



* Schrödinger time independent eqn:

Let wave function

$$\Psi = e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

take 1st derivative

$\omega \propto k$

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} = ik e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

take 2nd derivative

$\omega \propto k$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = k^2 \Psi$$

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \frac{h}{\lambda} \times \frac{2\pi}{2\pi} \\ p &= \hbar k \\ k^2 &= p^2/\hbar^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now } p = \hbar k$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = -\frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \cdot \Psi \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Total Energy

$$E = KE + PE$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{mv_m^2}{m} + V$$

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V$$

Multiply by Ψ

$$E\Psi = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi + V\Psi$$

eqn's is called

Schrödinger time independent

eqn for x-dimension.

For 3D eqn

$$\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right] \Psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E\Psi = 0$$

$$E\Psi - V\Psi = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi$$

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \Psi = 0$$

$$(E - V)(\Psi) = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi \quad \text{--- (3)} \Rightarrow \nabla^2 \text{ is called Laplacian}$$

from eqn (2)

operator.

$$\frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

from eqn (3) & (4)

$$(E - V)\Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + (E - V)\Psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

* Schrödinger's time dependent eqn:-

Let wave function

$$\Psi = e^{i(Kx - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Take 1st derivative

ω w.r.t 't'

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -i\omega e^{i(Kx - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$E = \hbar \omega \times \frac{2\pi}{2\pi}$$

$$E = \hbar \omega$$

$$\omega = E/\hbar$$

Substitute in eqn (2)

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -i \frac{E}{\hbar} \Psi$$

$$E\Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2}$$

$$E\Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial t^2}$$

$$E\Psi = \hbar i \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

From time independent eqn

$$H\Psi = E\Psi$$

H is called Hamiltonian operator.

$$H\Psi = \hbar i \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t}$$

(or)

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 - V \right] \Psi = \hbar i \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

eqn (4) is called Schrödinger time dependent eqn

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \Psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \Psi - \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} V \Psi = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E \Psi$$

take common. ($E \frac{2m}{\hbar^2}$)

$$-\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 - V \right] \Psi$$

$$= -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E \Psi$$

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V \right] \Psi = E \Psi$$

$$\text{Here } -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V = H \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

3. Explain the physical significance of wave function.

The wave function in quantum mechanism describes the probability amplitude of finding a particle in a particular state. Its physical significance lies in its square modulus, which gives the probability density of finding a particle in a certain region of space at a given time. This probability density helps predict where a particle might be located or its properties upon measurement. The wave function is fundamental in understanding the probabilistic nature of quantum particles, forming the basis for predicting their behaviour and interactions.

UNIT 2

10. Concentration of carriers on conduction Band.
 → occupancy probability

$$f(\epsilon) = \frac{N(\epsilon)}{g(\epsilon)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$N(\epsilon) = g(\epsilon) \cdot f(\epsilon) \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

density of state in conduction Band.

$$g_c(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

from eqn (A)

$$\therefore f(\epsilon) = e^{\left(\frac{\epsilon - E_F}{kT} \right)}$$

$$n_0 = \int_{E_C}^{\infty} g_c(\epsilon) \cdot f(\epsilon) d\epsilon$$

$$= \int_{E_C}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{\epsilon - E_F}{kT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{E_C}^{\infty} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{\epsilon - E_F}{kT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{E_C}^{\infty} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} e^{\left[\frac{\epsilon - E_C + E_C - E_F}{-kT} \right]} d\epsilon$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{E_C}^{\infty} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} e^{\left[\frac{\epsilon - E_C}{-kT} \right]} \cdot e^{\left[\frac{E_C - E_F}{-kT} \right]} d\epsilon$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{-kT} \right)} \int_{E_C}^{\infty} (\epsilon - E_C)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{\epsilon - E_C}{-kT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$\eta = \left(\frac{\epsilon - E_C}{kT} \right) \mid d\eta = \frac{1}{kT} d\epsilon \Rightarrow d\epsilon = d\eta - kT$$

$$\& \epsilon - E_C = \eta - kT$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{-kT} \right) \int n^{1/2} (kT)^{1/2} \cdot e^{-\eta/kT} d\eta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{-kT} \right) (kT)^{3/2} \int n^{1/2} e^{-\eta} dn$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2mKT}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{(E_C - E_F)}{e^{-\alpha KT}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{2mKT}{\hbar^2 \cdot \pi} \right)^{3/2} \frac{[E_C - E_F]}{e^{-\alpha KT}}$$

