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E-NOTES

SUBJECT: CONDENSED MATTER PHYSICS

SUBJECT CODE: DPH31

UNIT : 3

SYLLABUS:

Monoatomic lattices - Lattice with two atoms per primitive cell
- First Brillouin zone - Group and phase velocities -
Quantization of lattice vibrations - Phonon momentum -
Inelastic scattering by phonons - Einstein's model and Debye's
model of specific heat.

UNIT - III.

WIEDMANN FRANZ LAW

statement

The ratio between the thermal conductivity and electrical conductivity of a metal is directly proportional to the absolute temperature of the metal.

$$\frac{k}{\sigma} \propto T.$$

$$\frac{k}{\sigma} \propto T \therefore \frac{k}{\sigma} = LT$$

Where, L is constant it is called a Lorentz's Number whose value is $L = 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\cdot\Omega\cdot\text{K}^{-2}$
(or)
 $\text{W}\cdot\Omega/\text{K}^2$

Proof

is By classical theory.

We know electrical conductivity from classical theory.

$$\sigma = \frac{ne^2\tau}{m}$$

n = free e^- density.

e = charge of e^-

τ = torque

m = mass of e^- .

$$\frac{\sigma \cdot ne^2\tau}{m} = \frac{k}{\frac{1}{2} n v^2 k_B}$$

Thermal conductivity. (from C.T)

$$k = \frac{nv^2 k_B T}{2}$$

n = free e^- density

v = Velocity.

k_B = Boltzmann Constant

$$\frac{k}{\sigma} = \frac{\frac{nv^2 k_B T}{2}}{\frac{ne^2 \tau}{m}}$$

$$= \frac{nv^2 k_B T}{2} \times \frac{m}{ne^2 \tau}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{k}{\sigma} = \frac{v^2 k_B m}{2e^2}} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \cdot \frac{k_B}{e^2}$$

We know.

$$\text{kinetic energy of an } e^- = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} k_B T.$$

Sub this eqn in ①

$$\frac{k}{\sigma} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{k_B^2 T}{e^2}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{k}{\sigma} = T}$$

$$\therefore 1 = \frac{3}{2} \frac{k_B^2}{e^2}$$

$$k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

$$e = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$
$$e = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$L = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23}}{1.602 \times 10^{-19}} \right)^2$$

$$L = 1.12 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$$

It is found that the classical value of Lorentz's Number, if only half of the experimental value i.e., $2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W } \Omega \text{ K}^{-2}$.

The discrepancy in the experimental and the theoretical value of "L" is the failure of classical theory. This discrepancy can be rectified by quantum theory.

By quantum theory.

In quantum theory, the mass of the e (m), is replaced by the effective mass (m^*).

The electrical conductivity by Quantum theory

$$\sigma = \frac{ne^2 \tau}{m^*}$$

In Thermal conductivity, rearranging the expression, and sub the electronic specific heat.

$$K = \frac{\pi^2}{3} \frac{n K_B^2 T}{m^*} \cdot T.$$

$$\frac{\pi^2 K_B^2 T}{3 m^*}$$

$$\frac{\kappa}{\sigma} = \frac{\frac{\pi^2}{3} \left(\frac{n k_B^2 \tau}{m^*} \right) T}{\frac{n e^2 \tau}{m^*}}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2 n k_B^2 \tau}{3 m^*} \cdot T \cdot \cancel{\frac{m^*}{n e^2 \tau}}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2 n k_B^2 \tau \cdot T}{3 m^*} \times \frac{m^*}{n e^2 \tau}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2 k_B^2 T}{3 e^2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2}{3} \left[\frac{k_B}{e} \right]^2 \cdot T$$

$$\therefore L = \frac{\pi^2}{3} \left[\frac{k_B}{e} \right]^2 \cdot$$

$$k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

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

$$\pi = 3.14$$

$$= \frac{(3.14)^2}{3} \frac{(1.38 \times 10^{-23})^2}{(1.602 \times 10^{-19})^2}$$

$$L = 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\cdot\Omega\cdot\text{K}^{-2}$$

This Quantum theory verifies Wiedmann Franz law and has good agreement with the experimental value of Lorentz's Number.

Hall effect

Measurement of conductivity will not determine whether the condition due to electron or holes and therefore will not distinguish between p type and n-type semi conductors.

Therefore hall effect is used to distinguish b/w the two types of carriers and their carrier densities and is used to determine the mobility of charge carriers.

Hall effect :

④ When a conductor (metal or semi conductor) carrying current is placed in a transverse magnetic field, an electric field is produced inside the conductor in a direction normal to both the current and the magnetic field.

This phenomenon is known as hall effect and the generated voltage is called as hall voltage.

Hall effect in n-type semiconductor.

Let us consider an n-type material to which the current is allowed to pass along x-direction from left to right. And the magnetic field is applied in z-direction. As a result hall voltage is produced in y-direction as shown in figure A.

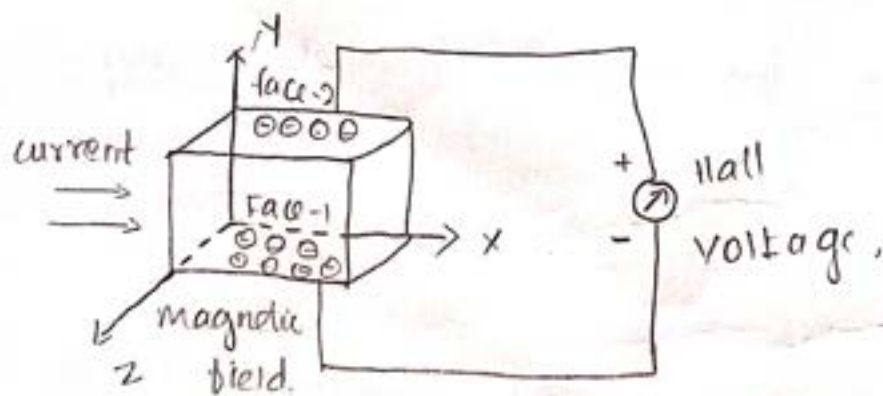


fig (a)

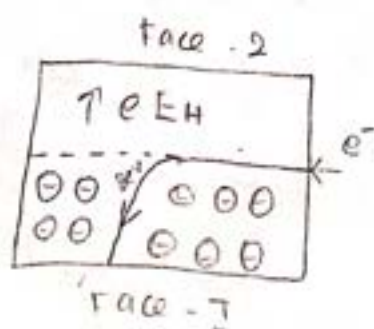


fig (b)

Since the direction of current is from left to right the electron moves from right to left in x-direction, as shown in figure b.

