

# Johnson Noise

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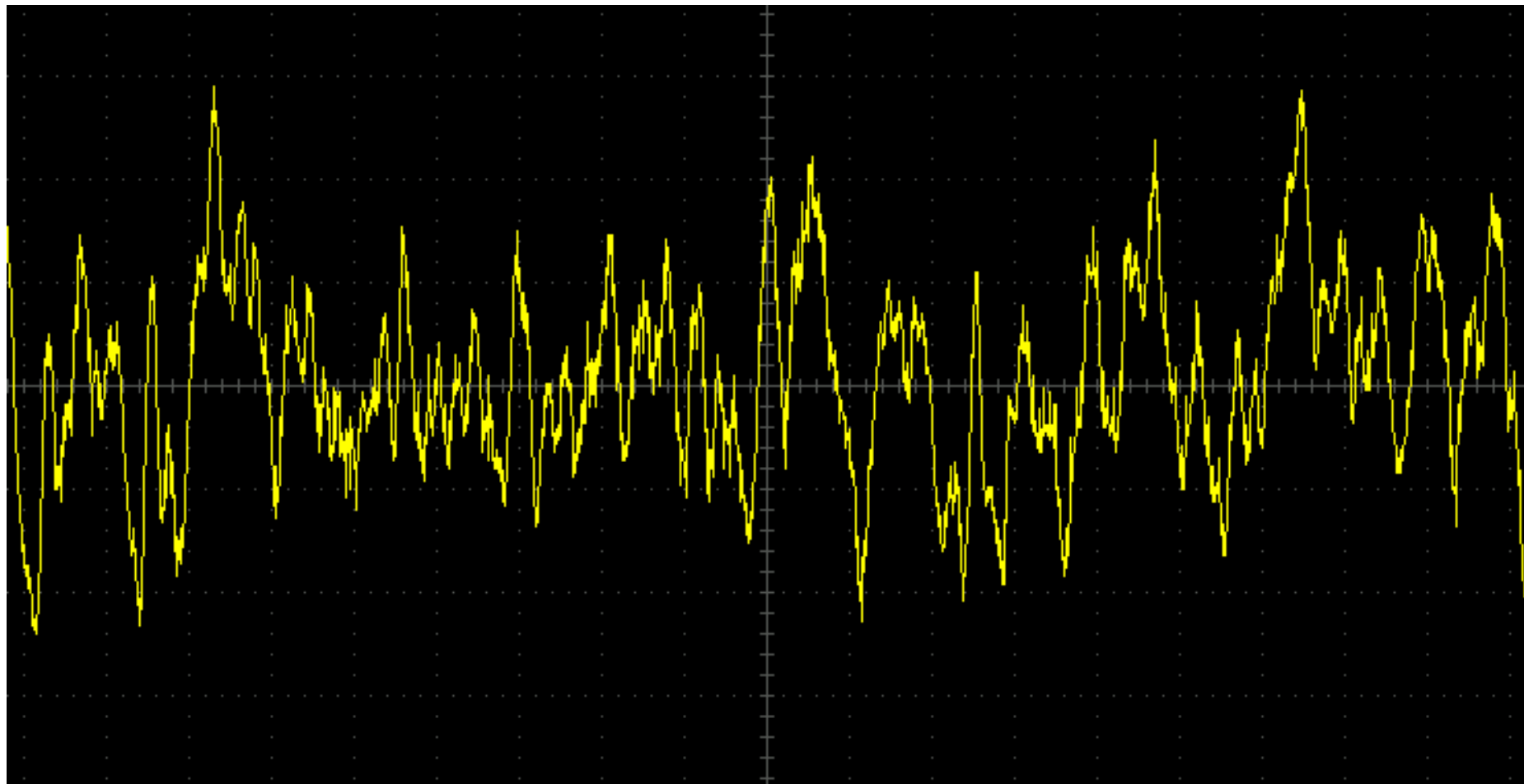
# History

- 1928 Bell Labs: John B. Johnson measures a thermally varying electrical noise experimentally
- Colleague Harry Nyquist publishes a theoretical explanation soon after

# Thermal Noise

- Thermal agitation of charge carriers produces fluctuation of voltage across a resistor

*Voltage*



*Time*

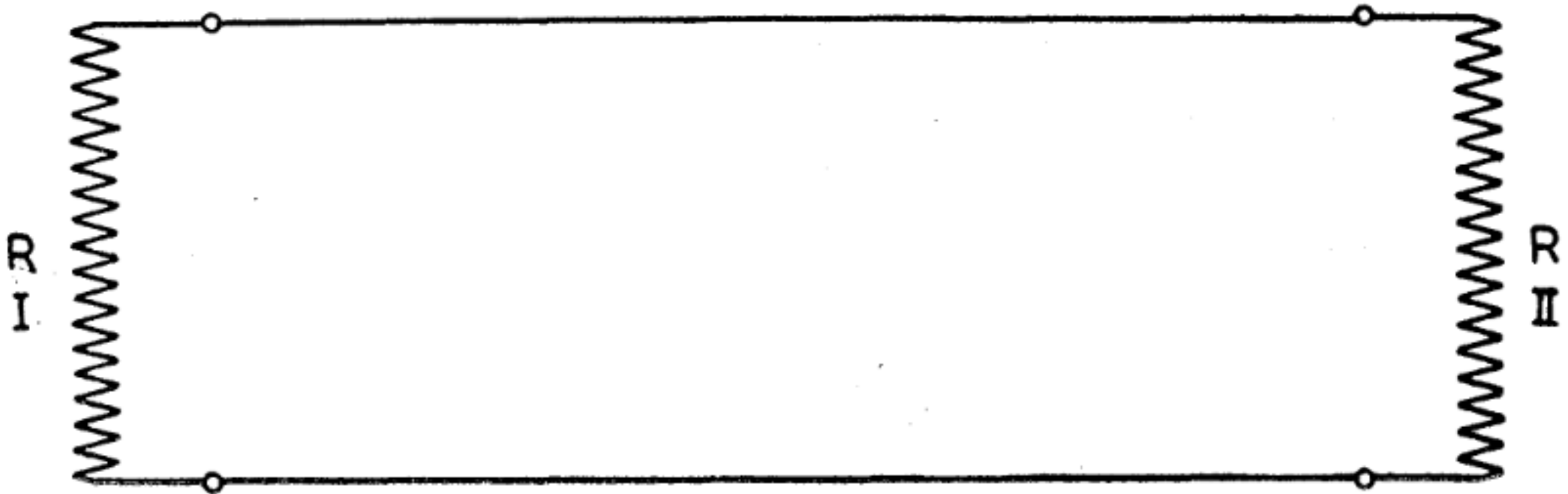
# Interesting Features

- This noise depends only on the resistance and temperature of the system
- Noise doesn't depend on what type of charge carrier, or the resistor material

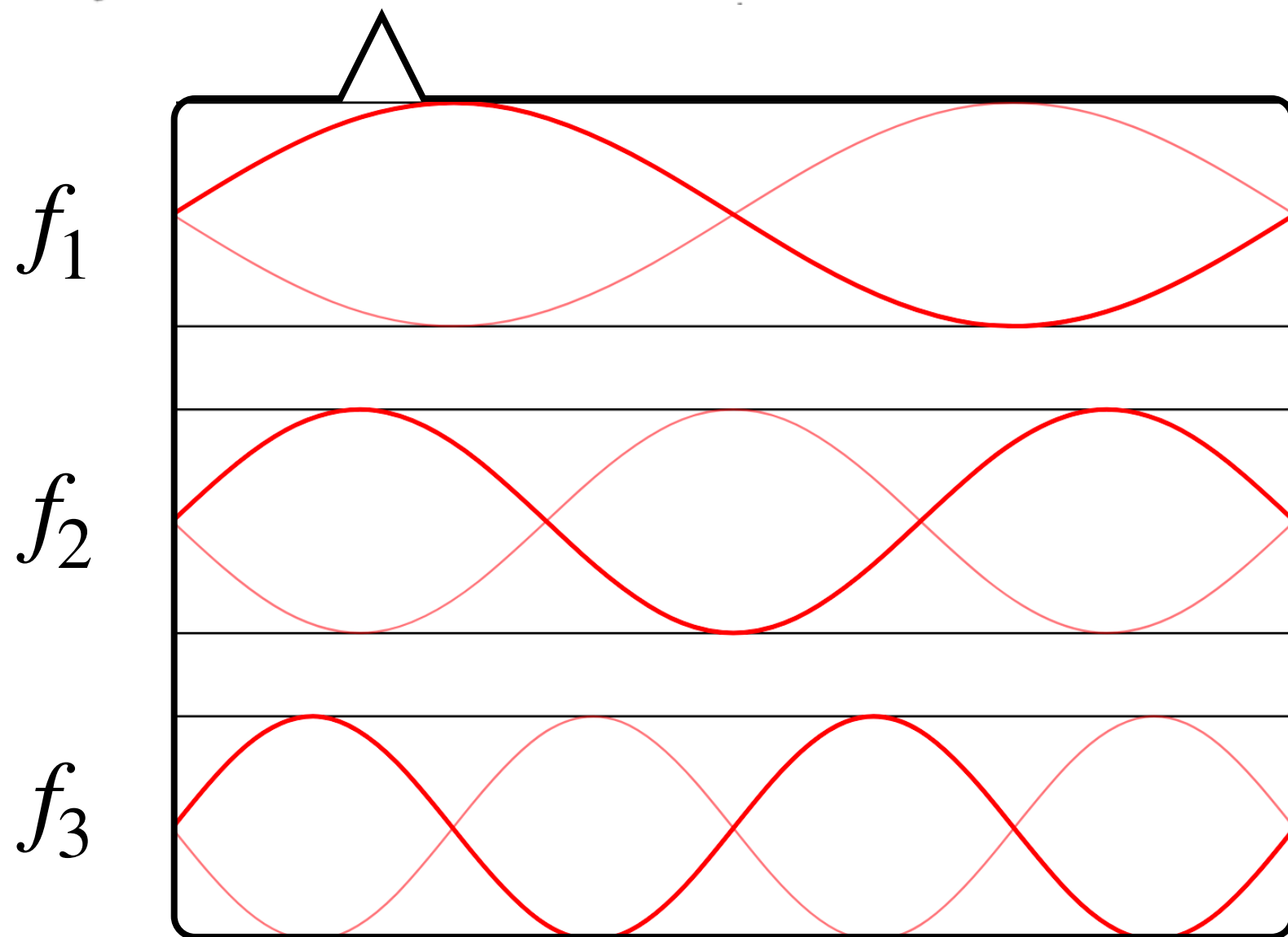
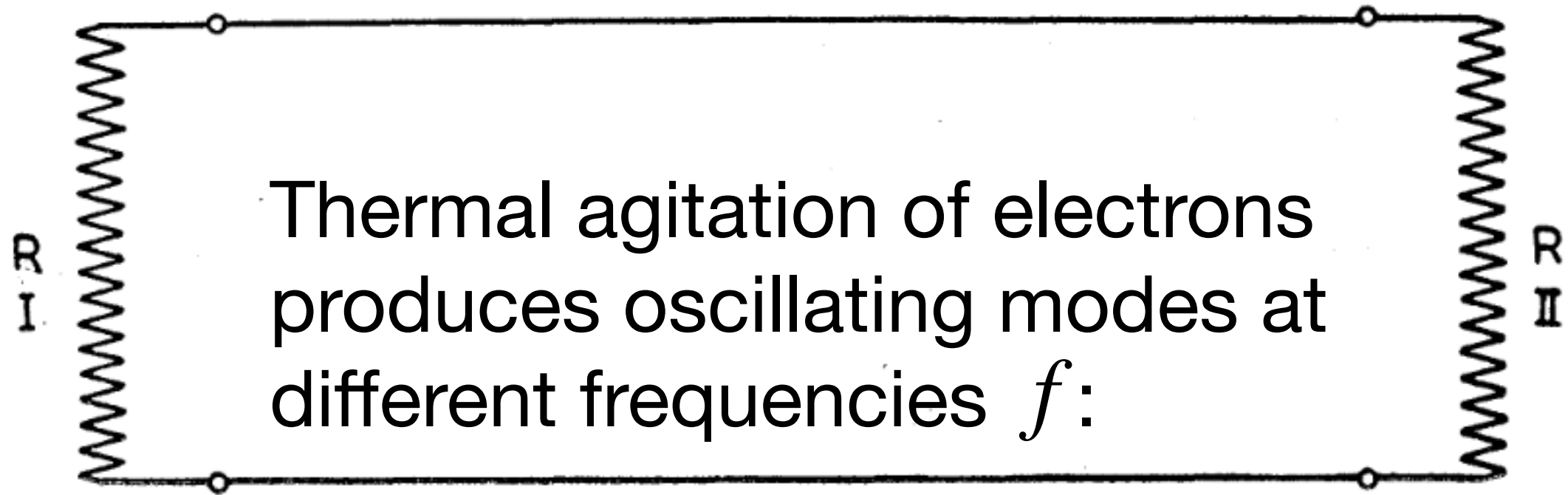
# In this Lab:

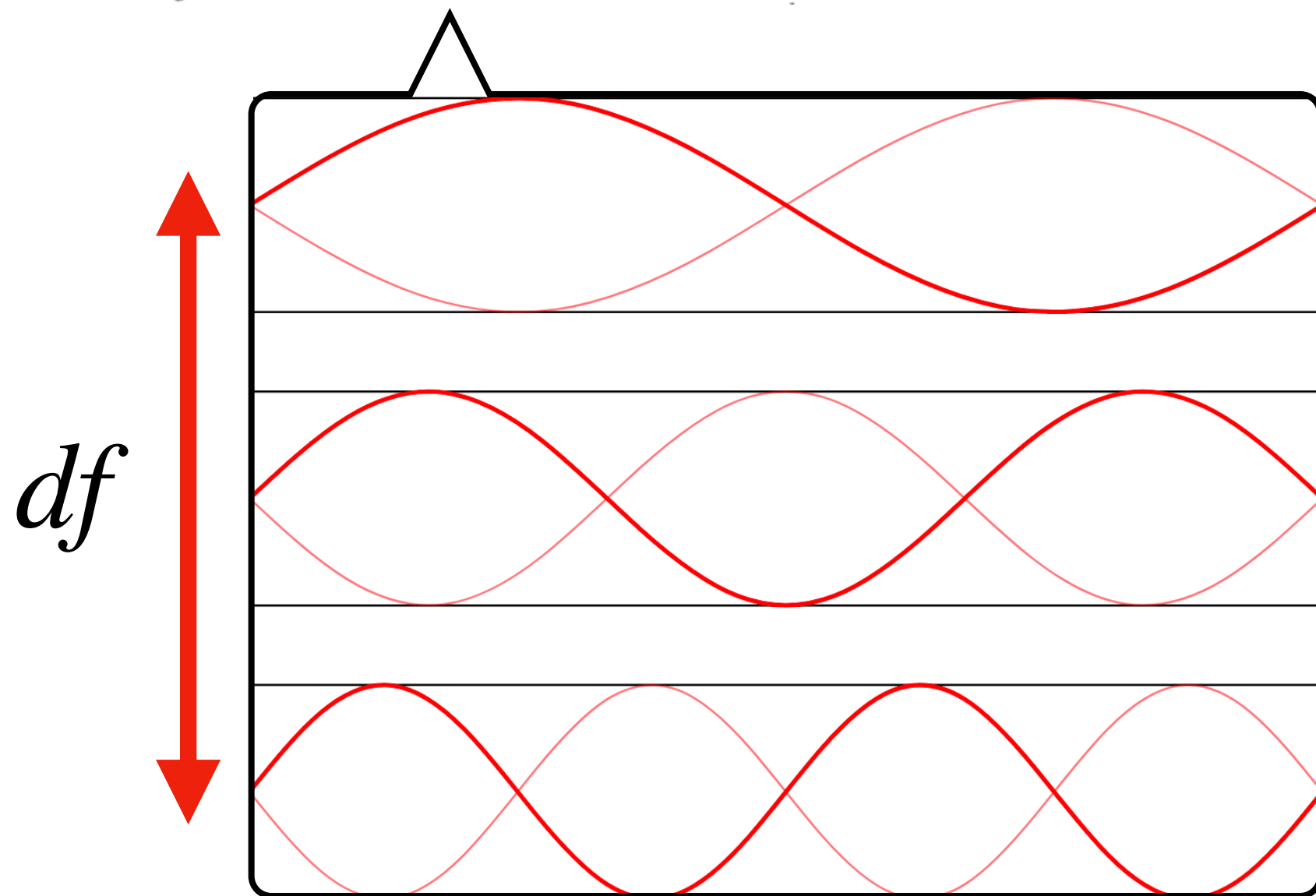
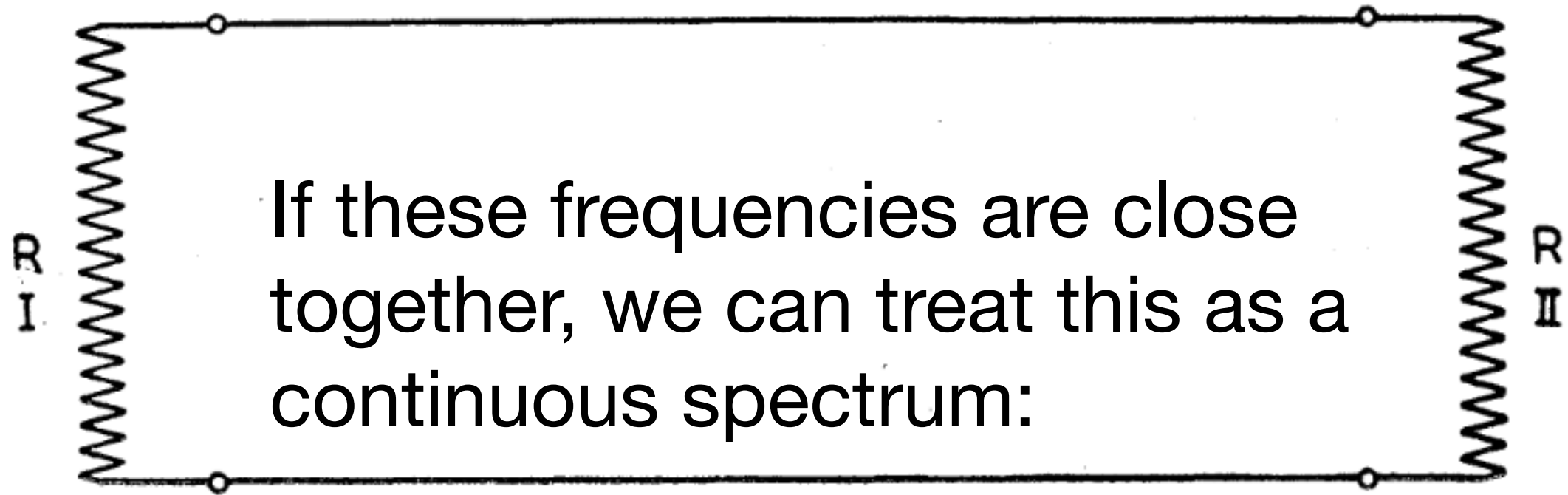
- We measure Johnson noise for varying resistances and temperatures
- $k$  (Boltzmann's constant) was not known individually
- In this lab,  $k$  and centigrade temperature of absolute zero can be extracted from measurements of Johnson noise

# Theory



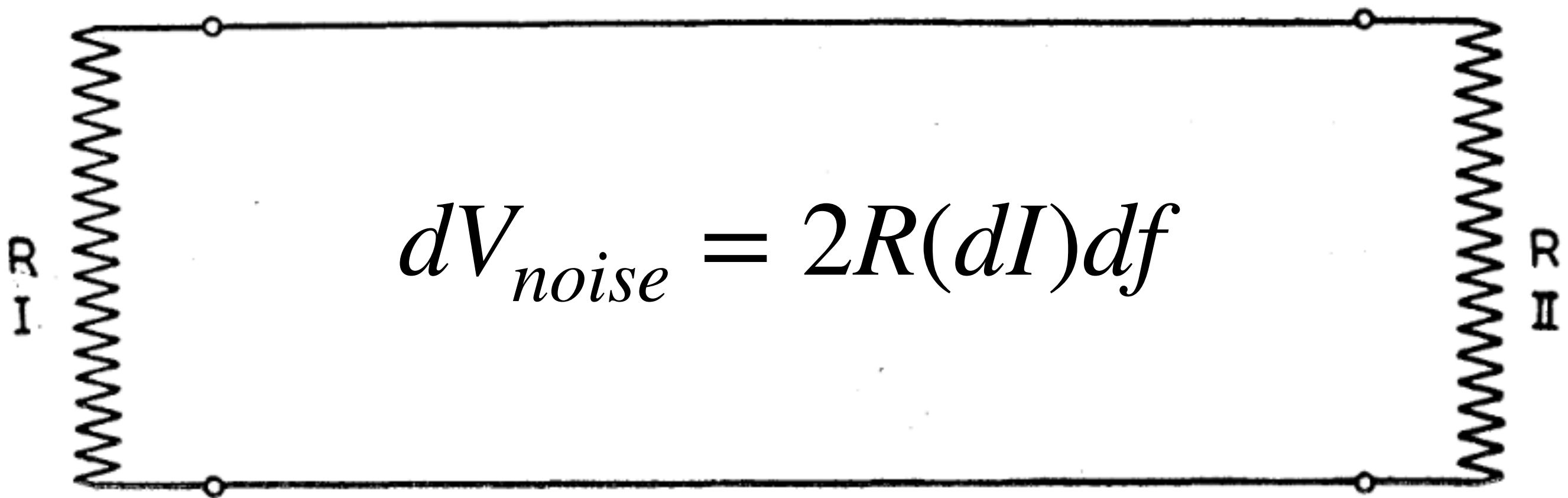
- System temperature  $T$
- Resistances  $R_I$  and  $R_{II}$





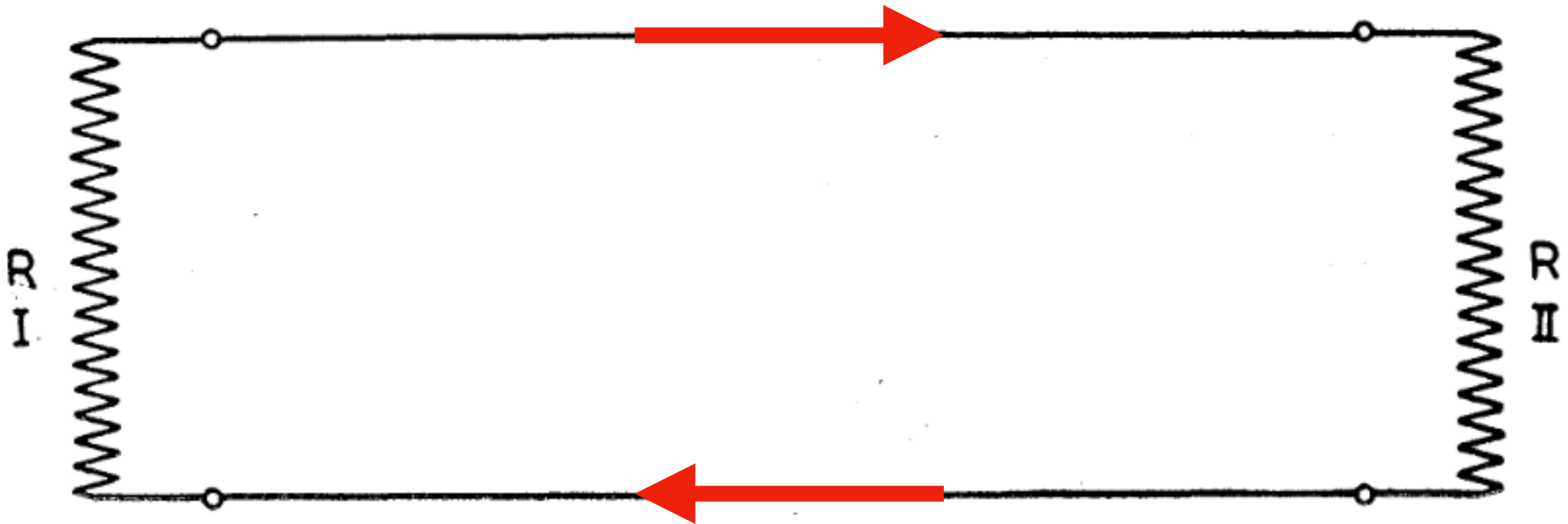


- Each band  $df$  contributes a average voltage difference to the overall circuit voltage:

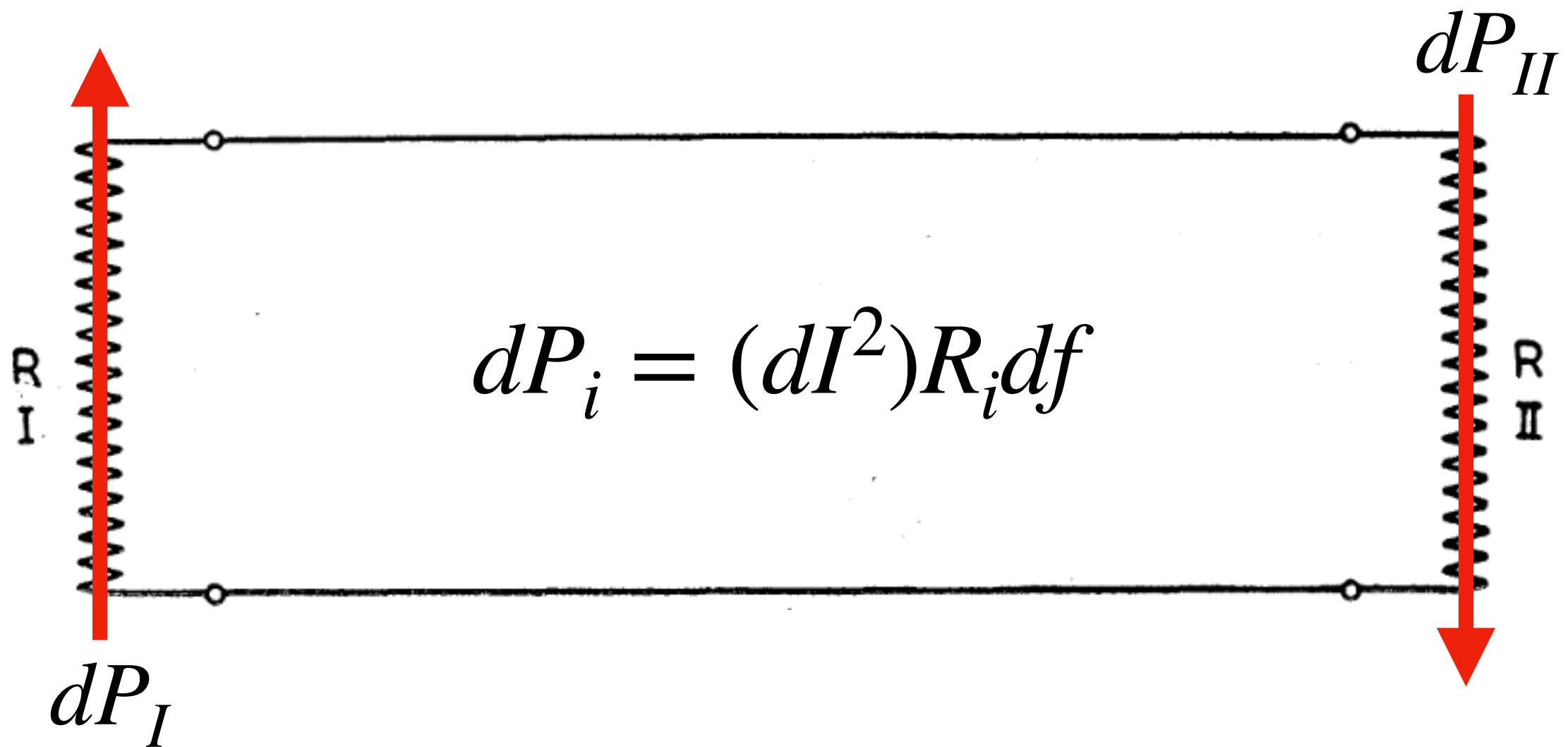


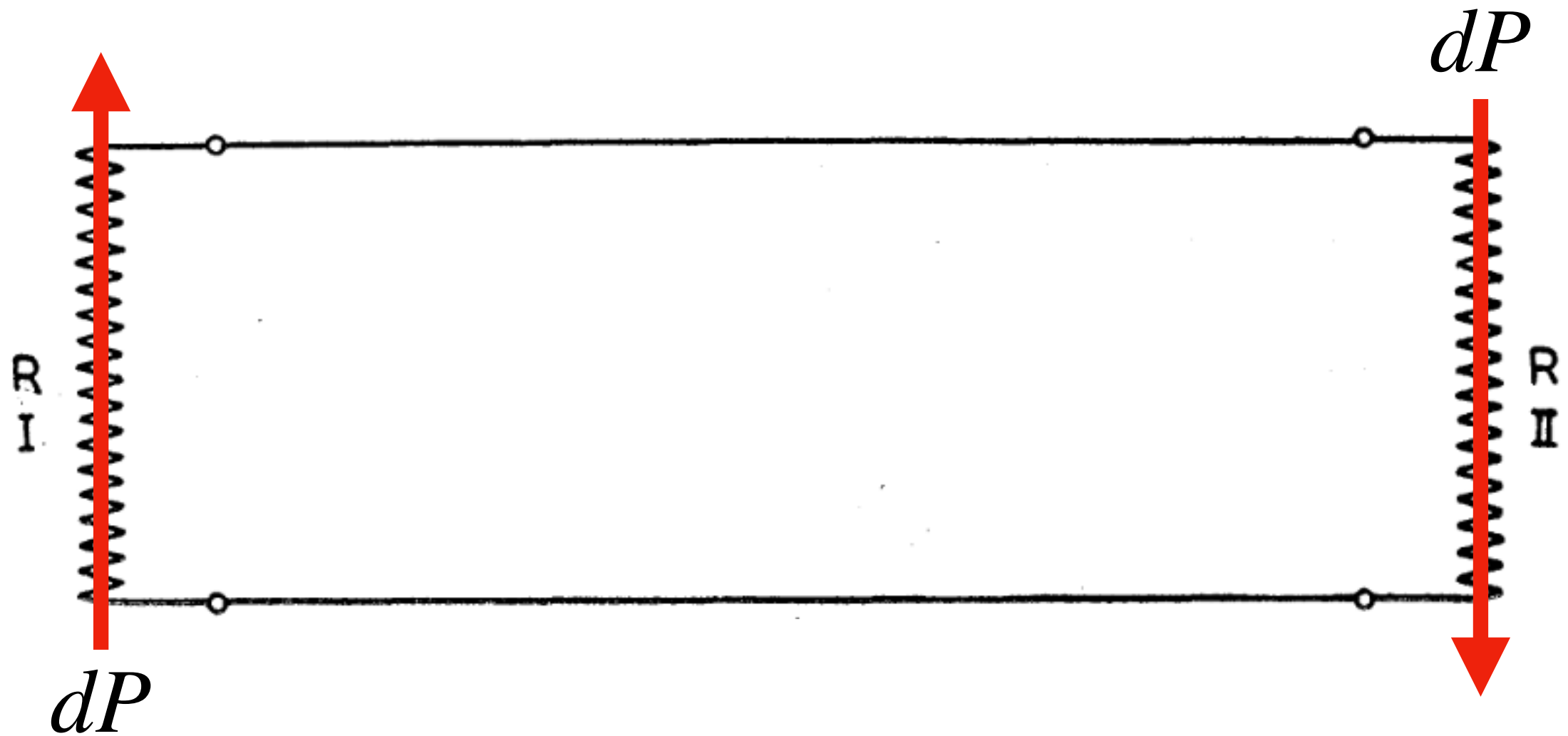
- Each small frequency band of oscillation  $df$  contributes an average amount of current:

$$dI = \frac{dV_{noise}}{2R} df$$



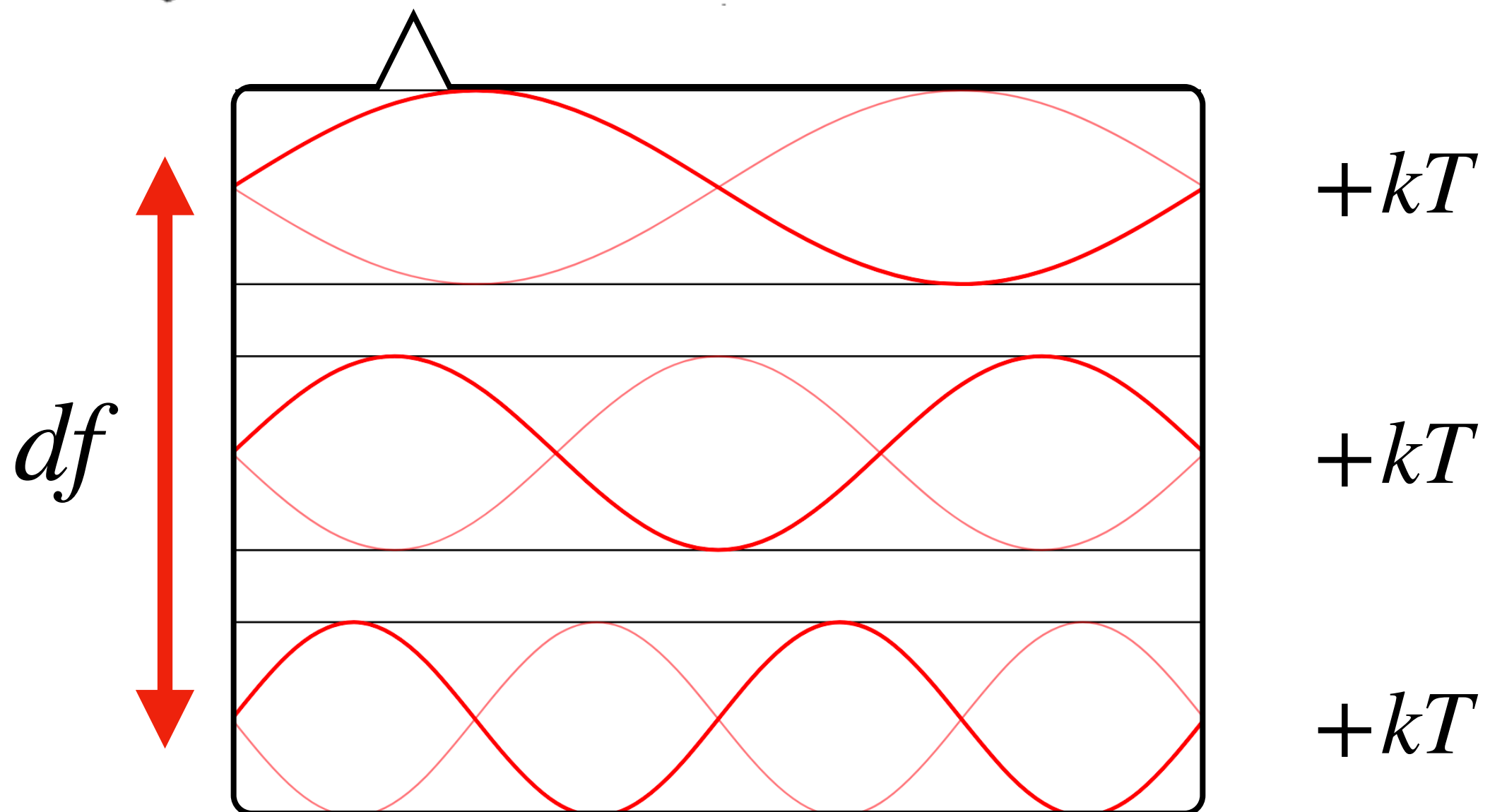
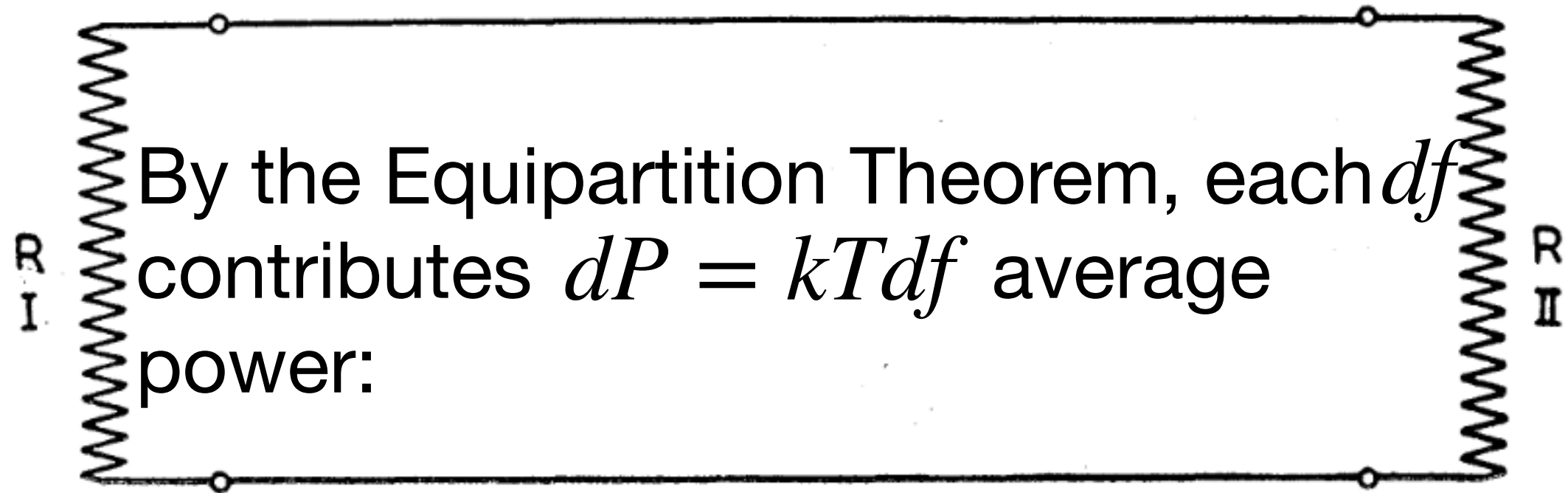
- Each band  $df$  contributes an amount of average power through a resistor of resistance  $R_i$ :



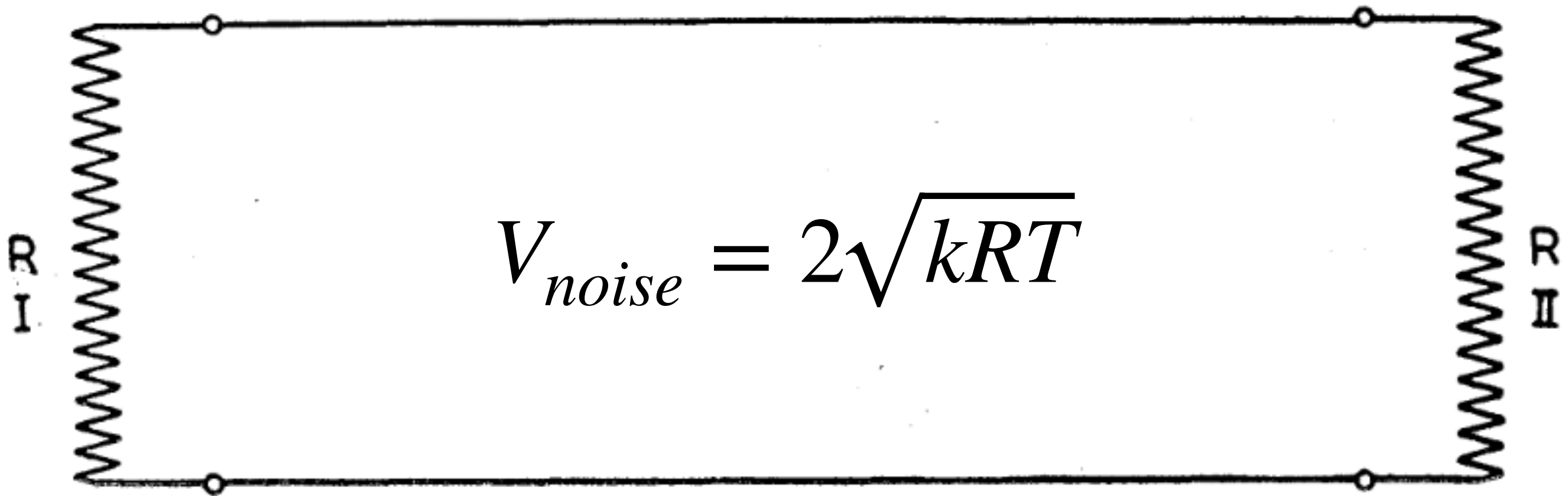


- By the 2nd Law of Thermodynamics, the power passed through each resistor is equal:

$$dP_I = dP_{II} = dP$$



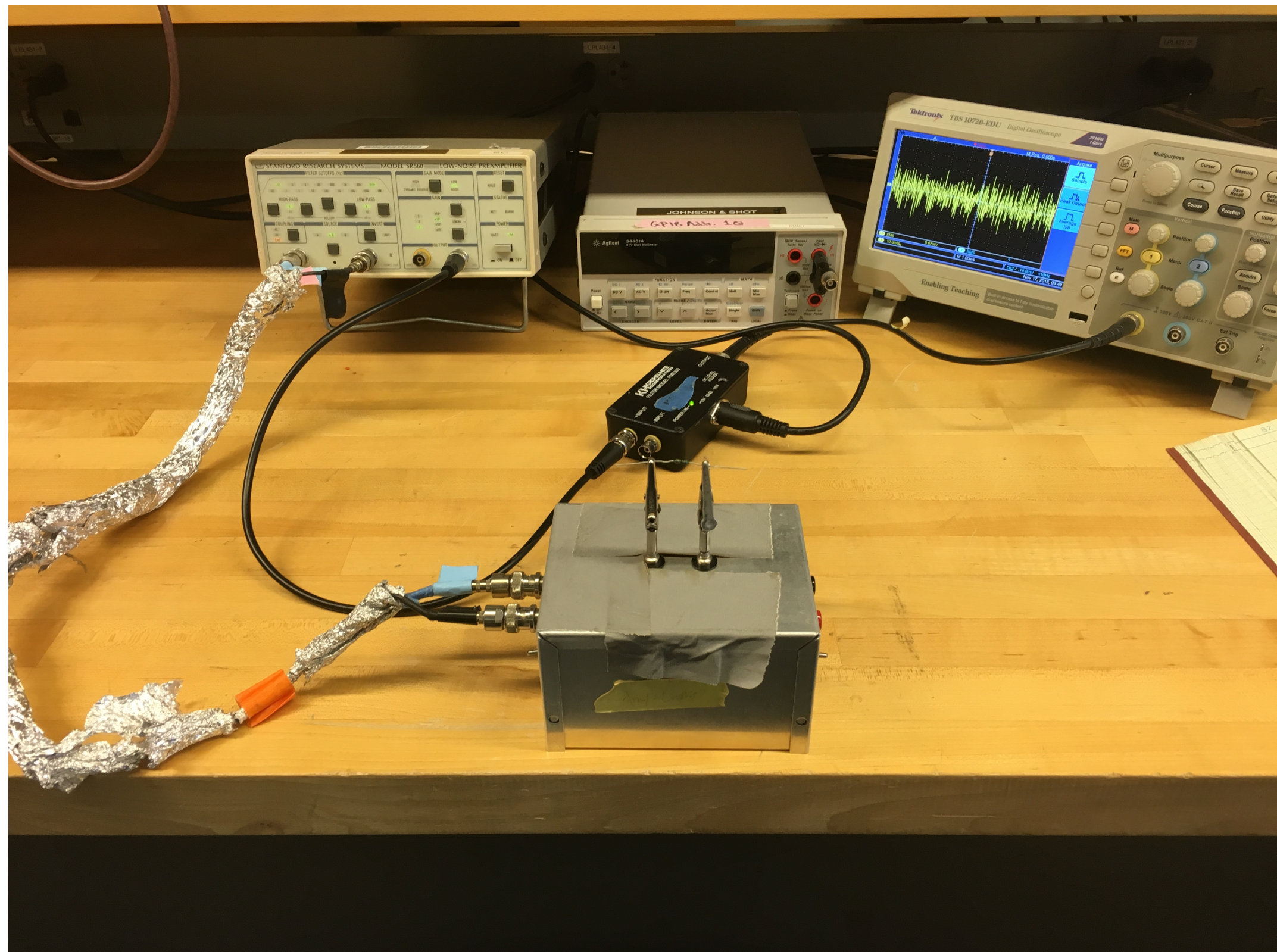
- Using these relationships, the total average voltage contribution over all frequency bands for a system at temperature  $T$  can be derived:



- How do we measure this voltage?

