### Supplementary Information – Dynamics of soliton self-injection locking in optical microresonators

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# SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 1: LINEWIDTH OF SIL DFB

The employed DFB laser diode has the wavelength of 1547 nm, the maximum optical output power of  $\sim 120$  mW at the injection current of  $\sim 472$  mA and the temperature of 20 C°. Such high-power DFB laser diodes with similar characteristics have been reported previously [1–4], and are commercially available. The spacing between suppressed modes is 24.5 GHz, defined by the cavity length of the laser diode. Heterodyne measurements determine the instantaneous linewidth in the freerunning regime with a reference laser (TOptica CTL), and is estimated as 119 kHz using a Voigt profile. The laser diode is installed in a custom-made mount, providing good heat sinking, but it may also be placed on a submount in a conventional butterfly package.

Compared with the 119 kHz Lorentzian linewidth of the free-running DFB diode, the fitted Lorentzian linewidth (using a Voigt profile) of the SIL DFB is reduced down to 1.1 kHz, as shown in Figure 3(c) in the main text. Using the parameters such as the linewidth of the free-running DFB laser diode  $\delta \omega_{\rm free}/2\pi = 119$  kHz, the quality factor of the DFB laser cavity  $Q_{\rm LC} = 10^4$ , and the linewidth enhancement Henry factor  $\alpha_a = 2.5$ [1, 8], the theoretical linewidth of the SIL DFB is calculated as  $\delta \omega_{\text{locked}}/2\pi = 0.23$  Hz. Note that this value  $\delta\omega_{\rm locked}/2\pi$  does not take into account other noises, and is thus much smaller than the measured value of 1.1 kHz. We attribute the linewidth broadening to the resonance frequency fluctuations, estimated to be in the Hz-level [9, 10], and mechanical instability of our setup, estimated to be in the kHz-level[11].

The self-injection locking range is defined as the difference between the maximum and minimum laser frequency when laser SIL is maintained. It can be estimated for the linear regime [11] as  $\Delta \omega_{\rm lock}/2\pi \approx r\sqrt{1+\alpha_g^2}\omega_0/Q_{\rm LC}/2\pi = 12.4$  GHz, and the experimentally measured value is more than 7 GHz. The discrepancy is obviously the result of high power as according to the nonlinear theory the locking range tends to reduce with input power (see Supplementary Figure 2(c)). Note that increasing the locking range  $\Delta \omega_{\rm lock}/2\pi$ , e.g. by increasing the microresonator Q, may lead to the overlap of the locking ranges of two neighboring resonances. The locking range overlap can lead to mode competition and an unstable SIL regime.

Also a special multi-frequency regime of lasing [5] is studied and mutual coherence of different laser lines is measured. When the backscattered laser radiation from the microresonator is strong enough, it may lead to a spatial hole burning (SHB) effect. The spatial structure created in the active media of the semiconductor diode may play a role of spectral selective element, so-called, self-induced grating. Therefore, the spectral selectivity of the DFB laser diode is determined not only by the DFB structure but also by the SHB structure. The influence of SHB may be stronger than the DFB structure, and the latter ceases to be a major spectral selectivity element. In this case, the DFB laser diode may operate in multi-frequency regime (Supplementary Figure 1)). In other words, the side-mode suppression ratio of the DFB laser diode structure is significantly decreased. Such a multi-frequency regime was observed in our experiment. It should be noted that the spectral profile strongly depends on the optical feedback level. Another explanation may be given by period-one (P1) oscillations in semiconductor lasers [6, 7]. Multi-frequency regime of operation generates a powerful RF beatnote signal of 32 different spectral optical components. We measure SIL DFB optical line's mutual stability in such a multi-frequency regime as 3.8 kHz.



Supplementary Figure 1: Multi-frequency regime of DFB diode operation with different feedback levels (regime I and regime II).



