

1 **Supplementary information: Gigahertz free-space electro-optic**
2 **modulators based on Mie resonances**

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26 (Dated: April 13, 2022)

Abstract

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Electro-optic modulators are essential for sensing, metrology and telecommunications. Most target fiber applications. Instead, metasurface-based architectures that modulate free-space light at gigahertz (GHz) speeds can boost flat optics technology by microwave electronics for active optics, diffractive computing or optoelectronic control. Current realizations are bulky or have low modulation efficiencies. Here, we demonstrate a hybrid silicon-organic metasurface platform that leverages Mie resonances for efficient electro-optic modulation at GHz speeds. We exploit quasi bound states in the continuum (BIC) that provide narrow linewidth ($Q = 550$ at $\lambda_{\text{res}} = 1594$ nm), light confinement to the non-linear material, tunability by design and voltage and GHz-speed electrodes. Key to the achieved modulation of $\frac{\Delta T}{T_{\text{max}}} = 67\%$ are molecules with $r_{33} = 100$ pm/V and optical field optimization for low-loss. We demonstrate DC tuning of the resonant frequency of quasi-BIC by $\Delta\lambda_{\text{res}} = 11$ nm, surpassing its linewidth, and modulation up to 5 GHz ($f_{EO,-3\text{ dB}} = 3$ GHz). Guided mode resonances tune by $\Delta\lambda_{\text{res}} = 20$ nm. Our hybrid platform may incorporate free-space nanostructures of any geometry or material, by application of the active layer post-fabrication.

42 **S1. FABRICATION DETAILS**

43 The structures discussed in this study use in part standard nanofabrication techniques
 44 used for the silicon-on-insulator platform and are complemented by a final step in which the
 45 organic active layer is applied to the structure and subsequently activated by electric field
 46 poling. The details are discussed in the Methods section of the main text, and a schematic
 47 of the fabrication protocol is provided in Fig. S1.

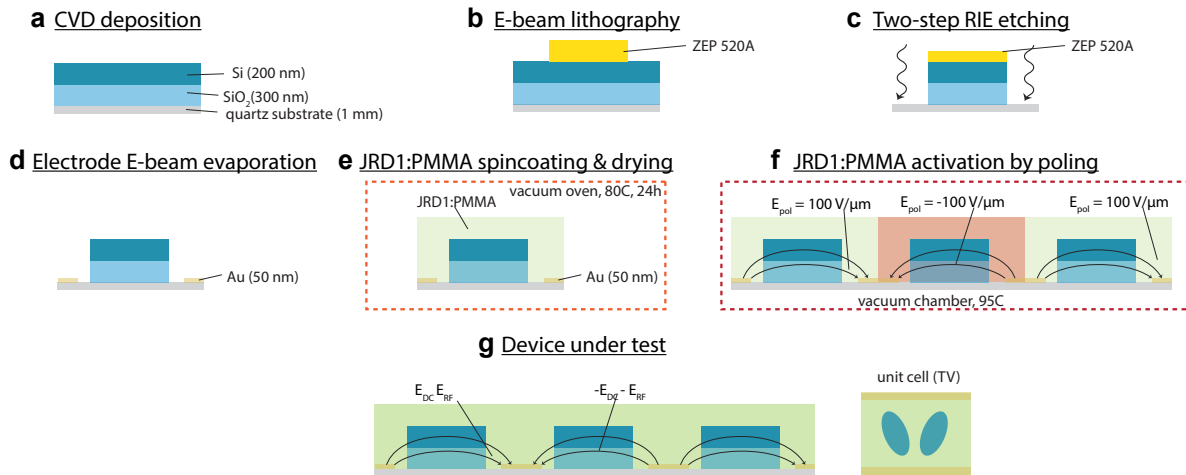


FIG. S1. **Fabrication protocol of hybrid silicon-organic modulators.** **a**, A multi-layer of amorphous silicon and silicon dioxide is deposited onto the substrate. **b**,**-c**, E-beam lithography is used to define the etch mask from cured ZEP 520A for the etching of the silicon and the silicon dioxide using RIE/ICP. **d**, Metallic contact electrodes are deposited via lift-off of ZEP 520A resist and subsequent electron beam deposition of a titanium/gold layer of 15/35 nm thickness. **e**, The active organic layer is applied to the nanostructures by spin coating and subsequently dried in a vacuum oven for 24 h at 80°. **f**, The organic layer is activated by electric field poling. Adjacent unit cells are poled in opposite direction, yielding an in-plane periodically poled electro-optic film, as previously introduced in Ref. [1]. **g**, While under applied driving electric field, the refractive index change is periodic across all unit cells, owing to the driving field that also switches sign from one unit cell to the next. CVD = chemical vapor deposition, RIE = reactive ion etching, Au = gold,

48 **S2. HIGH FREQUENCY CHARACTERISATION SETUP**

49 We built an electro-optical characterisation setup that is suitable to assess the perfor-
 50 mance of the samples both electrically and electro-optically under electrical driving fields
 51 that oscillate at microwave frequencies. In Fig. S2 we show camera pictures of the labora-
 52 tory setup, featuring the characterization of the samples in transmission. A linear polarizer

53 and a lens with focal length $f = 100$ mm are used to create the linearly polarized incident
 54 optical beam (diameter 6 mm) and then further focus it at the plane of the Mie modulator.
 55 The path taken by the telecom laser light is shown by the red arrows. Microwave GSG
 56 probes inject the modulation fields via coplanar on-chip waveguides. They are positioned
 57 using xyz-RF probe stages. A fiber-coupled photodiode collects the transmitted light and
 58 the photocurrent signal is sent further to the set of mixers as described in the Methods in
 59 the main text. An InGaAs camera can be alternatively used to image and optimize the
 60 transmission of the telecom light through the modulator. Further technical details of the
 61 experimental setup and the data acquisition procedure are provided in the Methods.