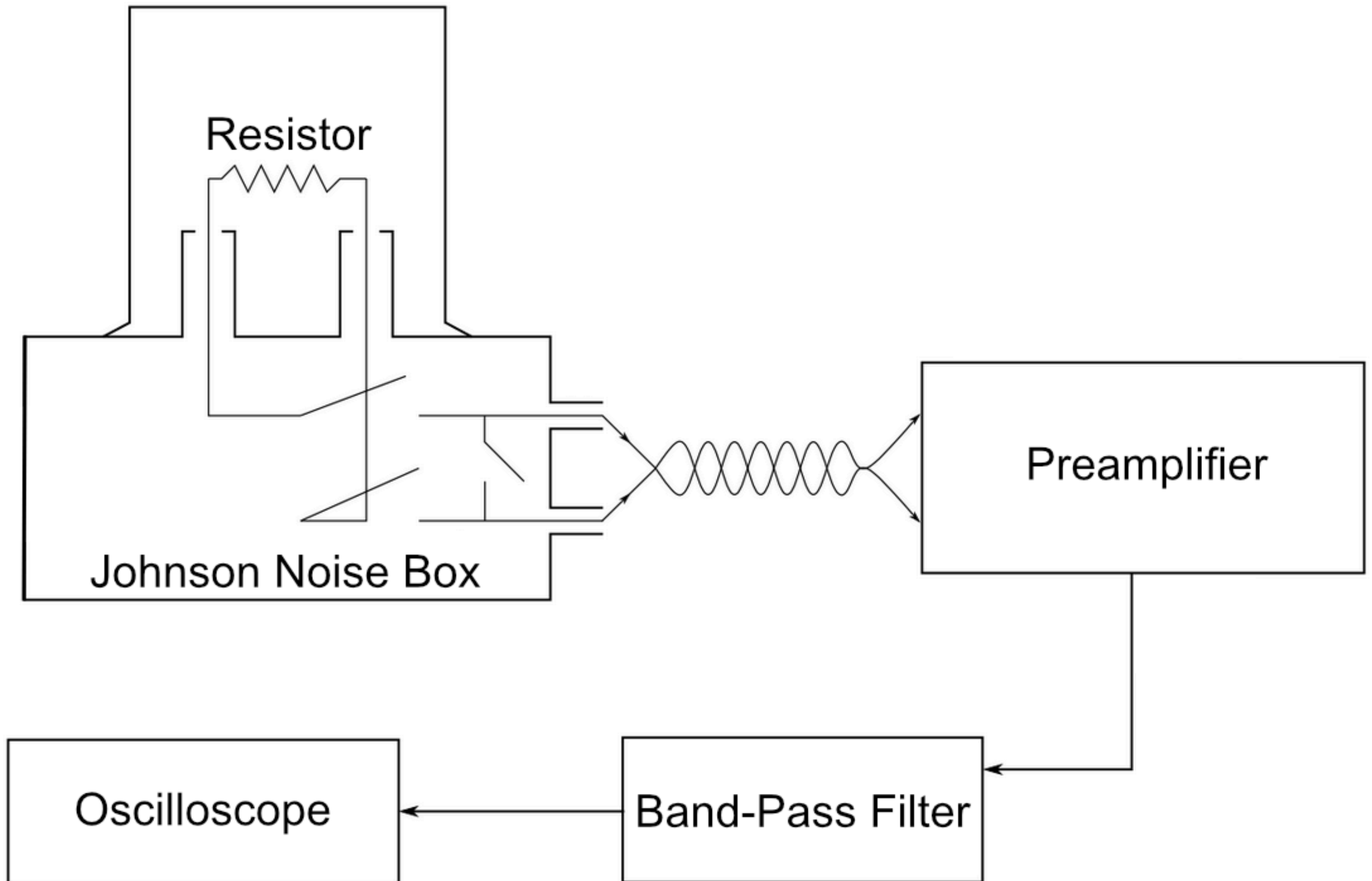


# Experimental Setup



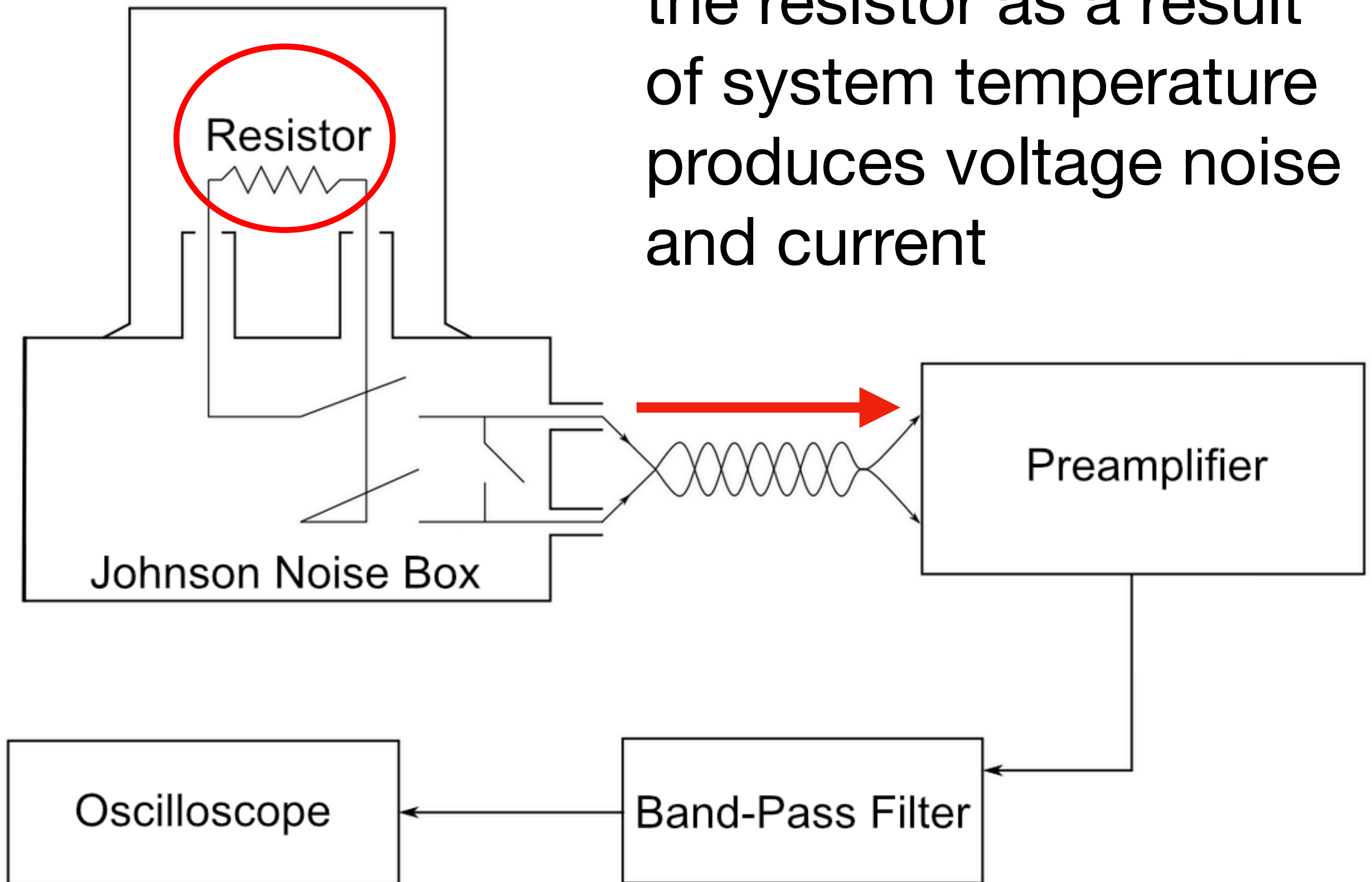


# Schematic

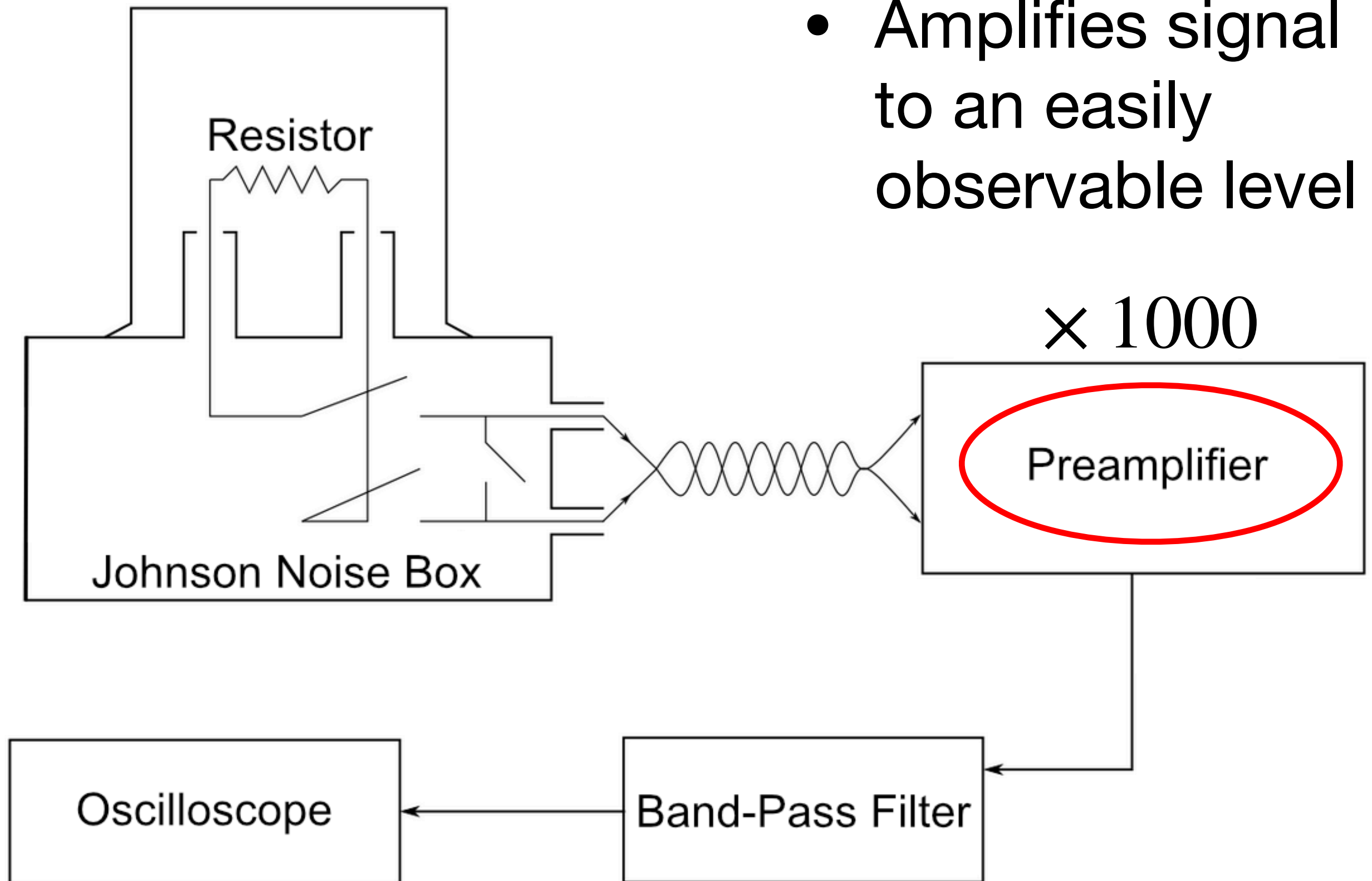




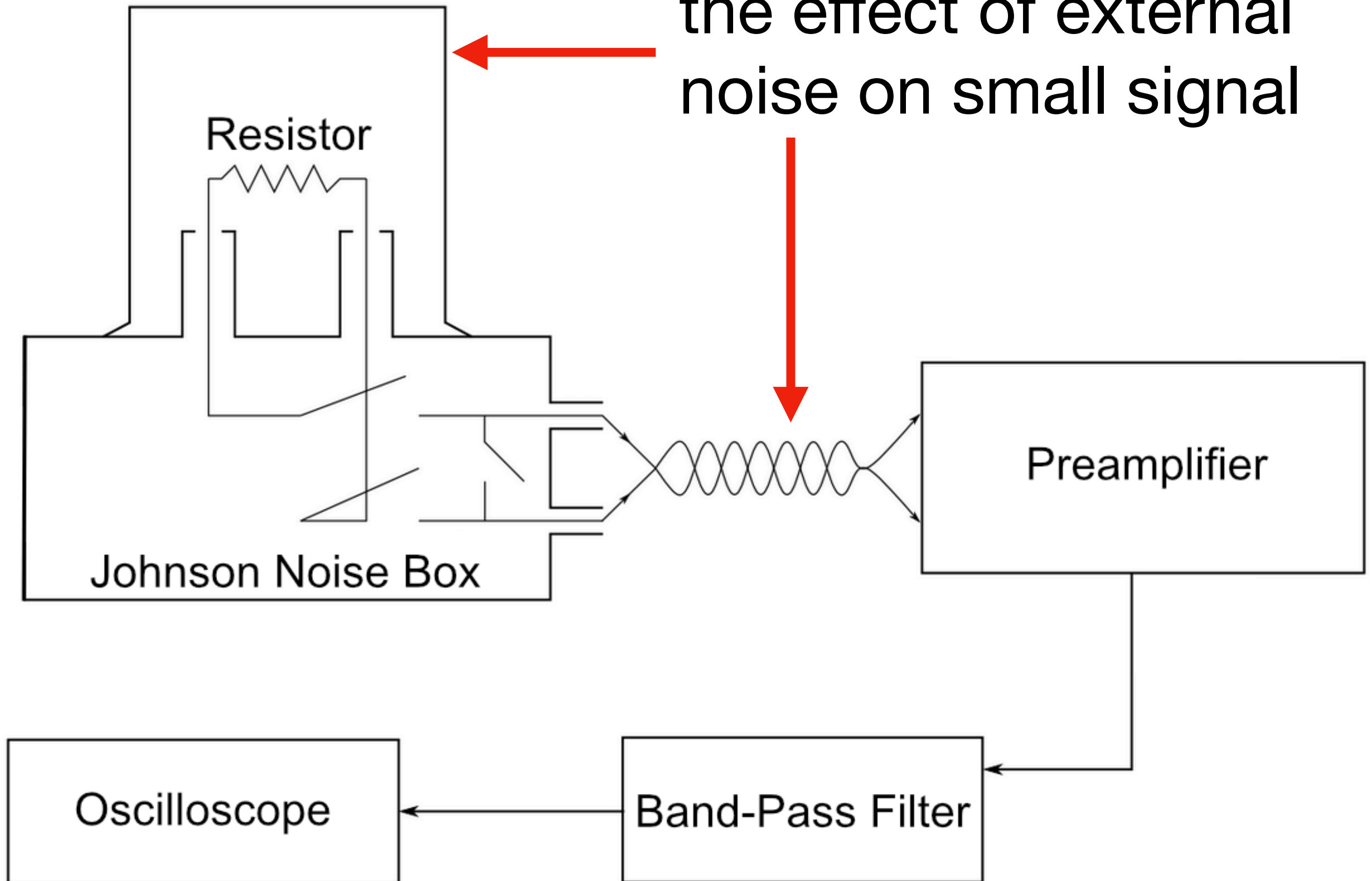
- Thermal excitation of the resistor as a result of system temperature produces voltage noise and current



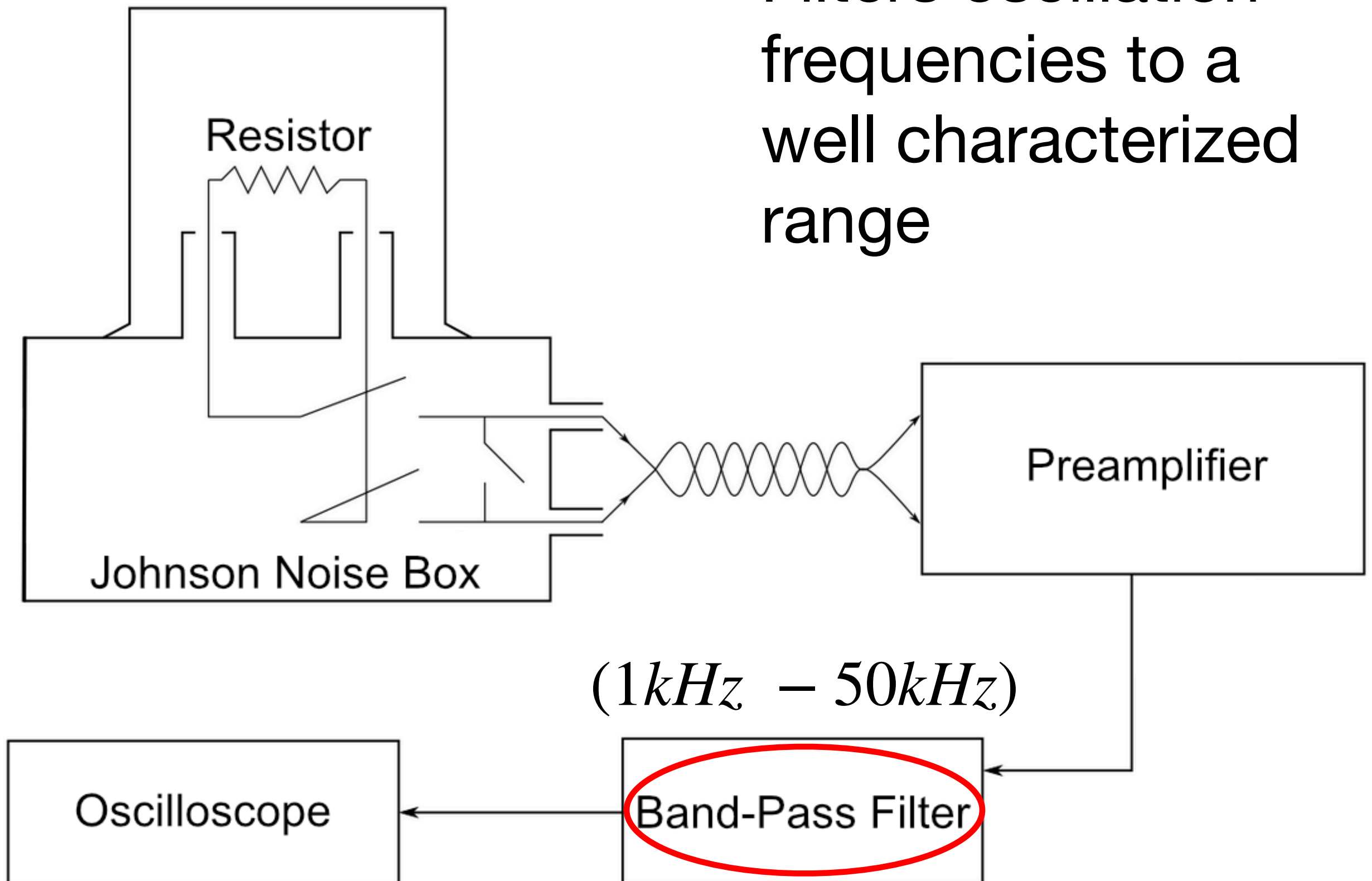
- Amplifies signal to an easily observable level



