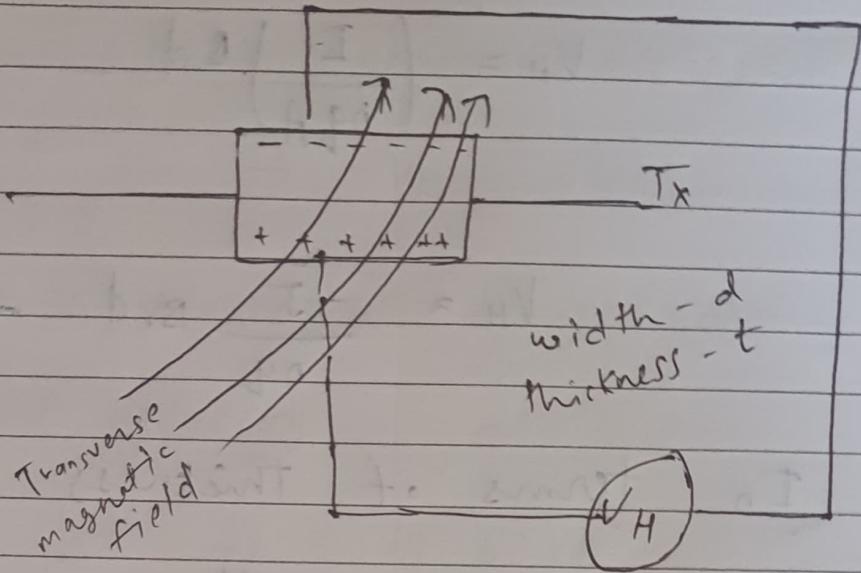


# Unit - 3

## Introduction to solids Semi-conductor

### Hall effect



#### Use -

- 1) It can be used to determine the type of semi conductor.
- 2) What is the sign of majority charge carrier
- 3) Sign of majority charge carrier
- 4) Mobility of charge carrier concentration,
- 5) Mean drift velocity of charge carriers.

### Hall effect -

$$F_E = F_B$$

$$qE_H = qv_d B$$

$$E_H = v_d B$$

( $v_d \rightarrow$  drift velocity)

$$\frac{V_H}{d} = v_d B$$

$$V_H = v_d B d \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\therefore V_d = \left( \frac{I}{nqA} \right)$$

$$V_H = \left( \frac{I}{nqA} \right) Bd \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\left( J = \frac{I}{A} \right)$$

$$V_H = \frac{J}{nq} Bd \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

In terms of thickness

$$\text{Area} = dt$$

$$V_H = \frac{I}{nq(dt)} Bd$$

$$V_H = \frac{I \cdot B}{nqt}$$

Hall coefficient  $R_H$

$$R_H = \frac{E_H}{JB} = \frac{V_H/d}{JB}$$

from (3)

$$= \frac{J \cdot Bd / d}{nq}$$

$$R_H = \frac{1}{nq} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

If  $R_H \rightarrow +Ve$ , holes are dominant charge carrier (P-type)

if  $R_H \rightarrow -Ve$ , electron will be predominant charge carrier drift velocity

$$V_H = V_d \cdot B \cdot d$$

$$\frac{V_H}{B \cdot d} = V_d$$

Hall mobility ( $\mu_H$ ) - drift velocity required in unit electric field.

$$\mu_H = \frac{1}{B} \sigma R_H$$

Hall angle -

$$\tan \theta_H = \frac{E_H}{Bd}$$

$$\theta_H = \tan^{-1} \frac{E_H}{Bd}$$

$$E_H = \frac{J}{e}, \quad E_H = \frac{V_H}{d} = \frac{J B}{nq}$$

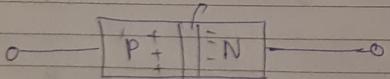
$$\Theta_H = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sigma B / nq}{\sigma / e}$$

$$\Theta_H = \tan^{-1} \frac{B \sigma}{nq}$$

$$[\Theta_H = \tan^{-1} R_H B \sigma]$$

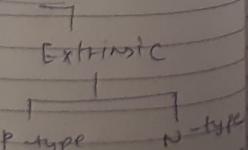
I-V characteristic of P-N junction diode -

P-N junction



Semiconductor

Intrinsic  
(pure  
gerse)



Conductor	Semi-Conductor number	Insulator number
1) there is a large no of free electron hence electric conduction very large not is possible	The no of free electron neither very low.	The no of free electron very low almost negligible
Ex - Silver, copper	Ex - Carbon, Silicon	Ex - wood, glass,
2) The resistivity is very low $10^{-8}$ to $10^{-6} \Omega \text{m}$	The resistivity is $10^{-1} \Omega \text{m}$	The resistivity is very high $10^9$ to $10^{11} \Omega \text{m}$
3) On Increasing temperature the resistivity increase and conductivity decrease	In temp. Inc their resistance decrease. Conductivity Inc.	
4) forbidden energy gain $\Delta E = 0$ conduction band overlap with the valence band	the forbidden gap between conduction and valence band $\Delta E = 1 \text{ eV}$	the valence band completely fill and conduction band empty

Semi-conductor - a solid substance

that allows heat or electricity to pass through it or along it in particular conditions.

or

any class of crystalline solids intermediate in electrical conductivity between a conductor and an insulator.

