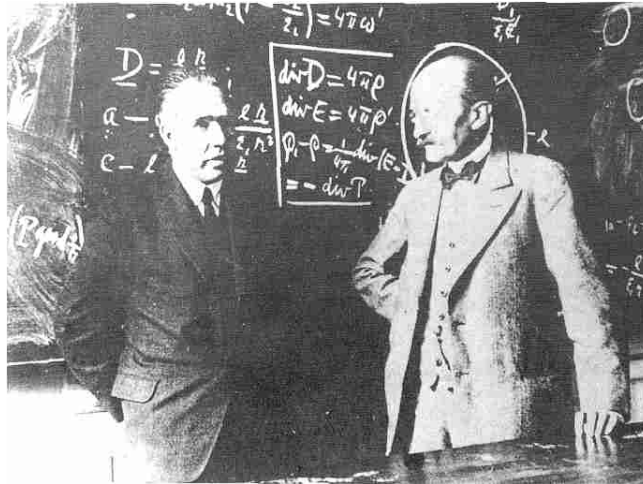


# Thermodynamics of Radiation



Niels Bohr & Max Planck

373

## Chapter 7

### Thermodynamics of Radiation

#### 7.1 Thermodynamics of Radiation

#### 7.2 Kirchhoff's Law

#### 7.3 Stefan-Boltzmann Law

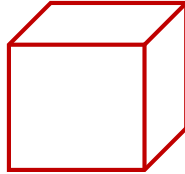
#### 7.4 $\mu$ and $S$ for photons

#### 7.5 Planck's Law



## 7.1 Thermodynamics of Radiation

- Consider an evacuated box at temperature  $T$ . It contains electromagnetic radiation ( “equilibrium radiation” or “**black-body radiation**”).



- From a QM point of view, this is a gas of photons and the walls continually **emit, absorb, & reflect** photons.
- From a classical perspective, regard it as a superposition of many standing electromagnetic (EM) waves in a cavity.
- In thermodynamics we can treat this like a gas. But there are some important differences:
  - Number  $N$  of particles (photons) is not fixed.
  - All photons have the same speed  $c$  (though not the same energy).

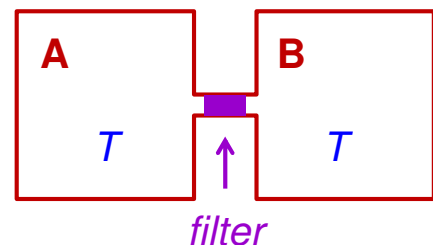
375

### Energy Density

- Introduce the **spectral energy density**,  $u_\lambda$ , i.e. the energy per unit volume in the range  $d\lambda$  is  $u_\lambda d\lambda$ . It depends only on  $\lambda$  and  $T$ . It does not depend on the nature of walls.

Integrated energy density  $u(T) = \int u_\lambda(\lambda, T) d\lambda$

- To show this, imagine two boxes, **A** and **B**, both at temperature  $T$ , connected through a filter which passes only the range  $[\lambda, \lambda + d\lambda]$ .



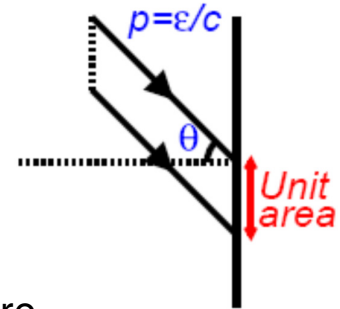
- If  $u^A_\lambda > u^B_\lambda$  there would be a net flow of energy from  $A \rightarrow B$ . Impossible if  $T_A = T_B$ .
- If we expand a cavity at fixed  $T$ , the total energy will increase by creating more photons, not by changing their spectrum or density.**

376

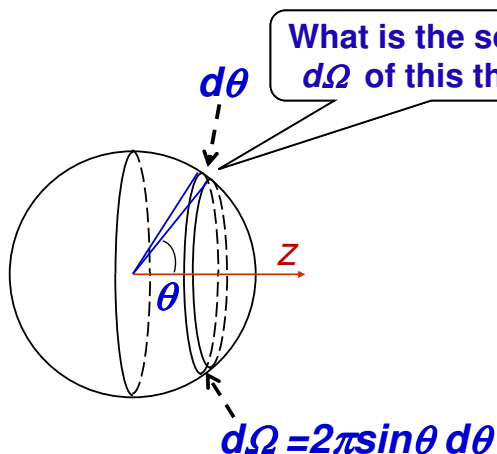
## Radiation Pressure

- Suppose the number of photons per unit volume with an energy in the range  $[\varepsilon, \varepsilon + d\varepsilon]$  is  $n_\varepsilon(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon$ .

