

# 1 Quantum communication with itinerant surface acoustic wave phonons

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10 Surface acoustic waves are commonly used in classical electronics applications, and their use in  
11 quantum systems is beginning to be explored, as evidenced by recent experiments using acoustic  
12 Fabry-Pérot resonators. Here we explore their use for quantum communication, where we demon-  
13 strate a single-phonon surface acoustic wave transmission line, which links two physically-separated  
14 qubit nodes. Each node comprises a microwave phonon transducer, an externally-controlled super-  
15 conducting variable coupler, and a superconducting qubit. Using this system, precisely-shaped  
16 individual itinerant phonons are used to coherently transfer quantum information between the  
17 two physically-distinct quantum nodes, enabling the high-fidelity node-to-node transfer of quan-  
18 tum states as well as the generation of a two-node Bell state. We further explore the dispersive  
19 interactions between an itinerant phonon emitted from one node and interacting with the supercon-  
20 ducting qubit in the remote node. The observed interactions between the phonon and the remote  
21 qubit promise future quantum optics-style experiments with itinerant phonons.

## 22 INTRODUCTION

23 Quantum communication is of significant interest for the generation of remote entanglement and the secure trans-  
24 mission of information, as well as for distributed quantum computing [1–7]. There are several demonstrations of  
25 long-distance quantum communication protocols using optical methods, in parallel with demonstrations of similar  
26 protocols using microwave-frequency photons, including Bell state entanglement of remote qubits as well as the trans-  
27 mission of multi-qubit entangled states [8–16]. Microwave-frequency phonons, as opposed to photons, can also be  
28 used for quantum communication as well as for coupling hybrid quantum systems [17–20], in the latter case tak-  
29 ing advantage of the strong strain coupling in some optical as well as atomic-scale systems. Microwave-frequency  
30 acoustic resonators may be able to serve as very long-lived quantum memories [21]. Quantum communication pro-  
31 tocols implemented with phonons are thus of significant scientific as well as practical interest. Recent advances in  
32 the quantum control of phonons include the creation and measurement of stationary phonon quantum states [22–24],  
33 the emission and absorption of phonons in an acoustic resonator [25], and the generation of entangled phonons in a  
34 phonon-mediated quantum eraser experiment [26].

35 Here we report the experimental realization of a phonon-based quantum communication channel, enabling the  
36 communication of quantum states via traveling phonons linking two physically-distinct quantum nodes. The phonons  
37 are emitted in the communication channel as short-duration acoustic pulses, sufficiently brief that the extent of the  
38 acoustic pulses is significantly less than the length of the channel, such that the phonons travel in a particle-like  
39 fashion along the channel, which we term itinerant.

40 The experimental system is shown schematically in Fig. 1, with the physical setup in Fig. 1a and the circuit  
41 schematic in Fig. 1b. The 2 mm-long phonon communication channel (500 ns single-trip time) is terminated at each  
42 end by a specially-designed unidirectional interdigitated transducer, which is in turn connected to a superconducting  
43 qubit via a superconducting tunable coupler. The unidirectional transducers (UDTs) differ from conventional acoustic  
44 transducers, here emitting itinerant phonons in only one direction, as opposed to more standard bi-directional trans-  
45 ducers, which emit excitations equally in two opposing directions (see Supplementary Note 1; a related but distinct  
46 design appears in [27]). We note this device differs from the experimental construction in e.g. Ref. [25], which uses  
47 a single bidirectional transducer in a Fabry-Pérot cavity. In that experiment, a single phonon comprises acoustic  
48 excitations that travel in two opposing directions to distant acoustic mirrors, from which the excitations reflect and  
49 return to interfere constructively at the emitting transducer, where the excitation can be intercepted by one of two  
50 qubits. In the experiment here, two distinct unidirectional transducers are used to link two physically separate nodes.  
51 Each transducer is constructed to emit an acoustic excitation in only one direction, creating a significantly more  
52 flexible and general-purpose design, with physically separate and distinct phonon emitter and receiver.

