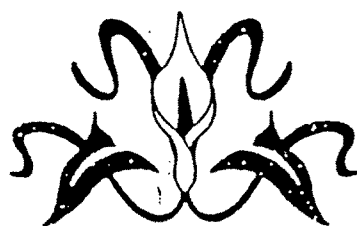


# CHAPTER III



## ELECTRICAL PROPERTIES

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

There are a great number of applications for which electrical conduction properties are important (1). Semiconductor materials are used for many specialized applications, such as resistance, heating elements, semiconductor devices such as rectifiers, photocells, transistors, thermistors, detectors and modulators have become an important part of modern electronics. An equally important applications of oxides are as electrical insulators, porcelains and glasses used for low and high voltage insulation.

The electrical conducting properties mainly depends on the method of preparation and presence of impurity. Electrical conduction being a Kinetic phenomenon, will be discussed with regard to its temperature dependence. For thermistor applications the temperature dependence represents the materials sensitivity to temperature change

In general electrical conducting in high temperature materials is a function of temperature and composition (non-stoichiometry and impurities), irrespective of the type of conduction, In some cases grain boundaries can significantly influence electrical properties.

### 3.2 DC CONDUCTIVITY

In oxide oxygen non-stoichiometry provides the source of current carriers, many times the ion themselves. However, in transition metal oxides,

the narrow half filled d-band could provide the current carriers by excitation, therefore many of the metal oxides are semiconductors. In general the spinel oxide crystal structure may be conveniently regarded in terms of oxygen ions.

The electric current density  $j$  is defined as a charge transported through a unit area in a unit time. If the number of charge particles per unit volume is  $n$  and they have a drift velocity of  $v$  and a charge per particle  $ze$ , where  $z$  is valence and  $e$  be the electronic charge, then the electrical current density is given by

$$j_i = n_i z_i e v_i$$

The electrical conductivity  $\sigma$  is defined by the relation ship  $\sigma = j / e$

If  $E$  is the electric field strength, taking any field into account. (2)

$$\text{Consequently } \sigma_i = (n_i z_i e) v_i / E \quad \text{-----}(3.1)$$

The drift velocity is directly proportional to the locally acting electric field strength, and the ratio is defined as mobility.

$$\mu_i = v_i / E_i \quad \text{-----}(3.2)$$

The conductivity then, is the product of the concentration and mobility of charge carriers

$$\sigma_i = (n_i z_i e) \mu_i \quad \text{-----}(3.3)$$

Sometimes it is desirable to employ an absolute mobility  $B$ , defined as the drift velocity per unit of applied force. This is given by

$$B_i = v_i / F_i = v_i / Z_i e E \quad \text{-----}(3.4)$$

In terms of the absolute mobility the conductivity is given by

$$\sigma_i = n_i z_i^2 e^2 B \quad \text{-----}(3.5)$$

When we consider, the effect of variables such as composition, structure and temperature on electrical conductivity, we are concerned with there two separate contributors, the concentration of charge carriers and their mobility. If we consider the charge carriers as initially having a random movement with an average drift velocity of zero, the equation of motion resulting from the application of a steady average external force  $F = ZeE$ , is

$$m \quad (dv/dt + v/\tau) = F = ZeE \quad \text{-----}(3.6)$$

When  $m$  is mass of particle. In the absence of external forces,

$$dv/dt + v/\tau = 0 \quad \text{-----}(3.7)$$

and by integrating,

$$V(t) = V_0 \exp (- t/\tau) \quad \text{-----}(3.8)$$

Where  $\tau$  is characteristic relaxation time governing the time required to reach equilibrium. In equation (3.6) the first term describe inertial effects, when  $v$  is time dependant, once the inertial effects have diedout ( $dv/dt = 0$ )

we have,

$$V = Ze \tau E/m \quad \text{-----}(3.9)$$

and by comparison with equation 3.1

$$e = nZ^2e^2\tau/m \quad \text{-----}(3.10)$$

That is the charge transported is proportional to the charge density ( $Zen$ ), the accelration of charge is given field (proportional ro  $Ze/m$ ) and  $\tau$  corresponding to the time that these forces act on the charge between collisions and random motion.

### 3.3 THERMOELECTRIC POWER

Hall effect and thermoelectric properties are widely used in semiconductors. The interpretation of Hall effect is more straight forward. However in case of low mobility materials such as oxides thermoelectric power measurement is the only alternative about p or n-type conduction. Another important significance of thermoemf is that it enables one to calculate the fermi energy and carriers concentration (3).

When the two surfaces of electrically conducting materials are mentioned at different temperatures ( $\Delta T$ ) they develop a potential ( $\Delta V$ ) then the seebeck coefficient can be given as

$$\alpha = \Delta V / \Delta T \quad \text{-----(3.11)}$$

The seebeck effect may be thought of as a diffusion process. The electrons or holes at hot end have higher kinetic energy as compared to that at cold end. Hence electric field is produced across the sample.

According to the Quantum theory, for semiconductors with both types of carriers,  $\alpha$  is given by

$$\alpha = (\alpha_n \sigma_n + \alpha_p \sigma_p) / (\sigma_n + \sigma_p) \quad \text{-----(3.12)}$$

Where

$$\sigma_n = n_e \mu_n \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_p = p_e \mu_p \quad \text{-----(3.13)}$$

$$\alpha_n = (k / e) (A_n - E_f / KT) \quad \text{-----(3.14)}$$

and 
$$\sigma_p = (k / e) [ A_p + (E_g + E_f) / KT ] \quad \text{-----(3.15)}$$

Where n and p are the electron and hole densities,  
 $\mu_n$  and  $\mu_p$  are the electron and hole mobilities,

$E_f$  is the fermi energy and

$E_g$  is the band gap energy.

From the temperature dependence of the seebeck coefficient, the sign of charge carriers and their mobility variation can be calculated.

### 3.4 EXPERIMENTAL

The DC electrical conductivity is measured with two probe method. The sample is used in the form of pellet. To assure good ohmic contact, silver paste is sandwiched between two silver foils. The specially designed conductivity cell is used and is shown in Fig (3.1). The low voltage is applied across the sample and corresponding current through the sample is measured. The complete assembly is then placed into the furnace. The temperature of furnace is measured with calibrated chromel - alumel thermocouple. The resistivity of sample is measured at various temperatures. The experimental set up is shown in the photograph Fig (3.2).

The resistivity ( $\rho$ ) was calculated by using the relation

$$\rho = \pi r^2 V / t.I \quad \text{-----(3.16)}$$

Where  $t$  is the thickness of the pellet,

$r$  is the radius of the pellet and

$I$  is current through the sample.

Initially, the surface of pellet was coated with silver paste for good ohmic contact. The pellet was put into the sample holder and then kept into the regulated furnace for the measurement of thermoelectric power. A schematic diagram with necessary connections is shown in Fig 3.3. For the

