

Stretch and Challenge Articles

for A Level AQA Physics

Year 1 (Topics 1–5)

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Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	ii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity	iii
Terms and Conditions of Use	iv
Teacher’s Introduction.....	1
When Particles Collide	3
Constructing a particle accelerator.....	3
ISIS neutron and muon source.....	5
Large Hadron Collider	5
The detectors	5
What’s the Higgs idea?	6
What’s the Antimatter with You?.....	7
The origin of antimatter.....	7
Where is the antimatter?.....	9
Important experiments.....	10
Applications of antimatter	11
What’s Neutrino, Pussycat?	12
Seeing the invisible	12
The Sun’ll go out, tomorrow	13
Majorana’s mask.....	14
Gateway to the Quantum World	15
The quantisation of light (1900).....	15
The quantisation of matter (1913).....	17
The Schrödinger equation (1925)	17
Particle trapped in an infinite potential well	18
The Copenhagen interpretation	20
Meta-magic.....	22
What’s so meta about metamaterials?	22
Radiative sky cooling.....	22
Adaptable antennas	23
Earthquakes: Shaking Things Up.....	24
Seismic waves	25
Seismographs	26
Replacing the seismograph	26
Sun surfing	27
Interferometers: Getting into Superposition.....	28
Basic principles.....	28
Detecting gravitational waves.....	30
Holograms: Seeing Things That aren’t There	32
Laser holography.....	32
Dynamic holograms	33
Acoustic holography.....	33
The holographic principle	34
Laser Focus.....	35
Fundamental principles	35
Spontaneous emission	35
Absorption	35
Stimulated emission.....	35
How a laser works	36
Applications of lasers	36
Optical disc drives	37
Laser cutters.....	38
Imaging the Invisible	39
Schlieren photography.....	39
How does it work?	40
Probing the nanoscale	41
Scanning tunnelling microscopy (STM).....	41
Atomic force microscopy (AFM)	41
Optical Fibres.....	43
How they work.....	43
Dispersion	44
Attenuation	44
Real-world fibre optics.....	45
Big Engineering: The International Space Station	47
Before the ISS.....	47
Building the ISS.....	48
Breaking the ISS	49
Fluid Dynamics: Going with the Flow	50
The Navier–Stokes equations	50
The nondimensionalised Navier–Stokes equation	51
The Reynolds number	52
Dragging on	53
But what’s the point?.....	53
Weather prediction.....	53
Aerofoils and hydrofoils.....	54
It’s Not Exactly Rocket Science	56
Rocket physics.....	56
Orbital mechanics	58
Orbital motion.....	59
Special Effects.....	61
It’s all relative.....	61
Travelling light.....	62
On the right track	62
Going the distance	64
As a matter of fact	65
Twin peaks	65
Energy Storage.....	67
Energy storage in the national grid.....	67
Flywheels.....	68
Batteries.....	69
Hydrogen fuel cells.....	70
Capacitors	70
Mark Scheme.....	72

Teacher's Introduction

These 'Stretch and Challenge' articles are designed to provide stimulation and new challenges for Physics AQA A Level students.

The pack contains 16 articles that cover areas of topical interest to physicists. The articles reach beyond the frontiers of the specification, although there are links to the AQA Physics A Level Year 1 content.

The aim of the resource is to challenge the most capable and engaged physics students. However, it should also be accessible to students of a range of ability levels as the articles add to the specification knowledge. However, the aim of the resource is to be challenging.

For each article, a mix of the following activities is included:

- comprehension questions to ensure understanding of the material and link ideas in the articles to core concepts in physics
- discussion questions to encourage debate on topical issues and wider scientific and ethical questions
- extension tasks that encourage students to conduct further research and support them to structure a written piece

Each article has a link to the specification, but also goes beyond the specification, including recent discoveries, case studies and applications of theories to the wider natural world.

Each article is between 1,000 and 2,000 words, and is expected to take a student approximately 30 minutes to read. The discussion questions can be whole-class activities, guided by the teacher, or small-group activities to encourage less-confident students to take part. The extension activities take a range of forms (individual and pair work), while the comprehension questions should be attempted individually.

All resources can be photocopied in black and white. We hope you enjoy reading and using these resources.

June 2019

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* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

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List of articles

1	When Particles Collide	3.2.1: Particles
2	What's the Antimatter with You?	3.2.1: Particles, antiparticles
3	What's Neutrino, Pussycat?	3.2.1.2: Classification
4	Gateway to the Quantum World	3.2.2: Electromagnetic phenomena
5	Meta-magic	3.3: Waves
6	Earthquake 3.3.1: Things Go Up	3.3: Waves
7	Interference: Getting into Superposition	3.3.2: Refraction, diffraction
8	Colour: Seeing Things That aren't There	3.3.2: Refraction, diffraction
9	Super Focus	3.3.2: Refraction, diffraction
10	Imaging the Invisible	3.3.2: Refraction, diffraction
11	Optical Fibres	3.3.2.3: Refraction, diffraction
12	Big Engineering: The International Space Station	3.4: Mechanics and materials
13	Fluid Dynamics: Going with the Flow	3.4: Mechanics and materials
14	It's Not Exactly Rocket Science	3.4.1: Force, energy, momentum
15	Special Effects	3.4.1.3: Motion along a straight line
16	Energy Storage	3.5.1: Current electricity

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When Particles Collide

3.2.1 Particles

Particle accelerators are used to probe the nature of the universe: to probe and de-
art and other objects; to carry out research into (and are used in medical treatment
food products before being sold. But how do they work?

Keywords

Charge	The intrinsic property of a particle that causes the particle to interact
Hadron	A type of subatomic particle that interacts with the strong force
Lepton	A type of subatomic particle similar to an electron but with a much greater mass

Constructing a particle accelerator

Like any object, a particle will accelerate if a resultant force acts upon the particle.
This is just Newton's second law. But the kinds of particle that particle accelerators
deal with are subatomic, so are too small to simply give them a shove. Instead,
these particles are accelerated using the force exerted by electric fields. Of course,
this means our particle accelerator can only accelerate charged particles, but until
we can manipulate gravity it's the best we've got.

LINACs

Consider the simple circuit of a battery connected to two plates, i.e. a capacitor.
An electric field will be set up between these plates. A charged particle that enters
this electric field will, therefore, experience a force given by the equation:

$$F = \frac{qV}{d}$$

A linear accelerator, or LINAC, consists of many of these 'capacitor' set-ups in a row,
negative to positive. As a particle, like an electron, passes through one capacitor, it

the electron reaches the next gap between capacitors, it's moving from
a positive plate to a negative plate – it starts to decelerate. To stop this
happening, a LINAC uses an alternating current to reverse the polarity of the
charged plates as the electron passes through, so the electron carries on
accelerating to the next plate, which is now positive.

To make an electron continually accelerate, the frequency of this polarity switch must
controlling the frequency manually, the LINAC is built so that the electron has just
of one section before the polarity switches. This means that each section is longer
gets faster, it covers more space in less time. This means LINACs are typically very
higher energies.

LINACs are commonly used in industry and in medicine. There are around 10,000
99 % are used in industry or medicine. LINACs are used because they are relatively
maintain (compared to particle accelerators used for research) and these applications
energies, so the LINACs aren't as likely to generate dangerous radiation.

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Cyclotrons

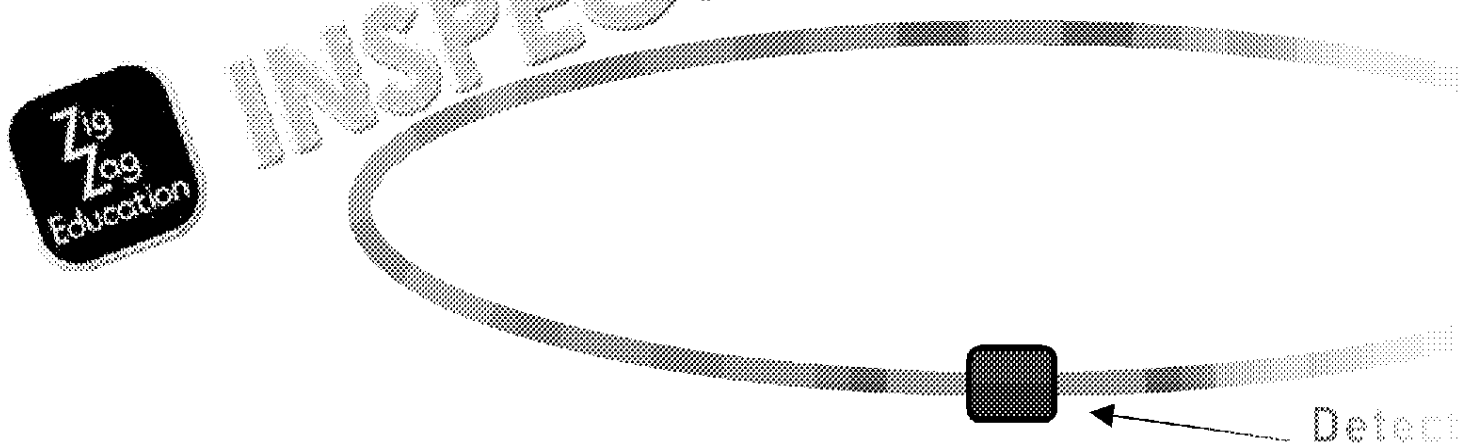
The particle accelerators used in scientific research tend to be circular accelerators. The particle continually accelerates around the ring, reaching much higher energies before colliding with its target.

The cyclotron was the first type of circular particle accelerator developed. A charged particle moving in the presence of a magnetic field will experience a force. This force will act perpendicular to the motion of the charged particle (from Fleming's left-hand rule), forming a centripetal force, turning the direction of motion of the particle. By cleverly positioning where the charged particle is in a magnetic field, the particle can be kept travelling in a circular path, continually accelerating due to an external electric field, in the same direction.

But these cyclotrons do have a limit. As the particle reaches relativistic speeds, its radius of circular motion increases. Eventually, the particle collides with the cyclotron's outer edge. Cyclotrons can only accelerate protons to around 15 MeV, or 10 % of the speed of light.

An approach to solve this problem is to increase the strength of the magnetic field of the cyclotron. Therefore, as the relativistic mass of the particle increases, the particle remains in the cyclotron, experiencing a stronger magnetic field and, therefore, a stronger centripetal force towards its original circular path. This cyclotron is called an isochronous cyclotron.

The energies reached by particle accelerators can be further increased by instead using electric fields present only over the path of the particles, and not over an entire region. It is the path of the particles, rather than the strength of the overseeing magnetic field, that accelerates the particles. The size of the particles can be made to be much larger, as less equipment is needed to guide them. These accelerators are called synchrotrons. The smallest synchrotron ever built had a diameter of 100 m. The largest synchrotron ever built, the Large Hadron Collider, has a diameter of 10 km.



These synchrotrons tend to come in groups, each a different size. A LINAC will first accelerate particles into the smallest synchrotron. The speed of the particles increases until the synchrotron can no longer contain them. They are then fed into the next largest synchrotron to continue accelerating. The Large Hadron Collider is the last ring in this chain, where particles are accelerated to their maximum energy.

The particles collide with other particles, resulting in a particle interaction of huge energy. These collisions usually occur in high-energy cosmic rays, and many of the particles present shortly after the collision occur in the detectors release a large number of particles that undergo decay in fractions of a second.

