

# Compact planar-waveguide integrated diffractive optical neural network chip

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**Abstract.** Diffractive optical neural networks (DONNs) have exhibited the advantages of parallelization, high speed, and low consumption. However, the existing DONNs based on free-space diffractive optical elements are bulky and unsteady. In this study, we propose a planar-waveguide integrated diffractive neural network chip architecture. The three diffractive layers are engraved on the same side of a quartz wafer. The three-layer chip is designed with 32-mm<sup>3</sup> processing space and enables a computing speed of  $3.1 \times 10^9$  Tera operations per second. The results show that the proposed chip achieves 73.4% experimental accuracy for the Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology database while showing the system's robustness in a cycle test. The consistency of experiments is 88.6%, and the arithmetic mean standard deviation of the results is ~4.7%. The proposed chip architecture can potentially revolutionize high-resolution optical processing tasks with high robustness.

Keywords: optical computing; diffractive neural network; planar waveguide; high robustness.

Received Jun. 25, 2024; revised manuscript received Nov. 4, 2024; accepted for publication Dec. 9, 2024; published online Jan. 9, 2025.

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[DOI: [10.1117/1.APN.4.1.016010](https://doi.org/10.1117/1.APN.4.1.016010)]

## 1 Introduction

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) are rapidly developing and are widely utilized in many fields, such as computer vision,<sup>1</sup> natural language processing,<sup>2</sup> medical diagnosis,<sup>3</sup> and decision-making.<sup>4</sup> Although ANNs have notably improved performance at the algorithmic level, these tasks are fundamentally limited by the energy consumption and computing speed of computers.<sup>5</sup>

Recently, optical neural networks (ONNs) have gained increasing attention owing to their low power consumption, low processing latency, and high computational bandwidth for solving the above problems.<sup>6–14</sup> Various ONN implementations have been proposed, including coherent photonic integrated circuits,<sup>15–21</sup> phase-change materials,<sup>22–24</sup> diffractive optical processors,<sup>25–28</sup> dielectric metasurfaces,<sup>29–31</sup> and optical delay

lines.<sup>32</sup> Among these ONNs, diffractive optical neural networks (DONNs) have attracted increasing interest because of their large computational scales.<sup>33</sup> However, the existing DONNs based on discrete diffractive optical elements (DOEs) are bulky and unsteady.<sup>34–46</sup>

In this study, we propose a compact planar-waveguide integrated DONN chip. The three diffractive layers are engraved on the same side of a quartz wafer and enable high-precision alignment. Meanwhile, the optical field avoids noise in the transparent waveguide. A three-layer chip is designed with a 32-mm<sup>3</sup> processing space. The compact architecture enables a computing speed of  $3.1 \times 10^9$  Tera operations per second (TOPS). The three-layer chip achieves 73.4% experimental accuracy for the Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology (MNIST) database while showing the system's robustness in a cycle test. The consistency of the experiments is 88.6%, and the arithmetic mean standard deviation of the classification results is 4.7%. Furthermore, the chip can be combined with a complementary

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metal-oxide-semiconductor to achieve higher integration. This work provides a novel high-density integration solution with high robustness for high-resolution optical processing tasks.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Oblique Forward Propagation Model

For the mainstream DONNs, the forward propagation model is based on the angular spectrum (AS) theory of diffraction and fast Fourier transform. According to the AS theory, the diffraction field of a beam propagating in free space through a distance  $z$  can be expressed as

$$U_{\text{out}}(x, y) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{\mathcal{F}\{U_{\text{in}}(x, y)\}H(\xi, \eta)\}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathcal{F}\{\}$  and  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}\{\}$  are Fourier transform and inverse Fourier transform, respectively.  $U_{\text{in}}(x, y)$  and  $U_{\text{out}}(x, y)$  are the complex amplitude distributions of the light field on the input and output planes, respectively.  $H(\xi, \eta)$  is a transfer function, which can be expressed as

$$H(\xi, \eta) = \exp\left[jkz\sqrt{1 - \lambda^2(\xi^2 + \eta^2)}\right], \quad (2)$$

where  $k = 2\pi/\lambda$  and  $\lambda$  is the wavelength in the air.

For the proposed chip architecture, the diffraction in waveguide space is considered. Reflections are introduced from the  $l$ 'th diffractive layer to the  $l + 1$ 'th diffractive layer to match the waveguide space. The  $l$ 'th diffractive layer with a transmittance function of  $t(x_i, y_i)$  is obliquely illuminated with the incident angle  $\theta$ .  $i$ 'th represents the neuron located at  $(x_i, y_i)$  of layer  $l$ . The center of the input plane is at the origin of the coordinate system, whereas the regions of interest on the output plane are not located in the origin. Consequently, it is necessary to set the observation window after the oblique transmission during the simulations. During one simulation, the diffracted field can be expressed as

$$U_{\text{out}}(x, y) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{\mathcal{F}\{t(x_i, y_i) \exp(jk_w x \sin \theta)\}H(\xi, \eta)\}, \quad (3)$$

where  $k_w = 2\pi/\lambda_w$  and  $\lambda_w$  is the wavelength in the waveguide space. In Eq. (3), a default setting is that the coordinates  $(x, y)$  on the output plane are the same as the coordinates  $(x_i, y_i)$  corresponding to the input plane. Reflections during transmission will cause the phase change. According to previous research,<sup>47–49</sup> we assume that the phase changes  $\pi$  at the reflecting interface. Therefore, the propagation in the waveguide space can be constructed through multiple diffractions and reflections.

### 2.2 Chip and Target Fabrication

The input targets are fabricated using laser direct writing on a soda glass substrate. The glass substrate is first cleaned using acetone and isopropyl alcohol. Using electron beam evaporation, the clear substrate is coated with a layer of chromium (Cr) with a thickness of a few hundred nanometers. After spin-coating positive photoresist and a prebake process, the handwritten digit patterns are exposed using laser direct writing. The exposed resist is removed using a developer, and the uncovered Cr is removed with chrome mordant. Any remnant resist is cleaned using acetone and isopropyl alcohol. Finally, 50 amplitude-encoded targets with a total of 10 categories are fabricated. Each category randomly selects five test targets in the MNIST test data set.

