

Binary addition and Binary subtraction

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The binary addition & subtraction is similar to the decimal number system. But the main difference between these two is Binary number system uses two digits like 0 & 1 whereas the decimal number system uses digits from 0 to 9 and the base of this is 10. There are some specific rules for the binary system like when we add or subtract binary numbers then we must be very careful while carrying otherwise borrowing digits because there will occur more frequently. This article discusses an overview of the addition & subtraction of binary numbers in detail below.

What is Binary Addition & Subtraction?

If a computer is accomplished in handling 5-digit numbers like -101 where the minus is sign bit and remaining digits are magnitude bits. Then this 5-bit number can be represented like 1101, then in this digit, the first digit 1 specifies the negative sign as well as remaining 4 digits are the magnitude of the number.

In the same way, 0101 denotes the 101 binary numbers.

A negative number is also denoted using the concept of the magnitude of the number's complement. So the binary number -101 may be denoted as 1001 where the first digit is a most significant bit of MSB. It means the negative number as well as and 0010 is the 1's complement of the magnitude.

In the same way, 1101 specifies the number like 0100.

Similarly, the 2's complement method is also used for representing a -ve. binary number.

Binary Addition

For binary addition, take an example of 1101 & 1011.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ (\text{Carry}) \\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ (11) \end{array}$$

$$(+)\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ (21)$$

$$\hline 110000\ (48)$$

Here the step by step binary addition rules are explained below.

$$1+1 \Rightarrow 10, \text{ so } 0 \text{ with a carry } 1$$

$$1+1+0 \Rightarrow 10, \text{ so } 0 \text{ with carry } 1.$$

$$1+0+1 \Rightarrow 10 \Rightarrow 0 \text{ so } 0 \text{ with carry } -1.$$

$$1+1+0 \Rightarrow 10 \Rightarrow 10 \Rightarrow 0 \text{ with carry } -1.$$

$$1+1+1 \Rightarrow 11 \Rightarrow 11 \Rightarrow 1 \text{ with carry } -1.$$

$$1+1+1 = 11$$

Carefully note that $10+1 \Rightarrow 11$ and this is equal to $2+1=3$.

Therefore, the necessary outcome is 11000.

Example 5:- The binary addition examples show in the below.

$$\text{Ex:- } 10001 - 11101 = 10110$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \\ - 11101 \\ \hline 10110 \end{array}$$

$$\text{Ex:- } 1110 - 1111 = 1101$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ - 1111 \\ \hline 1101 \end{array}$$

A	B	A+B	Carry
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

Binary Subtraction

First Method:-

For binary subtraction, take an example of 1010010.

Binary subtraction rules are explained below.

If the input $11=0$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

If the input $01=1$ if borrow is 0, so $10=1$ then borrow to the next step is 1.

If the input $11=0$ if borrow is 1, so $11=0$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

If the input $01=0$ if borrow is 0, so $00=0$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

If the input $10=1$ if borrow is 0, so $10=1$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

Final step: If the input $10=0$ if borrow is 0, so $10=1$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

So the final result will be 1010010.

Final step: If the input $10=0$ if borrow is 0, so $10=1$ then borrow to the next step is 0.

So the final result will be 1010010.

Second Method:-

1's complement can be achieved by converting 0's to 1's and 1's to 0's. So the result will be like the following.

0011011 $\rightarrow$ 1100100 (1's complement)

2's complement can be achieved by adding 1 to 1's complement. So the result will be like the following.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1100100 \\ + 0000001 \\ \hline = 1100101 \end{array}$$

Now add the subtrahend's 2's complement of minand.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1100101\ (\text{Subtrahend}) \\ + 1001011\ (2's\ complement) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(MSB) is 1010010

Example:-

$$1011011 - 10010 = 1001001$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1011011 \\ - 10010 \\ \hline 1001001 \end{array}$$

A	B	A-B	Borrow
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0

Kumar
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LED

- 1) A Light Emitting Diode (LED) is a semiconductor device that emits light when current flows through it.
- 2) electrons in the semiconductor recombine with electron holes.
- 3) the recombination energy is in the form of photons.
- 4) the colour of the light is determined by the energy released for electrons.
- 5) white light is obtained by using multiple semiconductors.
- 6) the surrounding part of light-emitting phosphor on the semiconductor device.

- 1) parts of a conventional LED the flat bottom surface of the anode and post embedded into act as anchoring.
- 2) to prevent the package from being loosely pulled out via mechanical strain.
- 3) ultra-high-output LEDs are designed for viewing in direct sunlight.

5V and 12V LEDs are ordinary miniature LEDs.

examples for stretchable - which predicts an exponential rise in light.

Strip

An LED strip, able to emit light is flexible circuit board populated by surface-mount LEDs.

