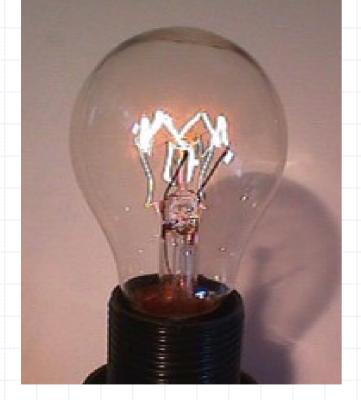
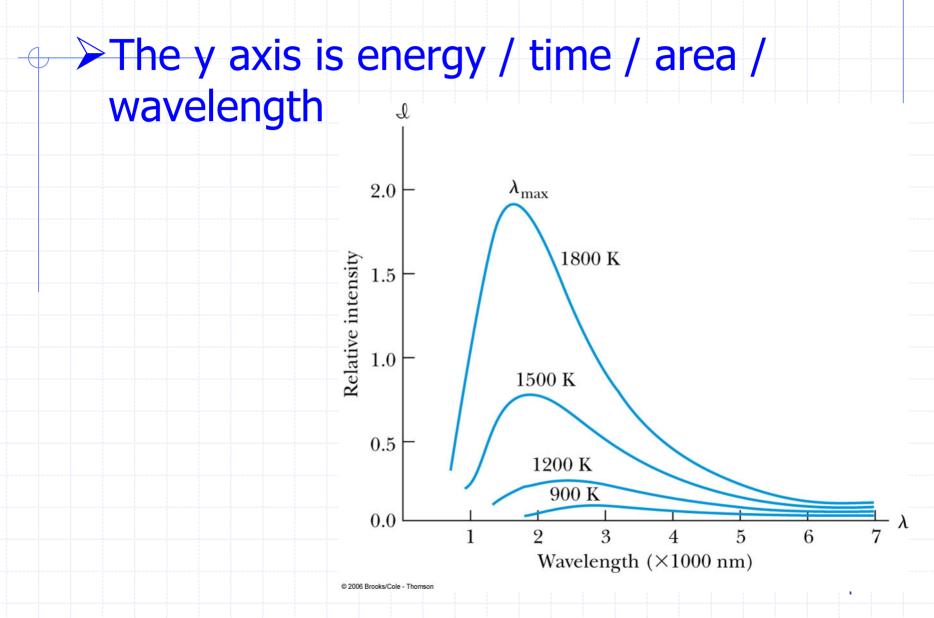
- All bodies at a temperature T emit and absorb thermal electromagnetic radiation
  - Blackbody radiation
  - In thermal equilibrium, the power emitted equals the power absorbed

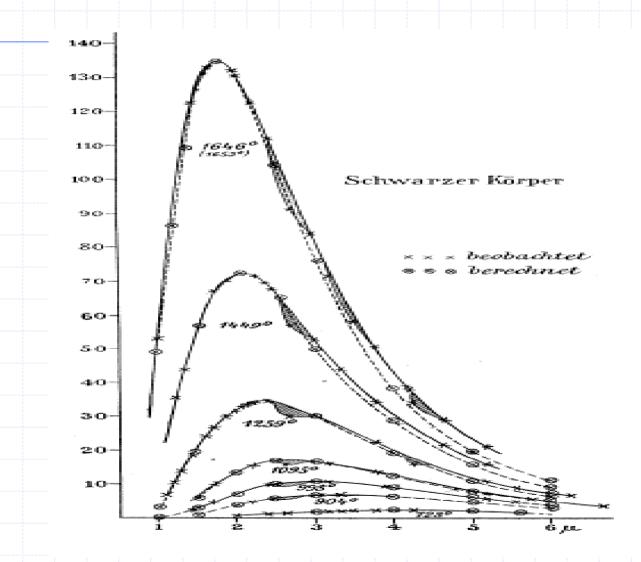
How is blackbody radiation absorbed and emitted?





