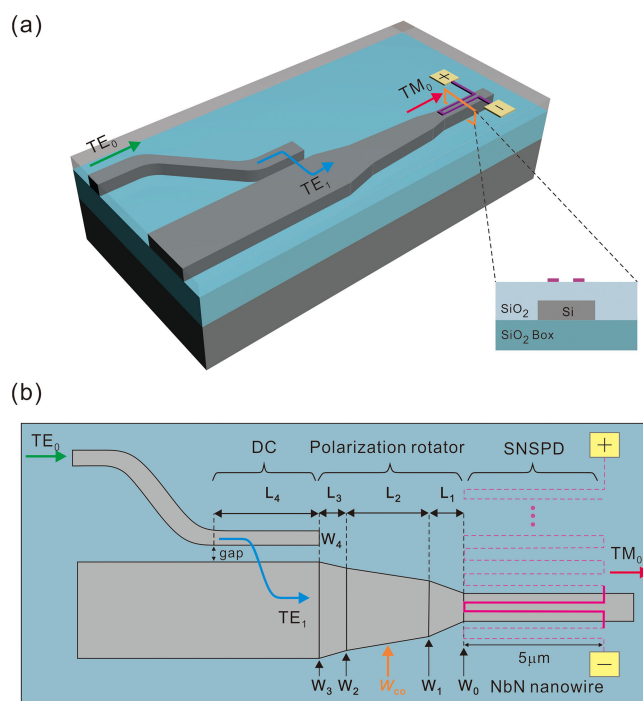


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**Abstract:** A  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD based on SOI platform is designed. The light propagating in this device can achieve high-efficiency mode conversion from  $TE_0$  mode to  $TM_0$  mode and then absorbed by NbN nanowires on top of the waveguide. Thanks to the  $TM_0$  mode coupled detection, the length of NbN nanowire that is needed to achieve a close-to-unity photon absorption is cut down to an extremely short level of  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ . Meanwhile, this  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD is very robust against fabrication errors compared with  $TE_0$  coupled SNSPD.

**Index Terms:** Travelling wave SNSPD, integrated quantum nanophotonic circuits, silicon-photonics, polarization rotator.

## 1. Introduction

Single photon detectors (SPDs) with high detection efficiency play a key role in modern quantum information [1] and measurement-based quantum applications such as quantum computation [2], [3], quantum key distribution [4], quantum simulating [5], loophole-free Bell experiments [6], [7] that utilize photons as quantum bits. Scalability is one of another most sought-after feature in monolithic integrated quantum nanophotonic circuits especially in the popular SOI platform. In the telecommunication wavelength regime around 1550 nm, avalanche photodiodes (APDs) such as InGaAs near-infrared photon detectors are predominantly. However, such detectors are plagued by

high dark count rates and low detection efficiency. What's more, these detectors are stand-alone which means they cannot be packaged to a scalable size.

In recent years, superconducting nanowire single-photon detector (SNSPD) has emerged and grown as a promising alternative photon detector, which exhibits high detecting efficiency, ultra-low noise, high counting rates and low timing jitter [8], [9]. SNSPDs usually utilize NbN (or NbTiN) as superconducting material, which operates at cryogenic environment below its critical temperature  $T_c$ . At this temperature, NbN nanowires are under superconductive state which means electrons flow under the nanowires without resistance. When photons are absorbed by NbN nanowires, hot-spot creation happens and locally destroys the superconductive state with a resistance area [10]. Current flow through this area will then registered electronically as pulses and thus provides a clear signature of photon detection events. However, traditional SNSPDs absorb photons coupled from normal incidence fibers which the detection efficiency is limited by the thickness of the thin NbN film (usually a few nanometers). Cavities [11], [12] or reflect mirrors [13], [14] can be used to enhance the absorption but they concomitantly reduces the optical bandwidth. Besides, the way of normal incidence still hinder these detectors from integrating to a nanophotonic circuit. In contrast, the waveguide travelling wave SNSPD [15]–[17] is a better choice because the superconducting NbN nanowires atop the waveguide can absorb the guided optical modes through evanescent wave coupling. In this way, the SNSPDs can achieve close-to-unity photon absorption on-chip as long as the NbN nanowire is long enough. Photon-number-resolving detectors (PNRDs) [18], spectrometers [19], and two photon interference (TPI) measurement [20] can also be realized in this travelling wave SNSPD scenario.

