

# Lecture\_09

February 22, 2023

## 1 The continuum of spectra: Black-body radiation

We now know that if we were to look at the light coming from an object within the Universe, we'd expect to see features of particular widths at wavelengths associated with transitions between states of different atoms. However, what the continuum behaviour? That is, what function should describe the light outside of these wavelengths? To understand this, we need to consider black-body radiation.

First, a black-body is a physical body that absorbs all electromagnetic radiation incident on it. "A perfect absorber/emitter of radiation" - which means the efficiency of absorption/emissions is 1. The distribution of the energy density of the radiation with frequency/wavelength is determined by the objects temperature  $T$ , according to the Planck blackbody radiation law (see the website for the full derivation, combines information from PY2102 and PY2104).

$$u(\omega, T)d\omega = \frac{\hbar\omega^3 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3 (\exp[\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}] - 1)}$$

This gives emitted energy density as a function of  $\omega$ . This function then describes the expected spectrum of an object outside of absorption/emission features. There are a couple of interesting features we can immediately work out. First, the peak of this function occurs at

$$\frac{du}{d\omega} = 0$$

which has the solution

$$(3 - \beta\hbar\omega) \exp(\beta\hbar\omega) = 3$$

where  $\beta = 1/kT$ . This is a transcendental equation, and must be either solved graphically or numerically. The solution is

$$\frac{\hbar\omega_{\text{peak}}}{kT} = \frac{h\nu_{\text{peak}}}{kT} = 2.822$$

which is the Wien displacement law. This relates the frequency at which a blackbody peaks with the temperature of the object. This peak moves towards higher frequencies for objects with higher temperatures. It can be used to inform the observing strategy for a particular object - cold objects peak at low frequencies (so need Radio/IR observations), while hot objects peak towards the UV/X-ray.

Also, note that the blackbody curve for a higher  $T$  lies completely above the blackbody curve for a lower  $T$ . Consider

$$\frac{u(\omega, T_1)}{u(\omega, T_2)} = \frac{\left(\exp\left[\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT_2}\right] - 1\right)}{\left(\exp\left[\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT_1}\right] - 1\right)}$$

which is always  $> 1$  if  $T_1 > T_2$ .

Now, let's look at the equation in a bit more detail

### 1.1 Low-frequency limit for Black-body radiation

Consider first the condition  $\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT} \ll 1$ , which means that  $\exp\left[\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}\right] \sim 1 + \frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}$ . This means that

$$u(\omega, T)d\omega = \frac{\hbar\omega^3 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3 \left(\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}\right)}$$

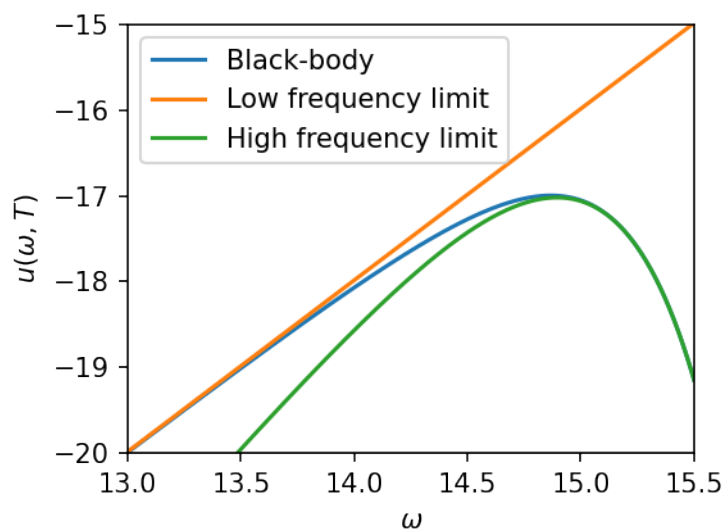
$$u(\omega, T)d\omega = \frac{kT\omega^2 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3}$$

This is known as the Rayleigh Jeans (classical) limit. When first derived, it was quickly shown that it couldn't be fully correct. To understand why, consider the limit  $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $u(\omega, T) \rightarrow \infty$ . This is known as the “ultraviolet catastrophe”, as it suggested that objects emitted infinite energy!