Now, due to the magnetic field applied the electrons move towards downward direction with the velocity v and causes the negative charge to accumulate at face I of the material as shown in figure a & b.

Therefore a potential difference is established b/w face-I and face-II of the specimen which gives rise to field E_H in the -ve y-direction. Here the force due to potential difference is equal to $-eE_H$.

The force due to potential difference
 $= -eE_H \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$

The force due to magnetic field
 $= -Bev \longrightarrow \textcircled{2}$

At equilibrium : eqn ① = eqn ②

$$-eE_H = -BeV$$

$$E_H = +BV \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

We know The current density J_x in the x-direction is

$$J_x = -neev$$

$$v = -\frac{J_x}{ne} \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

Sub ④ in ③ $ne \rightarrow$ electron density

$$E_H = +B \left(-\frac{J_x}{ne} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{BJ_x}{ne} \rightarrow \textcircled{5}$$

$$E_H = R_H \cdot J_x \cdot B \rightarrow \textcircled{6}$$

Where R_H is known as Hall co-efficient given by $R_H = -\left(\frac{1}{ne} \right)$

The -ve sign indicates that the field is developed in the -ve y direction.

Hall effect in P-type semiconductors

Let us consider a P-type material for which the current is passed along x-direction from left to right and magnetic field is applied along z-direction as shown in figure A.

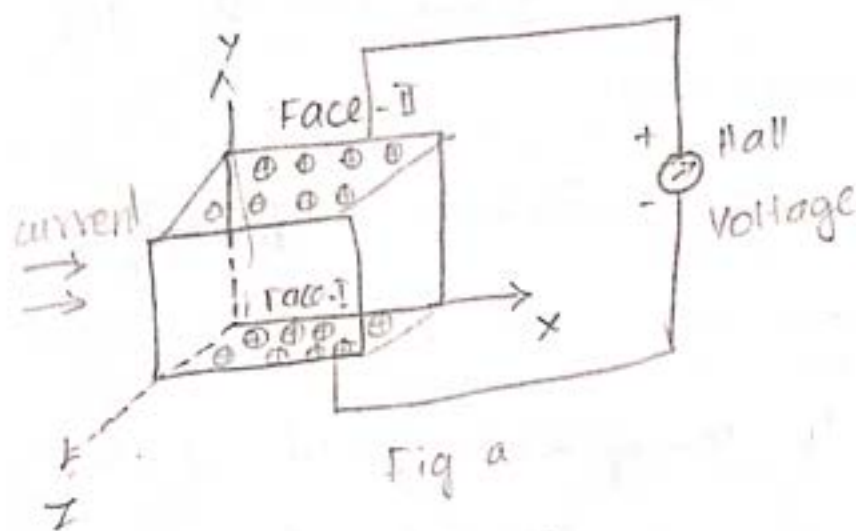


Fig a

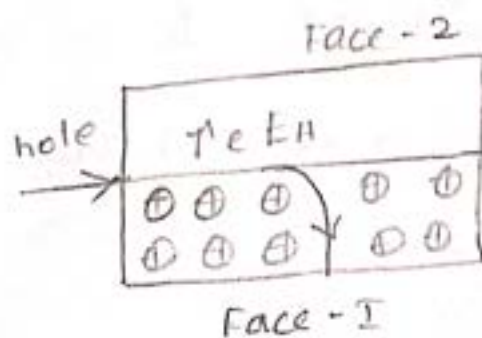


Fig (b).

Since the direction of current is from left to right the holes will also move in the same direction as shown in Fig (B).

Now due to magnetic field applied, The holes, move towards the downward direction with velocity 'v' and accumulate at the face (1) as shown in fig (A) and fig (b).

A potential difference is established between face (1) and face (2) in the +ve of y-direction

$$\text{Force due to potential difference} \\ = e E_H \text{ --- (1)}$$

$$\text{Force due to magnetic field} = Bev \text{ --- (2)}$$

Since hole is considered to be an e^- with same mass and +ve charge -ve sign is not included

At equilibrium

$$\text{eqn (1)} = \text{eqn (2)}$$

$$e E_H = Bev$$

$$E_H = Bv \longrightarrow \text{(3)}$$

We know

$$V = \frac{J_x}{n_h e} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

Where $n_h \Rightarrow$ hole density substituting eqn (10) in eqn (9)

We get.

$$E_H = \frac{B J_x}{n_h e}$$

$$E_H = R_H J_x B$$

Where

$$R_H = \frac{1}{n_h e} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

eqn (11) represents the hall co-efficient and the +ve sign indicates that the hall field is developed in the +ve y-direction

R_H Hall - co-efficient in terms of hall voltage :-

In the thickness of the sample is t , and the voltage developed is V_H , Then

Hall Voltage $V_H = E_H \cdot t \rightarrow (12)$

Sub the eqn (6) in eqn (12) We have

$$V_H = R_H J_x B t \rightarrow (13)$$

If b is the width of the sample
than

Area of the sample $= b \cdot t$

\therefore current density $J_x = \frac{I_x}{b t} \rightarrow (14)$

Substituting eq (14) in eq (13) we get

$$V_H = \frac{R_H J_x B t}{b t}$$

$$V_H = \frac{R_H I_x B}{b}$$

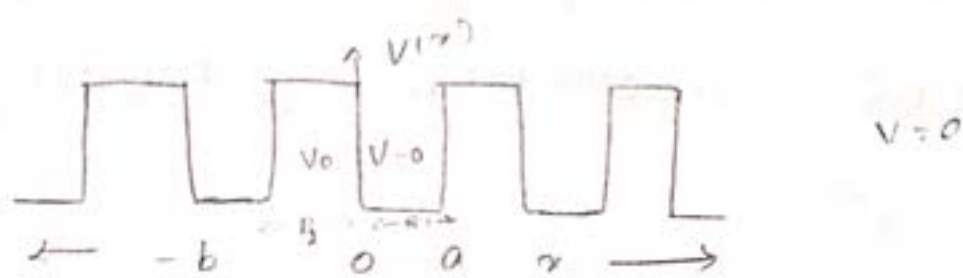
$$R_H = \frac{V_H b}{I_x B}$$

Hall co-efficient, $R_H = \frac{V_H b}{I_x B}$

Behaviour of an electron in a periodic potential (Kronig-Penny model)

Kronig and Penny treated a simple set example for one dimensional periodic potential.