Particle physicists use the data to piece together what happened in the collision, like the mass of the particles and their kinetic energies, the particle physicist can determine what was created after the collision. This is how the Higgs boson was discovered. Its lifetime before decaying is estimated to be $\sim 10^{-22}$ s.

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ISIS neutron and muon source

Situated in the Rutherford Appleton Labs in Oxford in the UK, the ISIS Neutron and Muon Source is a particle accelerator that accelerates neutrons and muons to probe the structure of condensed matter.

The neutrons are produced by using a standard particle accelerator for protons, which are aimed at a tungsten target. The collision of the protons with the tungsten atoms produces neutrons that pass through the sample to be detected. The same proton beam is also used to produce muons by hitting a graphite target. This produces muons, which quickly decay into muons.

Over 600 experiments are conducted at the ISIS Neutron and Muon Source each year, studying the structure of turbine blades and gas pipelines. By analysing the data, the design of these objects can be catered to ensure that the risk of failure is minimised.

Large Hadron Collider

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) is the largest ring of the particle accelerators at CERN, Switzerland. CERN is a collaboration between 22 countries and was first built in 1954. It is not the only experiments being performed at CERN, but they are the most famous.

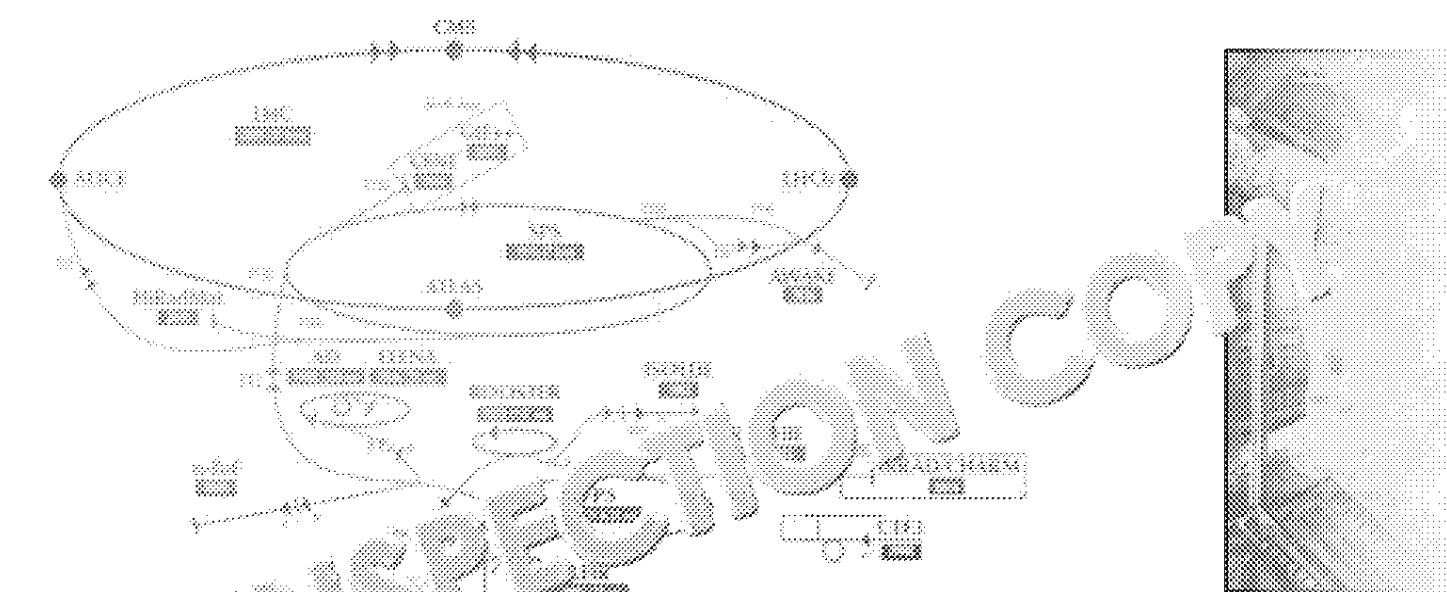


Diagram of the particle accelerators and their detectors at CERN.

- A proton is first created by stripping the electrons away from hydrogen atoms.
- These protons are injected through LINAC2 and into the PS booster (PSB) at an energy of 100 MeV.
- They are accelerated by the booster to 1.4 GeV before being injected into the proton synchrotron (PS).
- They are further accelerated to 25 GeV before being injected into the super proton synchrotron (SPS).
- The SPS accelerates these protons to 450 GeV before, finally, they are injected into the LHC.
- After 20 minutes inside the LHC, these protons have an energy of 6.5 TeV, ready for collision.
- The LHC can accelerate heavy nuclei up to lead – this requires much higher energy than protons.

The detectors

The two main detectors situated along the LHC are ATLAS and CMS. These both are situated deep underground along the particle beam line. Having two detectors allows results to be cross-confirmed. The other two detectors on the LHC are ALICE and LHCb. These are specialised for studying certain areas of physics, such as quark-gluon plasma and heavy flavour physics.

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What's the Higgs idea?

One of the LHC's most famous discoveries was that of the Higgs boson and its associated primary reasons for building such a high-energy particle accelerator.

- The Higgs boson has a number of effects in particle physics:
- It contributes to the mass of leptons, quarks and the gluons that mediate the strong force.
 - It is essential for electroweak symmetry breaking. The electromagnetic and weak forces are one force at high enough energies. At lower energies, these two interactions branch into the Higgs boson and the photon. Without electroweak symmetry breaking, atoms wouldn't be able to form.
 - The Higgs field may have been responsible for the period of inflation shortly after the Big Bang. Some theories suggest that a non-zero Higgs field might actually be responsible for dark energy as a whole, with the universe just being a vacuum fluctuation in the Higgs field.
 - The Higgs field might be the grand unification of the fundamental forces of the universe.

This was one of the last missing pieces of the standard model which physicists use to describe the universe and if it wasn't found, it would have had profound effects on what we know about the particles that make up the universe.

Discovering a new particle in a particle accelerator isn't as simple as finding evidence of an interaction, though. Scientists at CERN don't declare the discovery of a new particle until a large number of points are collected, and the discovery achieves a 5σ value – essentially meaning the probability of the collected data being a fluke is 0.00006, or 1 in 1.7 million.

This might seem extreme, but occasionally news sites will report 'discoveries' (0.01 σ) that turn out to be a false signal once more data is collected. This is because it can happen so quickly that it's difficult to tell if it's a fluke or something real.

Comprehension questions

1. A proton ($q = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$, $m_p = 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$) is accelerated through two parallel plates 1 cm apart. The potential difference between the plates is 4.5 V. Calculate the kinetic energy gained by the proton between the plates.
2. Why are LINACs used in industry and medicine?
3. Explain how a cyclotron causes a charged particle to move in a circular motion.
4. Describe the increase in energy of a proton as it's accelerated around the number of turns it takes at CERN to get it up to 6.5 TeV.

Discussion

The LHC is a collaboration between many nations involving thousands of scientists. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of performing large-scale experiments in particle physics.

Extension

The Diamond facility located at the Rutherford Appleton Labs in Oxford is another particle accelerator but has a different purpose for a Neutron and Muon Source. Research the facility and write up your findings as a report.

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What's the Antimatter with

The origin of antimatter

3.2.1.3: Particles, antiparticles and photons

Keywords

Antiparticle

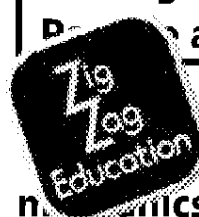
Identical to a particle but with opposite charge

The Big Bang

The theory that the universe started out as a hot, dense region

Particle accelerator

A device that can accelerate particles to speeds close to the



At the beginning of the twentieth century physicists began to observe the weirdness of **quantum mechanics**. Quantum mechanics deals with the very smallest scale of matter, where particles can tunnel through solid barriers, and don't even really exist until someone looks at them. The laws of physics of the universe had to be altered to accommodate this new and strange physics.

Around this time, Albert Einstein published his paper on **special relativity**, outlining a universal constant and that space and time vary around this constant for observers. Einstein's theory of special relativity explained numerous observations and reconciled different aspects of physics, so it was quickly widely accepted by the scientific community.

A consequence of Einstein's theory was that energy and mass are closely related, and are – two sides of the same coin. The exact connection is shown in Einstein's famous relation:

$$E^2 = m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2$$

Which for a stationary object (no momentum) reduces to:

$$E = mc^2$$

Around twenty years later, Paul Dirac was working on deriving an equation that merged special relativity with quantum mechanics. He was successful and published his work with his **Dirac equation**.



$$(\beta mc^2 + c \sum_{n=1}^3 \alpha_n p_n) \psi(x,t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x,t)}{\partial t}$$

The solutions of this equation to find the energy of a particle don't have a lower bound, and the equation describes particles with negative energy just as well as it describes particles with positive energy.

This is hinted at by taking the square root of the Einstein relation:

$$E = \pm \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2}$$

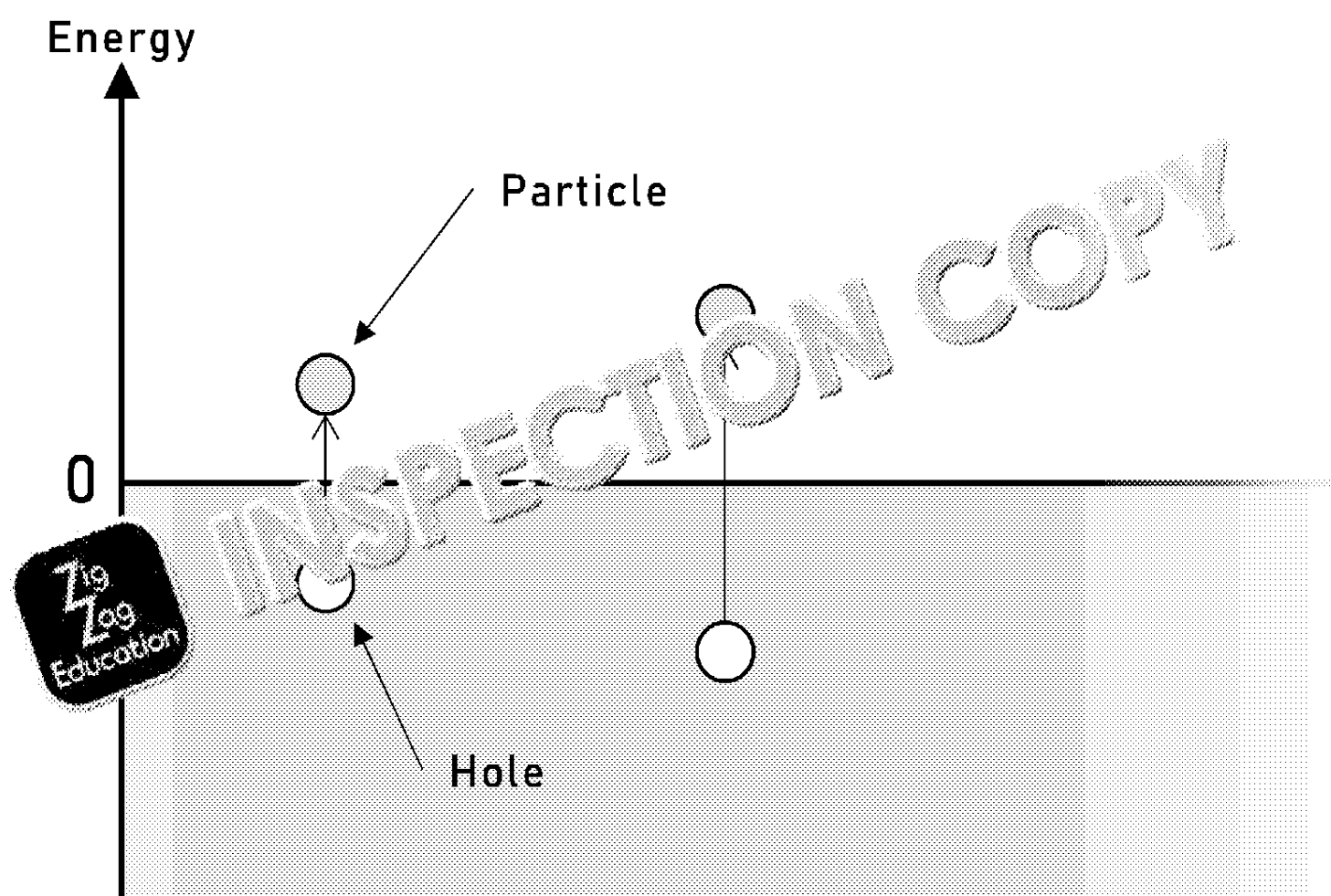
Which (like all square roots) can have a positive and negative solution. Only potential energies can be negative in physics, so this became a problem.

