## On eigenvalue calculations for radiative transfer models that include polarization effects

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## I. Introduction

In a recent paper concerning the scattering of polarized light [1] Siewert and Pinheiro investigated the equation of transfer

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu)+\boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu)=\frac{\omega}{2} \sum_{l=0}^{L} \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{l}(\mu) \boldsymbol{B}_{l} \int_{-1}^{1} \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{l}\left(\mu^{\prime}\right) \boldsymbol{I}\left(\tau, \mu^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{d} \mu^{\prime} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

that defines the azimuthally symmetric component

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu, \varphi) \mathrm{d} \varphi \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the complete solution. Here the density vector $\boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu, \varphi)$ has the four Stokes parameters $I, Q, U$ and $V$ as components $[2,3,4], \omega \in(0,1]$ is the albedo for single scattering and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{l}(\mu)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{P_{l}(\mu), \boldsymbol{R}_{l}(\mu), R_{l}(\mu), P_{l}(\mu)\right\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{l}(\mu)$ denotes the Legendre polynomial of order $l, R_{0}(\mu)=R_{1}(\mu)=0$ and, for $l \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{l}(\mu)=\left[\frac{(l-2)!}{(l+2)!}\right]^{1 / 2}\left(1-\mu^{2}\right) \frac{\mathrm{d}^{2}}{\mathrm{~d} \mu^{2}} P_{l}(\mu) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In addition, the matrices

$$
\boldsymbol{B}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
\beta_{l} & \gamma_{l} & 0 & 0  \tag{5}\\
\gamma_{l} & \alpha_{l} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \zeta_{l} & -\varepsilon_{l} \\
0 & 0 & \varepsilon_{l} & \delta_{l}
\end{array}\right|
$$

are defined in terms of the basic constants $\left\{\alpha_{l}, \beta_{l}, \gamma_{l}, \delta_{l}, \varepsilon_{l}, \zeta_{l}\right\}$ that have been used [5] to represent a scattering matrix of the form considered by Hovenier [6], viz.

$$
\boldsymbol{F}(\xi)=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{1}(\xi) & b_{1}(\xi) & 0 & 0  \tag{6}\\
b_{1}(\xi) & a_{2}(\xi) & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & a_{3}(\xi) & b_{2}(\xi) \\
0 & 0 & -b_{2}(\xi) & a_{4}(\xi)
\end{array}\right| .
$$

We note that $\beta_{0}=1$ and that $\alpha_{0}=\alpha_{1}=\gamma_{0}=\gamma_{1}=\varepsilon_{0}=\varepsilon_{1}=\zeta_{0}=\zeta_{1}=0$.
Although $\boldsymbol{I}(\tau, \mu)$ is a four-vector, it is apparent from Eqs. (1), (3) and (5) that it is sufficient to investigate two two-vector problems. We therefore write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \boldsymbol{\Psi}(\tau, \mu)+\boldsymbol{\Psi}(\tau, \mu)=\frac{\omega}{2} \sum_{l=0}^{L} \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(\mu) \boldsymbol{C}_{l} \int_{-1}^{1} \boldsymbol{P}_{l}\left(\mu^{\prime}\right) \boldsymbol{\Psi}\left(\tau, \mu^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{d} \mu^{\prime} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{P}_{l}(\mu)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{P_{l}(\mu), R_{l}(\mu)\right\} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and consider two cases:

$$
A: \boldsymbol{\Psi}(\tau, \mu)=\left|\begin{array}{l}
I(\tau, \mu)  \tag{9a,b}\\
Q(\tau, \mu)
\end{array}\right| \quad \text { with } \quad \boldsymbol{C}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\beta_{l} & \gamma_{l} \\
\gamma_{l} & \alpha_{l}
\end{array}\right|
$$

and

$$
B: \boldsymbol{\Psi}(\tau, \mu)=\left|\begin{array}{c}
V(\tau, \mu)  \tag{9c,d}\\
U(\tau, \mu)
\end{array}\right| \text { with } \quad \boldsymbol{C}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
\delta_{l} & \varepsilon_{l} \\
-\varepsilon_{l} & \zeta_{l}
\end{array}\right| .
$$

