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# Proposal and Fabrication of an Electrooptically Controlled Multimode Microresonator for Continuous Fast-to-Slow Light Tuning

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Abstract: We propose a scheme to utilize a multimode microdisk resonator in silicon controlled through free-carrier injection for continuous fast-to-slow light tuning. Two nearby resonant modes are employed, i.e., undercoupling and overcoupling. The optical properties of a device are analytically investigated considering the resonance spacing, bandwidth, and density change of free carriers. Pulse propagation simulations are implemented, and the pulse delay/advance is studied for wavelengths between the two resonances. As the density of injected free carriers increases, a continuous transition from fast to slow light occurs for a range of wavelengths. Consequently, a microdisk resonator in silicon is experimentally realized with the desired two resonances, exhibiting electro-optical tuning with a fast response. The experimental results agree well with the simulation in power transmission, and the tunable time delay and advance are also predicted.

Index Terms: Microdisk resonator, slow light, silicon photonics, waveguide devices.

# 1. Introduction

For a long time, controlling the propagation speed of light has received considerable attention for its potential applications in optical data storage, optical communications, quantum computing, and information processing. Numerous studies have been done on tunable slow and fast light in dispersive materials using electromagnetically induced transparency and absorption [1], [2], coherent population oscillation [3]–[5], and stimulated Brillouin scattering [6], [7]. Continuously tunable fast-to-slow/slow-to-fast light recently has been carried out in highly doped erbium fibers [4], quantum-well semiconductor optical amplifiers [5], and chalcogenide glass waveguides [7]. The other method for obtaining slow and fast light is to utilize dispersive structures, such as Bragg gratings [8], [9], photonic crystal waveguides and cavities [10]–[13], microsphere resonators [14], [15], and microring resonators [16]–[26]. Silicon-on-insulator (SOI) is a promising platform for integrated nanophotonics due to the CMOS-compatible processing and high



Fig. 1. (a) Schematic of a silicon based MDR integrated with an p-i-n junction. (b) Schematic of two cascaded microring resonators integrated with p-i-n junctions. (c) The operating principle diagram of continuous fast-to-slow light tuning using this structure.

index contrast. Fast and slow light in silicon have been studied and realized in dispersive structures, including Bragg gratings [8], photonic crystal slabs [10]–[13], and microring resonators [16]–[23]. The buffering can be tuned via thermo-optical method [12], [13], [16], [17] and electrooptical method [10], [18]–[22], while electro-optical tuning provides low power consumption and fast dynamic response.

Tunable fast-to-slow/slow-to-fast light has been achieved in a single-mode microresonator by varying the spacing gap [14], input polarization [24], and phase shift in a feedback waveguide [22]. However, with respect to continuous tuning, we have to manipulate two nearby resonant modes, supplied by a multimode resonator or coupled two resonators [21], [23], [25], [26]. It is noteworthy that the employment of multiple modes in a resonator is able to reduce the number of resonators required. In fact, two nearby modes are found in a single microring in the form of standing-wave modes caused by roughness-induced backscattering or coupler-induced local-ized backscattering [23], [25], [26]. Microdisk resonator (MDR) is known as a multimode structure [27]–[29], and here its multimode feature is utilized for continuously tunable fast-to-slow light. It is significant that the multiple traveling-wave modes in a MDR offer us another dimension other than bi-directional transmission to expand the ability of controlling light speed using a compact integrated device.

In this paper, we present a scheme to employ an electro-optically controllable multimode MDR in silicon for continuous fast-to-slow light tuning. The transition from fast to slow light is achieved by shifting two nearby travelling-wave modes. The optical properties of this structure are investigated using an analytical model, considering the resonance spacing, bandwidth, and density change of free-carriers. The propagation simulations indicate that the input pulses can be delayed or advanced for carrier wavelengths between the two resonances. As free carriers are injected into the resonator, a continuous transition from fast to slow light emerges for specific wavelengths. Consequently, we have realized a silicon MDR integrated with a p-i-n junction, and obtained the expected two resonances, which can be dynamically tuned in few nanoseconds. The experimental results agree with our modeling, and the time delay and advance are also simulated.

