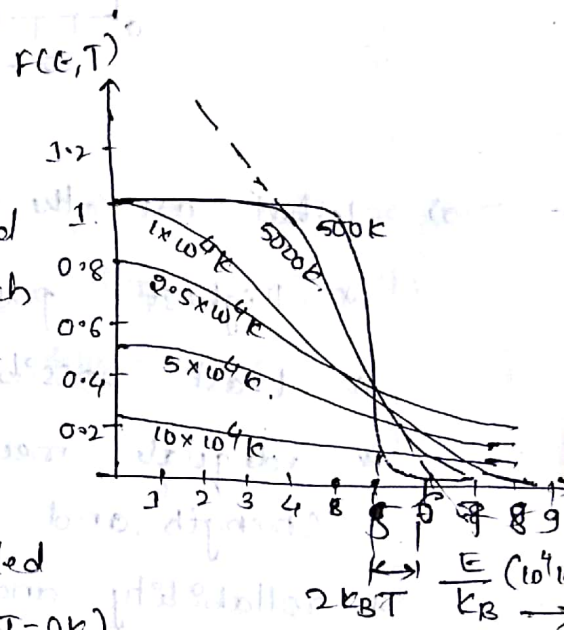


Electrical Engineering Materials

1) a) Explain Fermi Dirac distribution by using sketches. [10 Marks]

At finite temperatures electrons (Fermions) occupy the density of states according to the fermi dirac distribution.

$$f(E, T) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1}$$



The chemical potential  $\mu$  is determined the number  $N$  of valence electrons, which occupy the energy levels according to the Pauli principle.

\* The Fermi level  $E_F$  is the topmost filled level at  $T=0K$ , defined by  $E_F = \mu(T=0K)$ .

At finite  $T$ :  $f(E_F) = 1/2$ ; for  $k_B T \ll E_F$

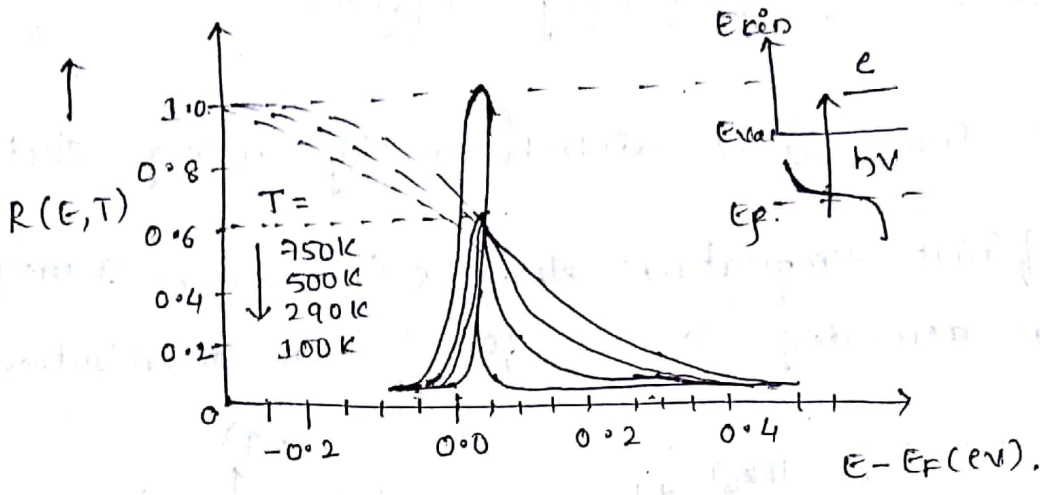
classical Boltzmann limit for  $E - E_F \gg k_B T$ :

$$f(E, T) = e^{-(E - \mu)/k_B T}$$

The width of the fermi dirac distribution at finite  $T$  is approximated by the tangent of  $f(E, T)$  at  $E_F$ , which intersects at  $E_F \pm 2k_B T$ .

→ with increasing temperature only a small fraction of the electron distribution is excited.

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- b) What are the general properties of conducting materials? [06 marks]
- \* Highest possible conductivity [least resistivity].
  - \* Least possible temperature co-efficient of resistance.
  - \* adequate mechanical strength. In particular, high tensile strength, and absence of brittleness.
  - \* rollability and drawability is more
  - \* Good weldability and solderability to ensure high reliability
  - \* Adequate resistance to corrosion.

c) A copper wire and an aluminium wire, have same length and resistance. If same current passes through a copper and aluminium wire have same length and resistance, which wire will have higher temperature rise? Give justification. [04 marks]

→ Aluminium wire  
 Cu wire  
 L = Same  
 d = Same

But we know that

$$R = \rho \frac{L}{a} = \rho \frac{L}{\frac{\pi}{4} d^2}$$

here  $L$  &  $d$  are same for conductors  
 $\therefore R = \rho$

$\rho \rightarrow$  specific Resistance.  $R \rightarrow$  Resistance.

$$\rho_{Cu} \rightarrow 1.68 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m.$$

$$\rho_{Al} \rightarrow 2.86 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m$$

$$\rho = R \frac{A}{l} = \frac{\rho m}{l}$$

23

$$P = I^2 R.$$

= Here Cu having less resistance as compare to Al.

