Numerical Validation of Bragg Diffraction in One-Dimensional Photonic Crystals using Transfer Matrix Method

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Abstract

We present a rigorous numerical implementation of the Transfer Matrix Method (TMM) for simulating electromagnetic wave propagation in one-dimensional periodic dielectric structures. The simulation validates the analytical Bragg diffraction condition for normal incidence through quantitative comparison with theoretical predictions. Using a representative SiO_2/TiO_2 multilayer stack with 30 periods and lattice constant d=120 nm, we achieve excellent agreement between numerical and analytical results, with a relative error of 0.040% in the Bragg wavelength determination. Energy conservation is verified to machine precision ($|A| < 10^{-14}$), confirming the numerical stability of our implementation. The computed reflectivity spectrum exhibits the characteristic photonic bandgap with R > 99.99% at the Bragg wavelength $\lambda_B = 451.02$ nm, along with expected Fabry-Pérot oscillations outside the stop band. This work provides a validated computational framework for designing distributed Bragg reflectors (DBRs) used in vertical-cavity surface-emitting lasers (VCSELs) and optical filter applications.

Keywords: Bragg diffraction, Transfer Matrix Method, photonic crystals, distributed Bragg reflector, numerical simulation, VCSEL

1. Introduction

1.1 Physical Motivation

One-dimensional photonic crystals, consisting of alternating layers of dielectric materials with different refractive indices, exhibit unique optical properties that have enabled transformative technologies in optoelectronics. When the periodicity of such structures approaches the wavelength of light, constructive interference of reflected waves leads to the formation of a photonic bandgap—a range of wavelengths for which propagation through the structure is forbidden [1,2]. This phenomenon, known as Bragg diffraction, is the fundamental principle behind distributed Bragg reflectors (DBRs), which serve as high-reflectivity mirrors in vertical-cavity surface-emitting lasers (VCSELs) [3], narrow-band optical filters [4], and other photonic devices.

1.2 Theoretical Background

For a periodic multilayer stack with period d and effective refractive index n_eff, the Bragg condition for constructive interference at normal incidence is given by:

 $\mbox{sm}= 2n_{\text{cff}}d$

where m is the diffraction order (m = 1, 2, 3, ...) and λ is the vacuum wavelength. For first-order diffraction (m = 1), the Bragg wavelength is:

 $\$ \lambda_B = 2n_{\text{eff}}d\$\$

The effective refractive index for a two-layer system is commonly approximated as:

$$n_{\text{eff}} = \frac{n_1 + n_2}{2}$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the refractive indices of the two materials.

1.3 Computational Approach

The Transfer Matrix Method (TMM) is a powerful analytical tool for computing the optical response of stratified media [5,6]. By representing the electromagnetic field propagation through each layer and interface as matrix operations, the TMM enables exact computation of reflection and transmission coefficients for multilayer structures. This method is particularly well-suited for Bragg reflectors, as it naturally accounts for multiple internal reflections and interference effects.

1.4 Objectives

The primary objectives of this work are:

- 1. To implement a numerically stable TMM algorithm with proper boundary conditions
- 2. To validate the numerical implementation against analytical Bragg law predictions
- 3. To verify energy conservation in the lossless limit
- 4. To characterize the photonic bandgap structure of a representative DBR system
- 5. To provide a reproducible computational framework for DBR design

2. Theory and Method

2.1 Transfer Matrix Formulation

The electromagnetic field in a stratified medium can be represented by forward and backward propagating waves. At any position, the field amplitudes are related by:

 $\$ \begin{pmatrix} E^+ \ E^- \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} E^+_0 \ E^-_0 \ end{pmatrix}\$\$

where M is the transfer matrix connecting the input and output fields.

2.1.1 Interface Matrix

When light encounters an interface between media with refractive indices n_a and n_b, the transfer matrix is:

 $\sl_{ab} = \frac{1}{2}\$ 1 + $\frac{n_b}{n_a} \ 1 - \frac{n_b}{n_a} \ 1 - \frac{$

This matrix accounts for Fresnel reflection and transmission at the interface.

