

Band-gap modulation of two-dimensional saturable absorbers for solid-state lasers

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Received December 24, 2014; revised February 10, 2015; accepted February 12, 2015;
posted February 13, 2015 (Doc. ID 231453); published March 16, 2015

Due to the manifestation of fascinating physical phenomena and materials science, two-dimensional (2D) materials have recently attracted enormous research interest with respect to the fields of electronics and optoelectronics. There have been in-depth investigations of the nonlinear properties with respect to saturable absorption, and many 2D materials show potential application in optical switches for passive pulsed lasers. However, the Eigen band-gap determines the responding wavelength band and constrains the applications. In this paper, based on band-gap engineering, some different types of 2D broadband saturable absorbers are reviewed in detail, including molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂), vanadium dioxide (VO₂), graphene, and the Bi₂Se₃ topological insulator. The results suggest that the band-gap modification should play important roles in 2D broadband saturable materials and can provide some inspiration for the exploration and design of 2D nanodevices. © 2015 Chinese Laser Press

OCIS codes: (140.0140) Lasers and laser optics; (140.3540) Lasers, Q-switched; (140.3380) Laser materials; (140.3538) Lasers, pulsed.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1364/PRJ.3.000A10>

1. INTRODUCTION

Lasers, since first demonstrated by a ruby crystal in 1960 [1], have shown tremendous progress so far. On account of the advantages of large pulse energy, short pulse duration, and high peak power, pulse lasers, including mode-locking and Q-switching, receive more widespread attention [2,3]. Pulsed lasers with the pulse width from nanosecond to subpicosecond scales play a key role in the industrial machining, remote sensing, and military defense areas [4]. Ultrashort femtosecond lasers have significant applications in the fields of the in-situ detection, complex reaction dynamics, medical survey, and telecommunication [3]. Passive pulse modulation could be operated with compact and cost-effective structures, such that it has become an influential research direction in the laser field. Taking advantage of saturable absorption of saturable absorbers, that is part of the third-order nonlinear properties, passive pulse modulation in the Q-switched or mode-locking lasers could be easily implemented. Traditional saturable absorbers, such as ion-doped crystals (Cr:YAG, Cr:ZnSe, V:YAG, and so on) [5–7], GaAs [8], and color-center crystals (for example F₂:LiF) [9], are wavelength-sensitive and are only applied in their respective corresponding wavelength bands. Although the commercial semiconductor saturable absorber mirrors (SESAMs) could be fabricated for the specific wavelength from 0.4 to 2.5 μm by using different semiconductor material systems [2,10], the relatively complex structural design may increase the product cost and the difficulty of preparation. In addition, the quasi-phase-matching technique in optical superlattice, which is feasible for a wide wavelength range as long as it is in the transparent spectral region of the optical superlattice material, is also a promising method to obtain passive mode-locking lasers [11–13].

Nevertheless, this technique requires the high-efficiency generation of second-harmonic generation and elaborate design of the resonant cavity and the second-harmonic crystal. Therefore, the development of low-cost and robust broadband saturable absorbers is still an intense focus of research nowadays [2].

Graphene, as the representative of the two-dimensional (2D) materials, since found by K. Geim and K. S. Novoselov, has profoundly promoted and broadened the research areas of 2D materials in the fields of electronics and optoelectronics due to an abundance of fantastic physics [14–23]. With in-depth studies, many other novel 2D materials are discovered and are brought into people's horizons, such as transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) (typically MoS₂, MoSe₂, WS₂, and so on) [16,17,19,24,25], transition metal oxides (for instance MoO₃ and TiO₂) [17,24,26], topological insulators (Bi₂Se₃, Bi₂Te₃, and Sb₂Te₃) [16,17,24,27], as well as silicene [28], germanane [16,28], black phosphorus [29,30], and other graphene analogues (typically *h*-BN) [19,24]. For the major 2D materials, the layered structure results in the strong in-plane coupling and the weak van der Waals coupling between layers. Therefore monolayer or few-layer 2D perfect samples could be easily fabricated by mechanical exfoliation or chemical exfoliation [18,31]. In addition, aiming at the growth habits and atomic arrangements for different 2D materials, many more efforts are made to explore the economical and practical growth methods, such as chemical vapor deposition, and epitaxial growth on adaptive substrates [21,25]. The layered 2D materials exhibit numerous exotic physical, chemical, and mechanical properties such that they are rapidly developed. Many potential functional applications in terms of 2D materials in some aspects will be realized in the near future,

including optical modulators, photodetectors, logic transistors, high-frequency transistors, energy storage, and sensor devices [16–18,24,31].

Most 2D semiconductor materials show a simple two energy band structure of the conduction band and the valence band. Light that is of higher energy than the gap energy can excite carriers from the valence band to the conduction band. If the excitation has stronger intensity, all possible initial states are depleted and the final states are partially occupied in accordance with the Pauli blocking effect such that the absorption will be saturated [2]. Thus the 2D semiconductor materials give some opportunities for the fabrication of cost-effective and flexible broadband saturable absorbers, and some 2D materials have realized this goal [4,32–34]. Saturable absorption is the modulation of nonlinear absorption. However, the bandgap of a semiconductor determines the responding wavelength and every semiconductor has its specialized bandgap. Based on the photoelectric effect, the semiconductors materials with a narrow bandgap have broad responding wavelength bands. Therefore, besides the narrow bandgap, for 2D materials such as graphene, the modulation of the bandgap should be important, especially for the materials with large bandgaps such as MoS₂ [13,35]. In this review, what is discussed will mainly concentrate on the state-of-the-art research exploration and development about the saturable absorbers for several 2D materials. The content consists of the band-gap modification by impurity of MoS₂, band-gap modulation by phase transition of VO₂, and broadband modulation by inherent bandgaps for graphene and Bi₂Se₃ topological insulator. This work can show some guiding designing functions for the investigation of other 2D layered optoelectronic materials.