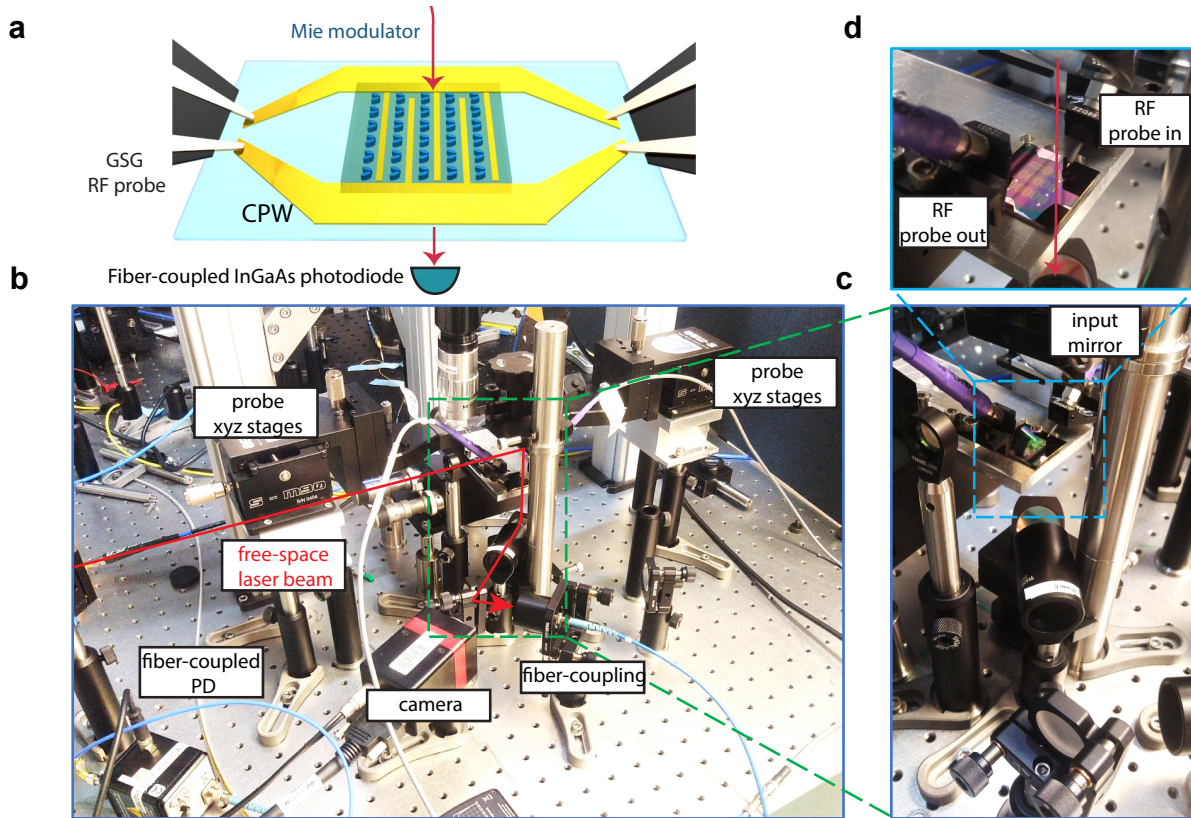


FIG. S2. Pictures showing the GHz-speed setup used for electronic and electro-optic characterization of the free-space Mie modulators. **a**, Simplified setup sketch. **b**, **d**, Photograph of setup shows free-space coupling of telecom light (sketched by the red lines and arrows) to the metasurface that is placed horizontally, GSG probes connected to the devices as well as fiber-coupled high-speed InGaAs detector. PD = photodiode, CPW = coplanar waveguides, RF = radio frequency.

62 S3. PROPERTIES OF QUASI-BIC AND GMR RESONANCES

63 A. Optical and RF nearfields of the resonant Mie structures

64 The structures discussed in this work support quasi-bound states in the continuum and
65 guided mode resonances. An efficient electro-optic transduction is achieved if the electro-
66 optically induced frequency shift of the resonance is maximal, i.e. $\Delta\omega_{eo}(t) = -\frac{\Delta n(t)}{n_{mat}}\omega_{res}\Gamma_c =$
67 $g_{eo}V_{RF}(t)$, with $g_{eo} = \frac{1}{2}n_{mat}^2r_{33}\frac{1}{d}\omega_{res}\Gamma_c$. This requires that the strength and orientation of
68 the optical field and the tuning DC/RF field are such that they interact strongly via the
69 r_{33} component of the electro-optic tensor. This requires that the two fields have a strong
70 overlap Γ_c with the nonlinear material in the nearfield of the resonators and that their
71 vectorial orientation is as parallel as possible to the field lines of the DC fields. In Fig. S3
72 we show various crosssections of the electric fields from electromagnetic and electrostatic
73 simulations of the optical and DC fields. A maximal electro-optic transduction driven by
74 r_{33} between the DC/RF tuning field and the optical field is ensured by the chosen electrode
75 orientation. Due to the sub-wavelength nature of the structures we discuss, the vectorial
76 distribution of RF modulating fields up to 5 GHz can be approximated by the electrostatic
77 field distribution shown in Fig. S3.

78 We first investigate the field distribution at three distinct locations in the plane of the
79 array of resonators: plane A is located 50 nm below the silicon resonators, plane B is
80 located in the center of the silicon resonators and plane C is located 50 nm above the silicon
81 resonators in the JRD1 layer. Furthermore, we provide also the field distribution across the
82 cross-section located at plane D. In all panels, the arrows represent the electric field vector
83 in the considered plane, which the colormap represents the E_z -component for the quasi-BIC
84 modes, and the E_x -component for the GMR. By analyzing the individual field profiles and
85 their spatial distribution, we notice several notable characteristics of the resonances. Firstly
86 and most importantly, we notice that for both classes of resonances, the optical field is largely
87 concentrated in the nearfield of the silicon resonators and localized in the organic coating.
88 We observe that the intensity of the optical field is highest at plane B. This characteristic
89 ensures a high overlap factor Γ_c through a high spatial overlap between the optical mode
90 with the active organic layer, whose refractive index is changed upon an applied driving
91 voltage. Secondly, the field intensity decays rapidly away from the silicon nanopillars and

92 becomes minimal at the location of the interdigitated array of electrodes. Consequently the
93 latter does not affect significantly the linewidth of the resonances. Thirdly, we note that both
94 resonances are excited with x-polarized light. However, the field distribution in the high-
95 intensity nearfield of the resonators is z-polarised for quasi-BIC and x-polarized for GMR.
96 Consequently, an efficient operation of the electro-optic modulator on the r_{33} component
97 is ensured by placing the contact electrodes parallel to the x-axis for the quasi-BIC and
98 parallel to the z-axis for the GMR.

99 The electrodes are then employed to establish the orientation of the electro-optic tensor
100 with respect to the geometrical coordinate system of the sample and thus the r_{33} electro-
101 optic coefficient. r_{33} corresponds, by definition, to the direction of the electric field lines
102 of the poling field. To visualize the latter, we provide in Fig. S3 also the electrostatic
103 simulations of a DC field upon an applied voltage for all discussed planes A-D. We find
104 that, as expected, the field amplitude decays far away from the electrodes and as a result,
105 both the local r_{33} coefficient and the total introduced refractive index change Δn will be
106 lower at plane C than at plane A. Finally, we underline two important last aspects. First,
107 while the quasi-BIC optical mode is circulating, the GMR mode is mainly linearly polarised,
108 thereby leading to a larger overlap factor with the r_{33} component for the GMR mode and
109 the larger tuning of the resonant wavelength $\Delta\lambda_{res}$ for the GMR. Secondly, because of the
110 high-Q nature of the quasi-BIC modes, an optimal height for the silicon dioxide pedestal was
111 found experimentally to be at 300 nm (see discussion below) to ensure at the same time a
112 narrow-band resonance and a large electro-optic tuning at given applied voltage. Increasing
113 the pedestal height further would require higher tuning fields to achieve a commensurate
114 effect due to the decay of the poling field as a function of height.

