

## 6, Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

The eigenvalue/eigenvector of an  $N \times N$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are defined as a scalar  $\lambda$  and a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{v}$  satisfying

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x},$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}, \quad (\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}).$$

- the matrix  $[\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}]$  should be *singular*, its determinant should be zero  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$ ,
- the determinant of the matrix  $[\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}]$  is a polynomial of degree  $N$  in terms of  $\lambda$ .

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

1. find the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ 's by solving the characteristic equation,

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}| = \lambda^N + a_{N-1}\lambda^{N-1} + \cdots + a_1\lambda + a_0 = 0,$$

2. then substitute the  $\lambda_i$ 's, one by one, into

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0},$$

to solve it for the eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}_i$ 's.

# Scaled power method: Largest magnitude

Suppose all of the eigenvalues of an  $N \times N$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are distinct with the magnitudes,

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \cdots \geq |\lambda_N|.$$

➡ For any initial vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , such as

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

➡ consequently, any initial vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the eigenvecotrs,

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_N \mathbf{v}_N.$$

➡ For  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_n = \lambda_n \mathbf{v}_n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0 &= \alpha_1 \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_N \lambda_N \mathbf{v}_N \\ &= \lambda_1 \left( \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_N \frac{\lambda_N}{\lambda_1} \mathbf{v}_N \right), \end{aligned}$$

# Scaled power method: Largest magnitude

→ repeat this multiplication over and over again to obtain,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_k &= \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{x}_0 \\ &= \lambda_1^k (\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_N \left(\frac{\lambda_N}{\lambda_1}\right)^k \mathbf{v}_N) \\ &\rightarrow \lambda_1^k \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1,\end{aligned}$$

→ we must keep scaling before multiplying at every iteration to prevent the overflow or underflow,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{A} \frac{\mathbf{x}_k}{\|\mathbf{x}_k\|_\infty} \\ &\rightarrow \lambda_1 \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|_\infty},\end{aligned}$$

where  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \text{Max}\{|\mathbf{x}_n|\}$ .

# Inverse power method: smallest magnitude

→ If the matrix is nonsingular  $\mathbf{A}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} &= \lambda \mathbf{x}, \\ \rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x} &= \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{x},\end{aligned}$$

→ this implies that the inverse matrix  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  has the eigenvalues that are the reciprocals of the eigenvalues of the original matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , but with the same eigenvectors.

→ we can apply the scaled power method for the eigenvalues with largest magnitude,

$$\lambda_N = \frac{1}{\text{the largest eigenvalue of } \mathbf{A}^{-1}},$$

to find the smallest (magnitude) eigenvalue  $\lambda_N$ .

# Shifted inverse power method

- ➔ To find the eigenvalue that is not necessarily of the largest or smallest magnitude, we subtract the eigenvalue equation by  $s\mathbf{v}$  ( $s$  is a number that does not happen to equal any eigenvalue,)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} &= \lambda \mathbf{x}, \\ \rightarrow [\mathbf{A}^{-1} - s\mathbf{I}]\mathbf{x} &= (\lambda - s)\mathbf{x},\end{aligned}$$

- ➔ this implies that  $(\lambda - s)$  is the eigenvalue of  $[\mathbf{A} - s\mathbf{I}]$ , we apply the inverse power method to get its smallest magnitude eigenvalue,
- ➔ then we add  $s$  to obtain the eigenvalue of the original matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  which is closest to the number  $s$ ,

$$\lambda_N = \frac{1}{\text{the largest eigenvalue of } [\mathbf{A} - s\mathbf{I}]} + s,$$

to find the smallest (magnitude) eigenvalue  $\lambda_N$ .

# Eigenpackages of Canned eigenroutines

- ➔ LAPACK: Linear Algebra Package
- ➔ EISPACK: Matrix Eigensystem Routines
- ➔ IMSL: Visual Numerics
- ➔ NAG: Numerical Algorithms Group
- ➔ ...

# Eigenpackages of Canned eigenroutines

- all eigenvalues and no eigenvectors,
- all eigenvalues and some corresponding eigenvectors,
- all eigenvalues and all corresponding eigenvectors,
- real, symmetric, tridiagonal,
- real, symmetric, banded,
- real, symmetric, full,
- real nonsymmetric,
- complex, Hermitian,
- complex, non-Hermitian.