Unfortunately, most of the travelling wave SNSPDs need several tens of micrometer long of NbN nanowires to achieve close-to-unity absorption when dealing with the (quasi-) transverse electric (TE) modes. This will make the fabrication more difficult. Meanwhile, almost all of those SNSPDs deposit thin NbN film directly on the upper surface of core waveguide. It's efficient for light absorption but strict to the NbN nanowire etching process because once the etchant damages the core, the light inside the waveguide would be scattered at the rough upper surface.

Here, we propose a novel  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD based on SOI platform with the NbN meander nanowires deposited on the surface of  $SiO_2$  cladding. The  $SiO_2$  cladding can protect the core waveguide from impact of the etchant and the quality of thin NbN film deposited on its surface will not be affected because of the advanced chemical mechanical polishing (CMP) technic. Moreover, for the sake of  $TM_0$  mode coupled photon absorption, the length of NbN nanowire is reduced to an extremely short level ( $\sim 5 \mu m$ ) and the SNSPD is very robust against fabrication errors.

## 2. Design

The waveguide travelling wave SNSPD based on SOI platform has a single NbN nanowire, which is patterned into a meander shape. The cross section of the SNSPD is schematically shown in the inset of Fig. 1(a). The buried oxide layer is  $2 \mu m$  thick and the core Si waveguide has a cross-section dimension of  $500 \text{ nm} \times 220 \text{ nm}$ . The NbN nanowires atop the  $SiO_2$  cladding are  $7 \text{ nm}$  thick and  $100 \text{ nm}$  wide and are placed symmetrically above the Si core. NbN ( $n = 5.23 - 5.82i$ ) [21] has a large imaginary part of refractive index so that a film of a few nanometer thick is enough to absorb the evanescent optical field. The real part of refractive index of NbN is also large, but due to the large area mismatch between the NbN nanowire and the core Si waveguide, the real part of the mode effective index of bare and NbN-covered waveguides are almost identical ( $TE_0 < 0.2\%$ ,  $TM_0 < 0.46\%$ , obtained from Lumerical MODE solution). Therefore, the optical modes travel in the Si waveguide will experience a smooth transition between the two regions.

There are also two parameters that affect the NbN nanowire absorption: the spacing between the nanowires and the thickness of  $SiO_2$  cladding. Considering the absorptance  $A$  in the NbN

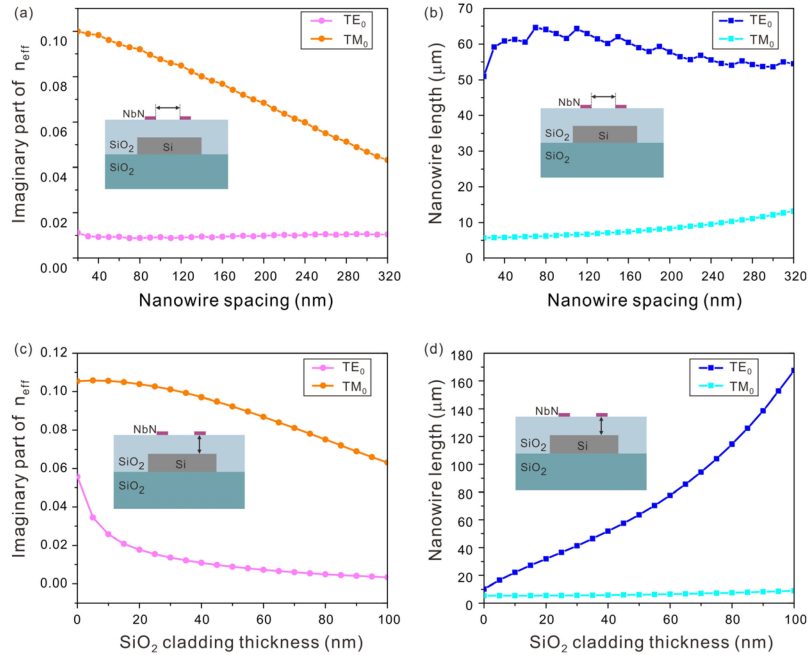


Fig. 1. The calculated imaginary part of TE<sub>0</sub> and TM<sub>0</sub> mode effective index and the nanowire length needed to achieve 99% light absorption when: (a)-(b) NbN nanowire spacing increases and (c)-(d) SiO<sub>2</sub> cladding thickness increases.