In developing elementary solutions of Eq. (7), Siewert and Pinheiro [1] found that the required eigenvalues were the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z), z \notin[-1,1]$, where the dispersion matrix $\boldsymbol{A}(z)$ was expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)=\boldsymbol{I}+\frac{\omega}{2} z \int_{-1}^{1} \boldsymbol{K}(\mu) \sum_{l=0}^{L} \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(\mu) \boldsymbol{C}_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z) \frac{\mathrm{d} \mu}{\mu-z} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{K}(\mu)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{1, R_{2}(\mu)\right\} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

In addition, the $2 \times 2$ polynomial matrices $\boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z)$ are defined as

$$
\begin{align*}
& \boldsymbol{G}_{0}(z)=\operatorname{diag}\{1,0\}, \quad \boldsymbol{G}_{1}(z)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{k_{0} z, 0\right\},  \tag{12a,b}\\
& \boldsymbol{G}_{2}(z)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left(k_{0} k_{1} z^{2}-1\right), 1\right\} \tag{12c}
\end{align*}
$$

and, for $l \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{G}_{l+1}(z)=\boldsymbol{J}_{l+1}^{-1}\left[z \boldsymbol{h}_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z)-J_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l-1}(z)\right] . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here

$$
\begin{align*}
& k_{l}=2 l+1-\omega C_{l}^{11}  \tag{14}\\
& \boldsymbol{J}_{l}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{l,\left(1-\delta_{0, l}\right)\left(1-\delta_{1, l}\right)\left(l^{2}-4\right)^{1 / 2}\right\} \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{h}_{l}=(2 l+1) I-\omega C_{l} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now proceed to develop some additional representations of $\Lambda(z)$ and to deduce, for $z \notin[-1,1]$, a way to compute the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$ that provides an alternative method to that discussed previously [1].

## II. The dispersion matrix

We now follow a procedure used by İnönü [7] and Garcia and Siewert [8] in studies of the scalar form of the equation of transfer and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{Q}_{l}(z)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \boldsymbol{K}(\mu) \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(\mu) \frac{\mathrm{d} \mu}{z-\mu} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that we can write Eq. (10) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)=\boldsymbol{I}-\omega z \sum_{l=0}^{L} \boldsymbol{Q}_{l}(z) \boldsymbol{C}_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z) . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

As previously reported $[1,5]$ the matrices $\boldsymbol{P}_{l}(z)$ satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2 l+1) z \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(z)=\boldsymbol{J}_{l+1} \boldsymbol{P}_{l+1}(z)+\boldsymbol{J}_{l} \boldsymbol{P}_{l-1}(z) \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-1}^{1} \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(\mu) \boldsymbol{P}_{l^{\prime}}(\mu) \mathrm{d} \mu=\left(\frac{2}{2 l+1}\right) \operatorname{diag}\left\{1,\left(1-\delta_{0, l}\right)\left(1-\delta_{1, l}\right)\right\} \delta_{l, l^{\prime}}, \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

and thus we can readily deduce from Eq. (17) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2 l+1) z \boldsymbol{Q}_{l}(z)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\delta_{0, l}, \delta_{2, l}\right\}+\boldsymbol{J}_{l+1} \boldsymbol{Q}_{l+1}(z)+\boldsymbol{J}_{l} \boldsymbol{Q}_{l-1}(z) . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we now multiply Eq. (21) on the right by $G_{l}(z)$, then multiply

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{h}_{l} z \boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z)=\boldsymbol{J}_{l+1} \boldsymbol{G}_{l+1}(z)+\boldsymbol{J}_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l-1}(z) \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

on the left by $\boldsymbol{Q}_{l}(z)$, subtract the resulting two equations one from the other and sum the result from $l=0$ to $l=L$, we find we can use the ensuing expression to write Eq. (18) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)=\boldsymbol{J}_{L+1}\left[Q_{L}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z)-\boldsymbol{Q}_{L+1}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L}(z)\right] . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

