

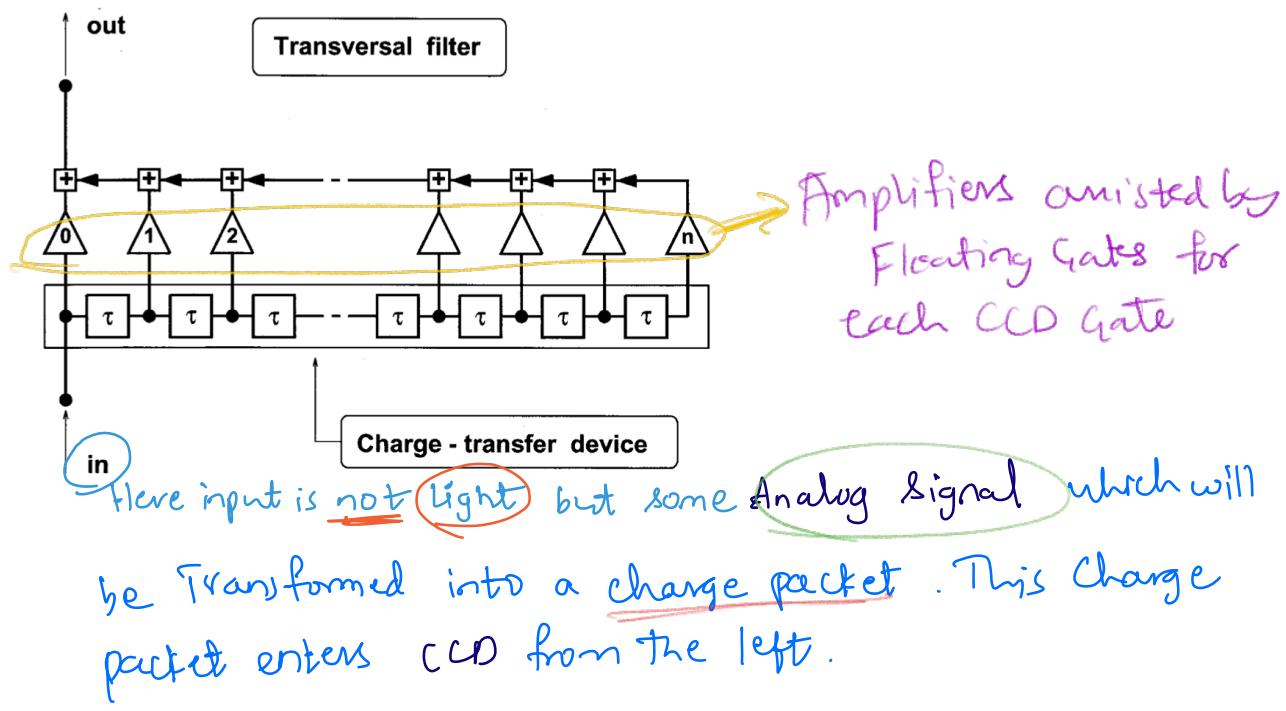
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Lecture-18

Revanth Reddy Pannala
EBIT, Unibio
ఫ్లోచ్‌బ్స్ వైఎస్

* Applications of CCD's apart from being Image Sensors

- We can use CCD as a Delay Line and thereby as a component in Filter Design.



τ : Time delay

- Similarly we can inject as many input signals as possible by shifting the already existing charge packets to the right by one step each time.

* By controlling the gains of amplifiers we will be building a filter to our specifications

Use of the CCD as a Filter

- The filtering operation is based on the properties of the Fourier transform of a function $v(t)$,

$$V(\omega) = \mathcal{F}v \doteq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} v(t) \exp(-j\omega t) dt,$$

- in particular on the convolution integral

Transfer function $u(t) = h(t) * v(t) \doteq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(t') v(t - t') dt' = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(HV),$

with $H(\omega) = \mathcal{F}h$. If H is a transfer function, it must be $h(t') = 0$ for $t' < 0$, whence $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \leftarrow \int_0^{+\infty}$. The discrete form of the convolution integral is

