



Topology optimization of time-transient heat conduction for thermo-optic silicon modulators

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ABSTRACT

An optimization method is presented to enhance the time-transient thermal response of a thermo-optic silicon modulator. For the development of efficient opto-electronic devices, fast thermal response in a compact form factor is crucial to increasing modulator performance. Thus, to improve response, the layout of the modulator device is modified and tailored by structural topology optimization. The optimization approach considers the transient thermal response of the device with an adjoint sensitivity analysis of the transient system. A detailed design example for a silicon waveguide with an over-clad metal heater is provided, and results highlight a faster modulator temperature rise response with reduced out-of-plane length. The method is broadly applicable to a range of thermo-optic devices involving waveguides for next-generation sensors.

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1. Introduction

Science and engineering approaches to controlling light-matter interactions in electromagnetic environments at nano and micro scales are being actively explored [1]. Understanding these interactions is of fundamental importance to applications ranging from optical sensing to communication and quantum science. In this context, silicon (Si) modulators are critical components in future nano-scale photonics devices [1]. In particular, the quick (on the order of microseconds) time-transient thermal response of Si modulators enables fast switching speed for next-generation optical communication devices and sensors. For example, Fig. 1 depicts an enlarged illustration of a representative photonics-based sensor.

Incoming laser light is coupled to nano-scale Si waveguides (or Si wires) to provide an electromagnetic wave that travels through laser splitters to Si modulators (i.e., phase shifters) that shift the phase of the light wave allowing for manipulation of the outgoing laser beam at an antenna array. The speed with which the phase shifters operate is critical to sensor performance. Additionally, while a single Si modulator might only consume a few milliwatts of power over a very small footprint area, the aggregation of hundreds of phase shifters into a physically larger sensor array drives up power consumption and affects the total parasitic

loss of the device. This may lead to higher power densities for solid-state devices like the one shown in Fig. 1, which are typically on the millimeter scale and realized using state-of-the-art micro-fabrication techniques.

The shifting of the phase of the light wave in a Si modulator is generally achieved by exploiting the thermo-optic effect, where the refractive index inside a waveguide varies with the change in temperature of the material. Among various materials, Si shows a large thermo-optic effect, $\partial n / \partial T = 1.86 \times 10^{-4}$ (1/K) at 1.5 μm and 295 K, where the refraction index is n . The thermo-optic devices considered here are similar to prior devices studied in the literature [2], and the optical wavelength is similar. A common approach to enabling this effect is to use an over-clad metal heater [2] to impart a temperature change to the Si waveguide. However, as explained in the relevant research [3,4], such over-clad heaters may have a relatively slow thermal time constant due to a large thermal capacitance and thermal spreading that occurs during their use. Indeed, resistive effects in thermo-optic devices play an important role in the control of heat plus light, but these effects also reduce the efficiency of the modulator by dissipating power via the resistances. Thus, additional opportunities to optimize transient thermal response of thermo-optic devices and reduce parasitic power in a compact footprint exist, and some strategies [4–7] are to additionally etch surrounding Si or SiO₂ materials to effectively manipulate the device heat flow, time-transient behavior, and/or waveguide transmission characteristics. In the present work, this basic concept is extended further through de-

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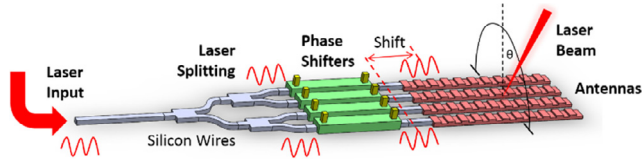


Fig. 1. Representative opto-electronic device.

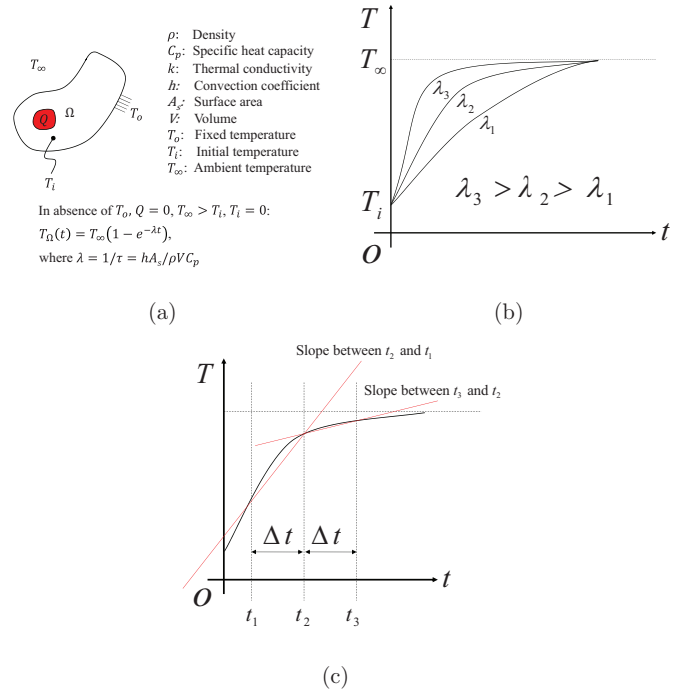


Fig. 2. (a) Transient heat conduction in a solid body assuming zero convective losses, (b) thermodynamic response for different λ , and (c) the physical meaning of the objective function.

tailed optimization of the SiO_2 insulating structure surrounding the waveguide.

Structural optimization schemes have helped to enhance device performance based on mathematical theory and numerical techniques. In particular, structural topology optimization allows one to explore optimal layouts without a prior given initial design and has been widely used in multiphysics system design [8,9]. Related to photonics, work exists on the topology optimization of splitters [10], waveguides [11], demultiplexers [12], and grating couplers [13,14], although the consideration of time-transient thermal response is generally neglected. Regarding heat transfer, relevant research has focused on shape or topology optimization for steady-state heat conduction [15,16]. Zhuang and Xiong proposed topology optimization for transient heat transfer minimizing the peak heat compliance and using transient sensitivity analysis [17]. To overcome difficulties, they further proposed the equivalent static load approach for the transient heat transfer problem. Evolutionary structural optimization, involving the removal and introduction of materials considering their contributions to the objective function, has been applied to the heat conduction problem [18–20]. Also, the level-set method with shape sensitivity analysis can be found [21,22] for topology optimization of steady-state heat conduction.

Despite the prolific work related to steady-state heat conduction, many heat conduction problems are transient in nature. It is therefore obvious and important for topology optimization to consider transient heat conduction. Yet, research in this field essentially demands transient analysis and related sensitivity analysis, both of which are not trivial. First-order sensitivity analysis of the transient heat conduction problem and its application to shape optimization are found in the literature [17,23–25]. Sensitivity analysis and shape optimization are additionally found in prior work [26–29]. Turteltaub used the temperature difference instead of heat compliance as the objective function in the context of transient heat conduction optimization [28]. An accurate time integration method for the sensitivity analysis of linear and non-linear transient heat conduction problems was also proposed [29]. Compliant mechanism problems considering transient temperature response were further considered [30]. For topology optimization of a transient heat conduction problem, Zhuang et al. proposed a level set based topology optimization approach with the integral of the temperature gradient over a fixed time interval as an objective function [31]. Wu et al. [32] recently applied topology optimization to minimize the maximum temperature of transient heat conduction structures. Additionally, a variety of conjugate heat transfer interaction models have been investigated [33–35].

