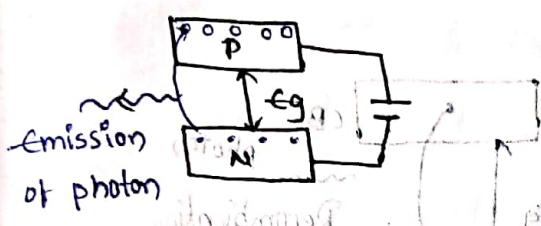
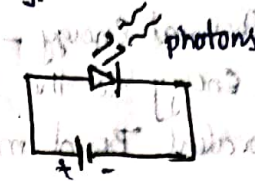


UNIT-III: Opto Electronics Date: / /

- Opto: Which are using the light energy.
- Electronics: Deals the working of devices.

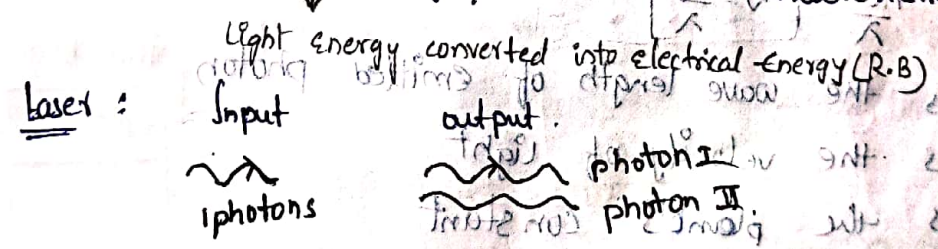
light energy $\xrightarrow{\text{converted}}$ electrical energy.

LED light emitting diode
works under FB
(Forward Bias)



Syllabus

- Radiative and Non-radiative recombination mechanism in semiconductor
- LED and Semiconductor lasers: Device structure, Materials, characteristics and figures of merit
- S.C photo detectors: Solar cell, PIN and Avalanche & their structure, materials, Working principle and characteristics

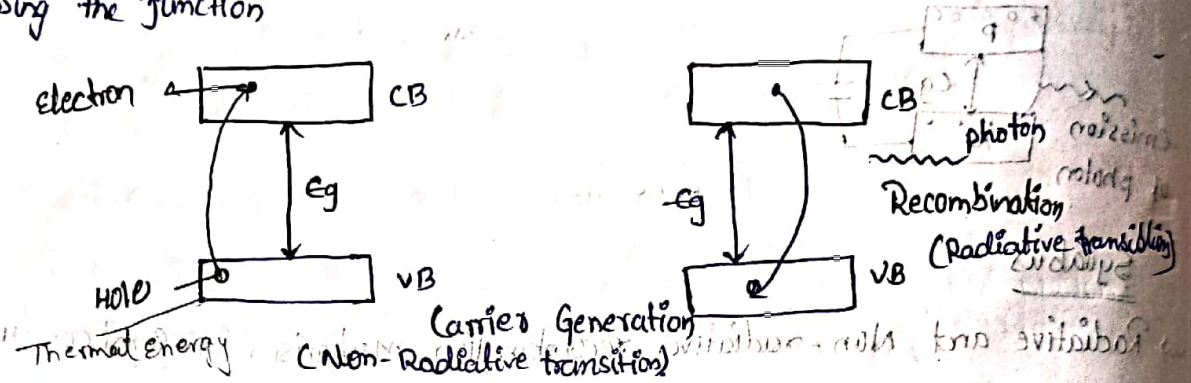


→ Radiative and non-Radiative :-

Q) What is Radiative & non-Radiative Recombination mechanism in s.c?

→ In s.c Breaking of covalent Bond leads to the Generation of 2 charge carriers i.e e^- -hole pair Generation. this process may be Represented as $(\text{Covalent Bond} + \text{Thermal energy}) \rightarrow (\text{Electron} + \text{Hole}) \text{ pair}$

→ By given the thermal energy to the s.c covalent bond is Broken & The e^- 's is released from the covalent Bond moving like a free e^- & recombine with the hole (by crossing the junction)



Condition :- $E_g = h\nu$

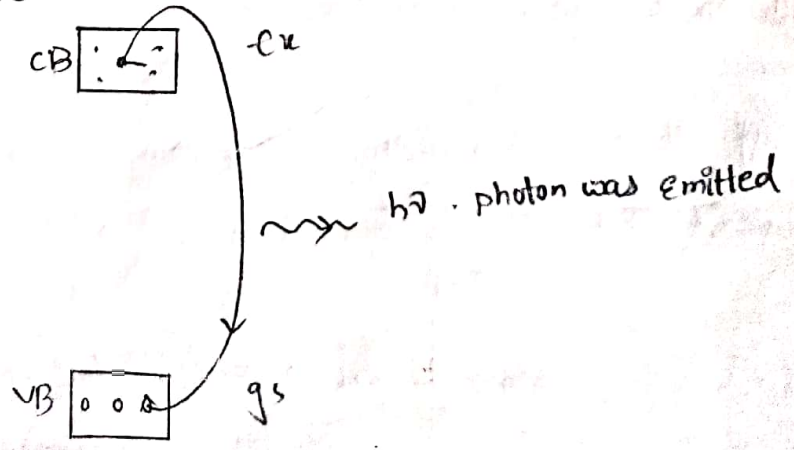
where E_g is known as Energy gap, $h\nu$ is the energy of emitted photon

$$\therefore E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \left[\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \right]$$

- λ is the wave length of emitted photon
- c is the velocity of light
- h is the planck's constant

⇒ E_g values are 1.4 eV to 3 eV [depending on the type of the diode E_g values changes]

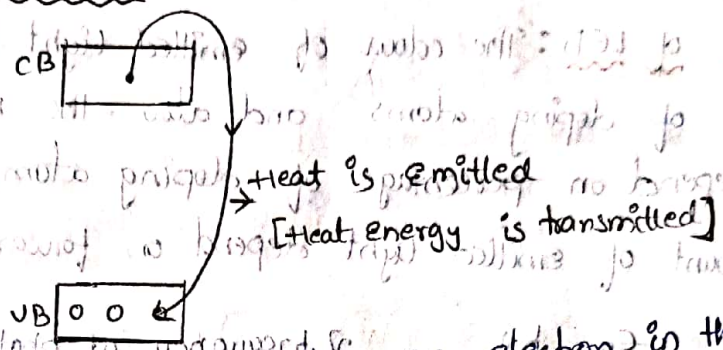
⇒ Radiative Recombination :-



→ Radiative Recombination Occurs when an electron in the conduction Band Recombines with a hole in the valency Band and the excess is emitted in the form photon.

(In recombination process if there exist a emission of photon it is known as Radiative Recombination)

Non-Radiative Recombination:-



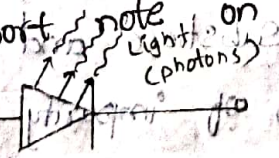
→ Non-Radiative Recombination occurs when an electron in the CB recombines with a hole in the VB and the excess in energy is transmitted (in the form of heat) in the S.C. crystal lattice.

(In recombination process only heat is transmitted to the S.C. crystal is known as non-radiative Recombination)

- Note 1 :-
- 1) Spontaneous Emission & Stimulated Emission is case of laser diode is known as Radiative Recombination Process
 - 2) In Hetro junction Diode laser there exist a leakage of current due to heat energy transmitted to the crystal. This is the phenomenon of non-radiative recombination.

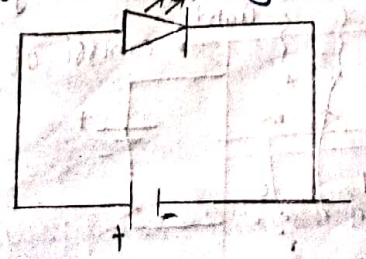
Q) What is LED? write short note on construction & working of LED

LED:



Light emitting Diode: which converts the electrical energy into light energy

→ LED works under forward Biasing condition.



→ NOTE:- The Amount of light emitted by the LED under forward bias in condition is directly proportional to forward current (I_f)

→ Fabrication of LED:- It is fabricated by using 3rd (III)-IV compo-und semiconductors such as Ga, As which have direct bonding

→ Ga (which is direct band gap s-c), $Ga_xAs_{1-x}P$ (Gallium arsenite phosphite), GaP (Gallium phosphid)

→ Out Put of LED: The colour of emitted light by the LED is depend on Percentage of doping atoms and also the wave length of emitted light is also depend on percentage of doping atoms.

→ The Amount of emitted light depend on forward current (I_f)

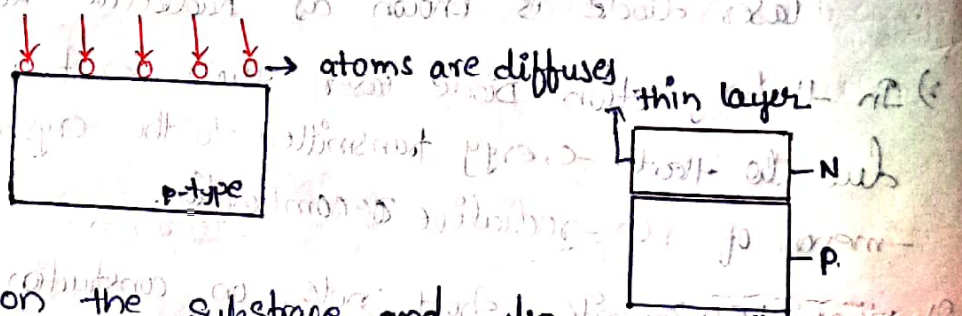
-Equation:- $E_g = h\nu$ ν frequency of photon.

$E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$ $\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$ λ wavelength of emitted photon

$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$ E_g - energy gap (eV)

Construction:-

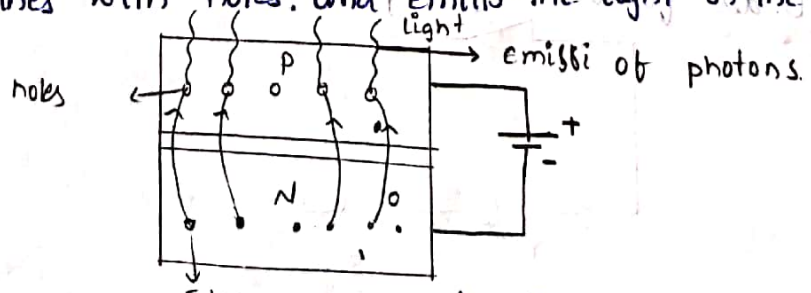
Diffusion method:



→ n-layer is grown on the substrate and also p-layer is grown which is contact by diffusion of impurity atoms p & n layers are developed

Working:-

→ electrons Recombines with holes and emits the light in the form of photons



LED under Forward Bias

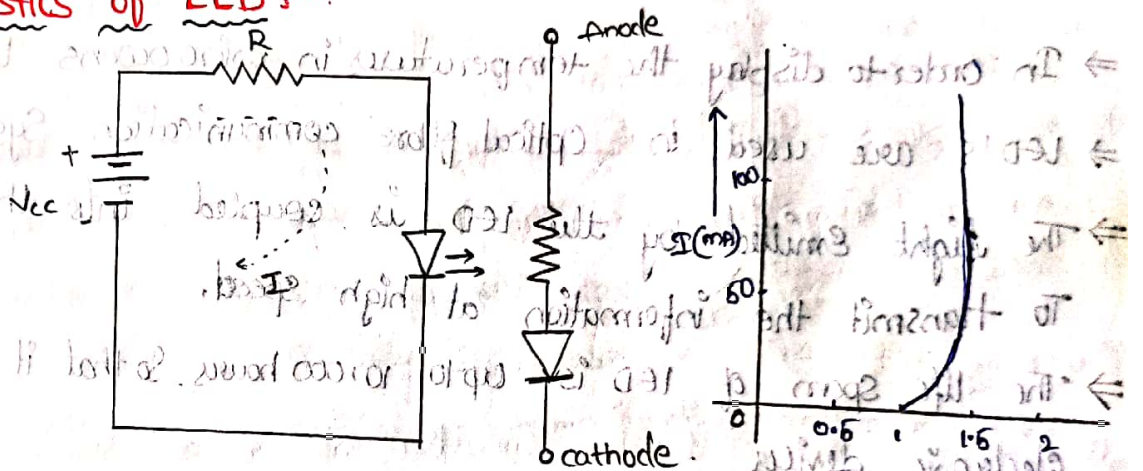
LED is always forward Bias to give the out put in the form of photons - the light energy is released at the junction when the recombination of e^- 's with holes takes place.

The difference of energy in case of e^- 's which are recombine with the holes, is radiated in the form of light energy

NOTE:- (i) in ordinary diodes the difference of energy in case of electron hole recombination is radiated in the form of heat.

(ii) Ordinary diode works under forward & Reverse Bias but LED works under forward bias in condition only.

V-I characteristics of LED:-



→ The out put is constant emitted by the LED is depend on input voltage & current supplied to the diode.

→ The intensity of the light is depend on magnitude of forward current (I_f)

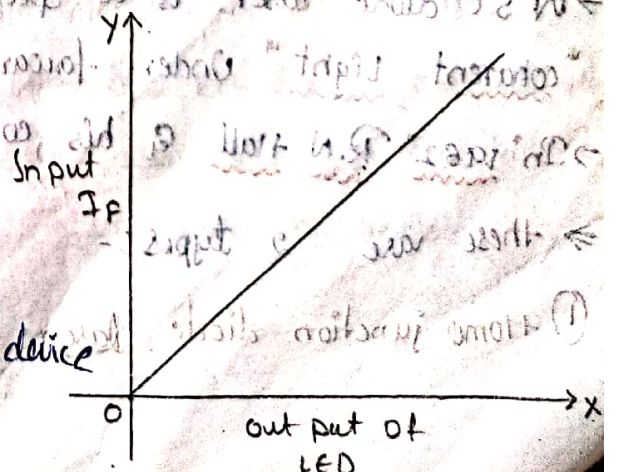
→ The break down voltage of LED is different as compare to normal diode [voltage drop $V_D = 1.5V$ to $2.5V$] current = $10mA$ to $50mA$

→ LED's are not able with stand Reverse Bias of even very small voltages. for this Reason it is necessary to Assure that Reverse bias is never applied to an LED

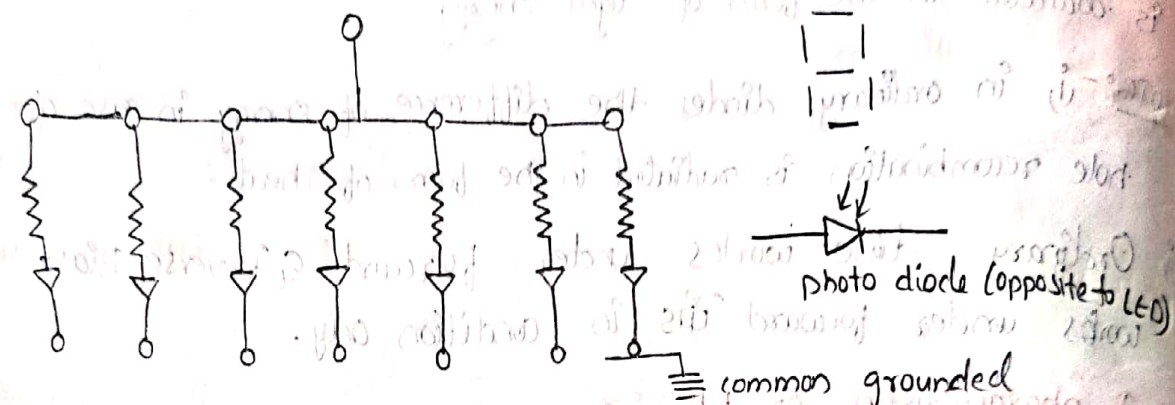
Applications of LED:-

→ LED used Burglars Alarm which make emits light in IR region

→ LED can be used as indicator whether the device is in on (i) off condition.



- CRT'S are replaced By LED'S is solid state video display.
- LED'S can be used in display segment
- In order to display the number [< numeric] LED'S are used in Seven Segment display.



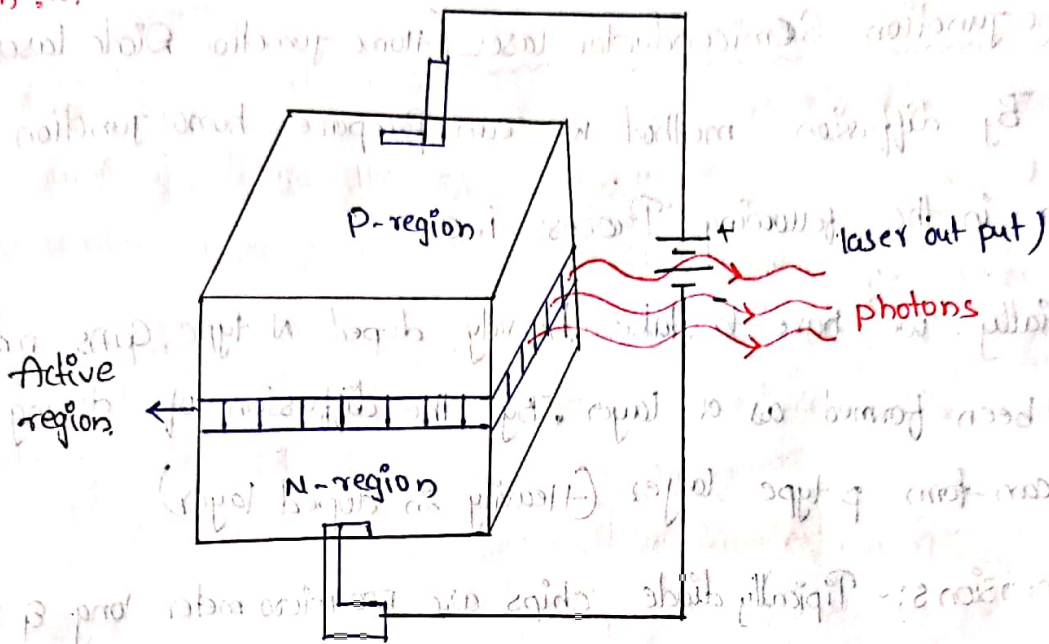
- ⇒ In order to display the temperatures in microovens LED are used
- ⇒ LED'S are used in Optical fibre communication System.
- ⇒ The light emitted by the LED is coupled into the optical fibre To transmit the information at high speed.
- ⇒ The life span of LED is upto 10,000 hours. So that it can be used in electronic devices
- ⇒ With nano second there exist a out put from the LED so that LED operatio - n quick process. It is used to transfer the energy one circuit to another

Semiconductor laser :- (Semiconductor Diode laser)

- what is Semiconductor laser? write a note on construction & working of S.C laser with necessary diagrams what are the applications of S.C laser
- ⇒ A S.C diode laser is a specially made p-n junction diode that emits "coherent light" Under forward bias
- ⇒ In "1962" R.N Hall & his co-workers made the first S.C laser
- ⇒ these are 2 types :-
- ① Homo junction diode laser :- p-n materials prepared from same material.

② Hetero junction diode lasers - p & n materials prepared from different materials

Construction :-



- ⇒ Semiconductor laser is also called as diode laser.
- ⇒ The light emitting diodes are basically s.c laser.
- ⇒ Semiconductor lasers are classified as homo junction semiconductor laser & hetero junction s.c laser.
- ⇒ GaAs is well known Example of direct band gap Semiconductor so that GaAs Semiconductor diode laser having the important applications

Construction of semiconductor laser :-

As shown in the above figure, the p-type & n-type materials are prepared by adding suitable dopant elements.

The shaded Area is known as "depletion layer" (Active region)

The thickness of the depletion layer is usually very small (0.1 micrometers)

To obtain the laser action, the end phases are polished flat & parallel. The other two phases are left unpolished to suppress the Oscillation

Working of Semiconductor Laser (Working of GaAs laser) (or) (Homojunction S.C laser)

⇒ Homojunction Semiconductor Laser (Homojunction Diode Laser)

By diffusion method we can prepare homojunction S.C laser in the following process i.e.

i) Initially we have to take heavily doped N-type GaAs material it has been formed as a layer. By the diffusion of doping atoms we can form p-type layer (Heavily Zn doped layer)

ii) Dimensions: Typically diode chips are 500 micro meter long & 100 micro meter wide & thick the top & bottom phases are metallised to connect to the Battery terminals

Working:-

i) Under forward Biasing condition electrons are injected from N-region to p-region & also holes are injected from p-region to N-region, so that the "population inversion" was achieved, it is necessary for the laser.

Operation (for emission of out put from laser)

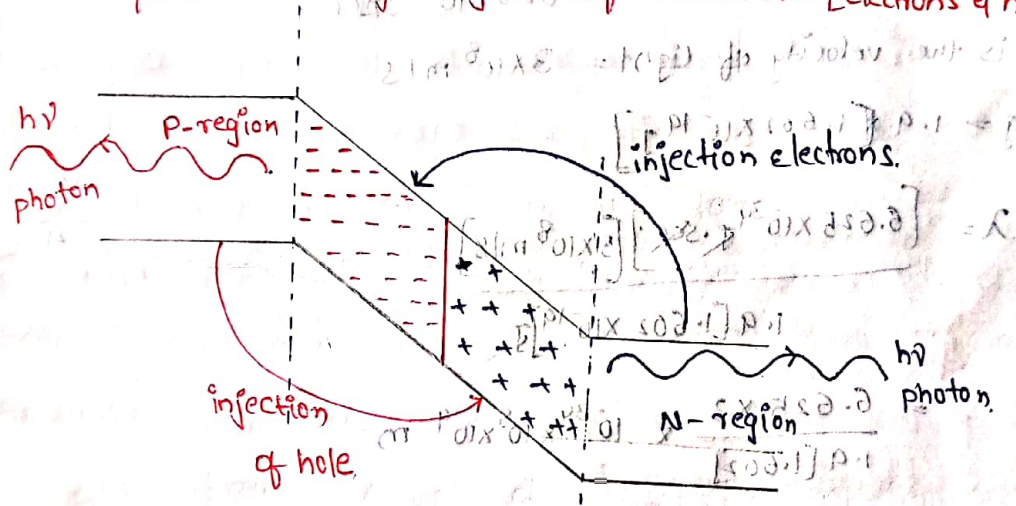
ii) In Order to achieve the population inversion pumping mechanism is required. In case of S.C laser electrical pumping mechanism was used

iii) The e^- s & holes recombine & releases the light energy in the form of photons that is known as out put of the S.C laser.

Recombination of electron with hole:-

When electron recombine with the hole the excessive energy is emitted in the form of photon. \ominus

- Under forward biasing condition there exist a more recombinations. So that more no. of photons are emitted as output
- Due to the external voltage the recombination takes place in case of minority charge carriers also.
- The operation point of Semiconductor laser is controlled by input voltage
- The intensity of light depend on the input voltage
- **Schematic Representation of Injection of carriers:- [electrons & holes]**



Applications of Semiconductor diode laser:-

- S.C lasers are the cheapest & smallest lasers so that they are employed in various speed fields [S.C lasers occupies less space, small in size so that they are preferable]
- The light emitted from the semiconductor laser can be used as input for the optical fibre in modern communication field can be
- In order to launch the light in electronic circuits, S.C lasers are used
- In order to read the data which is in the analog form (or) in binary form, S.C lasers are used.
- S.C laser emits the light in the range of UV region & IR region used in detecting circuits.

→ S.c lasers are employed in computer field.

Problems:- Based on:- $E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$, $E_g = h\nu$
 $\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$

Q) A light emitting diode is made up of GaAs p having a band gap of 1.9 eV determine the wavelength & colour of Radiation emitted.

Sol: Given: $E_g = 1.9 \text{ eV}$

Let λ be the wavelength of emitted hole

$$\text{Formula } \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

n Planck's constant $h = 6.625 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}$

c is the velocity of light = $3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

$$E_g = 1.9 [1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}]$$

$$\lambda = \frac{[6.625 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}] [3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}]}{1.9 [1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}]}$$

$$= \frac{6.625 \times 3}{1.9 [1.602]} \times 10^{-34} \times 10^8 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}$$

$$= \frac{6.625 \times 3}{1.9 [1.602]} \times 10^{-7}$$

$$\lambda = 6.529 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 6.529 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} \times \frac{10^3}{10^3}$$

$$\lambda = 6.529 \times 10^3 \times 10^{-10}$$

$$\lambda = 6.529 \times 10^3 \text{ \AA} = 6529 \text{ \AA}$$

∴ The colour of Radiation (out put of the laser is in red colour)

Q) calculate the wave length of emission from GaAs diode laser, if the band gap in GaAs is 1.44 eV

$$\rightarrow E_g = 1.44 \text{ eV}$$

$$= 144 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{6.625 \times 10^{-34} \times 3 \times 10^8}{1.44 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$= \frac{6.625 \times 3}{1.44 \times 1.602} \times 10^{-34+8+19}$$

$$= 8.6155 \times 10^7 \text{ m} \times \frac{10^{-3} \text{ m}}{10^{-3} \text{ m}}$$

$$\lambda = 8.6155 \times 10^{30} \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 8.6155 \times 10^3 \text{ A}^\circ$$

Q) The InGaAsP diode laser has peak emission wavelength of 1.55 μm .
determine its Band Gap.

Sol: $\lambda = 1.55 \mu\text{m}$
 $= 1.55 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$

$$E_g = hc/\lambda$$

$$E_g = \frac{6.625 \times 10^{-34} \times 3 \times 10^8}{1.55 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= \frac{6.625 \times 3}{1.55} \times 10^{-34+8+6}$$

① is a group of 12.822 $\times 10^{20}$ joules \rightarrow ②

Generally E_g was expressed in eV. This is indicated with the help of ① \rightarrow ②

1 eV = 1.6023 $\times 10^{-19}$ joules

$$-1 \text{ joule} = \frac{1}{1.6023 \times 10^{-19}} \text{ eV} \rightarrow \text{②}$$

$$\therefore E_g = 12.822 \times 10^{20} \times \frac{1}{1.6023 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$E_g = 0.8002 \text{ eV}$$

- Semiconductor photodetectors:-

→ These are the devices that absorb optical energy (light energy) and convert it into electrical energy.

→ The operation of photodetectors is based on the "internal photo electric effect".

characteristics of photodetectors:-

→ The maximum photocurrent flows when each incident photon produces one electron hole pair contributing to the photo current.

→ photo current depends on absorption of photons recombination electron hole pair surface area of the light incident region.

* What is solar cell? write a note on construction and working of solar cell? what are the v-I characteristics and applications of solar cell?

The cell which converts light energy into electrical energy is known as "solar cell".

→ solar cell is also known as "photo voltaic cell", which converts solar energy into electrical energy.