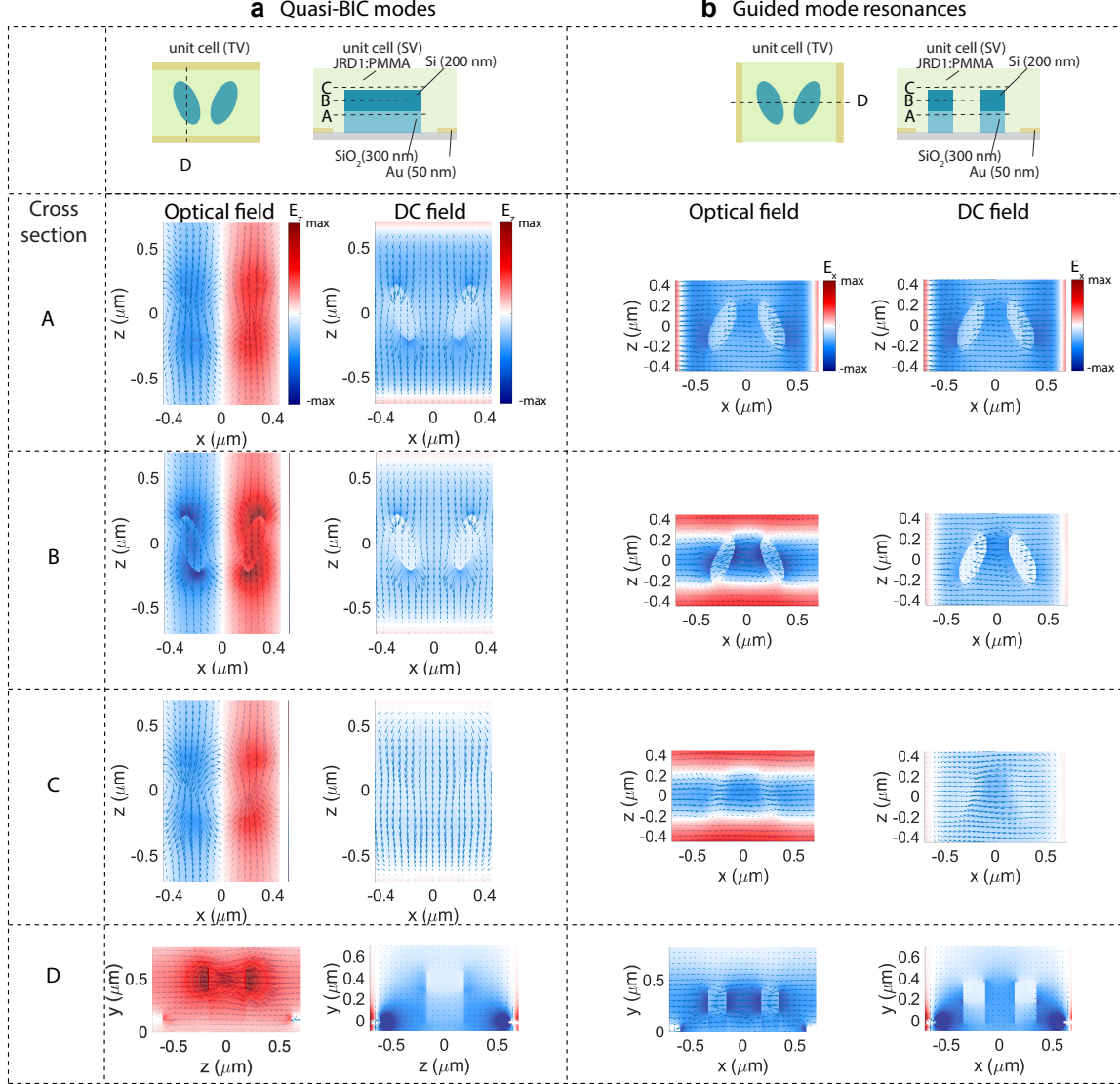


FIG. S3. **Optical and electro-static simulations.** Optical fields and DC fields of quasi-BIC modes (a,) and guided mode resonances (b,) under excitation with x-polarised light. The arrows indicate the in-plane orientation and relative magnitude of the plotted field while the colormap represents the E_z -component for quasi-BICs and E_x component for GMR (all planes A-D have the same range for the colorbar for all optical/electrostatic simulations of the quasi-BIC/GMR structures). Both classes of resonances are characterised by an optical field that is largely concentrated in the nearfield of the silicon resonators and localized in the active organic coating. The intensity of the optical field decays rapidly away from the silicon resonators. The optical mode is highly susceptible to refractive index changes in the nonlinear material, leading to the large observed tuning of its resonant wavelength. DC fields of quasi-BIC modes (a,) and guided mode resonances (b,) are indicative of the local orientation and level of alignment of the organic molecules with the poling field lines inside the three-dimensional volume of the organic layer. TV = top view, SV = side view.

115 **B. Quasi-BICs as electro-optic modulators**

116 In this section, we investigate the feasibility of quasi-BIC resonances ($\theta = 15^\circ$, $\alpha = 0.725$)
 117 as free-space modulators, with a special emphasis on the losses they introduce to the incident
 118 field. For this, we compare in Fig. S4 two distinct simulations: where we consider lossless
 119 materials to the laboratory experiment where losses are taken into account. From the
 120 lossless case, we find that at resonance all light is reflected back from the metasurface and
 121 absorption is negligible at all wavelengths. In contrast to this, the real material losses
 122 introduce enhanced absorption at resonance which reduces significantly the amplitude of
 123 the reflected field. However, the visibility of the transmitted field is less impacted by the
 124 absorption. From this comparison we conclude that free-space modulators from quasi-BICs
 125 are preferably operated in a transmission configuration in the presence of losses, as we chose
 126 to do in our experiments.

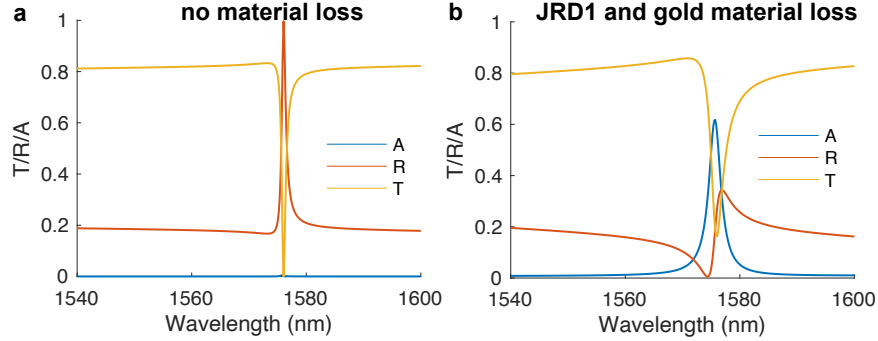


FIG. S4. **Simulated absorption, reflection and transmission curves for quasi-BIC without and with material losses.** **a**, Simulations when no losses are present indicate vanishingly small absorption at all wavelengths. **b**, Simulations with all material losses taken into account indicate that enhanced absorption also occurs at resonance.

