### Fundamental Intrinsic Lifetimes in Semiconductor Self-Assembled Quantum Dots

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Self-assembled quantum dots (QDs) provide an ideal platform for realization of on-demand maximally entangled photon pairs, which is essential for quantum-information technologies. When the two intermediate exciton states are indistinguishable in energy, the biexciton cascade process naturally yields the maximally entangled photon pairs. However, because of the low symmetry of QDs, the two bright states should belong to different irreducible representations in realistic experiments, and their energy difference, called the "fine-structure splitting" (FSS), is much larger than their homogeneous broadening, giving rise to only classically correlated photon pairs by erasing the "which-way" information. In this work, we show that since these two states belong to different representations, their lifetimes should also be slightly different, which is termed "exciton lifetime asymmetry." In contrast to the extensively studied FSS, investigation of this lifetime asymmetry is missing in the literature. Here we conduct an investigation of the exciton lifetime asymmetry in self-assembled QDs and present a theory to deduce this asymmetry indirectly from measurable qualities of QDs. We further reveal that the intrinsic lifetimes and their asymmetries are more fundamental quantities of QDs, which determine the upper bound of the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries. Exact relations between lifetime asymmetries, FSS, and the polarization angle are also derived. These relations may be measured in experiments by studying the degree of polarization, as well its evolution under external stress. Our findings provide a complete description of the symmetry of the optical properties of QDs, which can give an important basis to deepen our understanding of QDs.

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Self-assembled quantum dots (QDs) provide a promising platform for realization of on-demand entangled photon pairs from the biexciton-exciton-vacuum cascade process [1], which are essential for practical quantum communication [2–7]. When the two intermediate exciton states are indistinguishable in energy [see Fig. 1(a)], the output photons construct the maximally entangled Bell state,

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|HH\rangle + |VV\rangle), \qquad (1)$$

where *H* and *V* define the polarization of the photon. However, in experiments, the major obstacle in realizing this goal comes from the nondegeneracy of the two intermediate bright exciton states, in which their energy difference, called "fine-structure splitting" (FSS), with typical magnitude of tens of microelectronvolts, is much larger than the homogeneous broadening of the emission lines ( $\Gamma \sim 1 \,\mu \text{eV}$  [8–10]), and thus the "which-way" information is erased and only classically correlated photons instead of maximally entangled photon pairs can be created from this process. In the past decade, tremendous efforts have been devoted to eliminate this splitting by the application of all possible experimental techniques, including thermal annealing [11–15], use of an electric

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field [16–23], use of a magnetic field [24–27], and external stress [28–38]. However, none of them are efficient. In experiments, the entangled photon pairs were demonstrated in a way that involved first picking out the QDs with small FSS from a QD ensemble after postannealing and then eliminating the FSS with use of magnetic fields [27]. During the tuning of FSS via an external magnetic field, it was found that not all the FSS in QDs can be tuned to zero. Because of this, only a tiny fraction of QDs grown even in the same conditions can be used to realize entangled photon pairs. Moreover, these devices can work only at low temperature since the emitted exciton energies are very close to the emissions from the wetting layer [39].

The mechanism underlying the difficulty in eliminating the FSS comes from the low symmetry of self-assembled ODs. It is impossible to restore the higher symmetry of the bulk materials in QDs by the aforementioned techniques [11–13,16–18,25–28]. This mechanism was first pointed out by Bester et al. [40,41], in which the strain effect (from lattice mismatch) and interface effect or the defects in realistic materials can lower the symmetry of QDs from the parent  $T_d$  symmetry to  $C_{2v}$  symmetry [42]; thus the macroscopic symmetry of QDs is not necessary the true symmetry of QDs. On the basis of this symmetry analysis, small or vanishing FSSs are expected to be found in QDs with relatively high symmetries [43]. In 2010, Singh et al. [44] found a lower bound of FSS is expected for a general QD, which prohibits the tuning of FSS to zero by external stress, as used in some experiments. To understand this effect, Gong et al. [45] proposed a minimal two-band model to uncover the reason why the FSS cannot be tuned to zero with a single external force for a general QD. This model contains two real numbers, and thus the FSS can be eliminated by two independent external forces [46]. This tunablility should be independent of the wavelength of QDs, and thus entangled pairs well below the wetting layer can be realized, which has the potential to realize on-demand entangled photon pairs of any wavelength. By use of three external forces, it is possible to construct a wavelength-tunable entangled photon emitter [47–49], opening the door for interfacing between QDs and other solid-state systems and even between dissimilar QDs. This proposal was recently realized in experiments [50–54] in self-assembled InAs/GaAs QDs, in which the wavelength of the exciton can be tuned in the range of several millielectronvolts.

