

**Supplementary information**

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**Integrated photonics enables continuous-beam electron phase modulation**

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# Supplementary Information for Integrated photonics enables continuous-beam electron phase modulation

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## 1 Analytical equations used for fitting optical resonance

The surface Rayleigh or bulk scattering in the microresonator leads to the coupling of clockwise ( $a_{cw}$ ) and counter-clockwise ( $a_{ccw}$ ) modes [1]. Assuming both modes have degenerate frequencies  $\omega$  with modal coupling rate  $\gamma$ , the Hamiltonian of the microresonator system reads

$$H = \hbar\omega(a_{cw}^\dagger a_{cw} + a_{ccw}^\dagger a_{ccw}) + \hbar\gamma(a_{cw} + a_{cw}^\dagger)(a_{ccw} + a_{ccw}^\dagger). \quad (1)$$

Considering the laser's frame with frequency  $\omega_l = \omega + \Delta$ , under the rotating wave approximation, the Hamiltonian reads

$$H = -\hbar\Delta(a_{cw}^\dagger a_{cw} + a_{ccw}^\dagger a_{ccw}) + \hbar\gamma(a_{cw} a_{ccw}^\dagger + a_{cw}^\dagger a_{ccw}). \quad (2)$$

After considering coupling to the bus waveguide with rate  $\kappa_{ex}$  and losses to the environment with rate  $\kappa_0$ , this results in the Langevin equation (ignoring vacuum fluctuation)

$$\dot{a}_{cw} = (-\kappa/2 + i\Delta)a_{cw} - i\gamma a_{ccw} + \sqrt{\eta\kappa}a_{cw,in} \quad (3)$$

$$\dot{a}_{ccw} = (-\kappa/2 + i\Delta)a_{ccw} - i\gamma a_{cw}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\kappa = \kappa_{ex} + \kappa_0$  describes the total loss rate and  $\eta = \kappa_{ex}/\kappa$  denotes the coupling efficiency. The stationary solution of the intracavity fields can be easily obtained as

$$a_{cw} = \frac{-\sqrt{\eta\kappa}a_{cw,in}}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta + \frac{\gamma^2}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta}} \quad (5)$$

$$a_{ccw} = \frac{-i\gamma a_{cw}}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta}. \quad (6)$$

The cavity transmission, reflection and dissipation are then obtained from the input-output formalism  $\mathcal{O}_{out} = \mathcal{O}_{in} - \sqrt{\kappa_{ex}}\mathcal{O}$ ,

$$P_t/\hbar\omega = |a_{cw,out}|^2 = |a_{cw,in} - \sqrt{\eta\kappa}a_{cw}|^2 \quad (7)$$

$$P_r/\hbar\omega = |a_{ccw,out}|^2 = |-\sqrt{\eta\kappa}a_{ccw}|^2 \quad (8)$$

$$P_{diss}/\hbar\omega = |-\sqrt{(1-\eta)\kappa}a_{cw}|^2 + |-\sqrt{(1-\eta)\kappa}a_{ccw}|^2. \quad (9)$$

