InGaAs Quantum Dots Coupled to a Reservoir of Nonequilibrium Free Carriers


http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/jqe.2009.2021565

Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

Final published version

Thu Jan 03 15:49:07 EST 2019

http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/52416

Article is made available in accordance with the publisher’s policy and may be subject to US copyright law. Please refer to the publisher’s site for terms of use.
InGaAs Quantum Dots Coupled to a Reservoir of Nonequilibrium Free Carriers
Jordi Gomis-Bresco, Sabine Dommers, Vasily V. Temnov, Ulrike Woggon, Juan Martinez-Pastor, Matthias Laemmlin, and Dieter Bimberg

Abstract—We discuss the impact of a 2-D-charged carrier reservoir for high-speed optical amplification and modulated lasing in quantum dot (QD)-based devices by testing the amplification of short trains of high power, femtosecond optical pulses in an InGaAs QD-in-a-well-based semiconductor optical amplifier (SOA). We adapt a laser-like rate equation model to describe heterodyne pump-and-probe experiments. After an optically induced perturbation, we identify the gain recovery process as a forced steady-state situation which can be consistently described within rate-equation based laser theory. The model is systematically applied to analyze the experimental amplification and the overall SOA dynamics as a function of injected current. We conclude that, under conditions of high optical pump power close to the device saturation regime, the ultrafast SOA dynamics is governed by the overall injection current. The carrier relaxation pathway of a direct capture from the 2-D reservoir to the QD ground state is needed to explain the observed pulse train amplification.

Index Terms—Quantum dot (QD), semiconductor optical amplifier (SOA).

I. INTRODUCTION

Quantum Dot (QD)-based devices are key building blocks in future terabit networks. They offer a competitive combination of low-cost and high performance [1] and allow for ultrafast digital signal generation, nonlinear processing and amplification [2]. The physical mechanisms behind gain recovery determine the modulation response of QD-based lasers. Experimental studies at the active medium of a laser under real operation conditions are difficult to perform because the feedback cavity formed by the laser high reflective end-facets prevents single pass optical experiments, otherwise the most appropriate tool. The standard solution is to test active QD-media in semiconductor optical amplifiers (SOAs). An amplifier has the same electronic and waveguide structure as the corresponding laser, but tilted end facets or appropriate coatings avoid back-reflections and thus lasing. In order to study the dynamics in waveguide-structured samples like SOAs, the heterodyne pump and probe technique is a well-established tool [3], [4] and was applied, for example, for studies of the influence of p-doping [5] or of gain and phase dynamics [6] in QD-based devices.

In spite of the fast recovery that QD-based active media exhibit, there are concerns about the successful amplification of pulse trains [7]. Models based on a cascade-like capture under moderate electrical carrier injection predict a dramatic slow down in the gain recovery for the subsequent pulses of a train. Cascade-like carrier capture means that QDs capture carriers through their excited states only. This carrier reservoir is progressively emptied for high-frequency modulation and amplification of optical pulse trains. The gain recovery of the excited state (ES) is significantly slower than the ground state (GS) one [8]. i.e., the excited state-ground state relaxation would then determine the temporal limit for high-frequency operation. This situation could change if the overall dynamics is governed by the injected carrier density in a 2-D-reservoir of a QD-in-a-well structure rather than the average population of high energy excited states [9]. So called DWell-structures are characterized by a long energy tail in the well density of states (DOS) becoming quasi-resonant to the QD bound states. First results of time resolved photoluminescence experiments in such structures suggested a direct capture from outside the QD (i.e., the 2-D reservoir) directly into the QD ground state [10]. The conditions at which such a direct coupling and capture of 2-D carriers into the QD GS occurs are not studied in detail yet. In particular, the ultrafast dynamics in QD-based systems like active medium of amplifiers and lasers, requires a full microscopic description of the carrier scattering rates [11]–[13]. Under real operating conditions such as strong electrical injection, non-negligible optical pump intensity and elevated temperatures, the time scales of all relaxation processes enter a regime at which polarization and population dynamics contribute equally to the overall ultrafast relaxation dynamics, as has been found, e.g., in four-wave mixing or pump-probe experiments [14], [15]. A variety of theoretical treatments of the dynamics of QD lasers [16]–[19], [11], [12], [20] and SOAs [21]–[23] exist and great efforts go on to connect consistently time constants retrieved from the time-resolved output of the pump and probe experiments and time parameters extracted from the dynamical performance observed in laser experiments [17].