→ History of solar cell:

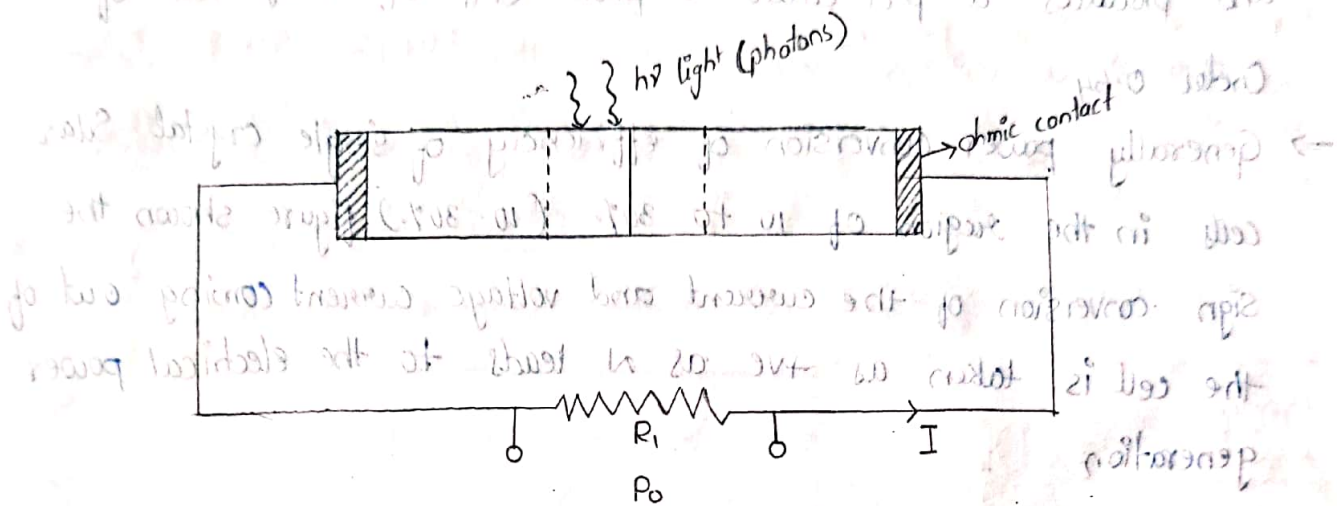
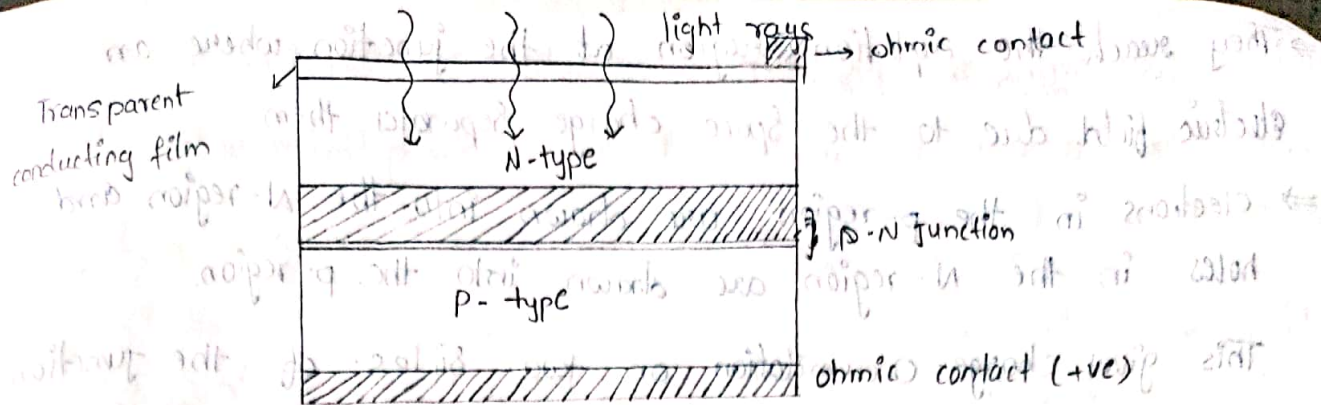
→ In 1839, "Edmond Becquerre" french scientist built the world's first solar cell based on photo voltaic effect.

construction:-

→ with the help of p-type and n-type layers prepared from a Si or Ge are fabricated into a solar cell.

→ By attaching the ohmic contacts to p-type and n-type layers

solar cell was constructed.



⇒ The schematic diagram of solar cell is shown in the above figure. It consists p-type chip and which a thin layers of N-type materials is grown by diffusion method.

Notes:-

- ⇒ p- layers prepared with dopant atoms Boron atoms added to Si crystal water.
- ⇒ n- type layer was prepared by adding phosphorus atoms to Si- crystal water.

Working:-

- ⇒ It consists of a p-type chip on which a thin layer of N-type material is grown
- when the solar radiation is incidented on the cell electron hole pairs are generated in the N & P region

⇒ They reach the depletion region at the junction where an electric field due to the space charge separates them.

⇒ electrons in the p-region are drawn into the n-region and holes in the n-region are drawn into the p-region.

This gives charge accumulation on two sides of the junction and produces a p.d called a photo EMF of magnitude of

Order 0.5V

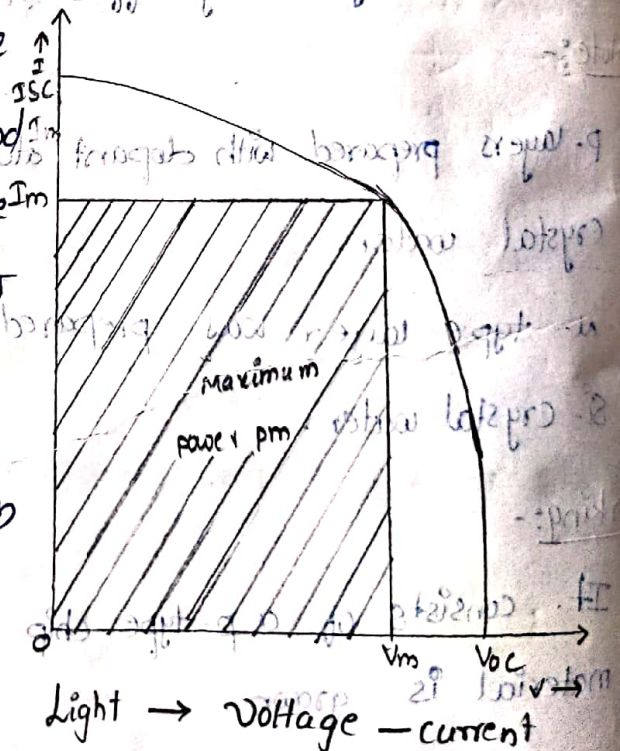
⇒ Generally power conversion efficiency of single crystal solar cells in the region of 10 to 30%. (10-30%) figure shown the sign conversion of the current and voltage current coming out of the cell is taken as +ve as it leads to the electrical power generation

⇒ The power generator depends on solar cell itself and the load connected to it

V-I characteristics of Solar cells:-

* The open circuit voltage across the illuminated cell at zero current and the short circuit current (I_{sc}) is the current through the illuminated cell if the voltage across the cell is zero.

* The short circuit current is close to the photocurrent while the open circuit voltage is close to the turn on voltage of the diode.



* The maximum power is attained at V_m (maximum voltage) with I_m (maximum current)

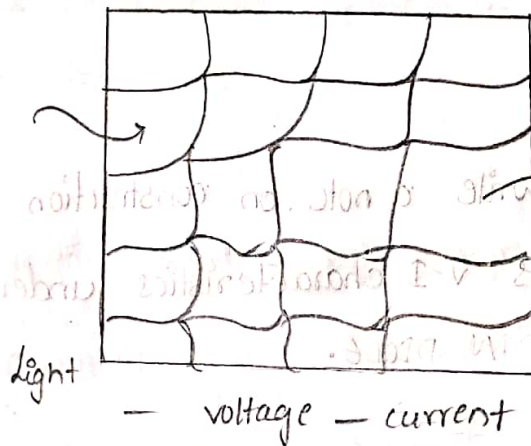
$$\text{Maximum power} \cdot P_m = I_m \cdot V_m \text{ --- (1)}$$

$$P = IV$$

* Solar cell can be connected in parallel (or) series into solar panels, which can deliver power output of several kilowatts.

* Conversion efficiency of solar cell is defined as

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Electrical power delivered}}{\text{Solar power received (or) incident}}$$



Note:-

Single crystal solar cell has efficiency of 30% only.

Applications of solar cell in various fields:-

a) Industrial applications:-

cathode protection to prevent corrosion of pipelines.

b) Space applications:

Solar cells are used in satellites and space vehicles to supply to electronic and charge storage batteries.

c) Ocean navigation aids:-

Number of light houses are powered by solar cells.

d) Teli communication Systems:-

Radio trans Receivers on - Mountain tops. Low telephone boxes are powered by Solar cells.

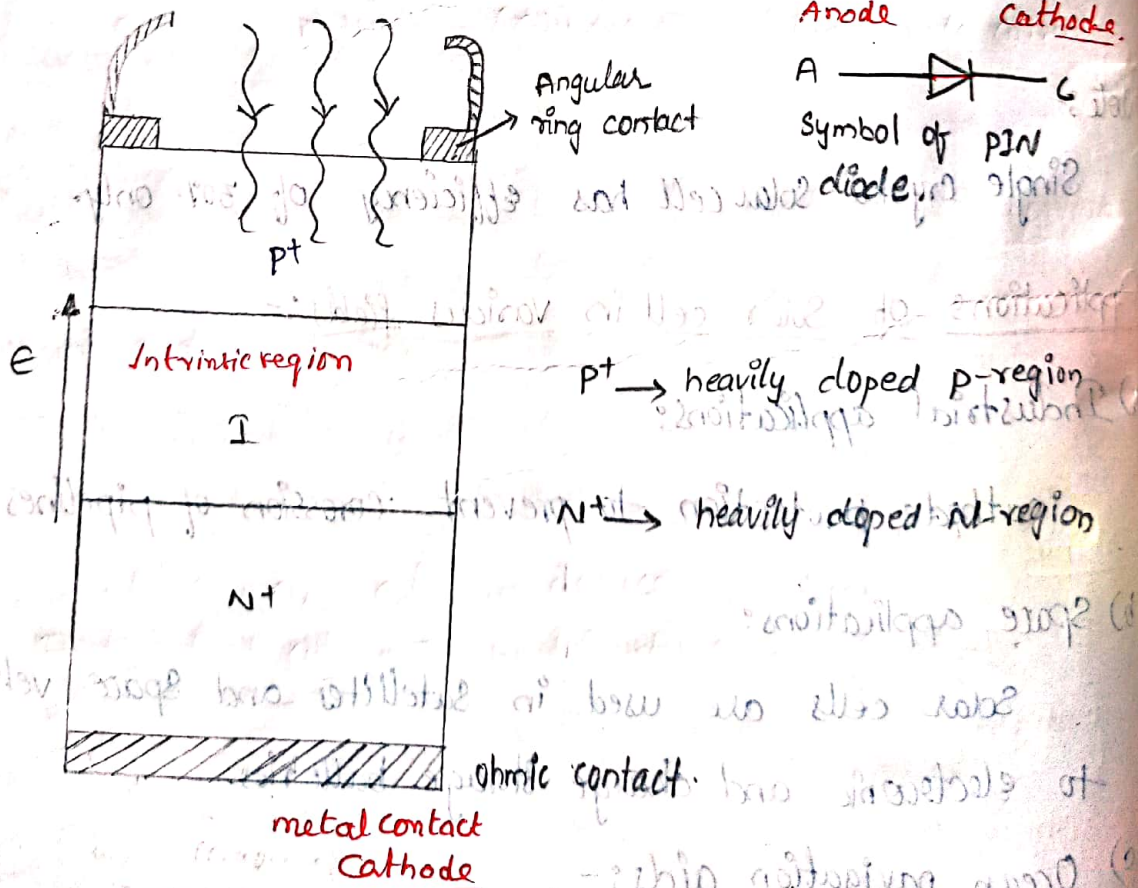
e) Social applications:-

electrical power to the remoted villages was provided with the help of solar panels (pv power water pumps, pv powered refrigerators, washing machines) Solar cells are used to supply the power to the calculators to the wrist watches.

Solar cells are used to provide commercial electricity.

PIN DIODE

What is PIN diode? write a note on construction and working of PIN diode what are its v-I characteristics under biasing conditions write the applications of PIN DIODE.



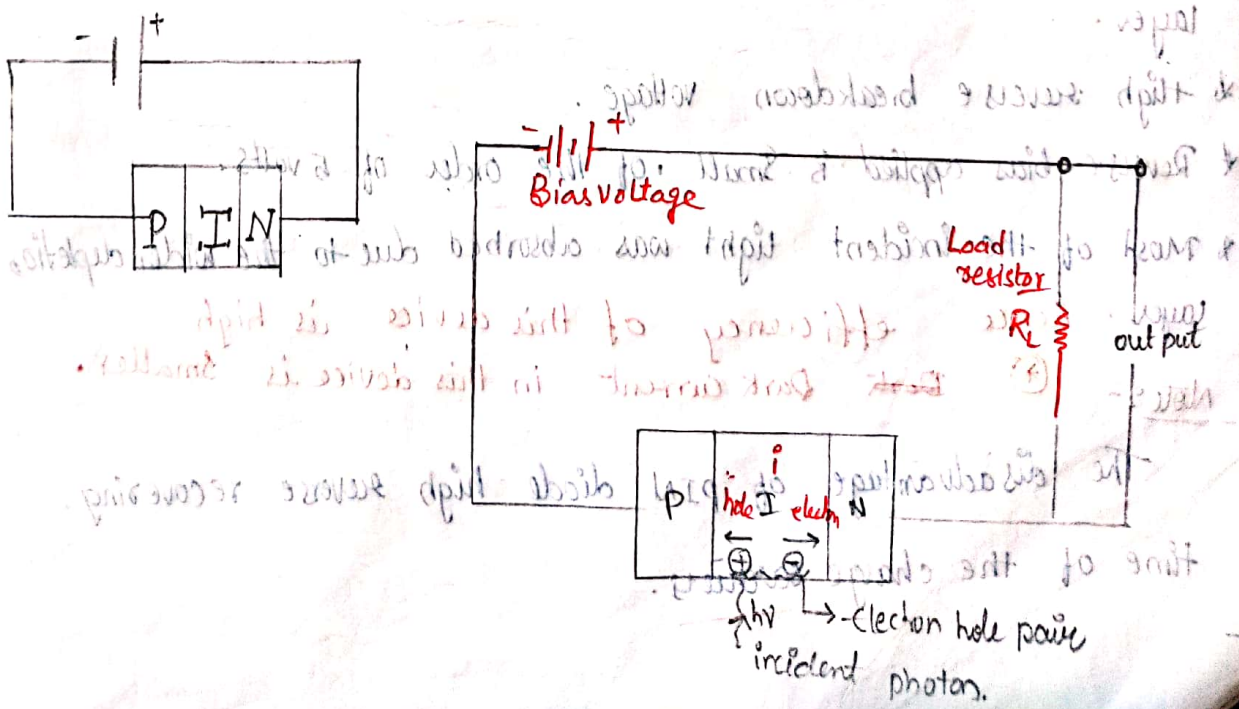
- * PIN diode is known as positive intrinsic negative diode.
- * It consists of p & n regions separated by an intrinsic region
- * p & n regions are heavily doped because they are used for ohmic contact attachment and intrinsic region is very lightly doped.
- * PIN diodes are usually made up of silicon (Gallium Arsenide is also to be used)
- * PIN diode structure is planar structure in this structure epitaxial film is grown on substrate material and p-region is introduced by diffusion method.

Note:-

Thickness of the intrinsic layer is about 10 microns - 200 microns.

Working of PIN Diode:-

It works under reverse biasing condition (p-region is connected to -ve terminal & n-region was connected to +ve terminal)



- * The light is allowed to incident on intrinsic region then electron hole pairs are created in the depleted intrinsic region.
- * The high electric field in the depletion region causes the free carriers to separate and move across the reverse bias junction.
- * This gives rise to a current flow in the external circuit.

V-I characteristics:-

- * There exists a reverse break down voltage due to intrinsic layer.
- * There exist a low level of capacitance when it is in forward bias.
- * There exists a low level of carrier storage in forward bias.
- * Under reverse biasing condition, there exists a greater separation of P & N regions.

Applications:-

- * Used as high voltage rectifiers (due to intrinsic region it is possible).
- * PN diode makes an Ideal RF Switch (Radio frequency switch).
- * It can be used as photo detector. (Conversion of light into current)

Advantages:-

- * Reverse bias need not be varied to change the width of the depletion layer.
- * High reverse breakdown voltage.
- * Reverse bias applied is small, of the order of 5 volts.
- * Most of the incident light was absorbed due to the wide depletion layer. hence efficiency of this device is high.

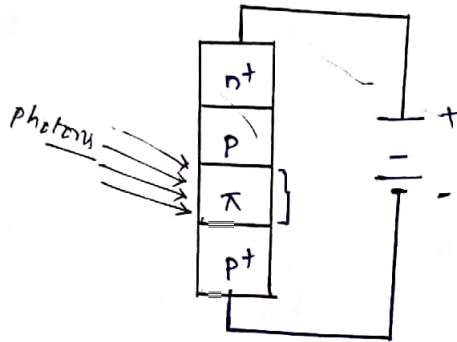
Note:- * ~~Dark~~ Dark current in this device is smaller.

The disadvantage of PIN diode high reverse recovering time of the charge carriers.

Avalanch photodiode (APD):-

⇒ The number of carriers multiplies in Geometrical progression and this phenomenon is called -Avalanch effect. It has been observed in case avalanch photo diode

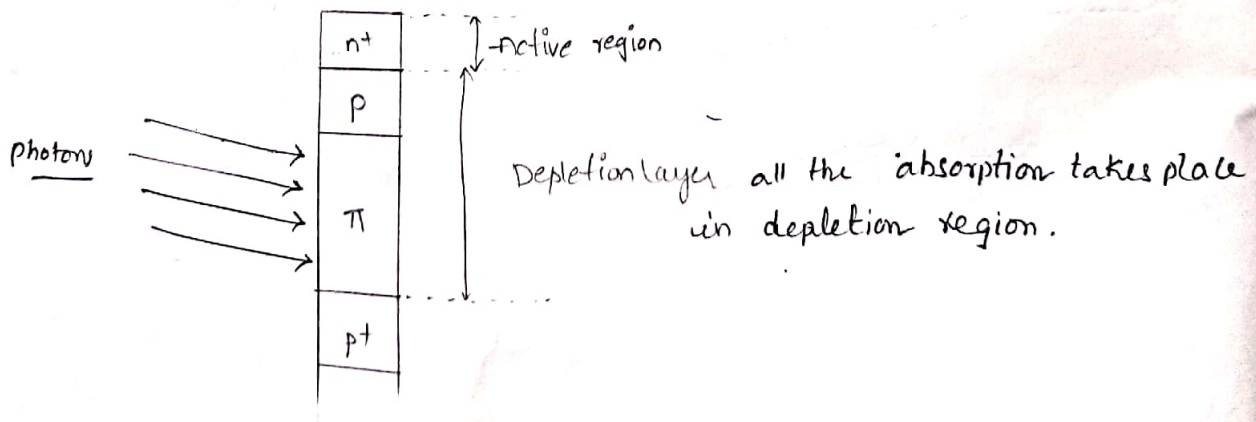
⇒ -Avalanch → Suddenly more no. of charge carriers released, it is in Reverse Biased.



APD:- APD is highly sensitive semiconductor electronic device that exploits the photo electric effect to convert light into electricity ~~is~~ thought of as photodetector that provide a built in - first stage of gain through avalanche multiplication.

Structure and construction of APD:-

it has $p^+ \pi p n^+$ configuration of different layers



p^+ - heavily doped p region.

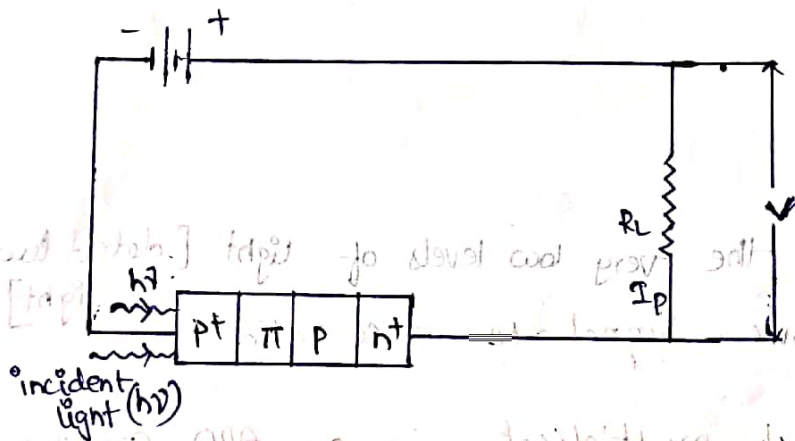
- π region very lightly doped region (~~It can be an n-type material make a low resistance contact~~)
- n^+ region heavily doped n-region

The materials used for the preparation of APD is Si, Ge, crystal &

III - V group compounds

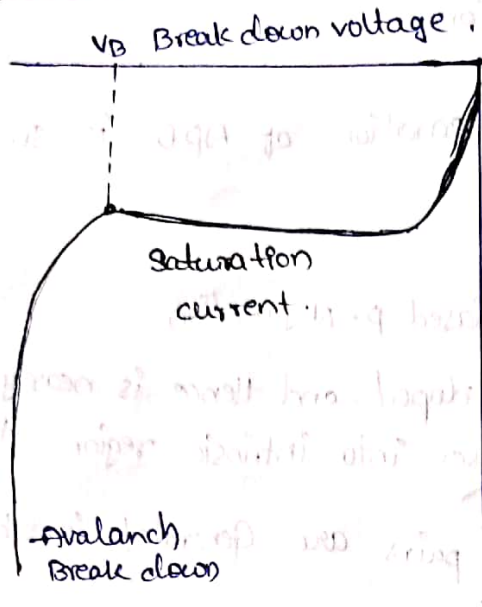
- The device is essentially reverse biased p-n junction
- The π region is very lightly doped and hence is nearly intrinsic. Most of the incident light passes into intrinsic region through the p^+ region so that electron hole pairs are generated in the intrinsic region (π -region)

Workings



- In the RB most of the applied voltage drops across the p^+n^+ region (junction). By increasing the Reverse Bias voltage the depletion region across this junction widens. [width increases]
- In this condition the internal field intensity near the junction becomes very high and the junction approaches the break down condition. therefore electrons & holes generated in the depletion layer. they acquire sufficient energy from the field. to liberate secondary electrons & holes. with in the layer by a process of impact ionization.
- The newly generated carriers also accelerated by the high electric field, thus gaining enough energy. to cause further impact ionisation.

V-I characteristics:-



- There exist a sudden change in the current after the break down voltage
- The sudden change in the current is due to liberation of more no. of electron hole pairs

Application of APD:-

- 1) photo detector
- 2) it is used to identify the very low levels of light [detect low level of light]
- (3) APD Can Improve Signal-to-noise ratio

Increasing avalanche multiplication in an APD can improve the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of an optical receiver as long as the APD noise is less than the preamplifier noise floor.

LASERS

Introduction Laser, is an acronym for Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation

The first two successful lasers developed during 1960 were the pulsed ruby laser with wavelength 6943 \AA and Helium-Neon gas laser with wavelength 11500 \AA .

→ A laser, strictly speaking, is an amplifier of light.

→ practical utility of laser is an oscillator - a generator of coherent light

→ Lasers are also known as generators of light

Laser action has been obtained with atoms, ions and molecules in gases, liquids, solids, glasses, and Semiconductors at wavelength spanning from ultraviolet to Radio frequency regions.

Laser output power ranging from a few milliwatts to several megawatts

Some lasers emit light in pulses while others emit radiations as a continuous wave

Laser action The following are the steps involved in the lasing atom

- (i) Excitation
- (ii) population inversion
- (iii) Light amplification.

Excitation when an electromagnetic wave interact with matter (solid, liquid, gas) then the atoms (or) electrons from lower energy level must be excited (or) pumped to a higher energy level

population inversion: It is a process achieved by pumping process { i optical pumping, ii Electrical pumping

The process which makes the number of atoms (or) electrons in excited level is greater than the lower for a instant of time. For this to occur a continuous pumping of energy into the system is needed.

Light amplification It is achieved in a resonant cavity where laser action is activated.

Radiation-Interaction: The interaction of radiation with the matter will result

- (i) absorption
- (ii) Spontaneous emission
- (iii) Stimulated emission

(Q) Explain the characteristics of a Laser-beam

(or) Mention the important characteristics of laser beam and explain? what are differences between ordinary light and Laser beam.

Laser is compared to any conventional light (ordinary light), it has few outstanding characteristics.

→ Ordinary light is distributed uniformly in all directions from the source.

It is not possible to make the light (ordinary light) to travel in a single direction but in case of lasers it is possible.

→ Ordinary light illuminates various objects equally that are at equal distance from the light source.

The important characteristics of laser beam over the conventional light sources are

- (i) Laser is highly monochromatic
- (ii) Laser is highly directional
- (iii) Laser is highly coherent
- (iv) Intensity of laser is very high.

(i) Laser is Highly Monochromatic [Monochromaticity]

Laser is more monochromatic than that of a conventional monochromatic light source.

This is due to stimulated characteristic of the light (Laser light)

It has single wavelength i.e. the line width of laser beam are extremely narrow

The property is Monochromatic is attained by laser beam due to following reasons

- (i) only an electromagnetic wave of frequency ν_{12} can be amplified.
- (ii) Since the mirror arrangement forms a resonant cavity, oscillations can occur only at resonant frequencies of this cavity.

(ii) Laser is Highly directional : [Divergence]

Divergence is the significance of the directionality of the laser beam.

If the divergence is small then the directionality of laser beam is high.

\therefore Divergence $\Delta\theta = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{D_2 - D_1}$ where r_2, r_1 are the radii of laser beam spots at distances of D_2 and D_1 respectively from the laser source.

For laser beam $\Delta\theta = 0.01$ milliradian.

i.e. the laser beam spread less than 0.01 mm.

for a distance of one meter

The property of directionality is due to the stimulated emission

i.e. Laser emit light only in one direction, along cavity direction.

Explanation As the active material is placed between plane parallel reflecting surfaces, only electromagnetic wave which is propagated along cavity direction. Thus high directionality (single direction) is achieved.

(iii) Laser highly coherent [Coherence] It is a significance of constant phase difference

In case of laser beam the property coherence exist between any two (or) more light waves of same type.

That is coherence property is the significance about "existence of zero (or) constant phase angle difference between two (or) more wave. for laser beam.

- coherence is of two types
- (i) Spatial coherence.
 - (ii) Temporal coherence.

(iv) Intensity of laser beam is very high [Brightness]

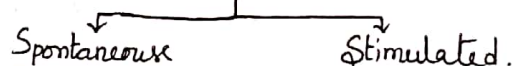
In a laser beam lot of energy is concentrated in a small region. Therefore the intensity of laser beam is very high, its brightness is more.

The intensity of laser beam is very high due to the high directional property of the laser beam.

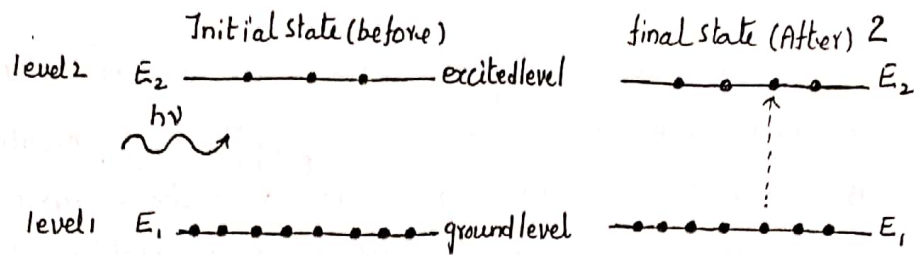
A laser source has brightness many orders of magnitude greater than that of ordinary source.

(Q) Explain with neat diagrams (i) Absorption (ii) Spontaneous emission and (iii) Stimulated emission of Radiation. Derive Einstein coefficient

The interaction of radiation (incident radiation) with the matter will results the processes absorption and emission



Absorption



In the above diagram the number of atoms in ground level be N_1 and number of atoms in the excited level be N_2 . Let E_1 be the energy of the ground level and E_2 be the energy of excited level.

If An electromagnetic wave of frequency $h\nu$ is incidenting on the atomic system. Then the atoms in the ground level will absorb the incident frequency of radiation and raised to the excited level. This process is known as absorption.

ie $h\nu = E_2 - E_1$ $h\nu$ is equal to energy difference of level 1 and level 2.

This process is non radiative decay.

The number of atoms undergoing absorption per unit volume per second from level E_2 to level E_1 = $N_1 P(\nu) B_{12}$ \rightarrow (1)

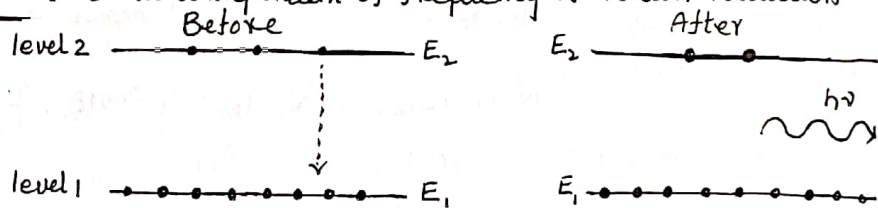
where N_1 be the number of atoms in the ground level (level E_1)

$P(\nu)$ is radiation density

B_{12} represents probability of absorption per unit time.