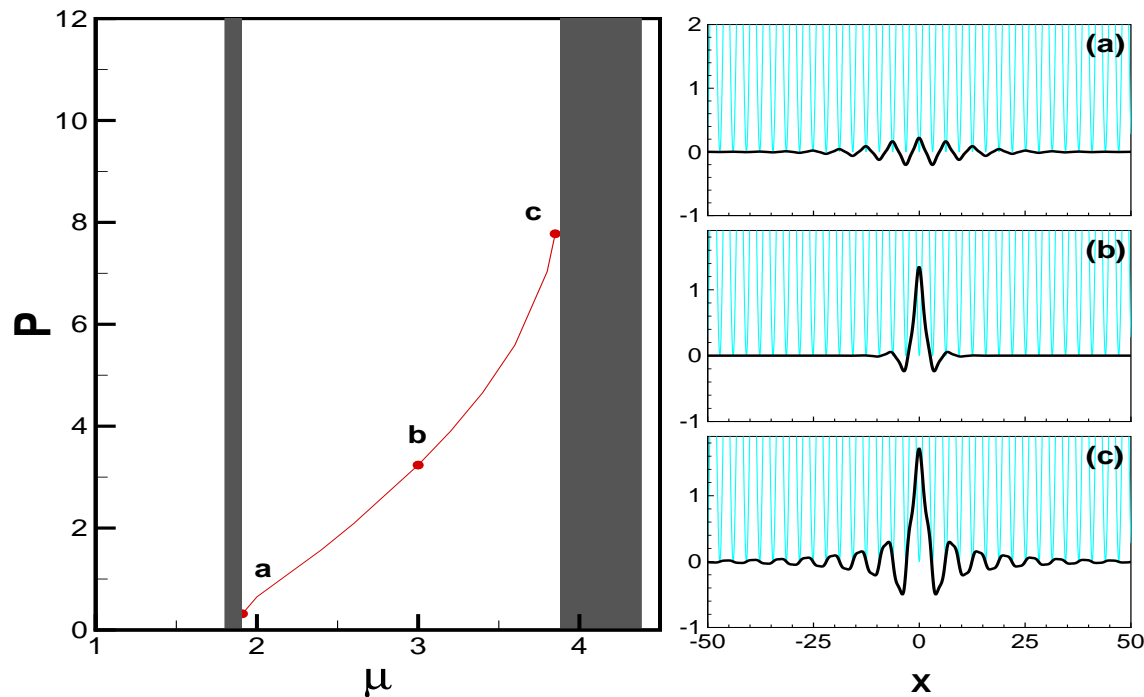


# Gap solitons in optical lattices

1-D Gross-Pitaevskii equation with periodic potentials,  $V(x) = V_0 \sin^2(k_0 x)$ ,

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Phi_0(t, x) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \Phi_0(t, x) + V(x) \Phi_0(t, x) + g_{1D} |\Phi_0(t, x)|^2 \Phi_0(t, x)$$

which has gap soliton solutions.



by FS + NK methods,  $N_x = 512$ , no. of iterations  $< 10$ ; [gpeol.m](http://gpeol.m).

# Band-Gap spectrum

1-D Gross-Pitaevskii equation with periodic potentials,  $V(x) = V_0 \sin^2(k_0 x)$ ,

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Phi_0(t, x) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \Phi_0(t, x) + V(x) \Phi_0(t, x) + g_{1D} |\Phi_0(t, x)|^2 \Phi_0(t, x).$$

For the stationary solution,

$$\Phi_0(t, x) = \phi(x) \exp(-i\mu t),$$

one have *time-independent* GP equation,

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} - [V_0 \sin^2(Kx) \phi - \mu \phi] - g_{1D} |\phi|^2 \phi = 0.$$

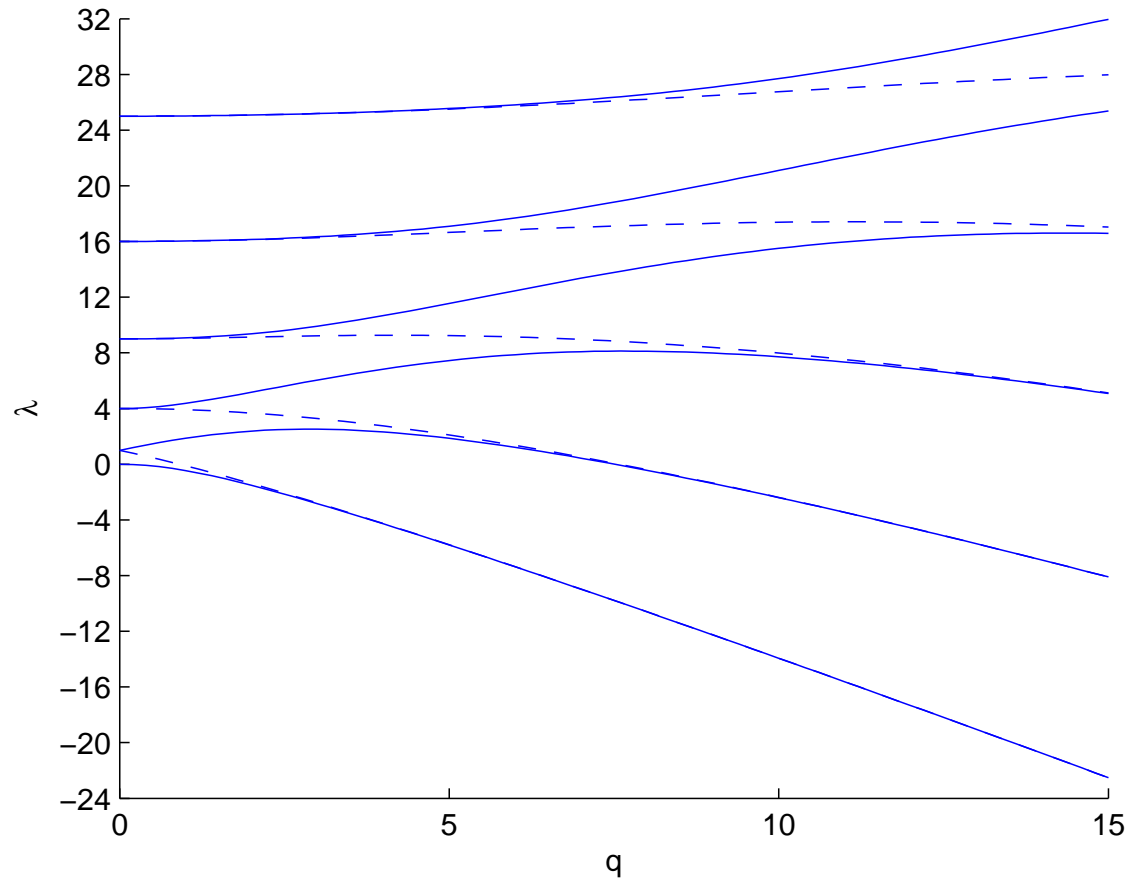
For the *linear* case (non-interacting condensate),  $g_{1D} = 0$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \phi}{dy^2} - [2q \cos(2y) - p] \phi = 0,$$

where  $y = Kx$ ,  $q = -V_0/(2K^2)$ , and  $p = 2(q + \mu/K^2)$ , which is the Mathieu's equation.