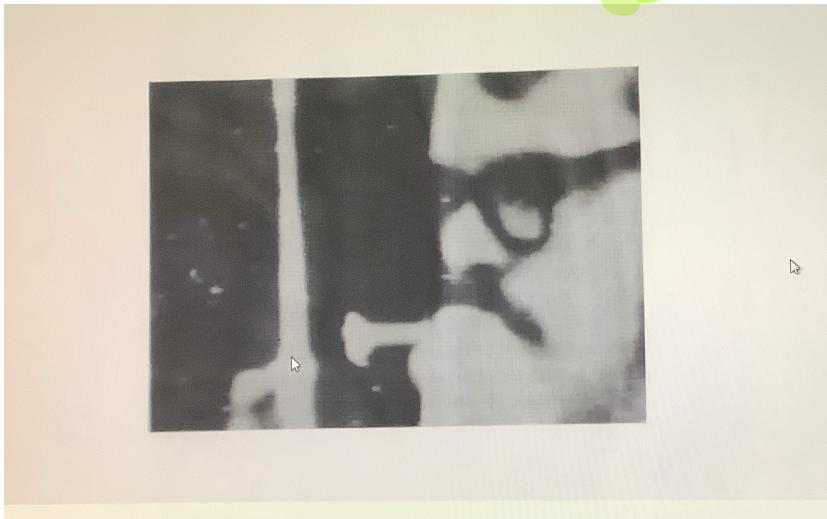
Filtered signal $u(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \simeq \sum_{i=0}^n h(t'_i) v(t - t'_i) \Delta t'.$

Letting $\tau \doteq \Delta t'$, $a_i \doteq h(t'_i) \tau$, $t'_i = i\tau$, the above becomes

Finite delay of one block of CCD to the next $u(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i v(t - i\tau) = a_M \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{a_i}{a_M} v(t - i\tau),$

with $a_M = \max(a_i)$. With a suitable choice of the attenuations a_i/a_M , this expression can be implemented by a CCD used as a delay line.

