

Time Delay and Integration (TDI) Charge Coupled Device (CCD) – Device Design and Applications

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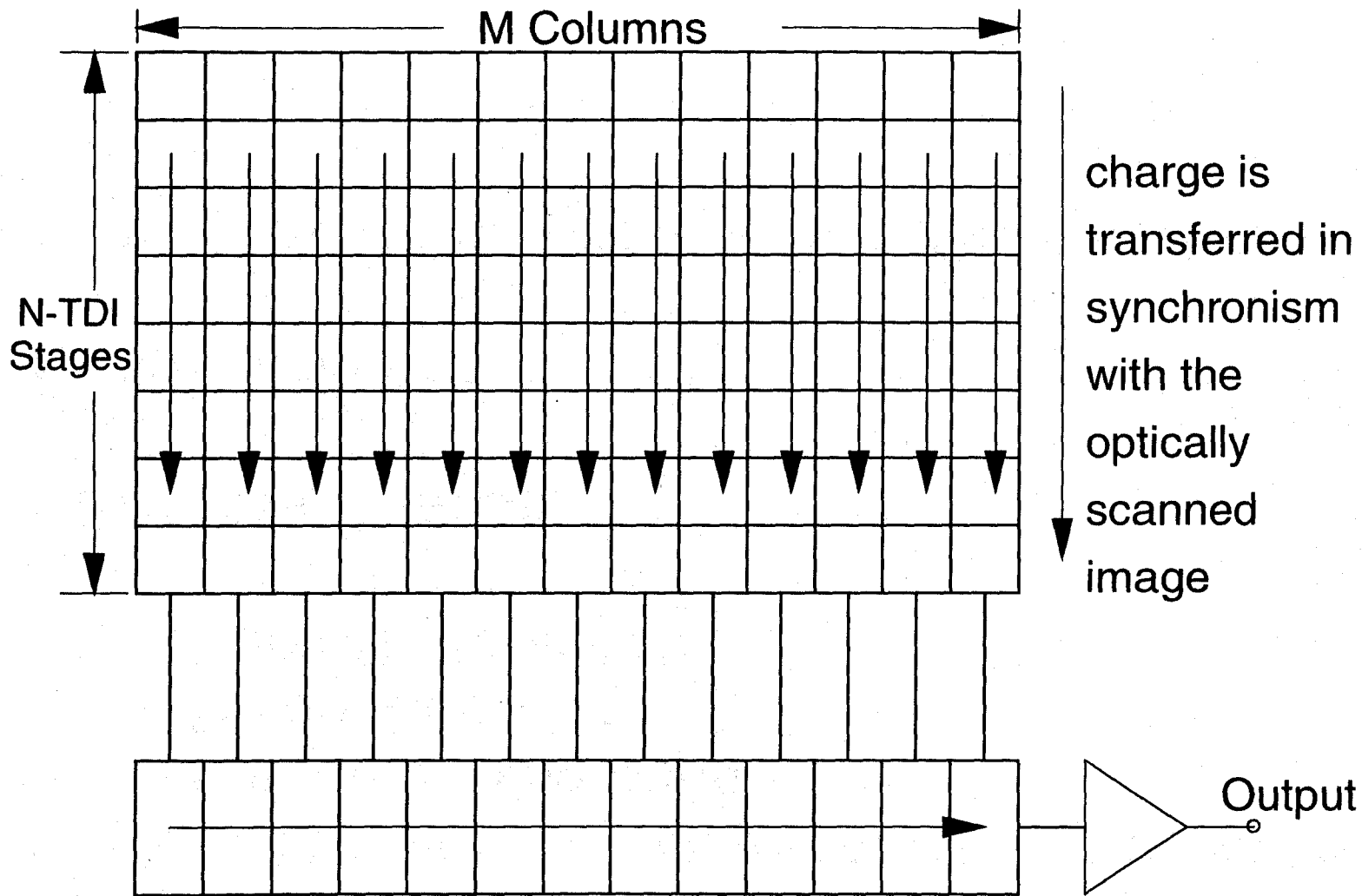
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Outline of this talk

1. Introduction
2. TDI Operation Principles, Examples, Advantages
3. Device Design
4. Comparison with Photodiode Linear Arrays
5. TDI CCD Design Case Study
6. Future Trends and Major Development Issues

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Time-Delay-and-Integration (TDI) Mode of Operation

Why TDI CCD ?

Advantages:

1. Enhanced photo-sensitivity without sacrificing output data rate
2. Increased signal-to-noise ratio
3. Photo-response uniformity ← averaging
4. Dark current uniformity ← averaging
5. Electronic exposure control

Disadvantages:

1. Complex drive circuitry (parallel clocks)
2. Large chip (device yield)
3. Spectral response: low blue response,
non-uniform response

TDI Implementation Examples

Visible:

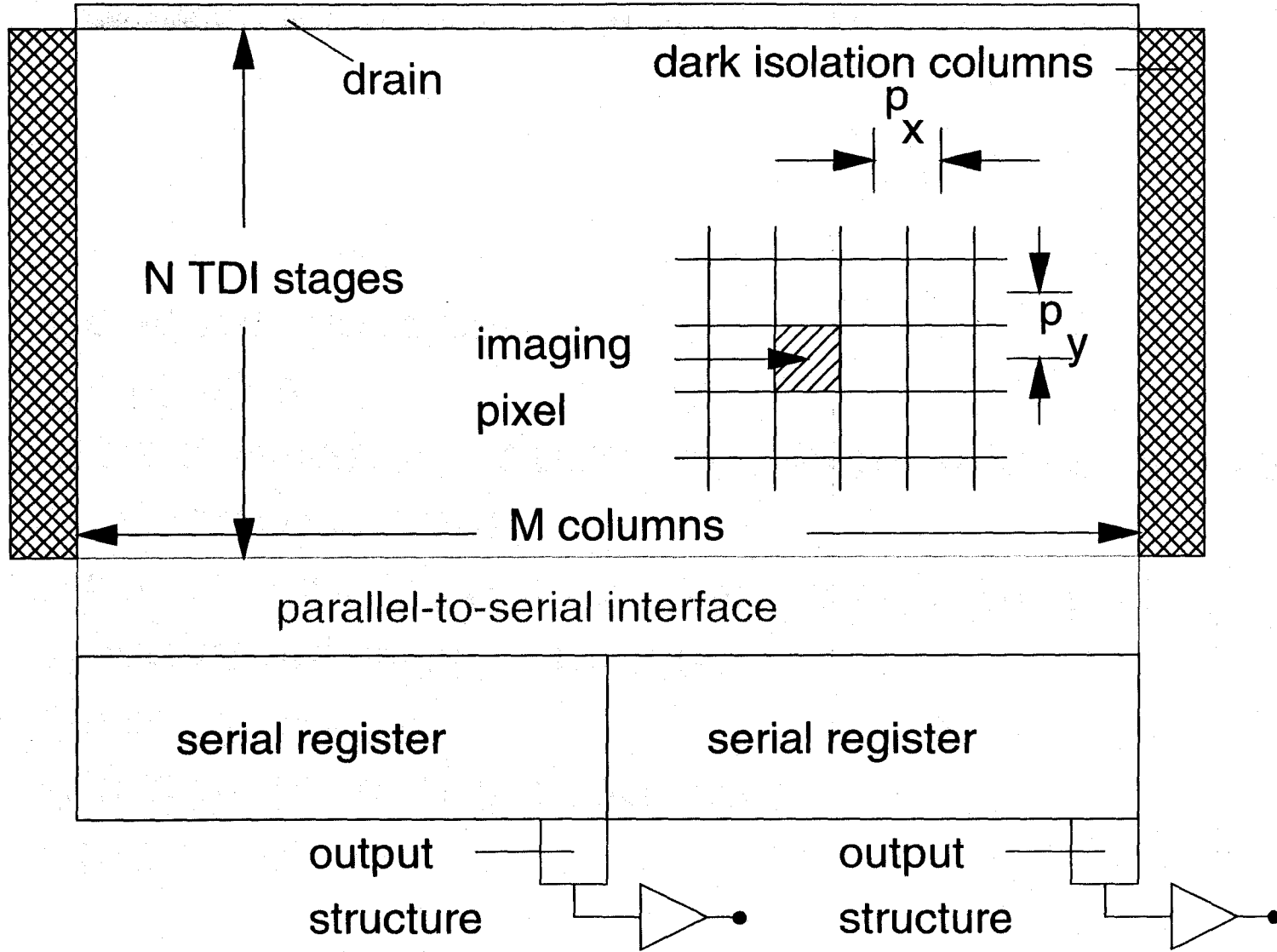
1. Airborne reconnaissance
2. Astronomy, satellite
3. Document scanning ← this talk

Infra-red:

1. Hybrid TDI
2. Monolithic TDI IR focal plane

Others:

1. X-ray
2. Sonar beam steering



Time-Delay-and-Integration Charge Coupled Device (TDI CCD) Architecture

TDI CCD Device Design

1. Parallel array
2. Parallel-to-serial interface
3. Serial Register
4. Resolution, MTF, clocking
5. Number of TDI stages, sensitivity, and exposure control
6. Noise, dynamic range, and signal-to-noise ratio
7. Pixel size
8. Spectral response

TDI CCD Parallel Array Design

- Imaging area
 - MOS polysilicon photo-gates
- Surface channel
 - large charge capacity
- Buried channel
 - low noise
 - high speed
 - no interface states interaction
 - saves one mask

TDI CCD Parallel Array Design

- Number of columns \gg number of rows
→ high chip aspect ratio
- Problems of large arrays:
 1. Lithography (discussed later)
 2. RC charging time of polysilicon electrodes
 - a. distributed RC transmission line
 - b. limits maximum line scan time
 - c. drive parallel clock electrode at multiple locations
 - d. smaller pixel size
 - e. fringing field capacitance

Distributed RC Limits Maximum Line Time

$$R = R_s \frac{L_{electrode}}{W_{electrode}} \quad (1)$$

$$C = C_{area} \times (L_{electrode} W_{electrode}) + C_{perimeter} \times L_{electrode} \quad (2)$$

$$t_{line - scan} = N_{clock} R_s \left(C_{area} + \frac{C_{perimeter}}{p_y / N_{electrode}} \right) \left(\frac{M p_x}{2} \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