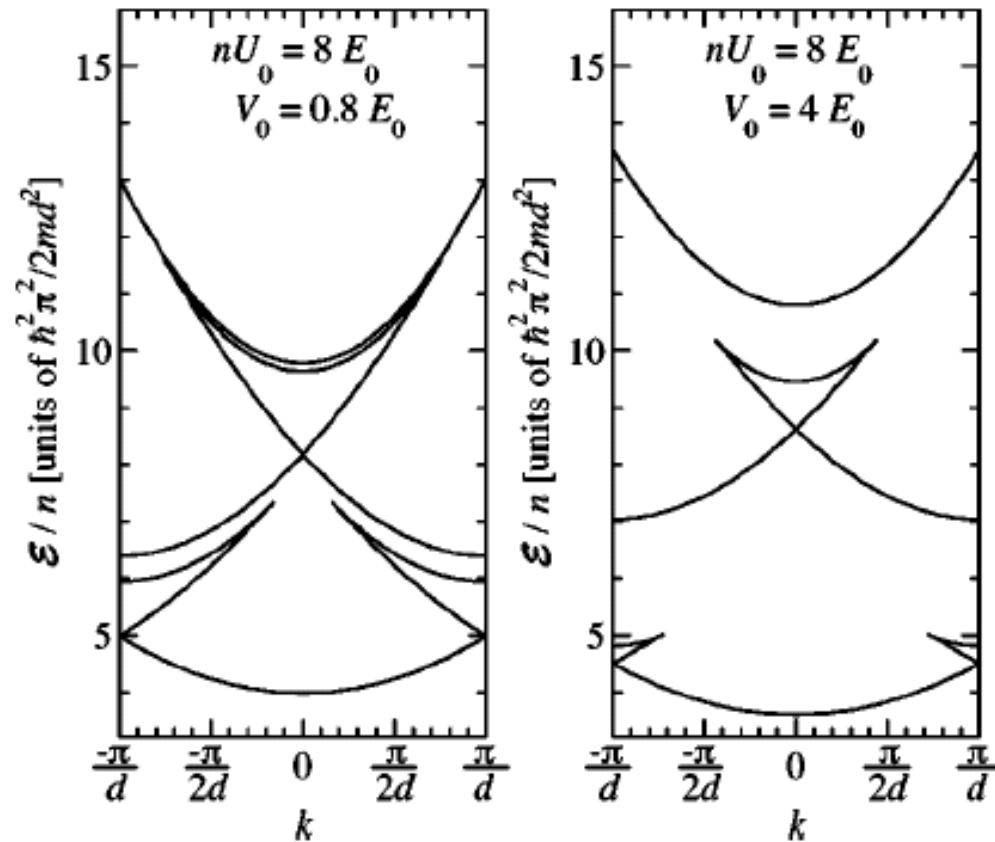
# Mathieu equation

$$\text{Mathieu equation: } -u_{xx} + 2q \cos(2x)u = \lambda u,$$

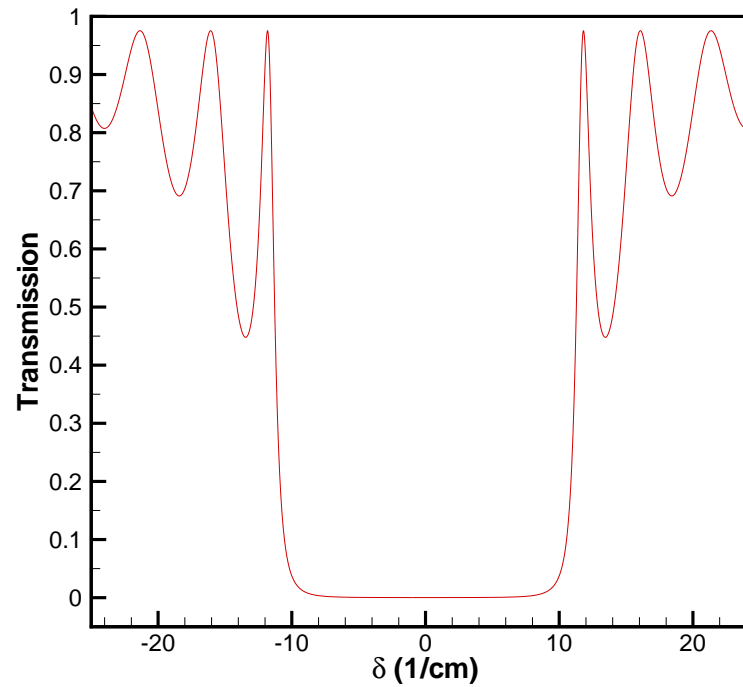
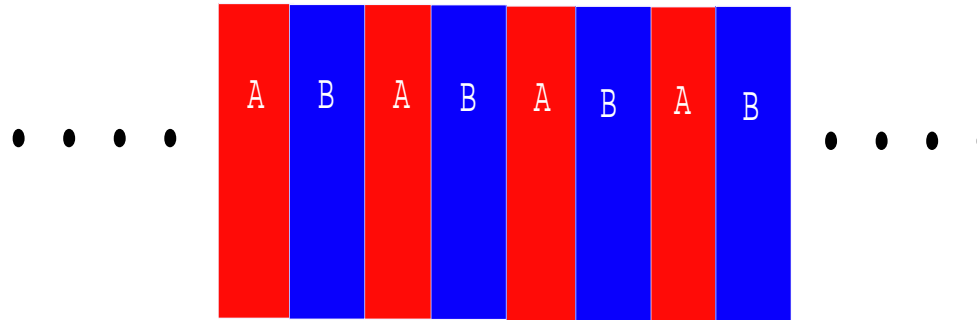


