

SB4: Integrated Photonics

Final Report

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1 Introduction

In the first interim report, we performed modal analysis on a symmetric planar waveguide of several core and cladding materials, with further investigation into the effects of waveguide geometry and modal excitation wavelength on the modal properties, including the effective index, group index, birefringence, and dispersion characteristics.

The second interim report recognised that waveguides do not exist in isolation, and presented the coupled mode theory as a framework for understanding the power transfer across coupled waveguides, with a derivation via considering the coupled mode propagation matrix,

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta & \kappa \\ \kappa & \beta \end{pmatrix},$$

to be the infinitesimal generator matrix that generates the modal evolution transition matrix as a one-parameter subgroup of the Lie group $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ via the exponential map $-jzM \mapsto e^{-jzM}$ (where z is the propagation distance along the waveguide) that acts on an element of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{gl}(2, \mathbb{C})$. This formalism demonstrated how the intrinsic structure of M gives rise to the modal properties of the coupled waveguide: the symmetry of the matrix M corresponds to reciprocal coupling, while real-valued β and κ encodes the conservation of power in the coupled waveguide, since in this instance, $-jzM$ is Hermitian, and thus the image of the exponential map is unitary.

Likewise, this current, final report, ascends to the next level of abstraction, *à la mise en abyme*, considering the whole structure of a S-bend directional coupler in its entirety. At this level, the previous theoretical frameworks serve purely as approximation, and we must account for bending losses, asymmetric couplers, and other practical and interesting considerations. This being analytically intractable, Lumerical's FDTD software¹ was utilised to simulate the directional coupler.

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1. *FDTD Solution: 3D Electromagnetic Simulator* (Vancouver, Canada: Lumerical Inc.), <https://www.lumerical.com>.

2 Simulation setup

The geometry of our directional coupler is the traditional doubly-symmetric S-bend design, with a parallel coupling length connected in each waveguide to its input and output ports by S-bends. Each port is extended by a straight waveguide which extends through to $1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ outside the FDTD simulation region, which is otherwise internally padded on all sides by $2.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ of perfectly matched layer (PML) boundary conditions. The input port of the upper waveguide is excited by a modal source at the wavelength of interest.

This form of the directional coupler is, by way of metaphor, structured as an aubade. Figure 1 shows how the geometry is parameterised by the widths of each waveguide (which may be varied independently), the separation gap between the two waveguides, the length of the coupling region, and the wavelength of the modal source. The waveguide material is silicon with a cladding of silicon dioxide, with wavelength-dependent refractive indices taken from the Si (Silicon) – Palik and SiO2 (Glass) – Palik entries of the Lumerical material database respectively. The waveguide depth into the plane is 220 nm for both waveguides, the ports on each end are separated by $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the horizontal direction, and the poles of the S-bends are placed at $[(0,0), (\pm 5,0), (\pm 5, \mp 5), (\pm 5, \mp 5)]\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. The TE_0 mode is launched at the input port.

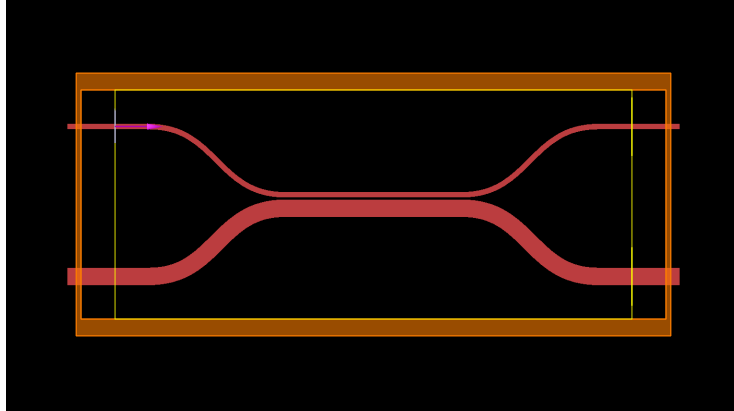


Figure 1: Schematic of the S-bend directional coupler geometry with parameters $w_1 = 400\text{ nm}$, $w_2 = 1280\text{ nm}$, separation = 150 nm , and $L = 13.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

3 Results

Throughout this section, graphs and figures may reference the quantities T_net_br (abbreviated to **br**) and T_net_tr (abbreviated to **tr**), which are the total power transfer fraction to the lower waveguide TE_0 mode monitor and the upper waveguide TE_0 mode monitor respectively.

