

# **GUDLAVALLERU ENGINEERING COLLEGE**

**(An Autonomous Institute with Permanent Affiliation to JNTUK, Kakinada)**

**Seshadri Rao Knowledge Village, Gudlavalleru – 521 356.**

## **Department of Computer Science and Engineering**



## **HANDOUT**

**on**

## **Applied Physics**

**Vision :**

To be a Centre of Excellence in computer science and engineering education and training to meet the challenging needs of the industry and society

**Mission:**

- To impart quality education through well-designed curriculum in tune with the growing software needs of the industry.
- To be a Centre of Excellence in computer science and engineering education and training to meet the challenging needs of the industry and society.
- To serve our students by inculcating in them problem solving, leadership, teamwork skills and the value of commitment to quality, ethical behavior & respect for others.
- To foster industry-academia relationship for mutual benefit and growth

**Program Educational Objectives :**

**PEO1** : Identify, analyze, formulate and solve Computer Science and Engineering problems both independently and in a team environment by using the appropriate modern tools.

**PEO2** : Manage software projects with significant technical, legal, ethical, social, environmental and economic considerations.

**PEO3** : Demonstrate commitment and progress in lifelong learning, professional development, leadership and Communicate effectively with professional clients and the public

## **HANDOUT ON APPLIED PHYSICS**

Class & Sem. : I B.Tech – I Semester

Year : 2019-20

Branch : CSE

Credits : 3

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### **1. Brief History and Scope of the Subject**

#### **“Physics is the subject, dealing with Nature & Natural Phenomena”**

Every concept that we study in Physics is a consequence of Natural Observation. For example shadow formation led to the concept of Light Nature, etc. A sound knowledge of engineering physics is essential for the engineering student to reach new heights of life.

#### **Physics and Technology**

The technological development of any society is very closely related with the applications of physics. Steam engines and the detailed study of heat and thermodynamics were the initiators of the industrial revolution. The development of transistors and development of computers were the initiators of IT revolution. “There is plenty of room at the bottom” the statement made by Feynman started Nano revolution. Today we see the applications of physics in every walk of life. The radio, the television, the wireless, X-rays are used in the identification of fractures in bones. The electricity that we use in our homes and factories is derived from the conversion of some other form of energy great role in technology and in our daily lives. With a basic foundation of physics, you can appreciate and enjoy many more exciting things happening around you.

### **2. Pre-Requisites**

Basic Knowledge of Mathematics, Fundamentals in Physics

### **3. Course Objectives**

To learn conditions for propagation of laser light in guided medium

To understand principles of solid state materials for use in the engineering applications

#### 4. Course Outcomes:

Students will be able to

| CO | CO Statement  | Blooms Level |
|----|---|--------------|
| 1  | explain construction and working of laser   | L2           |
| 2  | relate the principles of propagation of light in optical fibers for applications in communications. | L3           |
| 3  | apply the wave nature of electrons to understand the basic concepts of quantum computing.           | L3           |
| 4  | identify conductivity mechanism in semiconductors   | L3           |
| 5  | derive orbital and spin contribution for magnetism  | L2           |
| 6  | determine types of polarization and classius-mossoti relation                                       | L3           |

#### 5. PPROGRAM OUTCOMES (POs)

##### Engineering Graduates will be able to:

- Engineering knowledge:** Apply the knowledge of mathematics, science, engineering fundamentals, and an engineering specialization to the solution of complex engineering problems.
- Problem analysis:** Identify, formulate, review research literature, and analyze complex engineering problems reaching substantiated conclusions using first principles of mathematics, natural sciences, and engineering sciences.
- Design/development of solutions:** Design solutions for complex engineering problems and design system components or processes that meet the specified needs with appropriate consideration for the public health and safety, and the cultural, societal, and environmental considerations.

4. **Conduct investigations of complex problems:** Use research-based knowledge and research methods including design of experiments, analysis and interpretation of data, and synthesis of the information to provide valid conclusions.
5. **Modern tool usage:** Create, select, and apply appropriate techniques, resources, and modern engineering and IT tools including prediction and modeling to complex engineering activities with an understanding of the limitations.
6. **The engineer and society:** Apply reasoning informed by the contextual knowledge to assess societal, health, safety, legal and cultural issues and the consequent responsibilities relevant to the professional engineering practice.
7. **Environment and sustainability:** Understand the impact of the professional engineering solutions in societal and environmental contexts, and demonstrate the knowledge of, and need for sustainable development.
8. **Ethics:** Apply ethical principles and commit to professional ethics and responsibilities and norms of the engineering practice.
9. **Individual and team work:** Function effectively as an individual, and as a member or leader in diverse teams, and in multidisciplinary settings.
10. **Communication:** Communicate effectively on complex engineering activities with the engineering community and with society at large, such as, being able to comprehend and write effective reports and design documentation, make effective presentations, and give and receive clear instructions.
11. **Project management and finance:** Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the engineering and management principles and apply these to one's own work, as a member and leader in a team, to manage projects and in multidisciplinary environments.
12. **Life-long learning:** Recognize the need for, and have the preparation and ability to engage in independent and life-long learning in the broadest context of technological change.

8.

**PROGRAM SPECIFIC OUTCOMES (PSOs)****Students will be able to**

- Organize, maintain and protect IT Infrastructural resources.
- Design and Develop web, mobile, and smart apps based software solutions to the real world problems.

**6. Mapping of Course Outcomes with Program Outcomes:**

|     | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> | <b>8</b> | <b>9</b> | <b>10</b> | <b>11</b> | <b>12</b> |
|-----|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| CO1 | 3        |          |          | 2        |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |
| CO2 | 3        | 3        |          | 2        |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |
| CO3 | 3        | 3        |          | 2        |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |
| CO4 | 2        | 2        |          |          |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |
| CO5 | 2        |          |          | 2        |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |
| CO6 | 2        |          |          | 2        |          |          |          | 1        |          |           |           | 3         |

**7. Prescribed Text Books**

1. Engineering Physics by Mani Naidu, Pearson Publications Chennai
2. A text book of Engineering Physics by M.N. Avadhanulu & P.G. Kshirasagar (S. Chand publications)
3. Engineering Physics by Gaur and Gupta.
4. Optics – 5<sup>th</sup> Edition – Ghatak (TMH Publications)

**8. Reference Text Books**

1. A.J.Dekker, Solid state physics, Published by Macmillan India.
2. Charles Kittel, Introduction to solid state physics, Wiley India Pvt. Ltd.
3. P.K. Palanisamy, Engineering Physics , SciTech publications

**9. URLs and Other E-Learning Resources**

[www.hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/HBASE/hframe.html](http://www.hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/HBASE/hframe.html)

[www.extraphysics.com](http://www.extraphysics.com)

[www.walter-fendt.de/ph14e](http://www.walter-fendt.de/ph14e)

[www.phet.colorado.edu](http://www.phet.colorado.edu)

[www.sakshat.amrita.ac.in](http://www.sakshat.amrita.ac.in) (for virtual lab)

[www.forbhongir.blogspot.com](http://www.forbhongir.blogspot.com)

<https://sites.google.com/site/physicsbysureshsaganti>

192.168.0.40/elibrary

[www.vlab.co.in](http://www.vlab.co.in)

### 10. Digital Learning Materials:

- <http://nptel.ac.in/courses/>
- <https://onlinecourses.nptel.ac.in>

### 11. Lecture Schedule / Lesson Plan

| S.No | TOPIC  | No of. Periods | No of. Tutorials |
|------|--|----------------|------------------|
| 1.   | <b>Unit I LASER</b>  |                |                  |
| 2.   | Introduction   | 1              | 2(T)             |
| 3.   | Characteristics of lasers  | 1              |                  |
| 4.   | Requirement of laser   | 1              |                  |
| 5.   | Spontaneous and Stimulated emission of radiation – Einstein's coefficients | 2              |                  |
| 6.   | Ruby laser   | 1              |                  |
| 7.   | Helium Neon laser.   | 1              |                  |
| 8.   | Semi Conductor laser diode   | 1              |                  |
| 9.   | Problems on unit 1   | 1              |                  |
| 10.  | <b>Unit II Optical fibers</b>  |                |                  |
| 11.  | Construction of Optical fiber  | 1              | 2(T)             |
| 12.  | Principle of Optical Fiber – Total Internal Reflection,                    | 1              |                  |
| 13.  | Numerical Aperture and Acceptance Angle, Optical Fibre Construction,       | 1              |                  |
| 14.  | Types of Optical Fibers  | 1              |                  |
| 15.  | Step Index Fibers and Graded Index Fibers                                  | 1              |                  |
| 16.  | Optical Fiber in communication Block diagram                               | 1              |                  |
| 17.  | Advantages of Optical Fibers in Communications.                            | 1              |                  |
| 18.  | Problems on unit 2   | 1              |                  |
| 19.  | <b>Unit - III : Principles of quantum mechanics and its applications</b>   |                |                  |
| 20.  | De Broglie's hypothesis, De Broglie's wave length                          | 1              | 2(T)             |
| 21.  | Schrodinger time independent wave equation                                 | 1              |                  |

|     |   |           |      |
|-----|---|-----------|------|
| 22. | Physical significance of wave function                                      | 1         |      |
| 23. | Particle in one dimensional infinite potential box                          | 1         |      |
| 24. | Bloch sphere - Classical bits and Quantum bits                              | 1         |      |
| 25. | Application of Qu bits for Quantum computing                                | 1         |      |
| 26. | Problems on unit 3  | 1         |      |
| 27. | <b>Unit – IV : Semiconductor</b>  |           |      |
| 28. | Introduction  | 1         |      |
| 29. | Intrinsic semiconductor – Density of electrons, holes                       | 1         |      |
| 30. | carrier concentration, Fermi level, conductivity of Intrinsic semiconductor | 1         |      |
| 31. | Extrinsic semiconductor -carrier concentration in conduction band           | 1         | 2(T) |
| 32. | Drift and diffusion – Einstein's equation                                   | 1         |      |
| 33. | Hall Effect   | 1         |      |
| 34. | Direct & indirect band gap semiconductors, LED's                            | 1         |      |
| 35. | Problems on unit 4  | 1         |      |
| 36. | <b>Unit V : Magnetic Materials</b>  |           |      |
| 37. | Magnetic permeability – Magnetization                                       | 1         |      |
| 38. | Origin of magnetic moments  | 1         |      |
| 39. | Classification of Magnetic materials – Dir, Para, Ferro                     | 1         |      |
| 40. | Domain theory (Qualitative)   | 1         | 2(T) |
| 41. | Hysteresis curve  | 1         |      |
| 42. | Soft and hard magnetic materials  | 1         |      |
| 43. | Applications  | 1         |      |
| 44. | Problems on unit 5  | 1         |      |
| 45. | <b>Unit – VI : DIELECTRIC PROPERTIES</b> Introduction – Dielectric constant |           |      |
| 46. | Electronic, ionic and orientation polarization                              | 1         |      |
| 47. | Estimation of electronic and ionic polarization                             | 2         |      |
| 48. | internal fields   | 1         | 2(T) |
| 49. | Clausius – Mossotti equation  | 1         |      |
| 50. | Dielectric loss, Break down, Ferroelectrics                                 | 1         |      |
| 51. | Problems on unit 6  | 1         |      |
| 52. | <b>Total</b>  | <b>47</b> |      |

### 12. Seminar Topics

- classification of magnetic materials
- types of semiconductor



## Applied Physics

### UNIT – I

#### **Objective:**

The course is designed to make the students

- To comprehend principles of laser.

#### **Syllabus:**

Spontaneous and stimulated emission - Einstein's coefficient and their relations - basic characteristics of laser - Basic Requirements of laser –Ruby laser-Helium-Neon laser - Semiconductor laser - Applications of Laser

#### **Learning Outcomes:**

**At the end of this chapter students are able to**

- summarize the different characteristics of laser
- derive Einstein's coefficients
- analyze construction and working of Ruby, He-Ne, SLD with suitable diagrams
- list uses of lasers

## Learning Material

### Unit-I

# L A S E R S

#### L1.INTRODUCTION

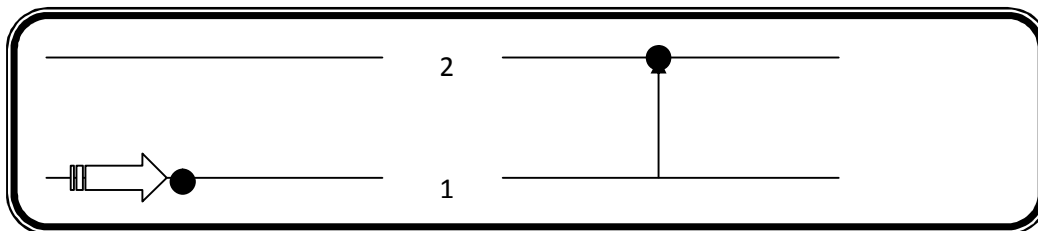
- Laser is an acronym for **L**ight **A**mplification by **S**timulated **E**mission of **R**adiation.
- In a laser, the process of stimulated emission is used for amplifying of light waves. Lasers are essentially coherent optical sources.
- It was as early as in 1917 that Einstein first predicted the existence of two different kinds of processes by which an atom can emit radiation. These are called spontaneous and stimulated emission.
- The fact that stimulated emission process could be used in the construction of coherent optical sources was first put forward by Townes and Schawlow in the USA and Boso and Prokhorov in the USSR. And finally in 1960, Maimann demonstrated the first laser.

#### L2.BASIC CONCEPTS OF LASER

Absorption, Spontaneous and stimulated emission:

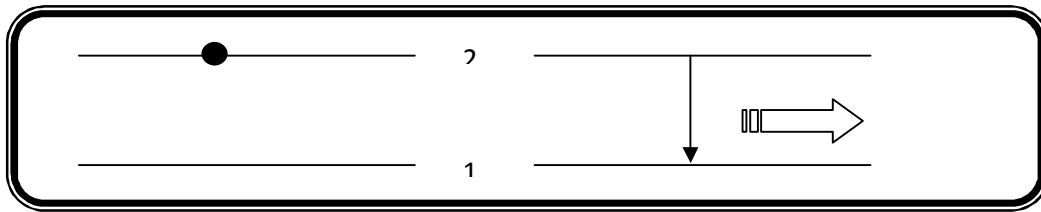
##### ABSORPTION:

- ***The process of particle transfer from normal state corresponding to minimum energy of the system to a higher energy state is termed as excitation and the particle itself is said to be excited. The process is called stimulated or induced absorption.***
- In this process the absorption of energy from the external field takes place.
- The time during which a particle can exist in the ground state is unlimited.
- On the other hand the particle can remain in the excited state for a limited time known as life time ( $10^{-8}$ sec).
- The state where the probability of finding the electron is more than excited state is called meta stable.



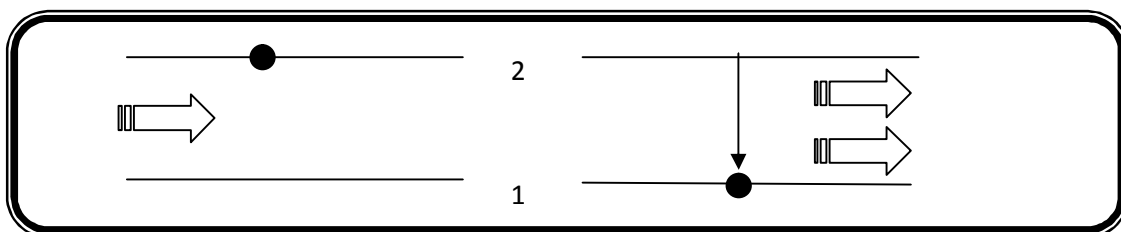
## SPONTANEOUS EMISSION

- **The excited atom does not remain in that state for a long time. After short interval of time  $10^{-8}$ Sec it falls to its lower energy state by emitting a photon. Here the excited atom jumps back to its ground state on its own accord and hence the process is known as spontaneous emission.**
- This emission, which takes place without external incitement, is called spontaneous emission.
- The spontaneous emission is random in character. The radiation in this case is a random mixture of quanta having various wavelengths. The waves coincide neither in wavelength nor in phase. Thus the radiation is incoherent and has a broad spectrum.



## STIMULATED EMISSION

- **Electron in the Meta stable state when stimulated by sufficient energetic photon drops to the ground state by emitting another photon which is called as Stimulated emission.**
- Suppose an atom is already in the excited state of energy level  $E_2$  whose ground level energy is  $E_1$ . If at this moment, a photon of energy  $h\nu = E_2 - E_1$  is incident on the excited atom. The incident photons stimulate the emission of a similar photon from the excited atom. Now the atom returns to the ground state. The transition takes place much sooner than  $10^{-8}$ sec. The process of speeding up the atomic transition from the excited state to lower state is called stimulated emission.
- The stimulated emission is proportional to the intensity of the incident light.
- The remarkable feature of the stimulated emission is that it is coherent with the stimulating incident radiation. It has the same frequency and phase as the incident radiation.



### **L3.EINSTEIN COEFFICIENTS**

- The probable rate of occurrence of the absorption transition from state 1 to state 2 depends on the properties of states 1 and 2 and is proportional to energy density  $u(\nu)$  of the radiation of frequency  $\nu$  incident on the same. Thus  $P_{12} \propto u(\nu)$  or  $P_{12} = B_{12}u(\nu)$  ---(1)

The proportionality constant  $B_{12}$  is known as Einstein's coefficient of absorption of radiation.

- The probability of spontaneous emission from state 2 to state 1 depends only on the properties of states 1 and 2. This is independent of energy density  $u(\nu)$  of incident radiation.
- Einstein denoted the probability per unit time by  $A_{21}$ .
- $(P_{21})_{\text{spontaneous}} = A_{21}$ .  $A_{21}$  is known as Einstein's coefficient of spontaneous emission of radiation.
- The probability of absorption transition depends upon energy density  $u(\nu)$  of incident radiation. Whereas the probability of spontaneous emission is independent of it. Hence for equilibrium emission transition depending upon  $u(\nu)$  must also exist. Actually these transitions are stimulated emission transitions.

The probability of stimulated emission transition from state 2 to state 1 is proportional to the energy density  $u(\nu)$  of the stimulating radiation i.e.  $(P_{21})_{\text{stimulated}} = B_{21} u(\nu)$

- Where  $B_{21}$  is Einstein's coefficient of stimulated emission of radiation. The total probability for an atom in state 2 to drop to the lower state 1 i.e. therefore  $P_{21} = A_{21} + B_{21} u(\nu)$  ----2

#### **RELATION BETWEEN EINSTEIN'S A AND B COEFFICIENTS:-**

Consider an assembly of atoms in thermal equilibrium at temperature  $T$  with radiation of frequency  $\nu$  and energy density  $u(\nu)$ . Let  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be the number of atoms in energy states 1 and 2 respectively at any instant.

The number of atoms in state 1 that absorb a photon and rise to state 2 per unit time is given by  $N_1 P_{12} = N_1 B_{12} u(\nu)$  ----- (3)

The number of photons in state 2 that can cause emission process (spontaneous + stimulated) per unit time is given by  $N_2 P_{21} = N_2 [A_{21} + B_{21} u(\nu)]$  ---- (4)

For equilibrium, the absorption and emission must occur equally hence  $N_1 P_{12} = N_2 P_{21}$

$N_1 B_{12} u(\nu) = N_2 [A_{21} + B_{21} u(\nu)]$  or  $N_1 B_{12} u(\nu) = N_2 A_{21} + N_2 B_{21} u(\nu)$  or  $u(\nu) [N_1 B_{12} - N_2 B_{21}] = N_2 A_{21}$

$$\therefore u(\nu) = \frac{N_2 A_{21}}{N_2 B_{21} - N_1 B_{12}} = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right) \left(\frac{B_{12}}{B_{21}}\right) - 1} \quad \text{----- (5)}$$

According to Boltzmann distribution law, the number of atoms  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  in energy states  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  in thermal equilibrium at temperature  $T$  is given by

$$N_1 = N_0 e^{\frac{-E_1}{kT}} \quad \text{and}$$

$$N_2 = N_0 e^{\frac{-E_2}{kT}}$$

Where  $N_0$  = Total Number of atoms present and  $k$  = Boltzmann's constant.

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{e^{\frac{-E_2}{kT}}}{e^{\frac{-E_1}{kT}}} = e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}} = e^{\frac{-h\nu}{kT}}$$

Or

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} \quad \text{----- (6)}$$

Substituting the value of  $N_1/N_2$  from eq. (6) in eq. (5) we get

$$u(\nu) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} \frac{1}{\left[ e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} \left(\frac{B_{12}}{B_{21}}\right) - 1 \right]} \quad \text{----- (7)}$$

According to Planck's radiation formula

$$u(\nu) = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \cdot \frac{1}{\left[ e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} \right]} \quad \text{----- (8)}$$

Comparing equations (7) and (8) we get

$$\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \text{ and } \frac{B_{12}}{B_{21}} = 1 \text{ or } B_{12} = B_{21}$$

Hence  $B_{12} = B_{21}$ , the probability of stimulated emission is same as induced absorption

$A_{21}/B_{21} \propto \nu^3$  i.e the ratio of spontaneous emission and stimulated emission is proportional to  $\nu^3$ . This shows that the probability of spontaneous emission increases rapidly with energy difference between two states.

#### **L4.CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LASER LIGHT**

The most outstanding characteristics of the laser beam are its high degree of directionality, monochromatic, coherence and brightness.

**(i) DIRECTIONALITY:-** The laser beam is highly directional. To give a simple example a laser beam let us say 10 cm in diameter when beamed at the moon's surface 3,84,000 km away is no more than 5 km wider.

**(ii) MONOCHROMATICITY:-** A laser produces light in more or less single wave length i.e. the line width associated with laser beams is extremely narrow.

**(iii) COHERENCE:-** The laser beam is spatially and temporally coherent to an extraordinary degree. It is possible to observe interference effects from two independent laser beams.

**(iv) BRIGHTNESS:-** The laser beam is highly intense as compared to ordinary sources of light. That is the reason why it can be used for such operations as welding, which involve high temperatures.

#### **L5.BASIC REQUIREMENTS OF LASER**

1. Meta stable state
2. Population inversion
3. Pumping
4. Optical resonator

##### **(1) META STABLE STATE:**

The state in which possibility of finding electron more is called meta stable state. The lifetime of meta stable state is  $10^{-3}$  sec.