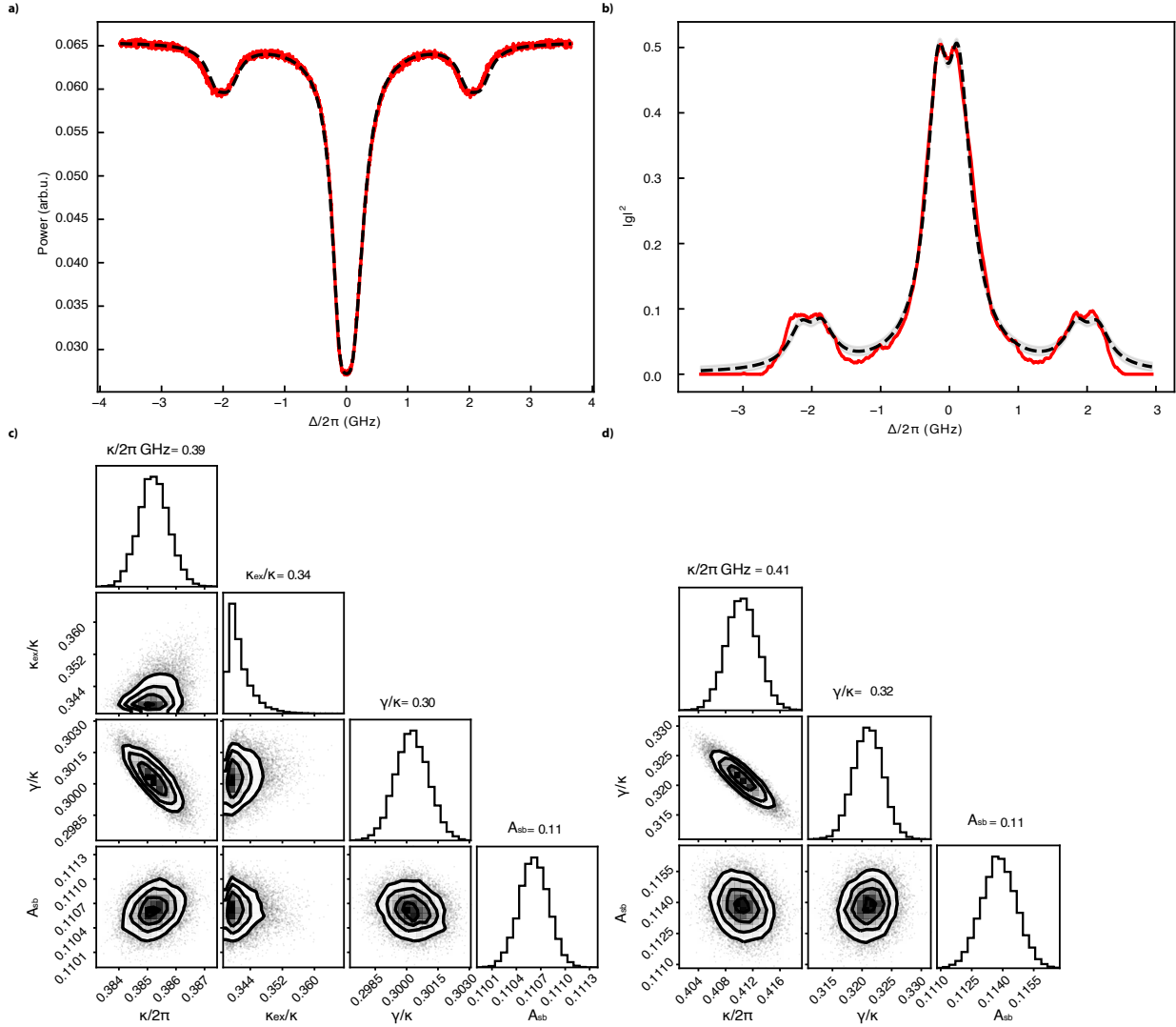


Figure 1: **a)** An optical transmission scan measured at the output of the chip is fitted using Eq.(7). The sidebands generated via an electro-optic modulator are used to calibrate the frequency. **b)** Fitting to the fitted  $g$  frequency sweep using Eq.(10). Note that the frequency sweep line shape difference near the resonance is due to the coupling to the frequency degenerate counter-clockwise optical mode. **c,d)** The Markov chain Monte Carlo random walk corner plot of the fitting to the optical data and the fitted  $g$  data. The fitted system key parameters (cavity decay rate  $\kappa$ , splitting ratio  $\gamma/\kappa$ , sideband ratio  $A_{sb}$ ) of the two frequency sweeps are all within 7% discrepancy, indicating great consistency between the optical and electron spectroscopic measurements. Also strong correlation between the fitted  $\gamma$  and  $\kappa$  is observed for both fittings, indicating the necessity of applying the coupled modes model to correctly extract the cavity decay rate.

