

# Understanding the spectrum of a blackbody

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## Part 3

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**P** = probability

$\phi$  = Probability amplitude

$$\mathbf{P} = |\phi|^2$$

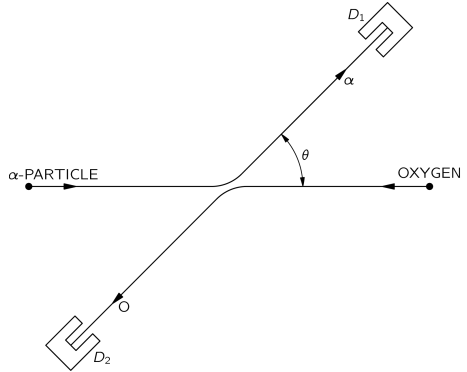
$$\phi = \phi_1 + \phi_2$$

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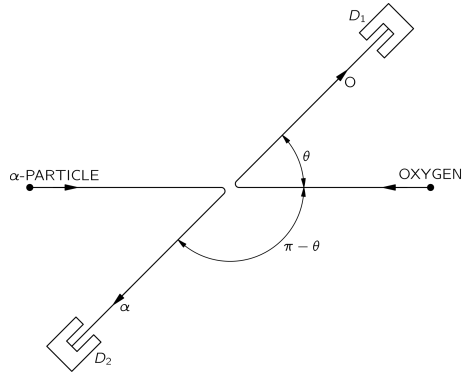


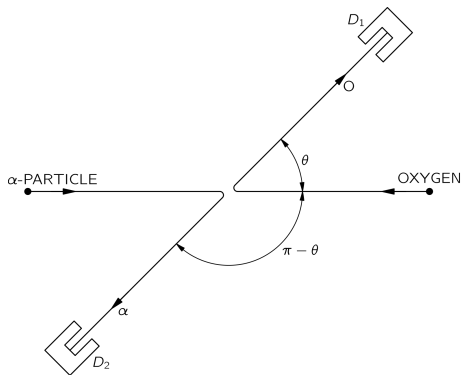
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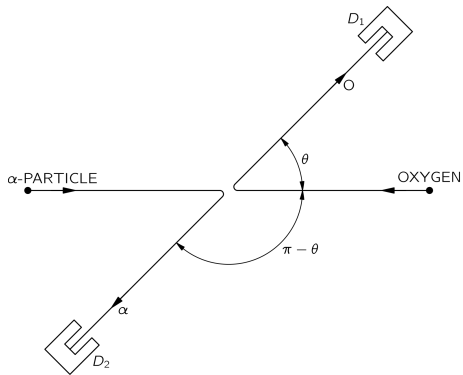


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- We will not distinguish which particle is which entering the detector.
- This means that if oxygen atom in position  $\theta$ , then  $\alpha$  particle on the opposite side is at an angle  $\pi - \theta$ .

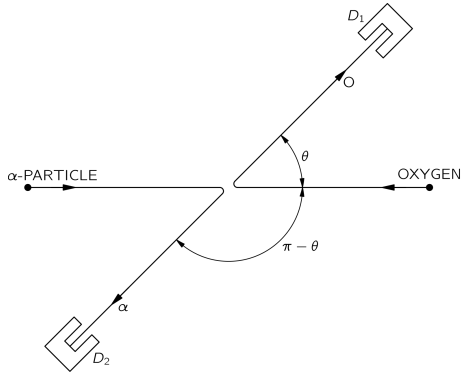




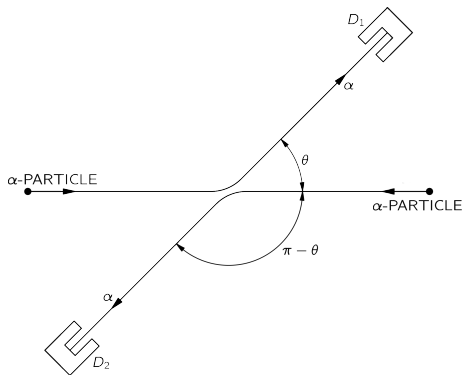
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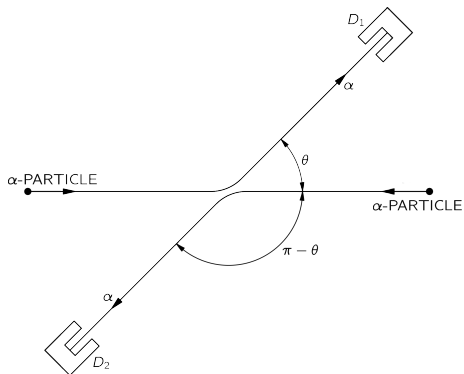
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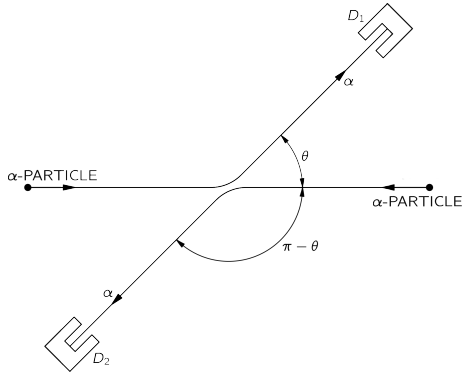
- Probability amplitude of oxygen atom =  $f(\pi - \theta)$
- Probability amplitude of  $\alpha$  particle =  $f(\theta)$
- The probability of a particle being detected at detector 1 =  $|f(\theta)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta)|^2$