Supplementary Figure 2: Different regimes of laser self-injection locking to nonlinear cavity. (a)-(b): Dependence on backscattering  $\Gamma$ . Higher mode-coupling parameter  $\Gamma$  provides wider locking range and twists the resonance curve. (c)-(d): Increasing of the pump power f leads to the shifting of the tuning curve to the red-detuned region, as necessary for the soliton formation, but reduces the locking range. (e)-(f): Influence of the optical locking phase  $\psi_0$  on the tuning curve. Changing the phase by  $\pi$  effectively mirrors the curve over  $\xi = \zeta$  in  $\xi$  coordinate.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 2: DIFFERENT REGIMES OF LASER SELF-INJECTION LOCKING TO NONLINEAR CAVITY

We study how the nonlinear self-injection locking depends on significant parameters: locking phase (phase delay between the laser cavity output and the optical feedback), laser diode power, and the normalized modecoupling parameter  $\Gamma$ . The nonlinear tuning curve  $\zeta(\xi)$ and the intracavity power  $|a(\xi)|^2$  are presented in Supplementary Figure 2 left and right columns correspondingly. The first row in Supplementary Figure 2 (panels a and b) shows how the tuning curve changes with increasing of the normalized mode-coupling parameter  $\Gamma$  from 0 to 1. First,  $\Gamma \approx 0$ , and there is no optical feedback and no self-injection locking. The tuning curve is linear  $(\zeta = \xi)$ , and the resonance curve is Lorentzian. Then while  $\Gamma$  increases, the locking range increases too. Laser tuning curves are asymmetrical, because the pump power f = 1.5 is high enough for the nonlinearity manifestation.

The second row (panels c and d) shows the dependence on the normalized pump f. First, f is small, and we observe linear self-injection locking [11]. The tuning curve becomes asymmetric with higher f and the locked state (the nearly horizontal part of the tuning curve) shifts to higher detunings  $\zeta$ , making soliton generation possible. Note that the locking range decreases with the pump power. The intracavity power  $|a(\xi)|^2/f^2$  looks very different from the conventional nonlinear resonance in the presence of the optical feedback and both curves become asymmetric already at f = 1. Note that for high input power, the intracavity power is similar to the nonlinear resonance with the backward wave [12].

The third row (panels e and f) shows the dependence on the locking phase  $\psi_0$ . The tuning curve drastically changes with this parameter, the most sensitive in our experimental setup. It depends on the distance between the laser cavity and the microresonator, its change for 1.5  $\mu$ m corresponds to the change of the phase by  $2\pi$ .

## SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 3: OPTIMAL LOCKING PHASE AND ITS CONTROL

We observe the dependence of the microresonator transmission on the optical alignment (the distance between the laser facet and the chip with microresonator) experimentally and thus the locking phase  $\psi_0$ (see Supplementary Figure 2(e,f)). The transmission trace changes drastically with different locking phases and is very different in forward and backward scans.

Note that the trace "Optical phase V" in Supplementary Figure 3 does not contain the high-Q resonance. There are some resonances with low Q but with strong back-reflection. Such resonances appear due to a Fabry-Perot cavity formed by  $Si_3N_4$  photonic chip edges. Such edges are comfortable for butt-coupling, but they cause a strong influence on the laser diode. In some cases, the



Supplementary Figure 3: Experimental dependence of the transmission power on the optical locking phase  $\psi_0$ .

high-Q resonances are hindered because the laser diode is locked to the Fabry-Perot resonances. This undesired back-reflection may be suppressed by introducing angled waveguide tapers.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 4: DIFFERENT MICROCOMB STATES IN LASER SELF-INJECTION LOCKED REGIME.

In our experiments, a variety of optical spectra of microcombs generated in the  $Si_3N_4$  microresonator is observed in forward and backward scans. We scan the laser diode frequency with injection current over the nonlinear resonance and observe the formation, first, of a modulation instability (characteristic primary combs in Supplementary Figure 4(a)), then a chaotic comb (Supplementary Figure 4(b)) with a flat-top symmetric envelope [13]. Tuning further we observe breather solitons, soliton crystals (Supplementary Figure 4(c)), single and multisoliton states (Supplementary Figure 4(d)). Other observed comb states are shown in Supplementary Figure 4(e)-(h).

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 5: PHASE NOISE CHARACTERIZATION

Previously, the phase noise of soliton repetition rates has been characterized only in bulk crystalline microresonators [14, 15] and silica microdisks [16, 17], because the repetition rates are electronically detectable. This has not been possible previously in any integrated platform, including  $Si_3N_4$ , as integrated solitons of microwave repetition rates have not been demonstrated [18–20] due to



Supplementary Figure 4: Different microcomb states in laser self-injection locked regime.

the limited microresonator Q-factors. Recent advancement in the fabrication of ultralow-loss  $Si_3N_4$  waveguides [21] has allowed the generation of single solitons with repetition rates in the widely employed microwave K- and X-band [22]. Equally important, the phase noise of the integrated soliton microcombs has been characterized and compared to the fundamental limit imposed by  $Si_3N_4$  thermo-refractive noise [10].

