

(2025 April 5)

6001

## Lecture 6: Topics

Leading ~~to~~ to the CMB and  
Very Simplified Recombination

- 6.1) Representation of Specific Intensity 6003
- 6.2) Blackbody Radiation: Representations  
and Other Details 6008

6002

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6003

# 6.1) Representations of Specific Intensity

a) An frequency representation

$$I_\nu = \frac{dE}{\nu dt dA d\Omega} \Rightarrow \frac{\text{ergs}}{\text{Hz s cm}^2 \text{sr}}$$

$\swarrow$  per frequency, time, perpendicular area, solid angle

in cgs units



$I_\nu$  is used all the time in my own field of radiative transfer. We'll explicate it's use in a bit.

But galaxy researchers tend to use surface brightness which annoyingly is  $4\pi I_\nu$ . Why, why? but they do

As for SED = Spectral Energy Distribution

I just use the word Flux which context defines

According to Google AI

=

Luminosity per { frequency }  
 { wavelength }

6004

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### b) Representations of specific Intensity & like quantities

$I_\nu$  is per frequency

$I_\lambda$  is per wave length

also  $I_E$  per energy

but this is just  $h I_\nu$

so essentially frequency

$h =$  Planck constant

$= 6.626\ 070\ 15\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s}$

exact (NIST)  
by modern definition

Also wave number

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi}{c} \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi}{c} \nu$$

still used by some. Also essentially frequency.

There is also the logarithmic representation on fractional bandwidth (Wik, but mainly used for radio)

I will argue the log representation is the Natural One for plot of

and sometimes ~~and~~ thinking about purposes. ~~The frequency rep. is better for that energy purposes.~~  
Coding? We use  $I_\nu$  probably just ~~though probably not coding because~~ because all the formalism has been written in this formalism? ~~of all log rep.~~ Maybe the only sensible way gives the way ~~think about integrative energy.~~

[2025 Jan 24]

[6005]

Where does the logarithmic representation come from?

Recall the phase velocity relation

$$c = v \lambda$$

$$\therefore \ln c = \ln v + \ln \lambda$$

$$d \ln c = d \ln v + d \ln \lambda$$

$$0 = \frac{dv}{v} + \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda}$$

$$\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} = -\frac{dv}{v}$$

$$dE = I_r dv = I_\lambda (-d\lambda)$$

$$\therefore I_r dv = I_\lambda (-d\lambda)$$

$$v I_r \frac{dv}{v} = \lambda I_\lambda \left(-\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda}\right)$$

$$v I_r = \lambda I_\lambda$$

Note, if  $dv > 0$ , then  $d\lambda < 0$ , and so the -ve sign needed for the equality.

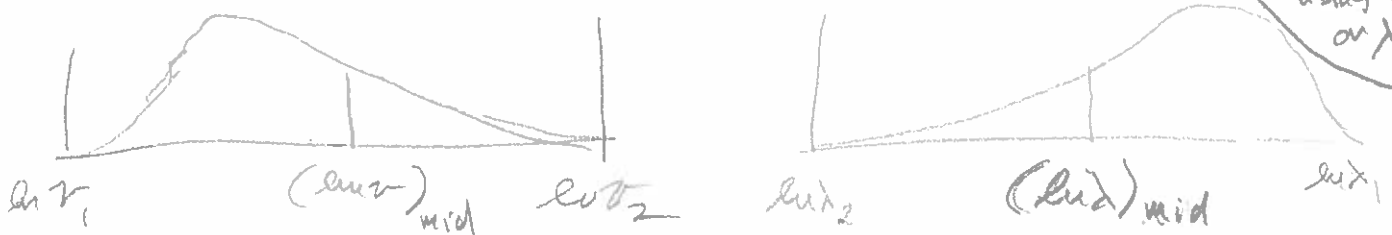
From p. 6003 for  $v$  representation and analogous for  $\lambda$  representation

The log representation

c) It has the same value whether evaluated by  $v$  or  $\lambda$ . Seems a good graphical simplification.

Thus, plot of  $v I_r = \lambda I_\lambda$  are the same aside from "minor imaging"

You don't worry much about how different a spectrum would look whether using  $v$  or  $\lambda$ .



6006

To show this definitively, note

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln v &= \ln v - (\ln v)_{\text{mid}} \\ &= \ln c - \ln \lambda - [(\ln c) - (\ln c)_{\text{mid}}] \\ &= -\Delta \ln \lambda \end{aligned}$$

As  $\ln v > 0$ ,  $\Delta \ln \lambda < 0$  for the equality to hold



d) Another reason for using the log representation is that the width of spectral features tends to be proportional to their overall scale.

This is true for:

Doppler shifting

$$\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}}$$

$$\Delta \ln \lambda = \ln \lambda_0 - \ln \lambda = \ln \left( \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \right)$$

$$\Delta \ln \lambda = \ln \left( \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \right) \quad \text{in general}$$

$$= \ln \left[ (1+\frac{1}{2}\beta)(1+\frac{1}{2}\beta) \right]$$

$$= \ln(1+\beta) = \beta \quad \text{to 1st order in small } \beta$$

Cosmological Redshifting

$$\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda} = \frac{a_e}{a_t} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Recall} \\ z \equiv \frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda}{\lambda} \\ z + 1 = a_0/a_t \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Delta \ln \lambda = \ln \lambda - \ln \lambda_0 = \ln(a_0/a)$$

$$\Delta \ln \lambda = \ln(1+z) \quad \text{in general}$$

$$= z \quad \text{to 1st order in small } z$$

In both cases, all shifts are by the same amounts in  $\log \lambda$  (or  $\log \tau$ ):



All the shifts have equal importance to the eye

This seems to be a good graphical simplification

Also makes all common line broadening (probably only Doppler broadening) the same size when plotted.

For Maxwell distribution of atom velocities "along line of sight"

$$P(v)dv = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} N_0} e^{-\left(\frac{v}{N_0}\right)^2} dv$$

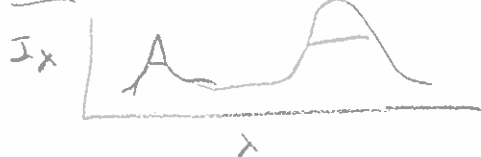
where  $N_{\text{Dop}} = \left(\frac{2kT}{m}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  or  $\sigma_v = \frac{N_{\text{Dop}}}{\sqrt{2}}$  (Milas-279)

∴ The characteristic Doppler width

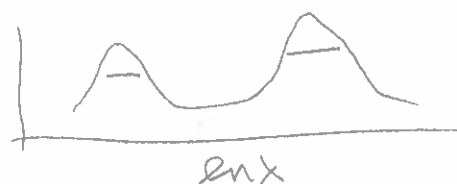
is  $\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{N_{\text{Dop}}}{c} = \beta_{\text{Dop}}$  using the 1st order Doppler Formula (p. 6006)

∴  $\Delta(\ln \lambda) = \beta_{\text{Dop}}$

Note



but  $\lambda I_\lambda$



60081

So using the log representation makes all Doppler broadened lines have the same width.

Seems a good graphical simplification.