# 2. Device Structure and Theory

Fig. 1(a) shows the schematic structure of a silicon based MDR, which is laterally coupled with a bus waveguide to excite two whispering-gallery modes (WGMs) in the MDR simultaneously. The inner and outer sides of the MDR are heavily doped with boron and phosphorus, respectively, to form a p-i-n junction for injecting free electrons/holes into the optical guiding area.

As reported in [29], in the coupling region, the waveguide mode and WGM<sub>1</sub> (the first WGM)/WGM<sub>2</sub> (the second WGM) are evanescently and directly coupled, whereas WGM<sub>1</sub> and

WGM<sub>2</sub> are indirectly coupled through the waveguide. The transfer function of this structure is given by

$$T = \frac{b_0}{a_0} = \frac{t_0 - e^{j\varphi'_1}\alpha'_1(k_1^2 + t_0t_1) - e^{j\varphi'_2}\alpha'_2(k_2^2 + t_0t_2) + e^{j(\varphi'_1 + \varphi'_2)}\alpha'_1\alpha'_2(2k_1k_2k_c + k_1^2t_2 + k_2^2t_1 - k_c^2t_0 + t_0t_1t_2)}{1 - e^{j\varphi'_1}\alpha'_1t_1 - e^{j\varphi'_2}\alpha'_2t_2 + e^{j(\varphi'_1 + \varphi'_2)}\alpha'_1\alpha'_2(-k_c^2 + t_1t_2)}$$
(1)

where  $a_0$  and  $b_0$  are the input and output optical fields, respectively;  $-jk_{1,2}$  is the field coupling coefficient between the waveguide mode and WGM<sub>1,2</sub>;  $-k_c$  is the field coupling coefficient between the two WGMs;  $t_{0,1,2}$  is the field transmission coefficient. Here,  $\varphi'_{1,2} = [4\pi^2 R(n_{eff1,2} + \Delta n)]/\lambda$  is the round-trip phase shift, and  $\alpha'_{1,2} = \alpha_{1,2}\Delta\alpha$  is the round-trip field attenuation for WGM<sub>1,2</sub>, where  $\Delta n$  and  $\Delta \alpha$  are the changes in effective mode index and round-trip field attenuation introduced by the free-carrier density change, respectively; R,  $n_{eff1,2}$  and  $\lambda$  denote the MDR radius, effective mode index of WGM<sub>1,2</sub>, and vacuum wavelength, respectively. When the p-i-n junction is forward biased, the densities of free holes and free electrons are changed equally and almost uniformly across the optical guiding area in MDR. Hence, the changes in effective mode index  $\Delta n$  and round-trip field attenuation  $\Delta \alpha$  at 1550-nm wavelength are expressed as [30]

$$\Delta n = -\left[8.8 \times 10^{-22} \cdot \Delta N + 8.5 \times 10^{-18} \cdot (\Delta N)^{0.8}\right]$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

$$\Delta \alpha = \exp(-1.45 \times 10^{-17} \cdot \Delta N \cdot L/2) \tag{3}$$

where  $\Delta N$  is the density change of free electrons/holes (in units of cm<sup>-3</sup>), and  $L = 2\pi R$  is the perimeter of MDR (in centimeters).

Then, we obtain the frequency-dependent time delay by

$$\tau_d = -\frac{d\Phi}{d\omega} = \frac{\lambda^2}{2\pi c} \cdot \frac{d\Phi}{d\lambda}$$
(4)

where  $\phi = \arg(T)$  is the relative optical phase of transmission,  $\omega$  is the light angular frequency, and *c* is the light speed in free space. Actually, the input data pulses contain large amounts of frequency components which are centered at the carrier frequency. Hence, the time delay  $(\Delta t)$ of data pulses passing through the device is close to  $\tau_d$ , but not just the same as  $\tau_d$ .

We calculate the output data pulses by doing the inverse Fourier transform of the output signal spectrum, which equals to the multiplying of device transmission and input signal spectrum [31].Thus, the intensity of the output data pulses in the time domain is described by

$$O(t) = |o(t)|^{2} = \left| FT^{-1} \{ T(\omega) \cdot FT[i(t)] \} \right|^{2}$$
(5)

where i(t) and o(t) are the amplitudes of the input and output data pulses in the time domain, respectively, and  $T(\omega)$  is the device transmission as a function of angular frequency. Therefore, we can acquire the pulse delay  $(\Delta t)$  by comparing the output and input signals in the time domain.

