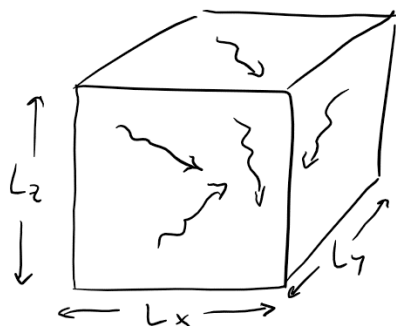


Lecture 13 – Photon gas (blackbody radiation)



PREVIOUSLY: we analyzed statistical mechanics of Einstein solid & ideal gas using quantum mechanics

TODAY: Statistical mechanics of a thermal photon gas

Consider a cavity of volume $V = L_x L_y L_z$ at temperature T that contains electromagnetic radiation due to vibrations of atoms in cavity (e.g. an oven, a star)

Review of electromagnetic (EM) waves:

Classically, EM waves are solutions to wave equation $\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2}$ from Maxwell's equations.

The electric field of an EM wave has the form

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_0 e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - i\omega t}$$

The wavevector \mathbf{k} gives the EM waves propagation direction and wavelength ($k = 2\pi/\lambda$) and ω is the oscillation angular frequency. EM wave can have two transverse polarizations \perp to \mathbf{k} given by \mathbf{E} . The wave equation gives the following relation between \mathbf{k} and ω :

$$|\mathbf{k}|^2 = k^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{c^2}$$

In a cavity, only certain wavenumbers k are allowed. Each allowed EM wave is called a mode.

Quantum mechanics shows that an EM wave of frequency ω has energy quantized according to

$$\varepsilon_s = \hbar\omega \left(s + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

where $s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ is the number of quanta, or photons, in that oscillation. The zero-point energy $\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$ is conventionally dropped.

The partition function for one EM wave (or mode) is:

$$Z = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s} = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega s} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}$$

using $\sum_{s=0}^{\infty} x^s = \frac{1}{1-x}$, true when $|x| < 1$.

As we showed before from the Einstein model, the average energy U is:

$$U = \langle \varepsilon \rangle = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \ln Z = +\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \ln(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})$$

$$= \frac{\hbar \omega e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}} = \frac{\hbar \omega}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1} = \hbar \omega \langle s \rangle$$

omitting the $\frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega$. $\langle s \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1}$ is the average number of photons in an EM mode at temperature T .

At high temperatures $\hbar \omega \ll k_B T$, $\langle s \rangle \approx k_B T / \hbar \omega$, and $U \approx k_B T$, as expected from equipartition.

This is for a single EM mode of frequency ω . For U_{tot} we need to sum up over all possible ω . Not all ω are allowed; the cavity imposes boundary conditions, such that $\mathbf{E}_{\parallel}|_{\text{walls}} = 0$.

Solutions are standing waves of the form:

$$E_x = E_{x0} e^{-i\omega t} \cos\left(\frac{n_x \pi}{L_x} x\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_y \pi}{L_y} y\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_z \pi}{L_z} z\right)$$

$$E_y = E_{y0} e^{-i\omega t} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi}{L_x} x\right) \cos\left(\frac{n_y \pi}{L_y} y\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_z \pi}{L_z} z\right)$$

$$E_z = E_{z0} e^{-i\omega t} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi}{L_x} x\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_y \pi}{L_y} y\right) \cos\left(\frac{n_z \pi}{L_z} z\right)$$

with $n_{x,y,z} = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, i.e. standing waves with $k_x = \frac{n_x \pi}{L_x}$, $k_y = \frac{n_y \pi}{L_y}$, and $k_z = \frac{n_z \pi}{L_z}$.

Each mode of oscillation is given by set of integers $\{n_x, n_y, n_z\}$. So,

$$\omega_n = c \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2} = \pi c \sqrt{\frac{n_x^2}{L_x^2} + \frac{n_y^2}{L_y^2} + \frac{n_z^2}{L_z^2}}$$

i.e. only certain energies $\hbar \omega_n$ are allowed (using the shorthand $n = \{n_x, n_y, n_z\}$):

$$Z_{tot} = \prod_{\text{modes } n} (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega_n})^{-1}$$

$$U_{tot} = \sum_{\text{modes } n} \frac{\hbar \omega_n}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega_n} - 1} = \sum_{\text{modes } n} \hbar \omega_n \langle s_n \rangle$$

(where $\sum_{\text{modes } n} = \sum_{n_x=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_y=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_z=1}^{\infty}$)

(Note: this is a difference with the Einstein model. In the Einstein model, we assumed all the oscillators are identical. Here the oscillators are all different $\hbar \omega_n$ due to the different modes.)