From the symmetry point of view, since the two bright exciton states belong to two different representations for QDs with  $C_{2v}$  symmetry [55] [see the corresponding symmetry table in Fig. 1(b)], they should have not only different energies but also different lifetimes. The lifetime difference between two bright exciton states is termed "exciton lifetime asymmetry" [see Fig. 1(a)]. In contrast to the extensively studied FSS, investigation of this anisotropy effect is missing in the literature. In this



FIG. 1. Direct consequence of low symmetry in QDs. (a) The two exciton bright states (solid lines) have different energies and lifetimes when they belong to different irreducible representations. (b) The basic irreducible representations of the conduction band (CB), valence band (VB) and the exciton, and their basis for QDs with  $C_{2v}$  symmetry. (c) In the presence of weak  $C_1$  potential, direct coupling between the two bright states leads to wave-function mixing, and thus the emission will deviate from the [110] and [110] directions.

work, we conduct an investigation of the exciton lifetime asymmetry in self-assembled QDs and present a theory to deduce lifetime asymmetry *indirectly* from measurable qualities of QDs. We further reveal that the intrinsic lifetime and the asymmetries are more fundamental quantities of QDs and unravel some exact relations between FSS, polarization angle, and lifetime asymmetries for excitons and biexcitons in QDs. Methods to measure these lifetimes are also proposed. These exact relations are verified by our performing atomistic simulations of self-assembled QDs using the empirical pseudopotential method [56,57].

### **II. ATOMISTIC SIMULATION METHOD**

We use the empirical pseudopotential method [56,57] to simulate the electronic and optical properties of self-assembled QDs. In this calculation, we model (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs by embedding them in a much larger GaAs supercell with periodic boundary conditions and minimize the total strain energy using the valence-force-field model [58,59]. The single-particle wave functions are determined by

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + V_{\rm ps}(\mathbf{r})\right]\psi_i = E_i\psi_i,\tag{2}$$

where *i* is the site index and  $V_{ps}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathcal{V}_{soc}(\mathbf{r}) + \sum_{i\alpha} \mathcal{V}_{i\alpha}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{i\alpha})$  is the empirical pseudopotential, where

 $\mathbf{R}_{i\alpha}$  is the position of atom type  $\alpha$  and  $\mathcal{V}_{soc}$  is the spin-orbitcoupling term. The position of each atom in the supercell is obtained by minimization of the total strain energy. The exciton and biexciton energies are then calculated by use of the configuration-interaction method taking into account the Coulomb interaction and exchange-correlation interaction [56,57,60]. The deformation of positions  $\mathbf{R}_{i\alpha}$  accounts for the symmetry lowering from  $T_d$  to  $C_{2v}$  in realistic QDs.

### **III. THEORETICAL MODELING**

We conduct the symmetry analysis of QDs as given in Ref. [45] by decomposing the QD Hamiltonian H into two parts:  $H = H_{2v} + V_1$ , where  $H_{2v}$  is a predominant term having  $C_{2v}$  symmetry and includes the kinetic energy, Coulomb interaction, and all potentials with  $C_{2v}$  symmetry; and  $V_1$ , which represents the remaining potentials lowering the symmetry of QDs from  $C_{2v}$  to  $C_1$ . The  $V_1$ potential can be treated as a perturbation to  $H_{2v}$  considering its weak effect on the energy levels of QDs. The two bright states of  $H_{2v}$  are denoted as  $|3\rangle = |\Gamma_2 - i\Gamma_4\rangle$  and  $|4\rangle = |\Gamma_2 + i\Gamma_4\rangle$ , respectively, where  $|\Gamma_i\rangle$  (i = 1, 2, 3, 4)are the irreducible representations of the  $C_{2v}$  point group [see Fig. 1(b) and 1(c) and the symmetry table in Ref. [55]]. We consider quantities of the  $H_{2v}$  Hamiltonian to be intrinsic. Our key idea is that since these two bright exciton states belong to two different irreducible representations, they must have different energies with an energy separation of FSS, and different lifetimes ( $\tau_{3\eta}$  and  $\tau_{4\eta}$ , respectively) with a time difference termed "intrinsic lifetime asymmetry"  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$ . Hence,  $\tau_{3\eta} = \tau_{\eta} + \delta \tau_{\eta}/2$  and  $\tau_{4\eta} = \tau_{\eta} - \delta \tau_{\eta}/2$ , where  $\tau_{\eta}$  is the averaged lifetime (hereafter  $\eta = x$  for an exciton and  $\eta = xx$  for a biexciton). Since the  $V_1$  potential is inevitable and uncontrollable in experiments, the intrinsic lifetimes and their asymmetries cannot be measured directly in experiments.