In this research, a topology optimization framework is developed considering the response of a transient heat transfer system, and it is applied to the performance enhancement of nano-scale waveguide structures for photonics-based applications. Specifically, a faster temperature rise response for a Si modulator with overlaid metal heater is demonstrated, and it is further shown how the results lead to more compact modulator designs.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides background to the optimization of the time-transient response of thermo-optic devices, describes the governing equations for time-

transient topology optimization under heat conduction, and presents the optical analysis method for performance evaluation. In Section 3, transient heat conduction optimization studies are considered, and Si modulator examples considering time-transient thermo-optic response are presented. Section 4 provides conclusions.

2. Thermal-optics and topology optimization

In this section, the governing equations for a transient heat transfer system are introduced. This is followed by the detailed topology optimization formulation and the sensitivity analysis. Additional details are then provided on phase modulation in thermo-optic devices and an associated optical analysis in relation to time-transient thermal response.

2.1. Governing equations for transient heat transfer system

For the temperature field, T , the governing equation for the transient heat conduction problem, Fig. 2(a), can be formulated as follows:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} - k \nabla^2 T = Q, \quad t \in [0, t_f] \quad (1)$$

$$T|_{t=0} = T_i, \quad (2)$$

$$T = T_0 \quad \text{on } \Gamma_D, \quad (3)$$

$$-k \frac{\partial T}{\partial n_N} = q'' \quad \text{on } \Gamma_N, \quad (4)$$

$$-k \frac{\partial T}{\partial n_C} = q''_h = h(T - T_\infty) \quad \text{on } \Gamma_C, \quad (5)$$

where the material density, the specific heat capacitance, and the thermal conductivity are denoted by ρ , C_p , and k , respectively. The

rate of the internal heat generation is Q , and the terminal time is t_f . The initial temperature, the prescribed temperature on Γ_D , and the heat flux on Γ_N are denoted by T_i , T_o , and q'' , respectively. The normal direction to boundaries Γ_N and Γ_C are denoted, respectively, by n_N and n_C . The convective heat flux, q''_h , boundary condition on Γ_C is defined by the convection coefficient, h , and the ambient temperature, T_∞ . Here, we assume zero radiative losses, and thus an equivalent lumped capacitance problem is as shown in Fig. 2(a).

Applying the finite element method (FEM), solutions to the transient heat transfer equation are governed by a system of first order linear differential equations:

$$\mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{Q}, \quad \mathbf{T}|_{t=0} = \mathbf{T}_i, \quad t \in [0, t_f], \quad (6)$$

where the global heat capacity matrix and the global stiffness/conductivity matrix are denoted by \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{K} , respectively. The temperature derivatives with respect to time and the nodal temperatures are, respectively, denoted by $\dot{\mathbf{T}}$ and \mathbf{T} . The initial temperature distribution vector is denoted by \mathbf{T}_i .

2.2. Topology optimization formulation for thermo-optic application

Using thermodynamic theory, simplified by a lumped parameter model with the assumption of a uniform temperature inside an objective domain and a sufficiently small Biot number, the differences among integrals can be used to extract the exponent of the response. Specifically, to find the coefficient, λ , governing the transient system response, the integrals of the temperature (T_1 , T_2 and T_3) of the waveguide domain at three distinct times, i.e., at t_1 , t_2 and t_3 , with a consistent time interval are computed and combined as written in (7) and shown in Figs. 2(b) and (c).

$$T_2 - T_1 = \int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda t_2} (T_i - T_\infty) - e^{-\lambda t_1} (T_i - T_\infty) dx \quad (7)$$

$$T_3 - T_2 = \int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda t_3} (T_i - T_\infty) - e^{-\lambda t_2} (T_i - T_\infty) dx$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{T_3 - T_2}{T_2 - T_1} &= \frac{\int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda t_3} - e^{-\lambda t_2} dx}{\int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda t_2} - e^{-\lambda t_1} dx} \\ &= \frac{\int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda(t_1+2\Delta t)} - e^{-\lambda(t_1+\Delta t)} dx}{\int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda(t_1+\Delta t)} - e^{-\lambda t_1} dx} \\ &= \int_{\Omega} e^{-\lambda \Delta t} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\log\left(\frac{T_3 - T_2}{T_2 - T_1}\right) = - \int_{\Omega} \lambda \Delta t dx,$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\Delta t \int_{\Omega} dx} \log\left(\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_3 - T_2}\right)$$

The above equations illustrate that the temperature of the thermodynamic system increases exponentially from its initial temperature value to a steady state value.

In order to maximize λ , it is alternatively possible to maximize the function, $(T_2 - T_1)/(T_3 - T_2)$. Therefore, the following optimization formulation in (8) is used in the present study to find optimal layouts for thermo-optic application.

$$\text{Max}_{\gamma} \quad \Phi = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_3 - T_2} \quad (8)$$

Subject to mass constraint

Physically, the objective function in (8) can be interpreted as the minimization of the thermal time constant, τ , for an ambient temperature of the system since $\lambda = 1/\tau$. Here, the objective function, Φ , is related to the coefficient, λ , of the transient thermodynamic

system with the design variable, γ , defined at each finite element, and a mass constraint.

For the topology optimization, the material properties should be interpolated with respect to the design variables assigned to each finite element. Solid isotropic material with penalization (SIMP) based interpolations are employed. The interpolation equations are formulated as follows:

$$C_p = C_{\text{nominal}} \times \gamma^{p_1}, \quad k = k_{\text{nominal}} \times \gamma^{p_2} \quad (9)$$

$$\gamma = \epsilon : \text{Void}, \quad \gamma = 1 : \text{SiO}_2, \quad (10)$$

where the SIMP penalization factors of C_p and k with respect to the design variable are p_1 and p_2 , respectively. Depending on the values of the penalization factors, different local optimal solutions are obtained. These values are set between 4 to 6 for all examples. In order to avoid singularity of the FEM solution, a very small value is assigned for γ_{\min} , i.e., $\epsilon = 0.001$. It is found that the energy stored in finite elements having low density is sufficiently small and can be neglected; imaginary temperatures of the void region in this problem are analogous to imaginary structural displacements of the void region in a compliance minimization topology optimization problem. The material density, ρ in (1), is not interpolated, as the heat capacitance, C_p , is multiplied with the mass density.