The phase value of each neuron is limited to 0 to  $2\pi$ . The neuron phase value  $\Delta\varphi$  is converted into a relative height map  $\Delta h$  [ $\Delta h = \lambda\Delta\varphi/(2\pi\Delta n)$ ], where  $\Delta n$  is the refractive index difference between the substrate and air. The chip layers are fabricated onto a quartz wafer. After spin-coating photoresist and exposure, the exposed resist is stripped using a developer. Then, a magnetic neutral loop discharge etching is applied, which is followed by an oxygen plasma sizing treatment. This process is repeated until the chip layer structures are achieved. A more detailed description of the fabrication process is provided in the Appendix.

## 3 Results

The schematic of existing free-space DONNs is shown in Fig. 1(a). Discrete DOEs are independently distributed in free space, rendering the entire system bulky and unsteady. Moreover, the beams may be susceptible to the free-space noise. For a comparison, the schematic of the proposed chip is shown in Fig. 1(b). The DOEs are fabricated on the same quartz wafer. A reflective coating is fabricated on the back of the transparent substrate. The beam containing the target information is transmitted in the transparent waveguide space through diffractions and reflections. The output beam is received by a charge-coupled device (CCD) at the detection plane, and its intensity distribution is obtained. To fabricate the chip, all diffractive layers are integrated on the same surface. Therefore, the chip design can achieve a compact and stable optical processing architecture.

A phase-only three-layer chip is designed for the classification task. To match the fabrication capability, the chip structure parameters are as follows. Each diffractive layer is  $2 \text{ mm} \times 2 \text{ mm}$ , which contains 250,000 ( $500 \times 500$ ) diffractive neurons. Each neuron unit is  $4 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  in size. The horizontal interval of cascade layers is 1 mm. The transparent substrate thickness is 2 mm. The incidence angle of air is 60 deg. Therefore, the waveguide space for the beam propagation is only  $32 \text{ mm}^3$ . The chip is trained using 55,000 amplitude-encoded handwritten digits. After training, the designed chip classifier tests 10,000 amplitude-encoded handwritten digits. The simulation classification accuracy is 75.4%. Some simulation results are shown in Fig. 2.

Subsequently, a three-layer chip is fabricated. The phase values of the diffractive layers are discretized to simplify fabrication. We construct the experimental optical path. In the

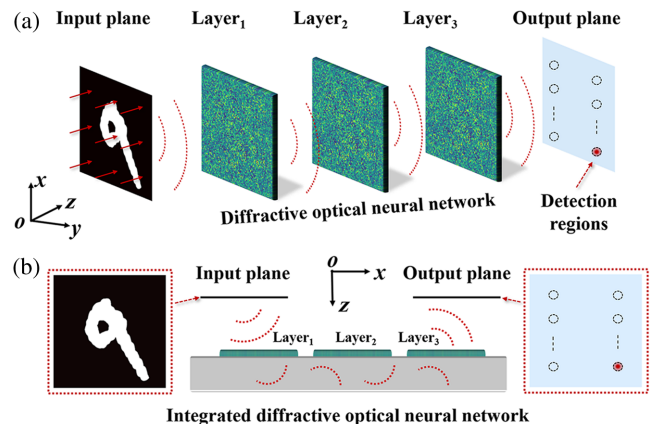
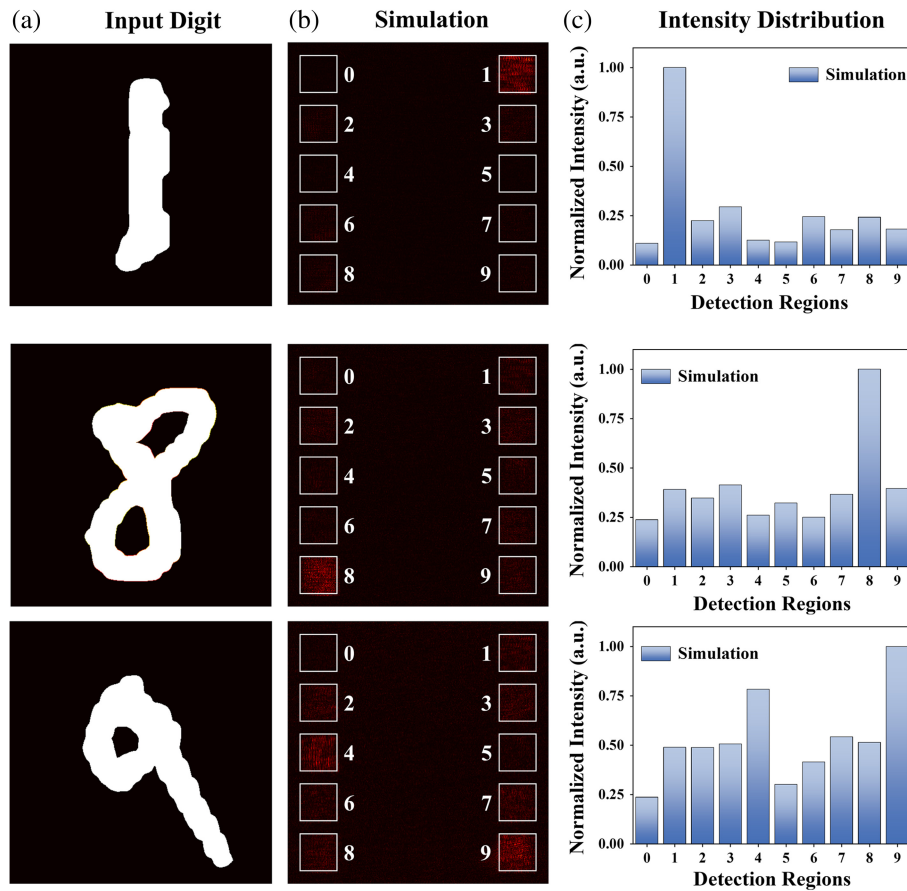


Fig. 1 Schemes of (a) existing DONNs and (b) the proposed chip.