In a similar way we can eliminate between Eqs. (19) and (21) to deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{K}(z)=J_{L+1}\left[Q_{L}(z) \boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}(z)-\boldsymbol{Q}_{L+1}(z) \boldsymbol{P}_{L}(z)\right], \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

and we can eliminate between Eqs. (19) and (22) to obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 z \boldsymbol{\Psi}(z)=\boldsymbol{K}(z) \boldsymbol{J}_{L+1}\left[\boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L}(z)-\boldsymbol{P}_{L}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z)\right], \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Psi}(z)=\frac{\omega}{2} \boldsymbol{K}(z) \sum_{l=0}^{L} \boldsymbol{P}_{l}(z) \boldsymbol{C}_{l} \boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z) . \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying Eq. (23) by $\boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}(z)$ and using Eqs. (24) and (25), we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}(z) \boldsymbol{A}(z)=\boldsymbol{K}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z)-2 z \boldsymbol{K}^{-1}(z) \boldsymbol{Q}_{L+1}(z) \Psi(z), \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

and then considering that $z \notin[-1,1]$, so that $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}(z) \neq 0$, we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{A}(z)=\boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}^{-1}(z)\left[\boldsymbol{K}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z)-2 z \boldsymbol{K}^{-1}(z) \boldsymbol{Q}_{L+1}(z) \boldsymbol{\Psi}(z)\right] . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $R_{l}(z)$ can [4] be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{l}(z)=\frac{1}{4}\left[\frac{(l+2)(l+1)}{l(l-1)}\right]^{1 / 2}\left(1-z^{2}\right) P_{l-2}^{(2,2)}(z), \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{l}^{(\alpha, \beta)}(z)$ is used to denote a Jacobi polynomial [9] of degree $l$, we can, for $z \notin[-1,1]$, use the asymptotic formulas for the Legendre polynomials and the Jacobi polynomials that are given [as Eqs. (8.21.1) and (8.21.9)] by Szegö [10] to conclude that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{L \rightarrow \infty} \boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}^{-1}(z) \boldsymbol{Q}_{L+1}(z)=\mathbf{0}, z \notin[-1,1] . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

We therefore can readily deduce from Eq. (28) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)=\lim _{L \rightarrow \infty} \boldsymbol{P}_{L+1}^{-1}(z) \boldsymbol{K}(z) \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z), z \notin[-1,1] . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{L+1}(z), z \notin[-1,1]$, will converge as $L \rightarrow \infty$ to the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \Lambda(z), z \notin[-1,1]$. We thus can, for $v_{\beta}, \xi_{\beta} \notin[-1,1]$, approximate the requirement [1]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda\left(v_{\beta}\right) \boldsymbol{M}\left(v_{\beta}\right)=\mathbf{0} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}\left(\xi_{\beta}\right) \boldsymbol{M}_{N+1}\left(\xi_{\beta}\right)=\mathbf{0} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

for sufficiently large $N$ and for $\xi_{\beta}$ sufficiently close to $v_{\beta}$. Here $\boldsymbol{M}\left(v_{\beta}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{M}_{N+1}\left(\xi_{\beta}\right)$ are null vectors of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\left(v_{\beta}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}\left(\xi_{\beta}\right)$ respectively. Finally we can use Eqs. (19), (22) and (31) to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda(\infty)=\lim _{|z| \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{det} \Lambda(z)=\prod_{l=0}^{L} \operatorname{det}\left(\frac{1}{2 l+1}\right) \boldsymbol{h}_{l} . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