Thus, a topology optimization formulation for a general transient heat transfer problem can be stated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Min}_{\gamma} \int_0^{t_f} f(\mathbf{T}, \gamma) dt \\ &\text{Subject to } g_i \leq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_c \\ &\gamma = [\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_{N_e}], \quad \epsilon \leq \gamma \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

where the objective function and constraints are denoted by f and g_i , respectively. Without loss of generality, the objective function is set as the integral of a function of the temperature and the design variable. The number of constraints is N_c , and the number of design variables, γ , is N_e .

To derive the sensitivity values of the objective function with respect to the design variables, the Lagrangian combining the objective function and the time integral of the governing equation with the Lagrange multiplier, λ_t , is formulated. The sensitivity analysis of the transient system can be found in the literature [36]. For completeness, the derivations are included here.

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_0^{t_f} f(\mathbf{T}, \gamma) dt + \int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T [\mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{Q}] dt \\ &\quad (\mathbf{T}|_{t=0} = \mathbf{T}_i, t \in [0, t_f]) \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where the derivative of L with respect to the e -th design variable, γ_e , can be summarized as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \gamma_e} &= \int_0^{t_f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \\ &\quad + \frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma_e} \left(\int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T [\mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{Q}] dt \right) \\ &= \int_0^{t_f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \\ &\quad + \int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \gamma_e} \dot{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{T}}}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \gamma_e} \mathbf{T} + \mathbf{K} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial \gamma_e} \right] dt \\ &\quad \text{with } \frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial \gamma_e} = \mathbf{0} \\ &= \int_0^{t_f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \\ &\quad + \int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \gamma_e} \dot{\mathbf{T}} + \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{T}}}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \gamma_e} \mathbf{T} + \mathbf{K} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \right] dt \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

In order to derive the term $\int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{d\dot{\mathbf{T}}}{d\gamma_e} dt$, the following are formulated.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{t_f} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \right) dt &= \int_0^{t_f} \left(\frac{d}{dt} (\lambda_t^T \mathbf{C}) \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} + \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{d\dot{\mathbf{T}}}{d\gamma_e} \right) dt \\ &= \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \Big|_0^{t_f} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{d\dot{\mathbf{T}}}{d\gamma_e} dt = \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \Big|_0^{t_f} - \int_0^{t_f} \frac{d}{dt} (\lambda_t^T \mathbf{C}) \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \quad (15)$$

By inserting the above results into (13), the final transient sensitivity of the objective function can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \gamma_e} &= \int_0^{t_f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma_e} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \\ &+ \int_0^{t_f} \lambda_t^T \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \gamma_e} \dot{\mathbf{T}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \gamma_e} \mathbf{T} + \mathbf{K} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \right] dt \\ &+ \lambda_t^T \mathbf{C} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \Big|_0^{t_f} - \int_0^{t_f} \frac{d}{dt} (\lambda_t^T \mathbf{C}) \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} dt \\ &= \int_0^{t_f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma_e} + \lambda_t^T \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{C}}{\partial \gamma_e} \dot{\mathbf{T}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \gamma_e} \mathbf{T} \right] dt \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

It is assumed that the thermal loads and initial conditions are independent of the design variables, that is $\frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial \gamma_e} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \gamma_e} \Big|_{t=0} = \mathbf{0}$. The Lagrangian multiplier is then computed by solving the following adjoint system.

$$\begin{aligned} -\mathbf{C} \dot{\lambda}_t + \lambda_t^T \mathbf{K} &= -\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{T}}, \quad t \in [0, t_f] \\ \lambda_t(t_f) &= \mathbf{0}, \quad \dot{\lambda}_t(t_f) = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Since the above equation is a final value problem, a time reversal FEM is employed to solve it.

2.3. Phase modulation in thermo-optic devices

Phase modulation in thermo-optic nano-waveguide devices is achieved through controlled changes of the refractive index, n , of the material comprising the waveguides. The magnitude of the relative phase change is determined by the magnitude of the refractive index change and the length along the waveguide where the refractive index change is affected. Typically, it is desirable to minimize the size of phase modulation devices so that the change in the refractive index should be maximized. For most applications, the relative phase shift between the base state and fully tuned state should be at least 2π .

One method to inflict the refractive index change is to tune the temperature of the material. In most materials, this change in n is the result of density decreasing with an increased temperature. With Si, the change is magnified due to the contribution of bound electrons in the semiconductor's crystalline lattice. Many properties of the Si making up the waveguides, such as dopants or lattice defects, influence the exact variation in n with respect to temperature, so that $\partial n / \partial T$ is found empirically by various measurement techniques and is generally linear at room temperature, e.g. ~ 293 K, and above.

To create a small device, the temperature tuning range or change in temperature, ΔT , is chosen to be a few hundred degrees. The drawback of this approach, and relatively large required ΔT , is that the time constant between the base state and fully tuned state is large, which is in direct conflict with realizing a fast modulator. As such, there is a need for new techniques to optimize the speed, and hence thermal response, of compact Si modulators.

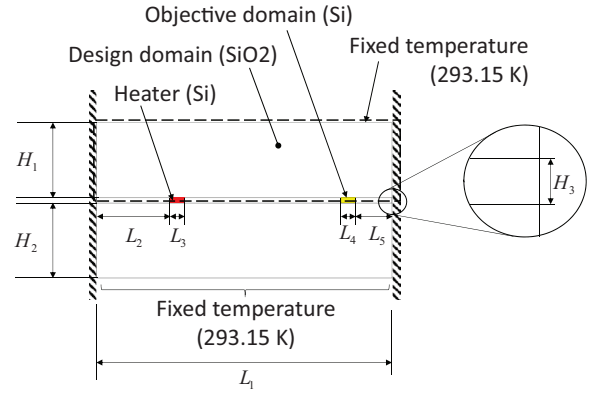


Fig. 3. Example design domain. Heat source: 10 mW for 10 μ s; SiO₂ properties: $C_p = 703$ J/kg \times K, $\rho = 2203$ kg/m³, $k = 1.38$ W/m \times K; Si properties: $C_p = 700$ J/kg \times K, $\rho = 2329$ kg/m³, $k = 130$ W/m \times K; Structure dimensions: $L_1 = 12$ μ m, $L_2 = 3$ μ m, $L_3 = 0.6$ μ m, $L_4 = 0.6$ μ m, $L_5 = 1.4$ μ m, $H_1 = 3$ μ m, $H_2 = 3$ μ m, $H_3 = 0.22$ μ m.