nanowires [22]:

$$\alpha = 2 \times \text{Im} \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \times n_{\text{eff}} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$A = 1 - e^{-\alpha L} \quad (2)$$

Where  $\alpha$  is an absorption coefficient,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength (1550 nm) of the guided light,  $n_{\text{eff}}$  is the mode effective index,  $L$  is the length of a single nanowire. First, the imaginary part of TE<sub>0</sub> and TM<sub>0</sub> mode effective index are plotted in Fig. 1(a) while the thickness of the SiO<sub>2</sub> cladding is 50 nm. Although the imaginary part of TM<sub>0</sub> mode effective index is decreased from 0.1 to 0.04 while the NbN nanowire spacing is increased from 20 nm to 320 nm, it is still several times bigger than that of TE<sub>0</sub> ( $< 0.011$ ). Correspondingly, the nanowire length  $L$  calculated by equation (2) while  $A$  is set as 99% are plotted in Fig. 1(b), the TM<sub>0</sub> mode only needs  $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$  long nanowire to absorb 99% of the light while the TE<sub>0</sub> mode needs nearly 5 times longer. Furthermore, the TM<sub>0</sub> mode is more insensitive to the nanowire spacing variation than TE<sub>0</sub> mode. Since the width of core Si is only 500 nm, we set the nanowire spacing as 80 nm for easy fabrication. Second, we keep the nanowire spacing fixed at 80 nm and then calculate the imaginary part of mode effective index and nanowire length  $L$  for 99% absorptance by sweeping the cladding thickness from 0 nm to 100 nm. The results are shown in Fig. 1(c) and Fig. 1(d), respectively. Obviously, the TE<sub>0</sub> mode is very sensitive to cladding thickness while the TM<sub>0</sub> mode only needs  $< 10 \mu\text{m}$  to absorb 99% of the light even when the cladding thickness is 100 nm. Considering the difficulty of CMP process, we choose the cladding thickness as 50 nm.

Finally we set the spacing of the NbN nanowires 80 nm and the thickness of the SiO<sub>2</sub> cladding 50 nm, as shown in the inset of Fig. 2. The propagation of TE<sub>0</sub> mode and TM<sub>0</sub> mode in a 50  $\mu\text{m}$  long waveguide covered with NbN nanowires are simulated by 3D FDTD method. The results are shown in Fig. 2. As we expected, TM<sub>0</sub> mode attenuates faster than TE<sub>0</sub> mode. More specifically, TM<sub>0</sub> mode only needs  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$  to attenuate from 100% to less than 1% while TE<sub>0</sub> mode needs more

