SPLIT-FIELD FINITE-DIFFERENCE TIME-DOMAIN SCHEME FOR KERR-TYPE NONLINEAR PERIODIC MEDIA

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Abstract—The Split-Field Finite-Difference Time-Domain (SF-FDTD) formulation is extended to periodic structures with Kerr-type nonlinearity. The optical Kerr effect is introduced by an iterative fixed-point procedure for solving the nonlinear system of equations. Using the method, formation of solitons inside homogenous nonlinear media is numerically observed. Furthermore, the performance of the approach with more complex photonic systems, such as high-reflectance coatings and binary phase gratings with high nonlinearity is investigated. The static and the dynamic behavior of the Kerr effect is studied and compared to previous works.

1. INTRODUCTION

The history of the nonlinear optics goes back as early as 1875 when Kerr [1] demonstrated the birefringence phenomenon in optically isotropic media under the effect of a DC biasing electric field. The same phenomenon takes place also due to the incoming field itself, in which case one speaks about the AC, or optical, Kerr effect [2, 3]. Mathematically, the Kerr effect can be described by the third-order nonlinear susceptibility $\chi^{(3)}_0$, which is non-negligible in a wide variety

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of commonly used materials that can be integrated and used, e.g., in microelectronics, fiber optics, or optical waveguides in general. Even though the Kerr effect, being an intensity-dependent contribution to the electric permittivity, looks simple at first sight, its overall effect is actually quite complex. For example, different parts of an optical pulse are unequally affected by the Kerr-effect. One of the consequences of this is the optical soliton [2, 4–6], that arises from the balancing between the dispersion and the Kerr effect. Other implications of the effect include all-optical ultrafast applications, such as waveguides that combine linear media with nonlinear media [7] or all-optical switching devices utilizing nonlinear material [8]. In certain circumstances, periodic assemblies of nonlinear materials can exhibit a “latching” action, or bistability [9], rather like an electronic bistable logic circuit. The device operation is controlled by the light beam itself and it has been found to possess exotic properties such as the zero-\(n\) gap. This effect is achieved by means of alternating positive-index and negative-index materials. It was found that this zero-\(n\) gap is robust for scaling and omnidirectional for oblique incidence, which makes this type of structures very useful [10–14]. The properties of nonlinear materials and their effect in periodic structures have been also investigated for a wide range of applications [15].

Even though the third-order nonlinearity is relatively weak in most materials, especially if short propagation distances and relatively weak incident-light intensities are considered, confinement of the field in optical nanostructures may lead to enhancement of the effect [2, 16]. Hence optical devices based on the third-order nonlinearity may offer an attractive alternative solution for integrated optoelectronics [17–20]. Unfortunately, numerical modeling of such devices with non-negligible nonlinearity is very challenging, since techniques based on, e.g., the solution of the Nonlinear Schrödinger Equations (NLSE) [21] are not accurate enough, and rigorous methods like Finite Element Method (FEM) and the Finite-Difference Time-Domain (FDTD) must be used.

FDTD was introduced by Yee [22] in 1966, and it has been proven to be one of the most powerful numerical techniques in the modeling of micro and nanoscale optical devices [4, 23–27]. For example, the analysis of periodic structures can be easily performed by means of the Periodic Boundary Conditions (PBCs) if the input plane wave is incident to the structure normally. In the general case of oblique incidence, however, the phase shift between the periods must be considered. This can be done, e.g., by the multiple grid approach [28] or the Split-Field (SF) method [29]. These techniques are based on the field transformation to eliminate the phase shift (time delay) between adjacent periods [30], and recently they have been widely used in the
analysis of periodic structures [31–33].

Even though classical FDTD formulation has been extended to nonlinear media [4, 5, 23, 24, 34–36], the techniques to include nonlinearity in the algorithm are not directly applicable to the Split-Field formulation. In this paper, we present such an extension to the two-dimensional (2-D) SF-FDTD scheme, which admits efficient numerical modeling of one-dimensional (1-D) periodic structures with Kerr-type nonlinearity, even under oblique illumination. We first derive the theory for the split-field formulation with third-order nonlinearity, after which we present numerical examples for various types of structures.