To solve the problem Dirac hypothesised **negative energy**. The principle of hole theory states that the vacuum of space is an infinite 'sea' of particles with negative energy. When a hole is made (which all have positive energy) is created, a hole is left in the corresponding negative energy state in the



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These holes have the same magnitude of energy (and, therefore, the same mass via counterparts.

Say the particle created is an electron; the corresponding hole has the same mass as an electron, and therefore acts like a particle with the mass of an electron. However, its other intrinsic properties, such as **charge** and quantum numbers like spin are opposite to an electron. This means that particles can be created without violating conservation properties like charge or lepton number.

In 1932, this theoretical prediction was discovered, proving Dirac's theory to be correct. The antielectron is known as a **positron** and was the first antiparticle to be experimentally discovered. Since then it has been proven that all particles – protons, neutrons and even the weird charm quarks and kaons – have antiparticle equivalents.

Antiparticles are formed in a process called **pair production** – if a photon has energy equal to or greater than the mass of two particles (by $E = mc^2$), it can spontaneously turn into a particle-antiparticle pair, with any leftover energy being carried away by the particle and antiparticle.

The opposite of pair production can also occur. If an antiparticle was to collide with its particle counterpart, the two would **annihilate**, releasing energy in the form of two gamma photons. The energy of the photons would equal the energy equivalent of the total mass of the particles and their kinetic energy.

The majority of mass in the universe is normal matter, therefore, any antimatter that is created has a high chance of meeting its normal matter counterpart and annihilating, resulting in a very short lifetime.

Did you know? Black holes can Hawking radiation. At the edge of a black hole, anti-matter is produced. This radiation is produced by the

This radiation is produced by the

Using large particle accelerators will not

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Where is the antimatter?

Laws of symmetry in physics arise quite frequently. Symmetry in physics is the idea of particles fitting neat hierarchies – if one particle has an antiparticle, all other particles must as well.

Symmetry can be used to predict undiscovered particles, such as the third generation of quarks, the top and bottom quarks, hypothesised to solve symmetry breaking observations of decays, and to match up with the three generations of leptons (electron, muon and tau).

Symmetry would suggest that there should be an equal number of matter and antimatter particles in the universe. This is also suggested by pair-production – antiparticles are always created with their particle counterpart. But the vast majority of the matter we observe is ordinary matter, with antimatter only being formed in high-energy particle interactions in particle accelerators and cosmic rays. So where is all the antimatter?

It's suggested that shortly after the Big Bang, the amounts of matter and antimatter weren't quite equal, there was a slight imbalance. This imbalance breaks charge symmetry (given the letter C), which states that each particle has an equal but opposite charge counterpart, i.e. an antiparticle. Whether charge symmetry breaking exists is a current hot topic in scientific research.

There are a few theories about why there might be so much more matter than antimatter:

- The Big Bang initially created unequal amounts of matter and antimatter, with more matter than antimatter. All the antimatter created quickly annihilated with matter, and the left over ordinary matter is the matter we see today.
- Some particle decays naturally favour the production of matter over antimatter. This is to do with how the particles' charge (C) and spin (P) interact, called **CP conjugation**. If even a small number of particle interactions produce matter without producing antimatter, the amount of matter in the universe would increase over time. Most of this imbalance would have been created in the high energies of the Big Bang, giving a potential cause for the initial imbalance of matter and antimatter in the universe.
- Matter and antimatter may have been created in equal amounts, but kept localised and separated from each other, so they couldn't annihilate. This could mean that somewhere out there are entire galaxies made from antimatter. Just think what would happen if two galaxies annihilated with each other!

Did you know?
Symmetry theories

Feynman diagrams
half-life
and isotopes

Superconductors
all forces
equilibrium

This is a
physics
search
glueballs
and more

Did you know?
The vast majority
of matter and
antimatter
annihilated
each other
resulting in
electromagnetic
radiation
the expansion
became the
cosmic background

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Important experiments

The Bevatron

The Bevatron was a particle accelerator situated at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, operating in 1954, and after a year of operation the antiproton was discovered. It had the same mass as a proton but had negative charge. Then a year later, another team at Bevatron discovered the subatomic particles that make up atoms had new properties. The question that occupied physicists' minds was 'Is it possible to create an anti-atom?'

CERN

CERN is another particle accelerator that began operating in 1954. Unlike the Bevatron, which closed down in 1993, CERN is still active with many experiments currently in progress. It's situated in Geneva and stretches across the border between Switzerland and France.

From this point on, CERN became a hub of antimatter research. In 1978 CERN announced they had held several hundred antiprotons circling around their proton synchrotron for over 85 hours. Previous experiments had only contained antimatter for several hundred microseconds.

Then in 1981 the first proton-antiproton collision was performed at CERN's super proton synchrotron. Finally in 1995, a team led by Walter Oelert announced they had created atoms of antihydrogen at CERN's Low Energy Antiproton Ring. Only nine atoms were produced over the course of three weeks, and each only lasted 10 ns before annihilating.

One of the big challenges in antimatter science is containing the antimatter without it coming into contact with the abundance of normal matter. The solution is to trap the particles down, reducing the risk of collision with normal matter, and hold the antiparticles in place with strong magnetic fields. Do this in a near-perfect vacuum and the risk of annihilation is greatly reduced. In June 2011, ALPHA (an experiment at CERN) reported that it had held antimatter atoms for over 16 minutes!

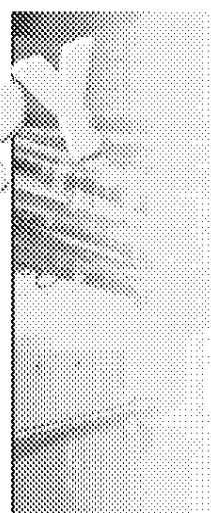
CERN currently has five active antimatter experiments based at its antiproton decelerator (which slows down antiprotons so they can be studied in depth):

- **ATRAP** and **ALPHA** compare and study hydrogen and antihydrogen atoms by slowing down and holding the antihydrogen atoms using electron gases and strong magnetic fields.
- **ASACUSA** studies the detailed structure of electron orbits around the nucleus of antiprotonic helium (an antiproton orbits a helium nucleus with an electron) and compares this to the normal matter counterparts.
- **AEGIS** measures the Fermi acceleration on antihydrogen and compares the acceleration on protons to a precision within 1 %.
- **CBES** studies the biological effects of antiprotons, primarily its application as a cancer treatment, destroying cancerous tumours.

Some of these experiments have found that antimatter acts the same as ordinary matter (same mass, same charge and spin) to one part in a billion. This measure of precision means for every 1000 experiments performed, one result (on average) will suggest that matter and antimatter don't act the same. This level of precision gives us a lot of confidence in our understanding of antimatter, but we still

Did you know?

In 1965 at the proton synchrotron, the first antineutron was produced antineutrons are made of one antiproton and two antineutrons. At the same time, a team at the Alternating Gradient Synchrotron in New York also observed the first antineutron.



ATRAP



ASACUSA

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Applications of antimatter

Positron emission tomography (PET)

A positron-emitting radioactive tracer is injected into the body. Like other radioactive tracers, the tracer is used to be imaged. The positrons emitted annihilate with electrons in the body, producing two gamma photons. Because the positrons and electrons are moving relatively slowly, the photons are produced at 180° from each other. Detectors on either side of the body will detect their origin. A computer can then build a 3D image of the body from these detections.

Antimatter engines

Although still in the realm of science fiction, antimatter could be used to fuel spacecraft. When antimatter is entirely converted into energy during annihilation. This release of energy gives a higher energy per unit mass than chemical, fission or fusion. Scientists are also looking to direct the gamma photons released to result in some sort of thrust.

The Federation in Star Trek uses antimatter to provide most of its energy, and the *Trident* Problem collect antimatter from the space they travel through to power their engines.

Weapons

A weapon that combines antimatter with matter on detonation would also release a huge amount of energy. 1 kg of antimatter annihilating with 1 kg of matter would produce 1.8×10^{17} J, only slightly less than the energy released by the Nagasaki atomic bomb, the largest thermonuclear weapon ever detonated. Luckily, it's very expensive to produce. In fact, it's the most expensive material in the world, at an estimated \$25 billion to produce 1 gram. Therefore, it wouldn't be feasible to use in weapons or as fuel in the near future.

Comprehension questions

1. Describe how Einstein's relation relates mass at positive and negative energies for particles and antiparticles.
2. What is meant by annihilation?
3. What is one of the main challenges in antimatter research?
4. Why do the results from the antimatter experiments at CERN mean we can be confident that matter and antimatter act the same (apart from their opposite characteristics)?

Discussion

A team of scientists has invented a way to drastically reduce the cost of producing antimatter. The costs by 99.9 %. Discuss whether this team of scientists should publish their results and what precautions should be put in place.

Extension

The imbalance of matter and antimatter in the universe breaks charge symmetry, global baryon number conservation. Research the other types of symmetry and examples of where or when in physics/physics have been broken. Present your findings as a mind map, where each primary branch is a type of symmetry and the secondary branches are examples of where/when it has been broken.

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What's Neutrino, Pussy?

3.2.1.5 Classification of particles

Keywords

Cherenkov radiation	Emitted when light travels faster than the propagation of light in a medium, similar to a sonic boom or sound waves propagating through a medium.
Standard model	The theory that describes three of the four fundamental forces of nature and classifies all known elementary particles.
Muon	A heavier version of an electron.



– a mysterious and elusive fundamental particle. We can't see neutrinos. In fact, **65 billion** neutrinos pass through you every second.

Neutrinos:

- have masses so low that they can't be measured
- are leptons
- are neutrally charged

Because of these properties, all particle interactions involving neutrinos are mediated by the **weak nuclear force**. This means that neutrinos rarely interact – for an interaction mediated by the weak nuclear force, the two particles have to come within an area of 10^{-42} m^2 . Of the hundreds of trillions of neutrinos that pass through your body, only 5000 neutrinos are likely to interact with the atoms that make up your body over your lifetime (about once a year).