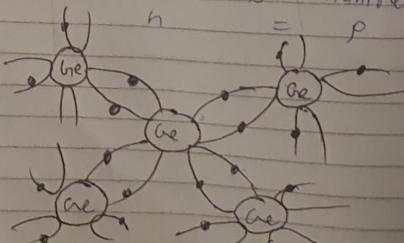
Types of semi-conductor -

(i) Intrinsic Semiconductors - Si ( $Z=14$ ), Ge ( $Z=30$ )

These atoms have four electrons in their outer most orbit. These are called the valence electrons.

An intrinsic (pure) semiconductor or i type semiconductor is pure semiconductor without any significant dopant species present.

no of excited electrons = number of holes



Intrinsic  
(i type)

Mobility of charge carriers - when charged

particle move in a crystal under the action of an external electric field, their velocity is directly proportional to the intensity of external electric field.

$$v \propto E, v = ME$$

$v$  is the drift velocity.

$E$  is the intensity of electric field

$M$  is mobility of charge carriers which is measured in  $\text{m}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

if mobility of electron in the conduction band is  $M_n$  and hole in valance band is  $M_p$ .

The Intrinsic semiconductor  $M_n > M_p$

Conduction in intrinsic Semiconductors - Let the

number of electron per unit volume in the conduction band of semiconductor is  $n$ . the charge per unit volume is  $ne$ . charge will move with drift velocity  $v_n$

$$V_n = -M_n E$$

Current density of electron

$$J_n = -n e v_n$$

(-) sign show that the direction of  $J_n$  is opposite to the direction of motion of electrons)

$$J_n = neH_nE$$

if the no. of holes per unit volume in the valence band  $p$  and mobility of holes  $H_p$ .

current density

$$J_p = peH_pE$$

Hence total current density

$$J = J_p + J_n$$

$$J = neH_nE + peH_pE$$

$$J = (neH_n + peH_p)E$$

$$J = \sigma E$$

$\sigma$  is conductivity of crystal

$$[\sigma = neH_n + peH_p]$$

Fermi-level - The energy level which divides the filled and empty level is called Fermi level and the corresponding energy of that level is known as Fermi level.

$$\frac{1}{x^2} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{k_2} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = k_1^2$$

$$k_1^2 = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E$$

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k_1^2}{2m}$$

according to Fermi-Dirac distribution

$$f_E = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_F)/(kT+1)}}$$

At absolute  $T = 0$

$$\frac{E - E_F}{kT} = -\infty \quad \text{if } E < E_F$$

$$\frac{E - E_F}{kT} = \infty \quad \text{if } E > E_F$$

Fermi distribution function

$$f_E = \frac{1}{e^{-\infty} + 1} = 1, \quad E < E_F$$

all state energy level filled.

$$f_E = \frac{1}{e^{\infty} + 1} = 0, \quad E > E_F$$

if  $T > 0$  and  $E = E_F$   
all state energy level empty

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_F)/(kT+1)}} = \frac{1}{e^0 + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

### 3) Intrinsic Semiconductor - An intrinsic

In semiconductor is one that has been doped, during manufacture of the semiconductor crystal a trace element or doping agent has been incorporated chemically into the crystal.

For the purpose of giving it different electrical properties than the i semiconductor is called ~~extra~~ intrinsic semiconductor.

### (II) Extrinsic semiconductor - In extrinsic

Semiconductor it is these foreign dopant atoms in the crystal lattice that mainly provides the charge carrier which carry electric current through the crystal.

The doping agent used are two types.

- 1) P type
- 2) n type

### ① p type semiconductor - An extrinsic semiconductor which has been doped with electron acceptor atoms is called p-type semiconductor.

because the majority of charge carriers in the crystal are positive holes.

. N-type semiconductor - An extrinsic semiconductor which has been doped with electron donor atoms is called an n-type Semiconductor because the majority of charge carriers in the crystal are negative electrons.

#### N-Type

1) Here Pentavalent impurity As, Sb are added in pure semiconductor.

2) These are also called donor type impure semiconductor

3) Here electrons are the majority carriers and holes is the minority carriers.