To find the difference in the speed of propagation between cold and heated Si modulator states, boundary mode analysis is performed once the heat transfer analysis is completed to solve for the propagation constant at each simulated thermal step. FEM is utilized to find the modes by solving reduced electromagnetic vector-wave equations [37] of the form:

$$\nabla_{tr}^2 \mathbf{E}_{tr} + (k_0^2 \epsilon - \beta^2) \mathbf{E}_{tr} = -\nabla \left(\mathbf{E}_{tr} \cdot \frac{\nabla_{tr} \epsilon}{\epsilon} \right), \quad (18)$$

where all subscripts, tr , refer to transverse waves (in this case in x and y in-plane directions for two-dimensional (2-D) waveguide cross-sections considered here), ϵ is material permittivity which is a function of defined material and simulated temperature, β is the propagation constant, and k_0 is the wave number. This reduced form is achieved by setting permeability in all situations to unity. While this equation is in terms of the electric field, \mathbf{E} , typically it is recast in terms of the magnetic field in practice.

With β found via (18) for all time steps, the average of the gradient for both the heating and cooling times of a Si modulator thermal cycle are taken as,

$$A = \frac{1}{n_{tm}} \sum_0^{n_{tm}} \frac{\beta_{i+\Delta t_m} - \beta_i}{\Delta t_m}. \quad (19)$$

In the analysis here, the time period from 0 to t_m is defined as the same period for 200 kHz or 5 μ s. The time step, Δt_m , and number of time steps, n_{tm} , is the same as that used for the preceding heat transfer physics. After both the averages of the heating and cooling changes in the propagation constant are found, the absolute value of both are averaged together so that performance over a full thermal cycle is taken into account.

With (19), which is in units of radians per micrometer per picosecond, the required out-of-plane waveguide length, in microns, of a 200 kHz (typical value) Si modulator to reach 2π phase shift is found as,

$$l = \frac{2\pi}{A \cdot 5}. \quad (20)$$

3. Numerical studies

To validate the concept of applying topology optimization to thermo-optic design, this section provides optimal layouts for Si modulator related devices considering time-transient thermal response as an objective function. 2-D layouts are first considered to present fundamental concepts related to these devices, the optimized results, and the improved performance of the designs. In

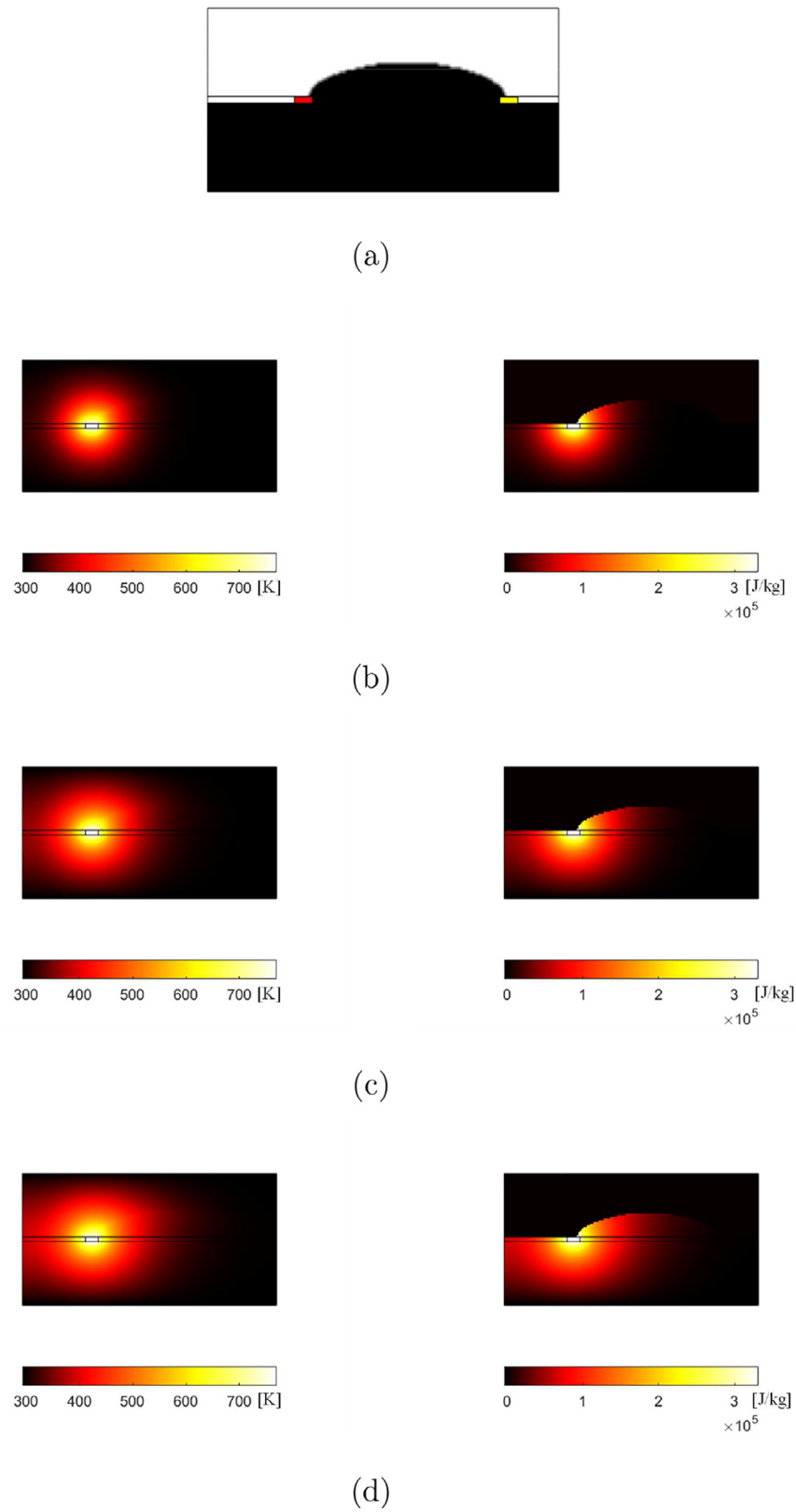


Fig. 4. Benchmark example results: (a) optimized layout with mass = 15.84% (note: dark regions in design domain = SiO_2 , light regions = void); temperature, left column, and internal energy per unit mass, right column, at (b) 2 μs , (c) 4 μs , and (d) 6 μs .

order to solve the optimization problem, the method of moving asymptotes (MMA) algorithm [38] in a custom-scripted computing environment [39] is employed. A three-dimensional (3-D) example is then provided as a logical extension of the 2-D work.

3.1. Benchmark 2-D example problem

As a benchmark first example, Fig. 3, an optimization problem maximizing a specified domain temperature subject to a mass constraint,

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Max}_{\gamma} \int_{\Omega_o} T dx \bigg|_{t=6\mu s} \\ & \text{Subject to mass} \leq 50\% \\ & \gamma = [\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_{N_e}], \quad \gamma_{\min} \leq \gamma \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

is considered on a 2-D structure cross-section. A heater is embedded in a SiO₂ substrate, and it is assumed that a Si waveguide structure is installed near the right-side center of the domain.