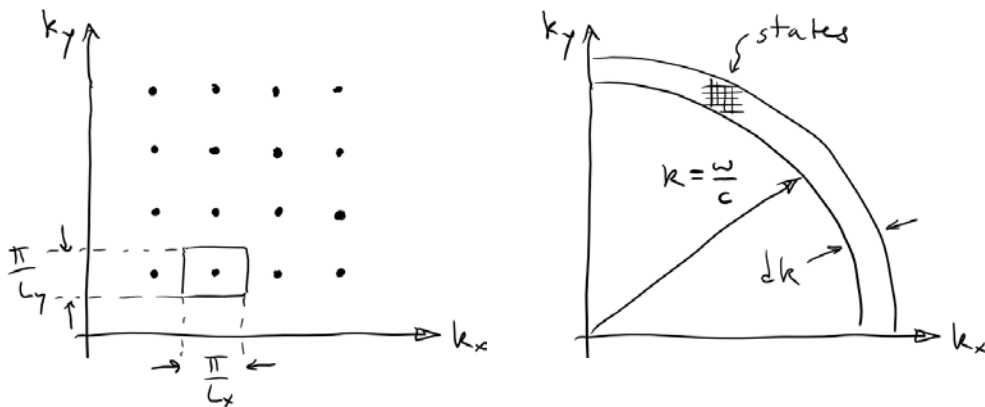
KEY CONCEPT: density of states

There is no analytic expression for this sum. We use approximation from Lect. 4, turning the sum into an integral over angular frequency ω (basically equivalent to energy since $\varepsilon = \hbar\omega$):

$$\sum_{\text{modes } n} \rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} d\omega D(\omega)$$

The sum enumerates modes. In the integral we need the number of modes that have angular frequency in the range ω to $\omega+d\omega$. This is related to the density of states $D(\omega)$, which we first encountered in Lect. 4

Each mode can be represented as a point on a lattice in k -space



Each mode occupies $\frac{\pi}{L_x} \frac{\pi}{L_y} \frac{\pi}{L_z} = \frac{\pi^3}{V}$ volume in k -space*

States of constant ω lie on a spherical shell in k -space with radius $k = \omega / c$

Question 1: Write down an expression for the density of states of the photon gas $D(\omega)$

of modes with frequency between ω and $\omega+d\omega$ $\approx \frac{\text{volume of shell in } k\text{-space with radius } k = \omega / c}{\text{volume in } k\text{-space per state}}$

$$D(\omega)d\omega \approx 2 \frac{4\pi k^2 dk / 8}{\pi^3 / V} = \frac{V}{\pi^2} k^2 dk = \frac{V}{\pi^2} \frac{\omega^2 d\omega}{c^3}$$

↑

*We also need to account for 2 polarization states of each mode

Note that this is equivalent to writing:

$$2 \times \sum_{n_x=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_y=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_z=1}^{\infty} \rightarrow 2 \times \int_0^{\infty} dn_x \int_0^{\infty} dn_y \int_0^{\infty} dn_z = 2 \frac{L_x L_y L_z}{\pi^3} \int_0^{\infty} dk_x \int_0^{\infty} dk_y \int_0^{\infty} dk_z = 2 \frac{V}{\pi^3} \frac{4\pi}{8} \int_0^{\infty} dk k^2$$

Note: we could have used periodic boundary conditions for the cavity instead, in which the solutions would have been traveling waves with

$$k_x = \frac{n_x \pi}{L_x}, k_y = \frac{n_y \pi}{L_y}, \text{ and } k_z = \frac{n_z \pi}{L_z} \text{ and } n_{x,y,z} = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2 \dots$$

In this case, each mode takes a volume in k -space of $(2\pi)^3/V$, but we would have to integrate over a complete shell (instead of 1/8 of a shell) because $k_{x,y,z}$ can now be negative. We get the same answer – factor of 2^3 for volume per mode cancels with $8 \times$ larger shell volume.

KEY CONCEPTS: Planck radiation law, blackbody

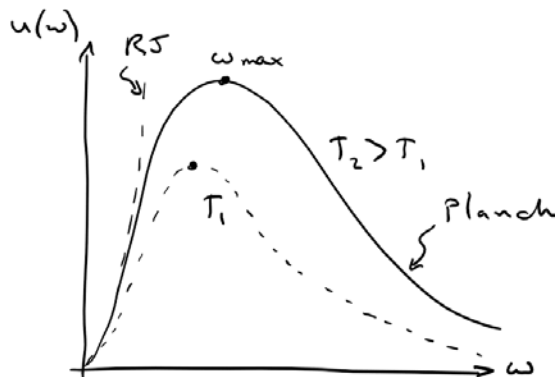
Putting it all together,

$$U_{\text{tot}} = \sum_n \frac{\hbar \omega_n}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega_n} - 1} \approx \int_0^\infty d\omega D(\omega) \frac{\hbar \omega}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1} = \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{V}{\pi^2} \frac{\omega^2}{c^3} \frac{\hbar \omega}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1}$$

Considering the energy density $u = U/V$ instead

$$u_{\text{tot}} = \int_0^\infty d\omega \underbrace{\frac{\hbar \omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1}}_{u(\omega)}$$

$u(\omega)$ is the energy density in a frequency band $\omega, \omega + d\omega$ – the Planck radiation law.



