High-speed thin-film lithium niobate quantum processor driven by a solid-state quantum emitter

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Sustained progress of quantum technologies has enabled quantum computing and simulation (1,2,3), particularly active for operation with a variety of solid-state quantum emitters, which are characterized by an emission spectrum typically above several gigahertz (3,4–6) while high-speed free-carrier modulators add substantial phase-dependent photon loss (7,8). Very recently, programmable integrated circuits based on piezo-optomechanical actuators coupled to SiN waveguides with a modulation speed up to approximately 120 MHz were demonstrated at both room and cryogenic temperatures (8). Still, the scalability of these devices is currently limited by high insertion loss (>3 dB) and a low modulation efficiency (voltage-length product ≃50 V cm).

In this context, single-crystal thin lithium niobate [LiNbO3 (LN)] films bonded on a silica insulating substrate [lithium niobate on insulator (LNOI)] have emerged in recent years as a particularly promising platform. Because of their strong electro-optical properties, high transparency, and high index contrast, integrated circuits with compact footprints and low propagation loss can be implemented with tunable phase shifters having a modulation bandwidth above several gigahertz (29–31).

The wide transparency range of LN makes these circuits also especially attractive for operation with a variety of solid-state quantum emitters, which are characterized by an emission spectrum typically at visible or near-infrared wavelengths (32,33). Moreover, electro-optic modulators (EOMs) implemented in LN are compatible with operation at cryogenic temperature (34–36), making full-system integration with QDs and high-quality superconducting nanowire single-photon detectors (SNSPDs) an additional promising prospect (36–38). However, programmable multimode LNOI circuits for quantum information processing at the single photon regime have yet to be demonstrated. Here, we report on the experimental realization of a reconfigurable LNOI quantum photonic processor for the control and operation of quantum states of light emitted from a QD SPS. The device is designed to feature low propagation loss, efficient coupling to a QD photon emitter via a fiber-to-chip interface in the targeted 900- to 950-nm wavelength range [typical emission wavelength of indium gallium arsenide (InGaAs) QDs],
and modulators that enable programming the quantum processor up to gigahertz speed. By injecting single photons emitted by a waveguide-integrated QD source into the LNOI optical circuitry, we show prototypical key functionalities needed for photonic quantum information processing, including multiphoton interference, active four–spatial mode routing and demultiplexing of a temporal stream of photons, and the operation of a $4 \times 4$ reconfigurable universal unitary circuit (39).

RESULTS

Integrated photonic platform

In Fig. 1A, we report a schematic of the geometry used for the realization of single-mode (SM) LNOI waveguides. Optical circuits are implemented as rib waveguides with a 180-nm etching depth, fabricated by electron-beam lithography (EBL) and argon etching on a 300-nm-thick X-cut LN film bonded on a silica-on-silicon substrate (see Materials and Methods for more details). After etching, the waveguides are clad with a $\pm 550$-nm-thick electrically cured hydrogen silsesquioxane (HSQ) layer. The angle of the waveguide sidewalls (measured with an atomic force microscope) is $\approx 60^\circ$, and the top waveguide width of 550 nm ensures SM operation around 940-nm wavelength, the typical emission wavelength for InGaAs QDs used in this work, for transverse electric–polarized light.

The fabrication of photonic integrated circuits (PICs) operating at the short emission wavelength of InGaAs QDs comes with the disadvantage of increased propagation loss due to sidewall scattering, whose magnitude scales inversely with the third power of the operation wavelength (40), when compared with the values attainable for telecom LNOI waveguides. For this reason, we chose to use SM waveguides only for the realization of bends and directional couplers—where it is more likely to excite higher-order modes—and to adiabatically enlarge the waveguide width up to 1 μm in the straight sections of the optical circuitry to reduce the overlap between the TE optical mode and the waveguide sidewalls (see Fig. 1B). Using this approach, we were able to measure a low propagation loss coefficient down to 0.84 dB/cm at $\lambda = 940$ nm (see the Supplementary Materials for more details).

