<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Title</strong></th>
<th>Asymmetric double-quantum-well phase modulator using surface acoustic waves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Author(s)</strong></td>
<td>Choy, WCH; Li, EH; Weiss, BL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citation</strong></td>
<td>IEEE Journal of Quantum Electronics, 1998, v. 34 n. 10, p. 1846-1853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Issued Date</strong></td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>URL</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://hdl.handle.net/10722/42818">http://hdl.handle.net/10722/42818</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

©1998 IEEE. Personal use of this material is permitted. However, permission to reprint/republish this material for advertising or promotional purposes or for creating new collective works for resale or redistribution to servers or lists, or to reuse any copyrighted component of this work in other works must be obtained from the IEEE. This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License.
Asymmetric Double-Quantum-Well Phase Modulator Using Surface Acoustic Waves

Wallace C. H. Choy, E. Herbert Li, Senior Member, IEEE, and Bernard L. Weiss, Senior Member, IEEE

Abstract—An AlGaAs–GaAs asymmetric double-quantum-well (DQW) optical phase modulator using surface acoustic waves is investigated theoretically. The optimization steps of the DQW structure, which so far have not been reported in detail, are discussed here. The optimized phase modulator structure is found to contain a five-period QDW active region. A surface acoustic wave induces a potential field which provides the phase modulation. Analysis of the modulation characteristics show that by using the asymmetric DQW, the large change of the induced potential at the surface and thus large modification of the quantum-well (QW) structure can be utilized. The modification of each QW structure is consistent, although this consistency is not always preserved in typical surface acoustic wave devices. Consequently, the change of refractive index in each of the five DQW’s is almost identical. Besides, the change of effective refractive index is ten times larger here in comparison to a modulator with a five-period single QW as the active region and thus produces a larger phase modulation. In addition, a long wavelength and a low surface acoustic wave power required here simplify the fabrication of surface acoustic wave transducer and the acoustooptic phase modulator.

Index Terms—Acoustooptic device, double quantum well, electrooptic modulation, piezoelectric effect of surface acoustic waves, surface acoustic wave modulator.

I. INTRODUCTION

Acoustooptic devices, such as modulators, beam deflectors, and correlators, based on the interaction with surface acoustic waves (SAW’s), have been developed for signal processing applications [1], and SAW technology provides the advantage of optoelectronic integration [2]. Recently, electrooptic modulators using the interaction of SAW’s with III–V semiconductor multiple-quantum-well (MQW) structures have been demonstrated using the quantum-confined Stark effect [2], [3].

As we have reported [3], SAW induces both a potential and an electric field in the quantum-well (QW) device structure which reduce nonuniformly with depth. The induced potential modifies the MQW structure and thus its optical properties. A more uniform change of each QW in the MQW structure can be obtained by increasing the SAW wavelength ($\lambda_{SAW}$).

II. MODELING

The QW structure consists of five periods of 105-Å DQW’s each separated by 100-Å Al$_{0.22}$Ga$_{0.78}$As isolation barriers which is the active region of the waveguide-type SAW phase modulator, and this region is separated from the GaAs substrate by a thick Al$_{0.22}$Ga$_{0.78}$As lower cladding layer. A 200-Å-thick Al$_{0.22}$Ga$_{0.78}$As layer is finally grown on the...
surface of the structure. The SAW interdigital transducer is deposited at one side of the device structure to generate the SAW’s. The growth direction of the DQW’s is \((100)\) and the SAW propagates along the \((110)\) direction. The incident light propagates normal to the propagation direction of the SAW. It should be noted that the ZnO thin layer depositing on the top surface of the device structure can be used to enhance the SAW-induced potential and thus the modulation strength [3], [6], although it is out of the scope here to study its effects in the device structure.

The perturbation of the DQW subband structure by SAW is modeled so that electroabsorption and electrooptical variations due to SAW induced piezoelectric and elastooptic effects on the DQW can be determined. The modulation of the optical wave depends on the interaction of the optical field with the SAW perturbed DQW structure, and therefore the one-dimensional Maxwell’s equation is solved analytically. Consequently, the optical guided mode, the change of effective refractive index, and the change of the effective absorption coefficient are obtained for the determination of the modulation characteristics of the phase modulator.

