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Mid-infrared Raman Amplification in Silicon Core Fiber

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22 Abstract

23 Raman scattering provides a convenient mechanism to generate or amplify light at wavelengths where gain is not otherwise
24 available. When combined with recent advancements in high power fiber lasers that operate at wavelengths $\sim 2 \mu\text{m}$, great
25 opportunities exist for Raman systems that extend operation further into the mid-infrared (IR) regime for applications such as gas
26 sensing, spectroscopy, and biomedical analyses. Here, a thulium-doped fiber laser is used to demonstrate Raman emission and
27 amplification from a highly nonlinear silicon core fiber (SCF) platform at wavelengths beyond $2 \mu\text{m}$. The SCF has been tapered to
28 obtain a micrometer sized core diameter ($\sim 1.6 \mu\text{m}$) over a length of 6 cm, with losses as low as 0.2 dB/cm. A maximum on-off peak
29 gain of 30.4 dB was obtained with a modest average pump power of 12.4 mW, with simulations indicating that the gain could be
30 increased to up to ~ 50 dB by extending the SCF length. Simulations also show that by exploiting the large Raman gain and extended
31 mid-infrared transparency of the SCF, cascaded Raman processes could yield tunable systems with practical output powers across
32 the 2-5 μm range.

33

34 Introduction

35 Compact and tunable light sources that can operate across the 2-
36 5 μm regime are of great interest for gas sensing [1],
37 environmental monitoring [2] and medical diagnostics [3]. To this
38 end, fibers that are doped with rare-earth ions, such as thulium
39 and holmium, have emerged as contenders for efficient light
40 generation in this region [4]. As well as being robust and stable,
41 these doped-fiber systems offer key operational benefits such as
42 large tensile strengths, flexible power scaling and high-quality
43 beam profiles with minimal thermal distortion. However, despite
44 their great performance for wavelength emission near $2 \mu\text{m}$,
45 achieving high power operation beyond $2.2 \mu\text{m}$ is challenging
46 due to the need to switch from silicate to fluoride host glasses,
47 owing to their lower phonon energies and transmission at longer
48 wavelengths [5, 6]. An alternative solution to extending the
49 wavelength coverage of these sources is to make use of the high
50 power emission at shorter wavelengths and shift the output via
51 Raman scattering [7]. Importantly, compared to other nonlinear
52 wavelength conversion processes such as four-wave mixing
53 (FWM), Raman scattering is not restricted by phase-matching
54 considerations [8], so that the newly generated wavelengths are
55 only determined by the pump wavelength and the Stokes shift of
56 the material. Thus, Raman amplifiers can be tuned to operate over
57 a very broad wavelength range, with a gain bandwidth that can
58 also be controlled by the bandwidth of the pump source [9].
59 Compared to glass-based fibers, crystalline silicon waveguides
60 are promising platforms for Raman processes due to their high
61 damage threshold, strong Raman emission and extended infrared
62 transmission (1-8 μm). Significantly, Raman scattering in the
63 telecom band was one of the first nonlinear processes
64 demonstrated in a silicon waveguide [10], and was closely
65 followed by examples of amplification [9, 11-13] and lasing [7, 14-
66 16]. However, despite this initial success, and Raman
67 amplification being demonstrated in bulk silicon at $3.4 \mu\text{m}$ [17],
68 currently Raman amplification or wavelength shifting in silicon
69 waveguides has been confined to wavelengths $< 2 \mu\text{m}$, which is
70 attributed to the relatively short device lengths and limited power
71 handling of the on-chip components [7]. In contrast, silicon core
72 fibers (SCFs) have emerged as an alternative platform for Raman
73 amplification that can offer extended propagation lengths, low
74 propagation losses and efficient coupling to fiber laser systems
75 [18]. The SCFs are produced by a conventional fiber drawing
76 method, which ensures high yields and low device costs [19].
77 Moreover, as they are clad in silica, the SCFs are robust, stable, and
78 compatible with standard fiber post-processing methods such as

79 tapering [20] and splicing [21], which allows for further
80 optimization of the waveguide properties as well as seamless
81 interconnection with other glass fiber components, such as the
82 pump laser.