→ phenomenon of Blooming

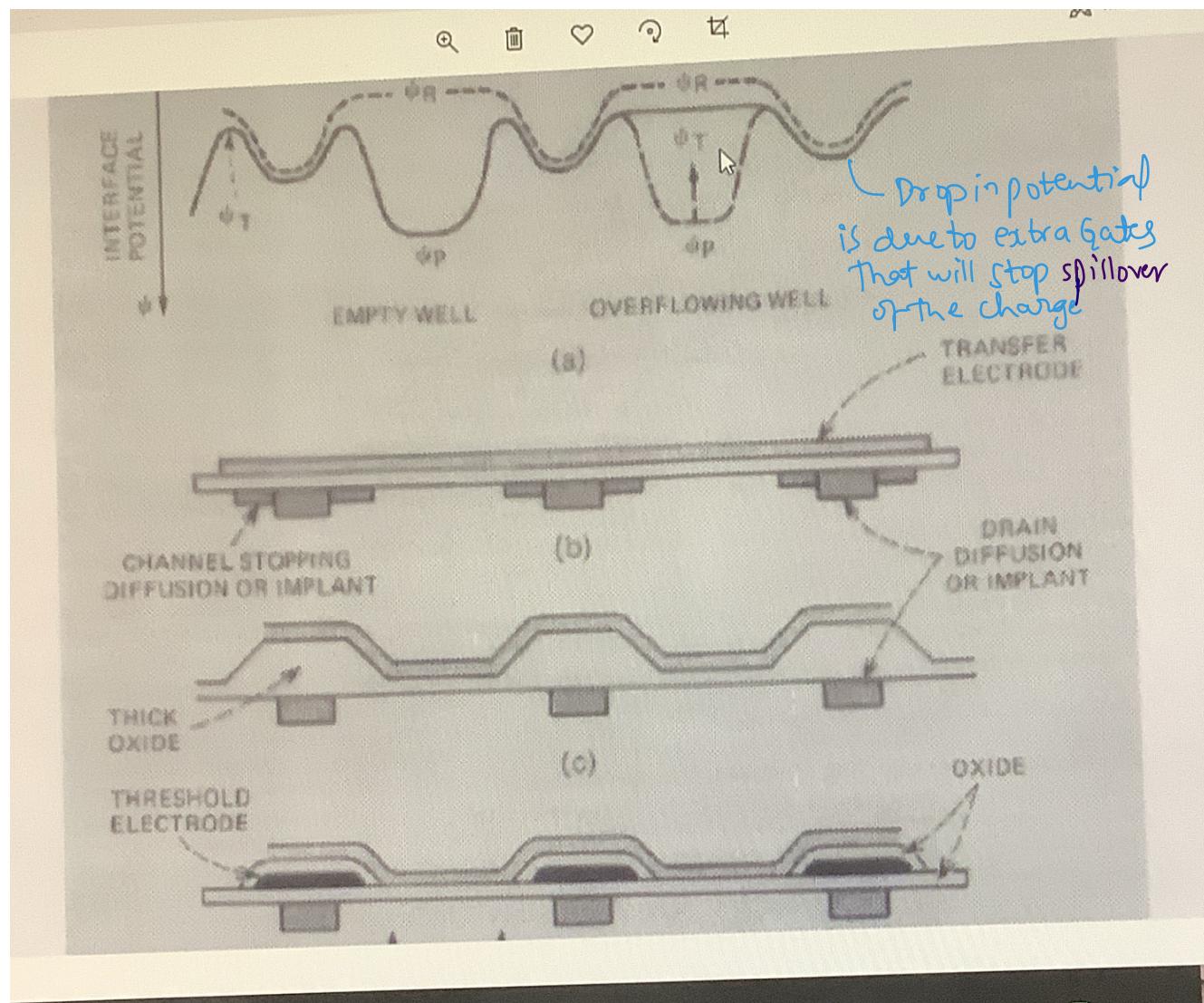


- Here, we can see a person lighting a cigarette.
- But the spot where the flame is so bright that the noise charges generated by CCD is so large. That

they cannot be accommodated at the same location of CCD as they spread. They typically spread along same CCD so they are spread vertically in the figure. This is called Blooming.

- one possible solution to Blooming is to realize extra Gates on the two sides of the CCD.

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The Drift-Diffusion Transport Equation — IV

The contribution of the term containing the magnetic field to the current density of the a th band, when the magnetic field is sufficiently small, is $\hat{\mu}_a(\mathbf{B} \wedge \mathbf{g}_a)$. The mobility tensor $\hat{\mu}_a = \tau_{pn}/\hat{m}_a$ is diagonal and, in the conduction band of silicon, has one of the following forms:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mu_l & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_l \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \mu_l & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_l & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_l \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \mu_l & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_l \end{bmatrix},$$

with $\mu_l \doteq \tau_{pn}/m_l$, $\mu_t \doteq \tau_{pn}/m_t$. In turn, \mathbf{g}_a has the form $\mathbf{g}_a = \hat{\mu}_a/(M_C \mu_n) \mathbf{g}$. Adding over the valleys with $M_C = 6$

$$\sum_{a=1}^{M_C} \hat{\mu}_a (\mathbf{B} \wedge \mathbf{g}_a) = \frac{\mu_t (\mu_t + 2\mu_l)}{3\mu_n} \mathbf{B} \wedge \mathbf{g} = a_n \mu_n \mathbf{B} \wedge \mathbf{g},$$

with $a_n \doteq \mu_t (\mu_t + 2\mu_l)/(3\mu_n^2)$. In conclusion, the current density of the electrons in the conduction band reads

$$\mathbf{J}_n = q\mu_n n \boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}} + qD_n \operatorname{grad} n + qa_n \mu_n \mathbf{B} \wedge (\mu_n n \boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}} + D_n \operatorname{grad} n),$$

which is called *drift-diffusion transport equation*.

* we begin by investigating the behaviour of the semiconductor when we have the presence of a magnetic field in the semiconductor.