And the intracavity photon numbers are simply

$$n_{cw} = \left| \frac{-\sqrt{\eta\kappa}}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta + \frac{\gamma^2}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta}} \right|^2 \dot{n}_{cw,in} \quad (10)$$

$$n_{ccw} = \left| \frac{-i\gamma}{-\kappa/2 + i\Delta} \right|^2 n_{cw}. \quad (11)$$

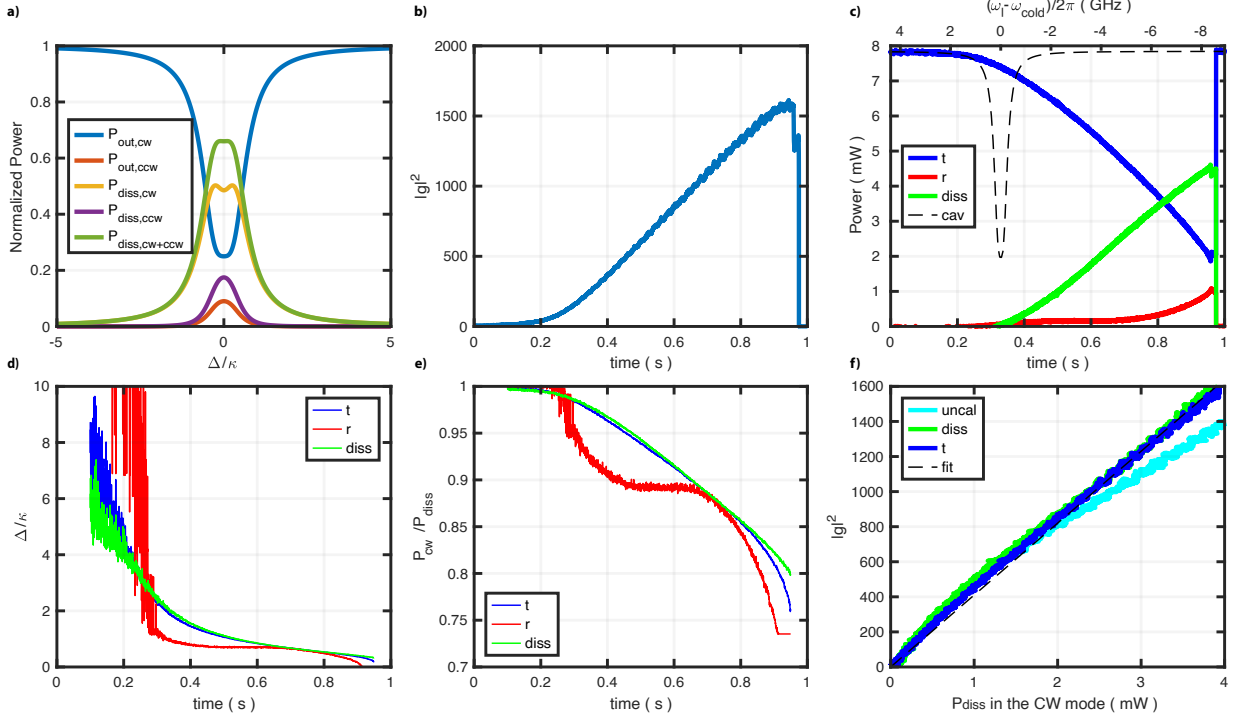


Figure 2: **a)** Simulated power distribution in the optical system when pump is along clockwise direction, generated using parameters fitted from the frequency sweep measurement shown in Fig.1. **b)**  $|g|^2$  scan where each point is obtained after fitting the electron energy distribution. **c)** Experimentally measured optical signal of the cavity transmission (blue), reflection (red), and dissipation (green). The resonance shaped (black dashed) curve shows the inferred cold cavity transmission without thermal absorption and Kerr nonlinearity induced cavity frequency shift, which is present in the triangular shaped (blue) curve due to high input power ( $\sim > 50\mu\text{W}$ ). **d)** Calibrated detuning  $\Delta(t)$  based on the experimentally measured optical signal in (c). **e)** Calibrated correction factor  $P_{\text{diss,cw}}/P_{\text{diss}}$  from the detuning plot (d). The reflection calibration is empirically erroneous. This effect can be attributed to the etalon formed by the chip facets, by which the transmission signal is less affected. **f)** The calibrated dissipated power in the clockwise mode shows linear relation with  $|g|^2$  from different measurement channels (transmission and dissipation).

