

Blackbody radiation and Plank's law

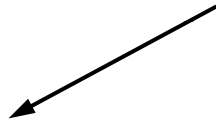
“blackbody” problem:

calculating the intensity of radiation at a given wavelength emitted by a body at a specific temperature



Max Planck, 1900

quantization of energy of radiation-emitting oscillators:
only certain energies for the radiation-emitting oscillators
in the cavity wall are allowed

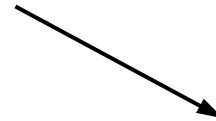


Albert Einstein, 1905

extended quantization of energy
of radiation-emitting oscillators
to quantization of light → photons



explained the photoelectric effect

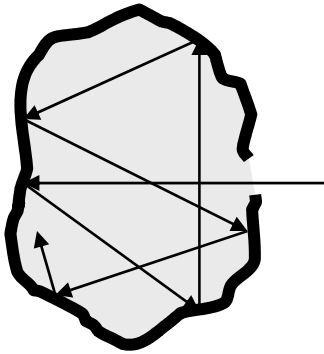


Niels Bohr, 1913

quantum model of the atom

Blackbody radiation and Plank's law

blackbody is an object that absorbs all electromagnetic radiation falling on it and consequently appears black



the opening to the cavity is a good approximation of a blackbody: after many reflections all of the incident energy is absorbed

radiation is in thermal equilibrium with the cavity (e.g. oven cavity) because radiation has exchanged energy with the walls many times

similar to the thermal equilibrium of a fluid with a container

spectral energy density $u(f, T)$

is energy per unit volume per unit frequency of the radiation within the blackbody cavity

$u(f, T)$ depends only on temperature and light frequency and not on the physical and chemical makeup of the blackbody



all the objects in the oven, regardless of their chemical nature, size, or shape, emit light of the same color



blackbody is a perfect absorber and ideal radiator

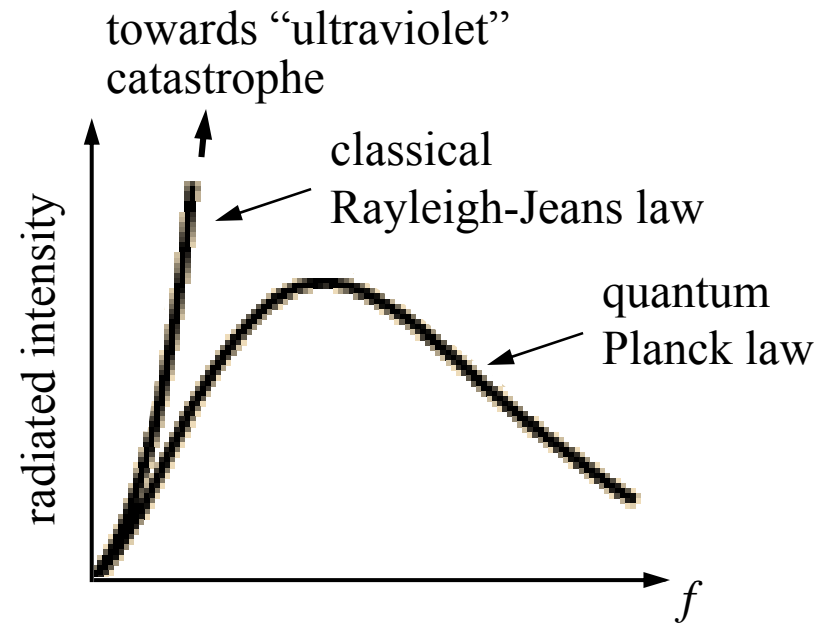
Max Planck, 1900

spectral energy density of blackbody radiation

$$u(f, T) = \frac{8\pi hf^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1}$$