First, we performed a measurement of the phase noise of laser diode in different regimes using heterodyne technique and IQ-data measurements. In RF measurements, heterodyne signal represented by a sinusoid with angle modulation can be decomposed into, or synthesized from, two amplitude-modulated sinusoids that are offset in phase by one-quarter cycle ( $\pi/2$  radians):  $A\cos(2\pi ft +$  $\phi$ ) =  $I \cos(2\pi ft) - Q \sin(2\pi ft)$ . All three functions have the same center frequency. The amplitude modulated sinusoids are known as the in-phase (I) and quadrature (Q) components. This approach is very convenient for RF signal processing. Frequency and phase noises may be extracted from IQ-data as periodogram power spectral density or be found using Welch's overlapped segment averaging estimator. Due to the fact that the 30 GHz carrier frequency was out of the detection bandwidth of our ESA (26 GHz), the signal was down-converted with an RF mixer and a local oscillator (Keysight N5183B)  $f_{\rm LO} = 20$  GHz, in order to facilitate the detection. The 35 GHz soliton beatnote signal was detected directly.

We measured the phase fluctuations of 30 GHz and 35 GHz soliton repetition rates in the SIL regime. The measured phase noise of the 35 GHz single soliton repetition rate, shown as the purple curve in Figure 2(d) of the main text, has single-sideband phase noise of -70 dBc/Hz at 1 kHz Fourier offset frequency, -96 dBc/Hz at 10 kHz, and -113 dBc/Hz at 100 kHz. The detector shot noise for the studied signal is -144 dBc/Hz.

Different soliton states demonstrate different phase fluctuations, another 30 GHz soliton state (red curve) provides the phase noise -65 dBc/Hz at 1 kHz, but much higher phase fluctuations -88 dBc/Hz at 10 kHz and at higher offsets. The ability to switch between soliton states and different phase noise for different soliton states indicates that in our experiment the phase noise characteristic might be further improved.

Thus SIL microcomb provide competitive phase noise characteristics within 1 kHz - 1 MHz in comparison with breadboard implementation [22]. As a future investigation, we need to understand why self-injection locking does not suppress phase noise at low frequencies (below 1 kHz). Also, robust packaging of integrated microcomb sources may decrease the phase noise at these frequency offsets. Then we need to ensure that "quiet point" [16] is accessible in the self-injection locking regime.

### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 6: TEMPORAL WAVEFORM OF SOLITON PULSE

Soliton microcombs are a train of ultra-short pulses, but direct observation of such temporal solitons is challenging. These pulses have widths of hundreds of femtosecond and repetition rates from GHz to THz. The problem is that optical spectrum measured by OSA is the Fourier transform of the auto-correlation function (ACF). But AFC may exhibit narrow spikes, that are easily confused with pulses, even in the case where no pulses are present in the cavity. It may happen if all phases between comb lines are constant in time but arbitrary. This results in a periodic, modulated time domain output from the microresonator but not the truly pulsed behavior (see Supplementary Materials of [23] for more



Supplementary Figure 5: Frequency Resolved Optical Gating (FROG) of self-injection locked soliton. (a) Original FROG trace measured for soliton microcomb with a repetition rate of 35.397 GHz is on the left panel.

The microcomb was, first, filtered by using fiber Bragg grating to suppress the central line and amplified to  $\approx 100 \text{ mW}$  by using cascaded optical amplifiers (with non-flat gain). The fiber Bragg grating filtered not only the central comb line but also neighbor lines because its bandwidth is more than the comb lines spacing. This caused the changes in the optical spectrum but does not affect the phase relations between comb lines and pulsed waveform. That is why the FROG trace does not correspond to the pure single soliton temporal profile, but still exhibits the

optical pulse with a width of less than 1 picosecond. The reconstructed FROG trace is on the right panel. (b) Optical spectrum of 35.397 GHz self-injection locked soliton. (c) The reconstructed intracavity power of the soliton pulse. Deviation and broadening from the expected soliton temporal profile are caused by the cascaded amplification by 2 non-flat gain optical amplifiers and filtering using a fiber Bragg grating.

details).