2)

a) Draw the typical hysteresis loop for a ferromagnetic materials and explain. Show the residual magnetism and co-ercive force on a loop and define them. [10 Marks]

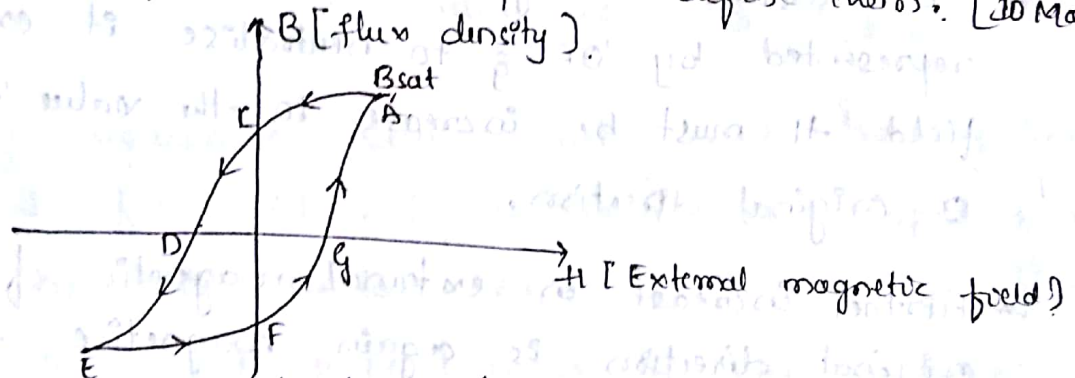


fig - hysteresis loop.

\* In ferromagnetic material the flux density  $B$  increases, when external magnetic field applied to it is increased. when material reaches saturation state that increase in flux density  $B$  almost ceases even though external magnetic field  $H$  increases.

\* At external magnetic field  $H=0$ , the magnetic material is still magnetised and the flux density has the value 'D.C.' in the fig shows above. This is called as Remanent flux or residual magnetism.



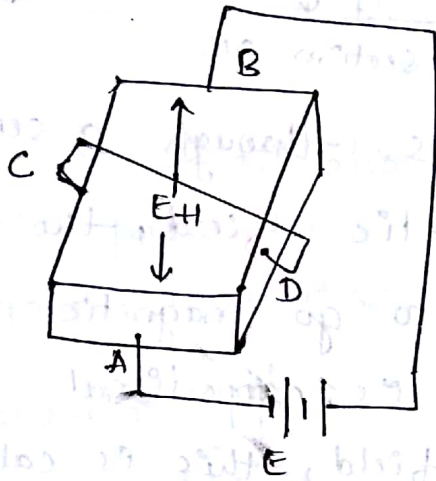
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- \* In order to demagnetize the material the magnetic field  $H$  must be reversed and when it reaches the value 'OD'. The flux density becomes zero.
- \* The applied magnetising force ( $H$ ) in the reverse direction which causes  $B$  to be zero is called as co-reverse force.
- \* Further increase in the external magnetic field in the reverse direction will increase flux density ( $B$ ) in the reverse direction.
- \* The residual magnetism in reverse direction is represented by 'OF' & to neutralise it external magnetic field  $H$  must be increase to the value 'O'g in the +ve or original direction.
- \* Further increase in external magnetic field ( $H$ ) in original direction is again magnetise the material in the original direction & the saturation occurs at point A.
- \* The loop ACDEFGA is called hysteresis loop.
- \* The energy required in taking a material through a complete cycle of magnetization is proportional to the area enclosed by the hysteresis loop. The shape & area of the loop depends on the details of internal structure of composition of ferromagnetic materials.

Defin

[10 Marks]

b) Define Hall effect and derive the expression for the Hall Voltage ( $V_H$ ) by using necessary sketches.



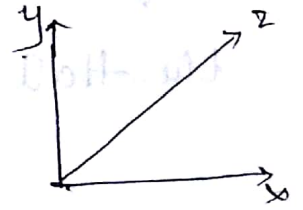
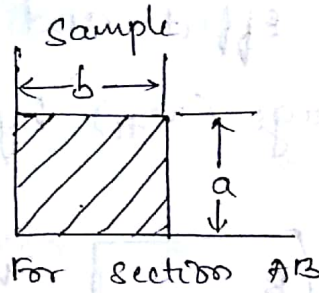
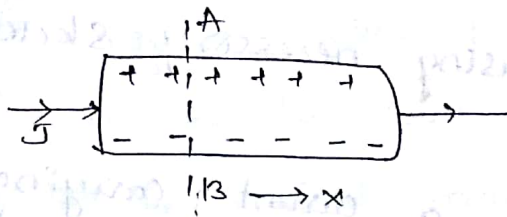
When a current carrying conductor is placed in a magnetic field and the direction of the magnetic field is perpendicular to current flow a transverse electric potential gradient develops in a conductor. This is called as "Hall effect".

The fig represents semiconductor bar having contacts on of all four sides. If a voltage  $E_1$  is applied across the two opposite contact A & B, a current will flow. If the bar is placed perpendicular to the magnetic field B and electric potential  $E_H$ , is generated between other two contact C & D. This voltage  $E_H$  is direct measure of the magnetic field strength and can be detected with a simple voltmeter.

Hall effect generator may be used to measure magnetic field that has a strength  $10^6$ , that of magnetic field of the earth.



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When a current flows through a semiconductor bar placed in a magnetic field, the voltage is developed at right angle to the magnetic field and current flow. This voltage is proportional to current & intensity of the magnetic field, this is called Hall Effect.

The current density  $J$  resulting from applied electric field  $E_x$  is in  $x$  direction.

The electrons drift with an average velocity  $v_x$  in  $x$  direction.