2. THEORY

In this section, the basis for the SF-FDTD method and the implementation of the different add-ons are fully detailed. In the following discussion, we assume a structure that is periodic in the x direction, and that the input light field is a plane wave with wave vector \( \mathbf{k}_{\text{inc}} \). We assume oblique incidence such that the wave vector forms an angle \( \theta_0 \) with the positive z axis (see Fig. 1). In practice, the periodicity of the problem is introduced by applying periodic boundary conditions (PBC). Even though we restrict to one-dimensionally periodic structures for simplicity, extension to the general case is expected to be done straightforward (c.f. the split-field formulation for linear media in [32]). We also assume Uniaxial Perfectly Matched Layer [37, 38] (UPML) for the truncation in the z direction. The input plane wave source is excited in the structure following the schemes proposed in [23, 39] for both continuous and time-limited pulsed waves.

2.1. Basic Concepts of SF-FDTD

Let us next recall the derivation of SF-FDTD. We assume non-magnetic and non-conducting media, in which case Maxwell’s curl equations take on the forms

\[
\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\mu_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t}, \quad (1)
\]

\[
\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}, \quad (2)
\]

where \( \mu_0 \) is the permeability of free space, and \( \mathbf{D} \) and \( \mathbf{H} \) are the time domain electric flux density and the magnetic field, respectively. It is convenient to split the electric flux density to the linear and nonlinear
Figure 1. Scheme of a 2D computational space.

parts with

\[ D = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r E + F_{NL}, \quad (3) \]

where \( \varepsilon_0 \) is the permittivity of free space, \( \varepsilon_r \) denotes the relative permittivity, and \( F_{NL} \) is the nonlinear polarization. Consequently, Eq. (2) can be rewritten as

\[ \nabla \times H = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + J_{NL}, \quad (4) \]

where \( J_{NL} \) is the nonlinear polarization current density defined by \( \frac{\partial F_{NL}}{\partial t} \).

Since we have assumed a plane-wave illumination from oblique incidence, and the structure is periodic in the \( x \) direction, the field everywhere contains a linear \( x \)-dependent phase term \( \exp(\beta x) \), where \( \beta = \frac{\omega}{c} \sin \theta_0 \) is the \( x \) component of the wave vector in the phasor domain, \( \omega \) is the angular frequency, and \( c \) is the speed of light in vacuum. In the SF formulation, we eliminate the effect of such a phase term using the transformation

\[ \mathbf{P} = \tilde{\mathbf{E}} e^{\beta x}, \quad (5) \]

\[ \mathbf{Q} = \mu_0 c \tilde{\mathbf{H}} e^{\beta x}, \quad (6) \]

where \( \mathbf{P} \) and \( \mathbf{Q} \) are the transformed vectors in the phasor domain. Analogous transformation can also be applied to \( \mathbf{J}_{NL} \) by introducing the new transformed vector variable \( \mathbf{G}_{NL} \):

\[ \mathbf{G}_{NL} = \mu_0 c \tilde{\mathbf{J}}_{NL} e^{\beta x} \quad (7) \]

Substituting Eqs. (5)–(7) into Maxwell’s equations, the basis for the SF-FDTD can be expressed in its time-domain component-wise
form
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_x}{\partial t} = -\kappa \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial z} - \kappa G_{NL}^{x},
\]
(8)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial t} = \kappa \left( \frac{\partial Q_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial x} \right) + \sin \theta_0 \frac{\kappa}{c} \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial t} - \kappa G_{NL}^{y},
\]
(9)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial x} - \sin \theta_0 \frac{\kappa}{c} \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial t} - \kappa G_{NL}^{z},
\]
(10)

where \( P \) and \( Q \) are time-domain vectors, \( \kappa = \varepsilon^{-1} \), and
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_x}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial z},
\]
(11)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P_x}{\partial z} - \sin \theta_0 \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial t},
\]
(12)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial P_y}{\partial x} + \sin \theta_0 \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial t},
\]
(13)