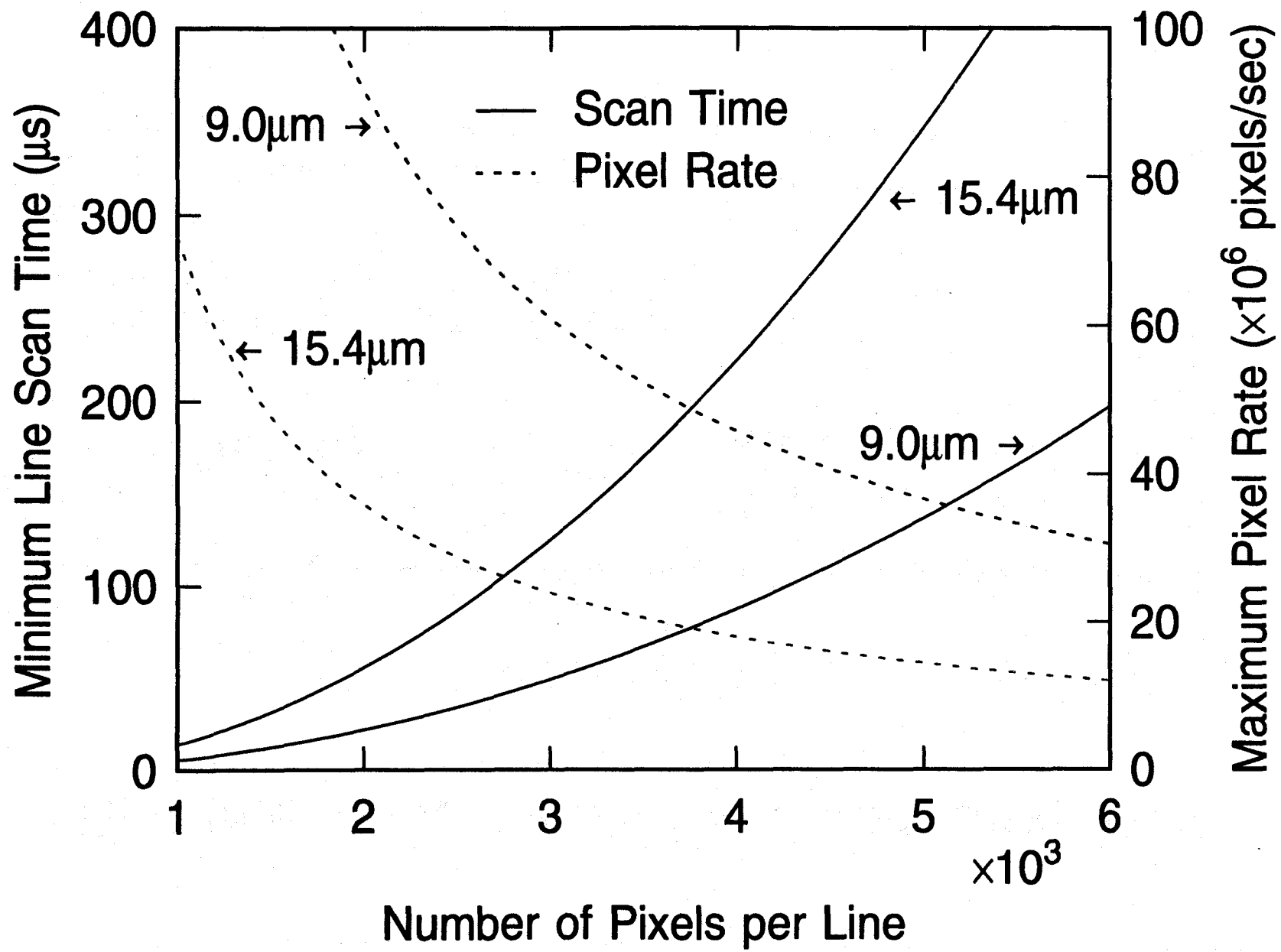
p_x = pixel center spacing in x-direction

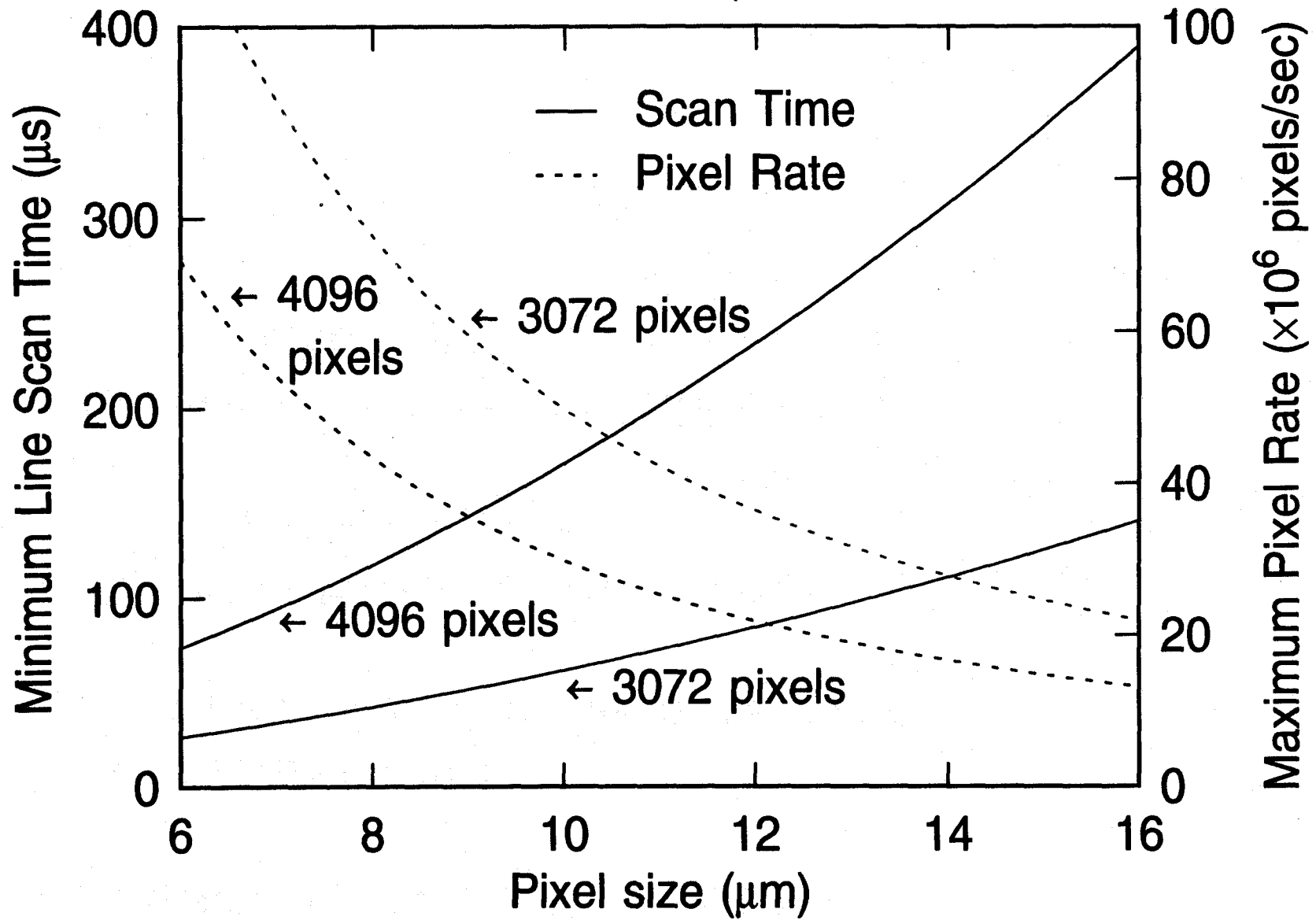
p_y = pixel center spacing in y-direction

$L_{electrode} \approx M p_x / 2$

$W_{electrode} \approx p_y / N_{electrode}$ (assume equal width, no overlap)

N_{clock} = Number of clock transitions per TDI stage transfer



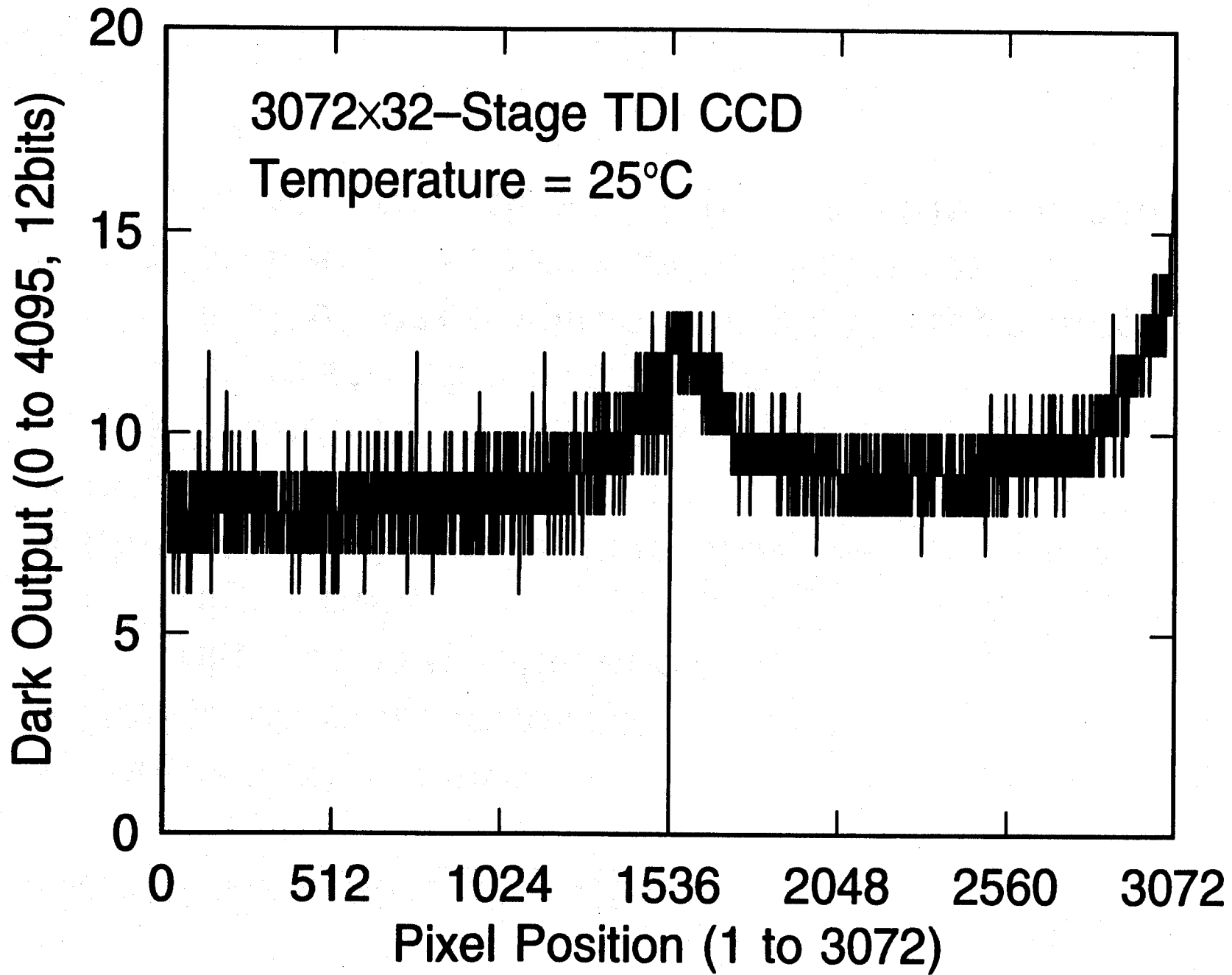


Parallel-to-Serial Interface

- 90 degrees turn:
imaging area to serial register
- Potential barrier at the corner
[Chamberlain, *CICC*, 1982]
- Common problem as other CCD
architectures

Serial Register Design

- Long serial register
- Buried channel required
 - high transfer efficiency
 - high speed
- Multiplexed serial register [Angle, *Conf. CCD Appl.* 1978]
- In-line output tap
 - a. reduce number of transfers
 - b. increase effective data rate
 - c. fit final stage within one CCD stage length
 - d. limited choice of output structures
 - e. local power dissipation → local temp. rise