In this model it is assumed that the potential energy of an electron has the form of a periodic array of square well as shown in figure.



Here we have two regions viz.

Region I

In this region b/w the limits $0 < x < a$ the potential energy is zero and hence the e^- is assumed to be a free particle.

The 1-dimensional schrodinger wave eqn of a free particle is.

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E-0)\psi = 0$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \alpha^2 \psi = 0} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Where

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E$$

Region (II)

In this eqn b/w the limit $-b < x < 0$.
The potential energy of the e^- is V_0

The one dimensional schrodinger wave eqn is,

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E-V_0)\psi = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} - \beta^2 \psi = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Where

$$\beta^2 = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (V_0 - E) \quad [\text{since } E < V_0]$$

For both, the region the appropriate soln suggested by block is of the form,

$$\psi(x) = e^{ikx} u_k(x) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Differentiating eqn (3) and sub it in eqn (1) and eqn (2) & Then further solving it under the boundary condition we get

$$p \frac{\sin \alpha a}{\alpha a} + \cos \alpha a = \cos k a \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Where

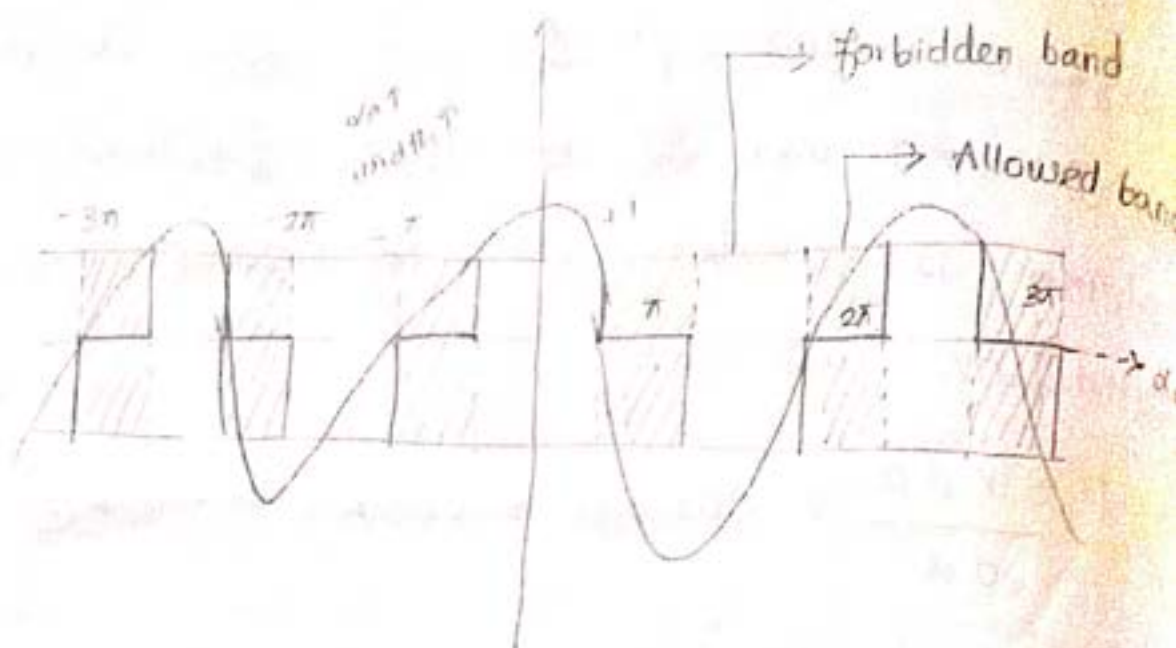
$p = \frac{m V_0 b a}{\hbar^2}$ is called a scattering power of the potential barrier which is the measure of the strength with which is the e^- are attracted by the positive ions.

In eqn (4) there are only 2 variable i.e. α and k . We know $\cos k a$ can take values only from -1 to +1

\therefore L.H.S of eqn (4) must be also fall in this range

A plot is made b/w the L.H.S of eqn (4) and αa for a value of $p = \frac{3\pi}{2}$

(arbitrary) as shown in figure.