$h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ J·s is Planck's constant

$k_B = 1.380 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K is Boltzmann's constant



limiting behaviors

at high frequencies $hf/k_B T \gg 1$

$$\frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1} \approx e^{-hf/k_B T}$$

$$u(f, T) = \frac{8\pi hf^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1} \approx \frac{8\pi hf^3}{c^3} e^{-hf/k_B T}$$

↑
Wien's exponential law, 1893

at low frequencies $hf/k_B T \ll 1$

$$\frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1} = \frac{1}{1 + hf/k_B T + \dots - 1} \approx \frac{k_B T}{hf}$$

$$u(f, T) = \frac{8\pi hf^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1} \approx \frac{8\pi hf^3}{c^3} \frac{k_B T}{hf} = \frac{8\pi f^2}{c^3} k_B T$$

↑
classical Rayleigh-Jeans law

Rayleigh-Jeans law is the classical limit obtained when $h \rightarrow 0$

Max Planck:

blackbody radiation is produced by vibrating submicroscopic electric charges, which he called resonators

the walls of a cavity are composed of resonators vibrating at different frequency

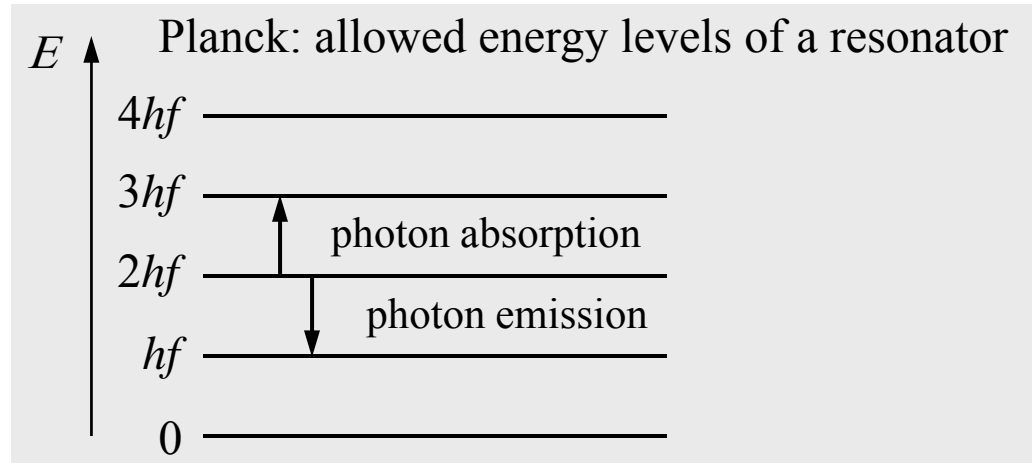
Classical Maxwell theory:

An oscillator of frequency f could have any value of energy and could change its amplitude continuously by radiating any fraction of its energy

Planck: the total energy of a resonator with frequency f could only be an integer multiple of hf . (During emission or absorption of light) resonator can change its energy only by the quantum of energy $\Delta E=hf$

$$E = nhf \quad \text{where } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\Delta E = hf$$



all systems vibrating with frequency f are quantized
and lose or gain energy in discrete packets or quanta $\Delta E=hf$

Consider a pendulum

$m=0.1$ kg, $l=1$ m, displaced by $\theta=10^0$

$$E = mgl(1 - \cos \theta) = (0.1 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(1 \text{ m})(1 - \cos 10^0) = 1.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ J}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{g}{l}} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{9.8 \text{ m/s}^2}{1 \text{ m}}} = 0.5 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\Delta E = hf = (6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(0.5 \text{ s}^{-1}) = 3.3 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \quad \leftarrow \text{quantum of energy}$$

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \frac{3.3 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}}{1.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ J}} = 2.2 \times 10^{-32}$$

classical physics:
quantization is unobservable and
energy loss or gain looks continuum

ΔE is large $\leftarrow f$ is large
 E is small $\leftarrow m$ is small

\leftarrow quantum physics

energy change of atomic oscillator sending out green light

$$\Delta E = hf = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{540 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}} = 3.68 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 2.3 \text{ eV}$$

a more appropriate unit of energy for describing atomic processes $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

