1. INTRODUCTION

With the recent remarkable progress in nanofabrication techniques, light propagation in subwavelength structures has attracted much attention. Semiconductor waveguides, such as silicon-on-insulator (SOI) [1,2] or AlGaAs [3], represent one of the promising platforms for light manipulation at the miniature scale. High refractive index contrast allows tight light confinement with typical waveguide transverse dimensions of the order of hundreds of nanometers (hence they are often referred to as photonic nanowires), while typical propagation losses are of the order of a few dB/mm [1].

Theoretical description of pulse propagation in conventional waveguides and fibers is largely based on the well-established generalized nonlinear Schrödinger (NLS) model [4], which describes evolution of the guided mode envelope with propagation distance. The key strength of this model is in its simplicity. It contains two important ingredients: the group velocity dispersion (GVD) of the mode (responsible, e.g., for pulse spreading in time) and nonlinear interaction (resulting from light intensity-dependent refractive index of the medium). It is the interplay between these two ingredients that creates the plethora of effects in optical waveguides and fibers [4].

The NLS model is based on several approximations, among which is the assumption of a relatively small longitudinal electric field component of the mode (weak guidance) [4]. However, this is only true for waveguides with a relatively low refractive index contrast between the core and the cladding, and with core sizes being much larger than the wavelength of light. Development of adequate models to describe light propagation in subwavelength waveguides has become the subject of active research in the recent years [1,5-11].

One of the distinctive features of these waveguides is a strong variation of the modal profile with the wavelength of light. Since distribution of light intensity across the waveguide structure defines the effectiveness of nonlinear (multi-photon) processes, this variation leads to a considerable dispersion of nonlinearity [10,11]. Within the framework of the NLS model, it manifests through the appreciable dependence of the nonlinear waveguide parameter γ on frequency. The first-order dispersion of nonlinearity (γ1 = dγ/dω) gives intensity-dependent correction to the group velocity. Such term appears in the pulse propagation equation even if an ideal homogeneous medium is considered, it is responsible for the self-steepening of pulses [4]. In subwavelength waveguides, the self-steeping effect can be significantly enhanced due to the geometrical contribution to the dispersion of nonlinearity [5,8,12]. Most important, the geometry-induced dispersion of nonlinearity can lead to a range of new effects. Recently we identified the novel mechanism of modulational instability (MI) of a constant-amplitude wave, mediated by the dispersion of nonlinearity in subwavelength waveguides [13]. We also introduced a simple phenomenological model describing this effect, which is based on the generalized version of the NLS equation where the second-order dispersion of nonlinearity term was added (γ2 = d2γ/dω2). Similar models have been considered recently in the context of ultrashort pulse dynamics in fibers [14,15], beam propagation in nonlinear photonic crystals [16], pulse dynamics in...
nonlinear metamaterials [17], and dynamics of Bose–Einstein condensate of dipolar atoms in a periodic potential [18].

It must be noted, that for the Kerr-type nonlinear response of a medium (the most common in optics), the nonlinear interaction involves four photons at different frequencies (four-wave mixing process). It is therefore the dependence on four frequencies of all the interacting waves, rather than single frequency dependence \( \gamma(\omega) \) as in the above NLS models, which needs to be taken into consideration [1,7,8,13]. This can be done most naturally by considering pulse propagation in the frequency domain. However, the resulting model that describes evolution of individual harmonics with the propagation distance, the harmonic propagation (HP) model, contains a network of nonlinear nonlinear interactions [8,13], and appears to be complicated for analysis and resource demanding for numerical integration.

In this work, we demonstrate that the HP model, which is derived from Maxwell equations following the standard perturbation expansion procedure [1,5,7], can be reduced to the pulse propagation equation of NLS type with the dispersion of nonlinear operator introduced—the nonlinear dispersive Schrödinger (NLDS) equation. The only assumption which allows this reduction is the factorization of the four-frequency dependence of nonlinear coefficients in HP model. Having analyzed different semiconductor subwavelength waveguide geometries, we found that this factorization approximates well the actual four-frequency dependencies in a wide range of wavelengths. This allows us to use the derived NLDS equation for the description of short pulse dynamics and parametric frequency conversion processes in subwavelength waveguides. Unlike the method proposed in [8], our approach does not require performing computationally heavy procedure of Taylor expansion of the modal profile frequency dependence, and is not limited by the narrow spectral width (quasi-CW) approximation.