# Nonlinear band structure for BEC in OL

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} - [V_0 \sin^2(Kx) \phi - \mu \phi] - \sigma |\phi|^2 \phi = 0.$$



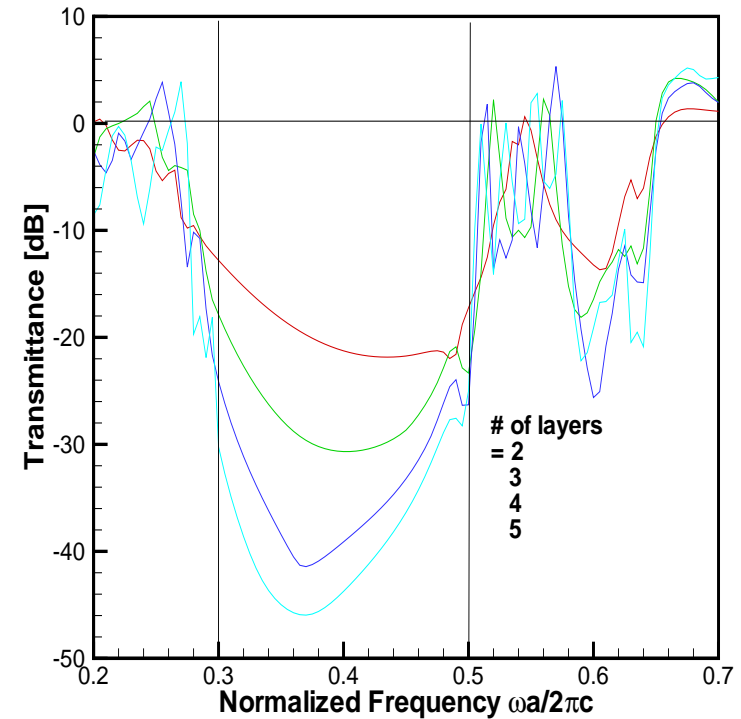
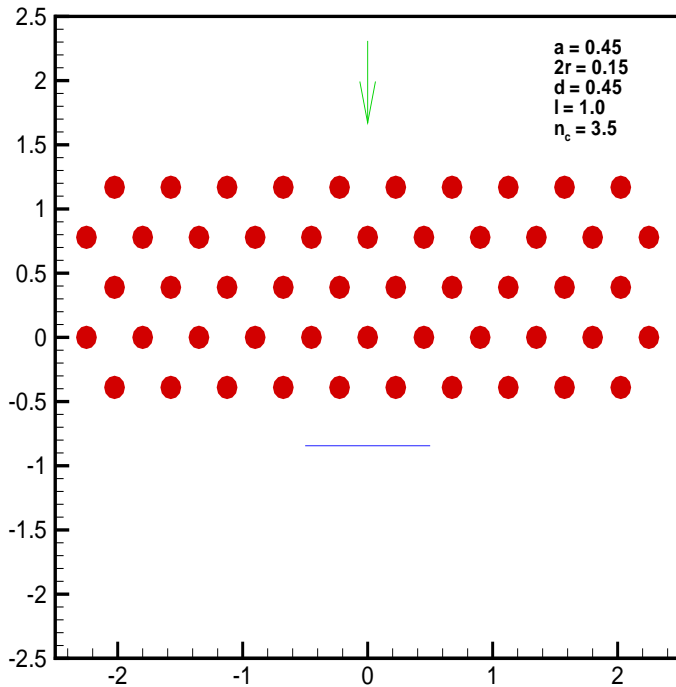
# Bragg reflectors



