



# Low crosstalk in a scalable superconducting quantum lattice

Mohammed Alghadeer<sup>1\*</sup>, Shuxiang Cao<sup>1</sup>, Simone D. Fasciati<sup>1</sup>, Michele Piscitelli<sup>1</sup>, Paul C. Gow<sup>2</sup>, James C. Gates<sup>2</sup>, Mustafa Bakr<sup>1\*</sup> and Peter J. Leek<sup>1\*</sup>

\*Correspondence: [mohammed.alghadeer@physics.ox.ac.uk](mailto:mohammed.alghadeer@physics.ox.ac.uk); [mustafa.bakr@physics.ox.ac.uk](mailto:mustafa.bakr@physics.ox.ac.uk); [peter.leek@physics.ox.ac.uk](mailto:peter.leek@physics.ox.ac.uk)

<sup>1</sup>Department of Physics, Clarendon Laboratory, University of Oxford, Oxford, OX1 3PU, UK  
Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

## Abstract

Superconducting quantum circuits are a key platform for advancing quantum information processing and simulation. Scaling efforts currently encounter challenges such as Josephson-junction fabrication yield, design frequency targeting, and long-range crosstalk arising both from spurious microwave modes and intrinsic interactions between qubits. We demonstrate a scalable 4x4 square lattice with low crosstalk, comprising 16 fixed-frequency transmon qubits with nearest-neighbor capacitive coupling that is implemented in a tileable, 3D-integrated circuit architecture with off-chip inductive shunting to mitigate spurious enclosure modes. We report on the design and comprehensive characterization, and show that our implementation achieves targeted device parameters with very low frequency spreads, long-range parasitic couplings and simultaneous single-qubit gate errors across the device. Our results provide a promising pathway toward a scalable superconducting square lattice topology for quantum error correction and simulation.

**Keywords:** Superconducting qubits; Scalable quantum devices; Quantum algorithms; Quantum computing

## 1 Introduction

Realizing large-scale superconducting quantum circuits containing individually addressable, high-coherence qubits remains a significant hardware challenge toward utility-scale quantum computing [1, 2]. Scalable two-dimensional (2D) lattice architectures enable the implementation of logical operations using quantum error-correction codes [3–7], such as the surface code [8, 9], and the simulation of 2D lattice Hamiltonian, including the Bose–Hubbard model [10], in condensed matter [11–15] and atomic physics [16]. While increasing qubit counts is crucial for realizing practical applications, scaling superconducting qubits currently introduces significant obstacles related to maintaining overall device performance and integrating high connectivity without introducing additional errors in gate operations [17]. Although significant efforts have been made to improve fabrication techniques [18–22] and minimize hardware requirements [23–25], scaling superconducting qubits using simplified architectures is crucial to mitigate fabrication defects [26–29] and

© The Author(s) 2026. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

reduce hardware overhead [30]. Ultimately, a practical superconducting quantum computer must integrate a large number of physical qubits with robust connectivity and fast, high-fidelity gates for fault-tolerant protocols [26].

Scaling superconducting circuits requires coupling qubits while mitigating parasitic interactions [31]. Superconducting qubits, the most common type of which is the transmon [32], can be capacitively coupled via lithographically defined circuit elements [33]. These couplings must be carefully engineered to support universal two-qubit gates [34], without introducing additional crosstalk levels that scale up with qubit count. Crosstalk arising from unwanted interactions between qubits is related to residual inter-qubit coupling [35–37]. This coupling results in spatially correlated crosstalk which gives rise to an always-on, state-dependent ZZ shift between qubits [38–40]. On one hand, if the ZZ coupling is sufficiently strong, it can be used for implementing entangling controlled-phase (CPHASE) or controlled-Z (CZ) gates [41–50]; on the other hand, it constitutes an unwanted coherent error that degrades the fidelity of simultaneous single- and two-qubit gates and, by extension, quantum algorithms [51–54]. These interactions give rise to correlated errors, violating the core assumption of independent error channels in quantum error correction, representing a critical obstacle to building fault-tolerant architectures [55].

As the lateral dimensions of the chip increase, sections of metallization or ground planes can form low-frequency resonant modes in the electromagnetic (EM) environment, acting as parasitic coupling channels, that mediate additional unwanted qubit-qubit interactions [56–58]. Even a moderate increase in the system size can give rise to parasitic paths that inadvertently couple to the qubits [59]. One approach is to house qubits in 3D cavities whose fundamental frequencies lie well above the qubit transition energies, thus isolating the qubits from interfering with the cavity modes [60]. Careful engineering of overall microwave environment (i.e., planar chip, its enclosure, control and readout channels) is crucial in engineering architectures [61].

In this work, we present the design and experimental realization of a proof-of-concept, scalable  $4 \times 4$  square lattice with fixed-frequency transmon qubits implemented in a tileable, 3D-integrated circuit quantum electrodynamics (cQED) architecture [25, 59, 60, 62]. In particular, we focus on demonstrating that long-range parasitic couplings can be strongly suppressed in our lattice, establishing a critical prerequisite for scaling to larger system sizes. By carefully engineering the device parameters and the microwave environment, we achieve very low frequency spread relative to the targeted two-band frequency allocation, long-range crosstalk levels, and simultaneous single-qubit gate errors across the lattice without canceling always-on qubit-qubit coupling. We report on the detailed measurements of inter-qubit couplings, coherence times, single- and two-qubit gate errors. The simplicity of our engineering paves the way toward realizing a scalable superconducting lattice topology.

## 2 Methodology

The Hamiltonian that describes a system of 16 transmon qubits in a  $4 \times 4$  lattice, in the anharmonic oscillator approximation, with fixed frequencies  $\omega_i/2\pi$ , anharmonicities  $\alpha_i/2\pi$  and statically coupled by an exchange interaction  $J_{i,j}$  between nearest-neighbour qubits, is

expressed as [63–65]

$$\frac{\hat{H}}{\hbar} = \sum_{i=0}^{15} \left( \omega_i + \frac{\alpha_i}{2} (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i - 1) \right) \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ j \in \mathcal{N}_i}} J_{ij} (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger) \quad (1)$$

where the  $\mathcal{N}_i$  denotes the set of four nearest-neighbor qubits coupled to qubit  $i$ . The ZZ shift, denoted by  $\zeta$ , quantifies how strongly the frequency of one qubit depends on the state of its neighboring qubits and normally has a significant additional contribution from higher-excited states [38–40].  $\zeta$  can be defined in a two-qubit system by the energy difference

$$\zeta = E_{|11\rangle} - E_{|10\rangle} - E_{|01\rangle} + E_{|00\rangle}, \quad (2)$$

where  $E_{|ij\rangle}$  denotes the energy of the dressed eigenstate  $|ij\rangle$ , and the labels  $i$  and  $j$  here refer to the excitation number in each qubit.  $\zeta$  is related to the exchange coupling  $J_{ij}$  in Eq. (1) through the following expression [66, 67]

$$\zeta \approx -\frac{2J_{ij}^2(\alpha_i + \alpha_j)}{(\Delta_{ij} + \alpha_i)(\alpha_j - \Delta_{ij})}, \quad (3)$$

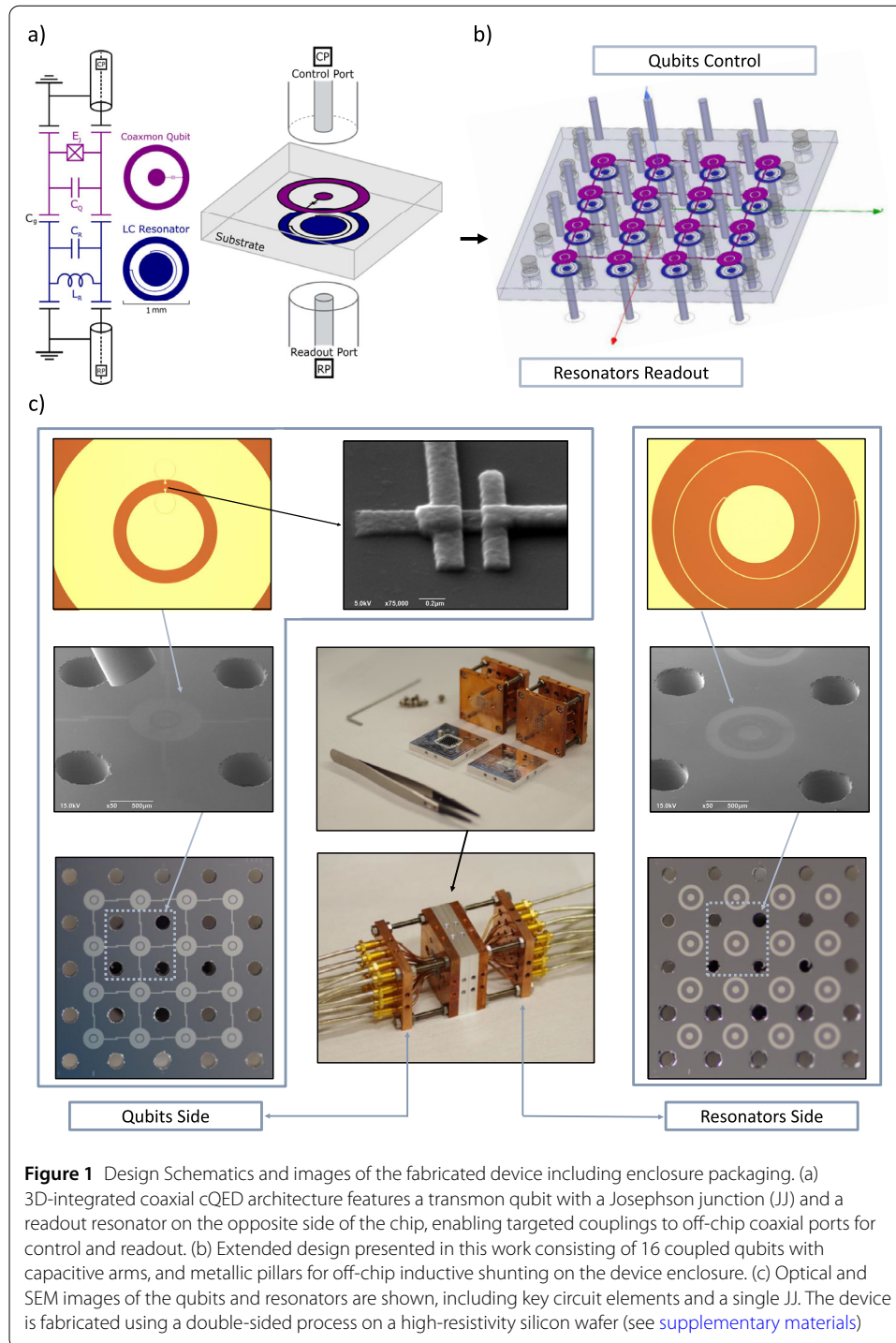
where  $\Delta_{ij} = \omega_i - \omega_j$  is the detuning between two qubits, with  $J_{ij} \ll |\Delta_{ij}|$ , and  $\alpha_i$  and  $\alpha_j$  are the two qubits anharmonicities. In practice, residual non-nearest-neighbour couplings can be mediated between any two qubits in the lattice through different mechanisms. This long-range interaction can arise due to higher-order virtual processes involving intermediate qubits and electromagnetic enclosure modes. We denote these non-nearest-neighbor couplings as  $\tilde{J}_{i,j}$ , which represent residual parasitic interactions. To account for these effects, the Hamiltonian is now extended to include additional terms that captures the contributions of  $\tilde{J}_{i,j}$  between all non-nearest-neighbor qubits

$$\frac{\hat{H}}{\hbar} = \sum_{i=0}^{15} \left( \omega_i + \frac{\alpha_i}{2} (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i - 1) \right) \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ j \in \mathcal{N}_i}} J_{ij} (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ j \notin \mathcal{N}_i}} \tilde{J}_{i,j} (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger) \quad (4)$$

The Hamiltonian now includes both direct (nearest-neighbor) and indirect (long-range) couplings. In general, for any pair of qubits in the lattice, the exchange interaction  $\mathcal{J}_{i,j}$  takes the form [68]

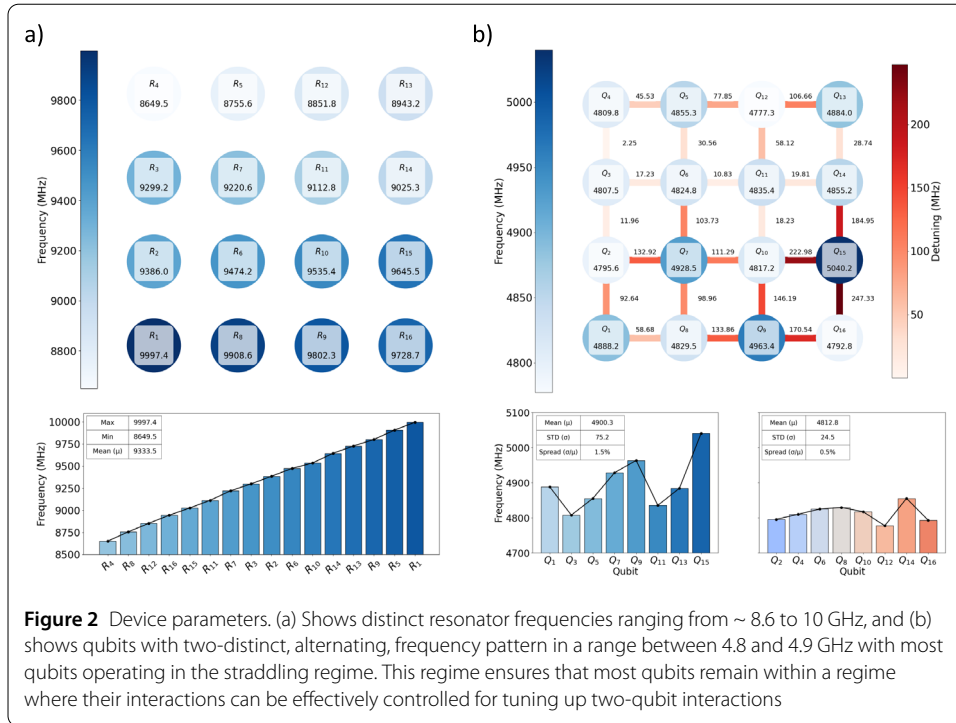
$$\mathcal{J}_{i,j} = \frac{2 E_{C_i} E_{C_j}}{\hbar E_{C_c}} \left( \frac{E_{J_i}}{2E_{C_j}} \frac{E_{J_j}}{2E_{C_i}} \right)^{1/4}, \quad (5)$$

where  $E_{J_i}$  and  $E_{C_i}$  are the transmon Josephson and charging energies, and  $E_{C_{ij}} = \frac{e^2}{2C_{ij}}$  is the charging energy of the fixed coupling capacitance  $C_{ij}$  between qubits  $i$  and  $j$ . The coupling  $\mathcal{J}$  here suggests that the interaction depends on frequencies of both qubits indirectly through the dependence on the Josephson energy  $E_J$  of the transmons, since the Josephson energy  $E_{J_i}$  is related to each qubit frequency by  $\omega_{qi} \approx \frac{\sqrt{8E_{J_i}E_{C_i}}}{\hbar}$ , for a transmon qubit operating in the weakly anharmonic regime.



