

Transmission Line Derivation of 1-D Blackbody Radiation and Thermal Noise.

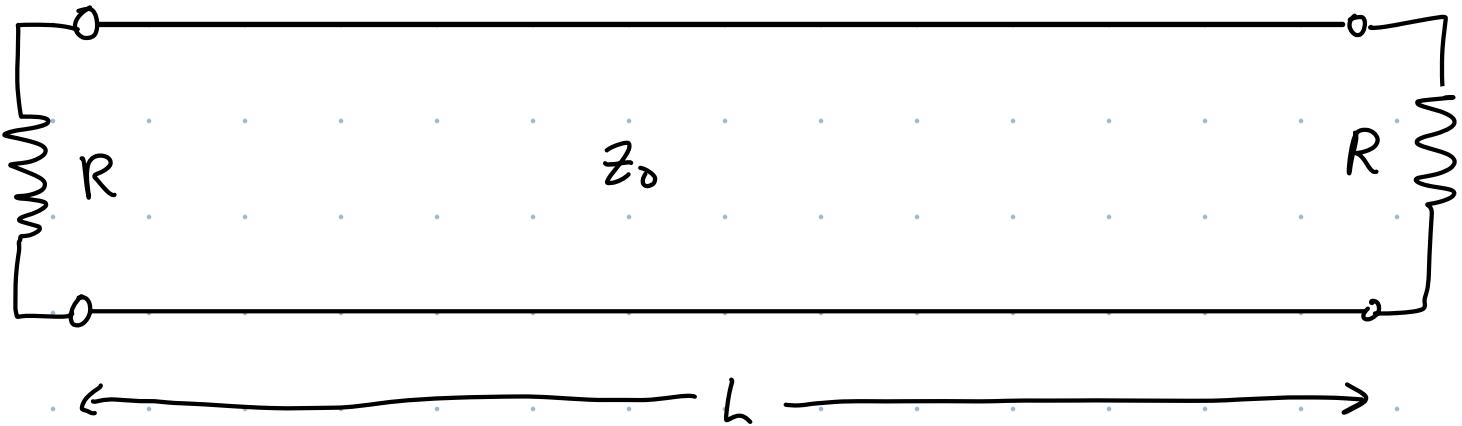
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Here, we attempt to use transmission line (TL) formalism to uncover the physics of 1-D blackbody radiation & the thermal noise emitted by a resistor.

In general, TLs can be used to investigate all types of 1-D wave phenomena spanning a wide range of fields in physics.

Consider a TL of characteristic impedance Z_0 that is completely real, terminated at both ends by matched loads $R = Z_0$.



Because the two loads are matched, there are no reflections :

$$\Gamma = \frac{R - Z_0}{R + Z_0} = 0$$

\therefore any wave incident on either R will be completely absorbed.

Quantum mechanically, the EM waves in the T₂s have energy $E_n = \hbar\omega(n + \frac{1}{2})$

Appealing to statistical mechanics (PHYS 403)
 @ UBCO, the prob. of mode E_n being excited
 is given by :

$$P(E_n) = \frac{e^{-E_n/k_B T}}{Z}$$

where $Z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-E_n/k_B T}$ is the partition

function. For the harmonic oscillator,

$$Z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\hbar\omega n/k_B T} e^{-\hbar\omega/2k_B T}$$

$$= e^{-\hbar\omega/2k_B T} \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\hbar\omega n/k_B T}}_{\text{geometric series}}$$

$$\frac{1}{1 - e^{-\hbar\omega/k_B T}}$$

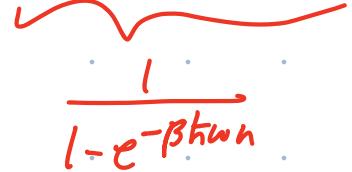
$$\therefore Z = \frac{e^{-\hbar\omega/2k_B T}}{1 - e^{-\hbar\omega/k_B T}}$$

Let's define $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$ such that

$$\text{Now } P(E_n) = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar \omega n} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega / 2} (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})}{e^{-\beta \hbar \omega / 2}}$$

$$P(E_n) = e^{-\beta \hbar \omega n} (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})$$

Check normalization:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(E_n) = 1 = (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega n}$$


$$\therefore \langle E \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n P(E_n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \hbar \omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right) P(E_n)$$

$$\therefore \langle E \rangle = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(E_n) + \hbar\omega (1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-\beta\hbar\omega n}$$

1 work on this.