## (2) POPULATION INVERSION:

It is the process in which the population of a particular higher energy state is made more than that of a specified lower energy state. Normally the population of ground state is more than the excited state at equilibrium. Let us consider the number of atoms  $N$  per unit volume that exist in a given energy state  $E$ . This number called population  $N$  is given by Boltzmann's equation  $N = N_0 e^{-E/kt}$ . Here  $N_0$  is the population in the ground state ( $E=0$ ).  $k_b$  is the Boltzmann's constant and  $T$  is the absolute temperature.

It is clear from the above equation that population is maximum in the ground state and decreases exponentially as one goes to higher energy state. If  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are the populations in two states, a lower state  $E_1$  and a higher state  $E_2$  we

have  $\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{e^{-\frac{E_2}{kBT}}}{e^{-\frac{E_1}{kBT}}}$  from which it follows  $N_2 = N_1 e^{-(E_2-E_1)/kBT}$  clearly  $N_2 < N_1$  since

$E_2 > E_1$ . Since  $N_1 > N_2$ , whenever an electromagnetic wave is incident, there is net absorption of the radiation. For laser action to take place, it is absolutely necessary that stimulated emission predominate over spontaneous emission. This is, possible only if  $N_2 > N_1$ . This situation in which  $N_2 > N_1$  is called population inversion.

## 3. PUMPING:

The act of exciting atoms from lower energy state to a higher energy state by supplying energy from an external source is called pumping. The following are the commonly used techniques.

- (a) Optical pumping
- (b) Electric discharges
- (c) Atomic collisions
- (d) Direct conversion and
- (e) Chemical reaction.

**OPTICAL RESONATOR:** A set of perfect reflector and partial reflector together are known as optical resonator.

## L6.RUBY LASER

Let us consider the case of an actual laser known as Ruby ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) laser. It uses a crystalline substance as the active material.

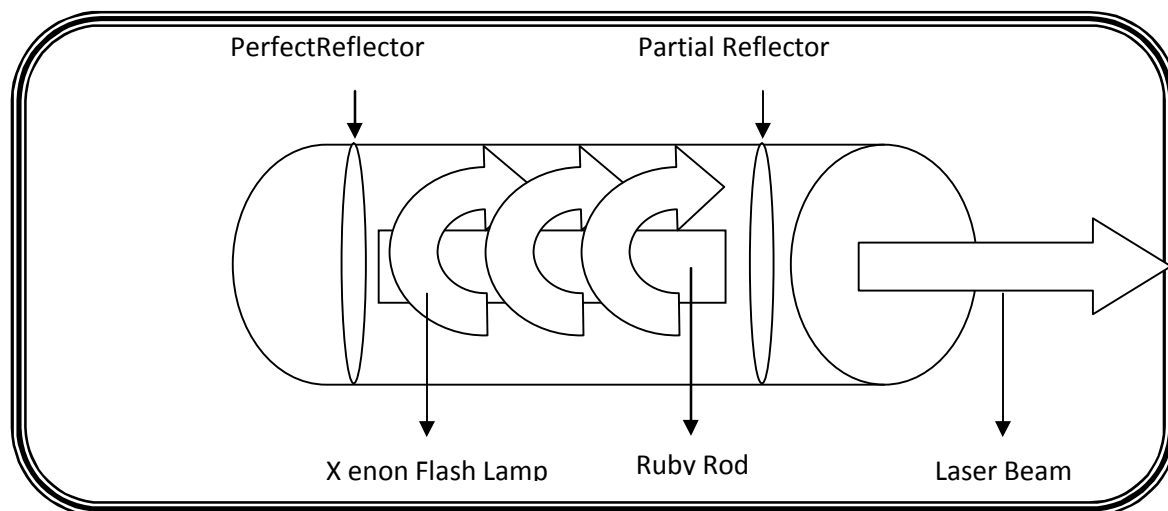
### CONSTRUCTION:

It consists of three main parts.

**(1) An active working material:** A rod of ruby crystal in the form of cylindrical rod 3 to 5 mm in diameter and 5 to 30 cm long. It consists of a single crystal of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  with 0.05% of chromium.

**(2) A resonant cavity:** made of fully reflecting plate at the left of ruby crystal and a partially reflecting plate at the right of ruby crystal. Both the plates are optically plane and exactly parallel to each other.

**(3) Exciting system:** A helical xenon flash tube with power supply source.

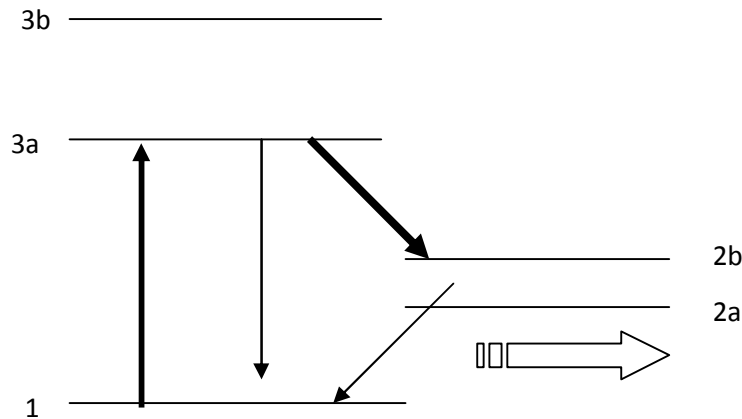


### Working:

- Ruby is a crystal of aluminum oxide  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  in which some aluminum atoms are replaced by chromium atoms ( $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$ ). The active material in the ruby is chromium ions  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$ .
- When ruby crystal contains about 0.05% of chromium its colour is pink. In a ruby laser pink rod of 4 cm length and 0.5 cm in diameter is generally used.
- The end faces of the rod are made strictly parallel ground and polished to a high degree. The end faces are then silvered in such a way that. One end face becomes fully reflecting while the other end partially reflecting.



- Sometimes separate pieces are attached at the end faces.
- The ruby rod is surrounded by a helical xenon flash tube, which provides the pumping light to raise the chromium ions to upper energy level. The flash of the xenon tube lasts several milliseconds and the tube consumes several thousand joules of energy. Only a part of this energy is used in pumping the  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$  ions while the rest heats up the apparatus. For this purpose a cooling arrangement is used.



- In the figure 1,2 and 3 represent the energy levels of chromium ions. In normal state, the chromium ion is in lower levels. When the ruby crystal is irradiated with light of xenon flash. The chromium atoms are excited and pass to upper level where the light absorption band is  $5600\text{\AA}$ . The absorption bandwidth of this level is about  $800\text{\AA}$ .
- Now few excited chromium atoms return to ground level 1 and other to level 2. The transitions 3-2 are non radioactive i.e. the chromium atoms gives part of their energy to crystal lattice in the form of heat. Here the transition probabilities between different states are such that most of the excited atom in state 3 returns to state 1 but those which go to state 2 have a little chance to return to state 1 spontaneously.
- After few milliseconds, the level 2 becomes more populated than level 1 and hence the desired population inversion is achieved. The state of inverted population is not a stable one. The probability of spontaneous transitions at any moment is very high.
- The spontaneous transition may cause an induced transition, which produces a photon. This photon knocks out a second photon from neighboring atom. The atom from which the first photon was emitted is now brought to ground level.

- The two photons will knock out two more photons and their total number will be four and so on. Now the stimulated radiation along the axis starts dominating due to multiple reflections i.e. photon traveling parallel to the axis of the tube will start a cascade of photon emission while the photons traveling in any direction other than this will pass out ruby.
- Photon beam parallel to the axis of the crystal grows in strength and some of it bursts through the partial reflector and serves as the output laser beam. A stage is reached where the population inversion caused by one flash of xenon tube is used up. The laser beam then ceases till the next flash repeats the process. Thus the ruby laser is a pulsed laser with output beams of principal wavelengths of  $6943\text{\AA}$ .

### **L7.He-Ne GAS LASER**

- The main drawback of ruby laser is that the output beam is not continuous though very intense.
- For the continuous laser beam gas lasers are used. In gas lasers the vapors of metals are employed as active media.
- The main advantage of gas lasers is exceptionally high monochromatic most pure spectrum and high stability of frequency. Hence they have wide applications in various branches of science and engineering particularly in communications.
- The output power of gas lasers is moderate but inferior to that of crystal lasers. In 1961 A.Javan W.Bennett and D.Herriot reported a continuous gas lasers.

#### **CONSTRUCTION:**

##### **Active Medium:**

- The gas laser consists of a fused quartz tube with a diameter of about 1.5cm and 80 cm long.
- The tube is filled with a mixture of neon (Ne) under a pressure of 0.1 mm of mercury and Helium under a pressure of 1 mm of mercury.
- There is a majority of helium atoms and minority of neon atoms.

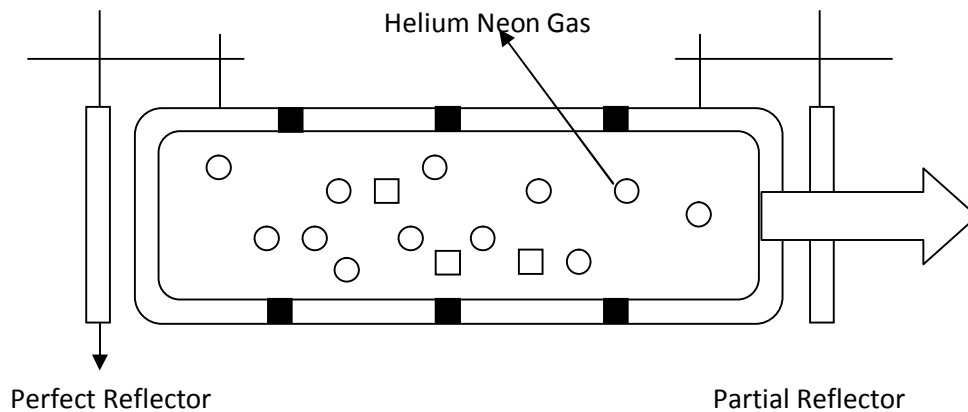
##### **Pumping System:**

- The pumping system used in He-Ne laser are 1) Electric discharge pumping  
2) Inelastic atom-atom collision pumping
- When large potential difference is applied between electrodes anode discharges electrons

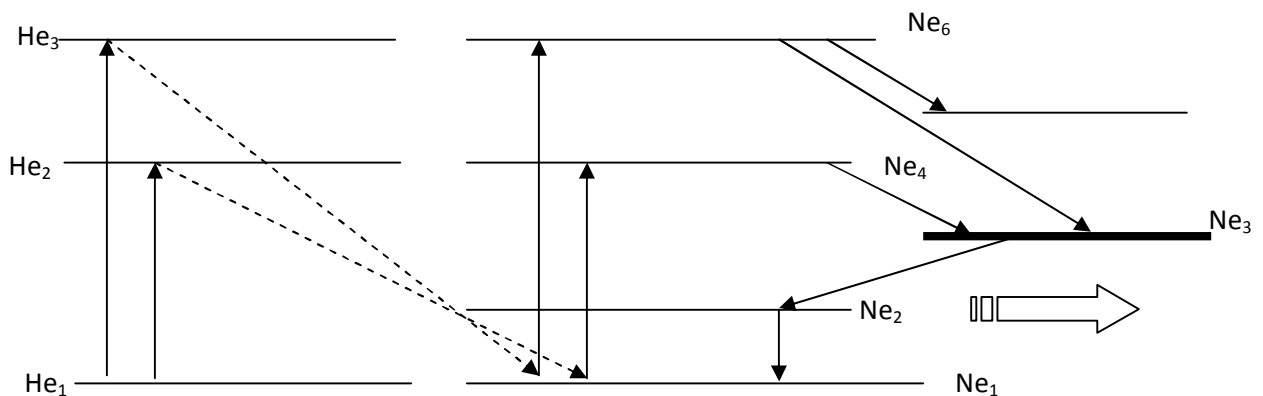
- Discharged electrons accelerates towards cathode
- There is a large probability of collision with majority gaseous atoms (He atom)  
( $e + \text{He} \rightarrow \text{He}_2^*$ )( $e + \text{He} \rightarrow \text{He}_3^*$ )
- While excited Helium atoms de excite there is a large probability of colliding with minority gaseous atoms(Ne) in elastically

### Optical cavity

- Optical cavity is a set of mirrors kept parallel to each other
- At one end of the tube, there is a perfect reflector while on the other end is a partial reflector.



### Working:-



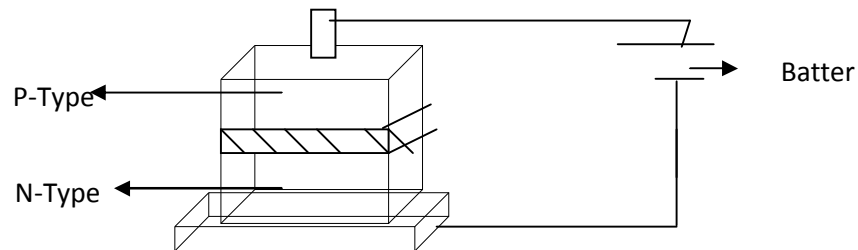
- When a discharge is passed through the gas, the electrons are accelerated towards the positive electrode. During their passage they collide with helium atoms and excite them into the upper states labeled He<sub>2</sub> and He<sub>3</sub>. These are metastable states.
- These atoms remain in these levels for a sufficiently long time. Now these atoms interact with neon atoms, which are in the ground state.

- The interaction excites the neon atoms to their metastable states labeled  $Ne_4$  and  $Ne_6$ . While the helium atoms return to their ground states.
- As the energy exchange continues the population of neon atoms in the excited states increases more and more. When an excited Ne atom passes spontaneously from metastable states  $Ne_4$  and  $Ne_6$  to states  $Ne_3$  and  $Ne_5$ . It emits a photon. This photon travels through the gas mixture.
- If this photon is moving parallel to the axis of the tube, it is reflected back and forth by the reflection unit it stimulates an excited Ne atom and causes it to emit a fresh photon in phase with stimulating photon.
- This process is continued and a laser beam builds up in the tube. When the beam becomes sufficiently intense a portion of it escapes through partially reflecting end.
- The neon atom now passes down spontaneously to a lower state  $Ne_2$  by emitting incoherent light. Finally the Ne-atom comes to ground state through collision with the tube walls. This transition is radiation less.
- The gas lasers are found to emit light, which is more directional and monochromatic. Gas lasers are capable of operating continuously without need of cooling.

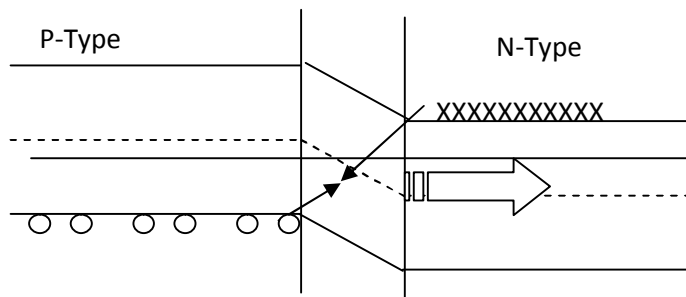
## **L8.SEMI CONDUCTOR LASER**

- We know that when a current is passed through a p-n junction. P- region being positively biased holes are injected from P-region into n- region and electrons from n-region into the p-region.
- The electrons and holes recombine and release of energy takes place in or very near the junction region. The amount of this energy called the activation energy or energy gap, depends on the particular type of semiconductor.
- In case of some semiconductors like germanium and silicon, most of the energy is released in the form of heat because the recombination of carriers of opposite sign takes place through interaction with the atoms of the crystals. But in case of other semiconductors such as Gallium Arsenide (GaAs) and others, the energy is released as light because the atoms of the crystals are not involved in the release of energy.
- The wavelength of emitted light depends on activation energy of the crystal. Photons emitted at the moment of recombination of an electron with a hole will stimulation recombination of other carriers of electric charges. The result will be stimulated emission of radiation.

- If these radiations moving in the plane of the junction are made to move back and forth in the plane of the junction by reflection at opposite parallel sides and perpendicular to the plane of junction, a very powerful laser beam of stimulated radiation can be produced.



- In the first models of semiconductor laser, the active medium was a single crystal of gallium arsenide GaAs cut into a plate having a thickness of 0.5 mm.
- The platelet consists of two parts exhibiting electron conductivity and a hole conductivity respectively. The emission is stimulated in p-n junction layer, which of course is very thin. Electric current is applied to the crystal platelet through a strip electrode fixed to its upper surface.
- When exciting currents are small only a small part of carriers undergo recombination the process is spontaneous. The laser radiation is random and incoherent. But when the current density is increased the emission becomes more and more coherent and the radiation intensity markedly increases.
- Now efficiency of GaAs lasers reaches 40 per cent. When cooled to 20°C semiconductor lasers have delivered an output of more than two watt of continuous power.



## **L9.APPLICATIONS OF LASERS**

LASERS have wide applications in different branches of science

- I. Due to the narrow bandwidth lasers are used in microwave communication.
- II. Due to narrow angular spread, the laser beams have become means of communication between earth and moon or other satellites. The earth moon distance has been measured with the use of lasers.
- III. By the use of lasers the storage capacity of information in computers is greatly improved.
- IV. In industries lasers are used in welding, drilling and cutting. They can blast holes in diamond and hard steels.
- V. They have been used successfully in the treatment of detached retinas. Microsurgery is also possible because laser beams can be focused on very small areas.
- VI. Their study is also oriented for military purposes. They can serve as a war weapon it has been predicted that they become legendary 'death ray'.
- VII. Chemical applications:  
They can initiate or hasten certain chemical reactions, which could not possible in the absence of suitable photons.

**UNIT-I**  
**Assignment-Cum-Tutorial Questions**  
**SECTION-A**

**Objective Questions**

1. The phase of the incoherent radiation changes with \_\_\_\_\_. [     ]  
 (a) time            (b) amplitude            (c) velocity            (d) None of the above
2. When the matter is interacting with radiation \_\_\_\_\_ should take place.
3. According to the Einstein's theory, the probability of induced absorption process is same as that of \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Under population inversion condition, the number of atoms in the higher energy state is \_\_\_\_\_ than the lower energy state in an atomic system.
5. The wavelength of He-Ne laser beam is \_\_\_\_\_.
6. The ratio of He atoms to Ne atoms in the He -Ne laser system is \_\_\_\_\_.
7. Define lifetime?
8. What is meant by population inversion?
9. Distinguish between spontaneous and stimulated emissions?
10. write any four applications of lasers?
11. In Laser beam, the photons are in phase, the resultant intensity is given in terms of amplitude 'a' and number of photons 'n' is proportional to  
 (A) na            (B) n<sup>2</sup>a            (C) n<sup>2</sup>a<sup>2</sup>            (D) na<sup>2l</sup>     ]
12. Calculate the Wavelength of radiation emitted by an LED made up of a semiconducting material with band gap energy 2.8eV. [     ]  
 (A) 44 m    (B) 44.30 x 10<sup>-8</sup> cm    (C) 4830 x 10<sup>-8</sup> cm    (D) 499 x 10<sup>-8</sup> cm
13. For InP laser diode, the wavelength of light emissions 1.55 μ m. What is its band gap in eV? [     ]



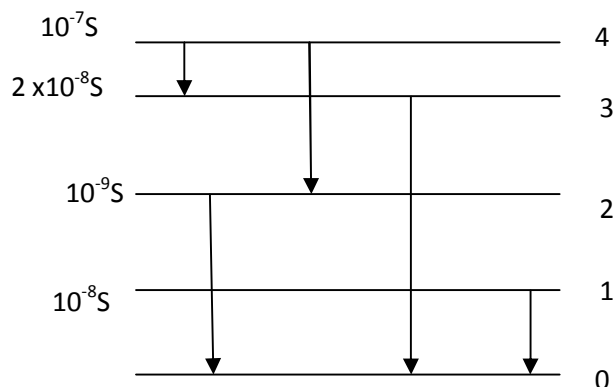


8. With neat diagram, explain construction and working of a Ruby Laser.(for Applied physics).
9. Calculate the wavelength of emission from GaAs material whose energy band gap  $E_g = 1.44$  eV. (Planck's constant =  $6.625 \times 10^{-34}$  J-s)
10. A matter wave propagating with a velocity  $3 \times 10^3$  m/s and its wavelength 600nm. Calculate matter wave energy.
11. Energy gap of a semiconductor 3 eV. Calculate wave length of emitted photons.
12. GaAs has a band gap energy of 1.43 eV at 300K. Determine the wavelength above which an intrinsic photo detector fabricated from this material will cease to operate.
13. A laser beam has a wavelength of  $8 \times 10^7$  m and aperture  $5 \times 10^{-3}$ m. The laser beam is sent to the moon. The distance between moon and earth is  $4 \times 10^5$ km. Calculate the angular spread of the beam.

### SECTION-C

#### QUESTIONS AT THE LEVEL OF GATE

1. Five energy levels of a system including the ground state are shown below. Their lifetimes and the allowed electric dipole transitions are also marked. (GATE 2009) [     ]



(A)  $1 \rightarrow 0$                       (B)  $2 \rightarrow 0$                       (C)  $4 \rightarrow 2$       (D)  $4 \rightarrow 3$

2. Which of the following technologies/devices uses LASER  
(A) CD writer      (B) Barcode Scanner (C) LASIK      (D) All of the above[      ]

[NPTEL-FUNDAMENTALS OF LASER]

3. In a 3 level system stimulated emission is normally triggered by

(A) Absorption                                      (B) Pumping source                      [      ]

(C) Thermal decay                                      (D) Spontaneous emission

[NPTEL-FUNDAMENTALS OF LASER]

4. In a He-Ne laser partial pressure of He and Ne are respectively [      ]

(A) 1 mbar and 0.1 mbar                                      (B) 1 mbar and 0.5 mbar

(C) 2 mbar and 0.03 mbar                                      (D) 1 mbar and 0.01 mbar

[NPTEL-FUNDAMENTALS OF LASER]

## **UNIT - II**

### **FIBER OPTICS**

#### **Objective:**

The course is designed to make the students

- to learn the conditions for propagation of laser light in guided medium.

