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1 **Resonantly driven singlet-triplet spin qubit in**
2 **silicon**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 We report implementation of a resonantly driven singlet-triplet spin qubit in silicon.
13 The qubit is defined by the two-electron anti-parallel spin states and universal
14 quantum control is provided through a resonant drive of the exchange interaction at the
15 qubit frequency. The qubit exhibits long T_2^* exceeding 1 μs that is limited by dephasing
16 due to the ^{29}Si nuclei rather than charge noise thanks to the symmetric operation and a
17 large micro-magnet Zeeman field gradient. The randomized benchmarking shows
18 99.6 % single gate fidelity which is the highest reported for singlet-triplet qubits.

19

20 **Main text**

21 Electron spins confined in semiconductor quantum dots (QDs) are attractive candidates
22 for implementing scalable solid-state quantum computing [1]. Recent technical
23 advances have enabled high-fidelity single- and two-qubit control for spin-1/2 qubits in
24 this system [2–7]. While the spin-1/2 qubit is the most straightforward implementation
25 of a spin qubit, there are a number of attempts to encode a qubit using more than one
26 electron spins in multiple QDs to benefit from the increased degrees of freedom [8–15].
27 For instance, a singlet-triplet spin qubit encoded in the two-electron Hilbert space
28 allows fast operation without the need of high-frequency microwave pulses. In addition,
29 it has a good compatibility with fast and high-fidelity singlet-triplet based readout
30 compared to spin-1/2 qubits [16,17].

31

32 The singlet-triplet spin qubit makes use of the exchange interaction and therefore
33 susceptible to charge noise, in addition to magnetic fluctuations due to nuclear spins in
34 the host semiconductor material [8,9]. The magnetic noise can be most efficiently
35 suppressed by the use of silicon-based material with reduced nuclear spin carrying
36 isotopes [2–7,18,19]. The influence of charge noise, on the other hand, can be addressed
37 by several approaches: symmetric operation [19,20], resonant operation in a large field
38 gradient [21]. The resonant operation in a GaAs-based device has led to a control
39 fidelity of 98.6 %, while it still suffers from the nuclear magnetic fluctuation and the
40 detuning charge noise due to operation at a large detuning [21]. Here we show that by
41 combining these approaches with silicon-QDs the exchange-based qubit control fidelity
42 can reach a fault-tolerant level [22] as demonstrated through randomized
43 benchmarking. **We note that recently a fault-tolerant control fidelity has also been**
44 **achieved in a GaAs-based singlet-triplet qubit with feedback controlled optimized**
45 **pulses [23].**

46

47 In this Letter, we operate and characterize a resonantly driven singlet-triplet spin qubit
48 in silicon (Si). The spin qubit is defined by the two-electron anti-parallel spin states $|\tilde{\downarrow\uparrow}\rangle$
49 and $|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle$ in an exchange coupled DQD under a large magnetic field gradient. The tilde
50 indicates the hybridization of the spin eigenstates without the exchange interaction $|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$
51 and $|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle$ [5]. The coherent driving of the qubit can be performed by modulating the
52 exchange interaction at the frequency of qubit energy splitting which is typically below
53 1 GHz. This is much lower in frequency than what is required to drive a spin-1/2 qubit
54 (for example, ~ 14 GHz at a magnetic field of 0.5 T) and a standard arbitrary waveform
55 generator (AWG) can be used for the resonant pulse generation. The relatively
56 low-frequency control may facilitate the application of control pulses in a scalable
57 manner. The qubit has a coherence time and a control fidelity comparable to those
58 reported for spin-1/2 qubits in similar isotopically natural Si materials [5,6,18].

59

60 Figure 1(a) shows a scanning electron microscope image of our Si/SiGe QD device. Three
61 layers of overlapping aluminium gates [24] deposited on top of an isotopically natural
62 Si/SiGe heterostructure are used to form a DQD (Fig. 1(b)). The aluminium gates are
63 insulated from each other by a layer of thin native aluminium oxide [25]. A cobalt
64 micro-magnet is placed on top of the QD array to induce a local magnetic field gradient.
65 A nearby sensor QD coupled to a radio-frequency tank circuit allows rapid measurement
66 of the charge configuration [26]. All measurements were performed in a dilution
67 refrigerator with a base electron temperature $T_e \sim 40$ mK. An in-plane external
68 magnetic field $B_{\text{ext}} = 0.5$ T is applied using a superconducting magnet. The relatively
69 large magnetic field is required to magnetize the micro-magnet and to obtain a Zeeman
70 splitting much larger than the thermal energy.