To simplify the effective model for the total Hamiltonian H, we take advantage of two additional features. Firstly, the time-reversal symmetry for an exciton,  $T^2 = +1$  (excitons have integer spins), ensures that the wave functions of the two bright exciton states can be made real simultaneously [61]. Secondly, the spin selection rule and the large energy difference between the dark and bright states (typically about 0.2–0.5 meV [62]) forbid the mixing of dark states ( $m = \pm 2$ ) and bright states ( $m = \pm 1$ ) even in the presence of the  $V_1$  term. The dark exciton states can be probed only by coupling to bright states through inplane external magnetic fields [25–27]. We can thus safely ignore the dark states and construct the effective model on the basis of only the two bright exciton states of  $H_{2v}$ , as follows:

$$H = E_0 + \delta \sigma_z + \kappa \sigma_x, \tag{3}$$

where  $E_0$  is the mean energy of two bright exciton states,  $\sigma_x$  and  $\sigma_z$  are Pauli matrices acting on the two bright states with eigenvalues of  $m = \pm 1$ ,  $\delta = \langle 3|H|3 \rangle - \langle 4|H|4 \rangle$ , and  $\kappa = \langle 3|H|4 \rangle$ . The bright states of the total Hamiltonian *H* can be constructed as a linear combination of  $|3\rangle$  and  $|4\rangle$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \psi_3 \\ \psi_4 \end{pmatrix} = u(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} |3\rangle \\ |4\rangle \end{pmatrix}, \quad u(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix},$$
(4)

where  $\theta$  is the polarization angle as shown in Fig. 1(c) and  $u(\theta)$  is a SO(2) rotation matrix. Further,  $\tan(\theta) = (\delta + \Delta/2)\kappa^{-1}$ , where  $\Delta = 2\sqrt{\delta^2 + \kappa^2}$  is the magnitude of exciton FSS. The values of  $\kappa$  and  $\delta$  can be determined from experimental measurements of the FSS and polarization angle without an external force. In an ensemble of QDs, the  $V_1$  potential can be treated as a random potential, and thus  $\kappa$  and  $\delta$  can be viewed as two independent random numbers [63], for which reason QDs with a similar macroscopic structural profile (i.e., the same size and geometry) but different alloy configurations may have fairly different polarization angle and FSS.

If two bright exciton states have measurable extrinsic lifetimes  $T_{3\eta}$  and  $T_{4\eta}$ , which are usually deduced experimentally by the fitting of the time-resolved photoluminescence spectrum to a single exponential decaying function. The difference in lifetimes gives rise to the extrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta T_{\eta}$ :

$$\delta T_{\eta} = T_{3\eta} - T_{4\eta}, \quad T_{3\eta} + T_{4\eta} = 2T_{\eta}, \tag{5}$$

where  $T_n$  is the mean extrinsic lifetime measured from offresonant excitation. In this measurement, we assume that the spin information in the electron-hole pairs is totally lost during the relaxation from the wetting layer to the two bright states of the exciton, and thus the two bright states are equally populated. However, those extrinsic lifetime asymmetries are not well defined for the following reasons. Firstly, the time-resolved photoluminescence spectrum is composed of two exponential decaying functions with two slightly different lifetimes [64–66], and thus  $T_{3\eta}$  and  $T_{4\eta}$ can be obtained only in the sense of best fitting. Secondly, the  $V_1$  potential, which induces interstate mixing [see Eq. (4)], is not the major origin of lifetime asymmetries [43,67]. A more accurate description of lifetime asymmetries should be defined by the model of  $H_{2v}$  instead of the total Hamiltonian H.

Because lifetime asymmetries are, in general, much smaller than the mean lifetimes, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{T_{3\eta}} = \frac{\cos^2(\theta)}{\tau_{3\eta}} + \frac{\sin^2(\theta)}{\tau_{4\eta}}, \frac{1}{T_{4\eta}} = \frac{\sin^2(\theta)}{\tau_{3\eta}} + \frac{\cos^2(\theta)}{\tau_{4\eta}}.$$
(6)

To the leading term of  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$ , we find

$$T_{3\eta} = \tau_{\eta} + \frac{\cos(2\theta)}{2}\delta\tau_{\eta}, \quad T_{4\eta} = \tau_{\eta} - \frac{\cos(2\theta)}{2}\delta\tau_{\eta}.$$
 (7)

The above results are identical to fitting the photoluminescence spectrum to a single exponential decaying function by minimization of the following function:

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \int_0^\infty |c_n e^{-(t/\tau_{3\eta})} + (1 - c_n) e^{-(t/\tau_{4\eta})} - e^{-(t/T_\eta)}|^2 dt,$$
(8)

where n = 3, 4, with  $c_3 = \cos(\theta)^2$  for  $|3\rangle$  and  $c_4 = \sin^2(\theta)$  for  $|4\rangle$ . Assuming  $T_{\eta} = \tau_{\eta} + x\delta\tau_{\eta}$  (where  $|x| \ll 1$ ), we obtain  $\mathcal{F}_{\eta} = (-1 + 2c_n + 2x)^2\delta\tau^2/16\tau + \mathcal{O}(\delta\tau/\tau)^3$ . It is straightforward to obtain its solution, which is identical to ones given in Eq. (7). We therefore see that the definitions given in Eqs. (6) and (8) are equivalent in the small-asymmetry limit.