$$P \frac{\sin \alpha a}{\alpha a} + \cos \alpha a$$

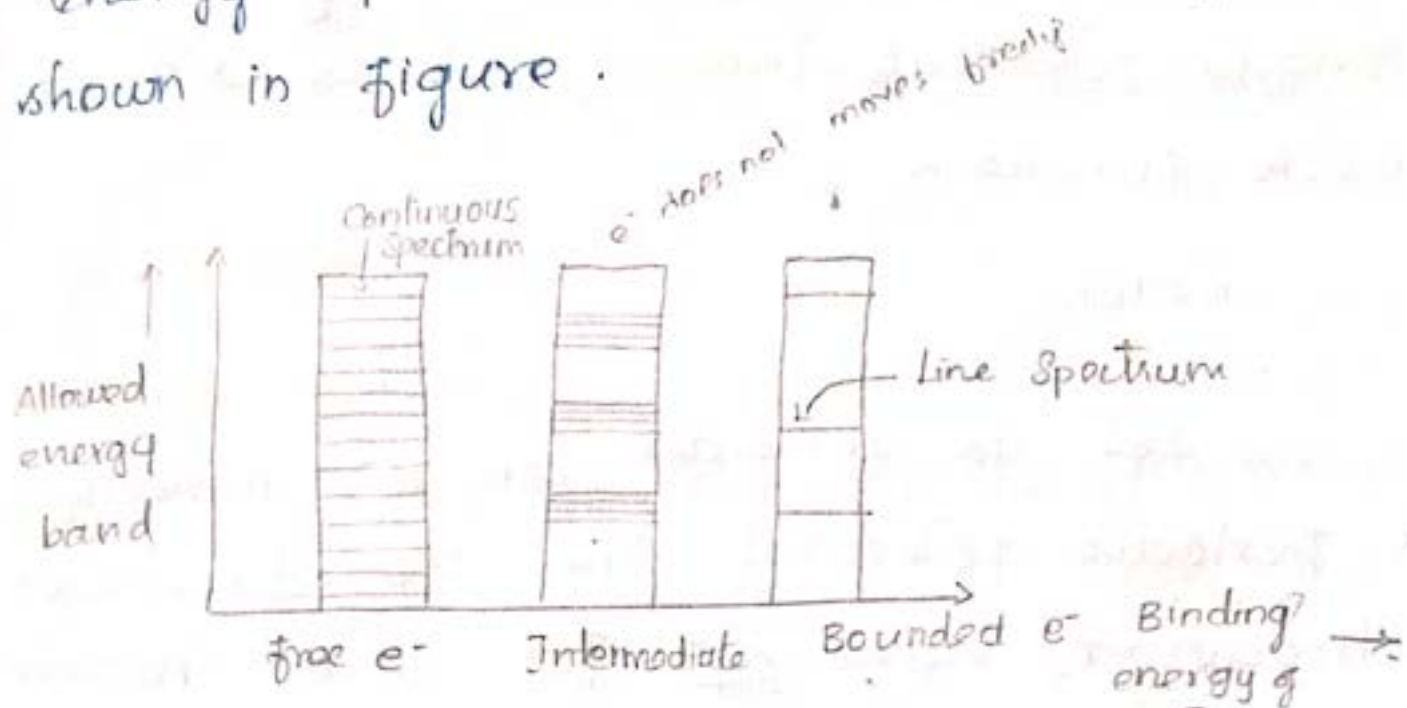
conclusions:

From the figure.

- i) The energy spectrum has a no. of allowed energy bands denoted by solid horizontal line separated by forbidden band gaps denoted by dotted lines
- ii) The Width of allowed energy band (shaded portion) increases with the increase in da
- iii) When P is increased, the binding energy of the e^- with the lattice points is also increased
 $P \uparrow \Rightarrow B.E. \text{ of } e^- \uparrow \Rightarrow P \uparrow$

\therefore The e^- will not be able to move freely and hence the width of the allowed energy band is decreased.

Especially for $p \rightarrow \infty$, then allowed energy band becomes infinitely narrow and the energy spectrum becomes a line spectrum as shown in figure.



vs When p is decreased, the binding energy of the e^- decreases and thus it moves freely over the lattice points and hence we get a wide range of allowed energy levels as shown in figure

vs Thus by varying p from zero to infinity we get the energy spectra of all ranges.

⑧ BLOCH THEOREM

It is a mathematical statement of an e^- wave function moving in a perfect periodic potential. These functions are called Bloch functions.

EXPLANATION

Let us consider an e^- moving in a periodic potential. The one dimensional Schrodinger wave eqn for an e^- moving in a periodic potential shall be written as

$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} (x) + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [E - V(x)] \psi(x) = 0 \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Suppose the e^- moves along x -direction in a one dimensional crystal, then the potential energy of the e^- should satisfy the condition

$$V(x) = V(x+a) \longrightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Where a is the periodicity of the potential. The soln of eqn 1 is

$$\psi(x) = e^{ikx} u_k(x) \longrightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

Where $u_k(x) = u_k(x+a) \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$.

Here, e^{ikx} represents the plane wave and $u_k(x)$ represents the periodic functions. eqn 3 is called Bloch theorem. and eqn 4 is called Bloch function.

PROOF:

If eqn ① has the soln with the property of eq ②,

We can write the property of the Bloch functions. i.e., eqn ③ has

$$\underline{\psi(x+a)} = e^{ik(x+a)} u_k(x+a).$$

(or)

$$\psi(x+a) = e^{ikx} \cdot e^{ika} \cdot u_k(x+a).$$

Since,

$$u_k(x+a) = u_k(x)$$

We can write the above eqn as

$$\psi(x+a) = e^{ikx} \cdot e^{ika} u_k(x).$$

from eqn ③.

$$\psi(x+a) = \psi(x) e^{ika} \rightarrow \textcircled{5}.$$

(or)

$$\psi(x+a) = \Phi \psi(x) \longrightarrow (6)$$

where, $\boxed{\Phi = e^{iKa}}$

If $\psi(x)$ is a single valued then if $\psi(x)$ is a single valued function.

Then it can be expressed as

$$\psi(x+a) = \psi(x).$$

Thus Bloch theorem is proved.

This eqn is similar to that of eqn (2) and (4). i.e, if the potential is the function of 'x' and 'a'. then the wave function is also a function of x and a.

FREE ELECTRON GAS IN 3D

⑩ 10M Let us consider, free that the electron confined to remain inside a cubical box of edge L . The potential energy of the e^- inside the box every where is taken as zero. The wave function $\psi_R(r)$ is described by the Schrodinger eqn of the form.

$$\nabla^2 \psi_R(r) + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E_R \psi_R(r) = 0 \longrightarrow (7)$$

where

E_R is the Total energy of the e^- . Here it is kinetic energy of the e^- in the state R . It can be shown that the Normalised wave function satisfying the eqn (1) is given by.

$$\psi_R(r) = \left(\frac{8}{L^3}\right)^{1/2} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_y \pi y}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_z \pi z}{L}\right) \rightarrow (2).$$

where

n_x, n_y, n_z are +ve integers. This is a standing wave solution.

However, it is more convenient to work with a plane travelling wave soln of the form.

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_R(r) &= A e^{2\vec{R} \cdot \vec{r}} \\ &= A e^{i(R_x x + R_y y + R_z z)}\end{aligned}$$

Where,

$$R^2 = \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right) E_R \text{ and}$$

A is arbitrary constant;

Such wave soln must satisfy the following periodic boundary condition

$$\left. \begin{aligned}\psi(x+L, y, z) &= \psi(x, y, z) \\ \psi(x, y+L, z) &= \psi(x, y, z) \\ \psi(x, y, z+L) &= \psi(x, y, z)\end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow (3)$$

These conditions obviously make the wave function to be periodic in x, y, z with period ' L '.