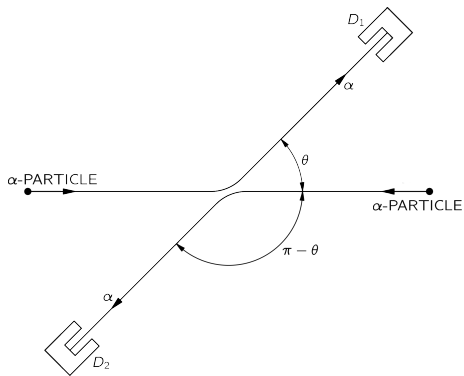
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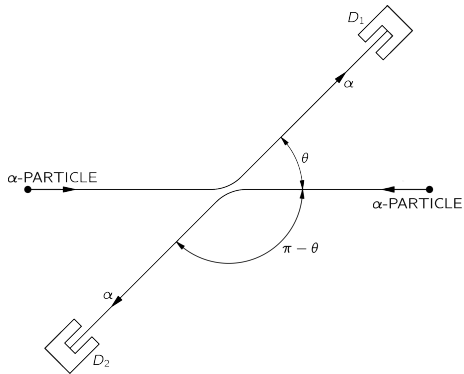


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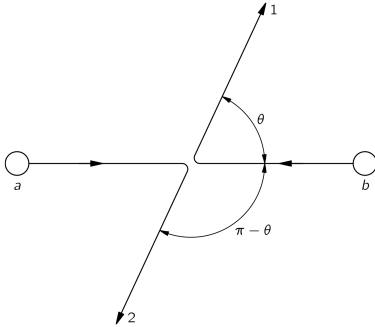


- If  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then applying this to the expression  $|f(\theta) + f(\pi - \theta)|^2$  we get,





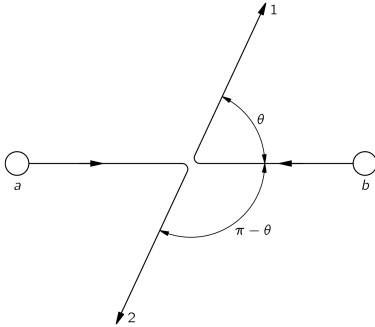
- If  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then applying this to the expression  $|f(\theta) + f(\pi - \theta)|^2$  we get,
- Probability =  $4|f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)|^2$ , if the particles are indistinguishable.



- Suppose the particles were distinguishable, then the probability for  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$  when applied for

$$|f(\theta)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta)|^2$$

is given by

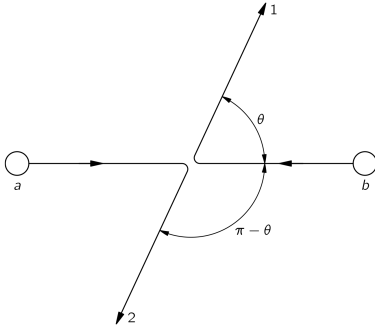


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- In electrons case , the interfering amplitude for exchange interfere with a negative sign.  
Probability for electron =  $|f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta)|^2$



Fraction of cases	Particle 1	Particle 2	Spin at D1	Spin at D2	Probability
$\frac{1}{4}$	up	up	up	up	$ f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
$\frac{1}{4}$	down	down	down	down	$ f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
$\frac{1}{4}$	up	down	up	down	$ f(\theta) ^2$
			down	up	$ f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
$\frac{1}{4}$	down	up	up	down	$ f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
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## Identical Particles

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**Identical particles**, also called **indistinguishable particle**, are particles that cannot be distinguished from one another.

## Identical indistinguishable particles

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$$|\langle 1|a\rangle \langle 2|b\rangle + \langle 2|a\rangle \langle 1|b\rangle|^2 ds_1 ds_2$$

- Integrating over the area of the detector , if we let  $ds_1$  and  $ds_2$  range over the whole area  $(\Delta S)$  , we could count each part of the area twice since the expression  $|\langle 1|a\rangle \langle 2|b\rangle + \langle 2|a\rangle \langle 1|b\rangle|^2 ds_1 ds_2$  contains everything that can happen with any pair of surface elements  $ds_1$  and  $ds_2$ .



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- This is just twice what we got the probability for distinguished particles.

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- Consider n particles say a, b, c...scattered in n direction say 1, 2, 3 ...
- Probability that each particle acting alone would go into an element of the surface  $ds$  of the detector is  $|\langle \cdot \cdot \cdot \rangle|^2 ds$ .

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- Probability that n particles will be counted together in n different surface elements =  $|a_1 b_2 c_3 \dots|^2 ds_1 ds_2 \dots$
- If the amplitude does not depend on where ds is located in the detector , then the

$$Probability = \left( |a|^2 |b|^2 \dots \right) (ds_1 ds_2 \dots)$$

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- $(P_n)_{BOSE} = n! (P_n)_{different}$

- What is the probability that a boson will go into particular state when there are already  $n$  particles present ?

