# Enhancing detectivity in multi-barrier Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD photodetector through numerical optimization of design parameters

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Colloidal quantum dots (CQDs) with variable narrow bandgaps have emerged as powerful competitors to epitaxially grown semiconductors in the domain of infrared light transitions. This class of materials holds great promise for the development of next-generation optoelectronic devices, especially photodetectors. In recent developments, the use of silver chalcogenide CQDs has expanded to biomedical applications of quantum dots. This expansion is attributed to their advantageous properties, such as low toxicity and tunable intraband transitions reaching the mid-infrared window. In this research, we investigate a structure for mid-infrared photon detection in the form of an intraband Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS colloidal quantum dot (CQD) photodetector. Detectivity, a crucial performance parameter, is enhanced through numerical optimization by manipulating key design parameters such as Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQD diameter, Ag<sub>2</sub>Se film doping density, and the number of PbS CQD layers in the barrier layer of the device's active region. This optimization process is conducted at various temperatures and biases. The results reveal that, under the conditions of 1 V bias and 80 K , the designed Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD infrared photodetector achieves peak detectivities. Specifically, the peak detectivities of  $13.13 \times 10^9$  Jones for Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs with a diameter of 3.7 nm and  $11.01 \times 10^9$  Jones for a film doping density of  $6.7 \times 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs.

Keywords: Intraband transition; MIR detection; silver chalcogenide CQD.

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## 1. Introduction

Currently, there is a rapidly expanding research focus on developing new optoelectronic devices that are opening the way to novel applications in detecting light in the mid-infrared (MIR) region. The mid-infrared region is of scientific interest in photodetection due to its alignment with atmospheric transparency windows. Moreover, it provides supplementary thermal information when contrasted with the visible or near-infrared regions [1]. The detection and sensing of MIR photons play an important role in applications such as remote sensing [2], defect inspection [3], medical diagnosis [4], environmental analysis [5], and material sensing and detection [6]. MIR photodetectors using HgCdTe, InSb, and other III-V superlattices demonstrate proper performance. However, the fabrication of these materials involves epitaxial growth on lattice-matched substrates through techniques such as molecular beam epitaxy or chemical vapor deposition, resulting in elevated costs. These high costs prevent the widespread application of MIR photodetectors in various fields due to the intricate material preparation and complex device fabrication processes [7,8]. Therefore, there is a need for cost-effective materials to speed up their development and expand their applications [9]. In recent years, significant progress has been achieved in the field of sensitive MIR

photodetectors, with special emphasis on the use of emerging materials such as graphene [10], black phosphorus [11], and colloidal quantum dots (CQDs) [12]. Colloidal quantum dots have attracted considerable attention as an alternative to conventional bulk epitaxial semiconductors, due to their distinct beneficial properties. These include the ability to tune the optical absorption wavelength based on size, facile solution processing, cost-effectiveness, and large-scale synthesis capabilities [13]. Self-doped CQDs, characterized by a tunable intraband absorption feature within the MIR spectrum through the integration of cost-effective synthesis and facile processing techniques, are a cost-effective alternative to conventional epitaxial MIR photodetectors [14, 15]. A significant advancement in the use of self-doped CQDs for MIR photodetection was characterized by the pioneering contributions of Guyot-Sionnest et al. They introduced the first mid-IR photodetector using intraband transition within HgSe CQDs [16]. Subsequently, based on this important achievement, Chen et al. significantly advanced the field by engineering an MIR photodetector with improved carrier mobility and precise doping modulation in HgSe CQDs [17]. Photodetectors relying on intraband transitions face challenges that require a critical examination of their limitations [18]. The pursuit of non-toxic infrared photodetectors appears as a promising frontier in this field [19]. Unfortunately, the predominant use of heavy metals, especially mercury, in most intraband transition materials raises concerns about their environmental effects, limiting their applications in biomedical fields due to inherent toxicity [20]. Due to this need, the use of non-toxic materials, such as Ag<sub>2</sub>Se quantum dots, can potentially address such concerns. Consequently, it is important to investigate non-toxic MIR photodetectors with intraband transition to enhance their efficiency [21]. However, the current state of non-toxic Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs requires further investigation to refine their properties and optimize their suitability for MIR applications [22]. In their efforts to improve the responsivity of the photodetector, Shihab Bin Hafiz et al. introduced a novel approach by establishing a vertical heterojunction device comprising Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD stacks. This innovative configuration not only restricted the dark current but also simplified the fabrication methods of the device [23]. Shihab Bin Hafiz et al. further optimized the structure using Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs and PbS CQDs. They reported a heterostructure device that was characterized by robust rectifier features. This combination promises to enhance the performance of photodetector devices comprised of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and PbS CQDs [24].

