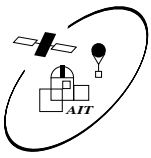


# *Blackbody Radiation*



## Introduction

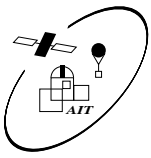
First radiation process to look at: radiation in thermal equilibrium with itself: blackbody radiation

Assumptions:

1. Photons are **Bosons**, i.e., more than one photon per phase space cell possible.
2. Photons are in thermodynamic equilibrium at **all frequencies**.

Outline of computation:

1. Compute **mean energy of photons** of frequency  $\nu$  in phase space cell,  $\langle E(\nu) \rangle$
2. Compute **number of phase space cells** as a function of frequency,  $N(\nu)$ .
3. Compute **photon spectrum** as product  $\langle E(\nu) \rangle \cdot N(\nu)$ .



## Derivation: Step 1, I

**First step:** Mean energy of photons of frequency  $\nu$  in phase space cell.

Describe phase space cell as box  $\implies$  Photons:  $\sim$  solution of QM harmonic oscillator  $\implies$  Total energy of box with  $n$  photons:

$$E_n = \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) \cdot h\nu \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\frac{1}{2}h\nu$ : ground state energy (unobservable).

Probability that oscillator is in  $n$ th state from **Boltzmann**:

$$P_n(\nu, T) = \frac{\exp\left(-\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)h\nu\right)}{\sum_{n'} \exp\left(-\left(n' + \frac{1}{2}\right)h\nu\right)} = \frac{\exp(-nh\nu/kT)}{\sum_{n'} \exp(-n'h\nu/kT)} \quad (3.2)$$

Therefore, **average energy per phase cell**:

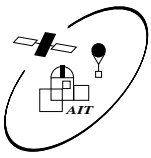
$$\langle E \rangle = \sum_n E_n P_n(\nu, T) \quad (3.3)$$

$$= \sum_n \left\{ \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) h\nu \cdot \frac{\exp(-nh\nu/kT)}{\sum_{n'} \exp(-n'h\nu/kT)} \right\} \quad (3.4)$$

introducing  $x = h\nu/kT$

$$= \frac{kT \sum_n \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) x \exp(-nx)}{\sum_n \exp(-nx)} \quad (3.5)$$

$$= kT \left\{ \frac{\sum_n nx \exp(-nx)}{\sum_n \exp(-nx)} + \frac{x}{2} \right\} \quad (3.6)$$



## Derivation: Step 1, II

To evaluate  $\langle E \rangle$ , need to compute the geometric sums  $\sum_n \exp(-nx)$  and  $\sum_n nx \exp(-nx)$ . We find (see handout)

$$\sum_n \exp(-nx) = \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-x)} \quad (3.7)$$

and

$$\sum_n nx \exp(-nx) = \frac{x \exp(-x)}{(1 - \exp(-x))^2} \quad (3.8)$$

Therefore,

$$\langle E \rangle = kT \left( \frac{x e^{-x} (1 - e^{-x})^{-2}}{(1 - e^{-x})^{-1}} + \frac{x}{2} \right) \quad (3.9)$$

$$= \frac{h\nu \exp(-x)}{1 - \exp(-x)} + \frac{h\nu}{2} \quad (3.10)$$

$$= \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} + \frac{h\nu}{2} \quad (3.11)$$

We reiterate: the  $h\nu/2$  term is unobservable  $\implies$  Renormalize zero-point of energy to get rid of it.

Could have “known” this result since from Bose-Einstein statistics of particles with chemical potential  $\mu = 0$  the occupation number is

$$n_\gamma(\nu, T) = \frac{\langle E \rangle}{h\nu} = \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} \quad (3.12)$$

3-4

To prove Eqs. (3.7) and (3.8), look at the Taylor series of  $f(y) = (1 - y)^{-1}$ .

By induction:

$$f(y) = (1 - y)^{-1} \quad (3.13)$$

$$\frac{df}{dy} = \frac{(-1)(-1)}{(1 - y)^2} = \frac{1}{(1 - y)^2} \quad (3.14)$$

$$\frac{d^2f}{dy^2} = \frac{(-1)(-2)}{(1 - y)^3} = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{(1 - y)^3} \quad (3.15)$$

and in general

$$\frac{d^n f}{dy^n} = \frac{n!}{(1 - y)^{n+1}} \quad (3.16)$$

Therefore, the Taylor series of  $f(y)$  around  $y = 0$  is

$$\frac{1}{1 - y} = \sum_n \frac{1}{n!} \left. \frac{d^n f}{dy^n} \right|_{y=0} y^n = \sum_n y^n \quad (3.17)$$

Substituting  $y = \exp(-x)$  proves Eq. (3.7).