83 In this paper, high levels of Raman amplification are
84 demonstrated in the mid-infrared wavelength region by making
85 use of the long waveguide lengths of the highly nonlinear SCF
86 platform. The SCF was tapered to achieve a low loss (~ 0.2 dB/cm)
87 nonlinear interaction region that consists of a constant tapered
88 waist with a diameter of $\sim 1.6 \mu\text{m}$ over a length of ~ 6 cm. A
89 thulium-doped fiber laser that delivers picosecond pulses with a
90 peak-power of several watts at a wavelength of $\sim 1.99 \mu\text{m}$ was
91 used as a pump to generate a source of Raman shifted photons at
92 $\sim 2.22 \mu\text{m}$. The on-off gain for stimulated Raman amplification
93 was estimated to be 30.4 dB, according to the measured time-
94 averaged gain of 3.7 dB. By exploiting the low linear and nonlinear
95 losses of the SCFs when pumped within the range 2.0-2.2 μm ,
96 simulations show the possibility to extend the reach of the Raman
97 shifting to wavelengths $> 5 \mu\text{m}$ via a cascaded process. Thus, this
98 work provides a crucial step towards the development of
99 compact and tunable silicon-based Raman amplifiers for
100 applications across the 2-5 μm regime.

101 Results

102 Fiber Design and Characterization

103 The SCFs used in this work were fabricated via the molten core
104 drawing method [19], which produced fibers with uniform
105 core/cladding diameters of $12 \mu\text{m}/125 \mu\text{m}$ and a polycrystalline
106 core phase. To improve the nonlinear performance, the as-drawn
107 fibers were subsequently tapered. As well as reducing the core
108 size, the tapering also improves the crystallinity, which reduces
109 the overall transmission losses [22]. Fig. 1(a) shows a schematic
110 of the two-step tapering technique used to extend the tapered SCF
111 waist length. By reducing the outer diameter in the first step, a
112 lower filament power can be used in the second taper, which is
113 important for producing micrometer-sized continuous cores
114 with long single crystal grains. Using this method, a SCF was
115 fabricated with a waist length of 6 cm, which is the longest
116 tapered SCF produced to date. A schematic of the final tapered
117 SCF geometry is shown in Fig. 1(b), in which the tapered waist
118 region has a core diameter of $1.6 \mu\text{m}$, positioned between two
119 taper transition regions. The taper transitions are included to
120 improve the SCF coupling, and scale up to input/output core
121 diameters of $\sim 4.6 \mu\text{m}$ over lengths of ~ 2.5 mm, resulting in a
122 total SCF length of 6.5 cm. The target waist diameter for this work