Following [29, 39], we next eliminate the time-derivative terms \( \partial / \partial t \leftrightarrow j \omega \) by splitting the field variables:
\[
P_x = P_{xa} - c^2 \mu_0 \kappa F_{NL}^{x} e^{jkx},
\]
(14)
\[
P_y = P_{ya} + \sin \theta_0 \kappa Q_z - c^2 \mu_0 \kappa F_{NL}^{y} e^{jkx},
\]
(15)
\[
P_z = P_{za} - \sin \theta_0 \kappa Q_y - c^2 \mu_0 \kappa F_{NL}^{z} e^{jkx},
\]
(16)
\[
Q_x = Q_{xa},
\]
(17)
\[
Q_y = Q_{ya} - \sin \theta_0 P_z,
\]
(18)
\[
Q_z = Q_{za} + \sin \theta_0 P_y,
\]
(19)

Finally, substituting Eqs. (14)–(19) into the left-hand of Eqs. (8)–(13) results in equations for \( ^a \) fields:
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_{xa}}{\partial t} = -\kappa \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial z},
\]
(20)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_{ya}}{\partial t} = \kappa \left( \frac{\partial Q_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial x} \right),
\]
(21)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_{za}}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial x},
\]
(22)

and
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_x}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial z},
\]
(23)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P_x}{\partial z},
\]
(24)
\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial P_y}{\partial y},
\]
(25)
The periodic boundary conditions are now simply applied by forcing the field values at grid locations \((x = \Lambda + \Delta u)\) and \((x = \Delta u)\) to equal those at \((x = 3\Delta u)\) and \((x = \Lambda - \Delta u)\). The constant \(\Delta u\) is defined in Subsection 2.2 and it is related with the spatial resolution of SF-FDTD.

In the next subsection, we discuss the implementation of the Lorentz linear contribution in the permittivity and the polarization terms in Eqs. (14)–(16) for the specific case of third-order nonlinear media.

### 2.2. Kerr Model in SF-FDTD

In general, the third-order nonlinear polarization for the Kerr nonlinear effect is given either by

\[
F_{\text{Kerr}}(t) = \epsilon_0 \chi_0^{(3)} |E|^2 E,
\]

where \(\chi_0^{(3)}\) is the third-order dielectric susceptibility, or, equivalently, by

\[
J_{\text{Kerr}}(t) = \frac{\partial F_{\text{Kerr}}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \epsilon_0 \chi_0^{(3)} |E|^2 E.
\]

Now, in SF-FDTD, we have [32]

\[
PP^* = EE^* = |E|^2.
\]

Further, due to the linear relation between \(J_{\text{Kerr}}\) and \(E\), the transformation into the split-field domain is straightforward:

\[
\mathbf{\tilde{G}}_K = \mu_0 c \mathbf{\tilde{J}}_K e^{jk_x x} = \frac{j \omega}{c} \chi_0^{(3)} |\mathbf{\tilde{E}}|^2 \tilde{P},
\]

If we denote the transformed linear polarization current in the Lorentz model [33] by \(\mathbf{\tilde{G}}_L\), we may now reformulate Eqs. (8)–(10) in Lorentz media and with the new contribution from the Kerr-type nonlinearity discussed above:

\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_x}{\partial t} = -\kappa \left[ \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial z} + G_{Lx} + \frac{1}{c} \chi_0^{(3)} \frac{\partial |E_x|^2 P_x}{\partial t} \right],
\]

\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_y}{\partial t} = \kappa \left[ \left( \frac{\partial Q_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{1}{c} \sin \theta_0 \frac{\partial Q_z}{\partial t} - G_{Ly} - \frac{1}{c} \chi_0^{(3)} \frac{\partial |E_y|^2 P_y}{\partial t} \right],
\]

\[
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial P_z}{\partial t} = \kappa \left[ \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{c} \sin \theta_0 \frac{\partial Q_y}{\partial t} - G_{Lz} - \frac{1}{c} \chi_0^{(3)} \frac{\partial |E_z|^2 P_z}{\partial t} \right].
\]