Max Planck:

$$u(f, T)df = \bar{E}N(f)df$$

average energy
emitted per oscillator

number of
oscillators with
frequency
between f and $f+df$

$$N(f)df = \frac{8\pi f^2}{c^3} df$$

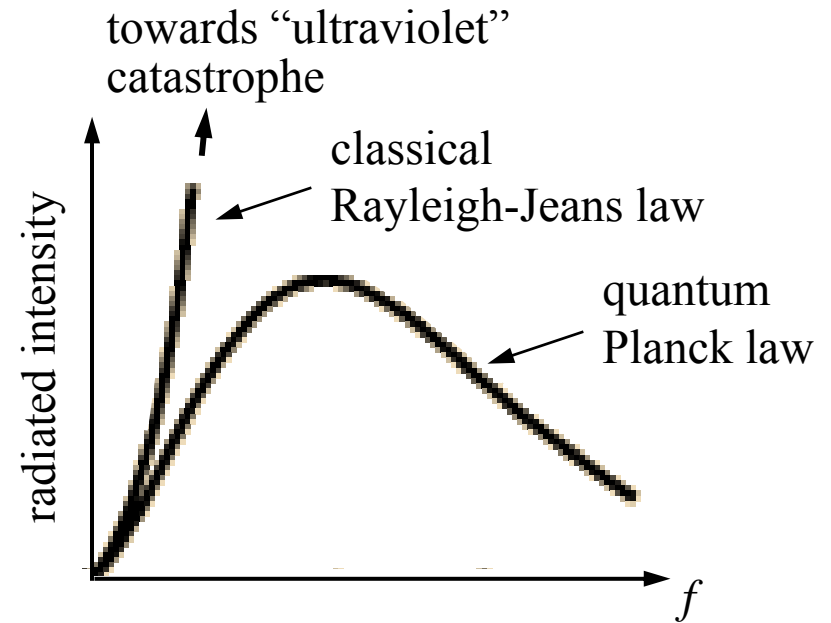
$$\bar{E} = hf \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1}$$

Plank
distribution function

$$u(f, T)df = \frac{8\pi f^2}{c^3} \frac{hf}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1} df$$

$$u(\lambda, T)d\lambda = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1} d\lambda$$

$$f = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$



in classical Rayleigh-Jens theory $\bar{E} = k_B T$

$$u(f, T)df = \frac{8\pi f^2}{c^3} k_B T df$$

for $f \rightarrow \infty$ classical theory predicts unlimited energy emission in the ultraviolet region
“ultraviolet catastrophe”

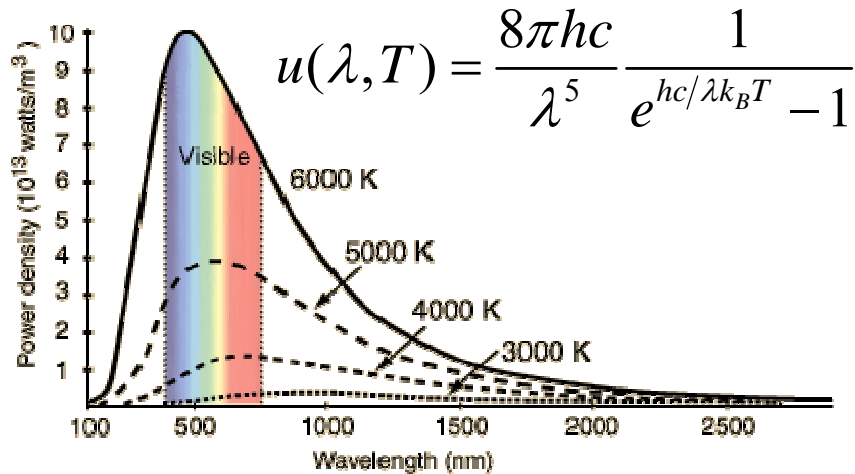
in quantum theory “ultraviolet catastrophe” is avoided:

\bar{E} tends to zero at high f because the first allowed energy level $E=hf$ is so large for large f compared to the average thermal energy available $k_B T$
that occupation of the first excited state is negligibly small

spectral energy density $u(f, T)$

is energy per unit volume per unit frequency of the radiation within the blackbody cavity

$J(f, T) = \frac{c}{4} u(f, T)$ is power emitted per unit area per unit frequency



Wien's displacement law, 1893:

the wavelength marking the maximum power emission of a blackbody, λ_{max} , shifts towards shorter wavelengths with increasing temperature

$$\lambda_{max} \sim T^{-1}$$

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \cdot \text{K}$$

Stefan-Boltzmann law, 1879:

The total power per unit area emitted at all frequencies by a blackbody, e_{total} , is proportional to the fourth power of its temperature

$$e_{total} = \int_0^\infty e_f df = \sigma T^4$$

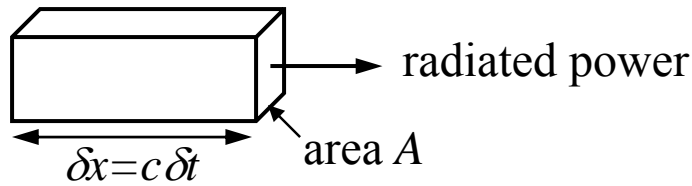
$$\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{K}^{-4} \quad \leftarrow \text{The Stefan-Boltzmann constant}$$

$$e_{total} = \frac{c}{4} \int_0^\infty u(\lambda, T) d\lambda = \int_0^\infty \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5 (e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1)} d\lambda = \frac{2\pi k_B^4 T^4}{c^2 h^3} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx}_{= \pi^4/15} = \frac{2\pi^5 k_B^4}{15c^2 h^3} T^4 = \sigma T^4$$

$x = hc/\lambda k_B T$

derivation of $J(f, T) = \frac{c}{4} u(f, T)$

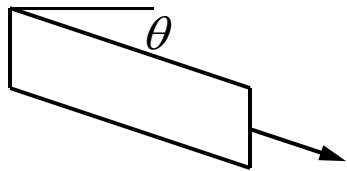
for perpendicular
radiated energy



because half the power will be going in the $-x$ direction

$$\begin{aligned} \text{radiated power} &= \frac{1}{2} [\text{energy density}] \times \frac{\text{volume}}{\text{time}} = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} u(f, T) \frac{A \cdot \delta x}{\delta t} = \frac{1}{2} u(f, T) \frac{A \cdot \delta x}{\delta x / c} = \frac{c}{2} u(f, T) A \end{aligned}$$

for any angle



$$\begin{aligned} \text{perpendicular radiated power} &= \frac{1}{2} [\text{energy density}] \times \frac{\text{volume}}{\text{time}} \times \cos \theta = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} u(f, T) \frac{A \cdot \delta x}{\delta t} \cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} u(f, T) \frac{A \cdot \delta x}{\delta x \cdot \cos^{-1} \theta / c} \cos \theta = \frac{c}{2} u(f, T) A \cos^2 \theta \end{aligned}$$

averaging over θ
and dividing by
 A to get
power density

$$\underline{J(f, T)} = \frac{\langle \text{radiated power} \rangle}{A} = \frac{\frac{c}{2} u(f, T) A \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle}{A} = \underline{\frac{c}{4} u(f, T)}$$

$\langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle = 1/2$

Estimate the surface temperature of the Sun and find λ_{max} for the Sun emission.