2. BAND-GAP ENGINEERING FOR MoS₂

Layered MoS₂, a typical representative of the layered TMDCs family, is composed of the sandwiches combined by van der Waals interactions, and each sandwich consists of covalently bound S–Mo–S trilayers with two hexagonal layers of S atoms and an intermediate hexagonal plane of Mo atoms [17,25,36–38]. The monolayer MoS₂ has a direct band-gap at the *K* point of the Brillouin zone with a gap of 1.8 eV (0.7 μm), and the bulk MoS₂ is of an indirect band-gap between the Γ point (valence band) and *K* point (conduction band) of the Brillouin zone with a gap of ranging from 0.86 eV (1.4 μm) to 1.29 eV (1.0 μm) [39–44]. Besides the change of thickness, the bandgap of MoS₂ was also modified by the other engineering technologies, such as the external electric field and the external strain [45–48]. Atomic-layered MoS₂ exhibits intriguing physical properties distinct from its bulk state, for example, the dramatical increasing of luminescence quantum efficiency for MoS₂ from the bulk state to single layer. Therefore, layered MoS₂ attracts more interest in the fabrication of ultrathin and flexible nanoelectronic devices [16,25], and was brought into various research fields, such as lubrication, hydrodesulfurization catalysis, supercapacitors, and field-effect transistors [36–38,49].

Monolayer MoS₂ has been proven with strong optical response, such as enhanced photon absorption and large photocurrent caused by van Hove singularities or band nesting [50,51]. In 2012, using the spatially and temporally resolved pump-probe technique with a 390 nm pump source and a

660 nm probe source, R. Wang *et al.* measured and discussed the ultrafast carrier dynamics of atomically thin MoS₂ [52]. One year later, more nonlinear investigations were carried out [53–55], and it is significant that ultrafast saturable absorption of MoS₂ nanosheets was demonstrated around 800 nm by K. P. Wang *et al.* [56].

Most of the studies were in pursuit of the high-quality layered MoS₂ samples in order to obtain remarkable electronic and optical properties [37–39]; however, the generation of defects, which deviate from a perfect crystal structure, was inevitable in the preparation of MoS₂ samples. The probable defects could localize electronic states and change the energy level, leading to some fantastic physical phenomena, such as the Mott transition and Anderson localization [57].

Recently, S. X. Wang *et al.* systematically analyzed the band-gap change of multilayer MoS₂ in a theoretical analysis with the ratio (*R*) between Mo and S atoms slightly deviating from 1:2 [34]. The first-principle theoretical calculations were performed by using the plane-wave basis Vienna *ab initio* simulation package [58,59], and the atomic arrangement of MoS₂ was the universal AB stacking (2H – MoS₂). As shown in Fig. 1, the bandgap is about 1.08 eV (1.2 μm) for multilayered MoS₂ with the stoichiometric ratio, which corresponds well to the previous calculated value for bulk MoS₂ [40]. The other results with different *R* values are displayed in Fig. 2. When *R* is larger than 2.09, MoS₂ exhibits metallic character, and the generation of saturable absorption requiring suitable patterns or distances between the metal units becomes difficult. When the *R* is located in the range 1.89–2 and 2–2.09, few-layered MoS₂ showed an indirect semiconductor property and its energy gap is 0.08 eV (15.5 μm), 0.23 eV (5.4 μm), 0.48 eV (2.6 μm), 0.63 eV (2.0 μm), and 0.26 eV (4.7 μm) for the *R* with a value of 2.09, 2.04, 1.97, 1.94, and 1.89, respectively. Thus, it can be concluded that the band-gap of MoS₂ would be reduced by the introduction of some Mo or S defects in a suitable range. The smaller band-gap means the broadband saturable absorption of defective MoS₂ becomes possible.

Then the MoS₂ samples were fabricated by the pulse laser deposition (PLD) method, which is an efficient technique to produce the S imperfections for MoS₂ samples, since low-mass S is evaporated more easily than high-mass Mo [60]. The *R* lies in the range 1.89–1.97 moving from the center to the edge of the sample surveyed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. As demonstrated in Fig. 3, the measured absorbance of the MoS₂ sample decreases with an increase of wavelength [34]. For the *R* with the value of 1.89, the energy gap for MoS₂ samples is only 0.26 eV, corresponding to a wavelength of 4.7 μm. In contrast to the absorption range of standard

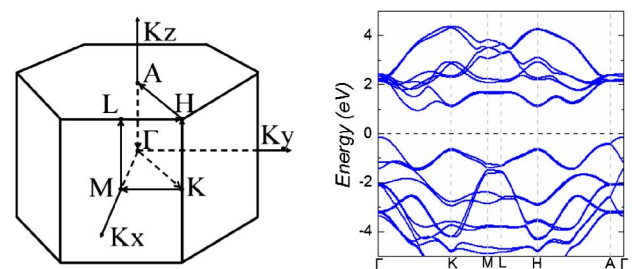


Fig. 1. Brillouin zone (left) and calculated band structure (blue lines, right) of bulk MoS₂ with stoichiometric ratio. Selected from Ref. [34].

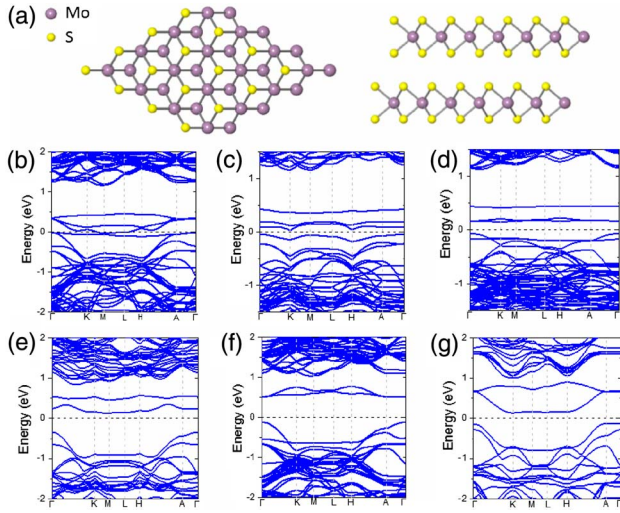


Fig. 2. Theoretical band gap of MoS₂ samples; (a) AB stacked MoS₂ observed from the top (left) and side (right); (b) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:2.12$; (c) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:2.09$; (d) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:2.04$; (e) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:1.97$; (f) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:1.94$; (g) calculated band structure of bulk MoS₂ with $R = 1:1.89$. Selected from Ref. [34].

stoichiometric MoS₂, the prepared MoS₂ samples are more likely to have broadband saturable absorption.