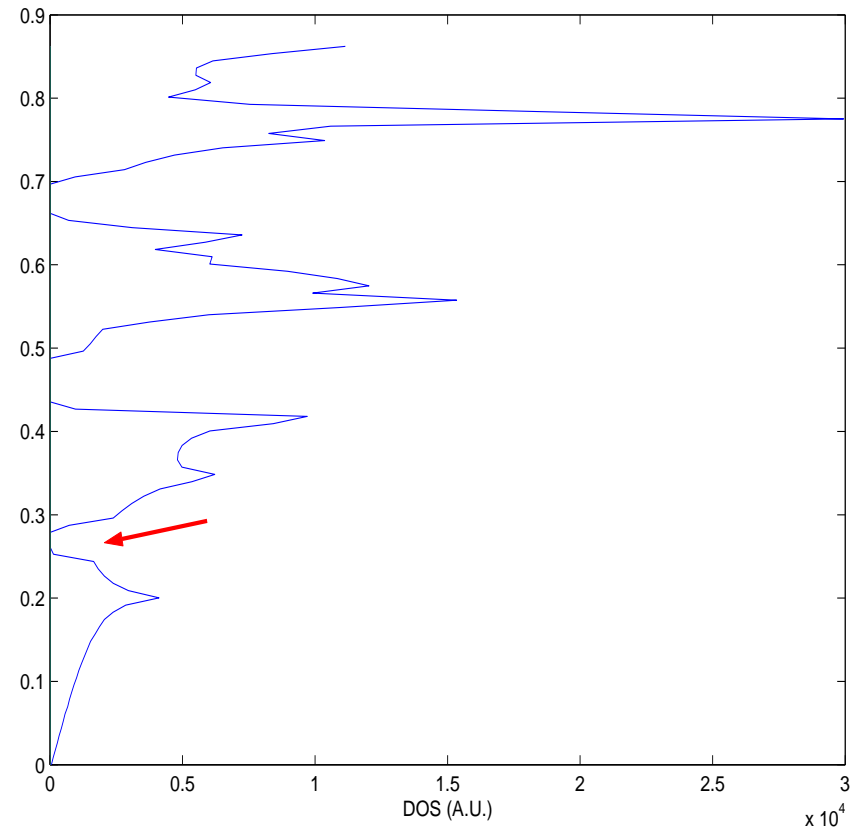
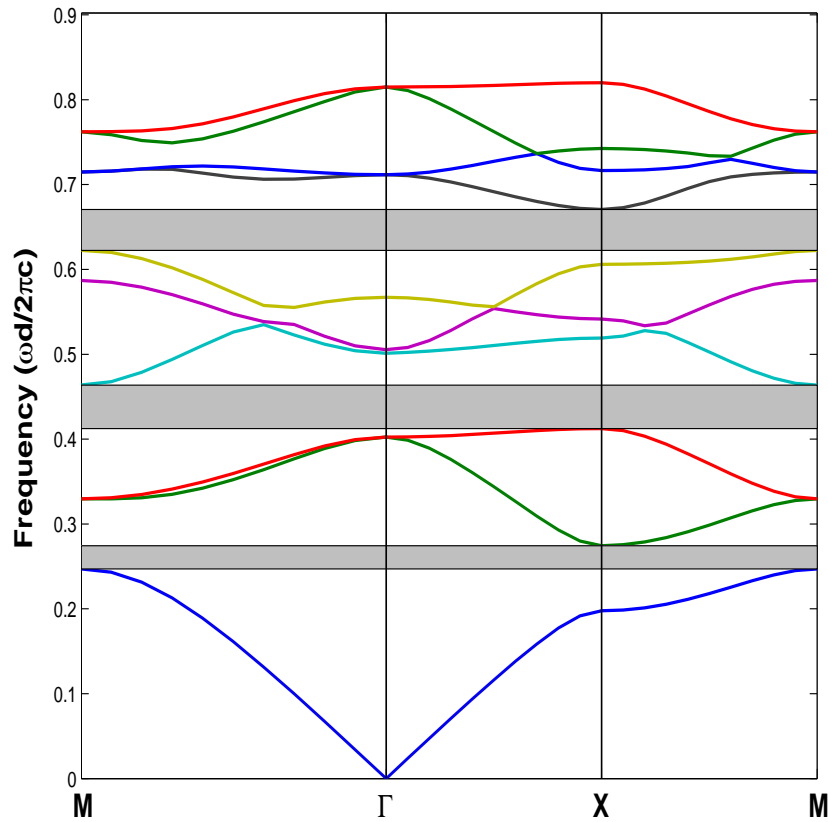
Nobel laureates **William Henry Bragg** and **William Lawrence Bragg** in 1915,

for their contribution to the X-ray diffraction analysis (Bragg diffraction).