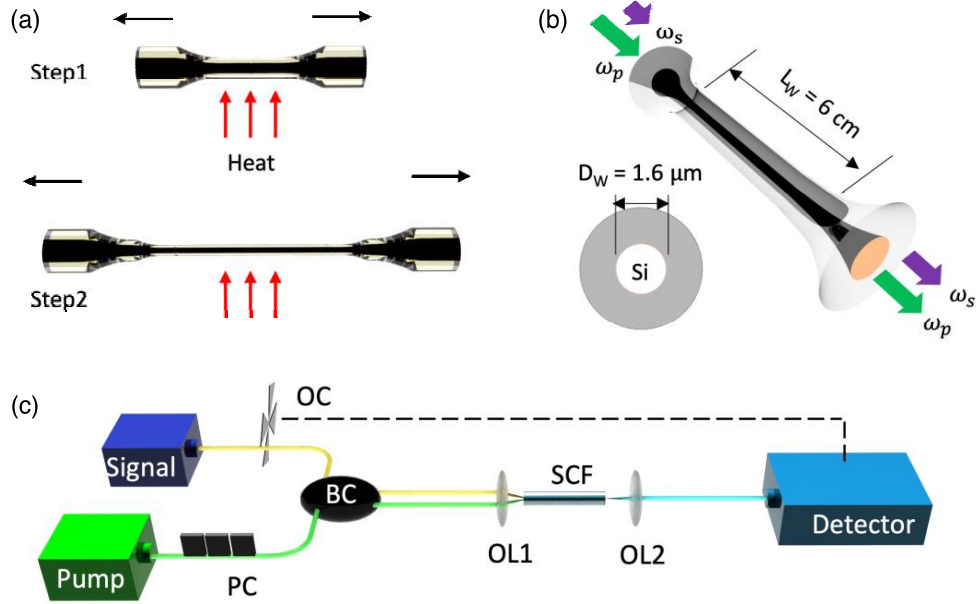


Fig. 1(a) Schematic of the two-step tapering method for SCF optimization. (b) Schematic of tapered SCF as used for Raman scattering. (c) Experimental setup used for both spontaneous Raman scattering and stimulated Raman amplification measurements. OC: optical chopper, BC: beam combiner, PC: polarization controller, OL: optical lens, Detector: optical spectrum analyzer/lock-in amplifier.

123 was slightly larger than that used in previous experiments
 124 demonstrating Raman amplification in the telecom band [18], to
 125 ensure low transmission loss for the longer wavelength pump
 126 and Raman shifted signal. Before conducting the measurements,
 127 the input and output facets were polished using a routine fiber
 128 preparation method to ensure optimal coupling can be achieved.
 129 The experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1(c). A gain switched
 130 laser diode (Eblana Photonics) seeded thulium-doped fiber
 131 master oscillator power amplifier (Tm: MOPA) system was used
 132 as a pump laser source [23]. The pump has a $\sim 125\text{ ps}$ full width
 133 at half maximum (FWHM) pulse duration with a repetition rate of
 134 10 MHz and delivered 70 mW of average power (maximum peak
 135 power of $\sim 56\text{ W}$) at $1.99\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. The signal used for Raman
 136 amplification is a continuous wave (CW) mid-infrared laser (Cr²⁺:
 137 ZnS/Se IPG Photonics) tunable over the range of $2.0\text{-}2.4\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, with
 138 a minimum wavelength resolution of 0.3 nm . To combine the
 139 pump and signal before injection into the tapered SCF, a 90:10
 140 fiberized beam combiner (BC) was used. The combined lasers
 141 were launched into the fundamental mode of the SCF using a 40X
 142 objective lens (OL1, NA: 0.65), and the output pump and Stokes
 143 wave were collected with a 60X lens (OL2, NA: 0.85). As discussed
 144 in Supplementary Information Section I, the estimated
 145 transmission loss translates to a propagation loss of only ~ 0.2
 146 dB/cm, which is comparable to the lowest losses obtained in the
 147 SCF platform [24, 25]. To characterize the spontaneous Raman
 148 scattering, the signal laser was turned off and the output light was
 149 sent to an optical spectrum analyzer (OSA-Yokogawa AQ6375)
 150 via a mid-infrared patch cord (Thorlabs M42). For
 151 characterization of the Raman amplification, the CW signal was
 152 tuned across the measured spontaneous Stokes wave bandwidth.
 153 An optical chopper was used to modulate the DC signal before

154 coupling into the fiberized BC, and a lock-in amplifier (LIA)
 155 used to detect the power variation of the output signal. It is worth
 156 noting that for photon wavelengths with energies greater than
 157 half the bandgap of silicon ($E_{gi} = 1.12\text{ eV}$), two-photon
 158 absorption (TPA) and TPA-induced free carrier absorption (FCA)
 159 play important roles in nonlinear silicon processes. The TPA
 160 coefficient (β_{TPA}) at the pump wavelength of $1.99\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ has been
 161 previously characterized in the tapered SCFs to be $\sim 0.3\text{ cm/GW}$,
 162 which is around half as strong as the value at $1.55\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (~ 0.7
 163 cm/GW) [26].

164 Spontaneous Raman Scattering

165 To characterize the spontaneous Raman scattering, the spectral
 166 output from the tapered SCF was monitored via the OSA as a
 167 function of input pump power. Fig. 2(a) shows the appearance of
 168 the spontaneous Stokes wave for average powers as low as ~ 2
 169 mW. The Stokes peak is positioned at $\sim 2.22\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, corresponding
 170 to the expected Raman shift of 15.6 THz . Due to the narrow
 171 linewidth of the pump source ($<0.05\text{ nm}$), the linewidth of the
 172 Stokes wave ($\sim 1.7\text{ nm}$) is close to the intrinsic bandwidth (105
 173 GHz) of the Raman emission for the silicon core. The SCF
 174 parameters that correspond to the experiments are given in
 175 Supplementary Information Section II. To further verify the
 176 results, simulations have been conducted using the generalized
 177 nonlinear Schrödinger equation (GNLSE), including the Raman
 178 response function (see Supplementary Information Section II)
 179 [26]. The simulation results are plotted together with the
 180 measured data in Fig. 2(a), showing excellent agreement. To
 181 compare the efficiency of the spontaneous Raman emission with
 182 previous results obtained in the telecom band, the relationship