In general when we consider the motion of charges in a semiconductor in principle we should use all equations belonging to Maxwell equations but at some point we introduced the (QSA) Quasi Static Approximation that is applicable

When the typical time in which there is a variation of the applied voltage to the device is much much longer than the propagation time of the radiation.

$$\vec{J}_n = q\mu_n n \vec{\mathcal{E}} + qD_n \text{grad} n + qa_n \mu_n \vec{B} \wedge (\mu_n n \vec{\mathcal{E}} + D_n \text{grad} n),$$

which is called *drift-diffusion transport equation*.

DSA

i.e In the expression of the Electric field we only consider the Gradient of the Electric potential and we neglect the Time derivative

- However, when it comes to sensors we may wish to exploit the properties of semiconductor in order to detect the Magnetic field that is in the environment
- To build a Magnetic sensor we have to consider another contribution from external force acting on the e^- s (or) Holes in the semiconductor and this other contribution is of Magnetic type.

→ If we limit ourselves to {electron e^- s and the Drift Diffusion Model we obtain the

Magnetic

$$\mathbf{J}_n = q\mu_n n \mathbf{E} + qD_n \operatorname{grad} n + qa_n \mu_n \mathbf{B} \wedge (\mu_n n \mathbf{E} + D_n \operatorname{grad} n),$$

below Eqⁿ

Drift Diffusion

external Magneticfield

which is called **drift-diffusion transport equation**.

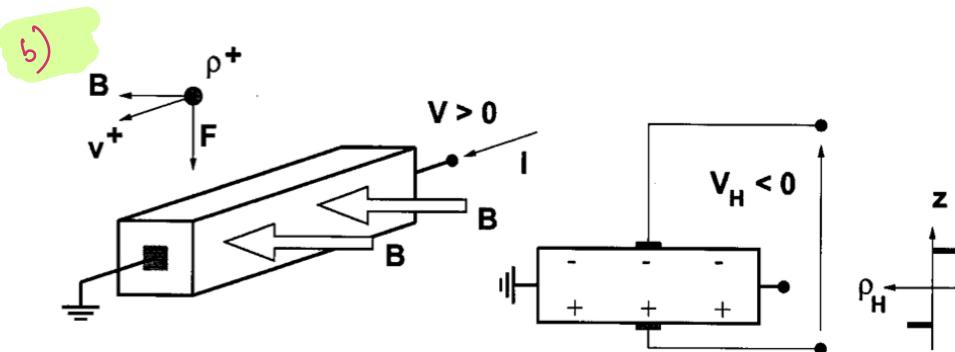
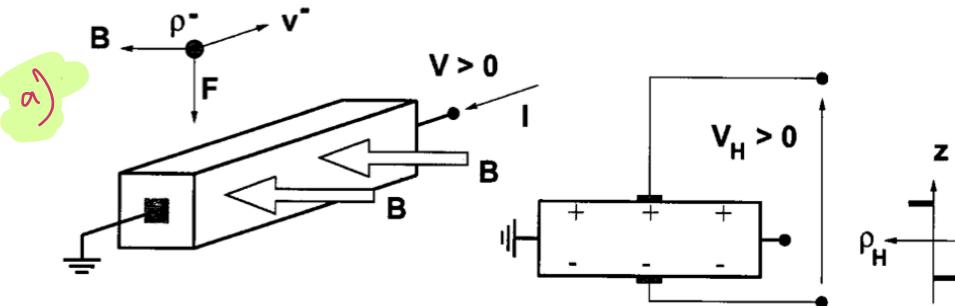
" a_n " coefficient is a dimensionless quantity and is a complicated combination of the terms of the Hall Tensor

- In practice the sensors that are devoted to the detection of the magnetic field are Uniform in space. This makes it possible to simplify some how the Eqⁿ above, because we don't have the Gradient of the concentration. So we can Neglect the Diffusion Term \rightarrow we consider only Drift term.

→ We shall examine one (or) two important effects that we can obtain in a semiconductor in presence of a Magnetic Field. The first one is a so called **Hall Effect**



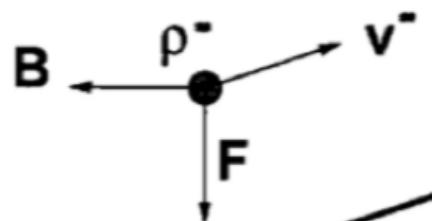
HALL EFFECT



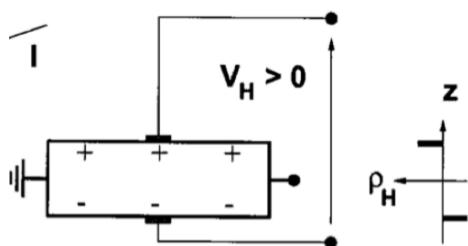
T. 8.25: Misura dell'effetto Hall.