## 2.1 Device architecture

We demonstrate a scalable  $4 \times 4$  square lattice of 16 fixed-frequency transmon qubits, implemented in a 3D-integrated cQED architecture [59, 60, 62]. Each qubit is capacitively coupled through the substrate to a readout resonator positioned on the opposite side of the chip, featuring a tileable unit cell (see Fig. 1 (a)). This approach enables individual qubit control and readout in a compact lattice architecture (see Fig. 1 (b) and (c)). This layout



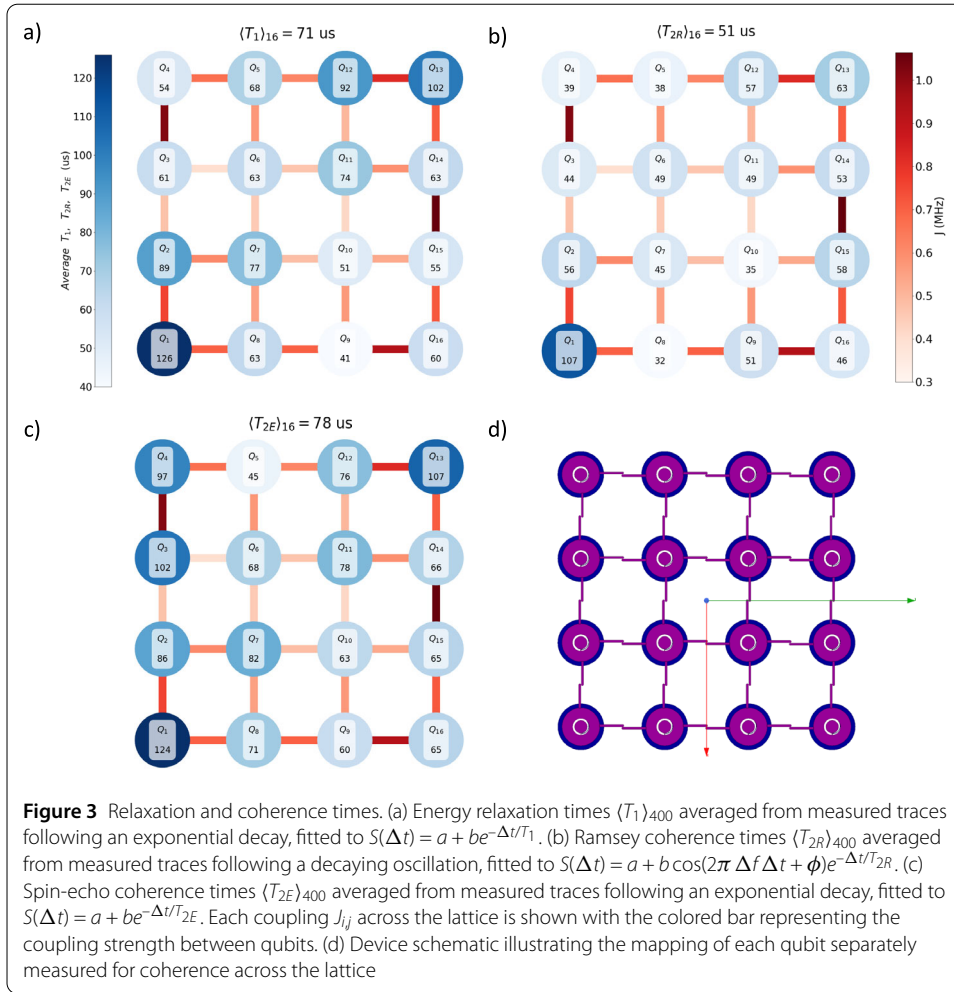
**Figure 2** Device parameters. (a) Shows distinct resonator frequencies ranging from ~ 8.6 to 10 GHz, and (b) shows qubits with two-distinct, alternating, frequency pattern in a range between 4.8 and 4.9 GHz with most qubits operating in the straddling regime. This regime ensures that most qubits remain within a regime where their interactions can be effectively controlled for tuning up two-qubit interactions

reduces in-plane footprint and routing congestion compared to fully planar architectures in which both qubits and readout resonators (and associated feedlines) must be routed on the same chip surface. We implement off-chip inductive shunting on the device enclosure to mitigate box-mediated residual crosstalk originating from parasitic enclosure modes [59, 60].

A detailed study of the microwave environment of the package, including cryogenic transmission measurements of enclosures with and without inductive shunt pillars and full-wave modeling of the enclosure modes, is provided in Ref. [69]. Each qubit is capacitively coupled to its four nearest neighbors via lithographically patterned capacitive arms, facilitating interactions characterized by exchange energy rates  $J_{i,j}$  between each pair of qubits in Eq. (1). The inductive-shunt pillars are entirely off-chip components and interface to the device through precision-machined through-wafer holes in the silicon substrate. Each pillar is press-fit into the corresponding enclosure feature and bonded using indium, providing mechanical stability and a low-resistance electrical contact, while requiring no additional chip-level lithography or metallization beyond the baseline device process. For a detailed description of the double-sided fabrication flow and materials characterization of this platform (including cross-sectional microscopy and processing-related defect analysis), we refer the interested reader to Ref. [18]. See [supplementary materials](#) for more details on the fabrication process and experimental setup.

## 2.2 Basic device parameters

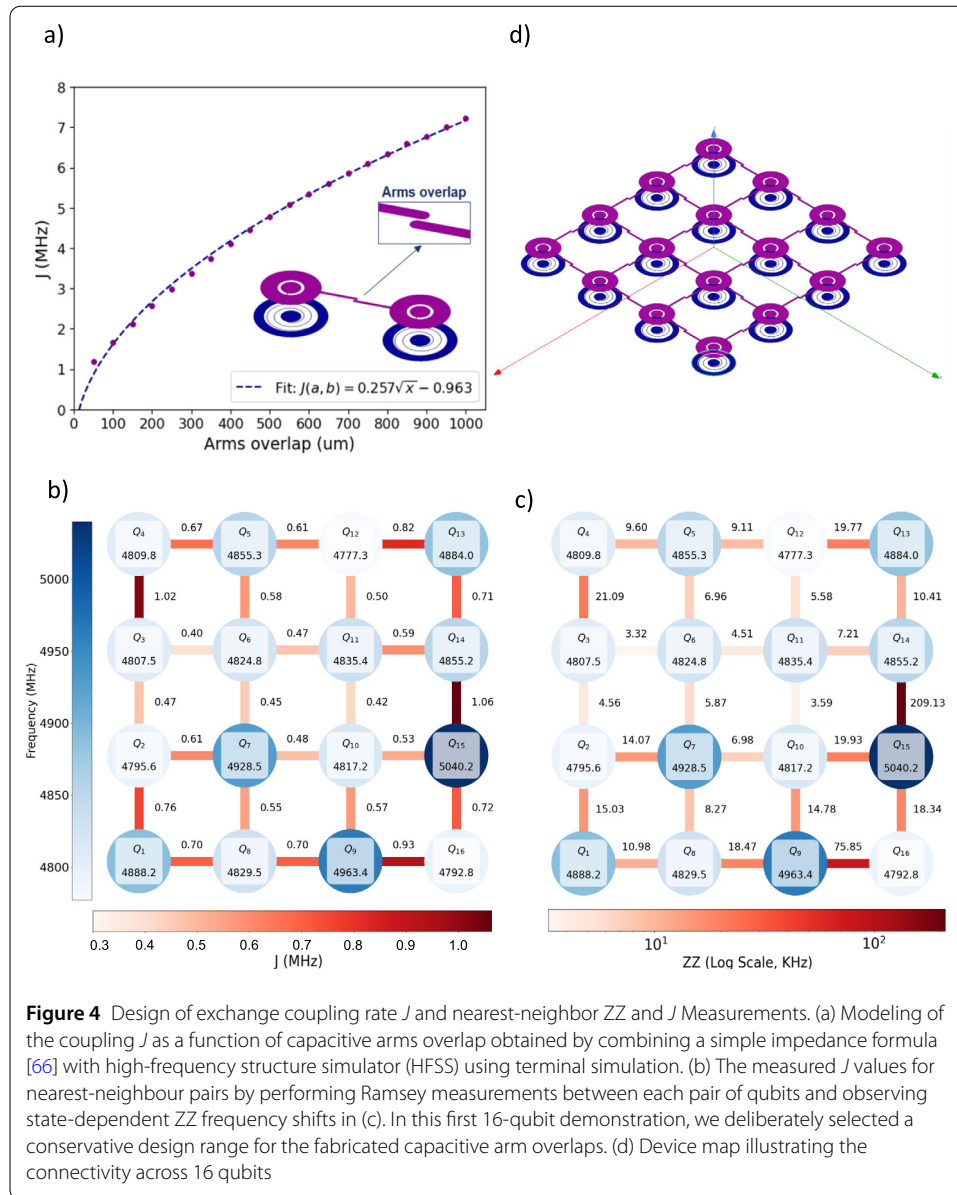
The resonators are designed to have distinct frequencies following a ladder design ranging from ~ 8.6 to 10.0 GHz, targeting well-separated readout frequencies (see Fig. 2(a)). Each set of 8 qubits is designed with two-distinct, alternating, frequency pattern in a range between 4.8 and 4.9 GHz, and measured with very low frequency spreads (relative to the



targeted two-band frequency groups) of 0.5% and 1.5%, respectively, for both targeted values (see Fig. 2(b)). This frequency range allows operating in the straddling regime, where detunings of qubits remain smaller than their anharmonicities, necessary later for tuning up two-qubit interactions. We note that only two pairs of qubits,  $Q_{15}$ - $Q_{10}$  and  $Q_{15}$ - $Q_{16}$ , are outside the straddling regime due to a higher frequency of  $Q_{15}$ . The average anharmonicity is  $\langle \alpha \rangle_{16} = 196.4$  MHz across all qubits with a very low frequency spread of 0.6% (see [supplementary materials](#) for more device parameters). The low frequency spreads were achieved without any further post-fabrication process on the junctions, such as junctions annealing [70], but only by fine tuning the junctions fabrication parameters which is consistent with our previously reported materials-characterization study [18].