The Sun radius $R_S=7.0 \times 10^8$ m

The Earth-to-Sun distance $R=1.5 \times 10^{11}$ m

The total power from the Sun at the Earth $e_{total}=1400$ W/m²

$$e_{total}(R_S) = \sigma T^4 \quad \leftarrow \text{Stefan-Boltzmann law}$$

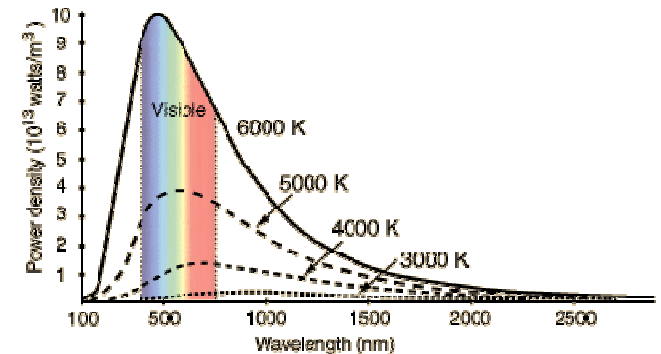
$$e_{total}(R_S) \cdot 4\pi R_S^2 = e_{total}(R) \cdot 4\pi R^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{conservation of energy}$$

$$T = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} \cdot e_{total}(R_S) \right)^{1/4} = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} \cdot \frac{e_{total}(R) \cdot R^2}{R_S^2} \right)^{1/4}$$

$$T = \left(\frac{1}{5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4} \cdot \frac{(1400 \text{ W/m}^2) \cdot (1.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ m})^2}{(7.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m})^2} \right)^{1/4} = \underline{5800 \text{ K}}$$

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \cdot \text{K}}{T} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \cdot \text{K}}{5800 \text{ K}} = 500 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m} = \underline{500 \text{ nm}} \quad \leftarrow \text{eye's sensitivity peak}$$