Consider photons approaching the surface at an angle  $\theta$  to the normal: in unit time, photons in volume  $c \cos \theta \times 1$  will hit a unit area.



But what fraction of the total number of photons are approaching the surface at angles between  $\theta$  and  $\theta + d\theta$ ?



=> number of photons hitting a unit area per unit time with energy in the range  $[\varepsilon, \varepsilon + d\varepsilon]$  and angles in the range  $[\theta, \theta + d\theta]$  is

$$n_\varepsilon(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon \cdot c \cos \theta \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta d\theta \Rightarrow d\Omega/4\pi$$

377

## Pressure of Radiation

- For a photon  $\frac{\omega}{k} = c \Rightarrow \hbar k = \frac{\hbar \omega}{c} \Rightarrow p = \frac{\varepsilon}{c}$ , so each photon carries a momentum component orthogonal to the surface  $\varepsilon \cos \theta/c$ .

For perfectly reflecting surfaces its momentum change is  $2\varepsilon \cos \theta/c$  and the pressure is:

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \int_{\varepsilon=0}^{\infty} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi/2} 2\varepsilon n_\varepsilon(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \cos^2 \theta \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= \int_{\varepsilon=0}^{\infty} u_\varepsilon(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \left[ -\frac{1}{3} \cos^3 \theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{1}{3} u \end{aligned}$$

- For a perfectly absorbing surface ('black') in equilibrium, **the surface must be radiating the same energy as it absorbs**,  $\Rightarrow$  the extra (recoil) pressure is equal to this. Net pressure  $p = (1/3)u$  again.
- A similar argument applies for partially absorbing surfaces.

378

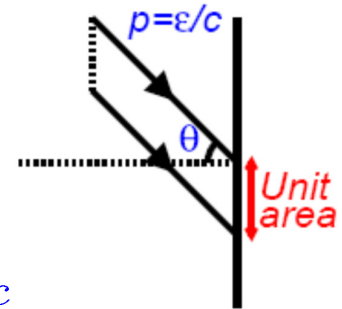
## 7.2 Kirchhoff's Law

- A surface is in equilibrium with radiation  $\Rightarrow$  there must be an energy **balance between emitted, absorbed and reflected radiation**.

- Consider flux of photons from a gas of number density  $n$  hitting a surface:

In unit time, photons in volume  $c \cos \theta \times 1$  will hit a unit area.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{Flux} &= \int c \cos \theta \cdot n \cdot \frac{d\Omega}{4\pi} \\ &= \int c \cos \theta \cdot n \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{4} n c \end{aligned}$$



...just like kinetic theory.

- Replace  $n$  by  $n_\epsilon(\epsilon)d\epsilon$  above if we are looking in a restricted spectral range. Or  $n_\lambda(\lambda)d\lambda$

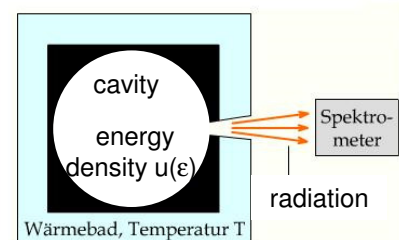
379

## Kirchhoff's Law

- Consider a body in equilibrium with radiation inside a cavity at temperature  $T$ .