Resolution, MTF, Clocking

- Finite sampling aperture (H,V)
- Velocity mis-match (V)
- Discrete charge motion (V)
- Angular mis-alignment (H)
- Transfer inefficiency (H,V)
- Carrier diffusion (H,V)

[Barbe, in *Solid Stage Imaging*, 1975]

Modulation Transfer Function (MTF)

$$MTF_y = MTF_{aperture,y} \times MTF_{velocity} \times MTF_{discrete} \times MTF_{transfer,y} \quad (4)$$

$$MTF_x = MTF_{aperture,x} \times MTF_{alignment} \times MTF_{transfer,x} \quad (5)$$

MTF of a Sampling Aperture

$$MTF(f) = \frac{\sin(\pi fL)}{\pi fL} \quad (6)$$

$$f_N = 1/2p \quad (7)$$

$$MTF(f) = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} \frac{L}{p}\right)}{\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} \frac{L}{p}} \quad (8)$$

p = pixel center spacing

L = effective width of sampling aperture

f = spatial frequency

f_N = Nyquist frequency

MTF Loss due to Velocity Mis-Match

$$MTF_{velocity}(f) = \frac{\sin\left(\pi f \frac{N p_y \Delta V}{V}\right)}{\pi f \frac{N p_y \Delta V}{V}} = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} \frac{N \Delta V}{V}\right)}{\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} \frac{N \Delta V}{V}} \quad (9)$$

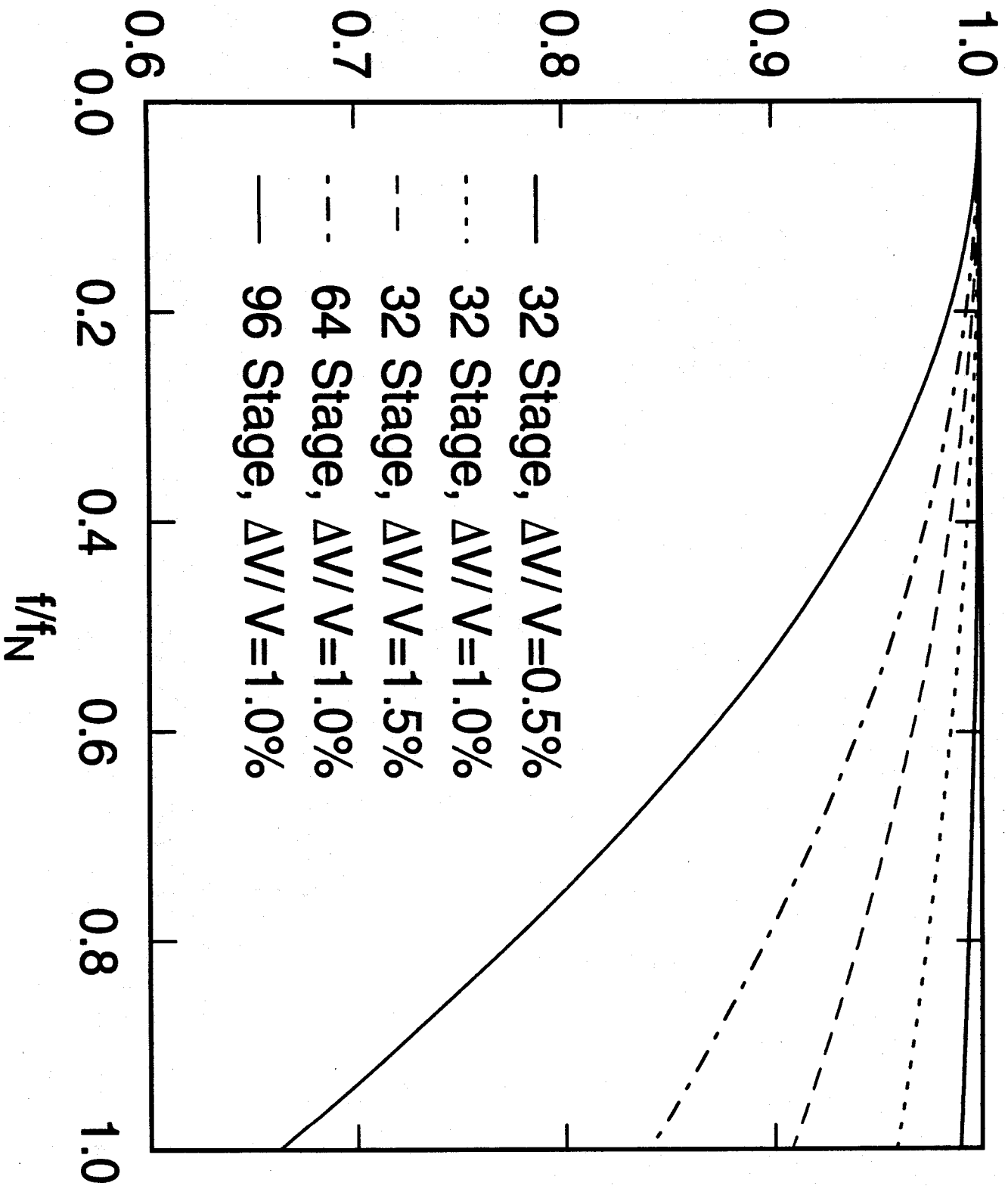
ΔV = difference in velocity

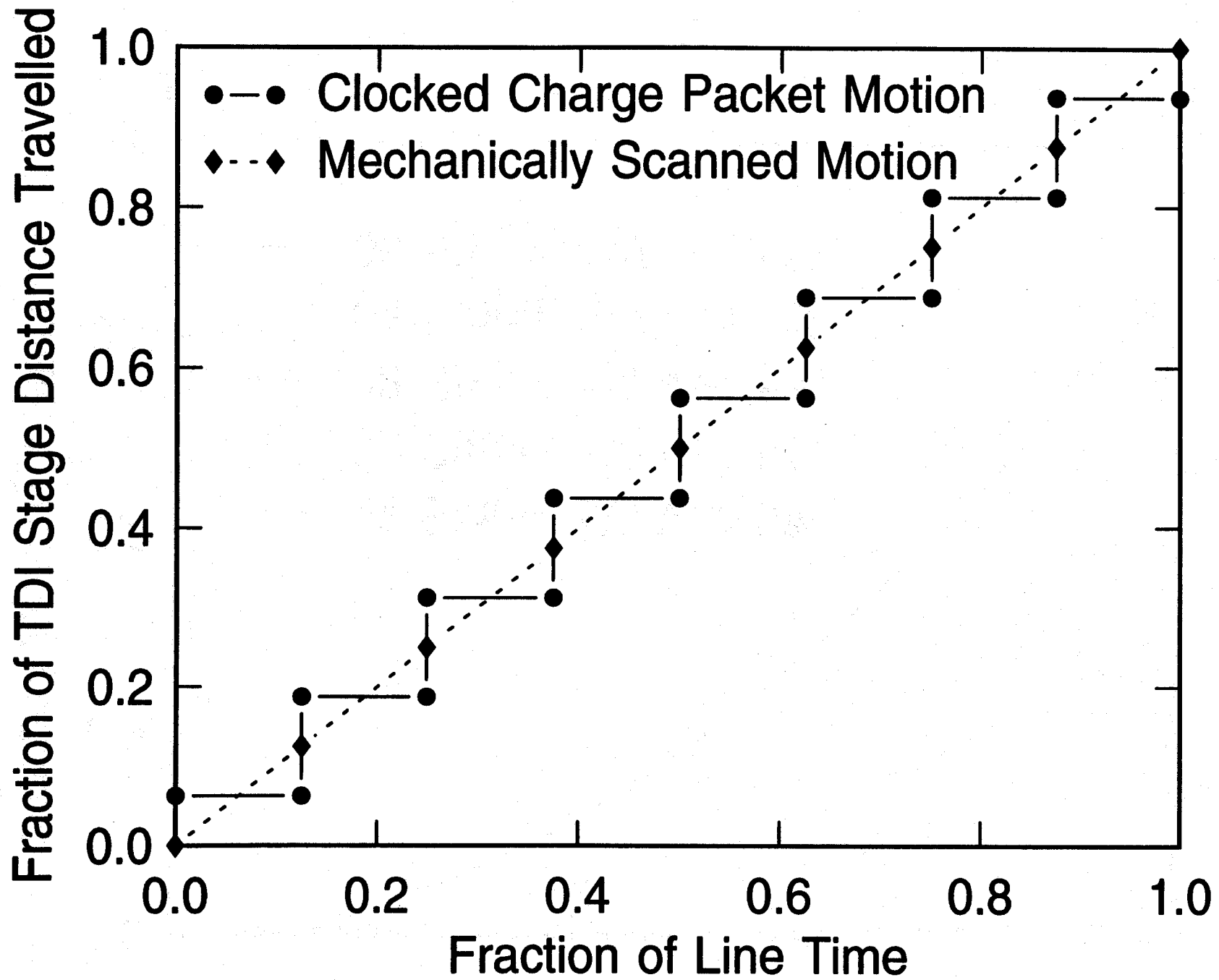
V = scanning velocity

N = Number of TDI stages

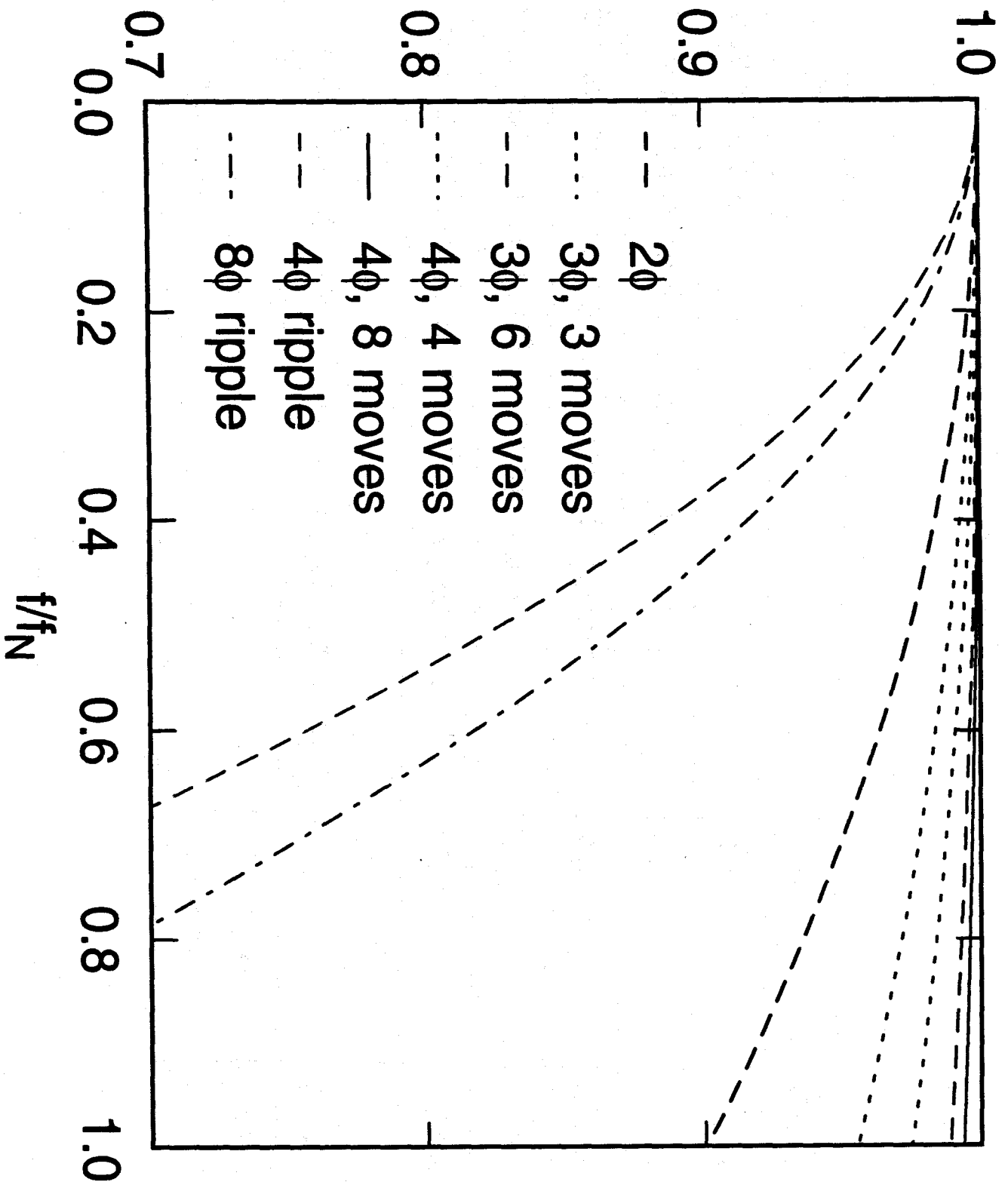
p_y = pixel center spacing in the y-direction

