

Introduction to Modern Physics

Two pillars of modern physics: quantum mechanics (QM) and relativity

both → generalization of classical physics,
include classical laws as special cases

a) relativity → extends the range of application of physical laws to high velocities

universal constant: speed of light c

a) QM → extends that range to the region of small dimensions

universal constant: Planck's constant h , $\hbar = h/2\pi$

We start with the milestones that led to modern quantum mech.

Several phenomena in contradiction with classical laws

↳ solving conflicts needed introduction of quantum ideas

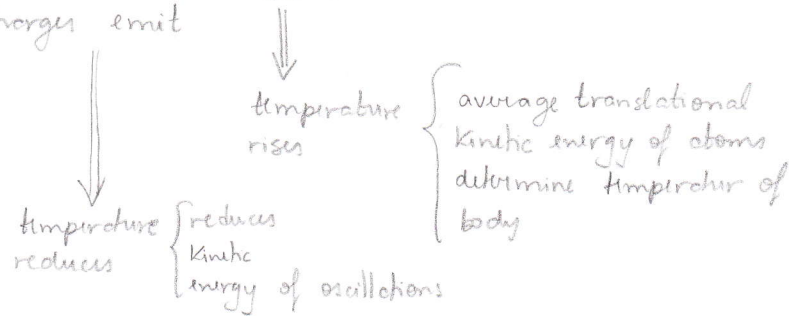
Ex: discreteness of energy

↗
concept introduced by Planck when studying thermal radiation

Thermal radiation

o) radiation falls on object $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{part reflected (more on light-colored bodies)} \\ \text{part absorbed (more on dark bodies)} \end{array} \right.$

o) radiation absorbed \Rightarrow increases kinetic energy of atoms \Rightarrow oscillate \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow oscillating/accelerated charges emit



good absorber \rightarrow good emitter

o) When rate of absorption = rate of emission \Rightarrow constant temperature
 body in thermal equilibrium

\hookrightarrow electromagnetic radiation emitted called thermal radiation

At ordinary temperatures ($< 600^\circ\text{C}$): thermal radiation NOT visible
 large λ , short ν
 object seen by reflected light

$600^\circ\text{C} - 700^\circ\text{C}$: enough energy in visible spectrum, object glows

\rightarrow higher $T \rightarrow$ body emits more, ν becomes higher

Detailed form of the spectrum of the thermal radiation emitted depts. on composition
 but for a

black body it is universal and depends only on the temperature

\hookrightarrow ideal body that absorbs all thermal radiation
 incident upon it

\rightarrow all blackbodies at the same temperature emit thermal radiation with the same spectrum.

Specific form of a blackbody spectrum CANNOT be understood on the basis of classical arguments

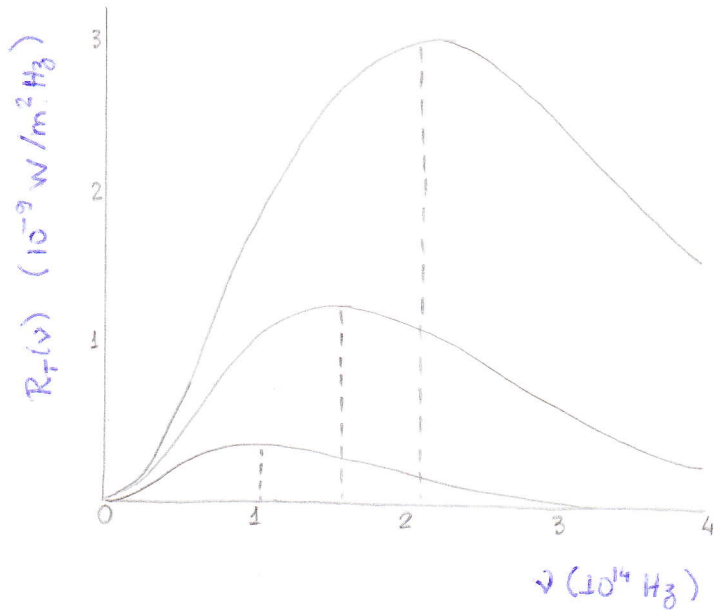
Spectral distribution of blackbody radiation

$R_T(\nu)$ = spectral radiance $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{energy emitted per unit time, per unit area} \\ \text{per unit frequency} \rightarrow \frac{J}{s \cdot m^2 \cdot Hz} = \frac{W}{m^2 \cdot Hz} \end{array} \right.$