4) In n-type Semiconductor Fermi level lies near the bottom of conduction band

#### P-Type

Here trivalent impurities like Al, Ga are added to pure semiconductor

These are also called acceptor type impure semiconductor

Here hole are the majority carriers and electron is the minority carriers.

in p type semi conductor Fermi level lies near top of valence band.

## Intrinsic semiconductor

1) Intrinsic are pure semi conductor.

2) They behaving as an insulator at  $T = 0K$

3) Conductivity of intrinsic semiconductor is poor.

4) Fermi level lies at center of forbidden energy gap.

## Extrinsic semiconductor

Extrinsic are doped semi conductor.

They show conductivity in between insulator and conductor

Conductivity of extrinsic semiconductor is large

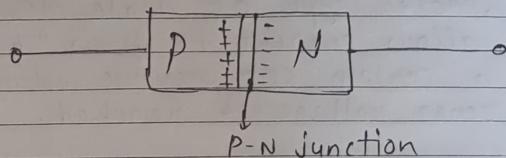
Fermi level lies near the bottom of conduction band n type or near the top of valence band.

## P-N Junction diode - PN junction

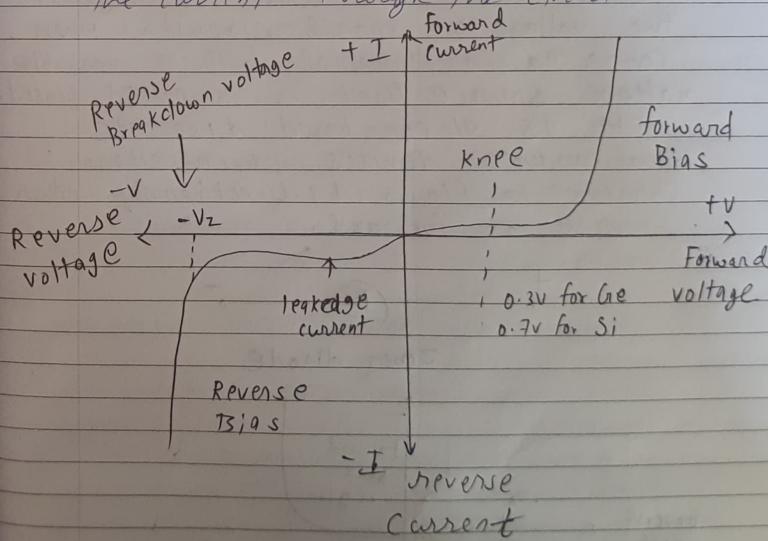
diode is a basic semiconductor device that control flow of electric current in circuit. it has positive (P) side and negative (N) side.

in pure silicon semiconductor, more's an equal number of holes to electron.

## I-V characteristic of P-N junction diode



Volt ampere characteristic of a pn junction or semiconductor diode is the curve between voltage across the junction and the current through the circuit.



## VI characteristic of PN Junction

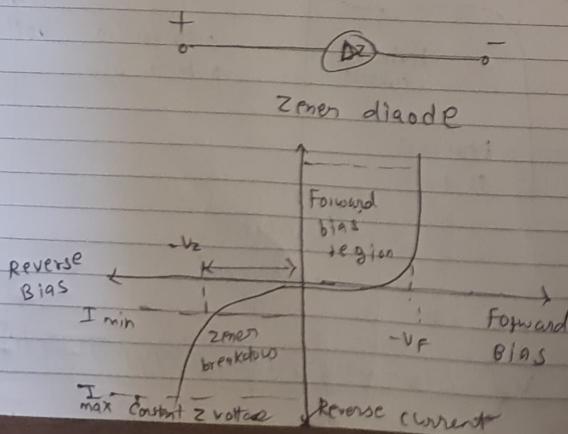
Zener diode - A zener diode is a

special type of diode designed to reliably allow current to flow "backwards" when a certain set reverse voltage known as zener voltage is reached.

05

A form of semiconductor diode in which at a critical reverse voltage a large reverse current can flow.

Zener diodes are used to regulate the voltage in small circuits, when connected in parallel with a variable voltage source that is reversed biased. It is silicon-based discrete semiconductor devices which allows current to flow bidirectionally - either reverse or forward.



Advantages of Zener diode -

- 1) Less expensive than other diode
- 2) Ability to shift voltage
- 3) Easily compatible and obtainable across systems.
- 4) High performance standardised
- 5) Protection from over voltage
- 6) Ability to regulate and stabilize circuit voltage
- 7) Greater control over flowing current
- 8) Usable in smaller circuits.

Working - The junction of zener diode is thin and so strong electric field is produced even when a low reverse bias voltage is applied on, increasing the temperature, the forbidden energy gap reduces and the zener breakdown now begins to occur at a low voltage at the zener voltage, the resistance of diode falls and therefore the reverse current suddenly increases.