Concentration of carriers on valence Band occupancy probability.

$$f(\epsilon) = \frac{N(\epsilon)}{g(\epsilon)} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

$$N(\epsilon) = g(\epsilon) \cdot f(\epsilon) \quad \textcircled{A}$$

density of state in valence Band.

$$g_v(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \quad \textcircled{2}$$

from eqn \textcircled{A}

$$f(\epsilon) = e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)}$$

$$n_0 = \int_{\epsilon_V}^{\infty} g_v(\epsilon) \cdot f(\epsilon) d\epsilon.$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{\epsilon_V}^{\infty} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} d\epsilon.$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{\epsilon_V}^{\infty} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{E_V - \epsilon + E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_{\epsilon_V}^{\infty} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{E_V - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\left(\frac{E_V - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} \int_{\epsilon_V}^{\infty} (\epsilon_V - \epsilon)^{1/2} \cdot e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} d\epsilon$$

$$\eta = \left(\frac{E_V - \epsilon}{KT} \right) \quad d\eta = \frac{1}{KT} d\epsilon \Rightarrow d\epsilon = d\eta \cdot KT$$

$$\& \frac{E_V - \epsilon}{KT} = \eta \cdot KT$$

$$n_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right) \int n^{1/2} (KT)^{1/2} e^{KT} d\eta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\left(\frac{E_F - \epsilon}{KT} \right)} (KT)^{3/2} \int n^{1/2} \cdot e^{-\eta} d\eta$$

② Define schottky junction and its application.

A schottky is a type of junction formed between a metal and a semiconductor. It's characterized by a barrier created due to the difference in work function between the metal and the semiconductor, leading to the formation of a depletion region.

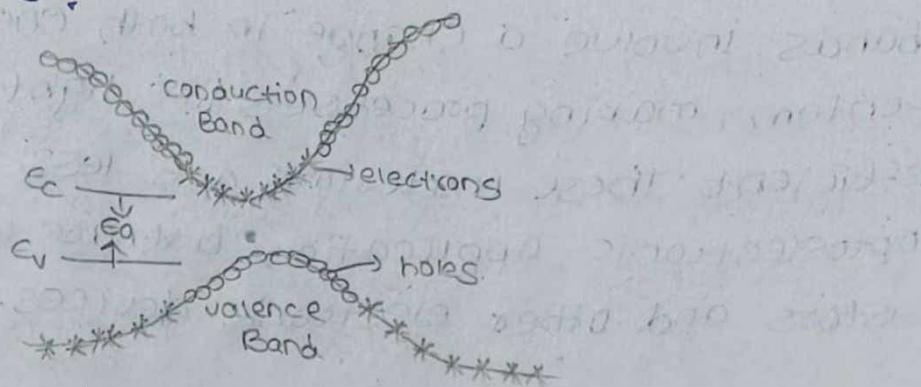
Application of schottky junctions include:

- 1) It is used in Diodes for their fast switching speed and low forward voltage drop.
- 2) It is used in RF Devices.
- 3) It is used in Power Rectifiers for their low power losses and high efficiency.
- 4) It is used in solar cells

Their unique properties makes schottky junctions valuable in various electronic and energy conversion devices.