## III. The eigenvalues

We note that an Nth order generalized spherical harmonics solution of Eq. (7) requires as eigenvalues all of the zeros of $\operatorname{det} G_{N+1}(z)$. We therefore proceed to formulate a convenient computational technique that allows us to find all of the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$; in order to avoid a zero at the origin, we consider $N$ to be odd. The method, which is a generalization of the one that has proved accurate and easy to use for the scalar case [11, 12], is based on the fact that the $2 \times 2$ polynomial matrices $G_{l}(z)$ for $l \geq 0$ are defined, after the first three are given, by Eq. (13). If we multiply Eq. (22) on the right by

$$
\boldsymbol{M}_{N+1}(z)=\left|\begin{array}{r}
G_{N+1}^{22}(z)+G_{N+1}^{12}(z)  \tag{35}\\
-G_{N+1}^{21}(z)-G_{N+1}^{11}(z)
\end{array}\right|
$$

and define

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{T}_{l}(z)=\boldsymbol{G}_{l}(z) \boldsymbol{M}_{N+1}(z), \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

then we obtain the system of equations

$$
\begin{align*}
U_{1} \boldsymbol{T}_{1}(z) & =z T_{0}(z)  \tag{37a}\\
L_{l} \boldsymbol{T}_{l-1}(z)+U_{l+1} T_{l+1}(z) & =z T_{l}(z), \quad l=1,2, \ldots, N-1  \tag{37b}\\
L_{N} T_{N-1}(z) & =z T_{N}(z) \tag{37c}
\end{align*}
$$

where for $l=1,2, \ldots, N$

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{l}=h_{l-1}^{-1} J_{l} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{l}=h_{l}^{-1} J_{l} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Letting $\boldsymbol{T}(\xi)$ denote the vector with elements $\boldsymbol{T}_{0}(\xi), \boldsymbol{T}_{1}(\xi), \ldots, \boldsymbol{T}_{N}(\xi)$, we write Eq. (37) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{T}(\xi)=\xi \boldsymbol{T}(\xi) \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $(2 N+2) \times(2 N+2)$ matrix $W$ is $2 \times 2$-block tridiagonal; i.e.


We note that the matrix $\boldsymbol{W}$ has two rows and two columns that are all zeros, and thus we conclude that the $2 N$ zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$ are the $2 N$ non-zero eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{W}$.

In order to be specific we consider the $I-Q$ problem and the $V-U$ problem separately.

A: The $I-Q$ problem. As there are available in the EISPACK package [13, 14] efficient and accurate FORTRAN subroutines for finding the eigenvalues of banded, real symmetric matrices, we proceed to reduce our eigenvalue problem to that form. First of all, however, some restrictions on the constants $\left\{\alpha_{l}, \beta_{l}, \gamma_{l}\right\}$ are relevant. We define

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{l}=2 l+1-\omega \beta_{l} \text { and } \eta_{l}=2 l+1-\omega \alpha_{l} \tag{42a,b}
\end{equation*}
$$

and make the assumptions that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{l}>0 \quad \text { and } \quad h_{l} \eta_{l}-\omega^{2} \gamma_{l}^{2}>0 \tag{43a,b}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $l \geq 0$ if $\omega \neq 1$ and for all $l \geq 1$ if $\omega=1$. Now since

$$
\boldsymbol{h}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
h_{l} & -\omega \gamma_{l}  \tag{44}\\
-\omega \gamma_{l} & \eta_{l}
\end{array}\right|
$$

is symmetric we define

$$
\boldsymbol{H}_{l}=h_{l}^{-1 / 2}\left|\begin{array}{cc}
h_{l} & 0  \tag{45}\\
-\omega \gamma_{l} & \Delta_{l}
\end{array}\right|,
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{l}=\left(h_{l} \eta_{l}-\omega^{2} \gamma_{l}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{h}_{l}=\boldsymbol{H}_{l} \boldsymbol{H}_{l}^{T} . \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now defining

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{S}_{l}=\boldsymbol{H}_{l-1}^{T}, \quad l=1,2,3, \ldots, N+1, \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

we find that the transformation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{X}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \boldsymbol{S}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{N+1}\right\} \boldsymbol{W} \operatorname{diag}\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{1}^{-1}, \boldsymbol{S}_{2}^{-1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{N+1}^{-1}\right\} \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

yields the symmetric $2 \times 2$-block tridiagonal matrix

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{X}_{l}=\boldsymbol{H}_{l-1}^{-1} \boldsymbol{J}_{l} \boldsymbol{H}_{l}^{-T} \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $l=1,2,3, \ldots, N$.