In the present study, we investigate a device characterized by a layered structure: Al/ZnO/Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS multi-barrier CQDs/Au. The active region of the photodetector employs Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs to induce intraband absorption, while PbS CQDs serve as a barrier material. Subsequently, we employ numerical simulations to compute the principal parameters of the photodetectors. Furthermore, we optimize the device performance by varying the size and doping density of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs and altering the number of layers of PbS CQDs within the barrier layer of the device.

#### 2. Method and material

In this study, we employ a proposed structure, as depicted schematically in Fig. 1. The photodetector under investigation shares similarities with the device previously reported by Livache C. *et al.* [25] for toxic self-doped HgSe CQDs, which introduced a model for constructing a configuration capable of generating an electronic structure similar to that of a Multiple Quantum Well (MQW) structure with intraband absorption. However, this less toxic Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS structure used in this study differs in terms of the number of CQD layers within the barriers, as well as variations in CQD sizes and film doping densities.

The photodetector configuration comprises layers of Al/ZnO/Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS multi-barrier CQDs/Au. The bottom electrode is grid-shaped aluminum (Al), facilitating the transmission of mid-IR light. Within this configuration, ZnO nanoparticles serve as the hole-blocking layer (HBL) to effectively diminish dark current. Additionally, the active region comprises nine periods of self-doped Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and PbS colloidal quantum dots (CQDs). The incorporation of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs is important for realizing intraband absorption within the photodetector similar to the MQW structure (Fig. 2),

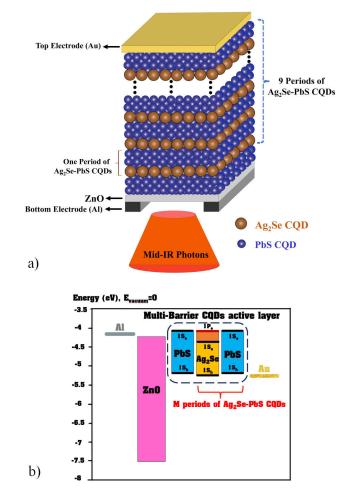


FIGURE 1. a) Schematic structure of the multi barrier CQD MIR photodetector. b) The energy level diagram of the materials used in the studied structure.

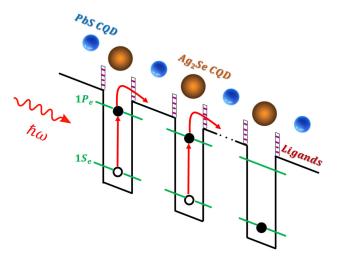


FIGURE 2. Schematic of structure of multi barrier CQD active region of photodetector, consisting of  $Ag_2Se$  CQDs as well and PbS CQDs as barrier.

while PbS CQDs function as a barrier layer in the structure. Finally, the Au layer is deposited as the bottom contact. To determine the performance parameters of the photodetector, it is necessary to perform a self-consistent numerical solution of both the Schrödinger and Poisson equations using the finite difference method. This procedure is essential for obtaining the eigenenergy, eigenfunction, electron concentrations corresponding to each energy level, and the potential profile within the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQDs structure. The onedimensional Schrödinger equation and the Poisson equation for the proposed structure are expressed as follows in Eq. (1) and (2) [26, 27]:

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2}\frac{d}{dz}\left(\frac{1}{m_e^*}\frac{d}{dz}\right) + V(z)\right]\psi_n(z) = E_n\psi_n(z), \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz}\left[\varepsilon(z)\frac{d}{dz}\right]\varphi(z) = -e\left(N_D(z) - n(z)\right),\tag{2}$$

where  $\psi_n(z)$  is the wave function,  $E_n$  is the energy, V is the potential energy,  $\hbar$  is Planck's constant divided by  $2\pi$ ,  $m_e^*$  is the electron effective mass,  $\varepsilon(z)$  is the permittivity, e is the electron charge,  $\varphi(z)$  is the electrostatic potential,  $N_D(z)$  is the ionized donor concentration and n is the local density of confined electrons. V(z) and n(z) can be written as [28,29]:

$$V(z) = \Delta E_{\rm BO} - e\varphi(z), \tag{3}$$

$$n(z) = \frac{k_B T m_e^*}{\pi \hbar^2} \Sigma_n \ln\left[1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_F - E_n}{k_B T}\right)\right] |\psi_n|^2.$$
(4)

Here,  $\Delta E_{BO}$  is energy band offset,  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature,  $E_n$  is the eigenenergy states and  $E_F$  is the Fermi level. In the simulation employing the Finite Difference Method, the proposed structure's inherent periodicity is accounted for by applying periodic boundary conditions to the wave functions. These conditions ensure spatial symmetry and impose continuity, described mathematically as  $\psi_1 = \psi_{n+1}$  and  $\psi_0 = \psi_n$ . Furthermore, the Bias Voltage is designated as the reference potential at the boundaries of the simulated device domain, providing a consistent framework for solving the coupled Schrödinger and Poisson equations. In the subsequent investigation, the parameters acquired in the prior section are applied to derive performance parameters for the photodetector, including photocurrent, responsivity, dark current, and noise. Finally, utilizing these outcomes, the detectivity of the depicted structure in Fig. 1a) is determined. The photocurrent  $I_{photo}$  due to the absorption of MIR radiation in the device is given by [30]:

$$I_{\text{photo}} = ev(F)n_0 A_d \gamma^M + \left[ eA_d I_0 \exp\left(-\alpha(i-1)L_w\right) \left(1 - \exp(-\alpha L_w)\right) \times \frac{r_{\text{es},v} + r_{\text{es},th}}{r_{\text{es},v} + r_{\text{es},th} + r_r} \sum_{i=1}^M \gamma^{M-i} \right],$$
(5)

$$\gamma = \beta_c + (1 - \beta_c) \frac{r_{\text{es},v} + r_{\text{es},th}}{r_{\text{es},v} + r_{\text{es},th} + r_r},$$
(6)

where  $n_0$  is electron density contribution,  $(1 - \beta_c)$  is capture probability at the interface of barrier-well,  $\alpha$  is the intraband absorption coefficient, M is the number of periods of  $Ag_2Se$ CQDs, and  $I_0$  stands for the intensity of light.  $r_{\text{es},v}$ ,  $r_{\text{es},th}$ , and  $r_r$  define the escape rate due to external voltage, the escape rate due to temperature, and the rate of recombination, respectively, and  $\alpha$  is the intraband absorption coefficient that is given by [31],

$$r_{\text{es},v}(V_b) = r_{es}(0) \exp\left[\frac{V_b}{V_{epl}}\right],\tag{7}$$