For updating the equations, the Kerr terms must be considered after updating the “a” fields, since Kerr effect requires solving a nonlinear
system of coupled equations that depends on $P$. Hence, Eqs. (14)–(16) should be reformulated as follows:

$$P_x = P_{xa} - \chi_0^3 \kappa |E_x|^2 P_x,$$

$$P_y = P_{ya} + \sin \theta_0 \kappa Q_z - \chi_0^3 \kappa |E_y|^2 P_y,$$

$$P_z = P_{za} - \sin \theta_0 \kappa Q_y - \chi_0^3 \kappa |E_z|^2 P_z,$$

where $P_{ma}$, with $m = x, y$ or $z$ are given by Eqs. (20)–(22) in nondispersive media and by the following update equations

$$P_{xa}|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k}^{e+1} = P_{xa}|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k}^e - \kappa \left[ S \left( Q_y|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} - Q_y|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k-\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right) + c \Delta t G_{Lx}|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right],$$

$$P_{ya}|_{i,k}^{e+1} = P_{ya}|_{i,k}^e + \kappa \left[ S \left( Q_x|_{i,k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} - Q_x|_{i,k-\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right) - Q_z|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} - c \Delta t G_{Ly}|_{i,k}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right],$$

$$P_{za}|_{i,k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+1} = P_{za}|_{i,k+\frac{1}{2}}^e + \kappa \left[ S \left( Q_y|_{i+\frac{1}{2},k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} - Q_y|_{i-\frac{1}{2},k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right) + c \Delta t G_{Lz}|_{i,k+\frac{1}{2}}^{e+\frac{1}{2}} \right],$$

in Lorentz media, respectively. In these equations, $S = c \Delta t / \Delta u$, being $\Delta u$ and $\Delta t$ the spatial and time resolutions respectively. The integers $i, k$ denote the position of sample points in $x$ and $z$ axis whereas the integer $e$ localizes a determined time step. The update formula for $G_L$ is fully detailed in [33].

The update step of the total fields given in Eqs. (14)–(19) can be reformulated removing the temporal dependencies properly and using only the “a” fields:

$$P_z = \frac{P_{za} - \kappa \sin \theta_0 Q_{ya}}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi_0^3 |E_z|^2 - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)} = C_z \hat{P}_{za},$$

$$Q_y = Q_{ya} - \sin \theta_0 P_z,$$

$$P_x = \frac{P_{xa}}{1 + \kappa \chi_0^3 |E_x|^2} = C_x P_{xa},$$

$$P_y = \frac{P_{ya} + \kappa \sin \theta_0 Q_{za}}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi_0^3 |E_y|^2 - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)} = C_y \hat{P}_{ya},$$

$$Q_z = Q_{za} + \sin \theta_0 P_y,$$
where $C_m$ are the update coefficients defined in

\[
C_x = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \chi^{(3)}_0 I_x},
\]

\[
C_y = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi^{(3)}_0 I_y - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)},
\]

\[
C_z = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi^{(3)}_0 I_z - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)},
\]

and

\[
I = |E|^2.
\]

To update $I$ in each time step, a fixed point iteration has to be performed. The general equation for such a fixed point iteration is $I_{p+1} = P_p (P_p)^* I_p$ that can be extended for each space coordinate

\[
I_{x|p+1} = C_{x|p} (C_{x|p})^* |P_{xa}|^2,
\]

\[
I_{y|p+1} = C_{y|p} (C_{y|p})^* |\hat{P}_{ya}|^2,
\]

\[
I_{z|p+1} = C_{z|p} (C_{z|p})^* |\hat{P}_{za}|^2,
\]

where

\[
C_{x|p} = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \chi^{(3)}_0 I_{x|p}},
\]

\[
C_{y|p} = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi^{(3)}_0 I_{y|p} - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)},
\]

\[
C_{z|p} = \frac{1}{1 + \kappa \left( \chi^{(3)}_0 I_{z|p} - \sin^2 \theta_0 \right)},
\]

are updated in each iteration. Note that in this case, the subindex $p$ is an integer related with the iteration step for the fixed point iteration process, not for the spatial dimension. The fixed point iteration, which requires the most computational time of the updating process, can be skipped when the Kerr effect is negligible. The convergence of the fixed point iteration is proven using Banach’s fixed point theorem [40] that, in the case of normal incidence, takes on the form

\[
\left( \epsilon_r + \chi^{(3)}_0 I \right)^2 \chi^{(3)}_0 \leq \frac{\epsilon_r^3}{2}.
\]

The amplitude of the electric field $E$ has to be limited to an upper value that is related with the amplitude of the third-order susceptibility
\( \chi^\text{(3)}_0 \) to assure convergence of the fixed point iteration. Regarding the iterative process, an experimental procedure was done in order to establish an upper limit in the number of iteration. Here, the maximum number of iteration has been fixed to 30 steps achieving good results near the upper limit of convergence of the method [40].