2. PERTURBATION EXPANSION OF MAXWELL EQUATIONS AND HARMONIC PROPAGATION MODEL

We consider a waveguide defined by the linear dielectric permittivity \( \varepsilon \) and nonlinear Kerr susceptibility \( \chi^{(3)} \). Both are functions of transverse coordinates \((x, y)\), while the structure is homogeneous along the propagation direction \( z \) (see Fig. 1).

We use Fourier expansion for the total electric field

\[
\vec{E}(\vec{r}, \omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int E(\vec{r}, \omega)e^{-i\omega \hat{z} \cdot d\omega} + c.c.
\]  

where each harmonic is described in terms of slowly varying amplitude \( A_n(z) \) of the corresponding linear model:

\[
E(\vec{r}, \omega) = I_\omega^{1/2} A_n(z) \hat{e}_n(x,y).
\]

\[
I_\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (\hat{e}_n \times \hat{h}_n + c.c.) \hat{e}_n \cdot d\omega dy.
\]

Here \( \hat{e}_z \) is the unit vector along \( z \), \( \hat{e}_n(x,y) \) and \( \hat{h}_n(x,y) \) are the electric and magnetic field profiles of the linear mode at the frequency \( \omega \). The normalization is such that the power carried by each harmonic is given by \( P_n = |A_n|^2 \).

Displacement vector is assumed to have the form:

\[
D(\omega) = \epsilon_0(\omega)E(\omega) + \chi^{(3)}(-\omega, \omega_1, -\omega_2, \omega_3)E(\omega_1)E^*(\omega_2)E(\omega_3).
\]

where the third-order susceptibility tensor is given by \( \chi^{(3)}_{iprs}(-\omega, \omega_1, -\omega_2, \omega_3) = \chi_{nklm}^{(3)}\epsilon_{iprs}\delta_{kpr} + \delta_{ir}\delta_{ps} + \delta_{is}\delta_{pr})/3 + (1 - \rho)\delta_{iprs} \) [1,7]. \( \delta_{ij} \) is the Kronecker delta and \( \rho \) is the nonlinear anisotropy parameter (\( \rho = 1 \) in the isotropic approximation). For silicon \( \rho \approx 1.27 \) [7]; for all other materials in Fig. 1, we took \( \rho = 1 \).

Following a similar procedure as described in [1,7], we derive equations for the harmonic amplitudes (HP model):

\[
id_\omega A_n = -\beta_n A_n - \frac{\omega}{2\pi} \int \Gamma_{iprs} A_{ip} A_{rs}^* A_{n} A_{n}^* d\omega_1 d\omega_2.
\]

where \( \beta_n \) is the propagation constant of the linear-guided mode at the corresponding frequency, and nonlinear coefficients are given by

\[
\Gamma_{nkm} = \frac{\epsilon_0}{\sqrt{i_nI_kI_rI_m}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \chi_{nkm}^{(3)} r^* d\omega d\delta y.
\]

\[
\zeta_{nkm} = \rho[(\epsilon^{*}_m \epsilon_{n}^*) (\epsilon^{*}_l \epsilon_{n}^*) + (\epsilon_{n}^* \epsilon_{l}) (\epsilon^{*}_m \epsilon_{n}) + (\epsilon_{n}^* \epsilon_{l}) (\epsilon_{n}^* \epsilon_{m}) + 3(1 - \rho) \sum_{i=x,y,z} \epsilon^{*}_m^{l} \epsilon_{n}^{i} \epsilon^{*}_m \epsilon_{n}]
\]

Material dispersion of nonlinearity is usually weak and also poorly characterized in terms of its variations with multiple frequencies. It is thus practical to assume

![Fig. 1. (Color online) Geometry and profile of the dominant electric field component (\( e_z \)) of the quasi-TE guided mode in subwavelength semiconductor waveguides: (a) AlGaAs waveguide, \( \lambda_0 = 1.665 \mu m \) and (b) SOI waveguide, \( \lambda_0 = 2.3 \mu m \).](image)
\( \chi_{nklm} \equiv \chi = (4/3)\varepsilon_0 c n_2 \), where the Kerr coefficient \( n_2 \) and
dielectric permittivity \( \varepsilon \) are evaluated at a reference frequency \( \omega_0 = 2\pi/\lambda_0 \). Contrary, geometrical dispersion of nonlinearity is expected to be strong in subwavelength waveguides \([10,11]\), and its role is elucidated below.

