

EE415/515 Fundamentals of Semiconductor Devices Fall 2012

Lecture 5: Drift & Diffusion (Chapter 5)

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Drift in Electric Field

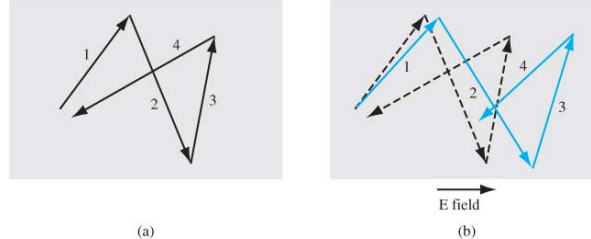


Figure 5.1 | Typical random behavior of a hole in a semiconductor (a) without an electric field and (b) with an electric field.

- Electrons have thermal energy of $kT/2$.
- Mean square thermal velocity $\frac{1}{2}m_n^*v_{th}^2 = 3kT/2$
 $m_n^* = 0.26m_0$; m_0 = free electron mass.
 $v_{th} = 2.3 \times 10^7$ cm/s at $T = 300$ K
- Under an applied electric field E_x the electron acquires a *drift velocity* v_d .

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Carrier Drift

Consider electrons

Electric field E_x : Momentum change $= \frac{dp_x}{dt} \Big|_{\text{field}} = -nqE_x$ for n electrons

Collisions: Momentum change $= \frac{dp_x}{dt} \Big|_{\text{collisions}} = -\frac{p_x}{\tau_{cn}}$

Hence at equilibrium, (constant velocity), sum of field and collision effects zero, so $-nqE_x - \frac{p_x}{\tau_{cn}} = 0$

and average electron momentum $= \langle p_x \rangle = \frac{P_x}{n} = -q\tau_{cn}E_x$

and average drift velocity $= \langle v_x \rangle = \frac{\langle p_x \rangle}{m_{cn}^*} = -\frac{q\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*}E_x$

Drift current $= J_{x(\text{drift})} = -qn\langle v_x \rangle = \frac{nq^2\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*}E_x = \sigma E_x$

where $\sigma = \frac{nq^2\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*} = qn\mu_n$ where mobility $\mu_n = \frac{q\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*} = -\frac{\langle v_x \rangle}{E_x}$

\therefore Total electron and hole current $= J_{x(\text{drift})} = \sigma E_x = q(n\mu_n + p\mu_p)E_x$

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Drift current

- Current density = sum of charge * velocity (definition)

$$J_n = \sum_{i=1}^n -qv_i = nq\mu_n E \text{ electron current density.}$$

For holes kinetic energy is $(E_v - E)$

$$\mu_p = \frac{q\tau_{cp}}{m_{cp}^*}$$

Total current = electron current + hole current

$$J = J_n + J_p = (nq\mu_n + pq\mu_p)E = \sigma E$$

Define conductivity (reciprocal of resistivity)

$\sigma = nq\mu_n + pq\mu_p$ Note that usually n or p dominates.

Note use of m_{cn}^* , m_{cp}^* , τ_{cn} , τ_{cp} above.... "conductivity effective mass"

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Drift (summary)

$$-qE\tau_{cn} = m_{cn}^* v_d \quad \text{Impulse (force x time) = momentum gain}$$

$$v_d = -\frac{qE\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*} \quad \text{electron drift velocity proportional to field}$$

$$\mu_n = \frac{q\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*} \quad \text{depends on mean scattering time \& eff. mass}$$

$$v_d = \mu_n E$$

Table 5.1 | Typical mobility values at $T = 300$ K and low doping concentrations

	μ_n (cm ² /V-s)	μ_p (cm ² /V-s)
Silicon	1350	480
Gallium arsenide	8500	400
Germanium	3900	1900

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Ex 5.1 A drift current density $J_{\text{drift}} = 75 \text{ A/cm}^2$ is required in a p-type Si device for field $E = 120 \text{ V/cm}$. Determine the required impurity doping concentration, assuming electron and hole mobilities in Table 5.1.

$$J_{\text{drift}} = e\mu_p pE \approx e\mu_p N_a E$$

$$75 = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 480 \times N_a \times 120$$

$$\text{which gives } N_a = 8.14 \times 10^{15} / \text{cm}^3$$

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Conductivity/resistivity

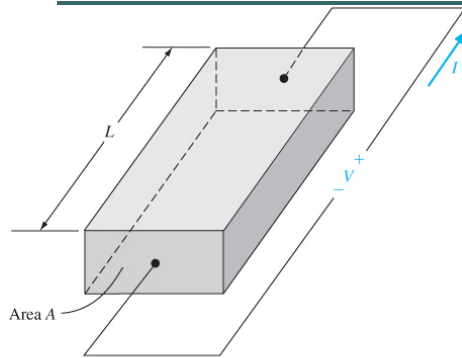


Figure 5.5 | Bar of semiconductor material as a resistor.

$$J = I / A \text{ and } E = V / L$$

$$J_{\text{drift}} = \sigma E \rightarrow \frac{I}{A} = \sigma \frac{V}{L} \rightarrow V = \left(\frac{L}{\sigma A} \right) I$$

$$V = \left(\frac{\rho L}{A} \right) I = IR$$

$$J_{\text{drift}} = e(n\mu_n + p\mu_p)E = \sigma E$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{e(n\mu_n + p\mu_p)}$$

$$\sigma = e(n\mu_n + p\mu_p) \approx en\mu_n \text{ if } p \ll n$$

$$\approx eN_d\mu_n \text{ if } n \approx N_d$$

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Mobility Values

- Note that mobility depends on *total* dopant concentration.
- For compensated semiconductors
 - Scattering depends on $(N_a + N_d)$ *Remember this!*
 - Carrier density depends on $(N_a - N_d)$
- Compensated semiconductors can have much lower mobility than uncompensated material of the same carrier density.