All widths have equal importance

to the eye

e) And, of course, plotting versus  $\log \nu$  or  $\log \lambda$  allows compact plotting over bands that span many orders of magnitude

## 6.2 Blackbody Radiation: Representations and Other Details

$$a) \frac{dE}{dt dA d\Omega} = I_\nu d\nu = I_\lambda (-d\lambda) = \nu I_\nu \frac{d\nu}{\nu} = \lambda I_\lambda \left(-\frac{d\lambda}{\lambda}\right)$$

see p. 6003

see p. 6005

For blackbody radiation  $I_\nu \rightarrow B_\nu$ ,  $I_\lambda \rightarrow B_\lambda$

$$\nu I_\nu = \lambda I_\lambda \Rightarrow \nu B_\nu = \lambda B_\lambda$$

$$B_\nu = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} - 1} \quad (\text{Minnaert - } \gamma, \text{ Planck's law})$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = \frac{h\nu}{kT} = \frac{hc}{\lambda T}$$

$$B_\lambda = B_\nu \left(-\frac{d\nu}{d\lambda}\right) = B_\nu \left[-\left(-\frac{c}{\lambda^2}\right)\right] = B_\nu \frac{c}{\lambda^2}$$

$$= \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{c}{\lambda}\right)^3 (e^{\alpha} - 1)^{-1} \frac{c}{\lambda^2} = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} (e^{\alpha} - 1)^{-1}$$

$$\nu B_\nu = \frac{2h\nu^4}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} - 1} = \lambda B_\lambda = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^4} \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} - 1}$$

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There also the photon representation ('photon intensity')

$$\frac{dE}{h\nu dt dA d\Omega} = N_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{2\nu^2}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

see p 6003

b) For analysis, it is convenient to make all these functions just functions of  $x$

$$B_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx$$

$$B_{\lambda}(d\lambda) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \left(\frac{kT}{hc}\right)^5 x^5 (e^x - 1)^{-1} \left(\frac{hc}{kTx^2} dx\right) = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx$$

These are all the same as functions of  $x$  which probably should have been obvious

$$2B_{\nu} \frac{d\nu}{\nu} = \lambda B_{\lambda} \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \frac{x^4}{e^x - 1} \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx$$

$$N_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{2}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^3 \frac{x^2}{e^x - 1} dx$$

So, in fact, we have a universal function

$$f(x) = \frac{x^z}{e^x - 1} \text{ to analyze where } z = 2, 3, 4, 5 \text{ for physical interest.}$$

I don't know if it has any special name,

$$D_z(x) = \frac{z}{x^z} \int_0^x \frac{t^z}{e^t - 1} dt$$

is the Doby function (Wik)

Maybe  $f(x)$  should just be called general Planck function.

6010

### c) Integrating $f(x)$

When encountered a function, the first thing that should come to your mind is to integrate it.

$$F(z) = \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^z}{e^x - 1} dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^z e^{-x}}{(1 - e^{-x})} dx = \int_0^{\infty} x^z e^{-x} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} e^{-lx} dx$$

$$F(z) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} x^z e^{-(l+1)x} dx$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} x^z e^{-lx} dx$$

with  $l \rightarrow l-1$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} l^{-(z+1)} \int_0^{\infty} y^z e^{-y} dy$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} l^{-(z+1)} z!$$

$$= z! \zeta(z+1)$$

The Riemann-zeta function

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} l^{-s}$$

for  $s > 0$  (Art-332)

using the geometric series (Art-279)

Note  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} x^l$

is NOT convergent

for  $x = 1$

(ie.,  $e^{-0} = 1$

or  $x = 0$ ),

but you can integrate to  $x=0$

since  $x=0$  has

zero volume (Google AI)

and the integration converges

The factorial function Art-543,

The generalization of factorial,

for integers  $n \geq 0$ ,  $z! = n!$ ,

$z!$  is undefined for negative integers,

$z!$  has infinities (Art-543)

$$(z = -1/2)! = \sqrt{\pi}$$

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$s = z + 1, z = s - 1$

$\zeta(s) = \begin{cases} \infty & s = 1 \text{ which is the divergent harmonic series} \end{cases}$

$z = 0$

$\frac{\pi^2}{6} = 1.6449340668... \quad s = 2 \quad z = 1$

$1.2020569032... \quad s = 3 \quad z = 2$

$\frac{\pi^4}{90} = 1.0823232337... \quad s = 4 \quad z = 3$

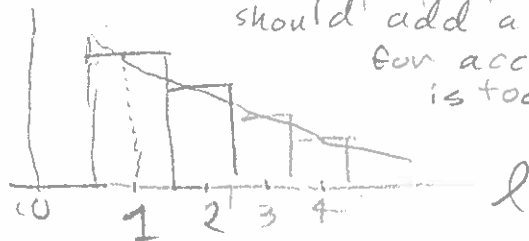
$1.0369277551... \quad s = 5 \quad z = 4$

$\frac{\pi^6}{945} = 1.0173430620... \quad s = 6 \quad z = 5$

From Wolfram Riemann-Zeta function and Art-332

These are of physical interest to black body radiation see p. 6009

Integral approximation, but you should add a few first terms for accuracy, zero terms is too inaccurate.



1 term is enough for insight.

$\zeta(s) \approx 1 + \int_{3/2}^{\infty} x^{-s} dx = 1 + \frac{x^{-s+1}}{-s+1} \Big|_{3/2}^{\infty} = 1 + \frac{(2/3)^{s-1}}{s-1}$

$= 1 + 2/3 = 1.666... \quad s = 2$

$= 1 + \frac{4/9}{2} = 1 + 2/9 = 1.222... \quad s = 3$

$= 1 + \frac{8/27}{3} = 1 + 8/81 \approx 1.1 \quad s = 4$

$= 1 + \frac{16/81}{4} = 1 + 4/81 \approx 1.05 \quad s = 5$

$= 1 + \frac{32/243}{5} \approx 1 + 4/30 = 1.025 \quad s = 6$

$= 1 \quad s = \infty$

Not so good

for  $s > 1$

Diverges for  $s = 1$

as one should expect

$\int_1^e x^{-1} dx = \ln(x) \Big|_1^e$

6012

For  $z = 3, s = 4,$

We recover the Blackbody radiation density law

$$F = \frac{4\pi}{c} * \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 * 3! \frac{\pi^4}{90}$$

Integrate over all solid angle (p.6003) and divide by  $c$  to change from flux to density

p.6009

p.6010

p.6011

$$= \frac{4\pi}{c} \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{k}{h}\right)^4 \frac{\pi^4}{15} T^4 = a T^4$$

$a$  is the just called the radiation constant and no one seems to like its formula

$$a = \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15c^3 h^3}$$

$$S_{SB} = \frac{c}{4} a = \frac{\pi^5}{c^2} \frac{h^4}{h^3} \frac{2}{15}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15c^2 h^3} \text{ correct by Wik}$$

$$= 5.670374419... \times 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$$

exactly modern definition, but

since it includes  $\pi^5$ , it's irrational.

(Google AI;)

what is the blackbody radiation density

$$= 7.566... \times 10^{-16} \frac{J}{m^3 K^4}$$

also exact, but irrational, by modern definition.