3. FACTORIZATION OF NONLINEAR COEFFICIENTS AND PULSE PROPAGATION EQUATION

The geometrical dispersion is accounted for by the coefficients \( \zeta_{nklm} \) in Eq. (8). Definition of these coefficients involves overlap integrals with modal profiles at different frequencies. We note that \( \zeta_{nklm} \) are invariant under all permutations of indices that preserve the condition \( n - k + l - m = 0 \):

\[ \zeta_{nklm} = \zeta_{kmln} = \zeta_{knml} = \zeta_{nmkl} = \zeta_{mnlk} \]

Even with the account of the above symmetry, description of a broadband signal evolution within the HP model in Eq. (5) remains to be a challenging computational task due to the large number of nonlinear coefficients to be computed. In the view of the above permutation symmetry, a significant reduction can be made by assuming factorization of nonlinear coefficients:

\[ \Gamma_{nklm} \approx g_n g_k g_l g_m \quad \text{and} \quad g_n = \Gamma_{nnmn}^{1/4} \equiv \Gamma_n^{1/4}. \]

We test this approximation by direct comparison with the original coefficients obtained from Eq. (7). In Fig. 2 the relative error \( \Delta = \left| \Gamma_{nklm} - g_n g_k g_l g_m \right| / \Gamma_n^{1/4} \) is plotted in the plane of parameters \( \delta_{kl} = (a_{0k} - a_{0l}) / a_{0n} \) for the fixed \( a_{0n} \approx 1.13 \cdot 10^5 \) rad/s (\( \lambda_n = 2\pi c / a_{0n} = 1.665 \) \( \mu \)m) and the AlGaAs waveguide geometry as in Fig. 1(a). Remember, the fourth frequency \( a_{0n} \) is determined by the resonance condition in Eq. (6). Apparently, the error remains to be small, \( \Delta < 10^{-1} \), within a large window of frequency detunings (\( \delta_{kl} = 0.25 \) corresponds to \( \delta_{l} \approx 0.5 \) \( \mu \)m). We obtained similar results for other fixed values of \( a_{0n} \), as well as for the silicon waveguide geometry as in Fig. 1(b). Note that certain one-dimensional subsets of coefficients with \( \delta_{k} = \delta_{l} = 0 \), \( \delta_{k} = 0 \) enter the condition of MI of the constant amplitude pump at the frequency \( a_{0n} \), as discussed in the next section. Further comparison between the corresponding factorized and full coefficients \( \Gamma \) is illustrated in Fig. 4.

Replacing coefficients \( \Gamma_{nklm} \) with their factorized analogs and changing to variables

\[ A_n = (g_0 / g_n)^{1/4} \Psi_n, \]

where \( g_0 = \Gamma_0^{1/4} \) corresponds to a reference frequency \( \omega_0 \). Equation (2) becomes:

\[ i\partial_z \Psi_n = -\beta_n /\omega_0 \Psi_n - \tilde{\gamma}_n \int \Psi_m \Psi_m^{*} d\omega_1 d\omega_2, \]

where we introduced the modified nonlinear coefficient:

\[ \tilde{\gamma}_\omega = \omega \sqrt{\Gamma_0 / \Gamma_\omega}. \]

It is possible to show that Eq. (11) possesses two integrals of motion \([18]\):

\[ P = \int \frac{|\Psi_m|^2}{\tilde{\gamma}_\omega} d\omega = \text{const.}, \]

\[ N = \int |\Psi_m|^4 d\omega = \text{const.}. \]

In terms of the original harmonic amplitudes \( A_n \), these integrals correspond to the total power and the classical analog of the number of photons, respectively.

