

# On Black Body Radiation

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## 1 Planck Distribution Function

Let the energy of  $s$ -th photon mode denoted by  $\epsilon_s = s\hbar\omega$ . The probability that the system is in the state of  $s$  of energy  $\epsilon_s$  is given by the Boltzmann factor:

$$P(s) = \exp(-s\hbar\omega/k_B T) \quad (1.1)$$

then the thermal average value of  $s$  is

$$\langle s \rangle = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} sP(s) = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} s \exp(-s\hbar\omega/k_B T) \quad (1.2)$$

with  $y \equiv \hbar\omega/k_B T$ , the summation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} s \exp(-sy) &= -\frac{d}{dy} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \exp(-sy) \\ &= -\frac{d}{dy} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-y)} \right) = \frac{\exp(-y)}{[1 - \exp(-y)]^2} = \frac{\exp(-\hbar\omega/k_B T)}{[1 - \exp(-\hbar\omega/k_B T)]^2} \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

and the partition function can be evaluated as

$$Z = \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-\hbar\omega/k_B T)} \quad (1.4)$$

so we have

$$\langle s \rangle = \frac{\exp(-\hbar\omega/k_B T)}{1 - \exp(-\hbar\omega/k_B T)} \quad (1.5)$$

or equivalently

$$\langle s \rangle = \frac{1}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \quad (1.6)$$

This is called the Planck distribution function which essentially converges to the Bose-Einstein distribution. Note that  $\langle s \rangle$  is dependent of frequency  $\omega$ . Here  $\langle s(\omega) \rangle$  means the thermal average of the number of photons in the mode of frequency  $\omega$ .

## 2 Plank Law and Stefan-Boltzmann Law

According to previous section, the thermal average energy of mode  $s$  is

$$\langle \epsilon_s \rangle = \langle s \rangle \hbar\omega = \frac{\hbar\omega}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \quad (2.1)$$

The high temperature limit  $k_B T \gg \hbar\omega$  is dubbed classical limit, where  $\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T)$  may be approximated as

$$\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) \approx 1 + \hbar\omega/k_B T + \dots \quad (2.2)$$

thus in the classical limit the thermal average energy of the mode is

$$\langle \epsilon_s \rangle \approx k_B T \quad (2.3)$$

which is only a temperature of  $T$  and no longer depends on  $\omega$ . This is consistent with the equal partition theorem of dof = 1.

Generically, we need to sum over all modes with their respective energy  $\epsilon_n$  such that the total energy is to be given by  $U = \sum_n \langle \epsilon_n \rangle$ . To do this, we first need to define all available modes and the allowed frequencies  $\omega_n$  (Ref. K&K, P93 [111 of 495]). The result from electrodynamics gives us

$$\omega_b = n\pi c/L \quad (2.4)$$

then the total energy is

$$U = \sum_n \langle \epsilon_n \rangle = \sum_n \frac{\hbar\omega_n}{\exp(\hbar\omega_n/k_B T) - 1} \quad (2.5)$$

where  $n \equiv \sqrt{n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2}$  with  $n_i$  integers. We replace the sum over  $n_x, n_y, n_z$  by  $dn_x dn_y dn_z$  in space. The summation is then written in integral as

$$\sum_n f(n) \approx \iiint_0^\infty f(n) dn_x dn_y dn_z = \frac{1}{8} \int_0^\infty 4\pi n^2 f(n) dn \quad (2.6)$$

where  $1/8$  is due to  $n_i \geq 0$  thus only the positive octant of the space is involved, and the last step we assumed the isotropy of photon energy density. We now multiply the sum or integral by a factor of 2 because there are two independent polarizations of the electromagnetic field (two independent sets of cavity modes). Thus, using  $\omega_n = \pi cn/L$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \pi \int_0^\infty dn n^2 \frac{\hbar\omega_n}{\exp(\hbar\omega_n/k_B T) - 1} \\ &= \frac{\pi^2 \hbar c}{L} \int_0^\infty dn n^3 \frac{1}{\exp(\hbar n c \pi / L k_B T) - 1} \end{aligned} \quad (2.7)$$

to evaluate this, we set  $x \equiv \pi \hbar c n / L k_B T$ , thus  $n = (L k_B T / \pi \hbar c) x$  and  $dn = (L k_B T / \pi \hbar c) dx$ , then the integral becomes

$$U = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar c}{L} \left( \frac{k_B T L}{\pi \hbar c} \right)^4 \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^3}{\exp(x) - 1} \quad (2.8)$$

the definite integral evaluates to  $\pi^4/15$ . Then, the energy per unit volume is found to be

$$u \equiv \frac{U}{V} = \frac{\pi^2 k_B^4}{15 \hbar^3 c^3} T^4 \quad (2.9)$$

with  $V = L^3$ . The result that the radiant energy density is proportional to the fourth power of the temperature is known as the **Stefan-Boltzmann law** of radiation.

In applications we also would like to know the energy density spectrum resolved in frequency  $\omega$ . To do this we simply invert the relation between  $\omega_n$  and  $n$  into

$$n = \omega_n L / \pi c \quad \Rightarrow \quad dn = \frac{L}{\pi c} d\omega \quad (2.10)$$

then the integral for  $U$  becomes

$$U = \pi \hbar \left( \frac{L}{\pi c} \right)^3 \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{\omega^3}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \quad (2.11)$$

so the energy per volume is

$$\frac{U}{V} = \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \int_0^\infty d\omega \frac{\omega^3}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \quad (2.12)$$

hence the spectral density is

$$u(\omega) = \frac{\hbar}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{\omega^3}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \quad (2.13)$$

### 3 Black body

The measurement of high temperatures depends on the flux of radiant energy from a small hole in the wall of a cavity maintained at the temperature of interest. Such a hole is said to radiate as a black body, which means that the radiation emission is characteristic of a thermal equilibrium distribution.

Define the energy flux  $J_U$  as the rate of energy per unit area, that is, the the amount of energy that passes through a unit area per unit time. Then we can straightforwardly write:

$$J_U = c \frac{U(T)}{V} \times (\text{geometrical factor}) \quad (3.1)$$