3.1 TE_0 - TE_0 coupling

For equal waveguide widths, it is quite straightforward to achieve arbitrary TE_0 - TE_0 power transfer between the two coupled waveguides. The fundamen-

tal principle enabling efficient power transfer between two modes is the phase matching condition, which dictates that their propagation constants, β_1 and β_2 , must be closely matched, i.e., the phase mismatch $\Delta\beta = \beta_1 - \beta_2 \approx 0$. Since the propagation constant is related to the effective index n_{eff} by $\beta = k_0 n_{\text{eff}}$, where $k_0 = 2\pi/\lambda$ is the free-space wavenumber, this condition implies that their effective indices must be nearly equal: $n_{\text{eff},1} \approx n_{\text{eff},2}$. With TE_0 launched at the input port of the upper waveguide, an identically dimensioned co-located waveguide (symmetrised across the separation gap) supports a TE_0 mode with the same effective index (subject to fabrication tolerances), thus inherently satisfying the phase matching condition. Consequently, the TE_0 mode of the upper waveguide is efficiently coupled to the TE_0 mode of the lower waveguide.

Other modes, such as higher-order TE modes (TE_1 , TE_2 , etc.) or TM modes, generally have significantly different effective indices compared to the TE_0 mode in the same waveguide geometry. This results in a large phase mismatch $\Delta\beta = k_0 \Delta n_{\text{eff}} \gg 1$ with respect to TE_0 . The power transfer amplitude A between two modes over a length L with coupling coefficient κ is proportional to $\frac{\kappa^2}{\kappa^2 + (\Delta\beta/2)^2}$. Hence, for large $\Delta\beta$, cross-mode leakage has a negligible modal power beating amplitude of

$$A \propto \frac{\kappa^2}{\kappa^2 + (\frac{\Delta\beta}{2})^2} \approx \left(\frac{2\kappa}{\Delta\beta} \right)^2 \rightarrow 0.$$

Moreover, by selecting the waveguide width w to be sufficiently small, specifically below the cutoff width for these higher-order modes, they become non-propagating (evanescent) and cannot effectively guide light or participate significantly in the coupling process. The cutoff condition for a mode occurs when its effective index n_{eff} approaches the refractive index of the cladding material n_{clad} .

Assuming phase matching ($\Delta\beta = 0$) and input power $P_1(0)$ in the first waveguide, the power transferred $P_2(L)$ to the second (initially unexcited) waveguide as a function of the coupling length L is given by

$$P_2(L) = P_1(0) \sin^2(\kappa L),$$

where κ is the coupling coefficient. This coefficient quantifies the strength of the interaction between the evanescent fields of the modes in the two waveguides and is a function of the waveguide geometry (widths, separation gap), material properties, and wavelength.

Power transfer as a function of coupling length Figure 2 shows the power transfer as a function of the coupling length L for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm, with the TE_0 mode launched at a wavelength of 1550 nm from the input port of the upper waveguide. The coupled mode theory predicts sinusoidal power beating. Half-power transfer ($P_2(L_{3\text{dB}}) = P_1(0)/2$) occurs when $\kappa L_{3\text{dB}} = \pi/4$, so the minimum coupling length for this is $L_{3\text{dB}} = \frac{\pi}{4\kappa}$. Total power transfer ($P_2(L_c) = P_1(0)$) occurs when $\kappa L_c = \pi/2$, so the minimum coupling length for this is $L_c = \frac{\pi}{2\kappa}$. Indeed, we observe $\hat{L}_{3\text{dB}} \approx 10 \mu\text{m}$ and $\hat{L}_c \approx 21 \mu\text{m}$ in the simulation results.

Half-power transfer Figure 3 shows the power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane for the half-power simulation at $\hat{L}_{3\text{dB}} \approx 10 \mu\text{m}$. The TE_0

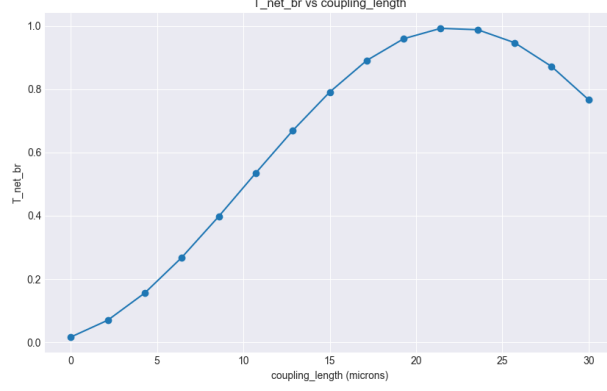


Figure 2: Cross-power transfer fraction at the coupled output port as a function of coupling length L for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm under input port TE₀ mode excitation at 1550 nm.

mode monitor registers a power transfer fraction of 0.5056 while the lower waveguide TE₀ mode monitor registers a power transfer fraction of 0.4895. This implies some power loss, but higher-order mode monitors show that either the mode is not supported, or that the power transfer fraction is negligible.