### IV. THEORETICAL PREDICTIONS AND VERIFICATIONS

## A. The unusual effects of low-symmetry perturbation potential

(i) Lifetime-sum rule: The weak  $C_1$  potential will not alter the averaged exciton lifetime, which is determined as

$$T_{3\eta} + T_{4\eta} = \tau_{3\eta} + \tau_{4\eta}, \quad \tau_{\eta} = T_{\eta}.$$
 (9)

The equality relation  $\tau_{\eta} = T_{\eta}$  indicates that the mean lifetime is independent of the  $V_1$  potential, which is manifested in the investigated QD ensembles as shown in Fig. 2.

(ii) Lifetime-asymmetry relation: The extrinsic lifetime asymmetry is determined as

$$\delta T_{\eta} = T_{3\eta} - T_{4\eta} = \cos(2\theta)\delta\tau_{\eta} \le |\delta\tau_{\eta}|.$$
(10)

We see that, to the leading term, the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries depend only on the intrinsic lifetime asymmetries  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$  and the polarization angle  $\theta$ , and are independent of the mean lifetimes  $\tau_{\eta}$  and  $T_{\eta}$ . While the  $V_1$  potential can enhance the FSS and polarization angle, it will unexpectedly suppress the magnitude of  $\delta T_{\eta}$ , which is upper bounded by  $|\delta \tau_{\eta}|$ . Moreover, when  $\delta \tau_{\eta} = 0$  (in QDs with high symmetries) or  $\theta = \pm (\pi/4)$  (polarized along the  $\Gamma_2$ and  $\Gamma_4$  directions), the change of low-symmetry potential will never induce a finite extrinsic lifetime asymmetry.

To verify the above predictions, we perform atomistic simulations for single QDs as well as QD ensembles. The calculated results for various types of single pure InAs/GaAs QDs and alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs are summarized in Table I. For pure InAs/GaAs QDs, we find that, as expected since  $V_1 = 0$ , the polarization angle  $\theta = 0$  (or  $\pi/2$ ), and  $\delta \tau_{\eta} = \delta T_{\eta}$ , following exactly Eq. (10). The magnitude of both the intrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta T_{\eta}$  and the extrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$  is in range of 0.1–0.4 ns, and is much smaller than the mean lifetimes



FIG. 2. Effect of random fluctuations the lifetime asymmetries in a QD ensemble. (a),(b) The calculated polarization angles and FSSs in a QD ensemble. (c) The extrinsic mean lifetimes for excitons and biexcitons [under the assumption of Eq. (9)]. (d),(e) The intrinsic and extrinsic lifetime asymmetries in a QD ensemble for excitons and biexcitiosn, where the intrinsic lifetime asymmetries are determined with the wave functions of  $|3\rangle$  and  $|4\rangle$ for QDs with  $H_{2v}$  symmetry. The horizontal blue lines represent the mean values of  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$ , which are 0.10 ns (approximately 9%  $\tau_x$ ) and 0.11 ns (approximately 10%  $\tau_{xx}$ ), respectively. (f) The ratio between  $\delta T_{\eta}$  and  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$  will collapse to a cosine function (solid blue line) according to Eq. (10).

 $T_{\eta}$  and  $\tau_{\eta}$ , which are around 1.5–2.0 ns. From Table I, we see that the lifetime-sum rule given in Eq. (9) holds for all calculated QDs, including alloyed ones. Although the polarization angles  $\theta$  in alloyed QDs deviate significantly from the [110] and [110] directions as a result of wave functions mixing,  $|\delta T_{\eta}| \leq |\delta \tau_{\eta}|$  holds in all QDs. Therefore, we demonstrate that the low-symmetry potential can remarkably suppress the lifetime asymmetries along with the derived relation given in Eq. (10).

We further consider the alloyed QD ensembles, in which the FSSs, polarization angles, and mean lifetimes  $T_{\eta}$  fluctuate from dot to dot over a wide range. We arbitrarily choose an alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QD from Table I (No. 9) and then generate 50 different replica with randomly placed In and Ga atoms for a specific composition of 60%, which mimics an experimentally grown QD ensemble. The calculated results for this ensemble are shown in Fig. 2. As expected, the FSSs, polarization angles  $\theta$ , mean lifetimes  $T_{\eta}$ , and lifetime asymmetries  $\delta T_{\eta}$  fluctuate from dot to dot

TABLE I. Summarized parameters for different QDs from atomistic simulation. We consider lens-shaped (L), elongated (E), and pyramidal (Py) QDs with different sizes (diameter along the [110] and  $[1\bar{1}0]$  directions and height along the z direction). The exciton energy, FSS, and polarization angle without an external force are shown in columns 4–6. The last eight columns present the extrinsic and intrinsic lifetime asymmetries.