Rather than considering the exponent of the response curve as an objective function, the maximization of the temperature in the objective domain, Ω_o , is considered for this problem to verify the expected behavior of the developed optimization framework for the transient system as opposed to a steady-state conduction system. The design domain is made of SiO₂, while the heater and the waveguide (objective domain) are made of Si. An adiabatic condition is imposed along the left and right boundaries, and a fixed temperature, 293.15 K, is imposed at the top and bottom surfaces of the domain.

The objective function is evaluated as the integral of the temperature inside the waveguide domain at 6 μ s. The semi-ellipse shaped optimal design in Fig. 4 with 15.84% mass is obtained. It is interesting that the ends of the semi-ellipse are partially connecting the heater and the waveguide. Only considering thermal conduction, it is better to connect the heater and the waveguide using the entire SiO₂ top-side material, but due to the effect of the thermal capacitance, the optimizer alternatively finds the semi-ellipse shaped design with 15.84% mass fraction. Note that with this material property, the solution times are not sufficient to reach a steady-state solution. Fig. 4(b), (c) and (d) show the domain temperature and the internal energy per unit mass in the left and right columns at 2 μ s, 4 μ s, and 6 μ s, respectively. It appears that the thermal energy is progressively transferred toward the waveguide, and the energy per unit mass of the void region becomes zero indicating that the present material interpolation scheme is successful in topologically optimizing solid and void domains.

To further test the effect of material properties on the design, Fig. 5 shows an optimal structure with the same conditions but with an artificially reduced (0.01% of its original value) thermal capacitance of the SiO₂ material. With this lower capacitance, a design covering the heater and the objective domain (with structural mass at the upper bound limit) is obtained due to the larger effect of the SiO₂ thermal conductance on the solution.

3.2. Design for thermo-optic response

For topology optimization of time-transient temperature response of a thermo-optic device, a Si waveguide buried in a SiO₂ layer with a metal over-clad heater is considered, as shown in Fig. 6(a).

Here, we consider a 2-D cross-section of this Si modulator, Fig. 6(b), with an out-of-plane (z-direction) depth of 100 μ m; the representative in-plane dimensions are provided in Fig. 6(c). The Tungsten (W) heater power is 50 mW applied for 10 μ s with a fixed temperature boundary condition, 293.15 K, applied at the bottom edge of the entire structure; adiabatic boundary conditions are imposed elsewhere. The waveguide is supported by a fixed

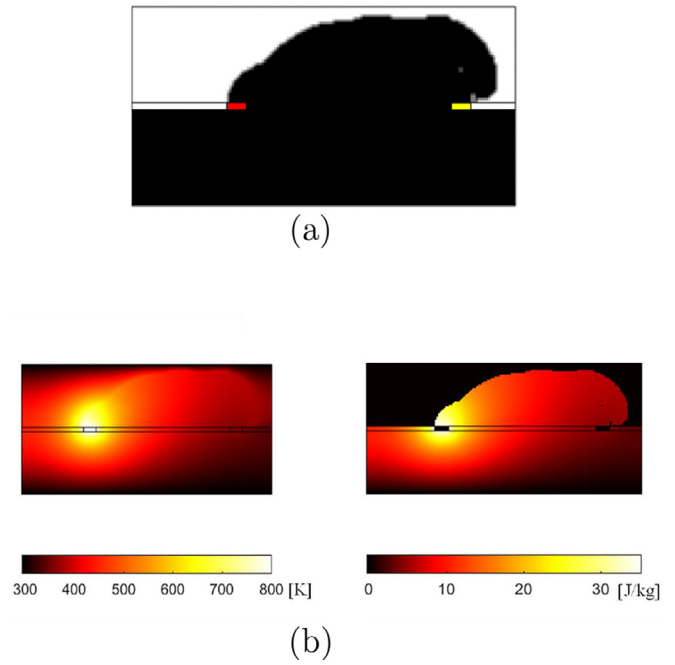


Fig. 5. Benchmark example results using a different lower capacitance for Si, (703E-4 J/kg \times K): (a) optimized layout with mass = 50% (note: dark regions in design domain = SiO₂, light regions = void); (b) temperature, left column, and internal energy per unit mass, right column, at 6 μ s.

SiO₂ pillar, as indicated in Fig. 6(b). The remaining SiO₂ material is then set as the design domain for topology optimization. In the optimization formulation, we utilize the exponent coefficient as an objective function with a mass constraint, per (8). To compute the objective function, the temperature inside the Si waveguide domain shown in Fig. 6(b) is integrated, and the derivatives with respect to time at 2 μ s, 4 μ s, and 6 μ s are consecutively computed.

Fig. 7 shows the optimization results (with temperature contours at the 10 μ s peak) for a range of mass constraint values including SiO₂ volume fractions of 95%, 90%, 80%, 70%, 60%, 45%, 30%, and 15%. Observe that at higher volume fraction values (e.g. 95%, 90%, 80%, 70%) the optimizer first seeks to decouple the support base of the SiO₂ material below the Si waveguide from the surrounding SiO₂ material in an effort to thermally isolate the waveguide. Then, at progressively lower volume fractions (e.g. 60%, 45%, 30%, 15%) the optimizer reduces the width of the support pillar effectively reducing the thermal capacitance of the waveguide support structure.

The transient thermal response over 20 μ s (i.e. 10 μ s of heating followed by 10 μ s of cooling) for each different volume fraction design is provided in Fig. 8. In both heating and cooling regimes, steady-state response is not achieved, and this is typical for such devices. Further observe in Fig. 8 that, as the amount of SiO₂ material is reduced, the rate at which the Si modulator responds increases, and the maximum (non-steady-state) device temperature around 10 μ s increases from 529 K for the 95% SiO₂ volume fraction case to 871 K for the 15% SiO₂ volume fraction design. This result confirms that greater etching around the base pedestal of the SiO₂ structure indeed provides faster temperature rise response.

Interestingly, the results in Fig. 7 are consistent with independent studies, [6], that have shown complete under-etching of suspended Si modulator structures are feasible and beneficial for enhanced thermo-optic response, although here the geometries are obtained automatically through the optimization procedure. We should further note that these results may serve as a conceptual guide, and for practical arrays of modulators, such as those needed to realize a large sensor as shown in Fig. 1, manufacturability and