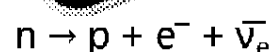
Did you know?

The mass of a neutrino is so small that despite billions passing through the body, the body has never lived over it.

Seeing the invisible

If neutrinos interact so rarely, how were they ever even discovered? The first indication was that there was something we knew we couldn't see.

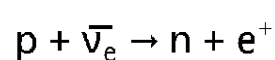
In beta decay, a neutron turns into a proton, giving off an electron and an electron antineutrino:



When beta decay was first discovered, the electrons produced were found to have a continuous spectrum of energies, which made no sense – for energy to be conserved, the kinetic energy of the electron had to be fixed. A new particle was needed that would need to have neutral charge and a very low mass, so that it couldn't ionise or interact with matter. These two properties give the neutrino its name – literally meaning 'the little neutral one'.

This is how the paths of neutrinos are still calculated to this day, in particle accelerators like the Large Hadron Collider at CERN – they can't detect the neutrinos produced in an interaction, but by measuring the momenta of the particles they can detect, they can determine the presence of neutrinos and get a clearer picture of the interactions occurring.

Neutrinos can be detected indirectly, however, in an interaction that's a lot like beta decay. For example, with an electron antineutrino to produce a neutron and a positron:



In the case of neutrinos, this interaction occurred in a solution of cadmium chloride. A neutrino with an energy greater than 108 MeV would interact with the hydrogen atoms in the water to produce a neutron. This neutron wouldn't be bound to the water in any way, so it would stay in solution, until it was absorbed by a cadmium nucleus, which would then release an alpha particle. A gamma ray would then be easily detected by scintillators around the solution.

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Other detectors, such as the Super-Kamiokande detector in Japan, detect neutrinos. When a high-energy neutrino interacts with a hydrogen electron or nucleus in water, it produces a positron which moves faster than the speed of light in water. This produces Cherenkov radiation, which is produced when a particle moves through a medium faster than light can travel through it. It has a similar principle to a sonic boom, but with light instead of sound. The light is detected around the outside of the detector.

Neutrinos interact with matter so rarely that neutrino detectors need to be enormous to detect a neutrino. This often involves the use of a giant tank of water or another substance that has a height and diameter of several hundred metres and holds 50,000 tons of water. Even so, detecting neutrinos is still a challenge.

The reactions in nuclear reactors are so rare that the noise from other types of particles is a major problem. Near reactors are looking for. Because of this, neutrino reactors must be very well shielded. Some are in unused mines, and others are deep beneath the ice in the Arctic. For the neutrino detectors to be ultrapure, as any impurities could produce an unwanted signal.

The Sun'll go out, tomorrow

Once neutrino detectors became sensitive enough, they were a useful asset to investigate the Sun.

In the centre of the Sun, protons fuse to form helium, giving out positrons, neutrinos, and gamma photons almost immediately interact with another particle in the dense core. The gamma photons bounce between particles over 100,000 years for a photon produced in the core of the Sun to reach the surface.

Neutrinos, however, have no such problem with leaving the Sun. Neutrinos are produced in the core and pass straight through the Sun, and stream towards Earth. Neutrinos can give us information about the interior of the Sun.

When the number of neutrinos from the Sun was measured in the 1960s, there were theories predicting that only a third of the predicted number of neutrinos were detected.

Several theories were put forward to try to explain the discrepancy. Could the standard model of particle physics that produce the neutrinos, be wrong? Could it be that the predicted pressure and temperature in the Sun's core had been miscalculated? Some people even put forward the idea that the Sun were changing, with solar neutrinos being the first indication, and the effect could be catastrophic, effectively turning off the Sun.

All of these theories had their own problems – if the standard model was incorrect, it would be a major physics on its head, but have knock-on effects on the particle interactions observed with the standard model. **Helioseismology**, using waves in the Sun's corona to detect the interior, confirmed the predicted pressures and temperatures at the Sun's core. And the idea that the Sun was changing was science fiction – and there would surely be more signs than just fewer neutrinos.

Instead it was scientists' understanding of neutrinos themselves that was faulty. All the neutrinos produced in fusion in the Sun are **electron neutrinos**, but two other types of neutrino also exist – **muon neutrinos** and **tau neutrinos**. These neutrinos are heavier than the electron neutrino (although their mass is too small to be measured!) and are produced in particle decays involving muons and taus.

The neutrino detectors could only detect electron neutrinos – this should be fine, as electron neutrinos are the most common. However, what wasn't expected is that neutrinos can change flavour. Neutrinos have enough energy to make up the mass deficit. This could be explained by the fact that $E = mc^2$; because mass and energy are equivalent, neutrinos can turn from one flavour to another, becoming higher or lower mass flavours of neutrinos.

So electron neutrinos are produced in the Sun but due to their high energy can change into muon or tau neutrinos, as long as their energy at least meets the higher mass neutrinos' rest energy.

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change back to electron neutrinos, or the other type. By the time the neutrinos reach Earth, they would be roughly evenly mixed.

This oscillation between types of neutrino actually proved that neutrinos have mass. It was previously unknown whether they even had mass, but if different types of neutrinos, they must have mass.

	Lowest mass	
Charged leptons	Electron (e)	Muon (μ)
Neutrinos	Electron neutrino (ν_e)	Muon neutrino (ν_μ)

Confirming that neutrinos have mass also confirmed that neutrinos travelled at the speed of light in a vacuum, c , as only massless particles (like photons) can do this.

In 2011, an experiment in Switzerland and Italy found something shocking. It measured neutrinos travelling faster than light! This contradicts all known physics. Scientists worked for months trying to determine what was happening.

In the end though, it turns out a loose fibre-optic cable was at fault, making the neutrino source and detector out by a few nanoseconds from each other – yes, moving this fast, that’s enough to make a big difference!

Majorana’s mask

Neutrinos are so difficult to detect that there’s still a lot we don’t know about them. We still don’t know what their antiparticles are. Neutrinos may be Majorana particles, meaning they have the same properties as their antiparticles.

Photons being their own antiparticles isn’t unheard of – gluons, which mediate the strong force, might both be Majorana particles. What makes neutrinos so interesting is their lack of particle interactions.

When a neutron decays into a proton via beta decay it gives off an electron and an antineutrino. If neutrinos and antineutrinos were identical, this would mean that lepton number would not be conserved. If neutrinos were Majorana particles, lepton number not being conserved would be a problem, as there’s so much more matter than antimatter in the universe.

Comprehension questions

1. What are two of the main methods of detecting neutrinos and what are their limitations?
2. Why are fewer neutrinos detected from the Sun than predicted?
3. What are the theoretical consequences if neutrinos are Majorana particles?

Discussion

Neutrino astronomy is at the cutting edge of astrophysics. What are the advantages and disadvantages of detecting neutrinos from celestial sources?

Extension

Do some research into sterile neutrinos, and write two or three paragraphs describing why they might be so significant to physics.

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Gateway to the Quantum

3.2.2 Electromagnetic radiation and quantum phenomena

Keywords	
Black body	A body or object that absorbs all incident radiation
Photons	Quantised packets of electromagnetic radiation
Wave function	The description of a quantum mechanical state of a particle or system

Classical or Newtonian physics describes the physics developed before the twentieth century. It is based on Newton's three laws, his law of gravitation, the laws of thermodynamics, and the laws of electromagnetism among others. Classical physics assumes that energy is continuous (a system can have any value of energy), that time progresses at a constant rate, and that the mass of an object are the same for different observers, among other intuitive assumptions. It explained the world pretty well; however, there were a few discrepancies that needed a unified theory was formulated.

The quantisation of light (1900)

From studying black bodies, you know that all objects emit radiation, with the wavelength of radiation depending on the object's temperature. Humans have a body temperature of about 37°C and emit infrared radiation. The hotter an object is, the shorter the wavelength of emitted radiation.

This was all well known in classical physics and is described by the Rayleigh-Jeans law, which works well for long wavelengths, but broke down at short wavelengths (high frequencies). Physicists tried to modify the law to describe the emitted radiation for short wavelengths, but all deviated from experimental results. Therefore, there was a need for the two models to be combined into a single model.

Max Planck proposed a model that could explain the experimentally observed radiation spectrum. The beginning of the derivation of the Planck law is as follows:

Consider a volume in a black body in the shape of a cube with sides L . If the black body is at the same temperature, T , then the inside and outside of the volume in question are in thermal equilibrium.

The electromagnetic radiation can take lots of different wavelengths, but must be a whole number of wavelengths, so can only take certain modes, shown by the diagram to the right. Think of it like stationary waves of a string – the wave can have an infinite number of wavelengths, but only certain wavelengths won't interfere destructively, so only certain wavelengths are seen.

In one dimension, x , the possible wavelengths of the modes are:

$$\lambda_x = \frac{2L}{n_x}$$

where n_x is an integer. A simple periodic function is the sine function, so the modes that describe the electric field in this cube are of the form:

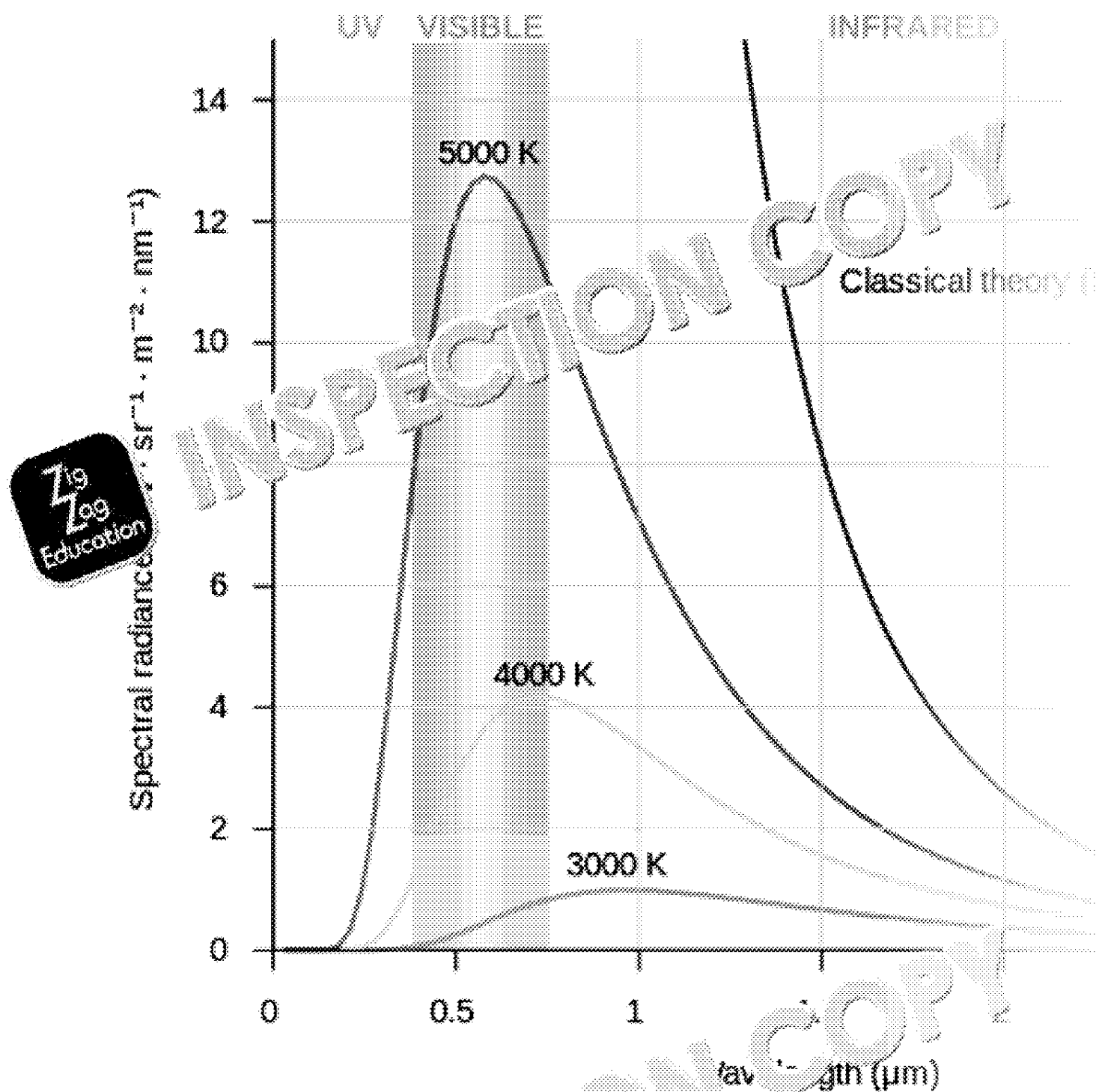
$$E(x) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_x}{L}x\right)$$