Assuming polynomial fits of the linear and nonlinear dispersion coefficients in Eq. (11):

\[ \beta(\omega) = \omega_0 + \delta = \sum_{n=0}^{N} (1/n!)\beta_n^\delta, \quad \tilde{\gamma}(\omega) = \omega_0 + \delta = \sum_{n=0}^{N} (1/n!)\tilde{\gamma}_n^\delta, \]

using inverse Fourier transform

\[ \psi(z, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \Psi_m(z) e^{-i\omega_0 \delta}\, d\delta, \]

and transforming into the rotating and moving frame \( \psi(z, t) = a(z - t - \beta_1 z, \omega) e^{i\beta_2 a} \), we obtain the following pulse propagation (NLDS) equation:

\[ i\partial_z a = -\hat{D}(i\partial_\tau)a - \hat{G}(i\partial_\tau)(|a|^2 a), \]

\[ \hat{D}(i\partial_\tau) = \sum_{n=2}^{N} \frac{\beta_n}{n!} (i\partial_\tau)^n, \]

\[ \hat{G}(i\partial_\tau) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{\tilde{\gamma}_n}{n!} (i\partial_\tau)^n. \]

We emphasize that the factorization of coefficients \( \Gamma_{nklm} \) in Eq. (9) is the only approximation made to derive the above NLDS equation form the HP model in Eq. (5). The dispersion of nonlinearity \( \hat{G} \) in Eqs. (16) and (18) is linked to the modified nonlinear coefficient \( \tilde{\gamma}(\omega) \), which is different from the conventional nonlinear coefficient \( \gamma = \omega \Gamma_\omega \) \([4,7]\), see Eq. (12) and Figs. 3 and 10(b). If a narrowband signal is considered, the polynomial expansion coefficients \( \tilde{\gamma}_n \) can be replaced by the standard Taylor coefficients: \( \tilde{\gamma}_n = d^n \tilde{\gamma} / d\omega^n \). One can relate these coefficients to the corresponding Taylor expansion coefficients of the function \( \gamma \): \( \gamma_n = d^n \gamma / d\omega^n \equiv d^n \omega \Gamma_\omega / d\omega^n \). For the first three coefficients we obtain:

\[ \tilde{\gamma}_0 = \gamma_0. \]
\[ \gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\gamma_0}{\omega_0} + \gamma_i \right), \quad (20) \]

\[ \gamma_2 = \frac{\gamma_2}{2} - \frac{\left( \gamma_1 - \gamma_0/\omega_0 \right)^2}{4\gamma_0}. \quad (21) \]

When geometrical dispersion of nonlinearity is absent \((\Gamma = \text{const.})\), \(\gamma_{i} > 1 = 0\) and the first-order dispersion coefficient is reduced to the standard self-steepening term \([4]: \gamma_1 = \gamma / \omega_0\).

Below, we exploit the pulse propagation Eq. (16) to analyze the role of dispersion of nonlinearity in ultrashort pulse dynamics and parametric frequency conversion. In our modeling, we computed coefficients \(\Gamma_\omega\) from the corresponding propagation constants \(\beta_\omega\), were obtained with the help of a commercially available Maxwell solver package. NLDS Eq. (16) was then numerically integrated by the standard split-step procedure [4], where the nonlinear step was computed in frequency domain by the fourth-order Runge–Kutta method. Finally, the output field was converted to the modal amplitudes \(A\) by applying the scaling in frequency domain, see Eq. (10).

### 4. Modulational Instability and Frequency Comb Generation

MI is a well-known nonlinear process where a constant amplitude pump wave at a frequency \(\omega_p\) creates parametric gain for the sidebands at frequencies \(\omega_s\) (signal) and \(\omega_i = 2\omega_p - \omega_s\) (idler). The onset of MI can be analyzed and numerically modeled with the help of the reduced HP model, which includes only three interacting harmonics [13]. However, its evolution generally leads to generation of multiple higher-order harmonics, see Fig. 8(a). To model such process, the NLDS Eq. (16) appears to be more convenient. Moreover, it allows one to identify specific features of MI process when dealing with pulsed excitation. Below, we compare the two models by considering three interacting harmonics, and then proceed with numerical analysis of MI evolution with pulses by using the NLDS model.

Reducing Eq. (5) to the case of three interacting waves, and considering weak amplitudes of the signal and idler, we obtain:

\[ i\partial_\tau A_p = -\beta_p A_p - \omega_p \Gamma_p |A_p|^2 A_p, \quad (22) \]

\[ i\partial_\tau A_s = -\beta_s A_s - 2\omega_s \Gamma_{sp} |A_p|^2 A_s - \omega_s \Gamma_{sp} A_p^2 A_i^*, \quad (23) \]

\[ i\partial_\tau A_i = -\beta_i A_i - 2\omega_i \Gamma_{ip} |A_p|^2 A_i - \omega_i \Gamma_{ip} A_p^2 A_s^*. \quad (24) \]