Applying the 1st Boundary Condition
We have,

$$\exp i [k_x (x+L) + k_y y + k_z z] =$$

$$= \exp i [k_x x + k_y y + k_z z]$$

(or)

$$k_x = 0, \pm \frac{2\pi}{L}, \pm \frac{4\pi}{L} \dots \pm \frac{2\pi n_x}{L} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

$$k_y = \pm \frac{2\pi n_y}{L}$$

$$k_z = \pm \frac{2\pi n_z}{L}$$

where n_x, n_y, n_z are integers including zero.

$$K^2 = K_x^2 + K_y^2 + K_z^2 = \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^2 (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^2 n^2$$

$$\boxed{\therefore n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2 = n^2}$$

Thus, the energy eigen values are given by

$$E_k = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} K^2$$

$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (K_x^2 + K_y^2 + K_z^2) \longrightarrow (5)$$

Where K_x, K_y, K_z are obtained according to conditions (4)

Evidently, the energy spectrum consist of discrete energy levels which usually be very close to gether ($\sim 10^{-15}$ eV apart)

Such energy levels are said to be quasi-continuous. These energy separation
 equal No. of atoms
 in a given

depends upon the size of the box.

To obtain the expression for A
 We have.

$$\int_0^V \psi^*(r) \psi(r) dr = 1$$

Hence, we get.

$$A = \left(\frac{1}{V}\right)^{1/2}.$$

Thus the Normalized wave function is

$$\psi_k(r) = \left(\frac{1}{V}\right)^{1/2} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}.$$

Obviously \vec{k} is a wave vector and k_x, k_y, k_z are the components of \vec{k} .

The set of values of k_x, k_y, k_z defines a state of energy.

If m_s be the spin quantum Number of the e^- ; then k_x, k_y, k_z, m_s define the energy state of the e^- .

The state of the system is defined by the quantum Number k_x, k_y, k_z, m_s . The e^- can have only two spins $\pm 1/2$.

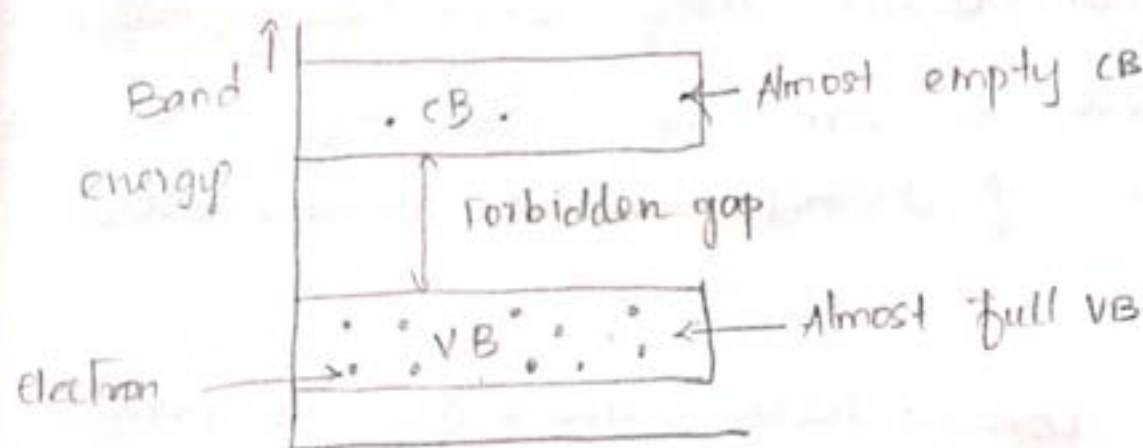
The ~~e~~ corresponding to Two possible orientation directions.

Semiconductor

The Material which has electrical conductivity between that of a conductor and that of an insulator is called as Semiconductor.

Eg: silicon, germanium, graphite are some eg of Semiconductors.

Semiconductors are the foundation of modern electronics including transistors, LEDs and solar cells etc..



In Semiconductors, the forbidden gap between valence band and conduction band is very small. It has a forbidden gap of about 1 eV.

At low temperature, the valence band is completely occupied with e^- and conduction band is empty.

Because the e^- in the valence band does not have enough energy to move into conduction band.

\therefore Semiconductor behaves as an insulator at low temperature.

However, at room temperature some of the e^- in valence band gains enough energy in the form of heat and moves into a conduction band.

When the valence e^- moves into a conduction band. They become free e^- .

These e^- are not attached to the nucleus of an atom, so they move freely.

The conduction band e^- are responsible for electrical conductivity. The measure of ability to conduct electric current is called as electrical conductivity.

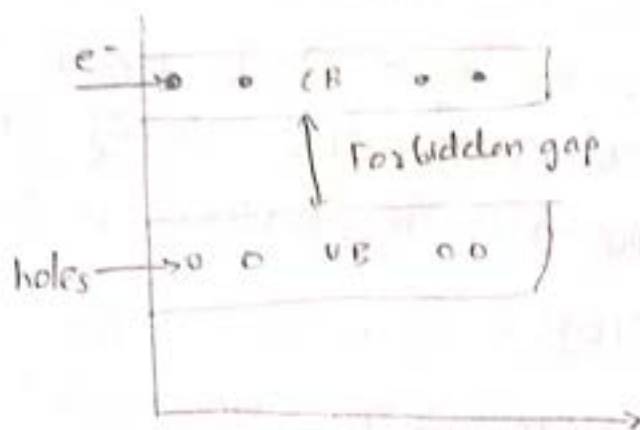
When the temp is going on increasing, the No. of valence band e^- moving into conduction band is also increases.

This shows the electrical conductivity of the semiconductor increases with increase in temperature.

HOLE

The absence of e^- in a particular place in an atom is called as hole.

Hole is the electric charge carrier which has positive charge. The electric charge of hole is equal to electric charge of electron, but have opposite polarity.



When a small amount of external energy is applied, then the e^- s in the valence band move into the conduction band and leave a vacancy in the valence band. This vacancy is called as hole.