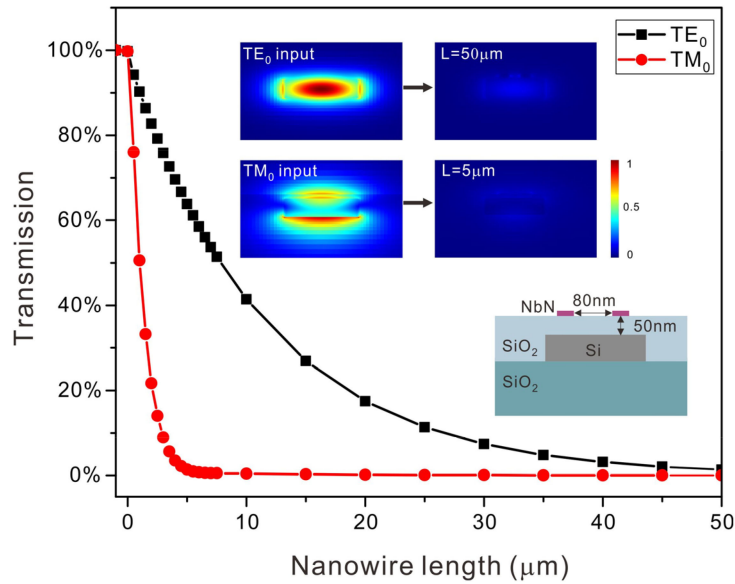


Fig. 2. The transmission of TE<sub>0</sub> and TM<sub>0</sub> mode lunched into a 50 μm long travelling wave SNSPD. Inset: upper: normalized electric field distribution of TE<sub>0</sub> and TM<sub>0</sub> input and when L = 50 μm and 5 μm, respectively; lower: the cross section of the travelling wave SNSPD.

than 50 μm to complete the same absorption. This is mainly affected by the different distributions of electric field. The electric field of TM<sub>0</sub> mode is polarized perpendicular to the upper surface of core waveguide which is more easily absorbed by NbN nanowires. The normalized electric field distribution of the input TE<sub>0</sub> mode and TM<sub>0</sub> mode and the electric field distribution after 99% absorption are shown in the inset of Fig. 2.

In photonic design, most of the nanophotonic circuits are based on (quasi-) TE modes for TM modes are lossy. Therefore, at the end of a chip, we designed a polarization rotator to convert TE<sub>0</sub> mode to TM<sub>0</sub> mode for detection. The TM<sub>0</sub> mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD is schematically shown in Fig. 3. The device is consist of three parts: (1) a directional coupler (DC), which can convert the TE<sub>0</sub> mode to TE<sub>1</sub> mode; (2) polarization rotator, which can convert the TE<sub>1</sub> mode to TM<sub>0</sub> mode; (3) SNSPD, which can absorb the TM<sub>0</sub> mode by evanescent wave coupling.

It's worth noting that for a short NbN nanowire, the count rate can be high, but very short nanowire will preclude operation of SNSPD resulting from a state called latching [23]. In real fabrication process, the latching can be avoid by increasing the kinetic inductance of NbN nanowire. According to the equation of kinetic inductance of SNSPD [24]:

$$L_k = \frac{\hbar R_n}{1.76\pi k T_c} \quad (3)$$

Where  $R_n = \frac{l}{\sigma_n w d}$ ,  $\sigma_n$  is the conductivity in the normal state,  $l$ ,  $w$  and  $d$  are the length, wire width and thickness of SNSPD respectively,  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant. The length of NbN nanowire can be adjusted by increasing the number of meander while keeping the effective length 5 μm on top of the Si waveguide, as shown in Fig. 3(b). We adjust the kinetic inductance of the SNSPD to make sure the thermal relaxation of the hotspot prior to the bias current  $I_b$  recovery and the latching can be avoid.

Polarization rotator is the core part of the device. Waveguide-type polarization rotators are difficult to realize because it is not easy to rotate the optical axis of a planar waveguide. In order to realize polarization rotation, we have to break the symmetry of vertical refractive index with structures like bi-level tapers [25], [26], horizontal slot waveguides [27], stacked waveguides [28], and core waveguide with a cut corner [29], [30] etc. These structures usually unavoidably increase