- A blackbody is a perfect absorber of radiation
  A simple blackbody is given by a hole in a wall of some enclosure
  Both absorption and emission can occur
  - The radiation properties of the cavity are independent of the enclosure material





$$\lambda_{\rm max}T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} mK$$

# Wavelength decreases as T increases Stefan-Boltzmann law

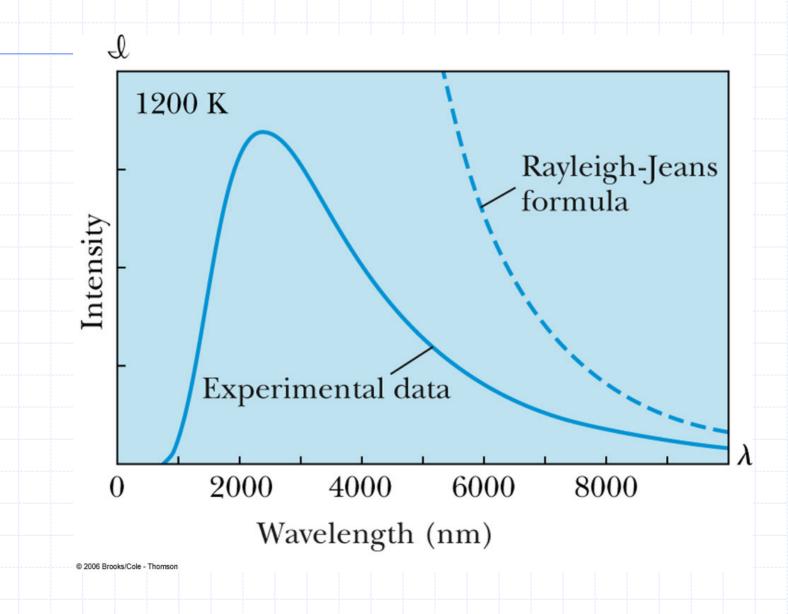
$$R(T) = \varepsilon \sigma T^{4}$$
  
$$\sigma = 5.6705 \times 10^{-8} W / (m^{2} K^{4})$$

Total power / area radiated increases as T<sup>4</sup>

- Attempts to calculate the spectral distribution of blackbody radiation from first principles failed
- The best description was given by the Rayleigh-Jeans formula

$$I(\lambda,T) = \frac{2\pi ckT}{\lambda^4}$$

 ➤ This described the distribution at long wavelengths but increased without limit as λ→0
 ■ Ultraviolet catastrophe



- Planck was able to calculate the correct distribution by assuming energy was quantized (he was desperate)
  - Microscopic (atomic) oscillators can only have certain discrete energies

 $E_n = nhf$ 

 $h = 6.6261 \times 10^{-34} Js$ 

The oscillators can only absorb or emit energy in multiples of

$$\Delta E = hf$$

Planck's radiation law agreed with data

$$I(\lambda,T) = \frac{2\pi c^2 h}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$$

- It leads directly to Wien's displacement law and the Stefan-Boltzmann law
- It agrees with Rayleigh-Jeans formula for large wavelengths
  - See derivations for both in Thornton and Rex

- We represent a blackbody by a cavity heated to temperature T and connected to the outside by a small hole
- We'll assume a metal cavity in the form of a cube (an oven with a pinhole)
- Thermal agitation causes the electrons in the wall to oscillate (accelerate) thus producing electromagnetic radiation
- The electromagnetic radiation forms standing waves inside the cavity with nodes at the metallic surfaces

#### The calculation of Planck's law has five parts

- N(f)df = Number of standing waves with frequencies between f and f+df
  - We'll do the one-dimensional case and just write down the result for the three-dimensional case

#### ε = average energy per standing wave

- We'll do the calculation
- Divide by the volume
- Change variables from frequency to wavelength
- Multiply by c/4 to change from energy/volume/wavelength to energy/time/area/wavelength

- We first calculate the number of standing waves in the frequency interval from f to f+df
- Consider a one-dimensional "cavity" of length a (think of possible waves on a string with fixed endpoints)
- The electric field is given by

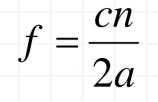
$$E(x,t) = E_0 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}\right) \sin\left(2\pi ft\right)$$

where  $f\lambda = c$ 

So the amplitude has a sinusoidal space variation which is oscillating in time sinusoidally

- We want the amplitude of the electric field to vanish at x=0 and x=a
  - At x=0, this is satisfied automatically
  - At x=a, we must have  $\frac{2a}{\lambda} = n$ , n = 1, 2, 3, ...
  - This determines the allowed values for the wavelength
    - What do possible standing waves look like?