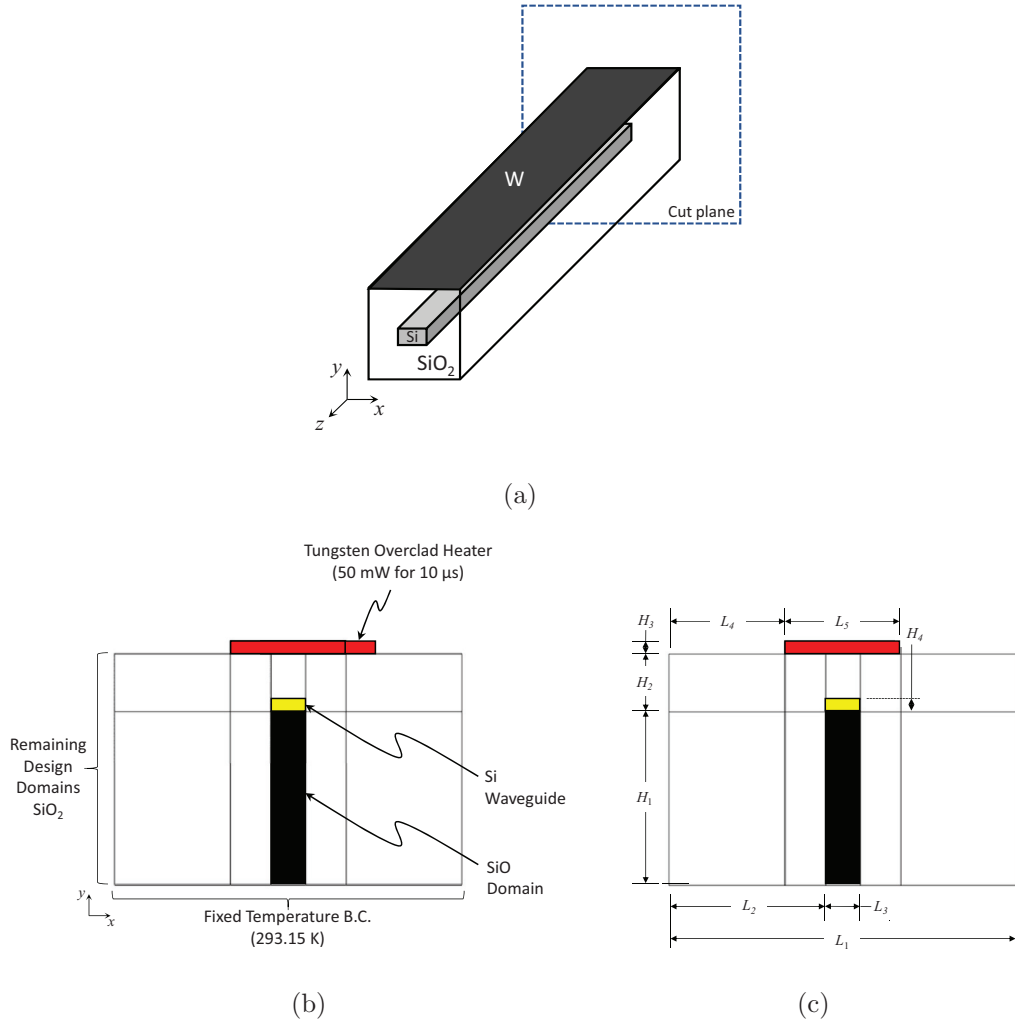


Fig. 6. (a) Si modulator embedded in SiO_2 with over-clad W metal strip heater. (b) Representative cross-section of Si modulator on an $x - y$ cut plane; heat source: 10 mW for 10 μs ; SiO_2 properties: $C_p = 703 \text{ J/kg} \times \text{K}$, $\rho = 2203 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $k = 1.38 \text{ W/m} \times \text{K}$; Si properties: $C_p = 700 \text{ J/kg} \times \text{K}$, $\rho = 2329 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $k = 130 \text{ W/m} \times \text{K}$; W properties: $C_p = 132 \text{ J/kg} \times \text{K}$, $\rho = 17800 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $k = 175 \text{ W/m} \times \text{K}$. (c) Structure dimensions: $L_1 = 6 \mu\text{m}$, $L_2 = 2.7 \mu\text{m}$, $L_3 = 0.6 \mu\text{m}$, $L_4 = 2 \mu\text{m}$, $L_5 = 2 \mu\text{m}$, $H_1 = 3 \mu\text{m}$, $H_2 = 1 \mu\text{m}$, $H_3 = 0.22 \mu\text{m}$, $H_4 = 0.22 \mu\text{m}$.

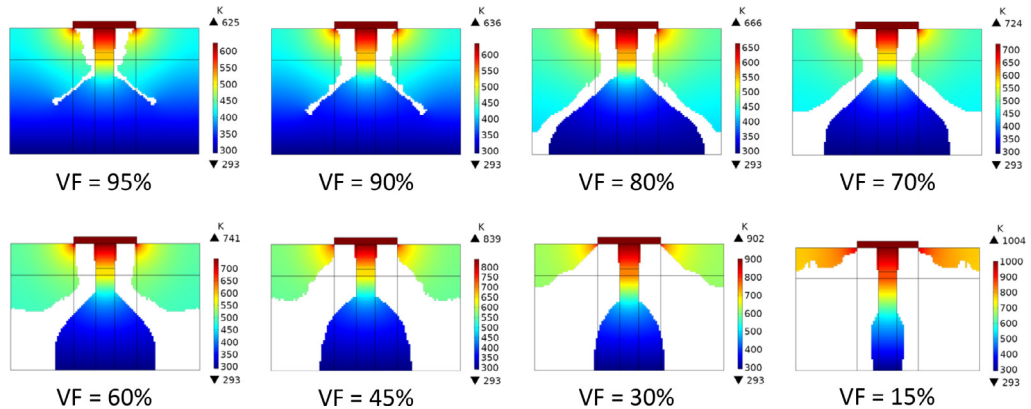


Fig. 7. Topology optimization results for different SiO_2 material volume fractions (VF) with temperature contours at the $t = 10 \mu\text{s}$ peak. Note: light colored regions in design domain = void.

thermal cross-talk should be considered. Thus, implementation of a manufacturing constraint, as discussed in [9] is possible to realize designs that are compatible with commercial silicon photonics foundry processes. Alternatively, further post-processing is available, and as an example, the design for 15% volume fraction of SiO_2 is manually refined by removing the SiO_2 material directly

to the left and right of the over-clad heater. From Fig. 7, we infer that this material is unnecessary for SiO_2 volume fractions less than 90%. Two modulators are then positioned side by side at a $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ spacing with a $3 \mu\text{m}$ thick Si layer below the modulators to represent the silicon-on-insulator (SOI) wafer handling layer; refer to the original and refined 2-D models in Fig. 9(a).

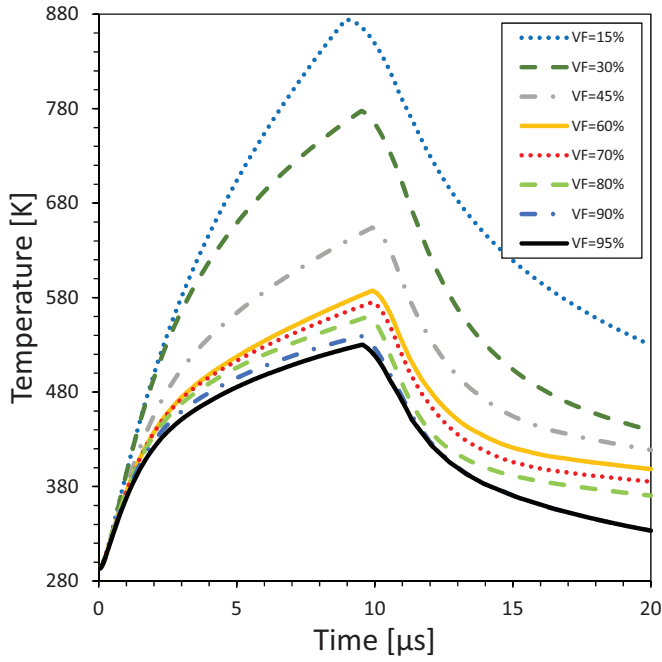


Fig. 8. Time-transient maximum temperature response of Si modulator waveguide for different SiO₂ material volume fractions (VF).