Spectrum $u(\omega)$ entirely determined by temperature of cavity T

Spectrum has a peak, so object at temperature T has a characteristic color

Where is the peak? Define $x = \beta \hbar \omega = \frac{\hbar \omega}{k_B T}$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} = 0 = \frac{3x^2}{e^x - 1} - \frac{x^3 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} = \frac{x^2}{e^x - 1} \left(3 - \frac{x e^x}{e^x - 1} \right)$$

Gives trivial solutions $x = 0, \infty$, and a nontrivial solution:

$$3 = \frac{x e^x}{e^x - 1} \text{ or } 3(1 - e^{-x}) = x$$

which is solved numerically by $x_{\text{max}} = 2.82$, so

$$\hbar \omega_{\text{max}} = 2.82 k_B T$$

also called Wien's displacement law

Blackbody – idealized object that absorbs all EM radiation (at all ω or λ). In thermal equilibrium at temperature T , a blackbody emits radiation according to the Planck radiation law $u(\omega)$.

Ex: Cosmic microwave background (CMB)

Early universe was filled with hot ionized gas interacting strongly with EM radiation – photon gas at thermal equilibrium at $T \approx 3000$ K ($\lambda_{peak} \sim \mu\text{m}$). Universe expanded (can think of this as isentropic expansion) and photon λ was stretched or Doppler-shifted $\sim 1000\times$. Today, remnant looks like blackbody at $T = 2.73$ K ($\lambda_{peak} \sim \text{mm}$), although photon gas is no longer at equilibrium.

CMB is as close to an ideal blackbody as you can find in nature. Most objects (e.g. celestial bodies) show deviations from $u(\omega)$, but Planck radiation law is a good first approximation.

How does $u(\omega)$ behave in regime $\hbar\omega \ll k_B T$?

$$u(\omega) = \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1} \approx \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{k_B T}{\hbar\omega} = \omega^2 \frac{k_B T}{\pi^2 c^3}$$

This is called the Raleigh-Jeans law. This is a classical result (notice \hbar disappeared from expression). Without QM, predicts $u(\omega) \propto \omega^2$ (see curve above)

Notice that Raleigh-Jeans law would predict that

$$u_{tot} = \int_0^{\infty} d\omega u(\omega) \rightarrow \infty$$

This was called the ultraviolet catastrophe. RJ model predicted that if we'd open an oven, high energy EM radiation (ultraviolet, X-rays, etc.) would come out!

The failure of the classical model / equipartition theorem lead to idea of photon and QM.

KEY CONCEPT: Stefan-Boltzmann law

What is u_{tot} with correct $u(\omega)$?

Question 2: Show that the correct u_{tot} scales as T^4 and find the value of γ .

The correct expression for the total energy is

$$u_{tot} = \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1}$$

Define $x \equiv \beta\hbar\omega = \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T}$, so $dx = \frac{\hbar}{k_B T} d\omega$

$$u_{tot} = \frac{(k_B T)^4}{\pi^2 (\hbar c)^3} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1}}_{\text{number}} = \alpha T^4$$

i.e. the area under curve is proportional to T^4 . Notice the difference with an ideal gas: $U \sim T$.

Let's evaluate the integral in x . We will encounter many integrals of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^n}{e^x - 1} &= \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^n e^{-x}}{1 - e^{-x}} = \int_0^\infty dx x^n e^{-x} \sum_{k=0}^\infty e^{-kx} = \int_0^\infty dx x^n \sum_{k=1}^\infty e^{-kx} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^\infty \int_0^\infty dx x^n e^{-kx} = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{k^{n+1}} = \Gamma(n+1) \zeta(n+1) \end{aligned}$$

where the Gamma function $\Gamma(n+1) = n!$ for integers, and

$$\zeta(n) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{1}{k^n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{3^n} + \dots$$

is called the Riemann zeta function. We can look this up in a table:

$$\zeta(4) = \frac{\pi^4}{90} \text{ and } \Gamma(4) = 3! = 6$$

Putting it all together, we get the Stefan-Boltzmann law of radiation:

$$u_{tot} = \frac{\pi^2 (k_B T)^4}{15 (\hbar c)^3}$$

Question 3: Find an expression for the entropy S of the photon gas given $u_{tot} = \alpha T^4$

Hint: use the thermodynamic identity.

The cavity has a fixed volume V so $dU = TdS - p dV$

$$\begin{aligned} dS &= \frac{dU}{T} = 4\alpha V \frac{T^3 dT}{T} = 4\alpha V T^2 dT \\ S &= \int dS = \frac{4}{3} \alpha V T^3 + \text{const.} \end{aligned}$$

The constant of integration is zero by the third law of thermodynamics, i.e. $S(T \rightarrow 0) = 0$. So,

$$S(T, V) = \frac{4}{3} \alpha V T^3 \quad \text{or} \quad S(U, V) = \frac{4}{3} (\alpha V)^{1/4} U^{3/4}$$

Notice the difference in dependence compared to an ideal gas: $S \sim \ln U$