Flashing

Flashing LEDs are used as attention seeking indicators without requiring external electronics.

Flickering

Integrated electronics simple electronic circuit integrated into the LED package.

Bi-color

Bi-color LEDs contain two different LED emitters in one case. There are two types of these.

RGB tri-color

Tri-color LEDs contain three different LED emitters in one case. Each emitter is connected to a separate lead.

Decorative - multicolor

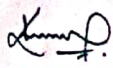
Decorative - multicolor LEDs incorporate several emitters of different colours supplied by two lead out wires.

Digital RGB

Digital RGB addressable contains their own "smallest" control electronics.

Filament

An LED filament consists of multiple LED chips connected in series on a common longitudinal substrate.


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Information is taken from scale book.

LCR CIRCUITS

A circuit that consists of a resistor (R), an inductor (L) and a capacitor (C) is known as "LCR" circuit.

In LCR circuit the three components, resistor, inductor and capacitor may be connected in either series or in parallel combination.

The LCR circuits are oscillators that they produce a periodic, oscillating electronic signal hence these are called as "Resonant circuits". Each LCR circuit has its own resonant frequency i.e. an input frequency at which the circuit exhibits distinctive behaviour.

Series LCR Resonant circuit:

It measures the physical property known as Impedance (Z) which indicates resistance to flow of an alternating current. It can be calculated from the current (I) flowing to the measurement target and the voltage (V) across the target's terminals.

The LCR circuits are divided into two types: 1. Series LCR circuit.
2. Parallel LCR circuit.

Series LCR Resonant circuit:

In this circuit resistor, inductor and capacitor are connected in series.

In this circuit, current (I) is always constant and voltage is equal to the sum of all individual voltages.

In series resonant circuit, the resonant frequency of an alternating current at which impedance of a series LCR circuit, becomes minimum due to maximum current.

$$\therefore \text{Impedance } (Z) = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

Where, R = Resistance

X_L = Inductive reactance

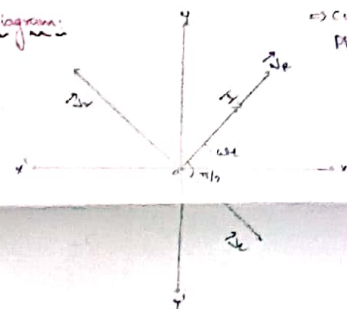
$= \omega L$

X_C = Capacitive reactance

$= \frac{1}{\omega C}$

ω = angular velocity

Phase diagram:



The resonant frequency $f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$ is independent of resistance.

At the resonance, the current is maximum and the impedance of the circuit is minimum.

At the resonance, the power factor is unity and impedance is purely resistive.

$$\text{i.e. } Z_0 = R$$

This circuit is called as acceptor, due to it accepts a particular frequency and rejects all others.

At resonance, it magnifies the voltage, which is equal to Q-factor, the magnified voltage is equal to $Q = \frac{\omega L}{R}$.

Parallel LCR Resonant circuit:

In this circuit resistor, inductor and capacitor are connected in parallel combination.

In this circuit, voltage is constant and total current is equal to the sum of all individual currents.

It has the resonant frequency of an alternating current is equal to which impedance of a parallel LCR circuit, becomes maximum due to minimum current (I).

$$\therefore \text{Impedance } (Z) = \frac{L}{RC}$$

The resonant frequency $f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{R^2}{L^2}}$, is depending on resistance.

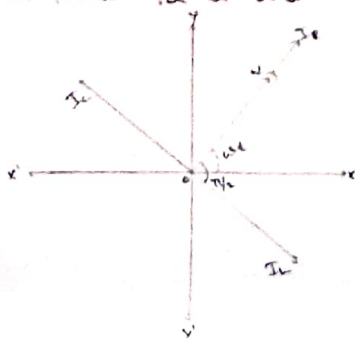
At resonance, the current in the circuit is minimum and impedance is maximum.

It has the power factor is unity but impedance is equal to L/RC .

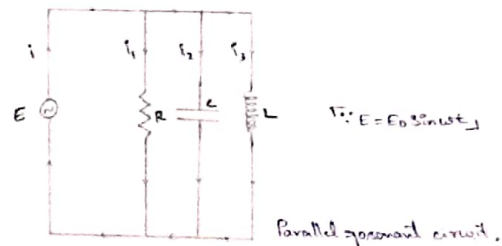
This circuit is called as rejector as it rejects only frequency.

At resonance, the circuit magnifies the current that equals to the Q-factor $Q = \frac{\omega L}{R}$.

Phase diagram for parallel resonant circuit:



$\Rightarrow$ current (I) is leading voltage (V) with phase difference $\phi/2$.



Parallel resonant circuit.