Intrinsic Semiconductor

Intrinsic carrier concentration

In intrinsic semiconductor, when the valence e^- s broke the covalent bond and jumps into the conduction band, two types of charge carriers get generated. They are free e^- s and holes.

The No. of e^- s per unit volume in the conduction band or the Number of holes per unit volume in the valence band is called Intrinsic carrier concentration. The No. of e^- per unit volume in the CB is e^- carrier. The No. of hole per unit volume in the VB is called as hole-carrier concentration.

In an intrinsic semiconductor, the no. of e^- generated in the C.B is equal to the No. of holes generated in the VB. Hence the e^- - carrier is equal to hole-carrier.

It can be written as.

$$\underline{n_i = n = p}$$

where,

$n = e^-$ carrier concentration

$p =$ hole carrier concentration.

n_i = intrinsic carrier con. The hole concentration in the valence band is given as

$$p = N_v e^{-\frac{(E_F - E_v)}{K_B T}}$$

The e^- con. in the conduction band is given as

$$n = N_c e^{-\frac{(E_c - E_F)}{K_B T}}$$

Where K_B is the Boltzmann constant
The T is the absolute temperature of intrinsic semiconductor.

N_c is the effective density of states in conduction band.

N_v is the effective density of states in valence band.

E_F is the Fermi energy.

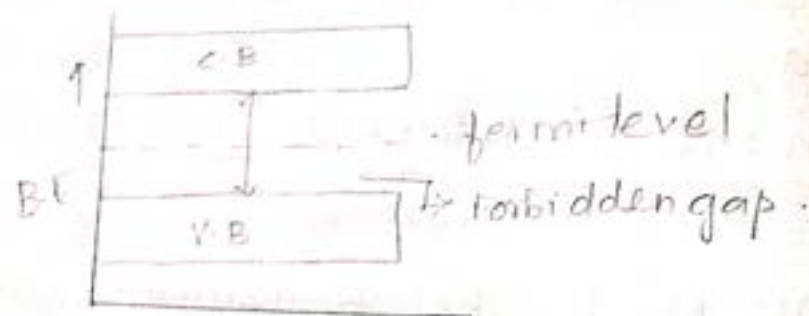
E_c is the conduction energy.

FERMI - LEVEL IN INTRINSIC SEMICONDUCTOR

The probability of occupation of energy levels in valence band & CB is called Fermi level. At absolute zero temperature intrinsic semiconductor acts as perfect insulator. However as the temperature increases free e^- and holes get generated.

In intrinsic or pure semiconductor the No. of holes in valence band is equal

to the no. of e^- in the
 Probability of occupation of energy levels
 in CB and VB are equal. \therefore The Fermi-level
 for the intrinsic semiconductor lies in the
 middle of forbidden band



Fermi-level in the middle of forbidden band indicates equal concentration of free electrons and holes

The hole con. in the valence band is given as
$$p = N_v e^{-\frac{(E_F - E_v)}{k_B T}}$$

The electron concentration in the CB is
$$n = N_c e^{-\frac{(E_c - E_F)}{k_B T}}$$

Where k_B is the Boltzmann constant
 T is the absolute temp. of the intrinsic semiconductor

N_c is the effective density of state in CB, N_v is the effective density of VB.

The No. of e^- in the CB is depends on effective density of states in the CB and the distance of Fermi level from the CB

The No. of holes in the valence band depends on effective density of states

in The Valence band and the distance of fermi level from the VB

For an intrinsic semiconductor, the e^- - carrier concentration is equal to the hole - carrier concentration.

It can be written as,

$$p = n = n_i$$

Where

p = hole - carrier con.

n = e^- - carrier con.

n_i = intrinsic carrier con.

The fermi level for intrinsic semi conductor is given as,

$$E_F = \frac{E_C + E_V}{2}$$

Where E_F is the fermi level

E_C is the conduction band

E_V is the valence band

\therefore The fermi level in an intrinsic semiconductor lies in the middle of the forbidden gap.

DE HASS-VAN ALPHEN EFFECT.

In case of free electron gas, we have calculated the paramagnetic susceptibility due to the intrinsic magnetic moment associated with

MOBILITY, DRIFT VELOCITY AND CONDUCTIVITY OF INTRINSIC SEMI CONDUCTOR

Due to thermal ~~excite~~ agitation and lattice vibrations, some of the covalent bond in a semi conductor are broken and some e^- s become free.

When an electric field is applied, the electrons drift^{slide} towards the positive electrode and hence, constitute^{produce} the current.

Gilly Absence of an e^- s from a bond, known as hole. Constitutes the ^{net} positive charge. This hole moves towards the negative electrode, hence constitute the current.

Thus, due to application of potential difference between both ends of the crystal, charge carriers attain a drift speed $= v_d$ which is proportional to the electric field strength F

and is difference for different semi conducting materials and for different type of charge carriers

$$V_d \propto E$$
$$V_d = \mu E$$

$$J_n = neV_d$$

Where μ is the mobility of charge carrier define as the velocity of charge carrier produced due to unit electric field strength.

It should be noted here that in a pure semiconductor under the influence of an electric field, electrons move in a nearly empty conduction band. Where as, holes move in a nearly filled valence band.

band. $S.C \xrightarrow{EF} e^- \xrightarrow{\text{empty}} CB : S.C \xrightarrow{EF} \parallel \xrightarrow{\text{filled}} VB$

i.e., An electron in conduction band is subjected to different conditions compared to a hole in valence-band.

Thus, properties assigned to a hole. eg. mass, mobility etc. Will not be the same as those of an e^- in conduction band.

\therefore The type of drift of e^- and of holes under the action of an applied force are different.

μ_n - The e^- mobility at any temperature will be different. (greater) from the mobility, μ_p of holes.

If n is the density of free e^- s in CB of semiconductor. Then net charge per unit volume available for the conduction of e^- current will be " ne " ne .
 $= ne$.

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$$\boxed{J_n = \sigma_n E}$$

F

from eqn ① & ②

We have

$$J_n F = n_e v_{dn}$$

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||v In VB, if p density of holes.