### 3 Results and discussion

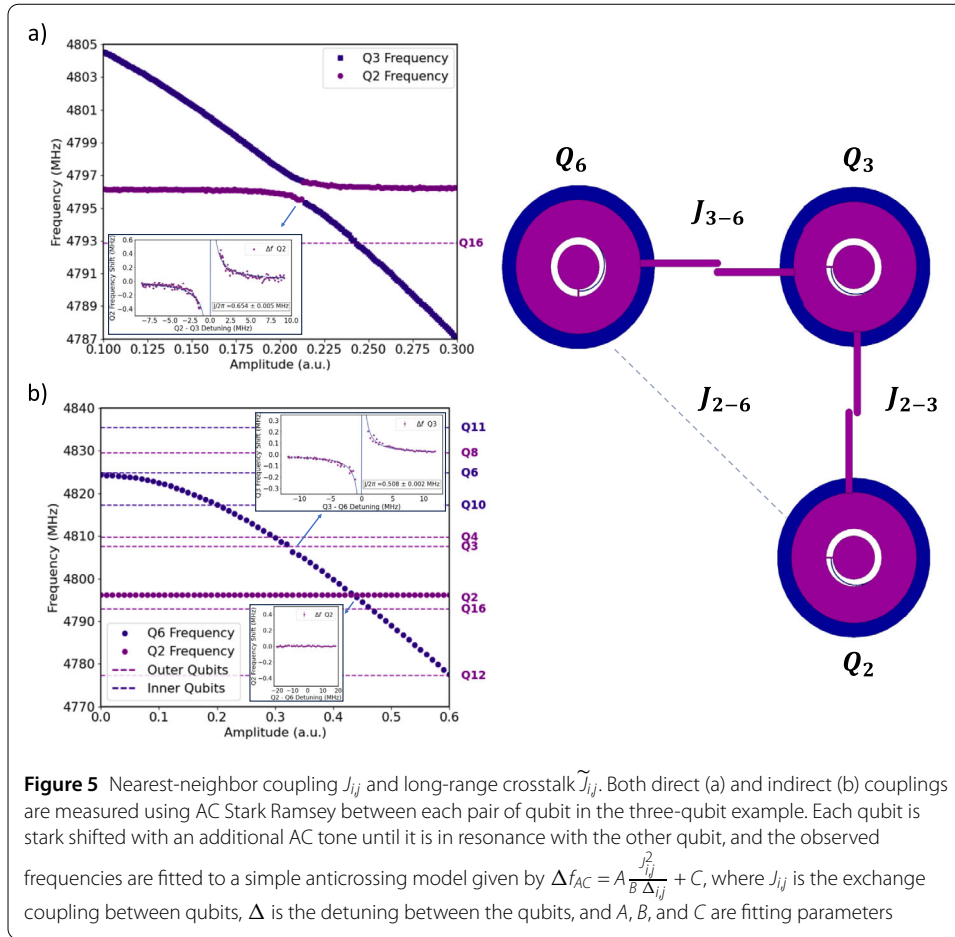
Qubits relaxation and coherence times were measured repeatedly over 12 hours, resulting in a total of 400 measurements for each  $T_1$ ,  $T_{2R}$  and  $T_{2E}$  that are then averaged for each qubit (see Fig. 3). The average qubits relaxation times  $T_1$  are shown in Fig. 3(a), and dephasing times  $T_{2R}$  and  $T_{2E}$  were measured using Ramsey and Hahn echo sequences and shown in Fig. 3(b) and Fig. 3(c), respectively. Relaxation and coherence times averaged across the lattice are  $\langle T_1 \rangle_{16} = 71 \pm 5 \mu s$ ,  $\langle T_{2R} \rangle_{16} = 51 \pm 4 \mu s$  and  $\langle T_{2E} \rangle_{16} = 78 \pm 5 \mu s$ , with weighted-standard deviations. While the average  $T_1 \approx 71 \mu s$  reported here is not yet



at the upper end of what has been achieved on Al-on-Si platforms, we do not attribute this primarily to the double-sided fabrication flow [18]. In this work, we also did not apply additional post-fabrication surface-loss mitigation treatments. Post-fabrication protective techniques, such as surface encapsulation with metallic layers [71–73], and surface passivation using molecular self-assembled monolayers [19, 20], offer promising routes to mitigate oxide regrowth and reduce surface participation, and are expected to further improve coherence beyond the values reported here.

### 3.1 Crosstalk characterization

We employ two established and complementary methods to quantify direct (nearest-neighbor) coupling and residual long-range crosstalk in the lattice. One is based on  $ZZ$  measurements using Eq. (3) and the second is based on direct measurements of anticrossing between different pairs of qubits using AC-Stark shift [74]. Figure 4 shows both the



design and measurements of the coupling  $J$  between nearest-neighbor qubits. Figure 4(a) shows how a simple impedance-based model [66] is used combined with HFSS simulations to model  $J$  as a function of the capacitive arm overlap.

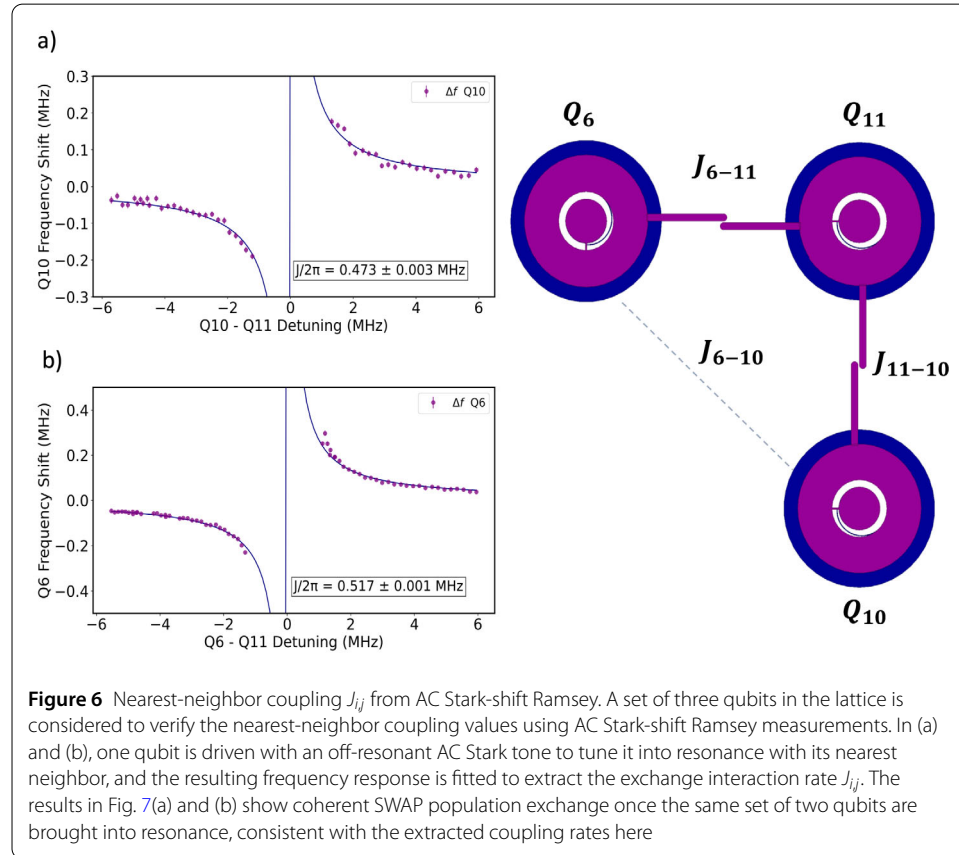
In this first 16-qubit demonstration, we deliberately selected a conservative design range for the fabricated capacitive arm overlaps. By contrast, Fig. 4(a) illustrates the broader simulated design space, which extends beyond 1 MHz for higher coupling parameters that are feasible within our architecture. In Fig. 4 (b) and (c), the measured ZZ shifts are used to calculate  $J$  values across the device using Eq. (3). The results also highlight each qubit’s frequency fluctuation, determined by  $\sim 400$  repeated Ramsey measurements over  $\sim 12$  hours, showing a very low frequency instability of about 0.88 KHz as an average of all frequency fluctuations across the device (see Fig. 4 (c)).

In particular, we observe low ZZ shifts across all qubit pairs except for two notable outliers occur for  $Q_9$ - $Q_{16}$  (75.8 KHz) and  $Q_{14}$ - $Q_{15}$  (209.1 KHz), which lie near higher transitions and near the edge of the straddling regime. The estimated couplings have maximum and minimum values at 1.064 MHz and 0.401 MHz, respectively. The mean  $\mu$  of 0.623 MHz and standard deviation  $\sigma$  of 0.173 MHz lead to a relative spread  $\sigma/\mu$  of about 0.269 in different values of the coupling  $J$  across the lattice.

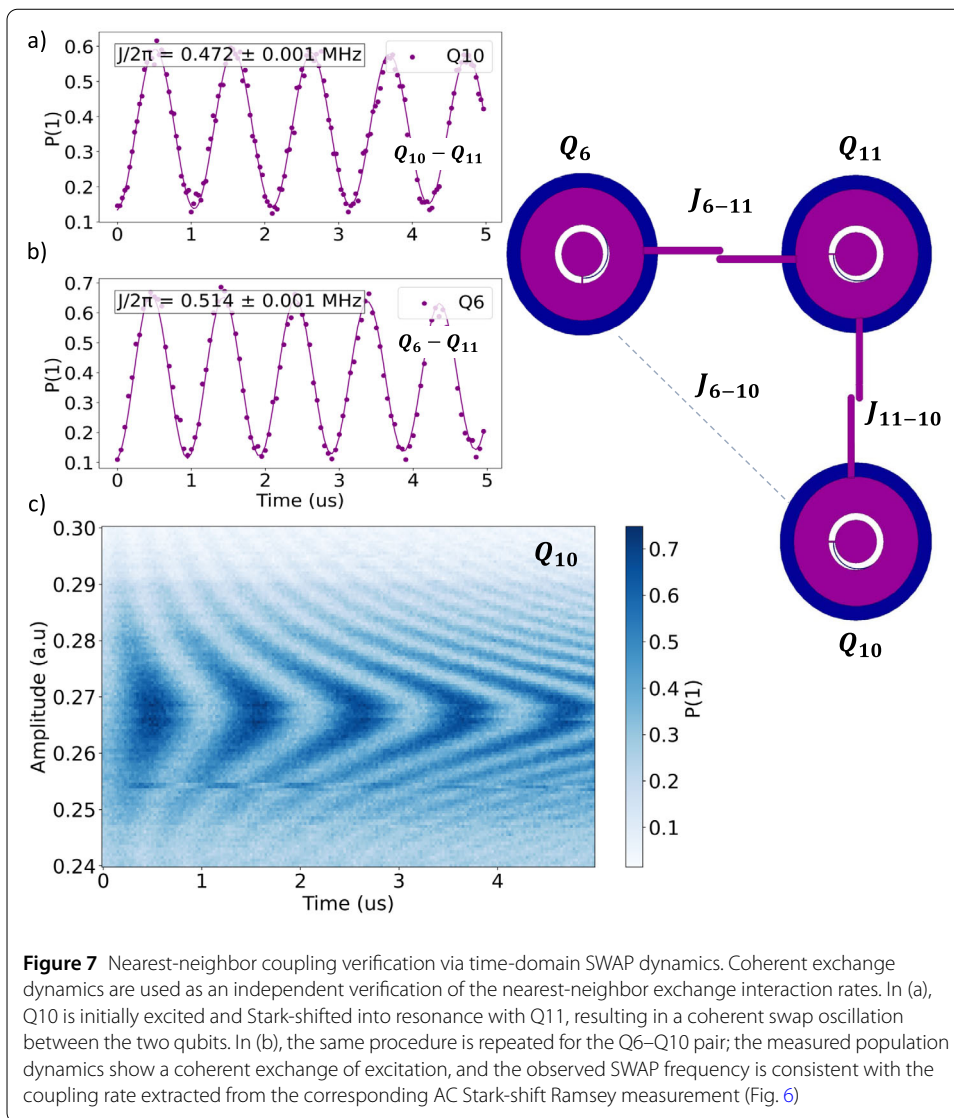
Next, direct measurements of anticrossing between different pairs of qubits using AC-Stark shift are shown in Fig. 5. This example illustrates both direct and indirect interactions in a simplified three-qubit setting in the lattice. In Fig. 5(a), one qubit is Stark-

**Table 1** Characterization of the nearest-neighbor  $J_{ij}$  couplings from anticrossings using AC-Stark shift Ramsey compared to estimated coupling values from measuring static ZZ shifts in Fig. 4(c)

Qubits pair	$w_{q_A}/2\pi$ MHz	$w_{q_B}/2\pi$ MHz	$\Delta_{AB}$ MHz	$ZZ_{static}$ MHz	$J_{ZZ}$ MHz	$J_{SWAP}$ MHz
$Q_2 - Q_3$	4795.6	4807.5	12.0	0.0081	0.631	0.654
$Q_3 - Q_6$	4807.5	4824.8	17.2	0.0033	0.401	0.508
$Q_6 - Q_{11}$	4824.8	4835.4	10.7	0.0053	0.511	0.517
$Q_{10} - Q_{11}$	4835.4	4817.2	18.2	0.0036	0.418	0.473
$Q_{14} - Q_{11}$	4835.4	4855.2	19.8	0.0057	0.528	0.536