Also 4 in one for photon number  
 $\Delta N = \frac{2\pi^2}{c^3} \frac{d\nu}{\nu^3} \frac{d\nu}{\nu^2 - 1}$

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6013

1) ~~Find~~ Finding  $f = \frac{Ax^z}{e^x - 1}$   
 Planck law  
maximizing (for use in Wien's law and other things)

can be used to find maximum, and ~~its bound~~ did so all version of Wien's law

$$\frac{df}{dN} = \frac{zAx^{z-1}}{e^x - 1} - \frac{Ax^ze^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} \Rightarrow 0$$

$$z(e^x - 1) - xe^x = 0$$

$$\frac{x_0}{z} = 1 - e^{-x_0}$$

$$\frac{z}{x_0} = \frac{e^{x_0}}{e^{x_0} - 1}$$

$$x_0 = z(1 - e^{-x_0})$$

for iterative numerical solution.

$$x_0 = z$$

0th order

$$x_0 = z(1 - e^{-z})$$

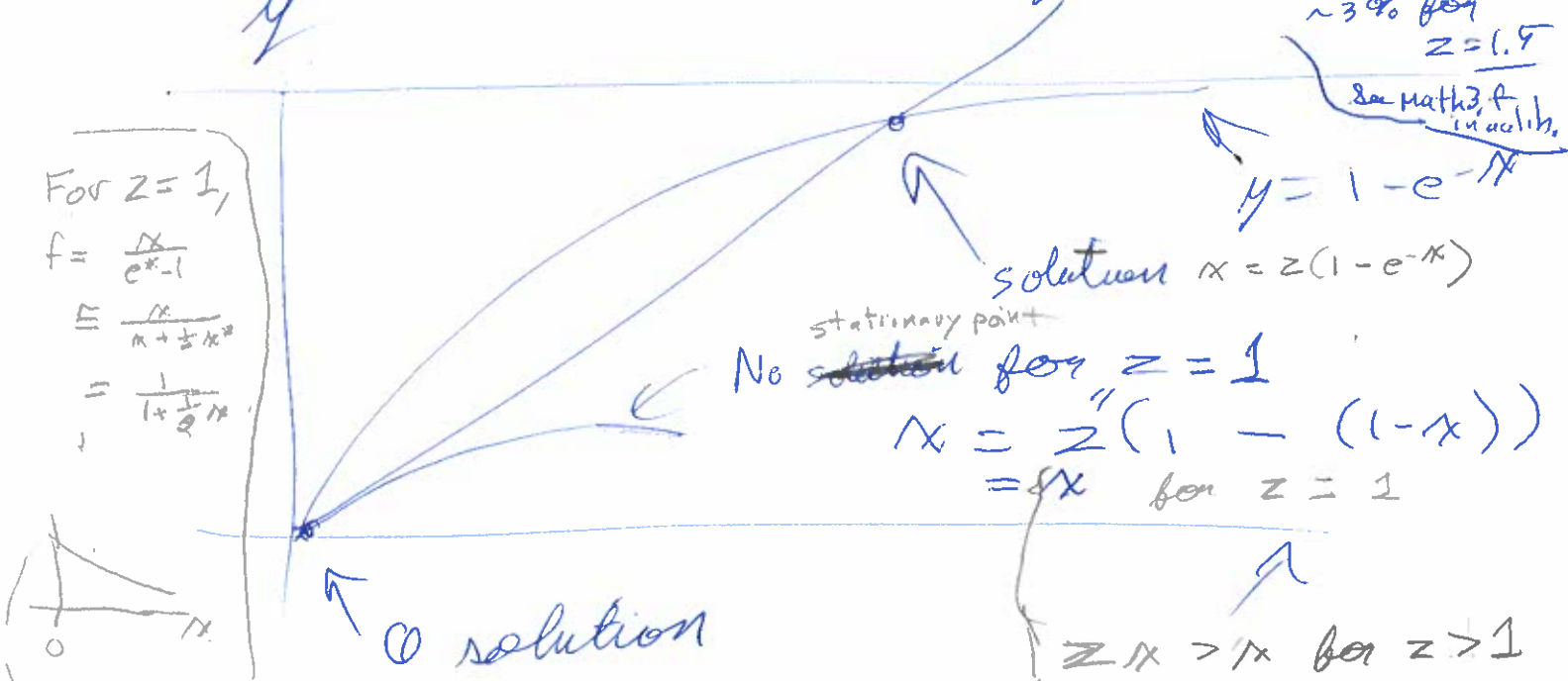
1st order

$$x_0 = z(1 - e^{-(z - \frac{z}{2})})$$

good approximation

maximum relative error ~ 3% for  $z = 1.5$

Graphical Solution



For  $z=1$ ,  
 $f = \frac{Ax}{e^x - 1}$   
 $\approx \frac{Ax}{x + \frac{1}{2}x^2}$   
 $= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}x}$



A maximum for  $[0, \infty)$ , but not a stationary point.



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$$f = f_0 \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{z}{x_0} \right) \Delta x + \frac{z(z-1)}{2x_0^2} \Delta x^2 \right]$$

$$\left[ 1 + \frac{z}{x_0} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{x_0} \Delta x^2 \right]$$

$$= f_0 \left[ \dots \right] \left[ 1 - \frac{z}{x_0} \Delta x - \frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{x_0} \Delta x^2 + \left( \frac{z}{x_0} \right)^2 \Delta x^2 \right]$$

Arf -279 for geometric series

$$= f_0 [ 1$$



0 as it should since  $x_0$  is a maximum,

This is imposed by using  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{z}{x_0} \right) = \frac{z}{x_0^2}$  see p. 6013 + 6019

$$+ \Delta x \left( \frac{z}{x_0} - \frac{z}{x_0} \right)$$

$$+ \Delta x^2 \left[ - \left( \frac{z}{x_0} \right)^2 + \frac{z(z-1)}{2x_0^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{x_0} \right]$$

$$\text{Coef} = \left( \frac{f - f_0}{f_0 \Delta x^2} \right)$$

Fun 2 > 4  
approx = -1.25  
exact = -1.197527  
value = -1.195991

$$+ \left( \frac{z}{x_0} \right)^2$$

cancel

Now to zero or  $x_0 = z$

$$f = f_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{z(z-1)}{2x_0^2} \Delta x^2 \right]_{\text{exact}}$$

$$\hat{=} f_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} (1 - 1) \Delta x^2 \right] = f_0 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^2 \right]_{\text{now}}$$

6016

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keep 6016 and Rived 2024

integrated specific intensity function  $F = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{K^4}{e^{\mu} - 1} d\mu = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{K^3}{e^{\mu} - 1} d\mu = 3.15(\mu=1)$

energy fraction

What is the integration around  $\mu_0$ ?

$$F = f \frac{d\mu}{\mu} = \int_{-\Delta\mu}^{\Delta\mu} [1 + f_2 \Delta\mu^2] [1 - \frac{\Delta\mu}{\mu_0} + \frac{(\Delta\mu)^2}{\mu_0^2}] d\mu$$

$\mu_0 = \mu_{max, \mu}$

$$\int_{-\Delta\mu/\mu_0}^{\Delta\mu/\mu_0} f_0 [1 - \frac{\Delta\mu}{\mu_0} + (f_2 + \frac{f_1^2}{2}) \Delta\mu^2] d\mu$$