The electric field is in  $y$  direction and is given by

$$E_y = B \cdot v_x \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

In the steady state, a Hall voltage,  $V_H$  is established in the  $y$  direction, given by.

$$V_H = E_y a = B \cdot v_x \cdot a \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

The current density in the sample is given by

$$J_x = n_e v_x \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where  $n_e = n_0$  of conduction electrons per  $m^3$ .

$$J_x = \frac{I}{a \cdot b} = n_e v_x$$

$$I = n_e v_x \cdot a \cdot b$$

$$v_x = \frac{I}{n_e \cdot a \cdot b}$$

On simplification.

$$N_H = \frac{I \cdot B}{Ne \cdot b}$$

$$N_H = \frac{I}{Ne} \cdot \frac{B}{b}$$

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3)

- a) What is polarization? And explain the
- i) Ionic polarisation. [10 Marks]
  - ii) Dipolar polarisation.

Polarization.

It is defined as a definite orientation of electric dipoles due to the influence of applied electric field.

i) Ionic polarization.

The ionic polarization takes place when some of the atoms in a molecule have an excess positive and negative charges.

When electric field is applied, this electric field will tend to shift positive ion related to negative ion.

So this ionic polarization measures the shift of ion related to each other.

ii) Dipolar polarization.

When an external field  $E$  is applied to a molecule carrying permanent dipoles then the dipole moment will tend to align along the direction of external applied field. The orientation of the permanent dipole



22 to the polarization  $P$  is called the orientation  
or dipolar polarization.

\* The orientational polarization may be written as,

$$\text{orientational polarization} = \frac{m^2}{3kT}$$

where

$m \rightarrow$  permanent dipole moment

$k \rightarrow$  Boltzmann's Constant.

$T \rightarrow$  absolute temperature

3) b) Discuss about Dipolar relaxation. [06 marks]

The frequency dependence of the orientational polarization in liquids and glassy substances is much more important than that of electronic or ionic polarisation. This is because orientational polarization gives rise to dielectric losses in the frequency ranges between zero and many thousand megacycles, depending upon the substance.

In this case of rapidly varying fields there is no orientation polarisation. It is important to know which field oscillations should be considered rapid. When the relaxation time is much greater than the oscillation period, there is no orientational polarisation. When the field is switched off, the dipoles assume a random orientation. However this does not occur instantaneously and the polarisation diminishes in accordance with an exponential law. The rate of this decrease is described by the relaxation time ( $\tau$ ). The time by which the polarisation decreases to  $1/e$  of its original value.



Station

In the simple case we may assume that the polarisation follows the exponential law  $P = P_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ .

where  $\tau$  is the relaxation time.

$P$  is only that part of the polarisation, which is associated with permanent dipoles.

If instead of switching off, the field is changed suddenly to a value for which the equilibrium polarisation is  $P_0$ , then the rate of change of polarisation is given by,

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{P_0 - P}{\tau} \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$P + \tau \frac{dP}{dt} = P_0$$

When alternating field is applied, we may write.

$$P + \tau \frac{dP}{dt} = P = \frac{Nm^2}{3kT} E_0 e^{j\omega t}$$

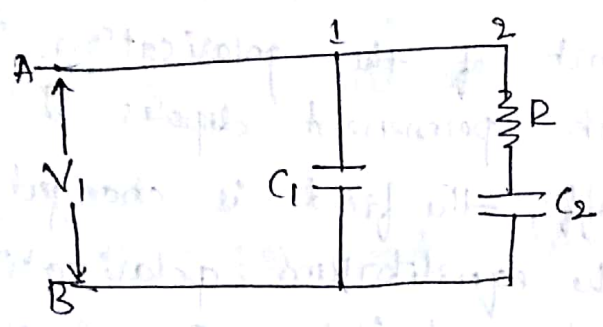
$$P = \frac{Nm^2}{3kT} \cdot \frac{E_0 e^{j\omega t}}{1 + j\omega\tau} \longrightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Thus when the external field is changed to a new value it takes a finite time before the free dipoles in a liquid or solid can take up their new equilibrium positions. As a consequence, the dipolar polarisability ( $\alpha_d$ ) is frequency dependent and from eq<sup>n</sup>  $\textcircled{2}$  may be shown that

$$\alpha_d = \frac{\alpha_{d0}}{1 + j\omega\tau} \longrightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

where  $\alpha_{d0} \rightarrow$  low frequency polarisability  
 $\tau \rightarrow$  Time constant involved in the orientation process.

26 The following fig is used to explain the dielectric relaxation. The presence of R is one of the branches of this circuit accounts for viscous type of forces.



For steady voltage  $V_1$ , we have.

$$q_1 = C_1 V_1 = \text{Electronic or Ionic polarisation.}$$

$$q_2 = C_2 V_1 = \text{Dipolar polarisation.}$$

If terminals A & B are short-circuited the charge disappears immediately. But the charge on  $C_2$  decays according to the relation,

$$q_2 = q_{20} e^{-t/RC_2}$$

where  $q_{20} \rightarrow$  initial charge =  $C_2 V_1$  and relaxation

$\tau = RC_2$   $\therefore$  The admittance between the terminals A & B

given by

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{Y}_{AB} &= j\omega C_1 + \frac{j\omega C_2}{1 + j\omega RC_2} \\ &= j\omega C_1 + \frac{j\omega C_2}{1 + j\omega \tau} \end{aligned}$$