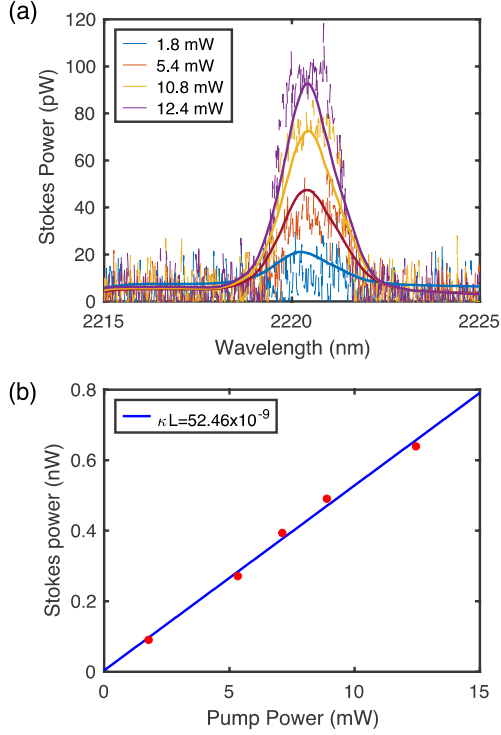


Fig. 2(a) Spontaneous Raman emission spectra at various time-averaged pump powers, as given in the legends, for a pump wavelength of 1.99 μm . (b) Spontaneous Stokes power as a function of coupled-in average pump power.

183 between the integrated Stokes power versus pump power is
184 considered [27]:

$$185 \quad P_s = \kappa L_{\text{eff}} P_p. \quad (1)$$

186 Here κ is the spontaneous Raman coefficient in units of cm^{-1} and
187 L_{eff} is the effective length ($L_{\text{eff}} = (1 - e^{-\alpha L})/\alpha$) of the tapered
188 SCF. Fig. 2(b) plots the generated Stokes power as a function of
189 coupled-in average pump power, from which κ can be
190 determined as $8.7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ from the linear fit. The
191 spontaneous Raman efficiency S in the SCF can then be estimated
192 to be $\sim 1.05 \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ Sr}^{-1}$. Comparing this value with
193 previous results for 1.43 μm pump sources, where $S = 3 \times$
194 $10^{-7} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ Sr}^{-1}$ was obtained for the SCF [18] and $S = 4.1 \times$
195 $10^{-7} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ Sr}^{-1}$ in a typical planar waveguide [10], the lower S is
196 in agreement with the λ^{-4} dependence.

197 The spontaneous Raman efficiency, can then be used to calculate
198 the expected Raman gain coefficient (g_s , in units of cm/GW) at the
199 pump wavelength via the equation [27]:

$$200 \quad g_s = \frac{8\pi c^2 \omega_p}{\hbar \omega_s^4 n^2(\omega_s) (N+1) \Delta\omega} S. \quad (2)$$

201 Here ω_p and ω_s are the angular frequencies of the pump and
202 Stokes signals, respectively, n is the refractive index, N is the Bose
203 occupation factor (0.1 at room temperature), \hbar is Planck's
204 constant, and $\Delta\omega$ is the FWHM bandwidth of the Raman
205 response in silicon. The value of g_s is found to be 18 cm/GW at the
206 pump wavelength of 1.99 μm . Similar to S , g_s follows the
207 expected wavelength trend, which is to decrease with a λ^{-1}
208 dependency, so that the value here is lower than previous reports

209 for the telecom band [10] but higher than the value obtained in
210 bulk silicon for a pump at 3.4 μm [17]. However, the slightly
211 lower g_s is expected to be compensated by the lower nonlinear
212 absorption for the 1.99 μm pump, so that higher pump peak
213 powers can be used [28].