Not even now

geometric Series  
Ans - 279

even interval  $\left( -\frac{\Delta\mu^2}{2\mu_0} \right)_{-\Delta\mu}^{\Delta\mu}$  But over even interval this term is zero.

$$= 2 \frac{f_0}{\mu_0} \left[ \Delta\mu + \frac{1}{3} (f_2 + \frac{f_1^2}{2}) \Delta\mu^3 \right]$$

$$f_2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{\mu_0} \left( \frac{z-1}{\mu_0} - 1 \right) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{z} - 1 \right)$$

$$= 2 f_0 \Delta\mu \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3} (f_2 + \frac{f_1^2}{2}) \Delta\mu^2 \right] = -\frac{1}{2z} \approx \text{approx}$$

$$F(\text{int } -1, 1) = \begin{cases} 0.367965 \\ 0.368617 \\ 0.3683219 \end{cases}$$

approx. coef

exact coef.

numerical int., but not high accuracy

$$F(\text{int}, -1.5, 1.5)$$

$$0.53738$$

$$0.54008$$

$$0.5373559$$

$$F(0, 2.821439 \dots) \approx 0.37$$

rep peak

$$F(0, 3.920690 \dots) = 0.59$$

log rep peak

$$F(0, 4.965114 \dots) = 0.76$$

x rep peak

The exact coefficient is accurate (keep 6016) and let to  $\Delta\mu=1$ , it gives a better integral. Just a numerical accident that the approximations are a better for  $\Delta\mu \geq 1$ , is closer to the numerical integration which is NOT guaranteed high accuracy.

# h) Why Log representation

Maximum  $\lambda_{04} = \lambda_{04}$  is

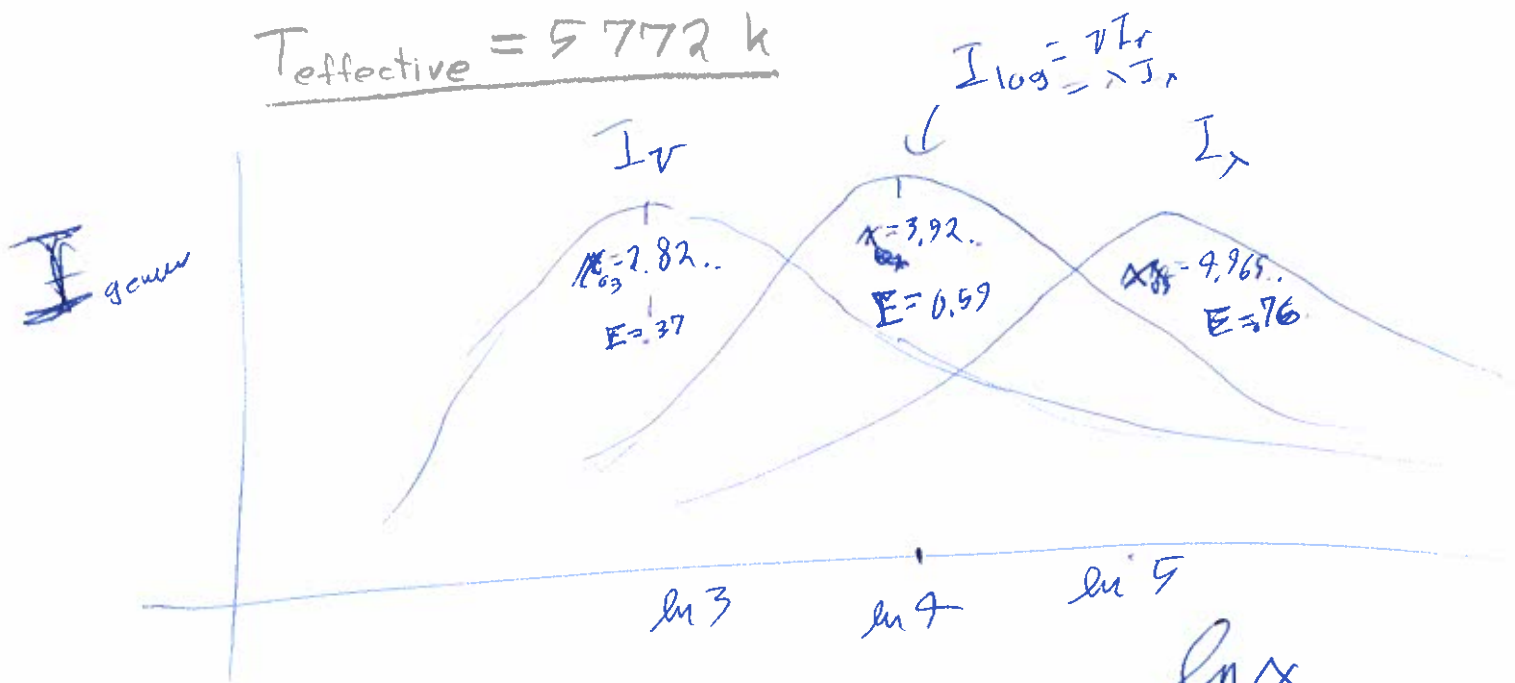
the better representation of the region of maximum flux than  $\lambda_{03}$  and  $\lambda_{05}$

max of  $\nu$  representation

Max of  $\lambda$  representation

Plot for the solar

$T_{\text{effective}} = 5772 \text{ K}$



$$F = A \int_0^{\lambda_{03}} \frac{\lambda^3}{e^{\lambda} - 1} d\lambda = 0.37$$

$$F = A \int_0^{\lambda_{04}} \frac{\lambda^3}{e^{\lambda} - 1} d\lambda = 0.59$$

$$F = A \int_0^{\lambda_{05}} \frac{\lambda^3}{e^{\lambda} - 1} d\lambda = 0.76$$

So the  $\lambda_{04}$  maximum is closer to the half way point to total integrated energy.

and  $\lambda_{03} \approx \lambda_{04} - 1$  and  $\lambda_{04} + 1 \approx \lambda_{05}$

and  $\lambda_{04}$  is midway between the other two maximum

See p.6014

6018

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See  
p. 6016

and  $F(x_{0.4} - 1, x_{0.4} + 1) \hat{=} 0.37$   
 $= 37\%$   
 of all the energy

$$F(x_{0.4} - 1.5, x_{0.4} + 1.5) = 0.54$$

$$= 54\%$$

So if you had to give an  
 $x$ ,  $\nu$ , or  $\lambda$  representation  
 of where most energy is  
 the  $x_{0.4}$  seems best

$$x_{0.4} = 3.920690\dots$$

$$\nu_4 = \frac{kT}{h} x_{0.4}$$

$$\lambda_4 = \frac{hc}{kT} \frac{1}{x_{0.4}}$$

However, in  
 numerical calculations  
 $I_\nu$  and  $\nu$  representations  
 are best since?  
 See p. 6007  
 ~~$I_\nu$  and  $\nu$  is  
 integrated spectral  
 intensity (crossed energy)~~

To conclude the log representation seems  
 best for plotting spectra in general  
 (see p. 6005 - 6007)

and for blackbody spectra the log rep.  
 maximum actually is the natural  
 $x$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $\lambda$  for characterizing where  
 most energy is in a plot