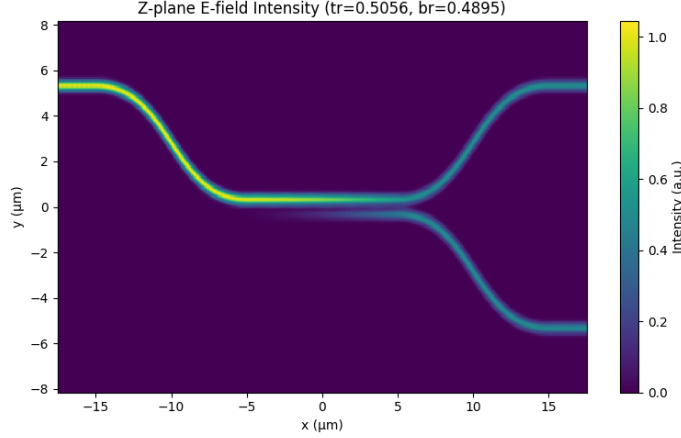


Figure 3: Power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane at the half-power coupling length $\hat{L}_{3\text{dB}} \approx 10 \mu\text{m}$ for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm under input port TE₀ mode excitation at 1550 nm.

Total power transfer Figure 4 shows the power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane for the total power transfer simulation at $\hat{L}_c \approx 21 \mu\text{m}$. With cross-mode power transfer to the lower waveguide TE₀ mode monitor registering a power transfer fraction of 0.9920, we can conclude that the upper TE₀ mode is indeed coupled strongly to the lower waveguide TE₀ mode. This

latter parameter set gives us an optimised directional coupler operating at $\lambda = 1550$ nm.

It should be noted that such a small separation gap utilised above is the minimum of what is achievable in practice, and in the next section we will explore the effect of varying the separation gap on the power transfer fraction.

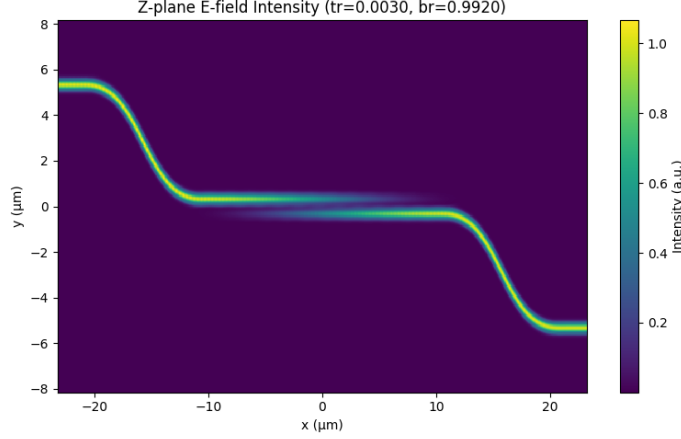


Figure 4: Power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane at the total power transfer coupling length $\hat{L}_c \approx 21 \mu\text{m}$ for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm.

Optimising for a shorter wavelength To additionally optimise a directional coupler for a shorter wavelength $\lambda = 1310$ nm, we could repeat the above procedure with the same fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm. However, a shorter wavelength generally requires a larger coupling length to achieve the same fraction of power transfer, or a modification of the waveguide geometry. The coupling coefficient κ is wavelength-dependent. For a fixed geometry, as λ decreases, a guided mode tends to become more confined within the waveguide core. This increased confinement reduces the extent of its evanescent field into the cladding and, consequently, into the adjacent waveguide. A reduced evanescent field overlap leads to a smaller κ . Since the coupling length for total power transfer $L_c = \frac{\pi}{2\kappa}$, a smaller κ necessitates a larger L_c . Furthermore, the phase mismatch $\Delta\beta = k_0\Delta n_{\text{eff}} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\Delta n_{\text{eff}}$ becomes more sensitive to any small inherent or fabrication-induced differences in n_{eff} at shorter wavelengths, potentially diminishing coupling efficiency if n_{eff} is not perfectly matched.