1

$$r_{\text{es},th} = \left(\frac{k_B T}{2\pi m_e^* L_w}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{V_{epl}}{k_B T}\right],\tag{8}$$

$$r_r = \frac{1}{\tau_r},\tag{9}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2 \omega n_{12}}{\varepsilon_0 c n_{ref}} M_{21} (\cos \phi)^2,$$
  
 
$$\times \frac{\Gamma/2}{(E_2 - E_1 - \hbar \omega)^2 + (\Gamma/2)^2},$$
 (10)

$$n_{12} = \frac{m^* k_B T}{\pi \hbar^2} \ln \left[ \frac{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_F - E_1}{k_B T}\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_F - E_2}{k_B T}\right)} \right], \quad (11)$$

where  $r_{\rm es}(0)$  stands for the rate of emission of electrons under zero bias,  $V_{epl}$  stands for the effective potential barrier lowering that generally depends on the band offset,  $\tau_r$  indicates carrier lifetime of electrons,  $\phi$  is the incident angle of MIR photons,  $n_{12}$  is the effective density of electrons between two subbands,  $M_{21}$  is the dipole matrix element,  $\Gamma$  is the line width, and  $\omega$  is the angular frequency of the MIR photons [30]. The concept of responsivity stands for quantifying the output electrical signal of the photodetector per input optical light. The responsivity  $\Re$  can be expressed as [32]:

$$\Re = I_{\rm photo}/P_{in},\tag{12}$$

where,  $P_{in}$  is power of the incident IR light. The dark current, which can limit the sensitivity and performance of photodetectors, is modeled in the multi-barrier CQD MIR photodetector. The two dominant phenomena contributing to the dark current are the sequential resonant tunneling contribution and thermionic emission. Using Levine's model, the dark current can be expressed as [33]:

$$I_{dark} = I_{st} + I_{th},\tag{13}$$

where  $I_{st}$  represents the contribution from sequential resonant tunneling and  $I_{th}$  represents the contribution from thermionic emission (14)

The thermal noise can be expressed as [36]:

$$i_{\text{thermal}} = [4k_B T \Delta f / R_0]^{1/2},$$
 (19)

where  $g_n$  stands for the noise gain,  $\Delta f$  is the operating bandwidth of photodetector, and  $R_0$  stands for the zero-bias resistance. The total noise current of photodetector can be evaluated as [36]:

$$i_{tn}{}^2 = i_{\text{shot}}{}^2 + i_{\text{thermal}}{}^2. \tag{20}$$

The detectivity is the most important performance parameter that characterizes the sensitivity and the general performance of IR photodetectors. The detectivity of the device can be defined as [37]:

$$D^* = \Re [A_d \Delta f]^{1/2} / i_{tn}.$$
 (21)

## 3. Results and discussion

The Schrödinger and Poisson equations were discretized on uniform meshes using the finite difference method and iteratively solved until a self-consistent solution for electron concentrations at each level and the potential profile of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS colloidal quantum dots was achieved. Subsequently, key performance parameters for the MIR CQD photodetector were determined based on the computed electron concentrations. To enhance the performance of the device, particularly in detecting weak input light and operating more effectively at elevated temperatures, a critical focus on optimizing the detectivity of CQD infrared photodetectors is essential. This optimization entails characterizing the dark current, photocurrent, responsivity, and noise properties through engineering of the device structure under varying temperature conditions. Figure 1 illustrates the configuration of a multibarrier photodetector device. In this study, numerical calculations were employed to evaluate the performance parameters of a self-doped colloidal quantum dot mid-infrared photodetector at different temperatures. The primary objective was

the barrier height,  $m_b^*$  and  $m_e^*$  are the electron effective mass in the barrier and well, respectively. v(F) is the effective drift velocity, and  $T_{etp}(E, F)$  is the electron tunneling probability, given respectively by [34],  $(E) = E^{1/(1+e(E_{eff}(E))^2)^{1/2}}$  (16)