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Scattering and mobility

- Electric field accelerates electrons. $\mu_n = \frac{q\tau_{cn}}{m_{cn}^*} \quad v_d = \mu_n E$
- For steady state acceleration is balanced by scattering. $J_n = \sum_{i=1}^n -qv_i = nq\mu_n E$
- Scattering decreases carrier lifetimes τ_{cn}, τ_{cp}
- With increasing temperature
 - Lattice scattering increases
 - Impurity scattering decreases
- Mobility “adds” reciprocally. $\mu_p = \frac{q\tau_{cp}}{m_{cp}^*}$
 $J = J_n + J_p = (nq\mu_n + pq\mu_p)E = \sigma E$
 $\sigma = nq\mu_n + pq\mu_p$
 $\mu = \frac{q\tau_c}{m^*} \quad \frac{1}{\mu} = \sum_i \frac{1}{\mu_i}$

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Lattice Scattering

- A perfectly periodic lattice would not scatter electrons.
- Vibrations of atoms due to temp. disturb periodicity.
- “Phonons” have an energy $h\nu$. Lowest levels have energy 0.063 eV.
- As temperature decreases vibration decreases and scattering decreases.
 - Varies as T^{-n} where $1.66 < n < 3$
 - Compare text $\mu_L \propto T^{-1.5}$
- Mobility increases as temperature **decreases** with lattice scattering.

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Impurity Scattering

- Dopant impurities cause local distortions in the crystal lattice.
 - As temperature decreases electron velocity decreases.
 - Electrons remain near impurities a longer time => larger scattering.
- Mobility increases as temperature **increases** with impurity scattering.
 - About $T^{3/2}$
 - Compare text $\mu_i \propto T^{+1.5}/N_i$, and note $N_i = N_a + N_d$
- Other impurities and crystal defects have similar effects. (e.g. contaminants, surface effects, grain boundaries in poly-crystalline material.)

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Combining scattering processes

- May have two or more scattering processes.
- Probability of scattering in time dt by process i is

$$\frac{dt}{\tau_i} \quad \text{where } \tau_i \text{ is the average time between scattering events}$$

Total probability of scattering is sum over individual probabilities

$$\frac{dt}{\tau_c} = \sum_i \frac{dt}{\tau_i} \quad \text{dominated by shortest scattering time}$$

$$\mu = \frac{q\tau_c}{m^*} \quad \frac{1}{\mu} = \sum_i \frac{1}{\mu_i} \quad \text{Mobility adds reciprocally.}$$

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- For lattice scattering mobility increases as temperature **decreases**
- For impurity scattering mobility increases as temperature **increases**
- Increase in impurity concentration (of various kind) reduces mobility
- May have two or more scattering processes.

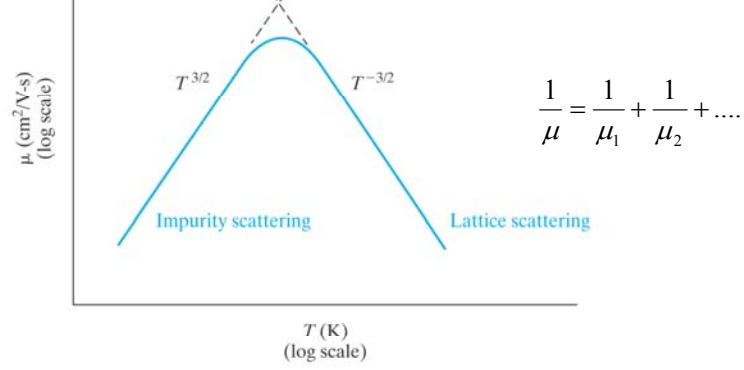


Figure 3.22

Approximate temperature dependence of mobility with both lattice and impurity scattering.

10/7/2012 State Electronic Devices, 4th Edition, by Robert F. Pierret and Sanjay Kumar Banerjee
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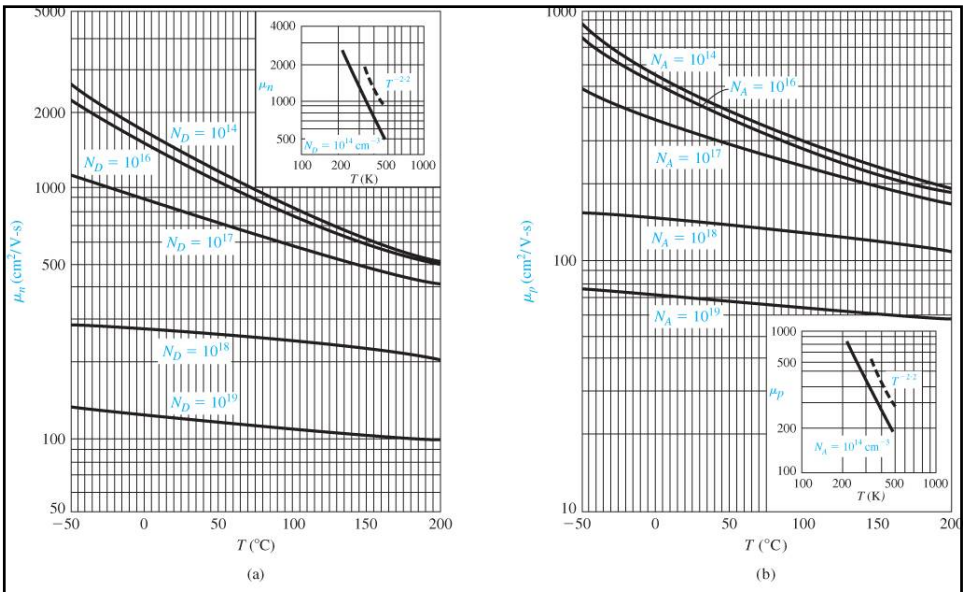