			$E_X$	Δ	θ	$T_x$	$\delta T_x$	$\tau_x$	$\delta \tau_x$	$T_{xx}$	$\delta T_{xx}$	$ au_{xx}$	$\delta  au_{xx}$
No.	QD	$(d_{[110]}, d_{[1\bar{1}0]}, h)$	(eV)	(µe∖	/) (rad)	(ns)	(ps)	(ns)	(ps)	(ns)	(ps)	(ns)	(ps)
1	InAs(L)	25.0, 25.0, 3.0	1.01	14.7	0	1.56	134.00	1.56	134.00	1.67	144.45	1.67	144.45
2	InAs(L)	24.0, 24.0, 3.0	1.02	16.3	0	1.56	142.77	1.56	142.77	1.67	153.65	1.67	153.65
3	InAs(L)	25.0, 25.0, 4.0	0.98	8.2	0	1.84	172.55	1.84	172.55	1.96	184.84	1.96	184.84
4	InAs(L)	25.0, 20.0, 2.5	1.02	6.0	0	1.56	385.34	1.56	385.34	1.68	418.26	1.68	418.26
5	InAs(L)	25.0, 22.7, 3.0	0.99	6.1	0	1.59	244.85	1.59	244.85	1.71	265.04	1.71	265.04
6	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(L)$	24.0, 24.0, 4.0	1.24	1.29	0.26	1.21	-1.48	1.21	-1.70	1.33	-2.52	1.33	- 2.89
7	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(L)$	25.0, 25.0, 3.0	1.25	1.35	3.05	1.29	15.52	1.29	15.81	1.40	18.1	1.40	18.45
8	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(L)$	25.0, 25.0, 4.0	1.23	3.37	2.75	1.23	6.87	1.23	9.65	1.33	8.15	1.33	11.45
9	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(E)$	25.0, 22.7, 3.0	1.24	7.48	2.14	1.23	- 46.45	1.23	108.85	1.35	- 52.97	1.35	124.14
10	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(E)$	25.0, 30.0, 4.5	1.21	4.23	1.91	1.13	- 147.54	1.13	188.57	1.26	- 166.49	1.26	212.80
11	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(Py)$	25.0, 25.0, 3.0	1.28	7.18	2.85	1.43	- 3.0	1.43	- 3.59	1.53	-2.91	1.53	- 3.49
12	$In_{0.6}Ga_{0.4}As(Py)$	25.0, 25.0, 4.0	1.25	6.44	2.86	1.30	- 8.64	1.30	- 10.19	1.41	- 11.62	1.41	- 13.70

over a wide range within an ensemble. Because all modeled dots within the ensemble have the same shape, size, and alloy composition, they almost share the same  $H_{2v}$ Hamiltonian, which means their intrinsic properties should be similar. Indeed, the deduced intrinsic lifetime asymmetries  $\delta \tau_n$  are rather insensitive to alloy-atom fluctuations in an ensemble. The observed fluctuations in the extrinsic quantities of FSSs,  $\theta$ ,  $T_{\eta}$ , and  $\delta T_{\eta}$ , are attributed to alloyfluctuation-induced change of the  $V_1$  potential. We find that  $|\delta T_n| \leq |\delta \tau_n|$  for all dots [see Figs. 2(d) and 2(e)], and the ratios of the extrinsic and intrinsic lifetime asymmetries fall on a cosine curve as shown in Fig. 2(f), consistent with the prediction given in Eq. (10). The alloy-induced  $V_1$  perturbation potential remarkably reduces extrinsic lifetime asymmetries  $\delta T_{\eta}$  to around zero, in contrast to their intrinsic lifetime asymmetry of around 0.1 ns.

# B. The optical anisotropy relying on the intrinsic lifetimes

The signals collected along the  $\phi$  direction after offresonance excitation can be written as

$$I_{\eta}(\phi) \propto 1 + \cos(2\theta) \cos[2(\phi - \theta)] \frac{\delta \tau_{\eta}}{2\tau_{\eta}},$$
 (11)

where  $\phi$  is the angle relative to the [110] direction. Here we also assume that both bright states are equally occupied from off-resonance excitation in the same way as we developed Eq. (9). We obtain the maximum degree of linear polarization  $\rho_{\eta,\text{max}}$  when  $\phi = \theta$  or  $\theta + \pi/2$ :

$$\rho_{\eta,\max} = \frac{I_{\max} - I_{\min}}{I_{\max} + I_{\min}} = \left| \frac{\cos(2\theta)\delta\tau_{\eta}}{2\tau_{\eta}} \right| \le \left| \frac{\delta\tau_{\eta}}{2\tau_{\eta}} \right|.$$
(12)

The degree of polarization is determined fully by the polarizaton angle  $\theta$ , lifetime asymmetry  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$ , and mean

lifetime  $\tau_{\eta}$ , considering that the transition between two bright exciton states is strictly forbidden by the selection rule. The degree of polarization is upper bounded by  $|\delta \tau_{\eta}/\tau_{\eta}|/2$ . Regarding  $|\delta \tau_{\eta}| \ll \tau_{\eta}$ , the degree of polarization is restricted to a small magnitude despite the large variation from dot to dot. The polarization discussed here should be different from the linear polarization defined in some experiments, in which the excitation and measurement are performed along two orthogonal directions, and thus the degree of polarizations are generally in the order of 80%–90% of the available experimental data [68–71]. In the latter case, polarization is complicated since carrier scattering, spin flipping, and lifetime asymmetry all contribute to its nonunity.