Following the derivation through leads to Planck's law of radiation:

$$B(\lambda, T) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}} - 1}$$

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The graph above shows Planck's law for different temperatures, as well as the Rayleigh-Jeans law plotted for 5000 K. The peak for temperatures of around 5000 K is in the visible spectrum.

One interesting thing about the derivation of Planck's law was the modes that are used to represent the energies of electromagnetic radiation possible and only a discrete (finite) number of these modes are allowed. This contradicts the assumption of classical physics that energy is a continuous quantity.

Planck initially thought the quantisation of electromagnetic radiation to formulate his law was a mathematical workaround and didn't mean anything physically significant. A couple of years later he developed a model for the photoelectric effect. The physics at the time expected the energy of the photoelectric effect to increase with the intensity of the incident light. However, experiments showed that the frequency of light that determined the energy of the electrons. Einstein suggested that light consists of packets called photons, and one photon collides with one electron only, suggesting a particle-like nature of light.

The energy of a single photon can be extracted from Planck's law:

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = hf$$

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The quantisation of matter (1913)

Niels Bohr also suggested that the energy of atoms is quantised. Specifically, that electrons can only exist around the atom in discrete orbits, dependent on their energy.

Think of the circumference of each electron orbit. Similar to the standing waves in Planck's derivation, each electron orbit is a standing wave that 'holds' the energy of the orbital. Only certain standing waves are allowed, so the energy of the orbital is quantised.

The similarity between the quantisation of light and matter is further realised through wave-particle duality. Hypothesised by Louis de Broglie, waves, such as light, can act like particles (so diffract, refract, etc.) and particles, such as electrons, can act like waves (so diffract, refract, etc.). This is backed up with evidence from experiments, despite being unintuitive.

The Schrödinger equation (1925)

The shape of an electron orbital is modelled by a **wave function** – this gives the probability of finding an electron at a specific place. Erwin Schrödinger developed an equation that modelled how a wave function changes over time.

The Schrödinger equation is fundamental to quantum physics. It is best to describe a particle trapped in an infinite potential well.

Did you know?

Max Planck was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1918 for his derivation that led to the discovery of photons, **Albert Einstein** was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1921 for his work on the photoelectric effect, **Niels Bohr** was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1922 for his work on quantised orbitals in atoms, and **Louis de Broglie** was awarded the Nobel prize in 1929 for his work on the wave nature of electrons. A successful 11 years for quantum theory!

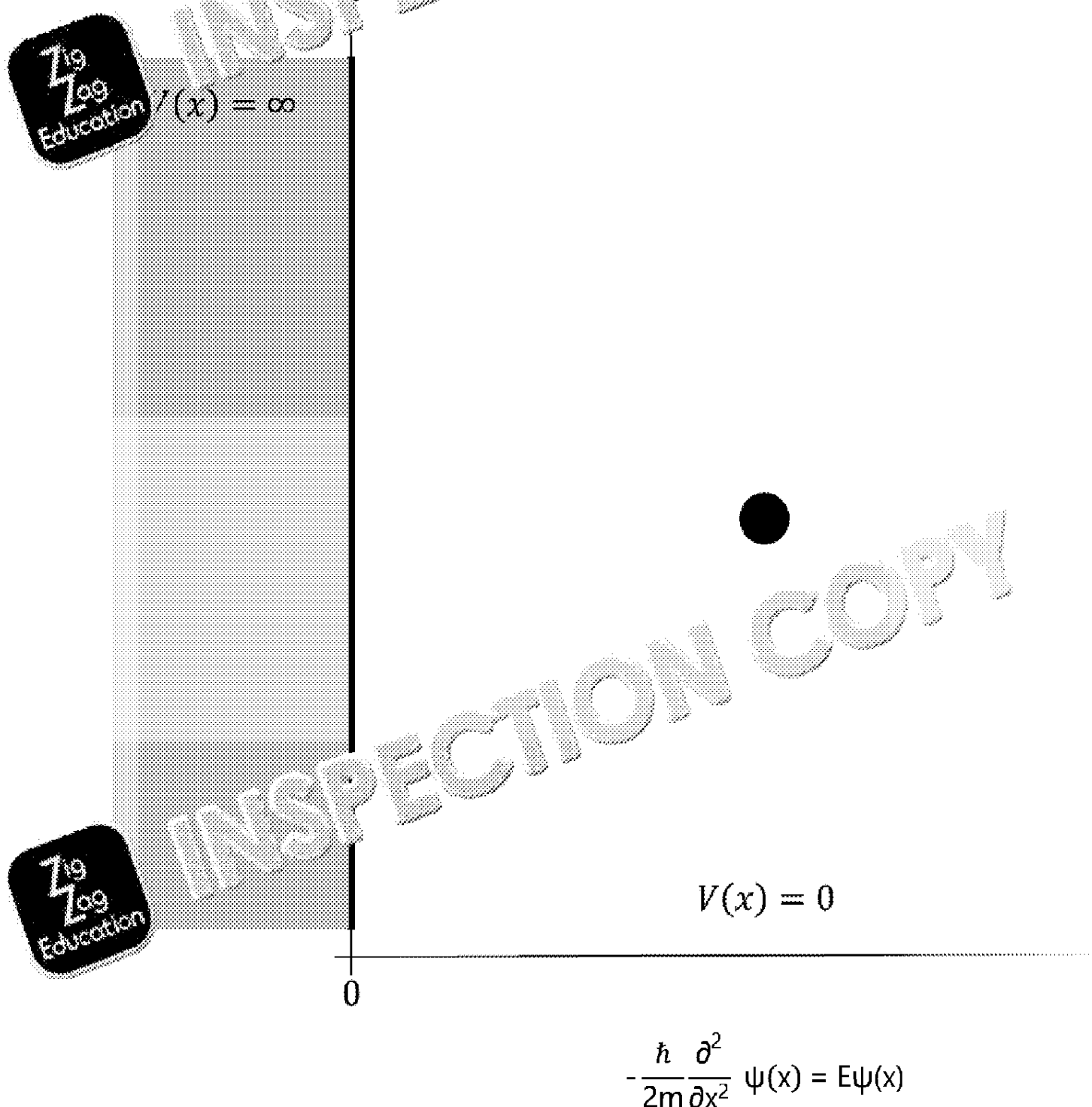
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Particle trapped in an infinite potential well

For simplicity, we will ignore the progression of time and only consider motion in one dimension.

A particle is trapped in an infinite well, that is, it's trapped between two walls of infinite potential energy. Outside the well, there is a barrier of potential energy $V(x) = \infty$, and inside the well $V(x) = 0$.

The position of the particle can be described by the time-independent Schrödinger equation:



To describe the particle in this well, this equation needs to be solved for $\psi(x)$, called the wave function of a particle. The wave function is a description of the particle in space and time, giving the probability of finding the particle in a particular location at a particular point in time.

Solving the Schrödinger equation for our particle in an infinite well gives the solution:

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

where n is an integer (representing discrete possible solutions). You can see these solutions in the diagram of the wave functions. These solutions are the same as the solutions for the electromagnetic wave modes in the derivation of Planck's law. These states crop up often in quantum mechanics. It's also possible to derive the energy levels from the wave functions.

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2}$$

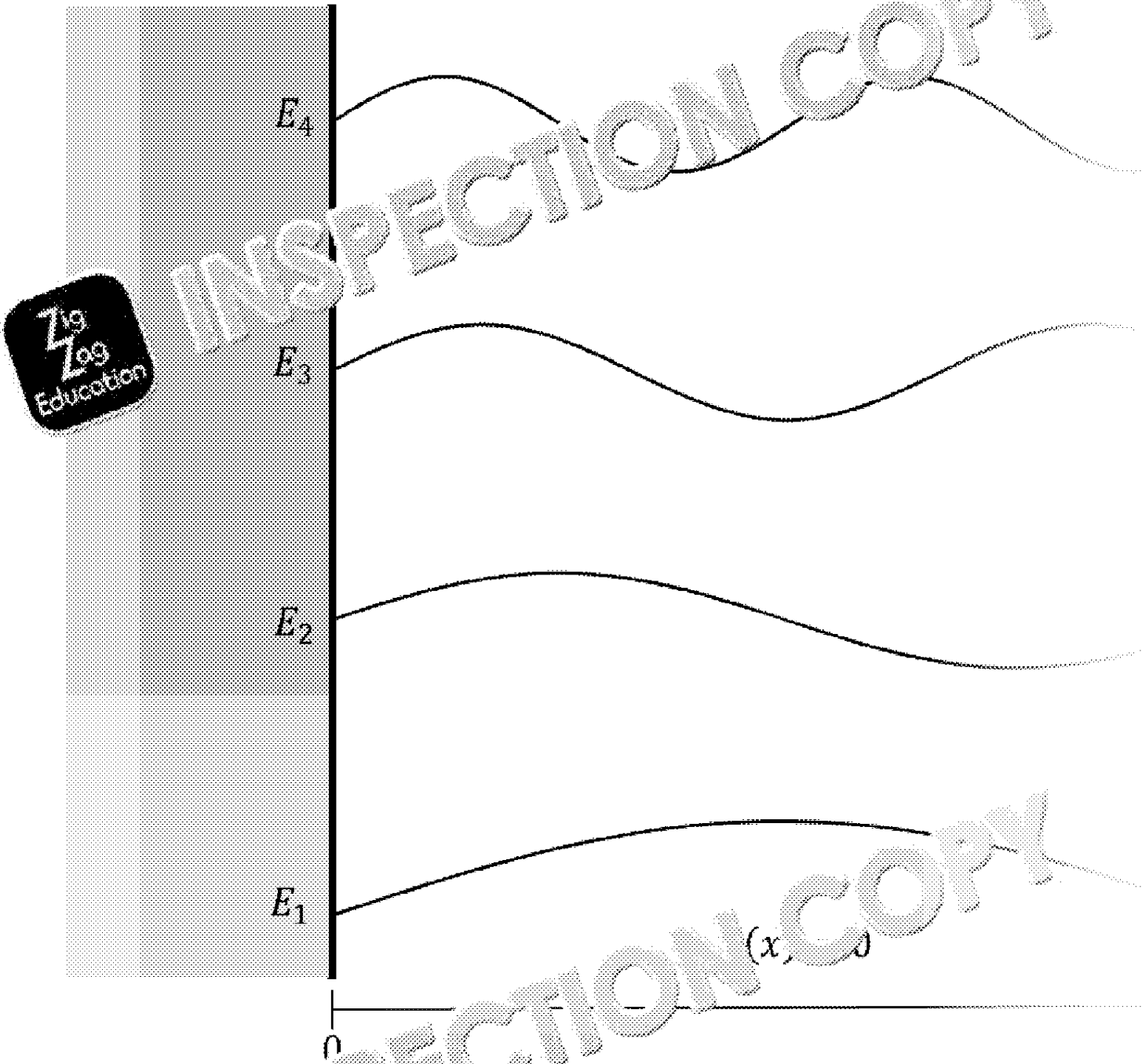
As the mode of the wave function increases, so does the energy of the particle.