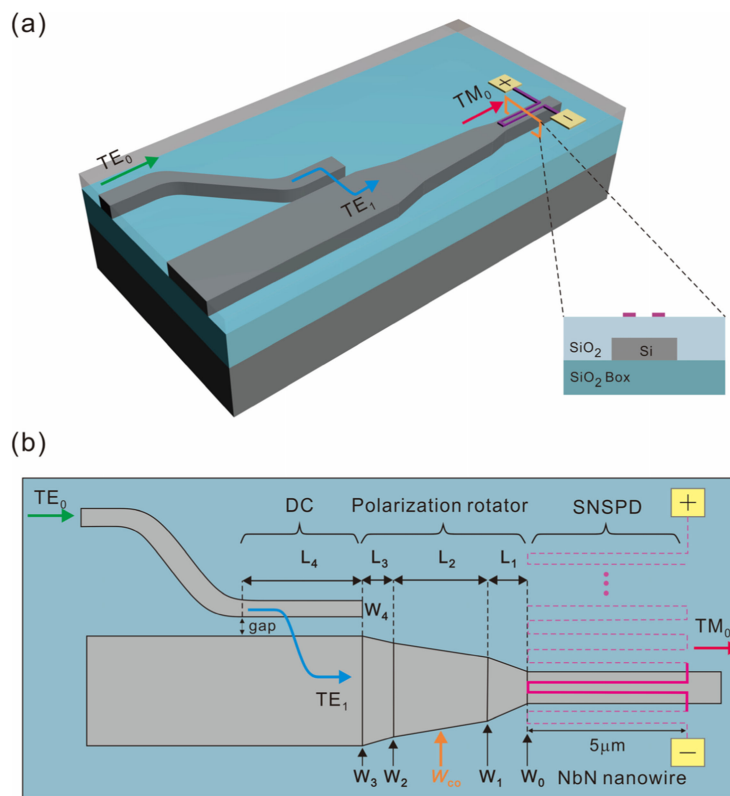


Fig. 3. Schematic configuration of the  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD. (a) 3D view; (b) top view.

the fabrication complexity, e.g., double etching process, multi materials deposition and precise aligning requirement. In this paper, we achieve the polarization rotation by using three cascaded tapers in a SOI chip, where the vertical refractive index symmetry is broken by reducing the  $SiO_2$  cladding thickness to 50 nm. Furthermore, only one-step etching is needed, which is compatible with standard nanophotonic circuits fabrication process.

We simulated 220 nm thick core Si with different cladding materials and thickness. The refractive index of Si,  $SiO_2$  and  $Si_3N_4$  are 3.476, 1.444 and 1.979, respectively. Fig. 4 shows the effective mode index evolution of  $TE_0$ ,  $TM_0$  and  $TE_1$  mode as the core waveguide width  $W_{co}$  increases from 0.3  $\mu m$  to 1.5  $\mu m$ . When the  $SiO_2$  cladding is 3  $\mu m$  thick (shown in Fig. 4(a)), the refractive index in vertical is symmetrical and therefore the eigenmodes of  $TE_0$ ,  $TM_0$  and  $TE_1$  are purely polarized. However, when the cladding material is air ( $n = 1$ ) or 3  $\mu m$  thick  $Si_3N_4$ , the modes are hybrid, as labeled with dashed circle in Fig. 4(b)-(c), and one cannot distinguish them at some special  $W_{co}$ . For the travelling wave SNSPD structure, the  $SiO_2$  cladding thickness is reduced to 50 nm and the mode hybridization between  $TE_1$  and  $TM_0$  still exists, as shown in Fig. 4(d). This phenomenon demonstrates that cladding thickness is another factor to influence the mode hybridization besides material. The mode hybridization in these structures can be used as a polarization rotator, when light propagates along an adiabatic taper, the mode conversion between  $TE_1$  mode and  $TM_0$  mode happens [26].

It's feasible combining the waveguide type polarization rotator with the travelling wave SNSPD to accomplish a  $TM_0$  mode coupled SNSPD. The polarization rotator shown in Fig. 3(b) is consist of three cascaded tapers. The length  $L_2$  should be long enough to keep the mode conversion adiabatically, meanwhile the width of the two ends ( $w_1$ ,  $w_2$ ) must cover the mode transition point ( $W_{co} = 0.63 \mu m$ ) which we choose from Fig. 3(d). Therefore we choose  $w_1 = 0.56 \mu m$  and  $w_2 =$