A. SAW-Perturbed DQW Structure

The propagation of SAW is described by the equation of motion of particles in elastic medium and the electric displacement equation in a medium [7], [8]. For the subband structure of a DQW, it is considered that the isolation layer separating two DQW structures is so thick that there is no significant coupling between adjacent DQW’s, and therefore a DQW model can be used here. The QW subband edge states in the \(\Gamma\)-valley are calculated by solving a one-dimensional (1-D) one-particle Schrödinger-like equation numerically. This equation is reexpressed as a tridiagonal matrix using the Strum–Liouville method [9], and eigenvalues of the tridiagonal matrix are found by using the recursive method [10] followed by a bisection method. An inversion iteration [10] is then used to improve the eigenvalue accuracy and find the eigenvector, i.e., the envelope function of an electron. The SAW induces both strain and an electric field in the AlGaAs–GaAs piezoelectric heterostructure. However, the induced strains are too small (\(\approx 0.1\%\)) to significantly modify the subband structure heterostructure and to change the semiconductor material bandgap [11]. Consequently, only the potential due to the SAW-induced electric field is considered as an additional linear perturbation term in modifying the DQW potential profile.

The exciton in a DQW is modeled using the variational method which has been discussed previously [12]. When the energy difference between the first and second subband states is small, the intersubband coupling of the excitons must be considered. Consequently, the variational wavefunction associated with the lowest two subband states of the electron and the hole are chosen as [13]

\[

\psi_{C;V_j}(\rho) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{M} d_i \chi_{C;i}(z_e)f_j \chi_{V;j}(z_h)e^{-\beta \rho} \tag{1}

\]

where \(\rho\) is the displacement of the position vectors of an electron and a hole projected in the \(x-y\) plane, \(N, M\) are the number of electron states and hole states in calculation and both have a value of two, \(\chi_{C;i}(z_e)\) and \(\chi_{V;j}(z_h)\) are the wavefunctions of the \(C_i\)th conduction subband and \(V_j\)th valence subband for heavy and light holes, respectively, \(\beta\) is a variational parameter governing the radial extent of the wavefunction, and \(d_i\) and \(f_j\) are variational parameters which are subject to the normalization constraints

\[

\sum_{i=1}^{N} |d_i|^2 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{M} |f_j|^2 = 1. \tag{2}

\]

The minimized expectation value of the exciton Hamiltonian \(\zeta\) which is the total exciton energy can be determined by

\[

\zeta = \frac{\langle \psi | H_{\text{exc}} | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}. \tag{3}

\]

The exciton binding energy \(E_b\) is then obtained

\[

E_b = E_1 + E_0^b - \zeta \tag{4}
\]

where \(E_1\) and \(E_0^b\) are the first subband energy of an electron and a hole, respectively.

B. Optical Properties

The subband structure and the exciton states, including intersubband coupling effects, are used to calculate the absorption coefficient \((\alpha)\), the unbiased absolute refractive index \((n_r)\), the change of absorption coefficient \((\Delta \alpha)\), and the change of refractive index \((\Delta n)\) due to an electric field for the DQW structure. Details of \(\alpha\) and \(n_r\) calculations are in [14] and [15], respectively. The essential steps for \(\alpha\) and \(n_r\) of the DQW are presented here. The bound state \(\alpha\) can be obtained from the imaginary part of the dielectric constant \(\varepsilon_2^\text{bound}(\omega)\) [16], where the superscript denotes the conduction-valance bond bound state

\[

\varepsilon_2^\text{bound}(\omega) = \frac{c^2 \mu_\pm}{6\varepsilon_0 m_e^* E_{CV}^2 \left(L_{w1} + L_{w2} + L_{gb} \right)