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Each wave function corresponds to a possible state the particle can be in. Each state has a specific energy, given by the energy equation above. The particle cannot exist within the well with any other energy, it must have one of the quantised energies from this equation. Below is a plot of the first 4 wave functions in an infinite potential well.



For each state, the probability of finding the particle at a point x is given by the square of the wave function, $|\psi(x)|^2$.

Example

For an electron in its ground state (the lowest possible state, $n = 1$), in a potential well of width 10 nm , what is the probability of finding the electron in the centre 2 nm of the well?

$$p(4 < x < 6) = \int_4^6 p(x) \, dx = \frac{2}{10} \int_4^6 \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi x}{10}\right) \, dx$$

$$p(4 < x < 6) = \frac{2}{10} \left(1 + \frac{5}{2\pi} \left(\sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{5}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{6\pi}{5}\right) \right) \right)$$

$$p(4 < x < 6) = 0.39$$

So there is a 39 % chance of finding the particle between $x = 4$ and $x = 6$, i.e. in the centre of the well. Note how this probability doesn't depend on the mass of the electron, only its energy dimensions. The energy of the electron in its ground state is:

$$E_1 = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2(9.11 \times 10^{-31})(1 \times 10^{-11})^2}$$

$$E_1 = 6.02 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J}$$

$$E_1 = 3.8 \text{ keV}$$

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The orbital of an electron in an atom is a type of potential well. This potential well has wave functions, and, therefore, energy levels that can exist. This is why Niels Bohr suggests that electrons have discrete energies, which led to his Nobel Prize.

The predictions from the Schrödinger equation and other quantum mechanical theories are in good agreement with experimental results. Today, quantum mechanics and its related theories are considered some of the most successful theories ever developed.

But what do these equations mean? What is the physical significance of the wave function? Niels Bohr, Werner Heisenberg and others tried to answer these questions. Their description is known as the Copenhagen interpretation.

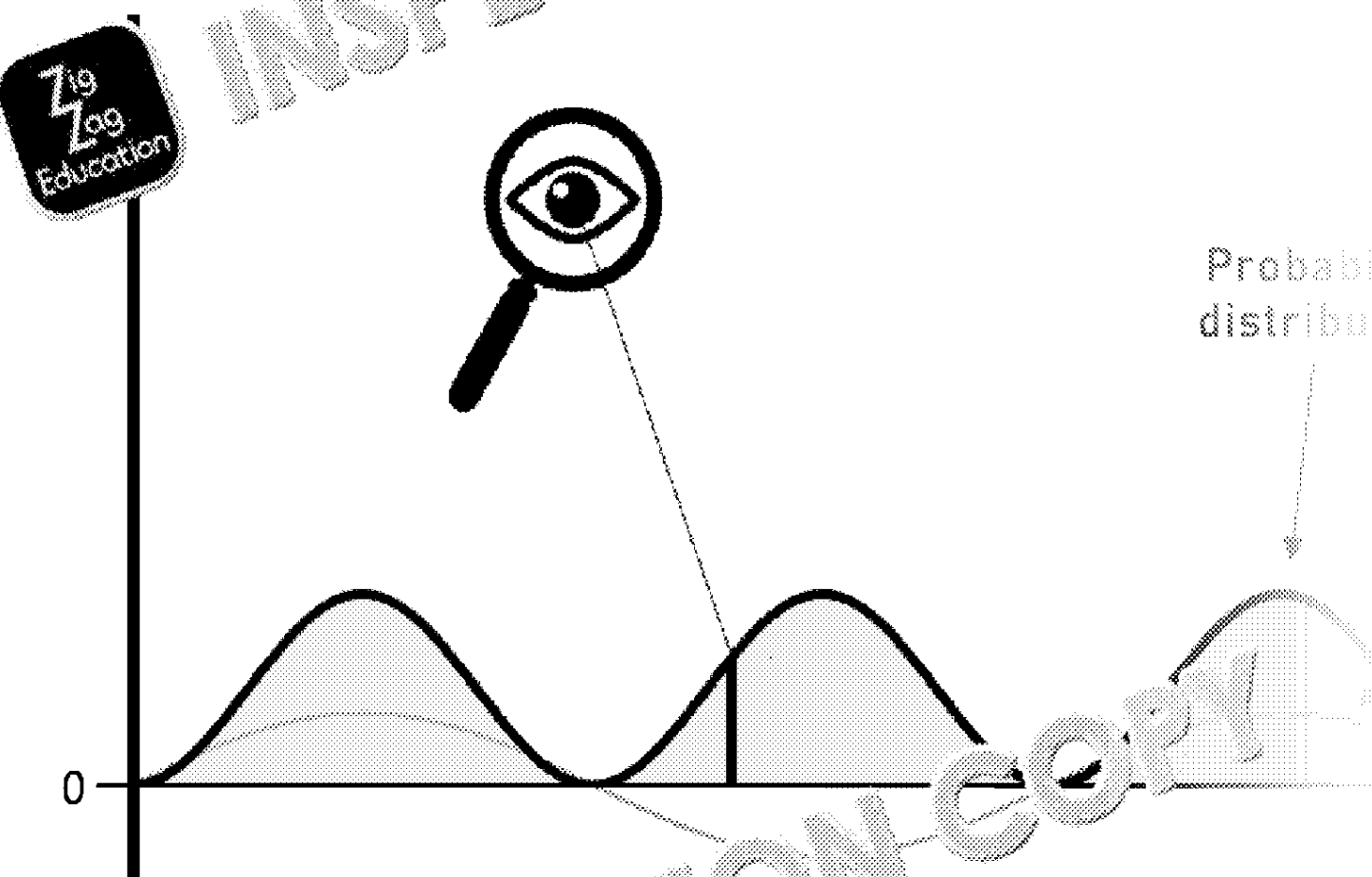
Copenhagen interpretation

Developed between 1925 and 1927, the Copenhagen interpretation came from a meeting of world-leading physicists to try and determine the physical meaning of the theories and results emerging from quantum mechanics.

The interpretation states that a system is in all possible states at once. So our particle in the infinite well is at all positions along the x-axis at the same time! Just let that sink in for a second. The particle only 'decides' to be in a particular position when forced to by being observed, or interacting with its environment.

Normally probability is represented by one number, like a coin flip. A probability distribution graph that represents a system can take the case of our particle in the infinite well (the x-axis).

Each state has an associated probability calculated from its wave function. Below is the wave function, $\psi_3(x)$ and its associated probability distribution for our particle in an infinite well. When the system is influenced by an external measurement, the system collapses into one state, depending on the associated probability.



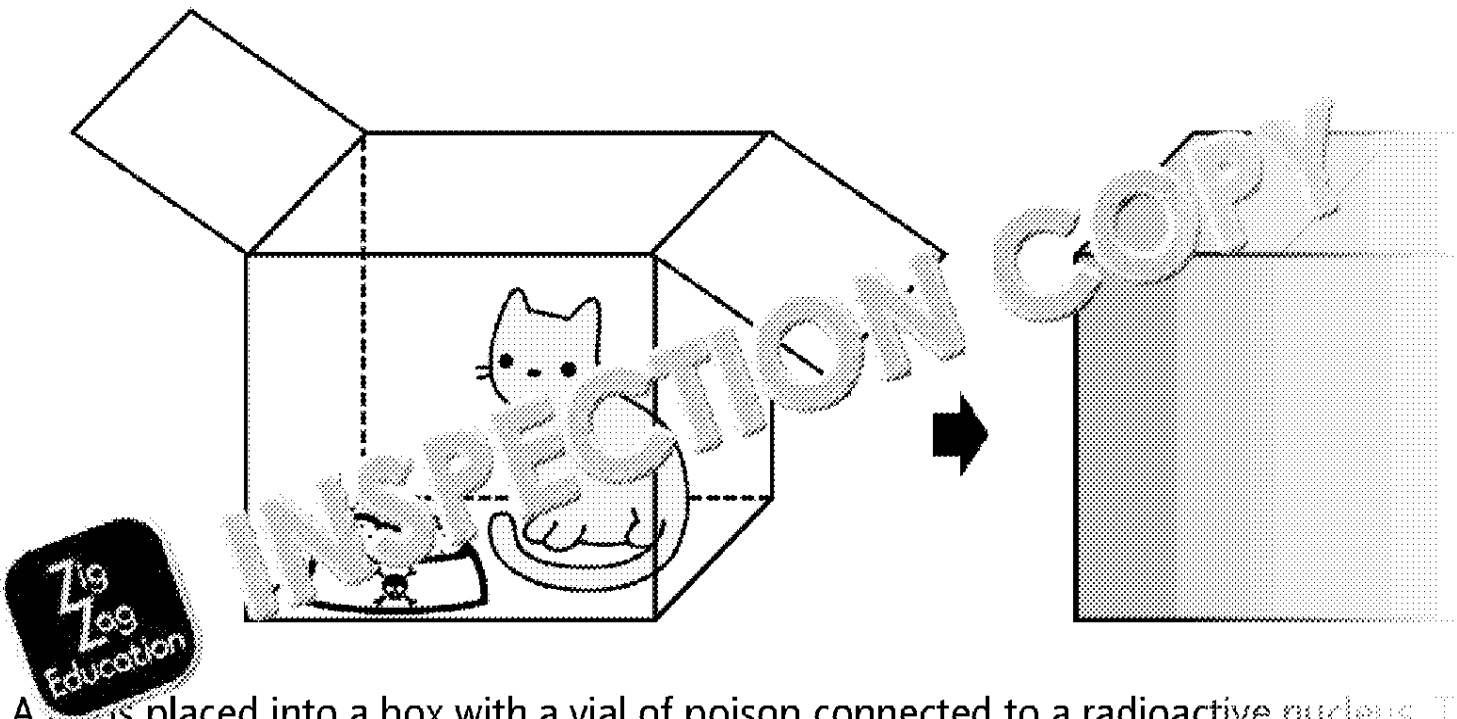
So the wave function for our particle collapses into one position, i.e. we measure the particle at the centre. Repeating the measurement would find the particle in another position. If the measurement is repeated many times, the probability distribution will start to appear. Measuring the position of the particle mostly in the grey areas and barely in between them.

An interesting thing about this interpretation is that a quantum mechanical system can be in multiple states at the same time. It's only when an observation of the system is made that the wave function collapses, resulting in the system being in one state; the one that matches the measurement.