The LNOI PIC is optically coupled to SM fibers using apodized grating couplers with a negative diffraction angle, designed by following the approach of (41). The best coupling efficiency of our gratings was measured around 930-nm wavelength and found to be $-3.4$ dB (see Fig. 1C and Materials and Methods for further details). This measured value compares well with the best ones obtained at telecom wavelength for gratings etched on a pure LNOI platform, i.e., without any use of a back reflector for improving the grating directivity or additional material layers for increasing the grating strength [see, e.g., (42) for a review on recent progress]. We numerically estimate that with the aid of a metal back reflector underneath the buried oxide layer, our couplers can achieve an insertion loss of $<1$ dB. The LNOI PICs demonstrated here can therefore offer an efficient approach for interfacing fast optical switches and circuits to optical fibers.

For the realization of electro-optically tunable waveguide circuits, we use as a main building block Mach–Zehnder interferometers (MZIs) consisting of two 50:50 directional couplers and an electrically tunable phase shifter (see Fig. 1D). The phase shifter is implemented by patterning three 1.25-mm-long gold electrodes in a ground-signal-ground configuration along the $y$ axis of the crystal to provide an efficient overlap between the fundamental TE mode of the waveguide and the $z$ component of the applied

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Fig. 1. Overview of the platform. (A and B) Schematics of the designed waveguide geometry, tailored for the quantum emitter $\lambda \approx 940$ nm operation wavelengths, for (A) SM waveguides used in bends and directional couplers, and (B) multimode straight waveguides. Color-coded is the field intensity of the fundamental TE waveguide mode. (C) Measured coupling efficiency of the fabricated grating couplers as a function of the input laser wavelength, with a peak efficiency of $-3.4$ dB. The inset shows a scanning electron micrograph image of the coupler. (D) Optical microscope image of an electrically tunable MZI. (E) Schematic of the cross section of the electro-optic phase shifter. (F) Modulation bandwidth of the MZI measured with a VNA. The data show a 3-dB cutoff at approximately 6.5 GHz. Inset, schematic of the setup used in the measurement.
electric field via the highest electro-optic component \( (r_{33} \approx 30 \text{ pm/V}) \) of the LN susceptibility tensor. Unlike more common implementations of EOMs in LNOI, where signal and ground electrodes sit at the two sides of the waveguide \((30, 31)\), here, we opted to pattern them atop the HSQ cladding (see Fig. 1E). This choice is made to enable a nearly lossless crossing of the electrodes with the waveguides without any need for additional fabrication steps. The fabricated modulators displayed a half-wave voltage \( (V_w) \) of approximately 4.5 V, corresponding to a small voltage-length product \( V_wL \approx 0.6 \text{ V} \cdot \text{cm} \), and a high extinction ratio \( \approx 21 \text{ dB} \). The insertion loss of a single MZI, which includes two directional couplers, propagation loss in the waveguides, and metal-induced absorption loss due to the presence of the electrodes, was estimated equal to \( \approx 0.8 \text{ dB} \) (see Materials and Methods).

To test the high-speed performance of the modulators, we make use of the setup schematically depicted in the inset of Fig. 1E. The phase shifter is driven with a small-amplitude radio frequency signal from port 1 of a vector network analyzer (VNA), while port 2 is connected to a fast photodiode (Newport, 1544 B) optically coupled to one of the two outputs of the MZI. The resulting \( S_{21} \) parameter—defined as the ratio between the power measured at port 2 and the power leaving from port 1—is plotted in Fig. 1F normalized to its maximum value, and provides a direct estimation of the MZI electro-optic bandwidth. From the data, we record a 3-dB cutoff frequency of the modulator at approximately 6.5 GHz, demonstrating the high-speed capabilities of the fabricated PICs.