In pump and probe experiments with optical pump pulses of power close to the gain saturation (and simultaneous application of high injection currents), we go beyond the small signal
amplification regime. Here the situation is more similar to the physical description recently developed to explain relaxation oscillations through a direct capture process from the wetting layer to the QD-bound states [24], [11], [12]. In addition, in some recent works [18], [17] the impact of the thermal population on electron capture rates and thus modulation response of p-doped QD-lasers is analyzed and discussed for application concepts in high-speed SOA and for laser operation.

In this study, we analyze the gain dynamics of InGaAs QDs when they are coupled to a reservoir of nonequilibrium 2-D free carriers by applying simultaneously powerful electrical injection and optical pumping. To emulate the limiting working conditions of modulated lasers we use a SOA with InGaAs QDs-in-a-well embedded in a waveguide structure. We perform heterodyne pump and probe measurements using short trains of high power femtosecond laser pulses, powerful enough to test the optical amplification limits of the active medium. The injection current was varied from 10 to 150 mA and the SOA modulation response measured for pulse trains up to 1 THz optical input frequency.

This paper is organized as follows. After a short description of the sample and the experiment in Section II, we give an overview about the experimental findings after short pulse-train amplification in Section III. In Section IV, we adapt a laser-like rate equation system to the particularities of our experiment. We take into account propagation effects (Subsection IV-A) and we describe the active medium as a population-inverted system forced into a nonequilibrium situation (Subsection IV-B). Section V summarizes the analysis of the experimental findings. We conclude that for the structures presented here, direct capture from the 2-D reservoir to the QD GS is the dominant mechanism to explain the observed pulse train amplification. The applied rate-equation model describes pump and probe experiments as a transient recovery of a steady-state situation following an external optical perturbation. That represents a first step to achieve a consistent agreement between laser theory and experimental rates optically measured.

II. SAMPLE AND EXPERIMENT

The sample studied in this work is a p-i-n structure with a 1-mm-long, 2-μm-wide waveguide [Fig. 1(a)] (for sample details, see [25]). A deeply etched ridge structure provides high index guiding of the optical mode and suppression of current spreading [26]. The active medium consists of 15 layers of MBE grown QDs-in-a-well nanostructures with a nominal areal density of $2 \times 10^{10}$ cm$^{-2}$ and a nominal delta p-doping of $5 \times 10^{17}$ cm$^{-2}$. A 33–35 nm GaAs spacer ensures strain relaxation between successive layers, in order to achieve a low defect density. As a consequence, electronic coupling between successive QD layers does not occur. Antireflection coating of both end facets avoids lasing and allows single-pass pulse experiments.

Fig. 1(b) shows the amplified spontaneous emission (ASE) of the device at an injection current $I_c$ of 10 and 50 mA. A 33 meV broad (inhomogeneous broadening) GS excitonic emission peak is located at $E_{GS} = 965$ meV ($\lambda = 1.285$ μm) that shifts to 954 meV ($\lambda = 1.235$ μm) with increasing injection current. A well resolved p-shell excited state (ES) emission peak 70 meV above the ground state dominates at injection currents above 70 mA. The ASE spectra show gain ripple because the antireflection coatings do not fully prevent back reflections in the facets. We have calibrated the thermal dependence of the ripple modes and use it to control the change in the device temperature $\Delta T_{device}$ as a function of the injection current $I_c$ [inset in Fig. 1(b)].

When we couple light in a facet ($\phi_{in}$) of the SOA, it propagates through the device. The light intensity that couples out at the other facet ($\phi_{out}$) is either reduced by partial absorption, if the injection current is below transparency current $I_{tr} = 7.5$ mA, or amplified. The gain of the device is defined as $G = \phi_{in}/\phi_{out}$. Gain is calculated based on the transparency current transition, where the SOA offers a gain of $G = 1$. Fig. 2 presents a set of gain curves measured for a single pulse as a function of the in-coupled optical pump power $\phi_{in}$. The pump beam has a wavelength resonant to the QD ground state ($\lambda = 1.285$ μm) and an energy per pulse set to $\phi_{in} = 0.1$ pJ/pulse (dark area in Fig. 2). That energy is in the saturation regime of the device, i.e., the population inversion and the QD volume density are not sufficient to maintain an almost constant gain as for intensities $\phi_{in}$ below 0.01 pJ/pulse. When working in that regime, we impose a depletion of the population inversion and test the limits of the reservoirs that refill the QDs ground state.