Figure 5.2 | (a) Electron and (b) hole mobilities in silicon versus temperature for various doping concentrations. Inserts show temperature dependence for “almost” intrinsic silicon.
 From Pierret [8].)

Ex 5.2 Use Fig 5.2 above to find the hole mobility in Si for:
(a) T=25°C for (i) $N_a=10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$ and (ii) $N_a=10^{18}/\text{cm}^3$, and
(b) $N_a=10^{14}/\text{cm}^3$ for (i) T=0°C and (ii) T=100°C

Using Figure 5.2:

(a) $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$,

(i) $N_a = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3} \Rightarrow \mu_p \approx 410 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$

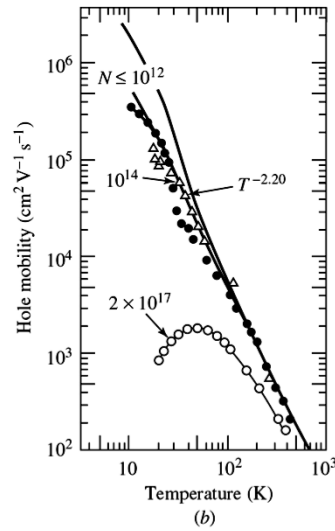
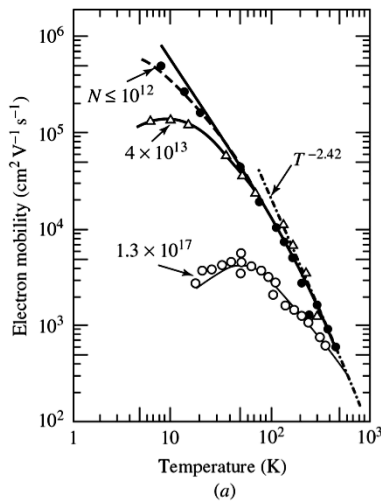
(ii) $N_a = 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3} \Rightarrow \mu_p \approx 130 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$

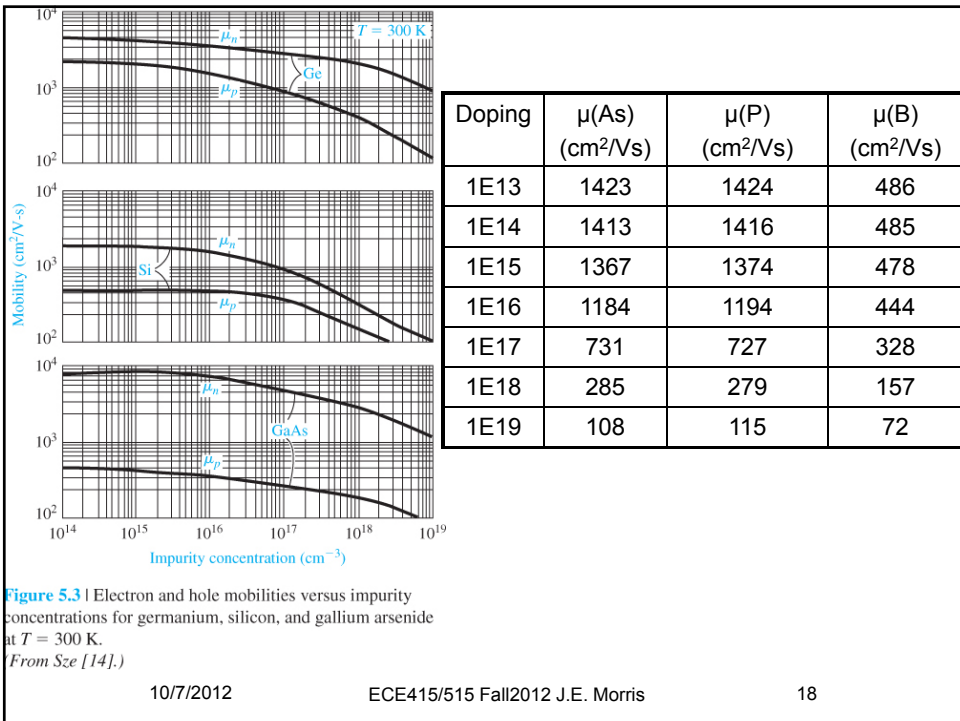
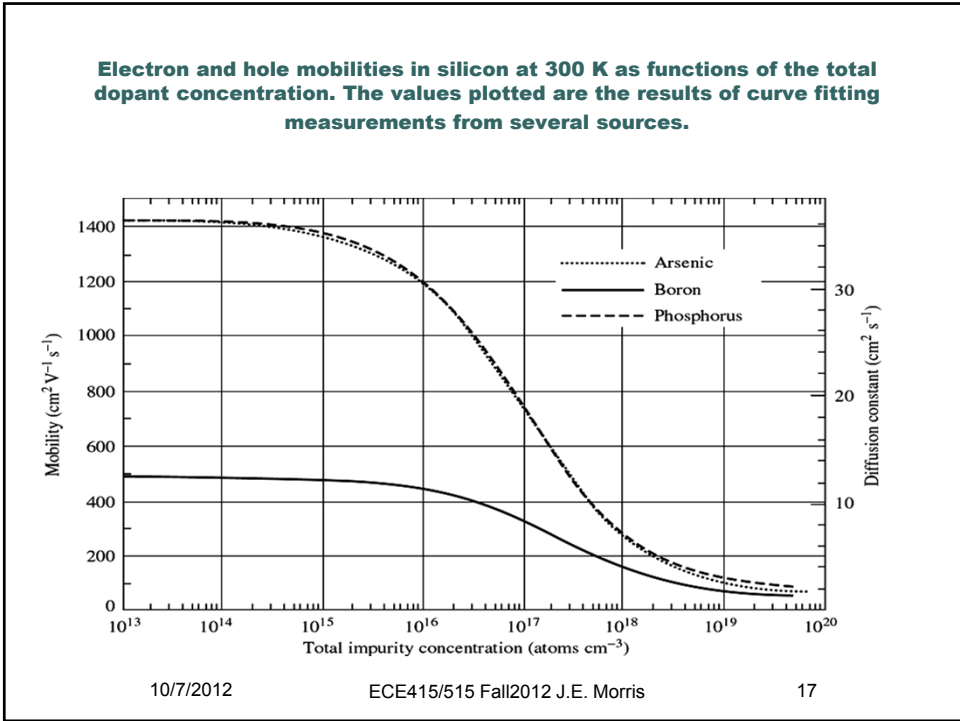
(b) $N_a = 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$,

