}_{in}^T}{\|\mathbf{s}_{in}\|} \end{bmatrix}$.

Finally, we modeled the influence of the photon noise on the simulated acquisitions. This is 257 important as, in the context of speckle imaging at the grain scale, the acquired intensity images 258 are composed of bright grains (corresponding to constructive interferences) and dark areas 259 (corresponding to destructive interferences). The SNR is therefore higher in the bright areas, while it is degraded in the regions of lower intensity. The SNR therefore varies spatially in the 261 intensity image, and we must verify the robustness of the estimation procedure w.r.t. noise. For 262 that purpose, all measurements were repeated over a number of $R = 10^3$ independent realizations 263 of Poisson noise affecting the intensity measurement simulated. For each simulated acquisition 264 with average intensity I, we generated R noisy versions of the measure n_{I_i} , $j \in [1, R]$ with 265 n_{I_j} identically and independently distributed according to a Poisson probability distribution of 266 parameter I (i.e., $P_{n_{I_i}}(n_{I_i}) = e^{-I} I^{n_{I_j}}/n_{I_i}!$). Poisson noise being multiplicative, the SNR of the 267 simulated acquisition is controlled by the value of the total intensity of the input light S_0 . 268

In summary, the simulation results reported below will compare the performance of various sensing matrices *W* over a set of $M = 10^3$ distinct input Stokes vectors, each of them requiring N = 96 intensity measurements to be estimated, each estimation being repeated itself over $R = 10^3$ noise realizations.

273 4.2. Mathematical performance descriptors

In the following, we may resort to two definitions of performance metrics for the estimation problem at stakes, to account respectively on the accuracy and precision of the estimation method.

276 4.2.1. Accuracy

For given input Stokes vector, the accuracy of the estimation is evaluated through the computation of an average relative systematic bias \hat{b} , defined by

...

...

$$\widehat{b} = \frac{\left\|\mathbf{S}_{sim} - \langle \widehat{\mathbf{S}} \rangle\right\|}{\left\|\mathbf{S}_{sim}\right\|},\tag{8}$$

- where the known simulated Stokes vector \mathbf{S}_{sim} is compared to the mean estimated Stokes vector $\langle \widehat{\mathbf{S}} \rangle$ resulting from the $R = 10^3$ noise realizations for each input Stokes vector.
- A further averaging over the $M = 10^3$ distinct input Stokes vectors finally allows the average
- bias $\langle b \rangle$ to be computed. This quantity will be used in the following as a global figure of merit of
- the estimation accuracy for the different matrices W.

284 4.2.2. Precision

285 Similarly, we proposed to evaluate the relative precision of the Stokes vector estimate by computing

the norm of the vector of standard deviations of the Stokes vector components, evaluated over the

 $R = 10^3$ noise realizations, and normalized by the norm of the average Stokes vector estimate:

$$\widehat{\sigma} = \frac{\left\|\sqrt{\left\langle \widehat{\mathbf{s}}^{2} \right\rangle - \left\langle \widehat{\mathbf{s}} \right\rangle^{2}}}{\left\|\left\langle \widehat{\mathbf{s}} \right\rangle\right\|}.$$
(9)

A further averaging over the $M = 10^3$ distinct input Stokes vectors finally allows the average relative precision $\langle \hat{\sigma} \rangle$ to be computed. This quantity will be used in the following as a global figure of merit of the estimation precision for the different matrices W.

4.2.3. Graphical representation

In the following graphs, these descriptors \hat{b} and $\hat{\sigma}$ will be represented in the form of a Turkey box indicating the distribution of the data in the form of quartiles (first and third quartiles), with the median represented by a red line, and the minimum and maximum value of the sample given by the vertical error bar. In addition, the mean values $\langle \hat{b} \rangle$ or $\langle \hat{\sigma} \rangle$ over the $M = 10^3$ various input Stokes vectors will also be represented with a pink square, as shown in Fig 4.b for instance.

297 4.3. Simulation results and analysis

In this subsection, we focus on the influence of the main experimental errors present on a
 polarimetric imaging system, such as the measurement noise, presence of partial depolarization,
 and finally a misalignment or a calibration error of the PSA.

