

7.4

Equation 7.6 gives the probability per unit energy for finding an electron in a given energy state E at a given temperature T :

$$P(T, E) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\{(E - E_F)/kT\}},$$

where E_F is the Fermi energy and k is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant and equals $8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV K}^{-1}$.

The bandgap energy for silicon is the difference in energy between the top of the valence band and the bottom of the conduction band $E_G = E - E_F = 1.12 \text{ eV}$ (Table 7.4).

By taking the ratio of P at the two temperatures, we can estimate the relative probabilities:

$$P(E = E_G)/P(E = E_F) = \frac{\frac{1}{1 + \exp\{(E - E_F)/kT\}}}{1/2}.$$

Let's make a plot to compare the prediction from Fermi-Dirac statistics (Equation 7.6) to that of Boltzmann (Equation 7.3).

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In [11]: %matplotlib inline

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

StefanBoltzmann_const = 8.62e-5 # eV/K

def FermiDirac_probability(T, E=1.12):

    return 2./(1. + np.exp(E/StefanBoltzmann_const/T))

def Boltzmann_probability(T, E=1.12, gi=1, gj=1):
    return gi/gj*np.exp(-E/StefanBoltzmann_const/T)

temperatures = np.linspace(1., 1000., 1000)
FD_prob = FermiDirac_probability(temperatures)
B_prob = Boltzmann_probability(temperatures)

fig = plt.figure(figsize=(6, 6))
ax = fig.add_subplot(111)

ax.loglog(temperatures, FD_prob, lw=3, label="Fermi-Diract")
ax.loglog(temperatures, B_prob, lw=3, ls='--', label="Boltzmann")

ax.grid(True)
ax.legend(loc='best', fontsize=24)
ax.tick_params(labelsize=18)
ax.set_xlabel(r'$T$, \left( {\rm K} \right)$', fontsize=24)
ax.set_ylabel("Rel. Prob.", fontsize=24)
ax.axvline(3.)
ax.axvline(300.)

```

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/var/folders/0p/vptds8v9203dlqkw0pv01n100000gr/T/ipykernel_50529/2356649113.py:10: RuntimeWarning: overflow encountered in exp