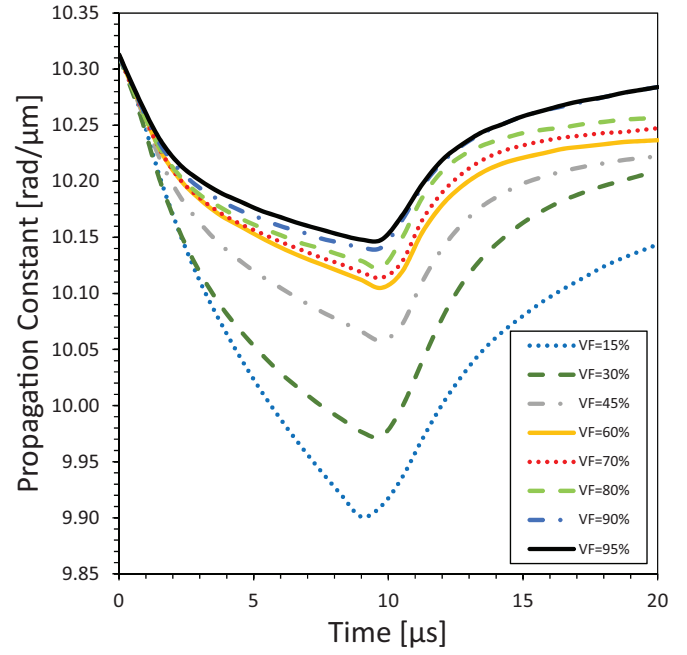
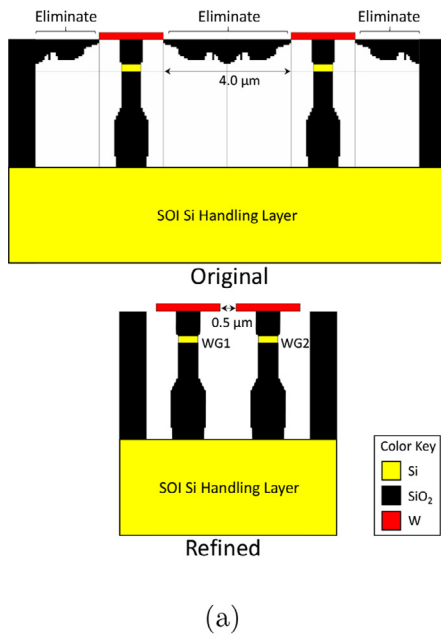


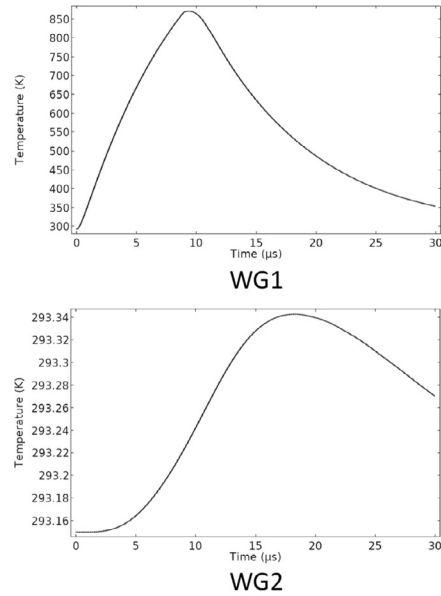
Fig. 10. Propagation constant of Si modulator waveguide for different SiO₂ material volume fractions (VF).

Such refined designs may be more amenable to existing SOI etching techniques [40] and exhibit minimal thermal cross-talk since modulator-to-modulator spacing (or pitch) is simply limited by the width of the base SiO₂ pillar supporting each waveguide; please note the different y-axis scales for the graphs in Fig. 9(b), which illustrate waveguide transient thermal response and minimal thermal cross-talk.

Regarding optical performance, the Si modulator response for each SiO₂ volume fraction design is computed following the procedure outlined in Section 2.3. The resulting propagation constant, β , for each design is shown in Fig. 10, and as the amount of SiO₂ material is reduced, the change in the propagation constant of the fundamental mode increases between the initial time and 10 μs indicating a faster change in the phase of the electromagnetic wave passing out-of-plane through the Si waveguide. This faster change



(a)



(b)

Fig. 9. (a) An array of two original 15% SiO₂ volume fraction design modulators, and a corresponding refined modulator array design for compact packaging and minimal thermal cross-talk. (b) Time-transient thermal response of Si waveguides 1 and 2, WG1 and WG2, respectively, over 30 μs with power applied to the W heater for WG1 for the first 10 μs. Note that the lowest boundary of the SOI Si handling layer is fixed to 293.15 K.

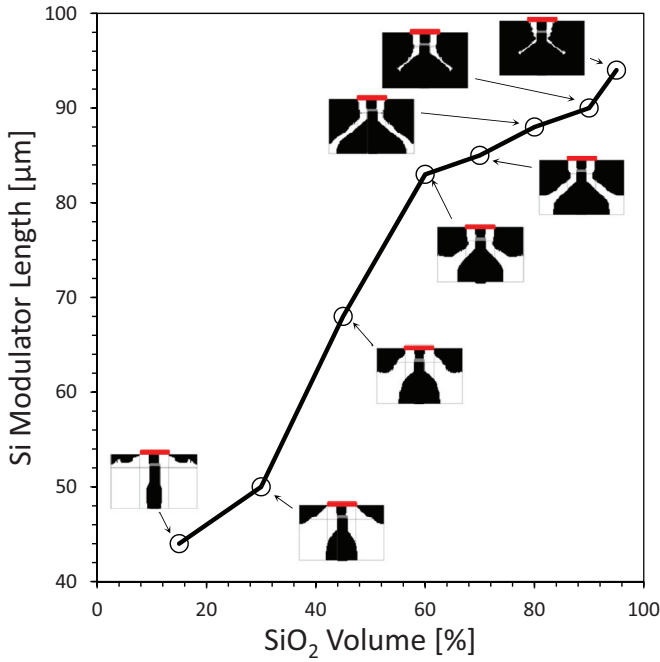


Fig. 11. Out-of-plane length of Si modulator waveguide for different SiO₂ material volume percentages.

of phase equates to a smaller device, as shown in Fig. 11, where the out-of-plane length of each Si modulator design is graphed based on the calculation in (20). Note that more substantial reductions in the Si modulator length are obtainable using lower volume fraction (60%, 45%, 30%, 15%) SiO₂ material designs. The voltage required to drive the heater is also length dependent and decreases with shorter lengths from 0.77 V to 0.53 V based on an analysis using the considered heater geometries and materials. Furthermore, while relatively simple modulator geometry is used in this study where the Si waveguide is positioned directly below the heater, the trend in Figs. 8–11 implies that modulators with different relative distances to a heat source, e.g. as shown in [41], may be further thermally and hence optically tuned by logically controlling

the etching of the surrounding SiO₂ material in combination with spatially optimizing the modulator length for compactness.