301 4.3.1. Influence of the SNR

To estimate the influence of the SNR on the estimation of the Stokes vector, we generated similar simulations for three average intensities corresponding to 10^3 , 10^4 and 10^5 photons for a fixed exposure time, leading respectively to SNR values of 31.6, 100 and 316.2. The results shown below, intending to compare the 5 different matrices *W* for the estimation of the Stokes vector, have been carried out on the same set of simulated measurements.

The simulation results in terms of estimation accuracy are displayed in Fig. 4, for the various SNRs and matrices W studied. As expected, the relative average bias $\langle \hat{b} \rangle$ decreases as the SNR increases, as can be clearly seen in Fig. 4.a. On the one hand, we observe that the accuracy is clearly improved at low SNR (Fig. 4.b) when the "Tetrahedron", "Spiral" and "Spiral of Tetrahedrons" analysis matrices are considered: the mean bias is lower, but also the maximum bias observed is clearly diminished by a factor of about 3. This is interesting in the context of our study of polarimetry of highly resolved speckle grains, as the SNR will be severely degraded in low-intensity regions.

On the one hand, at high SNR (Fig. 4.d) the relative average bias seems almost similar for the various analysis matrices. However, if we look at the distribution of estimated biases, the dispersion of the biases appears to be slightly lower for the "Spiral" and "Spiral of Tetrahedrons" matrices. This lower bias dispersion seems to indicate that an analysis matrix with many states distributed uniformly over the Poincaré's sphere can provide a systematic bias that is less dependent on the polarimetric state to be analyzed, than with a matrix *W* comprising only a few probed states.

We now focus on the estimation precision of the different analysis matrices, which is evaluated through the computation of the normalized standard deviation of the vector estimates as in Eq. (9). As shown in Fig. 5 a., the precision logically increases with the SNR value. We also observe that



Fig. 4. (a) Average estimation bias over 1000 random polarimetric input states as a function of the SNR and for different analysis matrices W. (b-d) Distribution of the relative estimation bias over the $M = 10^3$ different polarization states, as a function of different analysis matrices for three distinct SNRs.

for a given SNR, the mean relative precision $\langle \hat{\sigma} \rangle$ remains of the same order of magnitude for 325 the various matrices W. More interesting to analyze is the dispersion of $\hat{\sigma}$ over the $M = 10^3$ 326 input states. We can clearly see that the span of values reached by the estimated relative standard 327 deviation $\hat{\sigma}$ is 11 times (respectively 2.75 times) higher for the *Stokes-4* approach (respectively 328 for the *Stokes-6* approach) than for the last three matrices W, which seem to be a much better 329 choice to avoid extreme values of standard deviations when the input Stokes vector is varied. 330 In order to compare the relative performances of these last three approaches, two of them 331 being by construction optimal as they reach the minimum CN of the matrix W (Tetrahedron and 332 Spiral of Tetrahedrons), we plot in Fig. 5.b the distribution of their relative standard deviations 333 $\hat{\sigma}$, for a SNR of 100. It can be seen that precision obtained for each matrix is very similar (a 334 feature that occurred to be independent of the SNR, as tested during further simulations which 335

are not reported here for the sake of conciseness). As discussed later, the non-optimality of the Spiral set of sensing states cannot be detected here, due to the important number of states N = 96considered.

As an intermediate conclusion, these first simulation results confirm that the SOPAFP approaches (using either *Spiral* and *Spiral of tetrahedrons* matrix) can be employed to determine any Stokes vector with a better accuracy than usual Stokes imaging approaches, in particular at low SNR. In addition, these matrices have the supplementary advantage of providing near-optimal estimation precision, with a much lower dispersion of the estimation standard deviation compared with the more conventional *Stokes-4* and *Stokes-6* measurement methods.