### 1.2 High-frequency limit for Black-body radiation

Consider now the condition  $\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT} \gg 1$ , which means that  $\exp\left[\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}\right] \gg 1$ . This means that

$$u(\omega, T)d\omega = \frac{\hbar\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \exp\left[-\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}\right] d\omega$$



### 1.3 Total Energy density of Black-body radiation

Ok, so we know the shape of the spectrum now, and the two limits of it. Next, we want to ask the question - what is the total energy density of black body radiation? To do this, we must integrate over  $\omega$ .

$$u(T) = \int_0^\infty u(\omega, T) d\omega$$

$$u(T) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\hbar \omega^3 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3 (\exp[\frac{\hbar \omega}{kT}] - 1)}$$

Can tackle this using substitution of variables. Let  $x = \frac{\hbar \omega}{kT}$ , and  $dx = \frac{\hbar d\omega}{kT}$ . We then get

$$u(T) = \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \left[ \frac{kT}{\hbar} \right]^4 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3 dx}{e^x - 1}$$

That last term is a definite integral (can be looked up or thrown into a integral solver), and is  $\frac{\pi^4}{15}$ . So, we get

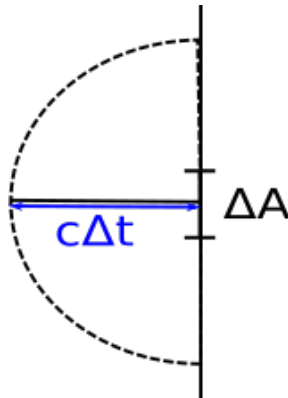
$$u(T) = \frac{\pi^2 k^4}{15 \hbar^3 c^3} T^4 = a T^4$$

This gives you the energy density per unit area per unit time for blackbody radiation.

### 1.4 Emitted energy from the surface of a black-body container

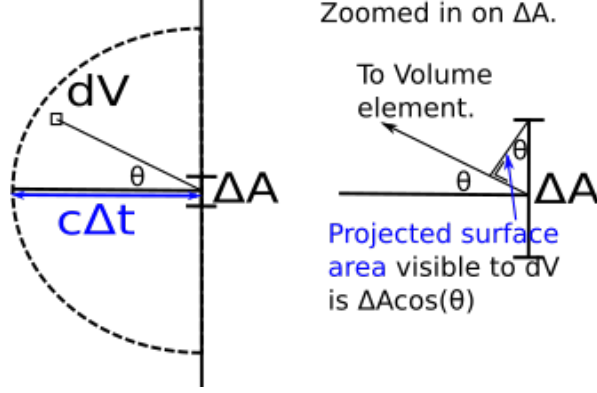
Now we want to ask the question “what is the energy emitted by a surface which has been heated by black body radiation”. First, consider a cavity. Inside is full of black body radiation. Now, consider a small area  $\Delta A$  on the wall of this cavity filled. If the cavity is in equilibrium with the black body radiation, then the energy absorbed by  $\Delta A$  should be the same as the energy emitted by  $\Delta A$ . So, in order to find out how much energy that area is emitting, we are first going to calculate how much energy is absorbed by the surface, and assume they are equal.

First, let's find the energy absorbed. This is given by the number and energy of the photons hitting  $\Delta A$ . The total volume with photons capable of hitting  $\Delta A$  in time  $\Delta t$  is a half sphere of radius  $c\Delta t$ , as shown below.



Now, consider a volume element in the half-sphere. If we assume that the photons are travelling isotropically (all directions). As such, the fraction that will hit  $\Delta A$  is:

$$fraction = \frac{\Delta A \cos(\theta)}{4\pi r^2}$$



The total energy in the volume element is:

$$dE = u(T)dV$$

$$dE = u(T)r^2 \sin(\theta)drd\theta d\phi$$

Therefore

$$dE_{\text{abs}} = u(T)r^2 \sin \theta drd\theta d\phi \frac{\Delta A \cos(\theta)}{4\pi r^2}$$

The total energy absorbed by  $\Delta A$  in time  $\Delta t$  is then given by integrating over the volume:

$$E_{\text{abs}} = \int_0^{c\Delta t} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{u(T)\Delta A}{4\pi} \cos \theta \sin \theta drd\theta d\phi$$

$$E_{\text{abs}} = \frac{u(T)\Delta A}{4\pi} \int_0^{c\Delta t} dr \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$