- Energy hitting a unit area of the surface per unit time for an energy interval  $d\epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{4} n_\epsilon(\epsilon) c d\epsilon \cdot \epsilon \\ &= \frac{1}{4} u_\epsilon(\epsilon) c d\epsilon = \frac{1}{4} u_\lambda(\lambda) c d\lambda \end{aligned}$$



- Define "Spectral absorptivity"  $= \alpha_\lambda(\lambda)$  as the fraction absorbed.
- Define "Spectral radiant exitance"  $= e_\lambda(\lambda, T)d\lambda$  as the energy per unit area emitted in the wavelength range  $[\lambda, \lambda + d\lambda]$

- **Energy out = energy in.**  $\Rightarrow e_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{1}{4} u_\lambda c d\lambda \alpha_\lambda$

380

## Kirchhoff's Law

$$e_{\lambda} d\lambda = \frac{1}{4} u_{\lambda} c d\lambda \alpha_{\lambda}$$

- This gives us Kirchhoff's law:  $\frac{e_{\lambda}}{\alpha_{\lambda}} = \frac{1}{4} u_{\lambda}(\lambda, T) c$

- The r.h.s. is a universal function of  $\lambda$  and  $T$  only; it applies for any body.
- Specifically, for a 'Black Body' which absorbs perfectly at all wavelengths,  $\alpha_{\lambda}^{BB} = 1$ , and hence

$$e_{\lambda}^{BB} = \frac{1}{4} u_{\lambda}(\lambda, T) c$$

- This demonstrates that black-body radiation is equivalent to equilibrium radiation in a cavity (i.e. same spectrum and temperature dependence).
- For a 'non black' body the "Spectral radiant exitance" =  $e_{\lambda}(\lambda, T)$  is then given by:

$$e_{\lambda}(\lambda, T) = \epsilon_{\lambda} e_{\lambda}^{BB}(\lambda, T)$$

where, by Kirchhoff's law the emissivity of the surface (fraction of the black body intensity that a surface emits at a particular wavelength) is equal to the spectral absorptivity:

$$\epsilon_{\lambda}(\lambda) = \alpha_{\lambda}(\lambda)$$

381

## 7.3 Stefan-Boltzmann Law

- For Radiation we have internal energy ( $U$ ) and internal energy density ( $u$ ) related by  $U = u(T)V$ , and  $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial V}\right)_T = 0$
- First Law:  $dU = TdS - pdV$ ; divide by  $dV$  at constant  $T$ :

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T - p \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = T \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T}\right)_V}_{\text{Maxwell}} - p$$

- Recalling that  $p = (1/3)u$ , this gives

$$u = \frac{1}{3} \left( T \frac{du}{dT} - u \right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{du}{u} = 4 \frac{dT}{T} \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = AT^4$$

where  $A$  is a constant of integration.

382

## Stefan-Boltzmann Law

- We can relate  $u = AT^4$  to the emission from a black body.

Energy emitted per unit area per unit time =

$$\int e_{\lambda} d\lambda = \int \frac{1}{4} u_{\lambda}(\lambda, T) c d\lambda = \frac{1}{4} u(T) c = \frac{1}{4} A c T^4 = \sigma T^4$$

- $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant. We need quantum theory + statistical mechanics to calculate it (see later) . In fact:

$$\sigma = \frac{\pi^2 k_B^4}{60 \hbar^3 c^2} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^2 \text{ K}^{-4}$$

- [Note: from  $u = AT^4$  we have  $p = (1/3) AT^4$ . This is in effect the **equation of state for the photon gas** (and doesn't involve  $V$ ).]
- (at 300K corresponds to  $\approx 50 \text{ mW/cm}^2$  – compare sunlight –  $1 \text{ kW/m}^2$  at Earth's surface, or  $0.1 \text{ W/cm}^2$ ) 383

## 7.4 Entropy and Gibbs free energy of a photon gas

- The Gibbs free energy of a photon gas will be given by:

$$G = U + PV - TS$$

and per unit volume:  $g = u + p - Ts$  (where  $g$  and  $s$  are the Gibbs free energy and entropy per unit volume)

- To evaluate  $s$  we need to integrate  $dq/T$  as the photon gas is heated from absolute zero. Since we are working at constant volume, heat transferred for a change in temperature is:

$$dq = du = 4AT^3 dT$$

and so the entropy of the photon gas is given by:

$$s = \int_0^T \frac{dq}{T} = \int_0^T 4AT^2 dT = \frac{4}{3} AT^3$$

Giving a Gibbs free energy per volume:

$$g = AT^4 + \frac{1}{3} AT^4 - T \cdot \frac{4}{3} AT^3 = 0$$

This means that the Gibbs free energy per photon, (the chemical potential,  $\mu$ ), is also zero. 384