214 Stimulated Raman Amplification

215 With the estimated Raman gain coefficient, investigations
216 subsequently turned to the observation of stimulated Raman
217 amplification. To demonstrate the capacity for efficient Raman
218 amplification in this mid-infrared wavelength region the same
219 experimental setup was employed, but with the coupled in pump
220 power fixed at 12.4 mW (corresponding to a peak power of 10 W),
221 and an input signal power of 0.1 mW. The measured time-
222 averaged on-off gain as the signal wavelength is tuned across the
223 Raman gain curve is shown in Fig. 3(a), together with simulation
224 results that use the parameters obtained via the spontaneous
225 measurement. A maximum time-averaged gain of 3.7 dB was
226 measured for the signal wavelength of 2.22 μm , with a measured
227 average signal power of ~ 10 nW out of this system. Owing to the
228 pulsed nature of the pump beam, the amplified signal will also
229 occur as a train of short pulses [29]. By converting the time-
230 averaged on-off gain using the duty cycle factor ($F = 1/$
231 $(10 \text{ MHz} \cdot 125 \text{ ps})$), the peak pulse gain is calculated to be ~ 30.4
232 dB, corresponding to a peak signal output of 0.3 mW. Significantly,
233 this gain is substantially larger than the 12 dB that was reported
234 for amplification at 3.4 μm in bulk silicon, which is attributed to

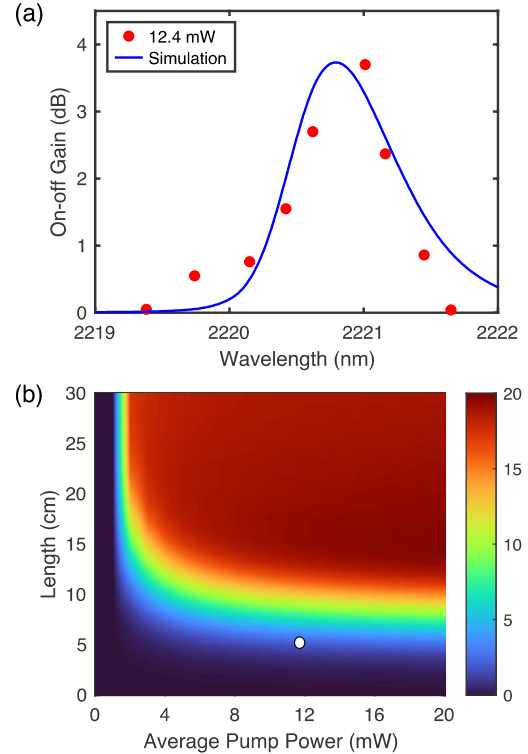


Fig. 3(a) Stimulated Raman gain for a 1.99 μm pulse pump with 12.4 mW of coupled power for various signal wavelengths. (b) Simulation results of on-off gain as a function of coupled pump power and waist length of SCF.

235 the higher pump intensity used here ($\sim 900 \text{ MW/cm}^2$ vs. 217
 236 MW/cm^2) and longer nonlinear interaction length (6.5 cm vs. 2.5
 237 cm) available via the fiber platform [17]. Moreover, this gain is
 238 also significantly higher than that previously obtained in the
 239 telecom band for the SCFs platform ($\sim 1.1 \text{ dB}$ for CW pumping
 240 [18]), and only slightly lower than the best results for
 241 conventional on-chip waveguides for a pump power more than
 242 five times larger (6.8 dB measured gain, corresponding 45.8 dB
 243 on-off gain for a 6.6 ps pump pulse with a peak-coupled power of
 244 55 W [30]).