53 We use this device to demonstrate two-node quantum state transfers as well as the phonon-mediated deterministic

54 generation of an entangled Bell state, representing a significant advance over prior work, in which a single transducer  
 55 was coupled to a Fabry-Pérot acoustic cavity formed by two acoustic mirrors [22–26]. We also realize a single-phonon  
 56 interferometer, using one qubit to emit and detect a traveling phonon, where the phonon is used to probe the state of  
 57 the second qubit, effectively demonstrating the dispersive interaction of a photon (localized in the remote qubit) and  
 58 a traveling phonon. Finally, we demonstrate a Ramsey interferometer, using the second qubit to detect the presence  
 59 of a traveling phonon emitted by the first qubit, thus interchanging the roles of the qubits in the previous experiment  
 60 and demonstrating the versatility of this architecture.

## 61 RESULTS

### 62 Phonon-mediated quantum state transfer

63 We first probe the interaction between the qubits and the phonon channel, as shown in Fig. 2a. We excite  $Q_1$   
 64 with a  $\pi$  pulse, then set its coupler  $G_1$  to an intermediate coupling, sufficient that  $Q_1$ 's relaxation is dominated by  
 65 phonon emission. We set  $Q_2$ 's coupler  $G_2$  off during this measurement, so that  $Q_2$  does not interact with the traveling  
 66 phonon. For frequencies inside the transducer's active band, from 3.87 to 4.01 GHz, where the emission is almost  
 67 entirely unidirectional itinerant phonons, we observe a time-delayed revival of qubit  $Q_1$ 's excited state population  
 68  $P_e^{Q_1}$  at times that are multiples of the phonon round-trip time  $\tau_{\text{RT}} \sim 1 \mu\text{s}$ , each revival corresponding to the traveling  
 69 phonon reflecting off the other transducer before re-exciting  $Q_1$ . Outside the unidirectional band, we see a complex  
 70 structure in  $P_e$  as a function of frequency and interaction time, with broad swings of width  $\sim 150 \text{ MHz}$  superposed  
 71 with narrow oscillations of width  $\sim 7 \text{ MHz}$ . The broad swings and finer details are in accordance with expectations  
 72 (see Supplementary Note 1) [29].

73 The itinerant phonon experiments are performed at the working frequency  $\omega_{Q_{1,2}}^{\text{uni}}/2\pi = 3.976 \text{ GHz}$ , inside the  
 74 unidirectional band. By working outside this band, we can explore the regime where the transducers are effectively  
 75 bidirectional, using the second working frequency  $\omega_{Q_{1,2}}^{\text{bi}}/2\pi = 4.102 \text{ GHz}$ . These frequencies are marked by the dashed  
 76 white and red lines, respectively, in Fig. 2a.

77 To maximize the efficiency of phonon-mediated quantum state transfers, we need to carefully shape the emission  
 78 and absorption of the phonon wave packet, which is done by time-dependent control of the coupling between the qubit  
 79 and its transducer [11–15, 25, 30]. We experimentally optimize the transfer efficiency, with results shown in Fig. 2b  
 80 for both the unidirectional (left) and bidirectional (right) regimes. The transfer starts with the shaped emission of a  
 81 phonon, shown by the decrease of  $Q_1$ 's excited state population with the expected time dependence. Both qubits then  
 82 remain in their ground states until the phonon reaches  $Q_2$ , which absorbs the itinerant phonon, following the expected  
 83 time dependence, and ultimately reaching a plateau once the transfer is complete. The total transfer takes  $\sim 700 \text{ ns}$ ,  
 84 including the  $\sim 500 \text{ ns}$  phonon travel time. The final  $Q_2$  population reaches a maximum of 68 % for the unidirectional  
 85 transfer, limited mostly by phonon loss in the channel. For the bidirectional transfer, the final  $Q_2$  population reaches  
 86 15 %, 4.5 times less than the unidirectional population, which is 12 % higher than the ideal value, demonstrating good  
 87 agreement with theory and excellent unidirectionality for the transducer design. We simulate the transfer process  
 88 using a cascaded quantum input-output model [25] (solid green line). From this model we estimate that phonon  
 89 loss reduces the final unidirectional transfer efficiency by 27 %, and the finite  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  coherence times reduce the  
 90 fidelity by 1 % and 2 %, respectively. We note that an equivalent photon travel time would require a  $\sim 100 \text{ m}$  long  
 91 coaxial cable, illustrating the very long delays achievable with phonon-based quantum channels.