Modulation Transfer Function



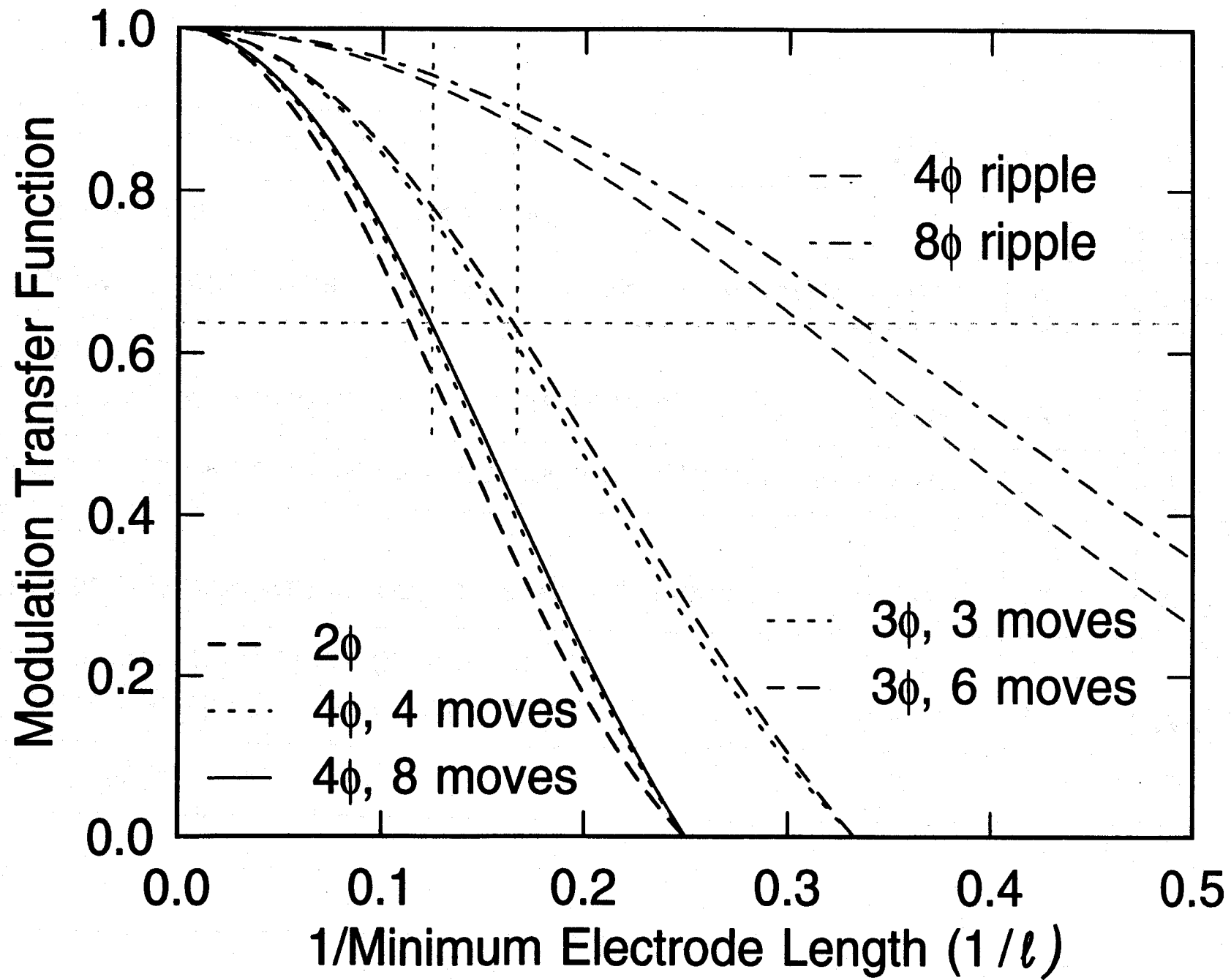


Modulation Transfer Function



Clocking Method	Effective Aperture L	MTF at Nyquist
Two phase, overlapping or non-overlapping clock (2 moves)	$p/2$	0.900
Three phase, non-overlapping clock (3 moves)	$p/3$	0.955
Three phase, overlapping clock (6 moves)	$p/6$	0.989
Four phase, non-overlapping clock (4 moves)	$p/4$	0.974
Four phase, overlapping clock (8 moves)	$p/8$	0.994
Four phase, ripple clock	$4p/3$	0.413
Eight phase, ripple clock	$8p/7$	0.543

Clocking Method	f_N	$L_{aperture}$	$L_{discrete}$
2 phase, 4 electrodes, overlapping or non-overlapping clock (2 moves)	$1/8\ell$	4ℓ	$4\ell/2$
3 phase, 3 electrodes, non-overlapping clock (3 moves)	$1/6\ell$	3ℓ	$3\ell/3$
3 phase, 3 electrodes, overlapping clock (6 moves)	$1/6\ell$	3ℓ	$3\ell/6$
4 phase, 4 electrodes, non-overlapping clock (4 moves)	$1/8\ell$	4ℓ	$4\ell/4$
4 phase, 4 electrodes, overlapping clock (8 moves)	$1/8\ell$	4ℓ	$4\ell/8$
4 phase, 8 electrodes, ripple clock	$1/2\ell$	ℓ	$4\ell/3$
8 phase, 16 electrodes, ripple clock	$1/2\ell$	ℓ	$8\ell/7$



MTF Loss due to Angular Mis-Alignment

$$MTF_{alignment}(f) = \frac{\sin(\pi f N p_x \tan \theta)}{\pi f N p_x \tan \theta} = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} N \tan \theta\right)}{\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{f}{f_N} N \tan \theta} \quad (10)$$