- Consider figure-a A uniform Bar of Semiconductor the semiconductor is shown in the middle part of the figure from the side
- Since the voltage $V > 0$ The current will enter the Bar from the right contact and flows towards left contact.
- we assume that the device is long & thin so more concern we can assume that the flow lines of the current density are parallel to the axis of the device & also parallel to each other

- At this point assume that you apply a magnetic field normal to the lateral face of the device ' B ' indicated in the figure.
- Considering the case where electric current is carried by the Electrons. So if the current goes from Right to Left that means the Average velocity of the electrons is opposite to it. So if you look at the little diagram that is in the upper left corner of the page we see a v^- which indicates orientation of the Average velocity of e^- , and charge density is also called ρ^- .
- Now, the magnetic field produces a Lorentz force that acts onto the Electrons in the vertical direction
 - * Lorentz force is the Vector product of B & Charge (Here is -ve) \therefore Force is downwards



- So when we apply Magnetic field the flow lines of current density are pushed down wards near the lower face of the device .



It's as if you have accumulation of excess negative charge near the lower face.
Device is globally neutral we have pos charge on the upper face

- * when we have this two separate layers of charge one pos & one neg we have an Electric field that is vertical in the Device it's oriented from pos charge to neg charge . we assume the field to be Uniform

we know $E = -\frac{dv}{dr}$

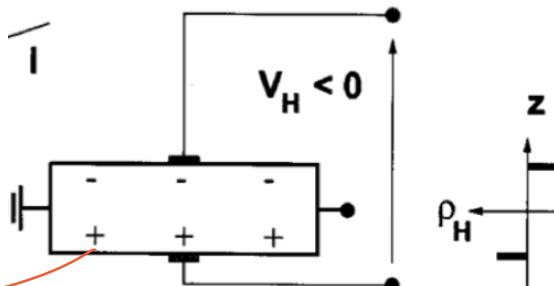
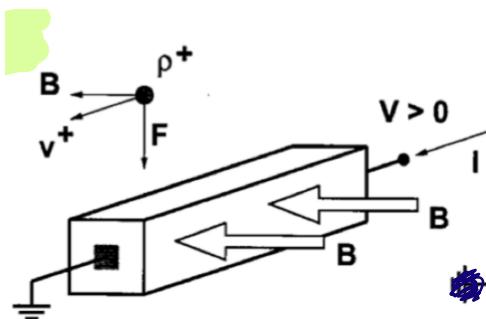
\therefore if we multiply ' E ' by the Thickness of the Device you have a Voltage drop

- This voltage is V_H whole voltage
we can measure the V_H as shown in the figure from the contacts in the middle with

a measuring equipment of Infinite Impedance.
i.e. you measure the voltage without absorbing any current.

- Of course, we can expect the whole voltage to be dependent on the **Intensity of the Applied Magnetic field** and some other physical and Geometrical properties of the device.

 → we repeat the experiment on a semiconductor with p-type doping i.e figure-b



Accumulation of +ve charges on the lower edge of the device

Q) How can we exploit the above properties to measure external Magnetic field?