Eq.(7) and (10) are used for fitting the frequency sweep of the optical transmission  $P_t(\Delta)$ . The frequency sweep fitting was done using the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods [2], with the optical sidebands  $\pm\Omega_{\text{sb}}$  and absorption induced cavity frequency shift  $\chi_{\text{th}}P_{\text{diss}}(\Delta)$  included in the models. The fitting function is  $F_{\text{fit}}(\Delta) = \sum_{n=-1,0,1} F_i(\Delta + n\Omega_{\text{sb}} + \chi_{\text{th}}P_{\text{diss}}(\Delta))$ , where  $F_i$  is either  $P_t$  for optical measurement or  $n_a$  for measurement of the electron-light coupling  $g$ . The fitting results are shown in Fig.1, and the fitted system parameters show great consistency between the two distinct measurements.

For the power sweep calibration, Eq.(7), (10) and (11) are used for calibrating the clockwise dissipated power  $\tilde{P}_{\text{diss,cw}}(t)$ . The detuning  $\tilde{\Delta}(t)$  was extracted from the experimentally measured  $\tilde{P}_t(t)$  (Fig.2(b), suffers the least from background noise) using the fitted resonator parameters  $(\kappa, \eta, \gamma)$  from the frequency sweep (Fig.2(a)(c)). Then the clockwise dissipated power  $\tilde{P}_{\text{diss,cw}}(t)$  (Fig.2(e)) was calibrated from the experimentally measured transmission power  $\tilde{P}_t(t)$  and the calibrated  $\tilde{\Delta}(t)$  by  $\tilde{P}_{\text{diss,cw}}(t) = \frac{P_{\text{diss,cw}}(\tilde{\Delta}(t))}{P_t(\tilde{\Delta}(t))} \tilde{P}_t(t)$ . We later calculate the characteristic coupled optical power  $P = n_{\text{cw}}\hbar\omega\kappa$  by scaling the dissipated power  $P = \frac{\kappa}{\kappa_0} \times \tilde{P}_{\text{diss,cw}}$ , and plot it against the fitted coupling constant  $|g(t)|^2$  (fig. 2f), one could find the linear

relation as is expected in theory. The observable oscillations in the linear dependence of  $|g|^2$  on the clockwise dissipated power are related to a 50 Hz noise in the beam position leading to variations in electron-light coupling strength. To eliminate this 50 Hz noise, we binned the retrieved coupling strength in time intervals of 20 ms. The resulting power dependence is shown in main text figure 2.e).

## 2 Quantum optical description of electron-photon interaction

As discussed in the main manuscript, for electron-photon interaction, it is more natural to work in the velocity gauge [3]. For simplicity, we reduce the problem to one dimension ( $\hat{z}$ ) along the electron propagation direction. The vector potential is quantized as [4]

$$\hat{A} = \hat{A}(z) = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2\epsilon\omega V}}(u(z)a + u^*(z)a^\dagger),$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the optical permittivity,  $\omega$  is the optical frequency,  $V$  is the effective optical mode volume, and  $u(z)$  is the  $z$  projection (along the propagation direction of electron  $\vec{k}_e$ ) of the vector mode function  $\vec{u}(\vec{r})$  which satisfies

$$\int_V |\vec{u}(\vec{r})|^2 d\vec{r}^3 = V.$$

We choose the electron plane wave states as the basis,

$$|k_e\rangle = \int dz |z\rangle \langle z| |k_e\rangle = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dz L^{-1/2} \exp(ik_e z) |z\rangle$$

$$\mathbf{1} = \sum_{k_e} |k_e\rangle \langle k_e| = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L}{2\pi} \int dk_e |k_e\rangle \langle k_e|.$$

The coupling term can then be readily calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 &= \frac{e}{2m} (\hat{p}\hat{A} + \hat{A}\hat{p}) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2\epsilon\omega V}} \frac{e}{2m} \sum_{k_e} |k_e\rangle \langle k_e| \cdot \hat{p} \cdot \int_{L_c} dz |z\rangle \langle z| (u(z)a + u^*(z)a^\dagger) \sum_{k'_e} |k'_e\rangle \langle k'_e| + h.c. \\ &= \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2\epsilon\omega V}} \frac{e}{mL} \left( \sum_{\Delta k_e} \sum_{k_e} \hbar(k_e - \Delta k_e/2) \int_{L_c} dz e^{-i\Delta k_e \cdot z} u(z)a |k_e\rangle \langle k_e - \Delta k_e| + h.c. \right) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\hbar e^2 v_e^2}{2\epsilon\omega V}} \left( a \sum_{k_e} \int_{\Delta k_e} d\Delta k_e \frac{k_e - \Delta k_e/2}{k_e^0} \frac{L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k_e)}{2\pi} |k_e\rangle \langle k_e - \Delta k_e| + h.c. \right) \\ &= \hbar g_0 a b^\dagger + \hbar g_0^* a^\dagger b, \end{aligned}$$

