

HW#3 Solutions, Chapter 9, Problems 1-5**1) Hall Effect and Sample**

(a) Newton's equation with scattering (relaxation time approximation)

$$m\dot{\vec{v}} + m\vec{v}/\tau = \vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

$$\vec{v} \times \vec{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \end{vmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{x}(v_y B_z - v_z B_y) \\ \hat{y}(v_z B_x - v_x B_z) \\ \hat{z}(v_x B_y - v_y B_x) \end{pmatrix}$$

In steady state, $m(d\vec{v}/dt) = 0$, so that

$$v_x = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_x + v_y B_z - v_z B_y); \quad v_y = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_y + v_z B_x - v_x B_z);$$

$$v_z = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_z + v_x B_y - v_y B_x)$$

In the special geometry of the Hall sample, $B_z = B_0; B_x = B_y = 0$. In kinetic theory $J_x = nqv_x, J_y = nqv_y, J_z = nqv_z$ (current density components) where n is the carrier density.Therefore, in the Hall geometry, $J_y = 0 \Rightarrow v_y = 0, J_z = 0 \Rightarrow v_z = 0$, and we get

$$v_x = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_x) \tag{1}$$

$$0 = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_y - v_x B_0) \tag{2}$$

$$0 = \frac{q\tau}{m}(E_z) \tag{3}$$

$$(2) \Rightarrow E_y = v_x B_0 = \frac{q\tau}{m} E_x B_0 \Rightarrow V_y = L_y \frac{q\tau V_x}{m L_x} B_0 \tag{4}$$

$$(b) \text{ From (1) } E_x = \frac{m v_x}{q\tau} = \frac{m J_x}{q\tau n q} \tag{5}$$

$$\text{So we can write } V_y = L_y \frac{q\tau}{m} \frac{m J_x B_0}{q\tau n q} = \frac{I_x B_0}{L_z n q}.$$

(c) For the specific geometry $L_x = 1 \text{ cm}, L_y = L_z = 1 \text{ mm}$, and $V_y = +5 \text{ mV}$, as defined in the figure so that the electric potential decreases in going from small y to larger $y \Rightarrow E_y = -d\phi/dy$ is positive. Since E_y and E_x are both positive, we must take positive sign in equation (4), so that

the carriers must have a positive charge (e.g., holes). For the geometry at hand and assuming uniform fields,

$$V_x = E_x L_x \text{ or } E_x = 1 \text{ V/cm} \quad V_y = E_y L_y \text{ or } E_y = 0.05 \text{ V/cm}$$

$$\therefore \mu = \frac{e\tau}{m} = \frac{E_y/E_x}{B} = \frac{0.05}{0.1} = 0.5 \text{ m}^2/\text{V-s} = 5000 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$$

2. Static magneto-conductivity tensor

In class we derived the following set of equations for kinetic motion of charge carriers in magnetic and electric field along z axis.

$$v_x = \left(\mu E_x + \omega_c \tau v_y \right) \frac{q}{e} \quad (1); \quad v_y = \left(\mu E_y - \omega_c \tau v_x \right) \frac{q}{e} \quad (2); \quad v_z = \left(\mu E_z \right) \frac{q}{e} \quad (3)$$

where $\omega_c = \frac{qB}{m}$ is the cyclotron resonance (circular) frequency.

We use (1) and (2) to solve uniquely for v_x and v_y .

$$(2) \rightarrow (1) \Rightarrow v_x = \frac{q}{e} (\mu E_x) + \omega_c \tau \left[\mu E_y - \omega_c \tau v_x \right] \frac{q}{e}$$

or
$$v_x \left[1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2 \right] = \frac{q}{e} \mu E_x + \omega_c \tau \mu E_y$$

$$J_x = nq v_x = \frac{n \frac{q^2}{e\mu} E_x + \omega_c \tau nq \mu E_y}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2}$$

but $\sigma_0 \equiv ne\mu$ (dc conductivity) so

$$J_x = \frac{\sigma_0}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \left(E_x + \omega_c \tau E_y \left(\frac{q}{e} \right) \right) \quad (4)$$

$$(1) \rightarrow (2) \Rightarrow v_y = \frac{q}{e} \mu E_y - \omega_c \tau \left[\mu E_x + \omega_c \tau v_y \right] \frac{q}{e}$$

or
$$v_y \left[1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2 \right] = \frac{q}{e} \mu E_y - \omega_c \tau \mu E_x$$

$$J_y = nq v_y = \frac{\sigma_0}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \left(-\omega_c \tau E_x \frac{q}{e} + E_y \right) \quad (5)$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow J_z = nq v_z = \left(\frac{q}{e} \right) nq \mu E_z \equiv \sigma_0 \frac{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} E_z \quad (6)$$

We can combine (4), (5), and (6) in matrix form as

$$\begin{pmatrix} J_x \\ J_y \\ J_z \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\sigma_0}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{q}{e} \omega_c \tau & 0 \\ -\frac{q}{e} \omega_c \tau & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \\ E_z \end{pmatrix}$$