\rightarrow Absorption: from level 1 to level 2 depends on the frequency of incident radiation and on the properties of level 1 and level 2 respectively.

Spontaneous emission: It is independent of frequency of incident radiation



Consider the two atomic level let level 1 be the ground state having energy E_1 and level 2 be the excited level. N_1 be the number of atoms in level 1 and N_2 be the number of atoms in level 2. $N_1 > N_2$

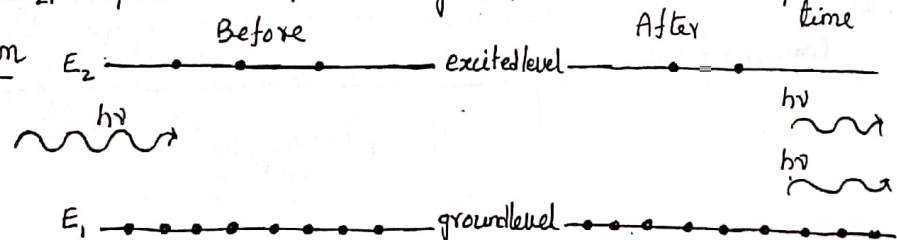
The atom in the level 2 [decay] undergoing transition to the level 1 and emits the electromagnetic wave of energy $h\nu$. This process is called spontaneous emission. The spontaneous process will occur with any input external frequency of incident radiation

The number of atoms making spontaneous emission per unit volume per second from level 2 to level 1 ie E_2 to E_1 = $N_2 A_{21}$ \rightarrow (2)

N_2 be the number of atoms present in the level 2

A_{21} represents the probability of spontaneous emission per unit time

Stimulated emission



Let us consider level 1 and level 2 are the two levels of the atomic system. N_1 be the number of atoms in level 1 and N_2 be the number of atoms in level 2. By incidenting frequency of radiation $h\nu$ on atomic system, the atoms in the level 2 decay to the level 1 and emits two photons which are in phase. This process is known as stimulated emission.

$h\nu = E_2 - E_1$
 The number of stimulated emissions per unit volume per second from levels 2 to 1
 $E_2 \rightarrow E_1 \therefore = N_2 P(\nu) B_{21} \rightarrow (3)$ B_{21} represents probability of stimulated emission per unit time.

Derivation of Einstein's coefficients

(or) Derive the relation between probabilities of spontaneous emission and stimulated emission in terms of Einstein coefficients

For the atomic system total atoms in the two level be N .

$$\therefore N = N_1 + N_2$$

where N_1 be the number of atoms in the level 1

N_2 be the number of atoms in the level 2.

Equilibrium: In thermal equilibrium

the rate of transition from E_1 to E_2 is equal to E_2 to E_1

\therefore Number of atoms undergoing absorption = Number of atoms undergoing emission per second.

Hence we have from (1), (2) and (3)

$$\text{Absorption} = \text{Spontaneous emission} + \text{Stimulated emission}$$

$$N_1 P(\nu) B_{12} = [N_2 A_{21} + N_2 P(\nu) B_{21}] \rightarrow (4)$$

$$\Rightarrow N_1 P(\nu) B_{12} - N_2 P(\nu) B_{21} = N_2 A_{21}$$

$$P(\nu) [N_1 B_{12} - N_2 B_{21}] = N_2 A_{21} \rightarrow (5)$$

Dividing equation (5) on both sides with $N_2 \Rightarrow \frac{P(\nu) [N_1 B_{12} - N_2 B_{21}]}{N_2} = \frac{N_2 A_{21}}{N_2}$

$$\Rightarrow P(\nu) \left[\frac{N_1}{N_2} B_{12} - B_{21} \right] = A_{21}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(\nu) = \frac{A_{21}}{\left[\frac{N_1}{N_2} B_{12} - B_{21} \right]} \rightarrow (6)$$

From Boltzmann distribution law we know that $\frac{N_1}{N_2} = e^{\frac{(E_2 - E_1)}{k_B T}} \rightarrow (7)$

But energy difference $E_2 - E_1 = h\nu \Rightarrow \frac{N_1}{N_2} = e^{h\nu/k_B T} \rightarrow (8)$

From eq (8) substitute $\frac{N_1}{N_2}$ value in eq (6)

$$\therefore \text{we have } P(\nu) = \frac{A_{21}}{\left[e^{h\nu/k_B T} B_{12} - B_{21} \right]} \rightarrow (9) \quad P(\nu) = \frac{A_{21}}{\left[e^{\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} B_{21} - B_{21} \right]} \rightarrow (9)$$

From Planck's radiation law, we have $P(\nu) = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{(e^{h\nu/k_B T} - 1)} \rightarrow (10)$

Comparing (9) and (10)

$$\frac{A_{21}}{\left[e^{\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} - 1 \right] B_{21}} = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{(e^{\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} - 1)} \rightarrow (11)$$

$$\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3}$$

$$\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3} \rightarrow (12) \quad \text{where } \nu \text{ is refractive index of the medium}^3$$

λ is wave length of light in air
 c Speed of Light.
 Let λ be the wave length of light in medium $\dots \frac{1}{n} = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_0} = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda}$

$$\therefore \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_0} = \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow (13)$$

from equations (12) and (13) we have $\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3} \rightarrow (14)$

Here A_{21} and B_{21} are called Einstein's coefficients of Spontaneous emission - probability per unit time and Stimulated emission probability per unit time respectively

For Stimulated emission to be predominant we need $\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} \ll 1$

The function $\frac{1}{(e^{\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} - 1)}$ represents the ratio of stimulated emission rate to spontaneous emission

(Q) What do you understand by "Population inversion"? How it is achieved (04)

What is population inversion? Explain various methods to achieve population inversion?

Under Ordinary Conditions of thermal equilibrium the number of atoms in the higher energy state is considerably smaller than the number of atoms in the lower energy state i.e. $N_2 < N_1$ N_2 is the number of atoms in higher energy state

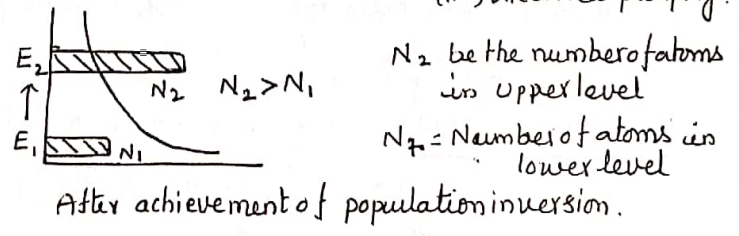
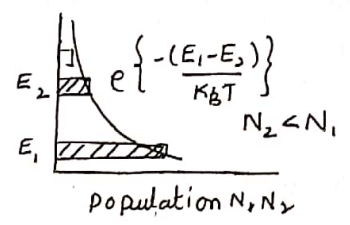
At temperature 17°C $\frac{N_2}{N_1} = 10^{-32}$ N_1 is the number of atoms in lower energy state

$\frac{N_2}{N_1}$ is known as ratio of population densities

Population inversion: The population inversion is the achievement to obtain the number of atoms in upper state is more than the number of atoms in the lower state i.e. It is simply the process of achievement that number of atoms in excited state is greater than the number of atoms in ground state.

The process by which population inversion is achieved is known as pumping process

The pumping is achieved through following two ways (i) optical pumping (ii) Electrical pumping.



The above two diagrams represents the levels of atomic system and their population densities [Number of atoms in the level]

The population inversion condition achieved on a steady state basis gives rise to continuous wave laser action

From Boltzmann's Distribution function $N = N_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E}{K_B T}\right)$

$$N_1 = N_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_1}{K_B T}\right) \rightarrow (1)$$

N_1 be the number of atoms in energy level (lower) E_1

$$N_2 = N_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_2}{K_B T}\right) \rightarrow (2)$$

N_2 be the number of atoms in the energy (higher) level E_2

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{N_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_1}{K_B T}\right)}{N_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_2}{K_B T}\right)} \rightarrow (3)$$

$$N_2 = N_1 \exp\left(-\frac{E_2 - E_1}{K_B T}\right) \rightarrow (4)$$

$$E_2 > E_1$$

and $N_1 > N_2$.

Population inversion : It is nothing but making $N_2 > N_1$, i.e. the number of atoms in higher energy level to be greater than the number of atoms in the lower energy level with the help of pumping method (i) Optical pumping (ii) Electrical pumping

A system in which population - inversion is achieved is called as an Active system

- (iii) Inelastic collision of atoms
- (iv) Chemical reaction
- (v) Direct conversion

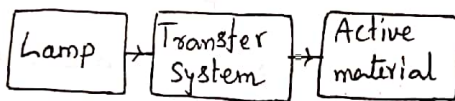
The method of raising the atoms (particles) from lower energy state to higher energy state is called pumping.

Optical pumping method light sources used for optical pumping are

(Used for solid state laser) (i) Xenon flash lamp (for Ruby laser)

(ii) Tungsten-iodine Krypton (or)

high pressure mercury capillary lamps (for continuous wave laser)



Optical pumping system

In this pumping process energy in the form of light radiation is absorbed by the active material and thereby that energy pumps the atoms in ~~the~~ to the higher energy level from lower energy level

Electrical pumping method : Electrical pumping is used for gas laser (He-Ne, CO₂) and Semiconductor lasers.

In this case pumping is achieved by allowing a current of suitable value to pass through the gas. It results into the generation of ions and electrons.

The electrons are accelerated by the electric field and gain enough additional kinetic energy from the field to excite the neutral atom by collisions.

Pumping Scheme : Creation of Population Inversion

If we consider a two level system in thermal equilibrium consisting of populations N_1 and N_2 . The incoming wave will produce transition $1 \rightarrow 2$ and then $2 \rightarrow 1$, hoping to achieve population inversion

Thus two level system is not appropriate for population inversion and hence multi level system is employed. Three level system and Four level system are commonly employed systems.

(Q) With neat diagrams, describe the construction and action of Ruby laser 4

(OR)

State and explain the construction and working of Ruby laser

Type : Solid state laser

Active material : Ruby crystal

Year : 1960 constructed by T. H. Maiman

in the form of cylindrical Ruby rod

Pumping : Optical pumping system is used \rightarrow Xenon flash discharge tube.

Laser level : Three level laser system.

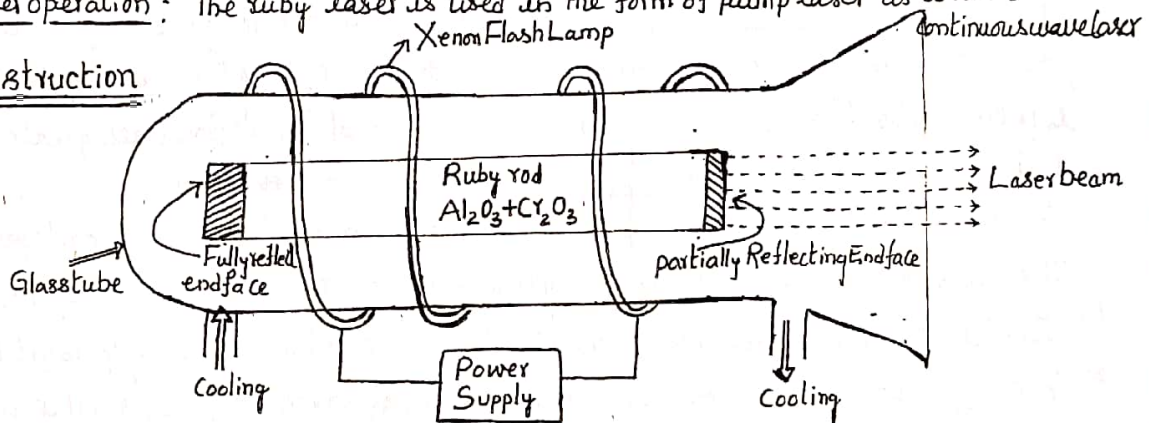
Ruby rod : It is prepared by doping technique i.e. Ruby rods are prepared from aluminium oxide (Al_2O_3) doped with 0.05% chromium Cr^{3+} replacing Al^{3+} . This is done by adding small amounts of Cr_2O_3 in the melt of highly purified Al_2O_3 .

Due to the chromium ions ruby rod appeared in pink colour. The chromium ions are responsible for emission of light by ruby.

Resonant cavity : A fully reflecting surface at the left end of the ruby crystal and partially reflecting end at the right side of the ruby crystal. Both the reflecting surfaces are optically flat and exactly parallel to each other.

Laser operation : The ruby laser is used in the form of pump laser as well as continuous wave laser.

Construction



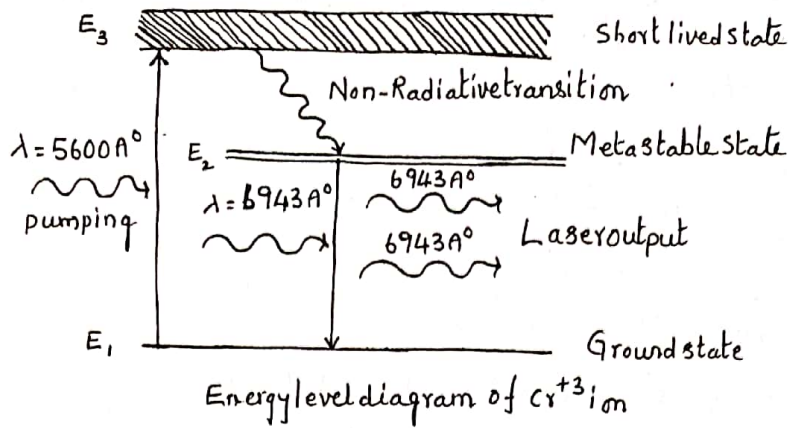
-- Ruby laser --

Ruby laser consists of a ruby cylindrical rod whose ends are optically flat and parallel. The ruby rod is 4 cm in length and 0.5 cm in diameter. One end is fully silvered and the other end is partially silvered. The rod is surrounded by glass tube and glass tube is surrounded by a helical xenon flash tube. Xenon flash tube acts as the optical pumping system. The laser medium being to be a solid, the laser is also called solid state laser.

The ruby rod is crystal of Aluminium oxide (Al_2O_3) doped with 0.05% of chromium oxide (Cr_2O_3). So that some of the aluminium atoms in the crystal lattice are replaced by Cr^{3+} ions.

Optical pumping system is in the form of helical xenon discharge tube, at the axis of which is placed the ruby rod. The flash tube consists of gas and which is connected to power supply.

Working



Ruby is made up of aluminium oxide as host lattice with small percentage of Cr^{+3} ions replacing aluminium ions in the crystal. Chromium acts as dopant. A dopant produces lasing action i.e. chromium ions are responsible for the emission of laser output.

The pumping source for ruby material is Xenon flash lamp which will be operated by some external power supply.

The chromium ions are excited from level 1 (E_1) to level 3 (E_3) by the absorption of light from the Xenon flash discharge tube. The excited ions quickly undergo non radiative transitions with a transfer of energy to the lattice thermal motion to the level 2 (E_2). The level 2 is Metastable state with a lifetime about 3×10^{-3} sec. Now the population of level 2 becomes greater than that of level 1. Thus population inversion is achieved.

Some photons are produced by spontaneous transition from level 2 to level 1. The ends of ruby rod acts as reflecting mirrors. The photons that are not moving parallel to the ruby rod escape from the side, but those are moving parallel to the ruby rod are reflected back and these stimulate the emission of similar other photons (6943 \AA). The chain reaction quickly develops a beam of photons all moving parallel to the ruby rod, which is monochromatic and coherence. It emerges through the partially silvered end.

Once all the Cr^{+3} ions are in the metastable level returned to ground state. Then one more flash has pumping radiation is sent through the rod. Thus the ruby laser operate only in pulses and so ruby lasers are called pulsed lasers. From the metastable state all the Cr^{+3} ions are returned to ground state they will emit laser output. After this action laser action stops. After receiving the flash light energy from Xenon flash lamp radiation is sent through the rod. And then the process is continued for the emission of laser output. So that ruby laser is pulsed laser.

Draw backs of Ruby laser (i) It requires high pumping power (ii) Ruby laser is pulsed laser. The xenon pulse is of several millisecond duration and the laser pulse is much shorter, less than a millisecond. The power of each peak is of the order of 10^4 to 10^5 watts. \rightarrow output power is not continuous.

Uses of Ruby Laser : welding and Drilling : pulsed ruby laser is used successfully for precision welding and drilling of metal, for drilling of industrial diamonds.
It is used for holography and photography of moving objects.
It is for repairing of detached retinas in ophthalmology.

(Q) State and Explain the construction and working of Helium-Neon gas laser.

He-Ne laser is the first gas laser. For continuous laser beam gas lasers are used.

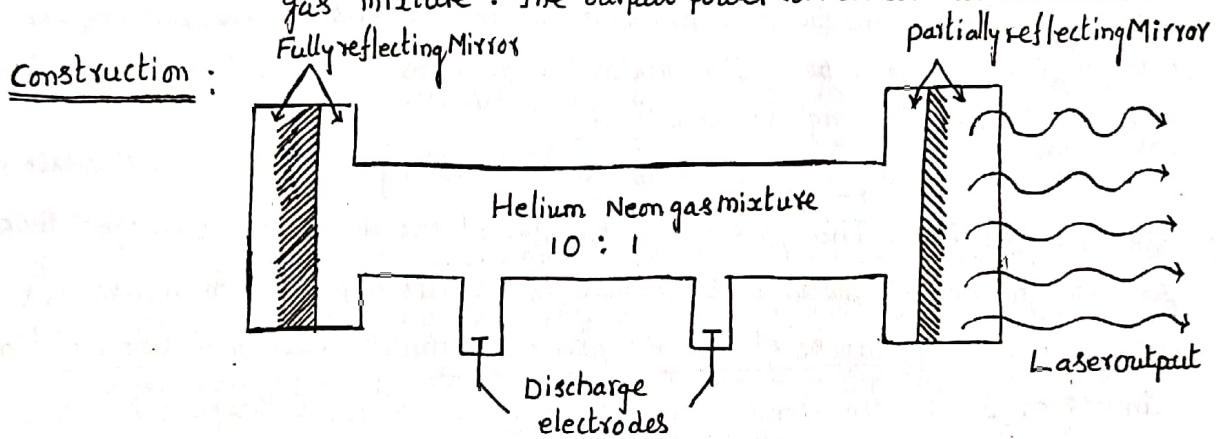
Pumping : Electrical pumping system is used.

Year : In 1961, Fabricated by Ali Javan and others in Bell Telephone Laboratory

Level : He-Ne gas laser is a Four level laser system

Active medium : 10:1 Ratio of Helium Neon gas mixture in a Quartz tube

Output power : It depends upon the length of discharge tube and the pressure of gas mixture. The output power for this laser is continuous

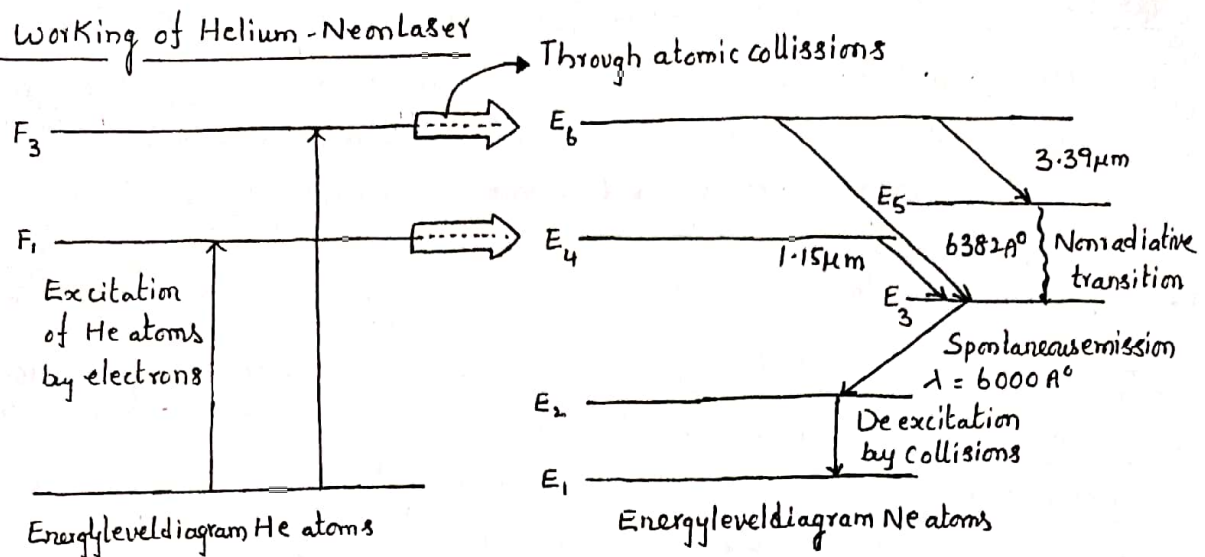


The Helium-Neon laser system consists of a gas discharge tube (quartz tube) of length about 80 cm and diameter of 1 cm. This tube is filled with the mixture of gas He-Ne at ratio 10:1 hence the number of Helium atoms are greater than Neon atoms. Made the arrangement of two mirrors at the both ends of the gas tube. One of the mirror is completely reflecting and the other is partially reflecting in order to amplify the output laser beam.

Made the arrangement of two discharge electrodes connected to tube usually with d.c power supply. By making the mirror arrangement one end of the tube is a perfect reflector while the other end is a partial reflector. These two mirrors at both sides are parallel to each other with respect to the gas tube.

The gas discharge tube is ionised by passing a Dc current through the gas. So that for case of He-Ne gas laser the pumping method is electrical pumping method.

Working of Helium-Neon Laser



The output power from these lasers depends upon the length of the discharge tube and the pressure of gas mixture.

When a discharge is passed through the gaseous mixture, electrons are accelerated down the tube. The accelerated electrons collide with the Helium atoms and excite them to higher energy levels.

Hence the energy of the Helium atoms is easily transferred to the Neon atoms when they collide. This preferential transfer of the Neon atoms to energy state E_6 so that Neon atoms placed at energy level E_6 results a population inversion is achieved. The purpose of the He atoms is thus to help achieve population inversion in the Ne atoms. The spontaneous transition takes place from the level E_6 to level E_2 produce wavelength 6000 \AA .

The stimulated transition photons travelling parallel to the tube are reflected back and between the mirrors placed at the ends and rapidly build up into an intense beam. The photons which escape through the end with low reflectivity. The Brewster mirrors are allow to pass through without any reflection losses. The electrons impacts at excite the He and Ne atoms occurs all the time. Due to this reason He-Ne laser operates continuously.

After achieving the population inversion. The various transitions $E_6 \rightarrow E_5$, $E_4 \rightarrow E_3$, $E_6 \rightarrow E_3$ leads to the emission of wave lengths $3.39 \mu\text{m}$, $1.15 \mu\text{m}$ and 6328 \AA .

The excited Neon atoms drop down from the level E_3 to the level E_2 spontaneously emitting a photon around wavelength $\lambda = 6000 \text{ \AA}$. By the effect of pressure the energy is transferred from Helium atoms to the Neon atoms.

E_2 is a metastable state, in this state atoms (Ne) stay for short time and excite to level E_3 leading to population inversion leads to continuous operation.

Advantages of He-Ne Laser: The light from the gas laser as compared to that from solid state lasers are found to be more directional and much more monochromatic

As compared to Ruby laser the Helium-Neon gas laser has the output characteristics that the output laser beam is much more monochromatic.

The He-Ne laser produce a continuous laser beam without the need of cooling arrangement.

Disadvantage: using internal mirrors is that the mirrors are usually eroded by the gas discharge and have to be replaced regularly. when external mirrors are used, the ends of discharge tube also cause an additional loss due to reflections

(Q) State and explain the construction and working of Semiconductor laser?
(or)

State and explain the construction and working of Gallium Arsenide laser
(or) working of Diode laser (P-n junction laser) GaAs laser [light emitting diode]

Semiconductor laser is also called as diode laser. The light emitting diodes are basically semiconductor laser. These are have important applications in fiberoptic communication

GaAs (Gallium Arsenide) is well known example of a direct band gap semiconductor and hence it is used widely to prepare LED's (light emitting diodes) and laser.

The wave length of emitted light depend upon the band gap of the material

$$E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \rightarrow (1) \quad E_g \text{ is energy gap.} \quad E = h\nu$$

$$\lambda \text{ is wavelength of photon} \quad \text{But } \nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

$$c \text{ is velocity of light} \quad E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \Rightarrow E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{from (1)} \quad \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1.24 \mu m}{E_g}$$

As E_g increases, it emits shorter wavelengths.

Operation: The Diode lasers are always operated in forward bias

If p and n type materials are prepared from the same material then the p-n junction is called as Homojunction semiconductor laser source.

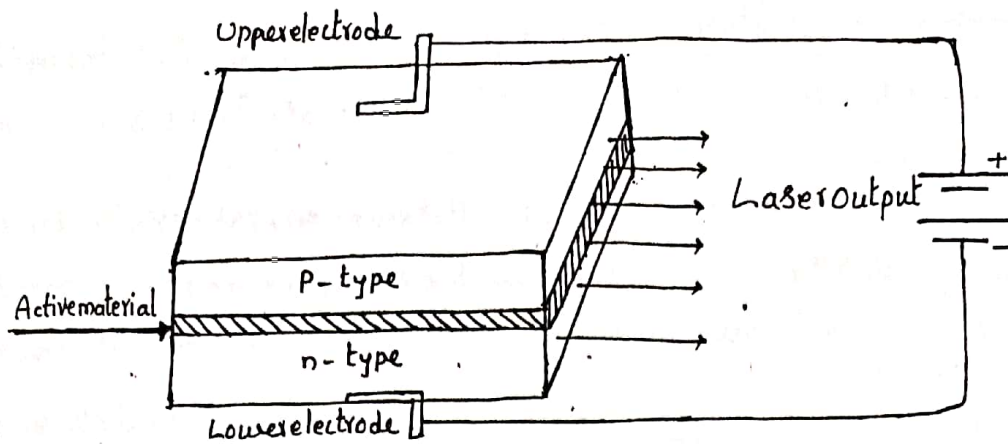
If p and n type materials are prepared from different materials then they are called as Heterojunction semiconductor laser source.

Construction of GaAs semiconductor diode laser

Mechanism Recombination of electrons and holes at p-n junction when a current is passed through the diode.

Active medium: The active medium is a p-n junction diode made from Crystalline Gallium Arsenide. The p-region and n-region in the diode are obtained by heavily doping with suitable dopants.

Since the refractive index of GaAs is high



The arrangements for the construction of GaAs semiconductor diode laser is shown in the figure. Take the p type and n-type materials prepared by adding with suitable dopant elements. The shaded area (the shaded layer) is known as the depletion layer. The thickness of the depletion is usually very small ($0.1 \mu\text{m}$). To obtain laser action end faces are polished flat and parallel. The other two faces are left unfinished to suppress the oscillations. The active layer consists of a layer of thickness of the order $1 \mu\text{m}$, a little wider than the depletion region. The p-type material is connected to positive terminal of (battery) and n is connected to negative terminal, which is known as forward bias.

The allowed current for junction is of order of 10^4 amp/cm^2 is passed through the narrow junction.