with the vacuum coupling rate  $g_0 = \sqrt{\frac{e^2 v_e^2}{2\epsilon\hbar\omega V}}$  in which  $v_e$  is the electron velocity and  $e$  is the electron charge, and the electron transition operator  $b = \sum_{k_e} \int_{\Delta k_e} d\Delta k_e \frac{k_e - \Delta k_e/2}{k_e^0} \frac{L_{\text{eff}}^*(\Delta k_e)}{2\pi} |k_e - \Delta k_e\rangle \langle k_e|$ . Here,  $L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k_e) = \int_{L_c} dz e^{-i\Delta k_e \cdot z} u(z)$  is the effective interaction length, and represents the phase matching condition between the optical field profile function  $u(z)$  along the electron propagation trajectory and the electron wavevector change  $e^{-i\Delta k_e \cdot z}$  upon the absorption/emission of a photon. Under conditions of phase matching, the expression can be reduced to the order of the physical length over which the optical field and the electron interact.

In the interaction picture, the scattering matrix, derived from the interaction Hamiltonian, is

$$\begin{aligned}
H_{\text{int}} &= \hbar g_0 a \sum_{k_e} \int_{\Delta k_e} d\Delta k_e \frac{k_e - \Delta k_e/2}{k_e^0} \frac{L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k_e)}{2\pi} |k_e\rangle \langle k_e - \Delta k_e| e^{-i\omega t} e^{i[E(k_e) - E(k_e - \Delta k_e)]t/\hbar} + \text{h.c.} \\
S &= T \exp \left( -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{\tau \rightarrow -\infty} H_{\text{int}} dt \right) \\
&\approx \exp \left( -ig_0 a \sum_{k_e} \iint_{\tau, \Delta k_e} d\Delta k_e \frac{k_e - \Delta k_e/2}{k_e^0} \frac{L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k_e)}{2\pi} |k_e\rangle \langle k_e - \Delta k_e| e^{i([E(k_e) - E(k_e - \Delta k_e)]/\hbar - \omega)t} dt - \text{h.c.} \right) \\
&= \exp \left( -ig_0 a \sum_{k_e} \int_{\Delta k_e} d\Delta k_e \frac{k_e - \Delta k_e/2}{k_e^0} L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k_e) |k_e\rangle \langle k_e - \Delta k_e| \delta \left[ \frac{E(k_e) - E(k_e - \Delta k_e)}{\hbar} - \omega \right] - \text{h.c.} \right) \\
&= \exp \left( -ig_0 a \sum_{E_e} \frac{k_e - \Delta k/2}{k_e^0} \frac{L_{\text{eff}}(\Delta k)}{\partial_{p_e} E} |E_e\rangle \langle E_e - \hbar\omega| - \text{h.c.} \right) \\
&\approx \exp \left( -ig_0 \frac{L_{\text{eff}}}{v_e} a \sum_{E_e \in [E_e^0 - \epsilon, E_e^0 + \epsilon]} |E_e\rangle \langle E_e - \hbar\omega| - \text{h.c.} \right) \\
&= \exp \left( -i\tilde{g}_0 \tau_{\text{int}} a \tilde{b}^\dagger - \text{h.c.} \right),
\end{aligned}$$

with a re-defined expression of  $\tilde{b} = \sum_{E_e \in [E_e^0 - \epsilon, E_e^0 + \epsilon]} |E_e\rangle \langle E_e - \hbar\omega|$ . Moreover,  $\Delta k \approx \frac{\omega}{v_e}$ , defined by  $E(k_e) - E(k_e - \Delta k) = \hbar\omega$ , is the electron wave-vector change due to the absorption/emission of a photon. The vacuum coupling rate is also re-defined as  $\tilde{g}_0 = \eta \sqrt{\frac{e^2 v_e^2}{2\epsilon \hbar \omega V}}$ , so that the interaction time  $\tau_{\text{int}} = \frac{L_{\text{int}}}{v_e}$  has a very clear physical meaning, which is the fly-by time of the electron over the interaction region  $L_{\text{int}}$ . Here the phase matching coefficient  $\eta = \int dz e^{-i\Delta k \cdot z} u(z)/L_{\text{int}}$  is re-introduced in the vacuum coupling rate  $\tilde{g}_0$ .