345 4.3.2. Influence of depolarization

In this subsection, we analyze the influence of a possibly non unitary DOP of the input Stokes 346 vector to estimate. This is common in the context of applications of polarization imaging in 347 the biomedical or industrial field, but this can also be relevant in our context of speckle grains 348 polarimetry. Indeed, depending on the polarization properties of the illumination light source, 349 the DOP within a speckle grain can range from 0 to 1 in the general case. Therefore, we analyzed 350 the robustness of the various sensing matrices W to a partial depolarization of the input Stokes 351 vector. To this end, we simulated three different experiments, strictly similar to each other, except 352 for the DOP p of the simulated input Stokes vector, that was varied among $p \in \{1, 0.5, 0.1\}$. 353 This is easily operated by forming, for each normalized Stokes vector \mathbf{s}_{in} generated, the following 354



Fig. 5. (a) Influence of the SNR on the relative precision of the Stokes vector estimates for various analysis matrices W. For each analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to SNR levels of: 31.6, 100 and 316. (b) Dispersion of the precision $\hat{\sigma}$ of the Stokes vector estimates for the *Tetrahedron*, *Spiral* and *Spiral of Tetrahedrons* analysis matrices for a SNR of 100.

355 Stokes vector: $S_{in}^T = s_0 \left[1 - p \frac{\mathbf{s_{in}}^T}{\|\mathbf{s_{in}}\|} \right].$

Photon noise with a SNR of 100 was again applied to the simulated signals and $R = 10^3$ realizations of noise were carried out for each of the $M = 10^3$ random states to be estimated. Concerning the estimation accuracy, Fig. 6 shows that the average relative bias increases as the DOP decreases, in a similar way for all the analysis matrices studied. To be more quantitative, we note that the ratio between the average relative bias obtained for a DOP of 1 and that of 0.1 is of the order of 10.



Fig. 6. Influence of the DOP of the input Stokes vector on the estimation quality of each analysis matrix. For the same analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to a DOP of 1, 0.5 and 0.1. These simulations were carried out with an SNR of 100 and over $M = 10^3$ distinct input Stokes vectors.

Furthermore, for a given DOP, is can be observed that the average bias (pink squares) is approximately comparable, regardless of the analysis matrix chosen, except for the *Stokes-4* configuration, where the average bias obtained is 1.4 times higher than that of the other matrices. However, in terms of dispersion of the bias, Fig. 6 tends to show that for a DOP of 0.1 the *Spiral of tetrahedrons* is the best analysis matrix, the dispersion for the other matrices being slightly higher.



Fig. 7. Influence of depolarization on the estimation precision of the Stokes vector for each analysis matrix W. Three values of DOP are studied: 1, 0.5 and 0.1 respectively.

As for the estimation precision, Fig. 7 shows that the relative precision is degraded as the DOP 368 decreases, by a factor of 10 between that obtained for a DOP of 1 and 0.1, independently of the 369 analysis matrix. This ratio of precision degradation is similar to that calculated for the estimation 370 accuracy. It can be seen that the Tetrahedron, Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrices 371 have comparable accuracy (average value and dispersion) and evolve with the DOP in a similar 372 way. The Stokes-4 cnfiguration is still the one with the highest precision dispersion, and is 373 therefore of little interest in our case for fine polarimetric analysis of the speckle pattern. As for 374 the Stokes-6 approach, the performance is lower than that of the Tetrahedron, Spiral and Spiral of 375 tetrahedrons matrices for a high DOP, but as the polarization rate decreases, its precision and 376 precision dispersion become comparable to those of the other three matrices. 377

Once again, the sensing configuration proposed in this artice (*Spiral of Tetrahedrons*) allows one to guarantee the best compromise between estimation accuracy and precision. This is further evidence in the next subsection, where we analyze the robustness to experimental imperfections of the setup.

382 4.3.3. Influence of experimental imperfections

In this section, we study the influence of a misalignment or of an incorrect calibration of one of

the elements of the PSA used in the Stokes imaging setup developed to study the polarimetry of