Figure 5 shows the power transfer as a function of the coupling length L for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm over the same swept range as before, and within this range, we cannot even achieve half-power transfer, let alone total power transfer. It seems that either we need to have a very large coupling length, or to modify the waveguide geometry.

Reducing the coupling length Assuming fabrication tolerances are not a concern and we do not require the dimensions of the directional coupler to

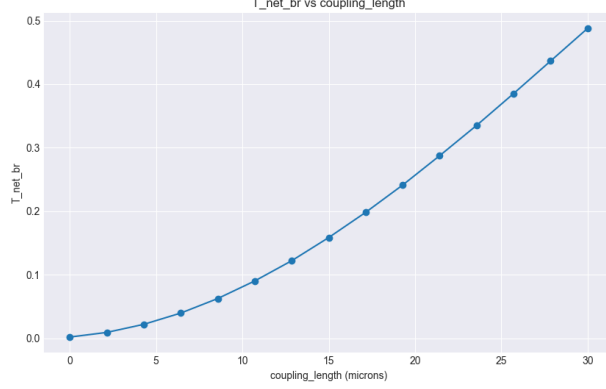


Figure 5: Cross-power transfer fraction at the coupled output port as a function of coupling length L for a fixed waveguide width of 500 nm and separation gap of 150 nm under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1310 nm.

match other components in the photonic circuit, like cascaded couplers or integrated Michelson interferometers, it is desirable to reduce the coupling length. Shorter directional couplers have a smaller footprint, less propagation loss (as loss is proportional to length) and latency, and often support a broader spectral bandwidth because the phase accumulation κL is less sensitive to changes in $\kappa(\lambda)$ if L is small. Additionally they are more robust against accumulated phase mismatch $\Delta\beta L$ arising from non-idealities in the fabrication process.

One strategy to achieve this for our directional coupler at $\lambda = 1310$ nm is to use the fact that decreasing the waveguide width (while ensuring the mode remains well-guided and above cutoff) increases the lateral evanescent extent of the modes. This is because a narrower core provides weaker confinement. The increased overlap of these more extensive evanescent fields between the two waveguides leads to a stronger interaction, and thus a larger coupling coefficient κ . Since the coupling length for total power transfer $L_c = \frac{\pi}{2\kappa}$, a larger κ results in a shorter L_c .

By reducing the waveguide width to 400 nm, we can achieve Figure 6, which shows that we can achieve half-power transfer at $\hat{L}_{3\text{db}} \approx 11 \mu\text{m}$ and total power transfer at $\hat{L}_c \approx 23 \mu\text{m}$. This is much more comparable to the $\hat{L}_{3\text{db}} \approx 10 \mu\text{m}$ and $\hat{L}_c \approx 21 \mu\text{m}$ for the 1550 nm wavelength case with a 500 nm waveguide width.

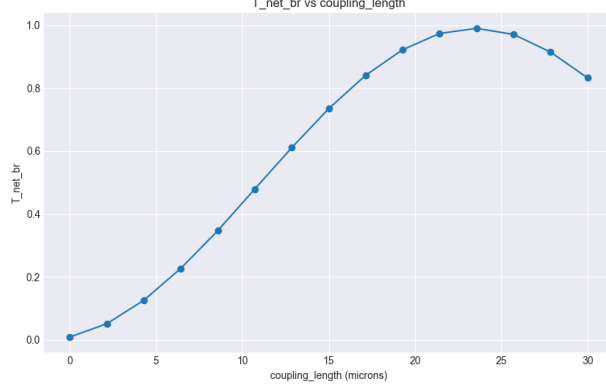


Figure 6: Cross-power transfer fraction at the coupled output port as a function of coupling length L for a fixed waveguide width of 400 nm and separation gap of 150 nm under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1310 nm.

3.2 Effect of waveguide width and separation gap

It is not always so trivial to design a directional coupler that achieves the desired operation characteristics, hence it is useful to explore the effect of the hyperparameters fixed before optimised over the coupling length L , namely the waveguide width and separation gap.