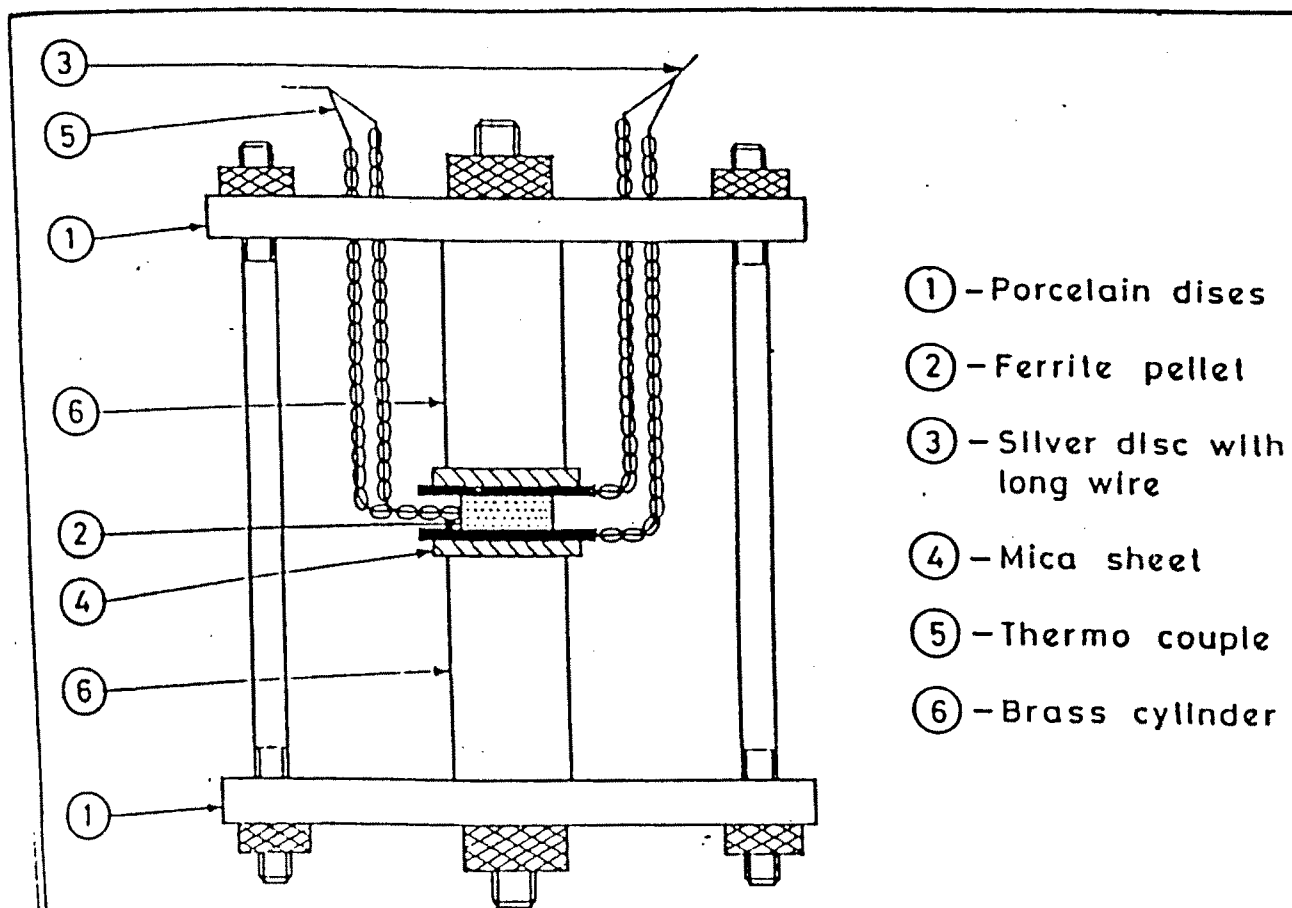


Fig. 3.1 (a) THE CONDUCTIVITY CELL .

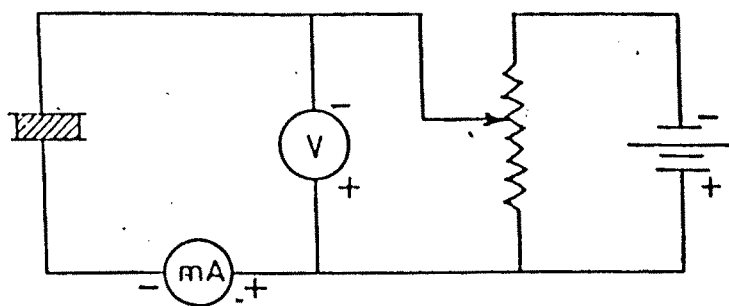
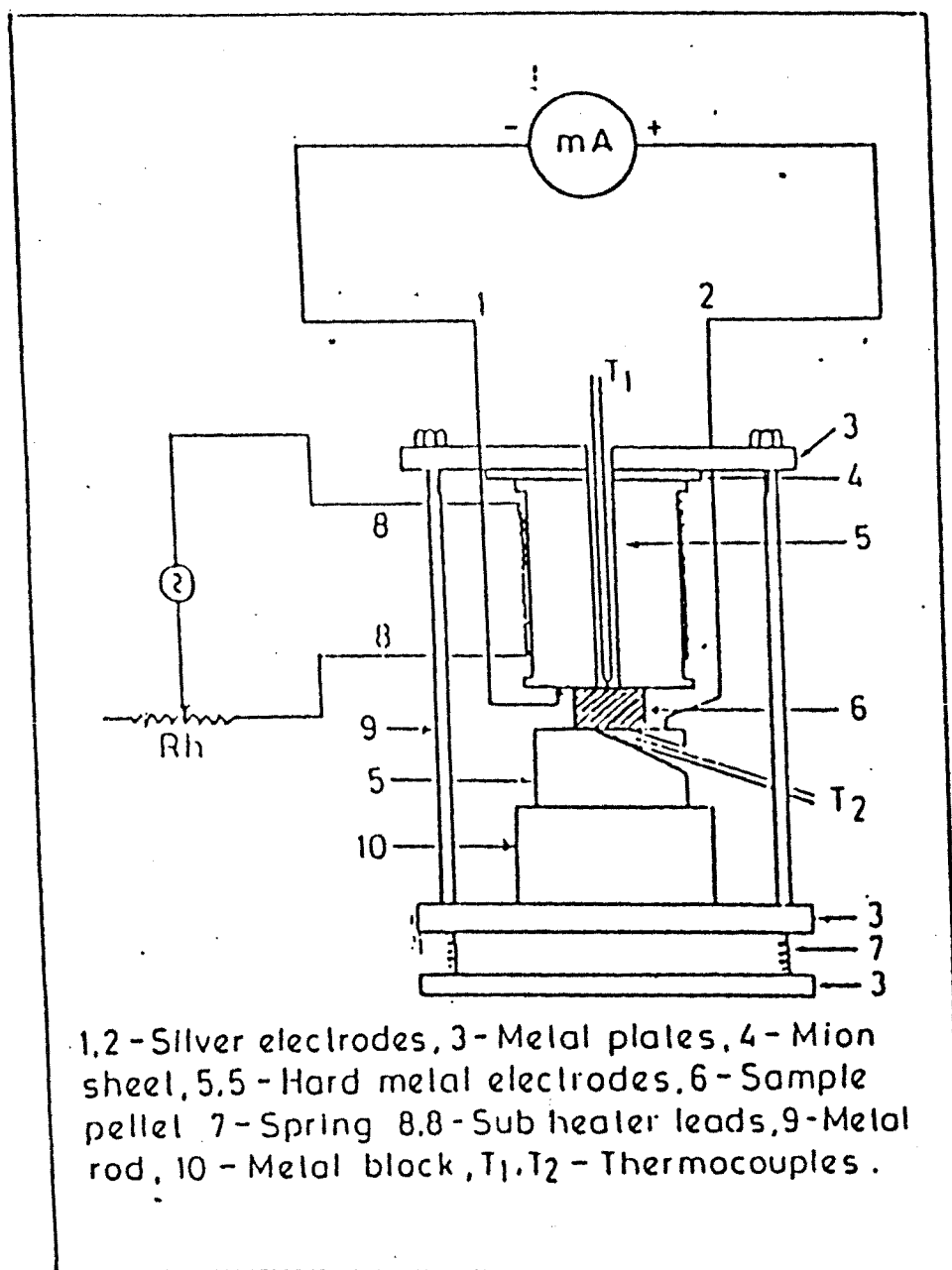


Fig. 3.1 (b) CIRCUIT DIAGRAM FOR ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY .



- Schematic diagram of experimental set-up for the measurement of thermoelectric power.