Saturable absorption of MoS₂ was investigated employing the two-level saturable absorber model widely used for 2D quantum wells [61,62]

$$\alpha^* = \frac{\alpha_S^*}{1 + \frac{N}{N_S}} + \alpha_{NS}^*, \quad (1)$$

$$N = \frac{\alpha^* I \tau}{\hbar \omega}, \quad (2)$$

where $\alpha^*(N)$ is the absorption coefficient, and α_S^* and α_{NS}^* are the saturable and nonsaturable absorption coefficient, respectively. N is the photoinduced electron hole density, and N_S , the saturation density, is the value of N for which the absorption falls to one-half of its initial value. I is the incident light intensity of a continuous-wave (cw) or long-pulse excitation source, τ is the carrier recombination time, and ω is the light frequency. Combined with the Eqs. (1) and (2), the saturable absorption equation can therefore be expressed as [32,61]

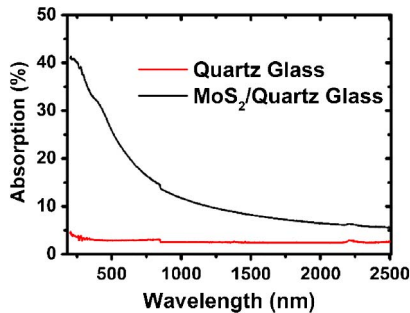


Fig. 3. Measured absorption spectrum of MoS₂ sample. Selected from Ref. [34].

$$\alpha^* = \frac{\alpha_S^*}{1 + \frac{I}{I_S}} + \alpha_{NS}^*, \quad (3)$$

where the saturation intensity I_S is a most important parameter to describe how easy or difficult that the photoinduced electron hole pairs are fully saturated in the saturable absorption process. With the exponential relationship between absorption and transmission, the power-dependent nonlinear transmittance T could be fitted with the following [63,64]

$$T = A \exp\left(\frac{-\delta T}{1 + \frac{I}{I_S}}\right), \quad (4)$$

where T is the transmission, A is a normalization constant, and δT is the absolute modulation depth.

Saturable absorption of the as-grown MoS₂ sample was measured with a picosecond pulse laser with a pulse width of 40 ps at 1.06 μm , and the data was analyzed with Eq. (4). The saturation intensity of MoS₂ was calculated with 2.45 GW/cm², a value larger than that of graphene (0.61–0.71 MW/cm²) and comparable to that of Bi₂Se₃ (4.3 GW/cm²). The saturable carrier density N_s is about $1.4 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, a magnitude 2–3 orders larger than graphene (5.84×10^{13} to $8.16 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2}$) [32,34,63].

Using the MoS₂ samples as saturable absorbers, passively Q-switched lasers at wavelengths of 1.06, 1.42, and 2.1 μm were successfully operated with Nd:GdVO₄, Nd:Y₃Ga₅O₁₂ (Nd:YGG), and Tm:Ho:Y₃Ga₅O₁₂ (Tm:Ho:YGG) crystals, respectively, as gain materials. The average output power and the repetition rate with the increase of pump power are demonstrated in Fig. 4, and the typical pulses at the wavelengths of 1.06, 1.42, and 2.1 μm are shown in Fig. 5. Q-switched lasers for the broadband MoS₂ saturable absorber, ranging from 1.06 to 2.1 μm were obtained in this experiment with sub-microsecond temporal widths and maximum output powers of up to a few hundred milliwatts.

Many research results about the pulse modulation with MoS₂ saturable absorbers have been demonstrated so far. It has shown remarkable mode-locking or Q-switched

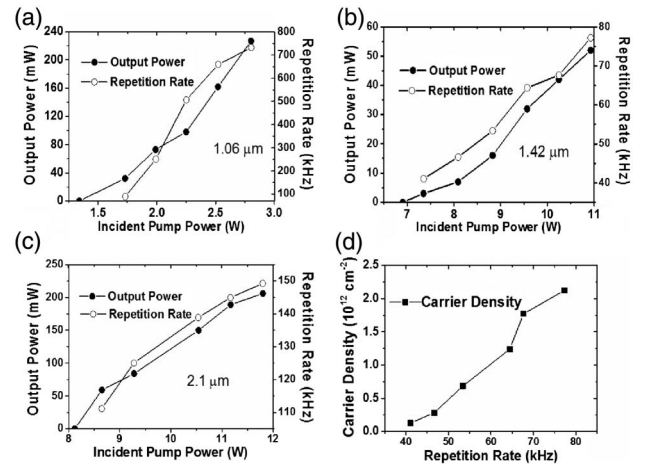


Fig. 4. Average output power and repetition rate of passively Q-switched laser; (a) passively Q-switched Nd:GdVO₄ laser performance at 1.06 μm ; (b) passively Q-switched Nd:YGG laser performance at 1.42 μm ; (c) passively Q-switched Tm:Ho:YGG laser performance at 2.1 μm ; (d) relation between the carrier density (N) and pulse repetition rate at the laser wavelength of 1.42 μm . Selected from Ref. [34].