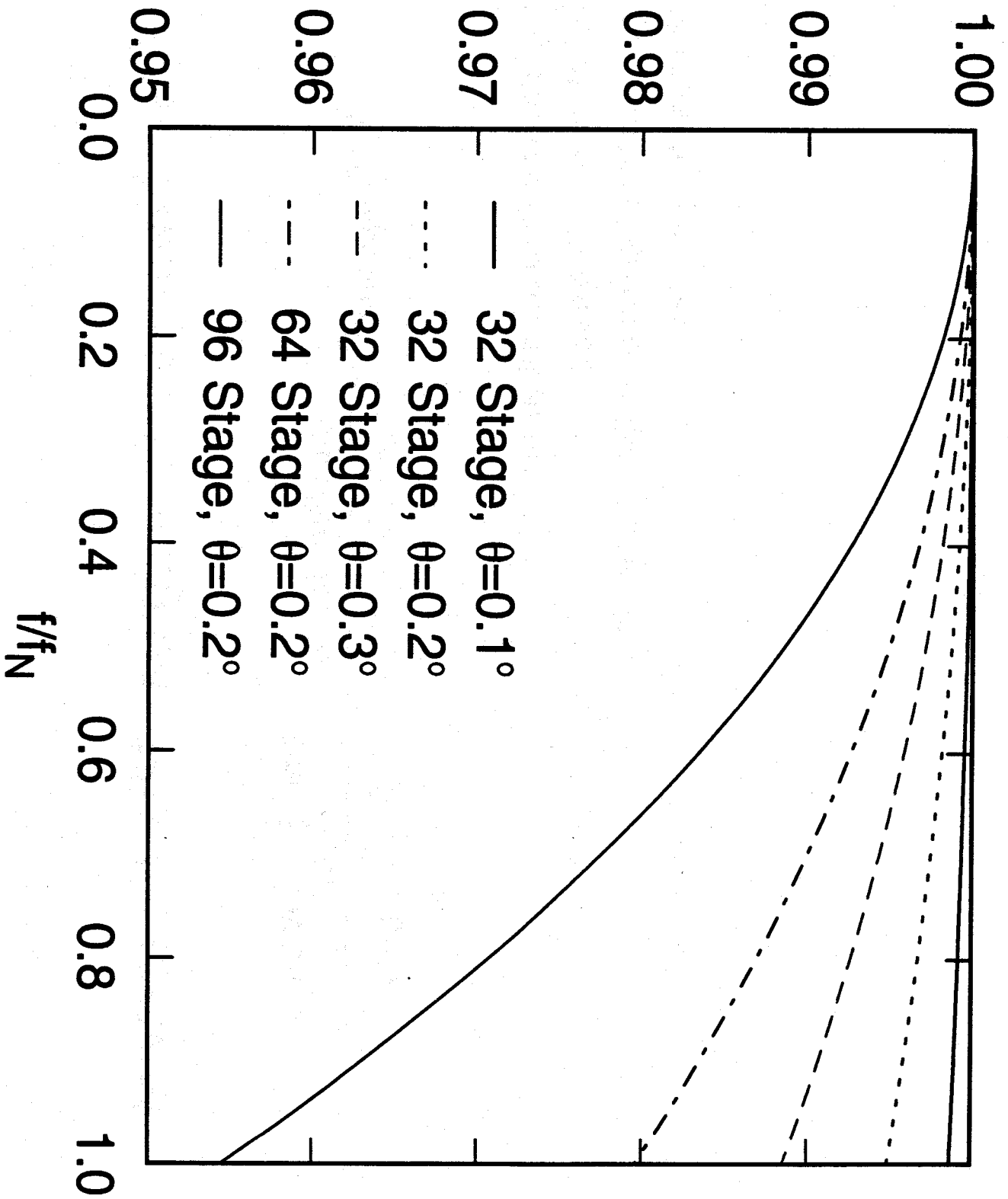
θ = angular mis-alignment angle

N = number of TDI stages

p_x = pixel center spacing in the x-direction

f_N = Nyquist frequency

Modulation Transfer Function



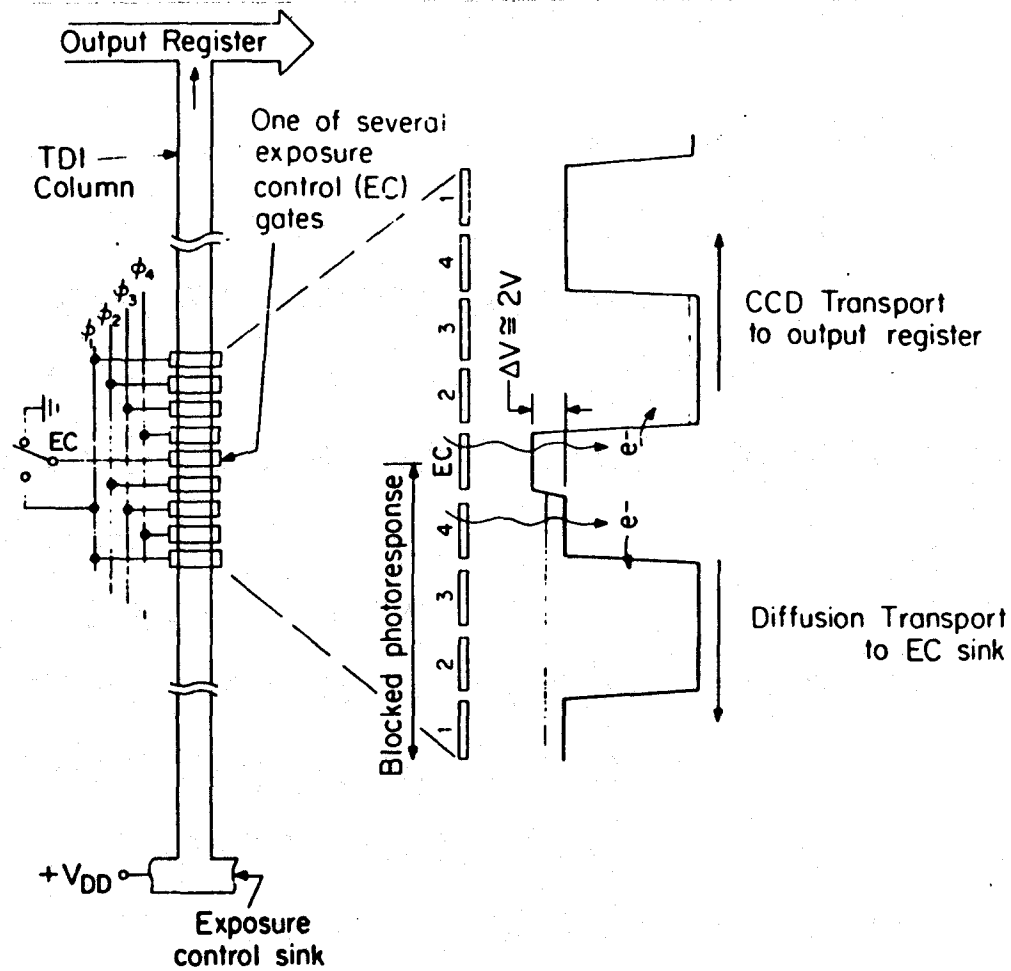
Choice of Clocking Method

- **Charge capacity** [Barbe, *IEEE Proc.* 1975]
 - 4 phase, largest capacity
- **MTF loss** [Farrier & Dyck, *IEEE-ED*, 1980]
 - 4 phase, 8 moves
- **Ripple clock** [Angle, *Conf. CCD Appl.* 1978]
 - high Nyquist frequency
 - discrete charge motion
 - higher speed in parallel array required
 - metal-to-poly contact in imaging array
- **Technology dependent**
 - double or triple poly
 - design ground rule

Sensitivity, Exposure Control

- N-stage TDI increases sensitivity N times
- Electronic exposure control
 - extends dynamic range
 - extra voltage barrier required at exposure control electrode → lose charge capacity
 - diffusive transport of un-used signal limits maximum imaging flux

[Farrier & Dyck, *IEEE-ED*, 1980]



Farrier and Dyck, IEEE ED-27, p.1688 (1980)

June 9, 1991

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(H.-S. Wong)

Noise, Dynamic Range, S/N Ratio

Parallel array:

1. Interface states trapping noise (SCCD)
2. Bulk trapping noise (BCCD)
3. Dark current shot noise
4. Transfer inefficiency shot noise
5. Photon shot noise

Serial register:

1. Interface states trapping noise (SCCD)
2. Bulk trapping noise (BCCD)
3. Dark current shot noise
4. Transfer inefficiency shot noise

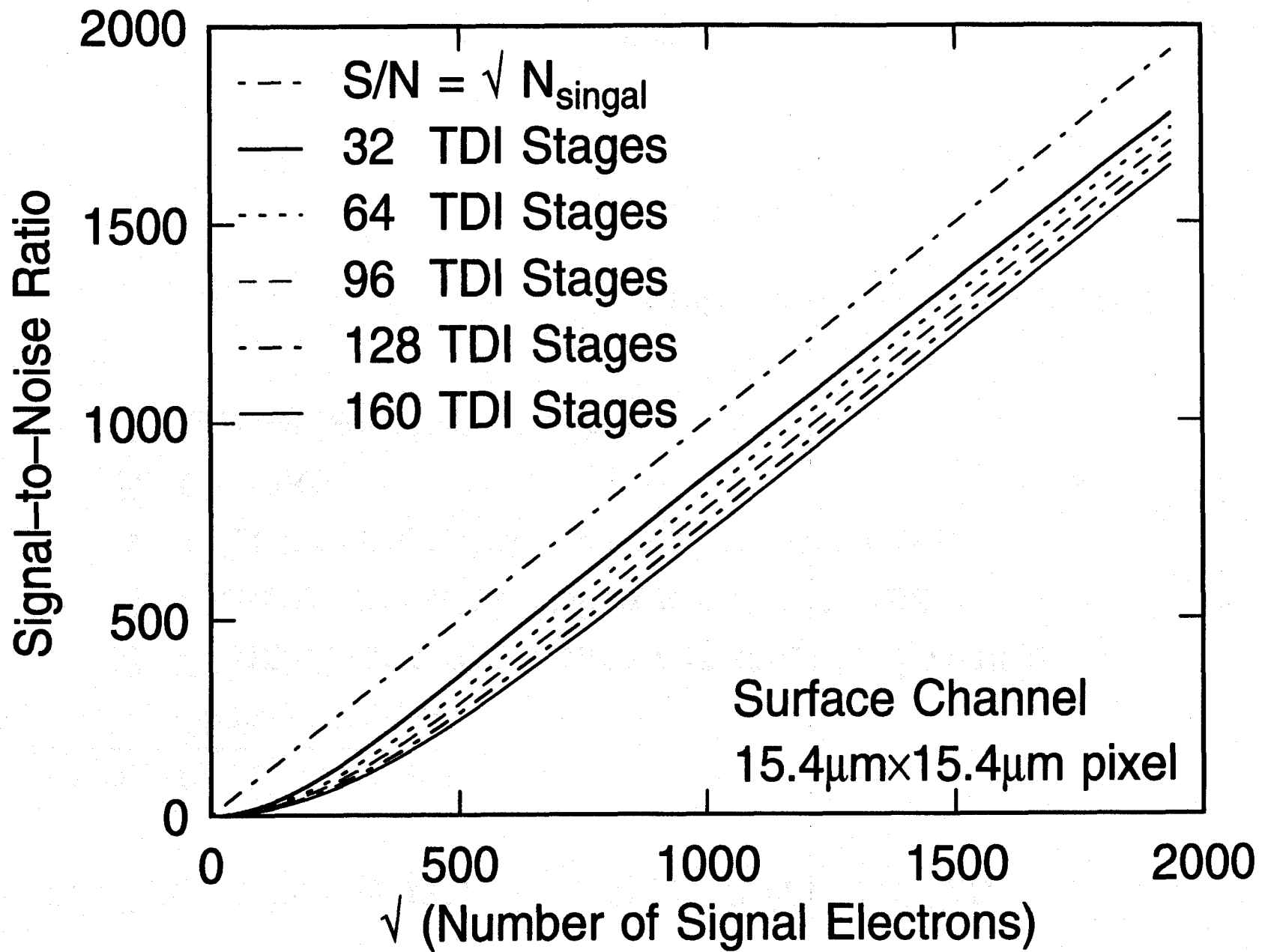
[Carnes & Kosonocky, *RCA Review*, 1972]