 $\rightarrow$  It's a bit easier to work in terms of frequency



We represent the allowed values of frequency on a line where we plot a point at every integral value of n

→ d=(2a/c)f

We'll use this line to find N(f)df, the number of allowed frequencies (standing waves) in the range f to f+df

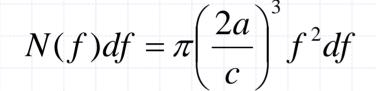
n

Looking at the line, the number of points between *f* and *f+df* is

 $N(f)df = 2 \times \frac{2a}{c}df$ 

Where we multiplied x2 to account for the two possible polarizations of the electromagnetic wave

- The calculation for a three-dimensional cavity is similar but somewhat more complicated
- We'll just write down the result

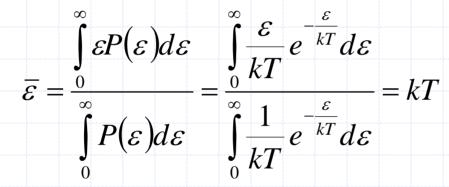


> And for later use note

$$\frac{df}{d\lambda} = -\frac{c}{\lambda^2} \text{ since } f = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

Next we calculate the average energy per standing wave

Classically this is just



where  $P(\varepsilon)$  is the Boltzmann factor  $\frac{1}{kT}e^{-\frac{\varepsilon}{kT}}$ 

and we used  $\int xe^{cx} = \frac{e^{cx}}{c^2}(cx-1)$ 

This is the same result the equipartition theorem gives for two degrees of freedom

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#### **Kinetic Theory of Gases**

Based on "atomic" theory of matter ➢ Results include Speed of a molecule in a gas •  $V_{rms} = (\langle v^2 \rangle)^{1/2} = (3kT/m)^{1/2}$ Equipartion theorem • Internal energy U = f/2 NkT = f/2 nRTHeat capacity •  $C_V = (dU/dT)_V = f/2 R$ Maxwell speed distribution

$$f(v) = 4\pi N \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} v^2 e^{-mv^2/2kT}$$

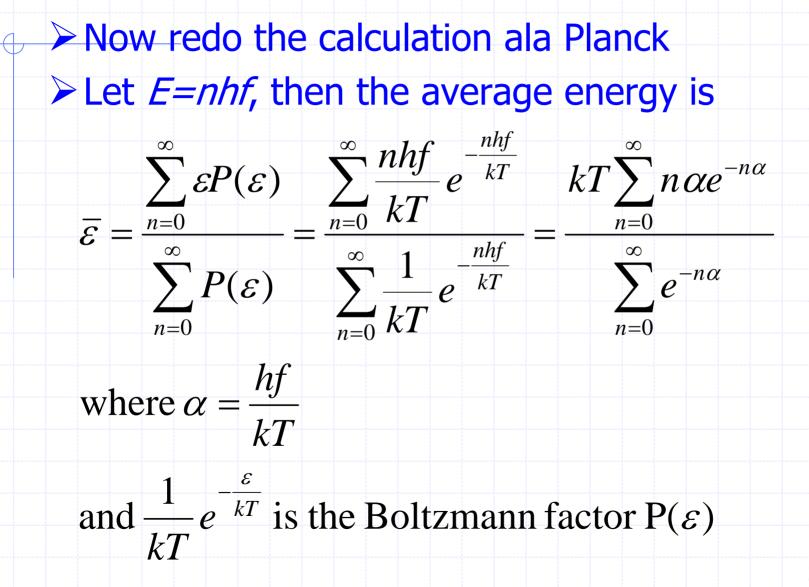
Continuing with classical calculation we have

$$u(f)df = \pi \left(\frac{2a}{c}\right)^3 f^2 df \times kT \times \frac{1}{a^3} = \frac{8\pi f^2 kT}{c^3} df$$