92 In Fig. 2c, we show quantum process tomography for both regimes. For the unidirectional process, we find a  
 93 process fidelity of  $\mathcal{F}^{\text{uni}} = (82.0 \pm 0.3) \%$ , while for the bidirectional regime, the process fidelity is limited to  $\mathcal{F}^{\text{bi}} =$   
 94  $(39.0 \pm 0.3) \%$ . We compare these experimental process fidelities with predictions, and find trace distances  $d =$   
 95  $\sqrt{\text{Tr}(\chi_{\text{exp}} - \chi_{\text{sim}})^2} = 0.07$  and 0.3 for the unidirectional and bidirectional regimes. The contrast in fidelities and  
 96 trace distances underlines the importance of the unidirectional transducers.

### 97 Traveling phonon-mediated remote entanglement

98 We further explore the capabilities of itinerant phonon communication by performing a phonon-mediated remote  
 99 entanglement of the two qubits, shown in Fig. 3. The protocol is similar to that for the quantum state transfer,  
 100 except here we calibrate the emission pulse to only emit  $Q_1$ 's excitation as a phonon with a probability of 1/2,  
 101 meaning that immediately following the 'half-emission,' with qubit  $Q_2$  in the ground state, the system is ideally in  
 102 the state  $(|e0g\rangle + |g1g\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  (writing the state  $|Q_1 \gamma Q_2\rangle$  where  $\gamma$  represents the itinerant phonon). During the time

103 the emitted ‘half-phonon’ travels along the phonon channel,  $Q_1$ ’s remaining excitation decays following  $Q_1$ ’s intrinsic  
104  $T_1$  time, with  $Q_1$ ’s coupling to the channel set to zero. The traveling half-phonon is then captured by  $Q_2$ , generating  
105 a Bell state  $|\psi\rangle = (|eg\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|ge\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  between the two qubits, with  $\varphi$  a relative phase.

106 Figure 3a shows the time-dependent qubit state populations  $P_e$  for each qubit, which agree well with a master  
107 equation simulation. Following capture of the half-phonon, we perform quantum state tomography at time  $t_m = 750$  ns;  
108 these measurements are used to reconstruct the two-qubit density matrix  $\rho$  shown in Fig. 3b. We find a Bell state  
109 fidelity  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Bell}} = \text{Tr}(\rho_{\text{ideal}} \cdot \rho) = 72\%$  and a concurrence  $\mathcal{C} = 0.53$ , close to the master equation simulation results, with  
110 a trace distance  $d^{\text{Bell}} = \sqrt{\text{Tr}(\rho_{\text{exp}} - \rho_{\text{sim}})^2} = 0.13$ .

111

## Phonon-qubit dispersive interaction

112 Sensing traveling phonons without absorbing them would provide a highly useful capability, as would being able to  
113 use a traveling phonon as a probe of a remote quantum system, which we explore in a pair of related experiments.  
114 First, we use a traveling phonon as a probe of a remote quantum two-level system, shown in Fig. 4a. We use qubit  
115  $Q_1$  as the emitter and receiver of a “half-phonon” that is detected interferometrically [25, 26] when returning to  $Q_1$ .  
116 This allows us to measure how the phase of the traveling phonon is affected by interacting dispersively with qubit  $Q_2$ ,  
117 which serves as a stand-in for a generic quantum system.