**Caption:** The normalized blackbody spectrum equivalent of the solar spectrum shown in 3 representations:

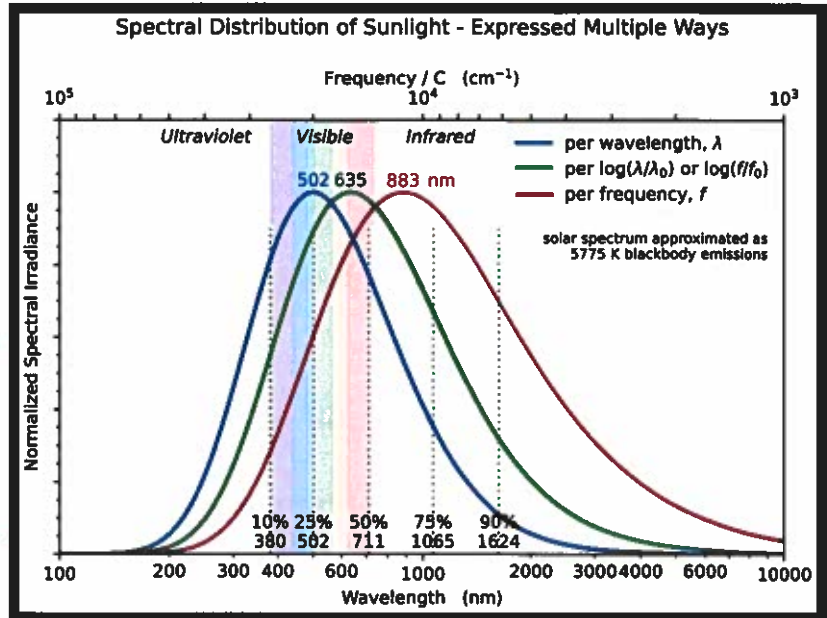
1. frequency representation  
 $(x_{\text{max}} = hv/(kT) = 2.821439372122078893\dots, F(x_{\text{max}}) \cong 0.365)$ .
2. log representation ( $x_{\text{max}} = hv/(kT) = 3.920690394872886343\dots, F(x_{\text{max}}) \cong 0.592$ )  
 (AKA fractional bandwidth).
3. wavelength representation ( $x_{\text{max}} = hv/(kT) = 4.965114231744276303\dots, F(x_{\text{max}}) \cong 0.757$ ).

Note,  $F(x_{\text{max}})$  is the fractional integrated specific intensity from  $x = 0$  to  $x = x_{\text{max}}$ .

The blackbody spectrum equivalent is the spectrum the Sun would have if it were a perfect blackbody radiator with a temperature exactly equal to the Sun's actual effective temperature (a characteristic photospheric temperature) which this plot sets to 5775 K which is slightly different from solar photosphere effective temperature = 5772 K (current best value).

Features:

1. Obviously, the shape of a spectrum depends on the representation, and so where a spectrum maximizes depends on the representation. The representation dependence of shape and maximum is clearly shown for the solar spectrum in the plot.
2. The 3 representations in the plot give maximizes at, respectively 502 nm = 0.502  $\mu\text{m}$  (green band (fiducial range 0.495--0.570  $\mu\text{m}$ )), 635 nm = 0.635  $\mu\text{m}$  (red (fiducial range 0.620--0.740  $\mu\text{m}$ )), and 883 nm = 0.883  $\mu\text{m}$  near-infrared (NIR, fiducial range 0.750--1.4  $\mu\text{m}$ ).
3. The energy distribution for the solar spectrum can be specified by percentiles for the wavelength representation: 10 % (< 0.380  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 25 % (< 0.502  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 50 % (< 0.711  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 75 % (< 1.065  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 90 % (< 1.624  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 90 % (< 1.624  $\mu\text{m}$ ),



6020

100 % ( $< \infty$ ).

4. We suggest that the log representation is the natural representation for all spectra.

The argument:

1. The differential relationship among the representations is

$$dI = I_{\nu} d\nu = \nu I_{\nu} (d\nu/\nu) = -\lambda I_{\lambda} (d\lambda/\lambda) = -I_{\lambda} d\lambda ,$$

where  $dI$  is differential integrated specific intensity,  $\nu$  is frequency,  $I_{\nu}$  is the specific intensity in the frequency representation,  $\lambda$  is wavelength,  $I_{\lambda}$  is specific intensity in the wavelength representation, and the minus sign is because increasing frequency  $d\nu > 0$  causes corresponding decreasing wavelength  $d\lambda < 0$ .

We see that  $\nu I_{\nu} = \lambda I_{\lambda}$  and both are what is called the log representation. The version  $\nu I_{\nu}$  is plotted versus  $d \ln(\nu) = d\nu/\nu$  and the version  $\lambda I_{\lambda}$  is plotted versus  $d \ln(\lambda) = d\lambda/\lambda$ .

Since  $\nu I_{\nu} = \lambda I_{\lambda}$ , there is **NO** difference which of  $\nu I_{\nu}$  and  $\lambda I_{\lambda}$  you evaluate and plot, since plots of either are identical, except for mirror reflection about the either of the endpoints. These aspects of the log representation constitute the plotting convenience feature of the log representation.

2. Is there direct way to see that  $d\nu/\nu = -d\lambda/\lambda$  for electromagnetic radiation (EMR)? Yes. We take the differential of the natural logarithm of the phase velocity relation  $\nu\lambda=c$  and then follow obvious steps: i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} d \ln(c) &= 0 = d[ \ln(\nu\lambda) ] = d[ \ln(\nu) + \ln(\lambda) ] = d \ln(\nu) \\ d \ln(\nu) &= -d \ln(\lambda) \\ d\nu/\nu &= -d\lambda/\lambda . \end{aligned}$$

3. More important than the plotting convenience feature of the log representation is another feature.

The size of spectrum structures in frequency and wavelength tend to be proportional to their characteristic absolute size. For example, Doppler

shift and cosmological redshift both shift frequency/wavelength by common factors C for all frequency/wavelength Thus, the logarithmic size of the shift is

$$\ln(v_{\text{shifted}}/v) = \ln(C) = -\ln(\lambda_{\text{shifted}}/\lambda)$$

throughout the spectrum.

The from the above example and other cases, it follows that representation tends to give spectrum structures of equal importance relative their band equal importance in plots. This spectrum structure feature seems yours truly a great boon.

## UNDER CONSTRUCTION BELOW

5. In the log representation, blackbody spectrum specific intensity (i.e., Planck's law) is

$$vB_v(T) = \lambda B_\lambda(T) = 2c \left[ \frac{kT}{hc} \right]^{x^{**4}} \frac{x^{**4}}{[\exp(x) - 1]},$$

where the Planck constant  $h = 6.62607015 \cdot 10^{**(-34)}$  J·s (exactly), the vacuum light speed  $c = 2.99792458 \cdot 10^{**8}$  m/s (exactly)  $\cong 3 \cdot 10^{**8}$  m/s =  $3 \cdot 10^{**5}$  km/s  $\cong 1$  ft/ns, and the  $x = hv/(kT) = hc/(kT\lambda)$  is dimensionless (i.e., unitless) variable incorporating frequency and wavelength information, where the Boltzmann contant  $k = 1.380649 \cdot 10^{**(-23)}$  J/K (exactly) and T is temperature. For reference for the fundamental physical constants, see also NIST: Fundamental Physical Constants.