As seen in Fig. 1(c), two resonances are excited at the same time in a MDR. One is undercoupling  $(k_1^2 + \alpha_1^2 < 1)$  for time advance, and the other is over-coupling  $(k_2^2 + \alpha_2^2 > 1)$  for time delay. While injecting the free carriers, the time delay spectrum blueshifts, and the device exhibits continuous fast-to-slow light tuning for certain wavelengths. Note that the resonance position and coupling efficiency between the waveguide mode and WGMs is adjustable through varying the structure dimensions (such as MDR radius, waveguide width, and spacing gap between the MDR and waveguide) [29], which is very important for obtaining the desired two resonances in a MDR. Ideally, power transmission remains constant while the time delay or advance varies. However, resonator based delay lines are most effective on resonance, where the loss is largest [16]–[26]. Over-coupling or under-coupling can reduce the loss, but there is a delay-bandwidth-product for a single MDR. A solution to this tradeoff is to cascade multiple stages of MDRs [32].

Such two resonances are also achievable in two cascaded microring resonators (TCMRs), as depicted in Fig. 1(b), while one resonator is in the over-coupling regime, and the other resonator is in the under-coupling regime. The spacing between two microrings is large enough that they are not coupled to each other. Thus, the transfer function of this structure is given by

$$S = \frac{t_1 - \alpha'_1 e^{j\varphi'_1}}{1 - \alpha'_1 t_1^* e^{j\varphi'_1}} \cdot \frac{t_2 - \alpha'_2 e^{j\varphi'_2}}{1 - \alpha'_2 t_2^* e^{j\varphi'_2}}$$
(6)

where the symbols on the right hand side have almost the same meanings as those in (1), except that the subscripts 1 and 2 represent the first and second microrings instead of the WGMs in the single resonator structure of Fig. 1(a). Some comparison between the proposed device and TCMRs will be given in the following section.

#### 3. Simulation and Analysis

We assume that the two resonant modes of a MDR and TCMRs both have  $n_{eff1}L_1 =$ 183.249  $\mu$ m,  $n_{eff2}L_2 = 172.411 \ \mu$ m,  $k_1^2 = 0.045$ ,  $k_2^2 = 0.060$ ,  $\alpha_1^2 = 0.940$ , and  $\alpha_2^2 = 0.980$ . This results in the first resonance to be under-coupled, and the second resonance to be overcoupled. In this case, minor difference is found between the two structures in power, phase, and time delay, as shown in Fig. 2. However, as the optical distance of WGM<sub>2</sub> ( $n_{eff2}L_2$ ) decreases, the right (second) resonance moves towards the left (first) resonance, and the output spectra for two structures becomes increasingly different. Here we are concerned about the variation of extinction ratio (ER) and time delay/advance for the left resonance. For the MDR, the resonance ER decreases, and it switches from superluminal to subluminal propagation, when the resonance spacing is reduced, as seen in Fig. 2(a) and (e). In contrast, for the TCMRs, the resonance ER increases, and the time advance keeps decreasing, when the two resonances get close to each other, as seen in Fig. 2(b) and (f). We attribute it to the fact that the mode coupling and competition between the two WGMs in a MDR are non-negligible as they are both on resonance, whereas the two resonant modes in TCMRs are independent and the overall output is just the superposition of two individual resonances. That is to say, when the two resonances are separated, the MDR and TCMRs have almost the same output power, phase, and time delay. However, the MDR configuration is more compact in size and has lower power consumption, because of the sharing of injected free carriers for the two WGMs of the single resonator structure of Fig. 1(a). In addition, it is interesting that fast-to-slow light tuning is also achievable in such a MDR by only adjusting the position of the right resonance.