For convenience we use short subscripts \(p, s, i\) instead of \(\omega_p, \omega_s, \omega_i\), \(\Gamma_p \equiv \Gamma_{ppp}, \Gamma_s \equiv \Gamma_{pps}, \Gamma_p \equiv \Gamma_{ipp}, \Gamma_i \equiv \Gamma_{isp}.\) Assuming \(\alpha, A_0 \approx \epsilon,\) parametric amplification occurs when \(g = \Re(\kappa) > 0\). From Eqs. (22)–(24) it is straightforward to derive the corresponding condition of existence of MI [13]:

\[ 4\gamma_+ |A_p|^2 < \delta \beta < 4\gamma_+ |A_p|^2, \quad (25) \]

\[ \gamma_\pm = (\omega_s \Gamma_{sp} + \omega_i \Gamma_{ip} - \omega_p \Gamma_p \pm \sqrt{\omega_s \omega_i \Gamma_i})/2, \quad (26) \]

where \(\beta_{p,s,i} = \beta(\omega_{p,s,i}).\)

Neglecting dispersion of nonlinearity, i.e., assuming all coefficients \(\Gamma\) in Eq. (26) to be equal, it is easy to see that \(\gamma_+ > 0\), and therefore MI is only possible when \(\delta \beta < 0\), which is the well-known textbook condition [4]. In particular, if \(\beta(\omega)\) can be approximated by a parabola in a vicinity of \(\omega_p\) \([i.e., \beta_{p;2} = 0 \text{ in Eq. (17)}]\), this condition is reduced to \(\beta_p = 2\delta \beta(\omega_p) < 0\), which corresponds to anomalous GVD, see Fig. 5(a).

Dispersion of nonlinearity is responsible for the novel mechanism of MI that can be observed with \(\delta \beta > 0\) (normal GVD), provided \(\gamma_+ < 0\) [13]. Note that a frequency-dependant \(\Gamma\) is needed to enable negative \(\gamma_+\), which generally implies \(\tilde{\gamma}_1 = \delta \beta(\omega) \neq 0\), see Eq. (12).

Different coefficients \(\Gamma\) entering the condition in Eq. (25) are plotted for the AlGaAs and silicon waveguides in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b), respectively. Apparently, in both examples, factorization approximation works well in a wide range of signal/idler wavelengths, and therefore one can benefit from using the more convenient for analysis pulse propagation equation (16).

Neglecting higher than second-order dispersions of nonlinearity in the NLDS Eq. (16), \(\gamma_+ (\delta \equiv \omega_p - \omega_s)\) is given by:

\[ 2\gamma_+ = \tilde{\gamma}_0 + \tilde{\gamma}_2 \delta^2 - \left( \frac{\tilde{\gamma}_0}{2} + \frac{\tilde{\gamma}_2}{2} \right)^2 - \frac{(\tilde{\gamma}_1)^2}{2}. \quad (27) \]

From this expression, we derive that \(\gamma_+\) is always negative for small enough detunings \(\delta\), provided the following condition is satisfied:

\[ G = \frac{\tilde{\gamma}_0 + \tilde{\gamma}_2}{\tilde{\gamma}_1} < -1. \quad (28) \]

For the typical case of focusing Kerr nonlinearity, the nonlinear coefficient is positive: \(\tilde{\gamma}_0 > 0\), and therefore the above condition implies, in particular, that \(\tilde{\gamma}_2 > 0\). While only one coefficient \(\Gamma_\omega\) is needed to compute the modified nonlinear coefficient \(\tilde{\gamma}\), see Eq. (12), the condition in Eq. (28) is much more convenient for analysis of MI, as compared to the direct computation of \(\gamma_+\) from Eq. (26).