3. RESULTS

In this section, we discuss the results derived from the analysis of nonlinear media. Firstly, we show simulations of temporal solitons, and compare them with results presented in the literature [4–6, 23]. Secondly, we analyze both DC and AC Kerr effects by means of the reflectance analysis of different stacks of layers with nonlinear characteristics. Finally, we illustrate the full potential of the SF-FDTD scheme with the analysis of binary phase gratings made of nonlinear strips, employing both the normal and oblique incidences.

3.1. Simulation of Temporal Solitons

To validate the results given by the method introduced in the preceding section, we study the interaction of a pulsed optical-signal source switched on at \( t = 0 \) at the surface \( z = 0 \) of a material having linear dispersive properties. The source is defined as a bandpass Gaussian pulse with zero DC component and a planar wavefront perpendicular to the direction of propagation is considered. The pulse has a maximum absolute amplitude of 1.1 V/m with a carrier frequency \( f_c = 1.37 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ Hz} \left( \lambda_0 = 2.19 \text{ \mu m} \right) \). Approximately three cycles of the optical carrier were contained within the pulse envelope. To demonstrate soliton formation over short propagations spans of less than 150 \( \mu \text{m} \), we chose the parameters following the work of Joseph et al. [4]:

- Linear dispersion: \( \epsilon_s = 5.25, \quad \epsilon_\infty = 2.25, \quad \omega_L = 4 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}, \quad \gamma_L = 2 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1} \).
- Nonlinear material: \( \chi^\text{(3)}_0 = 7 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ (V/m)}^{-2} \).

We chose the spatial resolution to be 52.5 nm (\( \approx \lambda_0/40 \)), whereas the time resolution \( \Delta t \) was obtained by employing the so called “Courant condition”, which gives \( \Delta t = \Delta u/(\sqrt{2}c_0) = 129.64 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ ns} \).

Figure 2 depicts the results of the dispersive and nonlinear SF-FDTD computations. In Fig. 2(a) the computed pulse for the linear Lorentz dispersive is graphed at \( t = 2000\Delta t \) and 4000\( \Delta t \). It is clear that the assumed linear dispersion caused substantial broadening of the computed pulse along with diminishing amplitude.
and carrier frequency modulation, being greater on the leading side of the pulse, and minor on the trailing side of the pulse. Fig. 2(b) shows the pulse propagation when the Kerr effect is included in the simulations. As can be seen from the figure, a temporal soliton and also a smaller-magnitude precursor-pulse, that is identified as transient third-harmonic energy, are formed. These results reproduce those presented in the literature [4–6].

### 3.2. Electro-Optic Kerr Effect

Consider next a superposition of a DC electric field $E_{\text{ext}}$ and linearly polarized optical field, with its plane of vibration in the $y$ direction, propagating in Kerr-type medium. Solving the nonlinear wave equation for this case, it is possible to describe accurately the behavior of the electric field using the concept of the effective nonlinear refractive index of the form

$$n_{\text{eff}} = n_0 + 3\chi^{(3)} E_{\text{ext}}^2 + \frac{3\chi^{(3)} E_y^2}{4},$$

(a) Linear dispersive Lorentz media. (b) Nonlinear Lorentz and Kerr media.

**Figure 2.** Snapshots of the electric field $\Re \{E_y\}$ in different kind of mediums detected from left to right at times $t = 2000\Delta t$ (thick line) and $t = 4000\Delta t$ (thin line) respectively. (a) Linear dispersive Lorentz media. (b) Nonlinear Lorentz and Kerr media.
where \( n_0 \) is a linear refractive index of the medium. The mathematical process in order to obtain (55) is fully detailed in [16]. In Eq. (55), the first two terms describe the linear response and the DC Kerr effect, respectively, whereas the last term gives us the familiar all-optical AC Kerr nonlinear response. In the following, we analyze the static effect with low optical-field intensity.