(i) $T = 0^\circ\text{C} \Rightarrow \mu_p \approx 550 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$

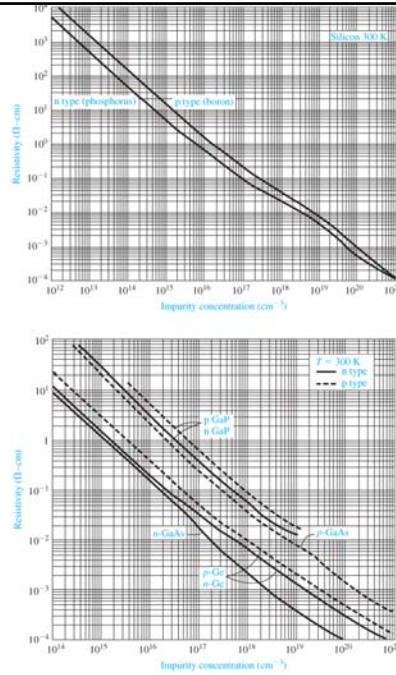
(ii) $T = 100^\circ\text{C} \Rightarrow \mu_p \approx 300 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$

Low-field mobility in silicon as a function of temperature for electrons and holes.
The solid lines represent the theoretical predictions for pure lattice scattering.





ρ vs $N_I = N_a + N_d$

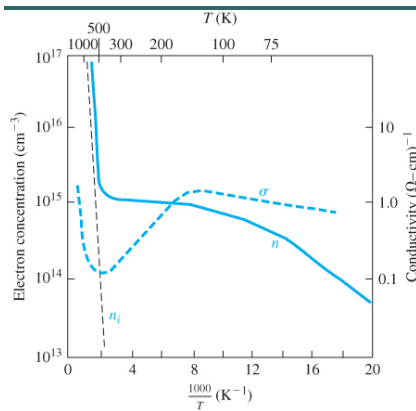


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Figure 5.4 | Resistivity versus impurity concentration at $T = 300$ K in (a) silicon and (b) germanium, gallium arsenide, and gallium phosphide. (From Sze [14].)

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Temperature effects



$\sigma(T)$ doesn't follow $n(T)$ exactly because of $\mu(T)$

Figure 5.6 | Electron concentration and conductivity versus inverse temperature for silicon. (After Sze [14].)

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Ex 5.3 Compensated p-type Si at 300K has $N_a=2.8 \times 10^{17}/\text{cm}^3$ and $N_d=8 \times 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$. Find (a) hole mobility, (b) conductivity, and (c) resistivity.

$$(a) \text{ For } N_t = N_a + N_d = 2.8 \times 10^{17} + 8 \times 10^{16} \\ = 3.6 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3},$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_p = 200 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$$

$$(b) \sigma = e\mu_p(N_a - N_d) \\ = (1.6 \times 10^{-19})(200)(2 \times 10^{17}) \\ \sigma = 6.4 (\Omega\text{-cm})^{-1}$$

$$(a) \rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{6.4} = 0.156 \Omega\text{-cm}$$

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Ex 5.4 A p-type Si bar (Fig 5.5 above) has c/s area $A=10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2$ and length $L=1.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}$. A current of 2mA is required for 5V applied. What is the required (a) resistance, (b) resistivity, and (c) impurity doping concentration? (d) What is the resulting hole mobility?

$$(a) R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{5}{2 \times 10^{-3}} = 2500 \Omega$$

$$(b) \rho = \frac{RA}{L} = \frac{(2500)(10^{-6})}{1.2 \times 10^{-3}} = 2.083 \Omega\text{-cm}$$

$$(c) \sigma = \frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{2.083} = 0.480 (\Omega\text{-cm})^{-1} \\ = e\mu_p N_a$$

$$\text{Then } \mu_p N_a = \frac{0.48}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} = 3.00 \times 10^{18}$$