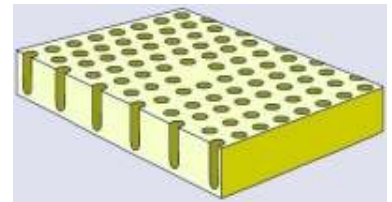
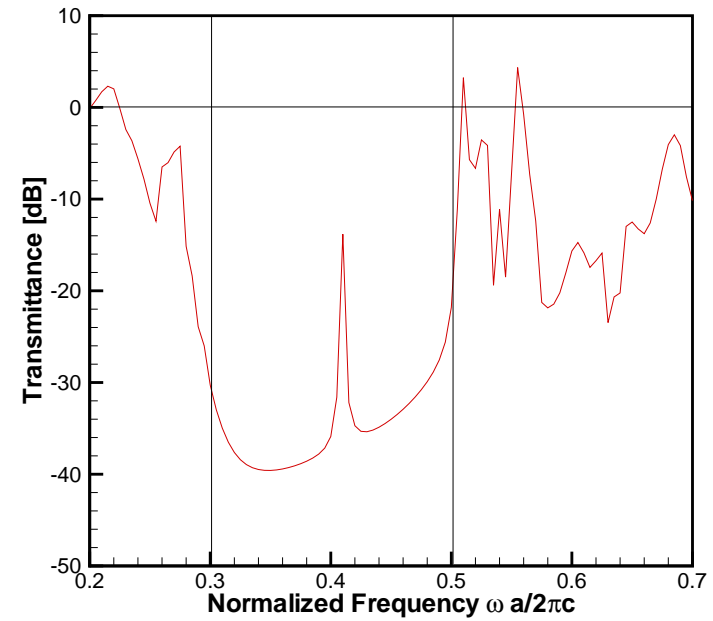
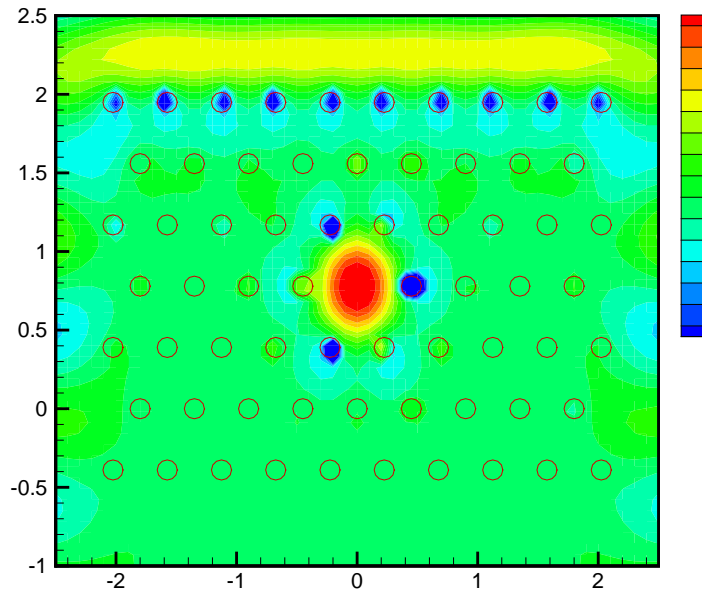
# Photonic Bandgap Crystals: two(high)-dimension



# Band diagram and Density of States

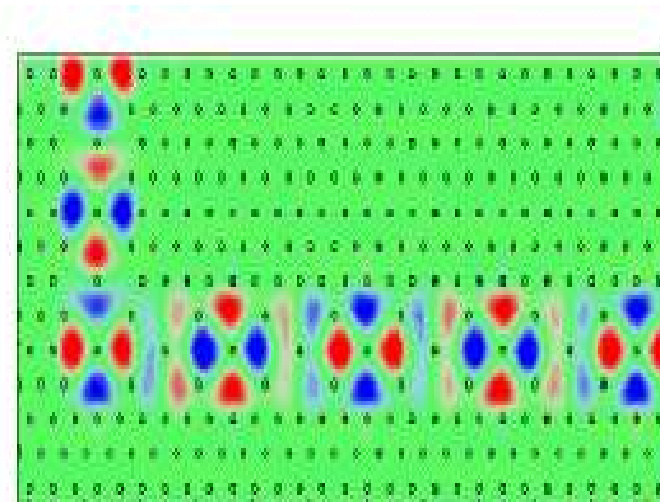
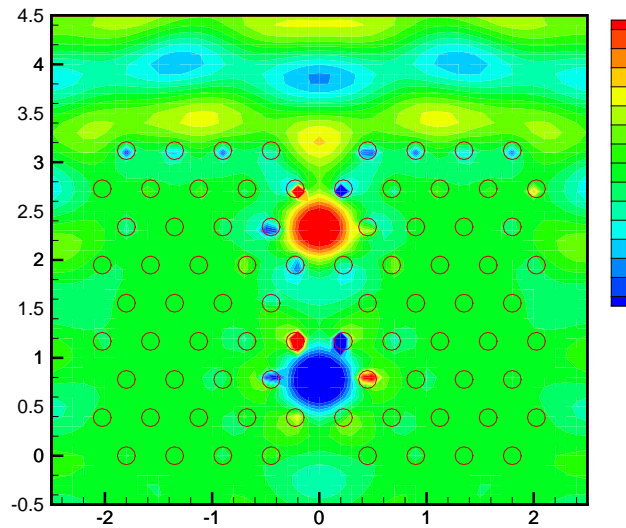
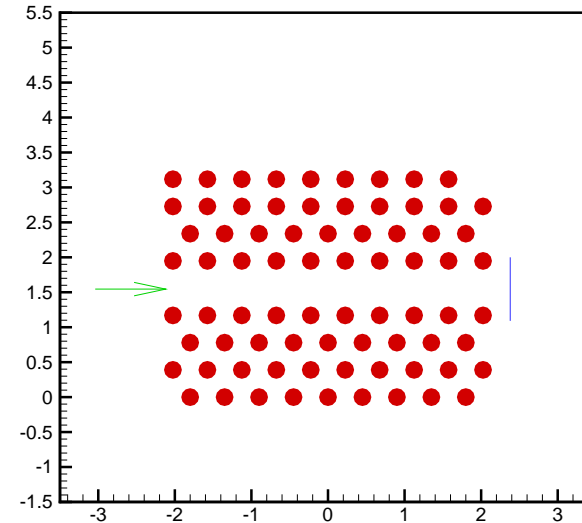
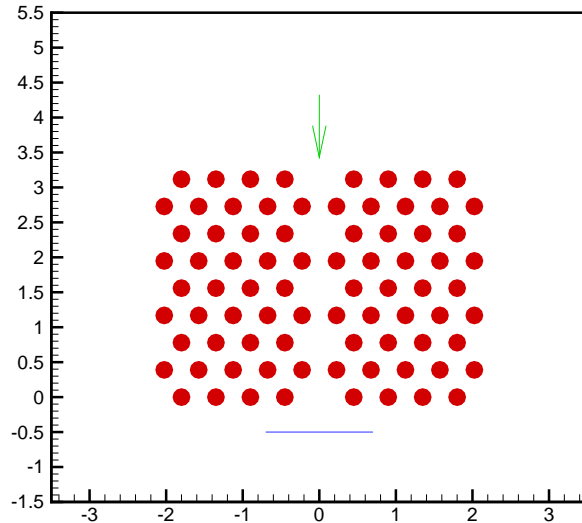