To develop an alternative and computationally more efficient method for finding the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{X}$, we first let $\boldsymbol{A}_{0}(\xi), \boldsymbol{A}_{1}(\xi), \ldots, \boldsymbol{A}_{N}(\xi)$ denote the 2 -vector components of $\boldsymbol{A}(\xi)$, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
X A(\xi)=\xi \boldsymbol{A}(\xi) . \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then we can eliminate the odd components of $\boldsymbol{A}(\bar{\xi})$ in the system of equations represented by Eq. (52) to obtain an equivalent problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{Y} \boldsymbol{B}(\xi)=\xi^{2} \boldsymbol{B}(\xi) \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $(N+1) \times(N+1)$ symmetric $\boldsymbol{Y}$ matrix is given by

with $J=(N+1) / 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{D}_{\alpha}=\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-2}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-2}+\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1}^{T}, \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\alpha=2, \ldots J$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{Y}_{\alpha}=\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha}, \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\alpha=1,2, \ldots, J-1$. Noting that the matrix $\boldsymbol{Y}$ has one row and one column with all zeros and that for $N$ odd the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$ occur in $\pm$ pairs, we find that the $N$ squares of the $2 N$ zeros of $\operatorname{det} G_{N+1}(z)$ are the $N$ non-zero eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{Y}$. Of course, we can obtain an equivalent eigenvalue problem in a similar way by eliminating the even components of $\boldsymbol{A}(\xi)$.

Finally we note from Eq. (51) that $X_{1}$ is unbounded for the special case of $\omega=1$, and thus a modification to the foregoing analysis is required for this case. We can readily deduce from Eq. (52) that two of the eigenvalues coalesce at infinity and that $\boldsymbol{A}_{0}(\xi)$ and $\boldsymbol{A}_{1}(\xi) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ as $\omega \rightarrow 1$. We therefore can find all of the $2(N-1)$ bounded zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$ for the case $\omega=1$ by deleting the first four rows and columns of $\boldsymbol{X}$ and finding the eigenvalues of


Alternatively, the squares of the $2(N-1)$ bounded zeros are the $N-1$ eigenvalues of


B: The $V-U$ problem. Here

$$
\boldsymbol{h}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
m_{l} & -\omega \varepsilon_{l}  \tag{59}\\
\omega \varepsilon_{l} & n_{l}
\end{array}\right|
$$

and we assume that

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{l}=2 l+1-\omega \delta_{l}>0 \quad \text { and } \quad n_{l}=2 l+1-\omega \zeta_{l}>0 \tag{60a,b}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $l$. We define

$$
\boldsymbol{H}_{l}=m_{l}^{-1 / 2}\left|\begin{array}{cc}
m_{l} & 0  \tag{61}\\
-\omega \varepsilon_{l} & D_{l}
\end{array}\right|,
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{l}=\left[m_{l} n_{l}+\omega^{2} \varepsilon_{l}^{2}\right]^{1 / 2}, \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{h}_{l}=\boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{H}_{l} \boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{H}_{l}^{T} \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=\operatorname{diag}\{1,-1\} . \tag{64}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{1}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\left(1-\omega \delta_{0}\right)^{1 / 2}, 1\right\} \tag{65a}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\boldsymbol{S}_{l}=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0  \tag{65b}\\
0 & i
\end{array}\right| \boldsymbol{H}_{l-1}^{T}, \quad l=2,3, \cdots, N+1,
$$