127 **C. Influence of asymmetry angle on optical linewidth**

128 As discussed extensively in reference [2], the linewidth and the associated radiative Q-
 129 factor of the quasi-BIC resonances is directly linked with the asymmetry angle θ . In Fig. S5
 130 we report this characteristic exemplarily for $\alpha = 0.7$. A similar behavior can be found for
 131 $\alpha = 0.725$, which is shown in Fig. S6. We find that generally, the resonant wavelength
 132 shifts towards higher wavelengths for higher asymmetry angle θ , thereby confirming our
 133 experimental results shown in the main text. In addition, at small asymmetry angles θ , the

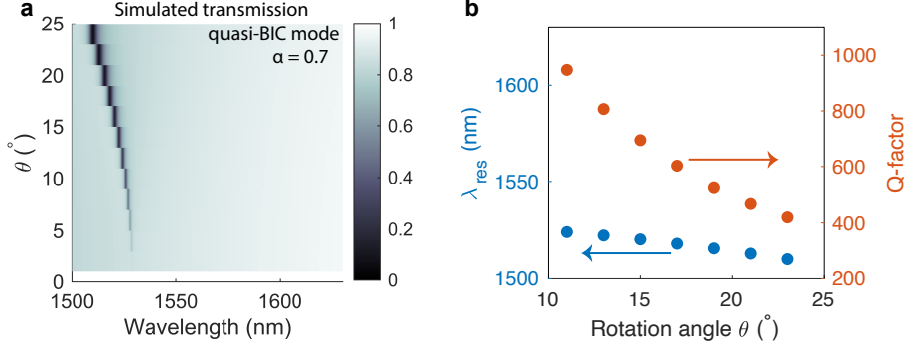


FIG. S5. **Linewidth tuning by angle θ .** **a, - b,** The geometrical scaling factor is $\alpha = 0.7$ and dimensions are as given in the methods. We compute the quality factor using the formula $Q = \frac{\omega_{res}}{\gamma}$ with γ the total loss rate of the resonance which we extract by fitting a Lorentzian lineshape to the transmitted power of the shape $I(\omega) = \frac{A}{(\omega - \omega_{res})^2 + (\frac{\gamma}{2})^2} + B$, where A, B, ω_{res} and γ are fitting parameters. Owing to the presence of material losses introduced by the metallic electrodes and the JRD1:PMMA layer, the visibility of resonances vanishes for small θ .

134 visibility of the resonances is reduced owing to the material losses introduced by both the
 135 electrode materials and the JRD1:PMMA layer, as discussed in the section below.

136 **D. Influence of conductive electrodes on optical linewidth**

137 In this section we investigate the employed gold electrodes as a source of optical loss that
 138 both reduces the quality factor of the resonators and the visibility of the resonances. Both
 139 aspects have negative impact on the achieved overall modulation efficiency η_{max} , as they
 140 lower the amount of transmitted intensity modulation at a given applied voltage.

141 In Fig. S6, we compare by simulations two distinct cases: In a,-b, we depict simulation
 142 results of the optical transmission, as well as their Q-factors for an exemplarily chosen
 143 structure of $\alpha = 0.725$ that contains gold electrodes. In c,-d, we provide simulation results
 144 for identical structures where the electrode material is replaced from gold to indium tin
 145 oxide (ITO with real and imaginary refractive index as shown in e), a transparent conductive
 146 electrode that features good conductivity and much lower optical losses. From the shape of
 147 the resonance and its visibility, we compute in each case the maximum modulation depth
 148 that can be achieved with a given structure, which we define as $\Delta T_{max}/T_{max} = (T_{max} -$
 149 $T_{min})/T_{max}$. From our simulations, we find that replacing the electrodes by ITO is a viable
 150 path if lower optical losses are desired. In this case, both the quality factor and the visibility
 151 of optical resonances is dramatically improved. For example, a maximum modulation depth

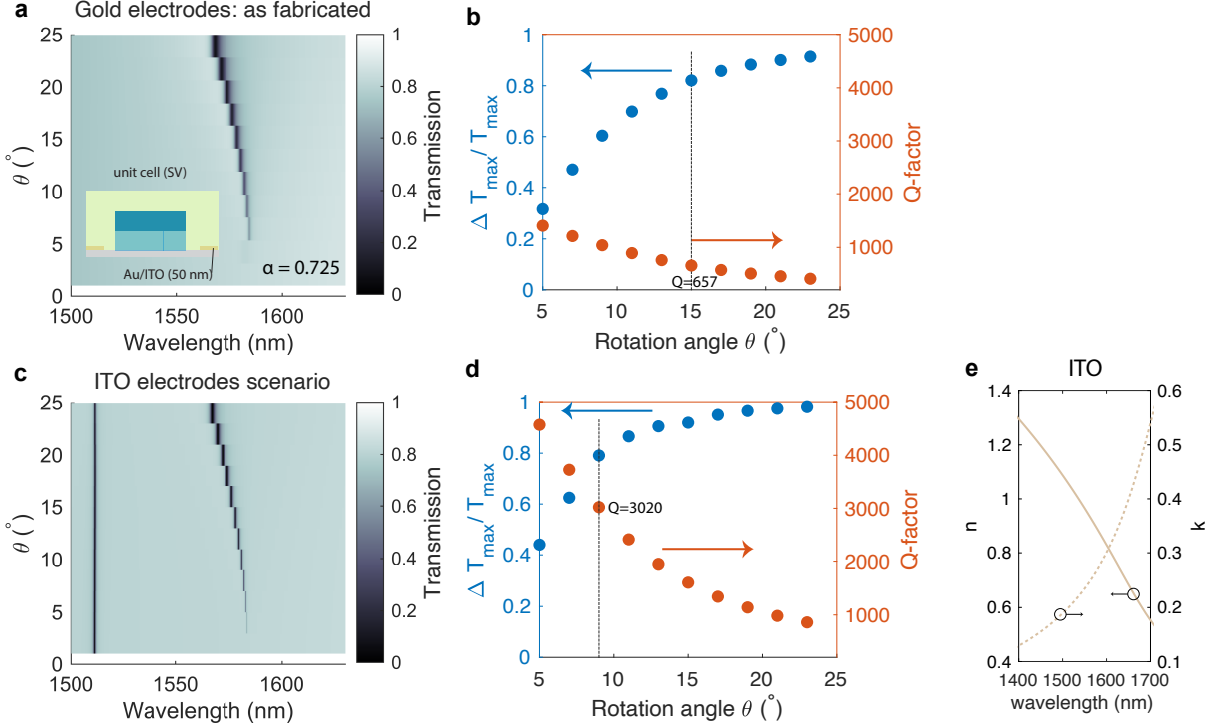


FIG. S6. **Influence of electrode material on the quality factor and the modulation capabilities of the modulators.** **a**, - **b**, Simulated resonance and modulation properties for quasi-BIC structures as-fabricated with a geometrical scaling factor of $\alpha = 0.725$ and gold-electrodes. **c**, - **d**, Equivalent simulations performed by replacing the gold electrodes by indium-tinn-oxide electrodes shows a considerable increase in possible quality factor, as well as the maximum modulation depth that can be achieved at given asymmetry angle. $\Delta T_{max}/T_{max} = (T_{max} - T_{min})/T_{max}$ is defined as the maximum minus the minimum of the transmission curves shown in **a**, and **c**, divided by the maximum of the transmission curve. **e**, Real and imaginary refractive index of ITO used for simulations.