```

```

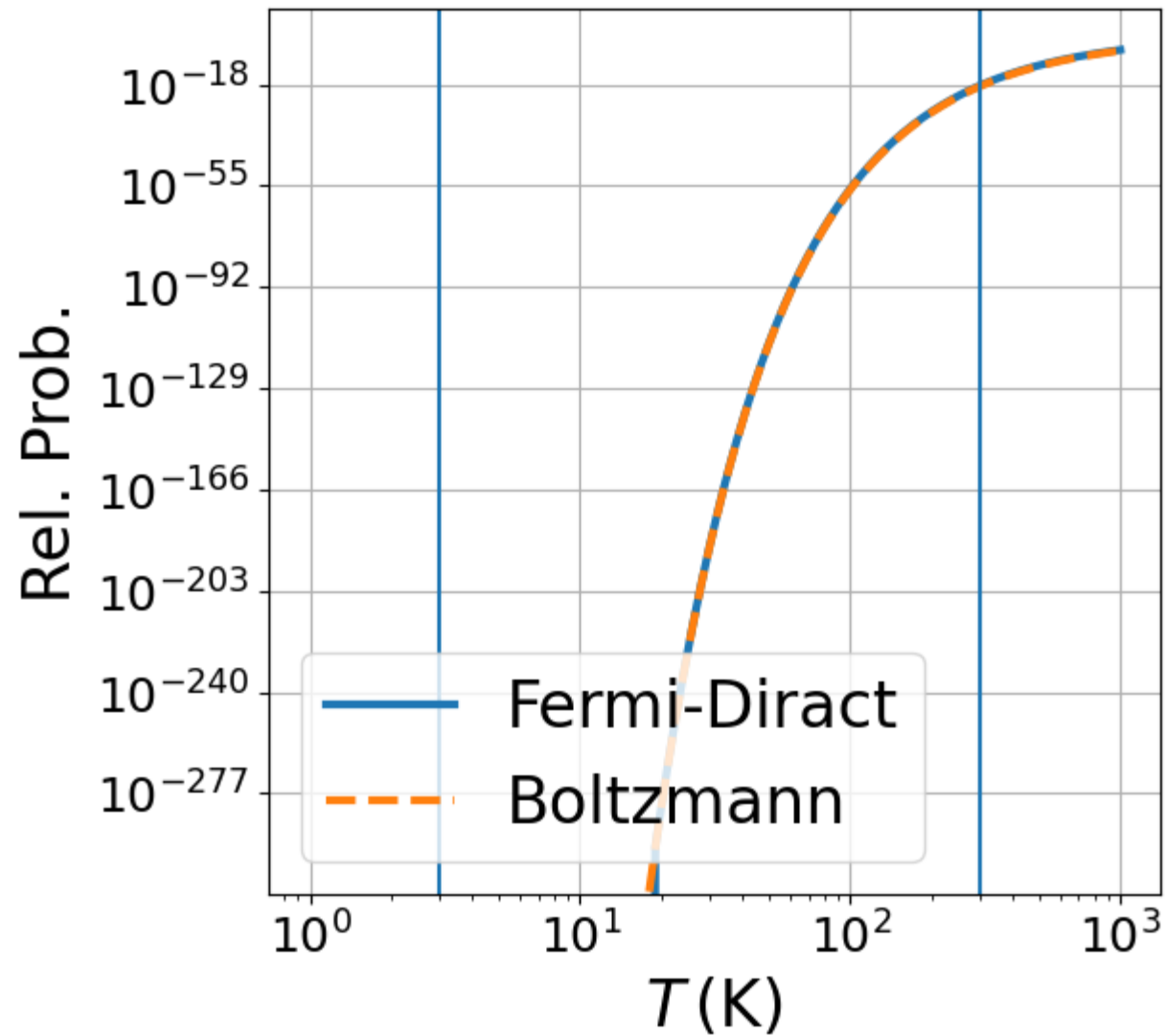
    return 2./(1. + np.exp(E/StefanBoltzmann_const/T))

```

```

Out[11]: <matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x7fef9a44700>

```



You can see that, even for $T \rightarrow 1000\text{ K}$, there is a very small probability to occupy the conduction band.

7.5

We're told to assume the electrical conductivity depends on the number density of electrons, which we can estimate as a function of bandgap energy E_G and temperature T using Equation 7.9:

$$n_N = AT^{3/2}e^{-\frac{E_G}{kT}}.$$

For silicon, $E_G = 1.12$ eV and for germanium, $E_G = 0.67$ eV (Table 7.4).

So we're asked to compare n_N for $T = 40$ K and for $T = 40$ K + 1 K for these two semiconductors. This is a very small difference $\Delta T/T = 1/40$, so let's Taylor-expand n_N about small ΔT :

$$(T + \Delta T)^{3/2} = T^{3/2} \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right)^{3/2} \approx T^{3/2} \left(1 + \frac{3\Delta T}{2T}\right)$$

$$\exp\left(-\frac{E}{k(T + \Delta T)}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{E}{kT} \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right)^{-1}\right) \approx \exp\left(-\frac{E}{kT} \left(1 - \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right)\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{E}{kT}\right) \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT} \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow T^{3/2} e^{-\frac{E}{kT}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{3\Delta T}{2T}\right)\right) \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT} \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right).$$

The term on the left outside the parentheses is just number density of electrons at temperature T , so taking the ratio gives

$$\frac{n_N(T + \Delta T)}{n_N(T)} \approx \left(1 + \left(\frac{3\Delta T}{2T}\right)\right) \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT} \frac{\Delta T}{T}\right).$$