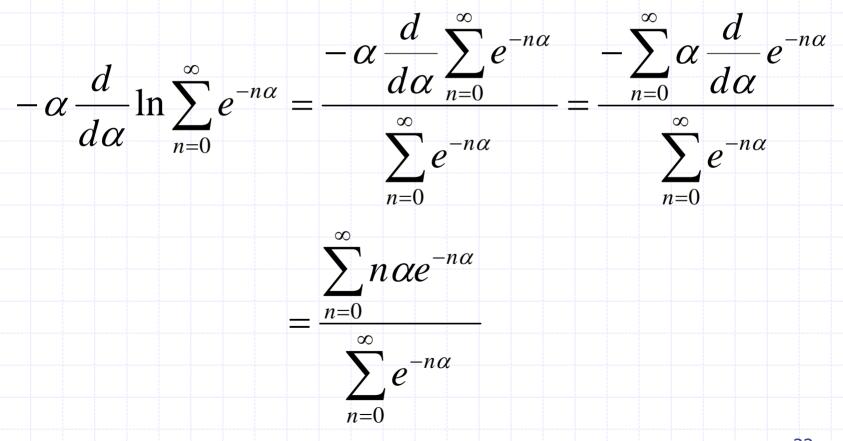
And changing variables from frequency to wavelength

$$u(\lambda)d\lambda = \frac{8\pi kT}{\lambda^4}d\lambda$$

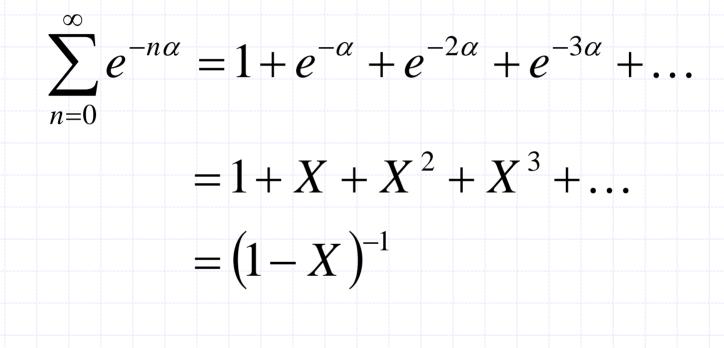
> Multiply by c/4 to find the Rayleigh-Jeans formula  $I(\lambda,T) = \frac{2\pi ckT}{\lambda^4}$ 



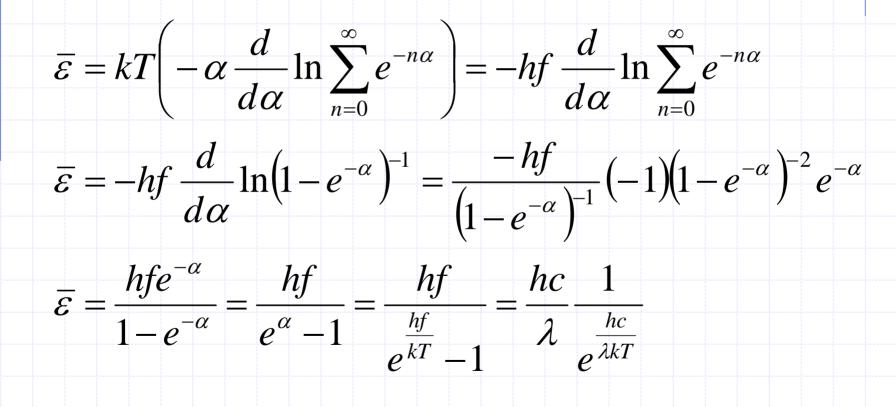
To evaluate this we use standard "tricks" from statistical mechanics