**Fig. 2** Simulation classification for the designed chip. (a) Input digits. (b) Simulation results. (c) Intensity distributions.

experiment, a He–Ne laser (25-STP-912-230, Melles Griot, Rochester, New York, United States) is collimated by lens1 and lens2. The wavelength of the He–Ne laser is 632.8 nm, and the power is 5 mW. A pinhole is used as a filter. The collimated beam illuminates the input plane. The intensity distributions in the output plane are detected by a CCD (DFK 33U×174, Sony, Minato, Tokyo, Japan). The fabricated device without reflective coating is shown in Fig. 3(c).

We randomly select 50 handwritten digits and fabricate them using laser direct writing. The fabricated handwritten digits are detailed in the Appendix. Some experimental results are shown in Fig. 4. The ability to classify different handwritten digits is assessed. Handwritten “1,” “8,” and “9” are chosen as the input targets, as shown in Fig. 4(a). The experimental output intensity distributions are shown in Fig. 4(b). The output intensity distributions are normalized considering the energy perturbation of the He–Ne laser. Then, we get the intensity ratios for 10 preset regions. As shown in Fig. 4(c), the maximal intensity appears at the preset region corresponding to the input handwritten digit label.

Furthermore, a 10-cycle test is performed to validate the reliability and stability of the three-layer chip. First, the chip is removed from the experimental optical path, whereas the rest of the experimental optical path remains unchanged. Subsequently, the chip is re-installed into the experimental optical path. The same test process is performed with the same test conditions to complete the 10-cycle test. For each handwritten digit, we calculate the arithmetic mean standard deviation of the intensity

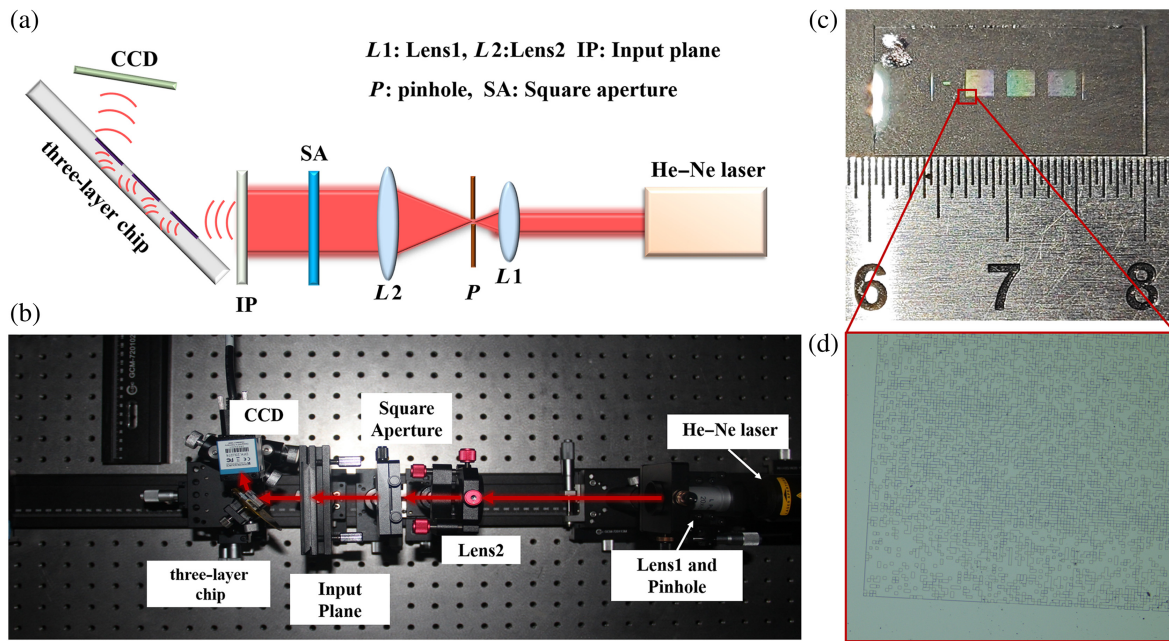
ratio. The error bars are shown in Fig. 5. For 500 test results, the arithmetic mean standard deviation of intensity ratio is 4.7%. The experimental classification accuracy is 73.4% in Fig. 6(b), and the experimental confusion matrix is shown in Fig. 6(a2). The statistical consistency of the 10-cycle test is 88.6% in Fig. 6(c). This is because there are some smaller errors (including rotational and deviation errors) between the input plane and the chip during the cycle test. The effect of alignment can be found in our previous work.<sup>40</sup>

Each layer of the designed three-layer chip contains 250,000 neurons. The cascaded layers are fully connected. The total number of operations is  $1.25 \times 10^{11}$ . The distance to complete one above session is  $\sim 12$  mm. The time to complete one above session is  $\sim 4 \times 10^{-11}$  s. Hence, the processing speed is  $\sim 3.1 \times 10^9$  TOPS. In our previous free-space DONN work,<sup>40</sup> the distance to accomplish the same interlayer propagation was 10 cm. The propagation time of the proposed chip is about one-ninth of that of the free space diffractive neural network.