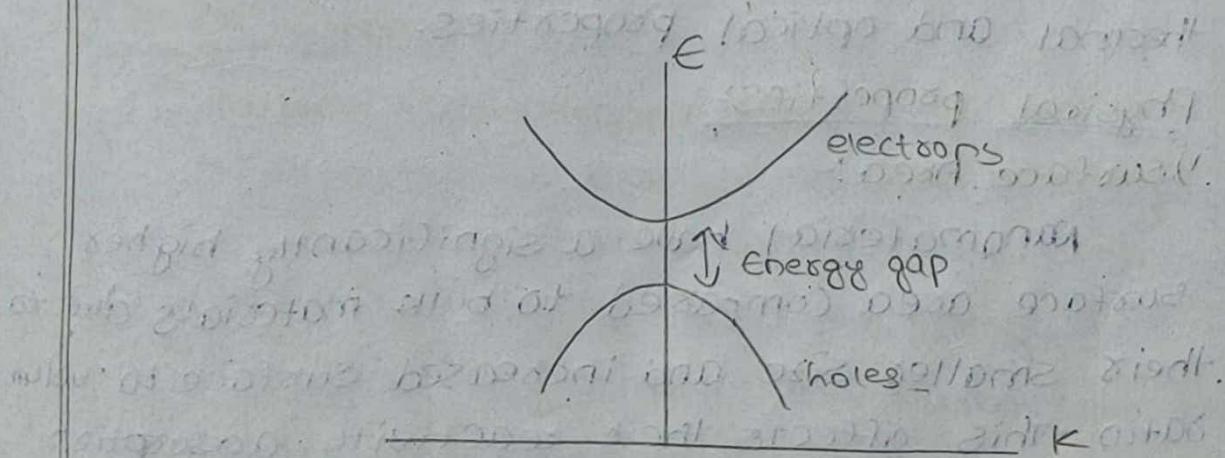
3) Explain E-K diagram with Direct and indirect Bandgap.

- A) A E-K diagram, or Energy-momentum diagram illustrate the relationship between the energy (E) and momentum (K) of electrons in a crystalline materials.



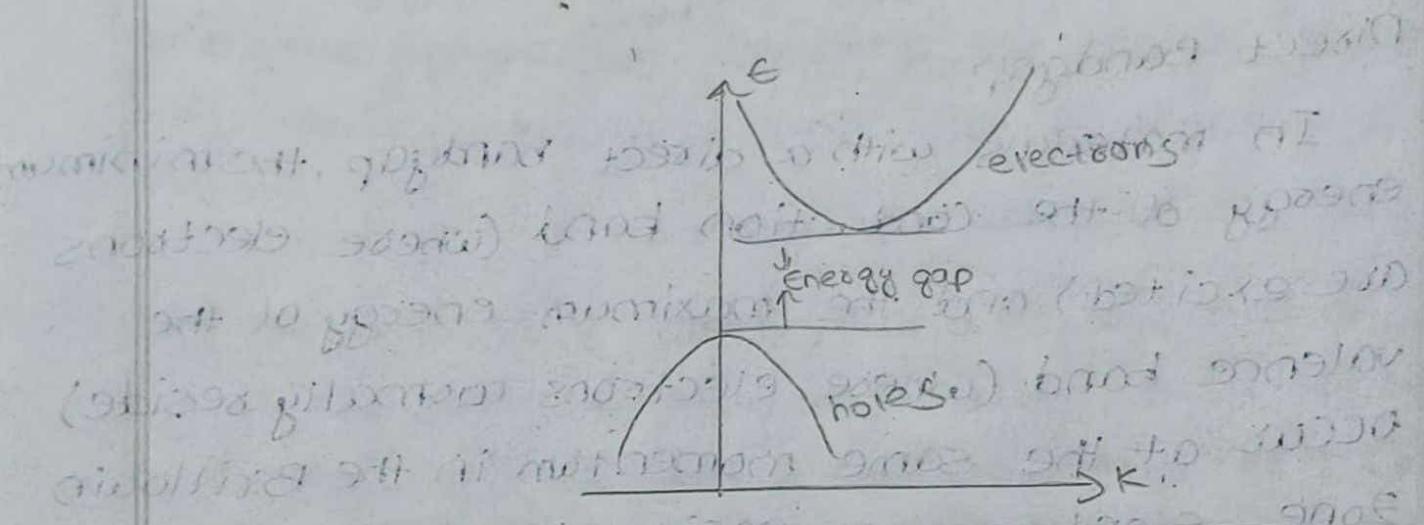
Direct Bandgap:-

In materials with a direct bandgap, the minimum energy of the conduction band (where electrons are excited) and the maximum energy of the valence band (where electrons normally reside) occurs at the same momentum in the Brillouin zone. Electrons can easily transition between the bands with the absorption or emission of photons, allowing for efficient emission of light. This property is vital optoelectronic devices like LEDs and lasers.