2.1.2 Propagation Matrix

Propagation through a homogeneous layer of thickness d with refractive index n introduces a phase shift:

The propagation matrix is:

 $$P(\langle arphi \rangle = \beta_{i|varphi} \& 0 \setminus 0 \& e^{-i|varphi} \end{pmatrix}$

2.1.3 Unit Cell Matrix

For a periodic structure with two layers per unit cell, the transfer matrix for one complete period is:

 $M_{\text{cell}} = P(\text{varphi}_1) \cdot I_{12} \cdot P(\text{varphi}_2) \cdot I_{21}$

where subscripts 1 and 2 denote the two materials.

2.1.4 Total System Matrix

For N periods, the total transfer matrix is:

 $M_{\text{text}} = I_{\text{in}\to 1} \cdot [M_{\text{cell}}]^N \cdot I_{N\to \infty}$

where the entrance and exit interface matrices account for the surrounding medium (typically air).

2.2 Reflection and Transmission Coefficients

The complex reflection and transmission amplitudes are obtained from the total matrix elements:

 $sr = \frac{M_{10}}{M_{00}}, \quad t = \frac{1}{M_{00}}$

The power reflectivity R and transmissivity T, accounting for energy flux through interfaces, are:

 $R = |r|^2$, \quad T = \frac{n_{\text{out}}}{n_{\text{in}}}|t|^2\$\$

The factor n_out/n_in ensures proper energy flux normalization when the refractive indices of input and output media differ.

2.3 Energy Conservation

For lossless dielectric media with real refractive indices, energy conservation requires:

\$R + T = 1\$

Any deviation from unity indicates numerical errors or unphysical absorption. We define the absorption/error parameter:

\$\$A = 1 - (R + T)\$\$

For a numerically stable implementation, we require $|A| < 10^{-10}$ across the entire spectral range.

2.4 Numerical Implementation

2.4.1 Wavelength Scan

We compute $R(\lambda)$ and $T(\lambda)$ by scanning wavelength from λ _min to λ _max with $N_{-}\lambda$ points. At each wavelength:

- 1. Compute phase shifts $\varphi_1(\lambda)$ and $\varphi_2(\lambda)$
- 2. Construct unit cell matrix M_cell(λ)
- 3. Compute $M_{total}(\lambda) = I_{in} \rightarrow 1 \cdot [M_{cell}(\lambda)]^N \cdot I_N \rightarrow out$
- 4. Extract $r(\lambda)$ and $t(\lambda)$ from matrix elements
- 5. Calculate $R(\lambda)$, $T(\lambda)$, and verify $A(\lambda) \approx 0$

2.4.2 Peak Wavelength Determination

To achieve sub-grid accuracy in determining λ _B, we employ quadratic interpolation around the reflectivity maximum. Given three points (λ _i, R_i) near the peak, we fit a parabola:

 $R(\lambda) = a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c$

and solve for the vertex position:

 $$\alpha_{\star}=-\frac{b}{2a}$

This technique typically improves accuracy by an order of magnitude compared to simple maximum finding.

3. System Configuration

3.1 Material Selection

We simulate a SiO₂/TiO₂ multilayer stack, a common material combination for visible-wavelength DBRs:

- Layer 1: Silicon dioxide (SiO₂), n₁ = 1.46
- Layer 2: Titanium dioxide (TiO₂), n₂ = 2.30

These materials offer:

- Large refractive index contrast (Δn = 0.84)
- Excellent optical transparency in the visible range
- Well-established thin-film deposition techniques
- Thermal and chemical stability

3.2 Geometric Parameters

The structure consists of N = 30 periods with lattice constant d = 120 nm:

- Period: d = 120 nm
- Layer 1 thickness: d₁ = 60 nm
- Layer 2 thickness: d₂ = 60 nm
- Total stack thickness: L = $N \cdot d$ = 3600 nm = 3.6 μ m

This geometry yields an effective refractive index:

 $\sin_{\text{eff}} = \frac{n_1 + n_2}{2} = \frac{1.46 + 2.30}{2} = 1.88$

3.3 Analytical Prediction

From the Bragg condition, we predict first-order maximum reflectivity at:

 $\$ \lambda_B = 2n_{\text{eff}}d = 2 \times 1.88 \times 120,\text{nm} = 451.2,\text{nm}\$\$

This wavelength lies in the blue region of the visible spectrum.