If the equivalent complex capacity of the combination the circuit elements be represented by  $\epsilon^*$ .

where  $\epsilon^* = \epsilon_r^* A/d$  then.

$$\begin{aligned} j\omega C &= j\omega \left[ C + \frac{C_2}{1 + j\omega \tau} \right] \\ &= j\omega \epsilon_r^* A/d \end{aligned}$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = \frac{dC}{A} + \frac{dC_2/A}{1 + j\omega \tau}$$



Ex 2.1  
 Example 2.1

$$\omega = 0$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = (d/A) (Q_1 + Q_2)$$

$$= \epsilon_0 \rightarrow \text{static value}$$

$$\omega \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = dQ_1/A$$

$$= \epsilon_\infty$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = \epsilon_\infty + \frac{\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_\infty}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = j\epsilon_r''$$

Hence for alternating field, the dipolar part of the dielectric constant is a function of the static value  $\epsilon_0$  and of  $\omega\tau$ .

Also,

$$\epsilon_r' = \frac{\epsilon_\infty \omega^2 \tau^2 + \epsilon_0}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$$

$$\epsilon_r'' = \frac{\omega\tau (\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_\infty)}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\omega\tau (\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_\infty)}{\epsilon_\infty \omega^2 \tau^2 + \epsilon_0}$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = \epsilon_r' - j\epsilon_r''$$

$$= 1 + \frac{N \alpha d_0}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{N \alpha d_0}{\epsilon_0 (1 + j\omega\tau)}$$

So that

$$\epsilon_r' = 1 + \frac{N \alpha d_0}{\epsilon_0 (1 + \omega^2 \tau^2)}$$

$$\epsilon_r'' = \frac{\alpha d_0 \omega\tau N}{\epsilon_0 (1 + \omega^2 \tau^2)}$$

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3) c) Give the reason, why, hydrogen gas is more cool than Nitrogen and Air?

→ Hydrogen having lighter weight than ~~any~~ air and nitrogen. Hydrogen is "7" times lighter than air, so it can penetrate, all the internal parts of the machine and it can take the heat very easily from the core part of the machine.

Therefore, hydrogen is the best coolant than air and nitrogen. That's why we are using hydrogen as coolant in big machines or turboalternators.

4) a) Classify and list the solid, liquid and gaseous insulating materials. Suggest where these insulators are used in electric field applications. [6 Marks]

\* Solid insulating material.

1) Mica and Mica products.

2) ~~Asbestos~~ and Asbestos products

3) Glass

4) porcelain.

\* Liquid insulating material

1) Mineral oil.

2) Transformer oil.

3) Vegetable oil.



## \* Gaseous insulating materials.

- 1) Air
- 2) Nitrogen
- 3)  $SF_6$ .

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Uses.

## \* Solid Insulating materials

- 1) Mica is used in the commutator segments.
- 2) glass porcelain is used pin insulators in overhead.
- 3) plastic is used in switches, sockets, wirings, cables etc.

## \* Liquid Insulating material

- 1) Used in Transformers, reactors, switches, circuit breakers and rheostats.
- 2) It is used to improve the insulating property of solid insulating material by removing the gases and air.
- 3) It acts as good heat dissipation media.
- 4) It is used as an extinguisher in circuit breakers.

## \* Gaseous Insulating material

- 1)  $SF_6$  → Used in circuit breaker.
- 2) Hydrogen → Used in large machines.
- 3) Nitrogen → Used in machines.
- 4) Air → Used as Coolant & insulating material.

4) <sup>30</sup>  
b) Explain Dielectric loss with expressions.

Consider a parallel plate condenser filled with a dielectric material characterized by  $\epsilon'$ . Let the electrode area be  $A$  and the plate separation be  $d$ . The admittance  $\bar{Y}$  of the capacitor for any angular frequency  $\omega$  is given by

$$\bar{Y} = G + jB.$$

where  $G$  &  $B$  are conductance and susceptance, respectively.

$$\bar{Y} = G + j\omega C.$$

where  $C \rightarrow$  Capacitance which may depend on frequency.

$$C = \epsilon' A/d,$$

The conductance  $G$  arises because of the conversion of part of the electrical energy into heat, but mainly because of the complex dielectric constant.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Thus } \bar{Y} &= \frac{A}{d} (\sigma + j\omega \epsilon') \\ &= \frac{A}{d} j\omega \epsilon^* \end{aligned}$$

where  $\epsilon^*$  is the complex permittivity such that

$$j\omega \epsilon^* = \sigma + j\omega \epsilon'$$

$$\epsilon^* = \epsilon' - j\sigma/\omega = \epsilon' - j\epsilon''$$

$$= |\epsilon^*| \delta$$

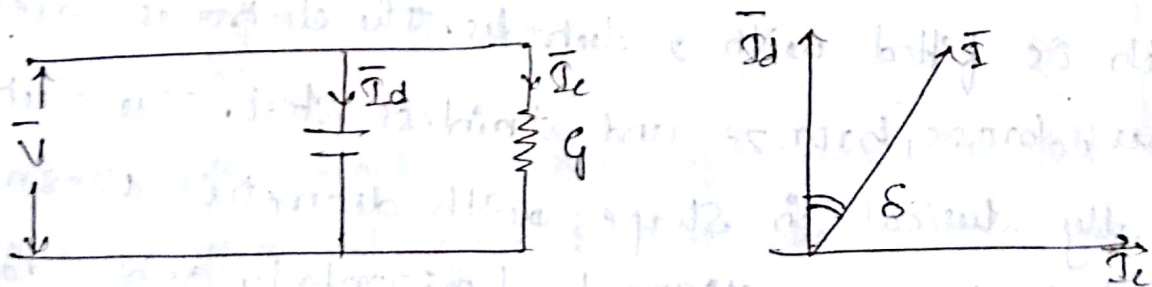
where  $\epsilon^* = \frac{\sigma}{\omega}$



Thus the absorption of energy by the material in an alternating field is proportional to the imaginary part of the dielectric constant. The dielectric is said to have losses which are characterized by the loss tangent.