245 To further probe the Raman amplification performance of the
 246 SCFs within the current system, additional simulations were
 247 conducted to investigate the role of the pump power and the fiber
 248 length. Fig. 3(b) plots the predicted time-averaged on-off gain,
 249 assuming that the remaining SCF and pulse parameters are the
 250 same as the experimental procedure herein. The maximum
 251 measured gain obtained in Fig. 3(a) is also labelled on the
 252 colormap for ease of comparison. Interestingly, due to the non-
 253 negligible TPA parameter at the $1.99 \mu\text{m}$ pump wavelength, these
 254 results show that there is little benefit in increasing the pump
 255 power much beyond the existing value due to the substantial FCA
 256 associated with the 125 ps pump pulse. In fact, to directly
 257 compare with the earlier short-pulsed telecom system of Ref.
 258 [30]), increasing the peak power in this system to 55 W would
 259 result in only a slightly lower time-averaged gain of 6 dB.
 260 However, increasing the SCF length to 20 cm while retaining the
 261 same pump power, does result in a substantial increase in the

262 time-averaged on-off gain up to $\sim 20 \text{ dB}$ (corresponding to a peak
 263 on-off gain of 49 dB), which would result in average signal powers
 264 as high as $1 \mu\text{W}$ (peak power of 0.8 mW). Thus, this analysis
 265 highlights the importance of optimizing the system to minimize
 266 the role of nonlinear absorption processes to obtain high gains,
 267 and thus high signal output powers, as will be discussed below.

268 High Power and Tunable Systems

269 To explore the potential to generate higher power and longer
 270 wavelength sources using this SCF Raman system, additional
 271 simulations were conducted to investigate the conditions for
 272 efficient cascaded Raman scattering. As described in
 273 Supplementary Information Section III-a, the experimental pump
 274 wavelength is close to the zero-dispersion wavelength (ZDW).
 275 Therefore, the first step was to study the optimum core diameter
 276 of the SCF waist to shift the ZDW and ensure that Raman
 277 scattering was the dominant nonlinear conversion process.
 278 Although Raman processes do not require phase-matching, when
 279 operating close to the ZDW, competition from FWM can result in
 280 suppression of the Raman gain. Significantly, increasing the core
 281 waist diameter slightly to $1.7 \mu\text{m}$, which positions the pump
 282 further from the ZDW, can result in three orders of magnitude
 283 enhancement in conversion to the first and second order Stokes
 284 waves (see Supplementary Information Section III-b). The second
 285 step involved investigating the role of nonlinear absorption, and
 286 specifically the build-up of free carriers associated with the long
 287 pulse duration, which was shown to be a limiting factor to