The first integral is just  $c\Delta t$ , the last is  $2\pi$ , and the middle one can be done using the substitution  $x = \sin \theta$ . Doing this gives

$$E_{\text{abs}} = \frac{1}{4}c u(T)\Delta A\Delta t = E_{\text{emit}}$$

This is the energy absorbed/emitted by an area  $\Delta A$  in time  $\Delta t$ . So now, the energy emitted per unit time per unit area by a black body surface is

$$\frac{L}{A} = \frac{c}{4}u(T) = \frac{1}{4}c a T^4 = \sigma T^4$$

where  $\sigma$  is the Stefan Boltzmann constant. Accounting for efficiency:

$$\frac{L}{A} = \epsilon \sigma T^4$$

where  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ , 1 for a perfect Black body.

## 1.5 Energy density versus specific intensity

Often in text books, blackbody radiation will be discussed in terms of the mean intensity  $J_\nu$  and the specific intensity  $I_\nu$ , where

$$J_\nu = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int I_\nu d\Omega.$$

where  $\Omega$  is the solid angle through which the intensity is emitted. Thus for isotropic radiation,  $J_\nu = I_\nu$ . In the above discussion (and in the derivation in the supplemental content), we focused on  $u(\omega, T)$ , which is the energy density. It can be shown that this is related to the intensity of light by

$$J_\nu = \frac{c}{4\pi} u_\nu$$

And so, for isotropically emitted radiation,

$$I_\nu = \frac{c}{4\pi} u_\nu.$$

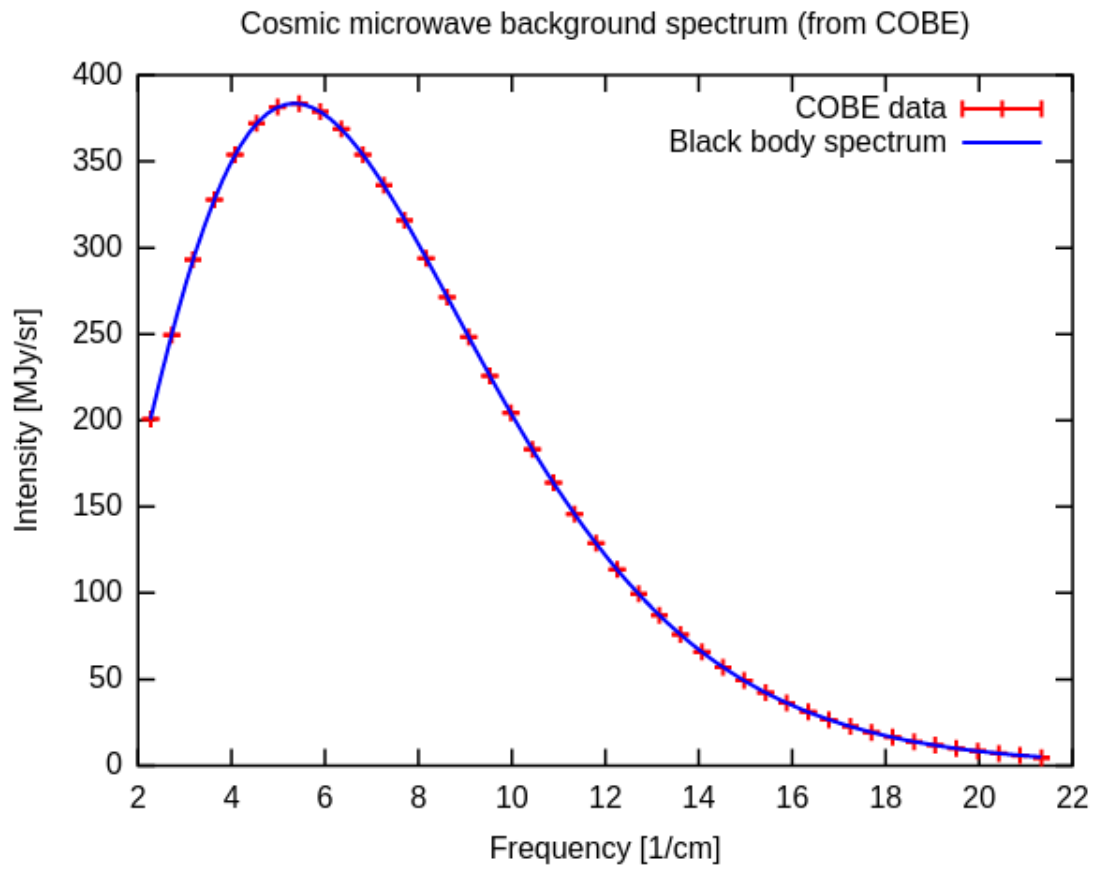
It is important to remember this distinction whenever talking about black-body radiation.