#### **Syllabus:**

Basic principle of optical fiber - Construction of optical fiber - Acceptance angle, Acceptance cone - Numerical Aperture - Types of optical fiber - Light wave communication by using optical fiber

#### **Learning Outcomes:**

**At the end of this chapter students are able to**

- estimate the expression for numerical aperture
- categorize types of optical fibers
- device optical fiber for communication

## UNIT - II

### FIBER OPTICS

#### O1. INTRODUCTION

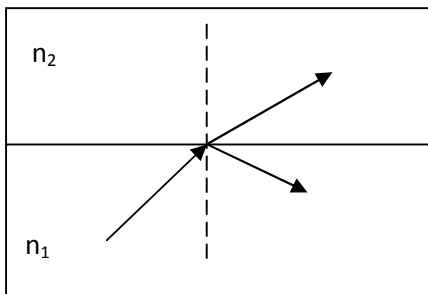
- The transmission of light along transparent cylinders by multiple total internal reflections is a fairly old and well-known phenomenon. **John Tyndall** at the Royal Society in England gave the earliest recorded scientific demonstration of this phenomenon in 1870.
- The interest in this phenomenon described by Tyndall was dormant until 1927. When the possibility of using fibers for transmitting television pictures was tried out. However these ideas were not pursued. A new burst of activity began in the early 1950's when the transmission of pictures along an aligned bundle of flexible glass fibers was carried out with remarkable success. This led to the development of 'flexible fiberscope'.
- Thus the subject of fiber optics was established with the advent of lasers, the subject of fiber optics received an added impetus. Currently throughout the world fiber optics are flexible hair thin threads of glass or plastic.

#### O2. BASIC PRINCIPLE: TOTAL INTERNAL REFLECTION

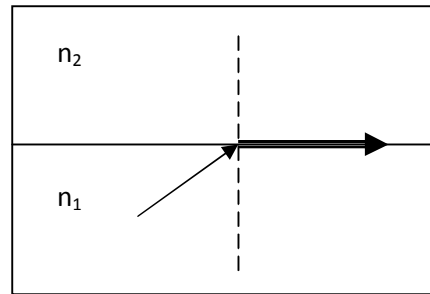
- For the phenomenon of TIR to take place the two conditions are to be satisfied
  1. Light should travel from denser medium to rarer medium.
  2. The angle of incidence should be greater than the critical angle  $\theta_c$  of the medium.
- Critical angle  $\theta_c$  of a medium is the value of the incident angle at which the angle of refraction is  $90^\circ$ .

Consider  $n_1$  is the refractive index of denser medium and  $n_2$  is the refractive index of rarer medium.

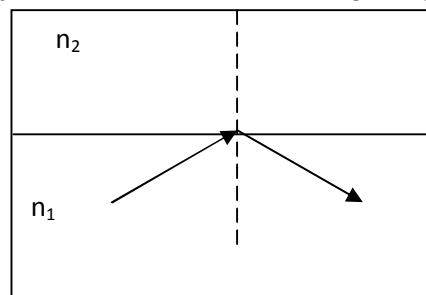
When a light ray traveling in a medium of refractive index  $n_1$  strikes a second medium of refractive index  $n_2$  the angle of refraction  $\theta$  is given by Snell's law  $n_1 \sin i = n_2 \sin \theta$  when a ray of light traveling from a optically dense medium to a less dense medium;



When  $i < \theta_c$  it is refracted



When  $i = \theta_c$  it is traverses along the

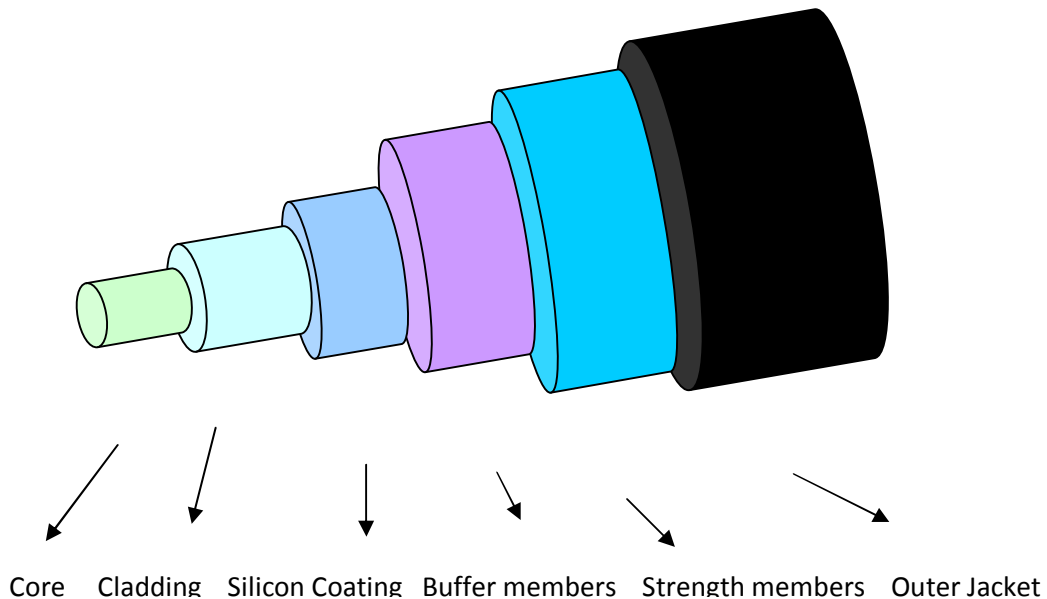


When  $i > \theta_c$  it is total internal reflected

It will not be refracted if it strikes the surface at an angle equal to or greater than a particular angle called critical angle.

- Instead it will be totally reflected at the surface between the two media such a phenomenon occurs because when a ray of light travels from D.M. to L.D.M the refracted ray bends away from the normal.
- Consider the case  $\theta = 90^\circ$   $n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 \sin 90^\circ$   $\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$ . Thus for any ray whose angle of incidence is greater than this  $\theta_c$ . Total internal Reflection occurs.

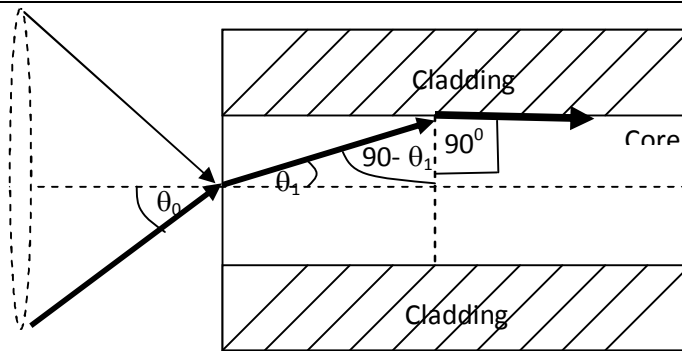
### O3.Fibre Construction



- It consists of a central cylinder or core surrounded by a layer of material called the cladding, which in turn is covered by a jacket.
- Light is transmitted within the core the cladding keeps the light waves within the core.
- The cladding is having less refractive index protects the core. The cladding also provides some strength to the core. The additional jacket protects the fiber from moisture and abrasion.
- The core as well as the cladding is made of either glass or plastic with these materials three major types of fibers are made.
  1. Plastic core with plastic cladding
  2. Glass core with plastic cladding
  3. Glass core with glass cladding.
- The core is generally made of Polystyrene or Poly methyl meta accrylate where as the cladding is generally made of silicone or Teflon.

- The glass is made of silica small amounts of components such as boron, germanium or phosphorous is added to change refractive index of the fiber core
- Core diameters range from 5 to 600  $\mu\text{m}$ .
- Cladding diameters range from 125 to 750 $\mu\text{m}$ .
- Optical fiber diameter is of the order of 0.1 mm.

#### O4 Numerical Aperture And Acceptance Angle



- Let  $n_0$ ,  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  be the refractive indices of surrounding medium, core of the fiber, and cladding respectively.
- Now for refraction at the point of entry of the ray from air into the core, we have by applying the Snell's law that  $n_0 \sin\theta_0 = n_1 \sin\theta_1$  ----- (1).
- At the point core-cladding of the surface, the angle of incidence =  $90 - \theta_1$  and angle of refraction is  $90^\circ$ .
- Again applying Snell's law, we have  $n_1 \sin(90 - \theta_1) = n_2 \sin 90$  or  $n_1 \cos\theta_1 = n_2$  or  $\cos\theta_1 = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$  ----- (2).

Rewriting equation (1) we have

$\sin \theta_0 = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \sqrt{1 - \frac{n_2^2}{n_1^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0}$  . If the medium surrounding the fiber is air then

$n_0=1$  or  $\sin \theta_0 = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$  if  $NA = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$  .

- If  $\theta_1$  is the angle of incidence of an incident ray, then the ray will be able to propagate if  $\theta_1 < \theta_0$  or if  $\sin \theta_1 < \sin \theta_0$  or  $\sin \theta_1 < \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$

This is the condition for propagation i.e.,  $\sin \theta_1 < NA$

- **Fractional Index change:**

The fractional index change  $\Delta$  is the ratio of refractive index difference between the core and cladding to the refractive index of core of an optical fiber.

$$\therefore \Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \text{ ----- (3)}$$

Relation between N.A. and  $\Delta$

$$\text{From Equation (3) } (n_1 - n_2) = n_1 \Delta \text{ ----- (4)}$$

$$\text{We have } NA = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(n_1 + n_2)(n_1 - n_2)} = \sqrt{(n_1 + n_2)n_1 \Delta}$$

$$\text{since } n_1 \approx n_2 \text{ } (n_1 + n_2) = 2n_1.$$

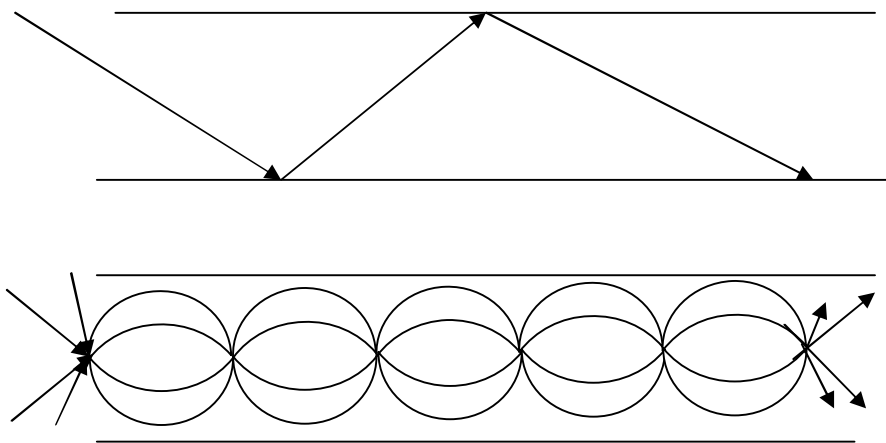
$$NA = \sqrt{2n_1^2 \Delta} \text{ or } N.A = n_1 \sqrt{2\Delta}$$



**CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:** Obtain the expression for Numerical Aperture of an **O**ptical fiber?

**O5.Step Index Fiber and Graded Index Fiber**

- Optical fibers guide light by either reflection or refraction depending on the types of the fiber used.
- In the reflective types light travels in a zigzag fashion.
- In the refractive type light rays travel in a continues curve. In either case light rays are confined to the core.



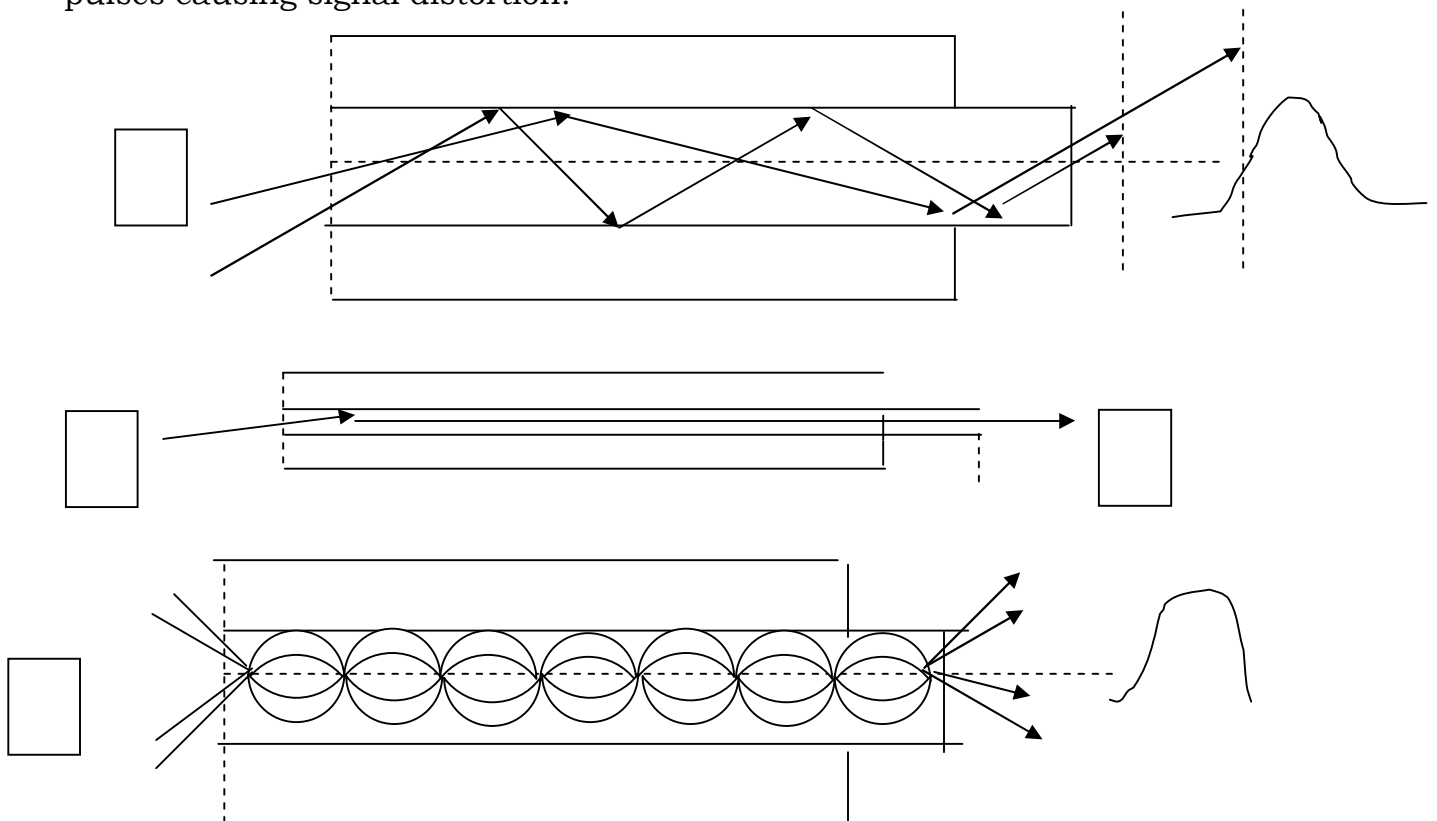
- There are two kinds of reflective type's optical fibers
  1. Single mode step index fiber.
  2. Multi mode step index fiber.
- There is only one type of refractive fiber called the multimode graded index.
- Mode means simply the various paths light can take in a fiber multimode means that several paths are available.
- The distinction between a step index and graded index fiber is as follows:  
In optical fibers  $n_1 > n_2$ . In a step index fiber the refractive index is constant throughout the core. In such a fiber the refractive index profile abruptly

changes at the junction of the core and the cladding because of the abrupt change they are called step index optical fiber.

- In a graded index optical fiber refractive index varies continuously across the core. It is highest of the centre of the core and tapers off rapidly towards the outer edge.
- DISTORTION IN OPTICAL FIBRE

When light travels in an optical fiber, each ray of light may be reflected hundreds or thousands of times. The rays reflected at high angles the higher order modes must travel a greater distance than the low angle rays to reach the end of the fiber. Because of this longer distance, the higher angle rays arrive later than the

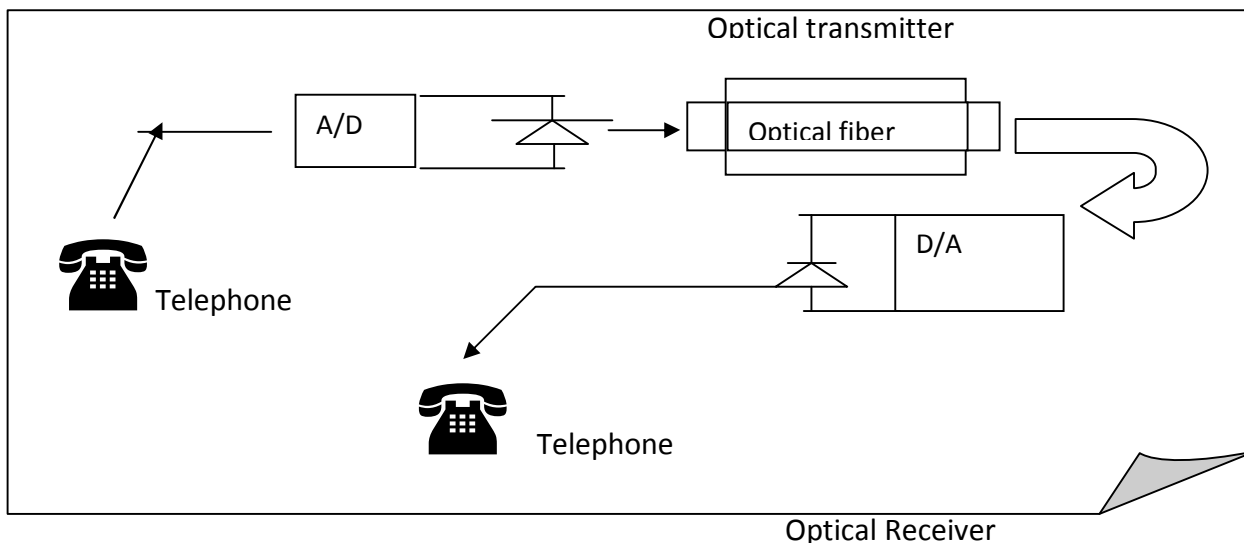
lower angle rays. As a result modulated light pulses broaden as they travel down the fiber. The output pulses then no longer exactly match the input pulses causing signal distortion.



- In a graded index fiber, light rays travel at different speeds in different parts of the fiber because the refractive index varies throughout the fiber near the outer edge the refractive index is lower. As a result rays near the outer edge travel faster than rays in the centre at the core. Because of this all the rays arrive at the end of the fibre at approximately, the same time.
- In effect light rays in these fibers are continuously refocused as they travel down the fiber. This in effect reduces signal distortion.
- In single mode step index fiber also, the signal distortion is reduced. But the problem is one of aligning different fibers.
- Another source of signal distortion is chromatic dispersion. When the light is not monochromatic, different wavelengths have different velocities in glass. Therefore all portions of the input light pulse will not arrive simultaneously at the output. This distortion is called chromatic dispersion.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: **Explain signal distortion in optical fibers?**

### **O6. LIGHT WAVE COMMUNICATION BY USING OPTICAL FIBER**



- (1) Subscriber's telephone (where sound waves get converted into corresponding electrical signals.
- (2) Wire pairs carrying electrical voice signals

- (3) Encoder (where electrical continuous signals are coded into digital electric pulses by means of analogue to digital converters)
- (4) Optical transmitter containing amplifier and LED/Semiconductor laser, which generate optical pulses as it is driven by the output from the encoder.
- (5) Optical fibre which transmits the optical pulses
- (6) Optical receiver containing a photodiode and an amplifier whose outputs are electrical pulse coded signals.
- (7) Decoder (where digital signals are converted back into continuous electrical signals, by means of digital to analogue converters.
- (8) Wire pairs, which carry the electrical, output signals from the decoder.
- (9) Subscriber's telephone (where electrical signals get converted into corresponding sound waves.

**CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:** Explain light wave communication by using Optical Fiber?

## **07 APPLICATIONS**

- (1) Extremely wide band width
- (2) Smaller diameter, lighter-weight cables
- (3) Lack of cross talk between parallel fibers.
- (4) Immunity to inductive interference.
- (5) Potential of delivering signals at low cost
- (6) Must faster than copper cables
- (7) Longer life span
- (8) Temperature resistant
- (9) Easy maintenance

The technology of fiber optics is intimately linked with its applications in medicine and industry. The initial efforts in fiber optics were concerned with the development of endoscope for the visualization of internal parts of human

body. In industry, it could be used to examine welds, nozzles and combustion chambers inside jet aircraft engines, which would be inaccessible for observation otherwise.



11. Calculate the numerical aperture of an optical fiber whose core and cladding are made of materials of refractive index 1.6 and 1.5 respectively.

[     ]

A) 0.86                      B) 0.55                      C) 0.78                      D) 0.98

12. On which bands, do the optical fibers operate? [IES-2009]     [     ]

1. Ultra Violet band                      2. Ultra High Frequency band

3. Visible light band                      4. Infra red band

Select the correct answer from the codes given below:

a) 1 only                      b) 1 and 2 only                      c) 1,2 and 3                      d) 1,3 and 4

13. Total internal reflection takes place when light travels from     [     ]

A) Rarer to denser medium                      B) Any medium to any different medium

C) Air to liquid (or) Solid                      D) A denser to a lighter medium

14. Consider the following advantages of optical fiber-cables     [     ]

1. Small diameter

2. Immunity to cross talk and electromagnetic interference

3. Laser and LED modulation methods lend themselves ideally to digital operation

Which of these advantages are correct? [IES-2011]

a) 1 and 2 only     b) 2 and 3 only     c) 3 and 1 only     d) 1,2 and 3

15. Why are semiconductor lasers important for communication engineering?

1. They Possess large band width

2. They operate at low voltage

3. They are suitable for coupling fibers at wavelengths, where the attenuation is very small

4. Their integration with other components is easy

Select the correct answer using the code given below: [IES-2008]     [     ]

a) 1 only                      b) 1 and 2 only                      c) 2 and 3 only     d) 1,2,3, and 4

**SECTION-B****SUBJECTIVE QUESTIONS**

1. Explain the principle behind the functioning of an optical fiber.
2. What is meant by acceptance angle for an optical fiber? Obtain mathematical Expression for acceptance angle and numerical aperture.
3. Explain difference between the step index fiber and graded index fiber.
4. Explain Light wave communication by using optical fiber.
5. What are the various applications of optical fibers?
6. Calculate the acceptance angle and the numerical aperture of a given optical fiber, if the refractive indices of core and cladding are 1.563 and 1.498 respectively.
7. If an optical fiber has refractive indices of core and cladding as 1.53 and 1.42 respectively, then calculate its critical angle.
8. A light ray enters core of refractive index 1.55 through the end face from a medium of refractive index 1.6 with an angle of incidence  $60^\circ$ . Calculate its angle of refraction  $\theta_1$  at the interface.
9. If the fractional difference between the core and cladding refractive indices of fiber is 0.0135 and numerical aperture NA is 0.2425, calculate the refractive index of core and cladding materials.