## $\mu = 0$ for a photons: photons are different

- Recall at the start of the course we pointed out that the state of a system is defined by specifying the number of particles (*i.e.* contents), the energy and volume of a box. But photons are clearly different from ‘normal’ particles in a number of ways – not least that they can be created and annihilated seeming at will on the walls of the box.
- Recall the expression for entropy change from the master equation is:

$$dS = \frac{dU}{T} + \frac{p}{T} dV + \frac{\mu}{T} dN$$

So the fact that  $dN$  can be seemingly changed with no penalty (other than the need to find the energy,  $dU$ , from somewhere) is consistent with the fact that the chemical potential,  $\mu$ , is zero – so there is no effect on  $S$  when these photons are created and annihilated (other than the associated transfer of energy to the box).

- The point is you cannot separate the existence of the ‘particle’ that is a photon from the transfer of energy to a mode of the electromagnetic waves in the box – so worrying about the effect on the entropy of transferring a particle ( $dN$ ) as well as the energy transfer ( $dU$ ) be double counting the effect of the change in state.

385

## *Permitted states: ‘Waves in a box’*

- In order to use statistical thermodynamics to gain information about the spectrum of black body radiation need to know what the photon states are.
- Consider electromagnetic standing waves in a box. Take a cubic box, of side  $L$  so that the electric field  $\underline{\varepsilon}_{\parallel} = 0$  at  $x = 0, L$  etc. Standard boundary conditions give:

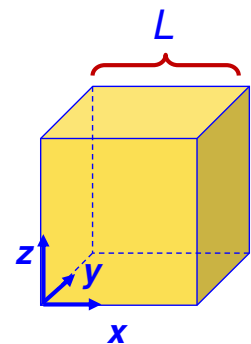
$$\underline{\varepsilon} = \underline{\varepsilon}_0 \sin(k_x x) \sin(k_y y) \sin(k_z z)$$

where

$$k_x L = n_x \pi; \quad k_y L = n_y \pi; \quad k_z L = n_z \pi$$

*i.e.* the photons must have wave vectors:

$$\mathbf{k} = \frac{\pi}{L} (n_x \quad n_y \quad n_z) \quad \text{Where } n_x, n_y \text{ and } n_z \text{ are all positive}$$

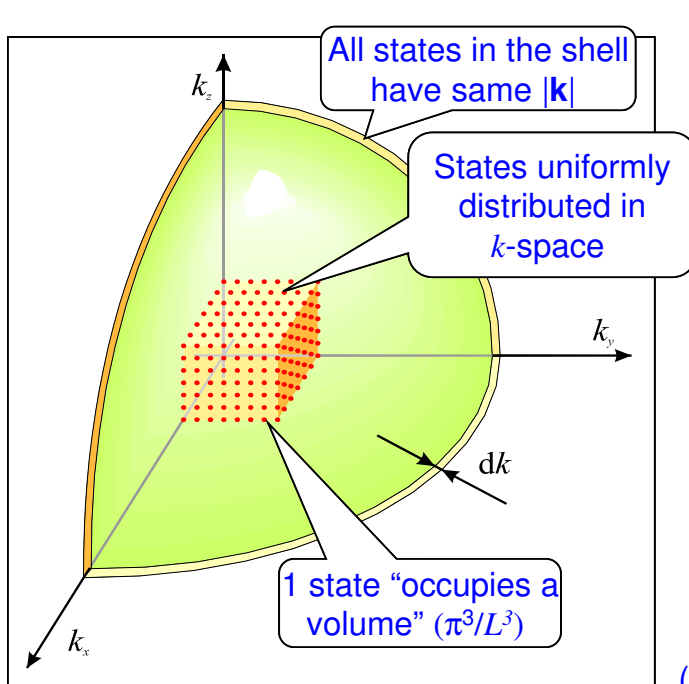


**Note: momentum states are uniformly distributed in  $p$  space** 386



## “Waves in a box”: density of states

- Since the photon energy depends on  $|\mathbf{k}|$  we want to know how many states ( $\delta N$ ) lie between  $|\mathbf{k}|=k$  and  $|\mathbf{k}|=k + \delta k$ , i.e. **what is the density of states  $g(k)$  ( $= \frac{dN}{dk}$ ) since  $\delta N = g(k) \delta k$ .**