Working (operation): population inversion in semiconductor is achieved

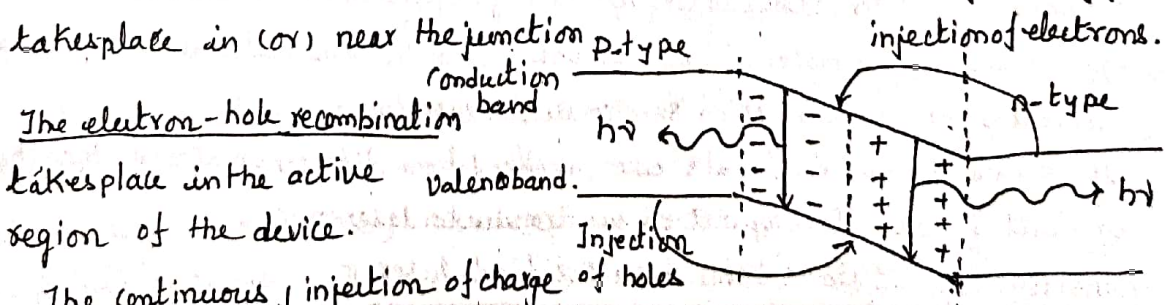
is due to heavily doping and due to the operation in forward bias. When a current is passed through a p-n junction p region is connected to positive terminal of current source and n-region is connected to the negative terminal of the current source. Holes are injected from p-region into n-region and electrons are injected from n-region into p-region.

The electrons and holes recombine and release of light energy takes place in (or) near the junction.

The electron-hole recombination takes place in the active region of the device.

The continuous injection of charge carriers creates the population inversion of minority carriers in n and p sides respectively.

The excess minority charge carriers diffuse away from the junction & recombining with majority carriers of n and p material, resulting in the release of photons. Further, the emitted photons increase the recombination of injected electrons from the n-region and holes in p region by inducing more recombinations.



Semiconductor laser applications Semiconductor lasers are the cheapest and smallest lasers available. They are easily fabricated into arrays using the same techniques developed for transistor.

The laser output can be easily modulated by modulating the ~~curr~~ current through the laser diode. Also they are small in size and highly efficient. These properties have made these lasers well suited as light sources for fiber optic communication system.

Q1) State and explain the construction and working of CO₂ laser.

CO₂ laser invented in the year 1963 by C K N Patel

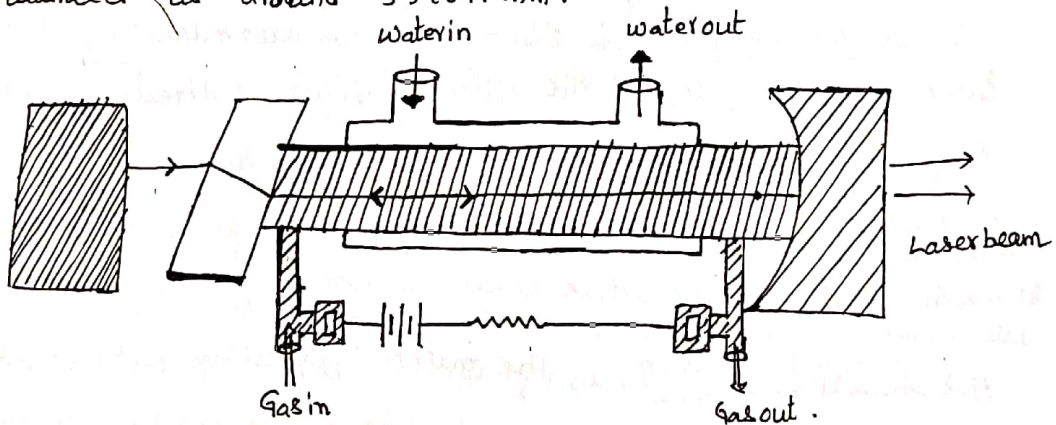
CO₂ has more industrial applications.

Active medium : The active medium is CO₂ gas.

In CO₂ laser for efficient excitation of CO₂ molecules N₂ (nitrogen) molecules are used.

By the addition of He to gas mixture enhances the efficiency

The ratio of pressure CO₂ : N₂ : He is 1 : 4 : 5, optimum value of pressure efficiency
-tube diameter is around 33 to 44 mm.



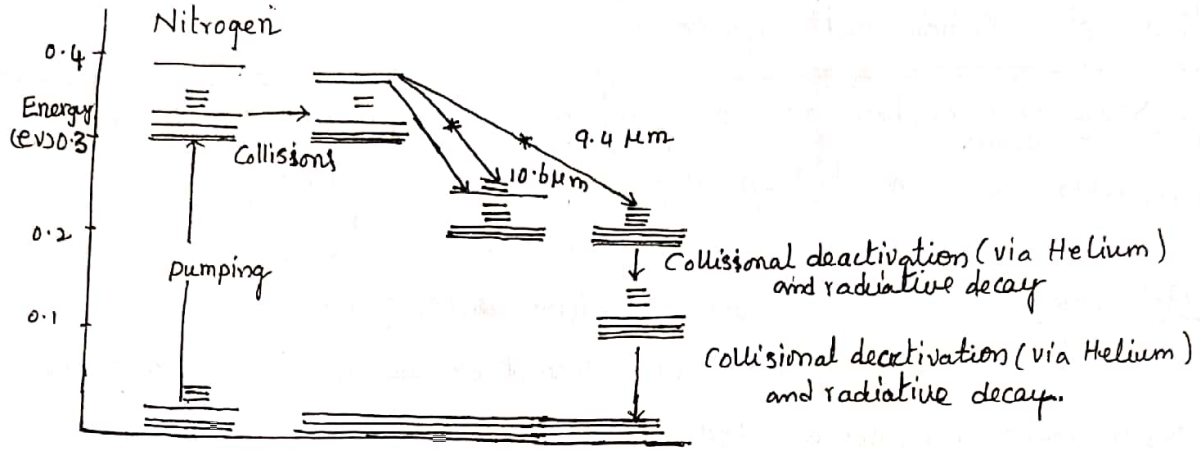
Schematic of a typical CO₂ laser

The construction of CO₂ laser is made from the special materials must be used for windows, mirrors and other laser components. Germanium gallium arsenide, zinc sulphide, zinc selenide and various alkali halides are used as optical materials. The power output of the CO₂ laser is approximately proportional to the tube length (which contains the gas mixture). For the cooling environment water is circulating around the tube. The gas tube is connected to the electrodes in order to supply the current. So that the pumping system is electrical pumping. The CO₂ laser has continuous wave output.

Working : In CO₂ laser, the excitation is provided by electric discharge. The pumping system is electrical pumping.

[Helium is used for excitation of Neon atoms in case of He-Ne laser
 In case of CO₂ laser for excitation of CO₂ molecules N₂ molecules are used
 The N₂ molecules transfer energy to the CO₂ molecules in resonant collision
 Due to these collisions all these are excited to the metastable levels with longer lifetime.

with sufficient pumping, a population is produced and laser oscillations begin



Simplified Energy level diagram for the CO₂ laser

The He increases the laser efficiency at 10.6 μm by speeding up the transition there by maintaining a large population

It is relatively easy to obtain continuous wave outputs of 100 W from a laser 1 m long. So that the efficiency of laser is directly proportional to the length of the gas tube.

Applications of CO₂ laser: CO₂ laser are very widely used in industry and in recent years, these lasers are used in the field of medicine also.

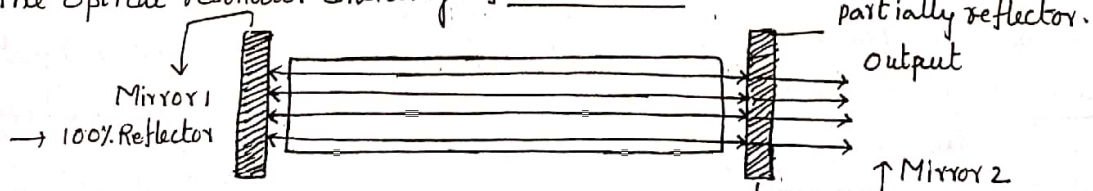
- (1) Material processing: The material processing such as cutting, drilling, welding, etching, surface hardening etc.
- (2) In the field of medicine, medical CO₂ laser is used as scalpel for bloodless surgery
- (3) CO₂ laser are used for pollution monitoring and remote sensing.

(Q) Explain the need of cavity resonator in a laser

Need of cavity resonator: To make stimulated emission in more number of atoms

To obtain directionality to the output beam. To increase the intensity of the laser beam.
 Since the resonator mirrors provide positive feedback to the photons amplified by the active medium, this can be called as "laser oscillator".

The optical resonator consisting of two mirrors



08

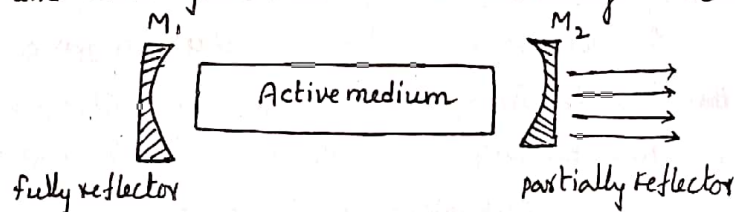
Cavity resonator in a laser essentially consist of two mirrors facing each other. The active medium is placed between two mirrors. One of the mirror is 100% reflecting i.e. fully reflecting mirror. The other mirror is partially reflecting mirror, which is transparent to let some of the radiation pass through it. The resonant cavity is used to make stimulated emission possible in more number of atoms in the active medium. This naturally increase the intensity of the laser beam.

when the active medium is placed inside an optical resonator, the system acts as an oscillator. A part of the output energy must be feed back into the system. Such a feedback is brought out by placing an active medium between a pair of silver coating mirrors, which are facing each other. The mirrors could be either plane (or) curved depending on the use.

Such a system formed by a pair of mirrors is referred to as a cavity resonator. The emerging beam from the resonator after the amplification through material from the two reflectors is known as laser.

Resonator mirrors are generally coated with multilayer dielectric materials to reduce the absorption loss in the mirrors. Moreover these resonators act as frequency selector and also gives rise to directionality to the output beam.

Curved mirrors



The schematic diagram consist of two curved mirrors in case of optical resonator with plane mirrors, it is extremely difficult to align the beam exactly parallel to each other and perpendicular to the cavity axis of the active medium. This problem is overcome by use of curved mirrors to form the resonator cavity instead of plane parallel mirrors.

(Q) Explain the purpose of an active medium in a laser?

The active medium may be a solid, liquid or gas.

The active plays the role in order to achieve population inversion, and output of the laser beam. The output of laser be may continuous wave (or) pulsed laser beam it is depend on the nature of the materials taken in active medium.

Ex: Ruby laser Active medium the mixture of Al_2O_3 and Cr_2O_3

The output power incase of Ruby laser is 100 megawatts [10000 watt]

The laser pulse with a width of 10^{-4} sec. The duration of output flash is about 300 microseconds.

Exp 12

He-Ne laser

The He-Ne laser emits power in the range 0.5 mW to 50 mW
The laser (He-Ne) has a coherence length of 300 meter which is used in holography.

The active medium which when excited achieves population inversion and subsequently causes energy levels to rise. The active medium may be a solid (or) liquid (or) gas and it may be one of the thousands of materials that have been found to be large.

The energy due to pumping is confined to the active medium, then population inversion is achieved. The entire medium is like a cavity resonator that emits energy. In a laser system the active medium is placed between reflectors like a pair of mirrors making the active medium as a sort of cavity resonator. Oscillations are set in active medium and sustained in the cavity. A laser source is a quantum oscillator.

The resonator mirrors provide positive feedback to the photons amplified by the active medium, this can be called as "laser oscillator".

(Q) Applications of Lasers? (or)

Mention the applications of Lasers in various fields?

Due to the special features of laser beam that

- (i) narrow bandwidth,
- (ii) Due to narrow angular spread
- (iii) coherence.
- (iv) Directionality
- (v) High intensity

The Lasers are used in various fields

- (a) Industries
- (b) Scientific research
- (c) Communication system
- (d) In Medicine

Applications of Lasers in Industries : In manufacturing industry lasers are used for welding, cutting and drilling applications.

Welding : with increased power output, it is possible to use the laser (CO₂) as a welding tool.

Laser welding has certain advantages over gas welding such as

- (i) purity of the material is not altered [purity of material after welding is unchanged]
- (ii) Accurate operation : Localized heating by small spot size can be accurately controlled by programming with computer to reproduce exact characteristics.

Example : CO₂ laser with 10 kW output is employed in case of welding of 5mm thickness stainless steel plates can be welded at a speed of 10 cm/sec.

Cutting

(9)
Lasers cut through a wide variety of materials, rapidly without noise, due to high intensity of laser beam.

example: CO₂ laser employed for cutting of glass, quartz, diamonds etc.

with high power levels, 250 watt CO₂ laser 3mm thick quartz plate can be cut at a rate of 2cm/sec.

→ Lasers can be used to blast holes in diamonds and hard steel.

→ A CO₂ laser of 100W continuous output can cut a cloth at a speed of 1m/sec

→ A CO₂ laser of 3KW continuous output cuts titanium sheet of 50m thickness at a velocity of 0.5/minute.

Drilling: Most drilling systems operate in pulsed mode [pulsed lasers are employed]

To get the drill of desired depth and size, number of pulses, and the energy of each pulse are to be controlled.

→ One of the first applications of the laser was to drill diamond makes small holes.

Scientific Research Applications of Lasers (i) with the help of laser, it is possible to investigate the structure of molecules

(ii) Lasers can be used in rangefinders to find the position of distant object

(iii) Laser is a very useful tool to initiate a fusion reaction.

(iv) with the help of laser it is possible to separate the isotopic species of an element available in an isotopic combination.

(v) It has been observed that fingerprints can be detected under laser light.

(vi) A compact disc Read only memory (CDROM) is prepared by using a high power laser to burn one micron (10^{-6} m) holes in a master disk

(vii) Due to narrow, angular spread, the laser beam has become a means of communication between earth and moon (or) other satellites.

Communication System - Laser applications

(i) using laser, it is possible to transmit

thousands of television programmes simultaneously to the various places.

(ii) Using laser, it is possible to make communication between the Moon and the earth [to another satellites also]

(iii) Lasers are used in optical range finders which not only give accurate ranging but also size and shape of object with orientation

(iv) Radio telescopes fitted with a ruby laser can amplify very faint radio signals from space, thus extending the range of observation.

In Defence: A laser beam can be used to destroy very big objects like aircrafts, missiles etc, in a few seconds by directing the laser beam into the target

A laser can be used for detection and ranging like RADAR. The only difference is it uses light instead of radio waves. Hence it is called as Light Detecting And Ranging (LIDAR)

Applications of Laser in Medicine [Mention the medical applications of laser]

Laser	Applied field
Argon	Neuro surgery, ophthalmology, dermatology, biological research
Helium-Neon	laser holography, Diagnostic applications, permeability of blood containing tissues.
Ruby	Ophthalmology and dermatology
CO ₂	treatment of liver and lungs, elimination of tumors, Neurosurgery, dermatology, microsurgery
Nd-YAG	Neurosurgery, Dermatology.
ultra violet excimer laser neodymium	Treatment of liver cancer

→ Argon ion laser: Ophthalmologists used argon ion lasers for welding retinal detachment. The Green beam of Argon ion laser is strongly absorbed by red blood cells of the retina and welds the retina back to the eye ball.

Cataract operation For cataract removal lasers are used.

Blood less Surgery: Laser scalpels are used for bloodless surgery. when the tissues are cut the blood veins cut are fused at their tips by the infrared laser and hence there is no blood loss.

Angioplasty & Bypass Nd-YAG laser application: The Nd YAG laser are used in angioplasty for removal of artery block. The laser radiation is sent through fiber to the region of block, burns the excess growth and regulates the blood flow with out need of bypass surgery.

Destroying Kidney stones and gall stones [CO₂ laser] Lasers are used in destroying kidney stones and gall stones. Laser pulses sent through optical fibers shatter the stones into small pieces.

Dermatology In dermatology, lasers are used to remove freckles, acne and tattoo. when such regions are illuminated with blue-green laser light, the radiation is absorbed by the blood and heats up. The blood vessels are closed and excess blood flow is stopped.

Cancer diagnosis and Therapy: For the treatment of cancerous tissues, skin tumors laser are widely used.

when susceptible areas are illuminated with laser of approximate wavelength, cancer cells are destroyed.

Laser therapy is completely painless and more advisable for children.

Scanning: Laser is used in endoscopy to scan the inner parts of the stomach.

Fiber optics

Introduction → Optical fibers used in signal transmission for communications

→ These are used to transmit light in the manner metal wires are used to transmit electricity.

→ Best features (i) Much greater bandwidth

(ii) Smaller and lighter i.e. light in weight and small in size

(iii) Immunity from electromagnetic interference

(iv) Stable (or) declining price

(v) These are having capability of carrying a huge amount of information

(vi) No possibility of internal noise

(vii) Small diameter of individual fiber channel

(viii) Can be used very safely even in explosive environment

(ix) Immune to moisture and temperature variation

(x) No dangers of short circuits.

Because of these advantages, fiber optic communication is used in telephones such as loops, trunks, terminals and exchanges, computers, space vehicles, ships, cable TV, submarines, security, medical field, industrial automations and process controls, alarm systems.

The fibers are transmitting information on a light beam over very long distances. Hundreds of telephone conversations can be transmitted simultaneously at microwave frequencies, many thousands of signals can be carried as a light beam through a fiber optic cable using multiplexing techniques.

Laws are used in fiber optics The transmission of light in an optical fiber is

based on the phenomenon of Total internal reflection

Snell's law $n_1 \sin i = n_2 \sin r$ n_1, n_2, n_2 are Refractive indices of rarer and denser medium.

i is angle of incidence.

r is angle of refraction.

The refracted ray bends towards the normal as the ray travels from low dense medium to high dense medium.

The refracted ray bends away from the normal as it travels from high dense medium to low dense medium.

Total internal reflection: There is a possibility to occur total internal reflection provided the angle of incidence is greater than critical angle θ_c

ie $\theta_i < \theta_c$

Critical angle : θ_c ; we are incidenting ~~to~~ at the critical angle the angle of refraction will be 90° if $\theta_i = \theta_c \Rightarrow \theta_r = \underline{90^\circ}$

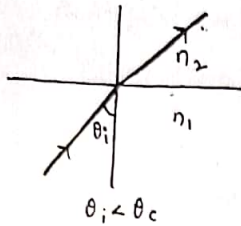
According to Snell's law $n_1 \sin i = n_2 \sin r$

if $i = \theta_c \Rightarrow$ Then $r = 90^\circ \Rightarrow n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 \sin 90^\circ$

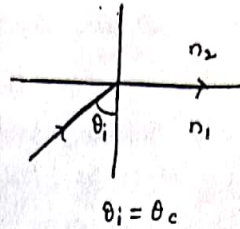
$$\therefore n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 (1) \Rightarrow \boxed{\sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}} \quad \boxed{\theta_c = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)}$$

Let n_1 be the refractive index of core; and n_2 be the refractive index of the cladding.

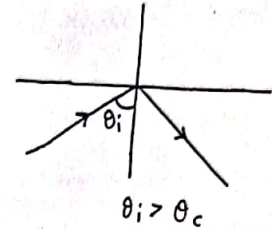
Case a: $\theta_i < \theta_c$



Case b: $\theta_i = \theta_c$



Case c: $\theta_i > \theta_c$



If the angle of incidence is increased ($\theta_i > \theta_c$) then the ray is totally reflected

(Q) Describe the construction of a typical optical fiber and give the dimensions of various parts.

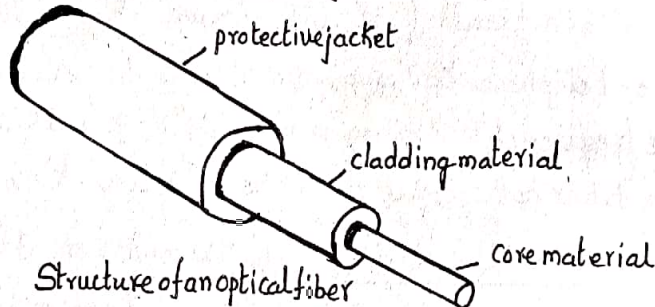
(or)

with the help of a suitable diagram explain the principle, construction and working of an optical fiber as a waveguide.

Optical fiber is a very thin and flexible medium having a cylindrical shape consisting of three sections

- (i) The core material
- (ii) The cladding material
- (iii) The outer jacket

Construction:



Optical fiber is a cylinder of transparent dielectric medium and designed to guide visible and infrared light over long distances.

A typical glass fiber consists of a central core of thick 50 μm surrounded by a cladding.

The cladding is a material having slightly lower refractive index than core's refractive index. The core material is made from glass. The cladding materials are made by the process adding of impurities like Boron, phosphorus (or) Germanium are doped.

Silicon coating is provided between buffer jacket and cladding in order to improve the quality of transmission of light.

Finally the fiber cable is covered by black polyurethane outer jacket, because of this arrangement fiber cable will not be damaged during use.

Main parts of Optical fiber: (i) The core material.
(ii) The cladding material
(iii) Outer jacket.

Core: it is made with silica. It has high refractive index than cladding.
The diameter of the core is of few micrometers. It is denser material than cladding. Core is central part of the optical fibre is made of high refractive index glass, to propagate the light by total internal reflection.

Cladding: It is a material, which is having low refractive index than core. The cladding is silica doped with suitable amounts of germanium and fluorine to control the refractive index [Refractive index of cladding is always less than ~~the~~ core].

Diameter: The diameter of the outer cladding is of the order of 100 - 125 μm

Outer jacket [protective outer covering layer] It is made up thickness about 60 μm. The outer protective covering is made of polymer. It protects the fibre from the environmental effects.

Q) How the optical fibres are classified? (or) Types of optical fibres
(or) Describe different types of fibres by giving the Refractive index profiles and propagation detail?

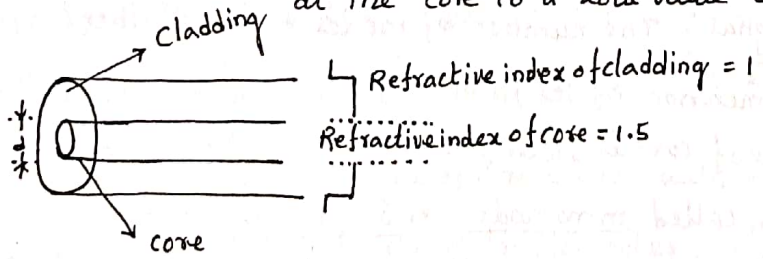
Depending upon the Refractive index profile of the core optical fibres are

- classified in two categories: (i) Step index fibre
(ii) Graded index fibre

Depending upon the number of modes of propagation optical fibres are classified

- into two categories (i) Single mode optical fibres
(ii) Multimode optical fibres.

STEP INDEX FIBRE: The refractive index changes abruptly from a high value at the core to a low value at the cladding



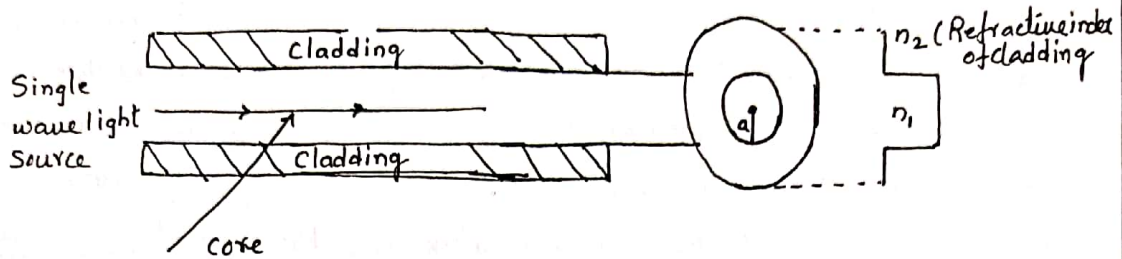
Its structure is like two concentric cylinders. The inner cylinder is called core. The outer one is cladding (air (or) any plastic material (or) glass)

Step index fiber: Fibers in which core of constant refractive index n_1 is surrounded by cladding of slightly lower refractive index at the interface core-clad is known as Step index fiber.

The core diameter will be of the order of 2 - 10 μ m.

Light beams entering the fiber at different angles will traverse different total distances before they arrive at the other end of the fiber. Step index fibre support the transmission of transverse electromagnetic radiation.

Step index Single mode fibre (or) Step index monomode fibre



In the case of single mode step index fiber the core has small diameter and the cladding is kept very thick.

The characteristics of this type

- (i) Very small core diameter
- (ii) Low Numerical aperture
- (iii) Low attenuation
- (iv) Very high band width

Single mode fibers transmit single ray along the axis of the fiber.

Advantages of single mode fibers have the following advantages

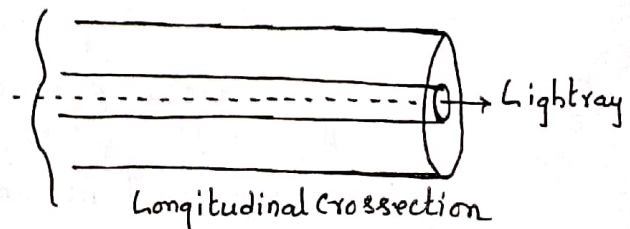
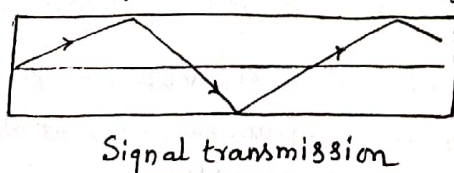
- (i) Low intermodal dispersion and lower broadening of light pulses being transmitted
- (ii) Larger bandwidth can be attained in these.

Disadvantage: In single mode fiber, a significant amount of the power resides outside the fiber core.

In this type a single light ray is transmitted. In step index single mode fiber core has small diameter and cladding has large diameter than core.

Transmission of Signal: The number of modes that the fiber supports depend on the dimension of the fiber. If the thickness of the fiber is so small (Diameter of core is small) that it supports only one mode then the fiber is called monomode (or) Single mode fiber.

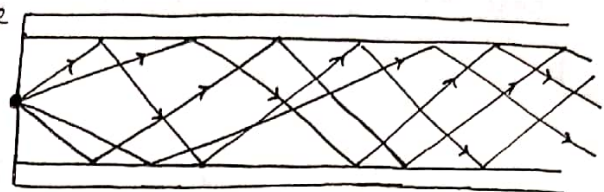
The monomode fiber has very small core diameter of the order 2 to 8 μ m. It requires coherent light source like laser.



Multimode fibre The fibre which supports more than one mode then it is called multimode fibre.

The core diameter of multimode fiber is of the order of 50 μm i.e. the core diameter is large

Multimode step index fiber :



Multimode step index fibers allow finite number of guided modes

Multimode step index fiber

Thus, the various light waves (incoherent sources) travelling along the core, will have propagation paths of different lengths. Hence they will take different times to reach a given destination.

The direction of polarization, alignment of electric and magnetic fields will be different in rays of different modes in multimode fiber. These modes depend on the boundary conditions. Mode volume of a multimode fiber is the number of modes the fiber can support.

Advantages : The multimode fibers have the following advantages.

- (i) we can ordinary Source : Multimode fibers can use spatially incoherent sources of light like LED's
- (ii) Easy to Couple : Due to large Numerical aperture and core diameters it is easy to couple them with other fibers and sources of light.
- (iii) Low tolerance requirements These fibers have lower tolerance requirements on their properties.