118 The pulse sequence for this state detection is shown to the right in Fig. 4a: We first prepare  $Q_1$  in its excited state,  
119 and emit a half-phonon, which reflects from the distant transducer, whose coupling to  $Q_2$  is turned on during the  
120 reflection process, and the half-phonon interacts with  $Q_1$  on its return. During the half-phonon transit, we briefly  
121 shift  $Q_1$ ’s frequency so that  $Q_1$ ’s excited state acquires a relative phase  $\varphi$ , yielding an interferometric interaction with  
122 the returning half-phonon, either interfering constructively to return  $Q_1$  towards its excited state, or destructively  
123 and having  $Q_1$  emit its remaining energy and relax to its ground state. In Fig. 4a, we show the final  $Q_1$  population  
124 as a function of the phase  $\varphi$  (blue points), showing a characteristic interference pattern with a visibility of 32 %.

125 We repeat the experiment with  $Q_2$  excited by a  $\pi$  pulse at the beginning of the experiment, with experiment  
126 otherwise unchanged; the results are shown in Fig. 4a (salmon points). There are three effects on the oscillation  
127 pattern: A slight increase in the oscillation minima, attributed to a decrease of the phonon coherence [25] in its  
128 interaction with  $Q_2$ ; a more marked reduction of visibility attributed to an inadequate absorption of the phonon wave  
129 packet; and, most significantly, a phase shift of  $\Delta\varphi_{\text{exp}} = 0.40\pi$  attributed to the dispersive interaction between  $Q_2$   
130 and the traveling half-phonon, close to our fit-free simulated value of  $\Delta\varphi_{\text{sim}} = 0.41\pi$  (see Supplementary Note 9).  
131 This last effect points to the interesting possibility of using phonons as dispersive probes of other quantum systems.

132 In a separate experiment, shown in Fig. 4b, we swap the roles of the qubits, so  $Q_2$  is now used as a dispersive  
133 probe for the phonon released by  $Q_1$ , using a Ramsey fringe measurement of  $Q_2$ . The pulse sequence is shown to  
134 the right in Fig. 4b, where  $Q_2$  is placed in the state  $(|g\rangle + e^{i\theta}|e\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  by the initial  $\pi/2$  rotation, performed about  
135 an axis rotated in the  $x - y$  plane of the Bloch sphere by  $\theta$ , and the  $\theta$ -dependent evolution of  $Q_2$  is compared for  
136 where  $Q_1$  is not excited (no probe phonon) to where  $Q_1$  is excited and  $Q_2$  interacts with the subsequently-released  
137 traveling phonon. In the latter case the Ramsey fringe visibility is reduced, which we attribute to leakage from  $Q_2$   
138 into the phononic channel, but we again observe a significant phase shift, here as high as  $\Delta\theta_{\text{exp}} = 0.95\pi$  close to our  
139 simulation  $\Delta\theta_{\text{sim}} = 0.99\pi$ .

140

## DISCUSSION

141 In conclusion, we demonstrate controlled phonon-mediated quantum state transfer and remote entanglement be-  
142 tween two quantum nodes, each node comprising a superconducting qubit with a time-variable coupler, using individual  
143 itinerant SAW phonons traveling in an acoustic transmission line after a controlled, on-demand release, followed by  
144 capture. Using this architecture, we also demonstrate the dispersive interaction between an itinerant phonon and a  
145 superconducting qubit. These results have been made possible by the integration of broadband, highly unidirectional  
146 transducer in a 2 mm long phonon communication channel, as well as the use of a quantum state protocol requiring  
147 tunable coupling to each qubit node [2]. Achieving a quite impressive quantum state transfer fidelity of  $(82.0 \pm 0.2)\%$ ,  
148 limited by the loss in the phonon channel, this platform paves the way for quantum-optics-like experiments realized  
149 with individual phonons instead of photons.

## METHODS

### Device fabrication and characterization

152 The device used in these experiments comprises two dies, a sapphire die with the two superconducting qubits ( $Q_1$   
 153 and  $Q_2$ ), and their associated tunable couplers ( $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , respectively), as well as control and readout wiring, and  
 154 a lithium niobate die with the phononic channel and the two unidirectional transducers. The two dies are fabricated  
 155 separately then flip-chip assembled [31]. The full circuit schematic is shown in Fig. 1b,

156 The acoustic die is fabricated using a single layer of  $\sim 25$  nm thick aluminium patterned by PMMA liftoff on a  
 157 LiNbO<sub>3</sub> wafer, 500  $\mu\text{m}$  thick. The central part of the acoustic device is the  $\ell = 2$  mm-long phononic channel, with  
 158 width  $W = 150 \mu\text{m}$ , terminated at each end by a unidirectional transducer (UDT<sub>1,2</sub>).