Figure 7 shows the power transfer fraction to the lower waveguide TE_0 mode monitor as a function of the uniform waveguide width w swept through $w \in [0.1, 1.0] \mu\text{m}$ and separation gap s swept through $s \in [0.15, 0.5] \mu\text{m}$ for a fixed coupling length of $10 \mu\text{m}$ and input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm. For the majority of the parameter space, there is very weak coupling. However, we observe a ridge of strong power transfer along the entire separation axis at a waveguide width of $w = 0.36 \mu\text{m}$, with a peak at $s = 0.25 \mu\text{m}$.

Effect of waveguide width While a small waveguide width w increases the evanescent overlap (enhancing κ), it also reduces the mode confinement. As w decreases and approaches the cutoff width, the effective index n_{eff} of the mode approaches the refractive index of the cladding n_{clad} . This weak confinement makes the mode highly susceptible to bending-induced radiative losses, particularly in the S-bend sections of the coupler. The bending loss coefficient α_b typically increases exponentially as n_{eff} approaches n_{clad} .² Figure 8 shows the power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane for a waveguide width just before the ridge $w = 0.23 \mu\text{m}$ and at the optimal separation gap $s = 0.25 \mu\text{m}$.

From this it is clear that the mode is not well confined, and loses almost all of its power along the input port S-bend.

Very large waveguide widths, on the other hand, provide much stronger mode confinement, meaning n_{eff} is significantly larger than n_{clad} and approaches

2. Jun-ichi Sakai, “Simplified Bending Loss Formula for Single-Mode Optical Fibers,” *Applied Optics* 18, no. 7 (April 1, 1979): 951–952, ISSN: 2155-3165, accessed June 13, 2025, <https://doi.org/10.1364/AO.18.000951>, <https://opg.optica.org/ao/abstract.cfm?uri=ao-18-7-951>.

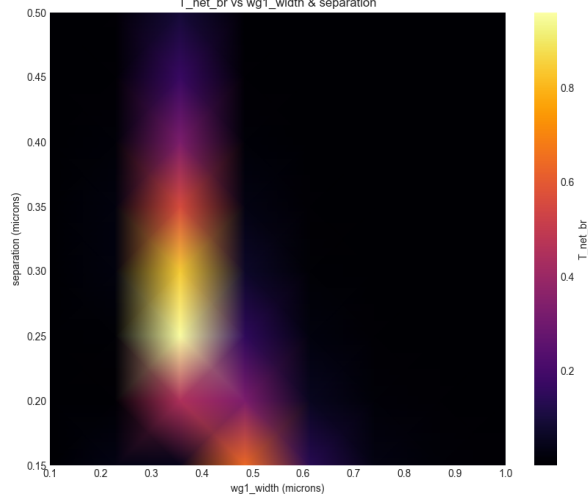


Figure 7: Cross-power transfer fraction at the coupled output port as a function of waveguide width w and separation gap s for a fixed coupling length of $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm .

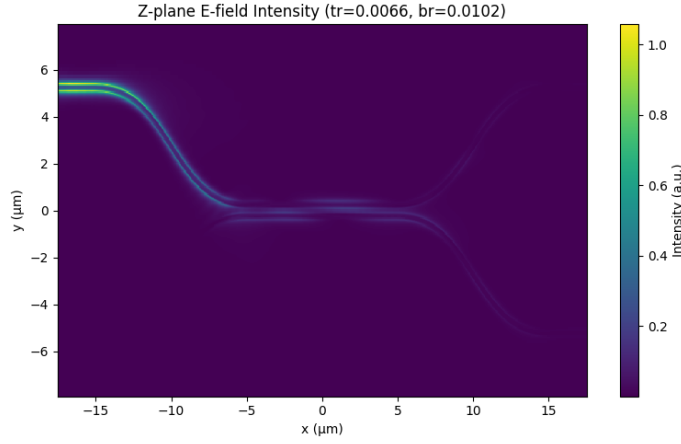


Figure 8: Power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane at the coupling length $L = 10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ for a waveguide width of $w = 0.23\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and separation gap of $s = 0.25\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm .

the core index n_{core} . This results in a smaller evanescent tail extending into the cladding, which reduces the coupling coefficient κ . For a fixed coupling length L , a smaller κ leads to a smaller power transfer fraction $\sin^2(\kappa L)$. (One could increase L to compensate for a smaller κ , but in Figure 7, L was held constant.) The optimal waveguide width is thus a balance between these two effects: achieving sufficient evanescent field overlap for strong coupling (favoring

smaller w) while maintaining strong enough mode confinement to minimize propagation and bending losses (favoring larger w). The observed ridge of strong power transfer at $w = 0.36 \mu\text{m}$ is the result of this trade-off for the given $L = 10 \mu\text{m}$.