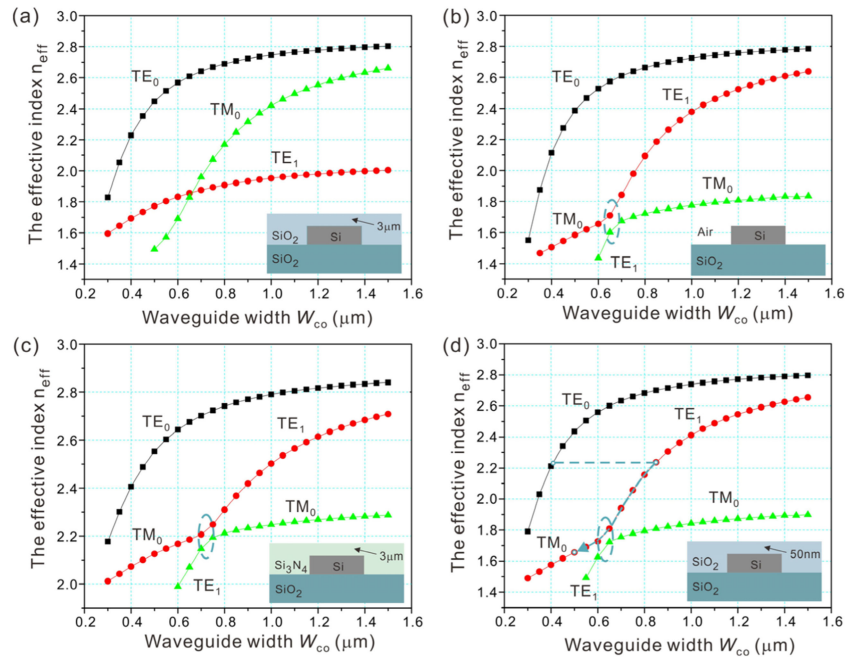


Fig. 4. The calculated mode effective indices of eigenmodes  $TE_0$ ,  $TM_0$ ,  $TE_1$  with (a)  $3\ \mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{SiO}_2$ ; (b) air; (c)  $3\ \mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$ ; (d)  $50\ \text{nm}$  thick  $\text{SiO}_2$  upper claddings.

$0.7\ \mu\text{m}$  to satisfy  $w_1 < w_{co} < w_2$ ,  $w_0 = 0.5\ \mu\text{m}$  to match the travelling wave SNSPD structure and  $w_3 = 0.85\ \mu\text{m}$  to avoid the mode hybridization. In order to obtain high mode conversion efficiency and keep the device compact, the  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$ ,  $L_3$  should be carefully optimized. In this paper, we set  $L_1 = 1\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $2\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $3\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $4\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $5\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $10\ \mu\text{m}$  and corresponding  $L_3 = 2.5\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $5\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $7.5\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $10\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $12.5\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $25\ \mu\text{m}$  ( $L_3 = L_1(w_3 - w_2)/(w_1 - w_0)$ ) because the first and third taper are used to bridge the adjacent segments which won't influence the conversion efficiency greatly. For different combinations of length  $L_1$  and  $L_3$ , the length  $L_2$  is optimized for maximum mode conversion efficiency as shown in Fig. 5. There are some ripples in these curves and even obvious as the  $L_1$  length decreases. This is caused by the uncomplete mode conversion in the first and third taper because they are too short. Fortunately, we can always get high polarization conversion efficiency ( $\sim 100\%$ ) from  $TE_1$  mode to  $TM_0$  mode as long as we choose the  $L_2$  length properly. In our design, we choose  $L_2 = 46\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $L_1 = 4\ \mu\text{m}$  and corresponding  $L_3 = 10\ \mu\text{m}$  for high mode conversion efficiency while the device is still compact. The inset of Fig. 5 shows the filed intensity distribution when  $TE_1$  mode is launched as input and propagates in this polarization rotator. From the electric field distribution evolution, we can clearly see that the  $TE_1$  mode convert to  $TM_0$  mode with conversion efficiency of  $\sim 98\%$ .

The DC part of this device is to convert  $TE_0$  mode to  $TE_1$  mode. A directional coupler is designed so that the  $TE_0$  mode in the upper narrow waveguide could be coupled to  $TE_1$  mode in the lower wide waveguide based on the mode coupling theory. The width  $w_3$  is fixed as  $0.85\ \mu\text{m}$ , and we choose  $w_4 = 0.41\ \mu\text{m}$  to satisfy the phase matching condition, i.e.,  $n_{\text{eff\_}TE_0}(w_4) = n_{\text{eff\_}TE_1}(w_3)$ , which is marked by the dotted line in Fig. 4(d). We calculated the coupling efficiency as the coupling length  $L_4$  increases from  $0\ \mu\text{m}$  to  $30\ \mu\text{m}$  while the gap is set as  $0.1\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $0.15\ \mu\text{m}$ ,  $0.2\ \mu\text{m}$  and  $0.25\ \mu\text{m}$ . The results are shown in Fig. 6. For any gap width, there are optimal coupling lengths for maximal coupling efficiency and the optimal coupling length decreases as the gap decreases. Here we choose the coupling gap as  $0.15\ \mu\text{m}$  and corresponding  $L_4$  length of  $13\ \mu\text{m}$  for a good tradeoff between a compact size and a UV lithography compatible patterning linewidth.