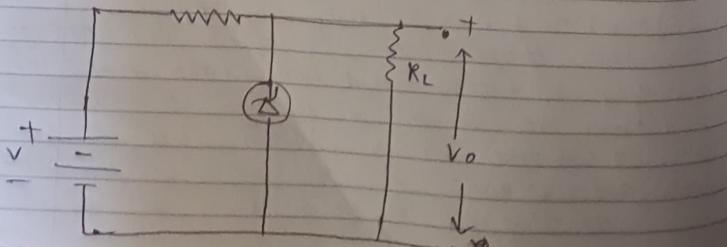
When the reverse voltage is withdrawn the junction of diode regains back to original state.

### Use of zener diode as a voltage regulator -

The value of supply voltage  $V$  and the resistance  $R$  are chosen such that diode current remains within a definite limit and the diode operates in the breakdown region.

The potential difference  $V_0$  across the load resistance  $R$  remains constant even if the supply voltage or the load resistance  $R$  is changed.

The supply voltage  $V$  is obtained from the d.c power which contains some ripples. Thus the voltage  $V$  is applied on the zener diode such that it is in reverse bias.



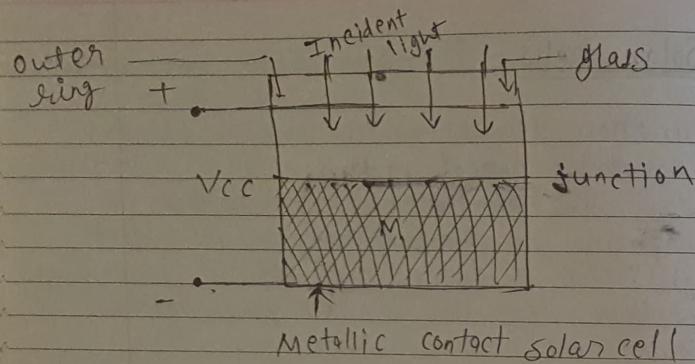
Solar cells - The solar cells are semiconductor junction devices which are used for converting optical radiation into electrical energy. The generated electric voltage is proportional to the intensity of incident light. Due to their capability of generating voltage they are called photovoltaic or solar cells.

A solar cell is p-n junction device with no voltage applied directly across the junction this convert power into electric power.

Construction - The cell is a p-n junction diode with appropriately doped semiconductor. The solar cells are made from semi-conductor material like silicon.

The top p-type layer is made very thin so that the light radiation may penetrate to fall on junction.

The doping level of p-doped semiconductor is very high. p-type material is surrounded by a nickel plated ring which serves as positive terminal of the cell, and n-type acts as negative cell.



## Solar cell

Working - When a photon of light energy collides with the valence electron either in p type or n type material it imparts half of the energy to the electron to leave its atom. As a result, free electron and holes are generated on each side of the junction in p type material the newly generated electron are minority carriers. Here electrons move freely across the junction with no applied bias. Similarly in n type.

### Advantages -

- 1) The solar cell is self generating device. It does not require any external power device.

2) It is pollution free energy conversion system.

### Limitation -

It doesn't convert all solar radiation into electric energy. The efficiency is temperature dependent.

### Bloch theorem - Bloch's theorem states

that solutions to the Schrödinger equation in a periodic potential take the form of a plane wave modulated by a periodic function.

### Bloch function

$$\psi_{k\lambda}(r) = e^{ik \cdot r} u_{k\lambda}(r)$$

$r \rightarrow$  position

$\psi \rightarrow$  wave function

$u \rightarrow$  periodic function

$k \rightarrow$  crystal momentum vector

$e \rightarrow$  Euler's number

$i \rightarrow$  imaginary unit

$$\text{Bloch function} \rightarrow [\psi(r) = e^{ik \cdot r} u(r)]$$

## Free electron theory of metal

All metals contain large number of free electrons which move freely through the positive ionic core of the metals.

Since these free electron causes conduction in metal under the application of electrical field,

They are called a conduction electrons.

## Density of states -

The density of state is essentially the number of different states at a particular energy level that electrons are allowed to occupy.

The density of states in semiconductor equals to the number of states per unit energy and per unit volume.

$$g(E) dE = \frac{\# \text{ states}}{\text{volume}} dE$$

$$g(E) = 4\pi (2m)^{3/2} E^{1/2}$$

## Kronig penny model - it is simplified

model for an electron in one-dimensional periodic potential.