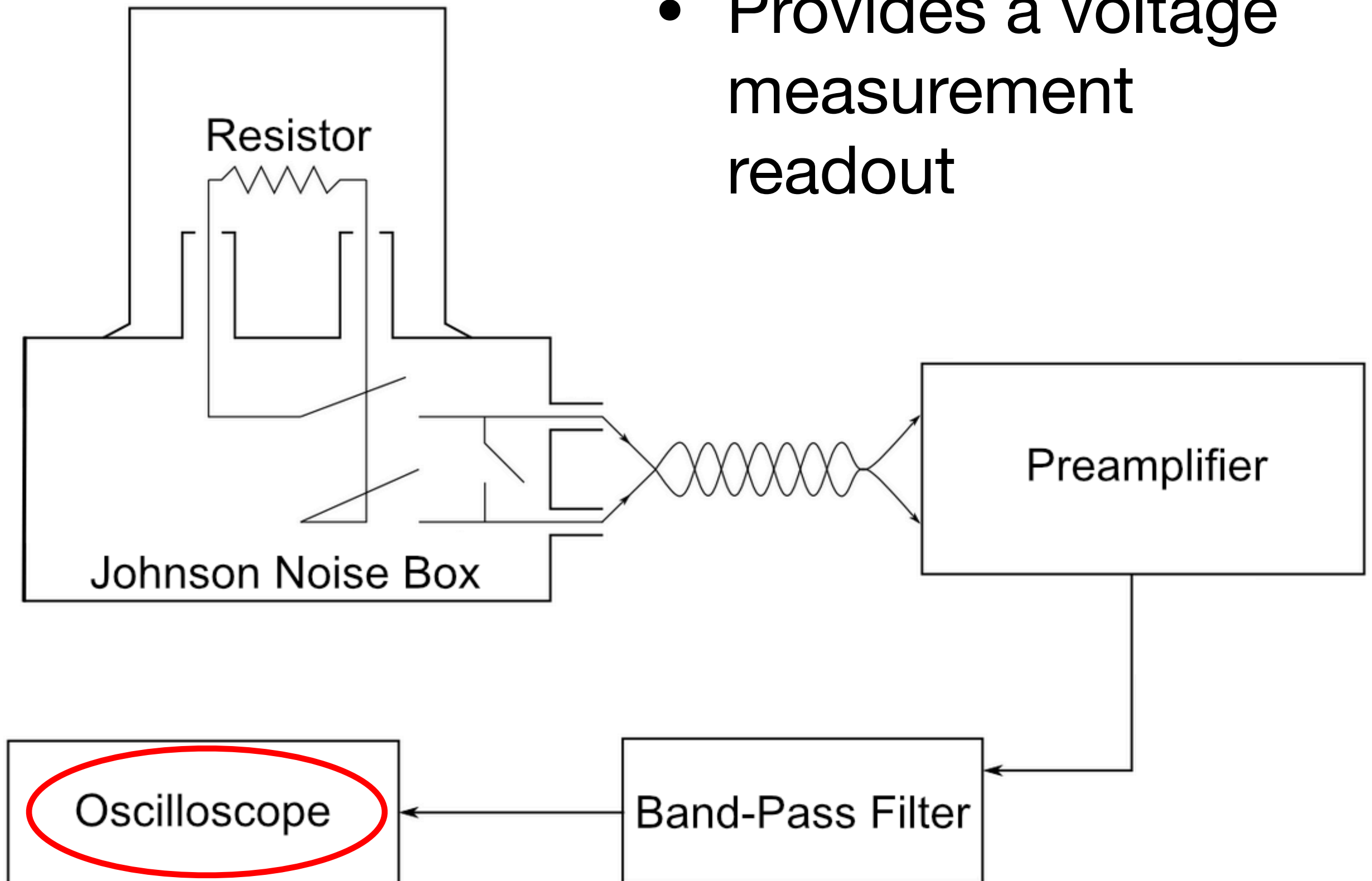
Shielding mitigates  
the effect of external  
noise on small signal



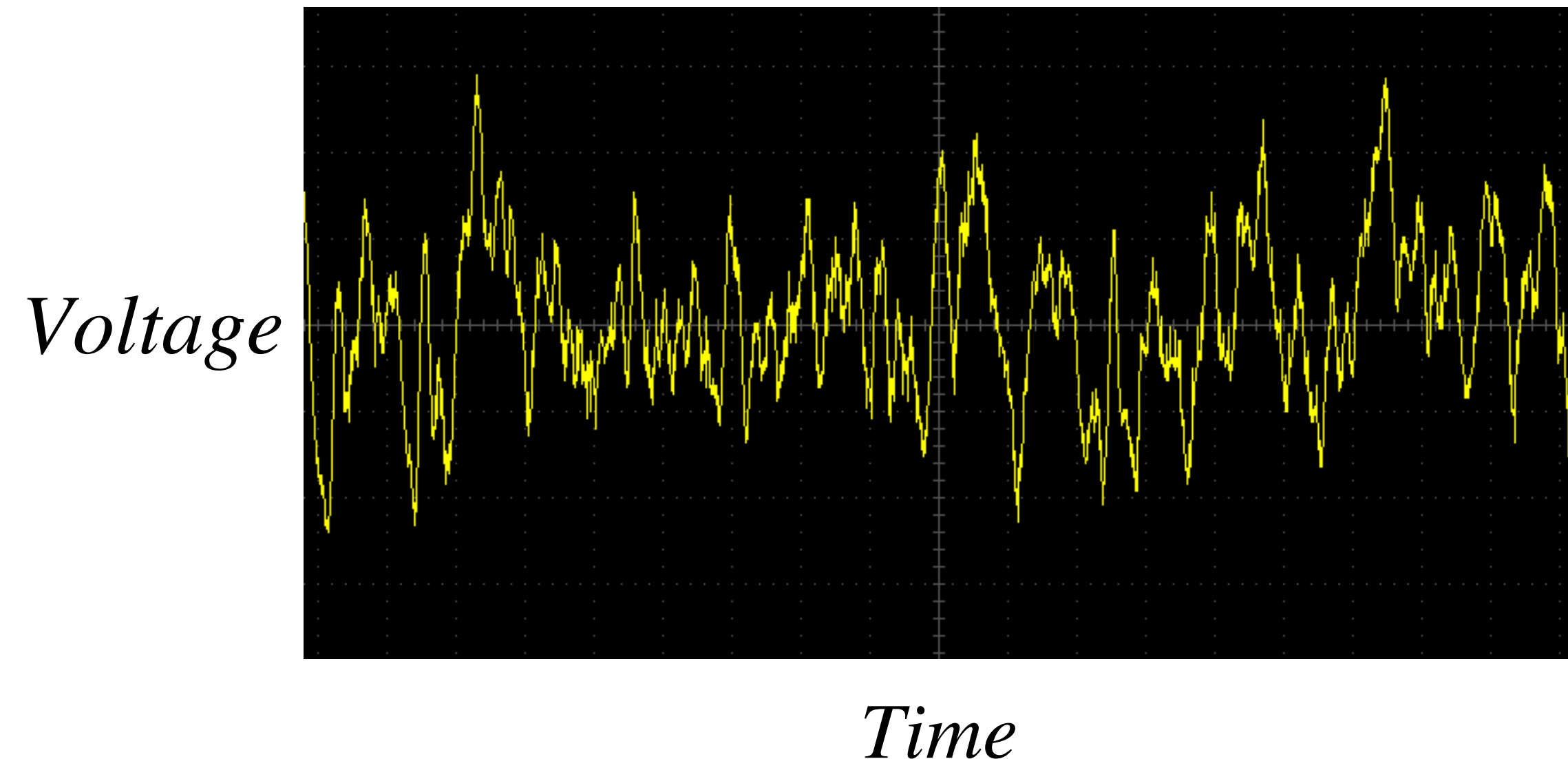
- Filters oscillation frequencies to a well characterized range



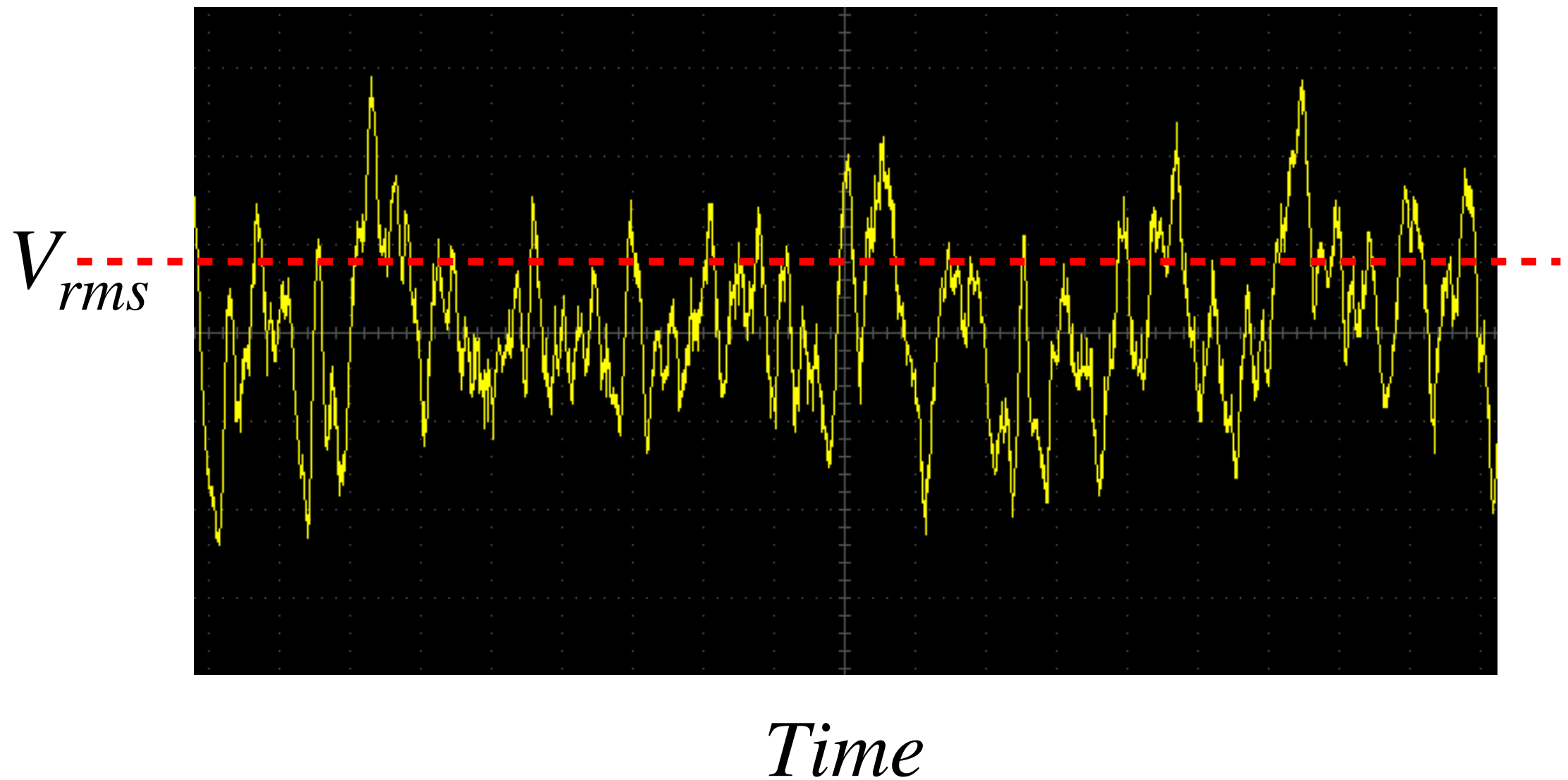
- Provides a voltage measurement readout



- How do we measure a single voltage for an oscillating noise signal on our oscilloscope?



- We measure the root mean square  $V_{rms}$  of the signal:



# Obtaining Noise from Measurement

- Our setup modifies the noise from the resistor on the Johnson Box
- How do we extract the original noise voltage from our measured voltages?
- Separate amplifier noise
- Determine gain



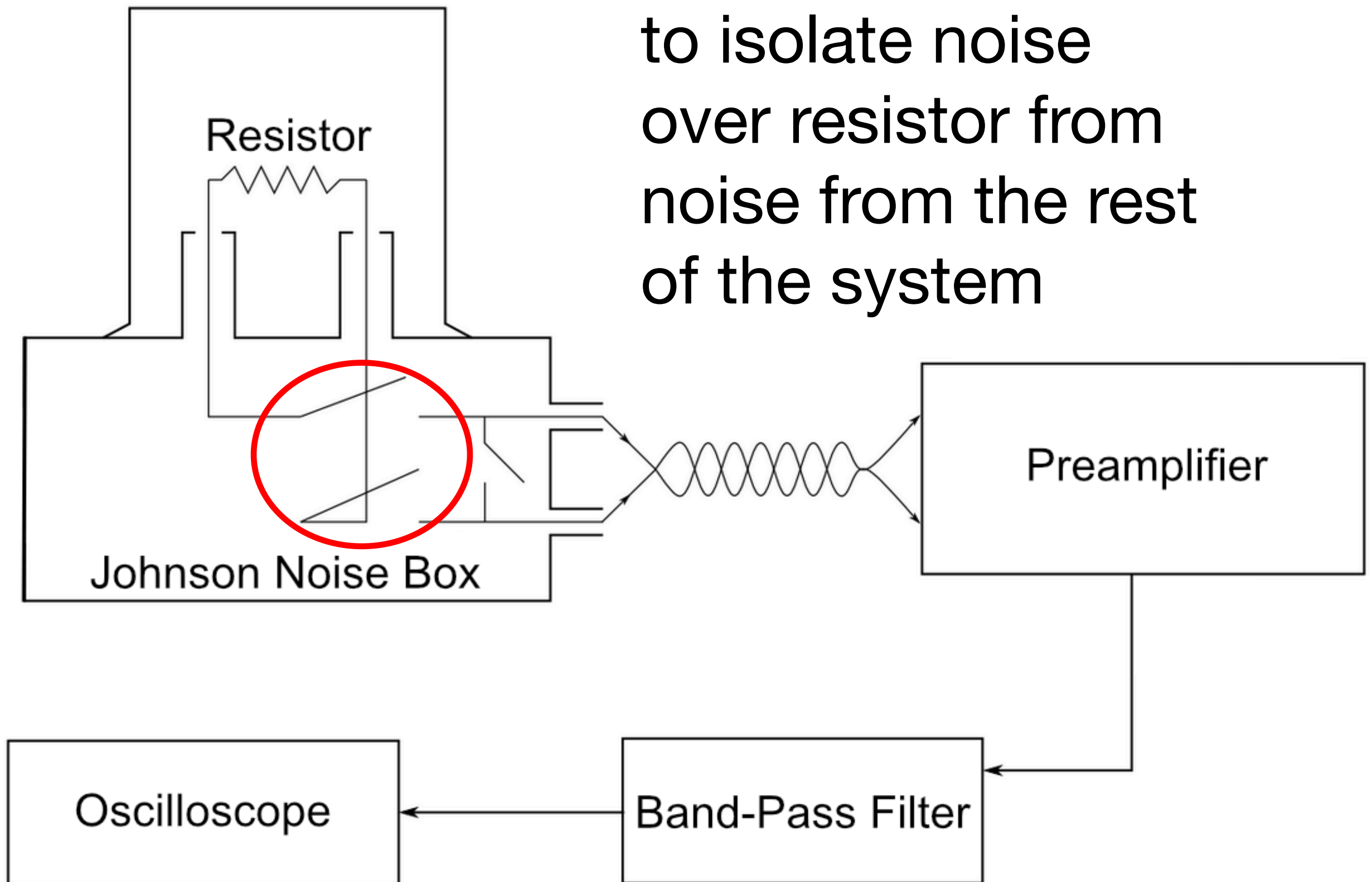
# Amplifier Noise

- Experimental setup contributes electrical noise to the measured value
- How do we isolate the voltage noise contribution from the resistor on the Johnson Box?