FIG. 3.3



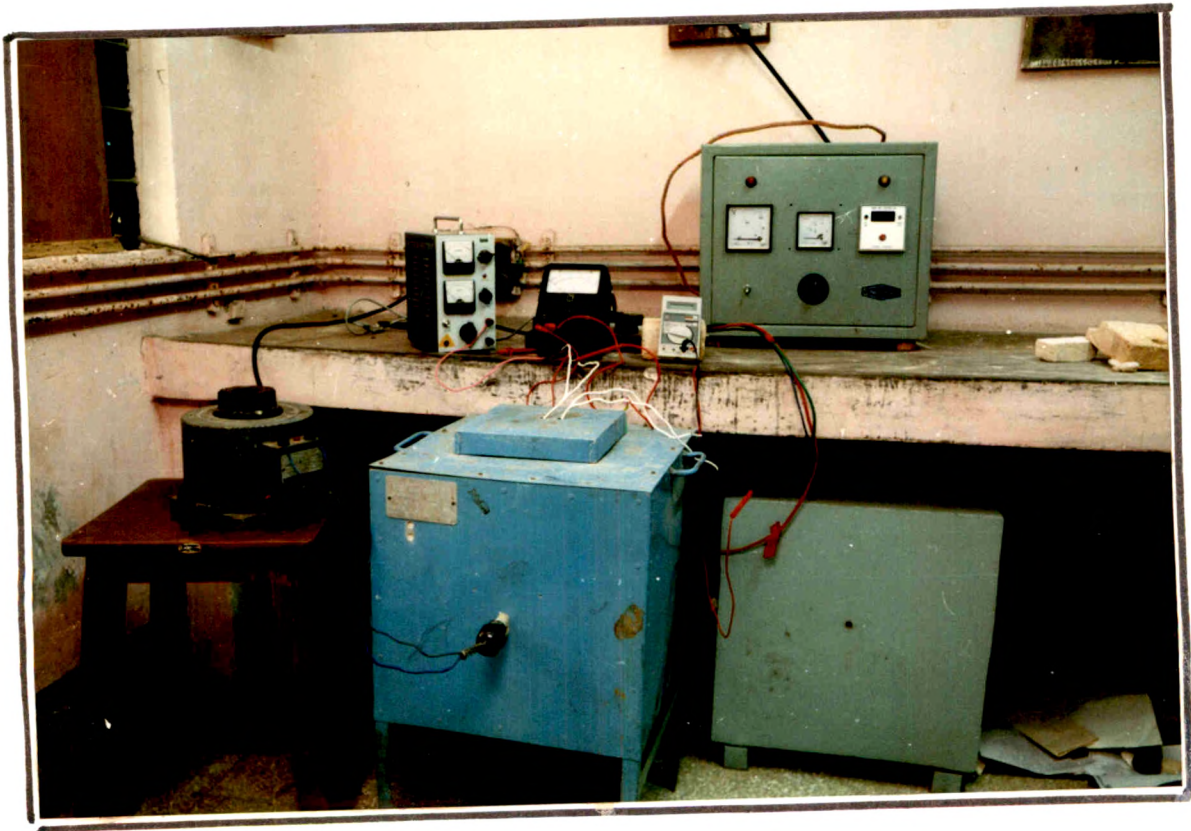


Fig. 3.2 Experimental set up for the measurement of D.C. electrical resistivity.

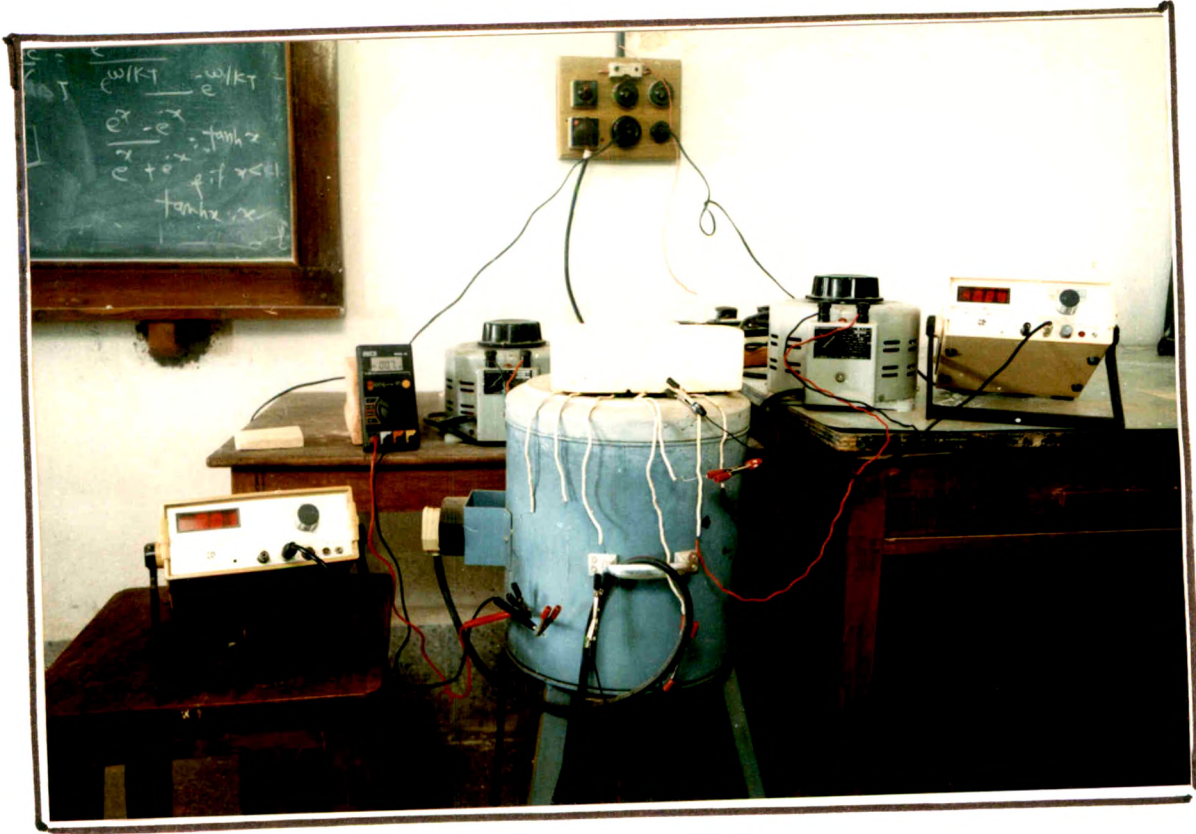


Fig. 3.4 Experimental set up for the measurement of Thermoelectric power.

measurement of thermoelectric power, the temperature difference of 20° C across the pellet was maintained with the help of a small heater attached to one of the electrodes of the sample holder. The thermoemf ( $\Delta v$ ) developed across the pellet was measured on a digital d.c microvoltmeter. Sufficient time was allowed to attain the thermal equilibrium before recording the thermo emf. The sample was then heated by keeping the temperature difference of 20°C and the developed thermo emf was measured at different temperatures.

In the measurement of  $\Delta v$ , the microvoltmeter gives a positive reading by connecting the positive terminal to hot end of the sample. This happens in the case of n-type charge carriers. This situation reverses when the charge carriers are of p-type. The thermoelectric power was determined by using the relation.

$$\alpha = \Delta V/\Delta T \quad \text{-----}(3.17)$$

Where  $\Delta V$  is thermoemf and

$\Delta T$  is the temperature difference across the pellet.

The experimental set up is shown in Fig(3.4)

### 3. 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The electrical conduction in solids is generally determined by two parameters; carriers concentration  $n$  (the number of carrier of charge  $q$  per unit volume), and carrier mobility  $\mu$ . In terms of  $n$  and  $\mu$  the electrical conductivity  $\sigma$ , can be expressed as

$$\sigma = nq\mu \quad \text{-----}(3.18)$$

For solids more than one type of charge carrier the electrical conductivity is the sum of the partial conductivity  $\sigma_i$ , of all the charge carriers, electrons, holes, cations and anions, and can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sum \sigma_i \\ &= \sum n_i q_i \mu_i \end{aligned} \quad \text{-----}(3.19)$$

The overall conductivity can neither be purely electronic, ionic or a mixture of the two depending on the relative magnitude of the product of  $n_i$  and  $\mu_i$  of all carriers. In predominantly ionic compounds such as oxides charge transport is, in principle, characterized by both ionic and electronic conduction. Often one type of charge carrier dominates the charge transport, but transition to the other type of conduction may occur at certain temperatures and / or atmospheres as a result of change in composition or stoichiometry of the solids(4)

In equation (3.18) both the carrier concentration and mobility can contribute to the temperature dependence of electrical conduction. For materials with a band gap, both processes may be thermally activated and therefore the temperature dependence of electrical conduction can generally be described by an Arrhenius type equation.