In the high magnetic-field limit $\omega_c \tau \gg 1$,

$$\sigma_{yx} = \frac{-\frac{q}{e} \sigma_0 \omega_c \tau}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \rightarrow \frac{-\frac{q}{e} \sigma_0}{\omega_c \tau} = \frac{-q m n e^2 \tau}{e m e B \tau} = \frac{-n q}{B} \rightarrow \frac{n e}{B} \text{ for electrons}$$

$$\sigma_{xy} = \frac{(q/e) \sigma_0 \omega_c \tau}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \rightarrow \frac{(q/e) \sigma_0}{\omega_c \tau} = \frac{n q}{B} \rightarrow \frac{-n e}{B} \text{ for electrons}$$

In the same limit:

$$\sigma_{xx} = \frac{\sigma_0}{1 + (\omega_c \tau)^2} \rightarrow \frac{\sigma_0}{(\omega_c \tau)^2} \rightarrow \frac{n e^2 \tau m^2}{(e B)^2 \tau^2 m}$$

or

$$\sigma_{xx} = \frac{n m}{\tau B^2} = \frac{q n}{\omega_c \tau B} \rightarrow 0 \text{ in high B-field limit}$$

3. Joule Heating

- (a) From basic assumptions of kinetic theory, collisions are randomizing and leave the scattered particle with a mean velocity appropriate to the temperature around the scattering center. Hence if consecutive scattering events occur close enough that the temperature is the same, then all of the kinetic energy gained between collisions is transferred to the ions upon the second collision. In the absence of an electric field, the velocity vector emerging from first collision can be written as the isotropic velocity

$$\vec{v} = v_0 \hat{r}_0 = v_0 (\hat{x} \sin \theta \cos \phi + \hat{y} \sin \theta \sin \phi + \hat{z} \cos \theta)$$

where θ, ϕ are the polar and azimuthal angles in spherical coordinates..

In the presence of an electric field along the z axis, the z component of velocity has a term that increases linearly with time (solution to Newton's equation).

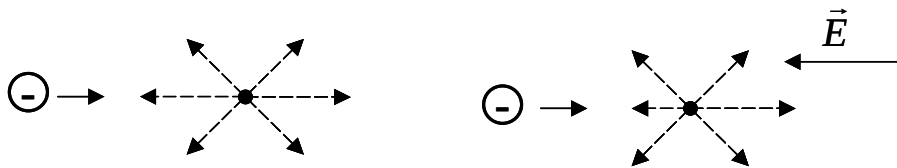


Figure for Problem 3

$$v_z = v_0 + \frac{qE_0 t}{m}; \quad \vec{E} = E_0 \hat{z}$$

So,
$$\vec{v} = v_0 \sin \theta \cos \phi \cdot \hat{x} + v_0 \sin \theta \sin \phi \cdot \hat{y} + \left(v_0 \cos \theta + \frac{qE_0 t}{m} \right) \cdot \hat{z} \quad (1)$$

To calculate how much energy is gained between collisions, we first have to spatially average over all possible angles (overbar denotes spatial average):

$$\bar{\vec{v}} = \frac{\int \vec{v} d\Omega}{\int d\Omega} = \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \vec{v} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi}{4\pi}$$

The first (zero field term) from (1) yields

$$\bar{\vec{v}}_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi (v_0 \sin \theta \cos \phi \cdot \hat{x} + v_0 \sin \theta \sin \phi \cdot \hat{y} + v_0 \cos \theta \cdot \hat{z}) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = 0$$

The second term (electric field term) is

$$\bar{\vec{v}}_2 = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \left(\frac{qE_0 t}{m} \right) \hat{z} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \frac{\hat{z}}{2} \frac{qE_0 t}{m} (-\cos \theta) \Big|_0^\pi = \hat{z} \frac{qE_0 t}{m}$$

$$U_K^* = \frac{1}{2} m |\bar{\vec{v}}|^2 = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{qE_0 t}{m} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(qE_0 t)^2}{m}$$

where U_K^* denotes the average single-particle kinetic energy and the $||$ denotes the vector magnitude operation.

(b) We can combine this space-averaged kinetic energy with the normalized probability, $P(t + dt)$

that a collision occurs between t and $t + dt$: $e^{-t/\tau} dt / \tau$:

$$\langle U_K^* \rangle = \int_0^\infty U_K^* P(t, dt) dt = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{2} \frac{qE_0 t^2}{m} \frac{e^{-t/\tau}}{\tau} dt$$

$$\langle U_K^* \rangle = \left(\frac{qE_0 t}{m} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2\tau} \int_0^\infty t^2 e^{-t/\tau} dt$$