 $I_{th} = \frac{em_e^*}{\pi\hbar^2} \frac{A_d \upsilon(F)}{L_w} eFL_b \exp\left[-\frac{E_B - eFL_w - E_F}{k_B T}\right], \quad (15)$ 

where  $L_b$  and  $L_w$  are the barrier and well width, respectively,

 $A_d$  is the detection area, F is the external electric field,  $E_B$  is

$$v(F) = \mu F / (1 + (\mu F / v_s)^2)^{1/2}, \tag{16}$$

$$T_{etp}(E,F) = \exp\left(-\frac{4}{3\hbar eF}(2m_b^*)^{1/2} \times \left[\{E_B - eFL_w - E\}^{3/2} - \{E_B - eF(L_w + L_b) - E\}^{3/2}\right]\right), \quad (17)$$

where  $\mu$  is the mobility and  $v_s$  is the saturated velocity for electrons. The noise of IR photodetectors originates mainly from three sources, including shot noise, thermal noise, and flicker noise (significantly dominant at low frequencies and can be neglected here) [35]. The shot noise can be evaluated as [36]:

$$i_{\text{shot}} = [4e \ I_{\text{dark}} g_n \Delta f]^{1/2}. \tag{18}$$

TABLE I. Parameters for the multi-barrier Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD photodetector [38–41]. m<sub>0</sub> is the free electron mass.

Parameter	Value
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se CQDs diameter	3 to 6 nm
PbS CQDs diameter	5 nm
Film doping density of Ag <sub>2</sub> Se CQDs	$4 \times 10^{18}$ to $10 \times 10^{18}$ cm $^{-3}$
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se CQDs fraction in active region	50%, 35%, 25%, 20%
Power of the incident MIR light $(P_{in})$	1 mW
Detection area of device $(A_d)$	$200 \times 200 \ \mu \text{m}$
Electron mobility	$19.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$
Dielectric constant of Ag <sub>2</sub> Se ( $\varepsilon_r$ )	11
Dielectric constant of PbS ( $\varepsilon_r$ )	170
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se effective electron mass $(m_e^*)$	$0.32m_0$
PbS effective electron mass $(m_b^*)$	$0.09\ m_0$

 $I_{st} = \frac{eA_d}{\hbar L_w^2} T_{etp}(E, F) k_B T \ln t$ 

 $\times \left| \frac{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_F}{k_B T}\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_F - eFL_b}{k_B T}\right)} \right|,$ 

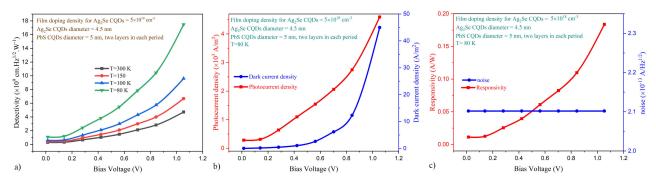


FIGURE 3. a) Detectivity of the device as a function of bias voltage, at different temperatures. b) Photocurrent density and Dark current density as a function of bias voltage, at T = 80 K. c) Responsivity and noise as a function of bias voltage, at T = 80 K, under MIR light illumination.

to enhance detectivity by optimizing the structural parameters of the device. Detectivity features were analyzed under diverse bias voltages, varied sizes, and film doping densities of colloidal quantum dots, along with changes in the number of PbS CQDs layers within the barriers at different temperatures. The incident mid-infrared photons were absorbed within the active region of a colloidal quantum dot MIR photodetector, resulting in the generation of photocarriers. This active region consisted of 9 periods of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD layers. It is assumed that within each layer (refer to Fig. 1), the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and PbS CQDs are uniformly distributed over a relatively large area, leading to a consistently spherical shape with an identical diameter. The key simulation parameters for the photodetector are summarized in Table I.