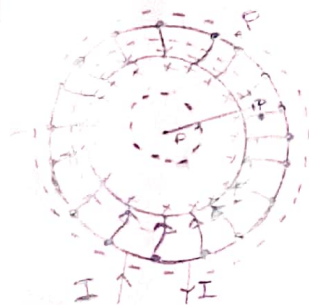
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$\Rightarrow$ Information is taken from the
graph search and 3D scan physics
Test book.

DEFINITION :- The magnetic Field generated in the Solenoid is out side it, While the magnetic Field generated in the Toroid is Inside the core.

The magnetic Solenoid has uniform magnetic Field and the Toroid has a non uniform magnetic Field



* For Point In the open space Interior to the Solenoid

$$\therefore B_{\text{inside}} = 0, \therefore B_{\text{inside}} = 0$$

* For Point In the open space exterior to the Solenoid

$$\therefore B_{\text{outside}} = 0, \therefore B_{\text{outside}} = 0$$

* For Point in between the toroid

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_{\text{inside}} \quad \boxed{B = \mu_0 n I}$$

$$\oint B dl \cos 0 = \mu_0 I_{\text{inside}} \quad \text{where } n = \frac{N}{2\pi r}$$

$$B \oint dl = \mu_0 I_{\text{inside}}$$

$$B \cdot 2\pi r = \mu_0 I N$$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 N I}{2\pi r} \quad \text{For ideal toroid}$$

* The magnetic Field of current carrying toroid is Independent of the radius. This is because the magnetic Field of the toroid is given as

$$\boxed{B = \mu_0 n I}$$

where 'n' is the number of turns
'I' is the electric current
' μ_0 ' is the permeability

Uses :- A solenoid is a basic form for a coil of wire that we use as an electro magnet

* It generates a magnetic Field for creating linear motion from the electric current.

Examples :- * Hotel door lock

* water Pressure valves in air conditioning Systems

* MRI Machines

* Hard disk drives.

* Speakers.

* Micro Phones

* Power plants and cars

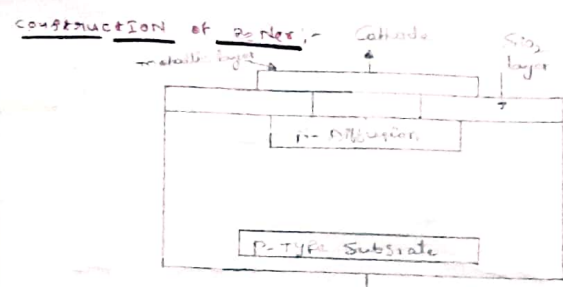
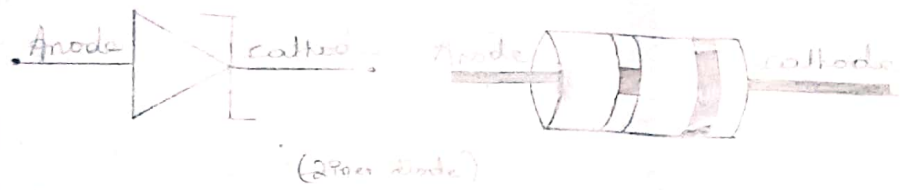
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Zener Diode

DEFINITION - A Zener diode is a highly doped semiconductor device specially designed to function in the reverse direction. It is engineered with a wide range of Zener voltage (V_Z) and certain types are even adjusted to achieve various voltage regulation.

CIRCUIT SYMBOL - Zener diode



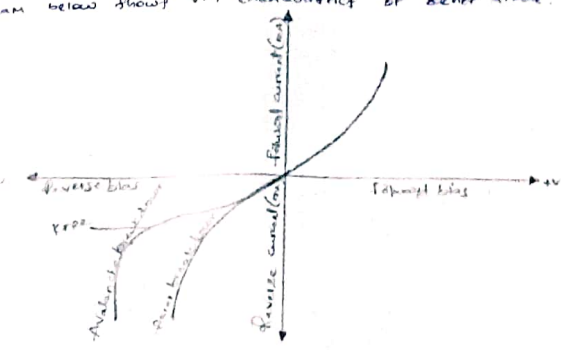
Alloy diffused structures have all junction covered by the layer of silica oxides to prevent the junctions. In generally alloy diffused structures gives better performance at lower Zener voltages. on the contrary passivated and diffused structures gives better performance at higher voltages.

Zener Diode work in reverse bias:-

A Zener diode functions similarly to a regular diode when forward-biased. However in reverse-biased mode, a small leakage current flows through the diode. As the reverse voltage increases and reaches the pre-determined breakdown voltage (V_Z), current begins to flow through the diode. The current reach a maximum level determined by series resistor, after which it stabilizes and remains constant across a wide range of applied voltage.

V-I CHARACTERISTICS OF ZENER DIODE

The diagram below shows V-I characteristics of Zener diode.