To prove Eq. (3.8), we need to compute

$$\sum_n nx \exp(-nx) = x \sum_n n \exp(-nx) \quad (3.18)$$

Note that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sum_n \exp(-nx) = - \sum_n n \exp(-nx) \quad (3.19)$$

such that

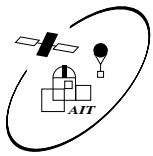
$$\sum_n n \exp(-nx) = - \frac{d}{dx} \sum_n \exp(-nx) \quad (3.20)$$

by Eq. (3.7)

$$= - \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-x)} \right) \quad (3.21)$$

$$= \frac{\exp(-x)}{(1 - \exp(-x))^2} \quad (3.22)$$

Multiplying with  $x$  proves Eq. (3.8).



## Derivation: Step 2, I

**Second Step:** Computation of density of phase space cells in box  $L_x, L_y, L_z$ .

Wave vector of photon:

$$\mathbf{k} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \mathbf{n} = \frac{2\pi\nu}{c} \mathbf{n} \quad (3.23)$$

To get all possible photons: count distinguishable photons at same frequency, i.e., photons with **different spin** or **different number of nodes** (=different  $n$ ).

**Spin** is easy: there are **2 polarization states**

**Number of nodes:** in the  $x, y, z$  direction, number of nodes is

$$n_x = \frac{L_x}{\lambda} = \frac{k_x L_x}{2\pi} \iff dn_x = \frac{L_x}{\lambda} = \frac{L_x dk_x}{2\pi} \quad (3.24)$$

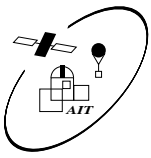
For  $n \gg 1$ , can go to “continuum of states”. Eq. 3.24 then implies

$$dN = dn_x dn_y dn_z = \frac{L_x L_y L_z d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} = \frac{V d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \quad (3.25)$$

Therefore, the number of states per unit volume per wave number is

$$\frac{n_k}{d^3k} = 2 \cdot \frac{dN}{V} \frac{1}{d^3k} = \frac{2}{(2\pi)^3} \quad (3.26)$$

Factor 2 from spin.



## Derivation: Step 2, II

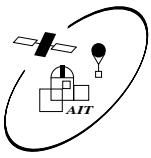
Because of Eq. (3.23),

$$d^3k = k^2 dk d\Omega = \frac{(2\pi)^3}{c^3} \nu^2 d\nu d\Omega \quad (3.27)$$

such that the **density of states**

$$\rho_s = \frac{n_\nu}{d\nu d\Omega} = \frac{2}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{(2\pi)^3}{c^3} \nu^2 = \frac{2\nu^2}{c^3} \quad (3.28)$$

(number of states per solid angle, per volume, per frequency).



## Blackbody spectrum

To summarize, we had:

Mean energy of state:

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} \quad (3.11)$$

State density:

$$\rho_s = \frac{2\nu^2}{c^3} \quad (3.28)$$

The total energy density is then

$$u_\nu(\Omega) = \langle E \rangle \cdot \rho_s \quad (3.29)$$

$$= \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} \quad (3.30)$$

(energy per volume per frequency per solid angle)

Because of Eq. (2.30) ( $u_\nu = I_\nu/c$ ), the intensity is given by

$$I_\nu = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1} =: B_\nu \quad (3.31)$$

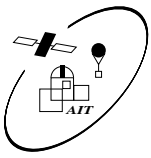
This is the **spectrum of a black body**.