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \exp(-Q/kT) \quad \text{-----}(3.20)$$

Where  $Q$  is activation energy of electrical conduction and  $\sigma_0$  is the pre-exponential factor. For oxide materials in particular, intrinsic conductivity is only observed with high purity samples at high temperatures.

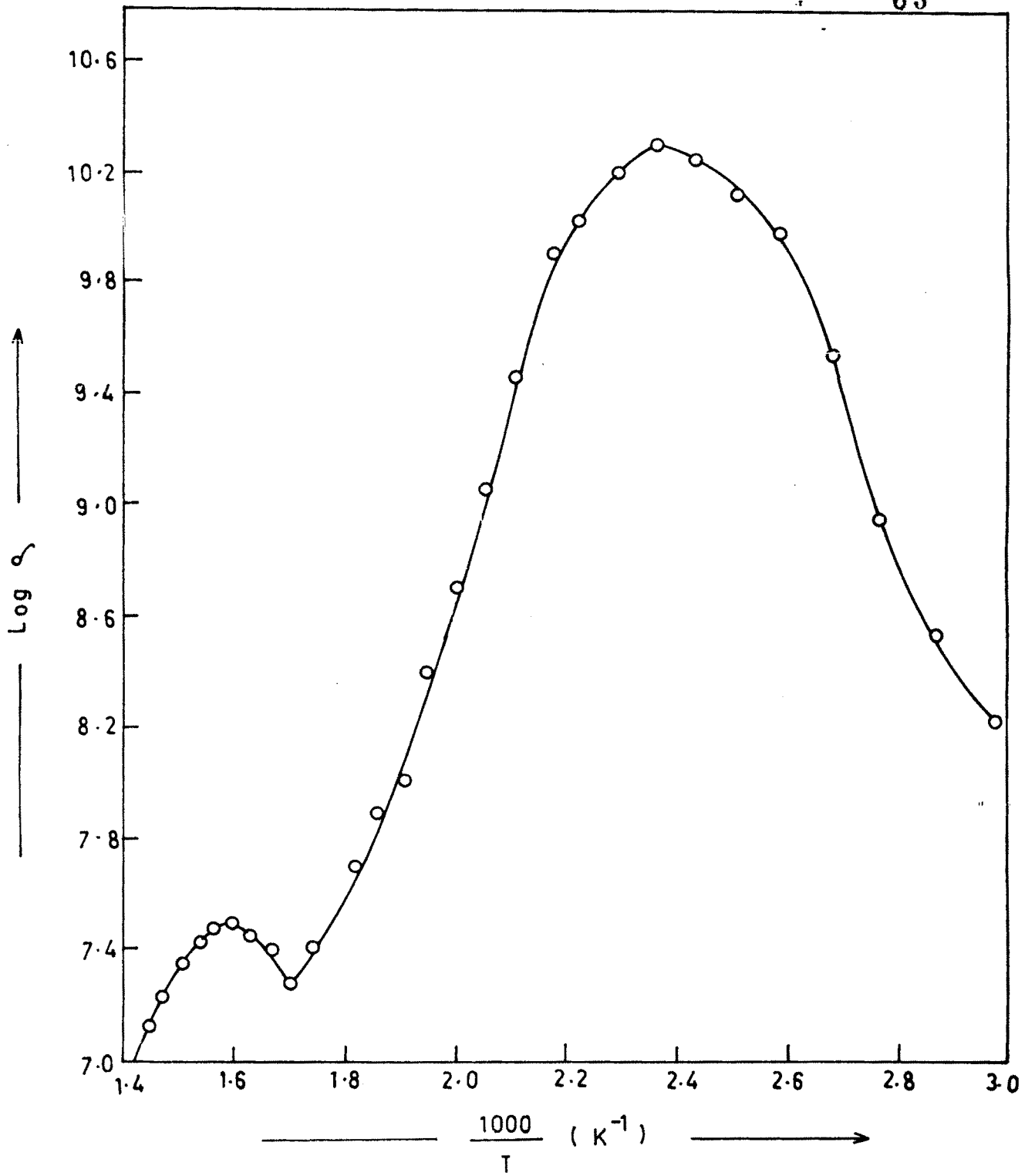


Fig. 3.5— Variation of  $\text{Log } \rho$  Vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Ce}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ .

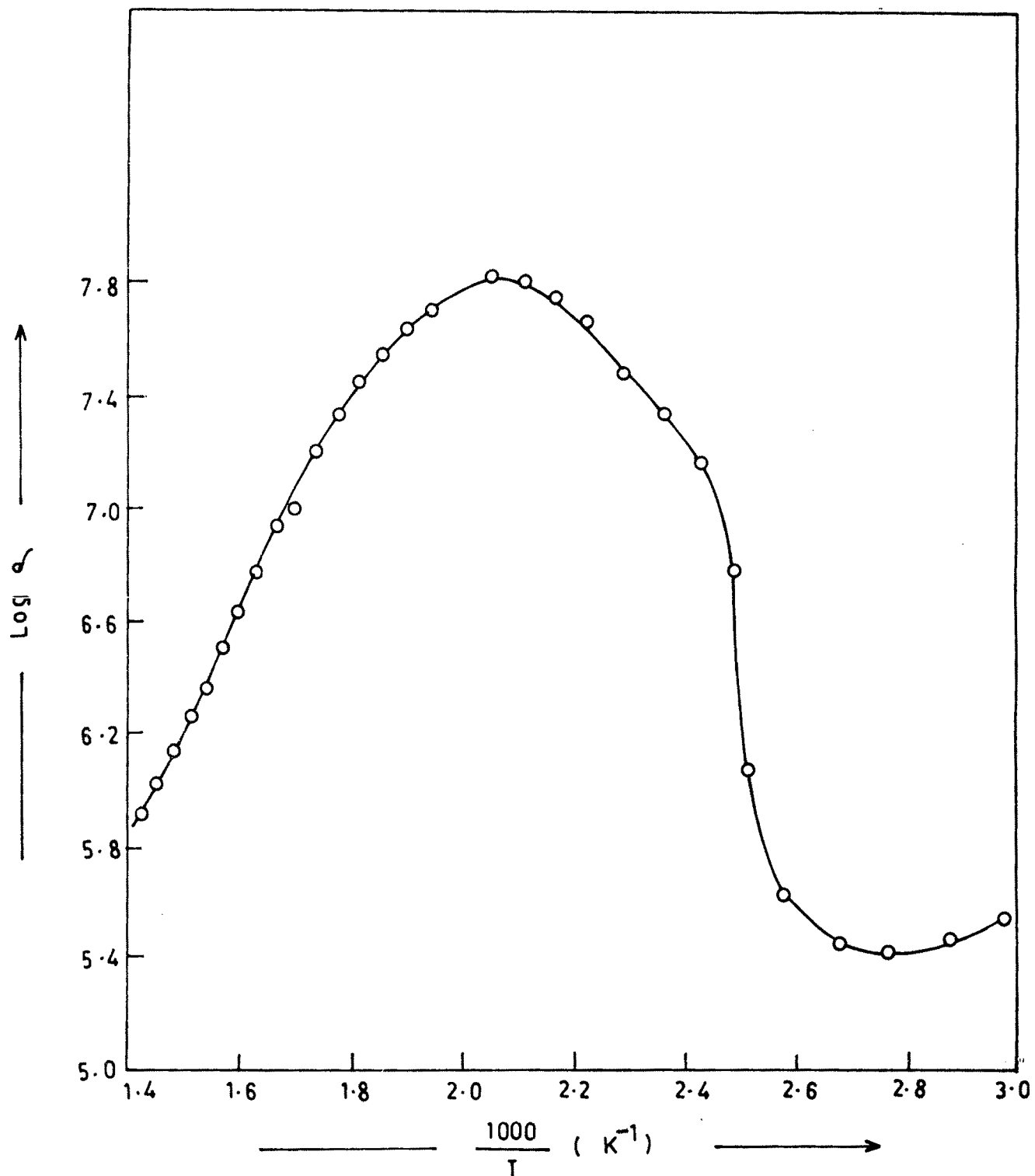


Fig. 3.6 - Variation of  $\log \eta$  vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Ce}_2\text{Sn}_2\text{O}_7$ .