Again, we can plot this expression.

```

In [1]: %matplotlib inline

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

StefanBoltzmann_const = 8.62e-5 # eV/K

def relative_conductivity(Delta_T, E, T=40.):

    return (1. + 3*Delta_T/2/T)*np.exp(E/StefanBoltzmann_const/T*Delta_T/T)

Delta_T = 10*np.linspace(-1, 1, 100)
E_Si = 1.12
E_Ge = 0.67
Si_prob = relative_conductivity(Delta_T, E_Si)
Ge_prob = relative_conductivity(Delta_T, E_Ge)

fig = plt.figure(figsize=(6, 6))
ax = fig.add_subplot(111)

ax.loglog(Delta_T, Si_prob, lw=3, label="Silicon")
ax.loglog(Delta_T, Ge_prob, lw=3, ls='--', label="Germanium")

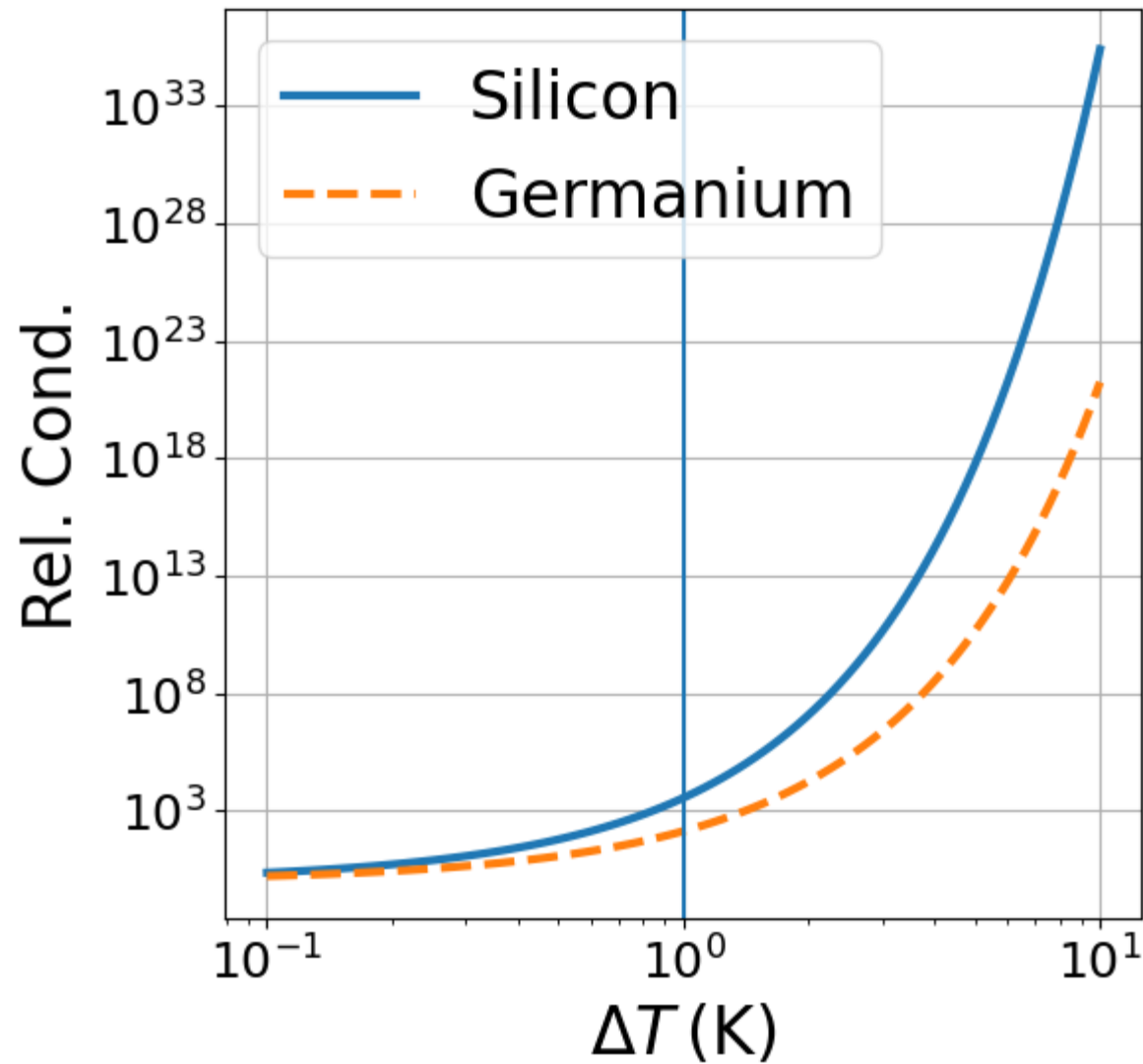
ax.grid(True)
ax.legend(loc='best', fontsize=24)
ax.tick_params(labelsize=18)
ax.set_xlabel(r'$\Delta T$, \left( {\rm K} \right)$', fontsize=24)
ax.set_ylabel("Rel. Cond.", fontsize=24)
ax.axvline(1.)