$R_T(\nu) d\nu$ = energy emitted per unit time in radiation of
(power) \rightarrow (W)

frequency in the interval ν to $\nu + d\nu$ per unit area of the surface at temperature T

experiments:



(1) power decreases as $\nu \rightarrow 0$, $\nu \rightarrow \infty$

(2) frequency at which radiated power is most intense increases with temperature

$\boxed{\nu_{max} \propto T}$ Wien's (*) displacement law

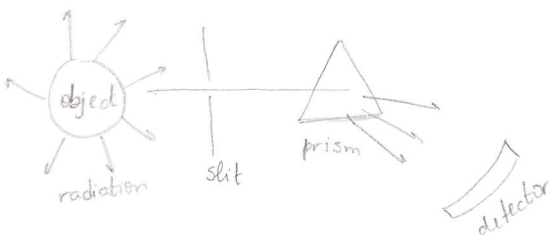
(3) total power radiated in all frequencies increases with temperature

$R_T = \int_0^{\infty} R_T(\nu) d\nu$ (area under the curve)

\uparrow radiance = $\frac{\text{flux of energy}}{\text{intensity}} = \frac{\text{energy per unit time per unit area}}{\text{area}} \left(\frac{J}{m^2 \cdot s} = \frac{W}{m^2} \right)$

$\boxed{R_T = \sigma T^4}$ Stefan's law

$\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}^4$ (Stefan-Boltzmann const)



(*) Obs: $\lambda \nu = c \Rightarrow \lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m K}$ Wien's constant

Question

Assume that stellar surfaces behave like blackbodies.

For the sun $\lambda_{\max} = 5100 \text{ \AA}$, whereas for the North Star $\lambda_{\max} = 3500 \text{ \AA}$

Find the surface temperature of these stars

($1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$)

$$\lambda_{\max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m.K}$$

$$T_{\text{sun}} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3}}{5100 \times 10^{-10}} = \boxed{5700 \text{ K}}$$

$$T_{\text{North star}} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3}}{3500 \times 10^{-10}} = \boxed{8300 \text{ K}}$$

Question

Measurement of λ_{\max} from a certain star indicates $T = 3000 \text{ K}$.

If the star radiates 100 times the power radiated by the sun, how big is the star? Sun surface temperature = 5800 K

$$R_{\text{star}} = \frac{P_{\text{star}}}{\text{area}_{\text{star}}} = \frac{100 P_{\odot}}{4\pi r_{\text{star}}^2} = \sigma T_{\text{star}}^4 \Rightarrow 4\pi r_{\text{star}}^2 = \frac{100 P_{\odot}}{\sigma T_{\text{star}}^4} \quad \left. \vphantom{R_{\text{star}}} \right\} \Rightarrow$$

$$R_{\odot} = \frac{P_{\odot}}{\text{area}_{\odot}} = \frac{P_{\odot}}{4\pi r_{\odot}^2} = \sigma T_{\odot}^4 \Rightarrow P_{\odot} = \sigma T_{\odot}^4 (4\pi r_{\odot}^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow 4\pi r_{\text{star}}^2 = \frac{100 \sigma T_{\odot}^4 (4\pi r_{\odot}^2)}{\sigma T_{\text{star}}^4} \Rightarrow r_{\text{star}} = 10 r_{\odot} \left(\frac{T_{\odot}}{T_{\text{star}}} \right)^2$$

$$r_{\text{star}} = 10 \left(\frac{5800}{3000} \right)^2 r_{\odot} \Rightarrow \boxed{r_{\text{star}} = 37.4 r_{\odot}}$$

CLASSICAL theory of cavity radiation

Example of blackbody: a cavity in a body connected by a small hole to the outside



(lab blackbody)

(standing waves)

energy density $\rho_T(\nu)$ = energy contained in a unit volume of the cavity at temperature T

$\rho_T(\nu) \propto R_T(\nu)$
 → [u in Tipler]