71

72 The number of electrons inside the QD is controlled by the plunger gates P1 and P2,
73 while the barrier gate B2 provides a control over the tunnel coupling t_c between the
74 right and left QDs. The qubit is operated in the (1,1) charge configuration where the
75 numbers (n_L, n_R) represent the charge occupation of the left (n_L) and right (n_R) QDs.
76 Gates P1, P2, and B2 are connected to an AWG (Tektronix AWG5208) running at a
77 sampling rate of 1 GSa/s. The a.c. voltage pulses which modulate the exchange
78 interaction are directly generated by the AWG. The electric-dipole spin resonance
79 (EDSR) pulses used for spin initialization are generated by a Keysight E8267D
80 microwave vector signal generator. The microwave signal is I/Q modulated by another
81 Tektronix AWG5208 unit.

82

83 Our qubit is operated in the (1,1) charge configuration and the qubit state consists of
 84 two antiparallel eigenstates of the two-spin system, $|\tilde{\uparrow}\downarrow\rangle$ and $|\tilde{\downarrow}\uparrow\rangle$, under a finite
 85 exchange interaction J . The energy diagram of unpolarized spin states of a DQD is
 86 shown in Fig. 1(c). The inhomogeneous dephasing time T_2^* would be largest at around
 87 $\varepsilon = 0$, where the detuning susceptibility of J , $|dJ/d\varepsilon|$ is minimized [19,20]. However, at
 88 the exact symmetric operation point, the qubit control speed would be lowest. Therefore,
 89 to increase the qubit control speed, we operate our qubit at the largest ε where T_2^* is
 90 not significantly degraded by charge noise unless noted. When driven, the rotating
 91 frame Hamiltonian at the drive frequency can be written as $H_{\text{RWA}} = hf_{\text{R}}(\cos\phi(\sigma_x/2) +$
 92 $\sin\phi(\sigma_y/2)) + (\sqrt{J_0^2 + \Delta E_z^2} - hf_{\text{a.c.}})(\sigma_z/2)$. Here, h is the Planck's constant, J_0 is the
 93 mean value of exchange energy, ϕ is the phase of the a.c. drive, $f_{\text{a.c.}}$ is the frequency of
 94 resonant drive, ΔE_z is the Zeeman energy difference between the two QDs, and f_{R} is
 95 half the a.c. modulation amplitude at $f_{\text{a.c.}}$ perpendicular to the quantization axis of the
 96 resonant qubit. As in the standard spin resonance experiments, two-axis universal
 97 control can be implemented by modulating ϕ . Figure 1(d) shows a charge stability
 98 diagram measured as a function of the plunger gate voltages V_{P1} and V_{P2} . The
 99 detuning is defined as $(\delta V_{P1}, \delta V_{P2}) = (1, -1.1)\delta\varepsilon$ and its origin is at around the center of
 100 (1,1) charge configuration.

101

102 We now proceed to demonstrate the basic operations of our resonantly driven
 103 singlet-triplet qubit. Figure 2(a) shows the measurement sequence. First, the electron
 104 spin in the right QD is initialized to spin-down state near the (1,0)-(0,1) transition [27].
 105 We then initialize the left spin by spin-selective tunneling at the (0,1)-(1,1) boundary.
 106 Next, a gate voltage pulse is applied to push the electrons deep into the Coulomb
 107 blockade and an EDSR pulse is applied to rotate the $|\downarrow\downarrow\rangle$ state to $|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$. The state
 108 preparation can also be performed by separating a (0,2) or (2,0) singlet ground state as
 109 demonstrated elsewhere [8–16]. J is turned on by a 0.07 V square voltage pulse to the
 110 B2 gate. The gate voltage pulse has a 20 nsec rise time in order to adiabatically turn on
 111 J with respect to ΔE_z . After the initialization process, we perform the qubit operation by
 112 applying a.c. voltage pulses to the B2 gate. Finally, J is turned off and we perform
 113 single-shot energy-selective readout of the left spin near the (0,1)-(1,1) state boundary.
 114 This maps out $|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$ to spin-down and $|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle$ to spin-up readout outcomes [28]. We collect
 115 such 400 to 1,000 single-shot outcomes to obtain the probability of finding $|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle$. This
 116 readout protocol is robust against the large ΔE_z , but the Pauli spin blockade will also
 117 work using the latched readout mechanism [16,17] or the shelving process [21,29].