**APPLIED PHYSICS****UNIT – III****Objective:**

- To study the principles of quantum mechanics.
- To understand the behavior of electrons in one dimensional potential well
- To gain insight into the effect of periodic potential of the lattice on electrons.

**Syllabus:****Principles of Quantum Mechanics and its Applications**

De Broglie's hypothesis - De Broglie's wave length - Schrodinger time independent wave equation - Physical significance of wave function - Particle in one dimensional infinite potential box - Bloch sphere - Classical bits and Quantum bits – Application of Qu bits for Quantum computing

**Learning Outcomes:****At the end of this unit students are able to**

- differentiate between classical and quantum physics
- derive wave equation
- appreciate behavior of particle in potential box

**WAVE & PARTICLE DUALITY OF RADIATION: -**

- To understand the wave and particle duality, it is necessary to assimilate the physical properties of particle and wave.
  1. The particle has definite mass and the position can be specified. On impart of energy, it can change the position, can be accelerated or decelerated hence resulting in change of momentum.
  2. The concept of a wave is a bit complex than that of a particle. A wave is spread out over a relatively large region of space. A wave is specified by the following parameters (i) Frequency (ii) Wavelength (iii) Phase (iv) Amplitude and (v) Intensity.
- It is obvious that the two concepts are independent of each other and hence it gets difficult to correlate the two phenomena. But it is necessary to understand that radiation has dual nature.
- The following phenomena exhibited by radiation support the concept of duality.
  - (I) Radiation including visible light infrared, ultraviolet, X-rays etc. can undergo interference, diffraction etc. This illustrates the wave nature of radiation.
  - (II) Planck's quantum theory was successful in explaining black body radiation. The photoelectric effect, the Compton Effect etc had clearly established that the radiant energy in its interaction with mater behaves as though it consists of corpuscles. Here radiation interacts with matter in the form of photons or quanta of energy.  
From the above experimental observations, we conclude that radiation behaves like particle.

Thus radiation, behaves as a wave and as well as a particle i.e. it has a wave-particle dualism. It should be remembered that radiation cannot exist as particle and wave simultaneously.

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## DEBROGLIE HYPOTHESIS

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- Louis de-Broglie put forward a bold suggestion that the correspondence between wave and particle is not confined only to electromagnetic radiation, but it is also valid for material particles like electrons, protons, neutrons etc i.e. like radiation, matter also has dual characteristic.
- A moving particle is always associated with a wave and the particle is controlled by the wave similar to light wave-particle duality.
- According to de-Broglie's hypothesis, a moving particle is associated with a wave which is known as de Broglie wave. The wavelength of the matter wave is given by  $\frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{p} = \lambda$  where m is the mass of the material particle. V is the velocity and P is its momentum.

|                                       |
|---------------------------------------|
| EXPRESSION FOR DE-BROGLIE WAVE LENGTH |
|---------------------------------------|

- From the Planck's theory of radiation the energy of a photon (quantum) is given by  $E = h\nu = hc / \lambda$  -----(1) where 'c' is the velocity of light in vacuum and  $\lambda$  is its wavelength.
- According to Einstein energy-mass relation  $E=mc^2$  -----(2).
- From eqn (1) & (2) we get  $mc^2 = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = \lambda = \frac{hc}{mc^2}$  or  $\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}$  ----- (3)

where  $mc=P$  (momentum associated with photon)

It can be extended to a material particle of mass m and moving with a velocity v i.e. momentum **mv**,

- The wavelength associated with the particle is given by
- $$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{p} \text{----- (4)}$$

If  $E$  is the kinetic energy of the material particle then

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m^2v^2 / m = \frac{p^2}{2m} \text{ or } p = \sqrt{2mE}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE}} \text{----- (5)}$$

where  $\lambda$  is de-Broglie wavelength.

- When charged particle carrying a charge  $q$  is accelerated by a potential difference  $V$  volts then its K.E is given by  $E = qV$ . Hence the de-Broglie wavelength associated with this particle is given by  $\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqv}}$ ----- (6)

- When a material particle is in thermal equilibrium at a temperature  $T$  then  $E = \frac{3}{2}KT$  where 'k' is Boltzmann's constant =  $1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{J/C}$  so the de-Broglie wavelength of a material particle at temperature  $T$  is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2m(3/2KT)}} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3mkT}}$$

- DE-BROGLIE WAVELENGTH ASSOCIATED WITH ELECTRON

Let us consider the case of an electron of rest mass  $m_0$  and charge  $e$  which is accelerated by a potential  $V$  volts from rest to  $V$  then  $\frac{1}{2} m_0 v^2 = eV$  or  $V = \sqrt{\frac{2eV}{m_0}}$

$$\text{Now } \lambda = \frac{h}{m_0 V} = \frac{h\sqrt{m_0}}{m_0 \sqrt{2eV}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2eVm_0}} \text{ or } \lambda = \frac{6.625 \times 10^{-34}}{2 \times 1.632 \times 10^{-10} V \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31}} = \frac{12.26}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

If  $V = 100$  volts then  $\lambda = 1.226 \text{ \AA}$

SCHRODINGER'S WAVE EQUATION (TIME INDEPENDENT)

- According to de-Broglie theory a particle of mass  $m$  is always associated with a wave whose wavelength is given by  $\lambda = h/mv$ . Consider a system of stationary waves associated with particle.
- Let  $x, y, z$  be the coordinates of the particle and  $\psi$ , the wave displacement for the de-Broglie wave at a time  $t$ .  $\psi$  is called wave function. It is assumed that  $\psi$  is finite, single valued and periodic.

- The differential equation from classical mechanics for the wave motion is given by 
$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = v^2 \left( \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} \right) = v^2 \nabla^2 \psi \text{ ----- (1)}$$

where  $\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$  and 'v' is the velocity.

- The solution of eqn(1) is given by  $\psi = \psi_0 \sin wt = \psi_0 \sin 2\pi v t$  ----- (2) where  $v$  is the frequency of the stationary wave associated with the particle.
- Differentiating equation (2) twice we get

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \psi_0 (2\pi v) \cos 2\pi v t \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = -4\pi^2 \frac{v^2}{\lambda^2} \psi \text{ ----- (3)} \quad (\because v = \frac{V}{\lambda})$$

- Substituting the value of  $\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$  from eqn (3) in eqn (1) we get

$$v^2 \nabla^2 \psi = \frac{-4\pi^2 v^2}{\lambda^2} \psi \quad \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{\lambda^2} \psi = 0 \text{ ----- (4)}$$

- Now from de-Broglie relation,

$$\lambda = h/mv \quad \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{h^2} m^2 v^2 \psi = 0 \text{ ----- (5)}$$

- Let  $E$  and  $V$  be the total and potential energies of the particle respectively then its kinetic energy  $\frac{1}{2} mv^2$  is given by  $\frac{1}{2} mv^2 = E - V$  or  $m^2 v^2 = 2m(E - V)$  ----- (6)

From eqn (5) and (6) we have  $\nabla^2\psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{h^2} 2m(E - v)\psi = 0$

Or  $\nabla^2\psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E - v)\psi = 0$  -----(7)

Eqn (7) is known as Schrödinger time independent wave equation.

- Substituting

$\hbar = h/2\pi$  in eqn (7), the Schrodinger's wave equation can be written as

$$\nabla^2\psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - v)\psi = 0$$
 -----(8)

For a free particle  $v=0$ , hence the Schrodinger's wave equation for a free particle can be expressed as  $\nabla^2\psi + \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}\psi = 0$  -----(9)

### PHYSICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WAVE FUNCTION

According to max Born  $\psi \psi^* = |\psi|^2$  gives the probability of finding the particle in the state  $\psi$ , i.e.  $\psi^2$  is a measure of probability density. The probability of finding a particle in volume  $dV = dx dy dz$  is given by  $|\psi|^2 dx dy dz$ . The probability of finding the particle in the space is unity. Hence  $\iiint |\psi|^2 dx dy dz = 1$ ,  $\psi$  satisfying above requirement is said to be normalized.

Besides being normalizable, the wave function  $\psi$  must fulfill the following requirements.

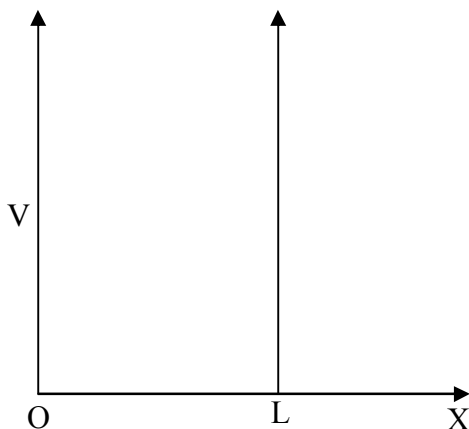
- 1) It must be finite: - It  $\psi$  is infinite at a particular point then it would mean an infinitely large probability of finding the particle at that point. This is not possible hence  $\psi$  must have a finite or zero value at any point.

- II) It must be single valued: - Let us consider that  $\psi$  has more than one value at any point. It means that there is more than one value for probability of finding the particle at a given point, which is ridiculous.
- III) It must be continuous: - For Schrödinger equation  $\partial^2\psi/\partial x^2$  must be finite everywhere. This is possible only when  $d\psi/dx$  has no discontinuities at any boundary where potential changes. This implies that  $\psi$  too must be continuous across a boundary.

### PARTICLE IN SIDE A ONE DIMENSIONAL INFINITE POTENTIAL WELL

Consider an electron of mass  $m$  confined to a box of length “ $L$ ”. The box has infinite potential barrier at two ends i.e., it cannot get out of the metal.

- Inside the box the potential energy of the electron gas is zero. Mathematically it is expressed as  $V(x) = 0$  for  $0 < x < L$



$$= \infty \text{ for } 0 \leq x > L$$

The motion of the electron in the box is represented by the Schrödinger wave equations

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2mE}{h^2}\psi = 0 \text{ or } \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + k^2\psi = 0 \text{ where } \frac{8\pi^2mE}{h^2} = k^2 \text{ or } E = \frac{h^2k^2}{8\pi^2m} \text{-----(1)}$$

The solution of the above equation is of the form  $\psi = A\sin kx + B\cos kx$  where  $A$  and  $B$  are constants.

- We apply the following boundary conditions

$$\text{At } x = 0 \quad \psi(x) = 0 \Rightarrow B = 0$$

$$\text{At } x = L \quad \psi(x) = 0 \Rightarrow A \sin kL = 0$$

$kL = n\pi \Rightarrow k = \frac{n\pi}{L}$  where  $n=1,2,3,\dots$  substitution of these values of  $k$  in eqn

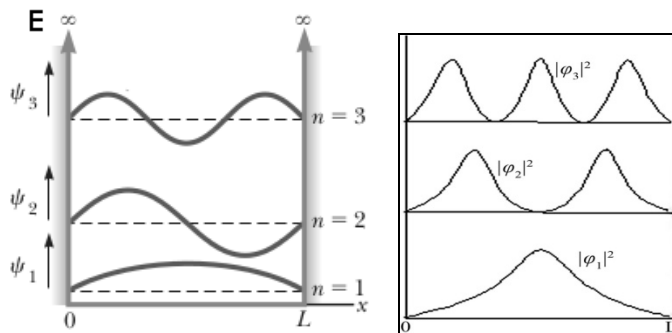
(1) leads to  $E_n = n^2h^2/8mL^2$  -----(2).

- The above equation indicates that the energy of a particle in a box can only take discrete values i.e., energy is quantized. These discrete energy values are called Eigen values. The number 'n' is called the quantum number.
- The constant, A can be obtained by applying the normalization condition. For the potential well,  $\int_0^L |\psi_n|^2 dx = 1 \Rightarrow \int_0^L A^2 \sin^2 \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx = 1$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \cos \frac{2n\pi x}{L} \right] dx = \frac{A^2}{2} \left[ x - \frac{L}{2n\pi} \sin \frac{2n\pi x}{L} \right]_0^L = 1$$

Therefore,  $A = \sqrt{2/L}$  The normalized solution is  $\psi(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$

The first three eigen functions [ $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3$ ] and the corresponding probability density functions,  $|\psi|^2$  are plotted below.



### What is a “Quantum Computer”

- A quantum Computer is a computer that harnesses the power of atoms and molecules to perform memory and processing tasks. It has the potential to perform certain calculations billions times faster than any silicon based computer.



- The classical desktop computer works by manipulating bits ,digits that are binary-i.e., which can either represent a zero or one. Everything from numbers and letters to the status of your modem or mouse are all represented by a collection of bits in combinations of ones and zeros. These bits correspond very nicely with the way classical physics represents the world. Electrical switches can be on or off., objectives are in one place or they are not etc.
- Quantum computers are not limited by the binary nature of the classical physical world, however they depend on observing the state of quantum bits or qubits that might represent a one or zero, might represent a combination of the two or might represent a number expressing that the state of the qubit is some ware between 1 and 0.

#### • **CLASSICAL BITS AND QU-BITS**

- Conventionally, a classical bit is a physical system which can exist in one of the two states 0 or 1. Thus a bit stores either a zero or one. The physical system can be a capacitor, in a charged or discharged state, it can be a transistor, in cut off or saturation or it can be flip-flop, set or reset. Thus a bit can be prepared to be in one of the two states.
- Now if we go to the atomic scale, the bit can be the state of polarization of light or the electronic state of an atom or it can be the spin state of an electron(up or down) etc. At the atomic scale, however, the rules of quantum mechanics take over. The basic postulate of quantum mechanics is the superposition principle.
- In an atom, the electron can be in one of the two states or, it can also be in a state which is a coherent superposition of the two states. The same applies also to the other examples given above. That means, the bit can be prepared to exist simultaneously in the two states. Thus the bit can, simultaneously, physically contain both the values zero and one.

- We now define a qubit : "it is a quantum two-state system which can be prepared to exist in a superposition of its two logical states zero and one.

### Advantage of using qubits

- A group of bits acting together makes a register. Let us consider a 3-bit register. If the bits are classical, then it can store any one of the eight numbers 000 to 111. The register can be any one of  $2^3$  different configurations.
- Suppose now the register is a quantum register. Let us denote the state of a qubit by  $|x\rangle$ . That is, it can be in the state  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  or in a superposition state  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  with  $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$ . Because of this, a quantum register can store at a given moment all the eight numbers in a coherent superposition so that the information in the register can be represented by

$$\alpha_1|000\rangle + \alpha_2|001\rangle + \alpha_3|010\rangle + \alpha_4|011\rangle + \alpha_5|100\rangle + \alpha_6|101\rangle + \alpha_7|110\rangle + \alpha_8|111\rangle$$

All the eight numbers are physically present in the register.

- Thus if a classical register can store one number, the quantum register can store  $2^3$  numbers. Similarly a 4-bit register can store  $2^4$  numbers and so on. The storage capacity of a quantum L-bit register is  $2^L$ . The memory of a register increases exponentially with the number of qubits. The increase in memory is one advantage.

- Another perhaps more important advantage is the following.

Suppose an L-qubit register is prepared in a particular superposition. Suppose we perform an operation F on the register then

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \alpha_1|000\rangle & \alpha_1 F|000\rangle & \beta_1|000\rangle \\
 \alpha_2|001\rangle & \alpha_2 F|001\rangle & \beta_2|001\rangle \\
 \alpha_3|010\rangle & \alpha_3 F|010\rangle & \beta_3|010\rangle \\
 \alpha_4|011\rangle & \alpha_4 F|011\rangle & \beta_4|011\rangle \\
 \alpha_5|100\rangle & \alpha_5 F|100\rangle & \beta_5|100\rangle \\
 \alpha_6|101\rangle & \alpha_6 F|101\rangle & \beta_6|101\rangle \\
 \alpha_7|110\rangle & \alpha_7 F|110\rangle & \beta_7|110\rangle
 \end{array}$$

$$\alpha_{\mathbb{B}}|111\rangle$$

$$\alpha_{\mathbb{B}}F|111\rangle$$

$$\beta_{\mathbb{B}}|111\rangle$$

The register will go into a different superposition. What this means is, initially, there are  $2L$  input numbers encoded in a superposition. All these numbers are affected simultaneously by one single computational step performed on a single piece of quantum hardware.

- Compare this with classical case. If there are  $2L$  computational steps to be performed on the  $2L$  bits or ,we need  $2^L$  parallel processors acting on the bits simultaneously. Thus quantum computation means not only enormous increase in memory but also enormous gain in time.
- If one reviews the progress of computers from the time of Charles Babbage(1791-1871)to now, the memory size and the computational power have increased by a few powers of ten. What we are now talking about is an exponential increase. Thus quantum computers are qualitatively different. It does not mean that a classical computer needs more time and memory to do the same task as a quantum computer can do. The tasks which are impossible to perform on a classical computer can be done by a quantum computer.

### **Bloch's Sphere**

- The Bloch sphere is a geometrical representation of the pure state space of a two-level quantum mechanical system which is named after the physicist Bloch. Alternatively, it is the pure state space of a 1 qubit quantum register. The Bloch sphere is actually geometrically a sphere and the correspondence between elements of the Bloch sphere and pure states can be explicitly given. In generalized form, the Bloch sphere may also refer to the analogous space of an n-level quantum system.

A qubit can be in a superposition state corresponding to logical 0 and 1 just like a single photon. These states are represented by  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ . Qualitatively speaking, if white and black colors represents the states  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  then a qubit can be imagined to have any shade of gray color. The qubit

obeys the laws of quantum mechanics and is represented by  $\psi$ . It is convenient to represent the state of a qubit in the form of Bloch sphere. Bloch sphere is a sphere of unit radius and the state of a qubit is represented by a vector in this sphere.

$$\text{i.e., } |\psi\rangle = \cos\frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle$$

case(1): For  $\phi = 0$  and  $\theta = 0$ , the state  $|\psi\rangle$  correspond to  $|0\rangle$  and is along positive Z-axis.

Case(2) : For  $\phi = 0$  and  $\theta = 180^\circ$ , the state  $|\psi\rangle$  correspond to  $|1\rangle$  and is along negative Z-axis. If we consider, the angle  $\theta$  is  $90^\circ$  then the vector is in the XY – plane and the following cases can be observed.

Case(1) : for  $\phi = 90^\circ$ ,  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)$ , is a superposition state along positive y –axis.

Case(2) : for  $\phi = -90^\circ$ ,  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - i|1\rangle)$ , is a superposition state along negative y –axis.

Case(3): for  $\phi = 0^\circ$ ,  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$ , is a superposition state along positive X –axis.

Case(4): for  $\phi = 180^\circ$ ,  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$ , is a superposition state along negative X –axis.

- For a classic computer, the two logical states 0 and 1 are represented by the poles of a sphere. In contrast, the state of a qubit can represent any point on the sphere. Since, there are infinite points on the sphere, a qubit in principle has more capacity to store information compared to a classical bits.
- Bloch sphere represents the state of only one qubit. There is no generalization of bloch sphere for multiple qubits.

The physical realization of qubit could be

- i) Horizontal and vertical polarization of a single photon.
- ii) right and left circular polarization of a single photon

- iii) up and down spin states of an electron
- iv) two energy states of an atom.

### **ADVANTAGES OF QUANTUM COMPUTING OVER CLASSICAL COMPUTATION**

There are several reasons that researchers are working so hard to develop a practical quantum computer. First, atoms change energy states very quickly i.e., much more quickly than even the fastest computer processors. Next given the right type of problem, each qubit can take the place of an entire processor. i.e., meaning that 1,000 ions of say, barium, could take the place of a 1,000-processor computer. The key is finding the sort of problem a quantum computer is able to solve.

If functional quantum computers can be built, they will be valuable in factoring large numbers and therefore extremely useful for decoding and encoding secret information. If one were to be built today, no information on the internet would be safe. Our current methods of encryption are simple compared to the complicated methods possible in quantum computers. Quantum computers could also be used to search large databases in a fraction of the time that it would take a conventional computer.

It has been shown in theory that a quantum computer will be able to perform any task that a classical computer can. However, this does not necessarily mean that a quantum computer will outperform a classical computer for all types of task. If we use our classical algorithms on a quantum computer, it will simply perform the calculation in a similar manner to a classical computer. In order for a quantum computer to show its superiority it needs to use new algorithms which can exploit the phenomenon of quantum parallelism.

The implications of the theories involved in quantum computation reach further than just making faster computers. Some of the applications for which they can be used are;

**Quantum communication**

Quantum communication systems allow a sender and receiver to agree on a code without ever meeting in person. The uncertainty principle, an inescapable property of the quantum world, ensures that if an eavesdropper tries to monitor the signal in transit it will be disturbed in such a way that the sender and receiver are alerted.

**Quantum cryptography**

The expected capabilities of quantum computation promise great improvements in the world of cryptography. Ironically the same technology also poses current cryptography techniques a world of problems. They will create the ability to break the RSA coding system and this will render almost all current channels of communication insecure.

**Artificial intelligence**

The theories of quantum computation suggest that every physical object, even the universe, is in some sense a quantum computer. As Turing's work says that all computers functionally equivalent, computers should be able to model every physical process. Ultimately this suggests that computers will be capable of simulating conscious rational thought. And a quantum computer will be the key to achieving true artificial intelligence.

### UNIT-III

#### Assignment-Cum-Tutorial Questions

#### SECTION-A

#### Objective Questions

1. Quantum mechanics is applied to \_\_\_\_\_ particles.
2. The wavelength of the matter wave (de Broglie) is given by \_\_\_\_\_.
3. When an electron beam is accelerating due to a potential of  $V$  then the expression for the wavelength of the matter wave is \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The maximum probability of finding the particle within the wave packet is at \_\_\_\_\_ of the wave packet
5. The normalization condition can be represented as \_\_\_\_\_
6. The expression for Schrodinger time independent wave equation is \_\_\_\_\_.
7. The Schrödinger time dependent wave equation for a free particle is –

[      ]

a)  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(r, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(r, t)$

b)  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(r, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(r, t)$

c)  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(r, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(r)$

d) None of the above

8. The normalized eigen function of  $n^{\text{th}}$  state of the particle in a deep potential well is \_\_\_\_\_.

[      ]

a)  $\Psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$

b)  $\Psi_n(x) = \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$

c)  $\Psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin \frac{n\pi}{L}$

d) None of the above

#### SECTION-B

#### SUBJECTIVE QUESTIONS

1. a) Derive Schrodinger's Time Dependent wave equation?  
b) What are the postulates of Quantum free electron theory? What is Fermi

energy?

2. Derive expressions for wave functions, probability densities and energies for a particle in an infinite potential box.
3. What are the advantage of quantum computing over classical computing?
4. Write the suitability of different quantum systems for information processing.
5. Explain the quantum states.
6. Describe the Bloch sphere and explain how the quantum states are represented on it.