³⁸⁵ highly resolved speckle fields. The PSA classically consists of two LCVRs (*LCVR*₁ and *LCVR*₂ ³⁸⁶ respectively), whose fast axes are aligned respectively along the vertical axis and at -45° from the ³⁸⁷ horizontal axis in a clockwise direction, followed by a linear polarizer along the vertical direction. ³⁸⁸ The Mueller matrix of such PSA reads $M_{PSA} = M_P(\theta_p)M_{LCVR2}(\theta_2, \phi_2)M_{LCVR1}(\theta_1, \phi_1)$ ³⁸⁹ where $M_P(\theta_p)$ is the Mueller matrix of an ideal polarizer whose eigenaxis is oriented along an ³⁹⁰ angle θ_p and is defined as :

$$M_{P}(\theta_{p}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c(2\theta_{p}) & s(2\theta_{p}) & 0\\ c(2\theta_{p}) & c^{2}(2\theta_{p}) & c(2\theta_{p})s(2\theta_{p}) & 0\\ s(2\theta_{p}) & c(2\theta_{p})s(2\theta_{p}) & s^{2}(2\theta_{p}) & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
(10)

where we set $c(x) = \cos(x)$ and $s(x) = \sin(x)$. In our case, θ_p is ideally set equal to $\pi/2$. The Mueller matrix of a variable phase plate is defined as :

$$M_{LCVR}(\theta,\phi) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c^2(2\theta) + c(\phi)s^2(2\theta) & c(2\theta)s(2\theta) [1 - c(\phi)] & -s(\phi)s(2\theta) \\ 0 & c(2\theta)s(2\theta) [1 - c(\phi)] & s^2(2\theta) + c(\phi)c^2(2\theta) & s(\phi)c(2\theta) \\ 0 & s(\phi)s(2\theta) & -s(\phi)s(2\theta) & c(\phi) \end{pmatrix},$$
(11)

where θ and ϕ represent respectively the orientation of the eigenaxes and the voltage-controllable optical phase delay applied between the two propagation eigenaxes in the liquid crystal. In the ideal case, $\theta_1 = \pi/2$ and $\theta_2 = -\pi/4$.

In this section, to analyze the robustness of the estimation methods to experimental imperfections, an orientation error ϵ of 1° was introduced successively on one of the PSA elements. As described below, we also simulated a possible incorrect value of the optical phase delays due to an imperfect calibration. The analyzer Mueller matrix is thus written as :

$$M_{PSA} = M_P(\theta'_p) M_{LCVR2}(\theta'_2, \phi'_2) M_{LCVR1}(\theta'_1, \phi'_1),$$
(12)

with $\theta'_i = \theta_i + \epsilon_i$, $i \in \{p, 1, 2\}$, and $\phi'_i = \phi_i + \delta\phi_i$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$. For instance, simulating an orientation error in LCVR1 only will thus consists in fixing $\epsilon_1 = 1^\circ$, and $\epsilon_2 = \epsilon_p = 0^\circ$, $\delta\phi_i = 0$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. As in previous simulations, the generated signals are perturbed with photon noise corresponding to an SNR of 100, and $M = 10^3$ input Stokes vectors are tested to compute an average accuracy/precision of estimation with different analysis matrices W.

Misalignment error: We analyze in Fig. 8 the influence of a misalignment of a PSA element 405 on the accuracy of the estimation of the Stokes vector for the various analysis matrices. The main 406 conclusion that can be drawn from this plot is that the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis 407 matrices have a similar influence on the mean relative bias and its dispersion, regardless of which 408 optical element of the LCVR has an orientation error. Contrarily, for the other analysis matrices, 409 the bias introduced by an orientation error has a much higher dependency on the misoriented 410 411 element, particularly if the orientation error relates to one of the variable delay plates. Thus, by probing numerous states distributed uniformly over the surface of the Poincaré's sphere, an 412 error in the orientation of the axes of one of the PSA's optical elements will generate a bias that 413 is comparatively low, and roughly constant irrespectively of which element is disoriented. In 414 addition, for these two analysis matrices, the distribution of third quartiles of the estimated states 415 is clearly lower than for other sensing strategies. These simulations thus prove that one strong 416



Fig. 8. Influence of a misalignment of a PSA element on the accuracy of the estimation of the Stokes vector for each analysis matrix. For each analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to an orientation error of 1° on LCVR1, LCVR2 and polarizer.



Fig. 9. Influence of a misalignment of a PSA element on the precision of the estimation of the Stokes vector for each analysis matrix. For each analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to an orientation error of 1° on LCVR1, LCVR2 and polarizer.

interest in using the SOPAFP approach and its variants lies in its capacity to better limit the
 influence of experimental biases on the accuracy of the estimated results.