We use femtosecond pump-probe technique with heterodyne detection [15], [4]. The pulses are generated by a Ti:sapphire pumped optical parametric oscillator (OPO). The full-width at half-maximum of the temporal pulse is FWHM = 150 fs and the repetition rate is 75.4 MHz. Using a two-stage Michelson interferometer, we produce pulse trains of up to four pulses with a fixed delay between pulses $\tau_0 = 1$ ps (equivalent to a modulation of 1 THz). The amount of pulses in the train is chosen by blocking/unblocking mirrors in the interferometers. Fig. 3...
For single mA, i.e., carrier fixed to the values mA.

along with an increase in its which are plotted along with their and , as a function of injection

is defined decrease

is in . In our analysis below, we will derived from the fitting as described in the.

pulse experiments resonant to the QD ground state in the optical input pulse train. The time delay shows three pump-probe experiments using 1, 2 or 4 pulses in the optical input pulse train. The time delay is defined as the delay between the pump and probe pulses. The inset of Fig. 3 shows an autocorrelation example of the four pulse trains generated.

III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To understand the mechanisms and limits of optical amplification and ultrafast laser modulation, we perform a systematic experimental study of the gain recovery dynamics in a QD-in-a-well system under strong electrical injection and optical pumping close to gain saturation. Our goal is to obtain a consistent picture of both the injection current dependency of the gain recovery and the response of the QD active medium to a previous amplification process (gain recovery mechanism).

In order to have a first quantitative analysis of the heterodyne pump and probe measurements, we start with a standard fitting expression [4], [27], [28] and apply it to pump and probe data for one, two, and four pulse trains in the gain regime ($I_c = 10$-$150$ mA): three exponential decays plus an offset term analytically convoluted to the Gaussian response of the system.

The physically interesting time constants retrieved from the fit are the two fastest, $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ which are plotted along with their relative weighting in Fig. 4. The slowest component ($\tau_3$) is in the range of QDs radiative lifetime and its relative weight decreases quickly with current, becoming negligible above $I_c = 20$-$30$ mA. The results obtained for $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ from the fitting routines are plotted in logarithmic scale in Fig. 4(a). For single pulse experiments it holds a relation of $\tau_3 \approx 10 \cdot \tau_2 \approx 100 \cdot \tau_1$ for the retrieved time constants. For $I_c < 30$ mA, i.e., carrier injection currents close to the transparency current $I_{tr}$, $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ increase with increasing $I_c$. In our analysis below, we will show that such a behavior can be assigned to an inhomogeneous absorption process during the propagation of pulses through the waveguide. We will focus therefore on the discussion of results from moderate to high injection currents, $I_c > 30$ mA, i.e., those accelerating the gain recovery, as can be seen in Fig. 4. In that range of $30 < I_c < 40$ mA, both $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ decrease strongly with increasing $I_c$, followed by a nearly constant behavior for $I_c > 60$ mA. In addition, the relative weight of the fastest component (the $\tau_1$ weight) grows until it comprises 90% of the total recovery dynamics at $I_c = 150$ mA.

For the following analysis of the experiments with two and four pulses in the train, we keep $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ fixed to the values obtained from the fits of the corresponding single pulse experiments. As can be seen in Fig. 3, all fits, as described above, show good agreement with the experimental data.

For all three experiments with one, two, and four pulses, we find a systematic decrease of $\tau_1$ along with an increase in its...
weight when \( I_c \) is increased. Therefore, we discuss in the following only that fastest component \( \tau_1 \) relative weight, as presented in Fig. 4(b). We can state from the experiment that an increase (decrease) of \( \tau_1 \) relative weight corresponds to a speed up (slow down) of the gain recovery dynamics. Under conditions of powerful electrical injection, the \( \tau_1 \) relative weight reduces only gradually after amplification, even if the power per pulse used is sufficient to fully deplete the GS population inversion (see Section II). \( \tau_1 \) weight decreases slowly from single-pulse to double-pulse experiments and remains almost unchanged when comparing two- and four-pulse train dynamics. The microscopic background of that \( \tau_1 \) time constant is nonlinear Coulomb scattering in a thermal nonequilibrium situation and subject of further investigation which will be presented elsewhere.