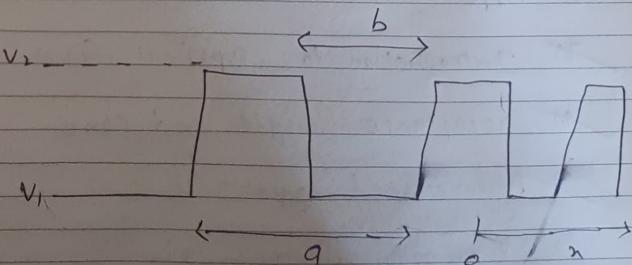
The possible states that the electron can occupy are determined by Schrodinger equation and the electron density of states.

or

it is strongly simplified one-D quantum mechanical model of a crystal.

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial n^2} + V(n) \psi = E \psi$$

In the case of Kroning penny model the potential  $V(x)$  is periodic square wave.



k-p model

## Unit - IV

### Laser

✓ 1) Einstein's theory of matter & radiation interaction  
A and B coefficients.

✓ 2) Amplification of light by population inversion

✓ 3) Different types of lasers

✓ 4) property of laser beams

✓ 5) mono-chromaticity, coherence, directivity and brightness, laser speckles,

✓ 6) Application of laser in science

✓ 7) Introduction to optical fiber

✓ 8) acceptance angle and cone

✓ 9) Numerical aperture

✓ 10) V number, attenuation

Laser - a device that produces a controlled ray of very powerful light that can be used as a tool.

or

Laser is light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation.

A laser is created when electrons in the atoms in optical material absorb the energy from an electrical current or a light.

That extra energy "excites" the electrons enough to move from a lower-energy orbit to a higher-energy orbit around the atom's nucleus.

### Types of laser -

1) Solid-state laser

2) Gas laser

3) Liquid laser

4) Semiconductor laser

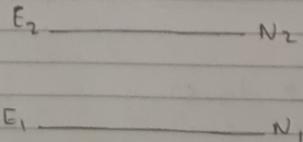
## Einstein's theory of matter radiation

### No. Absorption & Emission

Einstein theory of radiation analyzes the processes by which the energy and momentum states of a gas of atoms achieve equilibrium with a thermal radiation field.

Einstein theory predicted that as light passes through a substance, it could stimulate the emission of more light.

### Interaction A & R coefficient -



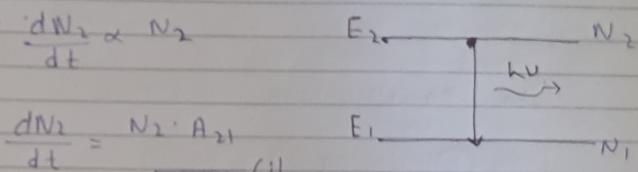
$N_1$  &  $N_2 \rightarrow$  number of atoms present in energy state  $E_1$  &  $E_2$

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = e^{-hv/RT}$$

### 1) Rate of spontaneous equation -

no of atoms falling per second from  $E_2$  to  $E_1$

i.e.  $\frac{dN_2}{dt} \propto N_2$

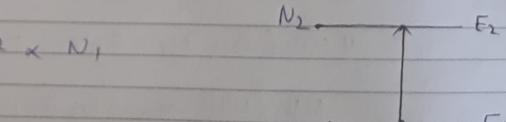


$A_{21}$  = constant proportionality

### 2) Rate of stimulated absorption:

no of atoms excited per second from  $E_1$  to  $E_2$

i.e.  $\frac{dN_2}{dt} \propto N_1$



$h(v)$  = energy density

$B_{12}$  = constant

### 3) Rate of stimulated emission -

no of atoms falling per second  $E_2$  to  $E_1$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} \propto N_2$$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = N_2 B_{21} u(v)$$

— (3)

In equilibrium condition

$$eq(2) = eq(1) + eq(3)$$

$$B_{12} N_1 u(v) = A_{21} N_2 + B_{21} N_2 v(v)$$

$$B_{12} N_1 u(v) = N_2 (A_{21} + B_{21} v(v))$$

$$B_{12} N_1 u(v) = N_2 A_{21} + N_2 B_{21} v(v)$$

$$u(v) (B_{12} N_1 - B_{21} N_2) = N_2 A_{21}$$

$$H.B. H(v) = \frac{N_2 A_{21}}{B_{12} N_1 - B_{21} N_2}$$

$$= \frac{N_2 \cdot A_{21}}{N_1}$$

$$\frac{B_{12} N_1 - B_{21} N_2}{N_1}$$

$$= \frac{N_2 \cdot A_1}{N_1}$$

$$B_{12} = B_{21} = B$$

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = e^{-hv/RT}$$

$$u(v) = \frac{e^{-hv/RT} \cdot A_{21}}{B_{12} - e^{-hv/RT} \cdot B_{21}}$$

$$u(v) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12} - e^{-hv/RT} \cdot B_{21}}$$

$$u(v) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12} \cdot e^{hv/RT} - B_{21}} — (4)$$

$$= \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12} (e^{hv/RT} - B_{21})} — (5)$$

from plank's formula for black body radiation

$$u(v) = \frac{8\pi h v^3}{c^3} \cdot \frac{1}{e^{hv/RT} - 1} — (6)$$

$$\frac{B_{21}}{A_{21}} = \frac{B_{12}}{A} = \frac{B}{A}$$

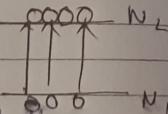
$$\sqrt{\frac{A}{B}} = \frac{8\pi h v^3}{c^3}$$

a) Amplification of light by population inversion.