152 of 0.8 is achieved in the case of gold at an asymmetry angle $\theta = 15^\circ$, corresponding to a
 153 quality factor of $Q = 657$, whereas the same modulation depth is achieved in the case of
 154 ITO at an asymmetry angle $\theta = 9^\circ$, corresponding to a quality factor of $Q = 3020$, roughly
 155 5 times higher.

156 Furthermore, it is important to note that replacing the electrode material by ITO also
 157 improves the extinction ratio of the modulators. If the simulated extinction ratio at $\theta = 25^\circ$
 158 is 10 dB for gold electrodes, it reaches 19 dB for ITO electrodes.

E. Influence of pedestal height on optical linewidth

We show in the section above that the optical fields are well concentrated around the silicon nanostructures at resonance. For the case of electrically actuated structures as the ones discussed here, electrodes are mandatorily incorporated with the nanostructures to provide the necessary actuating fields. While previous proposals may choose to apply electrodes that enclose several periods of the nanoresonator array as a way to keep the metallic losses low, we chose to apply a set of electrodes to each single row of the array. This configuration notably maximized the electro-optic effect at a given voltage, which scales linearly with the electric field. However, in this case, as electrodes are present in the immediate vicinity of the nanostructures, losses introduced by the metallic electrodes can become significant, if no additional measures are taken.

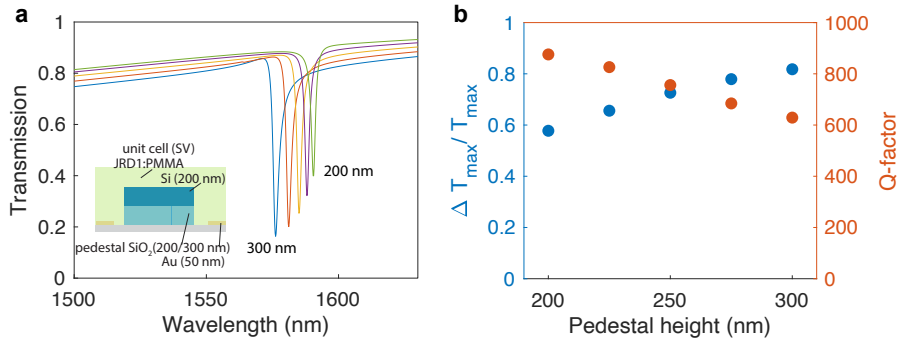


FIG. S7. Influence of pedestal height on the quality factor and the modulation capabilities of the modulators. **a**, Simulated resonance for quasi-BIC structures as-fabricated with a geometrical scaling factor of $\alpha = 0.725$ and gold-electrodes, for different heights of the silicon dioxide pedestal from 200 nm to 300 nm. The visibility of the resonance decreases rapidly with decreasing pedestal height. **b**, Quality factor and modulation efficiency for different pedestal heights. $\Delta T_{max}/T_{max} = (T_{max} - T_{min})/T_{max}$ is defined as the maximum minus the minimum of the transmission curves shown in **a**, divided by the maximum of the transmission curve.

In our case, we chose to place the silicon nanoresonators on top of silicon dioxide pedestals that are used as a spacer to allow a placement of the electrodes further away from the high-intensity regions of the nearfield. As a result, the choice of the height of this pedestal is extremely important, and is analysed in this section. In Fig. S7 we show exemplarily the effect of the height of the pedestal on the visibility and the modulation efficiency of free-space modulators based on quasi-BICs with an $\alpha = 0.725$. Clearly, for decreased pedestal heights, the visibility of the resonance decreases as well as the modulation efficiency.

177 **F. Influence of electrode height on resonance**

178 The thin electrodes and in particular their physical localization below the silicon nanores-
 179 onators leads to a distribution of the DC/RF tuning field that is not uniformly parallel to
 180 the z-axis. This fact is visible e.g. in the electric field distribution plots we provided in
 181 Fig. S3. One possibility to improve this alignment can be to increase the electrode thick-
 182 ness to become commensurate with the silicon resonators themselves. Unfortunately, in our
 183 geometry, this concomitantly introduces significant optical losses due to a higher overlap of
 184 the BIC mode with the electrode material, thereby lowering the quality factor of the res-
 185 onance considerably. We demonstrate the impact of the electrode height on the linewidth
 186 and the depth of the resonance by simulations for two independent scenarios in Fig. S8:
 187 where the electrodes are from gold or from ITO. As a result, both the intensity modulation
 188 and the modulation per volt is expected to significantly deteriorate when the electrodes are
 189 introducing too significant losses.

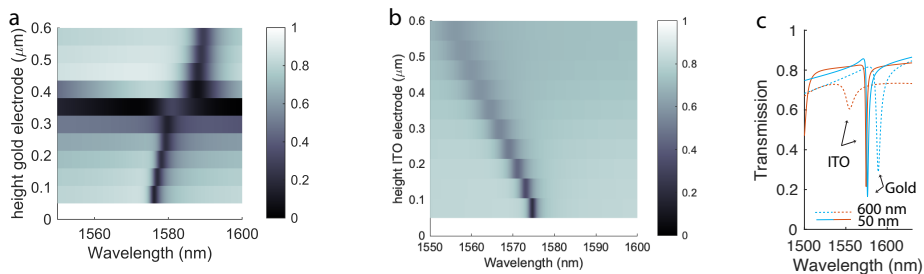


FIG. S8. **Influence of electrode height on quality factor and resonant depth of quasi-BICs.** **a**, Gold electrodes. **b**, ITO electrodes. **c**, Comparison of the two for two different electrode heights (50 and 600 nm).

190 **G. Influence of incident angle on resonance and modulation depth**

191 Here we analyze the angle-dependent resonance of quasi-BICs and the introduced mod-
 192 ulation depth by measurements and simulations of a representative sample with $\alpha = 0.7$,
 193 $\theta = 15^\circ$. We show in Fig. S9 below first the angular dependency of the optical resonances
 194 as measured by experiments and simulated using CST microwave studio. We find that an
 195 incident angle that deviates from the normal broadens the resonance and lowers its visibil-
 196 ity and that the resonant wavelength shift stronger when the tilt is oriented as shown in
 197 Fig. S9 b and d. Our simulations agree very well with the measurements.