```

```

Out[1]: <matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x7f7b60793b50>

```



7.6

The quantum efficiency q is a measure of how readily photons are converted into current by the CCD, and it depends on the surface reflectivity R , the absorption coefficient α , and the layer thickness z .

Equation 7.11 tells us how R depends on the index of refraction:

$$R = \left(\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2,$$

where n_1 is the index for air (≈ 1) and n_2 is the index for silicon (we're told $n_2 = 4$ at 500 nm).

With these numbers, we get

$$R = \left(\frac{1 - 4.4}{1 + 4.4} \right)^2 = 0.40,$$

which means 40% of the incident energy is reflected, leaving 60% to be absorbed the CCD.

Next, we need to determine the absorption coefficient for silicon at 500 nm. Figure 7.10 gives that information. The figure suggests $\alpha = 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. (Unfortunately, Chrome has a typo in the figure caption. You can see a similar plot with the right units here - <https://www.pveducation.org/pvcdrom/materials/optical-properties-of-silicon>.)

So we can estimate the required thickness z to achieve a given quantum efficiency q using

$$q = (1 - R)e^{-\alpha z} \Rightarrow z = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{1-R}{q}\right)}{\alpha} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{0.6}{0.4}\right)}{\left(10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}\right)} \approx 405 \text{ nm}.$$

8.1

We're told we start out with a quantum efficiency of 40% for our detector.

Referring to Problem 7.6 above, we can cast the quantum efficiency as

$$q = (1 - R)e^{-\alpha z}.$$

We are told that the reflectivity of the detector is reduced from 30% to 5%. Since nothing else about the detector has changed, we can calculate the ratio of the new to the old efficiency as

$$\frac{q'}{q} = \frac{1 - R'}{1 - R},$$

where the primed quantities represent the new values.

Solving for q' gives

$$q' = q \left(\frac{1 - R'}{1 - R} \right) = (0.4) \left(\frac{1 - 0.05}{1 - 0.3} \right) = 0.54.$$

8.2

Equation 8.5 tells us

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{(\text{SNR}_{\text{out}})^2}{(\text{SNR}_{\text{perfect}})^2} = \frac{(\text{SNR}_{\text{out}})^2}{N_{\text{in}}}.$$

We are told that the measurement involves 10^4 photons, which will take as N_{in} . So next we'll need the signal-to-noise ratio for the voltages, SNR_{out} .

Our average voltage (the signal) is

$$S = \frac{(113 + 120 + 115) \text{ mV}}{3} = 116 \text{ mV}.$$

And the noise will be the standard deviation of the voltage measurements:

$$\sigma = 3 \text{ mV}.$$

So now we can write our DQE as

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{\left(\frac{116 \text{ mV}}{3 \text{ mV}}\right)^2}{10^4} \approx 0.15.$$

8.3

The detector in this problem has a quantum efficiency of q . That means that, for every N_{in} photon that strikes the surface of the detector, $N_{\text{detect}} = qN_{\text{in}}$ are actually detected (and $(1 - q)N_{\text{in}}$ are NOT detected).