As an example, we consider a suspended 300 nm × 500 nm \(\text{Al}_{0.25}\text{Ga}_{0.75}\text{As}\) waveguide [3, 13] with the geometry and profile of one of the guided modes (dominant electric field component is oriented horizontally) shown in Fig. 1(a). The GVD of this mode is normal (\(\beta_2 > 0\)) for \(\lambda > 1.66 \mu m\), see Fig. 5(a).
The nonlinear coefficient $\tilde{\gamma}$ is shown in Fig. 3. Analysis of the condition in Eq. (28) indicates possibility to observe MI in a wide window of wavelengths within the range of normal GVD: $1.66 \mu m < \lambda < 1.76 \mu m$, see Fig. 5(b) and shaded area in Fig. 5(a). Choosing $\lambda_p = 2\pi c/\alpha_p = 1.665 \mu m$, we compute $\gamma_{\pm}$ by using the original definition in Eq. (26) and the reduced expression in Eq. (27); both appear to be in good agreement as shown in Fig. 5(c). For comparison, we also compute $\gamma_-$ by using the standard definition of the nonlinear coefficient, i.e., by replacing all $\tilde{\gamma}$ with $\gamma$ in Eq. (27), see the dashed curve in Fig. 5(c). Apparently, the modified nonlinear coefficient, which has been derived on the basis of the factorization approximation in Eq. (2), gives a much better agreement with the original model in Eq. (5).

The computed coefficient $\gamma_-$ is negative in the broad range of the signal and idler wavelengths. This result is consistent with the condition in Eq. (28). While $\delta \beta$ is negative for the chosen pump wavelength, see Fig. 6(a), MI can be provided only through the mechanism related to the dispersion of nonlinearity. Figure 6(b) shows the computed gain coefficient $g$ for the pump power of $|A_p|^2 = 150$ W. In this case, the maximum gain of $g \approx 5000$ m$^{-1}$ is achieved for the signal located at around $\lambda_s = 1.7 \mu m$ (idler is at $\lambda_i = 1.63 \mu m$), and the corresponding length of the development of MI is $L_{\text{MI}} = 1/g = 0.2$ mm.

While the condition in Eq. (26) was obtained under approximation of three interacting harmonics, to analyze the role of finite pump bandwidth and higher harmonics excitation in the development of MI, we performed numerical simulations of NLDS Eq. (16) with the input field consisting of two 100 ps sech pulses: a high-power pump pulse centered at $\lambda_p = 1.665 \mu m$ (peak power 150 W) and a weak-power signal at $\lambda_s = 1.7 \mu m$ (peak power 0.1 mW). The signal pulse triggers MI and is located at the wavelength for which the maximum gain is predicted when CW pump of the same power is used, see Fig. 6(b). Such setup corresponds to the case of seeded MI [19] and requires relatively short propagation distances if compared to noise- or waveguide impurity-induced MI. The orders of polynomial expansions of linear and nonlinear dispersion operators, Eqs. (17) and (18), were taken as $N_D = 11$ and $N_G = 7$, respectively, providing with a good fit of numerically computed functions $\beta(\omega)$ and $\tilde{\gamma}(\omega)$ across the range of wavelengths $1.4 \mu m < \lambda < 2 \mu m$.

A typical output spectrum after the propagation distance of $z = 0.4$ mm is shown in Fig. 7(a). Both signal and idler are boosted in power due to the development of MI. To confirm the importance of the dispersion of nonlinearity in this process, we repeated simulations with the truncated versions of the nonlinear operator in Eq. (18) having $N_G = 0$ (wavelength-independent nonlinearity) and $N_D = 1$ (self-steepening only). In both cases, the output signal and idler spectral peaks are similar (they are nonzero because the signal is seeded) and significantly lower than those with the full dispersion of nonlinearity operator, see Fig. 7(a).

In Fig. 7(b) the conversion efficiency $\eta = P_{\text{out}}/P_{\text{in}}$ [19] is plotted as function of the pump pulse peak power. The input signal power, $P_{\text{s,in}}$, and output idler power, $P_{\text{i,out}}$, were computed by the integration of the respective narrow frequency intervals. According to the analytical estimation based on the three waves approximation, no gain is possible below...
the threshold pump power $P_{th} = \delta / \gamma$, while above this threshold the gain increases with pump power [13]. For the chosen signal wavelength, we estimate the threshold power to be $P_{th}(\lambda = 1.7 \, \mu m) \approx 115 \, W$, see the vertical dashed line in Fig. 7(b). When using pulse excitation, we found that the conversion efficiency grows steadily with the pump power. Note that if we keep the self-steepening type of dispersion of nonlinearity only, the conversion efficiency remains low at all powers, see open circles in Fig. 7(b). This confirms that the observed gain is due to the higher-order dispersion of nonlinearity.

For shorter pulse durations we obtained qualitatively similar results, but the conversion efficiency becomes higher, see full squares in Fig. 7(b). This growth can be explained by the spectral broadening of the signal and idler due to the self-phase modulation [4], which becomes more pronounced for shorter pulses. The broadening effectively acts as a secondary seed, expanding the range of seed/idler frequencies to be parametrically amplified.