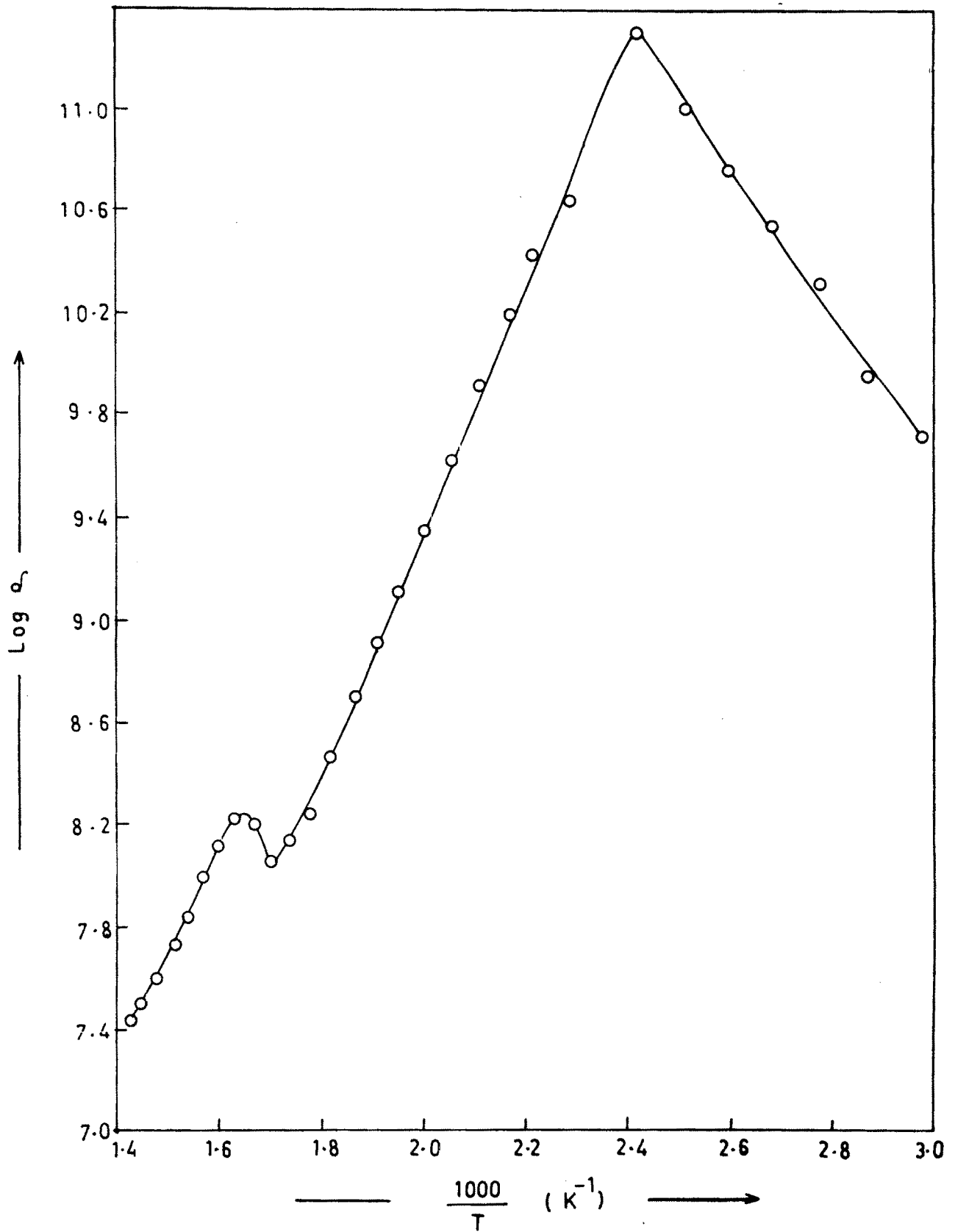


Fig. 3-7 - Variation of  $\text{Log } q_r$  vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Y}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ .

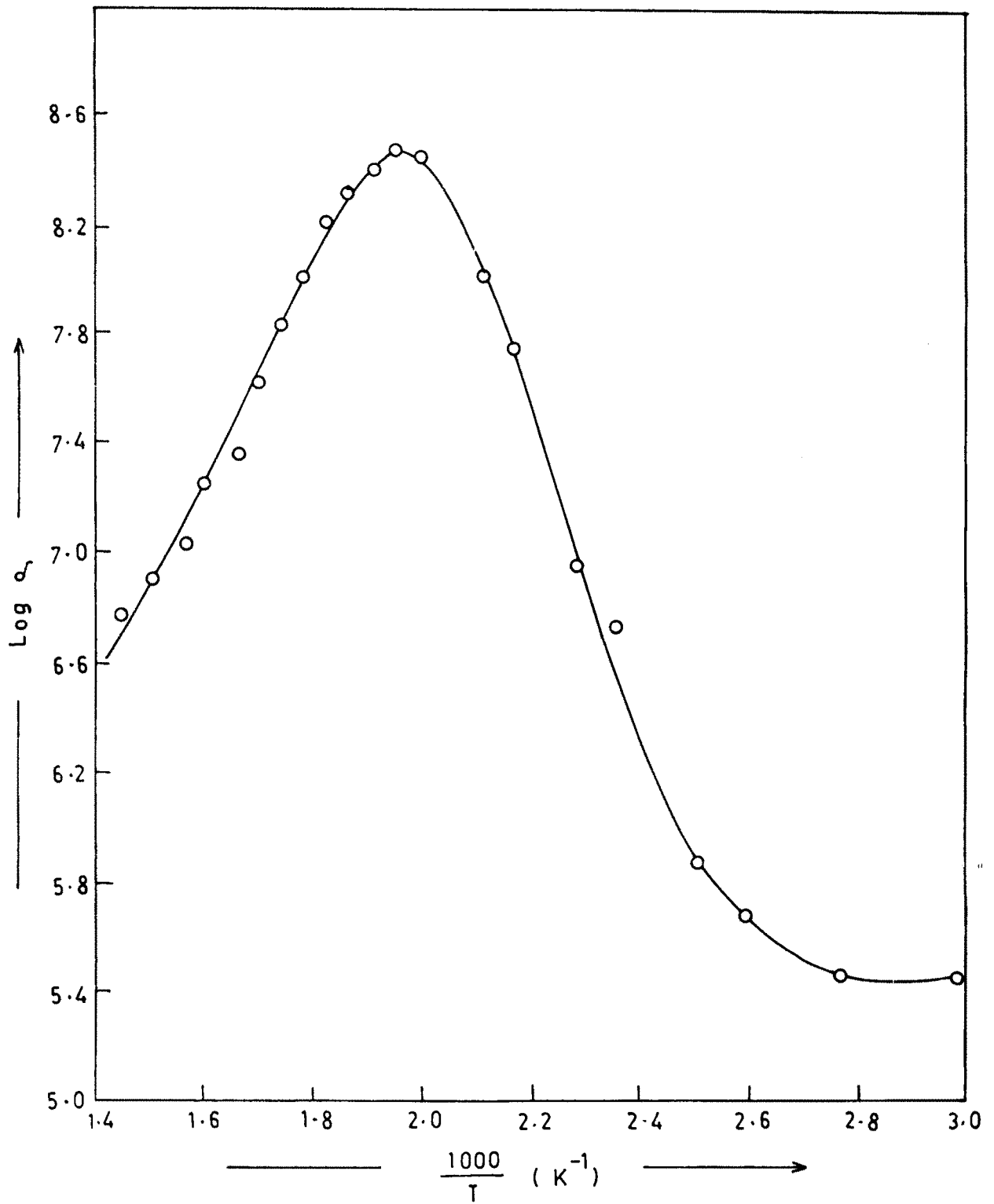


Fig. 3-8 — Variation of  $\text{Log } \rho_s$  vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Y}_2\text{Sn}_2\text{O}_7$ .