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\epsilon''}{\epsilon'} = \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon'} = \frac{g}{B} = \frac{g}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{\omega R}$$

We may represent the condenser containing the lossy dielectric by an equivalent circuit which consists of a pure capacitance and a parallel resistance, the latter being inversely proportional to  $\epsilon'' \omega$ . Such a circuit is shown in fig below.

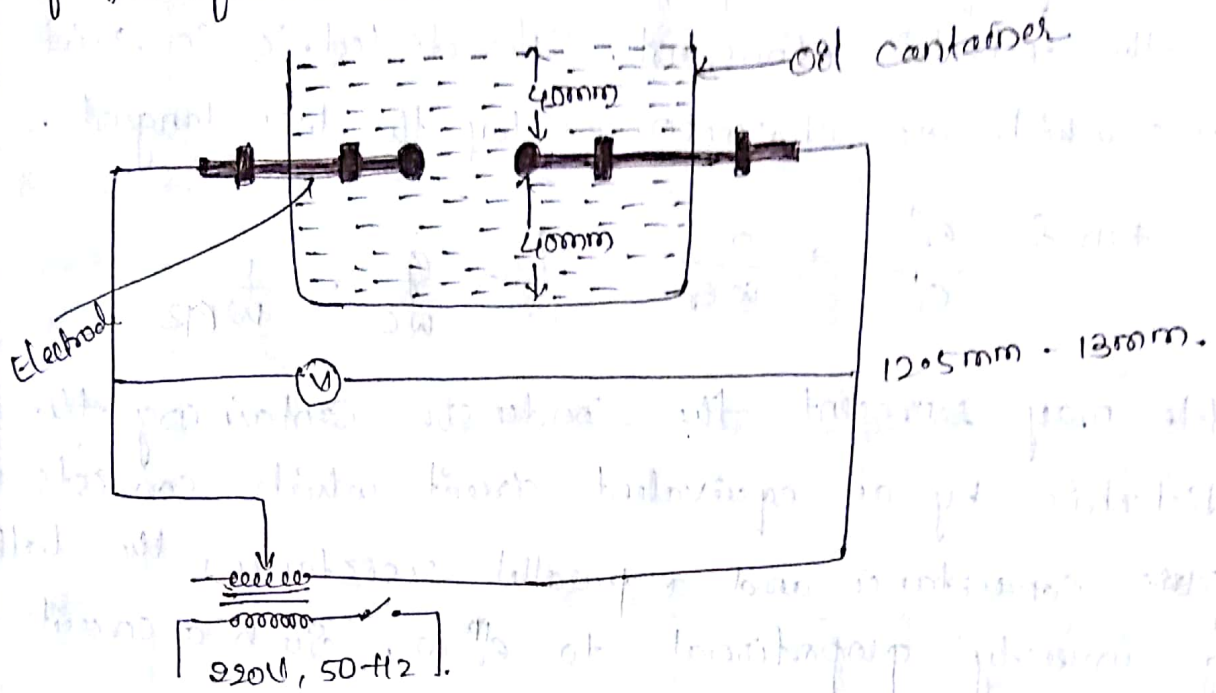


In this circuit  $\bar{I}_c \rightarrow$  Conduction current, which is responsible for the dielectric losses and is in phase with the applied voltage.

$\bar{I}_d \rightarrow$  displacement current

$\bar{I} \rightarrow$  phasor sum of  $\bar{I}_d$  &  $\bar{I}_c$ .

4) c) Explain the procedure for testing the dielectric of transformer with neat sketch.



The oil under test should be kept in a container which is fitted with 2 electrodes. The electrodes are made up of Copper, brass, bronze and stainless steel. The electrodes are normally spherical in shape with diameter 12.5mm to 13mm. The electrodes are arranged horizontally and gap between them is [0.4mm to 0.02mm]

The oil in a container should be 40mm above the electrodes and 40mm below the electrodes.

After fixing up the gap properly between two electrodes a high voltage is applied across the two electrodes through step up transformer. Increase the voltage from lower value to higher value still there is a spark in between two electrodes. Note this value of voltage carefully by voltmeter, because the needle will come to zero.



positions immediately. after the sparks takes place. This voltage noted on the voltmeter, the spark occurs is the breakdown voltage is the dielectric strength of the oil or it is the maximum voltage the oil can withstand.

According to standard specifications the oil should be able to stand 40kV for 1 minute, with a gap of 4mm to 0.02mm between the electrode with diameter of electrodes as 13mm. The test should be conducted periodically and if oil fails to withstand 40kV for 1 minute it should be change.

PART - B

5) a) Explain with block diagram of solar photovoltaic power generating system and give its V-I characteristics and equivalent circuit diagram.