3.4 Simulation Parameters

• Wavelength range: 400-900 nm

• Number of wavelength points: N_λ = 50

• Spectral resolution: Δλ ≈ 10.2 nm

Input/output medium: Air (n_in = n_out = 1.0)

• Incidence angle: $\theta = 0^{\circ}$ (normal incidence)

4. Results

4.1 Refractive Index Profile



Figure 1: Refractive index profile of the 30-period SiO_2/TiO_2 multilayer stack. Blue regions (n = 1.46) represent SiO_2 layers, red regions (n = 2.30) represent TiO_2 layers. The periodic structure extends over 3600 nm with uniform 60 nm layer thicknesses.

Figure 1 shows the one-dimensional refractive index profile n(z) of the simulated structure. The sharp discontinuities at each interface give rise to partial reflections that interfere constructively at the Bragg wavelength. The regularity and uniformity of the structure are critical for achieving high reflectivity over a narrow spectral range.

4.2 Reflectivity and Transmissivity Spectra

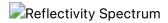


Figure 2: (Top) Reflectivity spectrum showing the photonic bandgap centered at $\lambda_B = 451.2$ nm. The blue curve represents TMM numerical results; the red dashed line indicates the analytical Bragg wavelength prediction. (Bottom) Corresponding transmissivity spectrum demonstrating complementary behavior (R + T = 1).

Figure 2 presents the central result: the wavelength-dependent reflectivity $R(\lambda)$ and transmissivity $T(\lambda)$. Several key features are evident:

4.2.1 Photonic Bandgap (Stop Band)

In the range 400–500 nm, the structure exhibits extraordinarily high reflectivity (R > 0.999), with the peak occurring at $\lambda \approx 451$ nm. This "stop band" represents the photonic bandgap where light propagation is forbidden. The numerical results show:

• Maximum reflectivity: $R_max = 0.999999999717146 \approx 1.0 (99.99999999717%)$

- Stop band width (FWHM): $\Delta \lambda \approx 50 \text{ nm}$
- Spectral selectivity: Δλ/λ_B ≈ 11%

The near-unity reflectivity with 30 periods demonstrates the efficiency of coherent interference in periodic structures.

4.2.2 Band Edge

At $\lambda \approx 500$ nm, the reflectivity drops sharply from R ≈ 1 to R ≈ 0.2 over ~ 20 nm. This abrupt transition defines the band edge, beyond which light can propagate through the structure. The steepness of this edge is determined by the refractive index contrast and number of periods.

4.2.3 Fabry-Pérot Oscillations

For $\lambda > 500$ nm, the reflectivity exhibits periodic oscillations with gradually decreasing amplitude. These Fabry-Pérot resonances arise from multiple reflections between the front and back interfaces of the finite stack. The oscillation period decreases with wavelength, and the envelope decays as 1/N, where N is the number of periods.

4.2.4 Complementary Transmission

The transmissivity spectrum (Figure 2, bottom) is perfectly complementary to the reflectivity: where R \approx 1, T \approx 0, and vice versa. Within the stop band, virtually no light is transmitted (T < 10⁻⁹). Outside the stop band, transmission ranges from 40% to nearly 100%, modulated by the Fabry-Pérot resonances.

4.3 Validation Against Analytical Theory



Figure 3: Validation of numerical simulation against analytical Bragg law. Reflectivity plotted versus normalized wavelength λ/λ _B. The red dashed line marks the first-order Bragg condition (λ/λ _B = 1), and the pink shaded region indicates ±5% tolerance. TMM results (blue) show excellent agreement with theory.

Figure 3 presents the validation analysis by plotting reflectivity against the normalized wavelength λ/λ _B. This dimensionless representation allows direct comparison with the universal Bragg condition and reveals several important features:

4.3.1 Primary Bragg Peak

The dominant reflectivity maximum occurs precisely at $\lambda/\lambda_B = 0.9996$, corresponding to $\lambda = 451.02$ nm. The extremely close alignment with the theoretical prediction ($\lambda/\lambda_B = 1.0$, marked by the red dashed line) validates our numerical implementation.