The detector is also said to have a quantum yield of y with an associated uncertainty $\sigma(y)$. That means that each of the $N_{\text{detect}} = qN_{\text{in}}$ induces $N_{\text{events}} = yN_{\text{detect}}$ events that are counted up by the detector.

So, as described by Equation 2.31 back in Chapter 2, the uncertainty $\sigma(N_{\text{events}})$ associated with the events is given by

$$\sigma^2(N_{\text{events}}) = \left(\frac{\partial N_{\text{events}}}{\partial N_{\text{detect}}}\right)^2 \sigma^2(N_{\text{detect}}) + \left(\frac{\partial N_{\text{events}}}{\partial y}\right)^2 \sigma^2(y) = y^2 N_{\text{detect}} + N_{\text{detect}}^2 \sigma^2(y),$$

taking Poisson error bars for N_{detect} (i.e., $\sigma^2(N_{\text{detect}}) = N_{\text{detect}}$).

To calculate DQE, we need $(\text{SNR})_{\text{out}}^2$ and $(\text{SNR})_{\text{perfect}}^2$. The latter is easy:

$$(\text{SNR})_{\text{perfect}}^2 = N_{\text{in}}.$$

The former is

$$(\text{SNR})_{\text{out}}^2 = \frac{y^2 N_{\text{detect}}^2}{y^2 N_{\text{detect}} + N_{\text{detect}}^2 \sigma^2(y)} = \frac{N_{\text{detect}}^2}{N_{\text{detect}} + N_{\text{detect}}^2 \left(\frac{\sigma(y)}{y}\right)^2}$$

Now to calculate DQE:

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{\frac{N_{\text{detect}}^2}{N_{\text{detect}} + N_{\text{detect}}^2 \left(\frac{\sigma(y)}{y} \right)^2}}{N_{\text{in}}}$$

But remember $N_{\text{detect}} = qN_{\text{in}}$, so

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{\frac{q^2 N_{\text{in}}^2}{qN_{\text{in}} + q^2 N_{\text{in}}^2 \left(\frac{\sigma(y)}{y} \right)^2}}{N_{\text{in}}} = \frac{q^2 N_{\text{in}}}{qN_{\text{in}} + q^2 N_{\text{in}}^2 \left(\frac{\sigma(y)}{y} \right)^2} = \frac{q}{1 + qN_{\text{in}} \left(\frac{\sigma(y)}{y} \right)^2}$$

So you can see that, if $\sigma(y) = 0$, then $\text{DQE} = q$. However, since all numbers are positive, if $\sigma(y) > 0$, then $\text{DQE} < q$.

8.4

We'll need to recall the definition of QE (Equation 8.1):

$$\text{QE} = \frac{N_{\text{detect}}}{N_{\text{in}}}.$$

We're told that $\text{QE} = 0.9$, so if 1000 photons are incident in the 1-second exposure, we'll actually detect $(0.9) \times 1000 = 900$ of them.

Then recall the definition of DQE (Equation 8.5):

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{(\text{SNR})_{\text{out}}^2}{(\text{SNR})_{\text{perfect}}^2}.$$

For our detector we have a signal $S = 900$ photons and sources of noise including the dark current

$(1 \text{ photon s}^{-1}) \times (1 \text{ s}) = 1$ photon and a read noise of 3 photons.

Therefore, our out SNR is

$$(\text{SNR})_{\text{out}} = \frac{900}{\sqrt{(900 + 1 + 3) + 1 + 3}} \approx 30.$$

A perfect detector would have

$$(\text{SNR})_{\text{perfect}} = \sqrt{1000} \approx 32.$$

So

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{30^2}{32^2} = 0.89.$$

For the 4-second exposure, we have all the same numbers except now the dark current is

$(1 \text{ photon s}^{-1}) \times (400 \text{ s}) = 400$ photon.

So

$$(\text{SNR})_{\text{out}} = \frac{900}{\sqrt{(900 + 400 + 3) + 400 + 3}} \approx 22.$$

And

$$\text{DQE} = \frac{22^2}{32^2} = 0.47.$$