Know that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta\hbar\omega n} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}}$

$(e^{-\beta\hbar\omega})^n$

define $r = e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}$ s.t.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = \frac{1}{1-r} \quad (\text{usual geometric series})$$

differential both sides w.r.t. r

$$\frac{d}{dr} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n \right) = \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{1}{1-r} \right)$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n r^{n-1} = \frac{1}{(1-r)^2}$$

Multiply both sides by r :

$$\therefore \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n r^n = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}$$

$$\text{Now, } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-\beta \hbar \omega n} = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})^2}$$

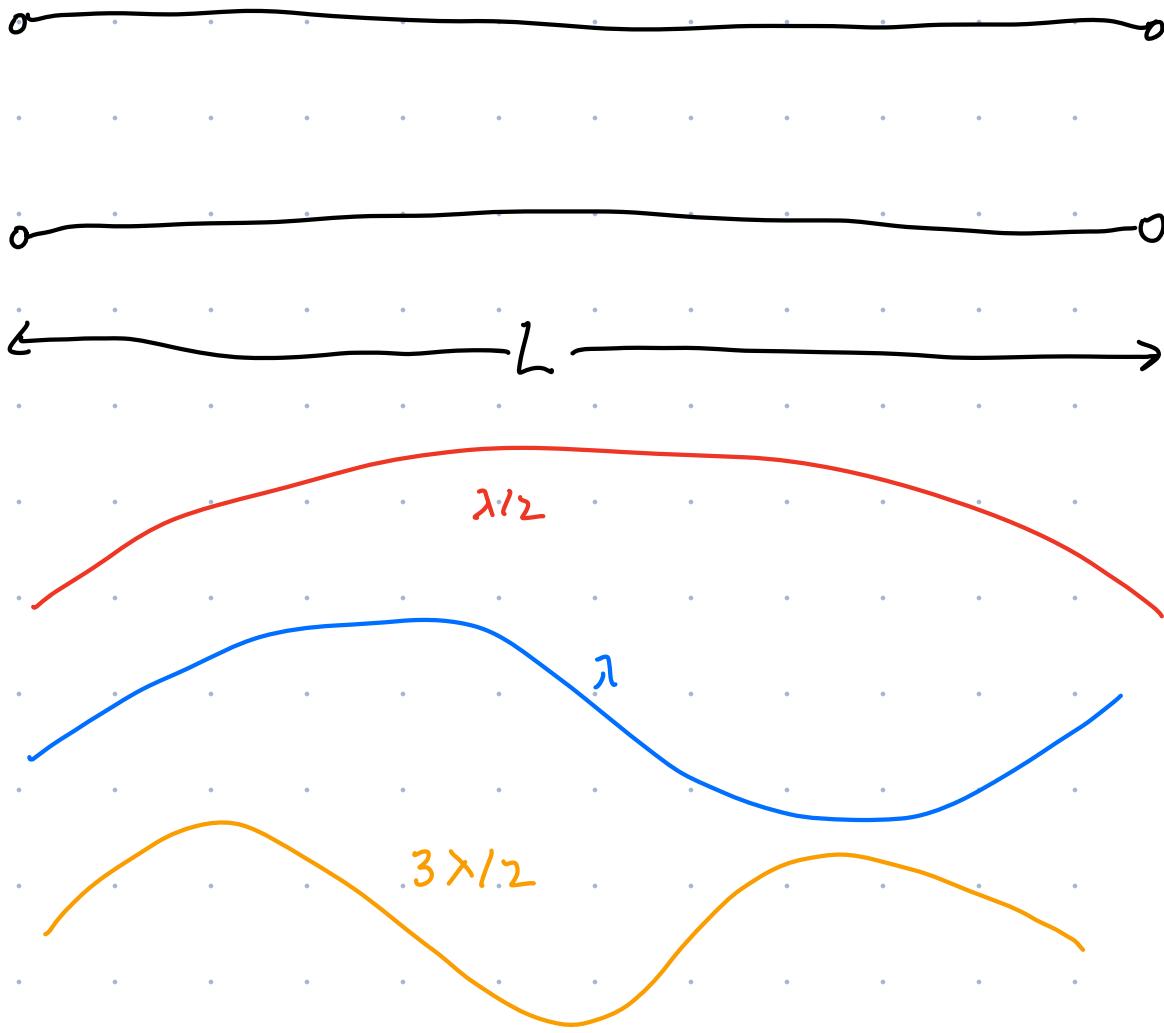
$$\therefore \langle E \rangle = \frac{\hbar \omega}{2} + \hbar \omega \left(\frac{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}} \right) \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})^2}$$