In  $\lambda$  space, the spectrum is

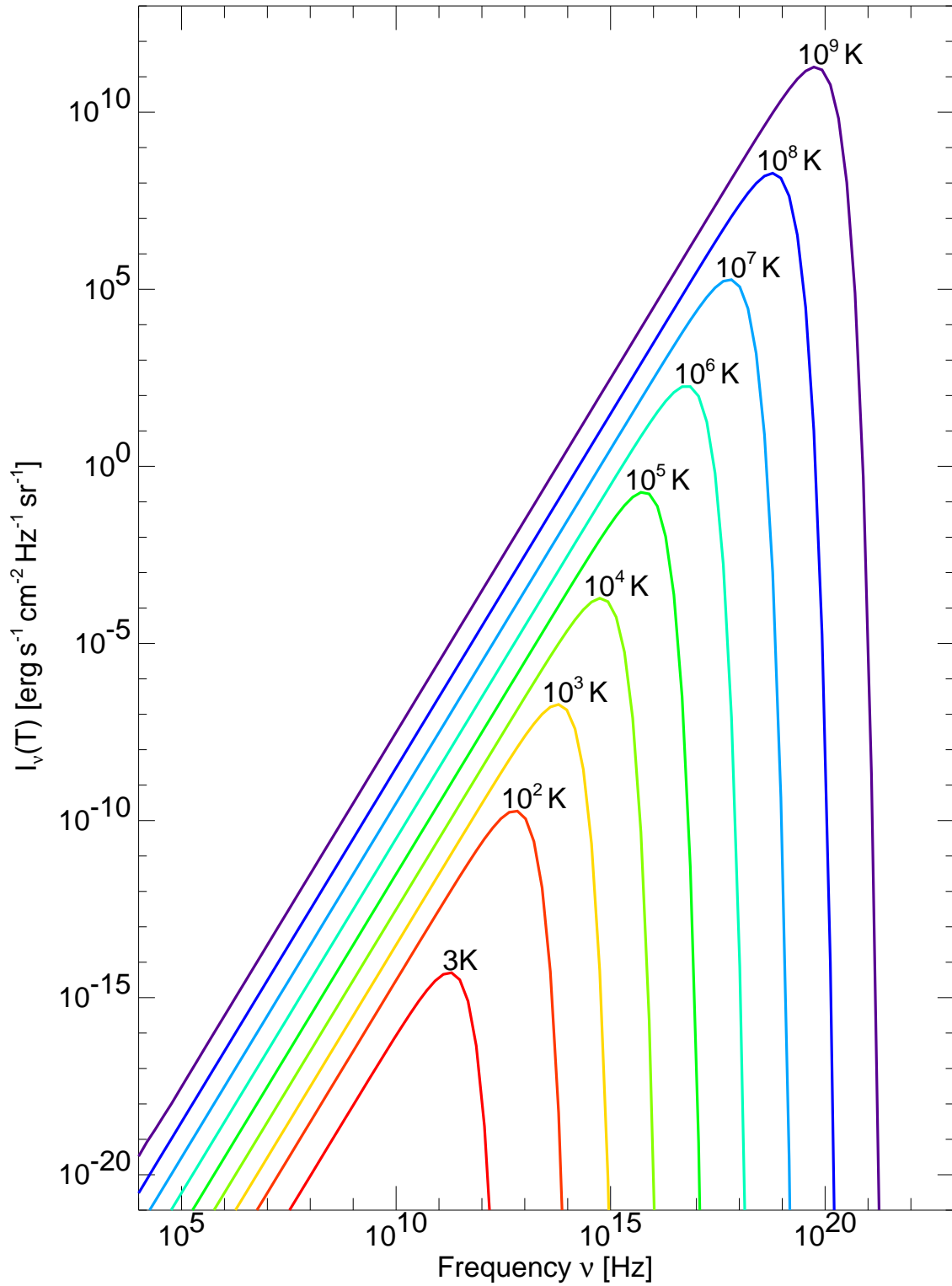
$$B_\lambda = \frac{2hc^2/\lambda^5}{\exp(hc/\lambda kT) - 1} \quad (3.32)$$

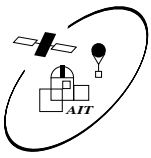
(since we need  $B_\lambda d\lambda = B_\nu d\nu$ ).





# Spectrum





## Rayleigh-Jeans Law

For  $h\nu \ll kT$  ( $\nu \lesssim 2 \times 10^{10}T$ ),

$$\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) = 1 + \frac{h\nu}{kT} + \dots \quad (3.33)$$

such that

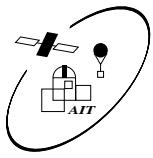
$$B_\nu \approx \frac{2\nu^2}{c^2} kT \quad (3.34)$$

This is the **Rayleigh-Jeans law**.

The Rayleigh-Jeans law is used in the radio regime to define the **brightness temperature**,

$$T_b = I_\nu \cdot \frac{c^2}{2k\nu^2} \quad (3.35)$$

where  $I_\nu$  is the measured radio intensity.