The precision measurement is analyzed in Fig. 9, which shows that a limited misalignment 419 of one of the elements of the PSA has no influence on the accuracy of the estimate of the 420 Stokes vector. This observation can be interpreted by the fact that a (limited) misalignment 421 of the PSA simply leads to the estimation of an inaccurate (biased) polarization state. In this 422 way, analysis matrices composed of many states distributed uniformly over the surface of the 423 Poincaré's sphere have an rather constant bias regardless of the misaligned element (as shown 424 above) and consequently, a less significant bias dispersion giving them greater robustness to 425 experimental orientation errors of the optical setup. 426

⁴²⁷ **LCVR calibration error:** Another source of experimental error can be encountered when ⁴²⁸ an incorrect calibration of the LCVRs voltage setpoint is used (due to an imprecise calibration, ⁴²⁹ temperature drifts...). Fig. 10.a shows the calibration curve of the LCVRs used in our experiment ⁴³⁰ providing the optical phase delay generated when a control voltage V is applied on the cell, at a ⁴³¹ stabilized temperature of 24° *C*. As mentioned in the first article of this series [1], a polynomial ⁴³² fit of these calibration curves allowed us to easily simulate the influence of a systematic error δV_i ⁴³³ in the voltage setpoints, by simulating the following Mueller matrix for the PSA: .

$$M_{PSA} = M_P(\theta_P) M_{LCVR2}(\theta_2, \phi'_2) M_{LCVR1}(\theta_1, \phi'_1),$$
(13)



Fig. 10. (a) Calibration curve for the two LCVR plates for 45 different voltages ranging from 0 to 4.5 V, in steps of 0.1 V. (b) LCVR1 calibration curve with and without a set-point voltage error $\epsilon_V = 0.05$.

with $\phi'_i = \phi_2(V_i + \delta V_i)$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$. An error of $\delta V_1 = 0.05$ V has been simulated and provides the erroneous response in optical phase delay shown in Fig. 10.b.



Fig. 11. Influence of a calibration error on one of the PSA variable delay plates on the accuracy of the Stokes vector estimation for each analysis matrix. For each analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to a perfect calibration, a calibration error on LCVR1 or on LCVR2.

Figure 11 shows the influence of such an imperfect voltage calibration on the accuracy of the 436 Stokes vector estimation. It can first be observed that the average relative bias $\langle \hat{b} \rangle$ for a voltage 437 error on LCVR2 is higher than that for an error on LCVR1 (except for the *Stokes-4* matrix). In 438 the case of a setpoint error on LCVR1, the average bias for the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons 439 analysis matrices is half that of the other matrices. Furthermore, in this case they have a lower 440 bias dispersion. However, this analysis is different if the setpoint voltage error affects LCVR2: in 441 that case the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrices are affected by a bias comparable 442 to that of other sensing approaches. This difference in behaviour between the two LCVRs can be 443 explained by looking at Eq. (5): the optical phase delay induced by LCVR2, ϕ_2 , modifies three 444 of the four terms of the equation, whereas the delay induced by LCVR1 only affects two of them. 445 On the other hand, an error in the setpoint voltage on one of the variable delay plates has very 446 little effect on the average precision of each analysis matrix as shown in Fig. 12. As a result, to 447 conclude this section, it can be again observed that for a voltage calibration error on the LCVR 448 setpoints, the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrices exhibit a lower dispersion than 449 the other analysis matrices in terms of accuracy (relative bias) and precision (relative standard 450 deviation). 451

452 5. Discussion and conclusion

The numerical simulations presented in this study have permitted to clearly validate the relevance of SOPAFP sensing approaches in Stokes polarimetry, i.e., performing polarimetric sensing



Fig. 12. Influence of a calibration error on one of the PSA variable delay plates on the precision of the determination of the Stokes vector for each analysis matrix. For each analysis matrix, the three candlesticks positioned from left to right correspond respectively to a perfect calibration, a calibration error on LCVR1 and on LCVR2.

using many (apparently superfluous) intensity measurements along a strong diversity of analysis states. Even though such approaches should be limited to particular experimental contexts where the acquisition time is not a limiting factor, the gain in estimation quality with the SOPAFP approach had already been noticed in the seminal paper of Dupont *et al.* [15], but without a clear demonstration of its origin.