Credit/Permission: © User:Rhwentworth, 2025 / CC BY-SA 1.0.

Image link: Wikimedia Commons: File:Spectral Distribution of Sunlight.svg.

Local file: local link: representation.html.

File: Blackbody file: representation.html.

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### c) Cases of interest

~~Energy density~~

$$B = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx$$

$$N = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^3 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^2}{e^x - 1} dx$$

$$N = \frac{4\pi}{c} N_{\text{photon}} \frac{2}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^3 2! \zeta(3)$$

1. 202056903R

Air-332

No  $\pi$  factors  
from the odd  
Riemann-Zeta  
functions

$$B = \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4 3! \zeta(4)$$

$\frac{\pi^4}{90}$

$$= \frac{\pi^4}{15} \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{kT}{h}\right)^4$$

$$E = \frac{4\pi}{c} B = \text{~~4\pi~~}$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{c} \frac{\pi^4}{15} \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{k}{h}\right)^4 T^4$$

$$= a_r T^4$$

$$\sigma = \frac{\pi^5}{15} \frac{2h}{c^2} \left(\frac{k}{h}\right)^4$$

Wiki Stefan-Boltzmann  
Law  
confirms

Radiation constant  
(Wiki Stefan-Boltzmann  
Law).

$$a_r = 7.5657 \times 10^{-16}$$

$$a = \frac{4\sigma}{c} \quad \frac{\text{J}}{\text{m}^3 \text{K}^4}$$

Pressure of A Photon Gas in Thermodynamic equilibrium

d) Entropy & Pressure of Planck Photon gas

Energy is energy density  
 Not energy per unit volume  
 $E$  is energy density

$$dE = T ds - PdV + \mu dN$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_S = -P \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial S}\right)_V = T$$

Natural variables  $E(S, V)$

$\mu = 0$   
 chemical potential zero  
 for photon gas since number conservation not imposed in establishin thermodynamic equilibrium

But we have  $E = aT^4 V = \epsilon V$   
 $\epsilon = E(T, V)$   
 $a = \text{radiation constant}$   
 $E = aT^4 \text{ (see p. 6009)}$

$$dS = \left(\frac{dE}{T}\right)_V$$

constant volume

$$S = \int \left(\frac{E}{aV}\right)^{1/4} dE = (aV)^{1/4} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right) E^{3/4} + \text{Constant}$$

Constant // set to zero

$$E = \left(\frac{3}{4}\right) S^{4/3} = \left(\frac{3}{4}\right) S^{4/3} (aV)^{1/3}$$

No reason not to

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_S = -\frac{1}{3} \frac{E}{V} \quad \text{and so } P = \frac{1}{3} aT^4 = \frac{1}{3} E/V$$

a famous formula

This result can also be derived from classical particles and quantum mechanical particles - a nice consistency

$$E = aT^4$$

# 2) Pressure of Photon Gas ~~by~~ 3 Ways

## a) Entropy, Pressure, Energy

From Thermodynamic theory we strongly believe the 1<sup>st</sup> law of thermodynamics in differential form

$$dE = TdS - PdV + \mu dN$$

change in energy (internal energy)

Temperature entropy pressure volume

chemical potential = zero for photon since photon number is NOT conserved in establishing Thermo. Eq.

Analysis of photon gas

Gives  $E = aT^4$  energy density

$a = \text{radiation constant}$

$$E = aT^4 V \text{ energy in volume } V$$

But this is  $E = E(T, V)$   $T = \left(\frac{E}{aV}\right)^{1/4}$

and use the 1<sup>st</sup> law we need  $E(S, V)$

$$dS = \left(\frac{dE}{T}\right)_V \text{ holding volume constant.}$$

$$= \frac{dE}{\left(\frac{E}{aV}\right)^{1/4}} \text{ Now we can integrate holding volume constant}$$

$$S = (aV)^{1/4} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right) \left[\frac{3}{4}\right]_{E_0}^E$$

$$S = (aV)^{1/4} \left(\frac{4}{3}\right) E$$

we set  $E_0 = 0$  since it seems reasonable to have zero entropy when  $E = 0$

$$\text{and } E = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) S}{(aV)^{1/4}}\right]^{4/3} = \left[\frac{3}{4} \frac{S}{a^{1/4}}\right]^{4/3} V^{-1/3}$$

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Now we have  $E = E(S, V)$

and  $P \equiv - \left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_S$  constant entropy

$$= - \left( -\frac{1}{3} \right) \frac{E}{V}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} a T^4$$

a famous result for pressure of a photon gas

But note especially

Radiation constant

$$E \propto V^{-\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$E \propto V^{-\frac{4}{3}} \propto (a^3)^{-\frac{4}{3}}$$

$$E \propto a^{-4}$$

cosmic scale factor

For adiabatic expansion of a photon gas including in an expanding universe,

Historically, Wien found his

approximation to the Planck Law

by considering ~~an box of~~ radiation

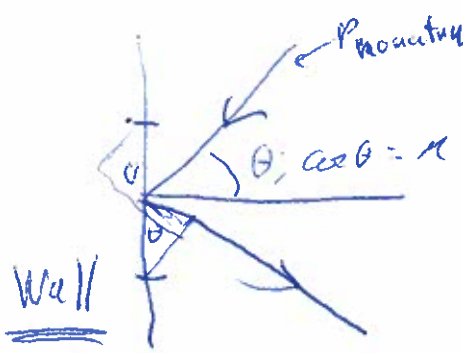
redshifting by the

Doppler effect in an expanding reflecting box.



He found  $T\lambda = \text{constant}$  must hold. We'll find that too for the expanding universe

b) Classical Particle Derivation (gases) 60 RB



Pressure  $dP dA = 2 \mu P \frac{N}{4\pi} n(p) dp d\Omega \mu dA$

accounts for change in momentum of particles on powder of rigid surface

component of momentum toward surface

Flow in one direction

number density of particles  $n(p)$   
per momentum magnitude  $N(p)$

momentum magnitude  $\mu$   
solid angle  $d\Omega$   
perpendicular surface area  $dA$   
tube of particles going in one direction  $\frac{n(p)}{4\pi} \mu d\Omega dA$

$$P = \frac{2}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^{\infty} \mu^2 d\mu \int_0^{\infty} \frac{N(p)}{4\pi} dp$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{\infty} \mu^2 P n(p) dp$$

Now NR limit  $E_{avg} = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{1}{2} \mu P$   
non-relativistic limit  $N P = 2 E(p)$

ER limit extreme relativistic limit  $E_{kin} = \mu P$

$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{2}{3} E \quad NR \\ \frac{1}{3} E \quad ER \end{array} \right\}$  where  $E$  is energy per unit volume: i.e., energy density.

Note these results do not depend on  $n(p)$ : i.e., on how the particles are distributed in momentum magnitude, just on on instantaneous energy density.

But if the gas is in thermodynamic equilibrium? So the gas doesn't have to be in thermodynamic equilibrium.

If the gas volume is changed adiabatically, No heat energy change added and no particle number change (or zero chemical potential).