Indirect Bandgap:

In materials with an indirect bandgap, the minimum energy of the conduction band and the maximum energy of the valence band occurs at different momentum value in the Brillouin zone. As a result, electron transition between the bands involve a change in both energy and momentum, making processes like light emission less efficient. These materials are less effective in optoelectronic application but are used in transistors and other electronic devices.



—unit—

3

1. Discuss in brief regarding the changes observed in physical properties, thermal properties when a bulk material is transformed
- A) When a bulk material is transformed into a nanomaterial, several changes occurs in its physical, thermal and optical properties.

Physical properties:

1) Surface Area:-

Nanomaterial have a significantly higher surface area compared to bulk materials due to their smaller size and increased surface to volume ratio. This affects their reactivity, adsorption properties and interaction with surrounding environments.

2) mechanical properties:-

Nanomaterials have a significant often exhibit enhanced mechanical properties such as increased strength, hardness and flexibility compared to their bulk counterparts due to the presence of grain boundaries and quantum effect at the nanoscale.

3) melting point and phase transitions:-

Nanomaterials might have altered melting points and phase transition temperature compared to bulk materials due to the dominance of surface and interface effects.

Thermal properties:-

1) thermal conductivity:-

Nanomaterials can display altered thermal conductivity compared to bulk material. for instance, some nanomaterials exhibit enhanced thermal conductivity due to conductivity due to phonon confinement effects.

2) melting and Boiling points:-

These properties can also change in nanomaterials due to the dominance of surface energy compared to bulk materials.

Optical properties:-

1) Quantum Confinement effects:-

Nanomaterials exhibits unique optical properties due to quantum confinement effects, smaller nanoparticles can be discrete energy level result in changes in absorbance, fluorescence and bandgap compared to bulk materials.

2. Explain in brief about shape memory alloys and Piezoelectric alloys.

A)

Shape memory alloys (SMA) are materials that can "remember" their original shape and return to it when subjected to certain stimuli like temperature change or stress. They can be deformed and then revert to their predetermined shape when the stimulus is applied. This property makes SMA useful in various applications like robotics, aerospace and medical devices.

Piezoelectric alloys, on the other hand, possess the ability to generate an electric charge when mechanical stress is applied or vice versa. This property allows them to convert mechanical energy into electrical energy and vice versa. They find application in sensors, actuators, ultrasound devices and even in generating electricity from vibrations or mechanical movements.

UNIT 4

1. Explain the construction, working, energy band diagram and application of He-Ne lasers.

A) The Helium-Neon (He-Ne) laser is a gas laser commonly used in various applications.

Construction:-

Gas medium:-

The laser tube contains a mixture of helium and neon gases.

Electrical Discharge:-

Electrical discharge excites the gas molecules leading to the generation of a population inversion.

Resonators:-

The laser cavity consists of mirror at both ends, one highly reflective and the other partially transparent, forming an optical resonator.

Working:-

Excitation:-

Electrons in helium get excited by an electrical discharge and transfer energy to neon atoms.

Population inversion:-

This excitation results in a population inversion, where more atoms are in higher energy states than lower ones.

Stimulated Emission:-

Stimulated emission occurs as photons stimulate other excited atoms to emit coherent photons.