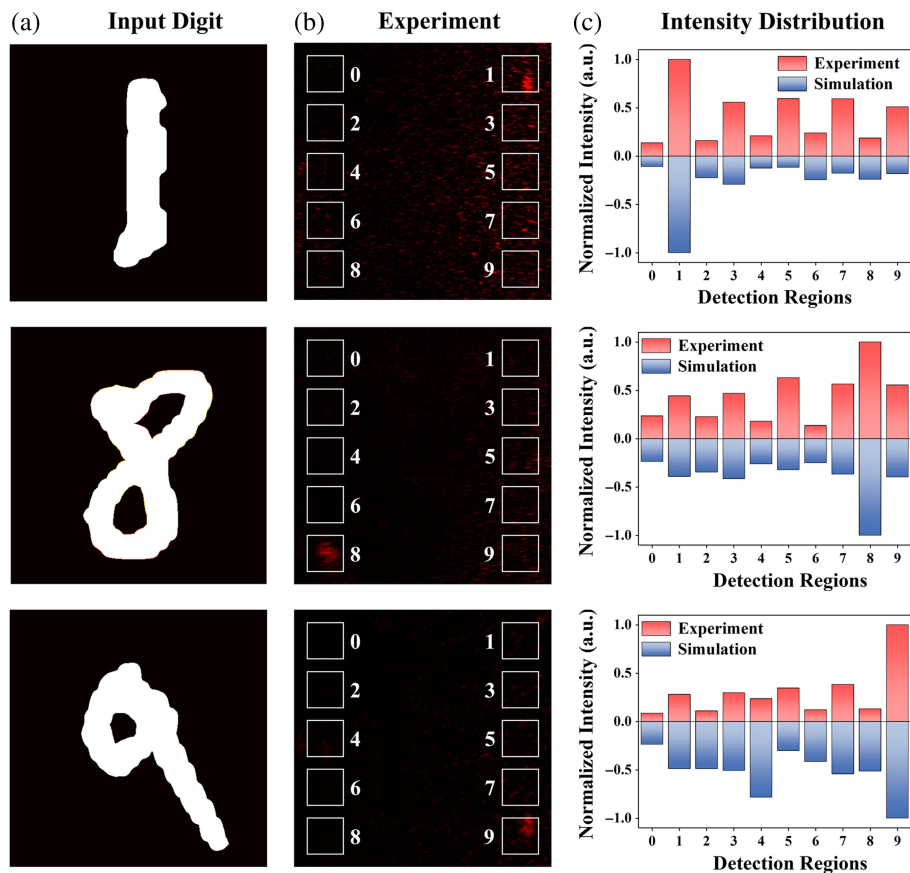
## 4 Conclusion

In this work, we proposed a compact planar-waveguide integrated diffractive neural network chip. Using micro-electromechanical system (MEMS) technology, the designed chip has realized a compact size of  $32 \text{ mm}^3$ . Moreover, the compact architecture enables a computing speed of  $3.1 \times 10^9$  TOPS. The experimental accuracy is 73.4% in a 10-cycle test of 50 handwritten digits. The consistency of experiments is 88.6%. The



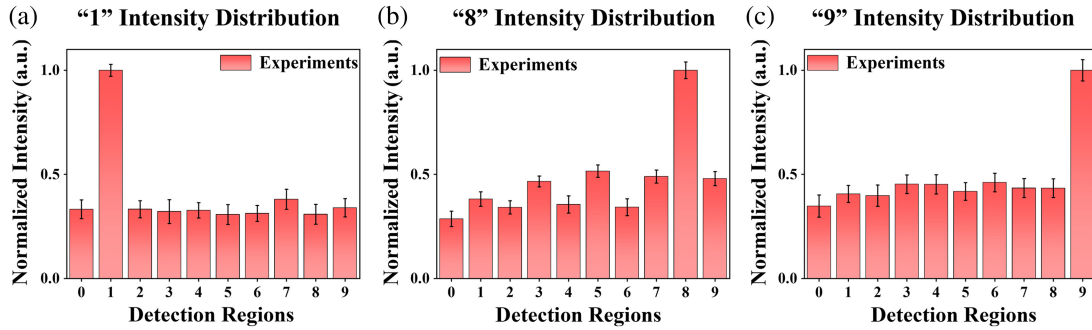


**Fig. 3** Schemes of the experimental setup and fabricated chip. (a) Schematic diagram of the experimental setup. (b) Photo of the experimental setup. (c) The fabricated chip. (d) Partial enlarged view of the chip.

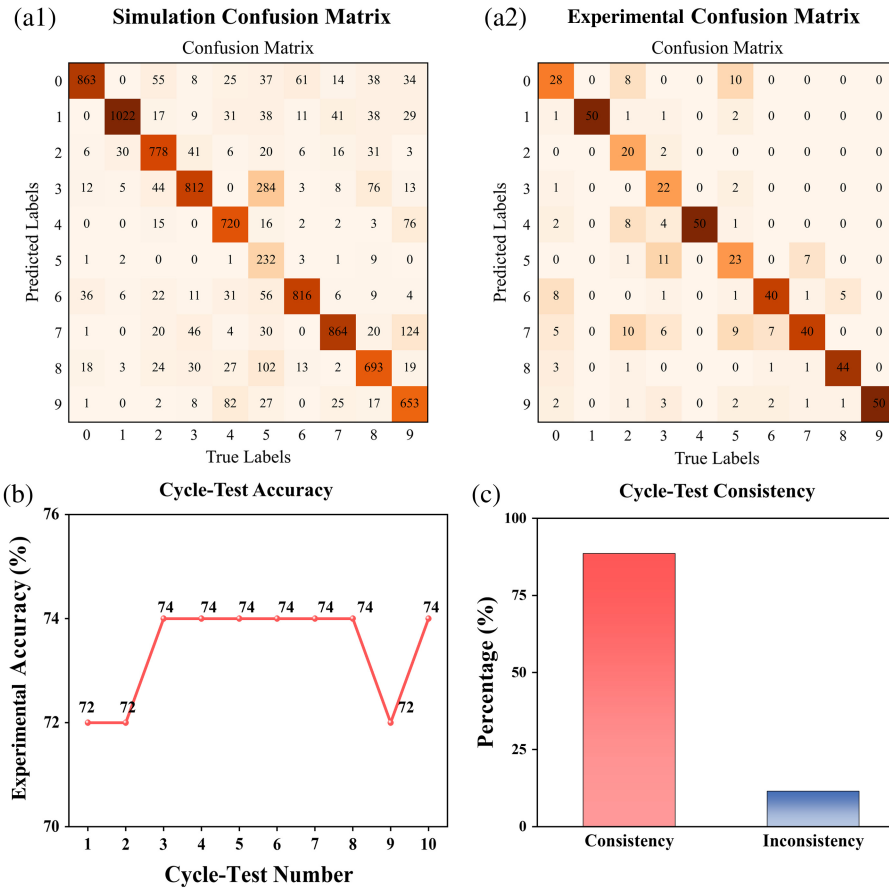


**Fig. 4** Experimental classification for the designed chip. (a) Input digits. (b) Experimental results. (c) Intensity distributions.





**Fig. 5** Cycle-test intensity results. (a) Intensity distribution of digit "1". (b) Intensity distribution of digit "8". (c) Intensity distribution of digit "9."



**Fig. 6** Cycle-test consistency results. (a1) Simulation and (a2) experimental confusion matrices. (b) Accuracy of the 10-cycle test. (c) Consistency of the 10-cycle test.

arithmetic mean standard deviation is 4.7% for all 500 experimental normalized intensity distribution ratios. It will achieve an on-chip all-optical information processing unit with high alignment, high density, high reliability, and miniaturization, which provides a novel solution for high-resolution optical processing tasks with high robustness.