For the measurement along the [110] and [110] directions (let  $\phi = 0$ ),

$$\rho_{\eta,\times} = \frac{I_{[110]} - I_{[1\bar{1}0]}}{I_{[110]} + I_{[1\bar{1}0]}} = \frac{\cos^2(2\theta)\delta\tau_{\eta}}{2\tau_{\eta}},$$
 (13)

which is smaller than  $\rho_{\eta,\max}$  by a factor of  $\cos(2\theta)$ . We further prove straightforwardly that the degree of linear polarization along the *x* and *y* directions is  $\rho_{\eta,+} = \sin(2\theta)\rho_{\eta,\max}$ . The relations between these degrees of polarization are presented in Fig. 3. Although the small extrinsic lifetime asymmetry may be hard to measure directly by fitting the time-dependent photoluminescence with two exponential decaying functions, the relative polarization angle  $\theta$ , the mean lifetime  $\tau_{\eta}$  [see Eq. (9)], and the degree of polarization  $\rho_{\eta,i}$  can be measured precisely, thus making it rather feasible to obtain the intrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$  in experiments. Once we obtain the intrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta T_{\eta}$  can be deduced with use of Eq. (10).



FIG. 3. Relative relations between different degrees of polarization as a function of polarization angle for an alloyed QD.

### C. The optical polarization relying on the intrinsic lifetimes

Since exciton and biexciton states possess the same polarization angle  $\theta$ , we obtain

$$\frac{\rho_{x,i}}{\rho_{xx,i}} = \frac{\delta \tau_x}{\delta \tau_{xx}} \cdot \frac{\tau_{xx}}{\tau_x}, \quad i = \{\max, \times, +\},$$
(14)

which is also independent of the measured  $\phi$ . The deduced relations for the degree of polarization with intrinsic lifetimes  $\tau_{\eta}$  and lifetime asymmetry  $\delta \tau_{\eta}$  of the  $H_{2v}$  term along various directions can be examined with the data from atomistic calculations shown in Fig. 2. For this QD ensemble,  $\delta \tau_{\eta} \sim 0.1$  ns and  $\tau_{\eta} \sim 1.25$ –1.35 ns, and thus  $\rho_{\eta,\text{max}} \leq \delta \tau_{\eta}/2\tau_{\eta} \sim 4\%$ , which is in good agreement with the atomistic-simulation-predicted upper bound of the degree of polarization of approximately 4% as shown in Fig. 2(a). We may also calculate the ratio of the degree of polarization for excitons and biexcitons, which is independent of the direction of the optical measurements. This ratio is  $\rho_{x,i}/\rho_{xx,i} \sim 1.08$ . We expect this ratio to become larger for QDs with large shape asymmetry (such as elongation). In principle, the evolution of linear polarization as a function of angle  $\phi$  [Eq. (11)] can be obtained by careful calibration of the light path in experiments.

## D. The quadratic and strong nonlinear responses of the extrinsic lifetimes to external stress

In the presence of weak external force F, the effective Hamiltonian becomes [45–48]

$$H = E_0 + (\alpha F + \delta)\sigma_z + (\kappa + \beta F)\sigma_x, \qquad (15)$$

where the extra perturbative term  $\delta V = V_s F$  is responsible for the applied external force. The symmetry of  $\delta V$  depends strongly on the directions and the ways in which the forces are applied (see Fig. 4). Here, we consider only the case with a single external force, and generalization of this theory to multiple forces is straightforward following Refs. [46–48] due to addivitity of the  $C_1$  potentials. Notice that two unperturbed (intrinsic) bright exciton states  $|3\rangle$  and  $|4\rangle$ are also functions of F because  $H_{2v}$  should also be force dependent. For the stress applied along the [110] direction, the strained Hamiltonian still keeps  $C_{2v}$  symmetry [see Figs. 4(a) and 4(c)], and thus stress-induced coupling between the two bright states is forbidden. This is different from the case along the [100] direction, where the stress induces not only coupling of bright exciton states to highly excited states arising from other bands (termed "interband coupling") but also coupling between two bright exciton states (termed "intraband coupling") [see Figs. 4(b) and 4(d)]. The linear coupling dominates the interband coupling due to the large energy separation (approximately 40–100 meV) between the ground s band and the excited pand d bands, while the nonlinear effect may become significant in intraband coupling due to the much smaller energy difference between these two bright exciton states. This difference has remarkable consequences for the lifetime asymmetries. According to perturbation theory, we rewrite the intrinsic lifetimes as

$$\frac{1}{\tau_i^{\eta}(F)} = \frac{1}{\tau_i^{\eta}} + \gamma_i^{\eta} F + \xi_i^{\eta} F^2,$$
(16)