Using Figure 5.3 and trial and error,

$$N_a \approx 7.3 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$(d) \mu_p \approx 410 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$$

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High Field Effects

- We assumed Ohm's law was valid $I=V/R$
 - Drift current proportional to electric field, conductivity constant.
- For large electric fields ($>10^3$ V/cm) current shows *sublinear* dependence on field. Ohm's law invalid.
- *Hot carrier effect*: drift velocity \geq thermal velocity ($\sim 10^7$ cm/s)
 - Effective temperature T_e due to increasing kinetic energy.
 - Begins scattering with "optical" phonons, which transfers energy to the lattice effectively.
- At high fields Ohm's law doesn't hold and current is lower than expected.
 - "Hot carriers" have velocities exceeding thermal velocity.
 - Velocity saturates.

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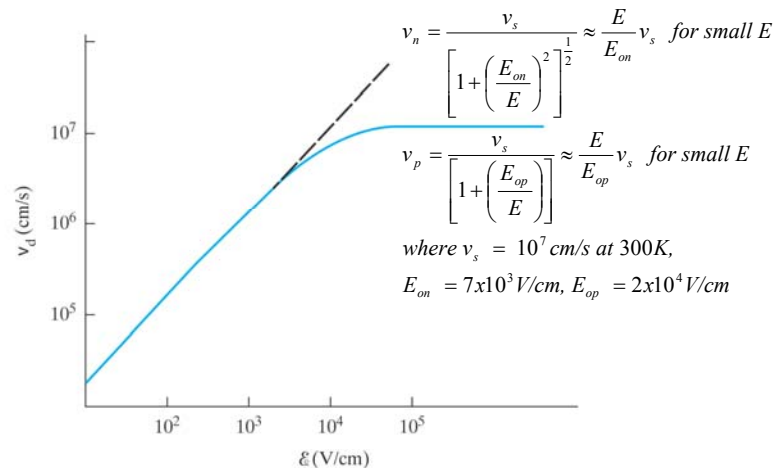
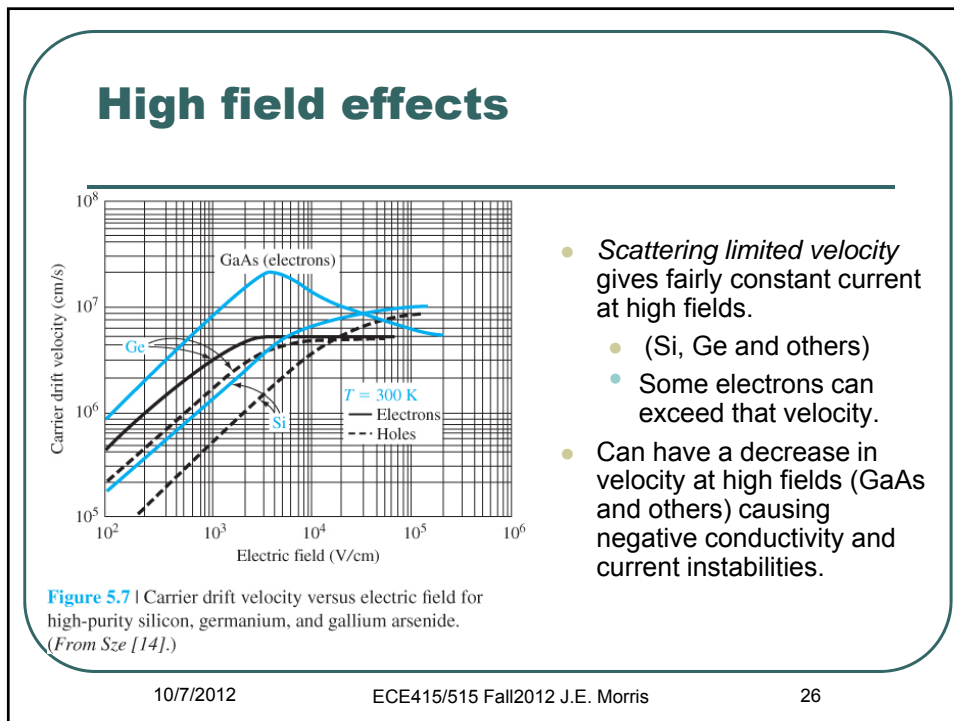
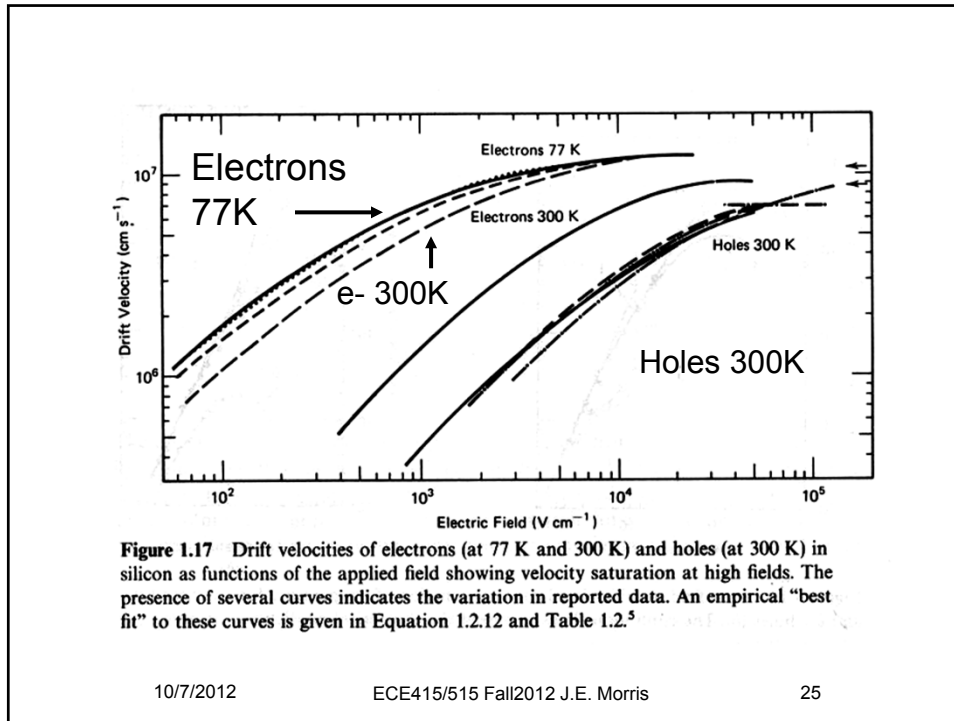