Now, let's talk about a few examples of where we see black body radiation in the Universe.

## 1.6 The Cosmic Microwave Background

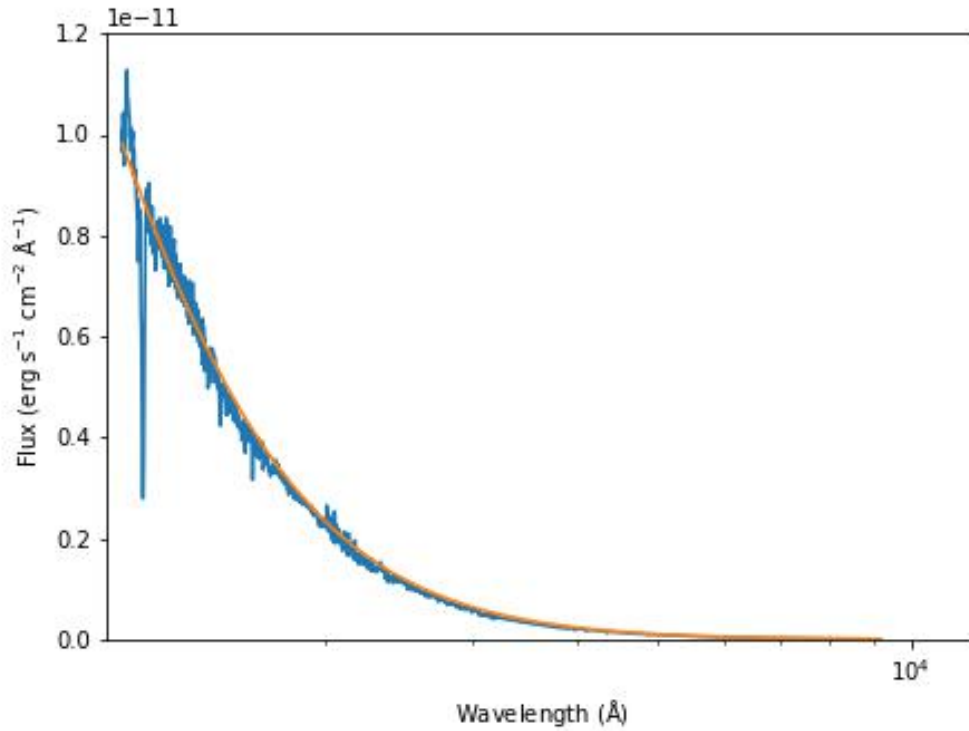
- Shortly after the Big Bang, the Universe was opaque to electromagnetic radiation due to Thomson scattering of photons off free electrons.
- Eventually, the Universe sufficiently cooled to allow electrons and protons to recombine into Hydrogen atoms. At this time, the temperature of the background photons was 4,000 K.
- Since then, this radiation has been frozen out of interaction with matter, and has redshifted by a factor of  $\sim 1,100$  due to the expansion of the Universe.

The spectrum of the CMB is shown below, and matches perfectly with a black body of temperature 2.725 K, peaking near a wavelength of 2 mm. There is an outstanding agreement between the data and model.



## 1.7 Stars

The continuum (everything outside of absorption and emission lines) matches that of a black body normally very well. Below is the observed spectrum of a star (blue) alongside a black body spectrum of  $T=45,000$  K.



## 1.8 The Sun

The Sun has a surface temperature of 5,770 K, and a radius of  $7 \times 10^8$  m. The total power emitted by the Sun is

$$L_{\odot} = \epsilon \sigma A T_{\odot}^4 = 4\pi R_{\odot}^2 \sigma T_{\odot}^4$$

$$L_{\odot} = 3.9 \times 10^{24} \text{ J/s}$$

So this tells us that, if you have a measurement of the Luminosity of a star, and you can tell where it's spectrum peaks, then you can determine both the temperature and radius of the star, which is very useful for figuring out the current evolutionary status of a star.

### 1.9 An example of black body spectra generated using AstroPy