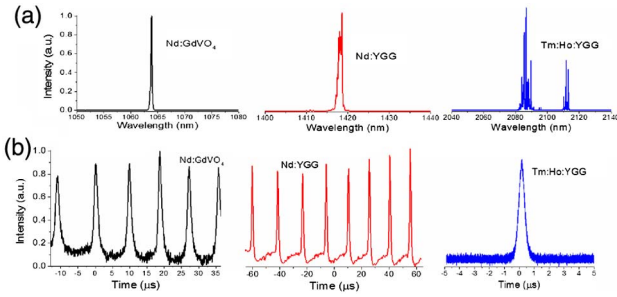


Fig. 5. Passively Q -switched laser spectra and pulses; (a) passively Q -switched Nd:GdVO₄, Nd:YGG, and Tm:Ho:YGG laser spectra at center wavelengths of 1.06, 1.42, and 2.1 μm , respectively; (b) passively Q -switched Nd:GdVO₄, Nd:YGG, and Tm:Ho:YGG laser spectra with the pulse width of 970, 729, and 410 ns, respectively. Selected from Ref. [34].

performance in the different gain materials, such as Yb-doped fibers (around 1 μm) [65,66], Er-doped fibers (1.5 to 1.6 μm) [67–70], Tm-doped fiber (around 2 μm) [71], Nd:GdVO₄ [34], Nd:YGG [34], and Tm:Ho:YGG [34]. For the perfectly single-layered MoS₂, saturable absorption is hardly acquired when the wavelength is above 0.7 μm due to the large band-gap (1.8 eV). Even if MoS₂ is in the bulk state (1.08 eV), the modulation wavelength would still be not longer than 1.2 μm [34]. Employing band-gap engineering, which is similar to the fabrication of SESAMs [13], broadband pulse modulation for few-layer MoS₂ was successfully obtained with a range 1.06–2.1 μm . This approach may benefit the exploitation and development of new 2D optoelectronic devices for some 2D materials with a large inherent band-gap.

3. PHASE-TRANSITION MODULATION FOR VO₂

Phase transitions are ubiquitous in nature, such as superconductive phase transitions [72], ferroelectric and antiferroelectric phase transitions [73], and insulator–metal transitions (IMTs) [74–81]. The complex physical science contained in the transition process is intriguing with respect to the study of phase-transition kinetics in an attempt to well-understand the changes of energy structure, electron correlation, electron-lattice coupling, and so on [79]. VO₂, an archetypal IMT, exhibits a reversible IMT at about 340 K accompanied by a transition from a low-temperature insulating phase with a monoclinic space group of $P2_1/c$ to a high-temperature rutile metallic phase with a tetragonal space group of $P4_2/mnm$ [75,77,79]. Therefore, it worth noting that the IMT phase transition of VO₂ could change the bandgap and broaden the responding wavelength band with the increase of the temperature.

The IMT of VO₂ could be considered as the Coulomb interactions between $3d$ electrons of V⁴⁺ ions and the degeneracy of their energy levels. For the rutile metallic phase of VO₂, each V⁴⁺ ion is located at the octahedral site surrounded by six O²⁻ ions. Based on the Goodenough’s model [82], the d levels of the V⁴⁺ ions are first split into low-energy triply degenerate t_{2g} states and high-energy doubly degenerate e_g states. The e_g states lie 3.5 eV above the Fermi level and are empty bands [75,83]. The t_{2g} multiplet then are separated into an a_{1g} singlet ($d_{||}$ state) and an e_g^π doublet (π state and π^* state). The a_{1g} ($d_{||}$) orbitals are parallel to the c -axis with σ bonding of V–V pairs, and the e_g^π doublet (π and π^*) are

strongly hybridized with the O $2p$ orbitals. The $d_{||}$ orbitals and π^* orbitals partly overlap and both of them partially occupy the Fermi level. The monoclinic insulating phase is identified as a Peierls–Mott insulator, and in that phase, the dimerization and tilting of the V–V pairs could lead to the $d_{||}$ band along the c -axis is split into a lower-energy bonding combination and a higher-energy anti-bonding one ($d_{||}^*$) [83–85]. Moreover, the e_g^π states (π^* state) are shifted to the upper position because of the increase of hybridization between the e_g^π doublet with O $2p$ orbitals. Ultimately, for the monoclinic phase, the bonding $d_{||}$ orbitals are completely occupied, but the anti-bonding $d_{||}$ ($d_{||}^*$) and π^* orbitals are empty due to both states being above the Fermi level [78–80,83–85].

IMT of VO₂ could be triggered with different stimuli, such as temperature, light, electric field, mechanical strain, and magnetic field [76–78,86–88]. In terms of linear optical response, VO₂ undergoes a large and rapid change, so it has potential use in ultrafast switching and sensing [89]. However the non-linear optical response of VO₂ with respect to pulse modulation in the IMT process, which is vital in terms of photonic and optoelectronic applications, has not reported up to now.

Using the first-principle theoretical calculations and the atomic structural parameters previously reported [58,59,80], the density of states (DOSs) for VO₂ in the different states were calculated, consisting of the insulating phase, phases near the IMT point, and metallic phase [90]. As presented in Fig. 6, the room-temperature monoclinic phase behaves as an insulator with a band-gap of 0.68 eV, coinciding well with the result measured by photoemission spectroscopy [83]. In addition, accompanied by the IMT being in progress, the VO₂ band-gap decreases and its phase enters a tetragonal metallic state from the monoclinic insulating state. The calculation of DOS for two phases at the IMT temperature point indicates that VO₂ has an optical response to light with a wavelength shorter than 1.85 μm (0.68 eV), corresponding to the band-gap of the pure insulating phase.