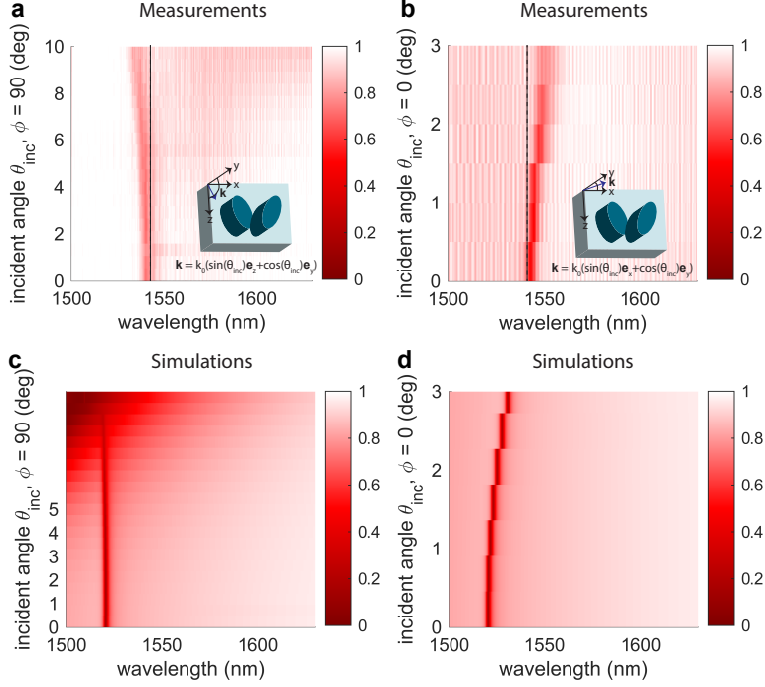


FIG. S9. **Angle-dependent resonance transmission of quasi-BIC are compared in measurements and simulations. a,-b, Measurements. c,-d, Simulations.**

198 In addition, we investigate in Fig. S10 the dependency of the modulation depth as a
 199 function of incident angle while the device is operated as an electro-optic transducer. In a
 200 first set of measurements, we report the resonance shift and the change in modulation as
 201 a function of the incident angle θ_{inc} when $\Phi = 0^\circ$. At zero applied bias (Fig. S10 b), we
 202 observe a red-shift of the resonance that exceeds its linewidth around an angle of $\theta_{inc} = 2^\circ$.
 203 This angle-dependence is clearly distinct from the behavior of GMR which rather split
 204 into two modes [1] at incident angles different from $\theta_{inc} = 0^\circ$. In Fig. S10 c, we report the
 205 normalized intensity modulation upon an applied $V_{RF} = 20V \times \sin 2\pi 1MHz t$ and identify, as
 206 expected, that also the modulation red-shifts and changes magnitude with incident angle. In
 207 Fig. S10 d, we plot the intensity modulation, as well as the normalized intensity modulation
 208 for two exemplary operation wavelengths, marked by the blue and red lines. We find that
 209 the strength of the intensity modulation depends on the chosen operation wavelength (e.g.
 210 can switch sign by operating on the falling or rising flanks of the resonance and is shallow
 211 away from the resonance) and that it does not decay below 3 dB over an angular range of
 212 $\theta_{inc} = \pm 1^\circ$. Quite on the contrary, the modulation efficiency is much less affected when
 213 changing the incident angle in the orthogonal plane (when $\Phi = 90^\circ$), as shown in Fig.

214 Fig. S10 e-g. In this case, we find that the modulation intensity remains relatively flat over
 215 an angle of $\theta_{inc} = \pm 4^\circ$.

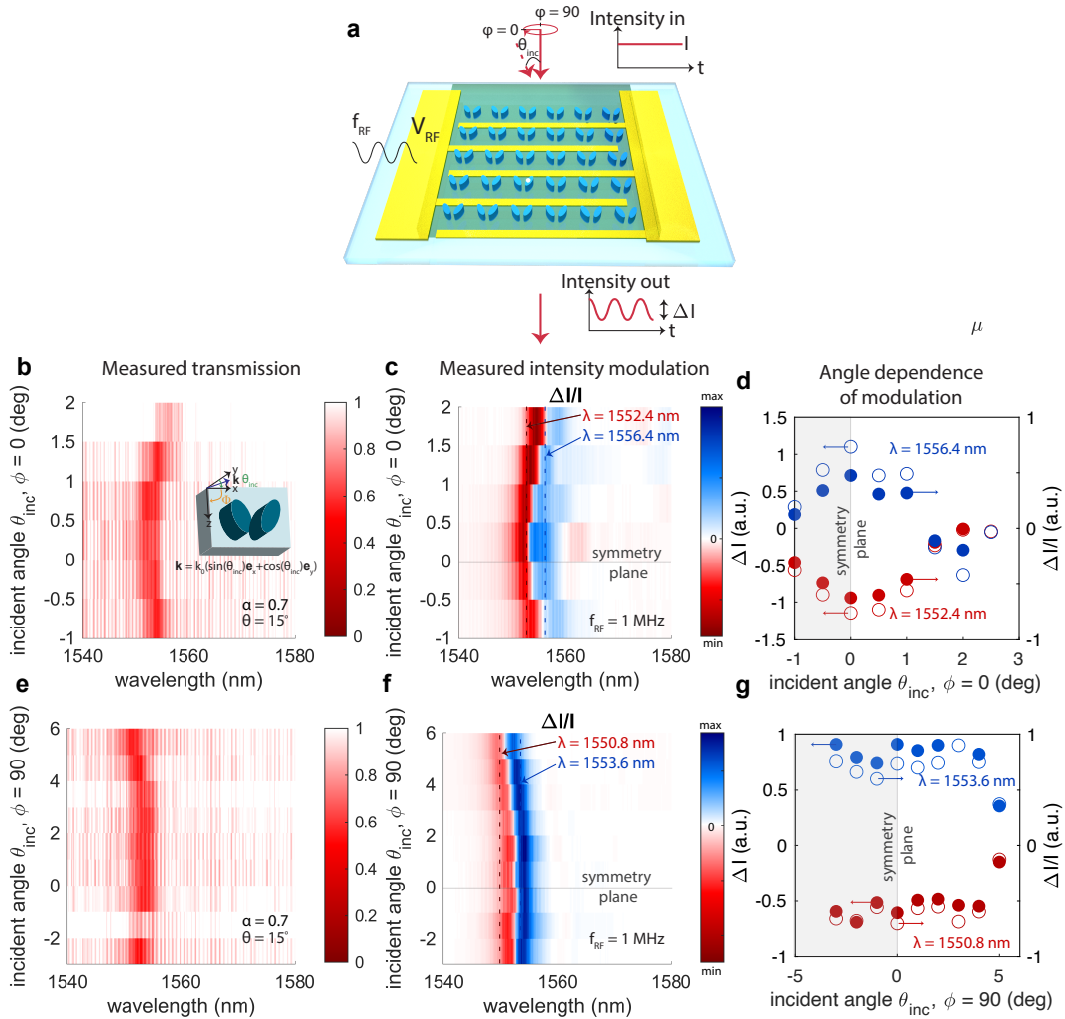


FIG. S10. **Angle-dependent resonance transmission and modulation depth of quasi-BIC.** **a**, Geometry. **b**-,**d**, Resonance shift and the change in modulation as a function of the incident angle θ_{inc} when $\Phi = 0^\circ$ **e**-,**g**, Resonance shift and the change in modulation as a function of the incident angle θ_{inc} when $\Phi = 90^\circ$.