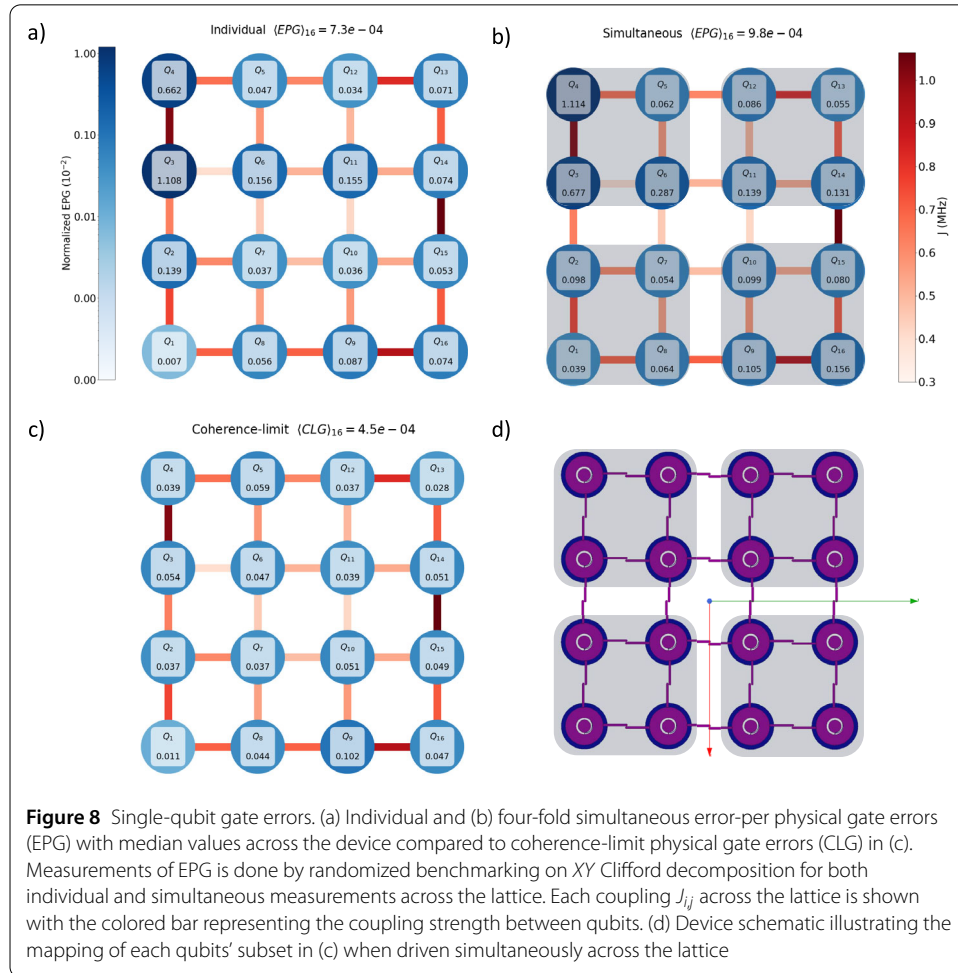
shifted until it is in resonance with its nearest neighbor, forming an avoided-crossing from which the exchange coupling  $J_{i,j}$  is directly extracted by fitting to a simple model. Table 1 compares the resulting  $J_{SWAP}$  values for nearest neighbors obtained by performing AC-Stark shift Ramsey experiments, with those extracted from measuring static ZZ shifts,  $J_{ZZ}$ . We confirm these measurements by performing AC-Stark shift on another set of three qubit in lattice, and observe a swap of population between pairs of nearest-neighbor qubits (see Fig. 6(a)), and compare the exchange energy rates with those extracted from AC-Stark shift Ramsey measurements on the same pairs of qubits. We verify the nearest-neighbor exchange interaction rates using two independent experiments: (i) AC Stark-shift Ramsey to observe  $J_{i,j}$  (Fig. 6), and (ii) coherent exchange dynamics obtained by Stark-shifting one qubit into resonance with its neighbor (Fig. 7), and observe very similar results.



In addition, in Fig. 5(b), the same measurements are performed on diagonal pairs of qubits that are not directly connected by a capacitive arm, in which any measurable residual coupling represents crosstalk in this case. This long-range interaction arises from higher-order virtual processes or enclosure-mediated parasitic effects. We report a representative set of non-nearest-neighbor pairs that could be tuned into resonance within a moderate AC-Stark drive range, and since all such measurements yield couplings near our sensitivity limit, we expect other non-nearest-neighbor pairs, subject to the same device design and microwave environment, to exhibit similarly negligible residual interactions. In Fig. 5(b), we observe no long-range couplings across the lattice as one qubit is Stark-shifted across multiple adjacent qubits in frequency and space. The same observation is seen on multiple other cases summarized in Table 2. All measured values represents the frequency fluctuations from Ramsey as shown in the inset measurements in Fig. 5(b), which all remain significantly lower than the measured couplings for nearest neighbors, indicating that parasitic crosstalk is very small in the device. This supports the observation that the dominant couplings in the device are the deliberately engineered nearest-neighbor

**Table 2** Characterization of the non-nearest-neighbor  $\tilde{J}_{ij}$  crosstalk from anticrossings using AC-Stark shift Ramsey

Qubits pair	$w_{qA}/2\pi$ MHz	$w_{qB}/2\pi$ MHz	$\Delta_{AB}$ MHz	Std-Dev MHz
$Q_6 - Q_2$	4795.6	4824.8	29.2	0.00507
$Q_6 - Q_{10}$	4824.8	4817.2	7.6	0.01200
$Q_5 - Q_{11}$	4855.1	4835.4	19.7	0.03927
$Q_8 - Q_{10}$	4829.5	4817.2	12.3	0.00807
$Q_{10} - Q_{16}$	4817.2	4792.8	24.3	0.00662



interactions and that spurious or long-range crosstalk can be kept well near the intrinsic frequency fluctuation levels of each qubit (see Fig. 4(c)).

### 3.2 Single-qubit gate errors

Single-qubit gate errors across the device are shown in Fig. 8, evaluated through randomized benchmarking (RB) [75, 76]. Figure 8(a) shows the error-per-physical-gate (EPG) values for individual qubits, while Fig. 8(b) shows simultaneous measurements on four-qubit sets across the lattice. RB experiments were conducted using an  $XY$ -Clifford decomposition for both individual and simultaneous gate errors. The resulting error rates were obtained by applying a combination of 60 ns duration (consisting of 50 ns Blackman enve-

lope with 10 ns buffer) of  $I$ ,  $X_{\pi/2,\pi}$  physical gates, combined with derivative removal gate (DRAG) pulse shaping [77] and virtual Z gates [78]. Single-shot readout was performed during all RB experiments with readout time of 8 us.

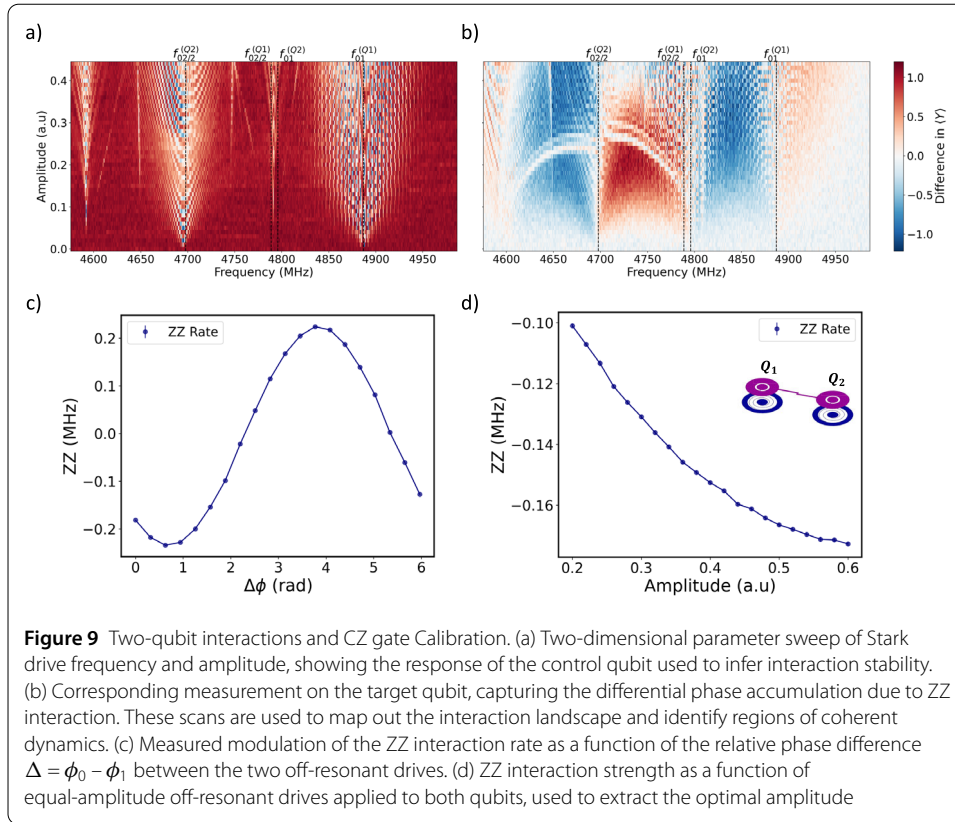
For both individual and simultaneous RB, each experiment was performed with 16 different Clifford sequences with total sequence length of 1000 gates and with each sequence repeated for  $N = 10$  distinct Clifford gates. Each of the  $16 \times 10$  experiments was performed on every qubits for both individual and simultaneous RB (see [supplementary materials](#)). The EPG values obtained from these experiments are summarized Fig. 8(a) and (b). To compare the measured gate errors with coherent limits, the coherence-limited EPG (denoted as CLG) is shown in Fig. 8(c) and calculated using the expression  $CLG = (3 - \exp(-t_g/T_1) - 2 \exp(-t_g/T_{2E}))/6$  [66], where  $t_g$  is the total duration of each physical gate (60 ns), and  $T_1$  and  $T_{2E}$  represent the relaxation and echo coherence times, respectively. This theoretical limit provides a benchmark to evaluate the fidelity of the single-qubit gates in relation to the intrinsic coherent errors. We observe very low median gate errors across the lattice and comparable EPGs on both individual and simultaneous RB experiments except for the pair of qubits  $Q_3$ - $Q_4$  in which both qubits have higher errors due to the fact that this pair has very low detuning of 2.25 MHz (see Fig. 2(b)). Importantly, we observe comparable simultaneous (to individual) single-qubit gate errors across the lattice, despite the presence of always-on qubit-qubit coupling. This shows that correlated errors arising from residual crosstalk remain suppressed in the device, indicating minimal error propagation between qubits during simultaneous gates operations. While a fully simultaneous 16-qubit single-qubit RB experiment would constitute an even more stringent test, however, since long-range parasitic couplings beyond the nearest-neighbor manifold are strongly suppressed (Fig. 5) and are near or below our measurement sensitivity, we expect the difference between 4-qubit simultaneous RB and fully simultaneous 16-qubit RB to be negligible in this architecture.

### 3.3 Two-qubit interactions and CZ gates

We implement entangling operations between fixed-frequency transmon qubits in the lattice by using the Stark-induced ZZ by level excursions (siZZle) technique [79, 80] to boost static ZZ coupling. Here, we use two additional off-resonant drives to induce parametrized shifts in the energy levels of a two-transmons system as shown in Fig. 10(a). This approach modifies the native ZZ interaction and can be used to tune up a controlled-Z (CZ) gate by driving each transmon with a detuned microwave tone. The two simultaneous off-resonant drives on the two qubits shift the energy levels of the system and, through the capacitive coupling, modify the effective ZZ rate between the qubits. The modified ZZ rate  $\tilde{v}_{ZZ}$  can be approximated as [81]:

$$\tilde{v}_{ZZ} = v_{ZZ,s} + \frac{2J\alpha_0\alpha_1\Omega_0\Omega_1 \cos(\phi_0 - \phi_1)}{\Delta_{0,d}\Delta_{1,d}(\Delta_{0,d} + \alpha_0)(\Delta_{1,d} + \alpha_1)}, \quad (6)$$

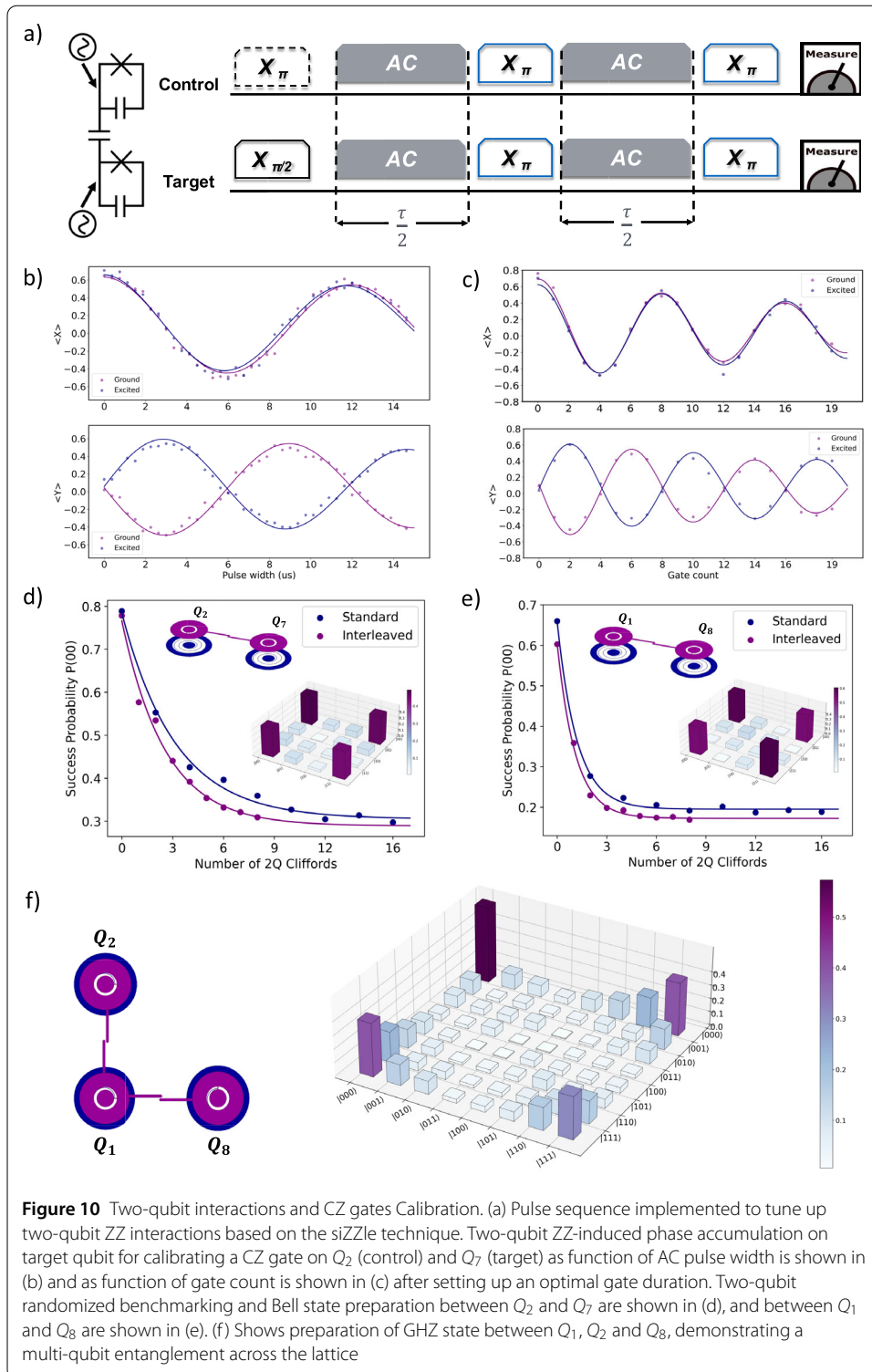
where  $v_{ZZ,s} = \zeta$  denotes the static ZZ interaction rate in Eq. (3),  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  are the anharmonicities,  $J$  is the effective exchange (hopping) interaction rate, and  $\Omega_0$ ,  $\Omega_1$ ,  $\Delta_{0,d}$ ,  $\Delta_{1,d}$ ,  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_1$  denote the drive amplitudes, detunings to each qubit, and relative phases of drives, respectively. In principle, the effective  $\tilde{v}_{ZZ}$  rate can be boosted or canceled depending on the sign of the additional driving term. The calibration of a CZ gate based on the siZZle



interaction requires optimizing the drive parameters such that the total ZZ-induced phase accumulation during the gate operation equals  $\pi/4$ .