The first Frequency Resolved Optical Gating (FROG) measurement of soliton microcombs in microresonators was presented in [23] and demonstrated that soliton microcombs are optical pulses, separated by the cavity roundtrip time with constant pulse amplitudes, as expected for temporal dissipative solitons [23]. Since this

research, it is widely accepted to demonstrate two measurements to prove existence of soliton pulses in microresonators (with anomalous dispersion): the sech<sup>2</sup> envelope of the optical spectrum and of the background noise (the RF noise from DC to 1-5 GHz). Narrow-band beatnote signal at the soliton repetition rate frequency is a good addition to the soliton state, but it impossible to measure it for most photonic chip-based microresonators, because their FSR exceed 100 GHz. In our experiments, we observe sech<sup>2</sup> spectrum, zero background noise, and ultranarrow beatnote signal. That allows us to conclude that we study temporal soliton.

To provide one more evidence of soliton origin we perform FROG measurement of integrated optical microcomb. We generate self-injection locked soliton in a microresonator with FSR of 35.397 GHz. This single soliton provides pure spectral characteristics and has a power of less than 1 mW. Before the FROG setup, the optical spectrum of self-injection locked soliton is filtered by a fiber Bragg grating (FBG) for pump suppression (-30 dB) and amplified to  $\approx 100$  mW by using cascaded optical amplifiers. This caused the changes in the optical spectrum but does not affect the pulse origin of the soliton. The intracavity field distribution reconstructed from the FROG trace proves that the studied spectrum corresponds to the ultra-short bright soliton (see Supplementary Figure 5).

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE 7: OPTIMIZING COMB POWER

In soliton regime the pump-to-comb conversion efficiency is not very good. However it can be optimized to some extent. Using the formula for the comb envelope [23] we get the following:

$$P_{\mu} = \eta \kappa \frac{n_{\text{eff}} n_{\text{effc}} D_2 V_{\text{eff}}}{4\omega c n_2} \operatorname{sech}^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \sqrt{\frac{D_2}{\kappa \zeta}} \mu \right), \qquad (1)$$

where  $n_{\text{eff}}$  and  $n_{\text{effc}}$  are effective refraction indices of the WGM and the coupler mode,  $n_2$  is the nonlinear index of the microresonator,  $D_2$  is the second order dispersion coefficient,  $\eta$  is the pump coupling coefficient,  $\kappa$  and  $\omega$  are the loaded linewidth and eigenfrequency of the WGM and  $V_{\text{eff}}$  is its effective volume. The  $\mu$  is the mode number, counting from the pumped mode and the formula is valid only for  $\mu \neq 0$  (the zero mode should take the interference with the pump into account). The  $\zeta$  is the effective detuning. The WGM cross section area is assumed the same as for the output beam.

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This formula provides insight into both the comb width and comb tooth power. First, the power can be increased by increasing the effective detuning  $\zeta$ , which also leads to the comb width increase. However, this parameter has finite borders (see Eq. 1 in the main text) in the unlocked state but the maximum can be increased with the input power. Furthermore, its change is difficult in the locked state as the effective detuning is fixed and exhibits a complicated dependence on the pump power, microresonator backscattering rate and quality factor. Second, the sideband power can be increased by means of the dispersion engineering. It is worth noting, that, the optimum over  $D_2$  exists, so if the power is important, it should not be decreased abruptly. Last, the coupling increase also allows to increase the sideband power. However this can decrease the loaded quality factor, increasing the power threshold for the comb generation.

To maximize the power of the weakest comb lines, the group velocity dispersion (GVD) and the coupling rate of the microresonator to the bus waveguide may be varied within values that can be engineered by varying the Si3N4 waveguide dimensions as well as the resonatorto-waveguide distance in combination with specially designed coupling regions [24]. Another approach for power enhancement is the use of normal GVD regime, which supports formation of dark soliton pulses. These temporal localized structures provide much higher pump-tocomb conversion efficiency [25] up to 41% [26]. The proposed in the main text theoretical model of nonlinear selfinjection locking is valid for this regime. Moreover, our recent numerical studies suggest that the SIL allows for solitonic pulse generation in normal GVD regime without any additional efforts [27].

Nevertheless, we demonstrated the self-injection locked soliton with power of 1.4 mW. The comb optical spectrum (Fig. 3b of the main text) consists of more than 30 lines with power of -20 dBm. The one of the record transmision data experiments, where transmission of a data stream of more than 50 terabits per second, utilizes the Kerr microcomb with 179 lines with power higher than -20 dBm [24].

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