$$\therefore \langle E \rangle = \frac{\hbar \omega}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1} + \frac{\hbar \omega}{2}$$

zero point energy.

Average energy of the EM harmonic modes in the TL.

Next, we consider the density of modes or density of states (DOS) in a TL of length L.



$$\therefore L = n \frac{\lambda}{2} \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\therefore k_n = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_n} = \frac{2\pi}{2L} = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

$$\therefore \Delta k = k_{n+1} - k_n = \frac{\pi}{L}$$

wave speed

since $c = \frac{\omega}{k}$, $\omega = ck$ $\therefore \Delta\omega = c\Delta k$

$$\therefore \Delta\omega = \frac{C\pi}{L}$$

\therefore the mode density $\frac{1}{\Delta\omega} = \frac{L}{\pi C} \equiv g(\omega)$

In terms of energy $g(E) = \frac{L}{\pi C \hbar}$ and
the number of modes between energy E
and $E + \Delta E$ is $g(E)\Delta E = \frac{L}{\pi C \hbar} \Delta E$.

wave
constant.

Therefore, the energy in the TL due to modes
w/ energy between E and $E + \Delta E$ is:

$$\langle E \rangle g(E) \Delta E$$

average energy per mode no. of modes.

\therefore In 1-D the energy density is given by:

$$u(E) dE = \frac{\langle E \rangle g(E) dE}{L}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi c \hbar} \left[\frac{\hbar \omega}{e^{\hbar \omega / k_B T} - 1} + \frac{\hbar \omega}{2} \right] dE$$

zero pt. energy
is usually dropped
for temp.-
dependent
thermodynamic
properties.

This is more conventionally written as

$$u(\omega) d\omega = \frac{\hbar \omega}{\pi c} \frac{d\omega}{e^{\hbar \omega / k_B T} - 1}$$

1-D analog
of the Planck
blackbody
spectrum.

Let's now consider the low-freq. (long wavelength) limit.

$$e^{\hbar \omega / k_B T} \approx 1 - \frac{\hbar \omega}{k_B T}$$

$$\therefore u(\omega) d\omega \approx \frac{\hbar \omega}{\pi c} \frac{d\omega}{1 - \frac{\hbar \omega}{k_B T} - 1} = \frac{k_B T}{\pi c} d\omega$$

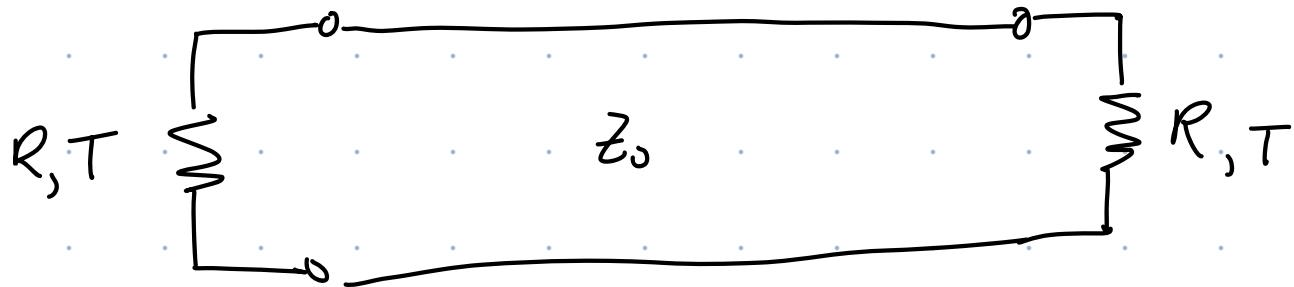
Aside -

$$U_{\text{tot}} = \int u(w) dw$$

Using the low-frequency limit, $\int_0^\infty \frac{k_B T}{\pi c} dw$ diverges

which is the so-called ultraviolet catastrophe. It was Planck's original motivation for quantizing the EM field. This low-freq. limit is equivalent to taking $\hbar \rightarrow 0$ to recover the classical limit. Classical physics cannot escape the ultraviolet catastrophe.