Figure 3.24

Saturation of electron drift velocity at high electric fields for Si.



GaAs negative differential resistance

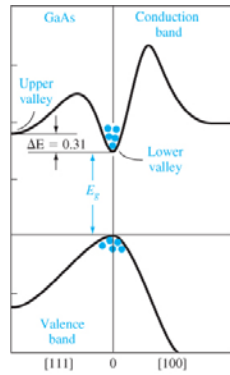


Figure 5.8 | Energy-band structure for gallium arsenide showing the upper valley and lower valley in the conduction band. (From Sze [15].)

Electrons in conduction band:

Lower valley: m_n^* small, high E gives high v
Scatter into higher valley, higher m_n^*
Hence lower mobility, μ , and current

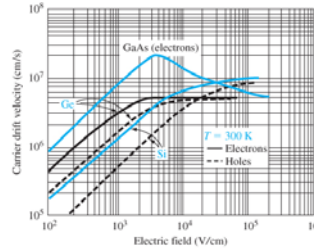


Figure 5.7 | Carrier drift velocity versus electric field for high-purity silicon, germanium, and gallium arsenide. (From Sze [14].)

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Diffusion currents

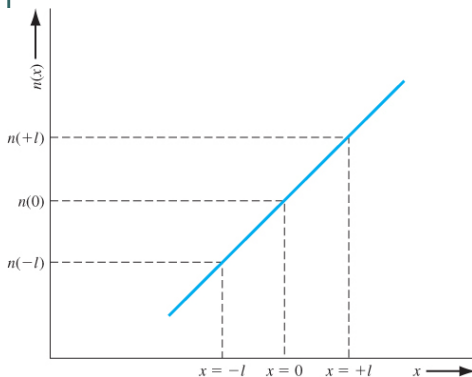


Figure 5.10 | Electron concentration versus distance.

For electron concentration gradient shown, find net diffusion current at $x = 0$

At x : half electrons move $\rightarrow +x$, half move $\rightarrow -x$ with thermal velocity v_{th}

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Electron flux at } x = 0 \quad F_n &= \frac{n(-l)}{2} v_{th} - \frac{n(+l)}{2} v_{th} \\ &= [n(-l) - n(+l)] \frac{v_{th}}{2} \\ &= \left\{ [n(0) - l \frac{dn}{dx}] - [n(0) + l \frac{dn}{dx}] \right\} \frac{v_{th}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

for the linear variation shown, or if non-linear by keeping the first 2 terms of a Taylor expansion

$$\text{i.e. } F_n = -v_{th} l \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$\text{and current } J_{n,dif} = -eF_n = +e v_{th} l \frac{dn}{dx} = eD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

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Total current

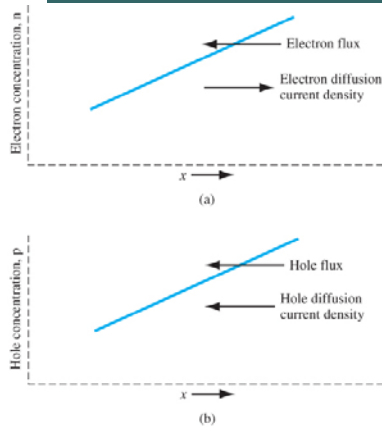


Figure 5.11 | (a) Diffusion of electrons due to a density gradient. (b) Diffusion of holes due to a density gradient.

For electron concentration gradient shown,
find net diffusion current at $x = 0$

$$\text{Electron current } J_{n\text{diff}} = eD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$\text{Similarly hole current } J_{p\text{diff}} = -eD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

$$\text{and } J_x = [en\mu_n E_x + e\mu_p E_x] + [eD_n \frac{dn}{dx} - eD_p \frac{dp}{dx}]$$

$$\rightarrow J = [en\mu_n E + e\mu_p E] + [eD_n \nabla n - eD_p \nabla p]$$

$E \rightarrow +x$ electrons \leftarrow electron current \rightarrow

 holes \rightarrow hole current \rightarrow

$dn/dx > 0$ electrons \leftarrow electron current \rightarrow

$dp/dx > 0$ holes \leftarrow hole current \leftarrow

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Ex 5.5 Hole density is given by $p(x) = 10^{16} \exp(-x/L_p)$ ($x \geq 0$) in Si where $L_p = 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$ and $D_p = 8 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$. Determine the hole diffusion current density at (a) $x=0$, (b) $x=2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$ and (c) $x=10^{-3} \text{ cm}$.