118

119 Figure 2(b) shows measured exchange Rabi chevron pattern, which displays the qubit
 120 resonance frequency $\sqrt{\Delta E_z^2 + J_0^2}/h = 351$ MHz. No significant Rabi oscillation decay is
 121 observed for the a.c. pulse duration used here. We obtain an exchange Rabi frequency
 122 $f_R \sim 4$ MHz, which is comparable to the typical values for ESDR in similar devices [2,5,18].
 123 Here the maximum a.c. voltage amplitude is limited by the experimental setup. Figure
 124 2(c) shows Rabi oscillation measured for a longer burst time at the resonance condition.
 125 From this measurement, we obtain a 1/e Rabi oscillation decay time $T_R \sim 6$ μ s, which
 126 is long enough to allow for high-fidelity qubit control. Figure 2(d) shows the a.c. voltage
 127 amplitude dependence of the Rabi oscillations. Figure 2(e) shows the Rabi frequencies
 128 extracted from the data in Fig. 2(d). The Rabi frequency changes linearly in the
 129 measured range of the a.c. voltage pulse amplitude, indicating that the qubit is in the
 130 regime where J changes linearly with δV_{B2} .

131

132 To access T_2^* and the influence of charge noise, we perform Ramsey interferometry
 133 experiments for various detuning ε (Fig. 3(a)). The Ramsey fringe measured at each ε
 134 is fit by a Gaussian decay to extract the dephasing rate $(T_2^*)^{-1}$ (Figs. 3(b)-(e)). The
 135 dephasing rate turns out to vary only slightly within a relatively large window
 136 -10 mV $\lesssim \varepsilon \lesssim 20$ mV. The weak ε dependence of T_2^* around the symmetric operation
 137 point indicates that T_2^* is not limited by the detuning noise. In addition, T_2^* obtained
 138 around the symmetric operation point is consistent with $T_2^* \sim 1.8$ μ s measured for the
 139 right and left spin-1/2 qubits in a more weakly coupled condition using EDSR (data not
 140 shown). We therefore conclude that our resonantly driven qubit is limited by the 4.7%
 141 ^{29}Si nuclei in the isotopically natural Si quantum well rather than the charge noise. We
 142 note that there is roughly a factor of four difference between the Rabi oscillation decay
 143 time (Fig. 2(c)) and the nuclei-induced $T_2^* \sim 1.3$ μ s thanks to the resonant control. The
 144 nuclei-induced T_2^* obtained here are 3 to 4 times longer than the value previously
 145 reported for a singlet-triplet qubit in a similar material ($T_2^* \sim 0.36$ μ s in Ref. [9]),
 146 perhaps due to the difference in the data acquisition time [30]. Far away from the
 147 symmetric operation point, we approach the inter-dot transition and the detuning noise
 148 starts to dominate the dephasing. For the Rabi oscillation and randomized
 149 benchmarking measurements, we choose the operation point at $\varepsilon = 20$ mV to increase
 150 f_R . This operation point barely affects T_2^* while enabling roughly 2 times faster f_R for
 151 the same a.c. voltage amplitude.

152

153 Finally, the qubit performance is characterized by randomized benchmarking [31]. Here,
 154 we twirl the qubit state in the subspace spanned by $|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$ and $|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle$ and the performance

155 of single-qubit control is evaluated. The 24 single-qubit Clifford gates are decomposed
156 into rotations around x- and y-axes as in Ref. [32], which results in 1.875 single gates on
157 average per one Clifford gate. We measure the sequence fidelities for both recovery
158 Clifford gates to result in $|\tilde{\downarrow}\uparrow\rangle$ and $|\tilde{\uparrow}\downarrow\rangle$ to remove the offset error. Figure 4 shows the
159 measured sequence fidelity decay as a function of the number of Clifford gates applied.
160 From the exponential decay of the sequence fidelity, we extract a depolarizing
161 parameter $p = 0.985 \pm 0.0009$, which results in a Clifford gate fidelity $F_C = 99.2 \pm$
162 0.045% and single gate fidelity $F_{\text{single}} = 99.6 \pm 0.024\%$. The obtained fidelity is the
163 highest reported for singlet-triplet spin qubit and it corresponds to a 3.5 times reduction
164 in infidelity from the previous experiment [21]. It also satisfies the threshold for surface
165 code quantum error correction [22].