Fig. 7 shows the intensity of light propagating along the whole device when  $TE_0$  mode is launched as input mode. We mesh the NbN thin film with a  $1\ \text{nm}$  grid for it's only  $7\ \text{nm}$  thick. The normalized

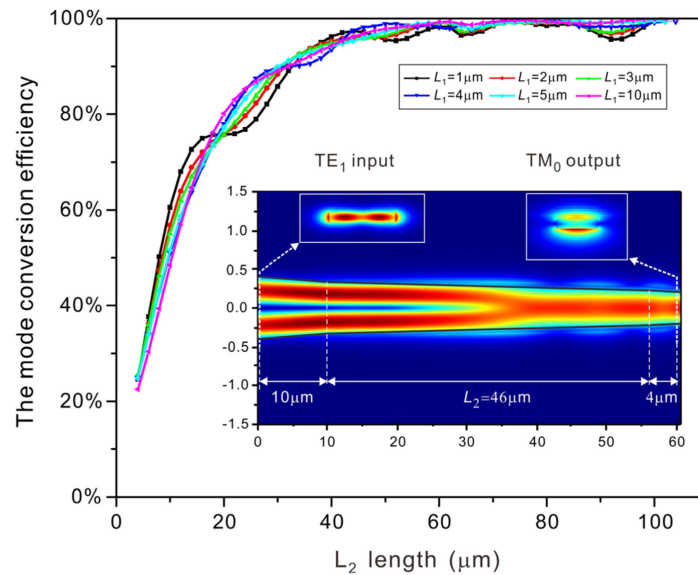


Fig. 5. The mode conversion efficiency from  $TE_1$  to  $TM_0$  as  $L_2$  length increases with different  $L_1$ ,  $L_3$  combinations. Inset: the intensity of light propagating through the polarization rotator and the electric field distribution at the input and output port.

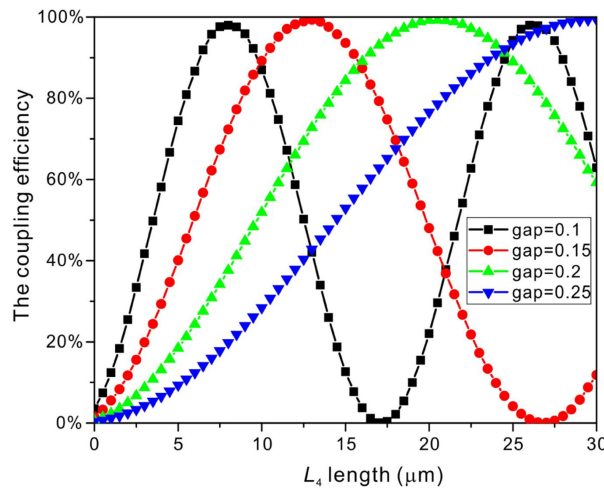


Fig. 6. The coupling efficiency as  $L_4$  length increases with different gaps.

electric field distribution at some important nodes are also shown, from where we can clearly see the mode is converted from  $TE_0$  to  $TM_0$  and finally absorbed by  $5 \mu\text{m}$  long NbN nanowire (labeled by purple line). The transition at these nodes are shown at the bottom of the electric field distributions, which is in good agreement with our expectation.