In the presence of a strong coherent laser drive  $|\alpha\rangle$ , the scattering matrix reduces to a displacement operator on the electron state  $S \approx \exp(-ig_0 \tau_{\text{int}} \alpha b^\dagger - \text{h.c.})$ , which results in the probability distribution on the  $N_{\text{th}}$  sideband

$$\begin{aligned}
P_N &= |\langle E_e^0 + N\Delta | S | E_e^0 \rangle|^2 = J_N(2g)^2 \\
g &= |\alpha g_0 \tau_{\text{int}}| = \sqrt{\frac{n_{\text{ph}} \epsilon^2}{2\epsilon \hbar \omega V}} \left| \int dz e^{-i\Delta \cdot z} u(z) \right| \\
&= \frac{e}{2\hbar\omega} \left| \int dz e^{-i\Delta \cdot z} \tilde{E}(z) \right|,
\end{aligned}$$

where the complex field  $\tilde{E}(z)$  is related to the physical electric field  $E(z, t)$  via  $E(z, t) = \text{Real}[\tilde{E}(z)e^{-i\omega t}]$ .

### 3 Estimation of transverse beam deflection

Since inelastic electron-light scattering is typically accompanied by a three-dimensional momentum transfer, we here estimate the transverse deflection of the electron beam upon passing by the resonator structure. For an electron energy of 120 keV, a photon energy of about 0.8 eV (corresponding to a wavelength of 1550 nm) and assuming  $E_\varphi = E_z$  (i.e. electron-photon scattering above a straight waveguide), a single photon scattering would lead to a deflection of  $\sim 1.5 \mu\text{rad}$ . Accordingly, in the case of multi-photon exchange with  $N = 250$ , as shown in Fig. 2d of the main text, a deflection of  $< 0.4 \text{ mrad}$  is expected. For the measurements presented here, the STEM camera length was chosen such that it enables full beam transmission through the angle-limiting aperture into the spectrometer.

## 4 Integrated photonics platforms for electron beam modulation

Various integrated photonics platforms have been used for controlling manifold quantum systems [5–15]. The current  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$ -based electron beam phase modulation demonstration could be potentially extended to other well-established photonic integrated platforms showing the broader applicability. Finite element method based simulations are performed to calculate the  $n_{\text{eff}}$  of the microresonators with different materials by sweeping the frequency and changing the waveguide height. The width of the waveguide is kept at  $1.5 \mu\text{m}$  for all materials (Fig. 3). Different shaded regions are calculated by performing simulations at two different waveguide heights (e.g., solid light-red line GaP:  $1500 \times 800 \text{ nm}^2$ , dashed light-red line GaP:  $1500 \times 400 \text{ nm}^2$ ). It is possible to achieve phase matching for electron kinetic energies ranging from 30 to 180 keV by using different established integrated photonic platforms (AlGaAs [16, 17], GaP [18], 4H-SiC [19], Diamond [20],  $\text{LiNbO}_3$  [21],  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$  [22], Hydrex [22, 23]). Some other prominent platforms, such as Si [24], AlN [25],  $\text{Ta}_2\text{O}_5$  [26], and  $\text{SiO}_2$  [27] are not shown due to overlapping phase matching, but could also be considered for implementing the electron beam phase modulation. In addition to phase matching, other important parameters that also need to be considered are linear propagation loss, light coupling into the chip and optical power handling.