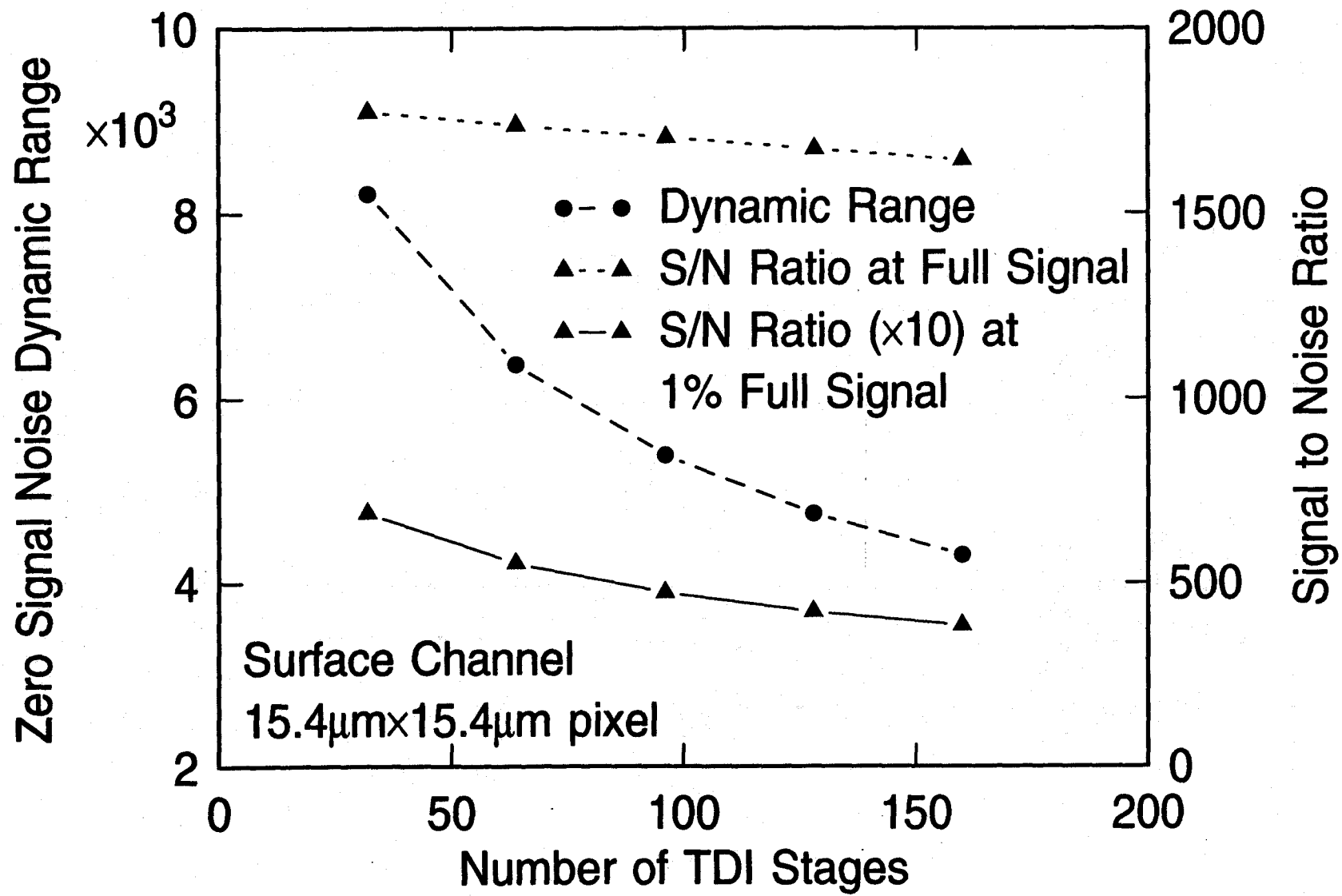
Noise, Dynamic Range, S/N Ratio

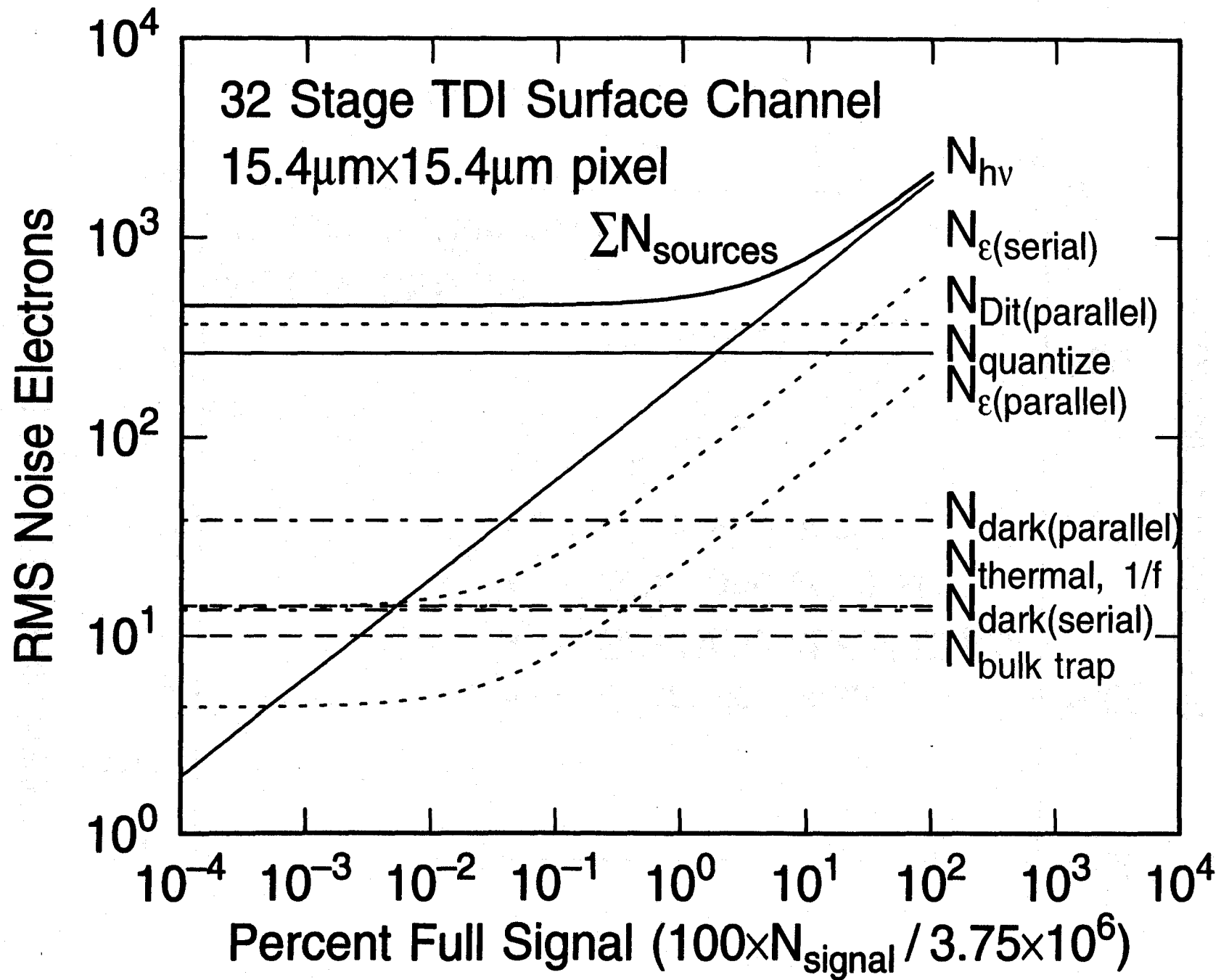
Output structures:

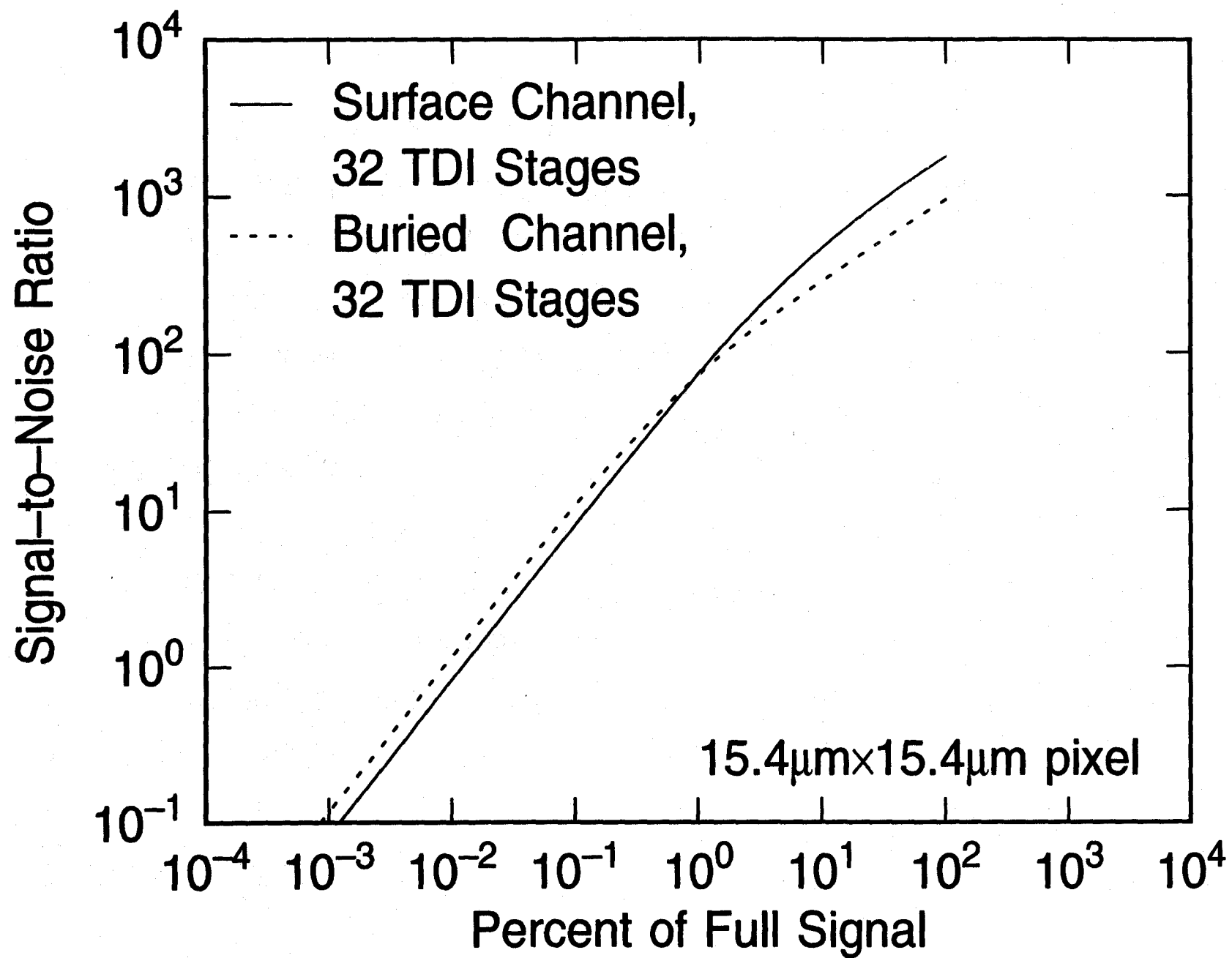
1. Reset noise
2. Output source follower thermal noise
3. Output source follower 1/f noise
4. A/D conversion quantization noise
5. Clocks
6. Other system noise

[White, in *Solid State Imaging*, 1975]



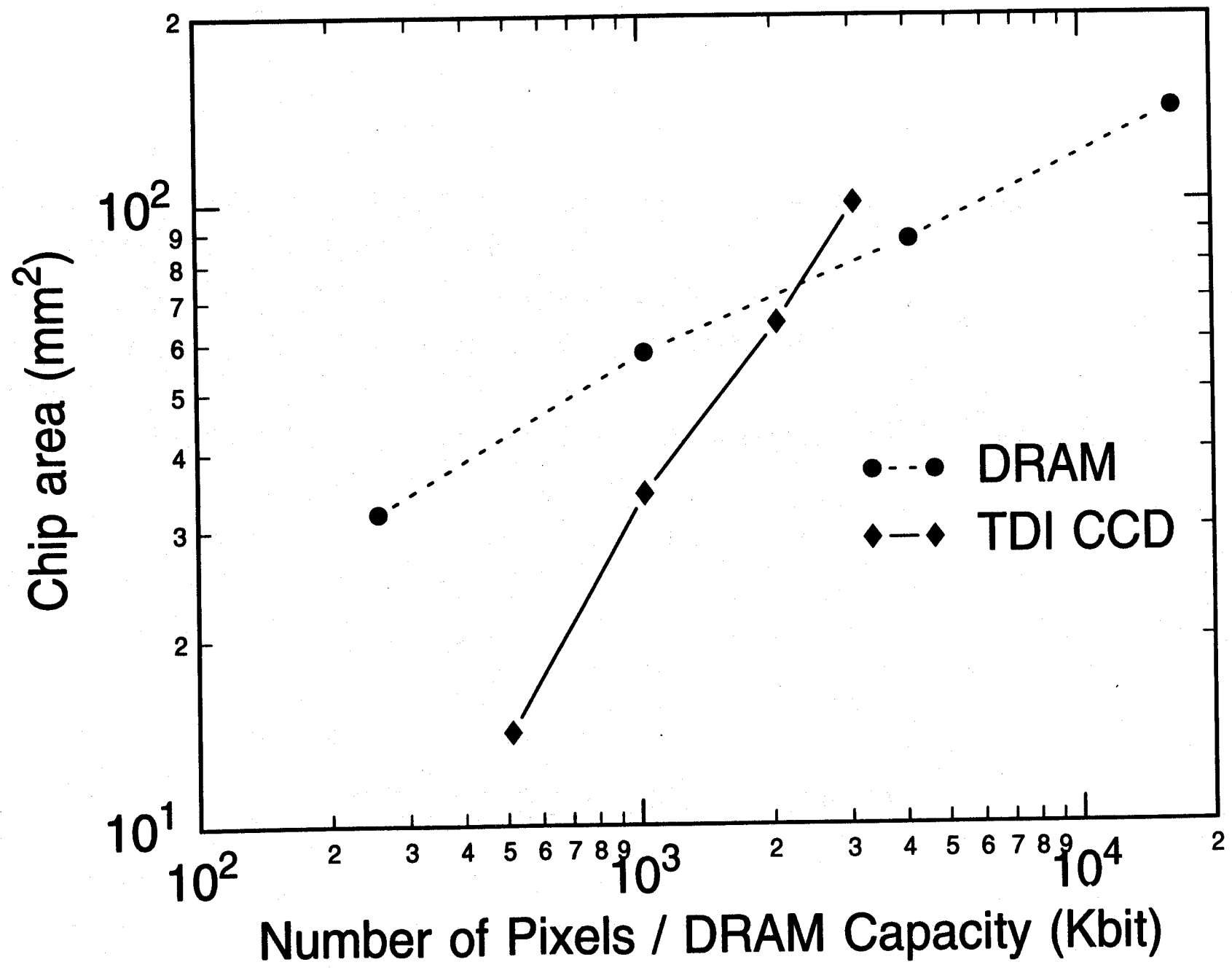






Pixel Size

- Large pixel
 - charge capacity
 - signal-to-noise ratio
 - carrier diffusion MTF loss
 - MTF of optics
- Small pixel
 - chip size, yield
 - mechanical, handling
 - compact optical system
 - RC charging time
 - limited stepper field size (~ 25–30 mm) →
1X lithography ↔ relaxed ground rules