## 5 Appendix

### 5.1 Tensorflow-based Training

Here, a three-layer chip is constructed using an oblique forward propagation model. Between two adjacent layers, the propagation

is completed by one reflection and two diffractions. At the detect plane, we obtain the output intensity distribution. Then, the mean square error is applied as the loss function. We aim to maximize the intensity of interest regions while minimizing the total intensity outside of all regions of interest. The trainable parameters in the chip are the modulation values for each layer, which are optimized using the backpropagation method of adaptive moment estimation (Adam) optimizer with a learning rate of  $10^{-4}$ . To demonstrate the performance of the chip, we use 55,000 images in the MNIST data set for classification training. The designed chip is implemented using TensorFlow framework version 1.12.0 (Google Inc.) and Python (version 3.7.0). Using

a desktop computer (GeForce GTX 1660 graphical processing unit, AMD Ryzen 5 3600X CPU @ 3.8 GHz, 32 GB of random access Memory, and Microsoft Windows 10), a three-layer chip is trained for  $\sim 20$  h for 20 epochs of optimization iteration.

## 5.2 Fabrication of the Designed Three-layer Chip

In this paper, we train the designed three-layer chip to be between 0 and  $2\pi$ . During the training, the phases are continuously distributed. To facilitate the actual processing, the trained phases are classified into four heights: 0,  $\pi/2$ ,  $\pi$ , and  $3\pi/2$ . The designed three-layer chip is processed on a  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer. The etching depths for the  $\text{SiO}_2$  corresponding to the phases 0,  $\pi/2$ ,  $\pi$ , and  $3\pi/2$  are 1038, 692, 346, and 0 nm, respectively. The fabrication steps are shown in Fig. 7.

### (1) Step 1: cleaning

A 2 in (1 in = 2.54 cm) 500- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer that was polished on both sides was selected. The  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer was first ultrasonically cleaned with guaranteed reagent acetone (99.8%) and then transferred into guaranteed reagent isopropyl alcohol (99.8%). After the organic cleaning, the  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer was rinsed with deionized water for several minutes and finally dried with nitrogen gas. For further cleaning, we used an oxygen plasma surface treatment system to clean any organic impurities on the surface of the  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer.

### (2) Step 2: spreading photoresist

Before spin-coating the photoresist, we pretreated the  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer with hexamethyl disilazane for 11 min. Based on the use of a positive photoresist, we chose a spin speed of 4000 revolutions per minute (rpm) for 30 s and soft bake at  $95^\circ\text{C}$  for 90 s. Finally, the thickness of the photoresist was determined to be  $\sim 900$  nm, which is suitable for the following processing steps.

### (3) Step 3: lithography and development

We carried out lithography and development for the first time in step 3. In step 3, we first used a photomask. We then used

a Nikon Stepper i7 (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) as our lithography machine with an exposure time of 600 ms and a focus of  $-1$ . Next, the exposed wafer was postbaked at  $110^\circ\text{C}$  for 60 s to obtain a better development effect. Then, we developed the exposed wafer with a specific developer for 60 s. The developed wafer was then rinsed with deionized water for several seconds and finally dried with nitrogen gas. Up to this point, we have completed the first lithography and development step.

### (4) Step 4: etching

We used a neutral loop discharge plasma etching system. For the plasma etching process, we chose octafluorocyclobutane ( $\text{C}_4\text{F}_8$ ) and sulfur hexafluoride ( $\text{SF}_6$ ) as the etching gas at an antenna RF power of 1200 W. For an etching time of around 36 s, we achieved an etching depth of 346 nm.

### (5) Step 5: spreading photoresist

The etched  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer in step 4 was ultrasonically cleaned again. This is the second spin-coating process and is the same as in step 2.

### (6) Step 6: lithography and development

This is the second lithography and development process and is the same as in step 3.

### (7) Step 7: etching

This is the second etching process and is the same as in step 4.

### (8) Step 8: spreading photoresist

The etched  $\text{SiO}_2$  wafer in step 7 was ultrasonically cleaned again. This is the third spin-coating process and is the same as in step 2.

### (9) Step 9: lithography and development

This is the third lithography and development process and is the same as in step 3.

### (10) Step 10: etching

This is the third etching process and is the same as in step 4.

### (11) Step 11: cleaning

Some positive photoresist remained on the surface, so the sample was cleaned again. This cleaning process was similar to step 1.