**On-chip quantum interference**

A central figure of merit in photonic quantum information processing is the visibility of multiphoton quantum interference, typically quantified as the two-photon interference visibility in Hong-Ou-Mandel (HOM) experiments. Incorporating simultaneously the detrimental effects of imperfect photonic circuitry, source distinguishability, and purity, this quantity is essential in determining the dominant stochastic noise in photonic quantum computing schemes \((16)\) and the computational complexity limits in photonic sampling algorithms \((43)\). We thus start by performing on-chip HOM experiments to test the performance of our platform for photonic quantum information processing with the experimental scheme depicted in Fig. 2A.

For single-photon generation, we use a self-assembled indium arsenide (InAs) QD embedded in a GaAs photonic and electronic nanostructure in a 1.6-K cryostat. The device comprises a single-sided photonic crystal waveguide and a shallow-etched waveguide grating for efficient photon generation, and a hetero-diode to suppress electrical noise and Stark-tune the emission wavelength \((19)\). See Materials and Methods for more details. We create a two-photon input state from a stream of single photons emitted by the QD using an off-chip demultiplexer to split up pairs of consecutive photons into two distinct paths, one of which is delayed such that the photons arrive at the chip simultaneously. The photons are sent into an integrated MZI containing a tunable electro-optic phase shifter. The electrodes constituting the phase shifter are connected to an electronic probe, allowing for control of the internal phase in the MZI. Photons are then routed off-chip to SNSPDs for coincidence detection. On-chip HOM interference is studied by applying a varying phase to the high-speed modulator of the MZI interferometer and measuring the fringe of the coincidence counts at the output \((44–46)\). The measured HOM fringe visibility of \(92.7 \pm 0.7\%\) (see Fig. 2B) is consistent with the corresponding HOM visibility measured off-chip (see Materials and Methods). This testifies that the fabricated PIC does not add stochastic noise on the processed photonic states \(\text{e.g., due to imperfect phase shifting or beam splitting, temporal mismatches, excitation of higher-order modes in the waveguides, or TE-transverse magnetic (TM) intermodal conversion (47)}\), certifying the high quality of the developed circuits as quantum photonic processing units.

**Integrated single-photon router**

Fast photon routers play an important role in photonic quantum computing schemes. For example, routers can be used in conjunction with measurement and feed forward to construct multiplexing schemes, turning inherently probabilistic quantum photonic processes into near-deterministic operations \((48–50)\). Alternatively, taking advantage of the capability of deterministic quantum emitters, streams of emitted photons can be routed into multiple spatial outputs to enable networking schemes that reduce resource overheads in photonic quantum computing architectures \((15)\), as well as demultiplexing schemes that turn a single deterministic SPS into multiple sources \((51)\).

Making use of the capability to integrate fast phase shifters on the LNOI platform compatible with the quantum emitter wavelengths, we demonstrate a fully on-chip photon router for the QD-emitted photons. In particular, starting from a stream of single photons emitted from the QD at a fixed rate, we implement a \(1 \times 4\) demultiplexer. The demultiplexer consists of three fast electro-optic MZI switches, which are cascaded in a tree-shaped network, as schematized in Fig. 3B (see Fig. 3A for a device microscope image). It processes sequences of four single photons emitted by the QD with a temporal separation of 13.8 ns, switching each photon deterministically into its own dedicated spatial mode. Figure 3C shows time traces for four output detectors with respect to the pulse sequence. The average probability of switching a photon in the four-photon sequence to its dedicated mode is measured to be 96.2%, corresponding to an average suppression of \(-14.2\ dB\) for unwanted photons. Such success probability is conditional upon photon detection (i.e., does not include loss) and shows the performance of rapidly programming the device to implement the desired time-dependent routing transformation. This directly illustrates the highly promising potential of the LNOI platform for photon routing of deterministic resource states produced by QDs.