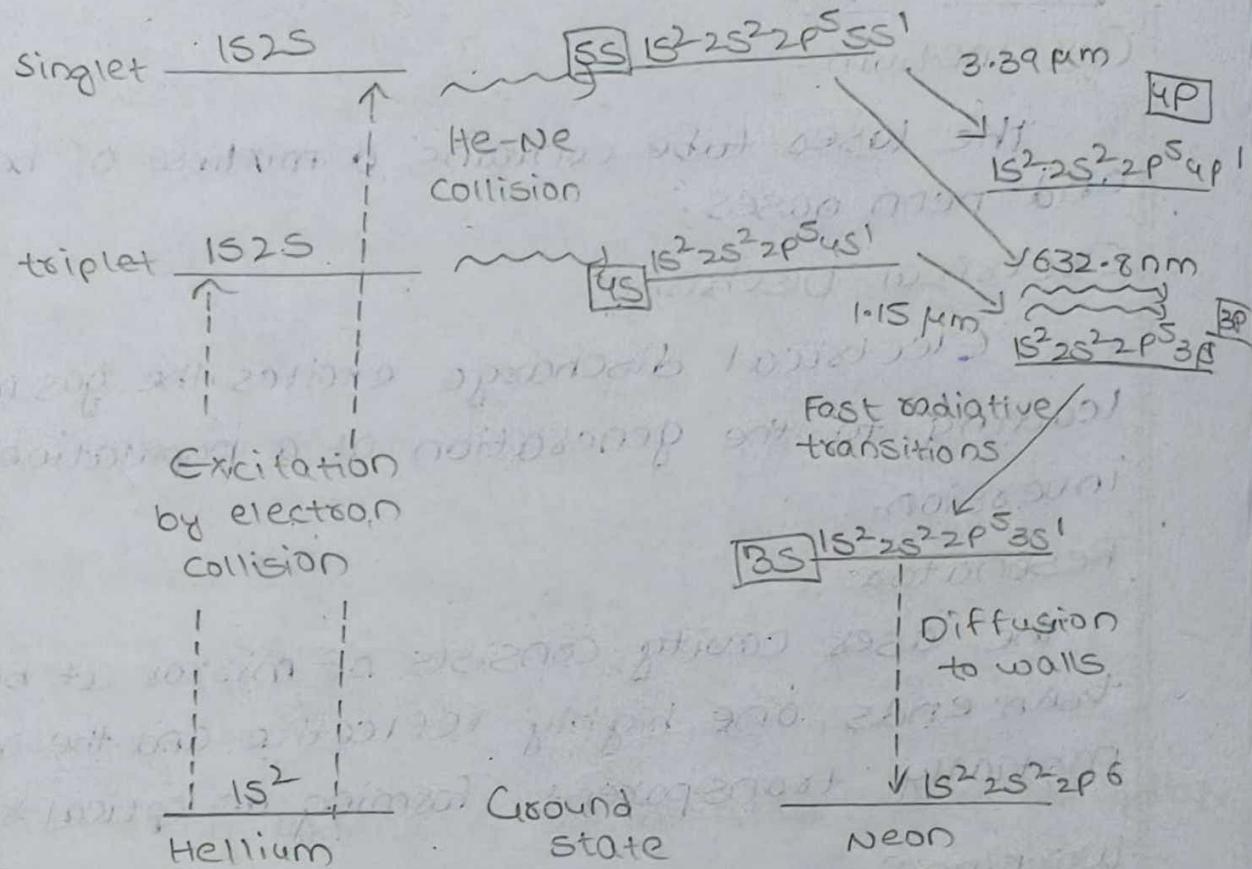
Amplification:-

The optical resonator amplifies these photons as they bounce back and forth between the mirrors.

Laser Emission:-

Cohesent light is emitted through the partially transparent mirror.

Energy level diagram :-



Application:-

- 1) Alignment.
- 2) It is used in surveying and leveling.
- 3) It is used in Holography.
- 4) It is used in Barcode scanners.
- 5) It is used in medical Applications.

2. Explain the construction, working and application of ruby lasers.

A) The ruby laser is a type of solid-state laser that operates using a synthetic ruby crystal as the gain medium. Here's an overview of its construction, working principle, application:

Construction:-

1. Ruby crystal:-

The active medium is a synthetic ruby crystal typically chromium-doped aluminum oxide ($\text{Cr}_3^+ \text{ Al}_2\text{O}_3$). The chromium ions within the crystal provide the necessary energy levels for laser.