IV. MODEL

Our goal in this work is to adapt the rate-equation description developed for lasers and amplifiers to the description of heterodyne pump and probe measurements under conditions of moderate to strong optical pumping and simultaneous electrical carrier injection. We are interested in a quantitative model of the gain recovery dynamics in the time range of a few picosecond, i.e., the typical time scale of Coulomb scattering times [13], [14]. We neglect the very early femtosecond dynamics on time scales of the incoming temporal pulse widths as well as the very long dynamics on time scales of carrier recombination. In order to get a qualitative description of the ultrafast gain recovery, we developed a simple rate-equation model based on the carrier population evolution of the confined QD levels and the higher energy levels (sum up in a general 2-D reservoir level). Using it, we emphasize the peculiarities of the experimental scheme, given here.

- **Propagation effects in the waveguide.** The strength of the incoming pulse grows during guided propagation under gain operation and, as a consequence, the population depletion is highly inhomogenous.

- The pump and probe experiment is described as a return to the steady-state situation in an electrically inverted system after being perturbed by an external electromagnetic field.

A. Propagation Effects

Accounting for the inhomogeneous absorption profile, we include propagation effects in the model as described in the following: We divide the waveguide into 200 slices, each 5 \( \mu \text{m} \) long, perpendicular to the propagation direction. Given an incoming photon flux at slice \( z_n \), we calculate the temporal population evolution and the resulting outcome photon flux \( \phi(t, z_{n+1}) \). Afterwards we use that propagated and amplified photon flux as incoming flux for the next slice \( z_{n+1} \).

We consider two different photon fluxes, pump \( \phi_{\text{pu}}(t, z_n) \) and probe \( \phi_{\text{pr}}(t, z_n, \tau) \). The initial pump photon flux \( \phi_{\text{pu}}(0, z_n) \) consists of a sum of temporal gaussians resembling the experiment. The first Gaussian is centered at \( t = 0 \) and sets the time origin of the simulation.

In order to simulate the characteristics of the optical pulse trains, several Gaussians with different relative delay times between them are used. \( \phi_{\text{pr}}(0, z_n, \tau) \), the initial probe photon flux, consists of a single Gaussian centered at \( t = \tau \), the delay between pump and probe pulses. For fix delays \( \tau \) in the interval \( \tau = [-1, 8] \), we calculate 30 ps (from \( t = -1 \) ps to \( t = 9 \) ps) of the temporal evolution for all 200 slices, following the integration procedure sketch in Fig. 5.

The experimental outcome of a pump and probe measurement is the gain (or absorption) experienced by the probe beam. We calculate the gain \( G(\tau) \), defined as

\[
G(\tau) = \frac{\phi_{\text{pr}}(t, z_{200}, \tau)}{\phi_{\text{pr}}(0, z_0, \tau)}
\]

where \( n \) is the refractive index of GaAs and \( I \) is the length of the device, that is, we calculate the ratio between the propagated and the initial probe beams as a function of delay time \( \tau \).

The result is a normalized gain quantity \( G_{\text{norm}} \) that can be directly compared with the experimental gain curves, once they are normalized.

B. Inverted System Returning to a Steady-State Situation

The population inversion in the QD system is set by the injection current applied, i.e., at a given \( I_c \) the carrier distribution in the system is determined by the steady-state equilibrium between the capture, escape, spontaneous and stimulate radiative rates among the energy levels. That forced thermal equilibrium induced by \( I_c \) remains stable and unchanged as long as \( I_c \) remains fixed. The short pulse of the pump beam perturbs that equilibrium and forces the electrically inverted population out of the steady-state situation. The pump and probe experiment monitors then the return process to the steady-state situation. In our simulations, we first calculate the steady-state populations without external light propagating through the device for a given fixed injection current \( I_c \). Afterwards, we calculate the temporal evolution of the pump and probe experiment setting the initial conditions at every slice to that of the steady-state populations.

A first simplification in our model is the choice of a rate-equation model instead of semiconductor QD Bloch equations to describe the QD system. We consider only the population dynamics and disregard the coupled polarization evolution. This is partly justified when concentrating on a qualitative estimate of the picosecond dynamic range.