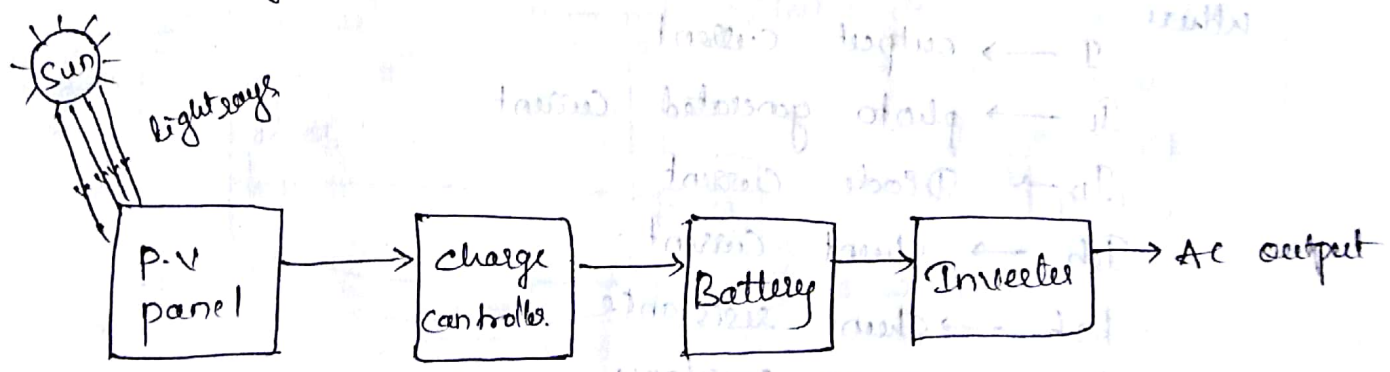


fig a) Block diagram of solar cell.



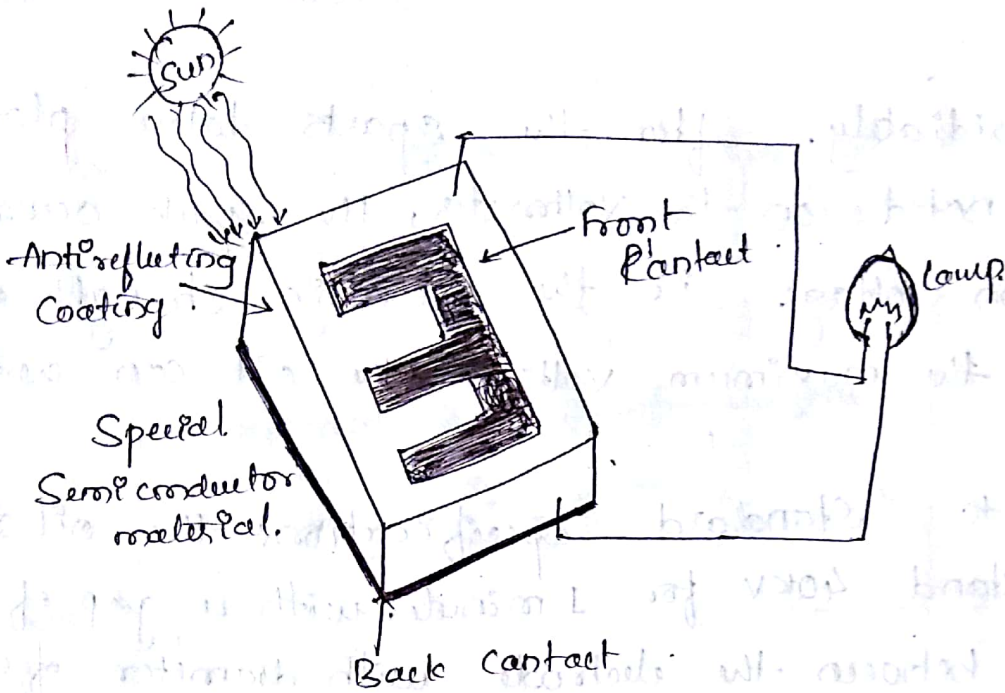
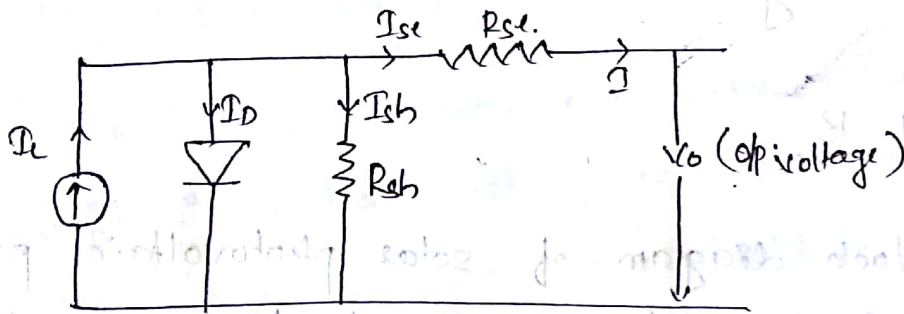


fig 6) Solar cell.