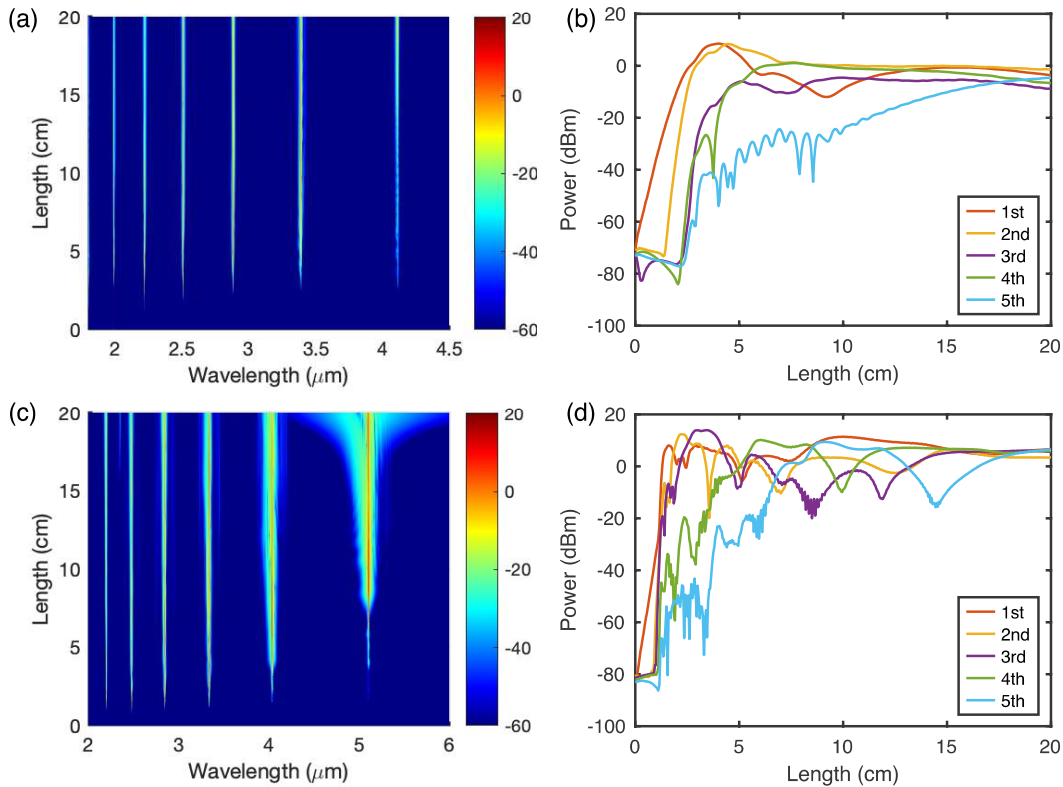


Fig. 4(a) Simulated spectral evolution of cascaded Raman scattering with $2 \mu\text{m}$ pulsed laser pump, (b) Output peak powers of Stokes waves as a function of fiber length for Fig.4(a). (c) Simulated spectral evolution with $2.2 \mu\text{m}$ pulsed laser pump, (d) Output Stokes peak powers as a function of fiber length for Fig.4(c).

288 increasing the gain in Fig. 3(b). By reducing the pulse duration to
289 40 ps, it is possible to reduce the FCA contribution to increase the
290 generated Stokes power for a similar level of average input power
291 (see Supplementary Information Section IV).

292 Using these new values of the waist diameter and pulse duration,
293 Fig. 4(a) shows the spontaneous Stokes power generated as a
294 function of wavelength and fiber length assuming a coupled-in
295 average pump power of 8 mW (peak-power of 20 W). Although
296 the average power is slightly lower than the maximum value used
297 in the experiments, the peak power is twice as high owing to the
298 shorter pulse duration. Fig. 4(b) shows the output spontaneous
299 Stokes powers as a function of fiber length. As can be seen in Fig.
300 4(b), at a propagation distance of 2.5 cm, the first-order Stokes
301 wave has intensified to have a similar power level with the pump,
302 which enables it to act as a pump for the second-order Stokes
303 wave at 2.5 μm . The second-order Stokes wave then grows to
304 have a maximum power at the propagation distance of 4.5 cm and
305 acts as a pump for the third-order Stokes wave. Moreover, as the
306 fiber length increases further, Raman Stokes waves out to the 5th
307 order can be generated ($\lambda \sim 4.1 \mu\text{m}$) with a high peak power level
308 ($>0.3 \text{ mW}$). The maximum output peak powers for the Stokes
309 wave from 1st order to 5th order are 7.10 mW, 6.90 mW, 0.35 mW,
310 1.27 mW and 0.34 mW, corresponding to output average powers
311 of 3.18 μW , 2.76 μW , 0.14 μW , 0.51 μW and 0.14 μW ,
312 respectively.

313 To increase the powers and extend the wavelength coverage
314 further, it is also worth exploring the benefits of switching to a
315 slightly longer pump wavelength, such as could be offered by a
316 holmium-doped fiber system operating at 2.2 μm [31].
317 Interestingly, 2.2 μm represents a favorable wavelength for
318 pumping nonlinear processes in silicon as it is at the edge of the
319 TPA region, so that β_{TPA} is negligible. This wavelength also is
320 shorter than where higher-order three-photon absorption
321 processes become significant. Thus, one can expect the nonlinear
322 absorption to play a minimal role for such pump sources and the
323 original pump pulse duration of 125 ps can be used to increase
324 the energy in the generated Stokes waves. Fig. 4(c) plots the
325 spontaneous Stokes power as a function of wavelength for a 2.2
326 μm pump, assuming the same fiber length and coupled input
327 peak power (20 W) as in Fig. 4(a), clearly showing the strongly
328 cascaded conversion. The output peak powers of the generated
329 Stokes waves as a function of fiber length are then plotted Fig.
330 4(d). Due to the significant reduction in TPA and FCA for this
331 wavelength, a substantial increase in the conversion efficiency is
332 observed, with the 2nd order Stokes wave (now at a wavelength of
333 $\sim 2.8 \mu\text{m}$) appearing after only 2 cm of propagation. Moreover, as
334 the 2nd order Stokes power increases, the process can continue to
335 rapidly generate higher order Stokes waves (up to the 5th order at
336 $\lambda \sim 5.1 \mu\text{m}$) for fiber lengths of only $\sim 5 \text{ cm}$. Moreover, the Raman
337 wavelength conversions essentially all happen within the first 10
338 cm, so that there is little no benefit to extending the SCF length for
339 2.2 μm system beyond this. Thanks to the negligible nonlinear
340 absorption and increased pump pulse energy for the 2.2 μm
341 system, the obtainable maximum peak powers of all Raman
342 Stokes waves now exceed 8.67 mW, corresponding to an average
343 power of 10.80 μW , which is two orders of magnitude higher
344 than 2 μm system. Further, these powers could be increased by
345 an order of magnitude with increasing input pump powers [32].
346 Thus, these results show the potential to extend the wavelength