We first apply the SF-FDTD to a short thin-film Bragg-type reflector, i.e., a stack of layers with \( \lambda/4 \) optical thickness, and with alternating high and low refractive indices (see Fig. 3). The nonlinear material is located in the high refractive index material and its value has been chosen in order to trigger the nonlinearity following the scheme detailed in the work of Pinto et al. [41]. In FDTD computations and nonlinear media is very common to scale the susceptibility terms in order to trigger the nonlinearity with lower intensities reducing

![Figure 3. Scheme of a high-reflection coating.](image)

**Table 1.** Setup parameters of SF-FDTD for results in Fig. 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \lambda_0 ) (nm)</th>
<th>( \Delta u ) (m)</th>
<th>( \Delta t ) (s)</th>
<th>( r_x ) (cells)</th>
<th>( r_z ) (cells)</th>
<th>( r_{PML} ) (cells)</th>
<th>( e_{steps} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>( \lambda_0/80 )</td>
<td>( \Delta u/\sqrt{2c_0} )</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.** Parameters of the Bragg reflector with nonlinear materials (static analysis).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n_H )</th>
<th>( n_L )</th>
<th>( n_{Glass} )</th>
<th>( \chi_0^{(3)} ) (m/V) (^2)</th>
<th>( \lambda_S ) (nm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>633</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4. Reflectance for two high reflection coatings. (a) Air \( |HL|^{2}G \). (b) Air\( |HL|^{3}G \).

roundoff errors \([4, 23, 34, 35]\). The SF-FDTD setup for this experiment is summarized in Table 1, whereas the physical values of the parameters are listed Table 2.

Figure 4 shows the reflectance of the structure. The number of periods are two for Fig. 4(a) and three for Fig. 4(b). In both cases the numerical samples obtained by SF-FDTD are compared with the theoretical curves obtained by the Characteristic Matrix (CM) method detailed in \([42]\). One can see from the figure that the external DC electric field controls the amplitude-reflectance, as well as the lower and upper cut-offs of the band edges. When the amplitude of the DC field becomes considerably greater, the number of secondary lobes and their amplitude become also relevant. In both cases the numerical and theoretical values are close.

3.3. Dynamic Kerr Effect

Let us next repeat the analysis of the Bragg-type reflector discussed in the preceding subsection, but now with no external DC field and with considerable intensity of the optical field. To work with realistic intensities, the physical parameters have been modified. The new
parameters regarding SF-FDTD setup and physical values are listed in Table 3 and Table 4 respectively. Here the third-order susceptibility of both materials is non-zero.

Figures 5(a)–(f) show the reflectance as a function of the parameter $\lambda_S/\lambda$ for the two-period case, whereas Figs. 5(g)–(l) represent the results with three periods. In both cases, as the input source intensity becomes greater the differences between SF-FDTD (circles) results and those obtained by means of the CM method (solid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\lambda_0$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\Delta u$ (m)</th>
<th>$\Delta t$ (s)</th>
<th>$r_x$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_z$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_{PML}$ (cells)</th>
<th>$e_{steps}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>316.5</td>
<td>$\lambda_0/200$</td>
<td>$\Delta u/(\sqrt{2}c_0)$</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Parameters of the Bragg-reflector with nonlinear materials (dynamic analysis) [2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polymer</th>
<th>Fused Silica</th>
<th>Glass</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$n_H$</td>
<td>$\chi^{(3)}_H$ (m/V)$^2$</td>
<td>$n_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>5.6$\cdot$10$^{-16}$</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5. Reflectance for two high reflection coatings with different input source intensities. (a)–(h) Air$|HL|^2$G. (g)–(l) Air$|HL|^3$G.
line) also tend to be relevant. The solid curves are obtained considering an effective refractive index in the third term of Eq. (55) and neglecting the second term. This refractive index is the input parameter in CM. As the input source intensity increases the dynamic behaviour related with the nonlinear materials also grows and thus the differences between the dynamic analysis performed by SF-FDTD and the static performed by CM.