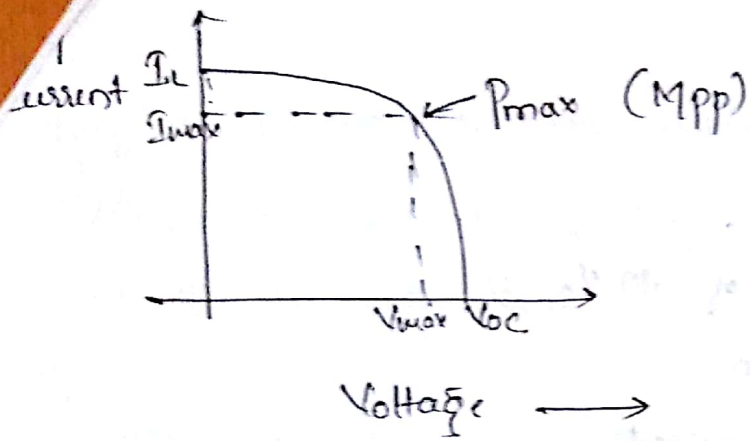
### VI characteristics of Solar cell



$$I = I_L - I_D - I_{sh}$$

where

- $I \rightarrow$  output current
- $I_L \rightarrow$  photo generated current
- $I_D \rightarrow$  Diode current
- $I_{sh} \rightarrow$  Shunt current
- $R_{sh} \rightarrow$  Shunt resistance
- $R_{se} \rightarrow$  Series resistance
- $V_o \rightarrow$  output voltage

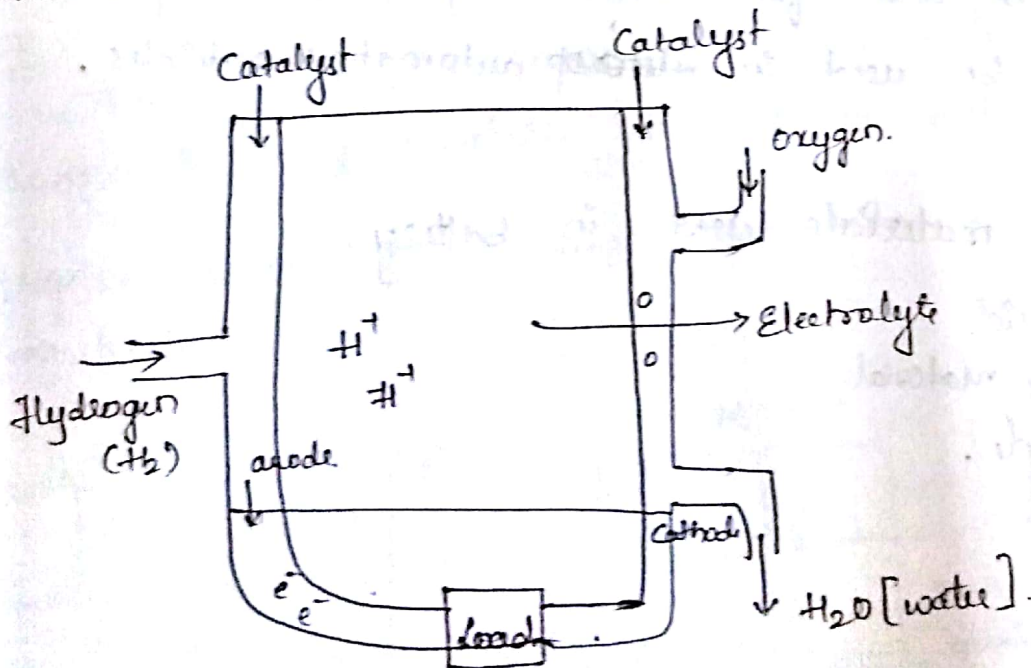


Fill factor - ? 31

Where  $M_{pp} \rightarrow$  maximum power point.

5) Write a note on fuel cell.

A fuel cell is an electrochemical energy conversion device which produces electricity, water and heat. i.e. it produces an electric current from chemical reaction.



It has two, electrodes separated by an electrolyte.

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### Advantages

- \* High Conversion efficiency of 70%.
- \* Less atmospheric pollution.
- \* Less cooling water is required.
- \* Space required is less.

### Disadvantages

- \* High initial cost.
- \* Less service life.

### Application

- \* It can be used for electric lamps, small pumps & motors.
- \* Can also be used in ~~auto~~ automotive vehicles.

5) c) List the materials used in battery.

- \* Lead-acid
- \* Insulating material.
- \* Electrolyte.
- \* Catalysts.
- \* ~~...~~



Define magnetostriction explain with graphs. 33

def<sup>n</sup> → The change of length of a ferromagnetic material, when it is magnetised is known as magnetostriction.

OR  
When a ferromagnetic substance is magnetised there are small changes in its dimensions, this phenomenon is called as magnetostriction.