The non equilibrium state in which the no of atom in excited state  $N_2$  is greater than no of atoms in ground state  $N_1$ .

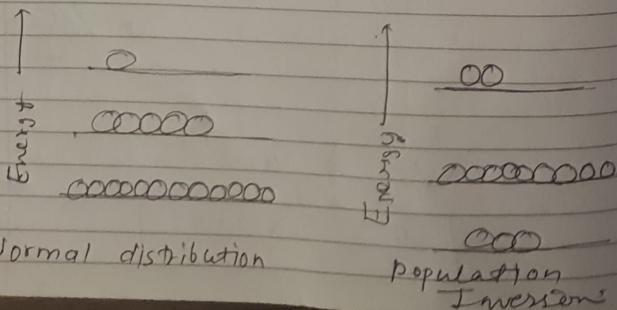
$$N_2 > N_1$$

This state is called population inversion.



When beam of light passes through the amplifier, more photons will be stimulated than absorbed, thereby resulting in a net increase in the number of photons or an amplification of the beam.

It is required in laser so that stimulated emission is more probable than induced absorption.



pumping - The process by which atoms are raised from the lower level to the upper level is called pumping.

A) Optical Pumping - optical pumping is the

use of photons to excite the atoms.

optical pump sources are flash discharge tubes, continuously operating lamps.

optical pump is used for solid state lasers.

2) Electrical pumping - electrical pumping can be used only in case of laser materials that can conduct electricity without destroying lasing activity. In case of a gas laser, a high voltage pulse initially ionizes the gas so that it conducts electricity.

## Different types of lasers -

- 1) solid-state laser
- 2) Gas laser
- 3) liquid laser
- 4) semiconductor laser.

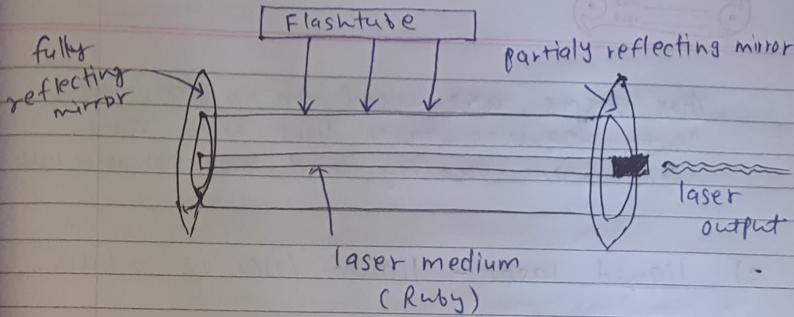
### ① Solid-state laser -

A solid state laser uses a gain medium that is solid, rather than liquid or gas.

The inherent advantages of solid-state lasers are very high beam quality, nearly diffraction limited beam divergence, high beam pointing and amplitude stability, high peak power.

due to efficiency which the light can be coupled into the neodymium atoms.

Solid state lasers are widely used in metal processing, such as red-green blue light sources in laser printers and projectors.

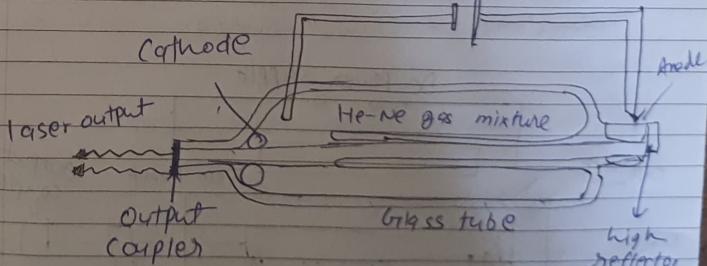


### Solid-state laser

### ② Gas laser -

A gas laser is a laser in which an electric current is discharged through a gas inside the laser medium to produce laser light. In a gas laser the medium is in gaseous state.