FIG. 4. Effect of external stress on QDs. (a),(b) The role of stress along the [110] and [100] directions, respectively. The black and blue boxes represent the QDs before and after being stressed. (c),(d) The coupling between the bright states and the excited states caused by stress along different directions. In these two cases the strain Hamiltonian may have different symmetries, and thus the coupling between the bright states and the excited states and the direction coupling among the two bright states are totally different.

for i = 3, 4 and  $\eta = \{x, xx\}$ . Here we have introduced two new parameters  $\gamma_i^{\eta}$  and  $\xi_i^{\eta}$  to characterize the linear and quadratic dependence on external force, respectively. When the contributions of the second and third terms are small as compared with  $1/\tau_i^{\eta}$ , we obtain

$$\tau_i^{\eta}(F) = \tau_i^{\eta} - (\tau_i^{\eta})^2 [\gamma_i^{\eta} F + \xi_i^{\eta} F^2 - (\gamma_i^{\eta})^2 \tau_i^{\eta} F^2], \quad (17)$$

which is again a quadratic function of *F*. It it expected that  $\tau_{\eta} = (\tau_3^{\eta} + \tau_4^{\eta})/2$  and  $\delta \tau_{\eta} = (\tau_3^{\eta} - \tau_4^{\eta})/2$  are also linear and/or quadratic functions of *F*. With these defined intrinsic lifetime asymmetries, the extrinsic lifetimes and their asymmetries can be obtained via

$$\delta T_{\eta}(F) = \cos[2\theta(F)]\delta\tau_{\eta}(F), \quad T_{\eta}(F) = \tau_{\eta}(F). \quad (18)$$

The striking consequence is that even under a weak force the extrinsic lifetime asymmetry  $\delta T_{\eta}$  is not necessarily a simple quadratic function of *F* due to the presence of the strong nonlinear cosine term. We can derive more exact relations via a combination of the current results and results in previous literature [45,47,48].

We next attempt to study the evolution of optical properties of QDs under external forces, which enables us to verify the last and the most intriguing prediction [Eq. (18)] in this work. The properties of QDs fluctuate strongly from



FIG. 5. Polarization angle and FSS in pure and alloyed QDs under stress. (a),(c) The results for stress along the [100] direction. (b),(d) The results for stress along the [110] direction. The open symbols represent the data from the atomistic simulation, while the solid line is the fitting obtained with the effective two-band model with the following parameters in the unit of microelectronvolts for  $\delta$  and  $\kappa$  and microelectronvolts per megapascal for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ : for pure QDs,  $\delta = 2.73$ ,  $\kappa = -1.69$ ,  $\alpha_{[100]} = 0$ ,  $\beta_{[100]} = 0.05$ , and  $\alpha_{[110]} = -0.12$ ,  $\beta_{[110]} = 0$ ; for alloyed QDs,  $\delta = 4.1$ ,  $\kappa = -0.02$ ,  $\alpha_{[100]} = 0$ ,  $\beta_{[100]} = 0.05$ , and  $\alpha_{[110]} = -0.19$ ,  $\beta_{[110]} = 0$ .

dot to dot; therefore investigation in single QDs could provide more convincing evidence for our predictions. We consider the pure InAs/GaAs QD (No. 3 in Table I) and alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QD (No. 12 in Table I) under uniaxial stress along the [110] and [100] directions, respectively. Figure 5 shows calculated FSSs and polarization angles as functions of stress for these two QDs obtained with the atomistic method, accompanied by fitted results obtained with the two-level model. We demonstrate that we can tune the FSS to zero on applying a stress along the [110] direction, which does not lower the QD symmetry [see Fig. 4], for the pure QDs, but it is impossible for alloyed QDs, where the achievable minimum lower bound of FSS is significantly larger than the spontaneous broadening of the spectra  $\Gamma$  [8–10]. This large minimum FSS implies that we cannot eliminate the FSS of alloyed ODs by using a single external force.

Figure 6 shows calculated intrinsic lifetimes and their asymmetries as functions of applied stress for both pure InAs/GaAs and alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs. For stress applied along the [110] direction, we find that  $\tau_{3x}$  and