$$\begin{aligned} J_p &= -eD_p \frac{dp}{dx} \\ &= -eD_p \frac{d}{dx} [10^{16} e^{-x/L_p}] \\ &= -eD_p (10^{16}) \left(\frac{-1}{L_p} \right) e^{-x/L_p} \\ &= \frac{+eD_p (10^{16})}{L_p} e^{-x/L_p} \\ &= \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19}) (8) (10^{16})}{2 \times 10^{-4}} e^{-x/L_p} \\ J_p &= 64 \exp\left(\frac{-x}{L_p}\right) \end{aligned}$$

(a) For $x=0$,

$$J_p = 64 \text{ A/cm}^2$$

(b) For $x = 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$,

$$J_p = 64 \exp\left(\frac{-2 \times 10^{-4}}{2 \times 10^{-4}}\right) = 23.54 \text{ A/cm}^2$$

(c) For $x = 10^{-3} \text{ cm}$,

$$J_p = 64 \exp\left(\frac{-10^{-3}}{2 \times 10^{-4}}\right) = 0.431 \text{ A/cm}^2$$

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Graded impurity distribution induces electric field

For varied donor doping $\frac{dN_d(x)}{dx} < 0$,
 electrons will diffuse left to right $\rightarrow E_x > 0$

$$E_x = -\frac{d\phi}{dx} = -\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{e} (E_F - E_{Fi}) \right] = \frac{1}{e} \frac{dE_{Fi}}{dx}$$

For $n_0 = n_i \exp \frac{E_F - E_{Fi}}{kT} \approx N_d(x)$

$$E_F - E_{Fi} = kT \ln \frac{N_d(x)}{n_i} = kT [\ln N_d(x) - \ln n_i]$$

$$\frac{dE_{Fi}}{dx} = \frac{kT}{N_d(x)} \frac{dN_d(x)}{dx}$$

$$E_x = -\frac{kT}{e} \frac{1}{N_d(x)} \frac{dN_d(x)}{dx}$$

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Einstein Relation

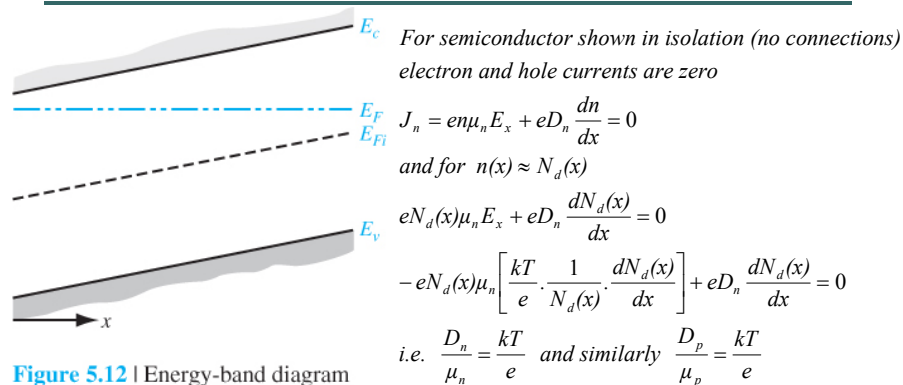


Figure 5.12 | Energy-band diagram for a semiconductor in thermal equilibrium with a nonuniform donor impurity concentration.

$$\text{Einstein Relation } \frac{D_n}{\mu_n} = \frac{D_p}{\mu_p} = \frac{kT}{e}$$

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Mobilities and diffusion constants

Table 5.2 | Typical mobility and diffusion coefficient values at $T = 300\text{ K}$ ($\mu = \text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ and $D = \text{cm}^2/\text{s}$)

	μ_n	D_n	μ_p	D_p
Silicon	1350	35	480	12.4
Gallium arsenide	8500	220	400	10.4
Germanium	3900	101	1900	49.2

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Ex 5.6 Assume $N_d(x) = 10^{16} \exp(-x/L)$ at 300K in an N-type semiconductor, where $L = 0.02\text{ cm}$. Determine the induced electric field at (a) $x=0$ and (b) $x=10^{-4}\text{ cm}$.

$$\frac{dN_d(x)}{dx} = -\frac{(10^{16})}{L} e^{-x/L}$$

So

$$E_x = -\left(\frac{kT}{e}\right) \frac{\left(\frac{-10^{16}}{L}\right) e^{-x/L}}{10^{16} e^{-x/L}}$$

$$= -\left(\frac{kT}{e}\right) \left(\frac{1}{L}\right) = \frac{0.0259}{2 \times 10^{-2}}$$

or $E_x = 1.295\text{ V/cm}$

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Ex 5.7 Assume $D_n=215\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ at 300K and determine μ_n .

$$\mu_n = \frac{D_n}{\left(\frac{kT}{e}\right)} = \frac{215}{0.0259}$$

$$\mu_n = 8301 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$$

Hall Effect

For currents in the +ve x-direction as shown:
Forces $F=qvxB$ on holes/electrons as shown

V_H +ve for holes
 V_H -ve for electrons

Hall Effect:
Magnetic field shifts the hole/electron distribution in the -y direction.