DC power supply



### Gas laser

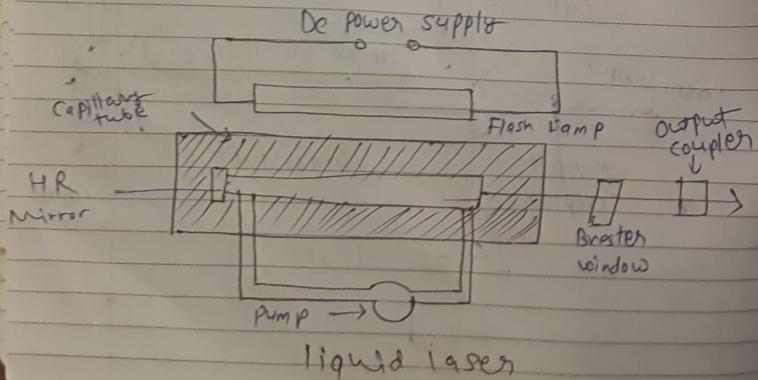
Gas lasers are used in applications that requires laser light with very high beam quality and long coherence length.

### 3) liquid laser - liquid laser is a laser

that uses the liquid as laser medium. In liquid laser, light supplies energy to the laser medium.

A dye laser is example of the liquid laser.

A dye laser is made up of an organic dye mixed with a solvent. These lasers generate laser light from the excited energy states of organic dyes dissolved in liquid solvents.



### 1) Semi-conductor laser - A semi conductor

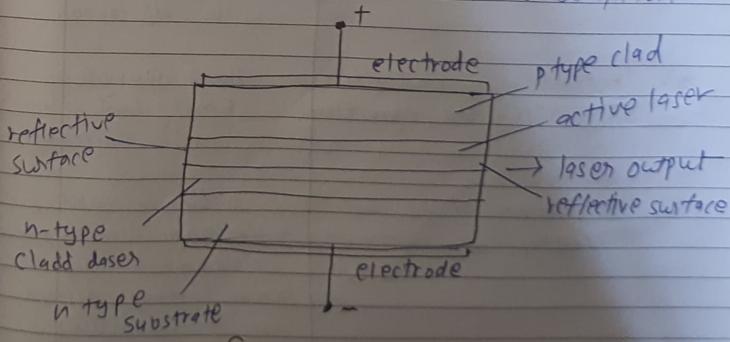
laser is a device that causes laser oscillation by flowing an electric current to semi conductor.

Diode laser is example of semi conductor lasers.

Semi conductor laser used for optical data storage, metrology, spectrosopy, material processing, pumping of other lasers.

This laser is not suited for many applications due to its low power production.

This is small, volume, lightweight, good reliability and low power consumption.



Semi conductor laser

## Difference between Laser light and ordinary light.

### Laser light

- 1) The light emitted from a lamp, flame is incoherent light.
- 2) laser beam is highly monochromatic.
- 3) laser light's beam is extremely intense.
- 4) laser source radiates only along one direction.
- 5) laser beam does not diverge.

### ordinary light

laser light is coherent light

ordinary light source spread over a wavelength range 100 to 1000 Å.

Intensity of ordinary light source decrease rapidly with distance.

light source emit radiation in all directions.

ordinary light source are highly divergent light travel long distance with spreading.

## Spontaneous emission

1) Spontaneous emission is a random process.

2) it can't be controlled from outside

3) The photon emitted by the spontaneous emission travel in any direction.

4) The light produced by this process is incoherent

5) There is no application of light in the process.

6) light from the source is unpolarized

## stimulated emission

it is not random process

it can be controlled from outside

The photon emitted by the stimulated emission travels in the direction of incident photons.

The light produces coherent

light application occurs due to multiplication of photons.

light from the source is polarized.

## property of laser beams\*

1) Directionality - An ordinary light

source emit light waves in all direction.  
In a laser the photon of a particular  
direction only are allowed for multiple  
reflection thus the laser is highly  
directional.

2) Intensity - The intensity of ordinary  
light decrease as it travels  
in the space this is because of  
its spreading.

The laser light does not spread  
with distance. it propagates in space  
in the form of normal beam and its  
intensity remains almost constant  
over long distance.

3) Coherence - The laser light is highly  
coherent A laser emits  
the light waves of same wavelength  
and in same phase. The ordinary light  
emits wave of different wavelengths  
without any phase relationship.

4) Divergence - Divergence of light is a  
measure of its spread with  
distance . The angular spread in ordinary  
light is very high because of its propagation  
in the divergence in laser beam is negligible.  
A very small divergence is due to the  
diffraction of laser light when it  
emerges out from the partially  
silvered mirror.

## Optical fiber

Optical fibers are used most often  
as a means to transmit light between the  
two ends of the fiber and wide usage  
in fiber optic communications.

Optical fiber are extremely thin strands  
of very high purity silica which transmit  
light from one end to other with minimal  
loss.

There are two types of fibre  
1> multimode fiber  
2> singlemode fiber.