As displayed in Fig. 7, the linear optical response of the VO₂ sample fabricated by the PLD method was investigated at

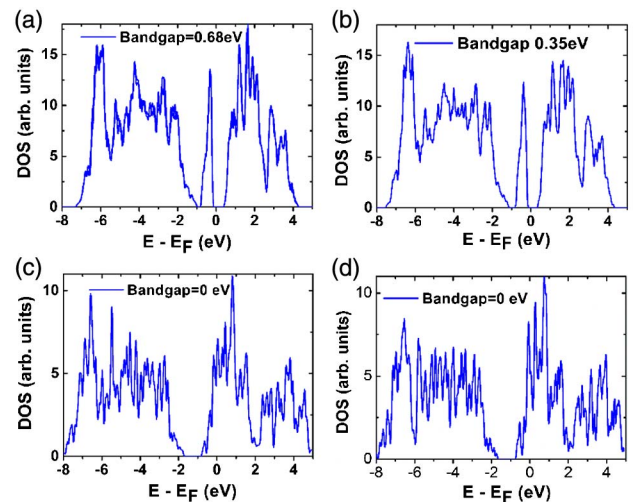


Fig. 6. Theoretical DOS for VO₂ in different phases; (a) DOS in the monoclinic phase at room temperature with a band-gap of 0.68 eV; (b) DOS in the monoclinic phase near the IMT point with a band-gap of 0.36 eV; (c) DOS in the tetragonal phase near the IMT point; (d) DOS in the tetragonal phase and final metallic states. Selected from Ref. [90].

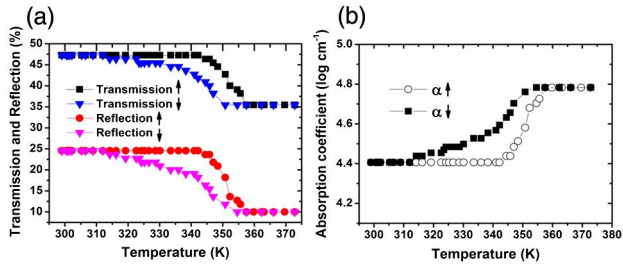


Fig. 7. Linear optical response of VO₂ layer; (a) reflection and transmission of VO₂ at different temperatures and light wavelength of 1.06 μm measured by increasing (↑) and decreasing (↓) the temperature; (b) linear absorption coefficient of VO₂ at different temperatures and light wavelength of 1.06 μm measured by increasing (↑) and decreasing (↓) the temperature. Selected from Ref. [90].

1.06 μm under different temperatures. It is seen that both the transmission and reflection decrease and the absorption coefficient increases with increasing temperature. When the temperature decreases, all the linear optical properties show hysteresis because of the hysteretic twisting of V-V pairs in VO₂. The experimental results show good agreement with the previous literature [74].

Since light is capable of inducing the IMT process, investigating the nonlinear response of VO₂ is difficult for the traditional Z-scan technique by using picosecond or femtosecond pulses. Therefore, the VO₂ sample was employed as a saturable modulator to generate pulse lasers, and the kinetic process of the nonlinear response for VO₂ during IMT was analyzed from the pulsed laser performance. The passively Q-switched laser at a wavelength of 1.06 μm was demonstrated with a Nd:GdVO₄ crystal as the gain medium and the VO₂ sample as the saturable absorber. On the basis of the analysis of Fig. 8(a), it is worth mentioning that the output power during an increasing and a decreasing of the pump power also shows hysteresis. The IMT of VO₂ occurs in the pump range from 2.6 to 5.4 W, corresponding to the temperatures 310 and 360 K, respectively. When the pump power is below 2.6 W, VO₂ is a pure insulator, and the pulse modulation

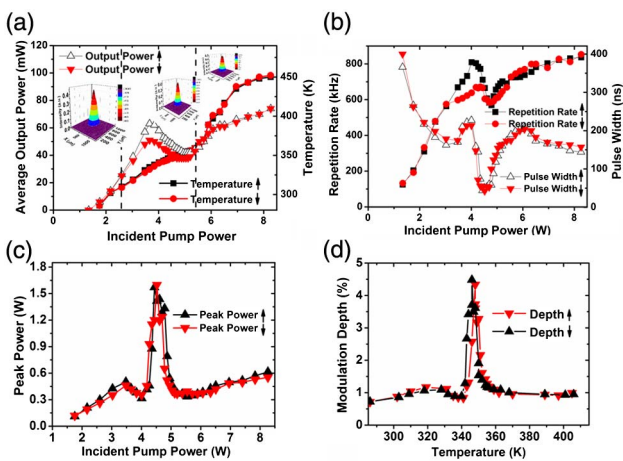


Fig. 8. Laser performance with VO₂ as an optical switch; (a) average output power and central temperature of the laser beam in VO₂ sample recorded during increasing (↑) and decreasing (↓) pump power. Inset: laser patterns achieved with CCD; (b) repetition rate and pulse width during increase (↑) and decrease (↓) of pump power; (c) peak power during increase (↑) and decrease (↓) of pump power; (d) modulation depth with increase (↑) and decrease (↓) of central temperature generated by the pump power. Selected from Ref. [90].

is generated on account of the small band-gap (0.68 eV). When the pump power is above 5.4 W, VO₂ fully becomes a metal material, and the pulse modulation is caused by the saturable properties of the surface plasmon resonance absorption [91–94].

As displayed in Fig. 8(b), it is surprising that a minimum pulse width of 43 ns is obtained at a pump power of 4.4 W, where a break point appeared in the repetition rate, corresponding to a central temperature of 347 K. The result is much better than those of the topological insulator (pulse width of 660 ns) and MoS₂ (pulse width of 970 ns) in the same experimental setup [34,63]. As demonstrated in Fig. 8(d), the modulation depth ΔT could be theoretically calculated by [95]

$$\Delta T = e^{-\alpha s(\omega)l} - e^{-\alpha(\omega)l} = \frac{3.52T_R}{\tau} \quad (5)$$

where $l = 130$ nm is the thickness of VO₂ thin film, $T_R = 0.54$ ns is the cavity round-trip time, and τ is the pulse width. In addition, as shown in Fig. 9, the variation of saturation intensity and the third-order nonlinear absorption coefficient with changing temperature are elucidated. The largest saturation intensity occurs at 335 K with 21 kW/cm², a value much smaller than those of graphene (710 kW/cm²), Bi₂Se₃ topological insulators (4.3 GW/cm²), and MoS₂ (2.45 GW/cm²) [32,34,63]. The lower saturation intensity of VO₂ indicates the sensitive nonlinear optical responses, and the promising application for VO₂ in optoelectronic sensors.

