

Integrating over $d\Omega_k$ (while using only 1/8 of the total quadrants) and remembering that for each k we have two directions of polarization, we get

$$[1-30] \quad d\rho = \frac{4\pi}{8} 2 \frac{V}{\pi^3} k^2 dk = \frac{V}{\pi^2} k^2 dk = \frac{V}{\pi^2} \frac{8\pi^3}{c^3} v^2 dv = \frac{8\pi V}{c^3} v^2 dv,$$

and the number of modes per unit volume is $(8\pi v^2 dv/c^3)$.

Letting $W(v)$ denote the energy density per unit frequency (i.e. energy kT per mode), we get the Rayleigh-Jeans formula:

$$[1-31] \quad W(v) = kT \frac{8\pi v^2}{c^3} \Rightarrow W(v)dv = \frac{8\pi kT}{c^3} v^2 dv.$$

It is immediately clear that we have a problem here. The total energy, obtained by integrating $W(v)$, diverges and increases indefinitely (Fig. 1-4), which contradicts experimental results. This, of course, is not surprising since, dimensionally speaking, electromagnetic theory does not provide us with any length measurement, hence we have no knowledge of the λ value for which the curve turns over. If we attempt to use r_0 as the appropriate length, we arrive at a λ in the cosmic ray region, whereas the actual cutoff (turn-over) λ is in the visible region of the spectrum. [One might say that the curve would cut off at some particular λ , referring to the limit within which electromagnetic theory holds. However, it is observed that the cutoff λ is very often in the ultraviolet region, where we know electromagnetic theory to hold.]

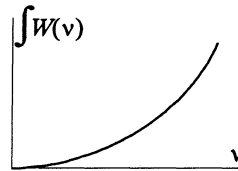


Fig. 1-4

Planck's Resolution

Planck did not alter the theory dealing with the number of normal modes per frequency interval, i.e. he did not introduce a length concept. Rather he altered the average energy, E .

The harmonic oscillator energies are restricted to quantized values, e.g. $E_n = nhv$, thereby replacing the continuous distribution by a discrete one. Assuming the distribution to be a Boltzmann distribution,

$$[1-32] \quad \bar{E} = \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n e^{-E_n/kT}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-E_n/kT}} = \frac{h\nu \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-nh\nu/kT}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nh\nu/kT}}$$



Fig. 1-5a

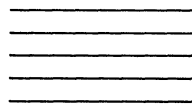
Making the substitution $x = \frac{h\nu}{kT}$:

$$[1-33] \quad \bar{E} = \frac{h\nu \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-nx}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx}} = -h\nu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\ln \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-nx} \right] = -h\nu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\ln \frac{1}{1 - e^{-x}} \right]$$

$$= h\nu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\ln(1 - e^{-x}) \right] = h\nu \left[\frac{e^{-x}}{1 - e^{-x}} \right] = \frac{h\nu}{e^x - 1} = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

Special Cases

(a) $(h\nu/kT) \ll 1$, so that $\sum \rightarrow \int$ (Fig. 1-5a) and $\bar{E} \rightarrow kT$, yielding the Rayleigh-Jeans distribution.



(b) $(h\nu/kT) \gg 1$, $\bar{E} \rightarrow h\nu e^{-h\nu/kT}$ (Fig. 1-5b) so that

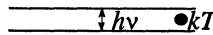


Fig. 1-5b

$$[1-34] \quad W(\nu) d\nu = \frac{8\pi}{c^3} h\nu^3 e^{-h\nu/kT} d\nu,$$

which is Planck's law and which yields the correct exponential fall-off (Fig. 1-6). In this case, the most probable excited level is 1.

If one makes the correct choice of h , namely, 6.62×10^{-27} erg sec, Planck's law yields a good fit to the experimental data. Hence, one sees that it takes the introduction of h to arrive at a λ value, i.e. the Stefan constant 4.965 is the new number appearing in the theory, arrived at by a proper setting of h .

A basic assumption is that the energy of the field comes in packages of $h\nu$. This was at first taken with a grain of salt.

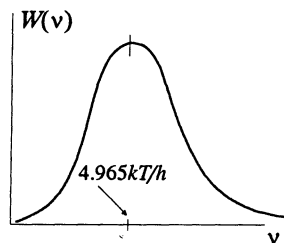


Fig. 1-6