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for intrinsic semiconductor density of
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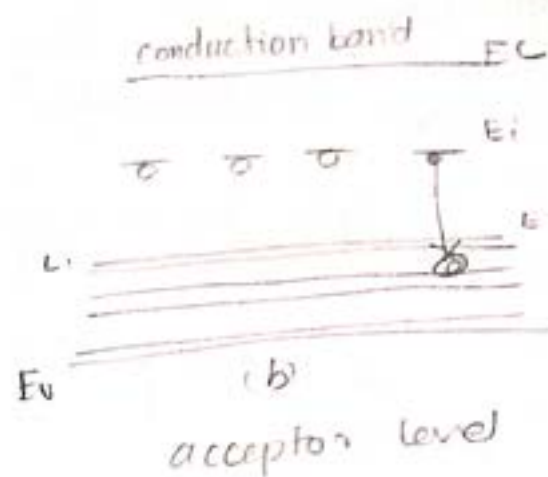
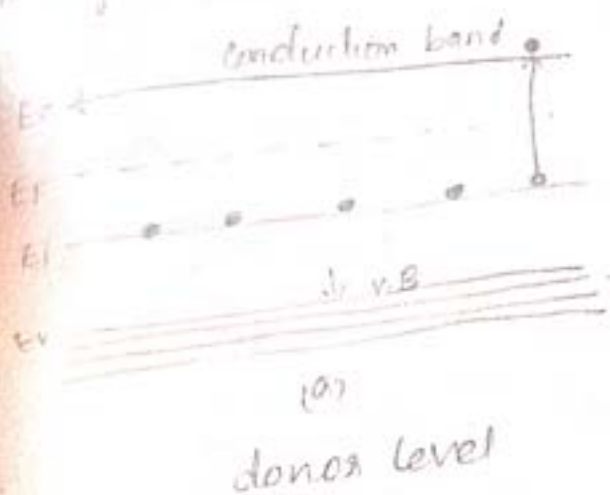
14

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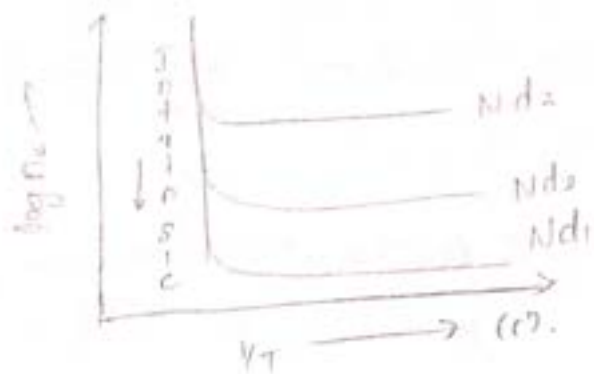
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μ_n The e^- mobility at any temperature will be different. (greater) from the mobility, μ_p of holes.

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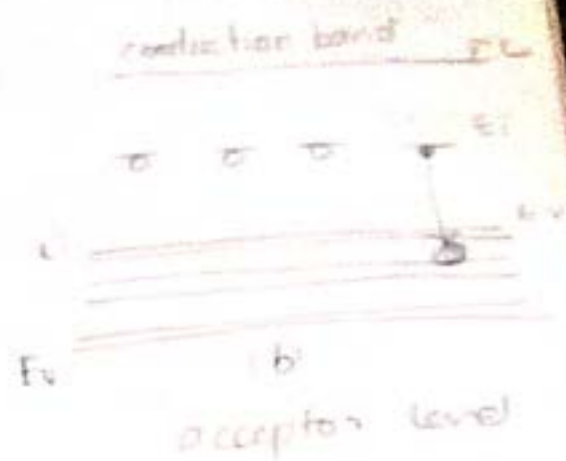
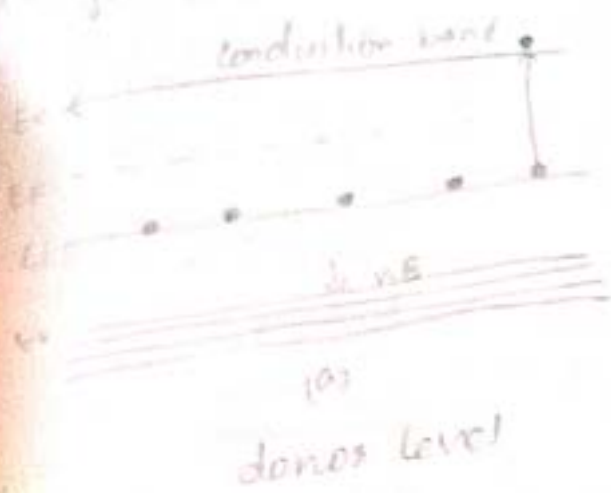
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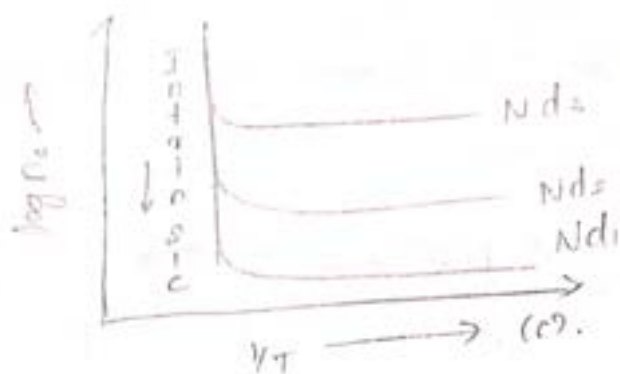
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$$\exp\left[\frac{E_i - E_c}{2k_B T}\right]$$

$$(2Nd)^{1/2} \left[\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right] \exp \left[\frac{E_i - E_c}{2k_B T} \right]$$

Where $\Delta E = (E_c - E_i) \rightarrow$ ionisation energy of donors.

$$n_c = (2Nd)^{1/2} \left[\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right]^{3/4} \exp \left[-\frac{\Delta E}{2k_B T} \right]$$

Note That :-

Density of e^- in CB is $\propto \sqrt{con.}$
Proportional to square root of con.

As the temperature increases, Fermi level falls below the donor level and it approaches the centre of forbidden gap which makes the substance an intrinsic semiconductor.

Conductivity of intrinsic semiconductor is smaller than n or p type semiconductors.