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Schrödinger described this principle with a famous analogy called Schrödinger's cat.



A cat is placed into a box with a vial of poison connected to a radioactive nucleus. The box is sealed. At any point, the nucleus could decay, breaking the vial, releasing the poison. We cannot be known whether the nucleus has decayed or not until it is observed. Thus, it is in a state of two possibilities.

While the box is closed, and the nucleus is both decayed and undecayed (quantum superposition), the cat is simultaneously considered to be alive and dead, with the probability of the cat's fate given by its wave function. It is only when the box is opened that the state of the cat is determined. The wave function collapses into a single possibility.

Schrodinger suggested this analogy to point out the flaw in the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum mechanics.

Why couldn't the cat be considered an observer? If humans are observers, so could cats. Does an observer have to be alive? Or could a simple machine that interacts with a system be an observer?

And then, once we open our box and find a (surprisingly) living cat, what has happened to the possibility of a dead cat? Or is there a parallel universe where the cat is dead? Or is there a more gruesome story? Or is every collapsing wave function of every atom, electron, or photon, a different result?

Comprehension questions

1. Describe how the possible modes of electromagnetic radiation in a confined space lead to the quantisation of energy.
2. What does the Copenhagen interpretation say about the quantum states of a system?
3. Describe how the famous analogy known as Schrödinger's cat applies to quantum mechanics.

Discussion

How does the Copenhagen interpretation affect larger, classical systems? Is there any system quantum mechanics applies to? Does the fact that we don't observe quantum effects suggest that quantum mechanics is wrong, or that there's something more complicated going on?

Extension

Quantum tunnelling is a weird phenomenon in which a particle can 'tunnel' through a barrier because its wave function is spread out. Research this phenomenon and how it applies to fusion. Write up your findings as an A4 poster to be used in a science fair.

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3.3 Waves

Keywords	
Material	The type of matter which an object is made from
Black body	An object that absorbs all incident radiation on it.
Refractive index	The measure of how much light slows down when it propagates through a material.

What's new about metamaterials?

Electromagnetic radiation, i.e. light, is made up of an electric field and a magnetic field, each oscillating with the other. Natural materials generally only affect the electric part of light, causing common optical effects such as refraction. However, it is possible to develop materials that also interact with the magnetic part, leading to new effects unseen in nature. These materials are called metamaterials because they go beyond what is observed in nature (meta – Greek preposition meaning ‘beyond’).

Every time a news article reports on new findings in metamaterial science, a reference to Harry Potter’s invisibility cloak tends to be made. This is because some metamaterials have the ability to bend light around an object without touching it, effectively making the object invisible. Although current metamaterials can bend certain wavelengths of light in the infrared or radio wave parts of the spectrum, and Realistically, it will be many decades before commercial applications that can bend visible light. That doesn’t mean metamaterials should be ignored until the research gets to this point, as there are many revolutionary applications of metamaterials.

Radiative shielding

It is often said that the Earth and its atmosphere act approximately like a black body. It absorbs radiation from space, mainly from the Sun, and emits radiation back into space due to its temperature. For a body at constant temperature, the emission and absorption of radiation is equal. However, the Earth receives a large amount of radiation from the Sun during the day, and then very little during the night. This causes the temperature of the atmosphere to vary accordingly, normally lagging behind the intensity of radiation by a few hours. This is nothing new, everyone knows it gets hot during the day and cold at night.

During the night there is very little radiation being absorbed by the atmosphere from space, but there is a lot of infrared radiation being emitted into space. The temperature of space is absolute zero at 2.7 K. The temperature of the Earth’s atmosphere and surface is about 300 K. If the Earth were not radiating on the Earth, there is a large temperature gradient from the surface of the Earth to space. 300 K mostly emit radiation with wavelengths in the range 8–12 μm , which happens to be a range which Earth’s atmosphere barely interacts with. Therefore, any radiation emitted up into the atmosphere will just escape into space. The conclusion is that, therefore, be in the atmosphere, the heat can be lost from the Earth’s surface!

This principle was used by the Persians to make ice in the desert. They would fill shallow pits with water at the end of the day. At night, temperatures in the desert drop rapidly at night, but not below 0 °C. The Persians would dig a shallow pit (via infrared radiation) that would escape up into the sky or into the atmosphere. The shallow pit, the surface area that could radiate heat was larger, improving the rate at which the temperature of the water to drop below 0 °C causing it to freeze. The Persians would dig the pits before sunrise and store the ice in cool ice houses to use later on.

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The issue with this cooling technique is it can only be used at night. During the day, the Sun overwhelms the emitted radiation from objects, causing their temperature to increase. Aaswath Raman and Shanhui Fan run a company called Raman Lab. They have developed a material that reflects most light but allows a small window (8–13 μm) of wavelengths to pass through. If the wavelength of the radiation is longer than this material, any incident radiation from the Sun will be reflected away. However, the infrared radiation emitted by the object due to its temperature can pass through the material and escape into space.

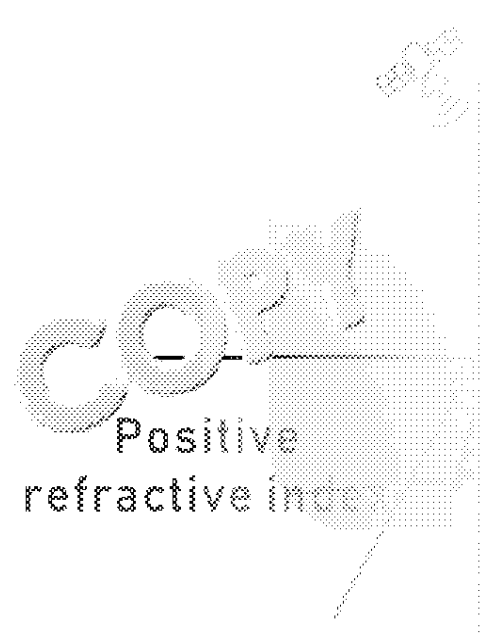
This is very unintuitive because an object made of this material will cool down when it is exposed to the Sun (with no direct line of sight to space) and heat up when it is exposed to the Sun. Theoretically, this means the temperature of an object can be below its surrounding temperature, although temperatures below 5°C below ambient temperatures have been reached.

One application of Raman Lab's metamaterial is a filter on cooling panels. The filter is used in an air-conditioning system. Water flows from the air-conditioning unit and is pumped onto the roof of the building. The water then cools in these panels and flows back into the system. Field trials have shown this increases the efficiency of the cooling system by 10%.

Adaptable antennas

A typical antenna will emit a signal in all directions at once. If there is only one receiver, say a satellite in space, then the majority of the energy used to emit the signal misses the satellite and is wasted. A parabolic satellite dish is better as it can be directed at the satellite to emit a beam containing the signal; however, this involves the mechanical movement of the dish.

A new type of antenna is a flat panel antenna. They have no mechanical parts and use a mix of electronics and metamaterials to control the direction of the signal. One flat antenna developed by Raman Lab uses metamaterials to further improve the function of the flat antenna. It is made of individual elements, each able to refract light in a certain direction. The elements have a negative refractive index (see right). The individual elements can be turned on and off using electronics in such a way as to track the satellite as it moves across the sky, even if the satellite is actually moving. These antennas are much more efficient than standard antennas because they are directed at the satellite compared to satellite dishes, making them useful for mobile applications such as portable communication devices.



Comprehension questions

1. What is the definition of a metamaterial?
2. What wavelength range do objects at 300 K mostly emit electromagnetic radiation in?
3. How did the Persians create ice in the middle of the desert?
4. What is meant by a negative refractive index?

Discussion

In groups of three or four, try to come up with as many applications of Raman Lab's metamaterial as you can. Possible areas could include transportation, civil engineering, and agriculture.

Extension

Research how metamaterials that bend light around an object, i.e. make it invisible to the naked eye, work and if the Harry Potter cloak of invisibility is a possibility in the near future. Present your findings to your class as a two-minute presentation.



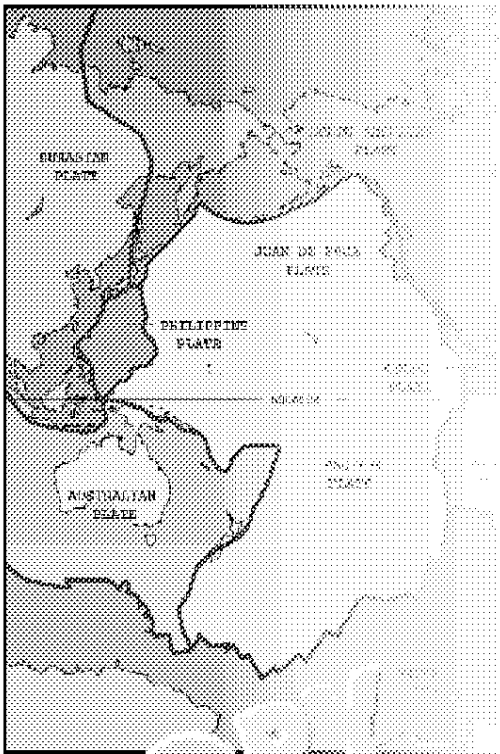
Earthquakes: Shaking Thin

3.3 Waves

Keywords	
Seismic waves	Waves that travel through an inner or outer
Attenuation	The reduction in amplitude of a wave as it travels through a
Plasma	The fourth state of matter where atoms are partially or fully ionised

Earth is still mostly a ball of molten rock from when it first formed over 4.5 billion years ago. The outer layer of the Earth's ball has cooled due to its exposure to the vacuum of space.

This outer layer is split into plates (like puzzle pieces) that move around due to convection currents in the mantle – a thick layer of magma around the Earth's core. These plates are budged up tightly to one another, with high friction coefficients. When the stress becomes too high for the plate boundary (the limit known as the local strength) the plates slip causing a shockwave of vibrations to propagate through the plates and molten rock. This is called an earthquake.

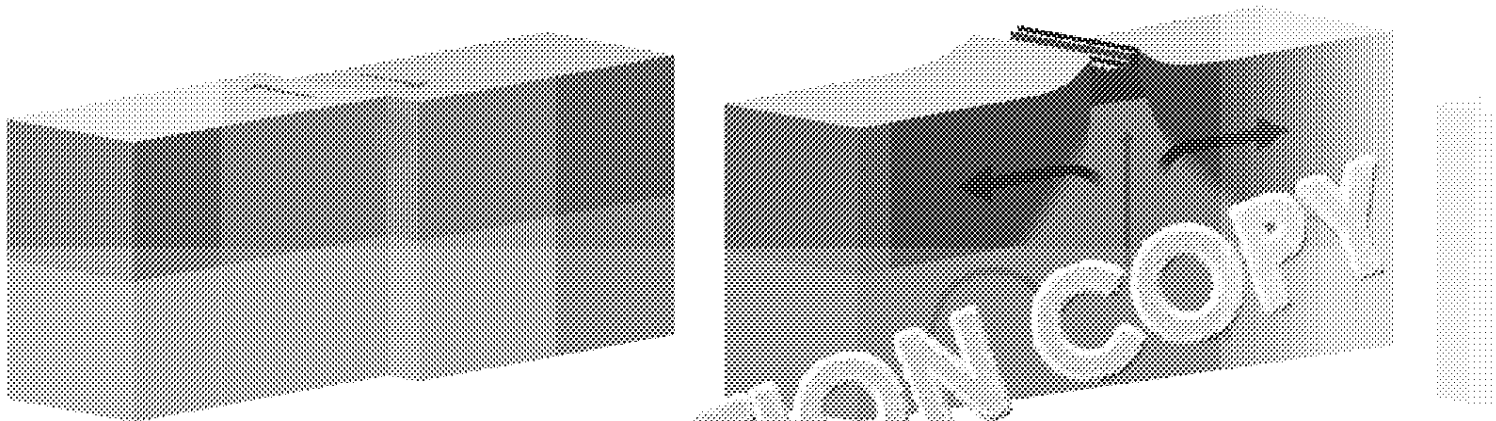


Earth's crust is split into eight major plates with a few smaller ones. The way plates move can be categorised into three ways:

A **transform boundary** is created by two plates moving in different directions relative to each other. This boundary is known as a transform fault. A common example is the San Andreas Fault on the west coast of America. These faults can result in very large earthquakes.