# Photonic Bandgap Crystals: point-defect (localized field)





# Photonic Bandgap Crystals: line-defects



# Maxwell equations

- For a linear, isotropic nondispersive material,

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{H},$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}.$$

- magnetic conduction current:

$$\mathbf{J}_m = \rho' \mathbf{H}.$$

- electric conduction current:

$$\mathbf{J}_e = \sigma \mathbf{E}.$$

Then the Maxwell's curl equations become

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{H} = -\frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \mathbf{E} - \frac{\rho'}{\mu} \mathbf{H}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \nabla \times \mathbf{H} - \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \mathbf{E}.$$

# Periodic structures

- For a **periodic** structure,

$$\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \epsilon_0 \epsilon(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

the periodicity of  $\epsilon(\mathbf{r})$  implies

$$\epsilon(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{a}_i) = \epsilon(\mathbf{r}), \quad (i = 1, 2, 3).$$

- then the Maxwell equations become,

$$\nabla \cdot \{\epsilon(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)\} = 0,$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) = 0,$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\mu_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \epsilon_0 \epsilon(\mathbf{r}) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t).$$

# Wave equations and plane wave expansion

→ then one can obtain the wave equations,

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \{ \nabla \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \} = -\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$
$$\nabla \times \left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right\} = -\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

→ use plane wave solution as basis,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\omega t},$$
$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\omega t},$$

→ then the wave equations become the *eigenvalue equations*,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{E}} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \{ \nabla \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) \} = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$
$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}) = \nabla \times \left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right\} = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

# Brillouin zone

- ➔ For a wave vector  $\mathbf{k}$  in the first Brillouin zone and a band index  $n$ , we can express the field as,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r})e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}},$$

where  $\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r})$  is a periodic function satisfying,

$$\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{a}_i) = \mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r}).$$

- ➔ only consider the  $\mathbf{E}$ -field in two-dimensional space,

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \{ \nabla \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) \} = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}),$$

- ➔ which can be reduced to

$$\mathcal{L}_E^{(2)} \mathbf{E}_z(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \left\{ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right\} \mathbf{E}_z(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}),$$

# Brillouin zone

→ apply Bloch's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}_z(\mathbf{r}) &= \mathbf{E}_{z,\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{r}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbf{E}_{z,\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{G}) \exp\{i(\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{G}) \cdot \mathbf{r}\},\end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$  are the reciprocal lattice vector in two dimensions,

$$\mathbf{G} = l_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + l_2 \mathbf{b}_2,$$

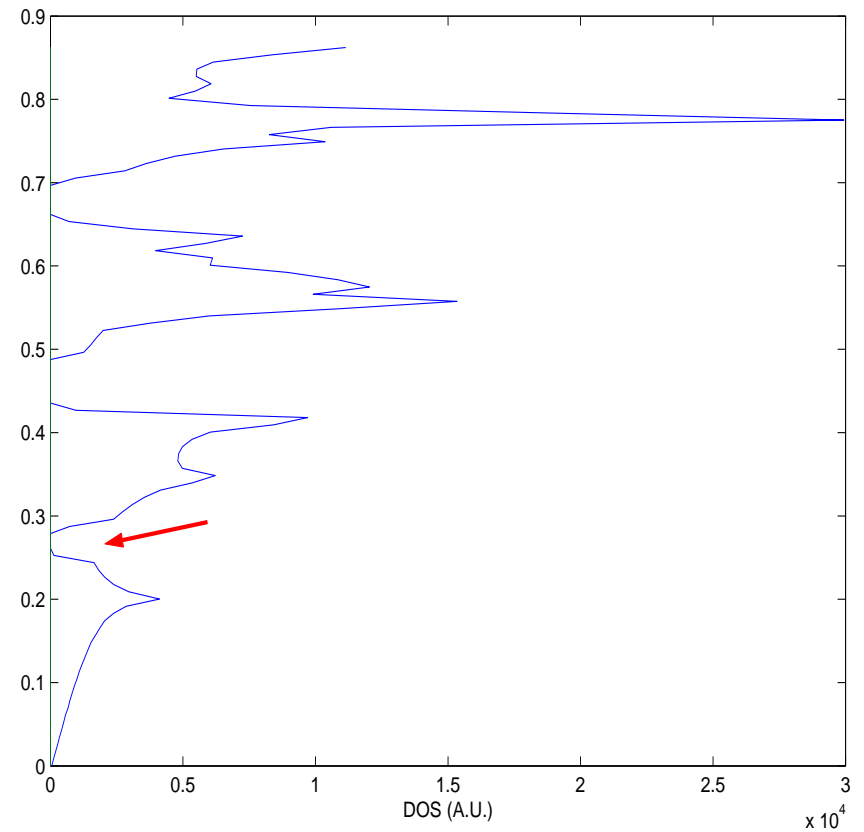
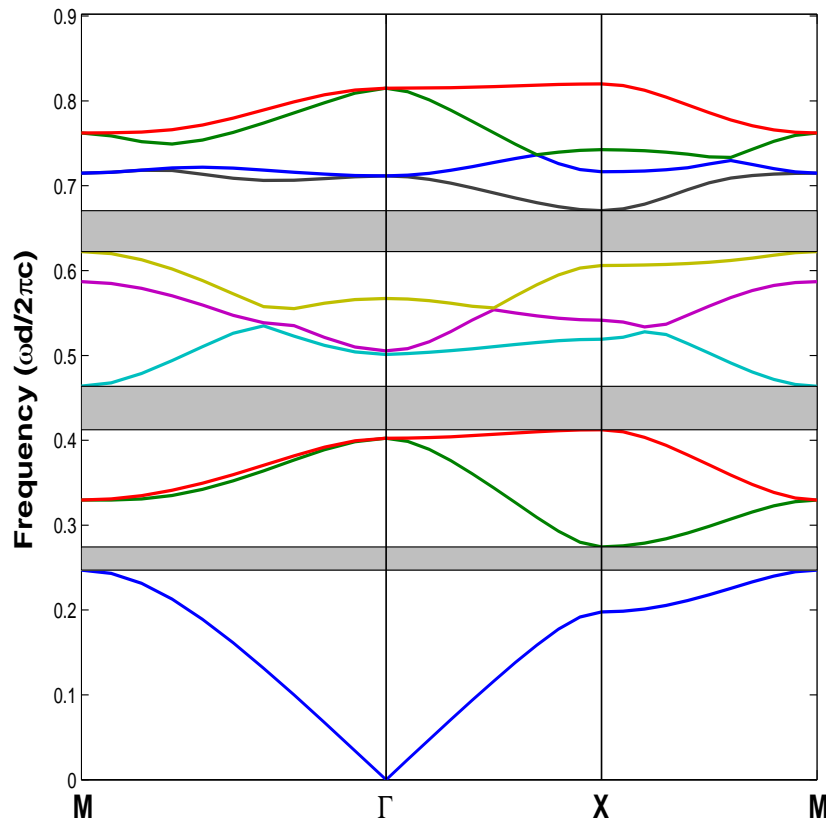
where  $\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_j = 2\pi\delta_{ij}$  and  $\{l_i\}$  are arbitrary integers.