**Universal four-mode interferometer**

Programmable multimode quantum photonic interferometers are central in the implementation of core functionalities in photonic quantum technologies, \(\text{e.g., multiphoton gates and fusion measurements (24, 52), and to realize circuits for quantum computational advantage experiments or analog quantum simulation (3, 4, 53, 54).}\) To showcase the capabilities of the QD-LNOI platform for this class of tasks, we implement a universal \(4 \times 4\) interferometer constructed from a network of 6 MZI and 10 phase modulators, as shown in Fig. 3E. The interferometer implements a scheme from Clements et al. \((39)\), whereby the unitary transformation enacted by the interferometer is controlled by the phases applied to the modulators, allowing for the device to implement any arbitrary linear-optical unitary transformation on the four input waveguides. We show that the interferometer can be programmed from implementing a
Sund \(\phi\) Minima and maxima in the observed HOM fringe correspond to applied phases at zero time delay (shaded red areas in the insets) for varying applied voltages.

In conclusion, high-speed LNOI quantum processors provide a route to scale up quantum photonic technologies by leveraging the mature and advanced on-demand sources realized with solid-state quantum emitters in photonic nanostructures. Moving forward, further optimization of the platform is required to reduce coupling and propagation loss, which will be realized in a close interplay between device design and PIC fabrication optimization. Fault-tolerant quantum computing architectures demand typical loss levels of \(\lesssim 10\%\) per photon (24, 57), which appears feasible with the technology after full-cycle optimization of source, processor, and detector, and will be an exciting future research and engineering challenge. With such an approach, only a few tens of interconnections between individual quantum emitters and gigahertz-speed reconfigurable devices suffice for fault-tolerant photonics.

**DISCUSSION**

The demonstrated exemplary circuits show the promise of the developed LNOI platform for processing photons from emerging solid-state deterministic sources. To fully enable scalable quantum technologies, further optimization of the platform is, however, required. To improve the transmission loss at these wavelengths, besides improving our current fabrication process to reduce roughness, the use of a thinner LN film would enable the realization of SM waveguides with a larger width and to mitigate the effect of sidewall scattering. The use of a cladding with a higher refractive index than HSQ (e.g., silicon oxynitride) can also be beneficial at the expense of a larger waveguide footprint due to the lower index contrast. A large improvement in the efficiency of the grating couplers can be achieved by patterning a metal back reflector underneath the buried oxide layer. This can, for example, be accomplished via back-side etching of the silicon handle, with a fabrication process analogous to the one preliminary demonstrated in (55).

System integration of all the used quantum devices on LNOI—sources, circuits, and detectors—provides an additional promising direction for lowering the overall system loss. In this direction, direct integration of SNSPDs together with a reconfigurable LNOI component has been recently experimentally demonstrated using the same material stack used in this work (36). Heterogeneous integration of quantum emitters directly onto the LNOI waveguides could be realized with a pick-and-place technique that has recently emerged as a highly promising approach (37). Alternatively, photonic wire bonds fabricated by two-photon absorption lithography might be used for interfacing optical circuits implemented in heterogeneous photonic platforms (36).

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Fabrication of the LNOI PICs**

The LNOI PICs are fabricated on a 300-nm-thick X-cut LN film bonded on a silica-on-silicon wafer, with a Si thickness of 500 m and a SiO\(_2\) thickness of 4.7 m (wafer produced by NanoLN). As a first step, gold markers for EBL alignment are patterned on the plain LN film with a standard lift-off process. Photonic circuits are afterward patterned by EBL with a negative resist (AR-N 7520.18), followed by Ar etching with an inductively coupled plasma system. After etching and resist stripping, an RCA-1 cleaning process is used to remove the redeposition of sputtered material on the waveguide sidewalls caused by the physical Ar etching. Next, the

![Image](https://www.science.org/at/CopenhagenUniversity)
waveguides are clad with a ≃550-nm-thick electrically cured HSQ layer and annealed at 400°C for 1 hour to reduce the absorption loss of the LN crystal. As a last step, the modulators are patterned atop the HSQ cladding with a standard lift-off process.