Effect of separation gap Now that we have established the optimal waveguide width for a fixed L , in analysis of the separation gap s , it may be more intuitive to fix the width at this optimum ($w \approx 0.36 \mu\text{m}$) and consider the effect of separation on the ridge profile, which is shown in Figure 9. At a large separation, the power transfer fraction decays, which is expected as the coupling coefficient κ typically exhibits an approximately exponential dependence on s , i.e., $\kappa \propto e^{-\gamma s}$, where γ is related to the decay constant of the evanescent field in the cladding.³ Thus, as s increases, κ decreases significantly, leading to reduced power transfer for a fixed L . However, at a very small separation, the power transfer fraction is also small and appears to increase with the separation gap initially.

The former (decay at large s) can be rationalised by the fact that the evanescent tails of the modes in each waveguide overlap less and less as the separation gap increases. The latter behaviour (increase from very small s) is less immediately intuitive but can be understood by considering the $\sin^2(\kappa L)$ dependence. At very small separation s , the two waveguides become very strongly coupled, and the system is better described by its supermodes (even and odd symmetric modes for identical waveguides). The propagation constants of these supermodes, β_e and β_o , become significantly different, and the coupling coefficient $\kappa = |\beta_e - \beta_o|/2$ becomes large. If L is fixed (here, $L = 10 \mu\text{m}$), and κ is very large due to small s , the argument κL might be significantly greater than $\pi/2$ (the first maximum for $\sin^2(\kappa L)$). For instance, if κL is close to π , the power transfer would be close to zero. As s increases slightly from its minimum, κ decreases. This decrease in κ could bring κL closer to $\pi/2$ (or $3\pi/2$, etc.), thereby increasing the power transfer $\sin^2(\kappa L)$. The peak in Figure 9 at $s = 0.25 \mu\text{m}$ corresponds to the separation where $\kappa(w = 0.36 \mu\text{m}, s)L \approx \pi/2$ (or more generally, $(m + 1/2)\pi$ for integer m). Indeed, Figure 7 shows that for very small separations, the ridge of strong cross-power transfer moves diagonally towards larger waveguide widths. This is because, for a fixed coupling length L , as s decreases (which tends to increase κ), w must increase (which tends to decrease κ by increasing confinement) to maintain the condition $\kappa(w, s)L \approx (m + 1/2)\pi$ for optimal power transfer.

3. Dolph, “5 Characteristics of Evanescent Modes in Waveguides,” DOLPH MICROWAVE, accessed June 13, 2025, <https://www.dolphmicrowave.com/default/5-characteristics-of-evanescent-modes-in-waveguides/>.

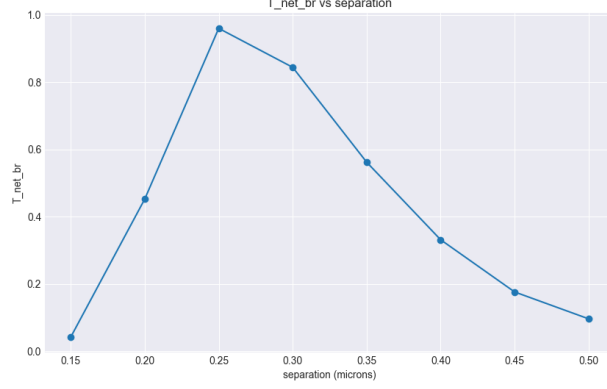


Figure 9: Cross-power transfer fraction at the coupled output port as a function of separation gap s for a fixed waveguide width of $w = 0.36 \mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm .

3.3 Cross-order mode coupling

Designing for coupling across modes of different orders is less trivial. For the TE_0 - TE_0 case we were able to rely on the fact that equal waveguide widths impose TE_0 phase matching across the separation gap, but this is not the case for general cross-order mode coupling. The primary condition for efficient coupling between mode m in waveguide 1 (width w_1) and mode n in waveguide 2 (width w_2) is phase matching: $\beta_{1,m} \approx \beta_{2,n}$, which translates to $n_{\text{eff},1,m}(w_1, \lambda) \approx n_{\text{eff},2,n}(w_2, \lambda)$.

