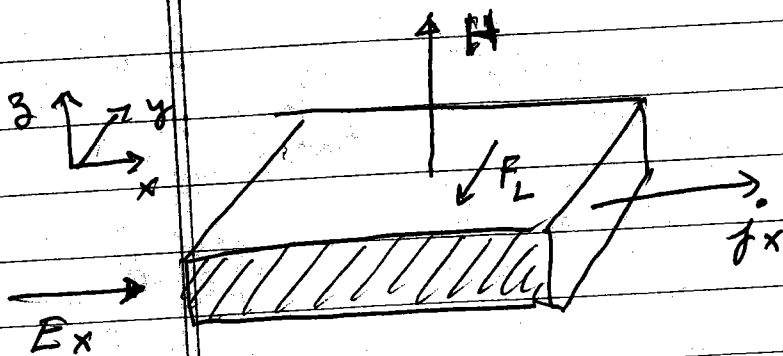


Hall effect (1879) - determines the sign of the charges that carry the electric current in a metal

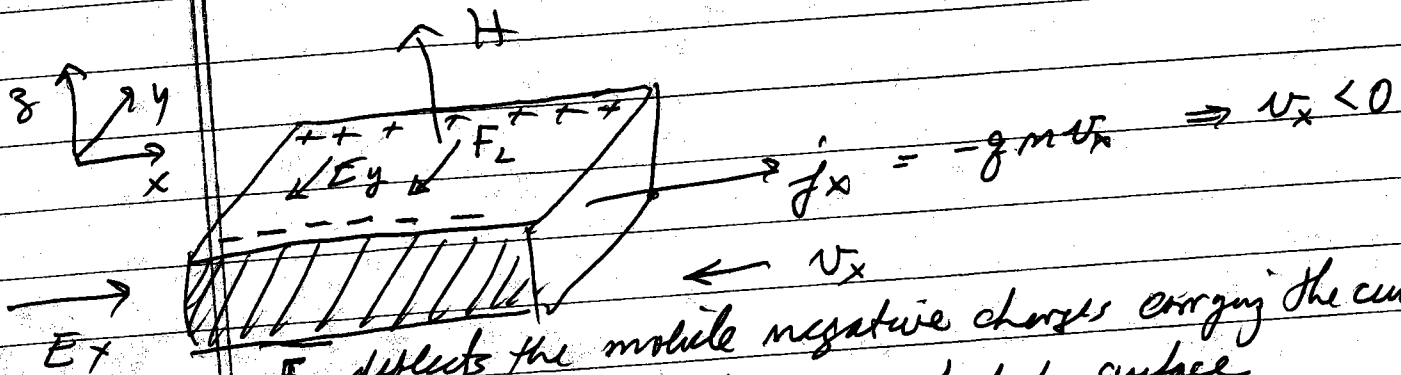
electron motion in combined static electric and magnetic fields



Electric field E_x applied in \hat{x} direction produces flowing electric current j_x in \hat{x} direction. Magnetic field H in \hat{z} direction exerts

Lorentz force $\vec{j} \times \vec{H}$ on the ~~charges~~ moving charges carrying the current \vec{j} . For \vec{j} in \hat{x} direction and \vec{H} in \hat{z} direction, this Lorentz force \vec{F}_L is in the $-\hat{y}$ direction. \vec{F}_L deflects the charge carriers to the side wall of the wire (the shaded wall in the figure) where they build up and create a surface charge density. The surface charge density produces an electric field E_y in \hat{y} direction. For a steady state situation, the force from E_y will exactly cancel out the Lorentz force F_L . If w is the width of the wire, then measuring the "Hall voltage" $V_y = E_y w$ allows one to determine the sign of the charges that carry the electric current.

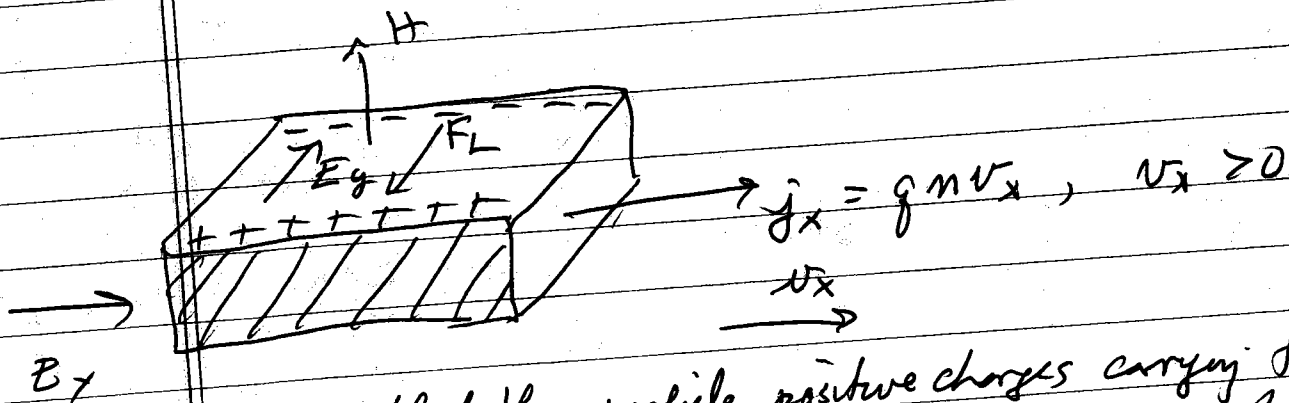
If current is carried by negative charges $-q$, then



E_x deflects the mobile negative charges carrying the current, and negative charges build up on shaded surface (neutrality of system \Rightarrow absence of negative charge, i.e. positive charge, builds up on opposite surface)

The electric field E_y is in $-\hat{y}$ direction and Hall voltage is negative.