347 coverage of the SCF-based Raman system across the 2-5 μm
348 wavelength region, and beyond [33].

349 Discussion

350 In summary, this work reports the generation of spontaneous
351 Raman scattering and stimulated amplification extending beyond
352 2 μm using a highly nonlinear SCF. The fiber has been tapered to
353 achieve a micrometer-sized core with low propagation losses of
354 0.2 dB/cm at the 1.99 μm pump wavelength, over an extended
355 length of 6 cm. The combination of relatively high Raman gains
356 and low nonlinear absorption around the 2.0-2.2 μm wavelength
357 region, where many high-power pump lasers exist, allows for
358 efficient wavelength conversion and amplification, with $\sim 30.4 \text{ dB}$
359 of on-off gain using $\sim 10 \text{ W}$ of peak pump power. Moreover,
360 simulations of the nonlinear propagation suggest that the
361 performance can be optimized by altering the SCF core diameter
362 for the specific pump wavelength to ensure that Raman scattering
363 is the dominant nonlinear process, as well as minimizing the
364 impact of FCA. Specifically, shown here is the possibility to extend
365 the generated signals to wavelengths of $\sim 4 \mu\text{m}$ for a 2 μm pump
366 source by accessing cascaded Raman processes, and even further
367 to $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ when using a source of wavelength longer than 2.2 μm .
368 The ability to tune the signals across the 2-5 μm wavelength
369 region confirms the high nonlinear SCF platform is a suitable
370 candidate for all-fiber integrated Raman amplifiers or lasers in
371 mid-infrared regime.

372 Methods

373 Two-step tapering

374 The tapering process in this work was realized by using a
375 standard glass processing system (Vytran GPX3300). As the final
376 core diameter of tapered SCF (1.6 μm) is much smaller than that
377 in the as-drawn fibers (12 μm), a two-step tapering method was
378 used for the production process. In the first step, a tapering ratio
379 of 125/50 was used to produce SCFs with a core/cladding
380 diameter of 4.8 μm /50 μm . In the second step, the tapering
381 process starts within the uniform waist region produced by first
382 step and the tapering ratio is set to 80/25. The drawing speeds
383 are 1 mm/s for both steps but the filament power of second step
384 ($\sim 55 \text{ W}$) can be set 10 W lower than the first step ($\sim 65 \text{ W}$).
385 Compared to the single-step method, two-step tapering can make
386 use of a smaller tapering ratio and lower thermal energy in the
387 final process, which are important for producing continuous
388 lengths of high-quality single crystal silicon cores. After tapering,
389 the processed SCF is mounted inside a thick polymer capillary,
390 which has an inner diameter of 250 μm and outer diameter of
391 665 μm by using wax (crystal bond 509). Then a standard
392 polishing process is applied to polish the fiber facet for efficient
393 light coupling.

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399 **Author contributions.** A.C.P, M.H. and S.S. conceived the research.
400 T.W.H. and J.B. developed and fabricated the as-drawn SCFs. M.H.
401 and T.S.S. tapered the SCF under the guidance of D.W. and A.C.P.
402 M.H. and S.S. carried out the experiments and simulation data,

403 respectively. H.R. and L.S. contributed to the scientific discussions
404 of the results. Q.F. and L.X. built the picosecond laser system. M.H.
405 and A.C.P wrote the manuscript; all authors contributed to
406 revising the manuscript.

407 **Disclosures.** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

408 **Data availability.** <https://doi.org/10.5258/SOTON/D2549>

409 **Supplemental document.**

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