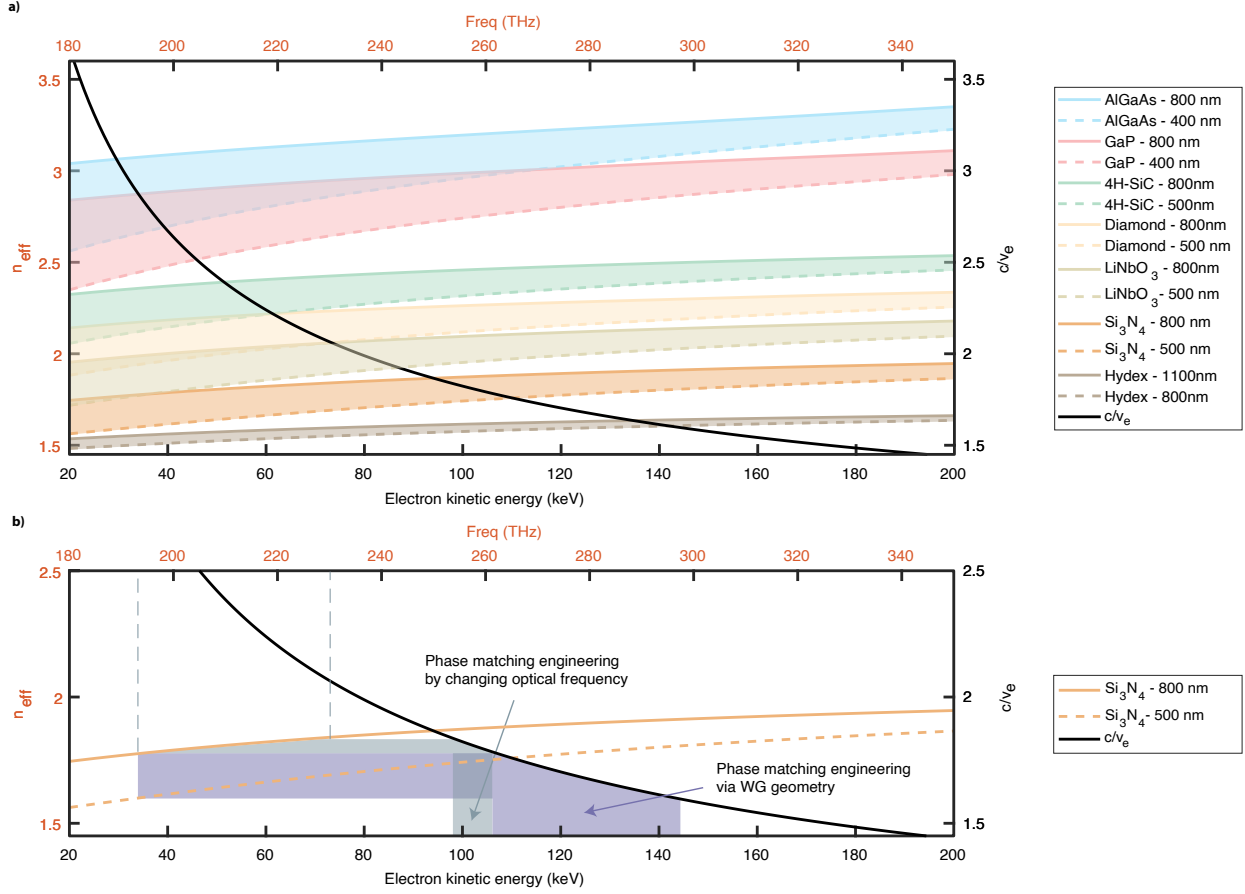


Figure 3: Phase matching condition for different materials and optical frequencies. **a)** For each electron, the electron velocity determines a phase-matched refractive index value, which is accessible through a wide range of optical frequencies and material platforms by engineering of the waveguide geometry. The possible simulated regions of the microresonators' effective index (quasi-TM mode) with  $50 \mu\text{m}$  radius for different materials are achieved by varying either the waveguide dimensions (height) or the optical frequency. Each shaded region shows a possible operating regime for a single integrated platform. Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> could provide phase matching from 95 to 145 keV, while phase matching below 80 keV could be implemented using 4H – SiC or LiNbO<sub>3</sub>. **b)** The two shaded regions show phase matching windows for geometry or frequency tuning. The light purple region can be reached by changing the Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> waveguide height from 800 nm to 500 nm while operating at a single frequency (193 THz). The gray-shaded region can be reached by changing the optical frequency from ~193 THz to 230 THz.

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