We set the two drive amplitudes to be relatively equal to  $\Omega_{control} = r \Omega_{target}$ , for maximum  $\tilde{v}_{ZZ}$  while observing a clean interaction, and  $r$  here is the ratio between the amplitudes of the single-qubit  $X_\pi$  pulses for the control to the target qubits. We have found this relation takes into account the asymmetries between the two drive amplitudes, introduced by cabling or room-temperature electronics. The relative phase between the two drives was found to be near-optimal in our setup and was set to be  $\Delta = \phi_0 - \phi_1 = 0$  during CZ gate calibration. See [supplementary materials](#) for more details about tuning up two-qubit interactions and calibrating CZ gates. Pulse sequence for siZZle gate calibration is shown in Fig. 10(a). The siZZle gate is implemented using two off-resonant Stark drives, with interleaved and final single-qubit  $\pi$  pulses to cancel unwanted single-qubit phase accumulation. A dashed line on the single-qubit pulse on the control in Fig. 10(a) denotes that the experiment is run both with and without exciting the control. The calibration of a CZ gate based on the siZZle interaction, it requires optimizing the drive parameters such that the total ZZ-induced phase accumulation during the gate operation equals  $\pi/4$ . This involves first tuning up the frequencies of the off-resonant drives to achieve optimal detunings  $\Delta_{0,d}$  and  $\Delta_{1,d}$  from the qubits' transitions, selecting both optimal amplitudes ( $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_1$ ) and phase difference ( $\Delta = \phi_0 - \phi_1$ ) between the off-resonant drives to maximize the  $\tilde{v}_{ZZ}$  rate, and finally working the gate duration out of the optimal  $\tilde{v}_{ZZ}$  rate.

To tune the ZZ interaction more precisely, we perform a two-dimensional parameter sweep over the Stark drive frequency and amplitude shown in Fig. 9, building a coarse map of the ZZ interaction rates. Although directly measuring the ZZ rate at every point



**Figure 10** Two-qubit interactions and CZ gates Calibration. (a) Pulse sequence implemented to tune up two-qubit ZZ interactions based on the sizzle technique. Two-qubit ZZ-induced phase accumulation on target qubit for calibrating a CZ gate on Q<sub>2</sub> (control) and Q<sub>7</sub> (target) as function of AC pulse width is shown in (b) and as function of gate count is shown in (c) after setting up an optimal gate duration. Two-qubit randomized benchmarking and Bell state preparation between Q<sub>2</sub> and Q<sub>7</sub> are shown in (d), and between Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>8</sub> are shown in (e). (f) Shows preparation of GHZ state between Q<sub>1</sub>, Q<sub>2</sub> and Q<sub>8</sub>, demonstrating a multi-qubit entanglement across the lattice

would be ideal, it is experimentally very expensive. Instead, we fix the Stark pulse duration at 1 μs and use the Hamiltonian tomography sequence in Fig. 10(b), recording the differential phase accumulation on the target qubit on <math>\langle Y \rangle</math> basis when the control qubit is initialized in either the ground or excited state. This entire mapping procedure takes

roughly 12 hours and yields the background for the interaction landscape over a wide range of parameters. Following this, we analyze both the control qubit (in Fig. 9(a)) and target qubit (in Fig. 9(b)) dynamics to identify the optimal parameters for high-contrast, coherent interactions. The calibration procedure begins by selecting an initial set of Stark drive parameters. Specifically, a drive frequency and amplitude are first selected to observe an initial ZZ interaction. This assessment is carried out using Hamiltonian tomography followed by repeated gate tomography, as illustrated in Fig. 10(b) and (c), respectively. Non-optimal parameters typically lead to unstable or noisy oscillations in the expectation values. In such cases, the parameters are iteratively adjusted until clean, stable oscillations are observed. Once stability is achieved, an automated fitting routine is used to extract the optimal gate duration to proceed to the calibration of a CZ entangling gate used for tuning up a CNOT gate for preparing Bell and GHZ states [82–84]. In Fig. 10(b), pulse width Hamiltonian tomography on the target qubit is shown to extract the ZZ interaction. The duration of the Stark pulse here is swept while monitoring the phase evolution of the target qubit. In Fig. 10(c), repeated gate Hamiltonian tomography on the target qubit is shown. This experiment now uses fixed-duration two-qubit pulses and repetition blocks to more precisely calibrate the accumulated ZZ phase, which can then be used to implement an entangling gate. States of the control qubit  $Q_2$  during ZZ-induced phase accumulation on target qubit  $Q_7$  (see in Fig. 10(b)) are shown in Fig. 14 in [supplementary materials](#).

We verified the calibrated CZ gate by interleaving it into a two-qubit randomized benchmarking (RB) sequence [85, 86], performed on multiple pairs across the lattice as shown in Fig. 10. The single-qubit gates here were optimally calibrated with 20 ns duration (consisting of 16 ns Blackman envelope with 4 ns buffer) of  $X_{\pi/2}$  physical gates, combined with derivative removal gate (DRAG) pulse shaping [77] and virtual Z gates [78]. Single-shot readout was also optimized during all two-qubit experiments with a readout time of 3  $\mu$ s. The gate calibration consists of observing ZZ-induced phase accumulation during the gate operation on the target qubits as shown in Fig. 10(b) and (c). The performance of the CZ gates was further complemented by the direct preparation of entangled Bell states between two qubits (in Fig. 10(d) and (e)), and preparation of GHZ state between three qubits across the lattice as shown in Fig. 10(f). For the first pair in Fig. 10(d) consisting of  $Q_2$  (control) and  $Q_7$  (target), we achieve CZ gate fidelity of  $95.15 \pm 1.76\%$  for a total gate time of  $\tau_g = 3.266 \mu$ s, resulting in an average Bell state fidelity of 93.56% measured by two-qubit state tomography. For the second pair in Fig. 10(e) consisting of  $Q_1$  (control) and  $Q_8$  (target), we achieve CZ gate fidelity of  $96.44 \pm 1.78\%$  for a total gate time of  $\tau_g = 2.623 \mu$ s, resulting in an average Bell state fidelity of 90.0% measured by two-qubit state tomography. Finally, the prepared GHZ state between  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$  and  $Q_8$  in Fig. 10(f) has an average GHZ state fidelity of 83.88% measured by three-qubit state tomography.

Finally, we note that demonstrating state-of-the-art two-qubit gate fidelities is not the primary goal of this work. Rather, we include representative CZ benchmarks to validate that the low-crosstalk packaging supports coherent entangling operations across the 16-qubit lattice. The measured CZ fidelities (95.15% and 96.44%) are obtained with total gate times of  $\tau_g = 3.266 \mu$ s and  $2.623 \mu$ s, respectively, and are therefore largely limited by decoherence over the gate duration. In our fixed-frequency, fixed-coupling architecture the effective siZZle interaction rate is intentionally kept moderate, set by the relatively weak ca-

capacitive coupling and by choosing conservative off-resonant drive detunings/amplitudes to maintain interaction stability and suppress leakage. Within our measurement sensitivity, we did not observe additional dynamic crosstalk signatures during the AC Stark drives (e.g., resolvable spectator-qubit AC-Stark shifts requiring compensation) beyond the low intrinsic frequency fluctuations of the device. Improving coherence, increasing the effective interaction rate, and further pulse-shape optimization are expected to push these CZ fidelities toward the state-of-the-art in future generations.

#### 4 Conclusion

We have demonstrated a scalable  $4 \times 4$  square lattice of 16 fixed-frequency transmon qubits with nearest-neighbor capacitive coupling, implemented in a tileable, 3D-integrated cQED architecture with a particular focus on suppressing long-range parasitic couplings. The device achieves well-targeted qubit frequencies with very low spreads across two distinct frequency groups. We characterized coupling and long-range crosstalk using both static ZZ shifts and direct anticrossing measurements, confirming that inter-qubit couplings remain localized, with negligible long-range parasitic interactions. Simultaneous randomized benchmarking shows low single-qubit gate errors and comparable to individual gate errors, with median error rates approaching coherence-limited errors. These results validate our design approach and present a practical architecture for scaling superconducting quantum circuits with low crosstalk and robust qubit connectivity.

#### Appendix: Supplementary materials

Superconducting quantum circuits are commonly fabricated using thin-films of aluminum, niobium, or titanium alloys on silicon or sapphire substrates [17]. The most critical components of these circuits are Josephson junctions, which when shunted with large capacitors, can form the widely used type of superconducting qubits known as the transmon [87]. The fabrication process of these junctions can vary based on the junction size controlled by electron-beam lithography exposure dose, oxidation parameters, and metal evaporation pressure. In our study, we employ a double-sided fabrication on a double-side 3-inch polished intrinsic silicon wafers, involving multiple lithography steps, thin-film depositions, and protective resists to ensure high-quality surfaces and interfaces on both sides during the fabrication process. The qubits and resonators are fabricated on opposite sides of the silicon substrate and capacitively coupled through the bulk substrate. The coupling strength is primarily determined by the substrate thickness and the geometry of the capacitive pads of both the qubit and the resonator [62].

##### A.1 Fabrication process

The detailed steps of the fabrication process are described [18, 86, 88], with relevant design parameters given in Table 3. Spin-coating a protective photoresist layer on the backside is critical in double-sided fabrication process to protect the wafer and prevent additional contamination. The resonators side is patterned first while the qubit side is covered with photoresist, followed by cleaning the photoresist and spin-coating another protective photoresist layer on the resonators side and patterning the qubits side.

**Table 3** Geometric design parameters of relevant parts of the device shown in Fig. 1

Geometric parameter	Symbol	Standard value
Spiral line width	$s$	5 $\mu\text{m}$
Al thin film thickness	$t$	100 nm
JJ thin film thickness	$d$	(27-30) + 70 nm
Si substrate thickness	$h$	500 $\mu\text{m}$

#### A.1.1 Wafer cleaning

The fabrication process starts with cleaning a high-resistivity ( $> 10 \text{ K}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ ) intrinsic silicon wafer using a 10:1 buffered oxide etch (BOE) solution of hydrofluoric acid and ammonium fluoride to remove native oxides and contaminants. After etching, the wafers are thoroughly rinsed with ultrapure deionized water, dried with nitrogen gas, and promptly transferred (within 5 min) to minimize re-oxidation before thin-film deposition.

#### A.1.2 Aluminum thin-film deposition

Immediately after water cleaning, the wafer is immediately loaded in Plassys MEB550S2 at ultra-high vacuum (UHV) and is baked up to  $200^\circ\text{C}$  for 10 min. After which a layer of 100 nm of aluminum is deposited at rate of 1 nm/s on the substrate through UHV electron-beam evaporation under controlled temperature and low-pressure conditions, with a base pressure down to  $10^{-9}$  mbar and an evaporation pressure of around  $10^{-8}$  mbar, ensuring high purity and uniformity of the thin film. The deposition rate and substrate temperature are carefully controlled to ensure smooth thin-film growth for optimal grain structure.

#### A.1.3 Photolithography and micro-scale circuit elements

A positive photoresist AZ 1514 H is spin-coated onto the wafer and then exposed to ultraviolet light through a chrome photomask that defines the desired circuit patterns. After development with AZ 726 MIF developer solution, the exposed areas of aluminum are revealed for etching. The aluminum is then selectively etched away using a wet etching process to define the circuit elements. An aluminum etchant Alfa Aesar 44581 solution and water are used to achieve anisotropic etching with optimal selectivity to minimize remaining aluminum defects. This step creates the micro-scale features of the circuit, including capacitors, inductors, and coupling interconnects. Immediately after the etching process, residual resist is removed using DMSO.

#### A.1.4 Electron-beam lithography and nano-scale Josephson junctions

For the nano-scale features, high-resolution electron-beam lithography (EBL) is used to define the Josephson junctions. The junctions are fabricated using the Dolan bridge technique [89], which involves double-angle evaporation of aluminum to form the tunnel barriers, followed by careful removal of excess aluminum through a lift-off process. A bilayer resist structure is employed, consisting of a copolymer (MA/MMA) and a polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) layer, to create an undercut profile necessary for the shadow evaporation process. After spin-coating the resist, EBL is carried out in a JEOL system at 100 keV, using aperture Ap4 size 2 nA - 60  $\mu\text{m}^2$  for small features and Ap8 size 100 nA - 300  $\mu\text{m}^2$  for large features, with doses typically around 1500  $\mu\text{C}/\text{cm}^2$ . Following the exposure, the critical features are then developed using a mixture of IPA/MIBK mixture in a 3:1 ratio.