\cdot \left( E_g(E_g + \Delta \epsilon) \left( E_g + \frac{2}{5} \Delta \epsilon \right) \right) \sum_{\xi,C} |\langle \xi_C | \chi_V \rangle|^2 \frac{\Gamma_{CV}(\omega)}{ICV(\omega)} , \tag{5}
\]

where

\[

\Gamma_{CV}(\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} s(E) S(E) L(E) dE, \tag{6}
\]

\[

L(E) = \frac{\Gamma_B}{\pi \left\{ [E_{CV} + E - \omega]^2 + \Gamma_B^2 \} \right. \right. \tag{7}
\]

and \(L_{w1}, L_{w2} \) and \(L_{gb}\) are the thickness of the first and second wells, and inner barrier, respectively. \(\langle \xi_C | \chi_V \rangle^2\) is the probability of the wavefunction overlap between \(\xi_C\) and \(\chi_V\). \(S(E)\) is the Sommerfield enhancement factor which is assumed here to be a constant. \(L(E)\) is the Lorentzian broadening factor, \(\Gamma_B\) is the bound state linewidth (half width half maximum, HFHM) broadening factor. \(s(E)\) is the transition energy between a conduction subband and a valence subband, and \(\Delta \epsilon, m_e^*,\) and \(E_g\) are the spin-orbit splitting gap, the effective electron mass, and bandgap energy,
respectively. The latter three parameters are calculated by weighing the ratio between the well widths and the Al fraction of the two wells. Details of the polarization factor can be found in [14]. The imaginary part of the DQW exciton dielectric constant \( \varepsilon_{2}^{\text{ex}}(\omega) \), implied the exciton absorption coefficient, is given by

\[
\varepsilon_{2}^{\text{ex}}(\omega) = \frac{2\varepsilon_{0}m_{e}^{*}E_{c1}^{2}(L_{w1} + L_{w2} + L_{d})}{\gamma_{s}(E_{g} + \Delta_{0})} \cdot \left( \frac{2\beta^{2}}{\pi} \right) \left( \frac{2\beta^{2}}{\pi} \right) \pi \left( \frac{(E_{\text{exc}} - \gamma\omega)^{2} + \Gamma_{X B}^{2}}{\Gamma_{X B}^{2}} \right)
\]

where \( E_{\text{exc}} \) is the exciton transition energy and \( \Gamma_{XB} \) is the exciton linewidth (HWHM) broadening factor.

The dielectric functions are used to determine \( \eta_{r} \) [15], [17], which is given by

\[
\eta_{r}(\omega) = \left( \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{1}(\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \left[ (\varepsilon_{1}(\omega))^{2} + [\varepsilon_{2}(\omega)]^{2} \right]^{1/2} \right)^{1/2}
\]

where \( \varepsilon_{1} \) and \( \varepsilon_{2} \) are the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric function respectively, and are given by

\[
\varepsilon_{1}(\omega) = \varepsilon_{1}^{\Gamma}(\omega) + \varepsilon_{1}^{X}(\omega) + \varepsilon_{\infty}
\]

\[
\varepsilon_{2}(\omega) = \varepsilon_{2}^{\Gamma}(\omega) + \varepsilon_{2}^{X}(\omega) + \varepsilon_{2}^{D}
\]

where \( \varepsilon_{1}^{\Gamma} \) and \( \varepsilon_{2}^{\Gamma} \) denote the contribution from \( \Gamma \)-valley, \( \varepsilon_{1}^{X} \) and \( \varepsilon_{2}^{X} \) denotes the contribution from \( X \)-valley, \( \varepsilon_{\infty} \) denotes the contribution from other transitions to \( \varepsilon_{1} \), and \( \varepsilon_{2}^{D} \) denotes the contribution from the indirect transitions to \( \varepsilon_{2} \).

A typical electrooptical phase modulator requires \( \beta_{\text{mod}} > 10 \) [20]. High-performance phase modulators also require a low \( \alpha_{\text{loss}} \), which is a measure of the insertion loss of the device, where \( \alpha_{\text{loss}} \) is defined as \( \alpha_{\text{eff}} \) with the SAW effect.
between the two adjacent DQW pairs, and the thickness and Al fraction of the inner barrier have to be optimized. Generally, the confinement of an envelope wavefunction improves when the Al fraction of the isolation barriers increases and the total thickness \((d)\) reduces. The effects of varying the thickness of the wells and inner barrier of a symmetric DQW on the optical properties have been thoroughly studied [21] and are not discussed further here. In order to optimize an asymmetric DQW structure, the effects of the two well widths \(L_{1/2}\) and \(L_{id}\), the Al fraction of the two wells, and the inner barrier are investigated here. An optimized DQW structure is obtained by analyzing the wavefunction distribution, the square of the overlap integral, the square of variational parameter \((\beta^2)\) which governs the radial extent of the wavefunction, and the absorption coefficient.