Volume of shell

2 Polarisations/k state

Vol. of one state

$$\delta N = g(k) \delta k = 2 \frac{4\pi k^2 \delta k}{8} \frac{\pi^3}{L^3}$$

$$= \frac{V k^2}{\pi^2} \delta k \Rightarrow g(k) = \frac{V k^2}{\pi^2}$$

And the energy density of states:

$$g(\epsilon) = \frac{dN}{d\epsilon} = \frac{dN}{dk} \frac{dk}{d\epsilon} = g(k) \frac{dk}{d\epsilon}$$

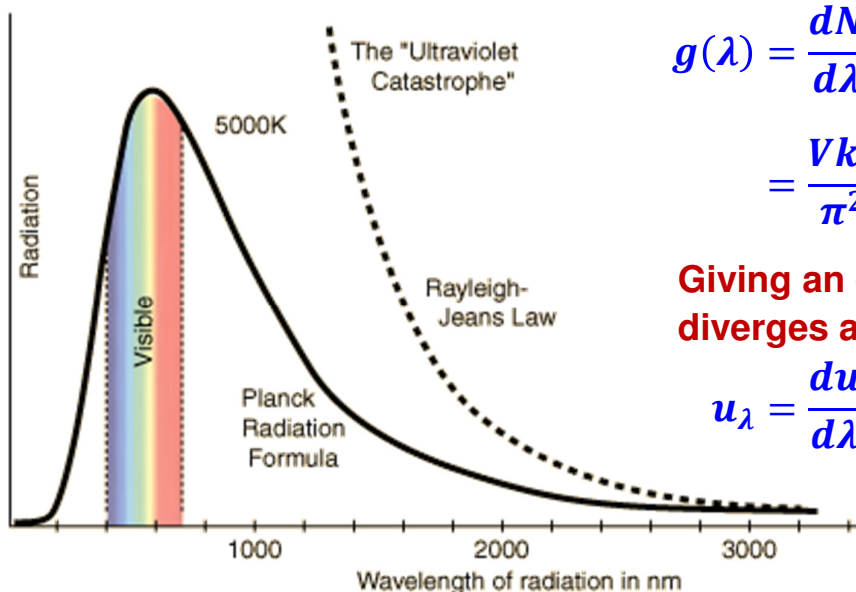
$$g(\epsilon) = \frac{V \epsilon^2}{\hbar^3 c^3 \pi^2}$$

387

( $\epsilon = \hbar\omega = \hbar ck$  and  $V=L^3$ =volume of box)

## “Ultraviolet Catastrophe”

- In classical thermodynamics, each way of storing energy which is a quadratic function of a coordinate takes  $\frac{1}{2}k_B T$  of energy – here we have energy stored in E and B fields ( $\frac{1}{2}\epsilon_0 E^2$  and  $\frac{1}{2}B^2/\mu_0$  per unit volume) – so each  $k$  state gets  $k_B T$  of energy. Working with  $\lambda$  gives:



$$g(\lambda) = \frac{dN}{d\lambda} = \frac{dN}{dk} \frac{dk}{d\lambda} = g(k) \frac{dk}{d\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{V k^2}{\pi^2} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2} = \frac{8\pi V}{\lambda^4} \quad (k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda})$$

**Giving an energy density that diverges as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ :**

$$u_\lambda = \frac{du}{d\lambda} = k_B T \frac{dN}{d\lambda} = \frac{k_B T 8\pi V}{\lambda^4}$$

( Rayleigh-Jeans Law)

388



## 7.5 Planck's Law

- Planck proposed that energy was transferred in quanta of  $\hbar\omega$ . Since we can have an integer  $n$  photons in each mode, each mode can have energies  $0, \hbar\omega, 2\hbar\omega \dots$  and the mean energy per mode is exactly as for the simple harmonic oscillator – the ‘Planck’ formula.

$$\bar{U} = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{dZ}{d\beta} = \frac{\hbar\omega e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega})} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{(e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1)} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{\left(e^{\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}} - 1\right)}$$