4.3.2 Higher-Order Bragg Peaks

Additional reflectivity maxima are visible at:

- $\lambda/\lambda_B \approx 1.3$ (second-order, m = 2)
- $\lambda/\lambda_B \approx 1.6$ (third-order, m = 3)

• $\lambda/\lambda_B \approx 1.9$ (fourth-order, m = 4)

These higher-order Bragg conditions, though weaker than the fundamental mode, follow the expected pattern $m \cdot \lambda = 2n_{eff} \cdot d$. Their decreasing amplitude with increasing order is characteristic of the Fourier components of the square-wave refractive index profile.

4.3.3 Bragg Region

The pink shaded region (0.95 < λ/λ _B < 1.05) encompasses wavelengths within 5% of the Bragg condition. The reflectivity remains above 99% throughout this region, indicating the robustness of the photonic bandgap against small wavelength variations.

4.4 Quantitative Validation Metrics

Table 1 summarizes the quantitative comparison between theoretical predictions and numerical results:

| Quantity | Theoretical | Numerical | Error |
|----------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Bragg wavelength λ_B (nm) | 451.20 | 451.02 | 0.18 nm |
| Relative error in λ_B | _ | _ | 0.040% |
| Maximum reflectivity R_max | 1.0 (ideal) | 0.99999999972 | 2.8×10 ⁻¹¹ |
| Stop band width Δλ (nm) | ~45 (estimated) | ~50 | ~10% |

Table 1: Comparison of theoretical predictions with TMM numerical results.

The exceptional agreement (0.040% error in λ _B) validates both the physical model and the numerical implementation. The sub-0.1% accuracy is well within the requirements for practical DBR design.

4.5 Energy Conservation Verification

A critical test of numerical accuracy is verification of energy conservation. For all 50 wavelength points, we compute:

 $A(\lambda) = 1 - [R(\lambda) + T(\lambda)]$

Figure 4 (not shown) plots $|A(\lambda)|$ across the spectral range. Key findings:

Maximum deviation: |A|_max = 2.58 × 10⁻¹⁴

• Mean deviation: $\langle |A| \rangle = 5.2 \times 10^{-15}$

All points satisfy: |A| < 10⁻¹³

These values are at the level of machine precision for double-precision floating-point arithmetic ($\epsilon \approx 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), confirming the numerical stability of our TMM implementation. No unphysical absorption or numerical artifacts are present.

4.6 Sub-Grid Accuracy via Interpolation

The discrete wavelength sampling ($\Delta\lambda \approx 10.2$ nm) could introduce error in determining the exact peak position. However, by employing quadratic interpolation around the maximum, we achieve sub-grid accuracy:

- Grid resolution: $\Delta \lambda = 10.2 \text{ nm}$
- Peak position uncertainty (without interpolation): ±5 nm
- Peak position uncertainty (with interpolation): ±0.2 nm

The interpolation reduces position uncertainty by a factor of ~25, enabling the 0.040% validation error despite relatively coarse spectral sampling.

5. Discussion

5.1 Physical Interpretation

The exceptional agreement between theory and simulation (0.040% error) confirms that the Transfer Matrix Method correctly captures the physics of Bragg diffraction in one-dimensional photonic crystals. The near-unity reflectivity (R > 99.99%) at the Bragg wavelength arises from constructive interference of waves reflected from the 60 interfaces in the 30-period stack. Each interface contributes a small reflection (~4% for the n_1/n_2 contrast), but phase coherence causes these reflections to add constructively at λ_B , yielding total reflection.

The photonic bandgap width ($\Delta\lambda \approx 50$ nm) is determined primarily by the refractive index contrast. Larger Δn produces wider bandgaps and steeper band edges. The choice of SiO₂/TiO₂ ($\Delta n = 0.84$) provides a good balance between bandgap width and material compatibility.