Seems to be true whether there is thermodynamic equilibrium or not.

$$dE = -P dV$$

$E = E(V, S)$  and  $P = P(E)$

Note we have called the particles <sup>particles</sup> but they could also be compact wave packets in QM.  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P \text{ just depends on instantaneous energy} \\ \text{not on } n(p) \text{ or } n(p) \text{ energy distribution} \\ \text{(even though it is one } P = -(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}) \end{array} \right.$

# 6020 | c) Quantum Derivation

Imagine an infinite square well that a cube of side length  $L$

Then  $V = L^3$  or  $L = V^{1/3}$



standing waves

zero BCs

$$L_x = n \frac{\lambda_x}{2}$$

$$k_x = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_x}$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{L_x} \propto \frac{1}{V^{1/3}}$$

same for y and z

travelling waves

Periodic BCs

$$L_x = n \lambda_x$$

$$k_x = 2\pi / \lambda_x$$

$$k_x \propto \frac{1}{L_x} \propto \frac{1}{V^{1/3}}$$

same for y, z

There are the same answer for density of states.

Textbooks ~~say~~ say the BCs shouldn't matter deep in interior, but since BCs matter in all other physics problems, textbooks seem to glitch. I can understand why the shape of volume shouldn't matter for ~~high~~ high  $k$  (small  $\lambda$ ) modes, that is all textbooks mean. ~~Periodic BCs are~~ What if you don't really have BCs like deep in a star or the universe or a globe, Textbooks pass over crucial point in silence. Perhaps just a lucky guessment you get some answer asymptotically if you divide a volume up into cubes of any size, and so the answer must be the same even with no cubes — ~~edges or boundaries~~.

Can't complete discussion here. May have something to do with assuming homogeneity and isotropy in deep interior.

In any case

$$E \propto \sum_i k_i^2$$

where sum is over all particles in the completely delocalized states.

$q = 1$  for ER,  $E_{tot} = P \propto V^{2/3}$

$q = 2$  for NR,  $E_{tot} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \propto V^{2/3}$

Expanding adiabatically  $dE = -P dV$

$$P = - \left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_S = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3} \frac{E}{V} = \frac{2}{3} E & \text{NR} \\ \frac{1}{3} \frac{E}{V} = \frac{1}{3} E & \text{ER} \end{cases}$$

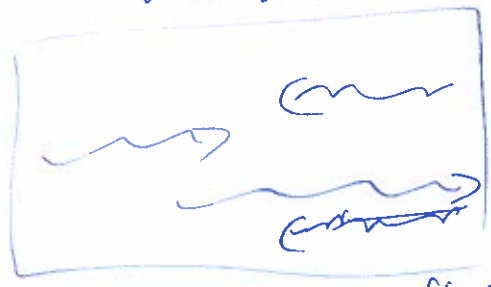
Adiabatic change. No heat added particles stay in the states there even if no particle-particle interaction.

Now we think of the particles so far as completely delocalized states. But they can be in compact wave packets and just ~~be~~ as discussed in section (b) with classical particles and results don't change.  $P$  just depends on  $E$  and not on the distribution, could be thermodynamic or anything.

# 4) Proof that a Planckian Radiation Field (i.e., a Blackbody Radiation Field)

## Stays Planckian under Universal Expansion (Adiabatic Expansion)

$$\nu = \nu_0 a(t)$$



instantaneous reflection

expanding reflecting box as Wien assumed in deriving

$$\dot{\nu} = \nu_0 \dot{a} \quad \text{his approximation to Blackbody radiation field}$$
$$\frac{\dot{\nu}}{\nu} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$\nu = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right) r$$
$$N = H \nu$$

∴ 1st Order Doppler formula

frequency instead of wavelength

$$\frac{d\nu}{\nu} = -\frac{d\nu}{c} = \frac{H d\nu}{c}$$
$$= -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} c dt$$

$$\frac{d\nu}{\nu} = -\frac{da}{a}$$

$$\ln \nu = \ln a^{-1}$$

$$\nu \propto a^{-1}$$

$$\nu = \nu_0 \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)$$

same derivation all along.

$$\nu = \nu_0 a(t)$$



expanding universe

$$\dot{\nu} = \nu_0 \dot{a}$$

$$\frac{\dot{\nu}}{\nu} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$\nu = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right) r$$

$$N = H r$$

1st order Doppler formula

$$\frac{d\nu}{\nu} = -\frac{d\nu}{c} = -\frac{H d\nu}{c}$$
$$= -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} c dt$$

$$\frac{d\nu}{\nu} = -\frac{da}{a}$$

$$\ln \nu = \ln a^{-1}$$

$$\nu \propto a^{-1}$$

$$\nu = \nu_0 \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)$$

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university

Total photon density  $n \propto \frac{1}{a^3}$

and photon individual energies  $\propto \frac{1}{a}$

$\therefore$  Energy density  $\propto nE \propto \frac{1}{a^4}$

This is independent of the distribution as a function of frequency (or energy)

The photons in the primordial ~~photons~~ gas (usually called CMB at ~~times~~ despite not being in the microwave band in early times)

to first order do not interact with matter or each other.

So photons in ~~bin~~ bin  $d\nu_0$  at fiducial time  $t_0$  stay in that bin as it redshifts with time:

$$d\nu = \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right) d\nu_0$$

Similarly the ~~energy~~ specific intensity (basically the energy) in bin  $d\nu_0$  stays in that bin

	$n d\nu = \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^3 n_{\nu_0} d\nu_0$	} So these scale just like total density and energy
and	$I_\nu d\nu = \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^4 I_{\nu_0} d\nu_0$	
	general time	at fiducial time which could be cosmic present

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$$\begin{aligned} \therefore I_{\nu} d\nu &= \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^4 \frac{2h\nu_0^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{\nu_0} - 1} d\nu_0 \\ &= \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{\nu_0} - 1} d\nu \end{aligned}$$

Now define temperature parameter  $T$  such that

$$\frac{h\nu}{kT} = x = x_0 = \frac{h\nu_0}{kT_0} = \frac{h\nu \left(\frac{a}{a_0}\right)}{kT_0}$$

See p. 6021

implying  $\frac{\nu}{T} = \frac{\nu_0}{T_0}$

$$T = \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_0}\right) T_0 = \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right) T_0$$

$$\therefore T = \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right) T_0$$

Is  $T$  the actual photon gas temperature at general time  $t$ ?

Well, it ~~is~~ <sup>gives</sup> the <sup>actual</sup> photon gas spectrum at time  $t$  and that is Planckian, and so yes.

Well,  $I_{\nu} d\nu = B_{\nu}(T) d\nu$

So this is the actual spectrum at time  $t$  and it is Planckian with  $T$

and so yes  $T$  is the actual temperature of an actual Planck law distribution.



~~So photon density and energy scale just as should for adiabatic expansion and the distribution among frequency bins stays Planckian as long as we assert~~

~~$$T = T_0 \left( \frac{a_0}{a} \right)$$~~

So why not just say this  $T$  is temperature?

It should like a Planckian field at this temperature. So it is a Planckian field at this temperature.