GRADED INDEX FIBERS [The refractive index of the core varies continuously]

In graded index multimode fiber, the refractive index of the core varies radially. The refractive index of core is maximum at its centre, which gradually falls (decrease) with increase of radius and at the core.

i.e. Refractive index of core varies with respect to distance (radial)

Let n be the refractive index, ' r ' be the radial distance.

n be the function of r i.e. $n = n(r)$

$$n(r) = n_1 \left[1 - 2\Delta \left(\frac{r}{a} \right)^p \right]^2$$

n_1 refractive index at the centre of the core

p : graded profile index number.

$$\Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1}$$

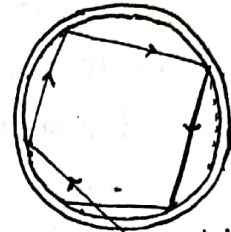
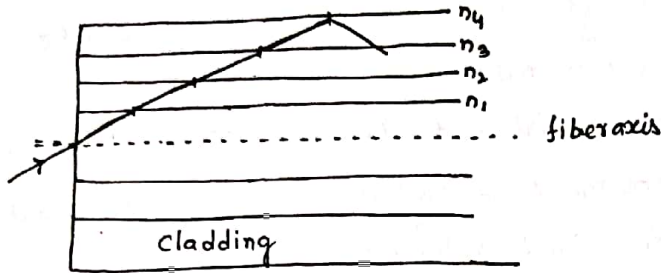
Case (a) $r > a$ $n(r) = n_1 \left(1 - 2\Delta \left(\frac{r}{a} \right)^p \right)^{1/2}$

Case (b) $r < a$ $n(r) = n_1 (1 - 2\Delta)^{1/2} = n_2$

γ : radial distance
 a : core radius
 Δ : index difference
 $\Delta \approx \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1}$ ($n_1 > n_2$)
 P : index profile

NOTE: The refractive index of the core material varies with respect to the distance. So that there exist Multiple refractions in graded index fiber with in core material

Advantage: Distortion is minimized by making the variation of the refractive index gradual from the axis of the core



Light ray
Cross-section View.

Multiple refractions in graded index fiber with core material

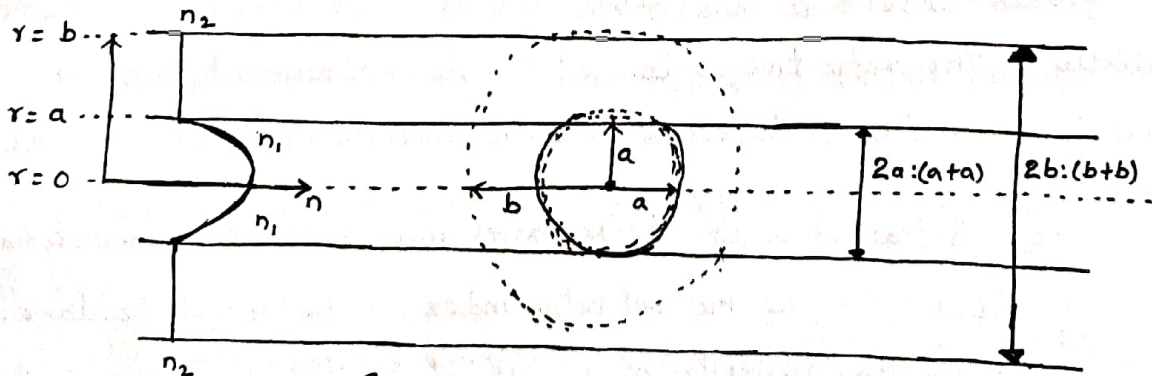
Graded index fiber have the following characteristics

- (i) Refractive index profile is circularly symmetric
- (ii) Fiber is multimodal with large core diameter
- (iii) Total internal reflection and refractive index change within the core region slowly.
- (iv) Refractive index variations are small

Multimode - Graded index fiber

A Graded index fiber is a multimode fiber with a core consisting of concentric layers of different refractive indices ($n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4 \dots$) $n_1 > n_2 > n_3 > n_4$

ie Refractive index of the core decreases with distance from the fiber axis $n \propto \frac{1}{r}$
 $n \propto \frac{1}{r}$ where r is the radial distance from the fiber axis



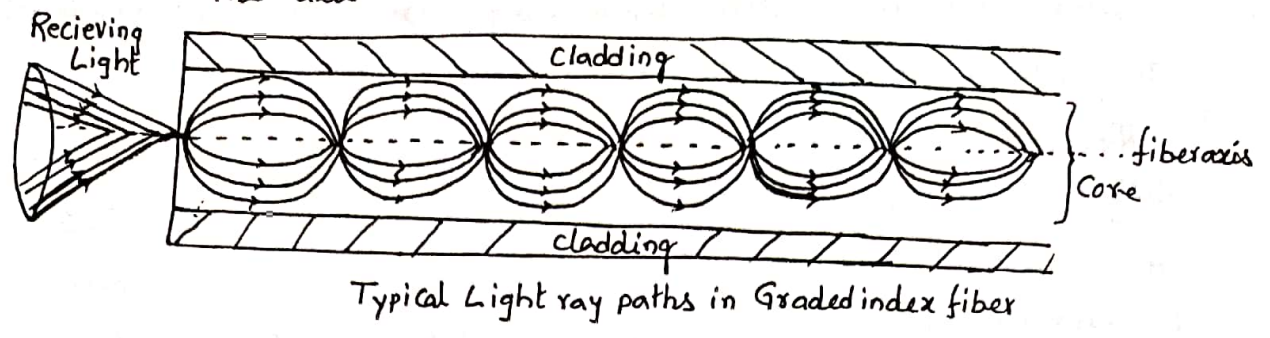
Graded index fiber - refractive index profile

n_1 - Refractive index of core : [it is Nonuniform]

n_2 - Refractive index of cladding

$r \rightarrow 0$: at fiber axis $r \rightarrow b$ cladding
 $r \rightarrow a$ with in core (a : core radius)

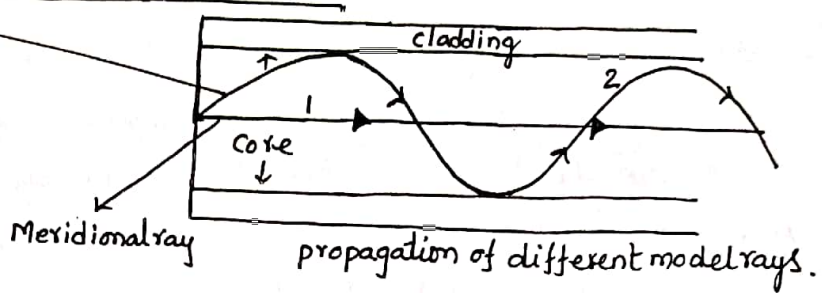
In Graded index fiber Numerical aperture decrease with radial distance from the axis



Transmission of Signal in Graded index fiber

which passes Skewray through the edge of core

(which passes through centre of fiber)



Graded index fiber is a multimode fiber that supports propagation of meridional rays. Signal pulse represented by 1* travelling along the axis of fiber, The Meridional rays travels through a medium of high refractive index, which are parallel to fiber axis. Advantage: Less inter modal dispersion (Than Step index multimode fiber)

Skew rays! (refraction takes place): The other pulse represented by 2*, travelling away from axis, through the edge of the core (from ~~to~~ high refractive index to low refractive index vice versa). The path of this (Skew ray) ray is Sinusoidal in nature. It travels longer distance

Advantage of G.I fiber Inter modal dispersion is reduced to minimum

Disadvantage of G.I fiber : propagate only half the power carried by the Step index fiber (power loss is takes place)

propagation of Modes in the core : The number of possible propagation modes in the core is known as V-number of fiber

V- number for graded index fiber $V = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} a (NA)$ λ : wavelength
 a : radius of core
 NA Numerical aperture.

Total Number of modes through Step index fiber $N = V^2 \Rightarrow N_{SI} = V^2$

Total Number of modes through Graded index fiber $N = \frac{V^2}{2} \Rightarrow N_{GI} = \frac{V^2}{2}$

$\therefore N_{GI} = \frac{N_{SI}}{2}$

(Q) what is acceptance angle? what is acceptance cone?

Derive an expression for acceptance angle? Derive expression for Numerical aperture

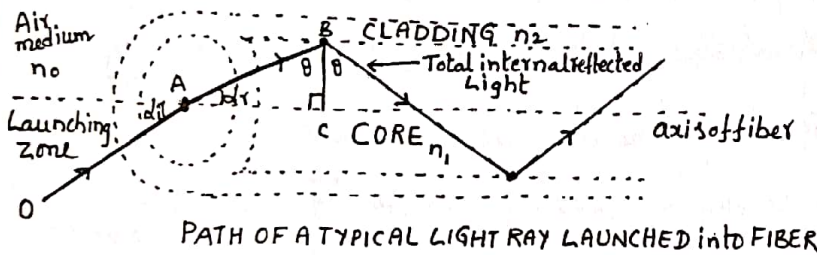
The light is incident at the face of optical fiber at different angles.

only a particular amount light is only received by the fiber which travels along the interface of core and cladding. For total internal reflection:

the incident light is greater than critical angle (θ_c) will undergo total internal reflection and propagate through the core. The other rays are refracted into the cladding material and are lost.

All the incident light rays are not accepted by fiber only particular rays are accepted for propagation. Acceptance angle is nothing but, at which angle the light is accepted for the propagation [* Greater than θ_c]

Acceptance angle (α_m): Acceptance angle is defined as the maximum angle of incidence at the interface of air medium and core medium for which the light ray enters (coupled) into the core and travels along the interface of core and cladding and will propagate along the fiber.



OA: incident light ray from a medium of refractive index n_0

α_i : Angle of incidence

α_r : Angle of refraction

n_1 : Refractive index of core

n_2 : Refractive index of cladding

CASE STUDY: Entering of Light ray to the axis of fiber * Generally $n_1 > n_2$

Let a light ray OA enters the fiber at an angle α_i to the axis of the fiber (Launching)

Consider the light ray enters from a medium of refractive index n_0

The light ray refracts at an angle α_r and strikes the core-cladding interface at angle θ

* Condition If the angle ' θ ' is greater than its critical angle θ_c , the light ray undergoes TOTAL INTERNAL REFLECTION at the interface

According to Snell's law $n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \sin \alpha_r \rightarrow (1)$

From the right angled triangle ABC $\alpha_r + \theta = 90^\circ \rightarrow (2)$

$\alpha_r = 90^\circ - \theta \rightarrow (3)$

Substitute α_r value in (1) $n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \sin(90^\circ - \theta)$

$n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \cos \theta \rightarrow (4)$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \because \mu_1 \sin i = \mu_2 \sin r \\ \mu_1 = n_0; i = \alpha_i \\ \mu_2 = n_1; r = \alpha_r \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \because \text{Total subtend angle } 180^\circ \\ \text{Right angle: } 90^\circ \\ \text{'b' + 'c' other two angles: } 90^\circ \\ 90^\circ + 90^\circ = 180^\circ \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left[\because \sin(90^\circ - \theta) = \cos \theta \right]$$

From (4) $n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \sin(90 - \theta)$

$n_0 \sin \alpha_i = n_1 \cos \theta$

$\sin \alpha_i = \frac{n_1 \cos \theta}{n_0} \rightarrow (5)$

[As per condition] when $\theta = \theta_c$; $\alpha_i = \alpha_m = \text{maximum } \alpha \text{ value}$

\therefore from (5) $\sin \alpha_m = \frac{n_1 \cos \theta_c}{n_0} \rightarrow (6)$ [α_m : Maximum value of angle of incidence]

If n_1 and n_2 are refractive indices of core and cladding

If the angle of incidence = θ_c ; then angle of refraction = 90°

According to law of refraction $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2 \rightarrow (7)$

Here $\theta_1 = \theta_c \Rightarrow \theta_2 = 90^\circ$ [As per definition of critical angle]

$\therefore n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 \sin 90^\circ \rightarrow (8)$

$\therefore n_1 \sin \theta_c = n_2 (1) \Rightarrow \sin \theta_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \rightarrow (9)$

from equation (9) we can find $\cos \theta_c$ value i.e. $\cos \theta_c = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_c}$

$\therefore \cos \theta_c = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1}\right)^2}$

$\therefore \cos \theta_c = \sqrt{\frac{n_1^2 - n_2^2}{n_1^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_1} \rightarrow (10)$

* from equation (10) we can substitute $\cos \theta_c$ value in equation (6)

$\therefore \sin \alpha_m = \frac{n_1}{n_0} \left[\frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_1} \right]$

* For a medium \rightarrow

$\therefore \sin \alpha_m = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0} \rightarrow (11)$

If the medium surrounding the fiber is air, then $n_0 = 1$

For air medium $\Rightarrow \therefore \sin \alpha_m = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{1} \Rightarrow \sin \alpha_m = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$

$\therefore \alpha_m = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2})$

Above expression represent acceptance angle

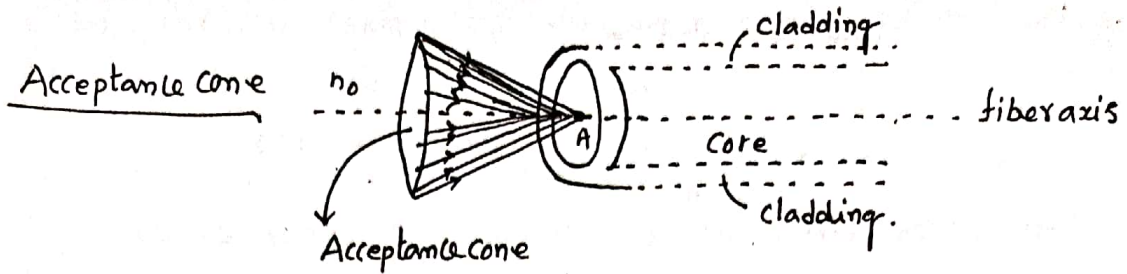
This maximum angle (α_m) is called the acceptance angle

* Acceptance angle (α_m): Acceptance angle is the angle at which light should be incidented on the fiber for the propagation through it by satisfying the condition total internal reflection (TIR)

NOTE 1: Light is incident at angle θ greater than θ_c it undergoes total internal reflection. ($\theta > \theta_c$)

NOTE 2: $\theta < \theta_c$ then the incident light will be lost in the cladding

NOTE 3 propagation of Light through as a result of Multiple total internal reflections



For the light rays to propagate through optical fiber by total internal reflection, they must be incident on the fiber core within acceptance angle defined by conical half angle.

Light launched at the fiber end within this acceptance cone alone will be accepted and propagated to the other end of the fiber by total internal reflection.

Rotating the acceptance angle about the fiber axis describes the acceptance cone of the fiber.

Numerical Aperture Light gathering capacity of the fiber is expressed in terms of maximum acceptance angle (α_m) and is termed as

or Numerical Aperture is a measure of its light gathering power.

The Numerical Aperture (NA) is defined as the sine of the maximum acceptance angle thus Numerical Aperture (NA) = $\sin \alpha_m$

Derivation is specified in above question. Derive for $\sin \alpha_m$.

$$\therefore NA = \sin \alpha_m \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\text{we know that } \sin \alpha_m = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2} \rightarrow (2)$$

$$\text{from (1) and (2) } NA = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

$$\therefore NA = \sqrt{(n_1 + n_2)(n_1 - n_2)} \rightarrow (3)$$

$$\Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \quad \text{where } \Delta \text{ is the relative refractive index difference of an optical fiber.}$$

$$\therefore \Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \rightarrow (4)$$

$$\therefore n_1 - n_2 = \Delta n_1 \rightarrow (5)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{NA = \sqrt{(n_1 + n_2) \Delta n_1}}$$

Numerical aperture is depend on n_1 , n_2 and independent on the fiber dimensions.

Value of NA ranges from 0.1 to 0.5

If NA Value is large then the fiber will accept large amount of light from the source.

(Q) Define the relative refractive index difference of an optical fiber.

Show that it is related to Numerical aperture.

Let us consider the refractive index of core material is n_1 and refractive index of cladding material is n_2 .

Relative refractive index difference: It is defined as ~~fractional~~ difference in refractive indices n_1 and n_2 are the refractive indices of core and cladding material respectively.

Let Δn be the relative refractive index difference.

$\Delta n = n_1 - n_2$ i.e. Δn is related to Numerical aperture of the fiber

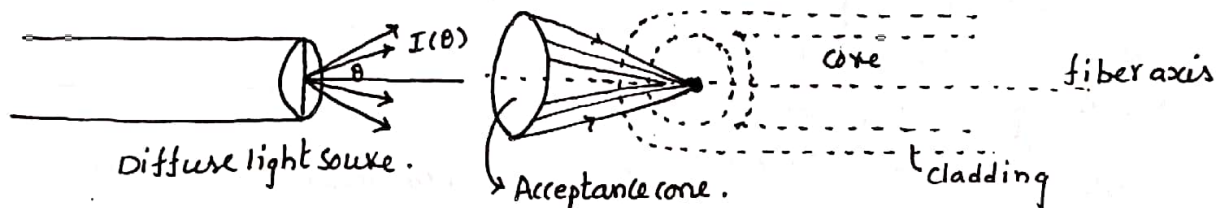
$$\text{as } \boxed{NA = \sqrt{2n_1 \Delta n}}$$

Let Δ be the fractional difference in refractive indices of core & cladding

$$\Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \Rightarrow \Delta = \frac{\Delta n}{n_1} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\therefore \text{from (1)} \Delta n = \Delta n_1 \rightarrow (2)$$

Light Source: It emits the power which is coupled by the end face of fiber for propagation. Only some amount power can be collected by fiber and propagated along the fiber i.e. $(NA)^2$ can be collected by the fiber and propagated along the fiber



Consider a small diffuse light source as the isotropic (same in all directions) radiator as shown in above figure is captured by end face of fiber.

Light emitted Normal to end surface of fiber. i.e. In which the power radiated per unit solid angle in the direction θ to the normal to the surface is given by $I(\theta) = I_0 \cos \theta \rightarrow (3)$

$$\therefore \text{Total power emitted by light source is } \Phi_0 = \int_0^{\pi/2} I(\theta) d\Omega \rightarrow (4)$$

$$\therefore \Phi_0 = \int_0^{\pi/2} (I_0 \cos \theta) d\Omega \rightarrow (4)$$

[$d\Omega$: Small element of Solid angle.]

$$\therefore d\Omega = 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta \rightarrow (5)$$

$$\therefore \Phi_0 = \int_0^{\pi/2} I_0 \cos \theta 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} I_0 (2 \sin \theta \cos \theta) \pi d\theta$$

$$\therefore \Phi_0 = I_0 \pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin 2\theta d\theta \quad [\because \pi, I_0 \text{ constants}]$$

$$\therefore \Phi_0 = I_0 \pi \left[-\frac{\cos 2\theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{I_0 \pi}{2} [\cos 2\theta]_0^{\pi/2}$$

$$\Phi_0 = \frac{I_0 \pi}{2} [1+1] \Rightarrow \Phi_0 = \pi I_0$$

$$\therefore \Phi_0 = \pi I_0 \rightarrow (6)$$

If α_m is acceptance angle, the angle at which the power is accepted by the fiber for propagation

But the power from such a source that can be collected by an adjacent fiber whose core diameter is greater than the diameter of the source is given by $\Phi \Rightarrow \Phi = \int_0^{\alpha_m} I(\theta) d\Omega = \int_0^{\alpha_m} (I_0 \cos\theta) 2\pi \sin\theta d\theta$.

$$\therefore \Phi = \int_0^{\alpha_m} (I_0 \cos\theta) 2\pi \sin\theta d\theta \rightarrow (7)$$

$$\therefore \Phi = \int_0^{\alpha_m} I_0 \pi 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta d\theta$$

$$\therefore \Phi = \pi I_0 \sin^2 \alpha_m \rightarrow (8)$$

we know that $\Phi = \pi I_0$ [from (6)] substitute in eq (8)

$$\therefore \Phi = \Phi_0 \sin^2 \alpha_m \rightarrow (9)$$

we know that Numerical aperture (NA) = $\sin \alpha_m \rightarrow (10)$

ie Numerical aperture is directly related to acceptance angle

$$\therefore NA = \sin \alpha_m \Rightarrow \sin^2 \alpha_m = (NA)^2 \rightarrow (11)$$

$$\therefore \text{from (9) and (11)} \quad \Phi = \Phi_0 (NA)^2 \rightarrow (12)$$

$$\therefore \frac{\Phi}{\Phi_0} = (NA)^2 = \sin^2 \alpha_m \rightarrow (13)$$

we know that $\sin \alpha_m = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2} = \sqrt{(n_1 + n_2)(n_1 - n_2)}$

$$\sin^2 \alpha_m = (n_1 + n_2)(n_1 - n_2) \rightarrow (14)$$

Substitute $n_1 - n_2 = \Delta n =$ Relative refractive index difference of the fiber

$$\therefore \sin^2 \alpha_m = (n_1 + n_2) \Delta n \rightarrow (14)$$

$$\therefore \Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} \Rightarrow \Delta = \frac{\Delta n}{n_1} \Rightarrow \Delta n_1 = \Delta n \rightarrow (15)$$

$$\text{from (14) and (15)} \quad \sin^2 \alpha_m = (n_1 + n_2) \Delta n_1 \rightarrow (15)$$

$$\text{As } n_1 \approx n_2 \text{ we can take } n_1 + n_2 = 2n_1 \rightarrow (16)$$

$$\text{from (15) and (16)} \quad \sin^2 \alpha_m = (2n_1) \Delta n_1$$

$$\therefore \sin^2 \alpha_m = 2n_1^2 \Delta \rightarrow (17)$$

$$\therefore \text{from equations (13) and (17) we can write } \frac{\Phi}{\Phi_0} = (NA)^2 = 2n_1^2 \Delta \rightarrow (18)$$

$$\therefore \text{Numerical aperture } (NA)^2 = 2n_1^2 \Delta \rightarrow (19)$$

$$\text{But } \Delta = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} = \frac{\Delta n}{n_1} \rightarrow (20)$$

$$\text{from (19) \& (20)} \quad (NA)^2 = (2n_1^2) \left(\frac{\Delta n}{n_1} \right)$$

$$\therefore (NA)^2 = 2n_1 \Delta n \Rightarrow NA = \sqrt{2n_1 \Delta n}$$

$$NA = \sqrt{2n_1 \Delta n}$$

Δn is relative refractive index difference

From above equation Numerical aperture of fiber (NA) is related to the relative refractive index difference of an optical fiber.

(Q) Explain the advantages of optical communication system.

[Or] Discuss the various advantages of communication with optical fiber over the conventional coaxial cables.

Conventional coaxial cables constitute copper (or) Aluminium based materials are high cost, and having disadvantages in communication process as compared to optical fiber (fabrication of fibers with silica)

Conventional coaxial cables:- loss of power; dispersion; insecurity, high cost; maintenance is difficult; they may pick up line currents interfering with electromagnetic signals; Leakage of signals; Distortions due to geographical effects

Optical fiber communication advantages over conventional coaxial cables

- Enormous Bandwidth (10^{14} Hz), Low transmission loss.
- Immunity to crosstalk (crosstalk is negligible)
- Electric Isolation (No effect by electric and magnetic field)
- Small size and weight (Easy installation: 10 μ m: 50 μ m)
- Signal Security (Does not radiate 100% signal security)
- Ruggedness and Flexibility (Damage rate is very less)
- Low cost and availability (Compare to copper: Aluminium cables)
- Reliability

Let us see the advantages of optical fiber communication over conventional communication system.

Optical fibers are dielectric waveguides (silica glass) so that optical signals can be transmitted through the fiber over a very long distances with low loss, low attenuation, low dispersion. Thus one can achieve very high band width (or) high data rate using fiber optic cables.

- (a) Enormous Bandwidth: The bandwidth of the optical communication channel is very large as compared to conventional coaxial communication channel. Due to high bandwidth (10^{14} Hz) optical carrier frequency there exist possibility of greater information carrying capacity. There are transmitting different signals with different wavelengths in parallel to the same optical fiber. A fiber has a capacity of 500 channels and its external diameter is not more than 0.5mm.

(b) Low transmission loss : Optical fibers have very low transmission losses

Due to the usage of ultra low loss fibers and erbium doped silica fibers as optical amplifiers, one can achieve almost lossless transmission.

The repeaters can be kept at a very long distance like 45 kms. The coaxial cables require repeater repeater every 1-6 kms. This saves considerable cost

(c) Immunity to crosstalk optical fibers are made out of dielectric materials hence they are free from electrical and electromagnetic interference (EMI) since optical interference among different fibers is not possible, crosstalk is negligible even many fibers are cabled together.

(d) Electrical Isolation : Unlike their metallic counterparts optical fibers are electrically insulated. Optical fibers are made from silica which is an electrical insulator. Therefore they do not pick up any current. This makes optical fibers suitable for use in electrically hazardous environments.

(e) Small Size and Weight : The size of the fiber ranges from 10 μ m to 50 μ m hence they are compact and little weight in comparison with copper cables. These advantages make them to use in aircrafts and satellites.

(f) Signal security The transmitted signal through the fiber does not radiate. Thus, the optical cable is superior than coaxial conventional cables. This feature (signal security) is attractive for military, banking and general secured data transmission applications.

(g) Flexibility The fiber cable can be easily bend or twisted without damaging it. whereas conventional cables (metallic cables) are not flexible. It is easy to handle, installation, storage, transportation, maintenance

(h) Low cost and availability Optical fibers are made out of silica which is glass. available in abundance. Hence they are cheaper compared to metallic wave guides and coaxial cables. optical fibers offer low cost communication

(i) Reliability The optical fibers are made from silicon glass which does not undergo any chemical reaction or corrosion. Its quality is not affected by external radiation

Due to All the above factors ~~of~~ Optical fiber communication have the advantages over the conventional coaxial cables (copper and metallic (AI) cables)

Describe the Communication process using optical fibers

(Or) Draw the Block diagram of an optical fiber communication system explain function of each block.

In practice, the optical fibers positioned in supporting cables.

The Signals can be directly transmitted upto 40 Km without much attenuation.

Beyond this distance (40 Km) Amplifiers Repeaters are used to amplify the signals at suitable distances.

The optical communication system comprises with Transmitter section Receiver section.

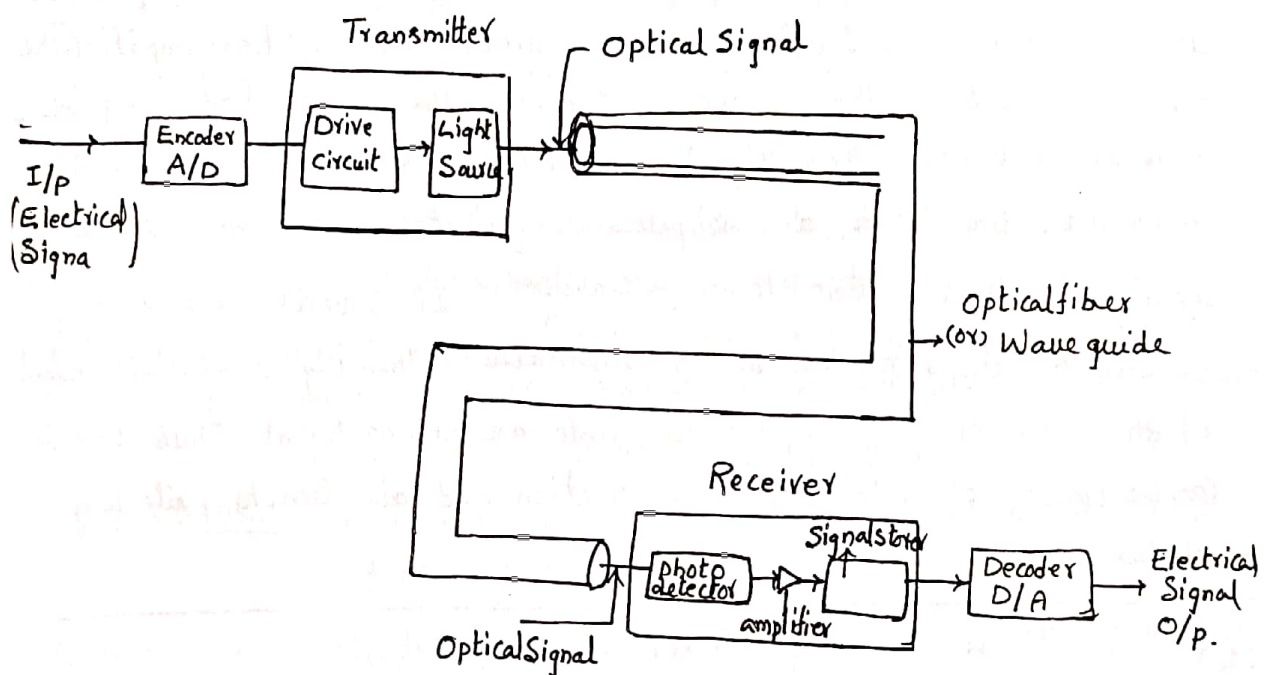


Fig: Block Diagram of fiber Optic Communication System

Function of each block is explained as follows.