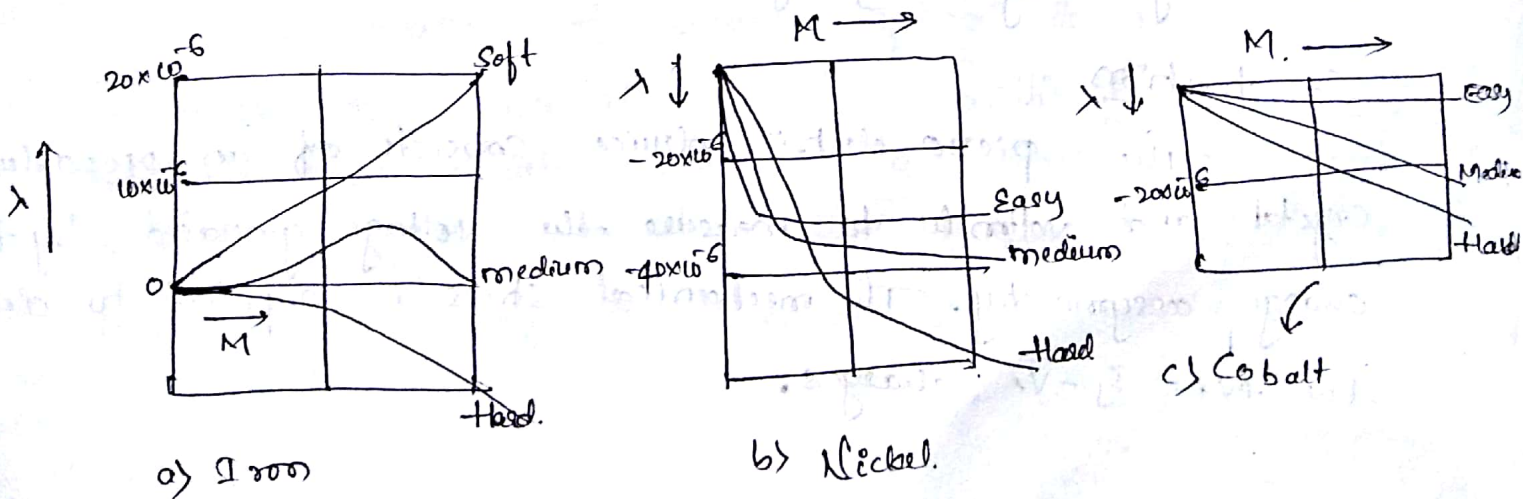
the magnetostriction co-efficient ( $\lambda$ ).

def<sup>n</sup> → The increase in length per unit length of the crystal in the direction of magnetization.

i.e.  $\Delta l/l$

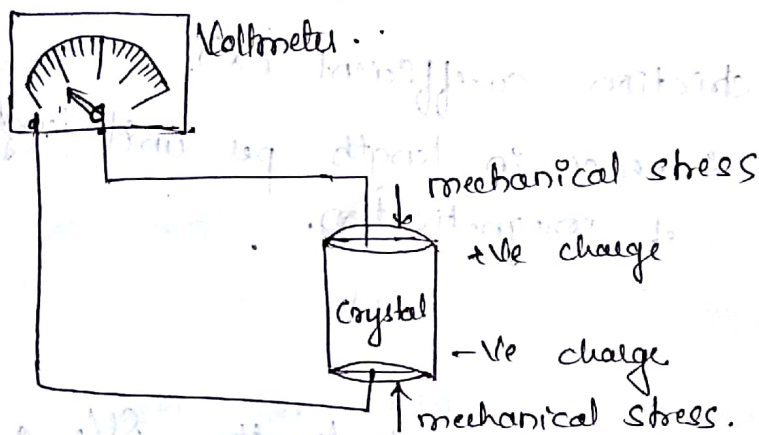
OR The fractional change in length,  $\Delta l/l$  associated with the change in magnetisation from '0' to saturation.

\* Negative values of ' $\lambda$ ' shows contraction in the direction of magnetization.



Q. What is piezo-electricity? Explain the construction & working of piezo-electric device.

→ piezo electricity means it is the ability of the some materials to generate an electrical charge in response to applied mechanical stress. The fig below shows the piezo electric crystal.



The +ve & -ve electric charges are separated, but symmetrically distributed so that the crystal overall is electricity neutral. When stress is applied, this symmetry is disturbed and the charge asymmetry generates a voltage.

### Construction

The piezo electric device consists of a piezoelectric crystal and voltmeter to measure the voltage generated by the charge asymmetry. The mechanical stress is required to separate the +ve & -ve charges.



Write a note on smart hydrogels [4 marks] 33

→ Smart hydrogels are defined as the polymer network able to respond to external stimuli through abrupt in the physical nature of the network.

\* the types of stimuli that affects the smart hydrogel are physical factors and chemical factors.

i) physical factors.

a) Temperature

b) light

c) electric forces

d) magnetic forces

e) mechanical forces.

ii) chemical stimuli.

a) pH value

b) solvent exchange.

The reaction of smart hydrogel is always an expansion or contraction within milliseconds, upon the stimulation. Essentially when a gel swells, it absorbs an additional fluid, into it. When it deflates, it expels these fluid out of its membrane.



8) a) explain the thermoplastic and thermosetting materials.  
34 give examples for each. [6 marks].

### → Thermoplastic materials

Thermoplastic materials are the synthetic materials. These materials are softer when an application of heat with or without pressure. But they require cooling set them to required shape.

- \* When thermoplastic materials heated at low temperature  $140^{\circ}\text{C}$  then they can be moulded required shape without any change in chemical structure.
- \* They can be reused after scrap.
- \* They are produced from organic substances like oil and coal products.
- \* By adding the fillers like root, mica, wood, glass, fibre, textile are added to get required shape.
- \* They are widely used for floor tiles, walls, plugs, switches, holders, cabinet of radio's, decorative articles, insulation for wires, cables, PVC feltos, tapes, PVC sheets in the batteries, wirings.

examples →

- i) PVC
- ii) Cellulose acetate
- iii) polystyrene
- iv) polyhydro carbons.

Q) What are the general properties of ceramics and how it is applicable to capacitor?

→ general properties of ceramics.

- \* It is hard, strong & dense.
- \* Stronger in compression than in tension.
- \* Not affected by chemical action except with strong acids and alkalis.
- \* Completely stable at high temperatures.
- \* Excellent dielectric properties.
- \* Weak in impact strength.

Application of ceramics to capacitor.