**Solid-state quantum emitter details**

Self-assembled InAs QDs are adopted to generate single photons. A GaAs pin diode structure was fabricated on a sacrificial Al_{2/3}Ga_{1/3}As layer, resulting in a 180-nm-thick membrane. QDs were introduced in the middle of the membrane. Photonic and electronic nanostructures to interface with the QDs are fabricated via mature fabrication techniques developed for this solid-state platform (7). First, high-quality metal gates are fabricated and used to suppress electronic noise, as well as for tuning the QDs’ emission wavelength via Stark shift (19, 58). To improve the single-photon collection efficiency, single-sided photonic crystal waveguides were used (59), which were terminated with a row of mirroring holes reflecting the single photons emitted on the reflection side of the waveguide. On the other side of the waveguide, a shallow-etched grating coupler is used for off-chip coupling, with a distributed Bragg reflector grown below the sacrificial layer that efficiently shapes the mode for coupling to an SM fiber. With this source, we generate 15.6 million photons/s in a fiber for a QD source pumped at a repetition rate of 72.6 MHz (59), where residual photon losses are dominated by optical elements in the collection path and can be readily improved even further. The sample was placed in a 1.6-K cryostat, and pulsed resonant excitation was used to achieve high-quality single-photon generation. The source was characterized with a standard free-space single-photon spectroscopy setup to achieve a near-unity single-photon purity of g(2)(0) = 0.005 ± 0.001, i.e., 99.5% single-photon purity, and a degree of indistinguishability of 94.5 ± 1.7% between subsequently emitted photons in a HOM interference experiment.
Measurement of the grating coupler efficiency

The efficiency per coupler reported in Fig. 1C is estimated as the square root of the transmission of a device consisting of only two grating couplers connected by a short waveguide (length of $\approx 300 \, \text{m}$). Optical coupling to the gratings is achieved using an angled polished fiber-$v$-groove array equipped with SM fibers for the 900- to 950-nm wavelength range (fiber type: 780HP). The insertion loss of the fiber array (including fiber connector loss and Fresnel loss at the output facet of the array) is calibrated out from the transmission measurement.

Measurement of the modulator insertion loss

The insertion loss of an electrically tunable MZI is estimated by measuring the transmission of the demultiplexer of Fig. 3B for all waveguide inputs. When light is injected into one of the two external inputs, it goes through only one MZI. When light is injected into one of the two internal inputs, it goes through two MZIs. Comparing the total transmission over all outputs between these two cases, we find an average MZI insertion loss equal to $0.8 \pm 0.3 \, \text{dB}$. This measurement via the demultiplexer structure provides an estimate that is more resilient to variations in the efficiency of other components (e.g., grating couplers and loss in routing waveguides) compared to measuring a single MZI structure (which provided a compatible measurement). We numerically estimate that the insertion loss of our modulators can be lowered to approximately 0.2 dB, at the expense of an increase of $\approx 2 \, \text{V}$ in the half-wave voltage, by carefully adjusting the thickness of the cladding and the gap between the electrodes to reduce the amount of metal-induced propagation loss. A further improvement below this value will require an optimization of our fabrication workflow for reducing the effect of sidewall scattering (see Discussion).

For the different circuits reported here, we estimate the per-photon efficiency of the full experimental setup (i.e., including source efficiency, losses in the chip–fiber interfaces, and detection efficiency) to be $-30$, $-24$, and $-34$ for the on-chip single-MZI, demultiplexer, and 4 $\times$ 4 structures, respectively. These values are estimated directly from the detection-per-clock cycle rates. Note that the higher total system efficiency for the on-chip routing experiment is due to the absence of the off-chip demultiplexer for that application (which adds approximately $-6 \, \text{dB}$ loss).

Supplementary Materials

This PDF file includes:

Supplementary Text
Figs. S1 and S2
References

REFERENCES AND NOTES


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