In fig C

A graph is plotted in $\log n_c$ and $1/T$ which gives a straight line with a slope $-\Delta E / 2k_B$.

If the T becomes sufficiently high so as to excite e^- s from V_B to reach directly to CB , then this slope changes to $-E_g/2K_B$.

Electrical conductivity

For pure n-type semiconductor in which acceptors are not present.

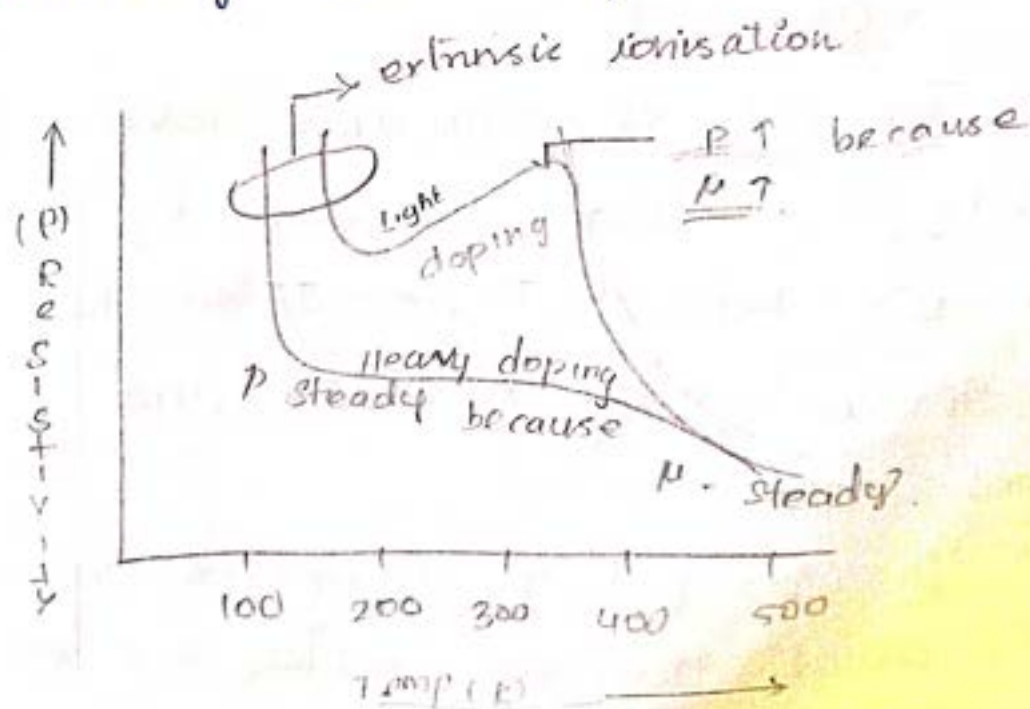
The electrical conductivity can be written as,

$$\sigma_{\text{conductivity}} = e n_c \mu_n \quad (\mu_n \neq 0).$$

Where

n_c is given by eqn (4)
= density

By using that study the variation of conductivity with temp.



The above figure represents temperature variation of resistivity for heavily & lightly doped semiconductors.

p-type semiconductor - Refer fig (b)

In this case acceptor levels lie above the valence band.

The density of holes in the valence band can be obtained exactly in the same way as in the case of n.c

$$n_h = (2N_d)^{1/2} \left[\frac{2\pi m_h^* k_B T}{h^2} \right]^{3/4} \exp \left[-\Delta E / 2k_B T \right]$$

where

⑤

$$\Delta E = E_p - E_v$$

In this case Fermi level lies half way between the acceptor levels and top of valence band at $T = 0K$.

When density of available levels z_i with energy E_i are occupied by density of donor e^- s, N_d at $T = 0K$ as in the case of Ge & Si containing trivalent and pentavalent impurities

But if $z_i \gg N_d$ as happens in the case of alkali halides containing excess

metal then only a fraction of available levels will be occupied

In this case, at any Temp T , no. of filled impurity levels is equal to

$$N_d = \frac{z_i}{\exp[(E_i - E_F)/k_B T] + 1}$$

When $(E_i - E_F) \gg \text{a few } k_B T$

$$N_d = z_i \exp[(E_F - E_i)/k_B T] \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

from eqn (1) we have,

$$\begin{aligned} n_c &= 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp[(E_F - E_c)/k_B T] \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp[(E_F - E_i)/k_B T] \\ &\quad \cdot \exp[(E_i - E_c)/k_B T] \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{N_d}{z_i} \right) \exp[(E_i - E_c)/k_B T] \end{aligned}$$

on using eqn (6)

$$\Delta E = (E_c - E_i)$$

We find that density of e^- in CB is given by,

$$n_c = 2 \left(\frac{N_d}{z_i} \right) \left(\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp(-\Delta E/k_B T)$$

in which exponential term consist of ΔE instead of $\Delta E/2$ as compared to eqn ①
 $n_c \propto n_d$

Temperature dependence,
for intrinsic semiconductors

$$n = p = n_i$$

$$E_F = 1/2 (E_c + E_v)$$

$$n_i^2 = N_c N_v e^{-(E_c - E_v)/kT}$$

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-E_g/2kT}$$

Where,

$$E_c - E_v = E_g \rightarrow \text{Band gap.}$$

general
$$n_i = 2 \left(\frac{KT}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{-E_g/2kT}$$

Experiment results shows that the band gap for most of the semiconductors decreases linearly with temp so that we may write,

$$E_g = E_{g_0} - \alpha T$$

Where,

$E_{g_0} \rightarrow$ Bandgap at 0K and.

$\alpha \rightarrow$ constant.

characteristic of the Specific Semiconductor
eqn ① can be rewritten in the
following form.

$$n_i = 2 \left(\frac{kT}{2\pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{-(E_{g0} - \alpha T)/2kT}$$

$$= AT^{3/2} e^{-E_{g0}/2kT} \text{ --- ②}$$

Where,

$$A = 2 \left(\frac{k}{2\pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{\alpha/2kT}$$

eqn ① & ② pts to the fact that
the carrier concentration in intrinsic
semiconductor is strongly tem.-depend

$$e^{-\frac{E_{g0}}{2kT}}$$