Energy per unit volume in the frequency interval ν to $\nu+d\nu$

Rayleigh and Jeans

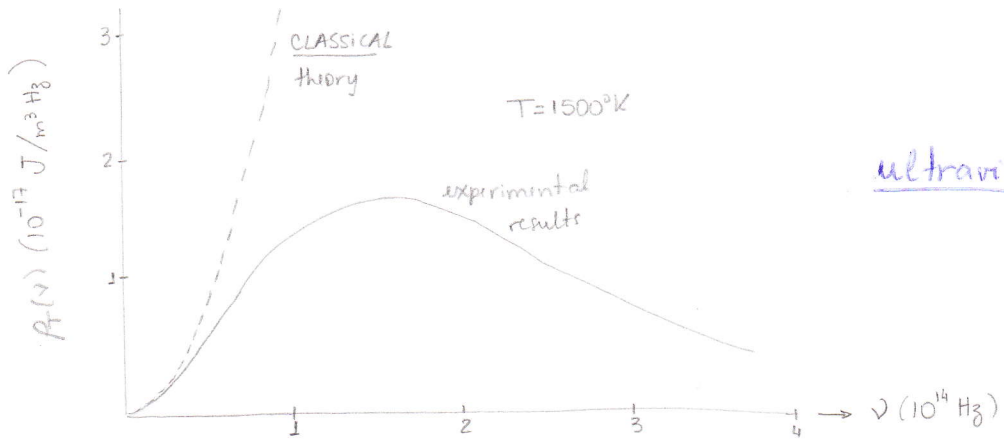
$\rho_T(\nu) d\nu = \bar{\epsilon} \frac{N(\nu) d\nu}{V}$
 → number of standing waves in the frequency interval ν to $\nu+d\nu$
 ↙ average energy of each standing wave in cavity
 ↘ volume

$N(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi V}{c^3} \nu^2 d\nu$ ← derivation from geometrical arguments (see Eisberg's book)

Classical equipartition law $\bar{\epsilon} = kT$

$\rho_T(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi \nu^2 kT}{c^3} d\nu$

Rayleigh-Jeans formula for black body radiation



ultraviolet catastrophe

Classical equipartition law

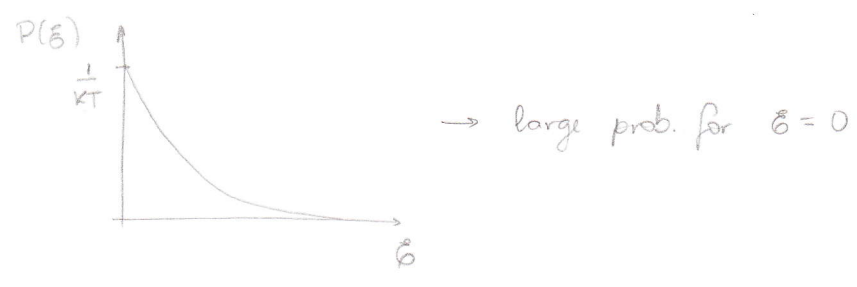
Boltzmann distribution (appendix C - Eisberg's book)

$P(\epsilon) = A e^{-\epsilon/kT}$
 $\int_0^{\infty} P(\epsilon) d\epsilon = 1 \Rightarrow A = \frac{1}{kT}$
 $P(\epsilon) = \frac{e^{-\epsilon/kT}}{kT}$

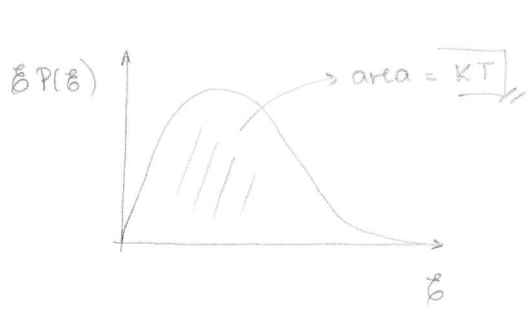
→ fraction of oscillators with energy ϵ
 → normalization → guarantees that $\int_0^{\infty} P(\epsilon) d\epsilon = 1$
 (standing wave, ...)

$P(\epsilon) d\epsilon$: probability of finding an entity of the system with energy in $[\epsilon, \epsilon + d\epsilon]$

↳ system with large number of entities in thermal equilibrium at T



average energy. $\bar{\epsilon} = \int_0^{\infty} \epsilon P(\epsilon) d\epsilon$



$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon e^{-\epsilon/kT}}{kT} d\epsilon =$$

by parts

$$u = \epsilon \quad dv = e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon$$

$$du = d\epsilon \quad v = e^{-\epsilon/kT} (-kT)$$

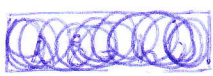
$$= \frac{1}{kT} \left[\cancel{\epsilon e^{-\epsilon/kT}} (-kT) \Big|_0^{\infty} - \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\epsilon/kT} (-kT) d\epsilon \right] =$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon = e^{-\epsilon/kT} (-kT) \Big|_0^{\infty} = \boxed{kT}$$