← ≻And note



#### Putting these together we have



We already know the number of standing waves per volume

$$N(\lambda)d\lambda = \frac{8\pi}{\lambda^4}d\lambda$$

 $\succ$  So the energy per volume is

 $u(\lambda)d\lambda = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda kT}} - 1} \frac{8\pi}{\lambda^4} d\lambda$ 

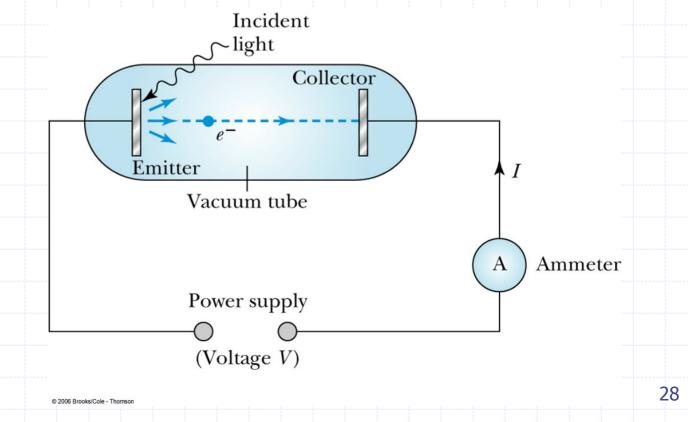
And changing units to spectral intensity (multiply by c/4) gives Planck's formula  $I(\lambda,T) = \frac{2\pi c^2 h}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{\frac{hc}{e^{\lambda kT}} - 1}$ 

- You can see how Planck avoided the ultraviolet catastrophe
  - Because the energy is proportional to the frequency
    - The average energy is kT when the possible energies are small compared to kT
    - The average energy is extremely small when the possible energies are large compared to kT (because P(ε) is extremely small)

- Planck's paper is generally considered to be the birthplace of quantum mechanics
  - Revisionist history?
  - Planck did not pay too much attention to energy quantization
  - Neither did anyone else
  - There is controversy of whether he even intended the energy of an oscillator to be nhf

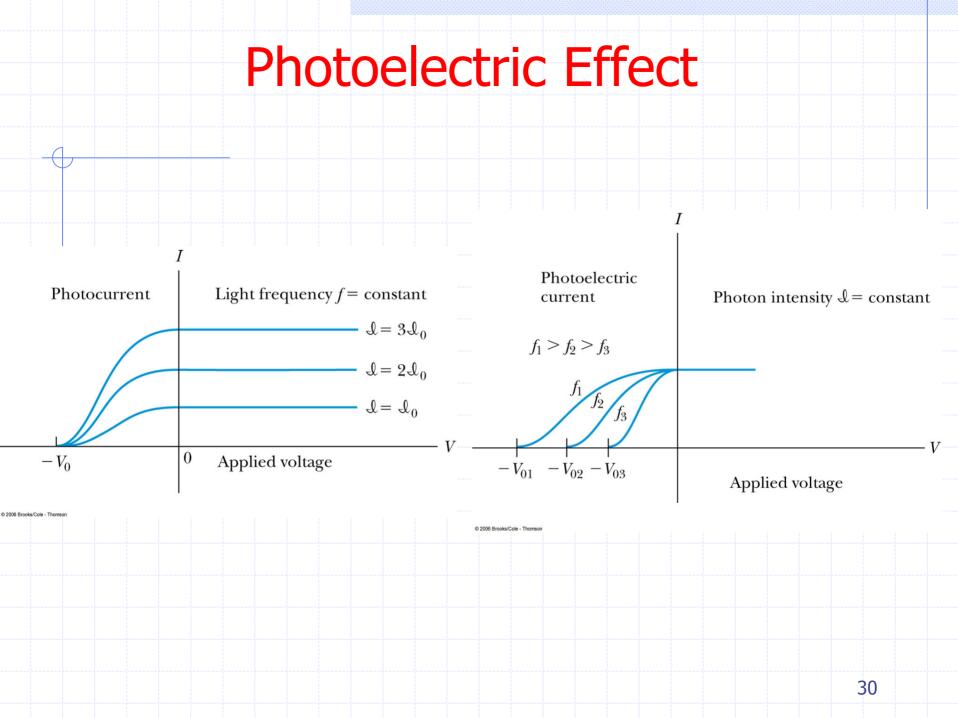
#### Light incident on a metal will eject electrons