The colloidal quantum dots were passivated through the use of insulating long-chain ligands such as oleic acid (OA) or oleylamine. Subsequently, these ligands were replaced with conductive short-chain ligands such as ammonium thiocyanate (NH<sub>4</sub>SCN). The process of exchanging ligands involved transferring the organic-capped CQDs to a polar solution, resulting in a significant improvement in mobility and enhanced photoresponse [42]. Changing from long-chain to short-chain (such as NH<sub>4</sub>SCN) ligands led to a reduction in thickness. This reduction diminished barriers and increased carrier mobility. It is supposed that mobility remains relatively constant, regardless of particle size variations, as the study focuses on a narrow size range where mobility is nearoptimal [43]. Figure 3a) illustrates the detectivity of the device as a function of bias voltage at various temperatures when exposed to MIR light. The quantum dots used in the study, Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and PbS CQDs, have diameters of 4.5 nm and 5 nm, respectively. The film doping density for Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs is specified as  $5 \times 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. Additionally, the active region comprises nine periods of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQDs. The results depicted in Fig. 3 reveal an upward trend in detectivity with increasing bias voltage. This rise in detectivity is attributed to heightened photocurrent and responsivity. The trend observed in our study aligns with the findings reported in previous studies [44–46], exhibiting similar patterns in the dark current, photocurrent, and responsivity as functions of the bias voltage. On the other hand, the detectivity experiences a decline as the temperature rises. This phenomenon can be comprehended by considering various interconnected factors, including the escalation of thermal generation of carriers, an increase in dark current and carrier leakage, and a reduction in carrier lifetime.

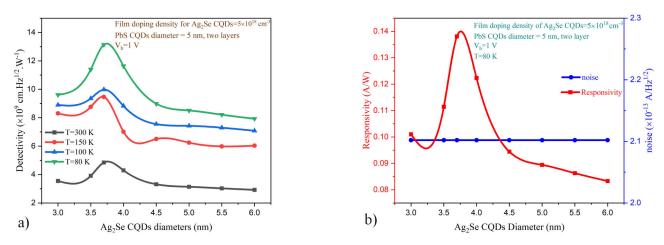


FIGURE 4. a) Detectivity of the device as a function of the diameter of Ag2Se CQDs, at different temperatures. b) Responsivity and total noise as a function of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs film doping density, at T = 80 K.

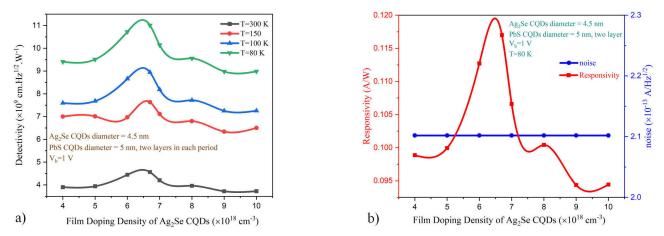


FIGURE 5. a) Detectivity of the device as a function of film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, at different temperatures. b) Thermal noise and dark-current shot noise as a function of film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, at T = 80 K. Responsivity and total noise as a function of film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, at T = 80 K.

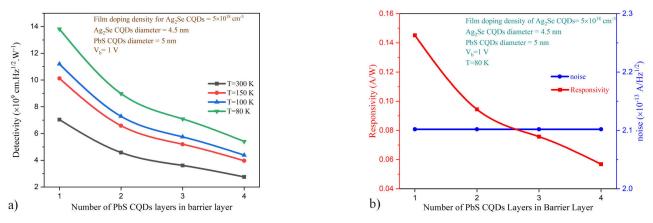


FIGURE 6. a) Detectivity of the device as a function of the different number of periods of the  $Ag_2Se-PbS$  CQDs in active region, at different temperatures. b) Responsivity and total noise as a function of the different number of PbS layers in barrier, at T = 80 K.

The first investigation of the device structure focuses on assessing how varying the diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs affects the detectivity of the photodetector. Figure 4 displays the variations in noise, responsivity, and detectivity in relation to the diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, while maintaining constant film doping densities and a fixed diameter of PbS CQDs. The figure indicates that, at a constant temperature, an increase in the diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs initially enhances detectivity. This improvement is attributed to the heightened absorption associated with larger CQDs, resulting in increased responsivity. The variation between the absorption and the diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs follows a trajectory comparable to those observed in previous studies [47]. However, detectivity subsequently declines after reaching an optimal well width. This decline is attributable to amplified carrier trapping and nonradiative recombination processes, leading to a reduction in responsivity. Figure 4a) specifically depicts that the peak detectivity, reaching  $13.13 \times 10^9$  Jones (cm<sup>2</sup>Hz<sup>1/2</sup>W<sup>-1</sup>), occurs at 80 K for Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs with a diameter of 3.7 nm.