Back to the TL.



The origin of energy density $u(w) \Delta w$ is power radiated by the two resistors R at temperature T . Since $R = Z_0$, $\Gamma = 0$ and there are no reflections \Rightarrow all energy incident on R is perfectly absorbed. However, in order to maintain thermal equilibrium (const. T), the resistors must also be radiating energy at the same rate it's absorbing energy \rightarrow no net power loss or gain.

In a TL of length L , the energy in Δw is

$$u(w) \Delta w = \frac{k_B T}{\pi c}$$

$$u(f) \Delta f = \frac{2 k_B T \Delta f}{c}$$

(Energy density) \times (wave speed) \Rightarrow Power

$$\therefore P_{\text{net}} = 2 k_B T \Delta f$$

Half the power is travelling right, due to R on left and the other half is travelling

left, due to R on right. (Remember, no net power gain or loss by either resistor in thermal equil.).

$$\therefore P = k_B T \Delta f$$

Power radiated by any resistor at temp. T (indep. of R).

Not only is P indep. of R , it is also indep. of f . The resistor radiates power at all frequencies with equal weight over the bandwidth Δf . This uniform power spectral density is called white noise.

The result is valid provided the approximation

$$\frac{\hbar \omega}{k_B T} \ll 1 \text{ is valid.}$$

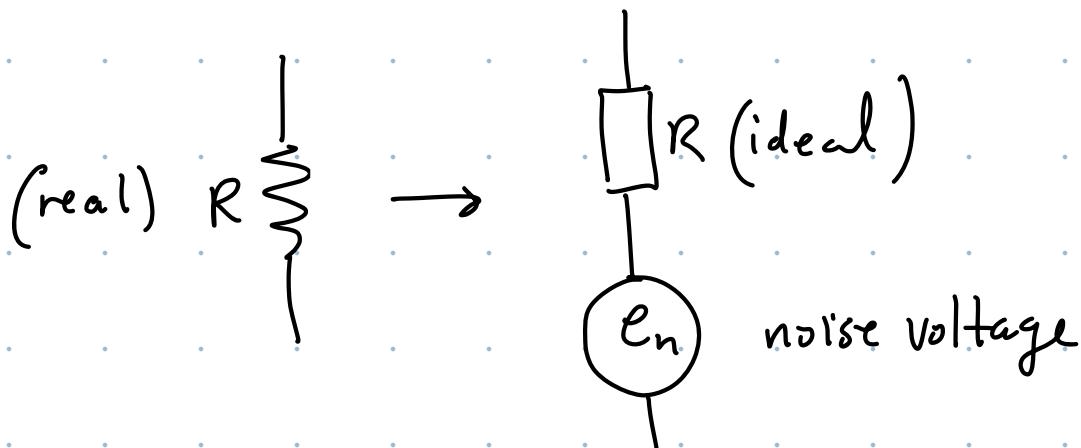
$$\therefore f \ll \frac{k_B T}{2\pi\hbar} \quad \text{at room temp } (T \approx 300\text{K})$$