166

167 In conclusion, we have demonstrated operation and fidelity benchmark of a resonantly
168 driven singlet-triplet qubit in **natural Si. The resonantly driven qubit has T_2^***
169 **comparable to those obtained in some isotopically purified Si-based qubits [33–35] and**
170 **the fidelity benchmark shows an average single gate fidelity of 99.6 %, which surpasses**
171 **the surface code error correction threshold [22].** It provides an alternative operation
172 mode of high-fidelity spin qubits in Si. We anticipate that the performance of the qubit
173 will be improved by using isotopically enriched ^{28}Si because T_2^* is currently limited by
174 the nuclear magnetic noise. The same resonant control technique can be applied to an
175 array of spin-1/2 qubits to implement a SWAP gate (with additional phase calibrations),
176 initialization and measurement of spins not directly connected to the reservoirs. Indeed,
177 during the preparation of the manuscript, we became aware of the application of a
178 similar technique to transfer information of spin-1/2 qubits [36].

179

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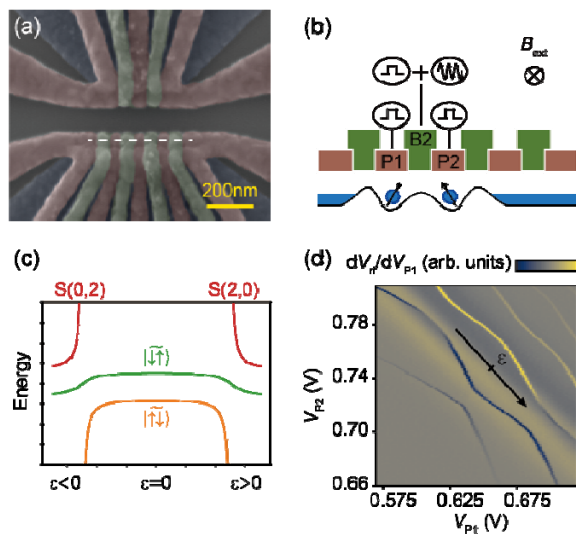
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190 **References**

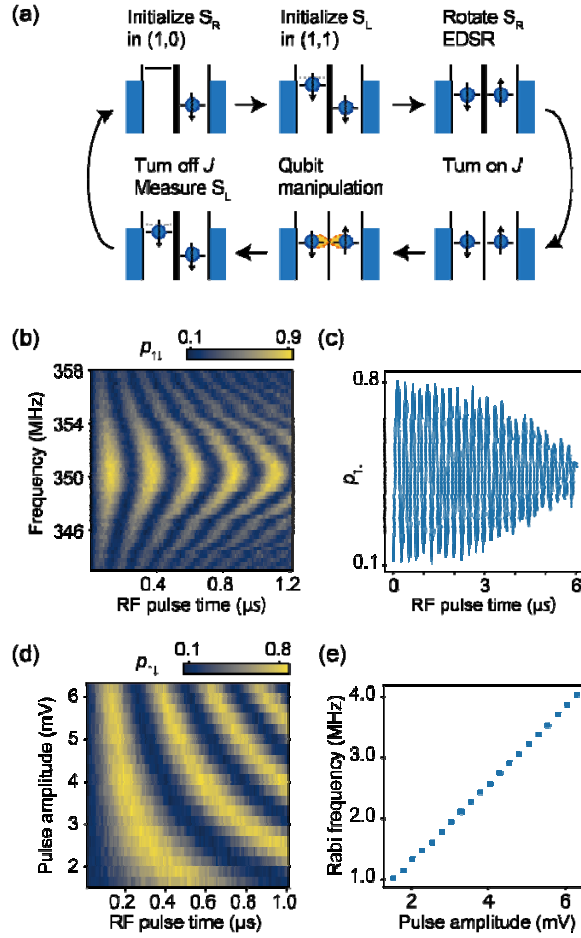
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279
 280 **Figure 1.** (a) False colored scanning electron microscope image of the device. Three
 281 layers of overlapping aluminium gates are used to control the confinement potential.
 282 The screening gates (blue) are used to restrict the electric field of the plunger (red) and
 283 barrier (green) gates. (b) Schematic of device geometry and measurement setup. The
 284 device geometry shows a line cut along the white dashed line in Fig. 1(a). Three gates
 285 labelled as P1, P2, and B2 are mainly used to control the DQD confinement. (c) Energy
 286 diagram of two-electron unpolarized spin states. (d) Charge stability diagram measured
 287 as a function of gate voltages V_{p1} and V_{p2} . The variation of background signal is
 288 caused by the Coulomb oscillation of the radio-frequency sensor QD. The tick of the
 289 detuning axis indicates $\varepsilon = 0$.



