# The Laser model: structure and properties

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Advanced Markov Modeling 11 February 2015



# 1 The Model

2 Generators for one band

# 3 Distributions

- Stationary distribution
- Stationary distribution
- Sampling

4 Speed of convergence



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Constituants:

- 2n energy levels, forming two "bands"; at most one electron occupies an energy level;
- two special "lasing levels" L et  $\ell$  in the middle of both bands
- a cavity: supports photons.
- Transitions (changes of state):
  - electrons may change level in each band (thermalization)
  - $\blacksquare$  one electron may emit one photon, and passes simultaneously from L to  $\ell$
  - $\blacksquare$  one electron may absorb a photon, and passes simultaneously from  $\ell$  à L
  - photons may exit the cavity
  - "pumping" makes an electron pass from the lowest to the highest energy level.

What is a state of the system? At least two choices:

electron-centric : each electron has a state, its energy level  $\in [0..2n - 1]$ . The number of photons is a priori unbounded.

$$\implies \qquad \mathcal{E} \subset [0..2n-1]^N \times \mathbb{N}.$$

But the exclution constraint has to be enforced. level-centric : each energy level contains at most one electron.

$$\implies \qquad \qquad \mathcal{E} \subset \{0,1\}^{2n} \times \mathbb{N}.$$

Since the total number of electrons is fixed:

$$\implies \qquad \mathcal{E} \subset \left\{ \sigma \in \{0,1\}^{2n} \mid \sum_{i=0}^{2n-1} \sigma_i = \mathsf{N} \right\} \times \mathbb{N}.$$



The time scales of thermalization and other events (emission, absorption, light, pumping) are very different. The process may be seen as:

- 2 independent processes in each of the bands
- coupled by rare events
- $\implies$  focus on each band



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# Example of a transition diagram: n = 6 levels, N = 2 particles.



All transitions represented are two-way. Unwritten transition rates: rate p for transitions to the left (lower energy), pq to the right (higher energy).

# Order states lexicographically: matrices can be represented as





The base matrix is the  $n \times n$  generator of the *birth and death* process with *n* states: (for the laser,  $\lambda = p$  and  $\mu = pq$ )

$$M_{n,1} = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & & \\ \mu & -\lambda & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & \mu & -\lambda \\ & & \mu & - \end{pmatrix}$$

.



But if we order by energy level, we get a "quasi-birth-death" process



# The matrix is then: $M_{6,2} =$

/ -	λ							<u>ا</u>
$\mu$	-	$\lambda \lambda$						
-	$\mu$	- 0	λ					
	$\mu$	0 -	λ					
		μ Ο	- 0	$\lambda \lambda 0$				
		μμ	0 -	Ο λ λ				
			μ Ο	- 0 0	λ Ο			
			μμ	0 - 0	$\lambda  \lambda$			
			Ο μ	0 0 -	0 λ			
				μ μ Ο	- 0	λ Ο		
				Ο μ μ	0 —	$\lambda \lambda$		
					$\mu$ $\mu$	- 0	λ	
					0 μ	0 —	$\lambda$	
						$\mu$ $\mu$	-	λ
							μ	/



And what happens if we adopt the electron-centric model?

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in [0..2n - 1]^N \mid X_1 < X_2 < \ldots < X_N \right\}$$



For instance, still with n = 6, P = 2, a regular, 2-dimensional grid-like structure



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The stationary distribution can be computed in *closed form* as:

$$\pi_{n,m}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{G(n,m)} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} q^{i\sigma_i} = \frac{1}{G(n,m)} q^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i\sigma_i} = \frac{q^U \sigma}{G(n,m)}.$$

The partition function G(n, m) is given by:

$$G(n,m) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{n,m}} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} q^{i\sigma_i}$$
  
=  $\frac{q^{m-1} - q^n}{1 - q^m} \frac{q^{m-2} - q^n}{1 - q^{m-1}} \dots \frac{1 - q^n}{1 - q}$ .

### Proofs:

- direct check of balance equations
- reversibility and truncation



### Definition (Reversible Markov Chains)

A continuous-time Markov chain is reversible if  $\{X(t)\}$  have  $\{X(-t)\}$  the same generator, that is, if for all pair of states  $(i,j) \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{E}$ ,

$$\pi(i) q_{i,j} = \pi(j) q_{j,i} .$$

This equation is the **local balance** condition. It implies that when transition  $j \rightarrow k$  exists, transition  $k \rightarrow j$  must exist as well. It is sufficient that it be satisfied for *some* family of numbers that need not be, *a priori* a probability distribution. If it does, then this family turns out to be indeed a stationary distribution for  $\mathbf{Q}$ , possibly up to a normalization constant. The class of Reversible Markov chains has property very useful for computing distributions: it is stable with respect to *truncation*.

# Definition (Truncated Markov Chain)

Consider a CTMC over a countable state space  $\mathcal{E}$  and generator  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{E}$ . The truncated Markov chain over the sub-space  $\mathcal{A}$  is the CTMC with generator  $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathcal{A}}$  defined as:

$$(q_{\mathcal{A}})_{jk} = \begin{cases} q_{jk} & \text{if } j, k \in \mathcal{A} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

In words, the transitions of the process are the same as the original process as long as the state is in A. But transitions outside A have rate 0. If the process starts inside A, it stays there forever, and it can be considered as a CTMC on the space A.