Coupling between modes of different parity, such as TE_0 (even transverse field symmetry) and TE_1 (odd transverse field symmetry), is generally forbidden or very weak in symmetric directional couplers where the waveguides are aligned (no lateral offset). This is because the coupling coefficient κ involves an overlap integral of the mode fields. If the product of the fields has odd symmetry with respect to the center of the coupling region, the integral evaluates to zero. TE_2 , like TE_0 , possesses an even transverse field symmetry (for its dominant E-field component), allowing for a non-zero overlap integral and thus potentially strong coupling if phase matching is achieved.

There is an additional step of design required to achieve cross-order mode coupling: engineering the waveguide dimensions (typically their widths, w_1 and w_2) to match the effective indices of the two desired modes across the separation gap at the operating wavelength.

TE_0 - TE_2 coupling Let us consider the example of designing a directional coupler that transfers maximum power from the TE_0 mode of the upper waveguide (width w_1) to the TE_2 mode of the lower waveguide (width w_2). To achieve phase matching, $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_0}(w_1, \lambda) \approx n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_2}(w_2, \lambda)$. Since higher-order modes generally have lower effective indices than lower-order modes in waveguides of the same width, achieving this condition typically requires $w_2 > w_1$ if both waveguides are made of the same core and cladding materials. This is because n_{eff} for any given guided mode generally increases with waveguide width (for a mode

well above cutoff). Recall Figure 10 from the first interim report.⁴ This idealised planar waveguide case demonstrates that we expect that, with the upper waveguide width fixed at $w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$ (supporting primarily TE_0), it should be possible to couple to the TE_2 mode of the lower waveguide when its width w_2 is significantly larger, such that $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_2}(w_2)$ matches $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_0}(w_1)$. The plot suggests that for $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_0}(w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m})$, a matching $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_2}(w_2)$ might occur for w_2 in the range of $1 \mu\text{m}$ to $1.5 \mu\text{m}$.

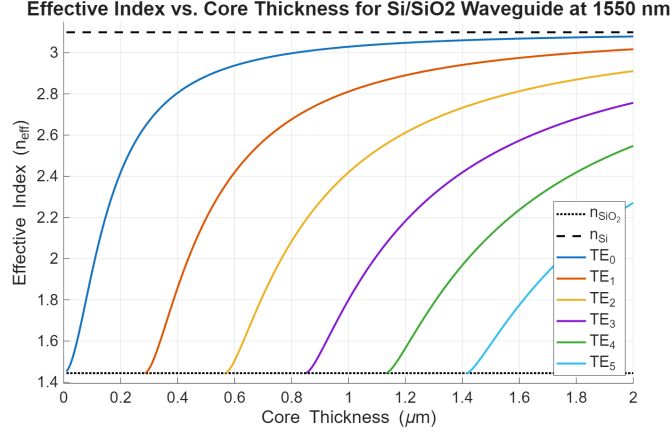


Figure 10: Effective indices of TE_0 - TE_5 as a function of waveguide thickness.

To avoid adding additional monitors to the simulation sweep, it will suffice to use the upper output port TE_0 mode monitor as an inverse proxy for the lower output port TE_2 mode monitor. That is, minimizing power remaining in the TE_0 mode of the input waveguide implies maximizing power transferred to other phase-matched modes (hopefully the desired TE_2 mode in the other waveguide, assuming other couplings are weak or non-phase-matched). One design strategy is to sweep both the lower waveguide width w_2 through the range $w_2 \in (1, 1.5] \mu\text{m}$ and the coupling length $L \in [10, 40] \mu\text{m}$ while keeping the separation gap fixed at $s = 0.15 \mu\text{m}$. This produces the heatmap in Figure 11 of the power fraction received by the proxy TE_0 mode monitor on the upper waveguide.

Clearly, we have a sinusoidal ridge of recorded power transfer (more accurately, power *not* transferred away from the input TE_0 mode) along the coupling length axis, at a waveguide width of $w_2 = 1.28 \mu\text{m}$. This w_2 value is where phase matching $n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_0}(w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}) \approx n_{\text{eff},\text{TE}_2}(w_2 = 1.28 \mu\text{m})$ is best achieved. Fixing that width and looking along at ridge results in Figure 12, showing the optimum coupling length L for maximum power transfer to the TE_2 mode of the lower waveguide (indicated by minimum power remaining in the upper TE_0 mode) to be $\hat{L} \approx 13 \mu\text{m}$. Figure 13 shows the power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane at this coupling length, with the TE_0 mode monitor on the upper waveguide registering a power transfer fraction of 0.0182 with $n_{\text{eff}} = 2.217$ and the TE_2 mode monitor (the third mode filtered by TE/TM fraction in Lumerical) on the lower waveguide registering a power