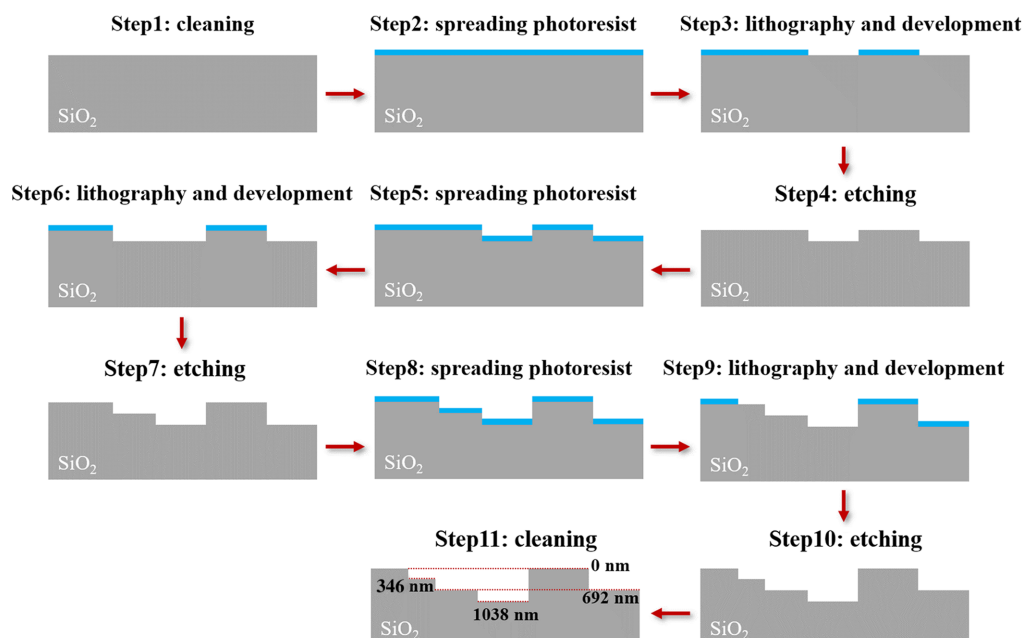
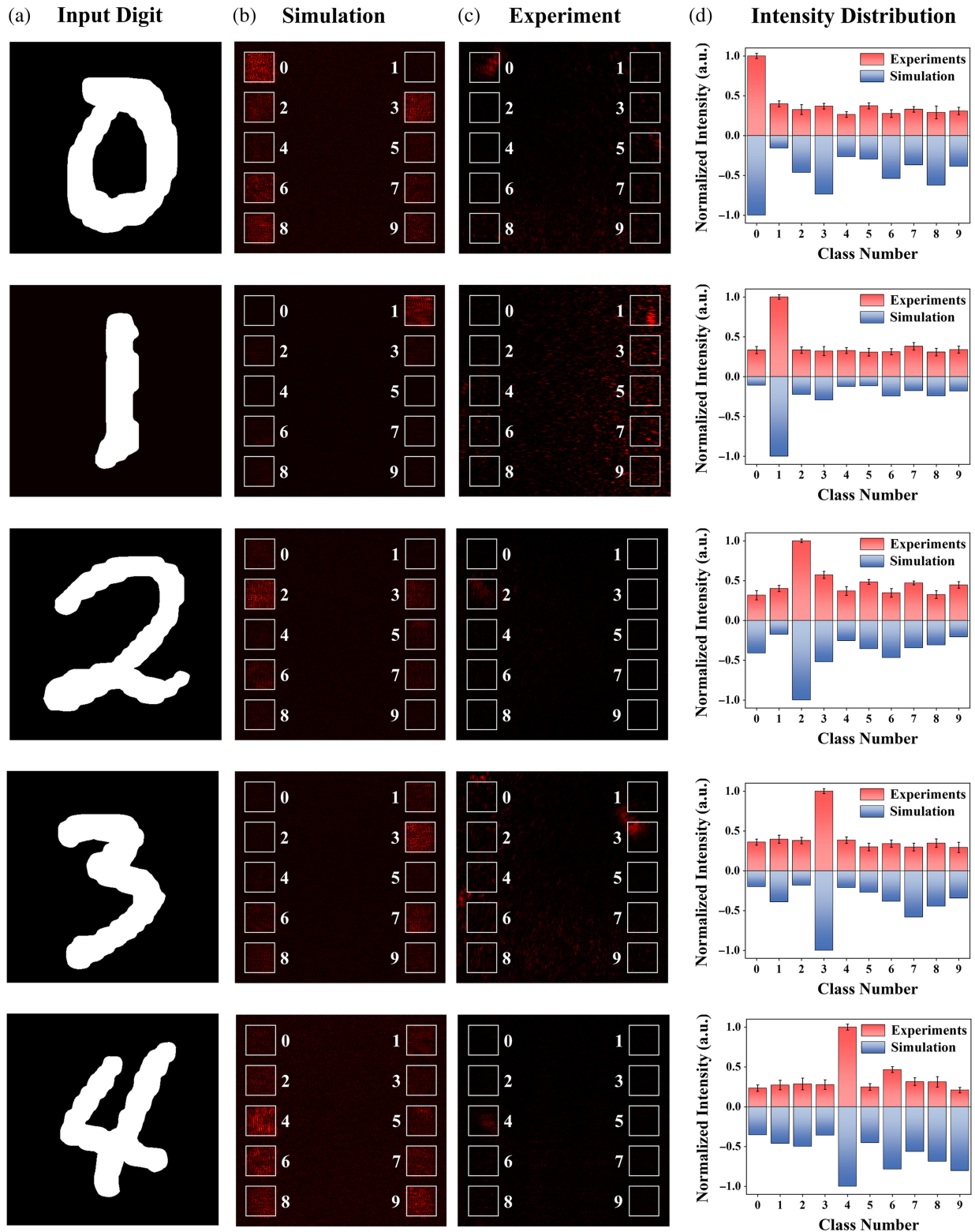


Fig. 7 Fabrication steps for the three-layer chip.