SNSPD is a wide range detector spanning UV to mid-IR wavelength [31] and the imaginary part index of NbN is large enough around  $1550 \text{ nm}$  [32], so we calculated the wavelength dependence of the  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD. Fig. 8 shows the wavelength dependence of the directional coupler, polarization rotator and the whole device (including NbN nanowire) when  $TE_0$  mode lunched as input, respectively. We can see that the bandwidth of the device is mainly limited by the directional coupler. But it still shows a  $0.5\text{dB}$  loss in the bandwidth of  $\sim 70 \text{ nm}$  and  $1\text{dB}$  loss in the bandwidth of  $\sim 100 \text{ nm}$  around  $1550 \text{ nm}$ .



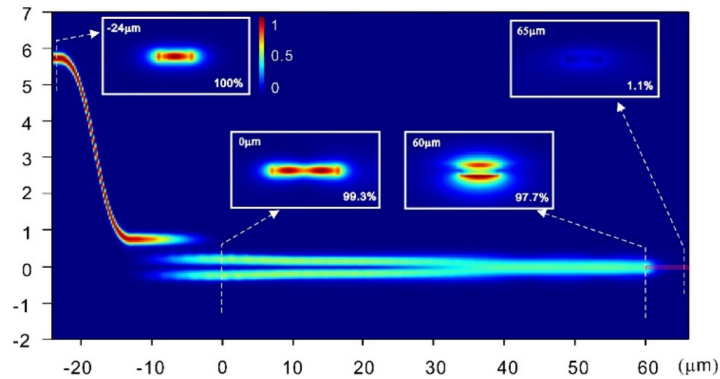


Fig. 7. The intensity of light propagating along the device when  $TE_0$  mode launched as input. Inset: normalized electric field distribution and transition at some important nodes.

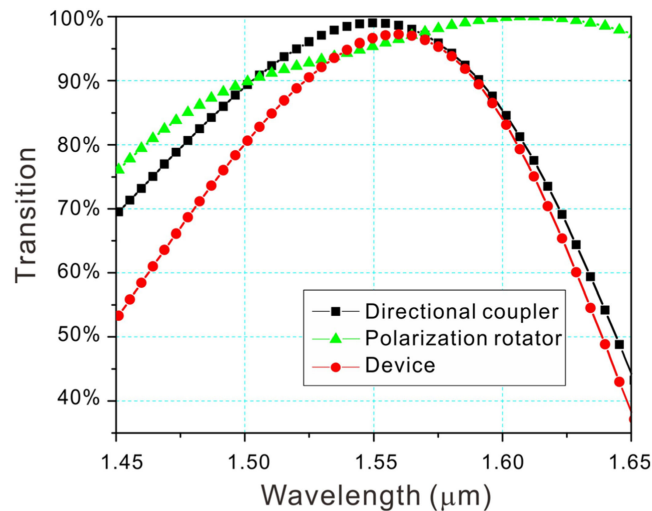


Fig. 8. The wavelength dependence of the  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD.

### 3. Conclusion

In this paper, we designed a  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD based on SOI platform simulated by commercial software Lumerical (Lumerical Solutions, Inc., London, U.K.). When  $TE_0$  mode launched into the device, it will coupled to  $TE_1$  mode in the adjacent waveguide through a  $13 \mu\text{m}$  long directional coupler with a  $150 \text{ nm}$  gap. Then three cascaded tapers adiabatically convert the  $TE_1$  mode into  $TM_0$  mode with high conversion efficiency close to 100%. Finally, a  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$  NbN nanowire atop the waveguide absorb the  $TM_0$  mode through waveguide evanescent wave coupling with an absorptance close-to-unity. Thanks to the novel way of  $TM_0$  mode coupled absorption, the SNSPD is short enough and is very robust against fabrication errors compared with  $TE_0$  mode coupled SNSPD. Moreover, we innovatively deposit the NbN thin film on the surface of  $\text{SiO}_2$  cladding, which can protect the core waveguide from damage during the NbN etching process. Compared with traditional waveguide fabrication process, only one extra fabrication step (CMP) is added and it's easy to do. More importantly, our design simplify the NbN nanowire fabrication process greatly, which we think it's a good tradeoff between nanowire fabrication and waveguide fabrication. The  $TM_0$  mode coupled travelling wave SNSPD we proposed could be helpful in the future monolithic integrated photonic quantum circuits to simplify the NbN nanowire fabrication process.

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