### SECTION-C

#### QUESTIONS AT THE LEVEL OF GATE

1. Calculate the wave length associated with an electron with energy 2000eV?
2. The wave-function of a particle must be "normalizable", because
  - a) the particle's momentum must be conserved.
  - b) the particle's charge must be conserved.
  - c) the particle must exist somewhere in the space.
  - d) the particle can not exist at two places at the same time.
3. An electron in an infinite one-dimensional potential well jumps from the  $n=3$  energy level to the ground state energy level and in doing so emits a photon of wavelength 20.9nm What is the width of the well? [      ]
  - a) 0.225 nm
  - b) 1.015 nm
  - c) 22.5 nm
  - d) 0.02 nm



## Unit – IV- PHYSICS OF SEMI CONDUCTORS

### **Objective:**

- Identify the appropriate semi conductor materials for engineering applications.

### **Syllabus:**

Properties of Fermi Dirac energy distribution function - Concentration of carriers in conduction band, valance band - Intrinsic carrier concentration - Drift and diffusion currents - Einstein's relations - LED

### **Learning Outcomes:**

#### **At the end of the unit students are able to**

- Value the significance of Fermi distribution function.
- Compute carrier concentrations in energy bands.
- Differentiate Drift, Diffusion Currents and relate them through Einstein coefficients.
- Distinguish between elemental and compound semiconductors.

## S0. Properties of Fermi Dirac energy distribution function

The Fermi-Dirac probability distribution of energies is given by  $P_e(E) =$

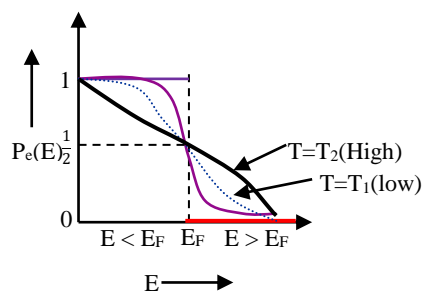
$$\frac{1}{1 + \exp^{(E-E_F)/KT}}$$

Properties of the Fermi Dirac statistics:-

1. It is derived on the condition that equilibrium exists and is therefore strictly valid only in equilibrium.
2.  $E_f$  denotes an energy level and is called the Fermi level. From the above it also follows that the Fermi level concept is valid only. Strictly speaking at equilibrium.
3. The Fermi-Dirac distribution applies to all particles obeying Pauli's exclusion principle and is equally applicable regardless of the type of solid (Insulator, Semiconductor, metal) doping of semiconductor etc.
4. The Fermi-Dirac distribution considers statistically the entire collection of fermions in the volume. Thus it considers all electrons in the semi conducting solid and not merely electrons in a band.
5. Whenever an electron state is empty it can be characterized as a hole. The Fermi-Dirac distribution function for holes in the solid would correspond to the statistical distribution of vacant states. Denoting the hole distribution function as  $P_h(E)$ . We obtain  $P_h(E) = 1 - P_{FD}(E)$ .

$$P_h(E) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{(E_F - E)/KT}}$$

6. At an energy  $E = E_F$  the probability of occupancy of the electron state by an electron or hole is  $1/2$ . This provides us with a definition of the Fermi level.
7. At OK  $P_e(E) = 1$  for  $E < E_F$  and  $P_e(E) = 0$  for  $E > E_F$  This implies that at absolute zero temperature all states up to the Fermi level are full i.e., occupied by electrons and all states above the Fermi level are empty.
8. The distribution function is a strong function of temperatures only at energies close to  $E_F$ . plots of  $P_e(E)$  at different temperatures are as follows.



9. The Fermi-Dirac distribution gives the probability of an electron state of energy "E" being occupied and thus represents the fraction of available states being occupied. The actual number of occupied states would be given by the number of states available times the proportion of some occupied. The number of available states per unit volume are given by  $g_e(E)$ ,  $g_h(E)$  for electrons and holes respectively. The number density  $n$  of electrons and  $P$  of holes at energy  $E$  would be given by

$$n(E) = g_e(E)P_e(E)$$

$$P(E) = g_h(E)P_h(E)$$

10. An extension of the principle can be used to obtain carrier densities  $n_o$  and  $P_o$  in a range or band of energies from  $E_1$  to  $E_2$  in equilibrium.

$$n_o = \int_{E_1}^{E_2} g_e(E)dEp_e(E)$$

$$P_o = \int_{E_1}^{E_2} g_h(E)dEp_h(E)$$

• **Electron and Hole densities:-**

The most important application of Fermi-Dirac statistics in semiconductors is for computing free electron and hole densities.

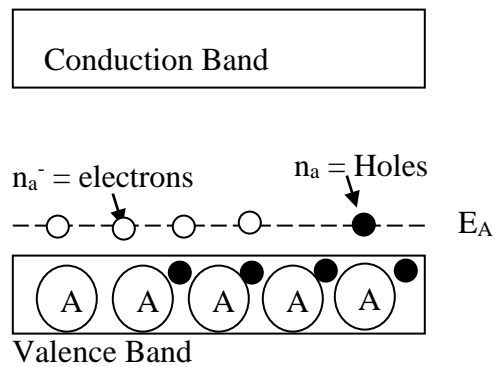
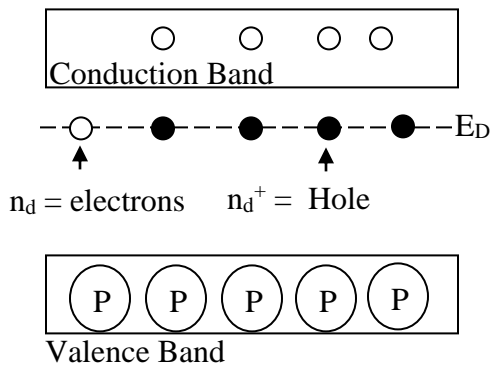
- Consider an extrinsic n-type semiconductor. The impurity of donor level  $E_d$  lies very close to the conduction band in the energy gap. Let  $N_D$  be the number of impurity atoms per unit volume. Each of the impurity atoms gives rise to a single electron state at  $E_d$ .
- If  $E_f$  is the Fermi energy level at a temperature  $T$ . The number of electrons at the donor level  $E_d$  is given as  $n_d = g_e(E_d) P_e(E_d)$  where  $g_e(E_d)$  is the number of available states per unit volume  $P_e(E)$  is the Fermi function, Hence

$$n_d = \frac{N_D}{1 + \exp \frac{E - E_F}{KT}} \text{-----(1)}$$

Where  $n_d$  represents the un-ionized donor atoms out of the available total  $N_D$  states per unit volume. Thus the remaining vacant states are to be treated as  $n_d^+$  ionized donors per unit volume is given by

$$n_d^+ = N_D - n_d = \frac{N_D}{1 + \exp \frac{E_F - E}{KT}} \text{-----(2)}$$

Where each of the  $n_d^+$  levels being empty is associated with a +ive charge that corresponds to the absence of an electron.

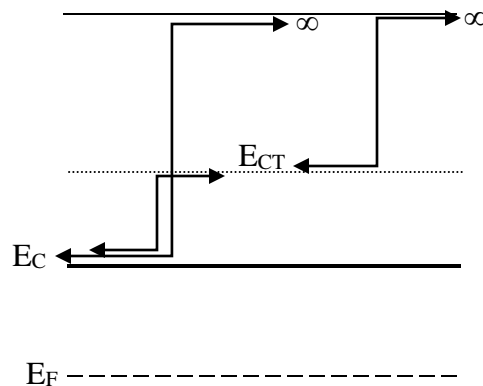


- For semiconductors doped with  $N_A$  acceptor atoms per unit volume that give rise to acceptor level  $E_a$  that is a little above the valance energy  $E_v$ . If some of the  $N_A$  atoms get ionized by accepting an electron then the number of acceptor atoms  $n_a^-$  occupying  $E_a$  level is given by

$$n_a = \frac{N_A}{1 + \exp \frac{E - E_F}{KT}} \text{-----(3)}$$

Then the number of unionized acceptor atoms  $n_a$  will be =  $\frac{N_A}{1 + \exp \frac{E_F - E}{KT}}$  Hence the acceptor levels also can be either filled or empty.

### S1. Concentration of carriers in conduction band



The two types of free carriers of interest in a semiconductor are the electrons in the conduction band and holes in the valance band. Let  $n$  be the number of electrons per unit volume of a homogeneously doped semiconductor crystal in equilibrium. If the conduction band extends from  $E_c$  to  $E_{ct}$  then the number of electrons  $n$  per unit volume in the conduction band is

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{E_{ct}} g_e(E) dE P_e(E)$$

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} g_e(E) dE P_e(E) - \int_{E_{ct}}^{\infty} g_e(E) dE P_e(E) = I_1 - I_2$$

The Fermi level lies always below  $E_c$  and for reasonable widths of conduction band  $E_{ct} - E_F \gg KT$ . In  $I_2$ , all energies  $E$  being considered are greater than  $E_{ct}$  and can be written as  $E_{ct} + \Delta E$  where  $\Delta E$  is positive.

$$I_2 = \int_{E_{ct}}^{\infty} \frac{g_e(E) dE}{1 + \left[ \exp \frac{E_{ct} - E_F}{KT} \right] \exp^{\Delta E / KT}}$$

Since all terms are positive and the second term in the denominator approaches infinity the integral  $I_2$  zero. Hence substituting  $g_e(E) dE$  in  $I_1$  and setting  $I_2$  to zero we write the electron carrier concentration  $n$  in the conduction band.

**Density of states:** Let  $g(E) dE$  represents the number density of available energy states lying between  $E$  and  $dE$ . Naturally for energies lying in the forbidden bands there are no available states and so in these ranges of energy  $g(E) dE = 0$ .

- Consider next an allowed band extending from  $E_c$  to  $E_{ct}$ . To find the number density of electron states in this allowed band in a crystal we will utilize Heisenberg's uncertainty principle.
- In one dimensional space the minimum uncertainty is given by  $\Delta x \cdot \Delta P_x = h$  and in three dimensional space.

$$\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \Delta P_x \Delta P_y \Delta P_z = h^3 \text{-----(1)}$$

If we consider a volume  $V$  of a crystal the uncertainty in momentum as  $\Delta T_P$  then  $V \Delta T_P = h^3$ .  $\Delta T_P = h^3/V$ -----(2)

- In this momentum space we can allow two electron states of opposite spin as dictated by Pauli's exclusion principle. The location of an electron in these states is not specified it is only known to be within the boundaries of the crystal hence the associated particle momentum  $P$  varies continuously from zero. The energy of the electron state near the minima  $E_c$  of band is given by

$$E = E_c + \frac{p^2}{2m_e} \text{-----(3)}$$

Further in a range of momentum from 0 to  $p$  in a three dimensional real crystal the number of distinct momenta is the set of distinct points contained within a radius of  $p$  and corresponds to the volume of the sphere.  $4/3\pi p^3$ .

- The number  $T_p$  of momenta states within range  $p$  and  $p+dp$  are obtained by differentiating  $T_p dp = 4\pi p^2 dp$
- In the minimum volume momenta space  $\Delta T_p$  there are two electron states in a momentum volume  $h^3/V$  since in the momentum range defined by  $p$  &  $p+dp$  there are  $4\pi p^2 dp$  momenta states the number of electron states in this volume will be

$$G(p)dp = \frac{4\pi p^2 dp^2}{h^3/V} = \frac{8\pi p^2 dp v}{h^3}$$

- The density of states per unit volume  $g(p)dp = \frac{G(p)dp}{v} = \frac{8\pi p^2 dp}{h^3}$ -----(4)

For our purpose it is convenient to express the density of states as a function of energy in a conduction band utilizing equ(3)

$$P^2 = 2me(E-E_c) \text{---(5)} \quad P = \sqrt{2me} (E - E_c)^{1/2}$$

$dp = 1/2 \sqrt{2me} (E - E_c)^{-1/2} dE$ -----(6) substituting equ(5) & (6) in (4) we obtain effective density of states as a function of energy.

$$g_e(E)dE = \frac{8\pi 2me(E - E_c) (2me)^{1/3} (E - E_c)^{-1/2}}{h^3 \cdot 2} dE$$

$$g_e(E)dE = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2me}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} (E - E_c)^{1/2} dE$$

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} g_e(E) dE p_e(E) = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2me}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{(E - E_c)^{1/2}}{1 + \exp \frac{E - E_F}{kT}} dE$$

In this integral the energy E being considered always greater than  $E_c$  if the temp T is such that  $E_c - E_F \geq 5KT$  we can ignore 1 in the denominator. Let  $x = \frac{E - E_c}{KT}$  in the integral. The limits changes as the lower limit  $E_c \rightarrow 0$  while the upper limit as remains unaltered.

$$(E - E_c)^{1/2} = x^{1/2} (KT)^{1/2} dE = KT dx$$

$$\exp \left( \frac{E - E_F}{KT} \right) = \exp \left( \frac{E - E_c}{KT} \right) \exp \left( \frac{E_c - E_F}{KT} \right) = e^x e \left( \frac{E_c - E_F}{KT} \right)$$

Hence using above things we get

$$n = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2me}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{(KT)^{1/2} x^{1/2} e^{-x} (KT) dx}{\exp \left( \frac{E_c - E_F}{KT} \right)}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left[ \frac{2meKT}{h^2} \right]^{3/2} \exp \left( \frac{E_F - E_c}{KT} \right) \int_0^{\infty} x^{1/2} e^{-x} dx$$

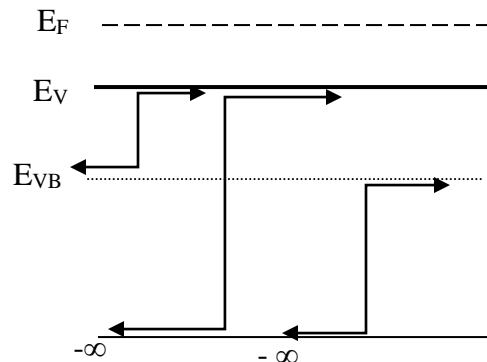
But the standard integral  $\int x^{1/2} e^{-x} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$

$$n = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{2meKT}{h^2 \pi} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left( \frac{E_F - E_c}{KT} \right)$$

$$= 2 \left( \frac{2\pi meKT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp \frac{E_F - E_c}{KT}$$

$N = N_e \exp \frac{E_F - E_c}{KT}$  where  $N_e = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi meKT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$  which is known as the effective density of states in the conduction band.

**S2. Concentration of carriers in valance band**



- The hole density P in a homogeneous doped semiconductor is obtained by

$$P = \int_{E_{vb}}^{E_v} g_h(E) dE Ph(E) = \int_{-\infty}^{E_v} g_h(E) dE Ph(E) - \int_{-\infty}^{E_{vb}} g_h(E) dE Ph(E) = I_1 - I_2$$

As before  $I_2 \rightarrow 0$  substituting for  $g_h(E)dE$  and  $Ph(E)$  in  $I_1$  we have

$$P = \int_{-\infty}^{E_v} \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2mh}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{(E_v - E)^{1/2} dE}{1 + \exp \frac{E_F - E}{KT}}$$

again for temp  $E_F - E_v$

$$P = \int_{-\infty}^{E_v} \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left[ \frac{2me}{h^2} \right]^{3/2} \exp \frac{E - E_F}{KT} (E_v - E)^{1/2} dE \text{ let } \frac{E_v - E}{KT} = x$$

Hence

$dE = -KTdx$  then  $(E_v - E)^{1/2} = (KT)^{1/2} x^{1/2}$  and  $\exp \frac{E - E_F}{KT} = \exp \frac{-(E_v - E)}{KT} \exp \frac{E_v - E_F}{KT}$  the limits tends to  $0 \rightarrow \infty$

$$P = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2mh}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left( \frac{E_v - E_F}{KT} \right)$$

$P = N_v \exp \frac{E_v - E_F}{KT}$  where  $N_v = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi mhKT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$  is the effective density of states in valance band.

### S3. Intrinsic carrier concentration

- Absolutely pure semiconductors are called intrinsic semiconductors. The free carriers in an intrinsic semiconductor are generated due to thermal energy as electron-hole pairs. Hence the electron concentration  $n_i$  in conduction band will be equal to the concentration of holes  $p_i$  in the valance band.
- Let  $E_i$  be the Fermi level of the intrinsic semiconductor in equilibrium substituting  $n_i$ ,  $p_i$  and  $E_i$  in extrinsic  $n$  &  $p$  concentrations.

$$n_i = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi meKT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp \frac{E_i - E_c}{KT} \text{----- (1)}$$

$$p_i = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi mhKT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp \frac{E_v - E_i}{KT} \text{----- (2)}$$

But  $n_i = p_i$  ----- (3) substituting (1) & (2) in (3) gives

$$\text{Exp} \left[ \frac{E_i - E_c - E_v + E_i}{KT} \right] = \left[ \frac{mh}{me} \right]^{3/2}$$

$$\text{Thus } 2E_i - (E_c + E_v) = KT \ln \left( \frac{mh}{me} \right)^{3/2}$$

$$\text{Or } E_i = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2} + \frac{3}{4}KT \ln\left(\frac{m_h}{m_e}\right) \text{-----(4)}$$

If the effective masses  $m_e = m_h$  the Fermi level  $E_i = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2}$  i.e.  $E_i$  lies midway between  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  which happens to be the centre of the band gap at any temperature. If  $m_h > m_e$   $E_i$  linearly increases towards  $E_c$ . The material properties  $E_c$ ,  $E_v$ ,  $m_h$  &  $m_e$  determine the value of  $E_i$ .

Combining equations (1) (2) & (3) yield

$$n_i^2 = 4\left(\frac{2\pi K}{h}\right)^3 (m_h m_e)^3 T^3 \exp\left(\frac{E_v - E_c}{KT}\right) \text{-----(5)}$$

We define  $A = 4\left(\frac{2\pi K}{h}\right)^3 (m_h m_e)^3 T^3$  ----- (6) and

$E_g = E_c - E_v$ ----- (7) hence substituting (6) & (7) in (5) we obtain

$$n_i^2 = AT^3 \exp\left(\frac{-E_g}{KT}\right) \text{-----(8)}$$

Where  $A$  and  $E_g$  are constants for a given semiconductor and  $n_i$  is called the intrinsic concentration which indicates the thermally generated electrons and holes. It is a strong function of the temperature  $T$ .

- The equilibrium concentration  $n$  and  $p$  can be expressed in terms of the characteristic constants  $n_i$  are given by

$$n = 2\left(\frac{2\pi m_e KT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{EF - E_c}{KT}\right)$$

$$n_i = 2\left(\frac{2\pi m_e KT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_i - E_c}{KT}\right)$$

Dividing  $n$  by  $n_i$

$$n = n_i \exp\left(\frac{EF - E_i}{KT}\right) \text{-----(9)}$$

$$p = p_i \exp\left(\frac{E_i - EF}{KT}\right) \text{-----(10)}$$

$$p_i = n_i \Rightarrow p = n_i \exp\left(\frac{E_i - EF}{KT}\right) \text{-----(11)}$$

Multiplying the eqn (9) with (11) yields

$$np = n_i^2$$



- This expression is called as the law of mass action. It can be stated as “The product of free carrier concentrations at a given temperature is a constant for any type of semiconductor in equilibrium”.
- The product  $np$  is the probability of simultaneous existence of electron in the conduction band and holes in the valance band.  $N_i$  refers to thermally generated carriers concentration. Thus the rate of recombination of carriers and the rate of generation must be equal. The law of mass action is merely an outcome of this concept.
- As a consequence of equ (9) & (11) both  $n$  and  $p$  cannot exceed  $n_i$  simultaneously if  $n > n_i \Rightarrow p < n_i \Rightarrow n > p$  and  $n < n_i \Rightarrow p > n_i \Rightarrow p > n$  Thus n type semiconductors have  $n > p$  and electrons are majority carriers. In p-type the holes form the majority carriers. If  $n = p$  the concentration become equal to the intrinsic concentration.
- **Extrinsic Semiconductor minority carrier concentration:-** In highly doped n-type semiconductors as the acceptor atoms will not be there  $N_A = 0$  and thus  $N_d^+ \gg n_i$  Hence  $n = N_d^+$ . If the donors are fully ionized then  $N_d = N_d^+ = n_n$  using law of mass action we can write  $p_n$  the hole equilibrium

concentration in n-type semiconductors which can be written as 
$$P_n = \frac{n_i^2}{N_D}$$

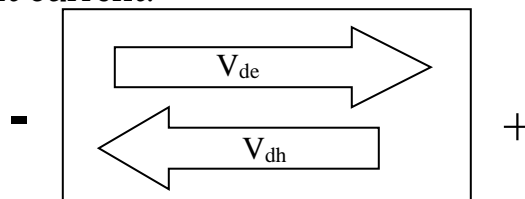
in highly doped p-type semiconductors  $N_d^+ = 0$  the majority and minority

carriers in equilibrium are  $p_p = N_a^- = N_a$  and  $n_p = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A}$   
 Minority carrier life time is defined as the time required to reduce initial concentration to  $1/e$  its initial concentration.

#### **S4.Drift and Diffusion currents –Einstein’s relations**

##### **Drift current and conductivity:**

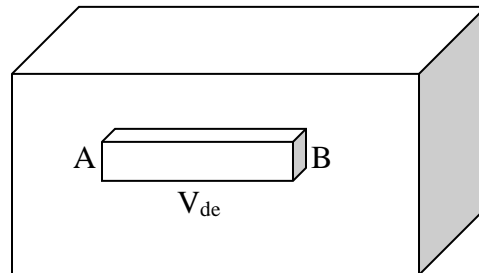
- The application of an electric field  $E$  causes a directed drift velocity ( $V_{de}$  or  $V_{dh}$ ) to be superimposed on the free carriers. The flow of charged carriers will result in electric currents flowing in the sample. This mechanism of current flow is called drift current.



- Let us consider a homogeneous semiconductor sample having free electron concentration of  $n$  and a free hole concentration of  $P$ . An electric field  $E$  is applied in the positive  $x$  – direction causing drift currents.  $J_{ndrift}$  and  $J_p$  drift denote respectively the current densities due to electron and hole drifts.

Before the field  $E$  is applied the  $n$  electrons move randomly with an rms velocity or  $V_{te}$  and a mean velocity of zero in any direction.

- The current density is therefore zero. When the field  $E$  is applied, the conduction electrons acquire a mean velocity of  $V_{de}$ . The current contribution by these  $n$  electrons will be the same as due to  $n$  electrons all moving with the same velocity  $V_{de}$  and a mean velocity of zero in any direction.