We define two subensembles of QDs with their GS and ES energy levels either resonant (rS) or nonresonant (nrs) to the degenerate pump and probe energy. The percentage of rS-QDs is obtained from the overlap of the ASE and the pulse spectrum.
The instantaneous carrier density of the levels implied and can be found, e.g., in [11]–[13]. Here we define effective times $\tau$ related to the rates $S$ and use them as free parameters during the fitting procedure to experimental data. Since we are essentially interested in the dynamics within the first few picoseconds after the pulse, coherent phenomena occurring during and shortly after the pump pulse arrival are approximated here as an offset term $(S_{\text{coh}})$ in the rate equations, proportional to the photon flux $(\phi)$. This simplification is based on the small dephasing times $(T_2)$ that QDs present at temperatures equal or higher than room temperature [14], [15].

$S_\tau$ is the inverse of the GS and ES radiative lifetime $\tau_\text{r}$ (assumed to be the same for GS and ES), while $S_{v2D}$ is the inverse of the effective residence time $\tau_{2D}$ in the 2-D reservoir.

Capture rates from the 2-D to the GS (ES), $S_{2DG(ES)}$, depend on the available electron population in the 2-D reservoir ($n_{2D}$).

In rate equation models focused in small signal and injected current regimes, this term is expressed as $(n_{2D})/(\tau_{2DG(E)} e^{N_{QDs}})$, where $\epsilon = 2$, $4$ for GS and ES respectively and $\tau_{2DG(E)}$ stands for the 2-D to GS(ES) capture time. But at high currents, the term results in rates greater than one $(n_{2D} \gg N_{QDs})$, so we approximate the terms by

\[
S_{2DG} = \frac{1}{\tau_{2DG}} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{n_{2D}}{N_{QDs}}} \right) \tag{6}
\]

\[
S_{2DE} = \frac{1}{\tau_{2DE}} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{n_{2D}}{N_{QDs}}} \right) \tag{7}
\]

that tend to become close to 1 when $n_{2D} \gg N_{QDs}$, but recover the standard form for $n_{2D} \ll N_{QDs}$.

The thermal redistribution of carriers is taken into account through the escape rates, $S_{G(E)2D}$ and $S_{GE}$. We relate them to the capture rates by introducing the Boltzmann factor $e^{(\Delta E_{\text{initial-final}})/(k_B T_c)}$, where $T_c$ is the carrier temperature and not the device temperature [30]–[32]:

\[
S_{G2D} = \frac{1}{\tau_{2DG}} e^{\frac{\Delta E_{G2D}}{k_B T_c}} \tag{8}
\]

\[
S_{E2D} = \frac{1}{\tau_{2DE}} e^{\frac{\Delta E_{E2D}}{k_B T_c}} \tag{9}
\]

\[
S_{GE} = \frac{1}{\tau_{GE}} e^{\frac{\Delta E_{GE}}{k_B T_c}} \tag{10}
\]

These terms lead to the forced thermal steady-state situation described at the beginning of this section.

Finally, the amplification/absorption rate $S_{G}^{\text{abs}}$ is expressed as

\[
S_{G}^{\text{abs}} = (1 - e^{g \phi}) \tag{11}
\]

where $g$ stands for the gain per slice of width $d_z$. The term recovers the usual form $(g \cdot \phi)$ for $\phi \ll N_{QDs}$ and does not give an amplification rate bigger than $n_G$ (when multiplied by the rest of the term) for high photon fluxes, allowing us to reproduce the high photon flux regime used in our experiments.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Here, the rate-equation model outlined in Section IV is applied to the systematic analysis of the gain dynamics of single-, double-, and four-pulse experiments for input pulse repetition
rates up to 1 THz. In experiments with multiple pulses, we chose experimental conditions at which the power per pulse at a fixed $I_c$ is equal for all pulses of the incoming pulse train. Consequently, we can fit groups of data (one-, two-, and four-pulse curves measured at the same $I_c$) with a shared parameter set in a global least-squared minimization routine. That restricts the fit to consistent parameter values capable of reproducing the after-pulse dynamics observed.

Part of the parameters (lower part of Table I) used in the simulation are determined by the experimental conditions. We divide the analysis of the experimental data in two rounds. In a first round, we fit the data for a fixed $I_c = 35$ mA and determine the best fit parameter (Fig. 7). An overview about the parameter set obtained in that first round is given in Table I. After discussing these parameters, we fit in a second round the results of the remaining applied $I_c$-values based on that first round fitting result.