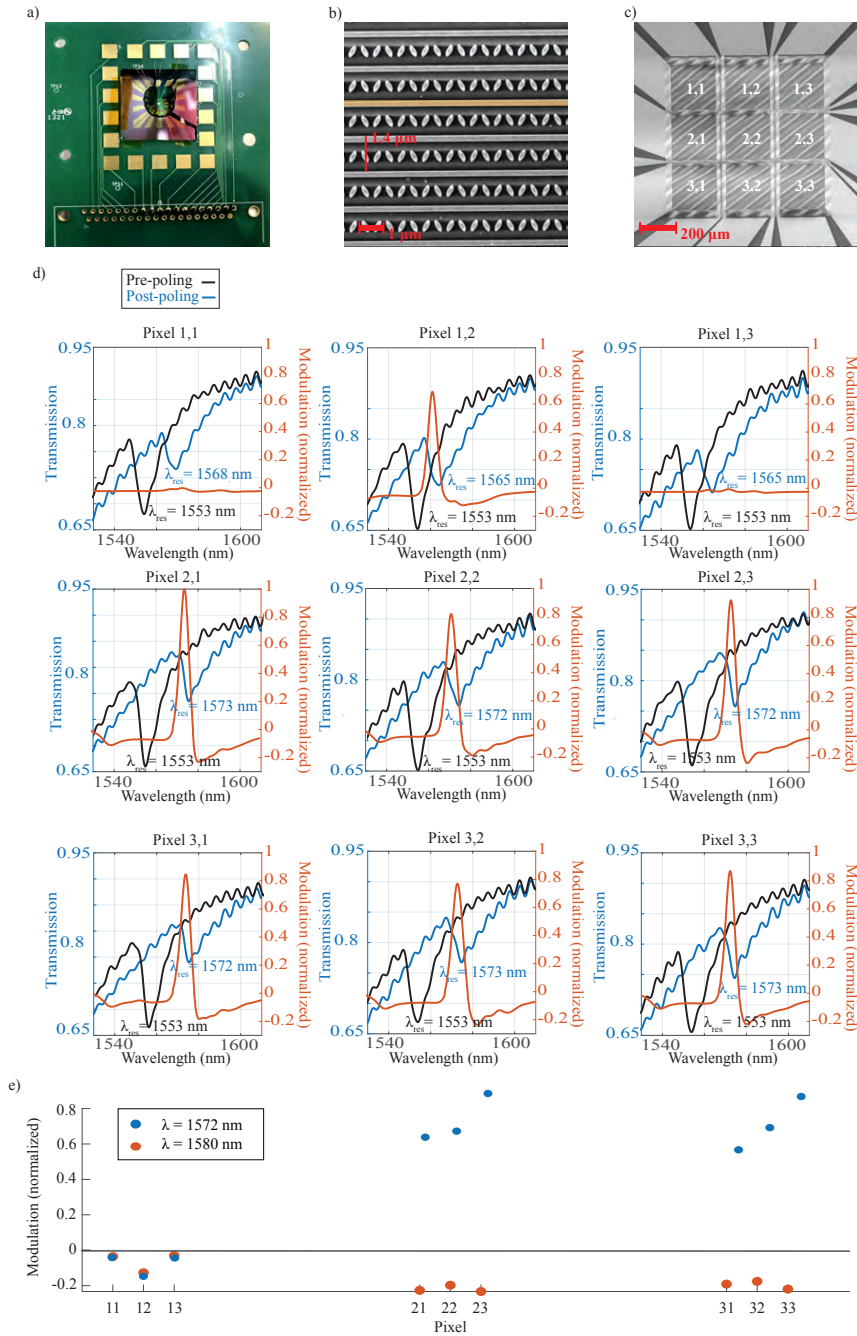


FIG. S11. **A 3×3 spatial light modulator realized from quasi-bound states in the continuum.** **a**, Camera picture of the SLM mounted on a PCB that provides the necessary bonding pads to multiplex the driving voltages of the different pixels. **b**, **c**, Scanning electron microscope pictures of the employed structures for the quasi-bound states in the continuum resonances and the entire array featuring a totality of 9 pixels. **d**, Optical resonance properties of each pixel are provided prior to poling (black) and after poling (blue) together with normalized wavelength-resolved electro-optic modulation curves. We observe that two out of nine pixels are not electro-optically active (1,1 and 1,3) and that one has an optical resonance that is located elsewhere from the rest of the pixels (1,2). **e**, Modulation is compared for all pixels at two exemplarily chosen operation wavelengths.

217 We demonstrate the ability to modulate an optical beam in the two-dimensional plane
218 by arranging a total of 9 parallel pixels into one single 3×3 spatial light modulator (SLM),
219 following a similar strategy as first demonstrated here [1]. After fabrication of the spatial
220 light modulator, all 9 pixels are activated by electric field poling in parallel, in one single
221 run, by contacting all of them via electrical wire bonds in parallel.

222 To drive the spatial light modulator, we mount the fabricated sample on a printed circuit
223 board that provides the electrical contact pads. The PCB has a hole of diameter 1 cm
224 such that the spatial light modulator can be operated in transmission. To characterize the
225 samples, we use a voltage driver from National Instruments to drive the entire chip, as shown
226 in Fig. S11 a. A close-up scanning electron micrograph figure of the fabricated structure is
227 provided in Fig. S11 b, and a zoomed-out figure in Fig. S11c.

228 In Fig. S11 d we provide experimental data of the fabricated spatial light modulator. We
229 show in black the optical resonance of each pixel prior to poling and find that all different
230 pixels have consistent resonance conditions around $\lambda_{res} = 1553$ nm. In blue we then provide
231 the optical resonance spectrum of each pixel after poling. We find that the entire upper
232 row of pixels has clearly distinct resonances compared to the resonances of the two lower
233 rows of pixels, which are centered around $\lambda_{res} = 1572$ nm. This result already points into
234 the direction, that the poling procedure may not have been equally efficient in the upper
235 row compared to the two lower rows. We attribute this effect to possible local leakage
236 channels within each structure. In orange we then report the wavelength-resolved electro-
237 optic modulation of each pixel. For a facilitated comparison, we normalize all curves to the
238 maximum modulation we measure for all pixels, which is in this case found for pixel 2,1. We
239 find that two pixels in the upper row do not exhibit modulation, hinting to the possibility
240 that the poling procedure was not successful for these two pixels on this particular sample.
241 In the two lower rows, the normalized modulation varies between 0.8 and 1. In Fig. S11 e, we
242 plot the measured normalized modulation for two exemplarily chosen operation wavelengths.
243 While the modulation amplitude may change within a range of up to approximately 25%, this
244 effect may be accounted for by prior calibration of each pixel of the spatial light modulator
245 and subsequent adequate application of driving voltage to effect an uniform modulation
246 across the entire structure.

247 **S5. PERFORMANCE COMPARISON WITH SIMILAR ELECTRO-OPTIC META-**
 248 **SURFACE STRUCTURES**

249 Our work demonstrates a brand-new material platform consisting of hybrid silicon-organic
 250 flat optical structures from Mie resonators, that exhibits, to the best of our knowledge,
 251 superior key figures of merit over current state of the art across various electro-optic material
 252 platforms even when integrated with GHz electrodes. We compare our demonstration to
 253 previously reported structures in the table below. We note that not only the employed
 254 material systems are different among all compared structures but also the explored optical
 255 resonances and wavelength of operation. Consequently, generally speaking, all material
 256 systems may leverage novel resonances for improved performance in the future.