5.3 Simulation and Experimental Classification Results for 10 Categories of Handwritten Digits

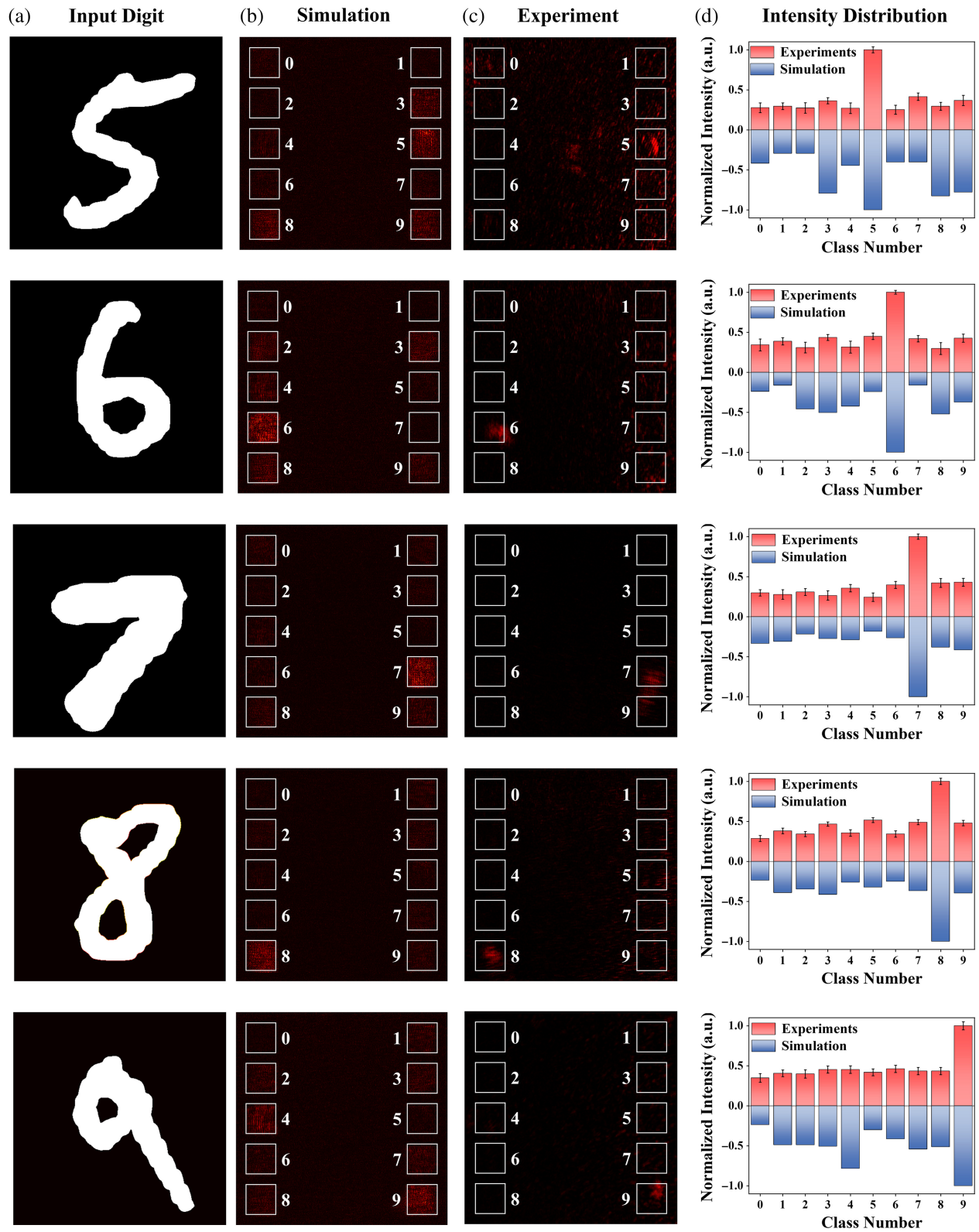
Here, we show the classification results for 10 different categories of handwritten digits. As shown in Figs. 8(a) and 9(a),

handwritten digits “0 to 9” are used as input targets. The corresponding simulation and experimental classification results are shown in Figs. 8(b), 9(b), 8(c), and 9(c). In a similar way, we plot the error bars for the 10-cycle test in Figs. 8(d) and 9(d).

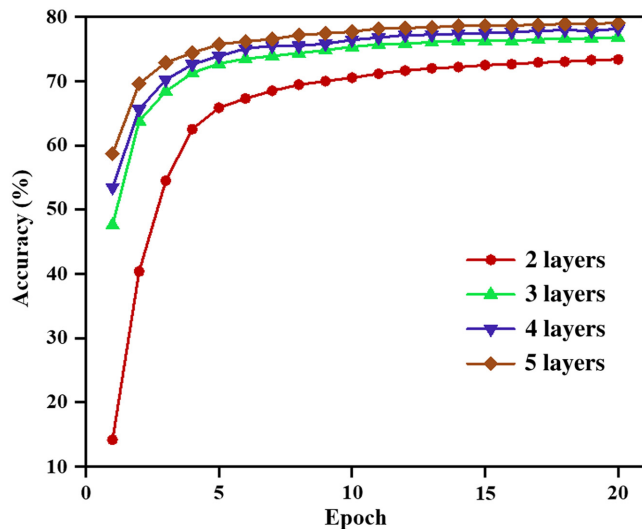


**Fig. 8** Handwritten digit “0 to 4” classification for a three-layer chip. (a) Input digits. (b) Simulation results. (c) Experimental results. (d) Intensity distributions.





**Fig. 9** Handwritten digit “5 to 9” classification for a three-layer chip. (a) Input digits. (b) Simulation results. (c) Experimental results. (d) Intensity distributions.



**Fig. 10** Simulation classification accuracy for different numbers of layers for 10,000 test targets in the MNIST test data set.

#### 5.4 Influence of the Layer Number on Recognition Accuracy

As shown in Fig. 10, the recognition accuracy of the chip is increasing for the increasing number of layers. Furthermore, the recognition accuracy was slightly changed from three to five layers. Therefore, a three-layer chip is analyzed.

#### 5.5 Comparison between Different Architectures on TOPS

For optical diffractive neural networks, researchers have proposed many different architectures. We choose architectures that are similar to our work for better benchmarks. The comparison between different works and our work is shown in Table 1.

On the one hand, our work can achieve a more compact, integrated architecture compared with separate architectures. The computing power can be the same order of magnitude and can be further increased by expanding the number of neurons of phase layers.

On the other hand, our work has obviously higher computing power compared with the one-dimensional (1D) integrated architecture, and it can directly process the two-dimensional (2D) input objects. Moreover, our work has scalability while retaining stability.

#### 5.6 Total Power Consumption of the Proposed Design

The experimental setup contains a He–Ne laser, a lens, a pinhole, a square aperture, an input plane, a three-layer chip, and a CCD. The He–Ne laser (light source) and CCD (detector) are active devices, and the others are passive devices.

The power of the He–Ne laser is 5 mW. The working current of the CCD is  $\sim 720$  mA at 5 V, and the power of the CCD is  $\sim 3.75$  W. The total power consumption of our scheme is  $\sim 3.755$  W.

#### 5.7 Heights of the Steps of the Fabricated Devices

The corresponding step heights of the diffractive layer are 346 nm. We measured the heights of the fabricated device steps using the confocal laser scanning microscope. The result of a measurement is shown in Fig. 11.

Three-dimensional (3D) microscope characterization of the step thickness of the proposed diffractive neural networks is shown in Fig. 11. The measured step heights are 302, 341, and 320 nm. The measurement error for the multistep photolithography-etching process is  $<30$  nm. Although this kind of measurement error cannot be avoided, it does show a minor influence on the performance of diffractive networks.

#### 5.8 Experimental Fabricated Targets

The fabricated targets are shown in Fig. 12. All 50 amplitude-encoded targets are randomly selected from the MNIST test dataset.