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where  $a = \langle j | a \rangle$  is the amplitude when there are no other photons are present.

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- The above two equations show that they are symmetric in nature.

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- Probability that it will make a spontaneous transition  $|a|^2$  is proportional to the number of photons.
- The co-efficient of absorption, of induced emission and spontaneous emission are all equal and are related to the probability of spontaneous emission.

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- NOTE: Each atom in the ground state can absorb a photon and go into the excited state and each atom in the excited state can emit a photon and go to the ground state.

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- Rate is proportional to the probability of the event and the number of atoms present.
- $\bar{n}$  is the average number of photons present in a given state with the frequency  $\omega$ .

- The absorption rate from the state is  $N_g \bar{n} |a|^2$ , and the emission rate into that state is  $N_e(\bar{n} + 1) |a|^2$ .
- At equilibrium  $N_g \bar{n} |a|^2 = N_e(\bar{n} + 1) |a|^2$

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- The energy of each photon is given by  $\frac{\hbar\omega}{e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1}$
- For any harmonic oscillator, the quantum mechanical energy levels are equally spaced with a separation  $\hbar\omega$ .

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Considering the boson which do not interact with each other, and in that state the whole system of particles behaves (for all quantum mechanical purpose) exactly like an harmonic oscillator.

- Analysing the Electro-magnetic field in a box, it show the properties of an harmonic oscillation.
- Thus, the number of photons in a particular state in a box, can be equated to the number of energy levels associated with the particular modes of oscillation of the electromagnetic fields.

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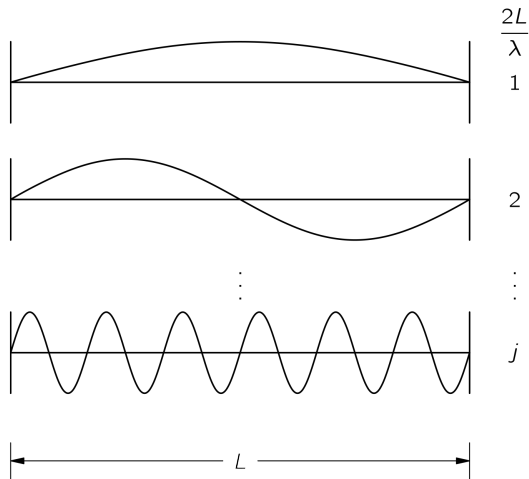
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### *ASSUMPTION*

For every mode there are some atoms in the box, which have energy levels that can radiate into that mode so that each mode can get into thermal equilibrium.

- There will be billions of modes in the box and there will be many small frequency intervals  $\Delta\omega$ .



- The wave number  $k$  is given by  $k = \frac{j\pi}{\lambda}$ .
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$$\delta k = k_{j+1} - k_j = \frac{\pi}{L}$$

- An assumption is made that  $kL$  is large that in small interval  $\Delta k$ , there are many modes.

- $\Delta W$  is the number of modes in the interval  $\Delta k$ .

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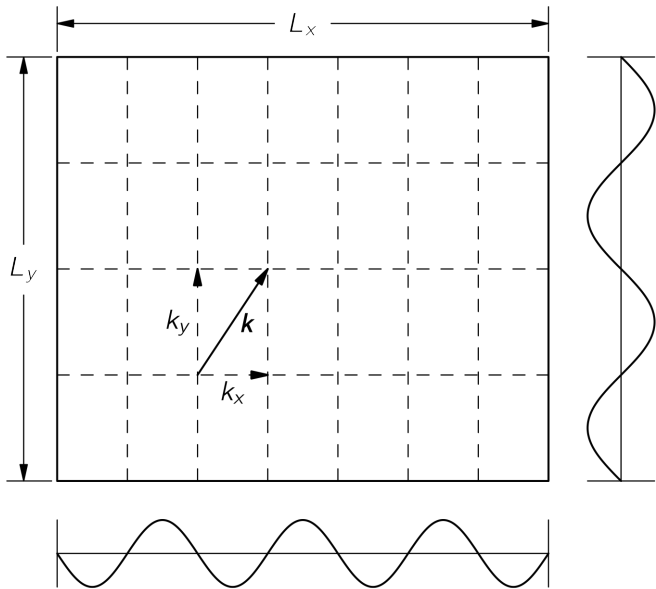
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$$\Delta W = \frac{L_x L_y L_z}{(2\pi)^3} (\Delta k_x \Delta k_y \Delta k_z) \quad (1)$$

$$dW(K) = V \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \quad (2)$$

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- Multiplying This by the number of modes, we get the energy  $\Delta E$  in the modes that lie in the interval  $\Delta\omega$  :

$$\Delta E = \left( \frac{\hbar\omega}{e^{\hbar\omega/k_B T} - 1} \right) \left( \frac{V\omega^3 \Delta\omega}{\pi^2 c^3} \right)$$

The photons are the bosons, which have tendency to try to get to all into the same state.

Thank you