Input: The input analog electrical signal which is the information to be carried is converted to digital signal in A/D converter.

Encoder: It is an electronic system that converts the analog information like voice, figures, objects etc into binary data. This binary data contains a series of electrical pulses. The information is converted to digital signal in Encoder for transmission. The Digital data is converted into suitable optical signal in the form of light pulses using the Laser source.

Transmitter: It consists of two parts, they are drive circuit and Light Source. Light source is a semiconductor infra red laser (or) LED's

are used. The light pulses are transmitted through long optical fibers. The electrical signals are converted into optical signals, with the help of specially made connector optical signal will be received by the receiver (from the) waveguide from the transmitter.

Waveguide (or) Optical fiber: It is a non-metallic waveguide which carries information in the form of optical signals with the help of specially made connector optical signal will be received by the receiver from the waveguide.

Receiver: It consists of three parts, they are photodetector, amplifier and signal restorer. The photodetector converts the optical signals into the equivalent electrical signals and supply them to amplifier. The amplifier amplifies the electric signals as they become weak during the journey through waveguide, over long distance. The signal restorer keeps all the electric signals in a sequential form and supplies to detector in the suitable way.

Decoder (D/A converter Digital to analog converter) It converts the received electric signals into the analog information. The digital electrical output of the detector is then converted into an analog signal. Thus signals can be transmitted without much attenuation and distortion to quite long distances.

(Q) What are important features of optical fibers
write the uses of fiber optics in different fields
applications of optical fibers in various fields.

Optical fibers are employed in various fields.

- (i) Communication System
- (ii) Sensors. (fiber optic sensors)
- (iii) Medical [gastrosopes and other medical instruments]
- (iv) Industrial applications.

Communication System Optical fibers are very attractive alternatives to twisted wire or coaxial cables in communication links.

- They carry information, i.e. information-carrying capacity is high as compared to conventional cables [Bandwidth of the order 10^{14} Hz]
- Fibers are dielectric waveguides which transmit the optical

the optical signal or data through them with very low attenuation and very low dispersion.

Thus one can achieve very high bandwidth (or) high data rate using fiber optic cables.

Low transmission loss

For long distance communication fibers of 0.002 dB/km are used. So that one can achieve almost loss less transmission.

Signal Security: Optical fiber communication provides 100% signal security.

Enormous Bandwidth

The data rate (or) information carrying capacity of optical fibers is enhanced to many orders of magnitude.

Sensors: Fiber optics are used as sensor

Sensors: There are two types of fiber optic sensors → Intrinsic → extrinsic

Sensors are the devices used to measure (or) monitor quantities such as displacement, pressure, temperature, flow rate, liquid level, chemical composition etc. A smoke detector and pollution detector can be made from fibers. Intrinsic sensors [produce the macroscopic results]

Intensity-modulated sensors

works on the principle of intensity variation. Represents variation of intensity of light.

Phase sensor

It is a temperature sensor which utilizes the principle of phase variations.

Extrinsic sensors [produce the microscopic results] ex: Magnetic field sensors

1 Fiber optic sensors

Measured parameter	Modulation effect in optical fiber
1. Temperature	Thermoluminescence
2. Magnetic field	Magneto-optic effect
3. Pressure	Piezo-optic effect
4. Mechanical force	Stress birefringence.
5. Electric current	Electroluminescence
6. Electric field	Electro optic effect
7. Density	Triboluminescence
8. Nuclear radiation	Radiation induced luminescence

Industrial applications: In laser processing of materials like drilling welding and cutting, the high power laser is located at one place and the laser radiation will be transmitted to different locations in the shop floor through optical fiber cables.

Medical application of fiber optics [write a Note on fiber optic medical endoscopy]

optical fibers are used in endoscopes to get the image of the particular part of the body. In laser, optical fibers are used to transmit the laser beam to the point of interest where surgery is to be done. Fiber scopes are employed widely in endoscopic applications.

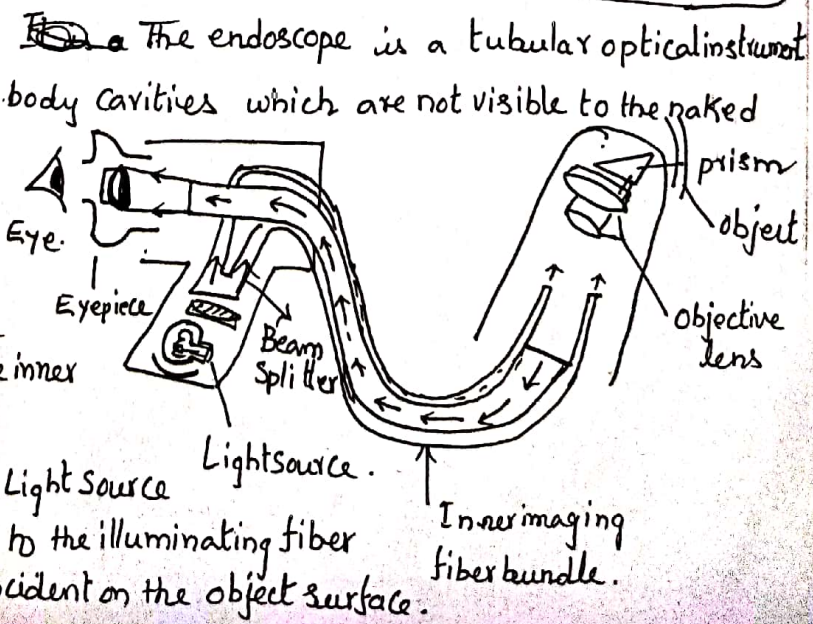
Fiber optic endoscopy: To view internal body parts without performing surgery

Fiber optic endoscopes:	Application (use).
(a) <u>Gastroscope</u> : It consists of a long flexible rubber tube and a rigid metal section that has a lens and various controls	→ To examine the Stomach → photograph tumors, and ulcers → To remove objects that have been <u>swallowed</u>
(b) <u>Branchoscope</u> →	To view the upper passages of Lungs
(c) <u>Arthroscope</u> →	To study the small spaces within joints.
(d) <u>Cardioscope</u> →	heart cavities; operation: aspiration of mucus, valvular defects, septal defect
(e) <u>Cystoscope</u> →	examine tumors, inflammation, stones
(f) <u>proctoscop</u> →	<u>Range of use</u> Rectum <u>Operation</u> hemorrhoids

Working of Endoscopes

The endoscope is a tubular optical instrument to inspect (or) view the body cavities which are not visible to the naked eye normally.

Usually in each endoscope there are two fiber bundles. one is used to illuminate the object and other is to view the inner structure of



Light rays emitted from the Light source are focused and coupled to the illuminating fiber bundle and finally incident on the object surface.

Chapter - 1 Dielectric properties

Introduction The dielectrics are the substances which do not contain free electrons under normal conditions, Insulators do not have free electrons (or) conduction electrons so that Dielectrics are basically electrical insulating materials.

The dielectric materials are considered as materials in which electrostatic fields can persist for a long time. The dielectrics are electrically insulators, because electrons are bound to their parent molecules.

Examples of Dielectrics : Mica, glass, plastic, natural rubber, paper, bakelite, polymer materials, vegetable oils, transformer oil.

Importance of Dielectrics : The dielectric materials play a vital role in many electronic applications such materials in capacitors, ferroelectric, antiferroelectric, piezoelectric and magnetic materials.

[1] Explain the polarization mechanism in dielectrics?

Dielectrics exhibit the phenomenon of electronic polarization in the presence of the electric field and have high resistivities.

When an electric field is applied on dielectrics then the positive charges displace in the direction of the field, while negative charges are displaced in the opposite direction. The displacement of charges produce local dipoles throughout the solid.

Electric polarization : The process of producing dipoles by the influence of an applied electric field is electric polarization in case of dielectrics.

Due to the polarization the +ve and -ve ions displaced, then dipoles will exist. Due to applied field the dipole moment will present. The process of polarization is contribution of electronic, ionic and orientational polarization.

When a dielectric is placed in an external field the polarized charges produce dipole moment. There exist dipole moment on the presence of Electric field.

P is dipolement $\therefore P = \frac{q_i \cdot b}{A \cdot b}$ $q_i \cdot b = \mu_e$ electric dipolement.

The induced charge produce polarization $A \cdot b =$ volume of slab.

The polarization may also be defined as the electric dipole moment per unit volume
ie Polarization $P = \frac{\mu_e}{V}$; $\vec{E}, \vec{D}, \vec{P}$ are related by $D = \epsilon_0 E + P$

Consider an isolated atom is placed under E , the light electrons move much more than the heavy nucleus. Hence the centre of the electron cloud shifts in the opposite direction of E .

Due to the effect of an applied electric field on dielectric there exist displacement in between centres of +ve and -ve charge. So that due to the displacement of charge each atom becomes a dipole. The local field will developed individually.

Total polarization $P = N \alpha_t E$

where $\alpha_t =$ Total polarizability $\therefore \alpha_t = \alpha_e + \alpha_i + \alpha_o$

where α_e is electronic polarizability; $\alpha_i =$ ionic polarizability; $\alpha_o =$ orientational polarizability

Due to presence of external field dipoles are rotate and tend to align in line with field E .

α_e & α_i are independent of Temperature; Dielectric constant depend on temperature

Some important definitions ; (a) permittivity : permittivity is a quantity which represents the dielectric property of medium. permittivity of a material indicates the easily polarisable nature of material. It is denoted by ϵ

For vacuum ϵ is called permittivity of free space i.e. $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m} \left[\frac{\text{Farad}}{\text{meter}} \right]$

(b) Relative permittivity : It is the ratio between the permittivity of medium and permittivity of vacuum
Denoted by $\epsilon_r = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$ [ϵ_r is constant for isotropic material]

(c) Dielectric constant (K) The dielectric constant is defined as the ratio between the permittivity of that medium and permittivity of free space $K = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} = \epsilon_r$
K has no units

(d) Dielectric strength : It can be defined as the minimum voltage required to produce dielectric breakdown unit volt/meter

(e) polarization : The process of producing electric dipoles which are oriented along the field direction is called polarization. This phenomena observed with the effect of external field

(f) polar molecules They have unsymmetrical structure and have permanent dipole moment
Examples H_2O , HCl , CO , N_2 , NH_3 etc. In case of these molecules the centres of gravity of +ve and -ve charges are separated

(g) Non polar molecules : These are having zero electrical dipole moment [H_2 , O_2 , SO_2 , C_6H_6]
In case of these molecules the centres of gravity of +ve and -ve charges are coincide.

(h) Dipole moment $\mu = qd$ (where q is the magnitude of charge)
Units for μ is coulomb-meter. d is separation of +ve and -ve charge

(i) polarizability It can be defined as the ratio of average dipole moment to the electric field applied
It is denoted by ' α ' $\therefore \alpha = \frac{\mu}{E}$ Units [Farad m^3]

(j) polarization vector P : It is defined as the average dipole moment present per unit volume of a dielectric. It is denoted by P units Coulomb/m^2
 $P = N\mu$ when N : number of atoms present per unit volume; μ is averaged dipole moment

(k) Electric displacement vector : The number lines of forces received by unit Area is called flux density is denoted by electric displacement vectors. $\therefore D = \frac{q}{4\pi r^2 \text{ Area}}$

Relation between E and D & K $E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}$; $D = \frac{q}{4\pi r^2}$ $\therefore \frac{E}{D} = \frac{\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}}{\frac{q}{4\pi r^2}} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

$\therefore \frac{E}{D} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow \boxed{D = \epsilon E} \rightarrow (1)$

But $\epsilon_r = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \rightarrow (2)$ From (1) & (2) $D = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E$

$\boxed{D = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E} \rightarrow (3)$

But $K = \epsilon_r$ Sub in (3) $\therefore \boxed{D = K \epsilon_0 E}$ For isotropic materials

[2] with usual notation show that $P = \epsilon_0(\epsilon_r - 1)E$ (or) Obtain a relation between D, P, E for dielectrics (or) Obtain a relationship between electric displacement vector D ; Polarization P , applied electric field strength E In case of dielectric material

For many of the crystal D varies nonlinearly with E

$\therefore D = \epsilon E \rightarrow (1)$ But $\epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 \therefore D = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E \rightarrow (2)$

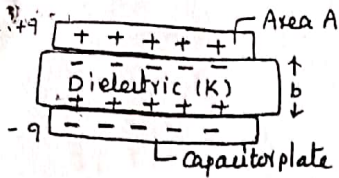
ϵ_r is equal to dielectric constant i.e. $\epsilon_r = K$

\therefore eq (2) can be written as $D = K \epsilon_0 E \rightarrow (3)$

But polarization is defined as $P = \left(\frac{q_i}{A} \right) \hat{i} \rightarrow (4)$

where q_i is the magnitude of the induced charge developed at and interior to the surface of Area ' A ' of the dielectric

\hat{i} is a unit vector along the line joining negative and positive induced charges (12)



Let us consider parallel plate capacitor placed by dielectric slab between the plates

Due to the external field exist dipole moment and the induced charges developed near the surfaces of parallel plates. These exist electric dipole moment (M_e)

The polarization $P = \frac{M_e}{V}$; D, E, P are related by $D = \epsilon_0 E + P$

$\therefore D = \epsilon_0 E + P \rightarrow (5)$ in this equation $D = K\epsilon_0 E$ substitute the value in (5)

$$\therefore K\epsilon_0 E = \epsilon_0 E + P \Rightarrow (K-1)\epsilon_0 E = P \Rightarrow P = \epsilon_0 (K-1)E \rightarrow (6)$$

But ϵ_r is equal to dielectric constant i.e. $\epsilon_r = K$.

\therefore substitute $K = \epsilon_r$ in equation (6) $\therefore P = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1)E$

Relation between electric polarization and electric susceptibility of the dielectric medium

$$\text{Electronic polarization } P_e = N d_e E$$

d_e is electronic polarizability

N is number of molecules per unit volume in Dielectric material

The polarization generated by the separation

of the effective centre of the electron cloud from the nucleus of the atom is called the electronic polarization, it is denoted by P_e $\therefore P_e = N d_e E \rightarrow (1)$

$$\therefore \frac{P_e}{E} = \epsilon_0 (K-1) \Rightarrow \left[\frac{P_e}{\epsilon_0 E} = (K-1) \right] \Rightarrow \left[\chi_e = (K-1) \right] \cdot P_e = \epsilon_0 (K-1) E \rightarrow (2) \quad P_e = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E$$

$\therefore \frac{P_e}{\epsilon_0 E}$ is called the electric susceptibility of the dielectric medium

$\therefore \left[\frac{P_e}{E} = \epsilon_0 (K-1) \right]$ if χ_e is the electrical susceptibility of Dielectric material

$$\therefore \chi_e = \left[(K-1) \right] \therefore P_e = \epsilon_0 (K-1) E$$

For vacuum $\chi_e = 0$

$\therefore \chi_e = \left[(K-1) \right]$ In case of vacuum $\epsilon = \epsilon_0$

$$\chi_e = \left[\epsilon_0 (K-1) \right] \rightarrow (3) \text{ but } K=1 \Rightarrow \chi_e = \epsilon_0 [1-1] = 0$$

$P_e = K\epsilon_0 \chi_e E \rightarrow$ Required Relation between P_e & χ_e

Relation between susceptibility, Dielectric constant and ϵ_0 : $P = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E$

(or) Relation between χ, K, ϵ_0 : $\chi = \epsilon_0 (K-1) \rightarrow (1)$

$K = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$ from definition

$$\chi = \epsilon_0 K - \epsilon_0 \rightarrow (2)$$

$\therefore K\epsilon_0 = \epsilon$ Substitute in eq(2)

$$\therefore \chi = \epsilon - \epsilon_0 \Rightarrow \epsilon = \epsilon_0 + \chi \rightarrow (3)$$

$$\therefore \epsilon = \epsilon_0 + \chi \rightarrow (3)$$

dividing the eq(3) on both sides with ϵ_0

$$\therefore \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\epsilon_0 + \chi}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \left[K = \frac{\epsilon_0 + \chi}{\epsilon_0} \right] = \left[K = 1 + \frac{\chi}{\epsilon_0} \right]$$

[3] Explain electronic polarization in atom and Obtain an expression for electronic polarizability in terms the radius of the atom?

Electronic polarization: The polarization generated by the separation of the effective centre of the electron cloud from the nucleus of the atom is called the electronic polarization.

It is denoted P_e $\therefore P_e = N d_e E$

where d_e is electronic polarizability

N is number of atoms per unit volume of Dielectric material

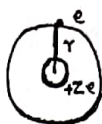
E is applied electric field intensity

Consider a simple atom, it contains a light electron cloud of negative charge uniformly distributed over a sphere of radius 'a' and positive charges concentrated at the centre of the sphere

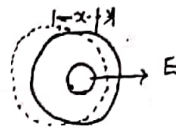
The polarization in atomic view gives the result that is the centres of the positive and negative charges in atom displaced by the applied field.

The applied electric field E separates the equal and opposite charge centres within the atom so that the atom becomes a dipole. This happens to all the atoms in the material

Consider an isolated atom is placed under electric field E , the light electrons move much more than the heavy nucleus



Atom without field ($E=0$)



Atom with the field.

Hence the centre of the electron cloud shifts (displaces) in the opposite direction of \vec{E} . By the application of external field the atom becomes a dipole and possesses dipole moment

Consider an atom with atomic number Z then the charge on its nucleus is $+Ze$

when this atom is subjected to electric field the nucleus and the electron cloud are pulled apart by an amount x

Then the force along the direction of the field is

$$F_1 = Ze \cdot E \rightarrow (1)$$

The nucleus is surrounded by electron cloud of charge $-Ze$ distributed over a sphere of radius r , the charge density is given as $\rho = \frac{\text{Charge}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{-Ze}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3} = -\frac{3}{4} \left[\frac{Ze}{\pi r^3} \right]$

Assuming uniform distribution of electron cloud, the

$$\text{total charge in the electron cloud is } \frac{4}{3}\pi x^3 \rho = \left[\frac{4}{3}\pi x^3 \right] \left[-\frac{3}{4} \frac{Ze}{\pi r^3} \right] = -\frac{Ze x^3}{r^3} \rightarrow (2)$$

[attractive]

The coulomb force between the nucleus and the electron cloud is F_2

$$\therefore F_2 = \frac{Ze}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x^2} \left[-\frac{Ze x^3}{r^3} \right] = -\frac{Z^2 e^2 x}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} \rightarrow (4)$$

In equilibrium condition, the forces F_1 and F_2 are equal i.e. $ZeE = -\frac{Z^2 e^2 x}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3}$

$$\therefore x = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3}{Ze} E \rightarrow (5)$$

Electronic dipole moment per atom $P_e = Ze(x) \rightarrow (6)$

$$\text{Substitute the value of } x \text{ in eq(6)} \therefore P_e = Ze \left[\frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3}{Ze} E \right]$$

$$\therefore P_e = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3 E \rightarrow (7)$$

By definition $P_e = \alpha_e E \rightarrow (8) \quad (\because P = \alpha E)$

$$\therefore \text{Comparing (7) and (8)} \quad \boxed{\alpha_e = 4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3}$$

α_e is known as electronic polarizability. ~~is a measure~~ electronic polarizability is expressed in terms of radius of atom

$[\alpha_e \propto r^3]$ where 'r' radius of atom

[4] Explain the ionic polarization?

Ionic polarization: The polarization produced by the relative displacement of the ions is called the ionic polarization

It is an additional polarization due to relative displacement of the atomic components of the molecule in the presence of Electric field

when an electric field \vec{E} is applied to such a material, the opposite

✗

Kind of ions are pulled apart and the normal separation of the ions increases

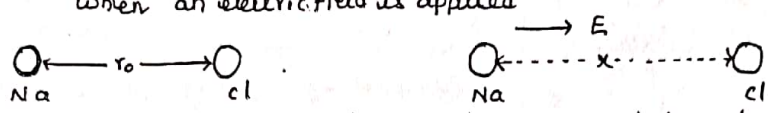
when a field is applied the original form of the molecule is disturbed, and dipoles are formed and polarized under E. So that this induced dipole moment is proportional to the applied field i.e. $\mu_i = d_i E$ where d_i ionic polarizability ($\because \mu = \alpha E$)

For most materials the ionic polarizability is less than the electronic polarizability i.e. $d_i \ll d_e$ where d_e is the electronic polarizability

$d_i \approx 0.1 d_e$ and $(d_e + d_i)$ is sometimes called as the deformation polarizability

The ionic polarizability is independent of temperature

Example The phenomena of ionic polarizability is observed in case of NaCl molecule when an electric field is applied



when a field E is applied the original form of the molecule is disturbed

The dipoles are formed and polarized under E.

That is Sodium (Na) and chlorine atoms are displaced in opposite directions until ionic binding forces stop the process, thus increasing the dipole moment

$\mu_i = d_i E$ so that this induced dipole moment is proportional to the applied field

[5] what is orientational polarization? Derive an expression for the mean dipole moment when a polar material is subjected to an external field?

This type of polarization occurs in polar substances

Definition: The polarization arising due to the alignment of already existing but randomly oriented dipoles in the polar substance is called the orientational polarization (or) Dipolar polarization. The orientational polarizability is denoted by d_o . d_o depends on temperature T, It decreases with increase in T

\therefore Total polarization in dielectrics is thus contributed by electronic, ionic and orientational polarizations i.e. $P = N d_t E$

where $d_t = d_e + d_i + d_o$

polar substance (polyatomic molecules) like water, these molecules possess a permanent dipole moment. Even though dipoles will exist in such materials they orient randomly so that the net dipole moment in any specimen of the material is zero

when this specimen is placed in an external field E dipoles rotate and tend to align in line with the field E. This is resisted by the thermal agitations

The orientational polarizability depends on temperature i.e. At higher temperature the thermal agitations are high that leads to lowering of polarizability

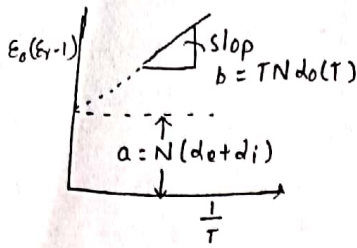
$$\begin{aligned}
 P &= \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E \rightarrow (1) \\
 \text{But } \epsilon_r &= K \quad \therefore P = \epsilon_0 (K - 1) E \rightarrow (2) \\
 P &= N d E \rightarrow (3)
 \end{aligned}
 \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{From (1) and (2)} \\ \epsilon_0 (K - 1) E = N d E \\ \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) = N d \rightarrow (4) \end{array}$$

But $d = d_t \quad \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) = N d_t \rightarrow (5)$

ϵ_r is measured for different kinds of dielectrics at

at different temperatures : d_e, d_i are independent of Temperature

ϵ_r depends on T in case of polar substance.



ie The dielectric constant K is depend on the temperature in case of orientational polarization

$\therefore \epsilon_r$ is a function of Temperature $T \Rightarrow \epsilon = \epsilon_r(T)$

$$\therefore \epsilon_0(\epsilon_r(T) - 1) = N(d_e + d_i) + N d_0(T)$$

$$\epsilon_0(\epsilon_r(T) - 1) = a + \frac{b}{T} \quad \text{where } a = N(d_e + d_i) \\ \frac{b}{T} = N d_0(T)$$

According to Langevin-Debye theory the polarization of polar substances is a function of Temperature

That is given by $P(T) = [N(d_e + d_i) + N d_0(T)] E$

$d_0(T)$ is orientational polarizability.

$$d_0(T) = \frac{N m^2}{3 k_B T} \Rightarrow \boxed{m = \sqrt{\frac{3 k_B T}{N}}}$$

m is called mean dipole moment of polar substance.

[6] Obtain an expression for the internal field seen by an atom in an infinite array of atoms subjected to an external field.

[OR] Explain the concept of internal field in solids. [local field],

The total electric field at the site of the atom within the dielectric is called the local field (or) the internal field. The internal field is denoted E_i .

The internal field is due to neighbouring dipoles in the specimen. The internal field is also called as Lorentz field.

In dense substance like liquids and solids the atoms (or) molecules are much closer to each other, when an external field E is applied to such a dielectric the dipoles are created.

Thus for an atom inside the dielectric it is affected by all the neighbouring dipoles causes to internal field. The internal field (E_i) is different from the applied field E . For the calculation of polarization (P) internal field must be considered than applied field.

For dense dielectrics Polarization $P = N \alpha E_i \rightarrow (1)$

But $D = \epsilon_0 E + P \rightarrow (2)$

Substitute the value $P = N \alpha E_i$ in eq(2) $\Rightarrow D = \epsilon_0 E + N \alpha E_i \rightarrow (3)$

But $D = \epsilon E$ Sub in eq(3) $\therefore \epsilon E = \epsilon_0 E + N \alpha E_i \rightarrow (4)$

\therefore But $\epsilon_r = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0$ Sub this value in equation (4)

$$\therefore \epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E = \epsilon_0 E + N \alpha E_i \rightarrow (5)$$

$$\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 E - \epsilon_0 E = N \alpha E_i \Rightarrow \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E = N \alpha E_i$$

$$\therefore \boxed{E_i = \frac{\epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E}{N \alpha}} \quad \text{This represent the polarization due to the internal field.}$$

we can observe the internal field is due to the combined effect of external field E and polarization ' P ' which itself is also due to E .

we know that $D = \epsilon_0 E + P \rightarrow (6)$

$$\text{divide by } \epsilon_0 \text{ on both sides of eq(6)} \Rightarrow \frac{D}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\epsilon_0 E}{\epsilon_0} + \frac{P}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \frac{D}{\epsilon_0} = E + \frac{P}{\epsilon_0}$$

Thus $P = N \gamma \mu_a$ where γ is dimensionless constant that depend on the symmetry of the crystal (dielectric) structure. $\therefore \gamma = \frac{1}{3}$.

$$\therefore E \cdot \frac{D}{\epsilon_0} = E + \frac{N \gamma \mu_a}{\epsilon_0} \Rightarrow \boxed{E_i = E + \frac{N \gamma \mu_a}{\epsilon_0}} \quad \begin{matrix} E_i = E + \gamma \frac{P}{\epsilon_0} \\ \boxed{E_i = E + \frac{P}{3 \epsilon_0}} \end{matrix}$$

(Q) 'Explain the phenomena of piezoelectricity? write the important applications of the piezoelectric materials :

The electrical charges induced on the surfaces of the crystals by the application of mechanical stress on the crystals this phenomenon is called piezoelectricity.

It is observed in case of piezoelectric materials. These materials are polarised when they subjected to mechanical deformation (it is possible for ionic solids).

" All Ferroelectric crystals exhibit piezoelectricity but all piezo electric materials need not exhibit ferroelectricity. Example Quartz - piezoelectric crystal not ferroelectric.

→ Piezo electric materials are in form polycrystalline.

Applications of piezo electric materials (a) Sensors, (b) Transducers (c) amplifiers (d) detectors.

(e) Oscillators (f) Ultrasonic waves generator

Medical diagnosis: Ultrasonic Sources & Detectors.

Transducers piezo electric materials are used as transducers for the conversion of electrical energy in mechanical energy and mechanical energy into electrical energy.

Example: Quartz crystal, ceramic, and ferroelectric material ($BaTiO_3, LiNbO_3$)

Sensors: piezo electric materials used as sensors which measure pressures very accurately.

amplifiers: piezo electric semiconductor Gas, ZnO, CdS amplifiers of ultrasonic waves (MHz)

detectors: Quartz crystals are also used in selective band pass filters in submarines and in telephone industry, i.e generation and reception of sound wave in radio.

Oscillators: Most important material for such use being Quartz, it has an extremely high dielectric strength. So that it is used frequently to control frequency in circuits.

Industrial application: Finds internal cracks, hidden defects.

Ultrasonic waves generator: we can employ the piezo electric materials to produce the ultrasonic waves

{ By specially prepared Quartz slices of the order of 0.1 nm }
{ or } Tourmaline crystal slices, frequency of about 1 MHz can be obtained by piezo electric oscillatory circuit }

Electro optic modulator $LiNbO_3$ material is used as electro optic modulator.