→ the final eigenvalue equation to solve is,

$$\sum_{\mathbf{G}'} \frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{G} - \mathbf{G}')} |\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{G}'|^2 \mathbf{E}_{z,\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{G}') = \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{k}n}^2}{c^2} \mathbf{E}_{z,\mathbf{k}n}(\mathbf{G}').$$

# Band diagram and Density of States

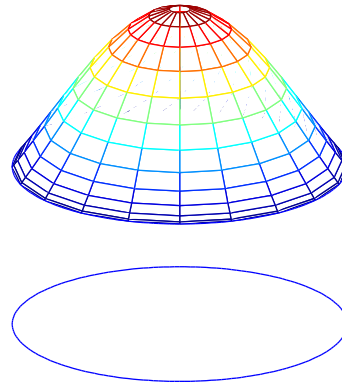
$$\frac{1}{\epsilon(\mathbf{r})} \nabla \times \{ \nabla \times \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) \} = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}),$$



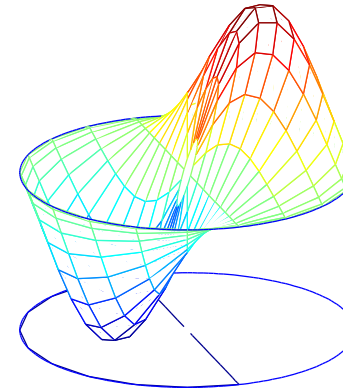
# Laplacian equation in a disk

Eigenmodes of Laplacian equations,  $[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}]u(x, y) = -\lambda f(x, y)$ .

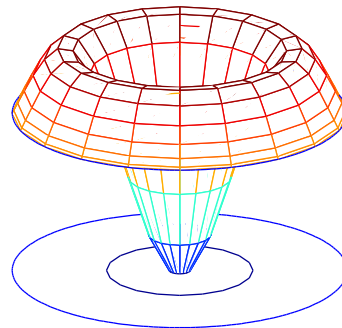
Mode 1  
 $\lambda = 1.0000000000$



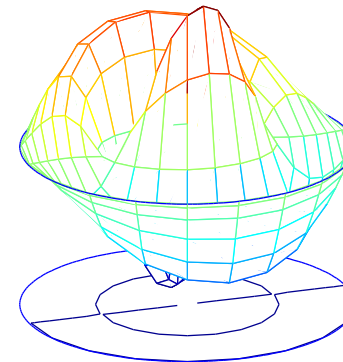
Mode 3  
 $\lambda = 1.5933405057$



Mode 6  
 $\lambda = 2.2954172674$



Mode 10  
 $\lambda = 2.9172954551$





# Nonlinear eigenvalue problems

For example,

$$(\mathbf{A}\lambda^2 + \mathbf{B}\lambda + \mathbf{C}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0,$$

introduce an additional unknown eigenvector  $\mathbf{y}$  and solve the  $2N \times 2N$  eigensystem,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \\ -\mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{C} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix}$$

This technique generalizes to higher-order polynomials in  $\lambda$ . A polynomial of degree  $M$  produces a linear  $MN \times MN$  eigensystem.