The next investigation aims to explore the impact of varying the doping density of  $Ag_2Se$  CQDs film on the detectivity of the MIR photodetector. Figure 5 depicts variations in noise, responsivity, and detectivity of the device concerning the film doping density of  $Ag_2Se CQDs$ , with a fixed applied bias, and CQD sizes.

The results indicate that, at a constant temperature, an increase in the film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs initially boosts detectivity. This initial enhancement is attributed to the heightened electron concentration within the structure due to increased film doping density, resulting in an augmented photocurrent and improved responsivity of the photodetector, consequently leading to increased detectivity. However, as the film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs continues to rise, various mechanisms, such as tunneling leakage current, come into play and can cause a decline in responsivity and detectivity beyond a certain threshold of film doping density. The optimal film doping density for achieving maximum detectivity is contingent upon multiple factors, including the specific design and material parameters of the photodetector. It is crucial to meticulously optimize the doping density to attain optimal performance in intraband photodetectors. Additionally, Fig. 5a) illustrates that the peak detectivity of  $11.01 \times 10^9$  Jones (cmHz<sup>1/2</sup>W<sup>-1</sup>) was achieved at 80 K for a film doping density of  $6.7 \times 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs. This simulation reveals a pattern of change in the detectivity versus the film doping density consistent with previously published results [48]. In the final stage of investigation, we are exploring the impact of altering the number of layers of PbS CQDs within the barrier layer of the device on the detectivity of the MIR photodetector. Figure 6 presents the acquired data on noise, responsivity, and detectivity of the IR photodetector concerning the number of layers in the barrier for a constant film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs and a fixed diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and PbS CQDs.

Figure 6a) indicates a decline in the detectivity of the device as the number of layers containing PbS CQDs increases. This reduction in detectivity is attributed to various factors, including reduced carrier tunneling, increased carrier scattering, and shortened carrier lifetime, all contributing to a decrease in responsivity. The overall trend observed is a reduction in detectivity as the barrier width increases in the intraband MIR photodetector. The obtained results for the relationship between the detectivity and the number of layers of PbS CQDs within the barrier layer exhibit a trend consistent with previously reported findings [49].

# 4. Conclusion

To summarize, our investigation centered on the structure of a mid-infrared colloidal quantum dot photodetector composed of an Al/ZnO/Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS multi barrier CQDs/Au layer configuration, demonstrating intraband absorption. We explored how film doping density, the diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, and the number of layers in the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQDs films within the active region affect the photodetector's performance under a 1 V bias voltage. Our findings indicate that detectivity initially rises with the increasing diameter of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs, leading to enhanced absorption and improved responsivity. However, beyond an optimal diameter, detectivity decreases due to increased carrier trapping and non-radiative recombination, causing a decline in responsivity. The peak detectivity of  $13.13 \times 10^9$  Jones (cmHz<sup>1/2</sup>W<sup>-1</sup>) is observed at 80 K for Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs with an optimal 3.7 nm diameter. Increasing the film doping density of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs initially enhances detectivity due to improved responsivity, but this improvement diminishes over time due to mechanisms like tunneling leakage current, resulting in decreased responsivity. The maximum detectivity, reaching  $11.01 \times 10^9$  Jones (cm  $Hz^{1/2}W^{-1}$ ), is achieved at 80 K with an optimal film doping density of  $6.7 \times 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Ag<sub>2</sub>Se CQDs. Furthermore, the number of layers of PbS CQDs within the barrier layer impacts device detectivity. The detectivity of the device decreased with an increasing number of layers due to factors such as reduced carrier tunneling, increased carrier scattering, and reduced carrier lifetime, leading to a decrease in responsivity. In conclusion, our study provides insights into optimizing parameters for achieving peak detectivity in Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-PbS CQD-based MIR photodetectors.

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