In the presence of  $k_1^2 + \alpha_1^2 < 1$ , we tune the bandwidth while roughly maintaining the maximum value of time advance for one resonance by altering  $k_1^2$  and  $\alpha_1^2$ , though the associated power bandwidth and ER may change obviously, as seen in Fig. 3. When the bandwidth of time advance is very small, an oscillation appears in the time delay spectrum between the two resonant peaks, as shown in Fig. 3(b). As  $k_1^2$  increases and  $\alpha_1^2$  decreases, this bandwidth is enlarged, and then the oscillation becomes small and even disappears. We know that, for an under-coupled resonance, abnormal dispersion occurs at the resonance, intervened between two normal dispersion regions, which results in two small time-delay ripples on each side of the time-advance peak. However, if the ratio of time-advance bandwidth to resonance spacing is relatively large, the time-delay ripple between the two resonant wavelengths will gradually fade away. It is provable that the variation in time delay spectrum is similar as enlarging the bandwidth(s) of the other resonance or both two resonances. In this case, the time delay varies with the wavelength monotonously between the two resonances, implying a monotonous and continuous fast-to-slow light tuning as the spectrum shifts.



Fig. 2. The power (a), phase (c), and time delay (e) spectra of a MDR and the power (b), phase (d), and time delay (f) spectra of TCMRs with a varied resonance spacing.



Fig. 3. The power (a) and time delay (b) spectra of a MDR with a varied resonant bandwidth.

To study the impact of free-carrier injection, the power, phase and time delay spectra for various  $\Delta N$  (from 0 to  $1 \times 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>) are simulated and given in Fig. 4(a)–(c). The density change of free carriers depends on the bias voltage on the p-i-n junction, as described in [33]. In the



Fig. 4. The power (a), phase (b), and time delay (c) spectra for various  $\Delta N$ . Inset in (a): the effective mode index and round-trip power attenuation as a function of  $\Delta N$ .

beginning, the resonances of WGM<sub>1</sub> and WGM<sub>2</sub> are in the under-coupling and over-coupling regimes, respectively, without free-carrier injection. As  $\Delta N$  increases, the two resonances both blueshift, while the WGM<sub>2</sub> resonance first approaches critical-coupling and then becomes under-coupling. That is because the effective mode index and round-trip power attenuation both decrease with the density change of free carriers [see the inset of Fig. 4(a)], and  $(k_2^2 + \alpha_2^2)$  is lowered to less than 1. It is expectable that the continuous tuning from fast to slow light can be realized in the wavelength range covered by the shifting of two resonances, due to an increase of  $\Delta N$ , as seen in Fig. 4(c).

To examine the pulse delay and output signal waveform, we choose a MDR with power and time delay spectra given in Fig. 5(a). The MDR is passed through by non-return-to-zero (NRZ) and return-to-zero (RZ, duty cycle: 0.30) signals with 2nd order super-Gaussian and Gaussian envelops, respectively, and the carrier wavelengths are set typically to the five positions labeled in Fig. 5(a). The pulse delay/advance is measured by comparing the output and input pulses shown in Fig. 5(c), where the waveforms are normalized by the flat top of the "1" level. Table 1 shows the simulated results of pulse delay for 1 and 5-Gbps NRZ/RZ signals. In general, we observe that the pulse delay/advance of NRZ signal is larger than that of RZ signal, and the pulse delay/advance of high speed signal is smaller than that of low speed signal. The pulse delay is determined by the overlap of signal spectrum and time delay spectrum. Since the bandwidth of RZ signal is larger than that of NRZ signal at the same rates, more frequency components of RZ signal exceed the range of large time delay/advance, resulting in smaller time delay/advance, as seen in Fig. 5(b). The influence of data rates on time delay/advance also can be analyzed in the same way. Fig. 5(c) shows that the pulse envelope is well preserved both in intensity and shape for low speed signals, whereas more distortion is observed in the output waveform for high speed NRZ signals at a resonant carrier wavelength. For a delayed pulse, we see a small oscillation in the leading edge and a sharp overshoot in the trailing edge, and the output pulse width becomes a little wider. Nevertheless, for an advanced pulse, the situation is opposite: the sharp overshoot and small oscillation appear in the trailing and leading edges, respectively, and the pulse width becomes a little narrower. The waveform distortion is mainly attributed to the third-order dispersion (TOD) of this device, which is the largest at the resonant wavelength, as shown in the inset of Fig. 5(a).