Fig. of merit/platform	Our demonstration	Lithium niobate [3]	Barium titanate [4]	Improvement our work
Abs. transm./refl. mod.	0.3 @100 V	0.0001 (0.01%) @10 V	0.001 (0.1%) @4 V	300 – 3000 ×
Abs. transm./refl. mod. per V	0.3/100 V = 0.003 V ⁻¹	0.00001 V ⁻¹	0.00025 V ⁻¹	10 – 300 ×
Maximum mod. speed	5 GHz, 3 GHz 3 dB	Up to 2.5 MHz	20 MHz	100 – 1000 ×
Maximal refr. index change	0.04	Not specified	9.9 × 10 ⁻⁴	40 ×

TABLE S1. **Comparison of state-of-the-art free-space electro-optic platforms from $\chi^{(2)}$ Pockels materials:** Figures of merit of our demonstration compared to reported state-of the art electro-optic free-space modulators based on Pockels effect. Clearly, our platform has a performance that is at least one, if not several orders of magnitude better.

257 In our specific implementation, we demonstrate a modulation of the absolute transmission
 258 $\Delta T = 0.6$ by applying a voltage swing from $-100 V$ to $100 V$. We note that this already
 259 demonstrates the capability of our structures to - in principle - sustain such large voltages.
 260 A detailed analysis of the on-off-switching behavior of the material system is provided in
 261 reference [1]. Consequently, owing to both the large built-in electro-optic coefficient of the
 262 structure, the large overlap factors of the employed quasi-bound states in the continuum,
 263 their narrow linewidth and the large applied voltage, the achieved absolute transmission
 264 modulation is two to three orders of magnitude higher than previously reported free-space
 265 electro-optic modulators. The effect of the large applied voltage may be accounted for
 266 by investigating the absolute transmission modulation per applied volt, which in our case
 267 amounts to $0.003 V^{-1}$. Also here, our platform performs at least one order of magnitude
 268 better. This stems from the optimized electro-optic effect that employs both an in-plane
 269 periodically poled film of JRD1:PMMA and that we apply the voltage across single rows

270 of sub-wavelength resonators rather than several rows as e.g. in ref. [3]. Furthermore, we
271 demonstrate experimentally an efficient electro-optic modulation up to 5 GHz, with a 3 dB
272 electro-optic bandwidth of 3 GHz, by incorporating the metasurfaces with microwave copla-
273 nar waveguides. We characterize the electro-optic response in detail and link the current
274 cut-off to the RC-time constant of the interdigitated electrode array. We note that other
275 electro-optic material systems may adopt a similar strategy and thereby reach higher mod-
276 ulation speeds than currently demonstrated. Finally, the maximal refractive index change
277 achieved of $\Delta n = 0.04$ is considerably increased over current state of the art due to a high
278 electro-optic coefficient of the employed material system and a high built-in driving electric
279 field that is supported by the structure.

280 **A. Possible routes to decreasing the switching voltage and increasing the modu-** 281 **lation strength**

282 We have shown in the previous sections that several geometrical and material parameters
283 influence directly the linewidth of the employed optical resonances and, therefore, also the
284 modulation efficiency that can be achieved. Although we show above that our platform shows
285 significant improvement of the modulation performance over other demonstrated state-of-
286 the art platforms, it is highly desirable to decrease the driving voltage that is necessary
287 to achieve full modulation. An ideal milestone will be reached when such structures will
288 provide full intensity modulation already at CMOS-compatible voltages. While achieving
289 this falls outside the scope of the current study, we outline here several approaches that may
290 be taken towards reaching that goal.

291 A first possible approach would be to use a different electrode material than gold, such
292 as ITO, which minimized the optical losses and therefore enables higher-Q resonances. We
293 show in section S3D that operating on an asymmetry angle $\theta = 9^\circ$ in conjunction with ITO
294 leads to an improvement of the quality factor by an approximately a factor of 5 compared to
295 operating on an asymmetry angle $\theta = 15^\circ$ in conjunction with gold electrodes. In both cases,
296 the modulation depth is nearly identical. This approach would then lead to a decrease of
297 the switching voltage from $V_{switch} = 60$ V, as demonstrated experimentally in the main text
298 Fig. 3 d-f to $V_{switch} = 12$ V.

299 A second approach that may be followed in the future would be the placement of a

300 second set of electrodes on the top of the structure, patterned symmetrically around the
 301 silicon electrodes, as shown in Fig. S12 below (color plot represents magnitude of E_z and
 302 arrows the in-device DC field). By connecting the top pair of electrodes to the same voltage
 303 source as the bottom pair, a symmetric field distribution can be achieved. We demonstrate
 304 this concept by simulations and show below the in-device DC field for the two scenarios
 305 (Fig. S12 a: single electrode pair and Fig. S12 b: double electrode pair, applied voltages
 306 are marked in the colorplots). In Fig. S12 c we compare the E_z field at the center of the
 307 silicon nanoresonators (marked by the dotted lines) and find the expected enhancement of
 308 the built-in field by a factor of 2 when using two electrode pairs.

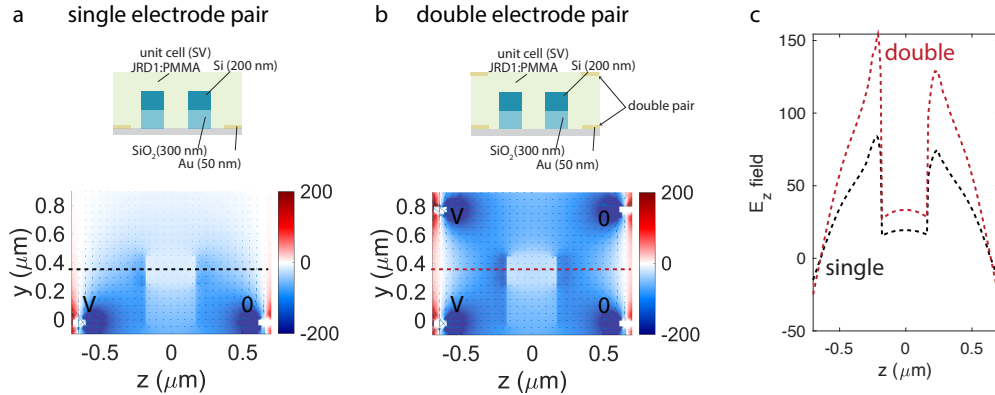


FIG. S12. **Single versus double pair of electrodes.** **a**, In-device electric field when one single electrode pair is used. **b**, In-device electric field when two electrode pairs are used. **c**, Comparison of the built-in field for the two cases at the location of the dashed line.

309 Further improvement of the switching voltage may be achieved by optimizing the poling
 310 procedure of the organic electro-optic layer towards their maximum reported electro-optic
 311 coefficient of 560 pm/V, e.g. by optimizing the mixing ratio between PMMA and JRD1.
 312 Finally, a vertical architecture where ITO electrodes are placed on top and on the bottom
 313 of the structure instead of laterally may provide a way to lower the applied voltage for a
 314 given built-in field as well as ensure a homogenous distribution of the electro-optic refractive
 315 index change across the entire structure. All of these proposals require in-depth studies of
 316 the optical, electronic and electro-optic properties of the resulting structures and go beyond

317 the scope of this study.

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