Space application The T_c of $LiNbO_3$ is 1210°C So this is the suitable piezoelectric material for space application i.e parametric oscillator & amplifier

(Q) Explain the phenomena of pyroelectricity? write the important applications of pyroelectric materials?

Pyroelectric effect: It is the change in spontaneous polarization when the temperature of the specimen is changed. and also in PVDF, Triglicine sulphate.

This effect was first discovered in minerals such as in Quartz, tourmaline and in other ionic crystals. (PVDF material)

Fact about pyroelectricity By changing the temperature produces surface charges which attracts other charged materials.

All the ferroelectric materials are pyroelectric materials the converse is need not be true.

Example Turmaline crystal is pyroelectric material, but it is not ferroelectric.

The property of pyroelectricity is the measured change in net polarization (P_s) proportional to change in temperature $I_p = P_i A \frac{dT}{dt}$ $\frac{dT}{dt}$: Rate of heating.

I_p : pyroelectric current, P_i : pyroelectric coefficient, A : Area of cross-section
 $\frac{dT}{dt}$ is rate of heating normally $3-5^\circ\text{C}/\text{m}$ ie 3°C to 5°C per minute
 $P_i = \frac{dP_s}{dT}$ = Spontaneous polarization At $T = T_c$ $P_i \approx 0$

Application of pyroelectric materials (a) Used in burglar alarms (b) detectors (c) Sensors (d) Industrial applications (e) Domestic applications (f) infrared photography:

- (a) Burglar alarms: Polyvinyliden di Fluoride (PVDF), Turmaline crystals used in burglar alarms that based on temperature changes
- (b) Detectors [Detect Temperature change of a micro degree change about 10^{-6}°C because pyroelectrics are highly sensitive to temperature changes

Industrial applications: pyroelectrics are used to monitor levels of pollution through IR detection.

Polycrystalline samples in thin film form (or) Ceramic discs (thin plates) are employed.
 → They are used in multilayer capacitors

Infrared photography: Pyroelectrics are excellent detectors of infrared radiation and they make excellent devices for infrared photography and Night photography in the dark.

Domestic applications: The pyroelectric materials are sensitive to infrared radiation. The pyroelectric materials are used in burglar alarm.

(Variation of temperature functioning) ~~the temperature~~
The pyroelectric detectors are useful in power meters for laser radiation and they are useful in microelectronics.

They make perfect devices for testing the level of IR radiation that passes through a gas sample.

☞ Locate the trapped people Under rubble: Triglicine sulphate, It has pyrocoefficient $-5.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ C m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$ measured at 30°C . It is used in pyroelectric 'Vidicon'
 Pyroelectric vidicon is a device (or) a camera useful for thermal imaging. This camera is highly helpful for disaster teams to locate the trapped people under rubble.

(Q) Explain the phenomenon of Ferroelectricity? write the applications of ferroelectric materials? (Or) Explain the characteristics of ferroelectric materials based on Hysteresis Curve? (Or) Mention the ferroelectric characteristics of Barium titanate (BaTiO_3)

Materials which exhibit electric polarisation even in the absence of the applied electric field are known as Ferroelectric materials.

They have permanent dipole moment in each atom (or) molecule $P_{ex} = 0$.

Examples of ferroelectric materials $BaTiO_3$, $SrTiO_3$, $PbTiO_3$, $LiNbO_3$, (7)

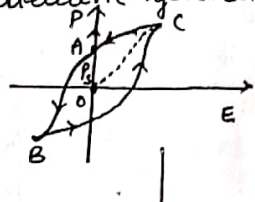
$LiTaO_3$, Rochelle salt ($NaK(C_4H_4O_6 \cdot 4H_2O)$), phosphate (KH_2PO_4)

Ferroelectric materials exhibit piezoelectricity and pyroelectricity converse need not be true.

Ferroelectricity: It refers to the creation of enormous value of induced dipole moment in a weak dielectric field as well as existence of electric polarization even in the absence of applied electric field.

Hysteresis effect: Ferroelectricity is a result of dielectric hysteresis. Since these materials exhibit hysteresis effects.

By observing ~~an~~ hysteresis curve, they show the P_s value in the absence of external applied electric field.



* irreversible process
E increases the path BC - increasing order of P
E decreases then we observe the CAB path even $E=0 : P_s \neq 0$. This is important property of ferroelectric material.
 $P_s \neq 0$: i.e. Ferroelectric materials possess Spontaneous polarization due to permanent electric dipoles.

All ferroelectric exhibit polarization reversal.

Characteristics of Ferroelectric materials

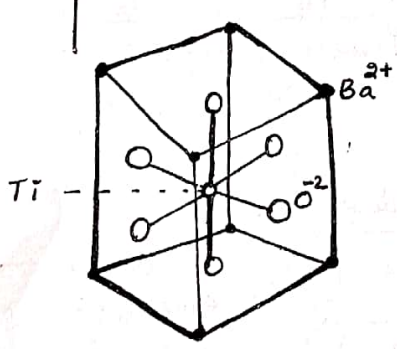
- (i) They are easily polarized in a weak field.
- (ii) They exhibit spontaneous polarisation ($P_s \neq 0$) at $E=0$
- (iii) They possess very high dielectric constants.
- (iv) They exhibit piezo electric & pyroelectric effects.
- (v) They exhibit dielectric hysteresis (P-E curve).
- (vi) Centre of gravity of +ve & -ve charges do not coincide even in the absence of external field.
- (vii) Hysteresis curve: P is not linear function of E
- (viii) $T > T_c$ ferro - converted in paraelectric material.
 $T > T_c$ P varies linearly with E.
- (ix) The area of hysteresis curve change w.r.t Temperature

Applications of Ferroelectric materials

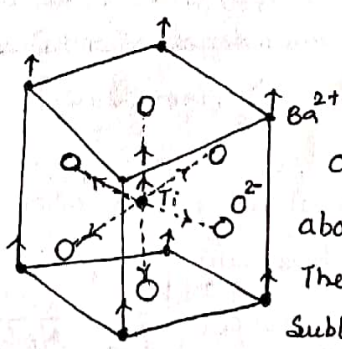
- (a) They exhibit Piezo, pyroelectric effects due to that they are used as detectors, sensors
- (b) They are used as Transducers: $E_{mech} \leftrightarrow E_{electri}$
- (c) They are used in multilayer capacitors.
- (d) They are useful in microelectronics
- (e) Due to high dielectric constant they are useful for storing energy in small size capacitors in electrical circuits.
- (f) Optical communications ferroelectric crystals are used for optical modulation
- (g) pressure transducers, microphones, ultrasonic transducers

Explain the structural changes of ferroelectric material

ie Behaviour of $BaTiO_3$ (ferroelectric material) with temperature ($T = T_c$ & $T > T_c$)



(a) $T > T_c$
ie at high temperature



$T < T_c$ for the spontaneous polarization
ie at low temperature

with respect to the temperature there exist a change in the structure

Original structure of $BaTiO_3$ perovskite above structure change with temperature The relative displacement of the two sublattices is 0.01nm. This is responsible

ie At high temperature ($T > T_c$): $BaTiO_3$ - has cubic structure with Titanium ions at body centre. Barium ions at the body corners and oxygen ions at face centres
At low temperature (if the crystal is cooled) ($T < T_c$) The sublattice containing Ba^{2+} & Ti^{4+} ions shifts upward along c-axis w.r.t Oxygen sublattice This displacement responsible for Spontaneous polarization [creates electric dipoles]

[7] Derive Clausius - Mosottic relation? Explain Clausius-Mosottic relation in dielectrics subjected to static fields? 14

For an atom inside the dielectric it is effected by all the neighbouring dipoles causes to internal field. E_i be the internal field $\therefore E_i = E + \frac{Yp}{\epsilon_0} \rightarrow (1) \Rightarrow E_i = \frac{\epsilon_0 E + Yp}{\epsilon_0}$

$\therefore E_i \epsilon_0 = E \epsilon_0 + Yp \Rightarrow E_i \epsilon_0 - Yp = E \epsilon_0 \rightarrow (2)$

But $p = N \alpha E_i$ substitute in eq(2) $\Rightarrow E_i \epsilon_0 - Y(N \alpha E_i) = E \epsilon_0$

$\therefore E_i [\epsilon_0 - YN \alpha] = E \epsilon_0 \Rightarrow E_i = \frac{\epsilon_0 E}{\epsilon_0 - YN \alpha} \rightarrow (3)$

But $E_i = \frac{\epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E}{N \alpha} \rightarrow (4)$ Y is dimensionless constant.

From (4) and (5)

$\frac{\epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E}{N \alpha} = \frac{\epsilon_0 E}{\epsilon_0 - YN \alpha} \Rightarrow \frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{N \alpha} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0 - YN \alpha}$

$Y = \frac{1}{3}$ for an isotropic dielectric of cubic system

$\therefore \frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{N \alpha} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0 - \frac{1}{3} N \alpha} \Rightarrow \epsilon_r - 1 = \frac{3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} \rightarrow (5)$

Adding 3 on both sides of eq(5)

$\Rightarrow \epsilon_r - 1 + 3 = \frac{3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} + 3 \Rightarrow \epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{3 N \alpha + 9 \epsilon_0 - 3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha}$

$\therefore \epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{9 \epsilon_0}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} \rightarrow (6)$

The equation (6) may be written \oplus

$\epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{9 \epsilon_0 \times \frac{1}{3 N \alpha}}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha \times \frac{1}{3 N \alpha}} \Rightarrow \epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{3 \epsilon_0}{\frac{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha}{3 N \alpha}} \rightarrow (7)$

$\therefore \epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{3 \epsilon_0}{N \alpha} \times \left[\frac{3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} \right] \rightarrow (8)$

in equation (8) $\frac{3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} = \left[\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r - 1} \right]$ $\left[\because \text{from (5)} \epsilon_r - 1 = \frac{3 N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0 - N \alpha} \right]$

\therefore equation (8) becomes $\epsilon_r + 2 = \frac{3 \epsilon_0}{N \alpha} [\epsilon_r - 1] \Rightarrow \frac{\epsilon_r + 2}{\epsilon_r - 1} = \frac{3 \epsilon_0}{N \alpha} \rightarrow (9)$

From equation (9) \Rightarrow

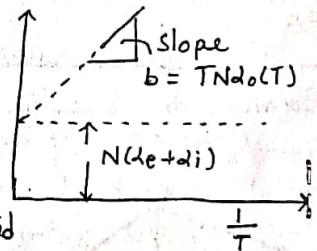
$\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} = \frac{N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0} \rightarrow (10)$ $n = \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \therefore \frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 2} = \frac{N \alpha}{3 \epsilon_0}$ Lorentz-Lorentz equation

n is refractive index of medium

This is known as the Clausius - Mosottic relation

Explanation of Clausius - Mosottic relation (Importance)

It gives the relation between ϵ_r and α
ie It gives relation between the microscopic polarizability α and the macroscopic dielectric ϵ_r of dielectric solid/liquid



From Clausius - Mosottic relation the molar polarization (P_m) is calculated

$\therefore P_m = \left[\frac{\epsilon_r - 1}{\epsilon_r + 2} \right] \frac{M}{\rho} = \frac{N_A}{3 \epsilon_0} [(\alpha_e + \alpha_i) + \alpha_0]$

where $\alpha = (\alpha_e + \alpha_i) + \alpha_0$

Since α_0 is orientational polarizability it is dependent on temperature ie $\alpha_0 = \frac{\mu_m^2}{3 k_B T}$

So that P_m is a function of temperature $\therefore P_m = \frac{N_A}{3 \epsilon_0} [(\alpha_e + \alpha_i) + \frac{\mu_m^2}{3 k_B T}]$ This is Debye's equations

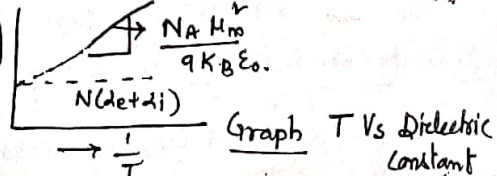
with the help of Debye's equation we can determine the dipole moment per molecule.

$P_m = \frac{N_A (\alpha_d) + \frac{\mu_m^2}{3 k_B T}}{3 \epsilon_0}$ - Debye's equation.

using Clausius - Mosottic relation we can calculate the dielectric constant of materials and also gives the Variation of Dielectric constant with temperature of substances and helps to determine molecular structure of the dielectrics

$\alpha_0 = \frac{\mu_m^2}{3 k_B T}$

$\mu_m = \frac{3 \sqrt{\alpha_0 k_B T \epsilon_0} (\epsilon_r - 1) M}{(\epsilon_r + 2) \rho}$



Dielectric material is subjected to high frequency the dipole will no longer be able to rotate sufficiently rapidly. So that their oscillations will begin to lag behind those of the field.

So that the orientation of the dipoles will result the polarization will tend to reverse every time, then the polarity of field changes.

As the frequency is further increased the dipoles will be completely unable to follow the field

Effect on orientational polarization By the increasing of frequency the orientational - polarization ceases, this usually occurs in the range above 10^6 cycles/sec

At infrared frequency heavy positive and negative ions can not follow the field variations so that the contribution to the permittivity from the atomic (or) ionic polarizations ceases and only the electronic polarization remains

So that the permittivity of a dielectric material vary with increasing frequency this phenomenon is known as Anomalous Dielectric dispersion.

[10] Explain piezo electricity phenomena?

The electrical charges induced on the surfaces of the crystals by the application of mechanical stress on the crystals this phenomenon is called piezo electricity

Example quartz (SiO_2) Lithium Niobate ($LiNbO_3$), Barium Titanate ($BaTiO_3$) ^{Barium} Titanate
Materials which are polarised when subjected to mechanical deformation are called piezo electric materials. All ferroelectric crystals exhibit piezoelectricity but all piezo electric crystals need not exhibit ferroelectricity

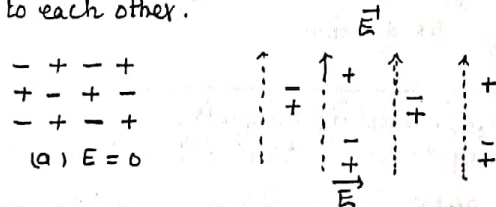
uses piezo electric materials are very important since they permit the conversion of the mechanical energy into electrical energy and vice-vers.

Explanation: Quartz crystal Specially prepared slices of the quartz crystal we observe the piezo electric effect. Quartz crystal consist of three axes, X-axis is known as electrical axis, Y-axis is known as mechanical axis and Z-axis is known as optical axis.

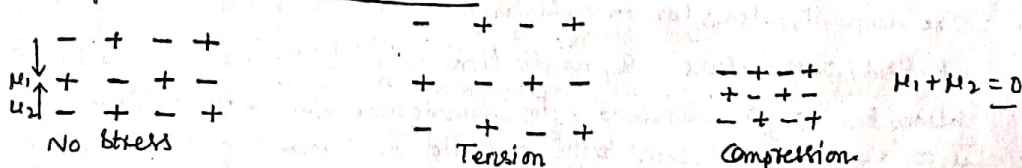
In the absence of the external stress, all the charges are balanced, net polarization is zero.

But when external stress is applied to the crystal the balance is disturbed and the crystal is polarized. As a result, electrical charge is developed on the faces.

Electric field is inducing an electric dipole moment in a dielectric and displaces ions relative to each other.

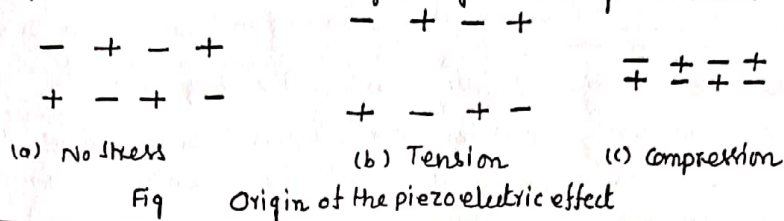


The dimensions of the crystal have increased in the field direction this physical property is called electrostriction



If the crystal under stress possess the centre of symmetry these crystals do not exhibit the piezo electricity

On the other hand the stress will produce a dipole moment in a crystal whose charges do not possess the centre line of symmetry. Such crystals show the piezo electric effect



[11] What is dielectric breakdown? Explain briefly the various factors contributing to breakdown in dielectrics?

For many materials there is a maximum field intensity beyond which damage occurs that results in breakdown phenomena.

At relatively high fields, the electrons in the dielectric gain enough energy to knock other charged particles and make them available for conduction.

Although many theories exist regarding the breakdown of solids, the failure of solid insulation in practice is almost always due to entirely different reasons. Electric strength of solid dielectrics depend on many extraneous factors,

- (i) Defects and inhomogeneity of the material
- (ii) thickness area and volume of the specimen
- (iii) the surface conditions and the method of placing the electrodes
- (iv) the type and application of test voltage and test duration
- (v) moisture and other contaminations

A number of fundamental breakdown mechanisms in solids can distinguished.

(i) Intrinsic breakdown: electronic in nature and depends on the presence of electrons capable of migrating through the lattice.

(ii) Thermal breakdown: when the local heat generated by losses exceeds that when the rate of heat generation is greater than the rate of dissipation.

(iii) Discharge breakdown Depends upon the presence of voids etc

(iv) Electrochemical breakdown: is cumulative in nature and gradually builds upto breakdown

[12] What is intrinsic breakdown in dielectric materials?

In a perfect dielectric there are no free electrons and the conductivity is almost zero. In general all crystals contain imperfections of one (or) more of the following types.

The impurity atoms (or) molecules traps for the conduction electrons upto certain ranges of field / temperature. By application external field the electrons jump from valency band to conduction band. For intrinsic breakdown: effect of increased temperature is to eject more electrons to the conduction band increasing the conductivity.

Low temperature breakdown under this condition, the number of electrons will be few and interaction of electrons with the lattice will be predominant. When electric field is applied electrons gain energy after collision they will lose their energy

Some important definitions:

Magnetic Induction: It is defined as the number of magnetic lines of force passing perpendicularly through unit area. $\therefore B = \Phi/A$ units weber/m² (or) Tesla

(or) It is defined as the magnetic force experienced by unit north pole placed at a given point in a magnetic field. $\therefore B = \frac{F}{m}$ units $\frac{\text{Newton}}{\text{ampere-meter}}$.

Magnetic field intensity: The magnetic field intensity at any point in the magnetic field is force experienced by an unit north pole placed at that point.

$$H = \frac{F}{mm} \Rightarrow H = \frac{B}{\mu} \text{ units } \frac{\text{ampere turn}}{\text{meter}}$$

Permeability (μ): permeability of the medium is defined as the ratio between magnetic field induction and magnetic field intensity at a given point in that medium.

$$\therefore \mu = \frac{B}{H} \text{ for free space } \mu \text{ becomes } \mu_0 \text{ and the value of } \mu_0 \text{ is } 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henry/m}$$

Relative permeability: It is defined as the ratio of the permeability of medium to the permeability of free space. $\therefore \mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$

Magnetization (or) Intensity of magnetization: It is defined as the average magnetic moment present per unit volume in a system. $\therefore M = N\bar{\mu}$; where $N =$ number of atoms (or) molecules per unit volume. I & H have same units and dimensions. $\bar{\mu}$ is the average dipole moment.

Susceptibility (χ): It may be defined as the ratio of intensity of magnetization to applied magnetic field intensity. $\chi = \frac{M}{H}$. χ has no units.

χ is a measure of magnetization produced in the specimen per unit field strength when a material has high susceptibility then it can be easily magnetized.

Relation between B & H : $H = \frac{B}{\mu} \Rightarrow \{B = \mu H\}$ But $\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r \therefore B = \mu_0 \mu_r H$

$$\therefore \begin{cases} B = \mu_0 \mu_r H + \mu_0 H - \mu_0 H \\ B = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 H (\mu_r - 1) \\ B = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 \{H(\mu_r - 1)\} \end{cases} \text{ where } \mu_0 [H(\mu_r - 1)] = M$$

$$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} \text{ and } \left[\mu = \frac{B}{H} \text{ \& } \mu_0 = \frac{B}{H+M} \right]$$

$$\therefore \mu_r = \frac{B/H}{\frac{B}{H+M}} \Rightarrow \mu_r = \frac{H+M}{H} \Rightarrow \mu_r = \frac{M}{H} + 1 \quad \left[\frac{M}{H} = \chi \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_r = \chi + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\chi = \mu_r - 1} \rightarrow (2)$$

Relation between M and H

M and H are related by $M = \chi H$

$$\mu = \frac{B}{H} \Rightarrow B = \mu H \rightarrow (3) \quad \text{Comparing (3) and (4)}$$

$$\text{But } B = \mu_0 [H+M] \rightarrow (4) \quad \mu H = \mu_0 [H+M] \rightarrow (5)$$

Substitute $\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r$ in equation (5)

$$\mu_0 \mu_r H = \mu_0 [H+M]$$

$$\therefore \mu_0 \mu_r H = \mu_0 H + \mu_0 M$$

$$\mu_0 \mu_r H - \mu_0 H = \mu_0 M \Rightarrow \mu_0 [\mu_r - 1] H = \mu_0 M \Rightarrow M = [\mu_r - 1] H$$

$$\text{where } \mu_r - 1 = \chi \therefore \boxed{M = \chi H}$$

[1] Define magnetic moment? Explain the origin of magnetic moment at the atomic level:
 what is Bohr magneton?

The origin of magnetism is due to the (i) orbital motion of electrons in their orbits
 (ii) Spinning of electrons (spin motion)
 (iii) contribution from nucleons spin

The revolving and rotating electrons constitute current loops. Each loop is like a magnet with one face behaves as a north pole while the other face as a south pole.

So that due to above reason there exist a dipole in the magnetic material and they will interact with the applied field gives more strength to the magnet.

The magnetic moment is mainly due to orbital magnetic moment and spin magnetic moment

→ The atoms having incomplete electronic shells and so they do have resultant magnetic moment

→ According to quantum mechanical concept

The magnetic moment is being due to the rotation of electric charge about one of the diameters of the electron. In a manner similar to that spin spinning motion around its north-south axis.

Bohr magneton : The quantity $\mu_B = \frac{eh}{4\pi m}$ is an atomic unit called Bohr magneton

According to modern atomic theory the angular momentum of an electron in the orbits is determined by the Orbital quantum number 'l' which is

$$l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1)$$

where 'n' is the principal quantum number which determines the energy of the orbit. It can accept only the intervals $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ the corresponding electronic shells are called K, L, M, N ... shells

The angular momentum of the electrons associated with a particular value of 'l' is given by $\left[\frac{h}{2\pi} \right] l$. The strength of permanent magnetic dipole is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{el} &= -\frac{eh}{4\pi m} l \\ \therefore \mu_{el} &= -\left[\frac{eh}{4\pi m} \right] l \\ \therefore \mu_{el} &= -[\mu_B] l \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{aligned} \therefore \mu_{el} &= -\left[\frac{e}{2m} \right] \left[\text{angular momentum} \right] \\ \therefore \mu_{el} &= -\left[\frac{e}{2m} \right] \left[\frac{lh}{2\pi} \right] = -\frac{ehl}{4\pi m} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

∴ The quantity $\mu_B = \frac{eh}{4\pi m}$ is an atomic unit called Bohr magneton

$$\text{if } l = 0 \Rightarrow \mu_B = 0 \quad \left(l = 0 \Rightarrow \mu_B = \left[\frac{eh}{4\pi m} \right] 0 \Rightarrow \mu_B = 0 \right)$$

[2] In hydrogen atom an electron having charge 'e' revolves around the nucleus at a distance of 'r' meter with an angular velocity 'ω' rad/sec. Obtain an expression for magnetic moment associated with it due to its orbital motion.

Let us consider the simplest atom of hydrogen in which one electron revolves round the proton.

electron revolves on a circular path of radius 'r'

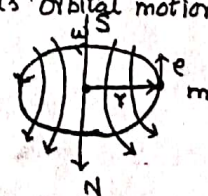
At any instant the electron at a point 'P' and

proton at centre form an electric dipole, the direction of dipole goes on changing as the electron moves

Let 'e' and m be respectively the charge and mass of the electron.

Also let its speed be 'v' in an orbit of radius

Then the area A of the orbit is πr^2 and its circumference is $2\pi r$



(Q) Classification of Magnetic materials: 20

Dia magnetic materials

→ If the sum of magnetic moment is zero. These type of material is known as Dia magnetic [due to opposite spin alignment of atoms the resultant magnetic moment is zero]

Examples of Dia magnetic materials:

Bismuth (Bi), ^{Zn}platinum (Pt), H₂O, Hg (mercury), NaCl, inert gases, Ag, Cu, Au

⇒ χ is negative for Dia magnetic material

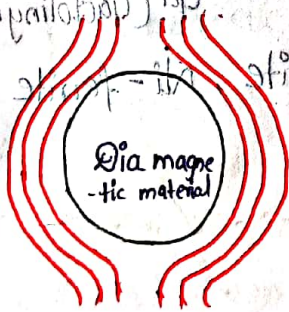
⇒ χ is independent of temperature.

⇒ χ is independent of applied magnetic field strength.

⇒ μ_r is less than 1 ($\mu_r < 1$)

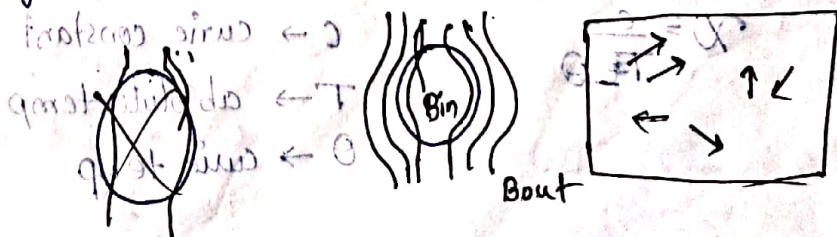
⇒ Spin alignment of the neighbouring atoms is in opposite direction.

⇒ Dia magnetic materials are placed in an external magnetic field the magnetic lines of force are pushed away by the diamagnetic material.



Para magnetic Materials

eg:- O₂, Silver (Ag), CuCl₂ (copper chloride), Sol'n of salt salts of Fe, platinum, Al, manganese (Mn), N₂, tungsten



$B_{in} < B_{out}$

⇒ The vector sum of magnetic moment is not equal to zero. These

type of materials is known as Para magnetic material

⇒ χ is Positive

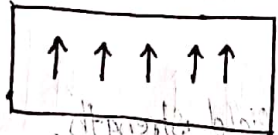
⇒ χ is slightly greater than '1'

⇒ μ_r is greater than 1

⇒ χ depend on temperature $\left[\chi = \frac{C}{T}, \frac{\chi_1}{\chi_2} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right]$

⇒ $B_{in} < B_{out}$ [when Para magnetic material placed in external magnetic field]

Ferro Magnetic Materials-



→ Spin alignment in same direction.

→ All the Orbits of single e's are oriented in a systematic manner such that the atom as a whole possess a large magnetic moment, then the substance is known as ferro magnetic material

- Examples: Iron (Fe), Cobalt (Co), Ni, Gd (Gadolinium), Dy, SproSium (Dy) (Strongest magnet)
 MnO (manganise Oxide), Zn-ferrite, Ni-ferrite
 Mn-ferrite, Magnetite (Fe₃O₄)

Characteristics

⇒ Ferro magnetic material possess "Enormous" permanent dipole moment even in the absence of external field

⇒ Ferro magnetic materials obey's curie-Weiss-law

$$\chi = \frac{C}{T - \theta}$$



- C → curie constant
 T → absolute temp
 θ → curie temp

⇒ Ferro magnetic material placed under external magnetic field 21



$B_{in} \gg B_{out}$

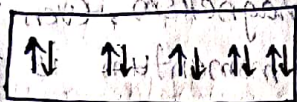
⇒ It strongly attracted the magnetic lines of force

⇒ $\mu_r \gg 1$

⇒ $\chi \gg 1$, χ is always positive (χ depend on temperature)

⇒ Ferro magnetic material behaves like para magnetic material when its temperature is greater than curie temperature.