4. Lucas Ng, “SB4: Integrated Photonics - 1st Interim Report,” May 23, 2025,

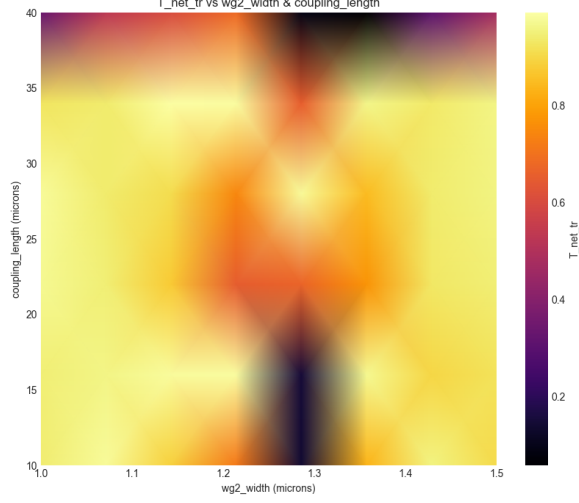


Figure 11: Cross-power transfer fraction at the upper waveguide TE_0 mode monitor as a function of lower waveguide width w_2 and coupling length L for a fixed upper waveguide width of $w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$ and separation gap of $s = 0.15 \mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm.

transfer fraction of 0.9235 with $n_{\text{eff}} = 2.223$. The close matching of these effective indices confirms the phase matching condition. This means the TE_2 mode is excited to approximately $0.9235/(0.9235 + 0.0182) \approx 98.1\%$ of the total power detected in these two specific modes at the output. There is some launched power unaccounted for ($1 - 0.0182 - 0.9235 = 0.0583$, or about 5.8%), which can be attributed to radiation losses (e.g., at S-bends), coupling to other non-monitored modes, or scattering.

This is the directional coupler shown originally in Figure 1.

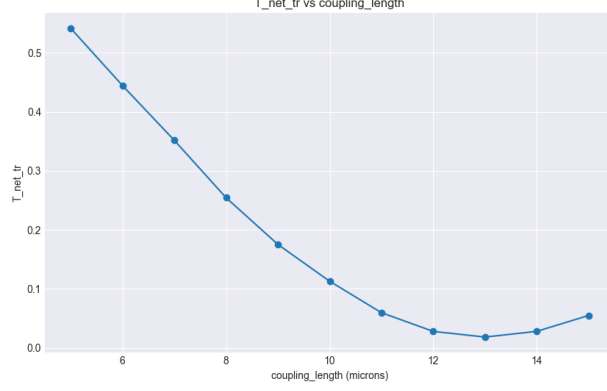


Figure 12: Power transfer fraction at the upper waveguide TE_0 mode monitor as a function of coupling length L for a fixed upper waveguide width of $w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$, lower waveguide width of $w_2 = 1.28 \mu\text{m}$, and separation gap of $s = 0.15 \mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm .

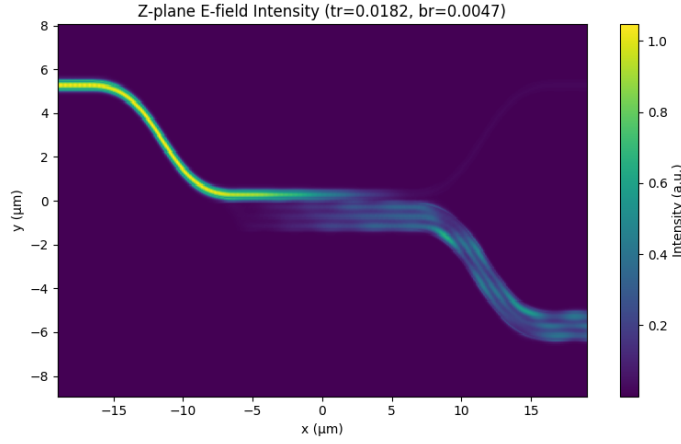


Figure 13: Power intensity distribution across the waveguide plane at the coupling length $L = \hat{L} \approx 13 \mu\text{m}$ for a fixed upper waveguide width of $w_1 = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$, lower waveguide width of $w_2 = 1.28 \mu\text{m}$, and separation gap of $s = 0.15 \mu\text{m}$ under input port TE_0 mode excitation at 1550 nm .

4 Other contributions

5 Conclusion

References

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