In this paper, we first demonstrated that the non-linear regression procedure implemented in [15] could be advantageously replaced by a direct matrix inversion (or pseudo-inversion), with a huge acceleration of processing times by a factor of more than 1500. We then proposed an alternative set of polarization analysis states, referred to as *Spiral of Tetrahedrons*, that allows one to perform SOPAFP with an important number of sensing states covering as uniformly as possible the Poincaré's sphere, while at the same time ensuring an optimum CN of the analysis matrix to ensure optimal precision in the estimation by direct inversion.

Using extensive simulations of realistic imaging/sensing situations, we demonstrated that SOPAFP approaches involving the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrices could 468 provide optimal estimation accuracy (in terms of relative estimation bias) and precision whatever 469 the SNR or DOP of the input light. More interestingly, these SOPAFP approaches were shown to 470 clearly supersede other classical sensing strategies involving only a limited number of analysis 471 states in the case of slight experimental imperfections of the setup, resulting from improper 472 alignment or bad calibration of the LCVRs for instance, that can happen in practice, due to 473 temperature drifts. Indeed, we demonstrated that the SOPAFP approaches provide a low average 474 relative bias and, more importantly, a very low dispersion of this relative bias as a function of the 475 input polarization state to estimate, and for distinct imperfections of the PSA. 476

Now, a last topic that can be discussed in this study is the effective interest of using the Spiral 477 of Tetrahedrons analysis matrix we proposed instead of any kind of uniformly distributed set of 478 points across de Poincaré's sphere. As shown in Section 3.4.2, maximal coverage of the sphere 479 does not guarantee that the CN of the analysis matrix is minimum: therefore using a non-optimal 480 set of points should lead to a lower estimation precision. Although this was not detected in the 481 simulations presented above due to the important number of sensing points used (N = 96), we 482 compare in a last simulated experiment the relative performance in terms of precision between 483 the Spiral and Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrices, when the number of points N is varied, 484 and for three values of the DOP of the input Stokes vectors to estimate. The results obtained 485 and displayed in Fig. 13 confirm the fact that the slight non-optimality of the CN of the Spiral 486 analysis matrix which can be observed in Fig. 2.b) leads to a small degradation of the estimation 487 precision with respect to the Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrix which has an optimum CN, 488 this degradation being more pronounced for lower DOP of the input Stokes vector. Depending 489



Fig. 13. Relative precision defined by the ratio of the precision of the *Spiral* and *Spiral* of *Tetrahedrons* analysis matrices for three levels of degree of polarization (1, 0.5 and 0.1) for W matrices composed of 8 to 324 probe states.

on the application at hand, one could choose a different compromise between acquisition time and estimation precision/robustness by diminishing slightly the number of states composing the *Spiral of Tetrahedrons*. In the context of this article series, we sticked to a number of sensing points of N = 96, leading in our case to acceptable acquisition times.

As a conclusion, the SOPAFP approach and the proposed optimal alternative implementation 494 using the Spiral of Tetrahedrons analysis matrix can prove very efficient in applicative contexts 495 where very good accuracy/precision of the Stokes vector estimation is required, and in particular 496 in low SNR contexts and in the presence of depolarized input states. Moreover, we proved in this 497 study that such approaches are optimal also in terms of robustness to experimental imperfections. 498 As suggested in Ref. [15], the experimental challenge of performing Stokes polarimetry of highly 499 resolved speckle patterns at the individual grain scale is a perfect context for applying SOPAFP 500 approaches. Using the experimental setup detailed in the first article of this series [1], we shall 501 use the optimizes SOPAFP approach in the last article of the series [19] which details some of 502 the imaging results obtained experimentally with such optimized setup, as well as new graphical 503 representations of the polarization information, and an analysis of the distribution of polarization 504 states accross a speckle pattern, and in vicinity of polarization singularities. 505

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509 **Data availability.** Data underlying the results presented in this paper are not publicly available at this time 510 but may be obtained from the authors upon reasonable request.

511 Supplemental document. See Supplement 1 for supporting content.

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