As the signal and idler are amplified, their interaction with the pump produces higher-order sidebands. The process is repeated in the cascaded manner, eventually leading to the formation of a periodic sequence of ultrashort pulses, see Fig. 8(b). In time domain, this corresponds to the formation of a periodic sequence of experiments for the case of three interacting waves [13]. The signal peak power is fixed to 0.1 mW in all simulations.

Recently, spectral broadening and frequency conversion in SOI waveguides has become a focus of research [21, 22]. High nonlinear coefficient of silicon, combined with strong and tunable dispersion of SOI nanowaveguides, ensures nonlinear effects happening more effectively and over much shorter propagation distances than in conventional fibers. However, silicon has strong two-photon absorption (TPA) near the standard telecom wavelength of $\lambda = 1.55 \, \mu m$ [23], which brings major limitations to the nonlinear performance of SOI waveguides. TPA can be characterized by the ratio $\alpha_{TPA}$ of the real and imaginary parts of the nonlinear susceptibility of silicon [5]:

$$\chi^{(3)} = \chi(1 + i \alpha_{TPA}).$$

Figure 9 shows the experimental data for $\alpha_{TPA}$ in bulk silicon (adapted from [23]) together with a simple fit $\alpha_{TPA} = 0.03/\pi [\arctan((\omega - \omega_0)/\omega_c) + \pi/2]$, $\omega_c = 2\pi c/\omega_0 = 1.97 \, \mu m$, $\omega_c = 2 \cdot 10^{13} \, s^{-1}$, used in our calculations. As one can see, TPA sharply drops and becomes practically negligible beyond 2 $\mu m$.

We choose the geometry of SOI waveguide shown in Fig. 1(b). For the selected waveguide dimensions, the quasi-TE mode has zero GVD at $\lambda \approx 2.27 \, \mu m$, see Fig. 10(a). By pumping near this wavelength, one should expect to benefit from a reduced TPA rate. Figure 11 illustrates spectral broadening for the case of 100 fs input sech pulse with cubic, it is recognized that the phenomenon occurs as the interplay between linear dispersion and nonlinearity. The broadest spectra are achieved by pumping near the zero GVD wavelength, where the dispersion changes its sign from anomalous to normal or vice versa [20].

In this section, we discuss the impact of dispersion of nonlinearity on spectral broadening of ultrashort pulses. This phenomenon occurs in a wide range of nonlinear media. Particularly in optical fibers, octave-wide spectral broadening from a subpicosecond pulse, optical supercontinuum, has been studied for decades and applied to a range of fields as the convenient tool for generation of coherent radiation [20]. The theoretical foundation for spectral broadening in optical fibers is well established nowadays; in particular, it is recognized that the phenomenon occurs as the interplay between linear dispersion and nonlinearity. The broadest spectra are achieved by pumping near the zero GVD wavelength, where the dispersion changes its sign from anomalous to normal or vice versa [20].

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5. SPECTRAL BROADENING IN SOI WAVEGUIDE

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the peak power of 100 W and central wavelength of \( \lambda_0 = 2.2 \mu m \). This result was obtained by numerical integration of Eq. (16) with the wavelength-independent nonlinear coefficient, i.e., \( N_G = 0 \) in the expansion of the nonlinear operator in Eq. (18), and with no account of TPA. The spectrum evolves following the typical two-stage scenario [20]. At the first stage \((0 < z < 0.7 \text{ mm})\) spectrum broadens symmetrically due to the self-phase modulation of the pulse. For larger distances, the interplay between dispersion and nonlinearity becomes important. This causes a considerable spectral asymmetry, with more power being concentrated in the long-wavelength part of the spectrum.

After \( z = 1 \text{ mm} \) propagation distance, the output spectrum covers the wide range of wavelengths \( 1.8 \mu m < \lambda < 2.6 \mu m \). According to our calculations, the real part of the nonlinear coefficient changes significantly in this wavelength range, see Fig. 10(b). Also, a large part of the output spectrum falls into the range of strong TPA. Therefore, both geometrical and material dispersions of nonlinearity are expected to influence the spectral broadening process.