FIG. 6. Linear and quadratic relations for intrinsic lifetime asymmetries. The solid squares represent the pure QDs, while the solid circles represent the alloyed QDs along (a),(c) the [100] direction and (b),(d) the [110] direction obtained from the atomistic simulation. The solid lines are fitted with a quadratic function of *F*, and for the solid lines the parameters (in the unit of nanoseconds per megapascal for  $\xi_i^x$  and nanoseconds per megapascal squared for  $\gamma_i^x$ ) used are as follows: for pure QDs along the [100] direction,  $\gamma_3^x = 6.73 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  $\xi_3^x = -2.29 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  $\gamma_4^x = 7.53 \times 10^{-7}$ , and  $\xi_4^x = 1.83 \times 10^{-6}$ ; for pure QDs along the [110] direction,  $\gamma_3^x = 3.52 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $\xi_3^x = -2.31 \times 10^{-8}$ ,  $\gamma_4^x = -4.20 \times 10^{-4}$ , and  $\xi_4^x = -2.30 \times 10^{-8}$ ; for alloyed QDs along the [100] direction,  $\gamma_3^x = 3.45 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $\xi_3^x = -5.53 \times 10^{-6}$ , and  $\gamma_4^x = -3.51 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $\xi_4^x = 3.82 \times 10^{-6}$ ; for alloyed QDs along the [110] direction,  $\gamma_3^x = 7.00 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $\xi_3^x = -2.18 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $\gamma_4^x = -4.95 \times 10^{-4}$ , and  $\xi_4^x = -2.58 \times 10^{-7}$ .



FIG. 7. Strong nonlinearity in extrinsic lifetimes and extrinsic lifetime asymmetries. The solid squares and solid circles show the results for alloyed and pure QDs, respectively. The solid line is computed with parameters from Fig. 6 and with use of Eq. (18).

 $\tau_{4x}$  are linear functions of stress *F*, as shown in Figs. 6(b)–6(d). To further verify their linear feature, we fit these data to quadratic functions. We gain tiny coefficients of the quadratic terms for both pure InAs/GaAs and alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs ( $\xi_{3,4}^x \sim 10^{-8}$ – $10^{-7}$  ns/MPa<sup>2</sup>; see fitted data in Fig. 6), which illustrates that both intrinsic lifetimes and their asymmetries are linear versus stress along the [110] direction. In striking contrast to the [110] direction, stress applied along the [100] direction gives rise to a different response of the lifetime of  $\tau_{3x}$  and  $\tau_{4x}$ , because it causes direct coupling between two bright exciton states (see the mechanism in Fig. 4). From Fig. 6, we see that both  $\tau_{3x}$  and  $\tau_{4x}$  exhibit quadratic relations with regard to applied stress *F* along the [100] direction. As expected, the corresponding lifetime asymmetry  $\delta \tau_x$  is also a quadratic function of *F*. Similar features can also be found for transition from biexciton to exciton states.

The extrinsic lifetime asymmetries have more complicated response behaviors to applied stress and will exhibit strong nonlinearity even under a weak force due to direct coupling between the two bright states induced by the  $C_1$ symmetry potential  $V_1$ . Figure 7 shows atomistic calculated results. In the pure InAs/GaAs QD, the  $V_1$  potential is absent, and thus  $T_{3x}$  and  $T_{4x}$  should be perfect linear functions of F for stress applied along the [110] direction and quadratic functions for stress applied along the [100] direction. The results shown in Fig. 7 well support the theoretical prediction. These stress responses are identical to  $\tau_{\eta}$ , as shown in Figs. 6(b) and 6(d), in the sense that  $\theta = 0$ . However, for alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs, strong nonlinearity behaviors of both the mean extrinsic lifetimes and extrinsic lifetime asymmetries are expected for stress applied along the [100] and [110] directions. Since  $T_i(F) = \tau_i(F)$  [see Eq. (18)], we observe the strong nonlinearity in both the extrinsic lifetimes  $T_{i\eta}$  and the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries  $\delta T_{\eta}$ . Moreover, while the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries are generally very small due to a wave-function-mixing effect, we find that the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries in Figs. 7(c) and 7(d) and the intrinsic lifetime asymmetries in Figs. 6(c) and 6(d) can be pronouncedly enhanced by external stress from tens of picoseconds to 0.2-0.7 ns (i.e., by at least 1 order of magnitude). These enhanced asymmetries may lead to direct measurement of lifetime asymmetries with only the time-resolved photoluminescnce spectrum, which should be fitted with two exponential decaying functions. A similar strong nonlinearity effect is also observed for transition from biexciton to exciton states for the reason discussed above. These results can be well described by the data in Fig. 6 and are in full accordance with our theoretical predictions.

#### V. SUMMARY

We introduce lifetime asymmetry into self-assembled QDs. We reveal that intrinsic lifetimes are fundamental quantities of QDs, which determine the bound of the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries, polarization angles, FSSs, and their evolution under uniaxial external forces. These predictions can be measured directly or extracted from experiments using the state-of-the-art techniques, such as the measured linear polarization as well as the optical properties of QDs under external forces. We verify these predictions using atomistic simulations. We find that the intrinsic lifetime asymmetries can be on the order of few hundred picoseconds in pure InAs/GaAs QDs, but the extrinsic lifetime asymmetries can be much smaller in alloyed (In,Ga)As/GaAs QDs. However, the lifetime asymmetries are susceptible to external forces and their directions, and thus can be more conclusively verified by investigation of their behaviors under external forces. These relations represent a complete description of the optical properties of QDs. Our findings can provide an important basis to deepen our understanding of QDs.

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