After EBL patterning, the wafer is loaded into the Plassys MEB550S2. Prior to deposition, an argon (Ar) ion milling is performed for 1 min (voltage 400 V, acceleration voltage 90 V/s, current 15 mA) to remove any residual contaminants and native oxides from the metal and substrate surfaces, ensuring a clean interface for the subsequent aluminum deposition. The first layer of junction is then deposited at an angle of  $60^\circ$  from normal incidence, depositing 60 nm of Al at a rate of 0.5 nm/s. Due to the deposition angle, the effective thickness of the deposited film is approximately 27-30 nm. Following the first deposition, an *in situ* controlled static oxidation inside Plassys is performed, typically for 5-10 min at an oxygen pressure of 5-10 mbar, depending on the target junction resistance. This controlled oxidation forms the thin insulating barrier of aluminum oxide essential for the tunnel junction. After pumping back down to UHV conditions, the second layer of aluminum is deposited at normal incidence ( $0^\circ$ ), depositing 70 nm of Al at a rate of 0.5 nm/s, effectively completing the Josephson junction structure. Precise control over the oxidation parameters, such as oxygen pressure and exposure time, is critical to achieve the desired tunnel barrier properties and, consequently, the critical current of the junction [89]. Following evaporation, a lift-off process is carried out in a DMSO solution at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for around 2 hrs and immediately followed by thoroughly rinsing with ultrapure deionized water and drying using nitrogen gas.

#### A.1.5 Post-fabrication milling, dicing and packaging

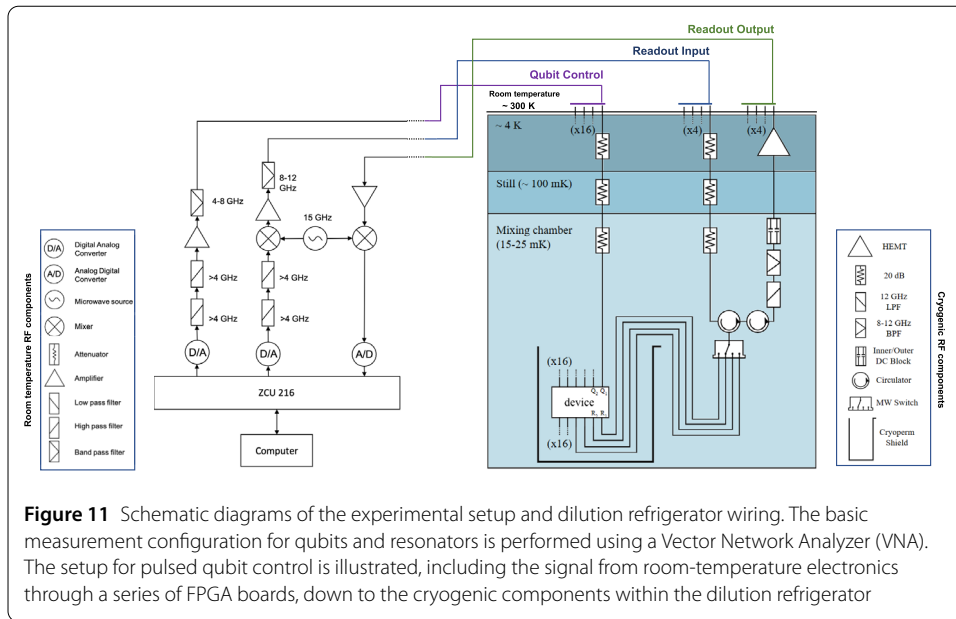
The wafer is next spin-coated with a protective layer of AZ 1514 H photoresist on both sides to protect the surfaces during milling and dicing. For milling, a central aperture of 500  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter is drilled with a diamond micro-grinding tool using a Loxham Precision  $\mu 6$  micro-machining system. These micromachining steps require careful handling to avoid introducing contamination or mechanical damage on the wafer, which could lead to additional defects. After milling, the wafer is diced into individual square dies of approximately 10 mm side length using a Disco DAD3430 dicing saw. A diced chip is then mounted into a sample holder and prepared to be installed into a cryostat for microwave measurements.

## A.2 Experimental setup

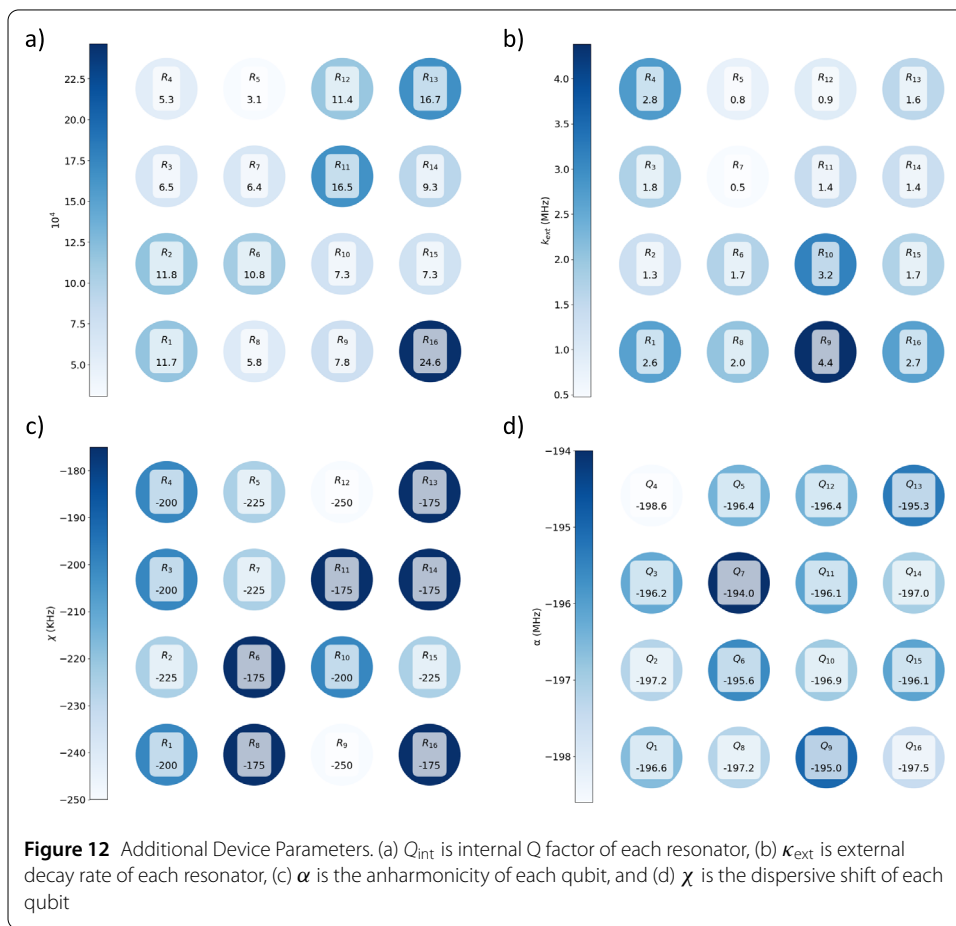
The experimental setup operates at a base temperature of  $\sim 15$  mK using a  $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$  dilution refrigerator. The control and readout of qubits are facilitated by the wiring configurations shown in Fig. 11. For qubit control, microwave pulses are synthesized directly using QubiC system [90, 91]. The pulses are carefully shaped for single and two-qubit gates to align at the desired frequencies. For readout, reflected signals from the resonators go through amplification and down-conversion and are then captured by Analog-to-Digital Converters (ADCs) connected to the FPGA for measurements and further data analysis. The system is equipped with cryogenic attenuators and low-pass filters along the input lines to minimize thermal noise and spurious signals reaching the qubits. Output lines are similarly configured with isolators and cryogenic HEMT amplifiers to preserve signal integrity and maintain high signal-to-noise ratio throughout the measurement chain.

## A.3 Additional device parameters

The following are the full datasets used to produce the results presented in the main text and more device parameters. Additional device parameters are visualized in Fig. 12 and given in Table 4.



**Figure 11** Schematic diagrams of the experimental setup and dilution refrigerator wiring. The basic measurement configuration for qubits and resonators is performed using a Vector Network Analyzer (VNA). The setup for pulsed qubit control is illustrated, including the signal from room-temperature electronics through a series of FPGA boards, down to the cryogenic components within the dilution refrigerator



**Figure 12** Additional Device Parameters. (a)  $Q_{INT}$  is internal Q factor of each resonator, (b)  $K_{EXT}$  is external decay rate of each resonator, (c)  $\alpha$  is the anharmonicity of each qubit, and (d)  $\chi$  is the dispersive shift of each qubit

**Table 4** Basic Device Parameters and microwave characterization.  $w_r/2\pi$  and  $w_q/2\pi$  are frequencies of the readout resonator and qubit, respectively.  $Q_i$  is the internal quality factor of the resonator, and  $\kappa_{\text{ext}}$  is the external coupling rate.  $\chi$  is the qubit-resonator dispersive shift, and  $\alpha$  is the qubit anharmonicity. Qubits relaxation and coherence times  $T_1$ ,  $T_{2R}$  and  $T_{2E}$  are averaged over 400 repeated measurements

Parameters	$w_r/2\pi$	$w_q/2\pi$	$Q_i$	$\kappa_{\text{ext}}$	$\chi$	$\alpha$	$\langle T_1 \rangle$	$\langle T_{2R} \rangle$	$\langle T_{2E} \rangle$
Qubits	MHz	MHz	$10^4$	MHz	KHz	MHz	$\mu\text{s}$	$\mu\text{s}$	$\mu\text{s}$
$Q_1$	9997.4	4888.2	11.7	2.6	-200.0	-196.6	$126 \pm 18$	$107 \pm 12$	$124 \pm 23$
$Q_2$	9386.0	4795.6	11.8	1.3	-225.0	-197.2	$89 \pm 13$	$56 \pm 15$	$86 \pm 12$
$Q_3$	9299.2	4807.5	6.5	1.8	-200.0	-196.2	$61 \pm 6$	$44 \pm 5$	$102 \pm 18$
$Q_4$	8649.5	4809.8	5.3	2.8	-200.0	-198.6	$54 \pm 9$	$39 \pm 14$	$97 \pm 20$
$Q_5$	8755.6	4855.3	3.1	0.8	-225.0	-196.4	$68 \pm 10$	$38 \pm 4$	$45 \pm 10$
$Q_6$	9220.6	4824.8	6.4	0.5	-225.0	-194.0	$63 \pm 7$	$49 \pm 4$	$68 \pm 10$
$Q_7$	9474.2	4928.5	10.8	1.7	-175.0	-195.6	$77 \pm 12$	$45 \pm 12$	$82 \pm 15$
$Q_8$	9908.6	4829.5	5.8	2.0	-175.0	-197.2	$63 \pm 8$	$32 \pm 7$	$71 \pm 8$
$Q_9$	9802.3	4963.4	7.8	4.4	-250.0	-195.0	$24 \pm 7$	$24 \pm 5$	$33 \pm 9$
$Q_{10}$	9535.4	4817.2	7.3	3.2	-200.0	-196.9	$51 \pm 10$	$35 \pm 9$	$63 \pm 17$
$Q_{11}$	9112.8	4835.4	16.5	1.4	-175.0	-196.1	$74 \pm 7$	$49 \pm 3$	$78 \pm 13$
$Q_{12}$	8851.8	4777.3	11.4	0.9	-250.0	-196.4	$92 \pm 24$	$57 \pm 11$	$76 \pm 15$
$Q_{13}$	8943.2	4884.0	16.7	1.6	-175.0	-195.3	$102 \pm 13$	$63 \pm 7$	$107 \pm 22$
$Q_{14}$	9025.3	4855.2	9.3	1.4	-175.0	-197.0	$56 \pm 12$	$56 \pm 10$	$60 \pm 15$
$Q_{15}$	9645.5	5040.2	7.3	1.7	-225.0	-196.1	$55 \pm 7$	$58 \pm 9$	$65 \pm 9$
$Q_{16}$	9728.7	4792.8	24.6	2.7	-175.0	-197.5	$60 \pm 6$	$46 \pm 4$	$65 \pm 9$
Statistics									
Max	9997.4	5040.2	24.6	4.4	-175.0	-194.0	126	107	124
Min	8649.5	4777.3	3.1	0.5	-250.0	-198.6	41	32	45
$\mu$ (Mean)	9333.5	4856.5	10.1	1.9	-203.1	-196.4	71	51	78
$\sigma$ (Std. Dev)	407.12	-	5.3	0.96	26.3	1.1	21	17	20
$\sigma/\sqrt{N}$ ( $N = 16$ )	101.8	-	1.3	0.2	6.6	0.3	5	4	5

#### A.4 Single-qubit gate calibration

Randomized benchmarking (RB) [75, 76] experiments were conducted using an  $XY$ -Clifford decomposition for both individual and simultaneous four-qubits gate fidelities. Detailed single-qubit gate fidelities are given in Table 5 and Table 6, and shown in Fig. 13 with an example of RB measured trace on  $Q_1$  shown in Fig. 13(d).