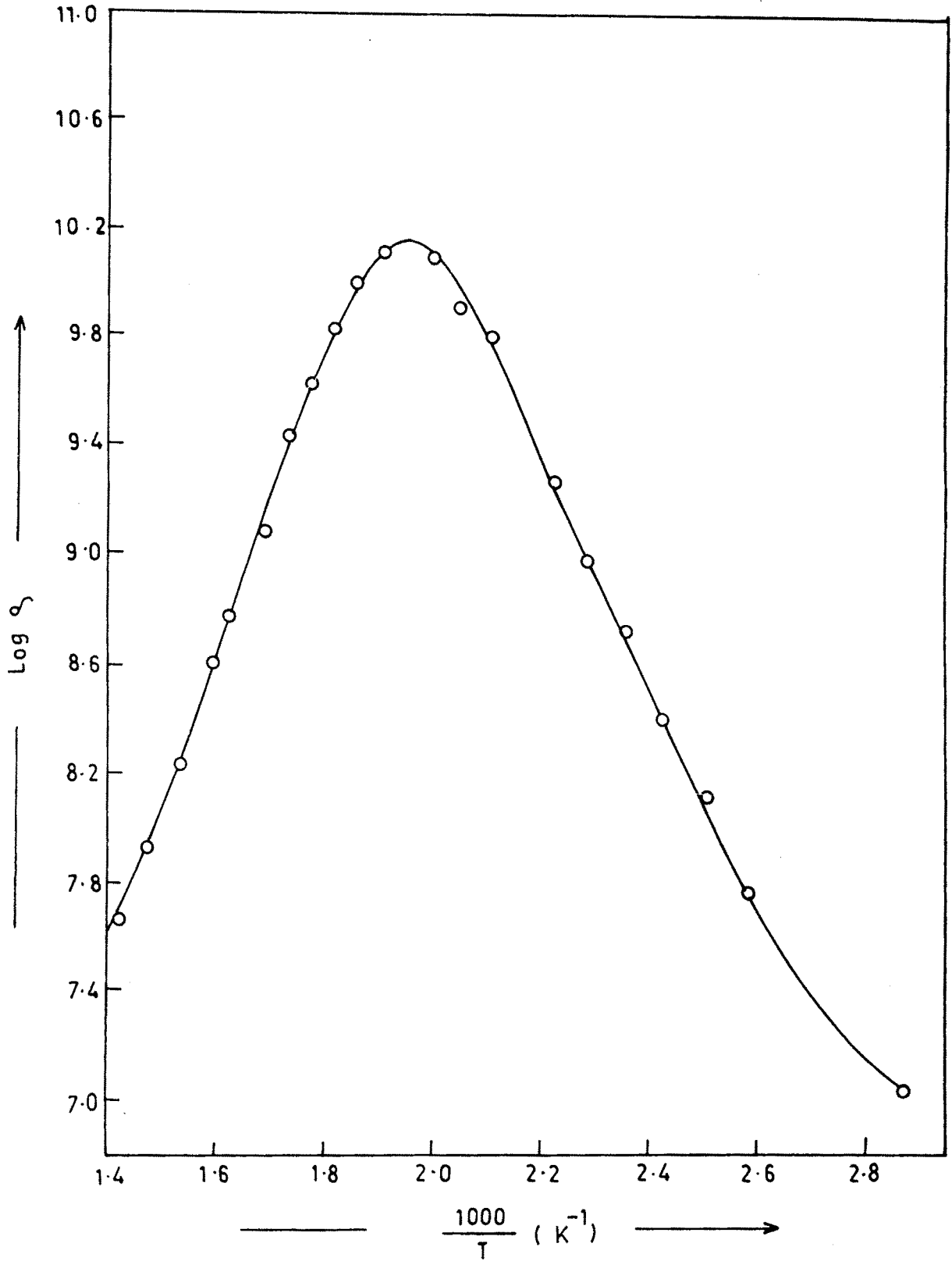


Fig. 3.9 - Variation of  $\text{Log } q_s$  vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Sm}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ .

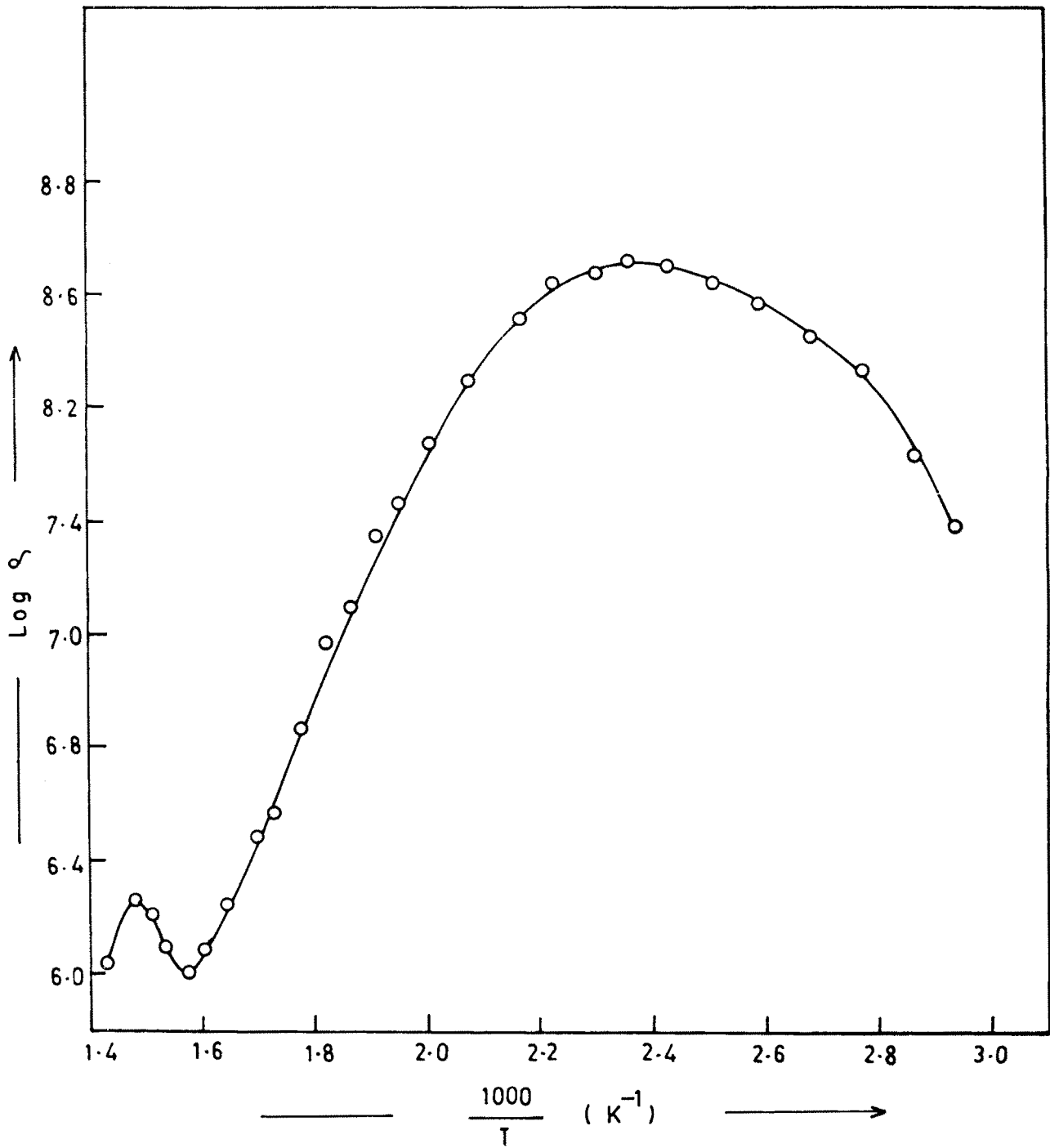


Fig. 3.10 - Variation of  $\text{Log } q_s$  vs  $\frac{1000}{T}$  for  $\text{Sm}_2\text{Sn}_2\text{O}_7$ .