### Theorem (Stationary distribution of truncated reversible chains)

Let  $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{E}$ . Consider some reversible CTMC, with stationary distribution  $\pi$ . Then the truncated Markov chain over  $\mathcal{A}$  is also reversible, and its stationary distribution is given by: for  $i \in \mathcal{A}$ 

$$\pi'(i) = \frac{\pi(i)}{\sum_{j\in\mathcal{A}}\pi(j)}$$

Open question: is it possible to calculate marginal probabilities (occupancies). For each energy level i,

$$\mathbb{P}\{N_i=1\} = ?$$

The direct approach is:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}\{N_i = 1\} &= \sum_{\boldsymbol{\sigma} \in \mathcal{S}_{n,m} \mid \sigma_i = 1} \pi_{n,m}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \\ &= \frac{1}{G(n,m)} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\sigma} \in \mathcal{S}_{n,m} \mid \sigma_i = 1} q^{\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} j \sigma_j} \;. \end{split}$$

Too complex  $\implies$  need for some simpler computation, *e.g.* with a recurrence.

#### Two recurrences

$$\mathbb{P}\{N_i=1, N+1 ext{ particles}\} = q^i rac{1-q^{N+1}}{q^N-q^n} (1-\mathbb{P}\{N_i=1, N ext{ particles}\}).$$

$$\begin{split} &\mathbb{P}\{N_i = 1\} \\ &= \frac{\rho^i}{G(n,N)} \sum_{k=0}^i \rho^{(i+1)(N-1-k)} G(i,k) G(n-i-1,N-k-1) \\ &\mathbb{P}\{N_i = 0\} \\ &= \frac{1}{G(n,N)} \sum_{k=0}^i \rho^{(i+1)(N-k)} G(i,k) G(n-i-1,N-k) \,. \end{split}$$

It is possible to *directly* sample from this stationary distribution, although the state space is very large. This is because the distribution has a *recursive* strucure. The "simplex"  $S_{n,m}$  can be decomposed as:

$$S_{n,m} = \{1\} \times S_{n-1,m-1} \cup \{0\} \times S_{n-1,m}, \quad 0 < m < n.$$

Then we get the recursion:

$$G(n,m) = q^{m-1}G(n-1,m-1) + q^mG(n-1,m) .$$
  

$$\pi_{n,m}(\sigma_0 = 1) = q^{m-1} \frac{G(n-1,m-1)}{G(n,m)}$$
  

$$\pi_{n,m}(\sigma_0 = 0) = q^m \frac{G(n-1,m)}{G(n,m)}$$

+ boundary values.

#### Sampling from the stationary distribution, forward method

```
Data: Two integers n and m, 0 \le n \le m
Result: A vector in S_{n,m}, sampled from the distribution \pi_{n,m}
begin
       k \leftarrow m
       for i from 0 to n-1 do
               if k = 0 then
                       \sigma[i] \leftarrow 0
               else if k = n - i then
                       \sigma[i] \leftarrow 1
               else
                       u \leftarrow \texttt{Uniform}([0,1])
                      if u < q^k \frac{G(n-1-i,k)}{G(n-i,k)} then

| \sigma[i] \leftarrow 0
                       else
                              \sigma[i] \leftarrow 1
                          k \leftarrow k - 1
       return (\sigma[0], \ldots, \sigma[n-1])
```

# Symetrically, $S_{n,m}$ is decomposed as

$$S_{n,m} = S_{n-1,m-1} \times \{1\} \cup S_{n-1,m} \times \{0\}, \quad 0 < m < n.$$

Then we get:

$$G(n,m) = q^{n-1}G(n-1,m-1) + G(n-1,m)$$
  

$$\pi_{n,m}(\sigma_{n-1}=1) = q^{n-1} \frac{G(n-1,m-1)}{G(n,m)}$$
  

$$\pi_{n,m}(\sigma_0=0) = \frac{G(n-1,m)}{G(n,m)}.$$

+ boundary values.

#### Sampling from the stationary distribution, backwards method

```
Data: Two integers n and m, 0 \le n \le m
Result: A vector in S_{n,m}, sampled from the distribution \pi_{n,m}
begin
       k \leftarrow m
       for i from 1 to n do
               if k = 0 then
                       \sigma[n-i] \leftarrow 0
               else if k = n - i then
                       \sigma[n-i] \leftarrow 1
               else
                       u \leftarrow \text{Uniform}([0, 1])
if u < \frac{G(n - i, k)}{G(n - i + 1, k)} then
                              \sigma[n - i] \leftarrow 0
                       else
                               \sigma[n-i] \leftarrow 1
                           k \leftarrow k - 1
       return (\sigma[0], \ldots, \sigma[n-1])
```



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The question is to quantify the distance between  $\pi_t = \pi_0 e^{\mathbf{Q}t}$  and the stationary distribution  $\pi$ .

The spectral decomposition principle says that if  $Q = RDR^{-1}$ , then

$$e^{\mathbf{Q}t} = \mathbf{R}e^{\mathbf{D}t}\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \mathbf{0} \\ & e^{\lambda_{2}t} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{0} & & & e^{\lambda_{n}t} \end{pmatrix}\mathbf{R}^{-1}$$
$$= \mathbf{1}\pi + \sum_{j=2}^{n} e^{\lambda_{j}t}\mathbf{A}_{j}.$$

Locating the eigenvalues (spectrum)  $\lambda_j$  gives information on the speed of convergence.



The basis matrix is:

$$M_{n,1} = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & \lambda & & \\ \mu & -(\lambda + \mu) & \lambda & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \mu & -(\lambda + \mu) & \lambda \\ & & & \mu & -\mu \end{pmatrix}$$

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Its *n* eigenvalues are 0 and:

$$\omega_k = -(\lambda + \mu) + 2\sqrt{\lambda\mu}\cos\frac{k\pi}{n}$$
,  $k = 1..n - 1$ .

Speed of convergence: given by the largest, non-zero one. It is less than

$$-(\lambda+\mu) + 2\sqrt{\lambda\mu} = -(\sqrt{\lambda}-\sqrt{\mu})^2 \; .$$