In optical fiber light travels down a  
fiber optic cable by bouncing off the  
walls of the cable repeatedly.

Acceptance angle - where optical fiber  
accept a signal.

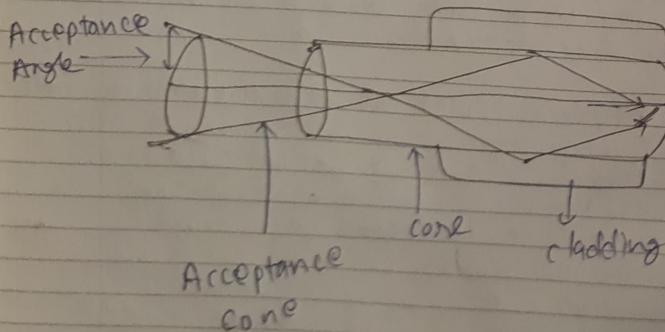
## Acceptance angle & cone -

Acceptance angle is the maximum angle at which incoming sunlight can be captured by a solar concentrator.

Or

The acceptance angle of an optical fiber is defined based on a purely geometrical consideration.

It is the maximum angle of a ray hitting the fiber core which allows the incident light to be guided by the core.

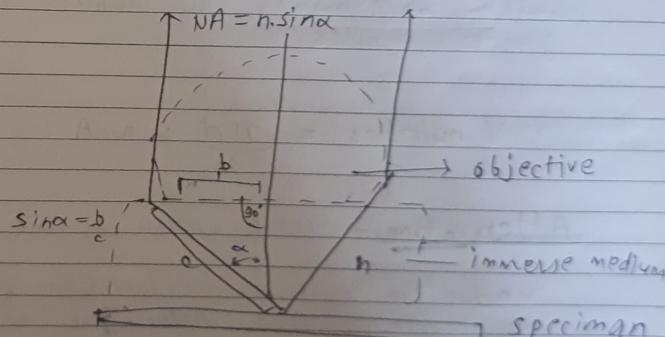


Acceptance angle & cone

## Numerical aperture - The numerical

aperture of an optical system is a dimensionless number that characterise the range of angles over which the system can accept or emit light. The numerical aperture

it is the waveguide or fiber is the sine of the maximum angle of an incident beam, as required for efficient launching.



$$NA = n \cdot \sin \alpha$$

- Numerical aperture

V number - V number determines the

fraction of the optical power in a certain mode which is confined to the fiber core; for single-mode fibers, that fraction is low for low V values and reaches  $\approx 90\%$  near the single mode cut off.

or

The V number of step index fiber is a normalized frequency parameter which determines the number of guided modes.

$$V \text{ number} = \frac{\pi d}{\lambda} \times N.A$$

Attenuation - Attenuation is the

reduction in power of the light signals as it transmitted. Attenuation is caused by passive media components such as cables, and connectors.

or ratio of optical output power to the input power in the fiber of length L.

$$\alpha = 10 \log_{10} P_1 / P_0 [\text{in } \text{dB/km}]$$

$\alpha$  = Attenuation constant.

Acceptance angle of optical fiber

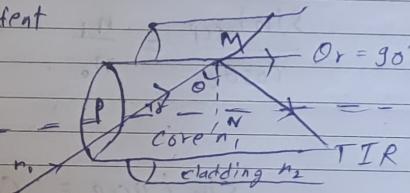
Consider an optical fiber.

core R.I is  $n_1$

cladding refractive index is  $n_2$

i = angle of incident outside

axis



$\Rightarrow$  angle of refraction at core

$\theta \Rightarrow$  angle of incident at core cladding boundary

$$\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

In PNM

$$r + 90^\circ + \theta = 180^\circ$$

$$r = 90^\circ - \theta$$

Substitute r in eq ①

$$\frac{\sin i}{\sin(90^\circ - \theta)} = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

$$\frac{\sin i}{\cos \theta} = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \quad \textcircled{2}$$

$$i = i_{\text{accept}}$$

$$\theta = \theta_c \quad \text{when } \theta_r = 90^\circ$$

$$\theta_c > TIR$$

$$\frac{\sin i_{\text{accept}}}{\cos \theta_c} = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\sin i_{\text{accept}} = \frac{\cos \theta_c \times n_1}{n_2}$$

Acceptance angle

$$i_{\text{accept}} = \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{\cos \theta_c \times n_1}{n_2} \right]$$

again applying

$$\theta = \theta_c, \quad \frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_r} = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$$\sin \theta_i = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$$\therefore \cos \theta_i = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta_i}$$

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

$$\cos \theta_c = \sqrt{\frac{n_1^2 - n_2^2}{n_1^2}}$$

$$\cos \theta_c = \frac{1}{h} \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$