For a wavelength on the left side of two resonances, it experiences under-coupling (fast light) and over-coupling (slow light) in succession, when the two resonant peaks move leftward and pass through it. In Fig. 6, the tuning of time delay is shown as a function of free-carrier density change for specific wavelengths. Here, the solid lines are for a MDR with  $k_1^2 = 0.045$ ,



Fig. 5. (a) The power and time delay spectra of a selected MDR. Inset: the MDR's TOD as a function of wavelength. (b) The optic al spectra of RZ and NRZ input signals at 5 Gbps; the black line represents the time delay spectrum. (c) The output signals in the time domain for input signals (black lines) at 1 and 5 Gbps with the carrier wavelengths corresponding to the five points.

	TABLE 1	
The time delay and	pulse delay for the five typical wavelengths, in picosecond	s

	Td	Δt (NRZ 1G)	Δt (RZ 1G)	Δt (NRZ 5G)	Δt (RZ 5G)
а	-33.2	-33.0	-27.6	-23.4	-14.4
b	-14.7	-13.5	-13.1	-12.5	-9.6
с	0	0.6	0	-0.8	-2.0
d	20.3	20.0	19.8	20.3	21.1
е	44.8	44.7	44.5	41.1	35.4

 $k_2^2 = 0.060$ ,  $\alpha_1^2 = 0.940$ , and  $\alpha_2^2 = 0.980$ , while the dashed lines are for a relatively large-bandwidth MDR with  $k_1^2 = 0.060$ ,  $k_2^2 = 0.090$ ,  $\alpha_1^2 = 0.920$ , and  $\alpha_2^2 = 0.950$ . It is observed that the time delay can be tuned continuously from negative (i.e. time advance) to positive values for a range of wavelengths by raising the density change. Conversely, slow-to-fast light tuning is also obtainable by reducing the density change. With the aim of achieving continuous and monotonous fast-to-slow light tuning, we should choose a proper variation range for free-carrier density change, which is dependent on wavelength. Furthermore, by comparing the solid and dashed lines, we find that the maximum value of time delay/advance is smaller, and the transition between two extremes requires a minor variation of density change, for a MDR with larger resonance bandwidths.

# 4. Fabrication and Test

The proposed structure was fabricated on a SOI wafer having a 340-nm-thick top silicon layer and a 2- $\mu$ m-thick buried oxide layer. The fine pattern was first defined by electron beam lithography, and then transferred to silicon with a depth of 220 nm by inductively coupled plasma etching. The MDR radius is 10  $\mu$ m, the spacing between the MDR and the waveguide is



Fig. 6. The tuning from fast light to slow light using a MDR by changing the free-carrier density for specific wavelengths, keeping  $n_{eff1}L_1 = 183.249 \ \mu$ m, and  $n_{eff2}L_2 = 172.411 \ \mu$ m.



Fig. 7. (a) Microscope image of the fabricated silicon MDR integrated with a p-i-n junction. (b) Cross-sectional view SEM image of the MDR rim. (c) The normalized power transmission of the device without bias. Inset: Simulated E-field profiles of WGM<sub>1</sub>, WGM<sub>2</sub>, and WGM<sub>3</sub> in the MDR.

210 nm, and the waveguide width is 350 nm. The highly-doped n+ and p+ regions (both  $1 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>) are formed 1  $\mu$ m and 2.5  $\mu$ m away from the MDR rim, respectively. A 600 nm-thick SiO<sub>2</sub> film was deposited on the MDR for electrical isolation, and NiSi silicide was used for ohmic contact. The aluminum contact pads of 1  $\mu$ m in thickness were defined using photolithog-raphy and evaporation followed by lift-off. The fabricated structure is shown in Fig. 7(a) and (b). After that, the power transmission was measured for quasi-TE polarization. Three low-order WGMs have been effectively triggered in the MDR as seen in Fig. 7(c). The nearby two resonances are identified as WGM<sub>1</sub> and WGM<sub>2</sub> based on the measured free spectrum ranges. As