Fast capture times $\tau_{2DG}$ and $\tau_{2DE}$, that is, constant relaxation times from the 2-D reservoir to the GS and ES, are similar to the retrieved $\tau_1$ parameter, the fast component of the multi-exponential fitting routine performed before and shown in Fig. 4 of Section III. This implies in the rate equation description, i.e., under neglectation of the polarisation and focussing on the population dynamics, an equivalence of the fastest time constant with the observed discrepancies and to uncover the microscopic scattering processes. However, the most remarkable result we can provide from the analysis here, lies in the fact that a fast $\tau_{2DG}$ constant is mandatory to reproduce the experimental gain recovery of several pulse trains. The progressive slow-down predicted after a multiple train pulse [7] reduces when we consider in addition a direct capture to the QD ground state. The time constant $\tau_{2E}$, the carrier relaxation time in the QD, is larger than $\tau_{2DG}$ and $\tau_{2DE}$. This fact tells us again that scattering processes involving carriers not confined at the QD are dominant.

Finally, we would like to emphasize, that the variation of the temperature is important for obtaining a satisfying fit which is a clear hint to a thermal nonequilibrium situation. The obtained values lie above the device temperature (Fig. 1), as one might expect for an electrically pumped system which needs further studies. Possibly in pulsed experiments at short times, below the recombination lifetime, thermalization is not complete and $T_{\text{carriers}} > T_{\text{equilbirum}}$ holds in the device.

The time constants $\tau_{1G}$ and $\tau_{1E}$ are compatible with typical QD radiative lifetimes, but their values could be affected by the amplified process that a spontaneous emission suffers in a waveguide. The fitting also yields that only $\sim 15\% (I_c/I_c)$ of the injected current is entirely captured (transferred) into the QD 2-D reservoir system. The main parameter to reproduce the experimental variation of $I_c$ is, obviously, the effective injected current $I_{\text{ieq}}$.

The variation of the injection current $I_c$ has further impacts in the device properties.

• The device temperature depends on $I_c$, as shown in Fig. 1 and drives the carrier temperature $T_c$ into a nonequilibrium situation.

• The carrier effective residence time in the 2-D reservoir $\tau_{2D}$ depends on current-induced carrier drifts and related changes in the wetting layer degeneracy that is a function of temperature too [18].

• $I_c$ affects $\tau_{2DG}$, $\tau_{2DE}$ and $\tau_{1E}$ through changes of the carrier densities ($n_G$, $n_E$ and $n_{2D}$).

To have closer look on the influence of $I_c$ on the experimental results, we simulate the gain curves for different injection currents $I_c$, with only three free parameters: $I_{\text{ieq}}, T_c$ and $\tau_{2D}$ whereas $\tau_{2DG}$, $\tau_{2DE}$ and $\tau_{1E}$ are fixed to the values found for $I_c = 35$ mA (Table I). Fits to one, two, and four pulse trains are shown in Fig. 7 for several injection currents. We can see how
our model is able to explain satisfactory the pulse amplification process by the studied SOA by only taking into account experimental data from ultrafast experiments and a small number of parameters representing the effective operation in our device. Note, that the model does not correctly reproduce the first half picosecond after a pulse because we omitted coherent effects from the beginning and treated them as a simple coherent offset. A more detailed discussion of that very early time regime can be found in [33] based on semiconductor quantum dot Bloch equations and specific $T_2$ measurements as a function of $I_c$.

Fig. 8 presents the best-fit parameters of our systematic analysis. It shows that our model is able to give us other valuable information, like the average population in thermal equilibrium, i.e., before the optical pump pulse arrival (pump and probe delay $\tau < 0$). Likewise we get access to the average population of the ground state $n_G$ which grows with current, but saturates at 1.5 excitons per dot (2 is the maximum degeneracy of the GS). The thermal carrier redistribution reduces the maximum gain available [34]. The general trend of the data confirms that the dynamics is governed by the overall injected current rather than by the average population of the high energy levels. As expected, we can describe qualitatively the normalized gain evolution by adjusting the injected current and the effects it has on the device, mainly carrier temperature [Fig. 8(d)], that grows more than the measured lattice temperature (Fig. 1(b inset)) as corresponds to an electrically pumped system, and the effective carrier residence time in the 2-D reservoir [Fig. 8(c)] that reduces as current grows.