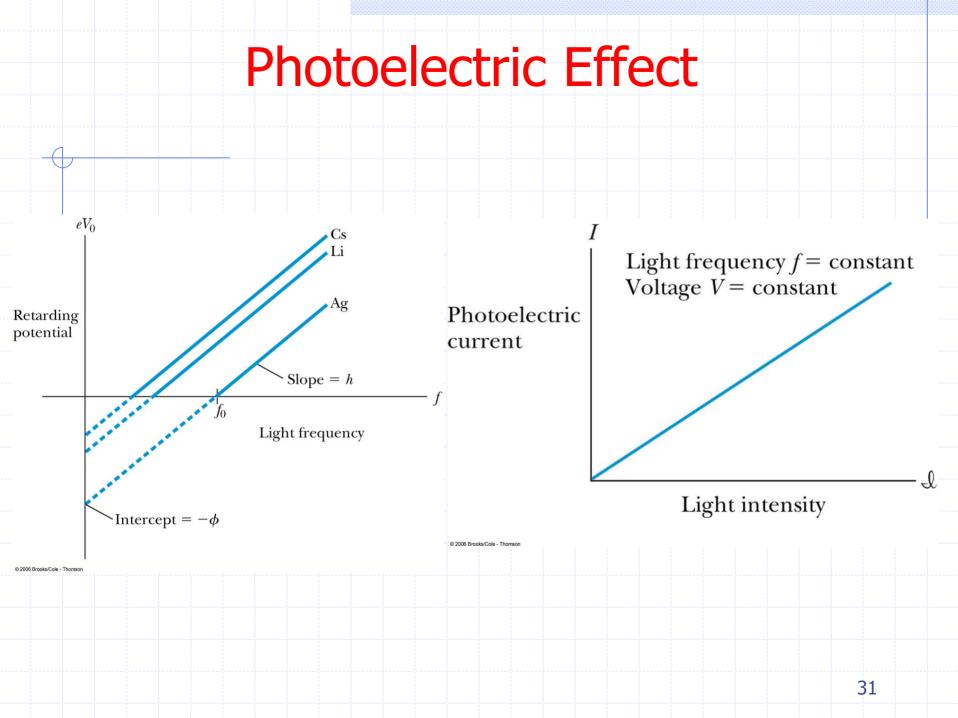
 Aside, other means of doing this are with temperature, electric fields, and particle bombardment



#### Experiments showed

- The kinetic energy of the photoelectrons are independent of the light intensity
- The maximum kinetic energy of the photoelectrons depends on the light frequency
- The smaller the work function φ the smaller the threshold frequency to produce photoelectrons
- The number of photoelectrons is proportional to light intensity
- The photoelectrons are emitted instantaneously (on the order of nanoseconds)





- Explained by Einstein in one of his annus mirabilis papers
- In his paper he assumed
  - Electromagnetic field was quantized
  - Light quanta were localized in space (like particles) == photons
  - Energy E = hf
  - In the photoelectric process, the energy quanta (photons) are completely absorbed

Thus photons penetrate the surface of the metal and are absorbed by electrons  $\succ$  The electrons overcome attractive forces that normally hold them in the material and escape  $\succ$  Conservation of energy gives •  $hf = 1/2mv_{max}^2 + \phi$ >And consequently he predicted •  $1/2mv_{max}^2 = eV_0 = hf - \phi$ Note h/e can be measured from the slope

- This was strange since it involved Planck's constant h
  - This was a difficult experiment to carry out
    - It took almost a decade to verify
    - Millikan was the principle experimenter (who was trying to prove Einstein's theory wrong)
  - The end result was proof that light energy is quantized and E=hf