When reverse biased voltage is applied to a Zener diode, it allows a only small amount of reverse current until the voltage is less than Zener voltage.

V-I characteristics of a Zener diode can be divided into two parts as follows:

(1) Forward characteristics:- The first quadrant in the graph represents the forward characteristics in Zener diode. From the graph, we understand that it is almost identical to the forward characteristics of p-n junction diode.

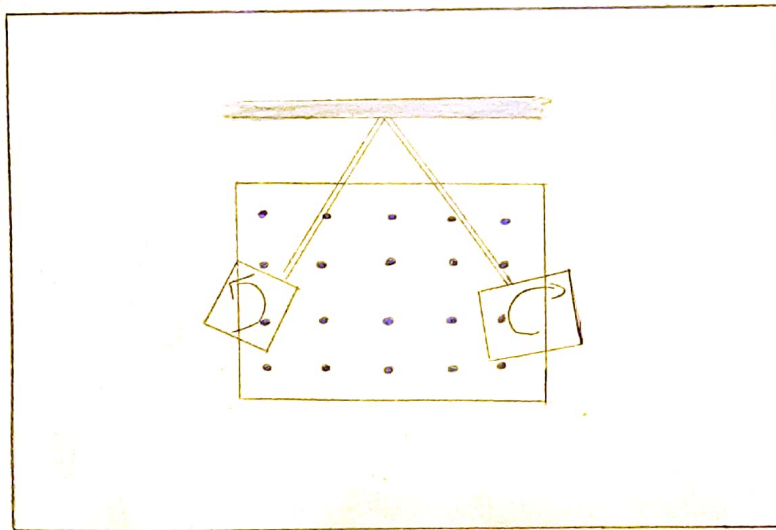
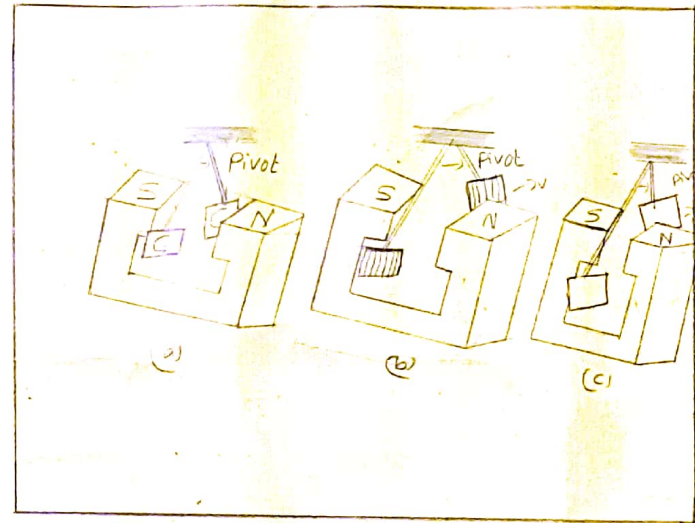
(2) Reverse characteristics of Zener diode:- When a reverse voltage is applied to a Zener voltage, a small reverse saturation current to flow across the diode. This current is due to thermally generated minority carriers. As a reverse voltage increases, at a certain value of reverse voltage, the reverse current increases drastically and thereby this is an indication that the breakdown has occurred. We call this voltage breakdown voltage or Zener voltage, and V_Z denotes it.

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Eddy currents and electro magnetic damping

As discussed in motional emf, motional emf is induced when a conductor moves in a magnetic field or when a magnetic field moves relative to a conductor. If motional emf can cause a current loop in the conductor, we refer to that current as an eddy current. Eddy currents can produce significant drag, called magnetic damping, on the motion involved.



Which swings a pendulum bob is metal, there is significant drag on the bob as it enters and leaves the field, quickly damping the motion. If, however, the bob is a slotted metal plate, as shown in Figure, there is a much smaller effect due to the magnet. There is no discernible effect on a bob made of an insulator.

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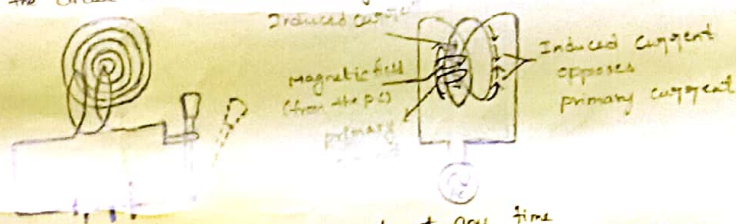


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Self Induction and Mutual Induction :-

1. Self Induction - It is the property of the coil due to which the coil opposes any change in the strength of current flowing through it by inducing an emf in itself.

The property of self induction is a particular form of electromagnetic induction. In the case of induction, the magnetic field is created by a changing current in the circuit itself induces a voltage in the same circuit. Therefore, the voltage is self induced.