Measurements Using the Hall Effect — I

In a uniformly-doped semiconductor sample, slightly perturbed from equilibrium, the contribution of the diffusive effect to the charge transport is negligible, whence

$$\mathbf{J}_n = q\mu_n n \mathbf{E} - qa_n \mu_n^2 n \mathbf{E} \wedge \mathbf{B},$$

$$\mathbf{J}_p = q\mu_p p \mathbf{E} + qa_p \mu_p^2 p \mathbf{E} \wedge \mathbf{B}.$$

The total current density $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{J}_n + \mathbf{J}_p$ then reads

$$\boxed{\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathbf{E} + r \sigma^2 \mathbf{E} \wedge \mathbf{B}},$$

where $\sigma = q\mu_p p + q\mu_n n$ is the electrical conductivity and

$$r = \frac{q}{\sigma^2} (a_p \mu_p^2 p - a_n \mu_n^2 n) = \frac{a_p \mu_p^2 p - a_n \mu_n^2 n}{q (\mu_p p + \mu_n n)^2}$$

is the Hall coefficient. The two quantities σ and r can be measured independently. While σ is positive definite, r has a sign. In particular, the following limiting cases hold:

$$\begin{cases} p \gg n & \Rightarrow \sigma \simeq q\mu_p p, \quad r \simeq a_p/(qp) > 0 \\ n \gg p & \Rightarrow \sigma \simeq q\mu_n n, \quad r \simeq -a_n/(qn) < 0 \end{cases}$$

This very easy method to calculate concentration of

Major carriers in uniform materials & also the Mobility



Measurements Using the Hall Effect — II

- From the limiting cases, the majority-carrier concentration and mobility can easily be determined as functions of, e.g., lattice temperature and dopant concentrations:

$$\begin{cases} p \gg n & \Rightarrow p = a_p/(qr), \quad \mu_p = \sigma r/a_p \\ n \gg p & \Rightarrow n = -a_n/(qr), \quad \mu_n = -\sigma r/a_n \end{cases}$$

- The measurement of σ and r is easily carried out by applying $\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathcal{E} + r \sigma^2 \mathcal{E} \wedge \mathbf{B}$ to a prismatic sample with $L \gg H, W$, in which the bias is applied between the edges normal to \mathbf{i}_L , and $\mathbf{B} = Bi_W$. Observing that $\mathcal{E}_W = 0$, $J_W = 0$, and $\mathcal{E} \wedge \mathbf{B} = \mathcal{E}_L B \mathbf{i}_H - \mathcal{E}_H B \mathbf{i}_L$, it follows

$$J_L = \sigma \mathcal{E}_L - r \sigma^2 \mathcal{E}_H B, \quad J_H = \sigma \mathcal{E}_H + r \sigma^2 \mathcal{E}_L B.$$

- As B is small and $J_H = 0$, the above become no current in vertical direction

$$J = J_L \simeq \sigma \mathcal{E}_L, \quad \mathcal{E}_H = -r \sigma \mathcal{E}_L B \simeq -r J B.$$

- As $\mathcal{E}_L \simeq V_L/L$, $\mathcal{E}_H \simeq V_H/H$, $J = I/(WH)$, whence $V_H = -rBI/W$, $I/(WH) = \sigma V_L/L$. In conclusion,

$$\sigma = \frac{LI}{WHV_L}$$

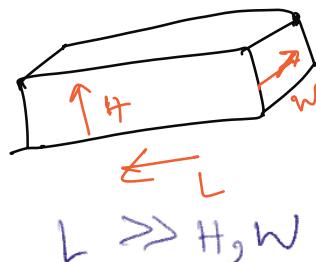
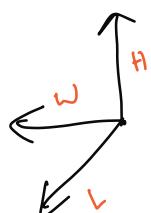
Conductivity

$$r = -\frac{WV_H}{BI}$$

from Geometrical properties of the semiconductor

Hall coefficient

Assuming we still have two components of the current.
They are longitudinal & vertical components



$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_L \hat{i}_L + \mathcal{E}_H \hat{i}_H + \mathcal{E}_W(0)$$

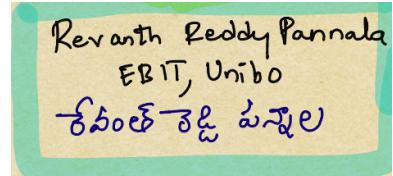
$$B = o \hat{i}_L + o \hat{i}_H + Bi_w$$

$$\mathcal{E} \wedge B = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i}_L & \hat{i}_W & \hat{i}_H \\ \mathcal{E}_L & o & \mathcal{E}_H \\ 0 & B & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i}_L - B \mathcal{E}_H + \hat{i}_H \mathcal{E}_W B$$

$$\Rightarrow -\mathcal{E}_H B \hat{i}_L + \mathcal{E}_L B \hat{i}_H$$

$$\mathcal{E} \wedge B \Rightarrow \mathcal{E}_L B \hat{i}_H - \mathcal{E}_H B \hat{i}_L$$