## Wien Spectrum

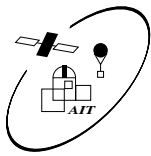
For  $h\nu \gg kT$ , ( $\nu \gtrsim 2 \times 10^{10}T$ ),

$$\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) - 1 \sim \exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) \quad (3.36)$$

such that

$$B_\nu \approx \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) \quad (3.37)$$

the **Wien spectrum** (or **Wien's law**).



## Wien Displacement Law

The **frequency of maximum intensity**,  $\nu_{\max}$  is obtained by solving

$$\left. \frac{\partial B_\nu}{\partial \nu} \right|_{\nu=\nu_{\max}} = 0 \quad (3.38)$$

which is equivalent to solving

$$x = 3(1 - \exp(-x)) \quad (3.39)$$

where  $x = h\nu_{\max}/kT$ . Numerically,  $x = 2.82$ , therefore

$$h\nu_{\max} = 2.82 \cdot kT \quad (3.40)$$

This is the **Wien displacement law**.

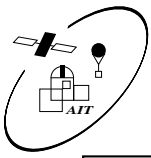
The frequency of maximum flux is directly proportional to the black body temperature.

Likewise, for  $B_\lambda$ , one finds

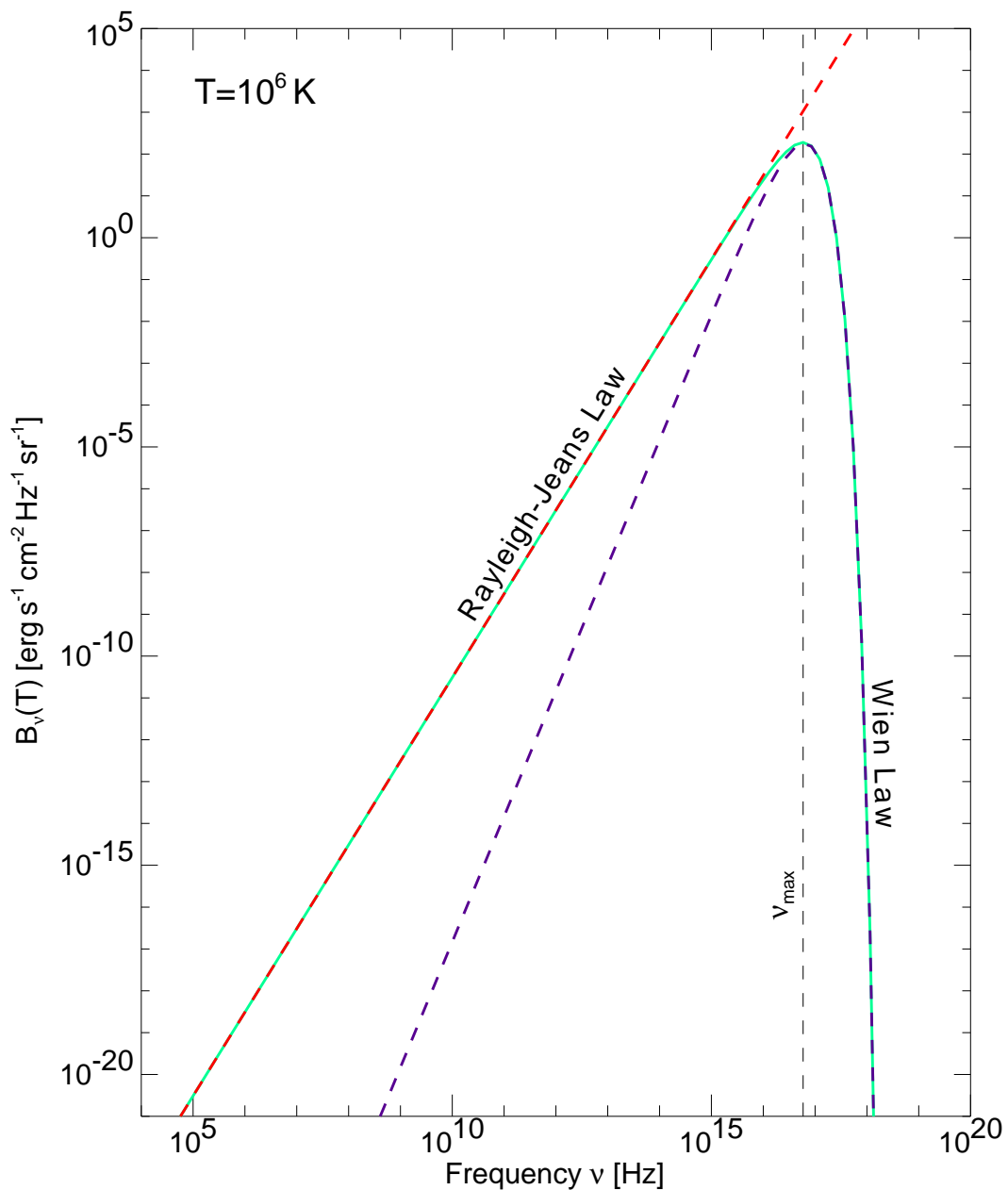
$$\lambda_{\max} T = 0.2898 \text{ cm K} \quad (3.41)$$