Coefficient of Self Induction - Let I is current flowing through the coil at any time. ϕ be the magnetic flux linked with all the turns of the coil at that time.

We also know that, $\phi \propto I$

$$\Rightarrow \phi = LI$$

Here 'L' is proportionality constant and is called coefficient of self induction.

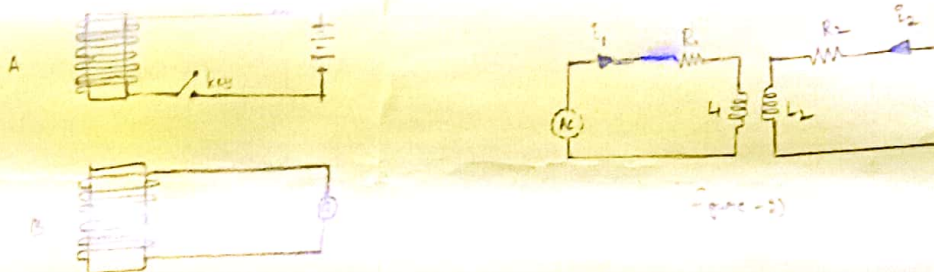
If $I = 1A$ Then $\phi = L$

Now, by Faraday's law: $E = -d\phi/dt$

$$\Rightarrow E = -d(LI)/dt \text{ or } E = -L dI/dt \text{ (self induced emf)}$$

2. Mutual Induction -

When one circuit induces current flow in a nearby circuit, it is known as Mutual Induction. It is the property of two coils due to which each opposes any changes in the strength of current flowing through other by developing an induced emf.



(figure -1)

On pressing the key, current A increases from zero to maximum value. It takes some time to reach the maximum value. During this time current is commonly increasing hence the ϕ associated with A also increases. Since B is near to A, ϕ associated with it also increases. Thus an emf is induced in the coil and according to the Lenz's law, the induced current in B would oppose increase in ϕ in A by flowing in a direction opposite to the cell current in A.

Similarly, on releasing the key, the current in coil A decreases hence the ϕ associated with it decreases. As B is nearby, so ϕ associated with B also decreases and hence an induced emf is developed. The direction of induced current would be in the direction of the cell current so as to oppose the decrease in the current.

Coefficient of Mutual Induction -

We know that $\phi \propto I$

$$\Rightarrow \phi = MI$$

Here 'M' is constant of proportionality and is called coefficient of mutual induction or mutual inductance of the two coils.

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Gauss law

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What is Gauss law?

According to Gauss law, the total flux linked with closed surface is $1/\epsilon_0$ times the charge enclosed by the closed surface.

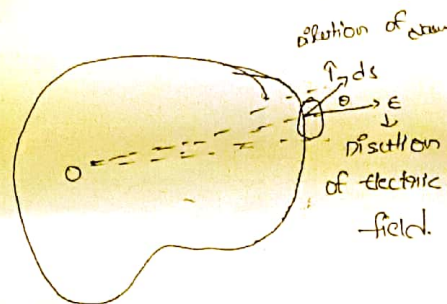
$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} Q$$

The Gauss law formula is expressed by $\phi = Q/\epsilon_0$

where,

Q = Total charge within the given surface

ϵ_0 = The electric constant.



Proof :-

Let a charge q placed at O within a closed surface.

Consider a point P on the surface at distance r from O .

Now small area ds around P . The normal to the surface ds

makes an angle θ with the direction of electric field E .

The electric flux $d\phi_e$ outward through the surface area ds is given by

$$d\phi_e = E \cdot ds = E ds \cos \theta \quad (1)$$

From Coulomb's law, the electric intensity at a point O from distance r from charge $+q$.

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \quad (2)$$

Now eq (2) substitute in eq (1)

$$d\phi_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} ds \cos \theta$$

$$= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{ds \cos \theta}{r^2}$$

But $\frac{ds \cos \theta}{r^2}$ is the solid angle $d\omega$. Then, $d\phi_e = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} d\omega$

The total electric flux passes through the whole surface, then, $\int d\phi_e = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int d\omega$

$$\phi_e = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int d\omega$$

$$\boxed{\phi_e = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}}$$

Let the closed surface enclosed several charges, like $q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots$ then the total electric flux is given by $\phi_e = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} (q_1 + q_2 + q_3 + \dots)$

$$\boxed{\phi_e = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \sum q_i}$$

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De Morgan's Law

What is De Morgan's Law?

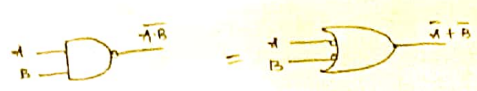
1) The complement of the union of the two sets $A \cup B$ will be equal to the intersection of A' (complement of A) & B' (complement of B).
This is called De Morgan's law of union.