- To get the spectral energy density, we need to multiply this energy per photon mode (i.e. per  $k$  state) by the density of states w.r.t.  $\omega$ .

$$g(\omega) = \frac{dN}{d\epsilon} \frac{d\epsilon}{d\omega} = g(\epsilon) \frac{d\epsilon}{d\omega} = \frac{V\epsilon^2}{\hbar^3 c^3 \pi^2} \frac{d\epsilon}{d\omega} = \frac{V(\hbar\omega)^2}{\hbar^3 c^3 \pi^2} \hbar = \frac{V\omega^2}{c^3 \pi^2}$$

389

## Planck's Law (contd.)

- Hence

$$g(\omega) = \frac{V\omega^2}{c^3 \pi^2}$$

- Energy density:  $u(\omega, T)d\omega$  is the energy/unit volume between  $\omega$  and  $\omega + d\omega$ :

$$u(\omega, T) = g(\omega) \bar{U} / V = \frac{\omega^2}{c^3 \pi^2} \frac{\hbar\omega}{\left(e^{\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}} - 1\right)}$$

- This yields the Planck black body spectrum:

$$u(\omega, T) = \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3 (e^{\hbar\omega/kT} - 1)}$$

390

## Planck's Law (contd.)

- Integrate  $u(\omega, T)$  to obtain the total energy density, substituting  $x = \beta \hbar \omega$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 u(T) &= \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{\omega^3}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1} d\omega \\
 &= \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \left( \frac{kT}{\hbar} \right)^4 \underbrace{\int_0^\infty \frac{x^3 dx}{e^x - 1}}_{= \pi^4/15} \\
 &= \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \left( \frac{kT}{\hbar} \right)^4 \frac{\pi^4}{15}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$u(T) = \frac{k^4 T^4 \pi^2}{15 \hbar^3 c^3}$$

*Stefan-Boltzmann law*

391

## Planck's Law (contd.)

- Can rewrite the Planck distribution in terms of wavelength  $\lambda$  (this was actually Planck's first form of the law, proposed as an empirical fit to data.).

$$u_\lambda(T) = \frac{8\pi ch}{\lambda^5 (e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1)}$$

- The basic dependence on  $\lambda$  – namely  $u_\lambda(T) = \lambda^{-5} f(\lambda T)$  is called **Wien's Distribution Law**.

- By differentiating w.r.t.  $\lambda$  one obtains **Wien's Displacement Law**

$$\frac{du_\lambda}{d\lambda} = f'(\lambda T) T \lambda^{-5} - 5 \lambda^{-6} f(\lambda T) = \frac{f'(\lambda T) \lambda T - 5 f(\lambda T)}{\lambda^6}$$

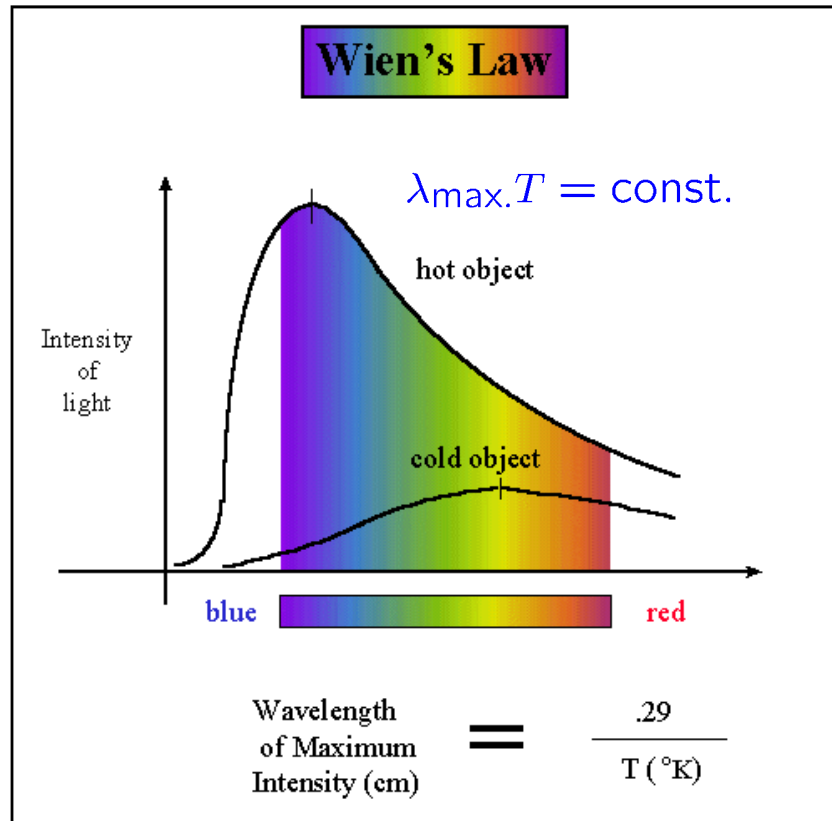
$$f'(\lambda_{\max} T) \lambda_{\max} T - 5 f(\lambda_{\max} T) = 0$$