Four AlGaAs–GaAs DQW structures are used to show the effects of the Al fraction of the well and barrier layers and the well width of DQW on its optical properties. They are: A) two identical GaAs wells (Al fraction ) with widths of 45 Å, an inner barrier width of 15 Å, and an Al fraction of 0.52; this structure is denoted as Z45/15/45 and X0.0/0.52/0.0 for layer dimension and Al fraction respectively; b) Z30/15/60 and X0.0/0.52/0.0 to show the effect of different well widths; c) Z30/15/60 and X0.0/0.52/0.036 to show the effects of different well composition; and D) Z30/15/60 and X0.0/1.0/0.118 to show the effect of the composition of the barrier layer. The isolation layers of all four DQW structures have an Al fraction of 0.52.

The potential profile of structure A, Z45/15/45 and X0.0/0.52/0.0, is shown in Fig. 1. The square of the overlap integral of the diagonal transitions, i.e., C1–HH1 and C2–HH2, reduce and that of the nondiagonal transitions, i.e., C1–HH2 and C2–HH1, increase when the uniform electric field \(F\) increases from 0 to 20 kV/cm, as shown in Table I. These changes can be expressed by plotting their wavefunctions, see Fig. 1. Although the square of the overlap integral of the LH transitions has not been discussed here, the variations are similar to those of the HH transitions. The exciton absorption spectra of structure A applied fields of \(F = 0\) and 20 kV/cm are shown in Fig. 2(a). The exciton absorption coefficient \(\alpha_{\text{exc}}\) of the diagonal transitions, such as C1–HH1, reduce considerably and \(\alpha_{\text{exc}}\) for the nondiagonal transitions, such as C1–HH2, establishes with a high magnitude when \(F\) increases to 20 kV/cm. The change of refractive index due to the uniform applied electric field is obtained and shown in Fig. 3(a).

When the widths of the two wells of the symmetric structure A are modified to become asymmetric, as in structure B, Z30/15/60 and X0.0/0.52/0.0, the square of the overlap integral of the diagonal and nondiagonal transitions show no significant change due to the uniform applied field, as shown in Table I. When the applied electric field in structure A (symmetric DQW) increases from 0 to 20 kV/cm, the square of the overlap integral of the diagonal transitions reduces from \(0.9\) to \(0.6\) and the nondiagonal ones increase from 0 to \(0.6\). However, by modifying the symmetric DQW to the asymmetric DQW structure B, the square of the overlap integral is maintained at \(0.9\) and \(0\) for diagonal and nondiagonal transitions, respectively, when the applied field increases from 0 to 20 kV/cm. As a result, \(\alpha_{\text{exc}}\) spectra with and without the applied field are similar to each other and result in a small refractive index change for structure B, as shown in Fig. 3(b). Consequently, an asymmetric DQW produced by only adjusting the well widths is not useful for phase modulation due to the small SAW induced field (\(\sim 20\) kV/cm).

By increasing the Al fraction in the wider well to 0.036, i.e., structure C with Z30/15/60 and X0.0/0.52/0.036, the change of the square of its overlap integral due to the applied field is