2) It can be represented by $(A \cup B)' = A' \cap B'$

3) Diagrams:

→ First law Truth table

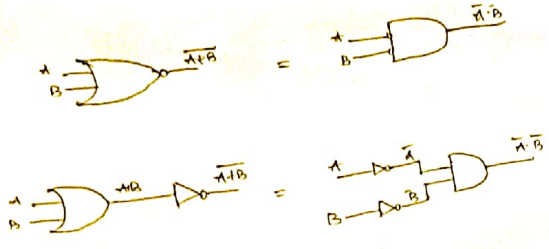
$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ → De Morgan's First law



Inputs		Truth table outputs for each term					
B	A	$A \cup B$	$\overline{A \cup B}$	$\overline{A}$	$\overline{B}$	$\overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	$\overline{A \cup B}$
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

→ Second law Truth table

$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ → De Morgan's Second law



Inputs		Truth table outputs for each term					
B	A	$A \cap B$	$\overline{A \cap B}$	$\overline{A}$	$\overline{B}$	$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$	$\overline{A \cap B}$
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

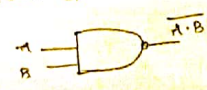
De Morgan's Equivalent Gates:

Standard logic gates

1) AND Gate



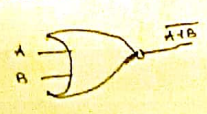
2) NAND Gate



3) OR Gate



4) NOR Gate



De Morgan's Equivalent gates

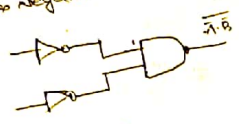
→ Negative NOR-Gate



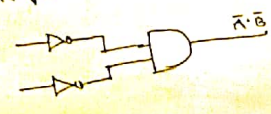
→ Negative OR-Gate



→ Negative AND-Gate



→ Negative NOR Gate



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The Information is taken from Google Search

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HYBRID PARAMETERS

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The h -parameters are dependent on conductivity parameters of transistor which vary with intrinsic carrier concentration. Since intrinsic carrier concentration varies with temperature the h -parameters vary with temperature.

Every linear circuit having input and output can be analyzed as two port networks. In these networks there are four parameters called hybrid or h -parameters. Out of these four parameters, one is measured in ohm, one in mho and other two are dimensionless. Since these parameters have mixed dimension, so they are called hybrid parameters.

- h_i = Input resistance with output shorted (Ω)
- h_r = Reverse voltage gain with input open (V)
- h_f = Forward current gain with output shorted
- h_o = Output conductance with input open.

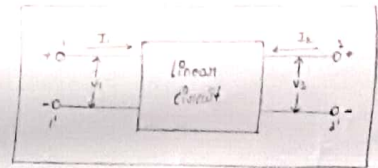


Figure-1

Every linear circuit having input and output terminals can be analysed by four parameters (one measured in ohm, one in mho and two dimensionless) called hybrid or h parameters.

Hybrid means "mixed". Since these parameters have mixed dimensions they are called hybrid parameters. Consider a linear circuit shown in figure 1. This circuit has input voltage and current labelled V_1 and I_1 . This circuit also has output voltage and current labelled V_2 and I_2 . Note that both input and output currents (I_1 and I_2) are assumed to flow into the box: input and output voltages (V_1 and V_2) are assumed positive from the upper to the lower terminals. These are standard conventions and do not necessarily correspond to the actual directions and polarities.

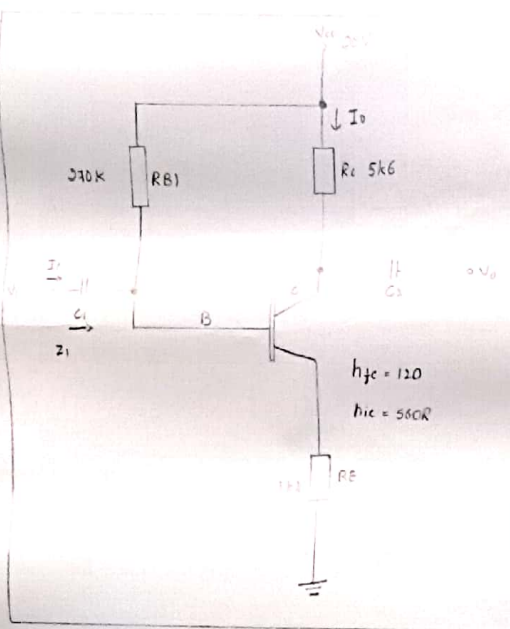


Figure-2

It can be proved by advanced circuit theory that voltages and currents in figure 1, can be related by the following sets of Equations:

$$V_1 = h_{11}I_1 + h_{12}V_2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$I_2 = h_{21}I_1 + h_{22}V_2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

In the Equations, the h s are fixed constants for a given circuit and are called h parameters. Once these parameters are known, we can use Equations (1) and (2) to find the voltages and currents in the circuit. If we look at Eq (1), it is clear that h_{11} has the dimension of ohm and h_{12} is dimensionless. Similarly, from Eq (2), h_{21} is dimensionless and h_{22} has the dimension of mho.