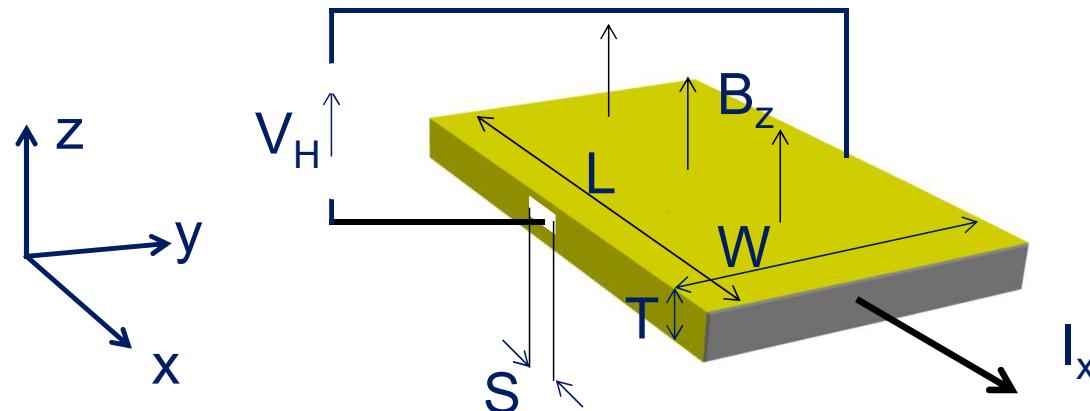


Review of the Hall effect

In a conducting material with a magnetic induction B_z applied in the direction normal to the electric current flux I_x , a voltage difference V_y is created across the conductor transverse to I_x and perpendicular to B_z .

Ideal plate: $T \ll W \ll L$, Hall probes: $S \ll W$.

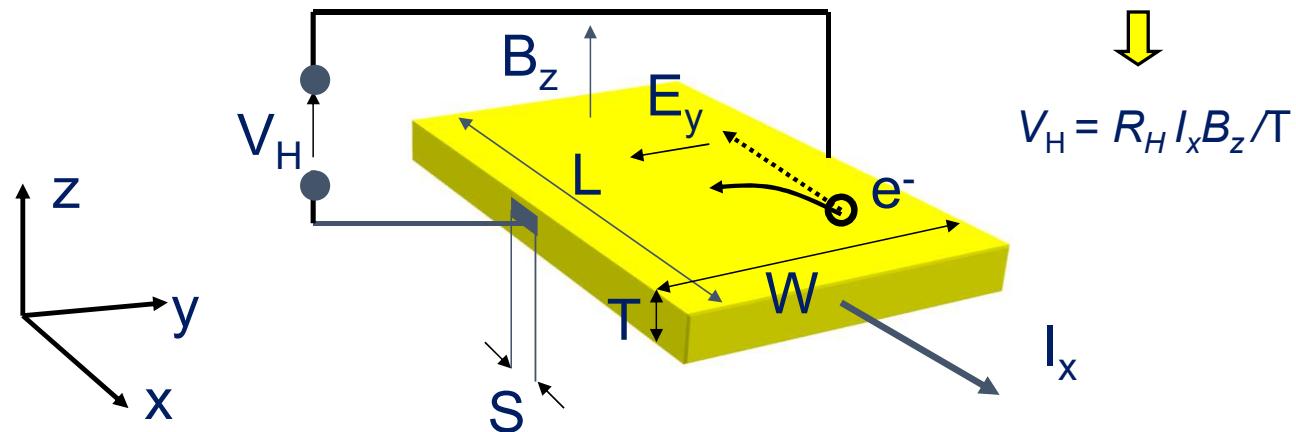
$$V_H = R_H I_X B_Z / T \quad \text{with } R_H \text{ the Hall coefficient (in cm}^3/\text{C).}$$