$$\lambda_{\max} T = \text{const.}$$

$\lambda_{\max}$  is the wavelength at which the distribution peaks. Numerically,  $\lambda_{\max} T = 2.9 \text{ mm K}$ , inserting constants from Planck distribution.

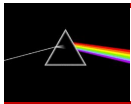
392

# Wien's Displacement Law

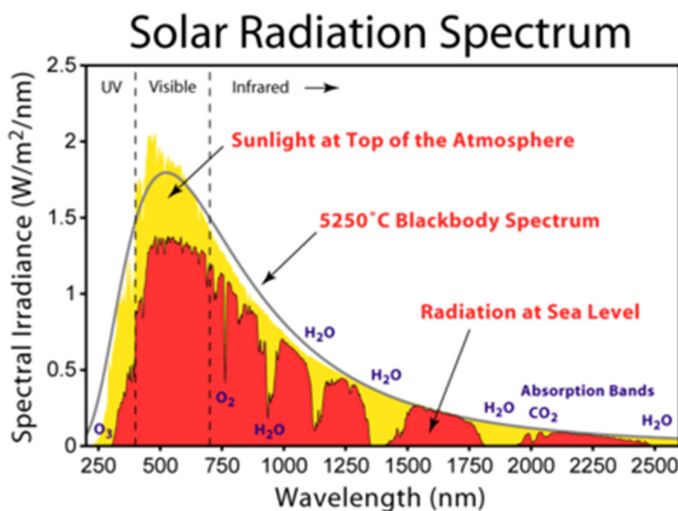


393

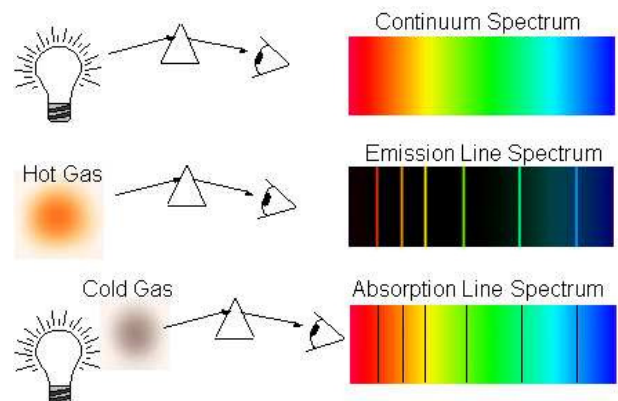
[http://www.astro.cornell.edu/academics/courses/astro201/wiens\\_law.htm](http://www.astro.cornell.edu/academics/courses/astro201/wiens_law.htm)



## Examples



[http://ockhams-axe.com/global\\_warming](http://ockhams-axe.com/global_warming)



<http://www.astro.cornell.edu/academics/courses/astro101/herter/lectures/lec09.htm>

394

## Section 7- Summary

- Consider cavity or black-body radiation as a gas of photons.

- pressure  $p = \frac{1}{3}u$

- Kirchhoff's Law

$$\frac{e_{\lambda}}{\alpha_{\lambda}} = \frac{1}{4}u_{\lambda}(T)c$$

- Stefan-Boltzmann Law:  $u = AT^4$ ; power emitted per unit area =  $\sigma T^4$ .

- Planck distribution for Black Body radiation:

$$u(\omega, T) = \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2c^3(e^{\hbar\omega/kT} - 1)}$$