In recent years, VO₂ has received more attention in some areas, including electronics, ultrafast techniques, energy technology, optical storage, and ionic gating [74–76,89–92,96]. By studying the kinetics of the third-order optical nonlinearity during the IMT of VO₂, it is worth noting that VO₂ is of a broad response band (below 1.85 μm) and has fantastic saturable absorption properties in the IMT process. The remarkable Q-switched laser with a minimum pulse width of 43 ns and the sensitive nonlinear optical responses all show the utility of phase-transition materials in the development of potential optoelectronic devices.

4. BROADBAND MODULATION BY INHERENT BAND-GAPS

A. Graphene

Graphene is of a very stable honeycomb hexagonal structure assembled by sp^2 -hybridized carbon atoms [18,21]. Notwithstanding the significant template for fabricating other

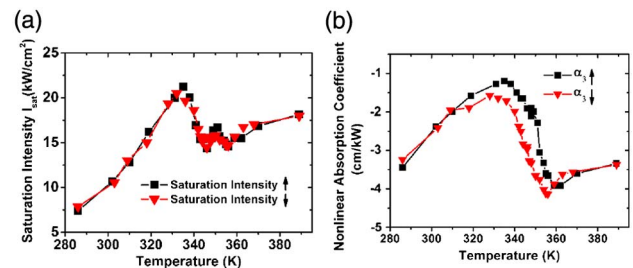


Fig. 9. Nonlinear optical response of VO₂ layer; (a) saturation intensity with increase (↑) and decrease (↓) of central temperature induced by pump power in the IMT process; (b) nonlinear absorption coefficient with increase (↑) and decrease (↓) of central temperature induced by pump power in the IMT process. Selected from Ref. [90].

allotropes of carbon, such as fullerenes, carbon nanotubes, and graphite, graphene was not discovered until 2004 [97], and ironically, the date is later than all these allotropes [22]. For the sp^2 hybridization of graphene, the σ bond is formed by one s orbital and two p orbital (p_x and p_y) electrons between two carbon atoms in the planar structure. The π electron that is the electron in the unaffected p orbital (p_z) is perpendicular to the 2D honeycomb plane. The inter-couplings between the electron wave functions of each two nearest π electrons can lead to the formation of a half-filled π band or a half-filled π^* band, corresponding to the valence band and conduction band, respectively [15,22,23].

Zero band-gap of graphene possesses linear dispersion near the Dirac point. Furthermore, this material is insensitive to wavelength, and shows relatively large absorption of visible-to-infrared light (about 2.3% for a monolayer), which all were beneficial for the acquisition of broadband optical response [98–100]. As for the carrier dynamics of graphene, the intraband carrier relaxation time and the interband relaxation time are about 10–150 fs and 0.4–1.7 ps, respectively [101–103]. The longer interband relaxation can act as the modulation switching by changing the intrinsic electron and hole carrier densities of graphene. In addition, graphene is also of superior thermal conductivity (5300 W/m/K for a monolayer) [104], large electron mobility of 10^5 cm²/V/s [18,105], and remarkable elastic properties (a Young's modulus of 1.0 TPa) [106]. As a consequence, graphene is a candidate broadband saturable absorber for the generation of mode-locking or Q-switched pulses.

In 2009, 5 years after the discovery of graphene, the saturable absorption of graphene was first investigated by Q. L. Bao *et al.* [32]. The saturation intensity I_S ranges from 0.61 to 0.71 MW/cm² for different layers of graphene, corresponding to the saturation density ranging from 8.16×10^{13} to 5.84×10^{13} [32,107]. This research group also demonstrated the first saturable modulation of graphene in the Er-doped fiber mode-locking laser. The laser oscillation wavelength is about 1.57 μ m and the minimum pulse width is about 756 fs. In 2010, the first graphene-based Q-switched laser was presented by Z. Q. Luo *et al.* in the Er-doped fiber with a pulse width of 3.7 μ s [108]. Employing a Nd:YAG ceramic medium and a graphene modulator in 2010, W. D. Tan *et al.* reported the first diode-pumped solid-state bulk mode-locking laser with the obtained pulse width of 4 ps at 1.06 μ m [64]. Since then, graphene has set off a new wave of research in the mode-locking and Q-switched pulse laser fields. The preparing method causes the prepared graphene saturable absorber to have a low damage threshold and consequently cannot be used in the Q-switching lasers with larger pulse energy than mode-locking lasers.

In the same year of 2010, by means of using graphene epitaxially grown on SiC with high refractive index as the saturable absorber and as the output coupler [109], we obtained the stable passively Q-switched laser for Nd:YAG at 1.06 μ m, and it is the first time that the graphene saturable absorber was applied in the Q-switched solid-state pulse laser field. The pulse profiles under different pump power are demonstrated in Fig. 10 and the minimum pulse width is 161 ns. A similar experiment was implemented in the Nd:LuVO₄ gain crystal at 1.06 μ m, and as shown in Fig. 11, the minimum pulse width is about 56.2 ns [110].