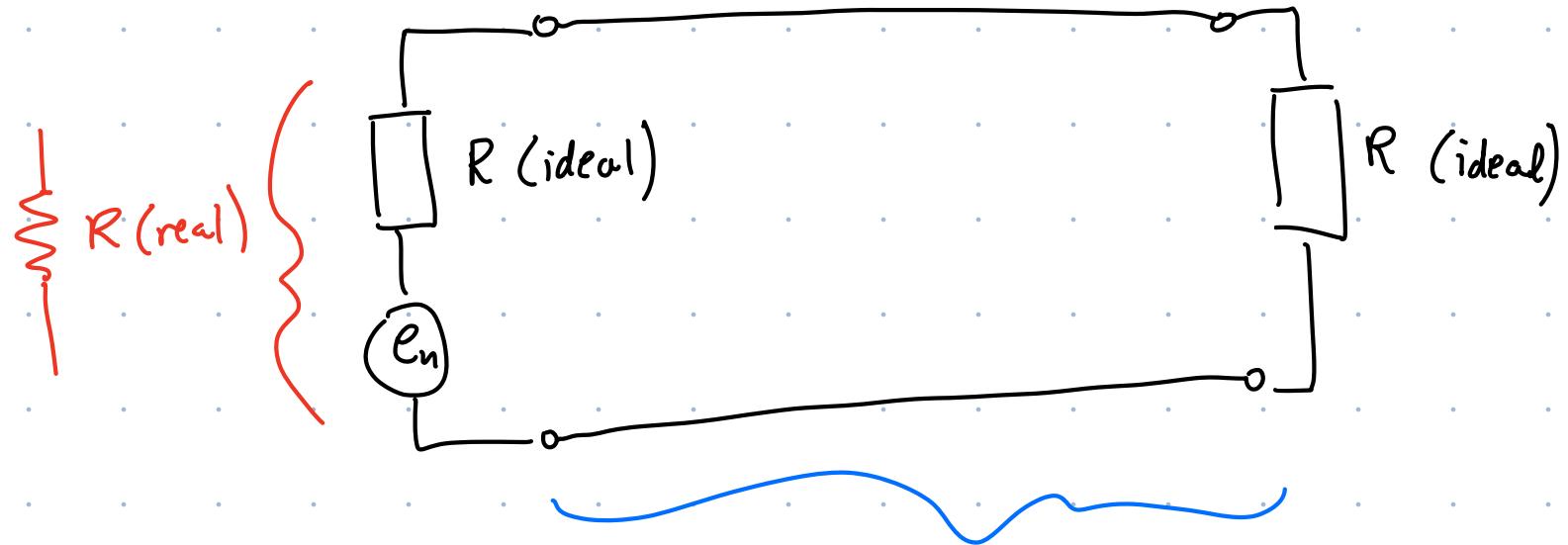
$$\text{this gives } f \ll 6 \times 10^{12} \text{ Hz} = 6 \text{ THz.}$$

\therefore In the RF/microwave regime ($\sim 1 \text{ MHz}$ to 100 GHz) and ordinary temperatures, resistors are a very good approximation to white noise ~~emitter~~, although they are truly blackbody radiators.

Often a experimental signal is a voltage, so one would like to convert this noise power to an equivalent noise voltage.

The idea is to return to the TL and terminate one end with a matched "real" noisy resistor and the other end with a matched "ideal" noiseless resistor

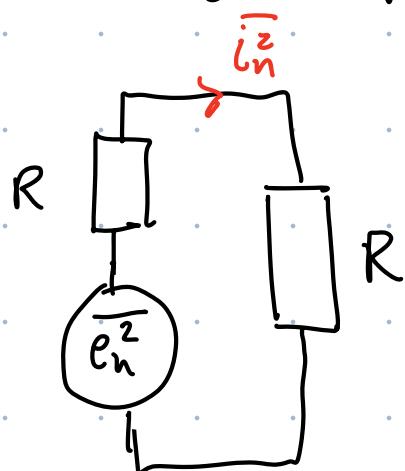




a length of TL terminated
by $R = Z_0$.

$$\therefore Z_{in} = R$$

Equivalent circuit:



We want to calc.
the power absorbed by
R one the right.

$$\sqrt{\overline{i_n^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{\overline{e_n^2}}}{2R}$$

$$P = \overline{i_n^2} R = \left(\frac{\sqrt{\overline{e_n^2}}}{2R}\right)^2 R$$

$$\therefore P = \frac{\overline{e_n^2}}{4R}$$

but we previously found $P = k_B T \Delta f$

$$\therefore \frac{\overline{e_n^2}}{4R} = k_B T \Delta f$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\overline{e_n^2} = \sqrt{4k_B T R \Delta f}}$$

Noise voltage
of resistor R
at temperature T .

This result goes by several different names
all describing the same phenomenon:

Thermal Noise / Johnson Noise / Nyquist Noise

Note that $\overline{e_n} = 0$. The noise voltage
across a resistor averages to zero.

$\overline{e_n^2}$ is the variance (square of the std. dev.)
of the resistor noise voltage.