### 3.4. Binary Phase Gratings

Finally, we turn to investigate structures that are periodic in lateral direction, namely binary phase gratings, illustrated in Fig. 6. Throughout the analysis, we assume 50% fill factor, and the nonlinear material is assumed to be in the pillars only. As is logical in SF-FDTD, only one period is needed in the simulations. The grating parameters are given in Table 5.

Figure 7 shows the zeroth-order ($\eta_0$) and the first-orders ($\eta_{\pm 1}$) efficiencies with different input intensities. The efficiency curves are slightly modified as the input source intensity is increased. Of course, even higher intensities would lead to more radical effects but, in this particular example, we kept the intensities in realistic values for assumed polymer material to show what kind of effect can be expected to be observed in the practice.

![Figure 6. Binary grating scheme.](image)

**Table 5.** Setup parameters of SF-FDTD for results in Fig. 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\lambda_0$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\Delta u$ (m)</th>
<th>$\Delta t$ (s)</th>
<th>$r_x$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_z$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_{PML}$ (cells)</th>
<th>$e_{steps}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>633</td>
<td>$\lambda_0/60$</td>
<td>$\Delta u/\sqrt{2c_0}$</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7. Diffraction efficiencies with different input source intensities. (a) Zero order. (b) First order. Parameters: $\Delta/\lambda_0 = 2.5$, $n_g = 2.48$, $n_s = 1.47$, $\chi_0^{(3)} = 5.6 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ (m/V)}^2$.

Figure 8. Diffraction efficiencies with different input source intensities. (a) Minus first-order. (b) Zero-order. (c) First-order. Parameters: $\Lambda/\lambda_0 = 20$, $n_g = 2.81$, $n_s = 1.47$, $\chi_0^{(3)} = 5.6 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ (m/V)}^2$. 
Figure 9. Electric Field distribution ($E_y$) in MV/m as a function of the space for a binary phase grating. Parameters: $\Lambda/\lambda_0 = 20$, $h/\lambda_0 = 1.8$, $n_g = 2.81$, $n_s = 1.47$, $\chi^{(3)}_0 = 5.6 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ (m/V)}^2$.

Table 6. Setup parameters of SF-FDTD for results in Figs. 8–9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\lambda_0$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\Delta u$ (m)</th>
<th>$\Delta t$ (s)</th>
<th>$r_x$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_z$ (cells)</th>
<th>$r_{PML}$ (cells)</th>
<th>$e_{steps}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>633</td>
<td>$\lambda_0/30$</td>
<td>0.567$\Delta u/(c_0)$</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also performed the analysis with oblique angle of incidence for a binary grating with period $\Lambda = 20\lambda$ at 30°. The diffraction efficiencies are shown in Fig. 8. As with the normal incidence, the influence of the nonlinear material is relatively small with the assumed combination of the input-field intensity and the third-order susceptibility.

To further illustrate the potential of the SF-FDTD approach, a distribution of the electric field is also shown in Fig. 9. As can be seen from the figure, the SF-FDTD can easily perform simulations with large periods without excess computational burden, which is not the case with the standard Yee FDTD scheme that requires inclusion of several periods in the computation. Namely, as is well known, the simulation time and required memory grows extremely rapidly as a function of the dimensions of the computation grid, and hence the use of SF-FDTD approach in the analysis of laterally periodic structures is strongly preferred over the classical FDTD.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

In this paper, we extended the Split-Field Finite-Difference Time-Domain to periodic optical media with third-order nonlinearity. This enables accurate modeling of the AC Kerr effect, which is particularly important in numerous areas of nonlinear optics. In this method, the third-order susceptibility is included using the concept of the
polarization current that requires solving of a nonlinear system of equations. Hence a fixed-point iterative procedure is needed to compute the components of the transformed split-field variables related with the electric field.

We validated the method numerically by comparisons to already-known structures and phenomena, including temporal solitons in homogeneous medium and the DC Kerr effect in short Bragg-type reflector. We then showed the efficiency of the method by analyzing the Bragg-reflector with AC Kerr effect and, finally, by simulations of binary phase gratings with nonlinearity, in both normal and oblique incidence.

The authors are currently working on extending the approach to anisotropic materials. The computational resources required by the SF-FDTD in anisotropic media must be considered. Therefore authors are also working on acceleration strategies based on multi-core CPUs and GPU computing.

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