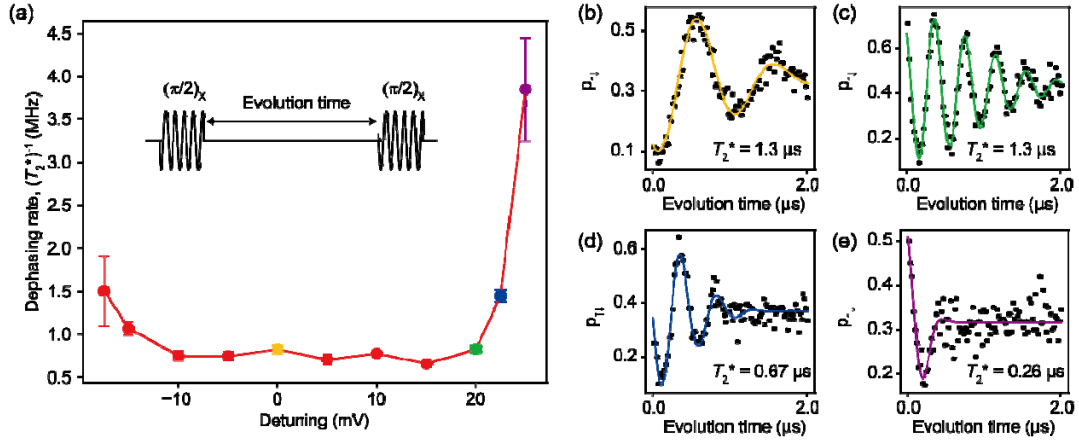
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291 **Figure 2.** (a) Measurement sequence of the resonantly driven spin qubit. S_L and S_R
 292 refers to the left and right spin, respectively. (b) Rabi chevron pattern measured at the
 293 a.c. pulse amplitude of 6.3 mV. (c) The Rabi oscillation measured for a longer RF pulse
 294 duration. The Rabi frequency is set at the center resonance frequency $f = 351$ MHz.
 295 (d) Rabi oscillation power dependence. (e) Rabi frequencies extracted from the power
 296 dependence measurement. Each of the Rabi oscillations in Fig. 2(d) is fit by a sine curve

297 $p_{\uparrow\downarrow} = A \sin(2\pi f_R t - \pi/2) + B$, where A and B are the constants to account for the

298 readout fidelities and f_R is the Rabi frequency.

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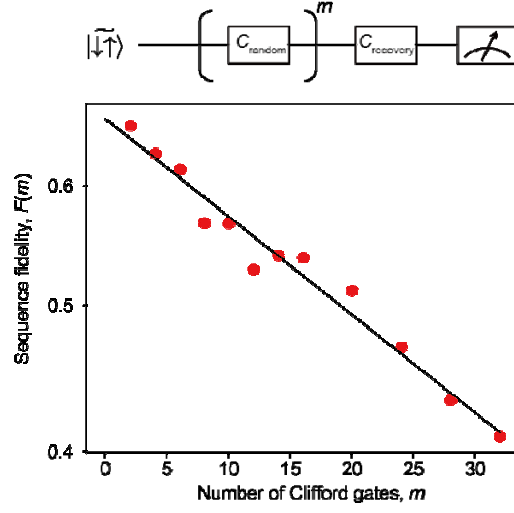


300

301 **Figure 3.** Detuning dependence of the phase coherence time. (a) Detuning dependence of
 302 the phase coherence time measured by Ramsey interferometry. The error bars represent
 303 one sigma from the mean. The inset schematic shows the measurement sequence of the
 304 Ramsey interferometry. First we apply $\pi/2$ pulse and wait for some time. Finally, the
 305 phase accumulated during the waiting time is projected to z -axis by another $\pi/2$
 306 pulse.

307 by a Gaussian decaying oscillation and T_2^* is extracted. The detuning values are 0 mV
 308 for (b), 20 mV for (c), 22.5 mV for (d), and 25 mV for (e).

309



310

311 **Figure 4.** Randomized benchmarking measurement. The sequence fidelity is

312 defined as $F(m) = p_{\uparrow\downarrow}^{|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle}(m) - p_{\downarrow\uparrow}^{|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle}(m)$, where $p_{\uparrow\downarrow}^{|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle}(m)$ ($p_{\downarrow\uparrow}^{|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle}(m)$) is the probability of

313 finding an $|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle$ state after applying the recovery

314 Clifford gate designed to result in an ideal outcome $|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle$

315 ($|\tilde{\uparrow\downarrow}\rangle$). The decay curve is fit by an

316 exponential decay $F(m) = Vp^m$, where V is the visibility. We obtain $V = 0.665 \pm 0.009$

317 and $p = 0.985 \pm 0.0009$ from the fit. The fitting errors represent one sigma from the

318 mean.

319