Note that  $\lambda_{\max} \nu_{\max} \neq c$ !

Do not confuse Wien's law and the Wien displacement law...

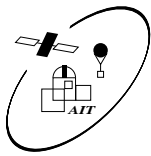


## Summary: Rayleigh-Jeans vs. Wien



Rayleigh-Jeans applies for  $\nu \lesssim \nu_{\text{max}}$

Wien applies for  $\nu \gtrsim \nu_{\text{max}}$ .



## Stefan-Boltzmann law

The total brightness of a black body is obtained from

$$B(T) = \int_0^{\infty} B_{\nu}(T) d\nu \quad (3.42)$$

... substituting  $x = h\nu/kT$

$$= \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^3 dx}{\exp(x) - 1} \quad (3.43)$$

... the integral has the value  $\pi^4/15$

$$= \frac{2\pi^4 k^4}{15c^2 h^3} T^4 = \frac{ac}{4\pi} T^4 = \frac{\sigma_{\text{SB}} T^4}{\pi} \quad (3.44)$$

Convert the brightness to the flux ( $F = \pi B$ , Eq. 2.24), to obtain

$$F = \sigma_{\text{SB}} T^4 \quad (3.45)$$

the **Stefan-Boltzmann law**.

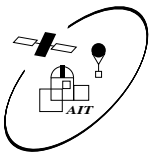
And, yes, Boltzmann's first name is Ludwig, while Stefan's first name is Josef.

$a$  is the **radiation density constant**,

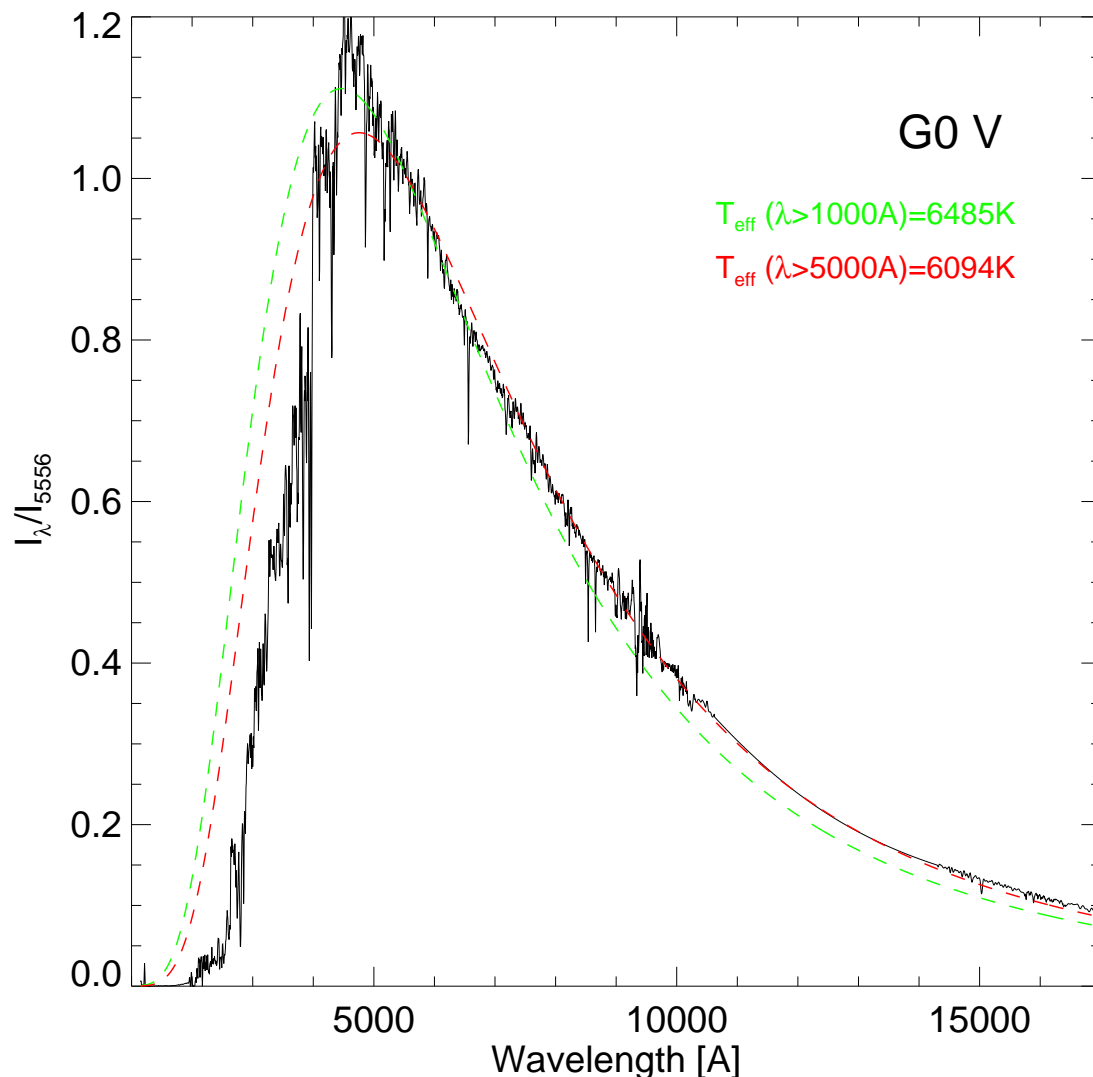
$$a := \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15c^3 h^3} = 7.566 \times 10^{-15} \text{ erg cm}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-4} \quad (3.46)$$