2. Flashlamp:-

The ruby crystal is surrounded by a high intensity flashlamp that provides an intense pulse of light. This flash of light serves as the pump source to energize the chromium ions in the ruby crystal.

3. Reflections:-

The ends of the ruby crystal are coated with mirrors, forming an optical cavity. One mirror is highly reflective, while the other is partially transparent, allowing the emitted laser light to pass through.

Working:-

1. Pumping:-

The flash lamp delivers a burst of light, pumping energy into the ruby crystal. This causes the chromium ions to move to a higher energy state.

2-Spontaneous Emissions:-

As the chemical chromium ions return to their lower energy state, they emit identical photons. This process leads to the amplification of light, creating visible red range.

3-Stimulated Emission:-

Photons produced by spontaneous emission stimulate other chromium ions to emit identical photons. This process leads to the amplification of light, creating a coherent, collimated laser beam.

4-Population Inversion:-

The laser's process relies on achieving a population inversion, where more atoms are in an excited state than in the ground state, and stimulated emission to dominate.

Application:-

- 1) It is used in medical Applications.
- 2) It is used in scientific Research.
- 3) It is used in Holography.
- 4) It is used in Communication.

3. Explain the construction, working and application of semiconductor lasers.

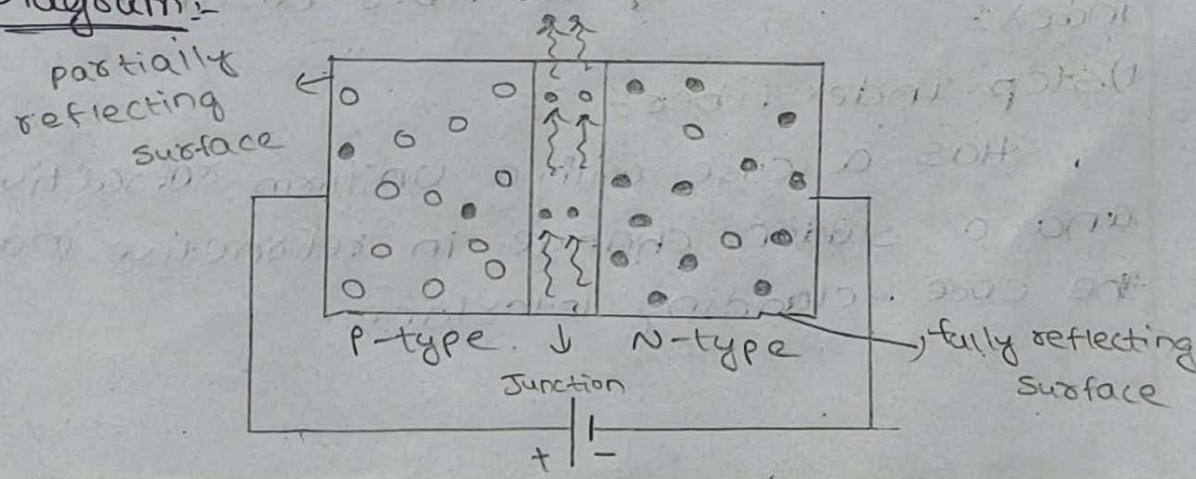
A) Construction :-

- 1) A semiconductor laser typically consists of a semiconductor diode, commonly made from materials like gallium arsenide.
- 2) The diode is formed by joining p-type and n-type semiconductor materials, creating a p-n junction.
- 3) Between the p and n regions, there is an active region where the lasing action occurs.
- 4) The active region is usually doped with materials that facilitate stimulated emission.

Working:-

- 1) When a forward bias voltage is applied across the P-N junction, it causes electrons from the n-type region and holes from the p-type region to recombine in the active region.
- 2) This recombination releases energy in the form of photons.
- 3) Photons mirrors at the ends of the semiconductor amplify the light by deflecting it back and forth through the active layer, stimulating further emission.
- 4) This process builds up until there's enough coherent light to pass through one of the mirrors creating the laser beam.