Explanation of the Hall effect - I

Lorentz's force: $\mathbf{F} = q \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B} = -q v_x B_z \mathbf{i}_y$

$$q\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{F} \rightarrow E_y = v_x B_z = R_H J_x B_z = R_H I_x B_z / (T W), E_y = V_H / W$$



Explanation of the Hall effect - III

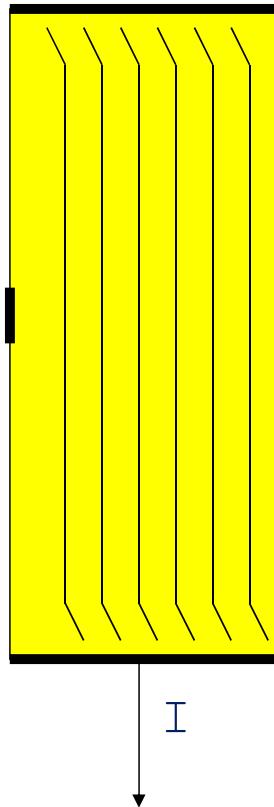
$$\mathbf{J}_n = \sigma_n B (\mathbf{E} + \mu_n^* \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{E})$$

$$J_{ny} = 0$$

$$E_y + \mu_n^* B_z E_x = 0$$

$$E_y = -\mu_n^* B_z E_x = -\mu_n^* B_z J_{nx} / \sigma_n$$

$$R_H = -\mu_n^* / \sigma_n = -r_n / qn$$



MAGNETORESISTANCE EFFECT

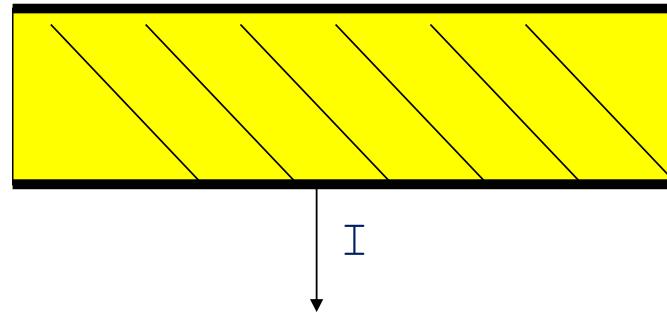
$$\mathbf{J}_n = \sigma_{nB}(\mathbf{E} + \mu_n^* \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{E})$$

$$E_y = 0$$

$$J_{nx} = \sigma_{nB} E_x$$

$$\sigma_{nB} = \frac{\sigma_n}{1 + \mu_n^{*2} B_z^2}$$

$$\frac{\rho_{nB}}{\rho_n} = 1 + \mu_n^{*2} B_z^2$$



Magnetic Field Sensors (MFSs)

1. Measured quantities (H and B)

Measurement Units for the magnetic field (H) and induction (B)

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{J} + \mathbf{J}_I$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu_r \mu_0 \mathbf{H}$$

H – magnetic field: A/m

B – magnetic induction: Tesla

μ_r is the relative permeability of the specific medium;

$\mu_0 = 4\pi 10^{-7}$ H/m is the vacuum permeability

T = 1 Weber/m² = 10⁴ Gauss

Magnetic Field Sensors (MFSs)

2. Applications:

- Earth magnetic field measurements
- Reading of magnetic tapes and disks
- Recognition of magnetic ink patterns in banknotes
- Reading of credit cards

Indirect applications:

- Contactless switching
- Detection of a current through H
- Linear and angular displacement detection through the mechanical displacement of a magnet

Range of interesting values for the magnetic induction field B

geomagnetic field	30-60 μT
data storage (hard-disk, floppy-disk, videotapes)	$\approx 10\mu\text{T}-10\text{mT}$
reading of magnetic patterns (credit cards)	$\approx 10\mu\text{T}-10\text{mT}$
reading of magnetic ink of banknotes	$\approx 10\mu\text{T}-10\text{mT}$
permanent magnets used in switches and sensors	$5 \div 100 \text{ mT}$
permanent magnets used in measuring instrumentations	$4 \div 5 \text{ T}$