- Consider a small rectangular block within the crystal having a unit cross sectional area and length  $V_{de}$  in the  $x$ -direction. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be the crystal faces perpendicular to the flow of electrons such that  $AB$  represents the direction of motion of electrons. Then volume of the block =  $V_{de} \times 1 \times 1 = V_{de}$   
 Number of electrons in the block =  $nV_{de}$  charge contained in this volume =  $-nqV_{de}$
- All of this charge contained in the block will in unit time cross the face  $B$  of the block furthermore no other free electron in the semiconductor outside this block will cross face  $B$ . Since current density is defined as the amount of charge crossing unit area per unit time the drift current density due to electrons at face  $B$  will be.

$$J_n \text{ drift} = -nqV_{de} \text{-----(1)}$$

By a similar line of argument we can conclude that  $J_p \text{ drift} = pqV_{dh}$  also we know that  $v_{de} = -\mu_e E$  Hence  $J_n \text{ drift} = nq\mu_e E$ ,  $J_p \text{ drift} = pq\mu_p E$

The total drift current due to both hole and electron flow is therefore

$$J_{\text{drift}} = J_n \text{ drift} + J_p \text{ drift} \\ = nq\mu_e E + pq\mu_p E \text{-----(2)}$$

Note that although the electrons and holes move in opposite directions in response to an impressed electric field  $E$  the effective direction of charge flow is the same and so the current components add.

- The ratio of the drift current to the apply field is called the conductivity and the equations.

$$J_{\text{drift}} = \sigma E \text{ comparing with equ(2)}$$

$$\sigma = nqu_n + pqu_p \Rightarrow \sigma_n + \sigma_p$$

In case of n-type semiconductor  $n > p$

$$\sigma_n \gg \sigma_p \Rightarrow \sigma = \sigma_n$$

p-type  $p \gg n$   $\sigma_p \gg \sigma_n \Rightarrow \sigma = \sigma_p$

**Diffusion currents:**

- Diffusion takes place due to the existence of a non-uniform concentration of carriers.
- In fact Fick's first law states that the diffusion flux F i.e., the particle current is proportional to and in a direction opposite to the concentration gradient of the particles. In one dimension this can be stated mathematically as

$$F = -D \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \text{-----(1)}$$

Hence if n and p are the electron and hole concentrations then the particle flux densities of electrons and holes  $J_e$  and  $J_p$  are  $J_e = -D_n \frac{\partial n}{\partial x}$  and

$$J_p = -D_p \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}. D_n \text{ \& } D_p \text{ are called the electron and hole diffusion constants}$$

respectively. Since each electron and hole carries a charge  $-q$  and  $+q$  respectively the electric current densities are

$$J_e = -q D_n \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \text{ and } J_n \text{ diff} = q D_n \frac{\partial n}{\partial x}$$

$$J_p = -q D_p \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \text{ and } J_p \text{ diff} = -q D_p \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$

When both drift and diffusion currents are present the total hole and electron current densities can be written as

$$J_n = J_n \text{ drift} + J_n \text{ diff Or } J_n = nq\mu_n E + qD_n \frac{\partial n}{\partial x}$$

$$J_p = pq\mu_p E - qD_p \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$

• **Einstein Relation:**

Although the carrier transports mechanisms drift and diffusion have been considered independently they are both dependent on the scattering process responsible for hindering the flow of carriers in semiconductors.

- Einstein showed that the parameters describing the two processes mobility  $\mu$  and diffusion coefficient D respectively are directly related. At equilibrium with no applied electric field the free electron distribution is uniform and there is no current flow.
- Any tendency to disturb the state of equilibrium which would lead to a diffusion current creates an internal electric field and a drift current balancing the diffusion component under equilibrium conditions therefore the drift and diffusion currents due to an excess density of electrons ( $\Delta n$ )

$(\Delta n)qE\mu_n = qD_n \frac{\partial(\Delta n)}{\partial x}$ . The force F on excess carriers restoring equilibrium is given by the product of excess charge and electric field.

$$F = (\Delta n)qE = qE = \frac{qDn}{\mu n} \frac{\partial(\Delta n)}{\partial x}$$

By making an analogy between excess carriers in a semi conductor and gas molecules in a low pressure gas  $(KT) \frac{\partial(\Delta n)}{\partial x}$

$$KT = qD_n / \mu_n \Rightarrow D_n = \frac{KT}{q} \mu_n, D_p = \frac{KT}{q} \mu_p$$

The relation between diffusion coefficient and mobility of a charge carrier is termed Einstein's relation.

### **S5. LIGHT EMITTING DIODE (LED)**

- A light emitting diode (LED) is known to be one of the best optoelectronic devices. The device is capable of emitting a fairly narrow bandwidth of visible or invisible light when its internal diode junction attains a forward electric current or voltage. The visible lights that an LED emits are usually *orange, red, yellow, or green*. The invisible light includes the infrared light.
- We know that a P-N junction can convert the absorbed light energy into its proportional electric current. The same process is reversed here. That is, the P-N junction emits light when energy is applied on it. This phenomenon is generally called electro luminance, which can be defined as the emission of light from a semi-conductor under the influence of an electric field.
- The charge carriers recombine in a forward P-N junction as the electrons are in the conduction band of energy levels, while holes are in the valence energy band. Thus the energy level of the holes will be lesser than the energy levels of the electrons. Some part of the energy must be dissipated in order to recombine the electrons and the holes. This energy is emitted in the form of heat and light.

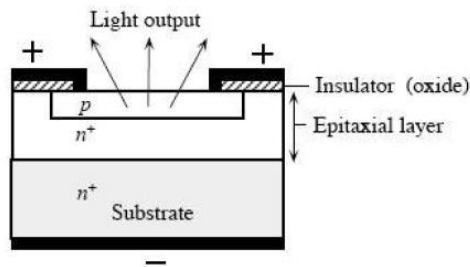
#### **LED Structure:**

The LED structure plays a crucial role in emitting light from the LED surface. The LEDs are structured to ensure most of the recombinations take place on the surface by the following two ways.

- By increasing the doping concentration of the substrate, so that additional free minority charge carrier's electrons move to the top, recombine and emit light at the surface.
- By increasing the diffusion length  $L = D\tau$ , where D is the diffusion coefficient and  $\tau$  is the carrier life time. But when increased beyond a critical length there is a change of re-absorption of the photons into the device.
- The LED has to be structured so that the photons generated from the device are emitted without being reabsorbed. One solution is to make the p layer on the top thin, enough to create a depletion layer. Following picture shows the layered structure.

## Working of LED

Light emitting diodes (LED) are basically pn-junctions. At zero bias there is a diffusion current, and because of the band bending there is also a electric field,

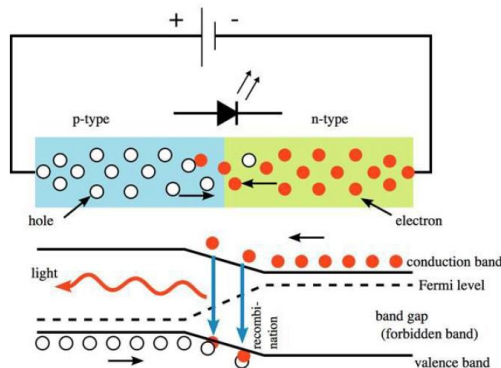


which pushes the electrons back to the n-region and holes back to the p-region, this is called the drift current. The diffusion current cancels the drift current. If you forward bias it, the electric field gets smaller. The positive charge on the p-side pushes the holes towards the junction and the negative charge of the n-side pushes the electrons towards the

junction. The depletion layer gets smaller, diffusion current increases and the drift current decreases. If you reverse bias it, the electric field gets bigger, the depletion layer and drift current bigger and the diffusion current smaller. So there will not flow a current, or only a small current. Because of that you have to forward bias the LED.

The forward bias will push the electrons and the holes to the depletion region (the change from p- to n-type). So the electrons will recombine close to the depletion region with the holes. If the electrons recombine they release an energy.

Whether you get an energy in form of a photon (light) or not depends on the semiconductor



## Advantages of LED

1. Very small in size
2. Less cost and long life time
3. It needs less voltage for operate

## Disadvantages of LED

1. It requires high power.
2. Its preparation cost is high.

## Applications of Light Emitting Diode

1. These are used in security alarm system such as burglar alarm system.
2. There are used in electronic calculators for showing the digital data.

3. These are used in mobile phones for taking the pictures.
4. These are used in traffic signals for controlling the traffic crowds in cities.
5. These are used for lighting purpose such as in homes lights, factory lights and street light etc. Instead of incandescent lamps for saving the energy.
6. These are used in digital computers for displaying the computer data.
7. These are used in digital multimeter for showing the current, voltage and resistance in digital form.
8. These are used in aviation lights for air craft warning signal.
9. There are used in remote control systems such TV or LCD remote.
10. There are also used in digital watches and automotive heat lamps.

- **Direct and indirect band gap semiconductors**

**Direct**

- If the electron jumps directly from conduction band to valence band it is known as Direct band gap semiconductor.
- The transition occurs along  $k=0$
- Optical transmission is possible

Ex. GaAs

**Indirect**

- If the electron jumps from conduction band to valence band via trap levels it is known as indirect band gap
- The transition occurs along  $k \neq 0$
- Optical transmission not possible

Ex. GaP

## Assignment-Cum-Tutorial Questions

### Section A: Objective Questions

1. The expression for the mobility of the electrons in terms of the Hall coefficient in n-type semiconductor \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Einstein's relation between drift and diffusion mechanisms is \_\_\_\_\_.
3. In a material the diffusion current density is \_\_\_\_\_ to the concentration gradient of the charge carriers.
4. In an intrinsic semiconductor, the intrinsic conductivity depends on \_\_\_\_.
5. The mass action law can be written as \_\_\_\_\_.
6. In a semiconductor, the direction of motion of hole is \_\_\_\_\_ to that of the direction of motion of electron.
7. When the temperature of semiconductor is nearly 0 K, it behaves as good as \_\_\_\_\_.
8. At absolute temperature the Fermi level in an intrinsic semiconductor is \_\_\_\_\_.
9. Example for the direct band gap semiconductor is \_\_\_\_\_.
10. When trivalent impurities are doped into the pure semiconductor the concentration of \_\_\_\_\_ will be increased.
11. At T=0K the electrons above Fermi level is \_\_\_\_\_ below Fermi level is \_\_\_\_\_.
12. Fermi function is valid for \_\_\_\_\_ particles.
13. If  $m_h^* > m_e^*$  then the position of Fermi energy level is : [     ]
  - a) At the centre of energy gap
  - b) Just above the centre of energy gap
  - c) Just below the conduction band
  - d) Just above the valence band
14. When the temperature of semiconductor is nearly 0 K, it behaves as good as ----. [     ]
  - a) Conductor
  - b) semimetal
  - c) insulator
  - d) None of the above
15. When an electric field is applied to the semiconductor, the current density in terms of mobility of the electrons. [     ]
  - a)  $J_n = ne\mu_e E$
  - b)  $J_n = pe\mu_e E$
  - c)  $J_p = ne\mu_h E$
  - d) None of the above
16. Which type of semiconductor satisfies the relation  $N_A = p$  ? [     ]
  - a) p-type semiconductor
  - b) n-type semiconductor
  - c) intrinsic
  - d) None of the above
17. The emission wavelength of emitted light is given by ----. [     ]
  - a)  $\lambda_g = \frac{hc}{E_g}$
  - b)  $\lambda_g = \frac{p}{E_g}$
  - c) both a & b
  - d) None of the above
18. The diffusion electron current density in an n-type of semiconductor is - [     ]
  - a)  $J_n = eD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$
  - b)  $J = -eD \frac{dx}{dn}$
  - c)  $J = nqDn$
  - d) None of the above

19. When the diffusion mechanism occurs in a semiconductor? [     ]
- Concentration gradient of charge carriers exists in a semiconductor
  - Concentration is same throughout the semiconductor
  - External field required
  - None of the above
20. The mobility of electrons and holes in an intrinsic semiconductor are 0.8 and  $0.18m^2/V - s$ . Find the intrinsic conductivity if  $n_i = 2.5 \times 10^{19}/m^3$ . [     ]
- $2.24(\Omega - m)^{-1}$
  - $1.24(\Omega - m)^{-1}$
  - $0.24(\Omega - m)^{-1}$
  - None of the above
21. Find the ground state energy of an electron when it is confined to move in a one dimensional box of length  $0.01nm$  ( $m = 9.1 \times 10^{-31}Kg$  and  $h = 6.625 \times 10^{-34}J - S$ ). [     ]
- $6.04 \times 10^{-18}J$
  - $5.04 \times 10^{-18}J$
  - $4.04 \times 10^{-18}J$
  - None of the above

### Section B: (Subjective Questions)

- What are drift and diffusion currents? 8M(CO3)
  - Show that  $E_i = E_c + E_v / 2$  4M(CO3)
- Derive an expression for the number of electrons per unit volume in the conduction band of N- type semiconductor. 6M(CO3)
  - Distinguish between direct and indirect band gap semiconductors 6M(CO3)
- Obtain the expression for the conductivity of an intrinsic semiconductor in terms of carrier concentration. 8M(CO3)
  - A silicon plate of thickness 1mm, breadth 10mm and length 100mm is placed in a magnetic field of 0.5 wb/m<sup>2</sup> acting perpendicular to its thickness. If 10<sup>-2</sup> A current flows along its length, calculate the Hall voltage developed if the Hall coefficient is  $3.66 \times 10^{-4} m^3/coulomb$ . 4M(CO3)
- Derive the expression for carrier concentration of holes and electrons in Intrinsic semiconductors. 9M(CO3)
  - Explain the equation for conductivity. 3M(CO3)
- Derive the carrier concentration in intrinsic semiconductors. 10M(CO3)
  - What are indirect band gap semiconductors? 2M(CO3)
- Explain the construction and working of a LED. 8M (CO3)



### Section C: (Additional Questions)

1. The following data are given for intrinsic germanium at 300K  $n_i=2.4 \times 10^{19} /\text{m}^3$ ,  $\mu_e=0.39\text{m}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\mu_p=0.19\text{m}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  calculate the resistivity of the sample.
2. The resistivity of an an intrinsic semiconductor is 4.5 ohm-m at 20° C and 2.0 ohm-m at 32° C what is the energy gap?
3. Find the diffusion coefficient of electron in silicon at 300K if  $\mu_e=0.19\text{m}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$
4. In the following cases, show the position of the Fermi level at T=0K in energy band diagram and give reason for your answer. Mark  $E_C$ ,  $E_V$ ,  $E_F$ ,  $E_I$ ,  $E_A$ ,  $E_D$  for : a) N type,  $N_A= 0$ , b) P type,  $N_D=0$ .

@@@

# Applied Physics

## Unit-V

### Magnetic materials

#### Course objectives

- To understand the origin of magnetism in materials

#### Syllabus:

Permeability, magnetization - Origin of magnetism - Classification of magnetic materials - Domain theory (qualitative) – Hysteresis - Soft and hard magnetic materials - Applications

#### Course Outcomes

Student will be able to

- apply the basic principles of magnetism exhibited by materials.
- derive orbital and spin contribution for magnetism

# MAGNETIC MATERIALS

## PERMEABILITY

Consider an unmagnetized bar of a magnetic material in a uniform magnetic field. It has been observed that the bar gets magnetized by induction and gets a polarity. After magnetization, the magnetic lines in the bar emanate from N-pole pass through the outer region and then re enter the S-pole. These lines form a closed loop within the magnet by passing from S-pole to N-pole.

- It will be interesting to know that the lines of the magnetized bar oppose the lines of the original field outside the magnet and favour inside the magnet.
- As a result of this the magnetic field strength (H) is increased inside the bar and decreased outside it. Similarly the magnetic flux density (B) becomes high inside the bar and low outside.
- We find that flux density (B) is directly proportional to the magnetic field strength (H). Mathematically  $B \propto H$ ,  $B = \mu H$  where  $\mu$  is a constant of proportionality and is known as absolute permeability of the medium.
- If the flux density is established in air or vacuum or in a non-magnetic material then the above equation may be written as  $\mathbf{B}_0 = \mu_0 H$  where  $\mathbf{B}_0$  is the flux density in air or vacuum and  $\mu_0$  is the absolute permeability of air or vacuum.
- The ratio  $\mu / \mu_0$  is known as the relative permeability of the medium. It is designed by the symbol  $\mu_r$ . Mathematically  $\mu_r = (\mu / \mu_0) = (B / B_0)$  it may be noted that the relative permeability of air or a non-magnetic material is unity.

## Magnetization

The term magnetization may be defined as the process of converting non – magnetic bar into a magnetic bar.

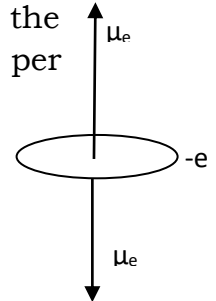
- The term is almost analogous to the polarization in dielectric materials. The flux density  $B = \mu H = \mu_0 \mu_r H$ ,  $B = \mu_0 \mu_r H = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 H (\mu_r - 1) = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 M$ ,  $B = \mu_0 (H + M)$  where the magnetization,  $M = H(\mu_r - 1)$ . It is expressed in ampere/meter. From the equation, we find that if a magnetic field is applied to a material, the magnetic flux density is equal to the sum of the effect on vacuum and that on the material. The magnetization may thus be defined as the magnetic dipole moment per unit volume.

## Origin of magnetic moment - Bohr Magnetron

### Electric current in atoms:

For simplicity, let us consider the simplest atom of hydrogen in which one electron revolves round the proton say on a circular path of radius r.

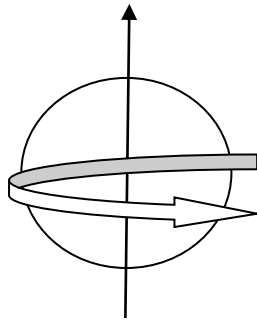
- At any instant the electron at point P and the proton at the centre form an electric dipole, the direction of the dipole goes on changing as the electron moves further. Obviously the time average of the electric dipole moment is zero and there will be no electro static field at a distance point due to this dipole.
- Again the moving electron is equivalent to a current ring. If  $v$  is the velocity of the electron it will make  $V/2\pi = w/2\pi$  revolutions per second and it is equivalent to a current given by  $I = ew/2\pi$
- The circular path is equivalent to a magnetic dipole and the magnetic moment due to this orbital motion of the electron is.



$$\mu_{el} = IA = (ew/2\pi)\pi r^2 = \frac{ewr^2}{2}$$

- The angular momentum associated with the electronic motion is given by  $mr^2w$ .
- Hence we can relate the magnetic dipole moment and angular momentum as  $\mu_{el} = -e/2m \times$  angular momentum.
- The minus sign indicates that the dipole moment points in a direction opposite to the vector representing the angular momentum. A substance therefore possesses permanent magnetic dipoles if the electrons of its constituent atom have a net non vanishing angular momentum.
- The ratio of the magnetic dipole moment of the electron due to its orbital motion and the angular momentum of the orbital motion is called orbital gyro magnetic ratio, or orbital magneto mechanical ratio of an electron, represented by  $\gamma$ .
- In our case it is given by  $\gamma =$  magnetic moment / Angular momentum =  $e/2m$ . According to modern atomic theory the angular momentum of an electron in the orbit is determined by the orbital quantum number  $l$  which is restricted to set of values  $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1)$  where  $n$  is the principal quantum number which determines the energy of the orbit. It can accept only the integer values  $n=1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ . The corresponding electronic shells are called K, L, M, N, ..... shells.
- The angular momentum of electrons associated with a particular value of  $l$  is given by  $l(h/2\pi)$ . The electrons associated with the states  $l = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$  are called S, P, d, f, ... electrons respectively.
- The strength of the permanent magnetic dipole is given by  $\mu_{el} = -(e/2m)(lh/2\pi) \rightarrow \mu_{el} = -ehl/4\pi m = -\mu_B l$ . The quantity  $\mu_B = eh/4\pi m$  is an atomic unit called Bohr magneton and has a value  $9.27 \times 10^{-24}$  ampere metre<sup>2</sup> and this represents the magnetic moment of an elementary permanent magnetic dipole.
- From the above equation it is clear that electron in an atom can take only certain specified values of magnetic moment depending on the value of  $l$ . Hence for s electron  $l=0$  and magnetic moment is zero.

## ELECTRON SPIN AND MAGNETIC MOMENT:



Besides rotating on a circular orbit around the positive nucleus, an electron also rotates around an axis of its own.

- The magnetic moment associated with spinning of the electron is called spin magnetic moment  $\mu_{es}$ .
- Although, strictly speaking it has a quantum-mechanical origin. We can think of its magnetic moment as being due to the rotation of the electronic charge about one of the diameters of the electron in a manner similar to that of the earth's spinning motion around its north south axis.
- If we consider the simple case of an electronic charge being spread over a spherical volume the electron spin would cause different charge elements of this sphere to form closed currents resulting thereby in a net spin magnetic moment.
- Clearly this net magnetic moment would depend upon the detailed structure of the electron and its charge distribution.
- It turns out that an equation connects  $\mu_{es}$  with spin angular momentum  $S$  by the relation  $\mu_{es} = \gamma(e/2m)s$  where the value of the coefficient  $\gamma$  called the spin gyro magnetic ratio depends on the structure of the spinning particle and its charge distribution. The experimental value of  $\gamma$  for an electron is (-2.0024) the negative sign indicating the  $\mu_{es}$  in a direction opposite to that of  $s = h/4\pi$  for an electron.

$$\mu_{es} = \frac{-eh}{4\pi m} = 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{ ampere - metre}^2$$

Thus the magnitude of magnetic moments due to spin and the orbital motions of an electron are of the same order of magnitude. It may be mentioned that spin and  $\mu_{es}$  are intrinsic properties of an electron and exist even for a stationary electron ( $L=0$ ).

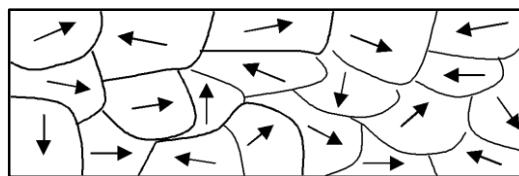
## Classification of magnetic materials

| Type          | $\chi$          | Temperature dependence of $\chi$ | Effects of H on $\chi$                 | Magnetic flux B      | Example                                  |
|---------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|--|----------------------|--|
| Diamagnetic   | Small, <0       | Independent                      | Independent                            | $B_{out} \gg B_{in}$ | Organic solids like benzene, naphthalene |
| Paramagnetic  | Small, +ive     | $\chi = C/T$                     | Decreases with H                       | $B_{in} > B_{out}$   | Alkali metals, Rare earth                |
| Ferromagnetic | Very large +ive | $\chi = C/T - \theta$            | Increases initially and then decreases | $B_{in} \gg B_{out}$ | Transition metals                        |

### DOMAIN THEORY (QUALITATIVE)

#### Ferromagnetic domain structure:

According to the Weiss molecular field theory, the ferromagnetic material consists of small regions called domains as shown in fig. 1.