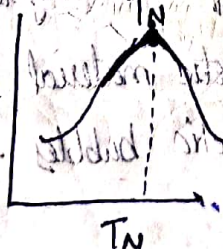
Anti Ferro Magnetic Material:-



In some magnetic material due to exchange forces, there exist a anti parallel alignment from neighbouring atoms, these are known as anti ferro magnetic materials.

Note:- In case anti ferro magnetic materials χ becomes maximum at a

particular temperature is known as T_N (Neel Temperature)



Eg:-

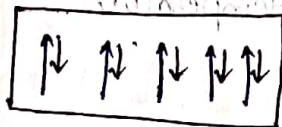
Properties:-

- ⇒ χ depend on temperature
- ⇒ spin alignment is Anti parallel

$$\chi = \frac{C}{T + \theta}$$

- ⇒ electrons spin of neighbouring atoms are align anti parallel
- ⇒ χ increases up to the neel temperature, beyond the neel temperature decreases

Ferri Magnetic Materials



This is a special case of anti ferro magnetism, even though there exist anti parallel alignment the net magnetic moment is not equal to zero

⇒ [un equal magnetic moment in case of neighbouring atoms]

$$\Rightarrow \chi = \frac{c}{T \pm \theta}$$

Mn Fe₂O₄ (manganese ferrite)

Characteristics:

- ⇒ Spin alignment is anti parallel of different magnetides
- ⇒ Above curie temperature Ferri magnetic material behaves as paramagnetic
- ⇒ Ferri magnetic domains become magnetic bubbles to act as memory elements

⇒ These are possess net magnetic moment

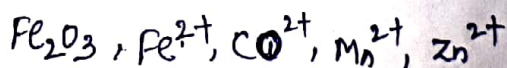
⇒ χ depend on temperature

⇒ χ is large when $T > T_N$

χ is +ve when $T < T_N$

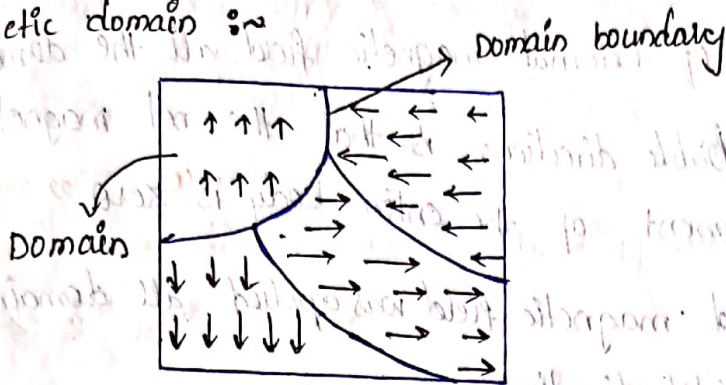
eg: YIG (Yttrium Iron Garnet)

Ferrites composed of Iron oxides and other elements such as Al, Co, Ni, Mn, Zn



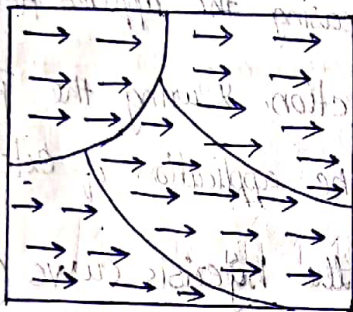
write a note on Ferro magnetic domains? write a ²⁸ note on hysteresis Curve (B-H Curve)

Ferro magnetic domain :-



Ferro magnetic.

Substance with out any external magnetic field.



under external Magnetic field [Orientation is in same direction]

⇒ In 1907 P. Weiss Explain Proposed the domain theory to explain the magnetic behaviour Ferro magnetic materials.

Domains :-

The entire ferro magnetic material volume splits into a large no. of small regions. of Spontaneous magnetisation, the regions are called ferro magnetic domains.

⇒ Each domain shows the Spontaneous magnetisation even in the absence of external magnetic field.

⇒ In each domain the alignment is in the same direction with respect to Spin of electrons in atoms. the neighbouring domains are having the different Orientations so that the net magnetisation is 'zero'.

[Due to the opposite alignment of neighbouring domains]

⇒ Effect of External magnetic field:-

In the absence of external magnetic field all the domains are oriented in all probable directions so that the net magnetic orientation is "zero" moment of the entire body is "zero".

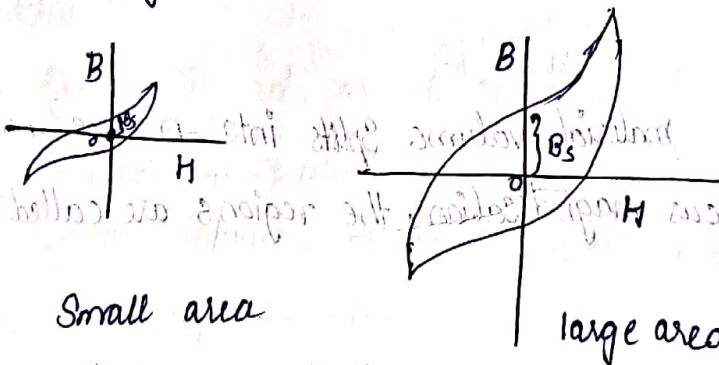
⇒ When an external field magnetic field was applied all domains are oriented in applied field direction.

⇒ By the application of external magnetic field some domains are unfavourable to change their direction, but by increasing the applied field intensity these domains are align in the field direction. During the process there exist a loss of internal energy. By the application of external field

⇒ The loss of energy is estimated by the hysteresis curve (B-H curve)

Note 1:- Hysteresis curve Area is small, the loss of energy is small

2:- Hysteresis curve area is large, then the loss of magnetic is high.



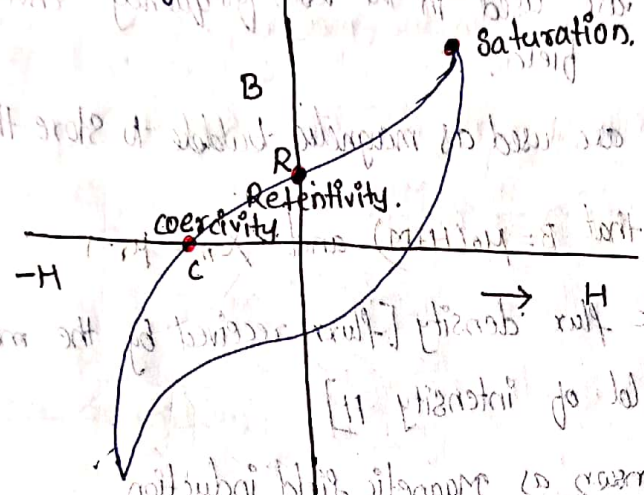
→ B & H are along X & Y axis At origin $H=0$ But $B \neq 0$
 $B = B_s$

→ H - applied external magnetic field intensity.

→ B - magnetic field induction receiving flux.

→ B_s - Spontaneous magnetisation

- It is an irreversible curve which was exhibited by a ferro magnetic material under external magnetic field.
- If the applied field intensity increases then B is also increases
- If the applied field intensity is reduced to minimum values B does not possess zero value
- B-H curve has 2 paths one path is in increasing mode & another path is in decreasing mode.



Retentivity:- It is known as ferro magnetic material ability to retain a certain amount of Residual magnetic field when the magnetising force is removed after achieving Saturation

Coercivity:- In the B-H curve the value of H at the point "C" is known as coercivity [coercive force]

→ The amount of Reverse magnetic field (-H) must be applied to a ferro magnetic material to make the magnetic flux return to "zero"

Applications of magnetic materials

Because of the special properties of magnetic materials, they are used in.

- (i) Digital computers, in transducers
- (ii) they are used in magnetic tape

- ⇒ they are used for making permanent magnet
- ⇒ they are used in electro magnets
- ⇒ they are used in AC current machinery. (Some manufacture inner parts of the transformer)
- ⇒ they are use in communication System (communication equipment)
- ⇒ they are used in Audio & video transformers.

⇒ $MnOFe_2O_4$ } these are used in the low frequency environment field.

Ferri magnetic materials are used as magnetic bubble to store the data

⇒ with usual notation show that $B = \mu_0(H+M)$ and $\chi_m = \mu_r - 1$

⇒ B is known as magnetic flux density [flux received by the material when it was placed in an external field of intensity H]

B is also known as magnetic field induction

Unit for B: "weber/meter²" (or) "Tesla"

$$B = \frac{\phi}{A} = \frac{\text{magnetic flux}}{\text{Area}}$$

⇒ $B = \mu H \rightarrow (1)$ since $\left[\mu = \frac{B}{H} \right]$

μ_r : Relative Permeability

$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} \rightarrow (2)$ [μ_0 = Permeability of free space]

* $\mu = \mu_0 \mu_r \rightarrow (3)$

Rewrite Eqn (1) as $B = \mu H + \mu_0 H - \mu_0 H \rightarrow (4)$

Substitute Eqn (3) in Eqn (4) & follows

$$B = \mu_r \mu_0 H + \mu_0 H - \mu_0 H$$

$$B = \mu_r \mu_0 H$$

$$B = [\mu_0(\mu_r - 1)H] + \mu_0 H$$

we know that $(\mu_r - 1)H = M$

$$B = \mu_0 M + \mu_0 H$$

$$B = \mu_0 [H + M]$$

$$\chi = \frac{M}{H}$$

$$\chi = \mu_r - 1$$

$$\frac{M}{H} = \mu_r - 1$$

$$M = (\mu_r - 1)H$$

Prove that $\chi_m = \mu_r - 1$

$B = \mu H$ so that $\mu = B/H$

we know that $B = \mu_0(H + M)$

$$\mu_0 = \frac{B}{H + M}$$

$$\frac{\text{Eq 1}}{\text{Eq 2}} = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = \frac{B/H}{B/(H+M)} = \frac{H+M}{H} = 1 + \frac{M}{H}$$

$$\frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = 1 + \frac{M}{H}$$

as per definition

$$\frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = \mu_r$$

$$\mu_r = 1 + \frac{M}{H}$$

$$\frac{M}{H} = \chi_m$$

$$\mu_r = 1 + \chi_m$$

$$\chi_m = \mu_r - 1$$

Q) Find the Relative Permeability of a ferro magnetic material if a field of strength 220 A/mtr produces a magnetisation 3300 A/mtr in it.

Given data

magnetisation $(M) = 3300 \text{ A/mtr}$

magnetic field strength (or) Applied magnetic field intensity $H = 220 \text{ A/mtr}$

Let μ_r be the Relative Permeability.

$$\mu_r - 1 = \frac{M}{H} \Rightarrow \mu_r = \frac{M}{H} + 1$$

$$M_1 = \frac{220}{3300} + 1, \quad M_2 = \frac{3300}{220} + 1$$

$$M_1 = \frac{22}{330} + 1, \quad M_2 = \frac{330}{22} + 1$$

$$= \frac{16}{16} = 1.066$$

$$\boxed{M_1 = 16}$$

In a magnetic material the field strength is found to be 10^6 A/mtr. If the magnetic Susceptibility is 0.5×10^5 , calculate the intensity of magnetisation and flux density in the material.

Given data $H = 10^6$ A/mtr = magnetic field strength.

magnetic Susceptibility $\chi = 0.5 \times 10^5$

let M be the intensity of magnetisation = ?

let B be the magnetic flux density = ?

from the formula $\chi = \frac{M}{H}$

$$M = \chi H = (0.5 \times 10^5) \times 10^6$$

$$= 0.5 \times 10^{11}$$

$$= 5 \text{ A/mtr.}$$

$$B = \mu_0 (H + M)$$

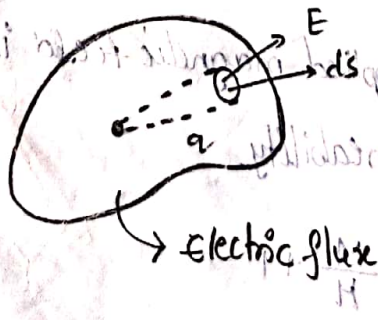
$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henry/metre}$$

$$B = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} (5 + 10^6) = 1.257 \text{ Weber/m}^2 \text{ (or) Tesla}$$

Ques

State & Explain the laws of electrostatics

Gauss law :-



ϕ_e = electric flux

q = charge

$$\boxed{\phi_e = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}}$$

⇒ It frames the relation b/w charge enclosed by the closed surface and the electric flux [electric lines of force]

Gauss law (statement): - The total electric flux through a closed surface enclosing a charge is equal to $\frac{1}{\epsilon_0}$ times the magnitude of charge enclosed,

$$\phi_e = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} [q] \rightarrow (1)$$

let us consider the small area "ds" the flux through the small area

$$ds = d\phi_e = \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} \rightarrow (2)$$

Total flux through the surface S

$$\int_S d\phi = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} \rightarrow (3) \left[\oint_S \text{Represent closed surface} \right]$$

$$\phi_e = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \rightarrow (4)$$

Rewrite eqn (4)

$$\phi_e = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} \epsilon_0 = q$$

$$\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot \vec{ds} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\oint_S (\vec{D}) \cdot \vec{ds} = q$$

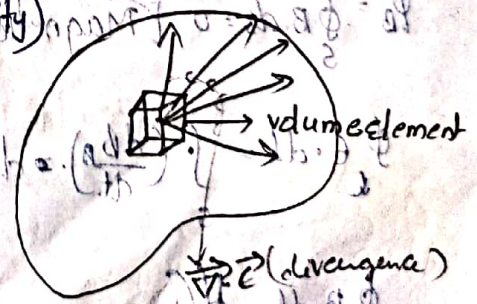
⇒ Gauss law in differential form:

let us consider ρ : volume charge density

Electric flux $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$ (volume charge density)

$$\nabla \cdot \epsilon_0 \vec{E} = \rho$$

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho}$$



Gauss law in magnetism: -

The magnetic flux from a closed surface is equal to zero ("0")

It was represented in the form of equation $\phi_B = \oint \vec{B} \cdot \vec{ds}$

In differential form.

$$\nabla \cdot B = 0$$



(Divergence of magnetic flux is always zero in case of closed surface)

→ State & explain Maxwell's equation

Maxwell's frame the relation b/w electric field and magnetic field & He explains that variation electric & magnetic fields.

→ Maxwell's equations are liked with $\{E, D, J, \epsilon_0\}$ → electric field
 $\{B, H, \mu_0\}$ magnetic field

J: current density

$$J = \frac{I}{A}$$

Maxwell's equations In differential form:-

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad (\text{or}) \quad \nabla \cdot D = \rho \quad (\text{known as Gauss law in electrostatics})$$

$$\nabla \cdot B = 0 \quad (\text{Gauss law in magnetism})$$

$$\nabla \times E = -\frac{dB}{dt} = -\frac{dB}{dt} \quad \text{Ampere's law Maxwell's-Paradays law}$$

$$\nabla \times B = \mu_0 J + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt} \quad \text{Maxwell-Ampere's law.}$$

Maxwell's equations In Integral form:-

$$\phi_E = \oint_S E \cdot ds = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\phi_B = \oint_S B \cdot ds = 0 \quad [\text{Magnetic flux is '0'}] \quad \phi_B = \text{magnetic flux}$$

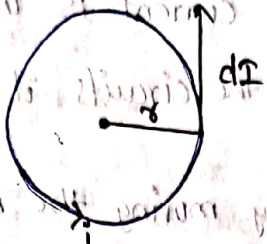
$$\oint_C E \cdot dl = \int_S \left(\frac{dB_B}{dt} \right) \cdot ds \quad \left[\text{Rate of change of magnetic flux related to} \right]$$

Emf (E) $\boxed{L = \mu_0 \nabla}$

$$\oint_C B \cdot dl = \int_S \left(\mu_0 J + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{dE}{dt} \right) \cdot ds$$

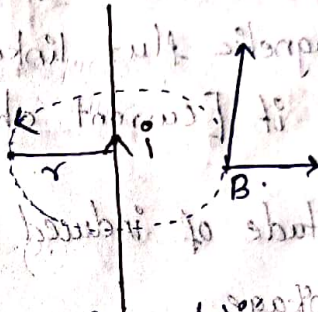
state and Explain Amperes law?

Amperes law gives the relation b/w current and magnetic field induction while current is passing through a conductor.



Amperes law Statements: - the magneto motive force Around a closed path is equal to the current enclosed by the path.

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 i}{2\pi r}$$

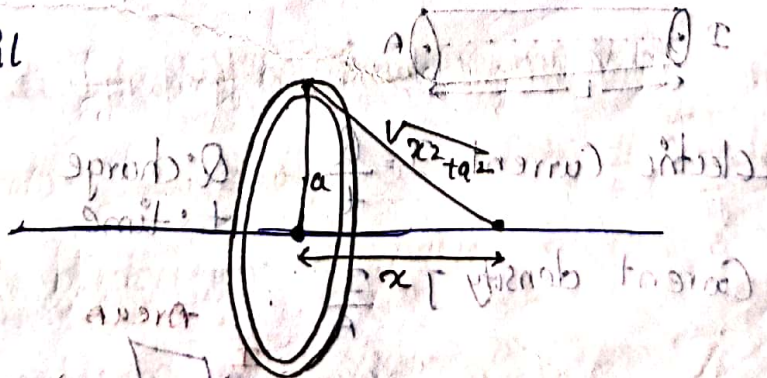


⇒ let us consider a conductor carrying a current 'i', there exist a magnetic field around the current carrying conductor which is \perp to the electric field

⇒ According to the amperes law $\oint B \cdot dl = \mu_0 i$

Amperes law in Integral form: $\oint B \cdot dl = \mu_0 i$

Special case of Amperes law: Amperes law is also used to calculate magnetic field along the horizontal axis of circular coil



$$B = \frac{\mu_0 n i a^2}{2\pi(a^2 + x^2)^{3/2}} \text{ --- Tesla}$$

State and Explain Faraday's law?

Faraday's law gives the relation b/w Emf (electro motive force) and Rate of change of magnetic flux

→ By changing the magnetic flux the current is induced i.e

By changing the magnetic flux in the circuits it leads to the changes

Emf in the circuit

→ magnetic flux can be changed by moving the magnet in away (or) towards

Flaw:- the circuit, By introducing the no. of turns

I Law of Faraday's laws electro magnetic induction:-

Whenever the magnetic flux linked with a circuit changes, an emf is always induced in it [current changes]

II Law:- The magnitude of induced emf is equal to the time rate of change

-e. of the flux linkage

$$\text{induced Emf} = - \frac{d(\phi_B)}{dt}$$

ϕ_B : Magnetic flux

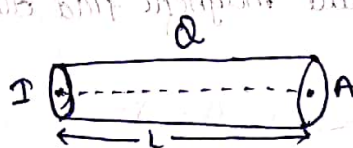
$\frac{d(\phi_B)}{dt}$ Rate of change of magnetic flux

$$\epsilon = -N \frac{d(\phi_B)}{dt}$$

N = no. of circular loops associated with electric circuit

What is electric current derive the continuity equation.

Electric Current:-

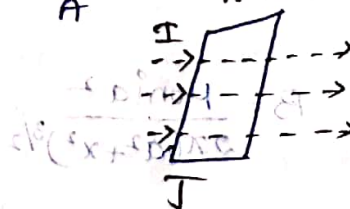


$$\text{Electric Current } I = \frac{Q}{t}$$

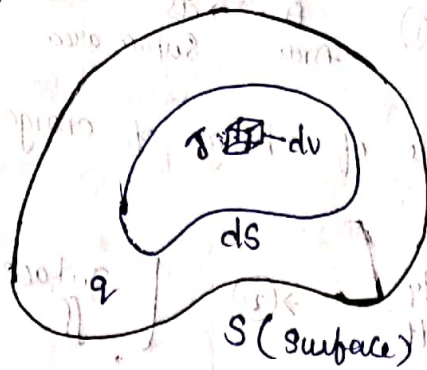
Q: charge
t: time.

$$\text{Current density } J = \frac{I}{A}$$

Area A



continuity Equation



$ds \rightarrow$ Small Surface
 $dv \rightarrow$ Small volume element.

\Rightarrow The external electric field accelerates the charges, due to the displacement of charges there exist a current.

\Rightarrow The phenomenon of drifting of charges is known as drift current or electric current under external electric field.

continuity:-

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \frac{d\rho}{dt} = 0$$

\mathbf{J} : Current density.

ρ : charge density.

$\frac{d\rho}{dt}$ Rate of change of ρ with time t

\Rightarrow let us consider a closed surface S , with in the surface ds be the small area.

let us consider dv be the small volume in ds .

let q be the total charge enclosed by the surface.

due to the displacement of charges there exist a current density \mathbf{J} in

Volume element (ds) and strength of current is I

\therefore Current $I = \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{A}$

Total Current through the Surface

$$I = \oint_S \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} \rightarrow \textcircled{1} \quad \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow ds \\ \text{Area} \quad \text{Surface area} \end{array}$$

We know that the rate of change of charge w.r.t time is equal to current

$$I = -\frac{dq}{dt} \rightarrow \textcircled{2} \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{surface} \\ \iint \\ \text{volume} \\ \iiint \end{array} \right]$$

$$\therefore q = \iiint_V \rho \, dv \quad \rho: \text{charge density with in } dv$$

$$I = -\frac{d}{dt} \left(\iiint_V \rho \, dv \right) = -\iiint_V \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right) dv$$

$$I = -\iiint_V \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right) dv \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

We know that $I = \oint_S \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} \rightarrow \textcircled{4} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}) \, dv \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$

Because From Gauss divergence theorem $\oint_S \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}) \, dv$

from eqn $\textcircled{3}$ & $\textcircled{4}$ By comparison of R.H.S

$$\iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}) \, dv = -\iiint_V \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right) dv$$

$$\iiint_V \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \right) \right) dv = 0 \quad \textcircled{5} \quad \iiint_V dv \neq 0$$

so that $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t}$ must vanish

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0$$

Volume integral is arbitrary therefore $\iiint_V dv \neq 0$ so that in order

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0$$

charges are displaced from one surface to another surface constitute electric current. This continuity equation enables conservation of

charge i.e. electrical can neither be created nor be destroyed

and the net charge in an isolated system remains constant

Significance of continuity equation:-

charge can not flow away from a given volume without deminishing the Amount of charge existing with in the volume.
 deminishing means decreasing.

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = - \oint \mathbf{J} \cdot d\mathbf{A}$$

charge product
 (B) charge

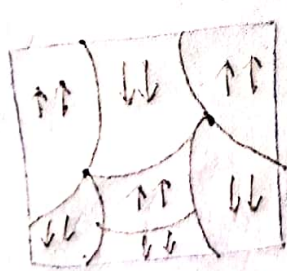
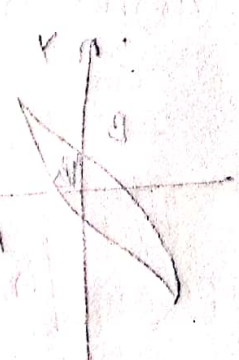
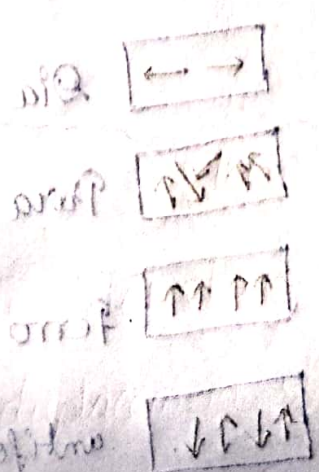
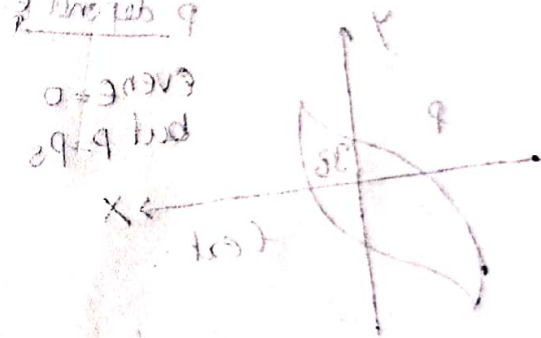


Fig (a) $t=0$



$I = \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{A}$
 Area Element

(b) charge



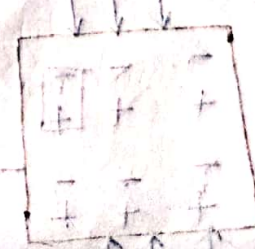
charge



Fig (b) $t=0$

Piezoelectric effect

Mechanical stress
 stress



$\sigma = 0$

Polarization

P \longrightarrow

$\epsilon_r = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$ \longrightarrow

E_{ext} \longrightarrow

$P = \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r - 1) E$ \longrightarrow

magnetization

B

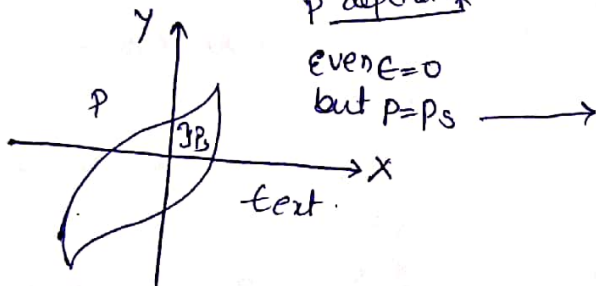
$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$

H_{ext}

$B = \mu_0 (H + M)$ $\chi = \frac{\mu_r - 1}{\mu_0}$
 $\chi = \frac{M}{H} - 1$

Ferro electric

Spontaneous (p)



ferro electric

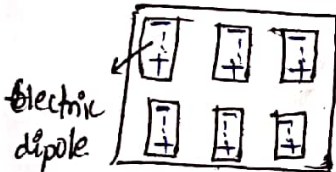


Fig 1(a) $\epsilon_r = 0$

Ferro magnetic

Spontaneous (B)

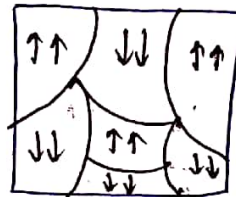
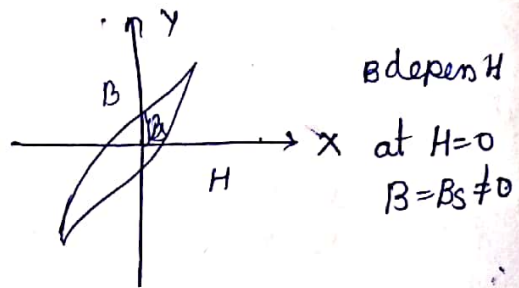
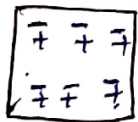


Fig 1(b) Ferromagnetic Domain $H=0$

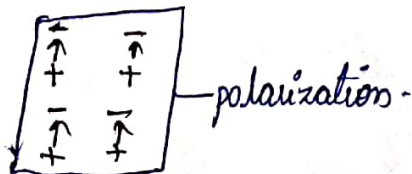
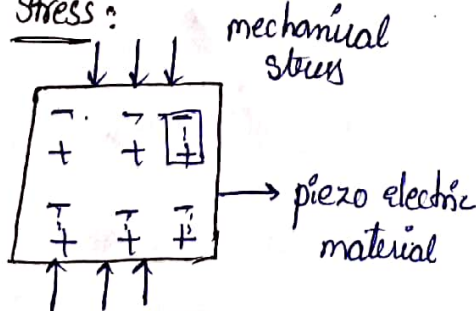
Piezo electric effect.

Mechanical stress:

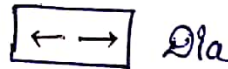
Stress:



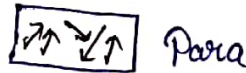
stress = 0



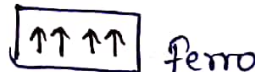
E_{ext}



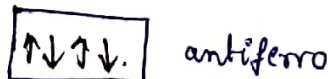
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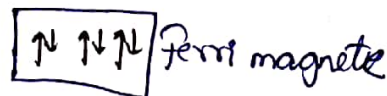
Para



Ferro



antiferro



Ferri magnetic