Fig. 8. (a) The measured transmissions (solid dots) and several theoretical fits (solid lines) under various biases. The best-fit parameters are set as  $k_1^2 = 0.045$ ,  $k_2^2 = 0.062$ , and  $(n_{eff1}, n_{eff2}, \alpha_1^2, \alpha_2^2) = (2.91604, 2.74368, 0.940, 0.980)$ , (2.91569, 2.74335, 0.925, 0.965), (2.91529, 2.74298, 0.909, 0.948) for the biases of 0 V, 0.95 V, and 1.00 V, respectively. Inset: Transient response of the output power as the applied voltage switched from -1.0 V to 1.0 V. (b) The predicted time delay spectra for 0 V, 0.95 V, and 1.00 V.

predicted previously, the resonance ER of WGM<sub>1</sub> becomes lower when the two resonances get closer to each other, and the lowest when they coincide. It is found that the effective mode index of the waveguide mode TE<sub>0</sub> ( $n_{eff0}$  of ~2.65) is between that of WGM<sub>2</sub> ( $n_{eff2}$  of ~2.74) and WGM<sub>3</sub> ( $n_{eff3}$  of ~2.60) at 1550-nm wavelength, which leads to stronger TE<sub>0</sub> – WGM<sub>2</sub> coupling and TE<sub>0</sub> – WGM<sub>3</sub> coupling than TE<sub>0</sub> – WGM<sub>1</sub> coupling.

Fig. 8(a) shows the measured power transmissions under various biases. The resonances of WGM<sub>1</sub> and WGM<sub>2</sub> exhibit quality (Q) factors of 6,700 and 8,600 and ERs of 16.8 dB and 5.6 dB upon 0 V bias, respectively. Increasing the bias, the two resonances blueshift, and the Q factors of WGMs and ER of WGM<sub>1</sub> both decrease monotonously, while the ER of WGM<sub>2</sub> increases at first and then starts to fall. This trend agrees with the simulation results in Fig. 4(a). It is found that the electro-optical tuning only consumes 0.62 mW of dc power when applying a bias of 1.00 V. By fine tuning the bias and observing the variation of ER, the resonances have been identified to be over-coupling or under-coupling. Several transmissions are fitted by the analytical model, and nice fits are observed in Fig. 8(a). The experimental results prove that both  $n_{eff}$  and  $\alpha^2$  decrease with the bias voltage, since more free carriers are generated under a higher forward bias. According to the measured results, the carrier density changes are estimated to be about  $2 \times 10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> and  $4 \times 10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> at 0.95 V and 1.0 V, respectively, which agree with the numerical simulation for our p-i-n structure. Moreover, the simulation reveals that the carrier density change varies almost linearly at  $2.4 \times 10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>/0.1 V as the voltage changes between 0.9 V and 1.2 V. Then, we probed the output power at a fixed wavelength [point A in Fig. 8(a)] under electrical pulses, and the transition occurs in 1.8 ns as the voltage is switched from -1.0 V to 1.0 V (see the inset), implying an ability of ultra-fast fast-to-slow light tuning. Furthermore, we predict the time delay spectra for this device using the fitting parameters. The time delay spectrum shifts with the bias, and the maximum values of tunable time delay and advance are  $\sim$ 90 and  $\sim$ 50 ps, respectively, as shown in Fig. 8(b). The tuning range of time delay for a wavelength also can be predicted. For example, at 1552.71 nm, the time delay is tuned from about -50 ps to 70 ps to the maximum as the voltage changes from 0 V to 1.0 V. Note that the wavelength range of tuning is practically limited by the increasing heat generated by the rising power consumption, since thermo-optic effect makes resonances redshift.

#### 5. Conclusion

In summary, we present an approach to achieve continuously tunable fast-to-slow light on a chip by controlling a silicon multimode MDR with two nearby resonances electro-optically. For this structure, the optical properties including power, phase and time delay are investigated analytically, and the pulse propagation simulations are also performed and exhibit time delay or advance without significant distortion. It is observed that the transition from fast to slow light is continuous for a range of wavelengths when the MDR is injected with free carriers. Then, an electro-optically controllable MDR was fabricated with the desired two resonant modes, which can be tuned with sub-milliwatt power in few nanoseconds. The modeling fits the experimental results well, and the potential time delay and advance are given. It is expected that the proposed device will find more applications for on-chip optical buffering and optical information technology in the future.

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