**Polycrystalline**

Fig1. domain structure of ferromagnetic material

- A domain is a small region in a ferromagnetic material in which all magnetic spin dipoles are aligned parallel to one another in the same direction even in the absence of external magnetic field i.e., it is spontaneously magnetized in the absence of magnetic field as shown in fig.2.
- This magnetization depends on temperature. These domains are having dimensions of  $\sim 10^{-2}$  cm and it contains as many as  $10^{17}$  atoms. Due to the nature of the domain structure, in its pure state it is un-magnetized as shown in fig. 1.

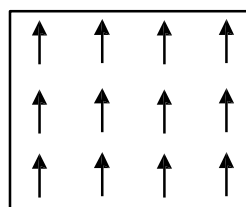


Fig.2. A single domain in a ferromagnetic material- spontaneous magnetization.

- In the presence of an external magnetic field, the ferromagnetic material acquires a non-zero magnetization.
- This may occur in two different ways: by increase in the volume of the domains which are favorably oriented with respect to the field at the expense of unfavorably oriented domains at weak magnetic field (Domain growth in a weak external magnetic field) as shown in fig.3. (b),
- By the rotation of the domain magnetization towards the external

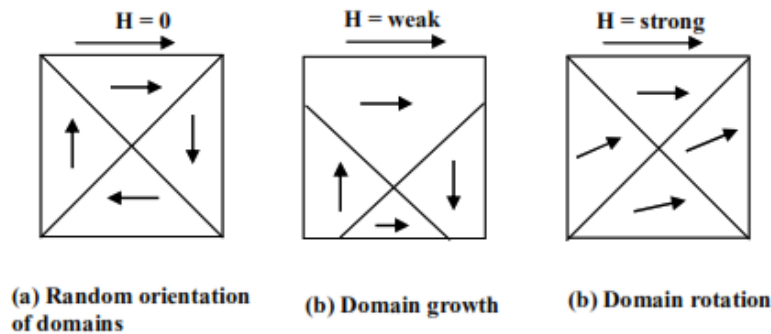


Fig.3. Domain structure of ferromagnetic material (a) random orientation in the absence of magnetic field (b) domain growth in the weak magnetic field (c) domain rotation in the strong magnetic field.

field direction at strong magnetic field (Domains rotation in a strong external magnetic field) as shown in fig 3.(c).

#### **Domain growth in a weak external magnetic field:**

When the magnetic field is applied to the ferromagnetic material in some arbitrary direction, those domains which are favorably oriented along the magnetic field direction will grow at the expense of the unfavorably oriented domains, hence the volume of the favorably oriented domains increases i.e., domain growth occurs.

- This is due to the motion of domain walls as shown in the fig.3. (b) . As a result, the more number of magnetic spin dipoles enter into the favorable domains from the un-favorably oriented domains and hence the magnetization increases. In pure materials, due to this process, the magnetization is reversible in the weak external field.

#### **Domains rotation in a strong external magnetic field :**

As the external magnetic field is further increased, the magnetization gradually increases and reaches a saturation value at a particular magnetic field. It occurs due to sudden rotation of un-favorably oriented domains along the magnetic field direction. In a strong external magnetic field, the domain magnetization direction is rotated in the field direction as given in fig.3. (c) Thus in strong magnetic field, the magnetization in the domains increases with irreversible wall motion. The substance is said to be saturated and it gets maximum magnetization.

#### **(e). Hysteresis effect in ferromagnetic material:**

Hysteresis is a well known property of ferromagnetic materials as shown in fig.4. Hysteresis is a lack of re-traceability of magnetization curve of a

ferromagnetic material during magnetization and demagnetization processes.

- When a ferromagnetic material is magnetized completely in one direction, it will not relax back to zero magnetization when the imposed magnetizing field is removed. It is related to the existence of magnetic domains in ferromagnetic material and provides to understand of magnetic properties of materials.

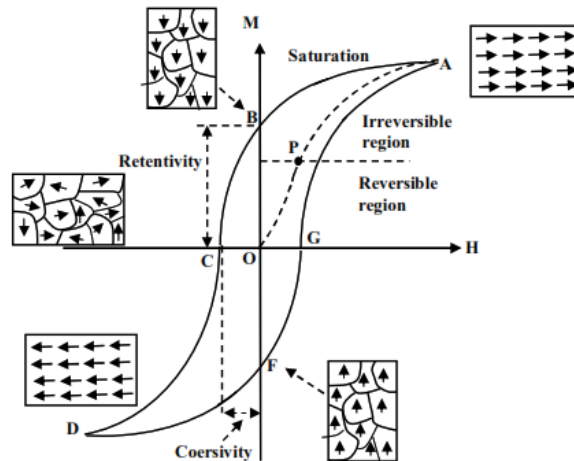


Fig.4. The hysteresis loop

Hysteresis effect in ferromagnetic materials can be understood by considering the growth of domains and rotation of domains and it has the following properties: Saturation magnetization, Remanent magnetization, Coercive field and Hysteresis loss. Based on these properties the ferromagnetic materials are two types: soft and hard ferromagnetic materials which have many practical applications.

### HYSTERESIS CURVE:-

When a ferromagnetic or a ferromagnetic specimen is subjected to a magnetic field which varies cyclically the magnetization of the specimen which is realized in terms of the magnetic induction  $B$ , fails to keep in step with the applied field. This property and its consequences are studied here.

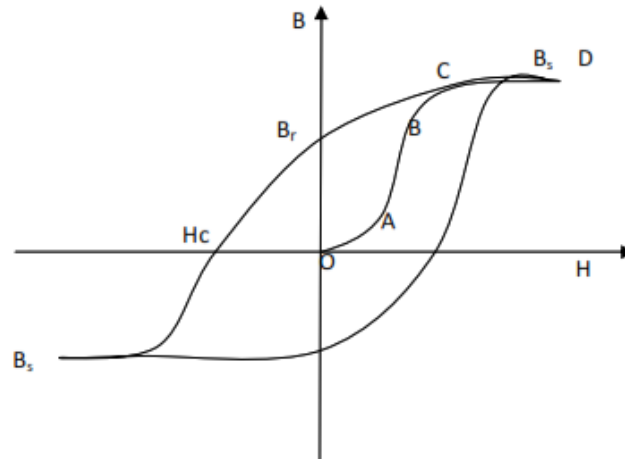
**Hysteresis is the sluggishness or the phase lag of the magnetic induction  $B$  in ferromagnetic materials. With respect to the cyclic variation of an applied magnetic field, when the specimen is at a temperature below its curie temperature.**

- To study the dependence of  $B$  on  $H$ , a ferromagnetic specimen is subjected to a magnetic field varying to only in magnitude but also in direction. The strength of the magnetic field  $H$  is increased from a zero value to a high value and then reduced to zero value; again it is increased to a high value but in the opposite direction and brought back to zero value and then increased again by reversing its direction. As the magnetic field is varied a corresponding variation in the magnetic induction  $B$  of the specimen is



observed. But the notable feature is that the two variations are not synchronized B trails behind H

- The value of B also increases and the curve will develop along OD. After the point D, B remains constant in spite of continued increase in H. This value of B at D is called the saturation value and the state of specimen is referred to as saturation magnetization. Now when the value of H is decreed B starts decreasing from the point D,



When H becomes zero, the value of B retains a value equal to  $B_r$ . This residual value of B equal to  $OB_r$  is called remanent magnetization or retentive magnetization. The value of B goes to zero and the specimen gets completely demagnetized only when the direction of H is reversed and attains a value  $OH_c$ . This value of  $H = OH_c$  is called coercive force and the effect is called coercivity. Further increase in H causes the specimen to get magnetized in the opposite direction which means B also increases in the opposite direction and reaches saturation value. The variation of B with respect to H traced along the closed path for a ferromagnetic specimen refers to one full cycle of magnetization and demagnetization and is called the Hysteresis loop or the Hysteresis curve.

### **SOFT AND HARD MAGNETIC MATERIALS:**

Ferromagnetic materials are classified as soft or hard. The classification is mainly based on the hysteresis characteristics magnetically soft materials have low coercivity ( $H_c$ ) while those with high values of  $H_c$  are called hard magnetic materials.

#### **Hard**

1. Large hysteresis loop area – high energy loss High remanent magnetization
2. High Coercivity
3. Low permeability
4. Low susceptibility

#### **Soft**

1. Low remanent maganetization  
Low Hysteresis loss
2. Low coercivity
3. High permeability
4. High susceptibility

Hard magnetic materials are used to manufacture permanent magnets low magnetic materials are used in A.C. fields.

## Assignment –cum- tutorial questions

### Section A: Objective Questions

1. The magnetic moment of a free atom is due to \_\_\_\_\_
2. Susceptibility of diamagnetic materials is \_\_\_\_\_
3. In diamagnetic materials, the net magnetic moment of all the atoms is \_\_\_\_\_
4. The temperature independent susceptibility is \_\_\_\_\_
5. Diamagnetism is exhibited by all materials. (T/F)
6. Choose the correct option
  - a)  $\chi < 1$  for dia,  $\chi > 1$  for para,  $\chi \ll 1$  for ferromagnets
  - b)  $\chi < 1$  for dia,  $\chi > 1$  for para,  $\chi \gg 1$  for ferromagnets
  - c)  $\chi < 1$  for dia,  $\chi \gg 1$  for para,  $\chi \ll 1$  for ferromagnets
  - d)  $\chi < 1$  for dia,  $\chi \ll 1$  for para,  $\chi \gg 1$  for ferromagnets
7. Hysteresis curve or B-H curve is variation of
  - a) Magnetic induction with magnetic field intensity
  - b) Magnetic field with dipole moment
  - c) Magnetization with susceptibility
  - d) Susceptibility with dipole moment
8. When an external field is applied to a magnetic material,
  - a) A torque acts on individual dipole moments.
  - b) No force is experienced by the dipole moments.
  - c) The particles are in random motion
  - d) There is no change in the dipole moments of molecules.
9. Magnetic field strength in silicon is  $1000 \text{ Am}^{-1}$ . If the magnetic susceptibility is  $3 \times 10^{-7}$ , calculate the magnetization.
10. A magnetic material has a magnetization of  $3000 \text{ A/m}$  and flux density of  $5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Wbm}^{-2}$ . The relative permeability of the material is \_\_\_\_\_
11. Stationary charged particles exhibit magnetism. (T/F)
12. Materials do not having permanent magnetic dipoles are
  - a) Paramagnetic
  - b) ferromagnetic
  - c) ferromagnetic
  - d) diamagnetic
13. When a diamagnetic material is placed inside an external magnetic field
  - a) Induced magnetic dipoles act along the applied field direction .
  - b) Induced magnetic dipoles act opposite to the applied field direction.
  - c) Induced magnetic dipoles act perpendicular to the applied.
14. Diamagnetic susceptibility is
  - a) Large, negative
  - b) small, positive
  - c) small, negative
  - d) large, positive
15. Which of the following statement is wrong?
  - a) Diamagnetic property is independent of temperature
  - b) Paramagnetic property is dependent of temperature
  - c) Paramagnetic property is independent of temperature
  - d) Ferromagnetic property is dependent of temperature
16. Magnetic susceptibility  $X$  is equal to
  - a) The ratio of the magnetic induction in the sample to the applied magnetic field intensity.
  - b) Magnetic moment per unit volume

- c) The ratio of the intensity of magnetization produced in the sample to the magnetic field intensity producing it.
- d) The ratio of the magnetic field intensity to the intensity of magnetization.
17. Relative permeability is related to magnetic susceptibility by
- a)  $\mu_r = 1 - \chi$                       b)  $\mu_r = \chi - 1$     c)  $\mu_r = 1 + \chi$     d)  $\mu_r = 1 / \chi$
18. Choose the wrong statement
- a) Materials lacking permanent dipoles are called diamagnetic
- b) Materials possessing permanent dipoles which do not interact among themselves are called paramagnetic
- c) Materials possessing permanent dipoles which strongly interact among themselves are called ferromagnetic
- d) Materials in which magnitudes of permanent dipoles aligned antiparallel are equal are called antiferromagnetic.
19. The unit of magnetic field intensity is
- a)  $A\ m^{-1}$     b)  $H\ m^{-1}$     c)  $Wb\ m^{-2}$                       d) no units
20. Magnetic induction B is related to magnetic field intensity H by the relation
- a)  $B = \mu_0 (H - M)$     b)  $B = \mu_0 \frac{H}{M}$     c)  $B = \mu_0 \frac{M}{H}$     d)  $B = \mu_0 (H + M)$
21. One Bohr magneton equals
- a)  $9.27 \times 10^{-24}\ A\ m^2$                       b)  $9.1 \times 10^{-31}\ A\ m^2$
- c)  $9.27 \times 10^{-16}\ A\ m^2$                       d)  $9.1 \times 10^{-24}\ A\ m^2$
22. The temperature at which the transition of antiferro to para magnetism take place is called.
- a) Curie – Weiss temp.                      b) Curie temperature
- c) Debye temp.                                      d) Neel temp.
23. The transition from the ferromagnetic to the paramagnetic state is named after
- a) Curie                      b) Curie-Weiss                      c) Neel                      d) Debye
24. Orbital magnetic dipole moment  $\mu_0$  of an revolving electrons is given by
- a)  $\mu_0 = \left( \frac{er^2\omega_0}{2} \right)$     b)  $-\frac{e^2r}{2\omega_0}$     c)  $-\left( \frac{er^2\omega_0}{2} \right)$                       d)  $\frac{e^2r}{2\omega_0}$

## Section B: (Subjective Questions)

### Long answer questions

1. What is the origin of magnetism? Derive the expression for magnetic moment due to orbital motion and spin motion of charged particles.
2. Distinguish between dia, para and ferromagnetic materials.
3. How can the hysteresis curve be accounted based on domain theory?

### Short answer questions

1. What are the sources of permanent dipole moment in magnetic materials?
2. Define one Bohr magneton.
3. What is magnetic susceptibility?
4. Draw the variation of susceptibility with temperature for dia, para and ferromagnetic materials.
5. What do you mean by hysteresis?
6. What do you mean by hysteresis losses?

**Section C: (Additional Questions)**

1. The electron in a hydrogen atom moves in a circular orbit of radius  $0.5 \text{ \AA}$ . The electron performs 700 revolutions per second. Determine the magnetic moment.
2. The magnetizing field strength (H) in a piece of ferric oxide is  $10^6 \text{ A/m}$ . If the susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) of the material at room temperature,  $T = 300 \text{ K}$  is  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ , calculate the magnetic flux density (B) in the material.

# Applied Physics

## Unit - VI

### Dielectric Materials

#### **Course objectives**

- To analyze the interactions between atoms, molecules in solids to exhibit dielectric properties.

#### **Syllabus:**

Polarization-Internal field-Claussius-Mossoti relation- -Dielectric loss -Break down-

Ferroelectrics.

#### **Course Outcomes**

Student will be able to

- apply the basic principles and understand the factors influencing the dielectric properties.
- understand the charge storage capacity of dielectrics.

# DIELECTRICS

1. **Introduction:** Dielectrics are insulating materials. There are no free charge carriers in a dielectric. In dielectrics the forbidden energy gap is  $> 3\text{eV}$ . Such a large energy gap precludes thermal excitation of electrons from the valence band to the conduction band. Even externally applied fields fail to excite the electrons. Dielectrics find extensive use in electrical and electronic industries. They are used for insulation purposes. All capacitors use dielectric materials between their plates.

2. **Terminology:**

a. **Dipole:** Two equal and opposite charges (+q, -q) separated by a distance  $2r$  constitute a dipole. The dipole moment is defined by  $\mu = qr$ . If each particle (atom/molecule) of a substance possesses dipole moment, the

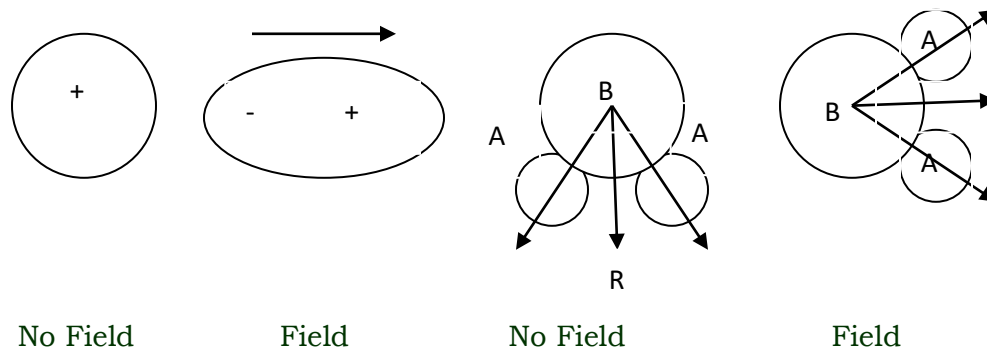
dipole moment of the sample is given by 
$$p = \sum_{i=1}^i q_i r_i$$

b. **Non-Polar Dielectric:** Monoatomic materials are made up of atoms. In general the centre of the negative charge and the centre of positive charge of an atom coincide. Even though there are two equal and opposite charges they are not separated. Their dipole moment  $\mu = q \times 0 = 0$ . Such dielectrics are called non-polar dielectrics.

c. **Polar Dielectrics:** Polyatomic substances contain molecules. The centre of the negative charge distribution may or may not coincide with the centre of the positive charge distribution. If there is an effective separation between the centers of the negative and positive charge distributions, the molecule has a dipole moment P. Such dielectrics are called polar dielectrics

Ex: Water Nitrobenzene.

d. **Polarization:** It is the process of inducing dipole moment in medium by an applied electric field. Polarization can take place both in polar and non-polar dielectrics.



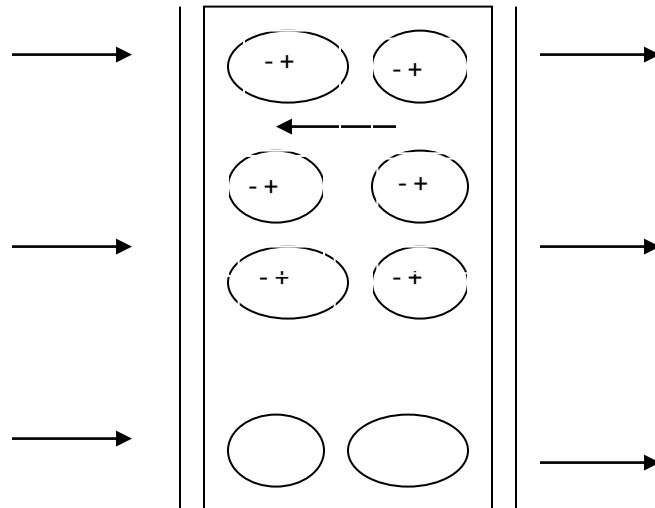
In polar dielectrics molecules are oriented at random. As a consequence in any volume containing large no.of molecules the net dipole moment is zero. When a polar molecule is exposed to an external electric field each of the molecular dipoles experiences a torque. As a result they tend to orient themselves in the direction of field.

- e. **Surface Charge Density** ( $\sigma_p$ ): Consider a rectangular slab of length  $l$  and area of cross-section  $A$  placed in an electric field. Let  $\sigma_p$  be the induced charge density. Then polarization  $p = \frac{\text{dipolemoment}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{\sigma_p Al}{Al} = \sigma_p$

i.e

The induced surface charge density is equal in magnitude to the polarization  $p$ .

- f. **Dielectric Constant (or relative permittivity):** The dielectric constant also called relative permittivity is defined as
- $$k = \epsilon_r = \frac{\text{Electric field in a region without the dielectric}}{\text{Electric field with the dielectric.}}$$



Consider a dielectric slab placed in an electric field  $E_0$  the dielectric gets polarized. As a result an extra electric field  $E_p$  is developed. The resultant field  $E = E_0 - E_p$

The dielectric constant  $K = \frac{E_0}{E_0 - E_p} = \frac{E_0}{E}$  or the electric field within the

dielectric  $E = E_0 / K$  Hence dielectric constant of a material is the factor by which the electric field is reduced.

g. **Polarizability**:- The dipole moment induced in an atom is found to be proportional to the local electric field  $E_L$   $\mu \propto E_i \Rightarrow \mu = \alpha E_i$  The constant of proportionality  $\alpha$  is called the polarizability. If there are N molecules per unit volume the polarization of the solid

$$P = N\mu = N \alpha E_i$$

h. **Susceptibility**: Polarization per unit electric field is called electric susceptibility  $\chi_e = P / \epsilon_0 E$

**3. 1 Local or Internal Field :-** “The electric field which a dipole experiences in a medium is called the Local field or the internal field ( $E_1$ ) it is different from the externally applied field  $E_0$ ”

Consider a dielectric subjected to an external field  $E_0$  Imagine a small spherical cavity of radius r with its centre at the dipole chosen for consideration. The dipole experiences the following fields, in addition to the externally applied field  $E_0$ .

- The field  $E_1$  produced by charges on the specimen this is proportional to polarization P.
- The field  $E_2$  arising from dipoles inside the sphere. The value of  $E_2$  depends on the crystals  $E_2=0$
- The field  $E_3$ . It is due to polarization of charges on the surface of a fictitious cavity cut out of the specimen with reference atom as center it is called the Lorentz cavity field. Let us now calculate  $E_3$ . The cavity is cut out of the medium of polarization P. If  $\theta$  is the polar angle referred to the polarization direction, the surface charge density on the surface of the cavity is  $P \cos \theta$ . If ds is the area of the surface element the charge on the surface element is = (normal component of polarization) (area of the surface element) =  $P \cos \theta ds$

A test charge ‘q’ placed at the centre of the cavity experiences a force

$$\text{according to coulomb's law } dF = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2} = - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{q P \cos \theta ds}{r^2}$$

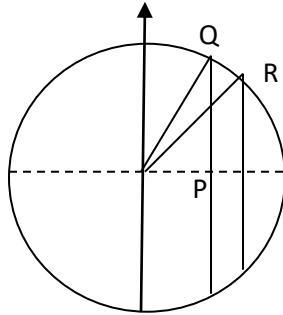
$$\text{According to coulomb's law } dE_3 = \frac{dF}{q} = - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{P \cos \theta ds}{r^2}$$

The electric field can be resolved into two components: One component along the direction of P and the other perpendicular to it. The perpendicular components cancel themselves out leaving only the horizontal ones.