The plot of  $\log \rho$  Vs  $(1000/T)$  are shown in the Fig (3.5 to 3.10) The value of  $\rho$  has been found to increase with temperatures at about  $400^\circ \text{K}$  maximum. At temperatures exceeding this particular temperatures, the variation of resistivity follows a typical semiconductor behaviour. The variation of resistivity with temperature can be attributed to ionic drift current due to electrons in the conduction bands. The present results indicates that the contribution from ionic drift current is predominant in this anomalous region. For an ionic conductor where the movement of ions takes place by the transport of lattice defects. The temperature dependence of electrical conductivity is determined by the effect of concentration and mobility as charge carriers. It should be noted however, that in case of intrinsic ionic conduction,  $Q$  in equation (3.20) is the sum of formation energy of defect and the migration energy. The overall transport property of a compound may depend on the type and concentration of defects contributing to electrical conduction both of which, however can vary with temperatures. In general the overall transport properties of oxides are determined by the defects formed in response to both impurities and influenced by both the temperature and oxygen pressure.

The plots of variation of thermo emf with temperature is shown in Fig 3.11 to 3.13 It is observed that all the samples show n-type semiconduction and n-to p- transition occurs around  $450^\circ$  to  $550^\circ \text{K}$ . All these compounds exhibited p-type semiconduction above  $450^\circ \text{K}$  temperature. The variation of  $\alpha$  with temperature shows cusp like behavior before n to p transition It is already stated, that in oxides the charge transport is in principle,

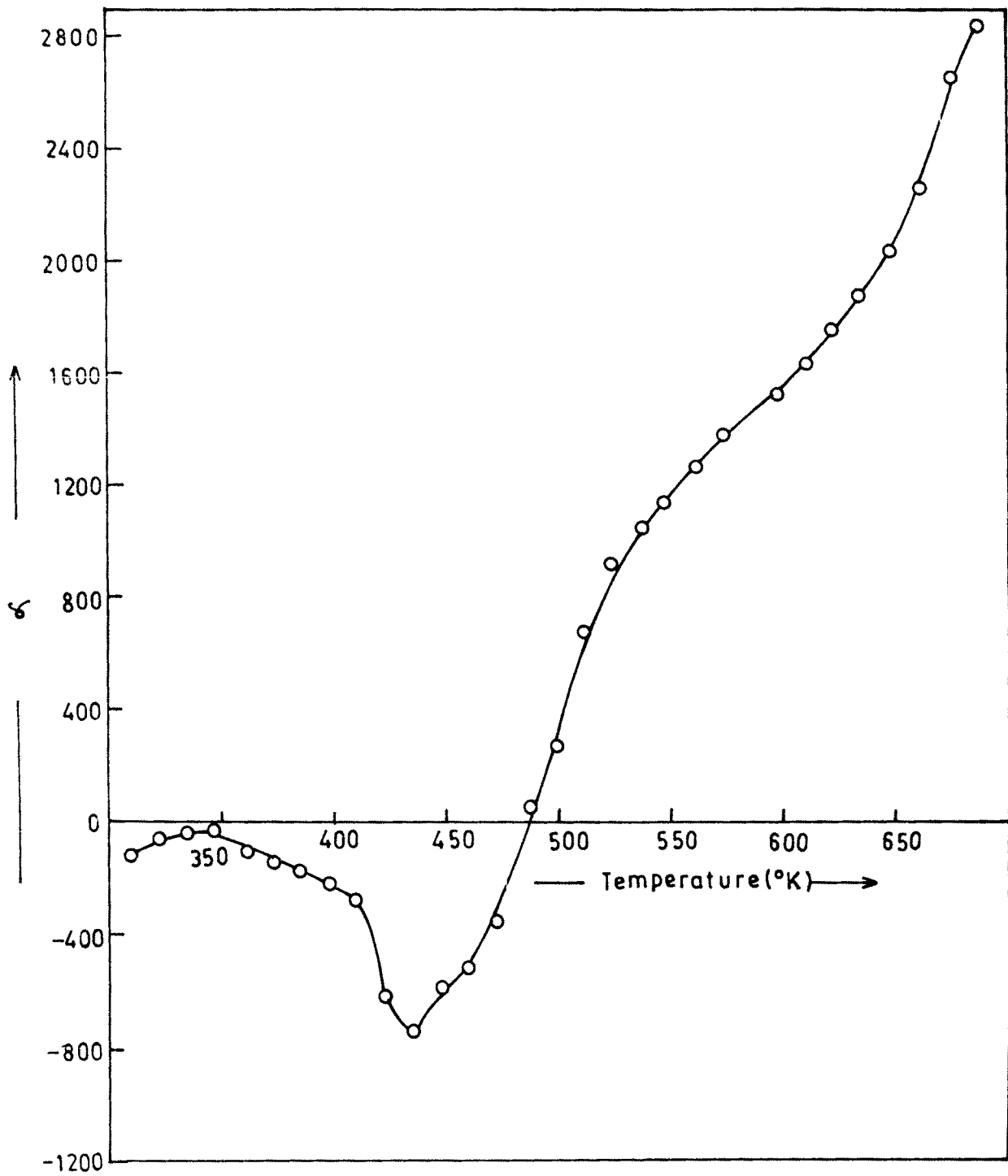


Fig. 3.11 - Temperature variation of Thermoelectric power for Ce<sub>2</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>.