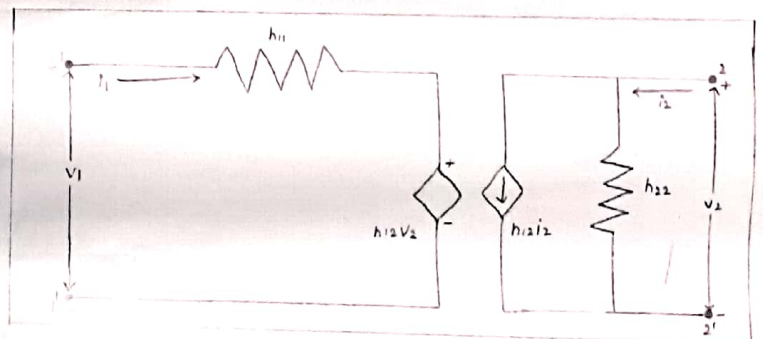


Figure-3

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P-N Junction Diode

P-N Junction Diode A P-N junction diode is a basic semiconductor device that controls

the flow of electronic current in a circuit.

① It has a positive (P) side and negative (N) side created by adding impurities to

each side of a silicon semiconductor.

② The symbol for a P-N junction diode is a triangle pointing to a line.

③ But for now, let's talk about the make-up of a P-N junction diode. It's actually quite a simple thing. Most of them are made with silicon which allows the diode to operate at higher temperatures, important to prevent overheating of your electronics.

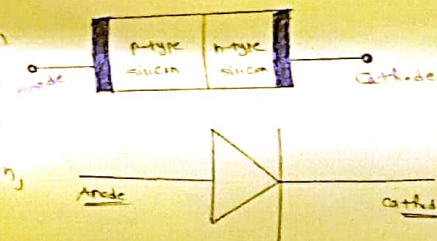
To make a P-N junction diode, a different impurity is added to each side of a silicon semiconductor, there's an equal no. of holes to electrons. If there are more electrons than holes, then it becomes the n-side.

and Negative side, however, just because there is a positive

Just because there is a positive and negative

side, it doesn't mean the material is in anyway electrically charged, the material is still electrically neutral. It's just that the added impurities either leaves holes (P) or add more electrons.

Working: If a current is flowing in the same direction as the P-N junction diode is called forward bias, then things will work smoothly with the positive holes moving towards the negative side and vice versa. This keeps the other direction called reverse bias, then it forms a barrier in the middle of the semi-conductor blocking and stopping the flow of current.



P-N Junction diode uses:

① The ability to control the flow of current in this way makes the P-N junction diode a simple yet powerful semiconductor device.

Applications with these:

to convert AC input to DC output.

② It can be used as a solar cell.

can be used in LED lighting applications.

③ It is used as a rectifier in many electric circuits and as a voltage-controlled oscillator in varactors.

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Different types of Capacitors

Capacitors are manufactured in many styles, forms, dimensions, and from a large variety of materials. They all contain at least two electrical conductors, called plates, separated by an insulating layer (dielectric). Capacitors are widely used as parts of electrical circuits in many common electrical devices.

Capacitors, together with resistors and inductors, belong to the group of passive components in electronic equipment. Small capacitors are used in electronic devices to couple signals between stages of amplifiers, as components of electronic filters and tuned circuits, as parts of power supply systems to smooth rectified current. Larger capacitors are used for energy storage in such applications as strobe lights, as parts of some types of electric motors, as far power factor correction in AC power distribution systems. Standard capacitors have a fixed value of capacitance but adjustable capacitors are frequently used in tuned circuits. Different types are used depending on required capacitance, working voltage, current handling capacity, and other properties.

While, in absolute figures, the most commonly manufactured capacitors are integrated into dynamic random-access memory, flash memory, and other device chips, this article covers the discrete components.