\[\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Cases} & \text{F = 0} & \text{F = 20 kV/cm} \\
\hline
\text{A} & E_\text{H} (eV) & 1.538 & 1.540 & 1.566 & 1.568 & 1.532 & 1.544 & 1.562 & 1.574 \\
& \text{OVINT} & 0.963 & 0.000 & 0.000 & 0.975 & 0.345 & 0.618 & 0.622 & 0.350 \\
\text{B} & E_\text{H} (eV) & 1.512 & 1.538 & 1.610 & 1.636 & 1.512 & 1.526 & 1.620 & 1.635 \\
& \text{OVINT} & 0.962 & 0.013 & 0.015 & 0.977 & 0.967 & 0.004 & 0.003 & 0.930 \\
\text{C} & E_\text{H} (eV) & 1.567 & 1.575 & 1.630 & 1.639 & 1.564 & 1.568 & 1.637 & 1.641 \\
& \text{OVINT} & 0.957 & 0.018 & 0.020 & 0.930 & 0.163 & 0.808 & 0.780 & 0.156 \\
\text{D} & E_\text{H} (eV) & 1.661 & 1.687 & 1.670 & 1.695 & 1.655 & 1.693 & 1.664 & 1.702 \\
& \text{OVINT} & 0.834 & 0.126 & 0.124 & 0.854 & 0.112 & 0.856 & 0.847 & 0.113 \\
\hline
\end{array}\]
Fig. 2. Exciton absorption spectra of structures: (a) A at $F = 0$ (solid line) and $F = 20$ kV/cm (dotted line) and (b) D at $F = 0$ (solid line) and $F = 20$ kV/cm (dotted line).

Fig. 3. Change of refractive index spectra of the four DQW structures (a) A (solid line), (b) B (dotted line), (c) C (dashed line), and (d) D (dotted–dashed line).

similar in trend to that of structure A. However, in structure C, the total change of the square of the overlap integral for structure C is larger than that for structure A. Therefore, by increasing the Al fraction of the wider well to 0.036, the change of the square of the overlap integral due to an applied electric field on both the diagonal and the nondiagonal transitions can increase to $\sim 0.8$. The field-induced changes in symmetric structure A are only $\sim 0.6$ for both diagonal and nondiagonal transitions. If the Al fraction of the wider well increases further, the change of the square of the overlap integral reduces again, just as for the case when the Al fraction increases to 0.12, the change of the square of the overlap integral of C1–HH1 and C1–LH1 are from $\sim 0.62$ to $\sim 0.41$ and from $\sim 0.32$ to $\sim 0.53$, respectively. Therefore, the change of the absorption coefficient and refractive index are reduced. Consequently, the large change of the square of the overlap integral contributes to a large refractive index change for structure C at wavelengths $> 0.795 \mu m$ [see Fig. 3(c)], as compared to that of structure A at wavelengths $> 0.815 \mu m$ [see Fig. 3(a)]. Thus structure C is more useful for developing a phase modulator.

It is interesting to note that a larger refractive index change can be obtained using the optimized DQW structure D, Z30/15/60 and X0.0/70/0.118, where the most important difference between structures C and D is the increase of the Al fraction of the inner barrier to 1.0. As shown in Fig. 4(a), the C1 and HH1 wavefunctions for $F = 0$ are predominantly in the narrow well because of increases of the Al fraction of both the barrier and the wider well, while in structure A the two wavefunctions are evenly distributed in both wells, as shown in Fig. 1(a). For $F = 20$ kV/cm [see Fig. 4(b)], C1 of structure D is better confined in the right-hand well as compared to that of structure A [see Fig. 1(a)], since the Al fraction of the inner barrier and width of the right-hand well of structure D increases and broadens respectively, while HH1 has no significant change. Consequently, when the Al fraction of the inner barrier increases to 1.0 (structure D), the square of the overlap integral of C1–HH1 reduces slightly to $\sim 0.83$ as compared to $\sim 0.96$ for the other structures for zero applied field (see Table I). However, since $\beta^2$ of C1–HH1 increases from $4.73 \times 10^{-5}$ in structure A to $8.76 \times 10^{-5}$ in structure D, i.e., almost a two-fold increase of $\beta^2$, the C1–HH1 $\alpha_{exc}$ of structure D increases considerably to $\sim 25000 \, cm^{-1}$, as shown in Fig. 2(b). When $F = 20$ kV/cm, the square of the overlap integral of C1–HH1 of structure D is one-third that of
Fig. 4. Potential profile and wavefunctions of the optimized asymmetric structure D: Z30/15/60, X0.0/1.0/0.118 bounded by two outer barriers with an Al fraction of 0.52 at field (a) $F = 0$ and (b) $F = 20$ kV/cm. Potential profiles (solid line), C1 and HH1 wavefunctions (dotted line), and C2 and HH2 wavefunctions (dashed line).