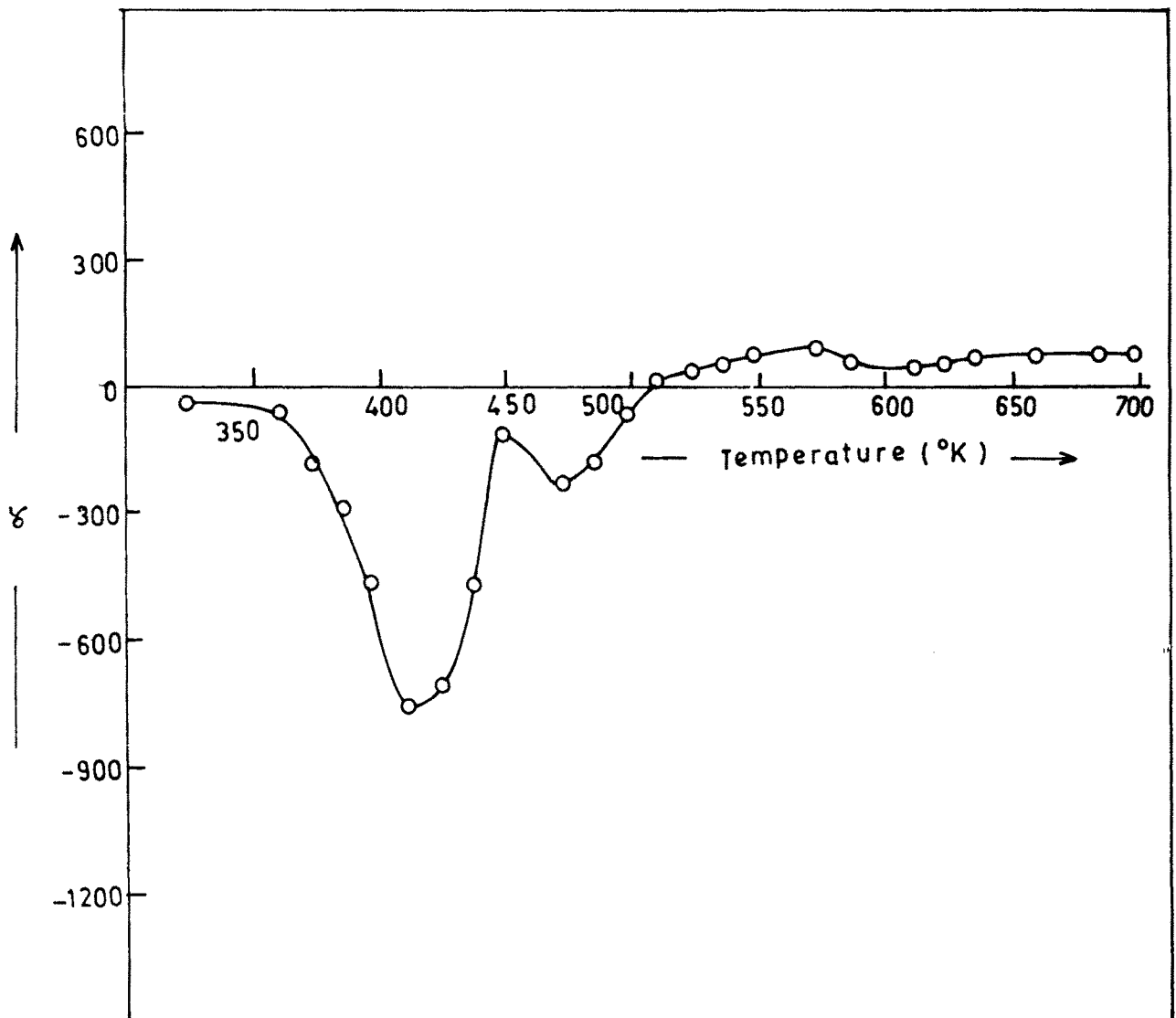


Fig. 3.12 - Temperature variation of Thermoelectric power for  $Y_2Ti_2O_7$ .

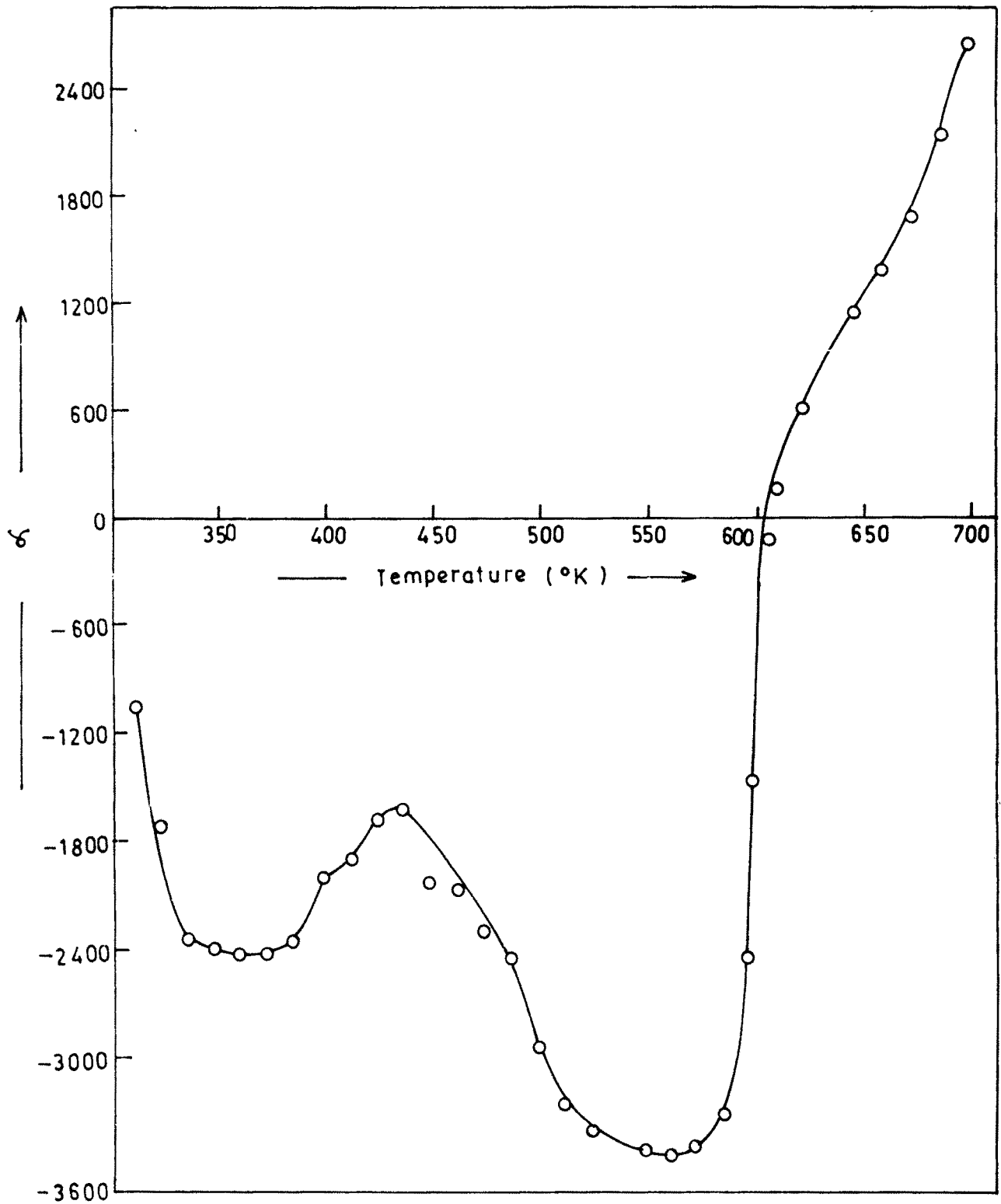
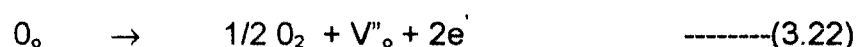


Fig. 3.13 — Temperature variation of Thermoelectric power for  $Y_2Sn_2O_7$

characterized by both ionic and electronic conduction, often one type of charge carriers dominates the charge transport but transition to other type of conduction may occur at certain temperature and / or atmospheres as a result, a change in composition or stoichiometry of the solids. In pyrochlores depending on the type of the substituent ion as well as temperature and oxygen pressure interaction with atmosphere can take place according to either of the following reactions.



and hence under certain conditions p or n-type electronic defects exists in these solids. Hence the observed variations for the present system may due to oxygen concentration in the material.

T. Van. Dijk et al (5) reported that, if the oxygen vacancies are completely ordered in stoichiometric materials, vacancies are changed into non-occupied structural sites. The concentration of mobile species then varies strongly immediately around the stoichiometric composition, while it is mainly determined by the intrinsic defect equilibria of the pyrochlore structure. Non- stoichiometric compositions can be considered as stoichiometric compounds doped with one of the end members of the binary system. This causes introduction of extrinsic defects in the oxygen sublattice. Both effects mentioned above will influence the conductivity.

## REFERENCES

1. M.A. Subramanian , G Aravamudan and G.V.Subba Rao;  
Prog Solid St. Chem. 15, (1983)
2. Riched M. Fulrath, Joseph A. Pask ; Proceeding of Third Materials  
Sysmposium Ceramic Microstructure, (1968)
3. B.Vishwanathan, V.R.K Murthy " Ferrite Materials " Narosa Publishing  
House, New Delhi. P.No.38 (1990)
4. C. C. Wang, S. A. Akbar, W. Chen, V. D. Patton;  
J. of Materials Sc.30 1628 (1995 )
5. T. Van Dijk, K. J. De Vries and A. J. Burggraaf ;  
Phys.Stat. Sol. (58)a, 117(1980)