Summarizing, we performed and analyzed heterodyne pump and probe experiments at InGaAs QDs-in-a-well SOAs using small trains of high-power pulses, powerful enough to test the amplification limits of the active medium. We adapt a laser-like rate-equation model to describe the population dynamics as a recovery process of a forced steady-state situation after an optical induced perturbation. Our results show that temperature and its effects on the device become crucial to understand and model the active medium dynamics. From our analysis, we conclude that the relaxation dynamics of a InGaAs QDs-in-a-well SOA operated at high injection currents and close to gain saturation is sufficiently fast to amplify pulse combs up to several hundreds of gigahertz.

REFERENCES


Jordi Gomis-Bresco received the Diploma and the Ph.D. degree in physics from the University of Valencia, Valencia, Spain, in 2002 and 2008, respectively. He was a scientific employee with the Technical University of Dortmund, Dortmund, Germany, and the Technical University of Berlin, Berlin, Germany, where is currently employed. His current research interests are focused on ultrafast spectroscopy of semiconductor quantum dots and single-dot spectroscopy.


[35] Sabine Dommers received the Diploma in physics from the Technical University of Dortmund, Dortmund, Germany, in 2005, where she is currently working towards the Ph.D. degree.

Her current research interests are focused on ultrafast spectroscopy.

Vasily Ternov received the Diploma in theoretical quantum optics from the University of Essen, Essen, Germany, in 1999 and the Ph.D. degree from the University of Duisburg-Essen, Duisburg, Germany, in 2004. His doctoral work focused on experimental studies of ultrafast laser-induced phenomena in solids.

In 2005, he joined the Technical University of Dortmund, Dortmund, Germany, as a Postdoctoral Associate, working in the field of nanophotonicsoptics. In 2008, he joined Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, as the German Science Foundation research fellow specializing on ultrafast plasmonics.

Ulrike Woggon received the Diploma in physics and the Ph.D. degree from the Humboldt University, Humboldt, Germany, in 1982 and 1985, respectively, and the habilitation degree from the University of Kaiserslautern in 1995 for her work on optical properties of semiconductor quantum dots.

From 1997 to 2008, she held a Full University Professorship (C3) for Experimental Physics with the Technical University of Dortmund, Dortmund, Germany. Since 2008, she has been a Full University Professor with the Institute of Optics and Atomic Physics at the Technical University of Berlin, Berlin, Germany. Her current research interests are focused on ultrafast spectroscopy of semiconductor quantum dots, single-dot spectroscopy, and quantum dots in microcavities and other photonic materials.

Juan Martínez-Pastor received the degree and the Ph.D. in physics From the University of Valencia in 1985 and 1990, respectively.

He is a Full Professor of Applied Physics at the University of Valencia. He is specialized in Semiconductor Physics, particularly optical properties of quantum heterostructures and nanostructures based on III-V semiconductors. He developed postdoctoral stays at the European Laboratory of Non Linear Spectroscopy, Florence, Italy, and at the Ecole Normale Supérieure, Paris, France, for two and one years, respectively.

Matthias Laemmlin received the M.S. degree from the University of Massachusetts at Amherst in 1999, the Diploma degree in physics from the Universitaet Konstanz, Konstanz, Germany, in 2000, and the Ph.D. degree from the Technical University of Berlin, Berlin, Germany, on quantum-dot based semiconductor optical amplifiers in 2006.

His research interests include photonic device physics and characterization techniques, with emphasis on nanotechnology in opto-electronics.

Dieter Bimberg received the Diploma in physics and the Ph.D. degree from Goethe University, Frankfurt, Germany, in 1968 and 1971, respectively.

From 1972 to 1979, he held a Principal Scientist position at the Max-Planck-Institute for Solid State Research in Grenoble/France and Stuttgart. In 1979, he was appointed as a Professor of Electrical Engineering with the Technical University of Aachen, Aachen, Germany. Since 1981 he has held the Chair of Applied Solid State Physics with the Technical University of Berlin (TU Berlin), Berlin, Germany. Since 1990, he has been the Executive Director of the Solid State Physics Institute at TU Berlin. Since 2004, he has been the director of the Center of Nanophotonics at TU Berlin. In 2006 he was elected as chairman of the German National Centers of Excellence of Nanotechnologies. His research interests include the physics of nanostructures and photonic devices, like quantum dot lasers and amplifiers, single photon emitters, wide-gap semiconductor heterostructures, and ultrahigh-speed photonic devices.