↳ Integration over ALL possible energies

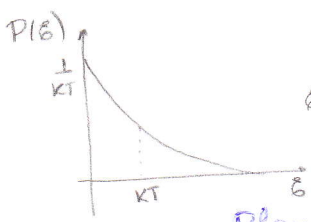
↳ here ϵ is a CONTINUOUS variable

Planck's theory of cavity radiation $P_T(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi \nu^2}{c^3} \bar{\epsilon} d\nu$



$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\epsilon} &\xrightarrow{\nu \rightarrow 0} kT \\ \bar{\epsilon} &\xrightarrow{\nu \rightarrow \infty} 0 \end{aligned}$$

to avoid discrepancy with experimental results, energy needs to be a function of ν



$\epsilon \gg kT$ little contribution to $\bar{\epsilon}$

$\epsilon = nh\nu$ DISCRETE

Planck's constant

$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$

determined by best fit of theory with experiment

$\epsilon = nh\nu$ $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ \rightarrow energy is discrete / QUANTIZED

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \sum \epsilon A e^{-\epsilon/kT} \quad \sum A e^{-\epsilon/kT} = 1$$

normalization $\rightarrow A = \frac{1}{\sum e^{-nh\nu/kT}}$

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nh\nu e^{-nh\nu/kT}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nh\nu/kT}} \quad (kT)$$

One way to solve

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx} = 1 + e^{-x} + e^{-2x} + \dots = \frac{1}{(1-e^{-x})}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nx e^{-nx} = x e^{-x} + 2x e^{-2x} + 3x e^{-3x} + \dots$$

$$= x e^{-x} (1 + e^{-x} + e^{-2x} + \dots) + x e^{-2x} (1 + e^{-x} + \dots) + x e^{-3x} (1 + \dots)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1-e^{-x})} x e^{-x} (1 + e^{-x} + e^{-2x} + \dots) = \frac{x e^{-x}}{(1-e^{-x})^2}$$

Another way to solve (Eisberg)

Note:

$$\frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nx e^{-nx}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}} = -x \frac{d}{dx} \ln \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}$$

$$= -x \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}} = - \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x \frac{d}{dx} (e^{-nx})}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}} = \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nx e^{-nx}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}}$$

$$-x \frac{d}{dx} \ln \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx} = -x \frac{d}{dx} \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-e^{-x}} \right)$$

$$= -x (1-e^{-x}) \frac{(-1)}{(1-e^{-x})^2} e^{-x} = \frac{x e^{-x}}{(1-e^{-x})^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\epsilon} = kT \left(\frac{h\nu}{kT} \right) \frac{e^{-h\nu/kT}}{(1 - e^{-h\nu/kT})}$$

$x = h\nu/kT$

$\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$

$$\bar{E}(\nu) = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \nu \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \bar{E} \rightarrow \frac{h\nu}{1 + \frac{h\nu}{kT} + \dots} \rightarrow kT \\ \nu \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \bar{E} \rightarrow h\nu e^{-h\nu/kT} \rightarrow 0 \end{array} \right.$$

$$P_T(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi\nu^2}{c^3} \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

Planck's blackbody spectrum

Planck's blackbody spectrum in terms of λ

$$c = \lambda\nu \Rightarrow \nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda} = -\frac{c}{\lambda^2} \Rightarrow d\nu = -\frac{c}{\lambda^2} d\lambda$$

$$P_T(\lambda) d\lambda = \ominus P_T(\nu) d\nu \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} d\lambda, d\nu \text{ have opposite sign} \\ \text{increase in } \nu \rightarrow \text{decrease in } \lambda \end{array} \right.$$

$$P_T(\lambda) d\lambda = \frac{c}{\lambda^2} P_T(\nu) d\lambda = \frac{c}{\lambda^2} \frac{8\pi}{c^3} \frac{c^2}{\lambda^2} \frac{hc/\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1} d\lambda$$

$$P_T(\lambda) d\lambda = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$$

HW
Tipler: 3-12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20

Question: Show that the total energy density in a blackbody cavity is proportional to T^4 in accordance with Stefan-Boltzmann law

$$U = \int_0^\infty \rho(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi h}{c^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu \quad \begin{array}{l} x = \frac{h\nu}{kT} \\ dx = \frac{h}{kT} d\nu \end{array}$$

$$U = \frac{8\pi h}{c^3} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^3 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right) dx$$

$$U = \frac{8\pi}{c^3 h^3} (kT)^4 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx \Rightarrow U \propto T^4$$

(dimensionless) = $\pi^4/15$

to find U in terms of h, c, k
 $U = \frac{8\pi^5 k^4 T^4}{15 h^3 c^3}$ and $R = \frac{c}{4} U$