159 The unidirectional transducers (UDTs) are described more completely in Supplementary Note 1. Briefly, the  
 160 two (nominally identical) unidirectional transducers (UDTs) each comprise a standard bi-directional interdigitated  
 161 transducer (IDT) combined with an acoustic mirror (a reflective grating). The IDT emits equal-amplitude acoustic  
 162 excitations in opposite directions, one towards and the other away from the second UDT. The acoustic mirror, placed  
 163 immediately adjacent to the IDT on the side opposite the second UDT, reflects its incident excitation back towards  
 164 the second UDT, such that it interferes constructively with the other excitation. Each UDT is coupled inductively to  
 165 one of the two qubits.

166 We have separately characterized similar IDT-mirror designs, where in the frequency band from about 3.85 to  
 167 4 GHz, excellent directionality is achieved, with emission from the UDT almost entirely directed away from the  
 168 mirror. Typical directivities are greater than 20 dB. Outside this unidirectional band, the mirrors are less effective  
 169 and the devices emit more strongly in both directions [27].

170 The superconducting qubit die is fabricated on 430  $\mu\text{m}$ -thick sapphire using standard lithographic processing [15].  
 171 The qubits  $Q_{1,2}$  are tunable xmon-style qubits [32, 33], where each qubit's frequency is controlled by a flux line  $Q_{z1,z2}$ ,  
 172 and excited using a capacitively-coupled microwave line  $Q_{xy1,xy2}$ . Each qubit is coupled to the SAW chip through a  
 173 superconducting tunable coupler  $G_{1,2}$ , whose coupling is controlled [34] using external flux lines  $G_{z1,z2}$ . Qubit states  
 174 are inferred from standard dispersive measurements using a separate readout resonator for each qubit. The readout  
 175 resonators are connected to a common readout line; more details are given in the Supplementary Note 1.

176 The qubits are characterized with their couplers turned off (see Supplementary Notes 6 and 7). At the qubit idle  
 177 frequency  $\omega_{\text{idle}}/(2\pi) \sim 4.3$  GHz, we find the qubits have an energy relaxation time  $T_1 = 57 \mu\text{s}$  ( $Q_1$ ) and  $38 \mu\text{s}$  ( $Q_2$ ),  
 178 with a coherence time  $T_2^{\text{Ramsey}} = 1.11 \mu\text{s}$  ( $Q_1$ ) and  $0.88 \mu\text{s}$  ( $Q_2$ ) (most likely limited by flux noise as the qubits are  
 179 tuned far away from their flux-insensitive point). These times demonstrate the potential for excellent qubit coherence  
 180 when using a flip-chip assembly [31].

## DATA AVAILABILITY

182 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable  
 183 request. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to A. N. Cleland (anc@uchicago.edu).

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## COMPETING INTERESTS

193 The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

195 É.D. designed, and fabricated the devices. É.D. performed the experiment and analyzed the data. K.J.S., G.A.P.  
196 and M.-H.C. participated to the design process of the unidirectional transducer. É.D., K.J.S., A.B., H.-S.C., J.G.,  
197 Y.P.Z. developed the fabrication process of the superconducting circuit. É.D., K.J.S. and A.B. wrote code to model  
198 surface acoustic wave. A.N.C. advised on all efforts. All authors contributed to discussion and production of the  
199 manuscript.