Spectral Responsivity

$$\begin{aligned} R(\lambda) &= \frac{q\eta(\lambda)}{hc/\lambda} \quad [A/W] \\ &= \frac{q\eta(\lambda)}{hc/\lambda} \times \beta_v \times A_p \quad [VJ^{-1}cm^{-2}] \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

hc/λ ($\approx 1.24154 \times 10^{-6}q/\lambda$, where q = electron charge) = energy per photon

h ($= 6.62617 \times 10^{-23}Js$) = the Planck's constant

c ($= 2.99792 \times 10^{10}cm s^{-1}$) = velocity of light

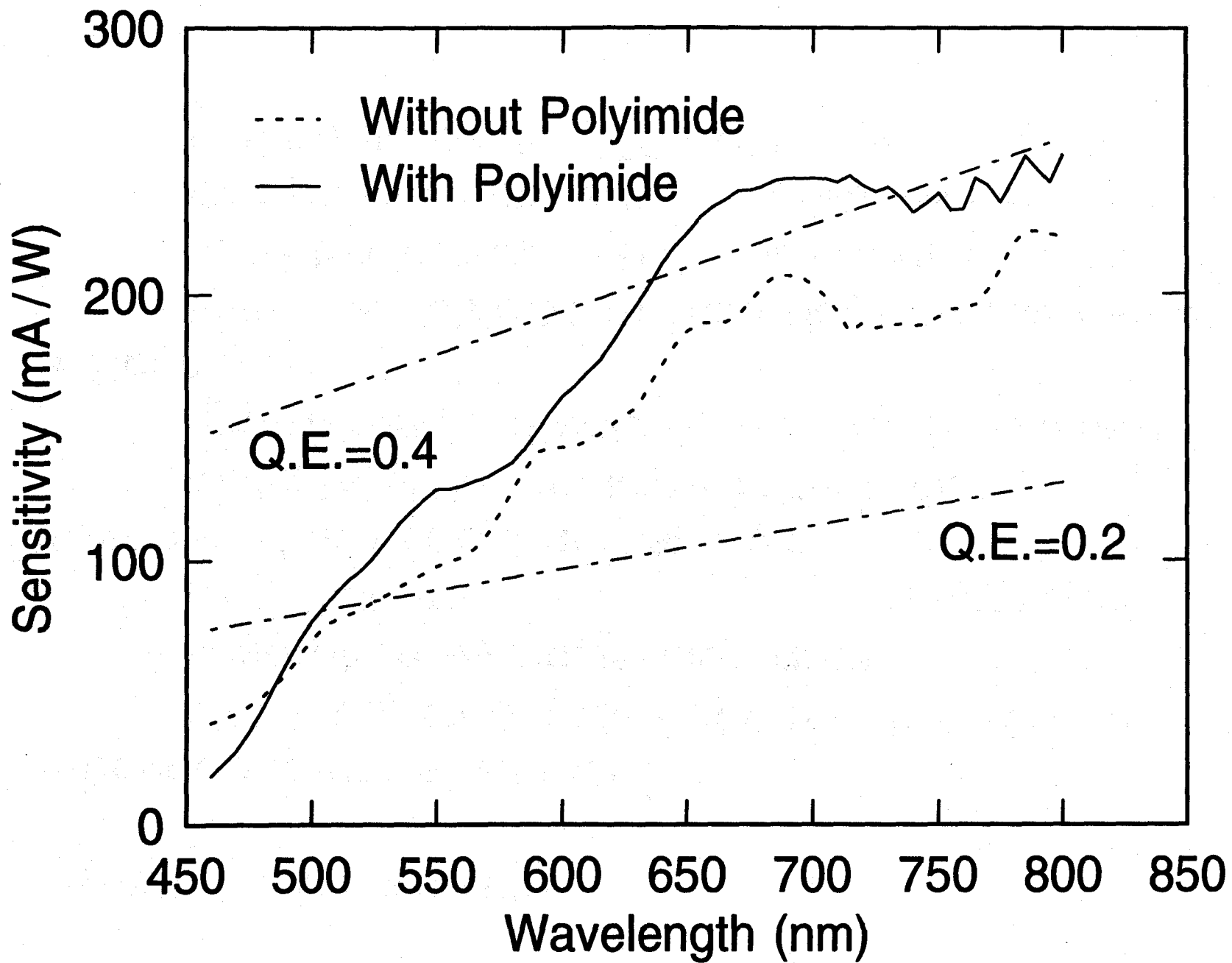
λ is the wavelength of light fl[m]

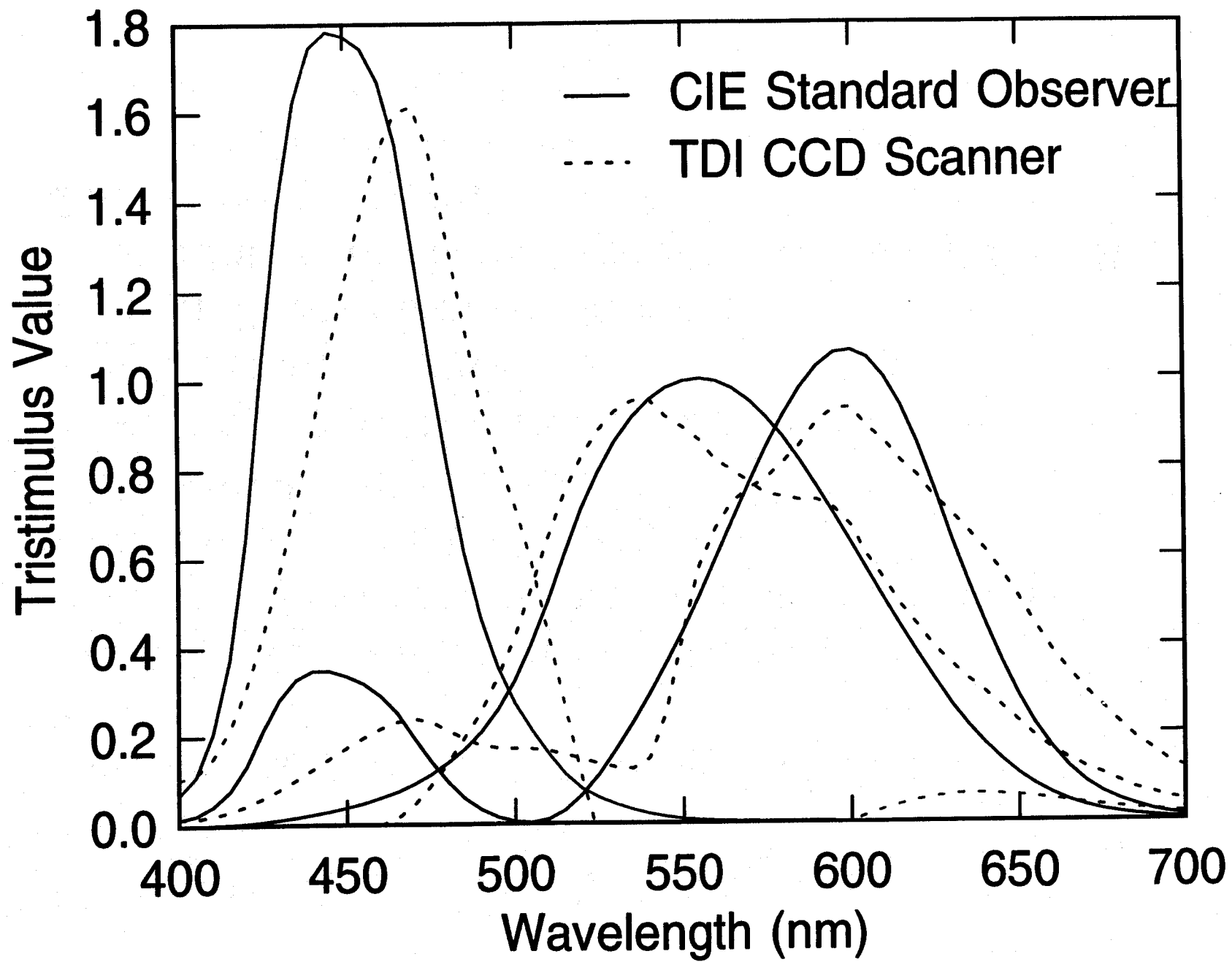
β_v is the conversion coefficient of the output detection node [V/C]

A_p = photo-element area [cm^{-2}]

Spectral Response

- Low quantum efficiency
 - $\eta(\lambda) \sim 0.2$ to 0.4 for $400\text{nm} < \lambda < 700\text{nm}$
 - absorption by polysilicon gate ($\lambda < 500\text{nm}$) [Lee, *IEDM*, 1983]
- Non-uniform spectral response
 - multiple dielectric layer reflection, interference effects [v.d. Wiele in *Solid State Imaging*, 75]
- Solutions:
 - tailor dielectric layer material refractive index and thickness, $\eta \sim 0.5$ [Dyck & Wight, *IEEE-ED*, 1977]
 - thin polysilicon gate [Anagnostopoulos, *CICC*, 1980]
 - indium tin oxide (ITO) gate [Thompson, *IEEE-ED*, 1978]





Comparison with Photodiode Array

- Similar applications and system design

Photodiode Linear Array Advantages:

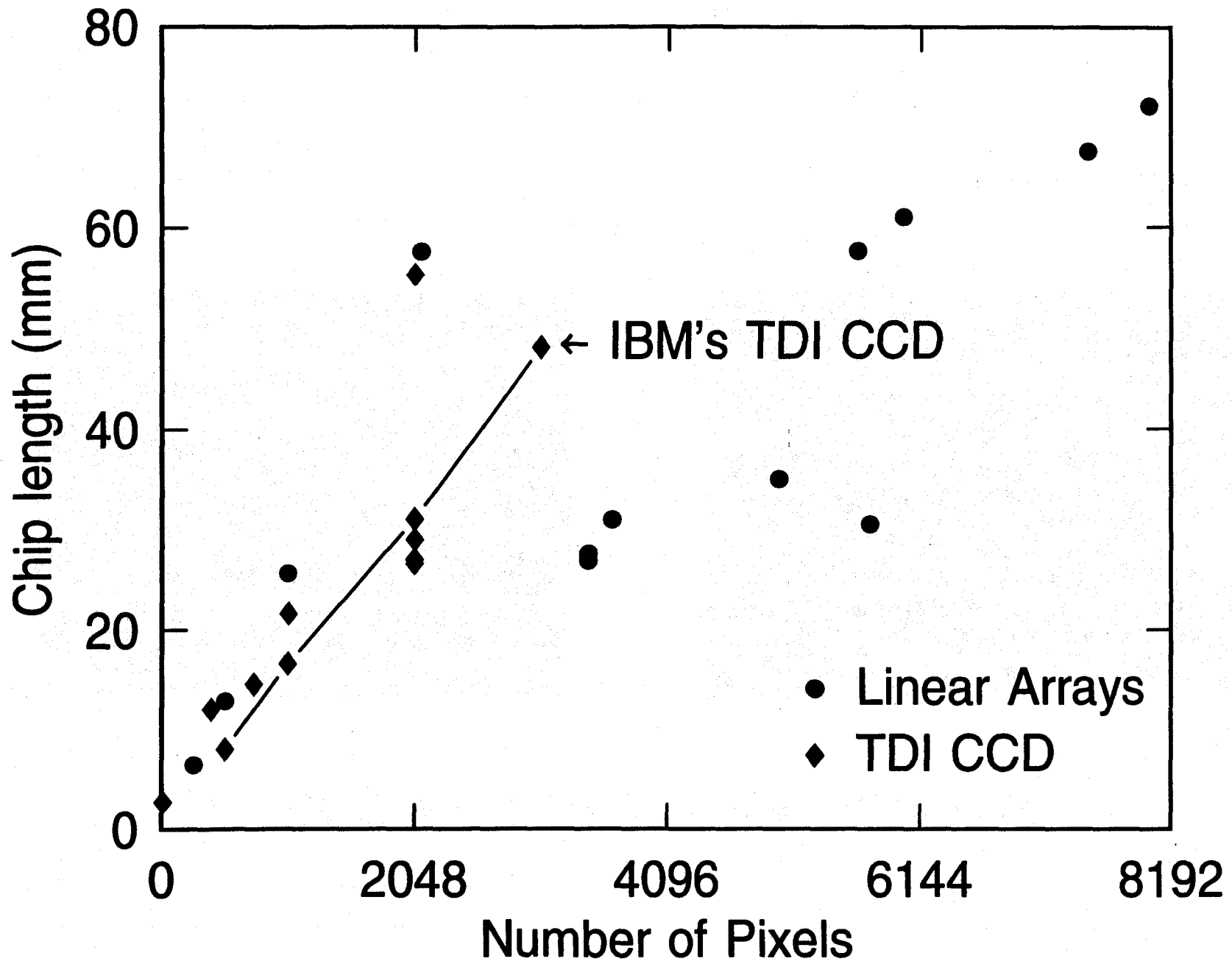
1. bilinear architecture → more pixels/line
2. smooth spectral response
3. smaller chip size
4. stop-and-scan possible

TDI CCD Advantages:

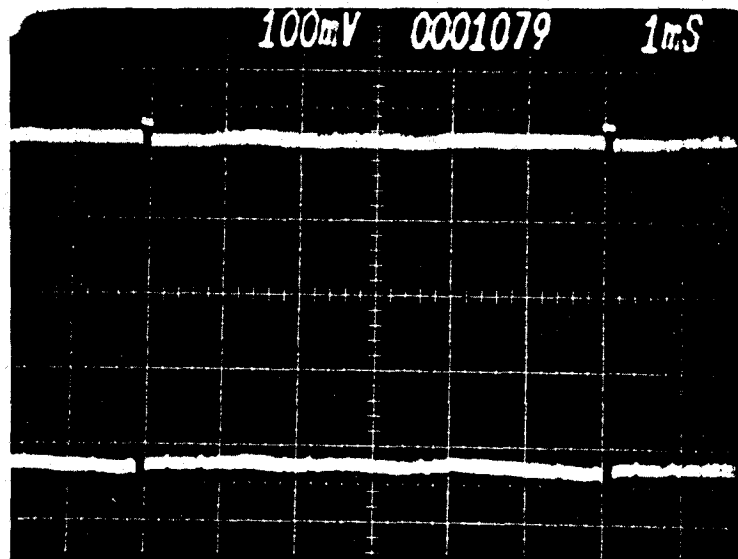
1. uniform pixel responsivity
2. high sensitivity: high speed, low illumination

Speed comparison:

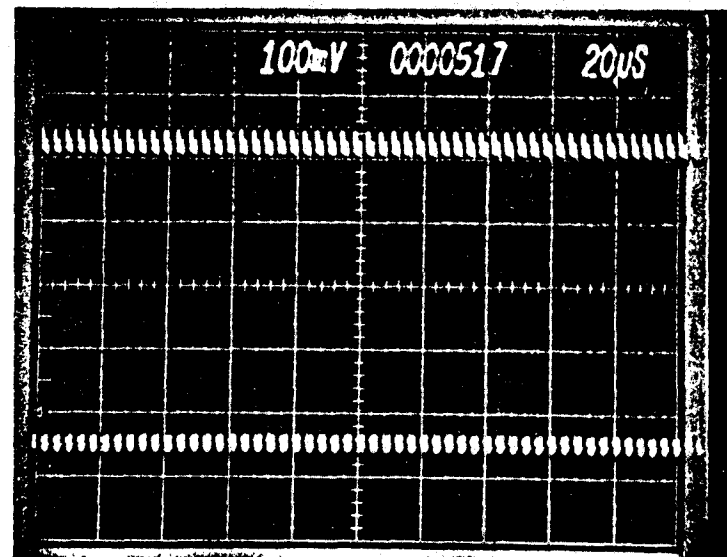
1. irradiance required for fixed S/N & line time
2. line time required for fixed S/N & irradiance



TDI CCD Photoresponse Uniformity



(a) Full scan line



(b) Detail of about 50 cycles

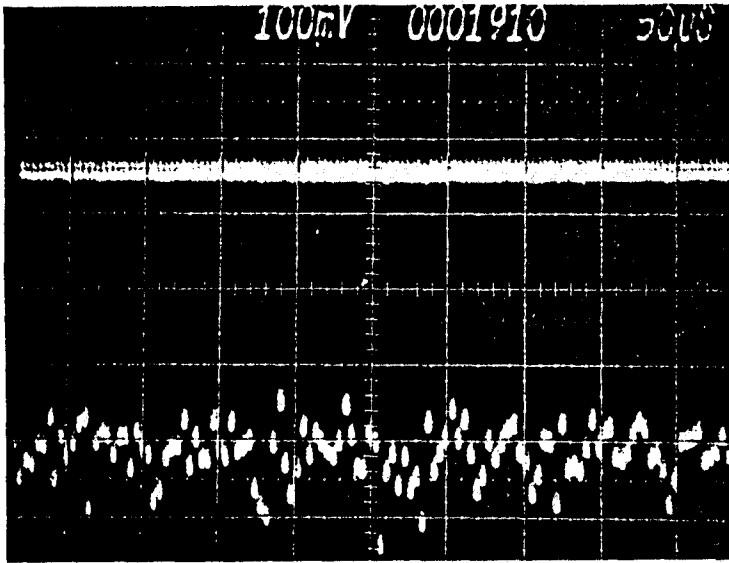
Schlig, IBM J. Research and Development, (1991)

June 9, 1991

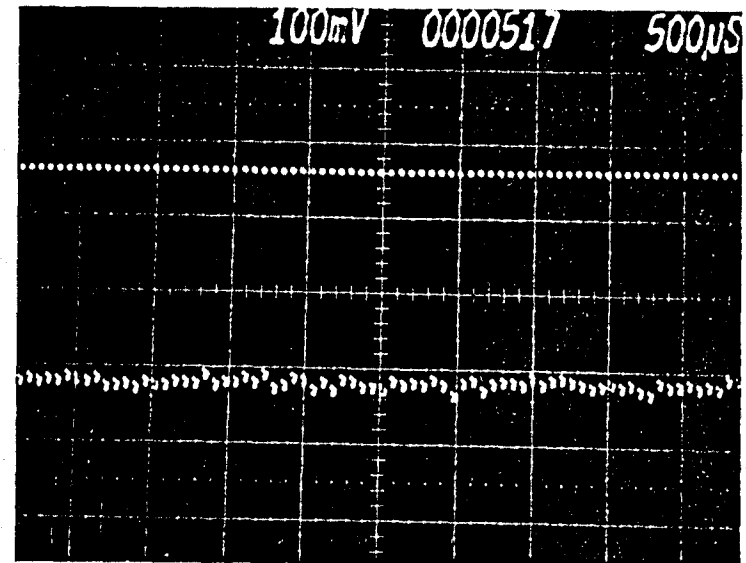
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TDI CCD Dark Current Uniformity



(a) Frame transfer mode



(b) TDI mode

Schlig, IBM J. Research and Development, (1991)

June 9, 1991

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IBM's Family of TDI CCD

- Parallel array: surface channel
 - max. charge capacity, S/N at moderate signal
- Serial register: buried channel
 - speed, transfer efficiency
- Four phase, 8 moves clock
 - max. charge capacity, min. MTF loss
- In-line tapped output
 - increase effective data rate
- Floating diffusion output
- 32 to 64 TDI stages
 - ~ 10X to 20X sensitivity improvement
 - maximize MTF and device yield

Device	Architecture	Features and Applications
TDI-2S	512 × 32-stage, 1 output port, 20MHz pixel rate.	10-15 sec./page, office ambient illumination, for optical character recognition.
TDI-2	2048 × 32-stage, 1 output port, 20MHz pixel rate.	0.8 to 1.5 sec./page, flat-bed scanner, 240 pels/inch for A4 document.
TDI-3	1024 × 32-stage, 8 output ports, 96MHz pixel rate, electronic exposure control of 1X and 32X sensitivity.	350 document-inch/sec (40 Federal Reserve Bank Cheques per second) at 250W, f/2.8, 240 pels/inch.

TDI-4	3072 × 32-stage, 2 output ports, 24MHz pixel rate	1-2 page/sec., camera type scanner for museum artwork and high resolution scanning.
TDI-5	3072 × 64-stage, 2 output ports, 24MHz pixel rate	1-2 page/sec., camera type scanner for museum artwork and high resolution scanning.

Table 3. Device characteristics of the family of TDI CCD designed and fabricated at IBM.

Trends, Major Development Issues

- More pixels/line, high resolution
- 400 pel/in for A4 size → 3456 pixels
- Lithography, chip size
- Small pixel vs. charge capacity
- Color imaging
- Colorimetric ← smooth spectral response
- One-pass color scan, on-chip color
- Blue scan too slow

Conclusions

- TDI CCD device design and applications reviewed
- TDI CCD complements photodiode linear array
- New applications requires TDI CCD
 - high speed batch scanning (banking)
 - low illumination scanning (museum art object)
 - high uniformity, high S/N for good gray scale required for subsequent color processing