If current is carried by positive charges $+q$, then



E_x deflects the mobile positive charges carrying the current and positive charge builds up on the shaded surface

The electric field E_y is in the $+\hat{y}$ direction and the Hall voltage is positive.

For most (but not all) metals one finds a negative Hall voltage. This established that it was negatively charged electrons that carry the electric current in most metals.

Quantities to measure

Hall coefficient $R_H \equiv \frac{E_y}{j_x H}$

since we expect force from E_y to exactly balance out Lorentz force F_L in steady state, we expect R_H to be independent of H

magnetoresistance $\rho(H) \equiv \frac{E_x}{j_x}$

We can compute both R_H and ρ using the Drude model.

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = -e(\vec{E} + \frac{\vec{p}}{mc} \times \vec{H}) - \frac{\vec{p}}{\tau} = 0 \text{ in steady state}$$

for x and y components

$$0 = -eE_x - \frac{eH}{mc} p_y - \frac{p_x}{\tau}$$

$$0 = -eE_y + \frac{eH}{mc} p_x - \frac{p_y}{\tau}$$

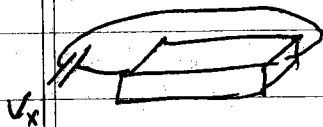
$$\omega_c \equiv \frac{eH}{mc}$$

cyclotron frequency = angular frequency of a charged particle in circular motion in uniform H

$$\textcircled{1} \quad eE_x = -\omega_c p_y - \frac{p_x}{\tau}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad eE_y = \omega_c p_x - \frac{p_y}{\tau}$$

In steady state, current flows only in \hat{x} direction.



No current flows out the side walls of the wire $\Rightarrow p_y = 0$

with $p_y = 0$,

$$\textcircled{1} \Rightarrow p_x = -eE_x \tau$$

$$j_x = -mev_x = -\frac{me p_x}{m} = \frac{me^2 \tau}{m} E_x$$

$$\boxed{\frac{E_x}{j_x} = \frac{m}{me^2 \tau} = \rho}$$

$$\text{magnetoresistance } \rho(H) = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{m}{me^2 \tau}$$

same as ordinary d.c. resistivity ρ when $H=0$

In Drude model, $\rho(H)$ is independent of H !

agreed with expt measurements by Drude. More modern expts however do find ρ can vary with H .

$$\textcircled{2} \Rightarrow E_y = \frac{\omega_c}{e} p_x = -\omega_c \tau E_x$$

$$\text{Hall coefficient } R_H = \frac{E_y}{j_x H} = \frac{\left(\frac{\omega_c}{e} p_x\right)}{\left(-\frac{me p_x}{m}\right) H} = \frac{-\omega_c \tau}{me^2 H}$$

$$\text{use } \omega_c = \frac{eH}{mc} \Rightarrow R_H = -\frac{\left(\frac{eH}{mc}\right) \tau}{me^2 H} = -\frac{1}{mec}$$

$$R_H = -\frac{1}{mec}$$

Hall coefficient independent of H

But also, R_H is independent of our phenomenological parameter τ , the relaxation time.

R_H is something we can directly test against experiment since it only depends on the electron density n , which can be easily calculated.

In practice R_H is found to depend on H and T and also on sample preparation. But at low T , high H ($\sim 10^4$ gauss) very pure samples, R_H is found to approach a constant value, often very close to the Drude value

	metal	valence	$-\frac{1}{R_H mec}$	(=1 for Drude)
alkalis	Li	1	0.8	Drude prediction very good for alkali metals which have single s shell electron as valence electron
	Na	1	1.2	
	K	1	1.1	
	Rb	1	1.0	
	Cs	1	0.9	
	Cu	1	1.5	
	Ag	1	1.3	
	Au	1	1.5	
	Be	2	-0.2	sign is negative! ⇒ current is carried by objects with positive sign
	Mg	2	-0.4	
	In	3	-0.3	
	Al	3	-0.3	

where $\sigma_{dc} = \frac{ne^2\tau}{m}$ is d.c. Drude conductivity

as $\omega \rightarrow 0$, $\sigma(\omega) \rightarrow \sigma_{dc}$

as $\omega \rightarrow \infty$, $\sigma(\omega) \rightarrow \frac{ne^2\tau}{-i\omega\tau m} = \frac{ine^2}{m\omega}$ indep of τ

for $\omega\tau \gg 1$, i.e. $\omega \gg \frac{1}{\tau}$, oscillation is fast compared to collision rate, so $\sigma(\omega)$ becomes independent of τ .

Electromagnetic wave propagation in a metal

approx 1) In CGS units, for a propagating electromagnetic plane wave $|\vec{E}| = |\vec{H}|$.

so for the forces the EM wave exerts on a conduction electron

$$\frac{|\vec{F}_{\text{mag}}|}{|\vec{F}_{\text{elec}}|} = \frac{-e \left| \frac{\vec{v}}{c} \times \vec{H} \right|}{-e |\vec{E}|} \sim \frac{v}{c} \ll 1$$

so we will ignore the force that the \vec{H} component of the wave exerts on the electron

approx 2) when wavelength λ of EM wave is much larger than mean free path l of collisions, $\lambda \gg l$, the electric field that an electron sees over the time between collisions is roughly ~~constant~~ uniform in space. Good for waves in visible spectrum where $\lambda \sim 5000 \text{ \AA}$, $l \sim 10 \text{ \AA}$.

(1) + (2) \Rightarrow we can use the above computed a.c. conductivity $\sigma(\omega)$ to find the relation