also written as the **Stefan-Boltzmann constant**

$$\sigma_{\text{SB}} := \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15c^2 h^3} = 5.671 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4} \text{ s} \quad (3.47)$$



## Effective Temperature

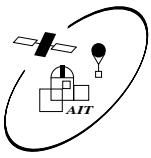


G0 v spectrum after Pickles (1998), PASP 110, 863

The **effective temperature**,  $T_{\text{eff}}$ , of a spectrum  $I_{\nu}$  is the temperature where

$$F = \int I_{\nu} \cos \theta \, d\nu \, d\Omega = \sigma T_{\text{eff}}^4 \quad (3.48)$$

Sometimes,  $I_{\nu}$  is only known over a certain wavelength range, and depending on the spectrum the *measured*  $T_{\text{eff}}$  will depend on this range (see figure).



## Application: Planets

The **temperature of an irradiated body** is given from energy equilibrium:

$$\frac{L_{\odot}}{4\pi a^2} \pi r^2 = \sigma_{\text{SB}} T^4 4\pi r^2 \quad (3.49)$$

where  $a$ : distance to sun,  $r$ : planetary radius.

Therefore

$$T = \left( \frac{L_{\odot}}{16\pi\sigma_{\text{SB}}r^2} \right)^{1/4} = \frac{281 \text{ K}}{(a/1 \text{ AU})^{1/2}} \quad (3.50)$$

Last step used  $L_{\odot} = 4 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}$  and  $1 \text{ AU} = 1.496 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}$ .

If the planet reflects part of the radiation and if the IR emissivity is only roughly a BB, then Eq. (3.49) is modified,

$$(1 - B) \frac{L_{\odot}}{4\pi a^2} \pi r^2 = \epsilon \sigma_{\text{SB}} T^4 4\pi r^2$$
$$\implies T = \frac{281 \text{ K}}{(a/1 \text{ AU})^{1/2}} \left( \frac{1 - B}{\epsilon} \right)^{1/4} \quad (3.51)$$

where  $B$ : **Bond albedo**, and  $\epsilon$ : effective emissivity

For the Earth,  $B = 0.39$ , for Venus,  $B = 0.72$ . Thus, since  $T_{\text{Earth}} \sim 288 \text{ K}$ ,  $\epsilon_{\text{Earth}} = 0.55 < 1$  (**greenhouse effect**).

If the planet is not a fast rotator, replace  $4\pi r^2$  by  $2\pi r^2$ .