- We measure the sum of the noise produced by our resistor and the amplifier  $V_R$

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- We measure the noise produced with the resistor shorted out  $V_S$

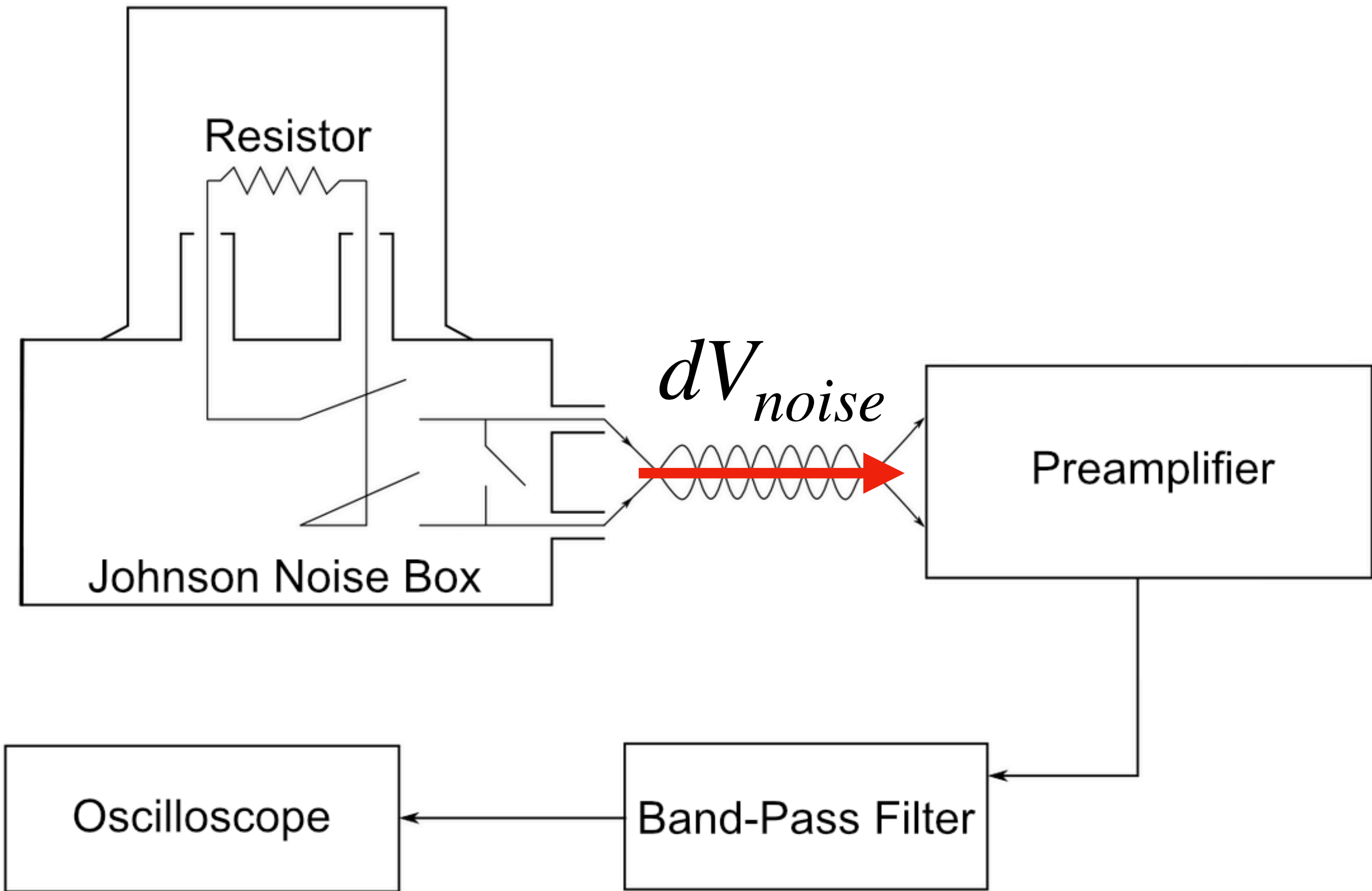
- Shorting switch mechanism is used to isolate noise over resistor from noise from the rest of the system

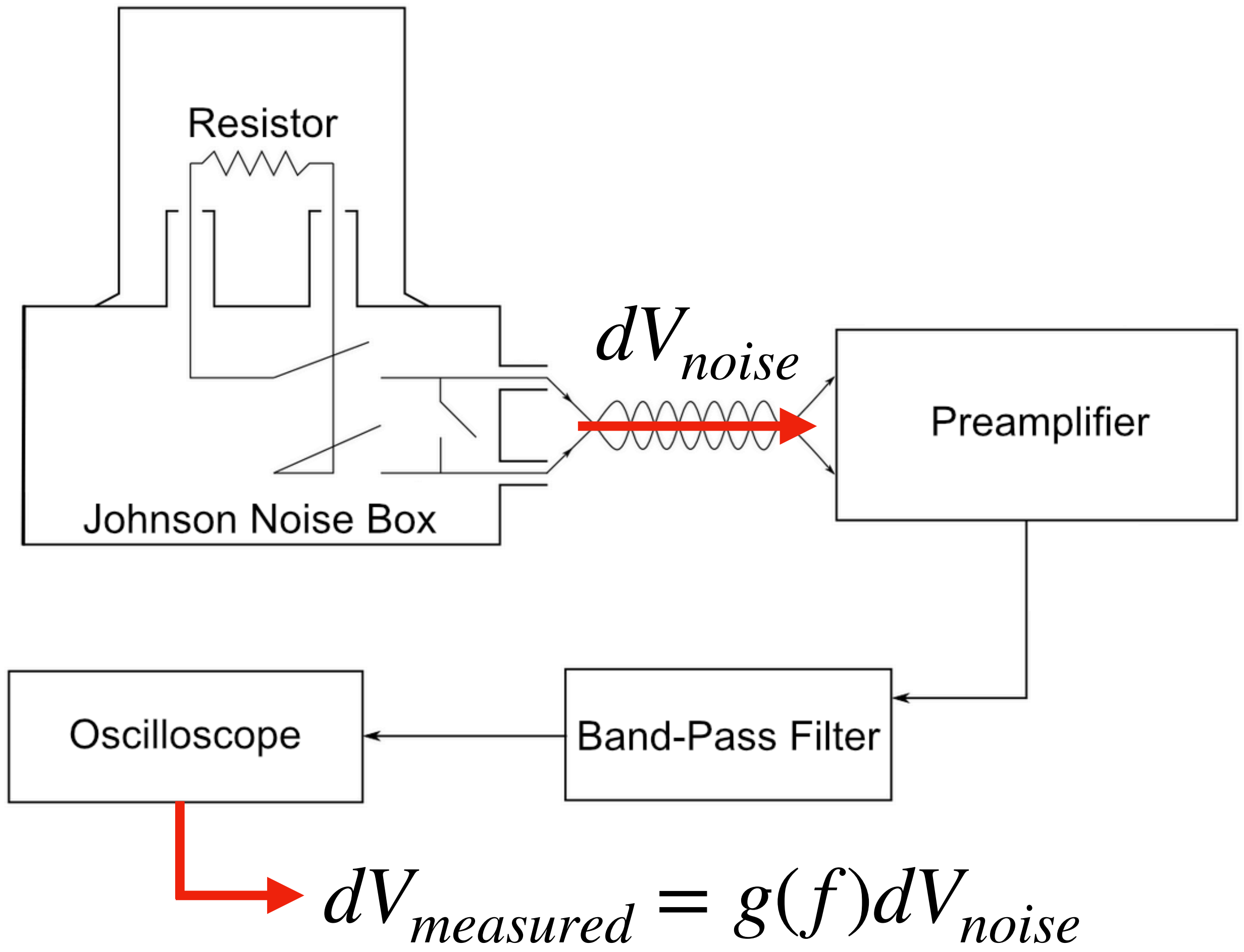


- We measure the sum of the noise produced by our resistor and the amplifier  $V_R$
- We measure the noise produced with the resistor shorted out  $V_S$
- We can subtract these independent sources in quadrature to extract the isolated noise of the resistor:  $V^2 = V_R^2 - V_S^2$

# Gain Calibration

- Amplifier and band-pass filter transform the original average voltage noise produced by a frequency band  $df$  by a multiplicative factor

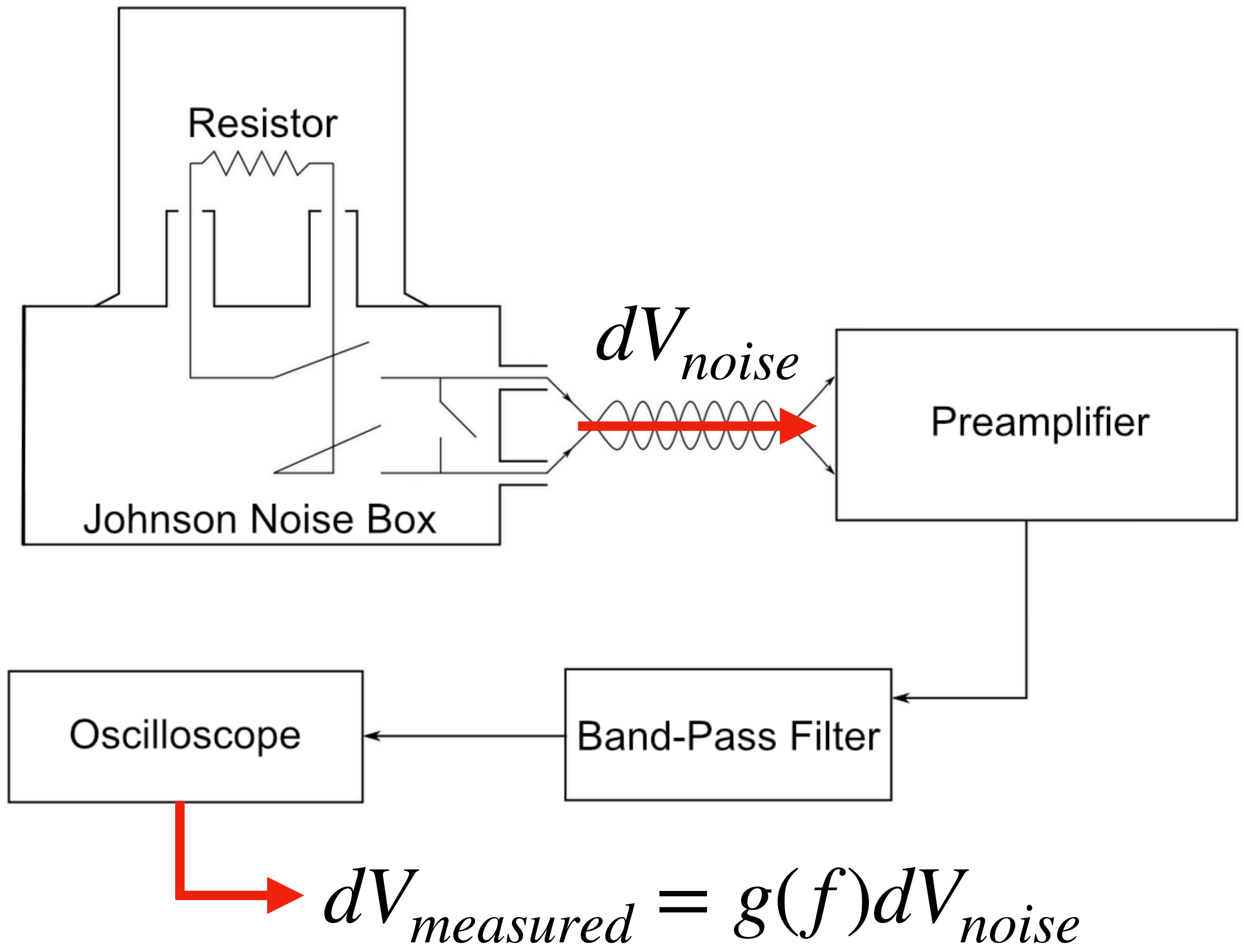






# Gain Calibration

- Amplifier and band-pass filter transform the original average voltage noise produced by a frequency band  $df$  by a multiplicative factor
- Knowing this factor allows us to extract the raw noise from measured noise



- Plugging in the expression derived for  $dV_{noise}$

$$dV_{measured} = 2\sqrt{kRT}g(f)df$$

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$$dV_{measured} = 2\sqrt{kRT}g(f)df$$

- Integrating over a finite frequency spectrum:

$$V_{measured} = 2\sqrt{kRT} \int_a^b g(f)df$$

- Square our voltage measurement in order to manipulate it in quadrature

$$V_{measured}^2 = 4kRT \int_a^b g^2(f) df$$

- Square our voltage measurement in order to manipulate it in quadrature

$$V_{measured}^2 = 4kRT \int_a^b g^2(f) df$$

- Introduce a resistance dependent reducing factor in the gain to model the capacitance of the connecting wires in our setup

$$V_{measured}^2 = 4kRT \int_a^b \frac{g^2(f)}{\sqrt{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2}} df$$

- So, the effect of amplification and filtering on the raw noise is quantified by defining a gain factor  $G$  that differs for each resistor

$$V_{measured}^2 = V_{noise}^2 G$$

- Where:

$$G = \int_a^b \frac{g^2(f)}{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2} df$$

- Factor  $G$  relating post and pre amplification noise is then determined for each resistor as follows:

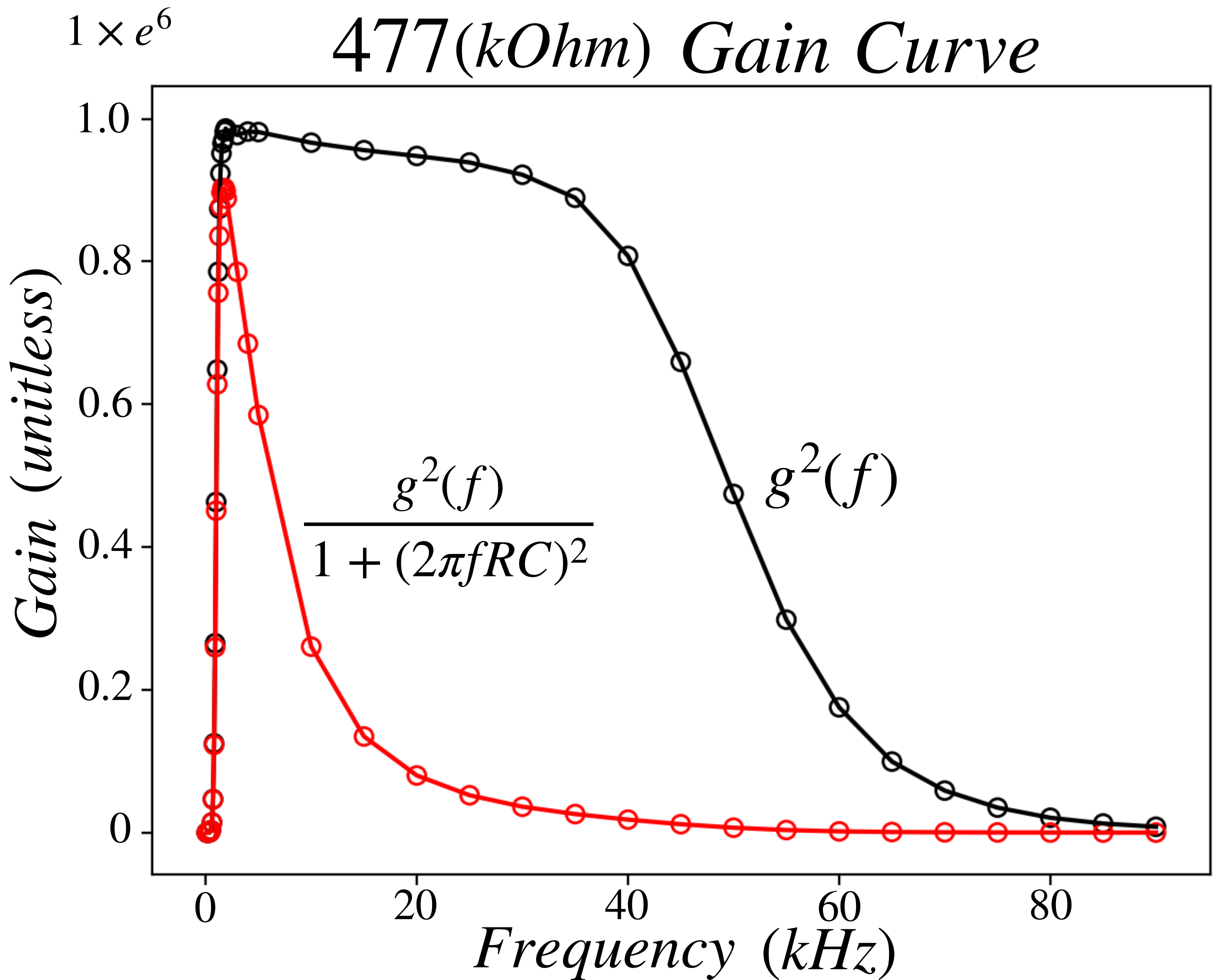
$$G = \int_{0kHz}^{90kHz} \frac{g^2(f)}{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2} df$$



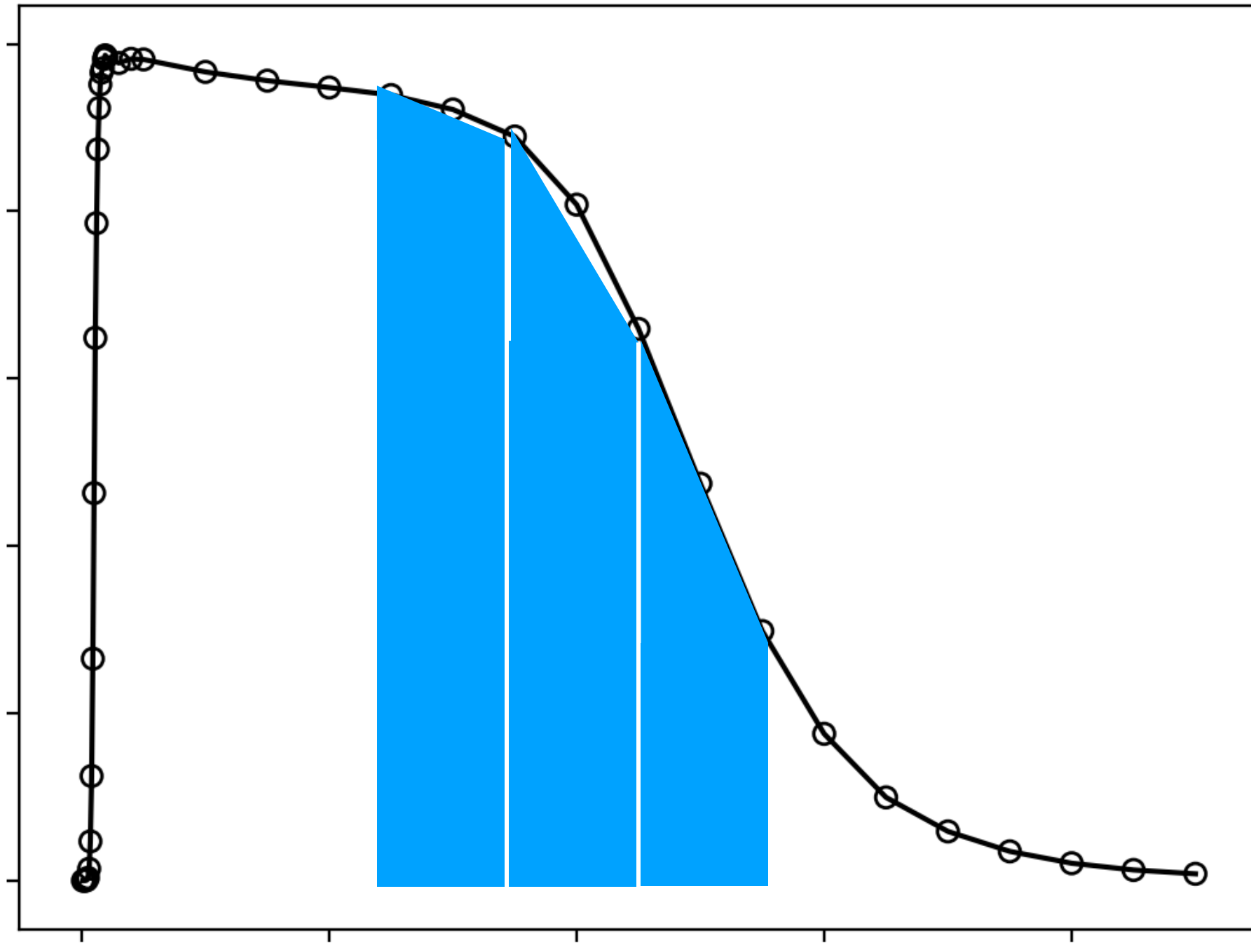
- Factor  $G$  relating post and pre amplification noise is then determined for each resistor as follows:

$$G = \int_{0kHz}^{90kHz} \frac{g^2(f)}{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2} df$$

- Value of  $g^2(f)$  is determined by measuring the gain of our system without a resistor on the box



- Gain integral is calculated using numerical integration methods like the trapezoid rule:



# Gain Integral Uncertainty

- Depends on the method of integration used
- We use the Trapezoid rule and Simpson's rule for integration, and compare:

$$\sigma_{G,method} = \frac{G_{trapezoid} - G_{simpson}}{G_{trapezoid}} \approx \pm 0.6 \%$$

# Gain Integral Uncertainty

- Depends on capacitance of the setup
- Parallel wires can produce a capacitance
- We measure two sets of resistor varying data, changing the wiring setup in between

- Taking the ratio of calculated gains for each setup gives an estimate of capacitance fluctuation:

$$\frac{G_{setup1}}{G_{setup2}} \approx \pm 9.0 \%$$



$$\sigma_{G, capacitance} \approx \pm 7.5 \%$$

# Noise Measurement Procedure

1) Resistance is measured for resistors in a range of 10 kohm to 1000 kohm

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- 1) Resistance is measured for resistors in a range of 10 kohm to 1000 kohm
- 2) RMS Voltages are measured for each resistor both in circuit and shorted out of the circuit
- 3) Measured voltages subtracted in quadrature are related to pre-amplification noise voltage by calculating  $G$  for each resistor

# Boltzmann Constant

- Using the derived relationship between measured and original noise for each resistor:

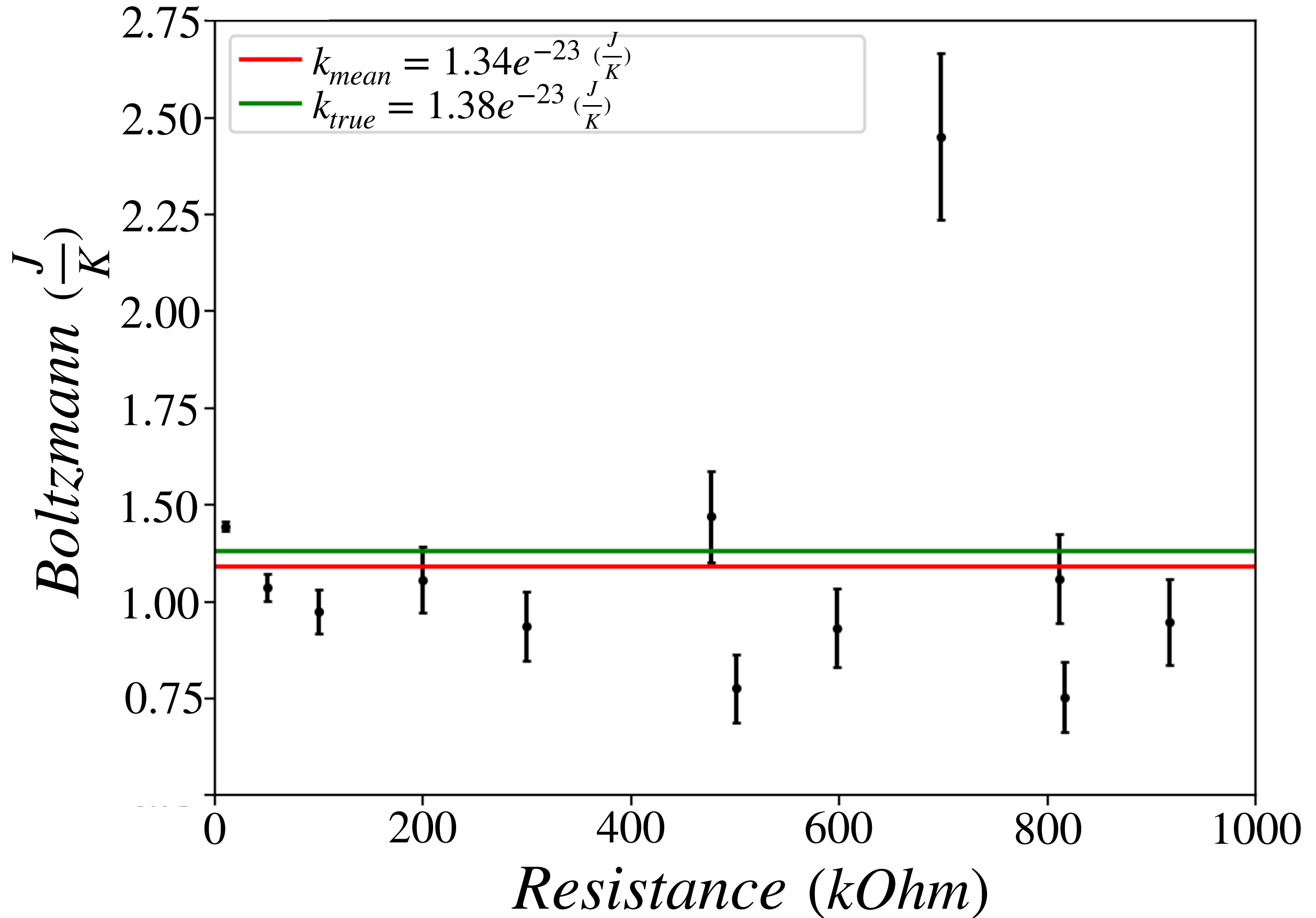
$$V^2 = 4kRTG$$

- Boltzmann Constant  $k$  is extracted for each resistor value:

$$k = \frac{V^2}{4TGR}$$

$1 \times e^{-23}$

# *Boltzmann Constant*



# Uncertainties

- Resistor resistance:  $\sigma_R$
- Capacitance:  $\sigma_{G, capacitance}$
- Gain integral:  $\sigma_G$
- Squared voltage:  $\sigma_{V^2}$

# Resistance

- Limited by the accuracy of the our multimeter (Hewlett Packard 972A):

## Resistance

Range	Resolution	971A	972A	973A	Test Current	Test Voltage
400 Ω	100 mΩ	0.5% + 1	0.2% + 1		.8mA	< 3.2 V
4 kΩ	1 Ω				<80 μA	<1.1V
40 kΩ	10 Ω				<10 μA	
400 kΩ	100 Ω				<1.1 μA	
4 MΩ	1 kΩ		0.5% + 1		<110 nA	
40 MΩ	10 kΩ	1% + 1				

# Resistance

- Applying this to each resistance based on which range it falls within:

$$\sigma_R \approx \pm 0.4 \%$$

# Gain Integral Uncertainty

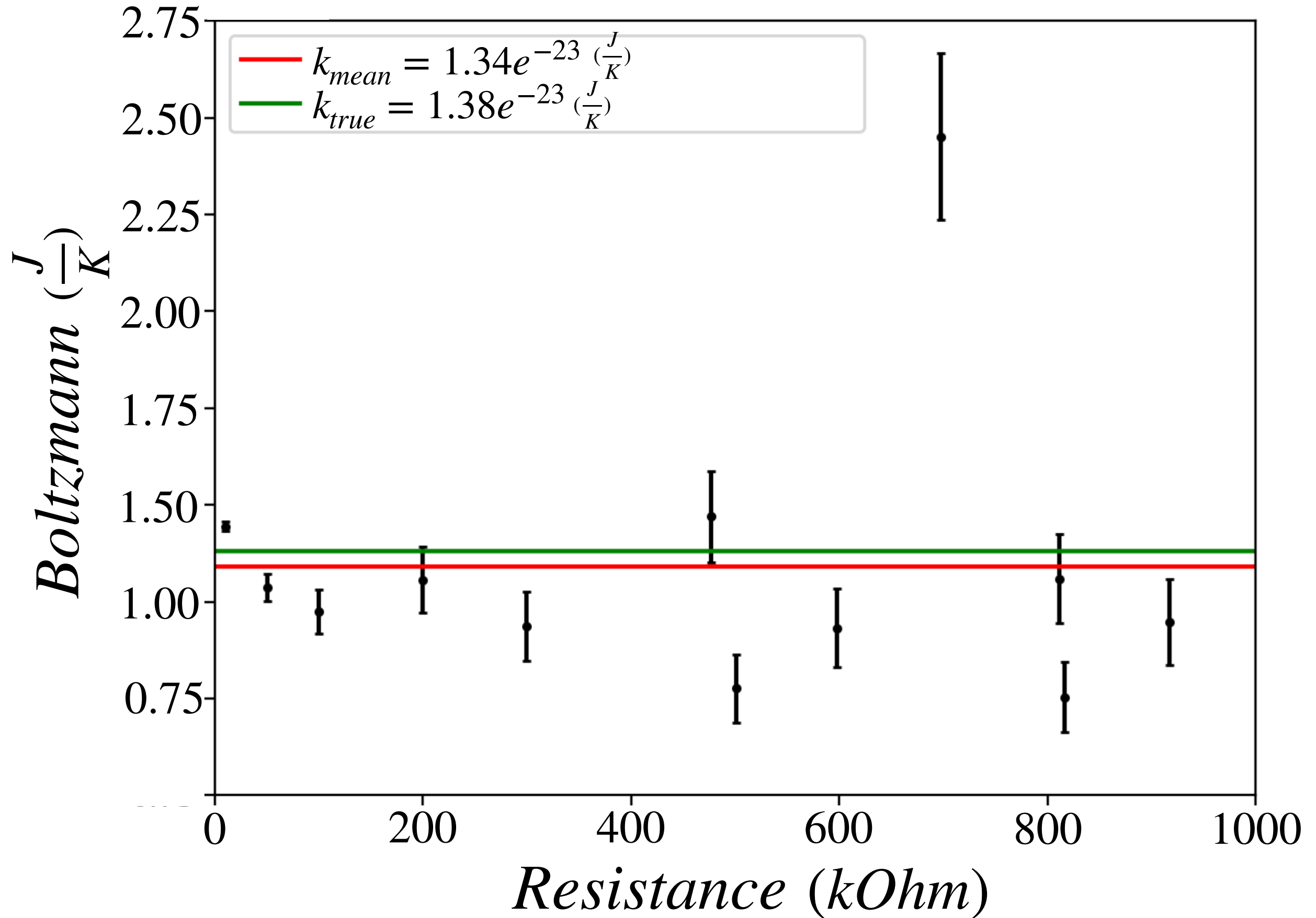
- Combining the numerical integration method and capacitance contributions:

$$\sigma_G \approx \pm 7.0 \%$$

- Uncertainty in capacitance dominates as resistor values get higher

$1 \times e^{-23}$

# *Boltzmann Constant*





# Squared Voltage

- Squared voltage is resistor dependent and is given by:

$$V^2 = V_R^2 - V_S^2$$

- Squared voltage is given by:

$$\sigma_{V^2} = \sqrt{\text{var}(V_R^2) + \text{var}(V_S^2)} \approx \pm 6.5e^{-7} \text{ (volts)}$$