Wien's displacement law

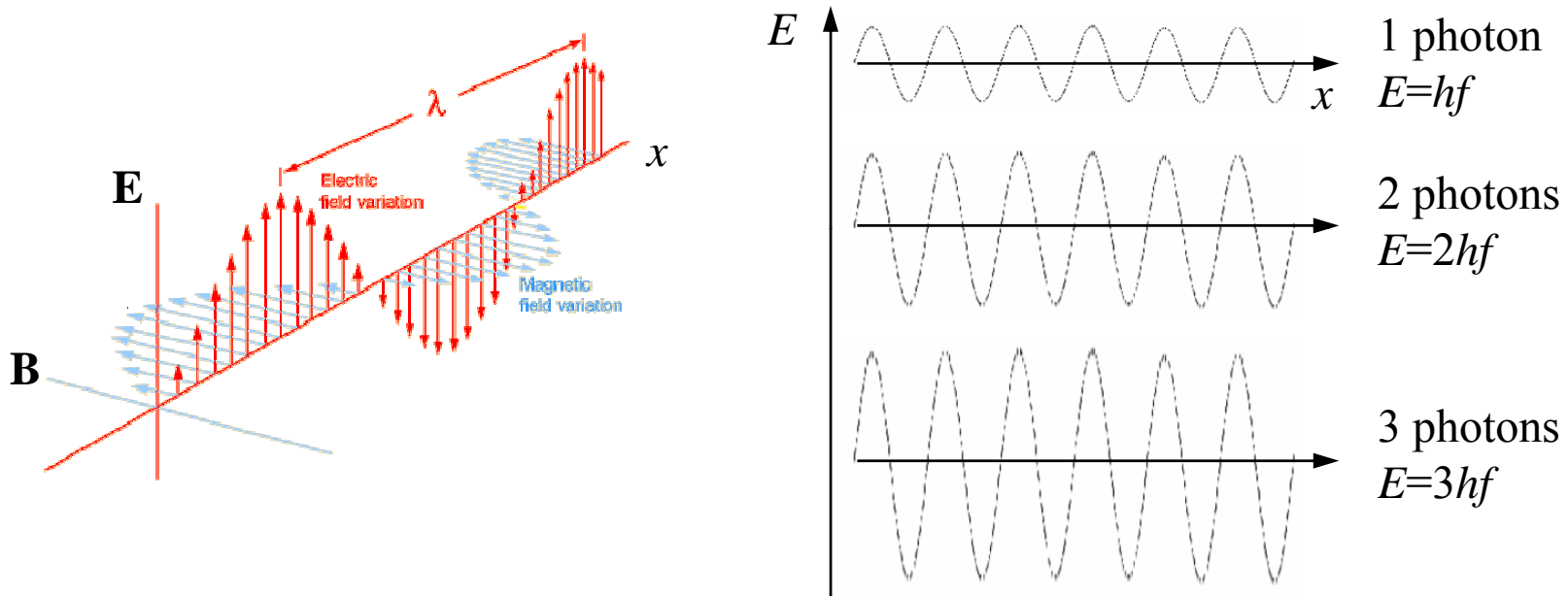


Planck, 1900: oscillators in the walls of the blackbody are quantized



Einstein, 1905: light itself is composed of quanta of energy

photon – a quantum of electromagnetic radiation (a quantum of light)



$$E_{\text{photon}} = hf$$



the photoelectric effect

Einstein, 1906:

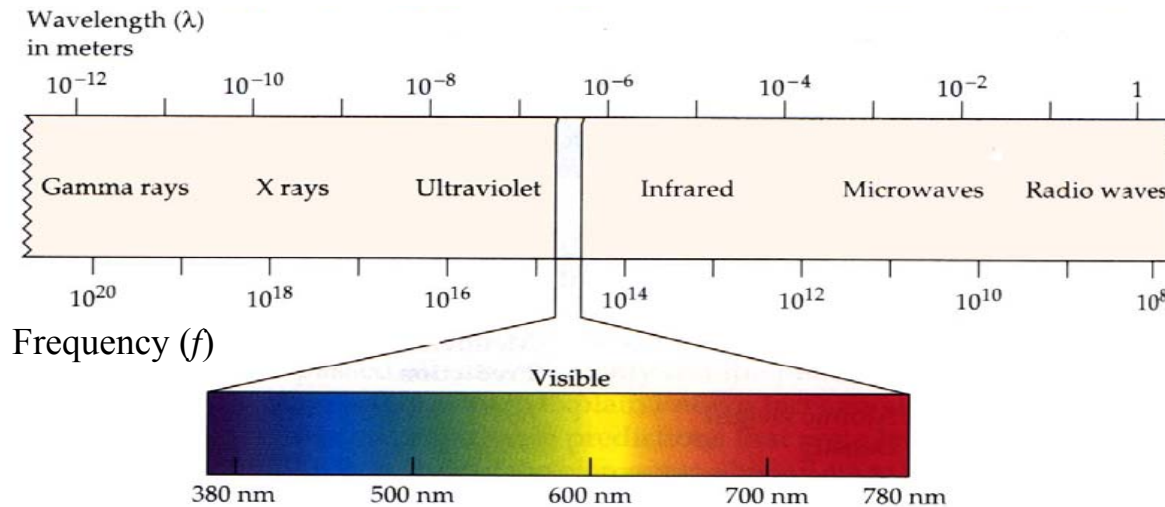
in addition to carrying **energy** $E=hf$

a photon carries a **momentum** $p=E/c=hf/c$ directed along its line of motion

Peter Debye, Arthur Holly Compton, 1923:

scattering of x-rays photons from electrons could be explained by treating photons as particles with energy hf and momentum hf/c and by conserving energy and momentum of the photon-electron pair in a collision

particle properties of light



x-rays – are electromagnetic waves with short wavelengths

x-rays were discovered by **Wilhelm Roentgen in 1895:**

X-rays are generated when high-speed electrons strike a metal target and give up some of their energy when they interact with the orbital electrons of an atom

$$\text{photon energy } hf = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \approx \frac{hc}{10^{-10} \text{ m}} \approx 12 \text{ keV}$$