We integrate $\int_0^\infty t^2 e^{-t/\tau} dt$ by parts twice (or look in integral tables) and we find

$$\int_0^\infty t^2 e^{-t/\tau} dt = 2\tau^3. \text{ So}$$

$$\langle U_K^* \rangle = \left(\frac{qE_0}{m} \right)^2 \frac{2\tau^3}{2\tau} = \frac{(qE_0 \tau)^2}{m}$$

which is the energy loss per electron per collision. It is useful to do a dimensional analysis:

$$\frac{\text{Energy loss}}{\text{cm}^3 - \text{sec}} = \frac{\text{Energy loss}}{\text{electron} - \text{collision}} \cdot \frac{\text{electrons}}{\text{cm}^3} \cdot \frac{\text{collisions}}{\text{sec}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{“} \quad \text{“} \quad &= \frac{(qE_0\tau)^2}{m} \cdot n \cdot \frac{1}{\tau} \\ \text{“} \quad \text{“} \quad &= \frac{nq^2\tau}{m} \cdot E_0^2 = \sigma E^2 \quad \text{Joule Heat} \end{aligned}$$

To calculate the power loss in a wire length L and cross section A, we integrate over the volume

$$P_L = \int \sigma E^2 dV = \sigma E^2 \int dV = \sigma E^2 L \cdot A \quad (\text{assuming } E \text{ is uniform in wire})$$

$$\text{We can rewrite this as } P_L = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma} E^2 L \frac{A^2}{A} = (\sigma EA)^2 \left(\frac{L}{\sigma A} \right) = (J^2 A^2) \left(\frac{\rho L}{A} \right)$$

or

$$P_L = I^2 R$$

4. Thermal conductivity of acoustic phonons by kinetic theory

(a) We assume all three acoustical wave types have the same speed of sound v , so that

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \int_0^{\omega_D} \frac{3\hbar\omega D(\omega) d\omega}{e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1} \\ D(\omega) d\omega &= \frac{dN}{dk} \frac{dk}{d\omega}; \quad N(k) = \left(\frac{L}{2\pi} \right) \cdot \frac{4}{3} \pi k^3 = \frac{V k^3}{6\pi^2} \Rightarrow \frac{dN}{dk} = \frac{V k^2}{2\pi^2} \\ \Rightarrow D(\omega) &= \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \frac{k^2}{v} = \frac{V \omega^2}{2\pi^2 v^3} \Rightarrow U = \int_0^{\omega_D} D \frac{3V\hbar\omega^3 d\omega}{2\pi^2 v^3 (e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1)} \end{aligned}$$

$C' = 3nk_B$ where n is the density of atoms per unit volume. So

$$C' = 3nk_B = 3 \frac{N}{V_c} k_B = 3 \cdot \frac{2}{45 \times 10^{-30}} \cdot k_B = 1.84 \times 10^6 \text{ J/k}$$

(b) We get the thermal conductivity from the expression $K \approx C' v \frac{X}{3}$, where X is the mean-free

path given by $X \approx v \cdot \tau = 7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$ for $v = 7000 \text{ m/s}$ and $\tau = 1 \text{ ps}$. So $K = 30.0 \text{ W/m-K}$ or 0.3 W/cm-K . This about 50% less than the experimental K of GaAs ($K \approx 0.45 \text{ W/cm-K}$).

5. Thermal conductivity of free electrons in aluminum by kinetic theory

a) For Al, $n_e = 18.06 \times 10^{22} / \text{cm}^3 = 18.06 \times 10^{28} / \text{m}^3$, $\sigma = 3.65 \times 10^5 / \Omega\text{-cm}$ (Chapter 6, Table 3,

$$\text{Kittel, 7th Ed), so that, } \tau = \frac{m\sigma}{n_e q^2} = \frac{(9.11 \times 10^{-31}) (3.65 \times 10^7)}{(18.06 \times 10^{28}) (1.6 \times 10^{-19})^2} \text{ or } \tau \approx 0.72 \times 10^{-14} \text{ s} = 7.2 \text{ fs}$$

$$\text{b) } C_{el} = \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 N k_B T / T_F = 91.2 \text{ J} \cdot \text{V} [J] \quad (\text{derived in ECE215A})$$

for $T_F = 13.49 \times 10^4 K$ and $V = \text{volume}$

$$C_{el}' (\text{specific heat capacity}) \equiv \frac{C_{el}}{V} = 91.2 \text{ J/m}^3 = 2.69 \times 10^4 \text{ J/m}^3 @ 295K$$

c) So, $K = \frac{1}{3} C_{el}' v^2 \tau \approx 2.63 \times 10^2 \text{ W/m-K}$

Using $v = v_F = 2.0 \times 10^8 \text{ cm/s} = 2.0 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$ (Al at 205 K)

d) An accepted value for thermal conductivity is found in Kittel Chapter 5, Table 1.

$K = 2.37 \text{ W/cm-K} = 237 \text{ W/m-K}$ for Al @ 300K. Our estimate using $\frac{1}{3} C_{el}' v^2 \tau$ is too high by only 1.13 times !. And this can be explained by the inaccuracy of the Pauli derivation used to

derive the heat capacity from $\Delta U = U(T) - U(0)$. In that derivation $\frac{dU(T)}{dT}$ was approximated by $d\Delta U(T)/dT$, which becomes increasingly inaccurate as T rises above zero K.