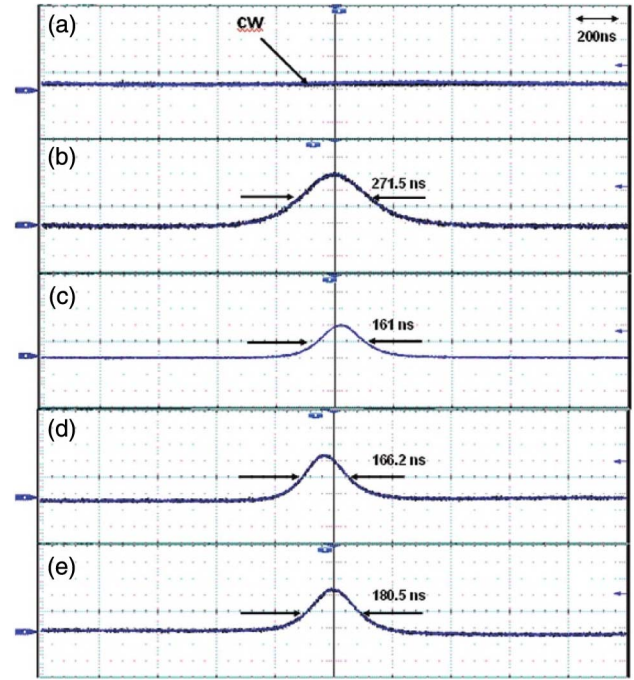


Fig. 10. (a) Display of the cw laser recorded by a digital oscilloscope; (b) Q-switched pulse profile under the pump power of 11.2 W; (c) Q-switched pulse profile under the pump power of 12.9 W; (d) Q-switched pulse profile under the pump power of 14.6 W; (e) Q-switched pulse profile under the pump power of 16.5 W. Selected from Ref. [109].

In addition, recently, graphene was used as a pulse modulator for the generation of a pulsed optical vortex at a wavelength of 1.36 μ m in the gain medium of Nd:LYSO [111]. In that experiment, the thermal effect in the Nd:LYSO crystal caused by the large quantum defect of 40.5% is used to do mode-matching selection among different Laguerre–Gaussian ($LG_{p,l}$) modes. As exhibited in Fig. 12, the different $LG_{p,l}$ with corresponding topological charge of $1\hbar$ ($l = 0, 1, \text{ and } 2$) are directly obtained by controlling the pump power. Corresponding Hermite–Gaussian ($HG_{m,n}$) modes are easily transformed with using two identical cylindrical lenses. Importantly, no topological charge is lost in the whole process suggesting that there is no angular momentum transfer between graphene and vortex pulses such that graphene shows the potential application of generating pulse optical vortices.

B. Bi₂Se₃ Topological Insulator

In recent years, topological insulators (Bi₂Se₃, Bi₂Te₃, and Sb₂Te₃) has drawn great attention in the frontier of science

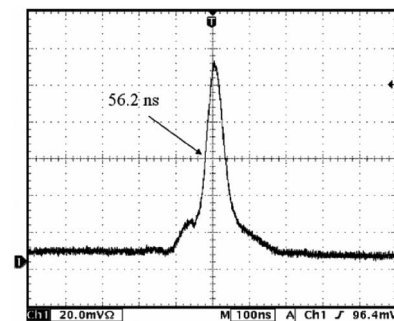


Fig. 11. Pulse profile with the width of 56.2 ns. Selected from Ref. [110].

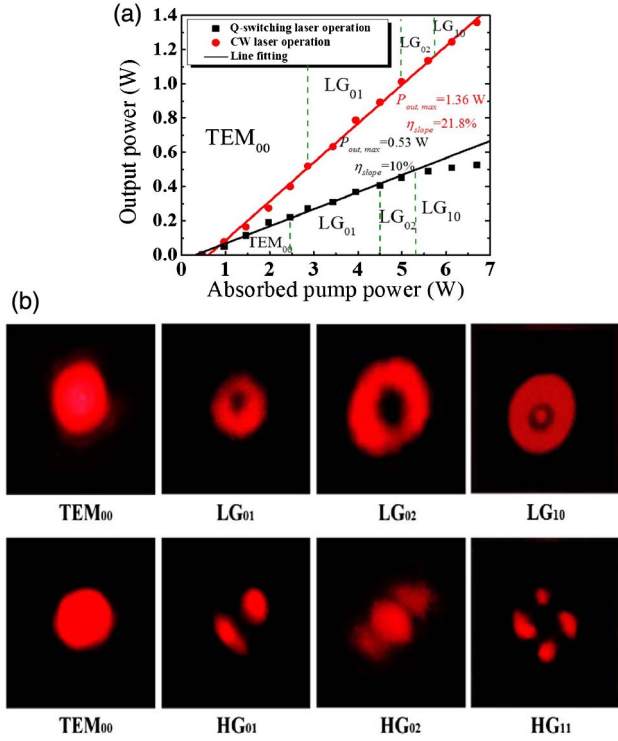


Fig. 12. (a) Continuous wave and pulsed output power of $LG_{p,l}$ modes versus the absorbed pump power; (b) transverse pattern of the laser beam. Top row, achieved $LG_{p,l}$ modes. Bottom row, the converted $HG_{m,n}$ modes corresponding the $LG_{p,l}$ modes. Selected from Ref. [111].

research, due to the exotic physical properties [27,112–118]. Topological insulators show a rhombohedral crystal structure and belong to the space group of $D_{3d}^5(R\bar{3}m)$. Each layer for this kind of materials is of a quintuple-layered sandwich structure along the direction of the 3-fold rotation axis of symmetry; for instance, the layered configuration of Bi_2Se_3 is Se1–Bi1–Se2–Bi1'–Se1'. The coupling between two atomic layers of one quintuple layer is stronger than that between two quintuple layers held together predominantly by the van der Waals forces [113,114].

Two energy states simultaneously exist in topological insulators, and they are the bulk state and the metallic surface state, respectively. Bi_2Se_3 topological insulators have the largest energy gap of the bulk state with a value of about 0.3 eV, and no impurity states exist in the gap [113,115]. The metallic surface state is topological protection with the combination of spin–orbit coupling and time-reversal symmetry against probable scattering [27,116,118]. Similar to graphene, the surface state consists of massless Dirac fermions with a linear energy–momentum relationship. Graphene has two spin-degenerate Dirac cones located at the K and K' points, respectively. Nevertheless, for the Bi_2Se_3 class of topological insulators materials, there is only a single surface Dirac cone around the Γ point with no spin degeneracy [113–115]. Some splendid physical properties were discovered with the gradually in-depth investigations of topological insulators, such as the electromagnetic effect, superconductivity, and quantum anomalous Hall effect [112–115,119,120].