and find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{X}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \boldsymbol{S}_{2}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{S}_{N+1}\right\} \boldsymbol{W} \operatorname{diag}\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{1}^{-1}, \boldsymbol{S}_{2}^{-1}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{S}_{N+1}^{-1}\right\} \tag{66}
\end{equation*}
$$

yields

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{X}_{1}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\left[\left(1-\omega \delta_{0}\right)\left(3-\omega \delta_{1}\right)\right]^{-1 / 2}, 0\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad \boldsymbol{X}_{l}=\boldsymbol{C}^{*} \boldsymbol{H}_{l-1}^{-1} \boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{J}_{l} \boldsymbol{H}_{l}^{-T} \boldsymbol{C}^{*}, \tag{68a,b}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $l=2,3, \cdots, N+1$. In addition

$$
\begin{equation*}
C^{*}=\operatorname{diag}\{1,-i\} . \tag{69}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is apparent that Eq. (67) defines a banded symmetric matrix which, for $N$ odd, has $2 N$ non-zero eigenvalues that are the desired zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$. It is also clear that the $N$ non-zero eigenvalues of

provide the $N$ squares of the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{\boldsymbol{N}+1}(z)$. Here again

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{Y}_{\alpha}=\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha} \tag{71}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\alpha=1,2, \cdots, J-1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{D}_{\alpha}=\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-2}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-2}+\boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{2 \alpha-1}^{T} \tag{72}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\alpha=2,3, \cdots, J$.
We note that for the $I-Q$ problem the symmetric matrices $\boldsymbol{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ are real, and so to find the eigenvalues we can use the EISPACK [13, 14] subroutines $B A N D R$ and IMTQL1 which make use of the fact that $\boldsymbol{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ are banded (7 bands). Although we have obtained symmetric banded matrices $\boldsymbol{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ for the $V-U$ problem, we cannot use the subroutine $B A N D R$ to reduce either $\boldsymbol{X}$ or $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to tridiagonal form because they are not real (the 7 bands are alternately real and purely imaginary). As we do not at present have available a method for dealing efficiently with the $\boldsymbol{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ matrices for the $V-U$ problem, we return our attention to the real non-symmetric banded matrix $\boldsymbol{W}$ as given by Eq. (41). If we carry out on $\boldsymbol{W}$ a "shuffle" two columns at a time and follow that by a similar row "shuffle", then we find the equivalent eigenvalue problem

$$
\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\mathbf{0} & \boldsymbol{A}  \tag{73}\\
\boldsymbol{B} & \mathbf{0}
\end{array}\right| \boldsymbol{E}=\xi \boldsymbol{E}
$$

where

$$
A=\left|\begin{array}{llll}
\boldsymbol{U}_{1} & & &  \tag{74}\\
\boldsymbol{L}_{2} & \boldsymbol{U}_{3} \\
& L_{4} & & \\
\boldsymbol{U}_{N-1}
\end{array}\right|
$$

and

$$
\boldsymbol{B}=\left|\begin{array}{llll}
L_{1} & U_{2} & &  \tag{75}\\
& L_{3} & U_{4} & \\
& & & \\
& & & \\
U_{N-1} \\
L_{N}
\end{array}\right| .
$$

It is clear from Eq. (73) that we can find the desired eigenvalues $\xi$ by considering

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{E}_{T}=\xi^{2} \boldsymbol{E}_{T} \tag{76a}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Xi} \boldsymbol{E}_{B}=\xi^{2} \boldsymbol{E}_{B} \tag{76b}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{Y}=\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{B}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Xi}=\boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{A}$. To be explicit, we write, for example,

$$
\boldsymbol{r}=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
U_{1} L_{1} & U_{1} U_{2}  \tag{77}\\
L_{2} L_{1} & U_{3} L_{3}+L_{2} U_{2} & U_{3} U_{4} \\
& L_{4} L_{3} & \\
& & \\
& & L_{N-1} L_{N-2} \\
U_{N} L_{N}+L_{N-1} U_{N-1}
\end{array}\right|
$$

where we continue to consider $N$ to be odd.