Diagram:-



Applications:

- 1) It is used in telecommunications.
 - 2) It is used in medical Devices like laser surgery and diagnostic.
 - 3) consumer electronic, printers, barcodes scanners etc.
 - 4) It is used in Industrial Application like cutting, welding and marking materials.
4. write a note on the classification of optical fiber based on the mode of propagation and refractive index

A) * classification of optical fiber Based on modes of propagation.

1) Single mode Fiber :- (SMF)

Allows only one mode of light is propagate through the core. It has a smaller core diameter resulting in less dispersion, making it suitable for long-distance communication due to its low signal loss.

2) Multimode Fiber :- (MMF)

Allows multimode of light propagate through the core. It has a large core diameter, causing more dispersion and attenuation, which limits its use for shorter distances like LANs (Local Area Networks) or shorter communication links.

Classification of optical fiber Based on refractive index:-

1) Step-Index fibers:-

Has a core with a uniform refractive index and a sudden change in refractive index at the core-cladding interface.

2. Graded-Index fiber:

The core's refractive index varies gradually from the center to the cladding, reducing modal dispersion by allowing light rays to travel at different speeds but converge at the output end, improving signal quality.

Q) Write note on Numerical Aperture and acceptance angle!

A) i) Numerical Aperture:

Numerical Aperture is a measure of the light gathering ability of an optical system, like a microscope or a fiber optic. It's determined by the refractive indices of the medium the lens is in and the medium it's trying to gather light from. Higher NA value to indicate a greater ability to gather light and resolve fine details.

Acceptance Angle:

Acceptance angle refers to the maximum angle at which light can enter an optical fiber and still be transmitted through it effectively. It's related to the NA and determines the range of angle at which light can propagate through the fiber without being lost due to total internal reflection.

Both Numerical Aperture and acceptance angle play vital roles in optical systems, especially in determining their resolving power and efficiency.



1. Differentiate between Optical absorption and optical emission with an appropriate diagram.

optical absorption	optical emission,
1) In this process, photons are absorbed by atoms or molecules, leading to the transition of electrons to higher energy levels.	2) This process involves the release of photons when electrons transition from higher energy level to lower ones.
2) The absorbed energy is used to move electrons from a lower energy state to a higher one, creating an excited state.	2) Electrons lose energy and emits photons corresponding to the energy difference between the higher and lower energy states.
3) A diagram illustrating optical absorption would show photons being absorbed by electrons, causing them to move to higher energy levels.	3) A diagram for optical emission would depict electrons returning to lower energy levels, emitting photons in the process.
diagram:	diagram:

- 2- Explain the construction and working of PIN Photodiode?
- A) A PIN photodiode is a type of photo detector used to convert light into electrical current.

It consists of three layers -

1) P-Type Layer:

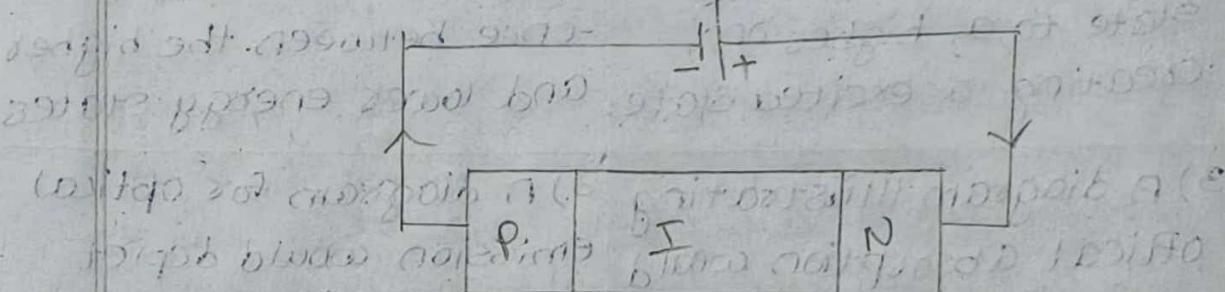
It's the positively charged layer where the holes are the majority carriers.

2) Intrinsic Layer:

This layer is highly doped, and acts as a barrier, allowing photons to generate electron-hole pairs when light strikes it.