Fig. 5. Potential profile of the five-period DQW structures due to the SAW induced potential for $\lambda_{SAW}$ of 15 $\mu$m and SAW power of 3 W. The inserted figure is the potential induced by the SAW.

structure A and $\beta^2$ of C1–HH1 is also slightly reduced from $3.99 \times 10^{-5}$ in structure A to $3.76 \times 10^{-5}$ in structure D. The C1–HH1 $\alpha_{sc}$ of structure D therefore reduces significantly, as shown in Fig. 2(b). It should be noted that since increasing the Al fraction in the inner barrier contributes to the variations of C1 and HH1 of both $F = 0$ and $F = 20$ kV/cm, structure D can be considered as a DQW to study the effect of the Al fraction in the barrier in optimizing the DQW structure, while the effects of increasing the well width and the Al fraction of the right-hand well have been discussed in structures B and C, respectively.

The increase and decrease of the C1–HH1 $\alpha_{sc}$ of structure D for $F = 0$ and $F = 20$ kV/cm, respectively, result in a larger refractive index change at wavelengths between 0.75 $\mu$m and 0.78 $\mu$m for structure D as compared to that of structure A at wavelengths between 0.815 and 0.84 $\mu$m. The main reasons are the following. First, the large negative $\Delta \alpha_{sc}$, i.e., $\alpha_{sc}(F = 20 \text{ kV/cm}) - \alpha_{sc}(F = 0)$, at wavelengths between 0.75 $\mu$m and 0.76 $\mu$m for structure D [see Fig. 2(b)] contributes to a large negative refractive index change at wavelengths between 0.75 $\mu$m and 0.78 $\mu$m after the Kramer–Kröning transformation, see Fig. 3(d). Second, the large but opposite sign $\Delta \alpha_{sc}$ of structure A for wavelengths between 0.80 $\mu$m and 0.82 $\mu$m [see Fig. 2(a)] causes a cancellation of refractive index changes in the Kramer–Kröning transformation and results in a small positive refractive index change at wavelengths between 0.815 $\mu$m and 0.84 $\mu$m [see Fig. 3(a)]. As a consequence, structure D provides a larger refractive index for a low applied-field phase modulation than structure A. It should be noted that the expression for the large refractive index change of structure D is applicable to structure C.

B. Modulator Characteristics

The optimized DQW structure contains five DQW periods as the active region of the SAW modulator. The five DQW’s are tilted by the potential of the SAW induced electric field and they are located at the top region (with thickness <200 nm) of the whole nonlinear SAW potential profile, as shown in Fig. 5. In this figure, the slope of the SAW potential is steepest at the surface, i.e., the strongest electric field induced by the SAW can be used for phase modulation.

As shown in Fig. 6, $\alpha$ of the DQW’s are modified due to the SAW induced potential. The absorption spectra of the first, third, and fifth DQW almost coincide, i.e., the slope of the SAW induced potential is almost identical over the five DQW’s. This implies that each of the five DQW’s can provide similar $\Delta \alpha$, as shown in Fig. 7.

Although the optical confinement factor of the SAW phase modulator is not especially large ($\sim 0.54$), the strong electric field induced by the SAW provides a large phase modulation, as shown in Table II. At an operating wavelength ($\lambda_{OP}$) of 0.755 $\mu$m, $\Delta \phi_{eff}$ and thus $\Delta \phi$ for a SAW aperture (modulation length) of 50 $\mu$m are very high with values of $1.38 \times 10^{-2}$ and 5.76 rad, respectively. However, the penalty is a large $\Delta \phi_{eff}$ with a value of 329 cm$^{-1}$ which results in a low $\beta_{mod} = 6.9(\times 10^{-10})$. This means that, although a large phase modulation is produced, an unexpected strong intensity modulation is simultaneously produced. Therefore, it is not useful for a SAW phase modulator to operate at $\lambda_{OP} = 0.755$ $\mu$m. For longer $\lambda_{OP}$, $\beta_{mod}$ increases which implies that the phase modulation...
Fig. 6. The absorption coefficient $\alpha$ spectra of the five DQW’s in the active region of the SAW phase modulator. $\alpha$ of the first DQW without SAW effect (solid line), $\alpha$ of the third DQW with the SAW effect (dot line), and $\alpha$ of the fifth DQW with the SAW effect (dotted–dashed line).