## IV. Numerical results

For our numerical examples of the foregoing development, we use the three basic scattering laws considered by Vestrucci and Siewert [15]. The first of these three problems (model I) was introduced by Kuščer and Ribarič [16] for the scattering of light, with wave number $k$, by small spherical particles of radius $a$. The basic constants $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta\}$ for this model are given in terms of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=(k a)^{2}\left(n^{2}+2\right)^{2}\left[30\left(n^{2}+2\right)+36(k a)^{2}\left(n^{2}-2\right)\right]^{-1} \tag{78a}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=5(k a)^{2}\left(n^{2}+2\right)^{2}\left(2 n^{2}+3\right)^{-1}\left[30\left(n^{2}+2\right)+36(k a)^{2}\left(n^{2}-2\right)\right]^{-1} \tag{78b}
\end{equation*}
$$

in Table 1. Here $n$ is the index of refraction of the particle with respect to the surrounding medium. In Table 2 we list, for the specific case of $n=1.33$ and $k a=\frac{1}{2}$, what we believe to be converged (as $N \rightarrow 39$ ) results for the zeros of det $\Lambda(z)$ relevant to the $I-Q$ problems for the two cases $\omega=0.99$ and $\omega=1$. These zeros, as well as those for the $I-Q$ problems for models II and III, were obtained by using the FORTRAN subroutines BANDR and IMTQL1 of the EISPACK program package $[13,14]$ to find all of the eigenvalues of both the $X$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$ matrices.

Table 1
The basic constants for model I.

| $l$ | $\alpha_{l}$ | $\beta_{l}$ | $\gamma_{l}$ | $\delta_{1}$ | $\varepsilon_{l}$ | $\zeta_{l}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $2 \alpha$ | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | $\frac{3}{2}\left(\alpha+\frac{3}{5} \beta\right)$ | 0 | $\frac{3}{2}$ | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 3 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $-\frac{1}{2}(6)^{1 / 2}$ | $\alpha+3 \beta$ | 0 | $6\left(\alpha+\frac{1}{3} \beta\right)$ |
| 3 | $4 \beta$ | $\frac{6}{5} \beta$ | $-\frac{2}{5}(30)^{1 / 2} \beta$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 2
The zeros of det $\Lambda(z)$ for the $I-Q$ problem.

| Model | $\omega=0.99$ | $\omega=1$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | 5.943273020500 | $\infty$ |
| II | 1.019535723105 | 1.025112345119 |
|  | 8.052579861387 | $\infty$ |
| III | 1.030780435341 | 1.032732805841 |
|  | 1.038869411971 | 1.040948232700 |
|  | 1.139072646734 | 1.143424021509 |
|  | 1.153451577057 | 1.157940124966 |
|  | 1.392584925216 | 1.406188855190 |
|  | 1.454513843050 | 1.473542228691 |
|  | 10.153828385407 | $\infty$ |

Model II is for the Mie scattering of light, with wavelength $\lambda=0.951 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, by a gamma distribution [17] of spherical particles with an effective radius $r_{\text {eff }}=0.2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, effective variance $v_{\text {eff }}=0.07$ and index of refraction $n=1.44$. For this problem we use the constants $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta\}$ reported, with $L=13$, by Vestrucci and Siewert [15]. Model III is similar to model II but for the case $\lambda=0.782 \mu \mathrm{~m}, r_{\text {eff }}=1.05 \mu \mathrm{~m}, v_{\text {eff }}=0.07$ and $n=1.43$. Again we use the constants $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta\}$, with $L=60$, given previously [15]. We note that the constants $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta\}$ for all three of these test problems were deduced [16, $18,19]$ for the case of $\omega=1$; however, to avoid tabulating more of these constants, we use these same constants for the case $\omega=0.99$.