### Disclosures

The authors declare no relevant financial interests.

### Code and Data Availability

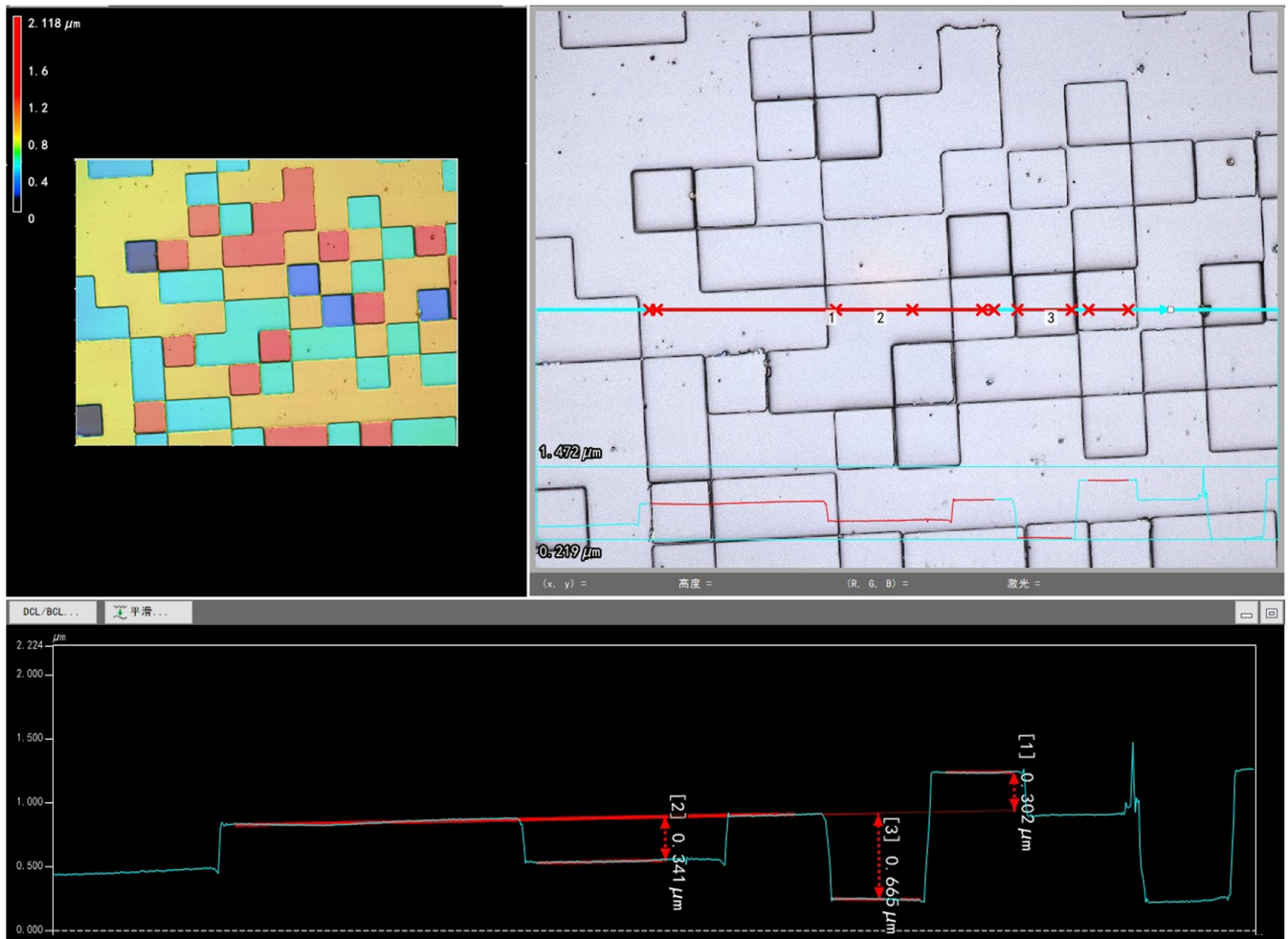
The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

### Acknowledgments

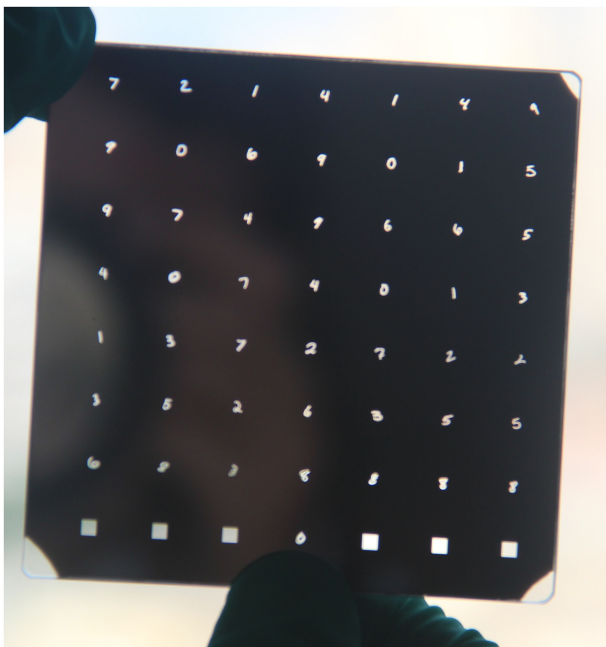
This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 62175050 and U2341245) and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Grant No. HIT. OCEF. 2024054).

**Table 1** Comparison between different architectures.

	Dimension	Size of neuron ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Number of neurons in one layer	Propagation distance	Accuracy (%)	TOPS
Ref. 33	2D separation	400	$200 \times 200$	12 cm	91.75	$1.6 \times 10^7$
Ref. 40	2D separation	4	$1000 \times 1000$	20 cm	84	$6 \times 10^9$
Ref. 27	1D integration	2	186	$500 \mu\text{m}$	86.7	$1.38 \times 10^4$
Our work	2D integration	4	$500 \times 500$	1.2 cm	73.4	$3.1 \times 10^9$



**Fig. 11** 3D microscope characterization of the step thickness of the proposed diffractive neural networks.



**Fig. 12** Amplitude-encoded experimental fabricated targets.

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