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266

## FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG. 1. Quantum delay line. **a** Schematic representation of the two quantum communication nodes and the phononic quantum channel. Each node comprises a superconducting qubit, a tunable coupler that allows shaping phonon release and capture, and a unidirectional phonon transducer. Details in the Methods section. **b** Circuit diagram of the assembled device. Each qubit  $Q_j$  is excited through its dedicated  $Q_{xy,j}$  microwave line and frequency-controlled through a separate  $Q_{z,j}$  flux-bias line, and each tunable coupler  $G_k$  is controlled via its associated  $G_{z,k}$  flux-bias line.

FIG. 2. Phonon-mediated quantum state transfer and process tomography. **a** Measured  $Q_1$  excited state population  $P_e^{Q_1}$  as a function of time and  $Q_1$  bare frequency, with coupler  $G_1$  at an intermediate coupling  $\kappa_1/2\pi = 2.4$  MHz (measured at 3.976 GHz) and  $G_2$  set to zero coupling. In this configuration,  $Q_1$ 's energy relaxation is dominated by phonon emission via UDT<sub>1</sub>, followed by traveling phonon dynamics. The white and red dashed lines indicate the unidirectional and bidirectional working frequencies, respectively (see text); inset shows the qubit excitation and measurement pulse sequence. **b** Quantum state transfer via a traveling phonon at the unidirectional (left) and bidirectional (right) operating frequencies.  $Q_2$ 's final population is 4.5 times smaller for the bidirectional transfer compared to the unidirectional transfer, in line with simulations. Green solid lines are from a master equation simulation. Inset: Pulse sequence. For either process,  $Q_1$ 's emission rate is set to  $\kappa_c^{\text{uni}|\text{bi}}/2\pi = 10|6$  MHz, corresponding to a 81|138 ns full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM) phonon wavepacket. **c** Quantum process tomography for the unidirectional and bidirectional regimes, with process fidelities of  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{uni}} = \text{Tr}(\chi_{\text{exp}} \cdot \chi_{\text{ideal}}) = 82 \pm 0.3\%$  and  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{bi}} = 39 \pm 0.3\%$ , respectively. Red solid lines show values expected for an ideal transfer; black dashed lines show master equation simulations, taking into account finite qubit coherence and phonon channel losses. Uncertainties are standard deviations from the mean.

FIG. 3. Phonon-mediated Bell state generation. **a** Inset: Pulse sequence for Bell state generation. Main panel: Excited state probabilities for  $Q_1$  (red) and  $Q_2$  (blue) as a function of time. Green lines are results from a master equation simulation. The final state is analyzed at  $t_m = 725$  ns (gray dashed line). **b** Bell state density matrix, absolute values, without readout correction, measured at  $t_m$ . Red solid lines show values expected for an ideal Bell state; black dashed lines show simulation results including qubit coherence and phonon channel losses.

FIG. 4. Phonon interferometric probe. Dispersive state-dependent interferometric probe. **a** Schematic roles played by each element. **b** Blue (salmon) points show the  $\varphi$  dependence of  $Q_1$ 's final  $P_e$  when  $Q_2$  is in  $|g\rangle$  ( $|e\rangle$ ), showing a dependence of the phonon phase on  $Q_2$ 's state, with a shift of  $\sim 0.4\pi$  rad. **c** Qubit pulse sequences (see text for details). **d** Schematic roles played by each element for the dispersive phase-dependent interferometric probe. **e** Ramsey interference in  $Q_2$  (blue circles) reveals  $Q_2$ 's dependence on the relative phase with the phonon. When repeating the same protocol with no initial  $\pi$  pulse on  $Q_1$ , we measure the Ramsey interference of  $Q_2$  (salmon squares), shifted by  $\pi$  compared to the first measurement. Blue (salmon) points show the  $\varphi$  dependence of  $Q_1$ 's final  $P_e$  when  $Q_2$  is in  $|g\rangle$  ( $|e\rangle$ ), showing a dependence of the phonon phase on  $Q_2$ 's state, with a shift of  $\sim 0.4\pi$  rad. **f** Qubit pulse sequences, similar to **c** except  $Q_2$  is always placed in  $(|g\rangle + e^{i\theta}|e\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  and the  $\theta$ -dependent  $P_e^{Q_2}$  is measured.