We note that the results given in Table 2 were obtained for model II as $N \rightarrow 39$ and for model III as $N \rightarrow 99$; in all cases the results have been confirmed by using the method of ref. 1 to compute the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \Lambda(z)$. In addition, since a generalized spherical harmonics solution of Eq. (1) requires all of the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{G}_{\mathrm{N}+1}(\xi)$, we have used forward recursion to compute the $\boldsymbol{G}$ polynomials and thus to conclude, by investigating det $\boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(\xi \pm \varepsilon)$, that the eigenvalues $\xi \in[0,1]$ of the $\boldsymbol{Y}$ matrix found for the considered $I-Q$ problems were correct to at least twelve significant figures for the values of $N$ used.

For the $V-U$ problems we have used the driver subroutine $\boldsymbol{R} G$ in the EISPACK package [13] to find the desired zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$ by computing the eigenvalues of both $\boldsymbol{W}$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}$. It is clear, of course, that the $\boldsymbol{Y}$ matrix is $(N+1)$ $\times(N+1)$, with one row and one column of zeros, and so $Y$ has an advantage

Table 3
The zeros of $\operatorname{det} \Lambda(z)$ for the $V-U$ problem.

| Model | $\omega=0.99$ | $\omega=1$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | 1.190017413515 | 1.195085765596 |
| II | 1.896261279525 | 1.927064027809 |
| III | $1.028957515744 \pm \mathrm{i} 4.81030348741(-3)$ | $1.030742388691 \pm \mathrm{i} 4.97361854630(-3)$ |
|  | $1.133801054671 \pm \mathrm{i} 2.359049300598(-3)$ | $1.137760548820 \pm \mathrm{i} 2.434360980922(-3)$ |
|  | $1.364325970300 \pm \mathrm{il.068168843827(-2)}$ | $1.376053759131 \pm \mathrm{i} 1.198389958861(-2)$ |
|  | 3.288868706929 | 3.428684684420 |

over the $W$ matrix, which is $(2 N+2) \times(2 N+2)$, in that less computer storage is required for the calculation of the eigenvalues. We also found that we could use the subroutine $\boldsymbol{R} G$ even in very high order $(N=499)$ to find the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{Y}$. On the other hand, we were not able to use $R G$ to find the eigenvalues of $W$ for, say, $N \rightarrow 59$. We list in Table 3 what we believe to be converged results for the zeros of $\operatorname{det} \Lambda(z)$ for the $V-U$ problems corresponding to the three scattering laws considered. It is clear that for $V-U$ problems we can have complex zeros of $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z), z \notin[-1,1]$. We also found complex zeros of det $\boldsymbol{G}_{N+1}(z)$ that had a real part contained in the interval $(0,1)$ of the real axis. We also found, as we expected, that the imaginary parts of these complex zeros appeared to diminish as $N$ was increased.

## Acknowledgement

The authors wish to express their appreciation to A. H. Karp and C. V. M. van der Mee for several helpful discussions concerning this work and to P. Vestrucci and NIER, of Bologna, Italy, for making available computational facilities that were used for part of this study. One of the authors (CES) is indebted to J. W. Hovenier and the Free University of Amsterdam for the kind hospitality extended to him during a recent visit to The Netherlands.

This work was supported in part by the IBM Scientific Center, at Palo Alto, and the U.S. National Science Foundation.

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#### Abstract

Several representations of the dispersion matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$ basic to analytical solutions for a theory of radiative transfer that includes the effects of polarization are reported, and a method for computing the zeros of det $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$ is discussed. Numerical results are given for several specific models.

\section*{Zusammenfassung}

Verschiedene Darstellungen der Dispersionsmatrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$, welche grundlegende Bedeutung für die analytischen Lösungen der Theorie der Strahlungsübertragung mit Polarisation hat, werden angegeben. Eine Methode zur Berechnung der Nullstellen von det $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(z)$ wird diskutiert. Es werden numerische Ergebnisse für verschiedene Modelle angegeben.


(Received: October 1, 1983)