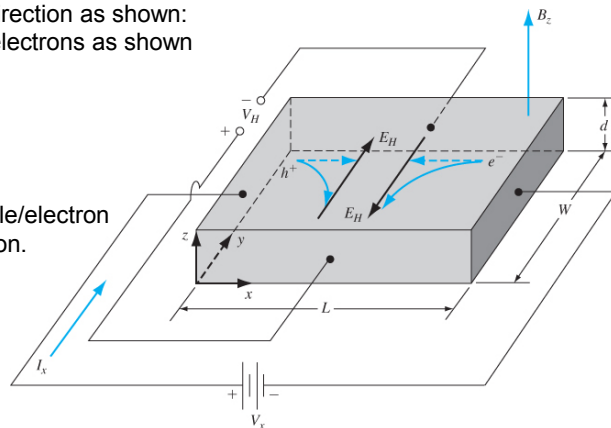


Figure 5.13 | Geometry for measuring the Hall effect.

Hall Effect: Consider P-type

If magnetic field is applied perpendicular to current direction, holes are deflected.

$$\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$$

i.e. here $F_y = q(E_y - v_x B_z)$

For steady state current must be constant so forces must balance.

$$E_y = v_x B_z = (J_x B_z) / (qp_0) = R_H J_x B_z$$

$V_{AB} = E_y w = \text{Hall voltage, measured for applied } J_x \text{ \& } B_z$

w = width of bar in y direction

$$R_H = (qp_0)^{-1} = \text{Hall coefficient} = E_y / J_x B_z$$

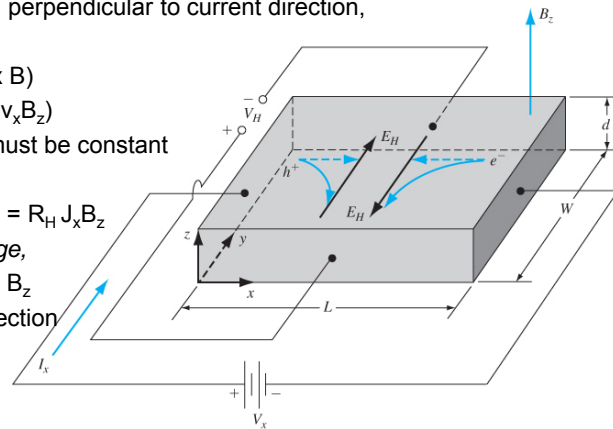


Figure 5.13 | Geometry for measuring the Hall effect.

Hall effect: Calculating mobility

- Can measure Hall voltage for applied current & magnetic field to calculate carrier concentration
- Can measure resistance to calculate resistivity

$$\rho (\Omega - cm) = \frac{Rwt}{L} = \frac{V_{CD} / I_x}{L / wt} = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{qp_0 \mu_p}$$

L = length (x); t = thickness (z)

$$\mu_p = \frac{\sigma}{qp_0} = \frac{1/\rho}{q(1/qR_H)} = \frac{R_H}{\rho}$$

Measuring Hall coefficient and resistivity over a range of temperatures gives carrier concentration and mobility vs. temperature.

Electrons: Similar effect, opposite Hall voltage sign

Ex 5.8 P-type Si as in Fig 5.13 above.
 $L=0.2\text{cm}$, $W=0.01\text{cm}$, $d=8\times 10^{-4}\text{cm}$, $p=10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$, $\mu_p=320\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$.
For $V_x=10\text{V}$, $B=500\text{gauss}=0.05\text{tesla}$, find I_x and V_H .

From Equation (5.59),

$$I_x = \frac{(\mu_p) q V_x W d}{L}$$

$$= \frac{(320)(1.6 \times 10^{-19})(10^{16})(10)(10^{-2})(8 \times 10^{-4})}{0.2}$$

$$I_x = 2.048 \times 10^{-4} \text{ A}$$

or $I_x = 0.2048 \text{ mA}$

From Equation (5.53),

$$V_H = \frac{I_x B}{q p d} = \frac{(2.048 \times 10^{-4})(5 \times 10^{-2})}{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})(10^{22})(8 \times 10^{-4})}$$

$$= 8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ V}$$

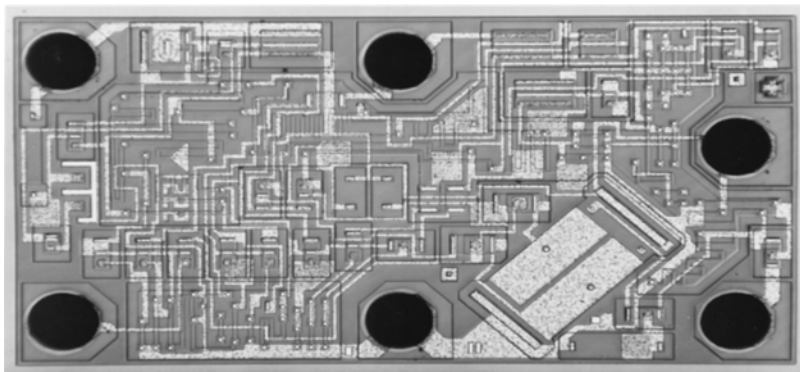
or $V_H = 0.80 \text{ mV}$

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A precision, linear-output, Hall-sensor chip. The integrated circuit contains bias elements, temperature-compensation circuitry, and on-chip amplification. The chip area is 1.12 by 1.98 mm² and the Hall element (large pattern on the lower right-hand side) measures 230 by 335 μm². (Courtesy: G. B. Hocker, Honeywell Corporation)



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