#### A.5 Two-qubit interaction and gate calibration

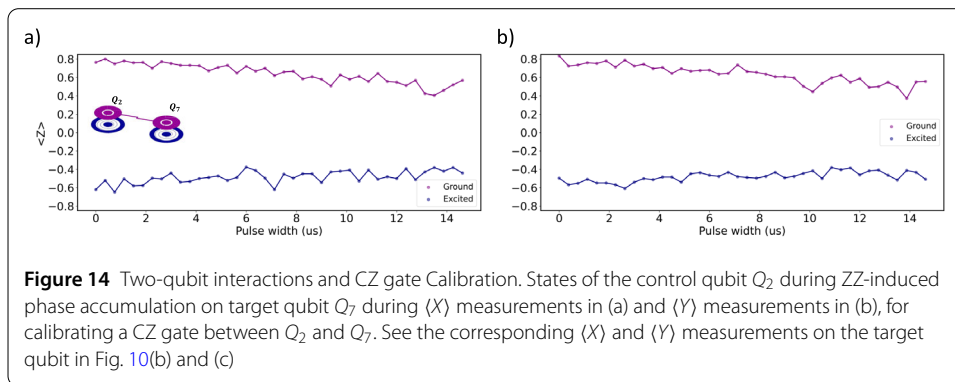
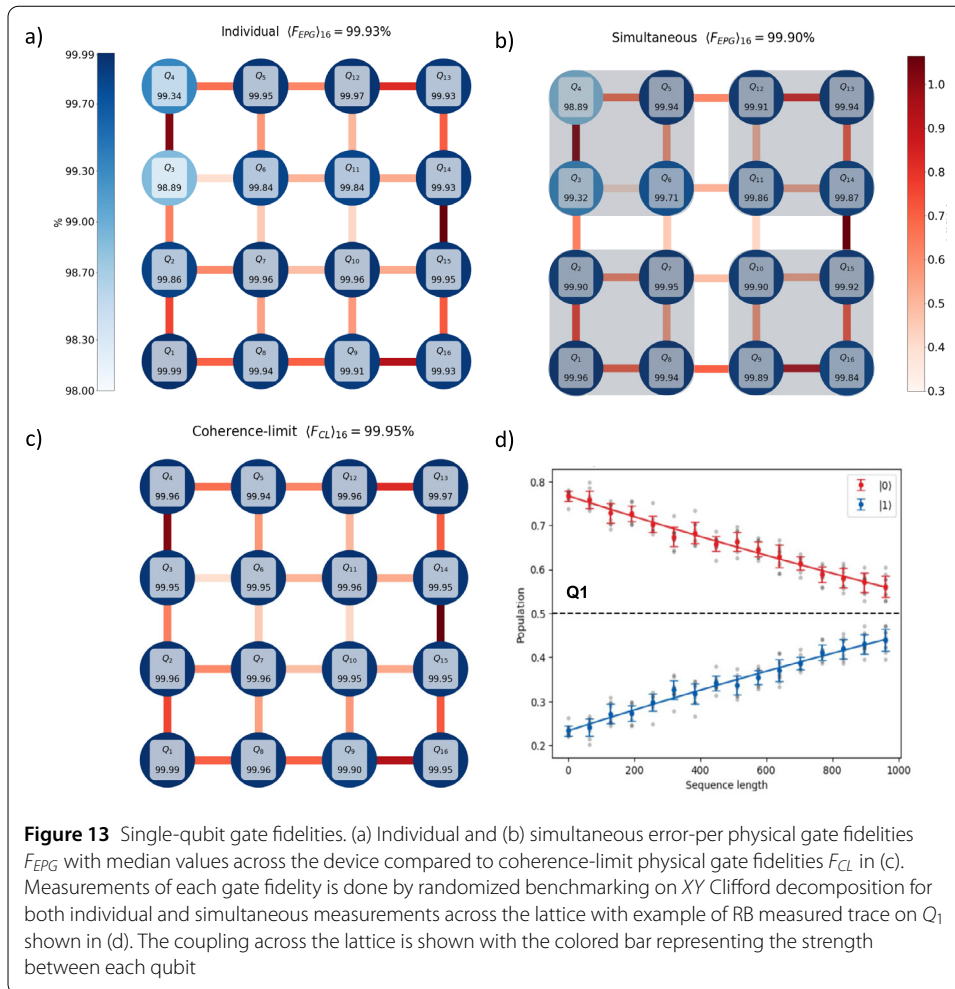
Figure 14 shows the measured state of the control qubit  $Q_2$  during the  $ZZ$ -induced phase accumulation used to calibrate the  $CZ$  gate with target qubit  $Q_7$ . During the Hamiltonian-tomography calibration sequence, we monitor the control-qubit response in both the  $\langle X \rangle$  (a) and  $\langle Y \rangle$  (b) bases while the Stark drive parameters are applied and the target-qubit phase evolution is measured (see the corresponding target-qubit data in Fig. 10(b) and (c)). This measurement serves as a direct diagnostic of drive-induced disturbances on the control qubit: any significant rotation, loss of contrast, or additional oscillatory structure would indicate unintended excitation and/or leakage of the control qubit during the interaction. In the operating regime used for the reported  $CZ$  calibration, the control-qubit traces remain stable and consistent with the intended control-state preparation, indicating that leakage of the control qubit during the  $ZZ$  phase-accumulation process is low. We therefore use this control-qubit monitor as a check to confirm that the chosen Stark-drive operating point yields coherent interaction dynamics without introducing control-qubit leakage or spurious drive-induced effects.

**Table 5** Individual qubits RB results

Parameters Qubits	EPC		EPC Error		$\mathcal{F}_{EPC}$		EPG		EPG Error		$\mathcal{F}_{EPG}$		CLG		CLG Error		$\mathcal{F}_{CLG}$	
	Error per Clifford Gate	Error	Error	Error	%	Error per Physical Gate	Error	Error	Error	Error	%	Coh. Lim. Error per Gate	Error	Error	%			
Q <sub>1</sub>	1.212E-04	1.167E-04	99.988	6.640E-05	99.993	1.111E-04	6.393E-05	99.993	1.730E-05	99.989	1.730E-05	99.989						
Q <sub>2</sub>	2.531E-03	2.520E-04	99.747	1.388E-03	99.861	3.689E-04	1.381E-04	99.861	5.286E-05	99.963	5.286E-05	99.963						
Q <sub>3</sub>	2.014E-02	1.237E-02	97.986	1.108E-02	98.892	5.375E-04	6.780E-03	98.892	6.706E-05	99.946	6.706E-05	99.946						
Q <sub>4</sub>	1.205E-02	2.777E-03	98.795	6.622E-03	99.338	3.915E-04	1.522E-03	99.338	5.258E-05	99.961	5.258E-05	99.961						
Q <sub>5</sub>	8.595E-04	7.357E-05	99.914	4.711E-04	99.953	5.919E-04	4.031E-05	99.953	1.012E-04	99.941	1.012E-04	99.941						
Q <sub>6</sub>	2.852E-03	2.096E-04	99.715	1.564E-03	99.844	4.672E-04	1.148E-04	99.844	4.662E-05	99.953	4.662E-05	99.953						
Q <sub>7</sub>	6.773E-04	1.818E-04	99.932	3.712E-04	99.963	3.739E-04	9.961E-05	99.963	4.903E-05	99.963	4.903E-05	99.963						
Q <sub>8</sub>	1.027E-03	6.242E-05	99.897	5.630E-04	99.944	4.406E-04	3.420E-05	99.944	3.763E-05	99.956	3.763E-05	99.956						
Q <sub>9</sub>	1.591E-03	8.031E-05	99.841	8.719E-04	99.913	1.024E-03	4.400E-05	99.913	2.056E-04	99.898	2.056E-04	99.898						
Q <sub>10</sub>	6.621E-04	1.169E-04	99.934	3.629E-04	99.964	5.138E-04	6.406E-05	99.964	9.399E-05	99.949	9.399E-05	99.949						
Q <sub>11</sub>	2.821E-03	2.885E-04	99.718	1.547E-03	99.845	3.917E-04	1.581E-04	99.845	4.464E-05	99.961	4.464E-05	99.961						
Q <sub>12</sub>	6.173E-04	9.181E-05	99.938	3.383E-04	99.966	3.720E-04	5.031E-05	99.966	5.922E-05	99.963	5.922E-05	99.963						
Q <sub>13</sub>	1.299E-03	1.224E-04	99.870	7.122E-04	99.929	2.850E-04	6.706E-05	99.929	4.043E-05	99.971	4.043E-05	99.971						
Q <sub>14</sub>	1.355E-03	8.207E-05	99.865	7.426E-04	99.926	5.122E-04	4.497E-05	99.926	9.179E-05	99.949	9.179E-05	99.949						
Q <sub>15</sub>	9.704E-04	7.331E-05	99.903	5.318E-04	99.947	4.898E-04	4.017E-05	99.947	4.853E-05	99.951	4.853E-05	99.951						
Q <sub>16</sub>	1.353E-03	1.367E-04	99.865	7.419E-04	99.926	4.746E-04	7.490E-05	99.926	4.579E-05	99.953	4.579E-05	99.953						

**Table 6** Simultaneous four-qubit sets RB results

Parameters Qubits	EPC		EPC Error		$\mathcal{F}$		EPG		EPG Error		$\mathcal{F}$		CLG		CLG Error		$\mathcal{F}$	
	Error per Clifford Gate	Error per Physical Gate	Error	%	Error per Clifford Gate	Error per Physical Gate	Error	%	Error per Clifford Gate	Error per Physical Gate	Error	%	Coh. Lim. Error per Gate	Error	%			
Q <sub>1</sub>	7.152E-04		1.149E-04	99.928	3.919E-04		6.299E-05	99.961	1.111E-04	1.730E-05	99.989							
Q <sub>2</sub>	1.782E-03		3.456E-04	99.822	9.768E-04		1.894E-04	99.902	3.689E-04	5.286E-05	99.963							
Q <sub>3</sub>	1.233E-02		2.312E-03	98.767	6.775E-03		1.267E-03	99.323	5.375E-04	6.706E-05	99.946							
Q <sub>4</sub>	2.024E-02		7.128E-03	97.976	1.114E-02		3.906E-03	98.886	3.915E-04	5.258E-05	99.961							
Q <sub>5</sub>	1.137E-03		7.717E-05	99.886	6.232E-04		4.228E-05	99.938	5.919E-04	1.012E-04	99.941							
Q <sub>6</sub>	5.231E-03		6.081E-04	99.477	2.870E-03		3.332E-04	99.713	4.672E-04	4.662E-05	99.953							
Q <sub>7</sub>	9.912E-04		1.300E-04	99.901	5.432E-04		7.122E-05	99.946	3.739E-04	4.903E-05	99.963							
Q <sub>8</sub>	1.170E-03		1.065E-04	99.883	6.412E-04		5.836E-05	99.936	4.406E-04	3.763E-05	99.956							
Q <sub>9</sub>	1.909E-03		1.267E-04	99.809	1.047E-03		6.943E-05	99.895	1.024E-03	2.056E-04	99.898							
Q <sub>10</sub>	1.802E-03		2.894E-04	99.820	9.879E-04		1.586E-04	99.901	5.138E-04	9.399E-05	99.949							
Q <sub>11</sub>	2.529E-03		1.516E-04	99.747	1.387E-03		8.307E-05	99.861	3.917E-04	4.464E-05	99.961							
Q <sub>12</sub>	1.565E-03		1.710E-04	99.844	8.578E-04		9.369E-05	99.914	3.720E-04	5.922E-05	99.963							
Q <sub>13</sub>	1.003E-03		9.206E-05	99.900	5.499E-04		5.044E-05	99.945	2.850E-04	4.043E-05	99.971							
Q <sub>14</sub>	2.383E-03		1.273E-04	99.762	1.307E-03		6.974E-05	99.869	5.122E-04	9.179E-05	99.949							
Q <sub>15</sub>	1.451E-03		9.408E-05	99.855	7.955E-04		5.155E-05	99.920	4.898E-04	4.853E-05	99.951							
Q <sub>16</sub>	2.848E-03		3.135E-04	99.715	1.561E-03		1.718E-04	99.844	4.746E-04	4.579E-05	99.953							



**Acknowledgements**

This work has received funding from the United Kingdom Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) under Grants No. EP/N015118/1, No. EP/T001062/1 and No. EP/W024772/1. M.B. acknowledges support from EPSRC QT Fellowship under Grant No. EP/W027992/1. S.C. acknowledges support from Schmidt Science. We would like to acknowledge the Superfab Nanofabrication facility at Royal Holloway, University of London, where part of device fabrication was performed.

**Author contributions**

Mohammed Alghadeer: Methodology; Fabrication; Data curation; Writing–original draft; Writing–review & editing. Shuxiang Cao: Methodology; Data curation; Writing–review & editing. Simone D. Fasciati: Methodology; Fabrication; Writing–review & editing. Michele Piscitelli: Fabrication; Writing–review & editing. Paul C. Gow: Fabrication;

Writing–review & editing. James C. Gates: Fabrication; Writing–review & editing. Mustafa Bakr: Methodology; Resources; Supervision; Writing–review & editing. Peter J. Leek: Methodology; Resources; Supervision; Writing–review & editing.

### Funding information

This work has received funding from the United Kingdom Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) under Grants No. EP/N015118/1, No. EP/T001062/1 and No. EP/W024772/1. M.B. acknowledges support from EPSRC QT Fellowship under Grant No. EP/W027992/1.

### Data Availability

Data is provided within the manuscript or supplementary information files.

## Declarations

### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Department of Physics, Clarendon Laboratory, University of Oxford, Oxford, OX1 3PU, UK. <sup>2</sup>Optoelectronics Research Centre, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ, UK.