In Fig. 12, output spectra are compared for three different cases: with constant nonlinear coefficient, self-steepening only, and full geometrical dispersion of nonlinearity. TPA was disregarded in all these simulations. Self-steepening enhances spectral asymmetry by lowering and shifting peak in the short-wavelength part of the spectrum and separating the long-wavelength edge spectral peak from the central three-peak structure formed during the self-phase modulation stage. Geometrical dispersion further boosts the asymmetry, especially enhancing features in the long-wavelength wing.

The effect of dispersion of TPA is summarized in Fig. 13, where we compare cases of no TPA, wavelength-independent TPA, and dispersive TPA. As expected, inclusion of flat TPA rate \( \alpha_{TPA} = 0.03 \) results in overall shrinking of the spectrum. Perhaps more surprisingly, fully dispersive TPA does not bring any noticeable spectral asymmetries and effectively acts as a reduced flat TPA. The reason for that is in the link between short- and long-wavelength wings of the spectrum, which has
been analyzed in details in the context of supercontinuum generation in fibers [20]. In particular, spectral features in the normal GVD wing of generated supercontinua are generally defined by the positions and intensities of spectral peaks in the anomalous GVD wing. Apparently, this relation holds in the NLDS model: while TPA affects mostly the short-wavelength wing of the spectrum (where GVD is anomalous), the spectral peaks in the long-wavelength wing (normal GVD) change accordingly.

6. SUMMARY

The HP model in Eq. (5), derived from Maxwell equations following the perturbation expansion procedure, can be reduced to the NLDS pulse propagation Eq. (16) by introducing factorization of the four-frequency dependence of the nonlinear coefficients \( \Gamma_{nmkl} \). Although this procedure is not exact, it is supported by the symmetries of the coefficients \( \Gamma_{nmkl} \) with respect to certain permutations of indices. The factorization was tested on different semiconductor waveguide geometries and found to approximate well the actual coefficients in wide wavelength ranges. Unlike previously derived models [1,5,7], the pulse propagation Eq. (16) takes full account of the dispersion of nonlinearity, is not limited by the quasi-CW approximation, and therefore can be applied for analysis of parametric frequency conversion effects.

We exploited the pulse propagation Eq. (16) to study the novel type of MI, induced by the dispersion of nonlinearity, in close to experimental conditions, where a high peak power pump pulse is initially perturbed by a weak signal pulse (seeded MI). Our results indicate that spectral broadening of pulses due to the self-phase modulation plays an important role in the development of MI. In particular, MI is observed for pump pulse peak powers well below the threshold predicted for CW pump [13]. In addition, the conversion efficiency becomes higher when shorter pulses are used. Similar to the conventional MI, long-term evolution of the dispersion of nonlinearity induced MI leads to the cascaded generation of higher-order sidebands and associated formation of a sequence of ultrashort pulses.

We also considered the impact of the dispersion of nonlinearity on spectral broadening of short pulses in a SOI waveguide. We chose the geometry where the zero of GVD is located at \( \lambda = 2.27 \, \mu m \). Pumping by 100 fs pulses with 100 W peak power in a vicinity of this wavelength, a considerable spectral broadening can be observed with output spectra spanning from 1.8 to 2.6 \( \mu m \). The nonlinear coefficient changes significantly in this wavelength range, causing clearly pronounced spectral asymmetries. Also, for silicon, the ratio of TPA to Kerr coefficients changes sharply around \( \lambda = 2.2 \, \mu m \), reaching its highest rate of \( \alpha_{TPA} / \alpha_0 \approx 0.03 \) below 1.9 \( \mu m \) and being practically zero above 2.1 \( \mu m \). However, the account for dispersive imaginary part of the nonlinear coefficient does not introduce any noticeable additional asymmetry in the output spectra, causing nearly even shrinkage and power loss on either side of the spectrum. This counter-intuitive result is explained by the internal link between the edges of the spectrum, well analyzed in the context of optical fibers [20]. Although the long-wavelength wing remains in the range of negligibly small TPA, its structure still changes accordingly with the short-wavelength wing, the latter being affected by the strong TPA.

The above examples illustrate the convenience of the NLDS model in Eq. (16) for analysis of nonlinear processes involving broadband signal evolution in waveguides, where dispersion of nonlinearity is considerable. The factorization approximation, which enables exertion of this model, can be tested directly for a particular geometry. A careful analysis of the general conditions of applicability of this approximation remains to be the challenging task for future research.

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