Fig. 7. The change of refractive index $\Delta n$ spectra of the first DQW’s in the active region of the SAW phase modulator.

is more dominant, as compared to the intensity modulation. However, it is important to note that both $\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$ and $\Delta \phi$ reduce when $\lambda_{\text{SP}}$ increases and thus weakens the phase modulation. $\lambda_{\text{SP}}$ is finally selected at 0.76 $\mu$m so that $\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$ and $\Delta \phi$ values of $5.21 \times 10^{-2}$ and 2.15 rad, respectively, are obtained when $\beta_{\text{mod}}$ is up to 12.2.

Table II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\lambda_{\text{SP}}$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\alpha_{\text{max}}$ (cm$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$ (cm$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$n_{\text{eff}}$ (SAW)</th>
<th>$n_{\text{eff}}$ (no SAW)</th>
<th>$\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$ (SAW) (10$^{-5}$)</th>
<th>$\Delta \phi$ (rad.)</th>
<th>$\beta_{\text{mod}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.755</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>3.12298</td>
<td>3.10914</td>
<td>1.380</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.12685</td>
<td>3.12163</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.11325</td>
<td>3.11033</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.16025</td>
<td>3.10134</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>3.09524</td>
<td>3.09358</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.08887</td>
<td>3.08699</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To compare these results with a SAW phase modulator using a five-period single QW as the active region [3], the optimized DQW has 10 times larger $\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$. In addition, since only a small change of the SAW induced potential (equivalent to a linear applied electric field of $\sim 20$ kV/cm) is required, the SAW with a long $\lambda_{\text{SAW}}$ of 15 $\mu$m and a low SAW power of 3 mW can be used. Longer $\lambda_{\text{SAW}}$ and lower SAW power simplifies the fabrication of the SAW transducer. Consequently, the asymmetric DQW phase modulator using SAW is an acoustooptical device with a large phase modulation.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, an optimized DQW optical phase modulator using SAW has been investigated theoretically. The optimized asymmetric DQW structure, i.e., Z30/15/60, X0.0/1.0/0.18 and isolation layers with 0.52 Al fraction, is proposed as the five-period DQW active region of the phase modulator for a SAW with $\lambda_{\text{SAW}}$ and power of 15 $\mu$m and 3 mW, respectively. The results show that the large change of the SAW induced potential at the top surface can be utilized. Meanwhile, the five-DQW subband structure is tilted uniformly so that the refractive index change produced by each DQW is almost identical. In addition, the change of the effective refractive index for the optimized DQW is $\sim 10^{-2}$ which is 10 times that of a structure containing five single QW’s of $\sim 10^{-3}$ [3] and 100 times that of a conventional AlGaAs bulk SAW modulator [22], i.e., a larger phase modulation is obtained in the DQW structure. Consequently, the asymmetric DQW phase modulator using SAW becomes an attractive candidate in the development of QW active optoelectronic devices and circuits.

It is important to note that, since the DQW structure is optimized by using an uniform applied field, the analysis in the optimization can also serve as a guide for developing an electrical biased DQW phase modulator, and the optimized DQW structure is also applicable for the use of a low-bias DQW phase modulator.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to acknowledge the technical support of the Center for Vision, Speech, and Signal Processing (CVSSP) of the University of Surrey, U.K.

REFERENCES


Wallace C. H. Choy, for biography, see p. 92 of the January 1998 issue of this *JOURNAL*.

E. Herbert Li (S’87–M’88–SM’95), for photograph and biography, see p. 990 of the June 1998 issue of this *JOURNAL*.

Bernard L. Weiss (S’72–M’74–SM’94), for biography, see p. 92 of the January 1998 issue of this *JOURNAL*.