Received: 11 November 2025 Accepted: 5 January 2026 Published online: 26 January 2026

## References

1. Kim Y, et al. Evidence for the utility of quantum computing before fault tolerance. *Nature*. 2023;618:500–5.
2. Preskill J. Quantum computing 40 years later. In: Feynman lectures on computation. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2023. p. 193–244.
3. Shor PW. Scheme for reducing decoherence in quantum computer memory. *Phys Rev A*. 1995;52:R2493.
4. Gottesman D. Stabilizer codes and quantum error correction. 1997. . California Institute of Technology.
5. Putterman H, et al. Hardware-efficient quantum error correction using concatenated bosonic qubits. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2409.13025](https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.13025).
6. Brock BL, et al. Quantum error correction of qudits beyond break-even. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2409.15065](https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.15065).
7. Lacroix N, et al. Scaling and logic in the color code on a superconducting quantum processor. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2412.14256](https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.14256).
8. Acharya R, et al. Quantum error correction below the surface code threshold. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2408.13687](https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.13687).
9. Eickbusch A, et al. Demonstrating dynamic surface codes. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2412.14360](https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.14360).
10. Karamlou AH, et al. Probing entanglement in a 2D hard-core Bose-Hubbard lattice. *Nature*. 2024. 1–6.
11. Rosenberg E, et al. Dynamics of magnetization at infinite temperature in a Heisenberg spin chain. *Science*. 2024;384:48–53.
12. Cochran TA, et al. Visualizing dynamics of charges and strings in  $(2 + 1)$  d lattice gauge theories. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2409.17142](https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.17142).
13. Gyawali G, et al. Observation of disorder-free localization and efficient disorder averaging on a quantum processor. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2410.06557](https://arxiv.org/abs/2410.06557).
14. Measurement-induced entanglement and teleportation on a noisy quantum processor. *Nature*. 2023;622:481–486.
15. Malz D, Smith A. Topological two-dimensional Floquet lattice on a single superconducting qubit. *Phys Rev Lett*. 2021;126:163602.
16. Daley AJ, et al. Practical quantum advantage in quantum simulation. *Nature*. 2022;607:667–76.
17. Siddiqi I. Engineering high-coherence superconducting qubits. *Nat Rev, Mater*. 2021;6:875–91.
18. Alghadeer M, et al. Characterization of nanostructural imperfections in superconducting quantum circuits. 2025. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2501.15059](https://arxiv.org/abs/2501.15059).
19. Alghadeer M, et al. Mitigating coherent loss in superconducting circuits using molecular self-assembled monolayers. *Sci Rep*. 2024;14:27340.
20. Alghadeer M, et al. Surface passivation of niobium superconducting quantum circuits using self-assembled monolayers. *ACS Appl Mater Interfaces*. 2022;15:2319–28.
21. Chistolini T, et al. Performance of Superconducting Resonators Suspended on SiN Membranes. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2405.01784](https://arxiv.org/abs/2405.01784).
22. Altoé MVP, et al. Localization and mitigation of loss in niobium superconducting circuits. *PRX Quantum*. 2022;3:020312.
23. Bakr M, et al. Multiplexed Readout of Superconducting Qubits Using a 3D Re-entrant Cavity Filter. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2412.14853](https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.14853).
24. Bakr M. Dynamic Josephson junction metasurfaces for multiplexed control of superconducting qubits. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2411.01345](https://arxiv.org/abs/2411.01345).
25. Fasciati SD, et al. Complementing the transmon by integrating a geometric shunt inductor. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2410.10416](https://arxiv.org/abs/2410.10416).
26. Mohseni M, et al. How to build a quantum supercomputer: scaling challenges and opportunities. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2411.10406](https://arxiv.org/abs/2411.10406).
27. Zanuz DC, et al. Mitigating losses of superconducting qubits strongly coupled to defect modes. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2407.18746](https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.18746).
28. Abdurakhimov LV, et al. Identification of different types of high-frequency defects in superconducting qubits. *PRX Quantum*. 2022;3:040332.
29. Bilmes A, et al. Resolving the positions of defects in superconducting quantum bits. *Sci Rep*. 2020;10:3090.

30. Krinner S, et al. Engineering cryogenic setups for 100-qubit scale superconducting circuit systems. *EPJ Quantum Technol.* 2019;6:2.
31. Le NH, Cykiert M, Ginossar E. Scalable and robust quantum computing on qubit arrays with fixed coupling. *npj Quantum Inf.* 2023;9:1.
32. Koch J, et al. Charge-insensitive qubit design derived from the Cooper pair box. *Phys Rev A, At Mol Opt Phys.* 2007;76:042319.
33. Place AP, et al. New material platform for superconducting transmon qubits with coherence times exceeding 0.3 milliseconds. *Nat Commun.* 2021;12:1779.
34. Yan F, et al. Tunable coupling scheme for implementing high-fidelity two-qubit gates. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2018;10:054062.
35. Ketterer A, Wellens T. Characterizing crosstalk of superconducting transmon processors. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2023;20:034065.
36. Tripathi V, et al. Suppression of crosstalk in superconducting qubits using dynamical decoupling. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2022;18:024068.
37. Murali P, McKay DC, Martonosi M, Javadi-Abhari A. Software mitigation of crosstalk on noisy intermediate-scale quantum computers. In: *Proceedings of the twenty-fifth international conference on architectural support for programming languages and operating systems.* 2020. p. 1001–16.
38. Krinner S, et al. Benchmarking coherent errors in controlled-phase gates due to spectator qubits. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2020;14:024042.
39. Zhao P, et al. Quantum crosstalk analysis for simultaneous gate operations on superconducting qubits. *PRX Quantum.* 2022;3:020301.
40. Fors SP, Fernández-Pendás J, Kockum AF. Comprehensive explanation of ZZ coupling in superconducting qubits. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2408.15402](https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.15402).
41. Chow JM, et al. Simple all-microwave entangling gate for fixed-frequency superconducting qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2011;107:080502.
42. Chow JM, et al. Microwave-activated conditional-phase gate for superconducting qubits. *New J Phys.* 2013;15:115012.
43. Xu Y, et al. High-fidelity, high-scalability two-qubit gate scheme for superconducting qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2020;125:240503.
44. Wei K, et al. Hamiltonian engineering with multicolor drives for fast entangling gates and quantum crosstalk cancellation. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2022;129:060501.
45. Xu Y, et al. High-fidelity, high-scalability two-qubit gate scheme for superconducting qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2020;125:240503.
46. Colloido MC, et al. Implementation of conditional phase gates based on tunable zz interactions. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2020;125:240502.
47. Sung Y, et al. Realization of high-fidelity CZ and ZZ-free iSWAP gates with a tunable coupler. *Phys Rev X.* 2021;11:021058.
48. Stehlik J, et al. Tunable coupling architecture for fixed-frequency transmon superconducting qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2021;127:080505.
49. Long J, et al. A universal quantum gate set for transmon qubits with strong ZZ interactions. 2021. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2103.12305](https://arxiv.org/abs/2103.12305).
50. Chu J, Yan F. Coupler-assisted controlled-phase gate with enhanced adiabaticity. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2021;16:054020.
51. Chen Y, et al. Voltage-activated parametric entangling gates based on gatemon qubits. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2023;20:044012.
52. Ganzhorn M, et al. Benchmarking the noise sensitivity of different parametric two-qubit gates in a single superconducting quantum computing platform. *Phys Rev Res.* 2020;2:033447.
53. McKay DC, Sheldon S, Smolin JA, Chow JM, Gambetta JM. Three-qubit randomized benchmarking. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2019;122:200502.
54. Bharti K, et al. Noisy intermediate-scale quantum algorithms. *Rev Mod Phys.* 2022;94:015004.
55. Megrant A, Chen Y. Scaling up superconducting quantum computers. *Nat Electron.* 2025;1–3.
56. Kosen S, et al. Signal crosstalk in a flip-chip quantum processor. *PRX Quantum.* 2024;5:030350.
57. Das RN, et al. Reworkable superconducting qubit package for quantum computing. In: *2024 IEEE 74th Electronic Components and Technology Conference (ECTC).* Los Alamitos: IEEE; 2024. p. 427–32.
58. Huang S, et al. Microwave package design for superconducting quantum processors. *PRX Quantum.* 2021;2:020306.
59. Spring P, Tsunoda T, Vlastakis B, Leek P. Modeling enclosures for large-scale superconducting quantum circuits. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2020;14:024061.
60. Spring PA, et al. High coherence and low cross-talk in a tileable 3D integrated superconducting circuit architecture. *Sci Adv.* 2022;8:eabl6698.
61. Krasnok A, et al. Superconducting microwave cavities and qubits for quantum information systems. *Applied Physics Reviews.* 2024;11.
62. Rahamim J, et al. Double-sided coaxial circuit qed with out-of-plane wiring. *Appl Phys Lett.* 2017;110.
63. DiCarlo L, et al. Demonstration of two-qubit algorithms with a superconducting quantum processor. *Nature.* 2009;460:240–4.
64. Chow JM, et al. Microwave-activated conditional-phase gate for superconducting qubits. *New J Phys.* 2013;15:115012.
65. Magesan E, Gambetta JM. Effective Hamiltonian models of the cross-resonance gate. *Phys Rev A.* 2020;101:052308.
66. Solgun F, DiVincenzo DP, Gambetta JM. Simple impedance response formulas for the dispersive interaction rates in the effective Hamiltonians of low anharmonicity superconducting qubits. *IEEE Trans Microw Theory Tech.* 2019;67:928–48.
67. Solgun F, Srinivasan S. Direct calculation of ZZ interaction rates in multimode circuit quantum electrodynamics. *Phys Rev Appl.* 2022;18:044025.
68. Blais A, Grimsmo AL, Girvin SM, Wallraff A. Circuit quantum electrodynamics. *Rev Mod Phys.* 2021;93:025005.
69. Alghadeer M, et al. Crosstalk dispersion and spatial scaling in superconducting qubit arrays. 2025. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2512.18148](https://arxiv.org/abs/2512.18148).

70. Hertzberg JB, et al. Laser-annealing Josephson junctions for yielding scaled-up superconducting quantum processors. *npj Quantum Inf.* 2021;7:129.
71. Bal M, et al. Systematic improvements in transmon qubit coherence enabled by niobium surface encapsulation. *npj Quantum Inf.* 2024;10:43.
72. Chang RD, et al. Eliminating surface oxides of superconducting circuits with noble metal encapsulation. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2408.13051](https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.13051).
73. Karuppanan SK, et al. Improved interface of niobium superconducting resonator with ruthenium as a capping layer. *ACS Appl Electron Mater.* 2024.
74. Wallraff A, et al. Sideband transitions and two-tone spectroscopy of a superconducting qubit strongly coupled to an on-chip cavity. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2007;99:050501.
75. Chow J, et al. Randomized benchmarking and process tomography for gate errors in a solid-state qubit. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2009;102:090502.
76. Gambetta JM, et al. Characterization of addressability by simultaneous randomized benchmarking. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2012;109:240504.
77. Motzoi F, Gambetta JM, Rebentrost P, Wilhelm FK. Simple pulses for elimination of leakage in weakly nonlinear qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2009;103:110501.
78. McKay DC, Wood CJ, Sheldon S, Chow JM, Gambetta JM. Efficient z gates for quantum computing. *Phys Rev A.* 2017;96:022330.
79. Mitchell BK, et al. Hardware-efficient microwave-activated tunable coupling between superconducting qubits. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2021;127:200502. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.127.200502>.
80. Wei KX, et al. Hamiltonian engineering with multicolor drives for fast entangling gates and quantum crosstalk cancellation. *Phys Rev Lett.* 2022;129:060501. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.129.060501>.
81. Wei K, et al. Quantum crosstalk cancellation for fast entangling gates and improved multi-qubit performance. 2021. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2106.00675](https://arxiv.org/abs/2106.00675).
82. Cao S, et al. Agents for self-driving laboratories applied to quantum computing. 2024. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2412.07978](https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.07978).
83. Alghadeer M, et al. Psitrum: an open source simulator for universal quantum computers. *IET Quantum Commun.* 2024;5:586–600.
84. Alghadeer M, et al. Psitrum and universal simulation of quantum computers. In: 2022 IEEE International Conference on Quantum Computing and Engineering (QCE). Los Alamitos: IEEE; 2022. p. 837–8.
85. Cao S, et al. Emulating two qubits with a four-level transmon qudit for variational quantum algorithms. 2023. arXiv preprint. [arXiv:2303.04796](https://arxiv.org/abs/2303.04796).
86. Cao S. Implementation of variational quantum algorithms on superconducting qudits. Ph.D. thesis. University of Oxford; 2023.
87. Koch J, et al. Charge-insensitive qubit design derived from the Cooper pair box. *Phys Rev A.* 2007;76:042319.
88. Peterer M. Experiments on multi-level superconducting qubits and coaxial circuit QED. Ph.D. thesis. University of Oxford; 2016.
89. Dolan G, Dunsmuir J. Very small (20 nm) lithographic wires, dots, rings, and tunnel junctions. *Physica B, Condens Matter.* 1988;152:7–13.
90. Xu Y, et al. Qubic: an open-source fpga-based control and measurement system for superconducting quantum information processors. *IEEE Trans Quantum Eng.* 2021;2:1–11.
91. Huang G, et al. Qubic 2.0: a flexible advanced full stack quantum bit control system. In: 2023 IEEE international conference on Quantum Computing and Engineering (QCE). vol. 2. Los Alamitos: IEEE; 2023. p. 248–9.

## Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.