3) N-Type Layer:

This layer is negatively charged and electrons are the majority carriers here.



When light photons strike the photodiode, they generate electron-hole pairs in the intrinsic layer. The electric field created by the reverse bias voltage applied across the P-N junction causes the electrons to move across the P-N junction, causing the electrons to move across the N-side and the holes towards the P-side, creating a current proportional to the light intensity. This generated current is then measured or amplified to interpret the light intensity or used for various applications like in Optical Communication, remote sensing, or in detecting light in electronic devices.

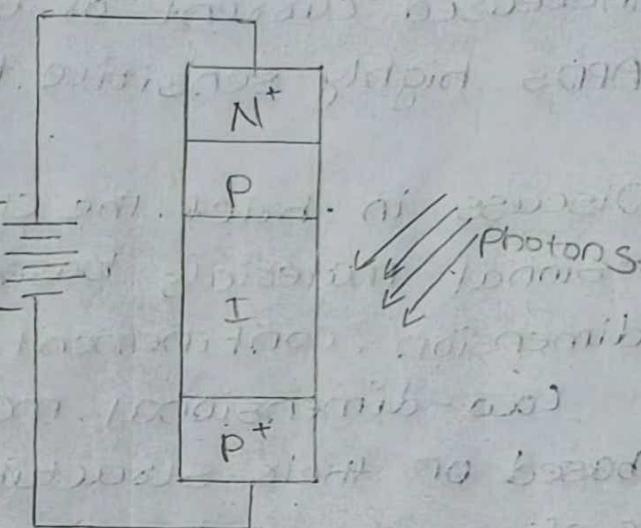
3. Explain construction and working of Avalanche photodiode.

A) Construction:

* It consists of a P-N junction formed by doping a semiconductor (like silicon or germanium) with impurities to create regions with different electrical properties.

* The APD typically includes a high-doped region (the multiplication or avalanche region) within the depletion region of the diode.

diagram:-



working:-

1) Light Detection:-

When photons strike the APD's depletion region they generate electron-hole pairs. These pairs are created when the photons transfer their energy to electrons, freeing them from their position in the crystal lattice.

2) Avalanche Effect:-

The electrons and holes produced by the absorbed photons are accelerated by this electric field. If the voltage is high enough, these accelerated carriers gain sufficient kinetic energy to collide with other atoms in the material, releasing more electron-hole pairs.

pairs through impact ionization.

4. Avalanche multiplication:-

This impact ionization result in a multiplication of carriers, leading to an avalanche effect. As a consequence, a single photon can produce a more significant number of electron-holes pairs, significantly amplifying the initial signal.

5. Output:-

The amplified signals is detected as an increased current or voltage output, making APDs highly sensitive to low levels of light.

4. Discuss in brief the classification of low dimensional materials based on their structure, dimension, confinement and mobility.

A) Low-dimensional materials are classified based on their structure, dimensionality, confinement and carrier mobility.

1. Based on structure:-

* Layered materials:-

Consist of stacked layers like graphene transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD)s.

* Quasi-0D structures:-

Zero-dimensional structure like quantum dots or nanoparticles where the electrons are confined in all directions.

* 1D structures:-

Such as nanowires, nanorods or nano tubes that exhibit elongated structures.

2. Dimensionality:-

* 2D materials:-

Exhibiting properties in two dimensions (thickness and length but not height) like graphene, hexagonal boron nitride (hBN).

* 1D materials:-

Properties along one direct dimension like nanowires or nanotubes.

* 0D - materials:-

Possessing properties in all dimensions restricted within a small volume such as quantum dots.

3. Confinement:-

* Quantum confinement:-

Refers to the restriction of electron movement in at least one dimension, leading to quantum effects. This confinement alters electronic and optical properties.

* Dimensional confinement:-

The confinement charge carriers in one or more dimensions affect their behaviour and transport properties.

4. Carrier mobility:-

* High carrier mobility:-

Some low-dimensional materials exhibit exceptional carrier mobility, enabling efficient charge transport. Materials like graphene have high carrier mobility, making them promising for high-speed electronics.