# Boltzmann Error Propagation

- Propagating these sources of error in quadrature through the equation:

$$k = \frac{V^2}{4TGR}$$

- We obtain values for each resistor:

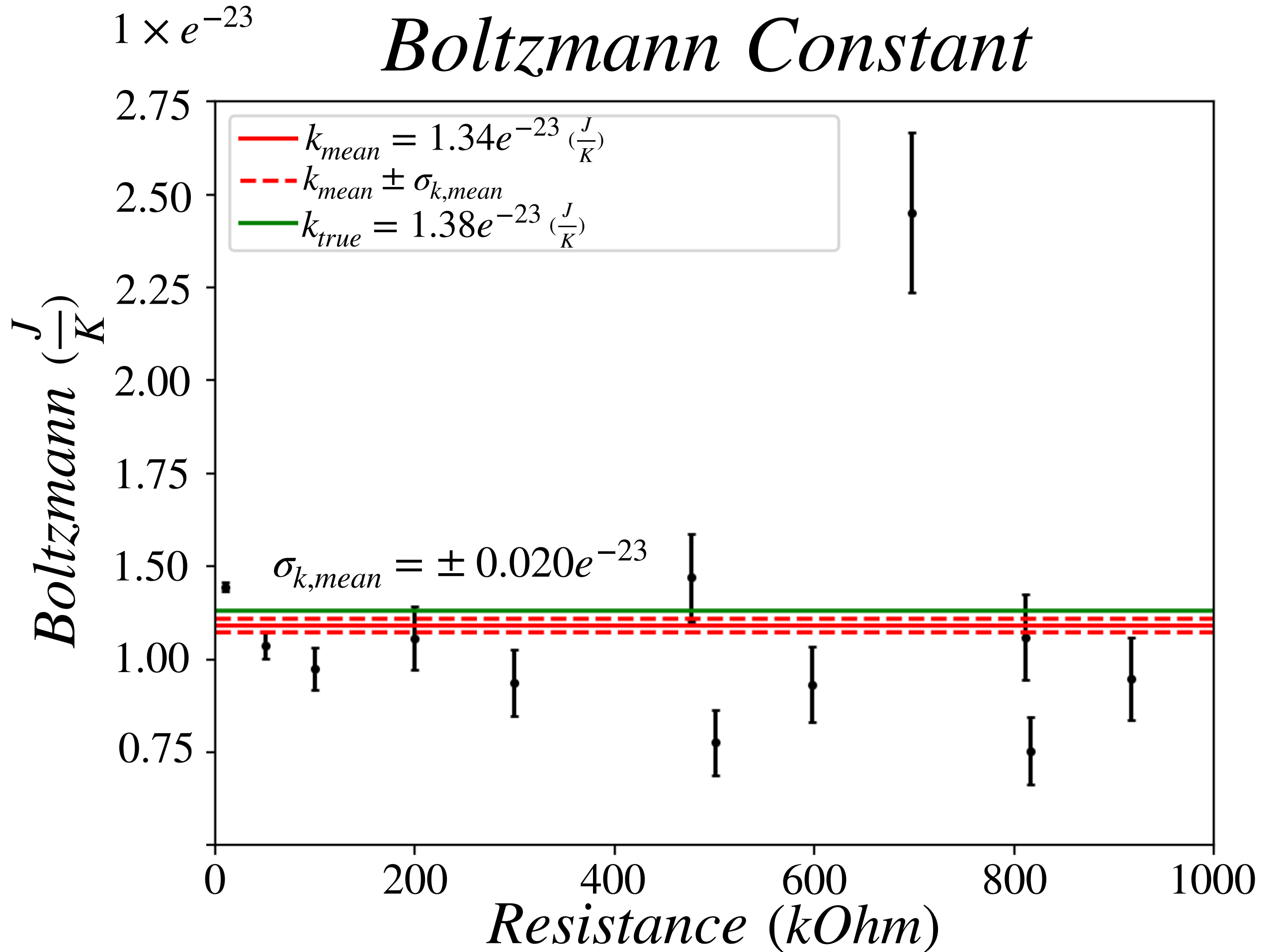
$$\sigma_k \approx \pm 0.10e^{-23} \left(\frac{J}{K}\right)$$

# Uncertainty in Average $k$

- We use a Monte Carlo simulation to raffle  $k$  values within a distribution of width  $2\sigma_k$
- We find the average  $k$  value for each set of points
- The standard deviation of the raffled average-measured average difference is the uncertainty on our average:

$$\sigma_{k,mean} = \pm 0.018e^{-23} \left(\frac{J}{K}\right)$$

# Boltzmann Constant

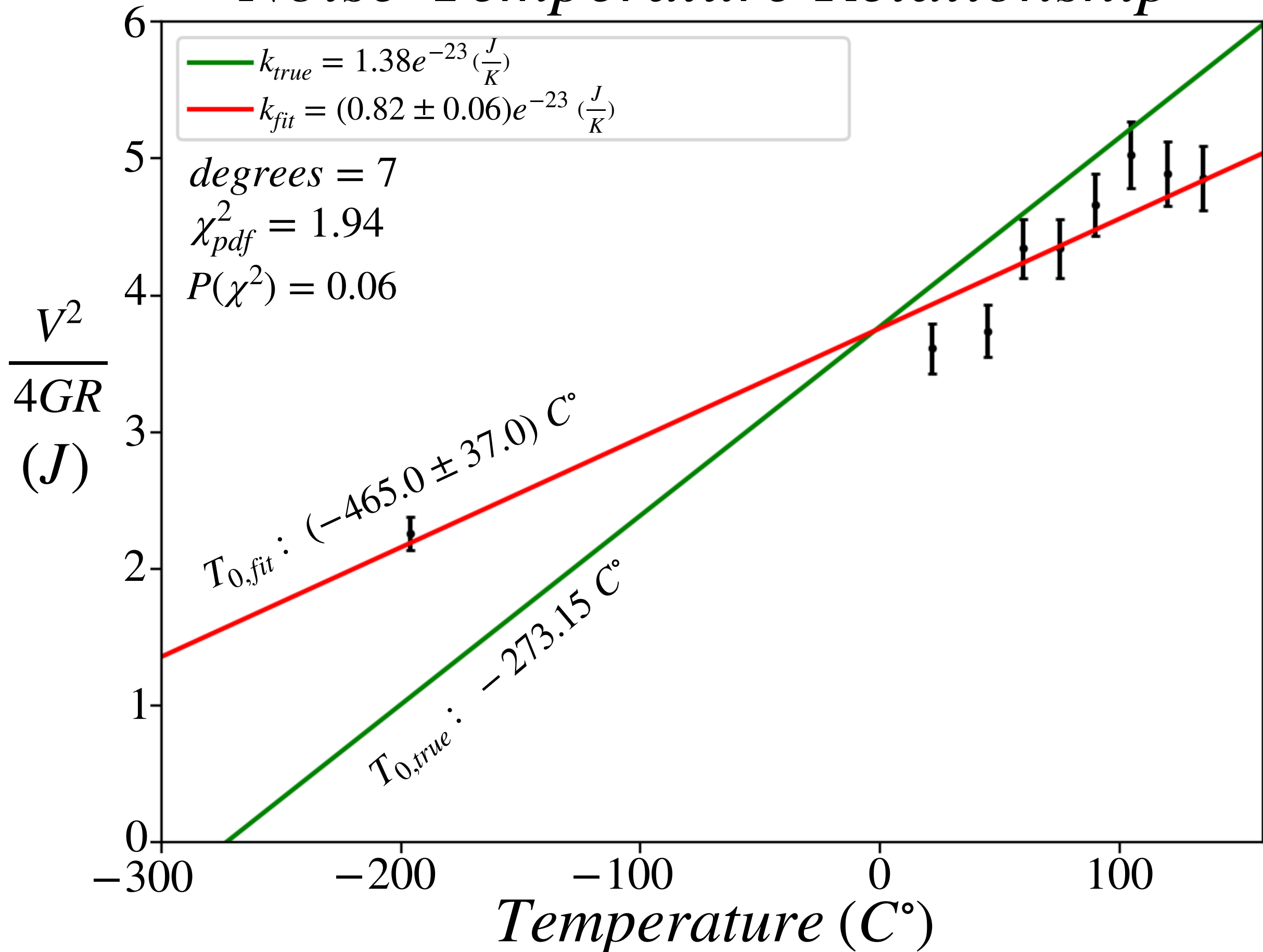


# Absolute Zero

- Centigrade temperature of absolute zero can be extracted:
- For a single 100 (kOhm) resistor, noise is measured over a range of temperatures
- We then plot:

$$\frac{V^2}{4GR} \text{ vs. } T$$

# $1 \times e^{-21}$ *Noise-Temperature Relationship*



# Liquid Nitrogen Data Point

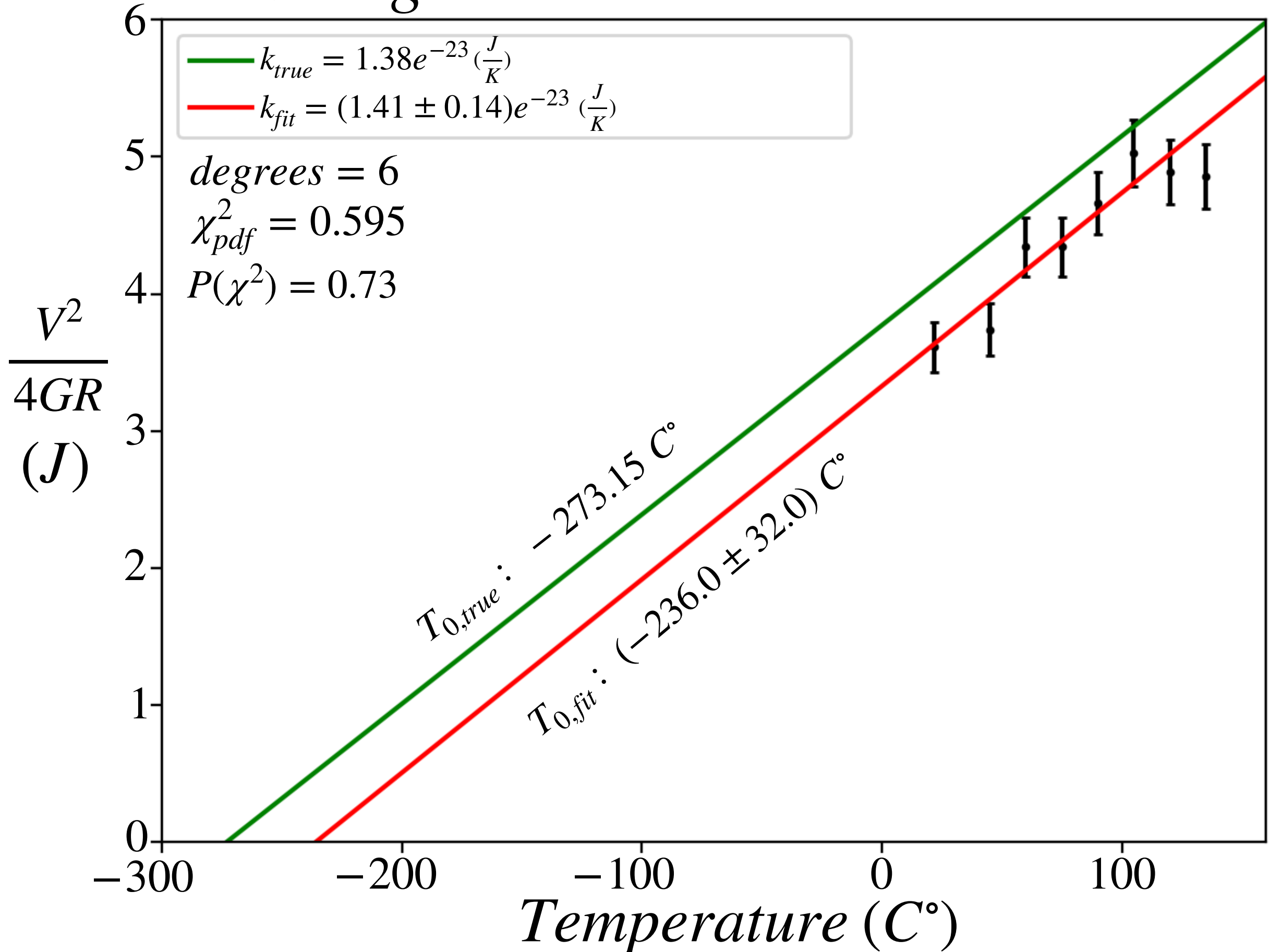
- Follows a slightly different linear relationship than other points
- Seems suspicious - what steps were taken to mitigate systematic uncertainty?

# Liquid Nitrogen Data Point

- Resistor was immediately immersed in bath
- Resistor was allowed significant time to come to equilibrium with bath temperature
- Glass container used to mitigate capacitance effect from box-container contact
- 40  $V_R$  and  $V_S$  measurements were taken as opposed to 10 for all other temperatures
- Performed the measurement twice - yielded very similar results



# $1 \times e^{-21}$ Nitrogen Measurement Excluded



# Absolute Zero Uncertainty

- Using the uncertainty in the linear fit given by the covariance matrix returned, we calculate:

With Nitrogen:  $\sigma_{T_0} \approx \pm 37.0 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

Without Nitrogen:  $\sigma_{T_0} \approx \pm 32.0 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

# Summary

- From our Johnson noise measurement, we extract the following values for our Boltzmann constant:

$$k_{\text{extracted}} = (1.34 \pm 0.020)e^{-23} \frac{J}{K}$$

$$k_{\text{accepted}} = 1.38e^{-23} \frac{J}{K}$$

# Summary

- We extract the following values for absolute zero:

With Nitrogen:  $\begin{cases} \text{Extracted: } (-465.0 \pm 37.0) \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \\ \text{Accepted: } -273.15 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \end{cases}$

Without Nitrogen:  $\begin{cases} \text{Extracted: } (-236.0 \pm 32.0) \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \\ \text{Accepted: } -273.15 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \end{cases}$

# Applications

- Johnson noise is significant when dealing with high precision electronics application using radio frequency technology
- Cellphones, wifi, radio, and much more

**Thank you!**