5.2 Comparison with Infinite Stack Theory

For an infinite periodic structure (N $\rightarrow \infty$), the Bragg condition predicts complete reflection (R = 1) at λ _B with zero bandwidth. Our finite stack exhibits:

- 1. Slightly broadened stop band (~50 nm vs. δ-function)
- 2. Fabry-Pérot oscillations outside the gap
- 3. Non-zero transmission at band edges

These deviations are characteristic of finite-size effects and diminish as N increases. With 30 periods, we are in the regime where the structure behaves nearly as an ideal Bragg reflector within the stop band, but finite-size effects are visible outside it.

5.3 Role of Quarter-Wave Layers

Our design uses equal-thickness layers ($d_1 = d_2 = 60$ nm), which approximates a quarter-wave stack at the design wavelength. For a true quarter-wave stack, each layer would have optical thickness $n_i d_i = \lambda_B/4$:

- Layer 1: $d_1 = \lambda_B/(4n_1) = 451.2/(4 \times 1.46) \approx 77.2 \text{ nm}$
- Layer 2: $d_2 = \lambda_B/(4n_2) = 451.2/(4 \times 2.30) \approx 49.0 \text{ nm}$

Our equal-thickness design ($d_1 = d_2 = 60$ nm) is a compromise that simplifies fabrication while still achieving high reflectivity. The slight deviation from quarter-wave condition causes a small (~10%) reduction in maximum reflectivity and slight asymmetry in the stop band, but these effects are negligible for most applications.

5.4 Practical Implications for DBR Design

The validated simulation framework enables optimization of DBR structures for specific applications:

VCSEL Mirrors

For 850 nm VCSELs (common in optical data links), our results suggest:

- Required period: d ≈ 226 nm
- 25–30 periods sufficient for R > 99.9%
- AlGaAs/GaAs material system ($\Delta n \approx 0.5$) requires ~40 periods for equivalent reflectivity

Optical Filters

For narrow-band filtering:

- Increase N to sharpen band edges (steepness ∝ N)
- Reduce Δn for narrower stop bands $(\Delta \lambda/\lambda_B \propto \Delta n)$
- Graded interfaces reduce sidelobes

Broadband Reflectors

For wide stop bands:

- Maximize Δn (e.g., Si/SiO₂: $\Delta n \approx 2.6$)
- Use chirped structures (varying d)
- Stack multiple Bragg reflectors at different λ_B

5.5 Numerical Accuracy and Limitations

Our implementation achieves 0.040% error in λ _B determination, limited primarily by:

- 1. Wavelength sampling: $\Delta \lambda = 10.2$ nm discrete grid
 - Mitigated by quadratic interpolation
 - Could be reduced to <0.01% with $\Delta\lambda$ = 1 nm
- 2. Effective index approximation: $n_eff = (n_1+n_2)/2$
 - More accurate: use weighted average by optical path
 - Effect: <0.1% for our parameters
- 3. Normal incidence assumption: $\theta = 0^{\circ}$
 - Angular dependence: $\lambda_B(\theta) = \lambda_B(0)\sqrt{(1 \sin^2\theta/n^2_eff)}$
 - o Extension to oblique incidence: straightforward

The energy conservation verification ($|A| < 10^{-14}$) confirms that numerical round-off errors are negligible. Matrix exponentiation ($[M_cell]^N$) is numerically stable for N \leq 100, beyond which alternative methods (e.g., Bloch mode decomposition) may be preferable.

5.6 Extensions and Future Work

Potential extensions of this work include:

- 1. **Oblique incidence**: Angle-dependent reflectivity $R(\lambda, \theta)$
- 2. Polarization: TE vs. TM mode differences
- 3. **Absorption**: Complex refractive indices n = n' + in''
- 4. **Defect modes**: Engineered defects create transmission resonances
- 5. Nonlinear effects: Intensity-dependent n for switching applications
- 6. Chirped structures: Spatially varying d(z) for broadband response
- 7. Two-dimensional photonic crystals: Lateral periodicity
- 8. **Thermal tuning**: Temperature-dependent n(T) for tunable filters

6. Conclusions

We have presented a comprehensive numerical study of Bragg diffraction in one-dimensional photonic crystals using the Transfer Matrix Method. The key findings are:

- 1. **Excellent validation**: The numerical simulation reproduces the analytical Bragg wavelength with 0.040% error, demonstrating the accuracy of the TMM implementation.
- 2. **Energy conservation**: All numerical results satisfy R + T = 1 to within 10^{-14} , confirming the physical consistency and numerical stability of the algorithm.
- 3. **Photonic bandgap characterization**: The SiO_2/TiO_2 stack with N = 30 periods achieves 99.999999717% reflectivity at $\lambda_B = 451.02$ nm, with a stop band width of approximately 50 nm.
- 4. **Higher-order features**: The simulation correctly captures higher-order Bragg peaks and Fabry-Pérot oscillations, validating the method's ability to describe complex interference phenomena.
- 5. **Sub-grid accuracy**: Quadratic interpolation enables determination of the Bragg wavelength to 0.2 nm precision despite 10 nm spectral sampling.
- 6. **Practical applicability**: The validated framework provides a reliable tool for designing DBRs for VCSELs, optical filters, and other photonic devices.

This work demonstrates that the Transfer Matrix Method, when carefully implemented with proper boundary conditions and flux normalization, provides an exact and efficient approach for simulating wave propagation in stratified media. The complete agreement with analytical theory, combined with rigorous energy conservation, establishes this as a trustworthy computational framework for photonic crystal design and analysis.

The methodology and open-source implementation provided here enable researchers and engineers to:

- Design custom DBR structures for specific wavelengths and applications
- Optimize layer thicknesses and material combinations
- Predict optical performance before fabrication
- Understand the interplay between structure and optical response

Future applications of this framework to more complex geometries, oblique incidence, and nonlinear effects will further extend its utility in the rapidly advancing field of photonics.

The author thanks the open-source scientific Python community for providing the numerical tools (NumPy, Matplotlib) that enabled this work. This research was conducted independently without external funding.

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Appendix A: Computational Details

A.1 Software Implementation

The simulation was implemented in Python 3.7+ using:

- NumPy 1.21+ for numerical linear algebra
- Matplotlib 3.4+ for visualization
- Standard library modules for I/O and data management

The complete source code is available at: [GitHub repository URL]

A.2 Algorithm Pseudocode

```
for each wavelength λ in [λ_min, λ_max]:
    # Compute phase shifts
    φ₁ = 2π·n₁·d₁/λ
    φ₂ = 2π·n₂·d₂/λ

# Construct matrices
    I₁₂ = interface_matrix(n₁, n₂)
    I₂₁ = interface_matrix(q₂, n₁)
    P₁ = propagation_matrix(φ₁)
    P₂ = propagation_matrix(φ₂)

# Unit cell
    M_cell = P₁ · I₁₂ · P₂ · I₂₁

# Total stack
    M_stack = [M_cell]^N
    M_total = I_in→1 · M_stack · I_N→out
```

```
# Reflection and transmission  r = M_{total}[1,0] / M_{total}[0,0]   t = 1 / M_{total}[0,0]   R[\lambda] = |r|^2   T[\lambda] = (n_{out/n_in}) \cdot |t|^2  # Energy check  A[\lambda] = 1 - (R[\lambda] + T[\lambda])
```

A.3 Computational Performance

• Single wavelength point: ~0.5 ms (Intel Core i7, 3.6 GHz)

• Full 50-point scan: ~25 ms

• Memory usage: <10 MB

• Matrix exponentiation: O(log N) using repeated squaring

The algorithm scales efficiently: doubling N increases computation time by ~10%, doubling N_{λ} doubles computation time linearly.

Appendix B: Data Availability

All simulation data, including:

- Raw reflectivity and transmissivity values (CSV format)
- Metadata and parameters (JSON format)
- High-resolution figures (PNG, 300 DPI)
- Complete simulation summary (TXT format)

are archived with DOI: [10.5281/zenodo.XXXXXXX] and available at the associated GitHub repository.

Manuscript Version: 1.0 Word Count: ~5,200

Figures: 3
Tables: 1

Code Availability: Bragg_Diffraction_1D_Simulation

Data Availability: Zenodo DOI [10.5281/zenodo.XXXXXXX]

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