Along with the active research of electronic and magnetic phenomena of topological insulators, its optical characteristic also aroused research interest. Considering the small energy

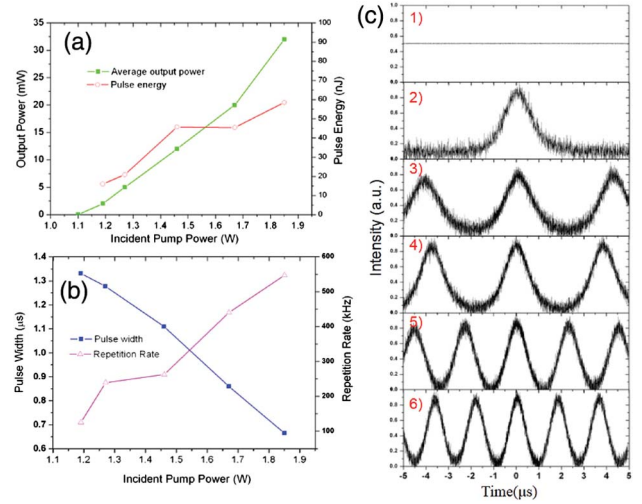


Fig. 13. (a) Average output power and pulse energy vs. increasing incident pump power; (b) pulse width and repetition rate vs. incident pump power; (c) display recorded by digital oscilloscope for lasers. One through 6 are pulse profiles of cw Nd:GdVO₄ laser, and pulsed lasers under pump power of 1.19, 1.27, 1.46, 1.67, and 1.85 W, respectively. Selected from Ref. [63].

gap of the bulk state for topological insulators, the saturable absorption was expected to generate under strong excitation with the wavelength not longer than 4.13 μm [114,115]. In 2012, F. Bernard *et al.* discovered that the Bi_2Te_3 topological insulator has saturable absorption at a wavelength of 1.55 μm [121], and then, using the saturable absorber fabricated by Bi_2Te_3 topological insulator and the gain medium of Er-doped fiber, C. J. Zhao *et al.* first obtained the mode-locking lasers with a pulse width of 1.2 ps at 1.56 μm [33].

In 2013, our group demonstrated the stable passively Q-switched laser for Nd:GdVO₄ at 1.06 μm with the Bi_2Se_3 topological insulator as the pulse modulator [63]. On the strength of a Z-scan technique, saturable absorption of Bi_2Se_3 saturable modulator was measured and was fitted with Eq. (4). The saturation intensity was determined to be 4.3 GW/cm^2 , a value that is much larger than that of graphene (0.61–0.71 MW/cm^2) [32,63]. The output power and pulse profiles under different pump power are demonstrated in Fig. 13, and the minimum pulse width is about 666 ns. Employing the same Bi_2Se_3 saturable absorber, a dual-wavelength simultaneously Q-switched Nd:Lu₂O₃ laser was also achieved [122]. As shown in Fig. 14, the shortest pulse width is about 720 ns and the laser wavelengths are 1077 and 1081 nm, respectively.

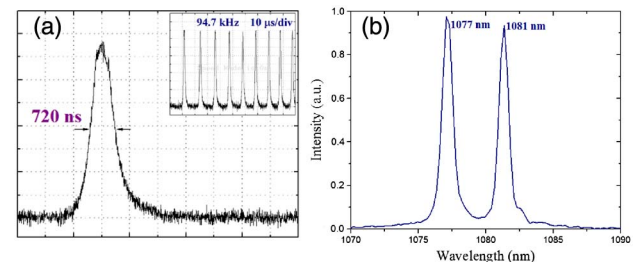


Fig. 14. (a) Single-pulse profile with duration of 720 ns. Inset, corresponding pulse train with the repetition rate of 94.7 kHz; (b) laser spectrum of the dual-wavelength laser at 1077 and 1081 nm. Selected from Ref. [122].

At the beginning of pulse modulation for topological insulators (Bi_2Se_3 , Bi_2Te_3 , and Sb_2Te_3), the Q -switched or mode-locking lasers are concentrated on the wavelengths from 1 to 1.6 μm in the gain media such as $\text{Nd}:\text{GdVO}_4$ [63], Yb-doped fibers [123], Er-doped fibers [33,124–126], and Er:YAG ceramic [127]. In 2014, M. W. Jung reported the mode-locked femtosecond pulse laser at 1935 nm with Bi_2Te_3 topological insulator as the saturable absorber and the Tm/Ho co-doped fiber as the gain medium [128]. Soon after, Z. Q. Luo *et al.* demonstrated a Q -switched double-clad single-mode Tm^{3+} -doped fiber laser at 2 μm wavelength with Bi_2Se_3 topological insulator as the saturable modulator [129]. These two experiments confirm the broadband saturable modulation of topological insulators with the applicable wavelength expanded to 2 μm or longer wavelengths.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, on the basis of the band-gap modulation, some latest research results about 2D broadband saturable absorbers, including MoS_2 and VO_2 , graphene, and Bi_2Se_3 topological insulator were systematically elucidated and reviewed. For the few-layer MoS_2 , the broadband pulse modulation was achieved from 1.06 to 2.1 μm by introducing appropriate S defects to reduce the intrinsic band-gap. For the VO_2 IMT, the transition process from the insulator phase to metal phase resulted in some fantastic results in terms of pulse modulation, such as small pulse widths and sensitive nonlinear optical responses. In addition, with respect to graphene and Bi_2Se_3 topological insulator, the small inherent bandgaps led to the success of broadband saturated absorption. As a consequence, this work shows the excellent performance of band-gap engineering for exploring 2D broadband saturable materials, and importantly, it opens up an available application opportunity for 2D materials in photonics and optoelectronics.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 51025210 and 51422205) and the China Scholarship Council in 2014 (No. 201406220045).

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