From a thermo-optic perspective, the preceding results and discussion indicate that shorter optimized modulator designs are feasible to achieve a 2π phase shift. However, practical limitations may exist when considering specific heater geometries and materials in terms of reliability, electromigration, and mean time to failure (MTTF). As an alternative, longer modulators may still be employed while also utilizing an optimized modulator topology to balance enhanced performance with MTTF. For example, the 15% SiO₂ volume fraction design in Fig. 8 can achieve the same maximum temperature as the 95% SiO₂ volume fraction design (assuming the same length) in one-fifth the time. Thus, higher temperature is not required to achieve a 2π phase shift assuming the same modulator length, and faster response instead becomes the leading performance benefit.

3.3. Extension to 3-D

The above results may be further explored in the context of a 3-D optimization example for a similar Si modulator with over-clad heater to understand end effects not captured in two dimensions. In this case, the same modulator cross-section geometry, as shown in Fig. 6, is considered with an out-of-plane, z-direction, length of 10 μm; the relatively short length is selected here to minimize computational cost while being sufficient to visualize and gain insight into the structure end effects from the time transient optimization. A one-quarter symmetry model is shown in Fig. 12 on the left side, where the total z-direction depth of the model includes one-half of the modulator length (i.e. 5 μm) plus an additional 3 μm of waveguide end length.

A total heater power of 50 mW is again applied with a fixed, 293.15 K, temperature boundary condition at the lowest $x - z$ surface of the model. The optimization results for a SiO₂ volume fraction of 30% is shown on the right in Fig. 12. The result shows similar trends to the what was found in 2-D, where a pillar of SiO₂ directly connecting the heater and waveguide is retained and the remaining SiO₂ is positioned near to the fixed SiO₂ pedestal. In Fig. 12, the waveguide centerline temperature at $t = 0.5 \mu s$ is superimposed on the optimization result as a line with y-direction height proportional to the temperature magnitude. Observe that at

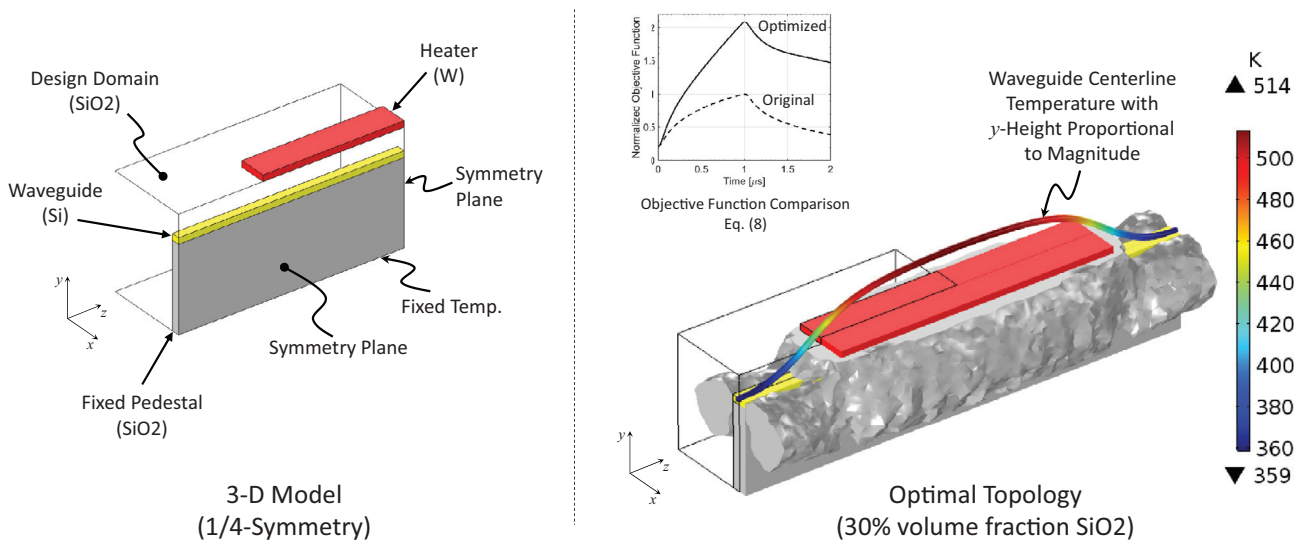


Fig. 12. 3-D optimization model (left) and optimization results for a SiO₂ volume fraction of 30% (right); note that the waveguide centerline temperature at $t = 0.5 \mu s$ is superimposed on the optimization result as a line colored by temperature with y-direction height proportional to the magnitude, and the inset image shows the normalized objective function before and after optimization.

the ends of the optimized structure the SiO₂ material is removed from the top of the waveguide. This material removal, along with the termination of the over-clad heater, does induce roll-off in the waveguide temperature. Thus, the calculation of out-of-plane modulator length necessary to achieve a 2π phase shift, as described in Section 2.3, may be appropriately augmented by incorporating a sufficient end length to account for such temperature effects.

4. Conclusions

In this work, an optimization formulation relevant to the design of Si modulator opto-electronic devices was proposed. Using transient adjoint variables computed by a time reversal finite element procedure, the sensitivity of the objective function was obtained. An initial benchmark numerical example elucidated the effect of thermal capacitance on an optimal structural design confirming the expected behavior of the optimization approach. Additional studies of a Si modulator with an over-clad metal heater were then presented, and the design results highlighted faster modulator temperature rise time with reduced out-of-plane length based on a subsequent optical analysis. Future optimization formulations may include thermal cross-talk in the objective function formulation. Practical considerations including fabrication constraints, modulator reliability, and three-dimensional geometry effects should also be incorporated into any associated design process. Nonetheless, by exploiting the availability of efficient transient finite element analysis, transient sensitivity analysis, and topology optimization, we have developed and demonstrated a scheme to enhance the time-transient thermal response of compact Si modulator opto-electronic devices. The method is readily extendable to a range of more complex Si modulator designs involving multiple waveguides for next-generation sensors.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Gil Ho Yoon: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Ercan M. Dede:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. **Tsuyoshi Nomura:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Paul Schmalenberg:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing.

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