- ⇒ General characteristics
- ⇒ Types and styles
- ⇒ Comparison of types
- ⇒ Electrical characteristics
- ⇒ Additional information
- ⇒ Market segments
- ⇒ see also
- ⇒ References
- ⇒ External links

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❖ Maxwell's Equations for Electromagnetic Waves ❖

Maxwell's Equation :

- ① Gauss law in Electricity
 $\oint E \cdot ds = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} q \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$
- ② Gauss law in Magnetism
 Magnetic flux around the cross section is zero
 $\oint B \cdot ds = 0 \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{2}$
- ③ Faraday's law :-
 $\oint E \cdot dl = -\frac{d\phi_B}{dt} \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{3}$
- ④ Ampere's law :-
 $\oint B \cdot dl = \mu_0 i \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{4}$

Differential forms of Maxwell's Equation :-

We know that charge density

$$\rho = \frac{\text{charge}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{q}{V}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Charge} &= q = \rho V \\ &= \rho \iiint dV \\ &= \iiint \rho dV \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{5} \end{aligned}$$

From Gauss Divergence Theorem

$$\oint A \cdot ds = \iiint \text{div } A dV$$

- ① So $\oint E \cdot ds = \iiint \text{div } E dV \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{6}$
 Substitute eq ⑤ & ⑥ in ① we get
 $\iiint \text{div } E dV = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \iiint \rho dV$

$$\nabla \cdot E = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

$$\left(i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot E = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

- ② $\oint B \cdot ds = 0$
 From Gauss Divergence Theorem
 $\oint B \cdot ds = \iiint \text{div } B dV \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{7}$
 Substitute eq ⑦ in ②
 $\iiint \text{div } B dV = 0$
 $\nabla \cdot B = 0$

- ③ $\oint E \cdot dl = -\frac{d\phi_B}{dt}$
 We know that Magnetic flux $\phi_B = \int B \cdot A$
 $= \int B \phi ds \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{8}$
 From Stokes Theorem
 $\oint A \cdot dl = \iint \text{curl } A \cdot ds$
 $= \iint (\nabla \times A) \cdot ds$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } \oint E \cdot dl &= \iint (\nabla \times E) \cdot ds \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{9} \\ \text{Substitute eq ⑧ \& ⑨ in ③} \\ \iint (\nabla \times E) \cdot ds &= -\frac{d\phi_B}{dt} \\ \nabla \times E &= -\frac{dB}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

- ④ $\oint B \cdot dl = \mu_0 i$
 We know that Current Density
 $j = \frac{\text{Current}}{\text{area of cross section}} = i/A$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Current (i)} &= jA \\ &= j \oint ds \\ &= \oint j ds \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{10} \end{aligned}$$

- From Stokes Theorem,
 $\oint B \cdot dl = \iint (\nabla \times B) \cdot ds \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{11}$
 Substitute eq ⑩ & ⑪ in ④ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \iint (\nabla \times B) \cdot ds &= \mu_0 \oint j \cdot ds \\ \nabla \times B &= \mu_0 j \end{aligned}$$

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HALL EFFECT

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Definition:

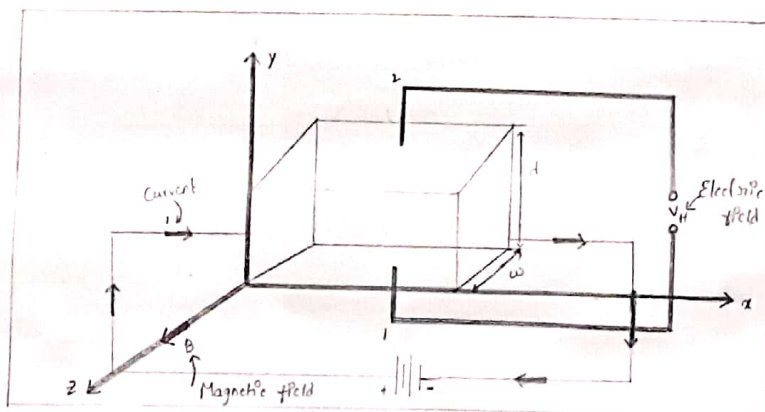
When a piece of metal or semiconductor is placed in magnetic field, more precisely in transverse magnetic field, and direct current is allowed to pass through it, then the Electric field gets developed across the edges of metal or semiconductor specimen. This phenomenon is called Hall Effect.

Consider a piece of metal is placed in magnetic field. And the magnetic field is perpendicular to the metal or semiconductor specimen. Now, direct current is passed through the metal or semiconductor specimen in such a way that direction of flow of current is along the positive direction of x -axis.

The magnetic field is applied in such a way that magnetic field acts along the positive direction of z -axis. According to co-ordinate geometry, x -axis, y -axis, and z -axis are perpendicular to each other. Thus, the current carrying path is perpendicular to the path along which magnetic field is acting.

Applications of Hall Effect:

- Hall Effect devices generate a very low signal level. Therefore, they need amplification and it is very suitable for instruments in laboratory.
- Magnetic field Sensing Equipment
- For the measurement of direct current, Hall Effect tong tester is used.
- It is used in phase angle measurement
- Proximity detectors
- Hall Effect Sensors and probes
- Linear or angular displacement transducers



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