~~I do wonder if this proof is actually complete or is it just overall consistency but I guess it's complete~~

5) Interlude on Specific intensity & Flux

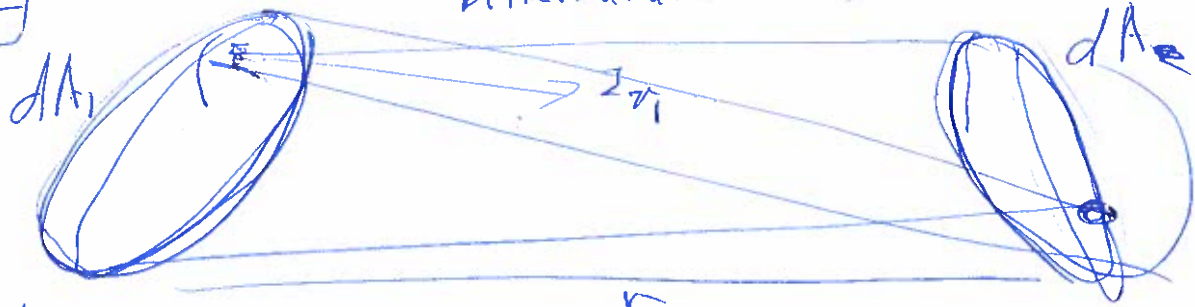
a) Conservation of Specific Intensity for time-independent static system with no intervening opacity

$$dE = I_\nu d\nu dt dA dl = I_\nu d\nu dt dA d\Omega$$

by energy conservation.

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Differential elements



↓

$$dr_1 = dr$$

$$dt_1 = dt$$

since time independent and static

$$d\Omega_1 = \frac{dA}{r^2}, \quad d\Omega = \frac{dA_1}{r^2}$$

$$I_{r_1} \frac{dA}{r^2} = I_r \frac{dA_1}{r^2}$$

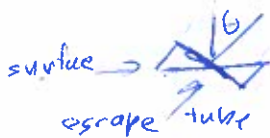
$$I_{r_1} d\Omega_1 d\Omega = I_r d\Omega d\Omega_1$$

$$I_{r_1} = I_r \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

b) specific intensity of flux

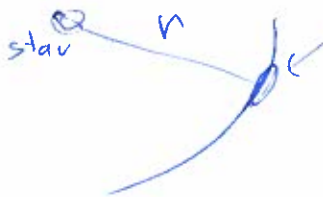


$$F = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_{\nu} \cos\theta \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$



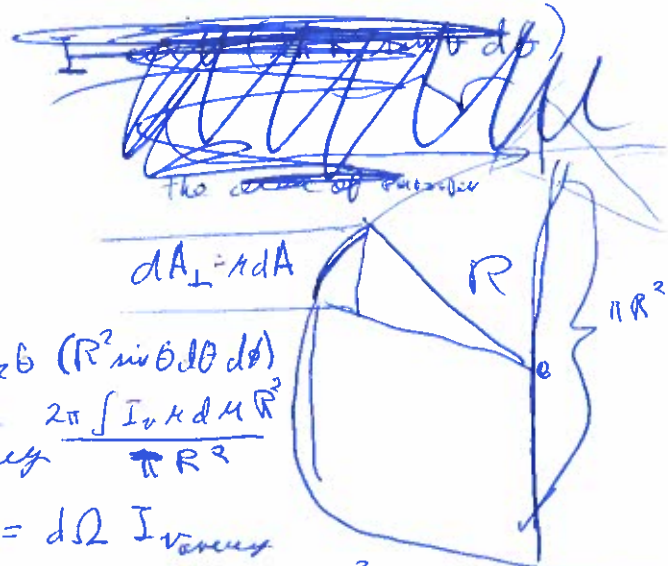
Flux for  $I_{\nu}$  isotropic

Then  $\mu = \cos\theta$   
 $d\mu = -\sin\theta d\theta$  } radial cosine  
 $F = 2\pi \int_0^1 I_{\nu} \mu d\mu$  } (assuming azimuthal symmetry)



observer flux  $F_{obs}$   
 $L = 4\pi R^2 F$   
 $F_{obs} = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2} = F \left(\frac{R}{r}\right)^2$

Other perspective should give same answer



$$I_{\nu} = \frac{2\pi \int I_{\nu} \mu d\mu R^2}{4\pi R^2}$$

$$F_{obs} = d\Omega I_{\nu} \cos\theta = \frac{\pi R^2}{r^2} \frac{2\pi \int I_{\nu} \mu d\mu R^2}{4\pi R^2} = F \left(\frac{R}{r}\right)^2$$

and so consistent.

# 6) There is a Cosmic Temperature (6025)



→ It is one of the most perfect blackbody spectra in nature - maybe most perfect in the microwave band

other bands have  
D.E.B.R.A - diffuse extragalactic background radiation  
 with extragalactic origin

C.B.R  
 Cosmic Background Radiation  
 all bands including extragalactic and Milky Way origin  
 it seems

→ From point sources - but scattered by electrons often emerging from galaxies and ~~other~~ point sources unresolved.

CMB = cosmic microwave background at cosmic present,

It seems conventional to call it CMB at all times even though it originally peaked in the IR

~~CMB~~ = cosmic background radiation for general time  
 Since recombination era ( $t \approx 377$  kyr) - more exactly it has streamed freely cooling adiabatically

602 (6)

and retaining its Planckian shape and scale

with  $T = T_0 \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^{a_0=1}$

Some rather interesting

$I = \int_{\text{recombination}} e^{-\tau}$   
as defined somehow

cosmic present

with  $\tau = .05 - .1$

$T_0 = 2.7260(13) \text{ K}$   
 $2.72548(57) \text{ K}$

Fixsen 2009

~~small~~ but small  
through not negligible

(Planck 2023  
value 0.058(6)  
See NASA  
Optical Depth  
to Recombination

W. K. agrees

Google AZ agrees

his adopted average from literature analysis  
But it cites us!!

but mostly Thomson scattering off free electrons in IGM = Interplanetary medium

that doesn't change frequency and so doesn't perturb blackbody shape → in fact it is adiabatic scattering or elastic scattering

no coupling to matter thermal state

Of course, some CMB photons do get absorbed in matter → they hit a planet or a detector.  
→ But this is a small perturbation.

But it does tend to erase intrinsic anisotropies of CMB.  
People  
COBE results  
of 1992  
if there would be total erasure.  
They were worried

So back to recombination era (13.77 kyr) actually to baryon decoupling of  $t = 11.86$  Myr Hought & Scott (2020)

The ~~CMB~~ temperature is fairly called the cosmic temperature  $\rightarrow$  what you deduce just looking at space.

What of before ~~baryon decoupling~~ recombination (or decoupling)

In fact, it is the temperature of everything as far back in time as we can certainly go. Photons dominated the energy density ~~everything~~ along with maybe other relativistic particles.

In inflation era there may have been  $(t \lesssim 10^{-32} \text{ s})$

"Reheating" (but I know nix about that) from decaying inflation field that created a quark-gluon plasma (Wiki: Inflation)

to this may be as far back as  $T = T_0 \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)$  applies.

There ~~may be~~ small corrections  $\sum$  ~~know not of~~ probably of all kinds (Wiki: CMB spectral distortions)

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7) Some Aspects of Big Bang

Nucleosynthesis