The sum of all such components for the whole surface is given by

$$\int dE_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \int \frac{(P \cos \theta)(\cos \theta) ds}{r^2}$$



The surface area of the ring considered is given by  $ds = (2\pi r \sin \theta) r d\theta = 2\pi r^2 \sin \theta d\theta$ .

Substituting for  $ds$  and integrating between the limits 0 and  $\pi$  we get

$$E_3 = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \int_0^\pi \frac{P \cos^2 \theta}{r^2} 2\pi r^2 \sin \theta d\theta \rightarrow E_3 = \frac{P}{2 \epsilon_0} \int_0^\pi \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta$$

Let us now evaluate the above integral by putting

$\cos \theta = z$  then  $dz = -\sin \theta d\theta$

$$\text{then } E_3 = \frac{P}{2 \epsilon_0} \int_1^{-1} z^2 dz$$

$$\therefore E_3 = \frac{P}{3 \epsilon_0}$$

Total internal field may be expressed as  $E_1 = E_0 + E_1 + E_2 + E_3$

$$= E_0 + E_1 + E_3 \quad (E_2=0)$$

$$E_1 = E + \frac{P}{3\epsilon_0}$$

Since  $E_0$  &  $E_1$  act along the same line  $E_0 + E_1$  can be expressed by  $E$ .

### 3.2 Clausius – Mosotti equation:-

Let us consider now the simple case of an elemental solid dielectric which exhibits only electronic polarizability. If  $\alpha_e$  is the electronic polarizability per atom it is related to bulk polarization P through the relation  $P = N \alpha_e E_i$

$$\alpha_e = \frac{P}{NE_i} \Rightarrow \frac{P}{N[E + P/3\epsilon_0]} \quad \because E_i = E + P/3\epsilon_0$$

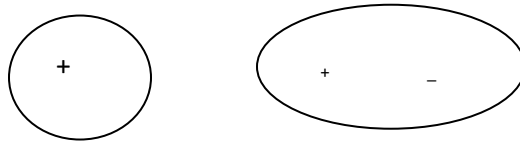
But  $P = \chi \epsilon_0 E$      $\chi = \epsilon_r - 1 \Rightarrow E = \frac{P}{\epsilon_0(\epsilon_r - 1)}$     using E value

$$\alpha_e = \frac{P}{N \left[ \frac{P}{\epsilon_0(\epsilon_r - 1)} + \frac{P}{3\epsilon_0} \right]} \Rightarrow \frac{N\alpha_e}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{1}{\left[ \frac{1}{\epsilon_r - 1} + \frac{1}{3} \right]} = \frac{1}{\left[ \frac{\epsilon_r + 2}{3(\epsilon_r - 1)} \right]}$$

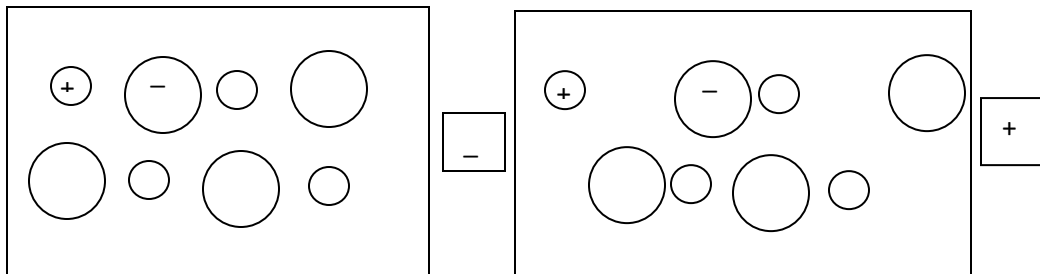
$$\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} = \frac{N\alpha_e}{3\epsilon_0} \quad \alpha_m = \frac{M}{\rho} \frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} = \frac{N\rho\alpha_e}{3\epsilon_0}$$

4. **Types of Polarization:-** Polarization is the process of inducing dipole moment in a molecule.

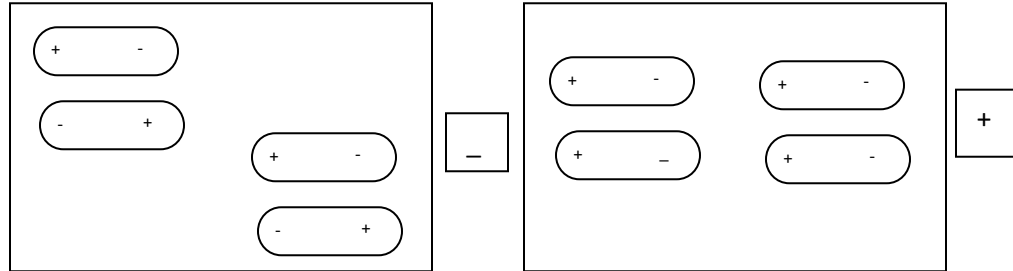
- i) **Electronic polarization ( $\alpha_e$ )** it is due to displacement of the negative electron cloud of each atom with respect to its nucleus. It occurs in all dielectrics without an external electric field where the centre of the positive charge and the centre of the negative distribution coincide. As such there is no dipole moment. When an external field is applied separation of the centers of negative and positive charges leads to development of dipole moment.



- ii) **Ionic Polarization ( $\alpha_i$ ):-** This occurs in ionic dielectrics like NaCl when such a material is subjected to opposite sign undergo displacement. This displacement causes an increase or decrease in the distance of separation between ions depending on their location. Such a separation leads to a net dipole moment.



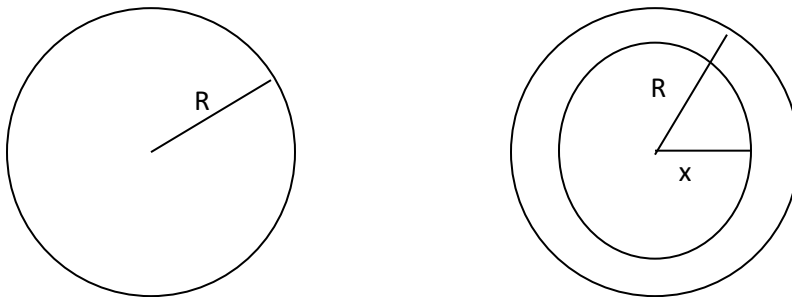
iii) **Orientation or Dipolar Polarization ( $\alpha_0/\alpha_d$ )** this type of polarization occurs in materials with polar molecules without external field the molecules are oriented at random. The material exhibits net zero dipole moment.



The total polarization  $\alpha$  of a material is given by the sum of the electric, ionic and dipolar polarizabilities.

$$\alpha = \alpha_e + \alpha_i + \alpha_0$$

**4.1 Electronic Polarizability :** Consider an atom in the absence of an external field. The centers of the positive and negative charges coincide leading to zero dipole moment. But when an external field  $E$  is applied the nucleus and the electron cloud will tend to move in opposite directions. However a force will develop between them which tends to drive the charges back to their normal positions. As a consequence an equilibrium is established in which the nucleus is displaced by an amount  $x$  relative to the electron cloud.



The force on the nucleus in the field direction is  $ZeE$ . The electron cloud can be imagined to be in two regions one inside a sphere of radius  $x$  and the other between two spherical surfaces of radii  $x$  and  $R$ . According to Gauss theorem, the charge in the second region does not exert a force on the nucleus. The negative charge inside the sphere of radius  $x$  only exerts a force of  $\frac{-Zex^3}{R^3}$  on the nucleus.

Applying coulomb's Law, the force between the nucleus and the negative charge within a sphere of radius x is given by

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{Ze(-Zex^3/R^3)}{x^2} \text{------(A)}$$

$$\text{But } F = ZeE \Rightarrow F = ZeE = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{Ze(-Zex^3)}{x^2} \Rightarrow x = -4\pi \epsilon_0 R^3 E / Ze$$

The resulting dipole moment  $\mu = Zex = 4\pi \epsilon_0 R^3 E$

The electronic polarizability  $\alpha_e = \frac{\mu e}{E} = -4\pi \epsilon_0 R^3$

**Ionic Polarizability ( $\alpha_i$ ):**- Expression for  $\alpha_i$ :- The ionic polarization is due to displacement of cations and anions in opposite directions in an ionic solid. If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are displacements of the positive and negative ions respectively the induced dipole moment per unit cell is

$$\mu = e(x_1 + x_2)$$

Restoring forces come into play due to these displacements under equilibrium conditions the resorting force  $F = K_1 x_1 = K_2 x_2$  ( $K_1, K_2$  are force constants)  $x_1 = F/K_1 = eE/m\omega_0^2$  ( $K_1 = m\omega_0^2$ ) ( $E$  applied field,  $m$  mass of the anion) For the cation of mass  $M$   $x_2 = F = eE/M\omega_0^2$

$$\text{The total displacement } x = x_1 + x_2 = \frac{eE}{\omega_0^2} \left( \frac{1}{M} + \frac{1}{m} \right)$$

$$\text{And } \mu = e(x_1 + x_2) = \frac{e^2 E}{\omega_0^2} \left( \frac{1}{M} + \frac{1}{m} \right)$$

$$\text{The ionic polarizability } \alpha_i = e^2 / \omega_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{M} + \frac{1}{m} \right)$$

Here  $\omega_0$  is the natural frequency of the ionic molecule for NaCl,  $\omega_0 \cong 10^{13} \text{ rad}^{-1}\text{s}$  i.e in the infrared region.

## Dipolar Polarizability ( $\alpha_d$ )

**Orientalional Polarization  $\alpha_d$  :-** Polar dielectrics exhibit orientational or dipolar polarizability. Even in the absence of the external electric field polar dielectrics exhibit dipole moment when exposed to an external field the field tries to align these dipoles along its direction. As a result orientational polarization takes place.

**Expresion for  $\alpha_d$  :-** when a molecule of dipole moment  $\mu$  is exposed to an electric field E. it acquires a potential energy

$$n(\theta)d\theta = A.2\pi \sin \theta d\theta \exp\left[\frac{\mu E \cos \theta}{KT}\right]$$

Where A is a constant

$$\text{The polarization is } Pd = N\bar{\mu} = N \int \frac{\mu \cos \theta 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta \exp\left[\frac{\mu E \cos \theta}{KT}\right]}{\int_0^{2\pi} 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta \exp\left[\frac{\mu E \cos \theta}{KT}\right]}$$

In the above equation N is the no. of dipoles per unit volume.

Let  $\cos \theta = x$  and  $\frac{\mu E}{KT} = a$

$$P = N\mu \frac{\int_{-1}^{+1} x e^{ax} dx}{\int_{-1}^{+1} e^{ax} dx} = N\mu \frac{d}{da} \ln \int_{-1}^{+1} dx = N\mu \left[ \frac{d}{da} \ln(e^a - e^{-a}) - \frac{d}{da} \ln a \right] = N\mu \left[ \coth a \frac{-1}{a} \right] = N\mu L(a)$$

L(a) is called the Langeving function

In practice  $a \approx 10^{-4}$  and  $L(a) \approx a/3$  so that

$$P_0 = N\mu \frac{\mu E}{3KT} = N\bar{\mu} \text{ where } \bar{\mu} \text{ is the average dipole moment in the diretions of the}$$

$$\text{field. The dipolar polarizability } \alpha_d = \frac{\bar{\mu}}{E} = \frac{\mu^2}{3KT}$$

**Dielectric strength:** It is defined as the ability of the dielectric material to with stand up to certain maximum applied voltage without suffering electric break down. It is expressed in volts per unit thickness of the insulator (Volt/meter) and it depend on moisture content of the material, temperature and pressure,.

## DIELECTRIC BREAKDOWN

A dielectric material can retain its insulating property, only when the electric field to which it is subjected to, is of ordinary strength, at which time it can effectively block the flow of current between the two electrodes in which it is bound. But, when the field strength becomes very high of the order of few million volts/meter they can no longer withstand the strong pulling force exerted by the electric field on the polarization charges. The charges are ripped apart from the parent molecules and get swept by the field resulting in a great surge of current through the material. The resistance offered by the material to the flow of current crashes, and it becomes a good conductor of electricity. This state of material is called dielectric breakdown.

The dielectric breakdown can be explained on the basis of energy band diagram. For dielectric material, the conduction band is completely empty, and the valance band is completely filled, and two are separated by a large energy gap( of the order of 3eV or more). Flow of current is possible only when the electrons are lifted to the conduction band. Since the energy gap is very large, it needs a very high voltage to energize electrons to jump the energy gap and enter into the conduction band. However, if this energy is achieved by applying a very high electric field, then all of a sudden a large number of electrons land up in conduction band, which also leave vacancies in the valance band, thus making conduction amenable in valance band too. Because of the sudden start of free flow of charges in the material, it is virtually turned into a good conductor and its ability to resist the flow of current breaks down.

Thus the dielectric breakdown is defined as follows

**"The dielectric breakdown is the state of dielectric material subjected to a very high electric field, under the influence of which, the electrons are lifted into the conduction band causing surge of current, and the ability of the material to resist the current flow suffers a breakdown".**

## DIELECTRIC STRENGTH

Each dielectric material is identified with its ability to withstand very high electric fields. In this regard, dielectric strength is defined as follows

**"Dielectric Strength is the maximum electric field that the dielectric material can withstand, without suffering electrical breakdown".**

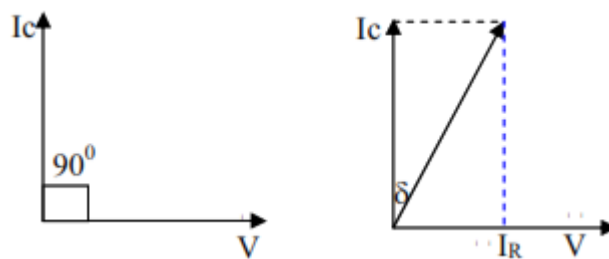
for example, we may note that the dielectric strength value for dry air is  $3 \times 10^6$  V/m at 1 atmospheric pressure.  $14 \times 10^6$  V/m for Pyrex glass,  $60 \times 10^6$  V/m for Teflon.

## DIELECTRIC LOSS

When a dielectric material is subjected to the influence of an electric potential, its constituent molecules come into a state of electrostatic stress due to polarization. The molecules behave as electric dipoles. if the

polarity of the applied voltage is reversed, the stress is also reversed, because of which the dipoles switch their orientation. In order to do so, the dipoles are required to overcome a sort of internal friction which involves a loss of energy. This occurs every time the switching or the realignment of dipole takes place. The energy loss due to friction is always dissipated as heat by the dielectric to the surroundings. This is termed as dielectric loss, and defined as

**" It is the loss of energy in the form of heat by a dielectric medium due to the internal friction developed as a consequence of switching action of molecular dipoles under certain a.c. conditions".**



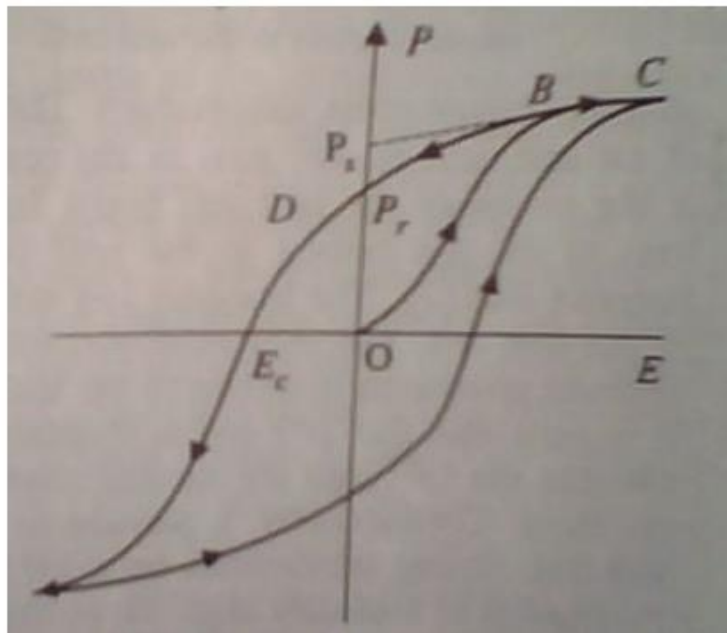
We Know that, when an alternating current flows through a resistor, the current  $I_R$  will be in phase with the applied voltage. But, when a capacitor is subjected to an alternating e.m.f., the current  $I_c$  flowing through the capacitor will lead the applied voltage by a phase angle of  $90^\circ$ . When an a.c. is applied across a capacitor with a dielectric, if  $I_R$  is the current through the equivalent resistance and  $I_c$  is that through capacitor then  $I_R$  is in phase with  $V$  and  $I_c$  leads  $V$  by  $90^\circ$ . The resultant of  $I_c$  and  $I_R$  is  $I$ . The angle between  $I$  and  $I_c$  is denoted by  $\delta$  and is called the dielectric loss angle.

### Ferroelectrics

Certain dielectrics exhibit electric dipole moment even in the absence of an external electric field i.e. they exhibit spontaneous polarization. The polarization Vs electric field curves exhibit hysteresis similar to the B-H curves of ferromagnetic materials, following the nomenclature in magnetism, such materials are called ferroelectrics. Some such materials are  $BaTiO_3$ ,  $LiNbO_3$ ,  $KNbO_3$  KDP ( $K_2PO_4$ ) and ADP ( $NH_4 H_2 PO_4$ )

### Properties of ferroelectrics:-

- 1) They exhibit spontaneous polarization
- 2) Spontaneous polarization vanishes above a particular temperature ( $T_c$ ) called Curie temperature.
- 3) In the ferroelectric region i.e. below  $T_c$  the dielectric constant depends on the field strength i.e. it is no longer constant.
- 4) Above the Curie temperature, the dielectric constant varies with temperature according to the relation  $K = \frac{C}{T - \theta}$  where  $C$  and  $\theta$  are constants.
- 5) Ferroelectrics exhibit piezoelectricity and pyroelectricity.
- 6) Ferroelectrics exhibit hysteresis when an electric field is applied to a virgin specimen the polarization increases along the curve OABC when the field is reduced it is found that for  $E = 0$  certain amount of polarization called remanent polarization  $P_r$  is still present. In order to reduce the polarization to zero, a field in the opposite direction must be applied this field is called the coercive field ( $E_c$ )



7. There is an intimate relationship between the ferroelectric properties and the atomic arrangements. This can be illustrated by taking  $\text{BaTiO}_3$  as an example. The cubic unit cell of barium titanate crystal will have Barium ions at the corners and the oxygen anions are at face centers the titanium ion is in the octahedral void at the body centre. Above  $120^\circ \text{C}$  barium titanate is a cubic crystal. In this state the centers of the negative and the positive charges coincide. There is no spontaneous dipole moment.



If the crystal is cooled below 120°C the titanium ions shift to one side of the body centre. Neighboring oxygen anions also get shifted. The crystal changes from a cubic to a tetragonal structure.

The centers of the positive and negative charges no longer coincide i.e. local dipoles are created.

**Applications of Ferroelectrics:**

1. Manufacture of capacitors: Because of high value of the dielectric constant, they are used to manufacture small sized capacitors of large capacitances.
2. Memory devices: Making use of the hysteresis, they can be used as memory devices in computers.
3. Piezoelectric transducers to produce and detect sound waves.
4. Pyroelectric transducers to produce and to detect infrared radiation
5. Electromechanical filters.

## Assignment –cum- tutorial questions

### Section : A (Objective Questions)

- The polarization that depends on the volume of the atom
  - Electronic polarization
  - Ionic polarization
  - Orientalional polarization
  - Space charge polarization
- \_\_\_\_\_ molecules tend to orient themselves in an external electric field.
- Identify a dielectric material
  - Silicon
  - Tin
  - Rubber
  - Mica
- The temperature dependent polarization is
  - Electronic polarization
  - Ionic polarization
  - Orientalional polarization
  - All the above
- Dielectric Strength of a material is
  - the capacity to take two or more stress
  - the capacity with stand higher voltages
  - the capacity to withstand electrical mechanical shocks
  - none
- Choose the best insulator
  - $\text{SiO}_2$
  - PVC
  - Bakelite
  - Porcelain
- All insulators are dielectrics. (T/F)
- Any insulator stores electric charge. (T/F)
- In polar dielectrics, the dipoles align in single direction after switching off the external field. (T/F).
- How does the capacitance of a capacitor vary on introduction of dielectric?
  - Increases
  - No changes
  - Decreases
  - None

### Section B: (Subjective Questions)

- Show that in a dielectric, the local field experienced by an atom is greater than the applied field.
- What are the differences between insulators and dielectrics?
- Define Dielectric strength, Dielectric loss.
- Derive the relation between dielectric constant and susceptibility.
- Derive Clausius - Mossotti equation.
- What is the temperature dependent polarization? Write the relation.
- What are the differences between polar and non polar dielectrics?
- Derive an expression for electronic polarizability in dielectrics.
- Show that the ionic polarizability varies inversely with the frequency of vibrating molecule.

### Section C : (Additional Questions)

- The parallel plates of a capacitor have an area of  $1 \times 10^{-1} \text{m}^2$  each and are  $1 \times 10^{-2} \text{m}$  apart. A thin insulating plastic sheet is inserted between the capacitor plates. The potential difference drops to 1.00 kV between the plates whereas the charge on each plate remains constant. Calculate

- a. Original capacitance
  - b. Magnitude of charge “q” on each plate
  - c. The capacitance ‘C’ after the dielectric is introduced.
  - d. Dielectric constant and permittivity.
2. If an electric field of magnitude  $10^2 \text{N/C}$  introduces a displacement of  $1.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{m}$  between the electron cloud and the nucleus, what is the electronic polarisability thus in the material having an atomic number  $Z$ ?
  3. A monatomic gas contains  $3 \times 10^{25}$  atoms/ $\text{m}^3$  at 1 atmospheric pressure and at room temperature. The radius of gaseous atoms is 0.2 nm. Find the dipole moment per unit electric field, polarization, dielectric constant and polarizability.
  4. The polarisability of Ne gas is  $0.35 \times 10^{-40} \text{F m}^2$ . If the gas contains  $2.7 \times 10^{25}$  atoms  $\text{m}^{-3}$  at  $0^\circ \text{C}$  and 1 atmospheric pressure, calculate its relative dielectric constant.