Divergent boundaries can produce earthquakes, although they tend to be small and shallow. They occur where plates move apart, reach the surface and cool, creating volcanoes and islands if positioned in the ocean (the Mid-Atlantic Ridge was formed around 16 million years ago).

Convergent boundaries result in a less dense plate sliding on top of the more dense plate, pushing the dense plate down into the mantle. This can lead to the construction of mountain ranges and also to strong earthquakes.



1. Transform boundary 2. Divergent boundary

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Seismic waves

Earthquakes release a lot of energy. The size of an earthquake is commonly measured using the Richter scale, although this doesn't distinguish large earthquakes from one another.

A modern replacement of the Richter scale is the moment magnitude scale (MMS), used for earthquakes of more than 5.5 on the Richter scale. An earthquake in 1994 in Northridge, California, measured 6.4 on the Richter scale and 6.7 on the moment magnitude scale. A lower bound for the energy released can be calculated from the MMS, M_W , as:

$$E > 10^{\frac{3M_W}{2} + 11.25}$$

For the Northridge earthquake is an energy of:

$$E > 2.0 \times 10^{21} \text{ J}$$

The largest bomb ever denoted by humans was the Tsar Bomba in 1961. It released more energy than the 1906 San Francisco earthquake in California released more than 9500 times the energy of the Tsar Bomba. On the Richter scale, a medium-level earthquake.

Most of this energy is used to deform rocks or cause heating near the epicentre (so some is radiated away from the epicentre as seismic waves. In our 3D world this energy is radiated in all directions. However, the position of the epicentre means Earth's surface is not uniform. This part of the surface will, therefore, receive more energy and much more quickly after the earthquake has occurred.

Energy is radiated away in the form of seismic waves. These seismic waves can be divided into three parts, each arriving at a detection point at different times. They are:

1. P-waves (also known as L-waves)
2. S-waves (also known as T-waves)
3. Surface waves (also known as L-waves)

The P-waves (stands for primary waves) are longitudinal, like sound waves, and travel at around 10 km/s.

S-waves (stands for secondary waves), on the other hand, are transverse and travel at around 6 km/s.

Finally, surface waves carry the majority of the energy (so cause the most destruction on the surface (as the name suggests), so have further to travel to a detection point.

The different arrival times of the parts of a seismic wave can be used to determine the distance from the epicentre. Using many detection sites, the position of the epicentre can be determined.

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Seismographs

Detection points dotted around the globe use **seismographs** to determine any motion in the ground. The basic principle of a seismograph is to use a pin point that moves across paper due to some motion.

The simple seismograph shown on the right will indicate the movement in the vertical direction, moving the heavy weight up and down relative to the paper, drawing these oscillations on the moving paper. By having three of these oriented for east, west, and south, the 3D motion of the ground at a detection point can be determined. Modern seismographs use digital sensors to detect motion, providing much more accurate data.

The seismograph recorded during an earthquake is shown below. The first pulse is the arrival of the P-waves, then come the S-waves, and finally the majority of the energy of the earthquake hits the detection point as the surface waves.

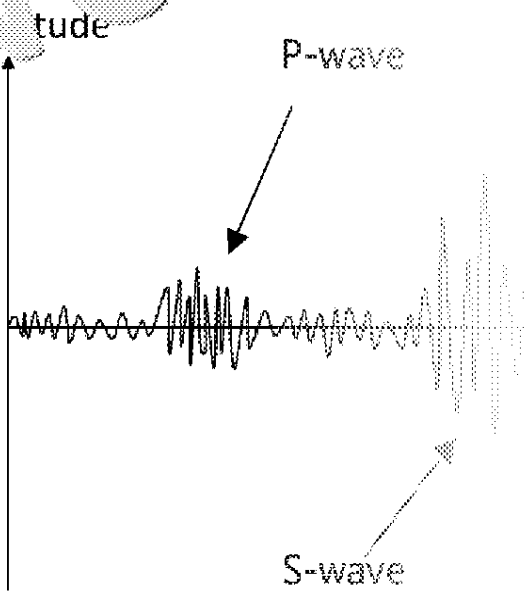
Waves are attenuated (lose energy) when they travel through a medium. Seismic waves are no different. The further a detection point is from the epicentre, the smaller the amplitude of the measured waves. By comparing this distance to other seismographs, the position of the epicentre can be determined.

Did you know?
A seismograph is a heavy weight placed on a seismograph. The seismic waves cause the weight to move, which is recorded on the seismograph.

Replacing the seismograph

Nowadays, seismographs are digital and much more sensitive than the mechanical apparatus described above. However, they are not the only method to detect earthquakes. The movement of tectonic plates can be detected by extremely low frequency (ELF) electromagnetic radiation. Radio waves are also hot, so emit infrared (IR) radiation, just like any black body.

Therefore, the future of predicting earthquakes will see an array of satellites constantly orbiting and monitoring tectonic plates in the ELF and IR parts of the electromagnetic spectrum. Signatures in these parts of the spectrum that lead to earthquakes can be used to predict future earthquakes weeks in advance, as opposed to millions of lives. To do this, though, the equipment must be extremely sensitive and accurate.



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Sun surfing

Helioseismology is the study of waves that propagate through the Sun. These waves are not like seismic waves on tectonic plates, but by the complex temperature and pressure oscillations in the Sun's interior. As the Sun is a plasma, unlike the rocky Earth, so the waves propagate differently. This research has many practical applications in the containment of plasmas in fusion reactors and in predicting solar flares that can affect solar communications here on Earth.

Waves travelling through the Sun can be categorised into three types:

- **P-waves**

Similar to the P-waves that travel through Earth, these are fast longitudinal waves that travel through the Sun.

- **G-waves**

Caused by the gravity due to the mass of the Sun, these slower waves are found in the outer layers of the Sun. They are analogous to the S-waves that travel through the Earth. As they occur in the outer layers, observation of G-waves has been made, but their existence is implied by other observations.

- **F-waves**

Also known as surface gravity waves, these are transverse waves that propagate along the surface of the Sun like water waves over the sea.

Comprehension questions

1. Name one example of a transform fault line.
2. What is the minimum energy released by an earthquake which is measured to be 10¹² J? What is the corresponding moment scale?
3. What fact, other than the arrival times of different types of seismic waves, is used to determine the epicentre of an earthquake and why?
4. Describe the future of earthquake prediction.

Discussion

Discuss whether it is more important to invest money into researching geoseismology (study of waves through the Earth) or helioseismology (study of waves through the Sun).

Extension

The Solar and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) satellite has been monitoring the Sun for over 20 years. Research this satellite and its findings and present your research as a fact sheet.

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Interferometers: Getting into Superposition

3.3.2 Refraction, diffraction and interference

Keywords

Superposition

The interference of two waves that either add or subtract from a resultant wave

Relativity

The idea that the physics of a system can depend on the relative motion and time of the system

Space-time

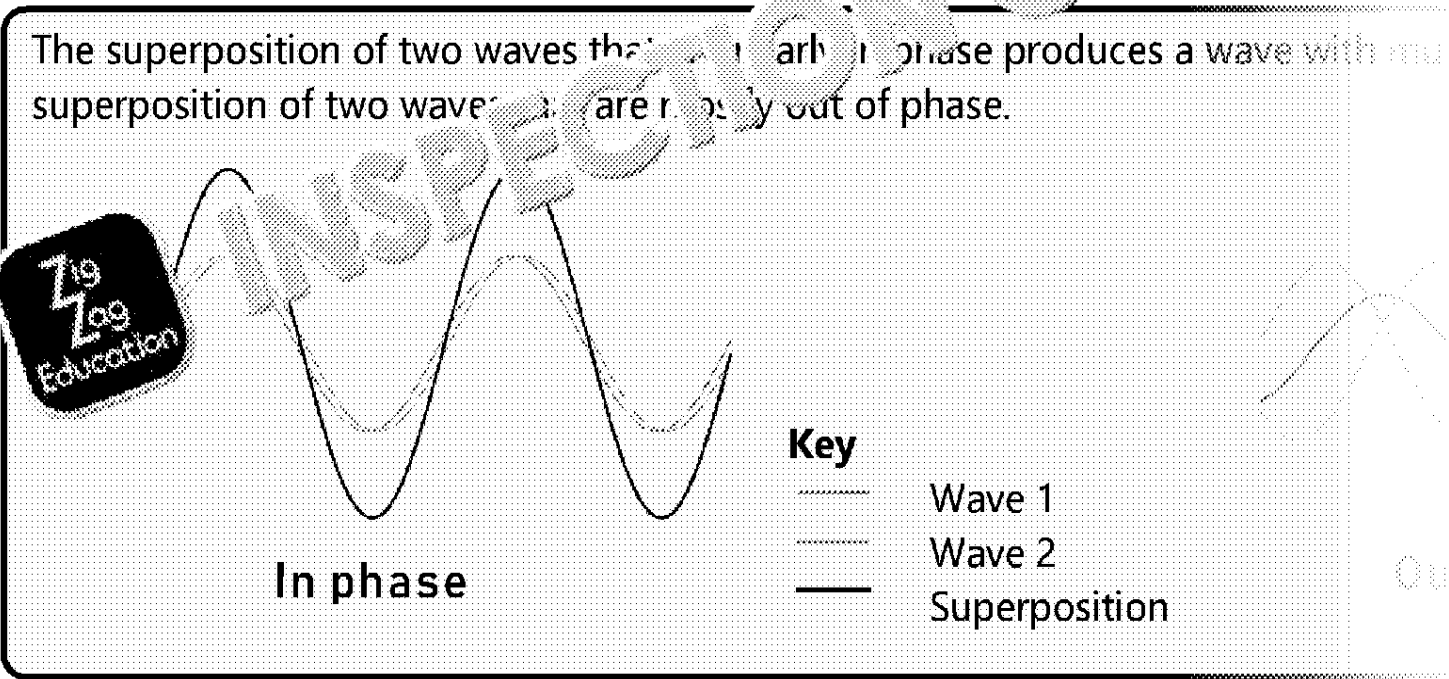
A four-dimensional continuum that comprises of three spatial dimensions and one time dimension.

An interferometer is a tool that measures the interference between two waves. This is useful for measuring extremely small changes in distances, useful in many scientific experiments.

Basic principles

The linear interferometer is the simplest form of interferometer. Devised by Albert Michelson, this device shines light at a beam splitter, creating two beams, *A* and *B*, that propagate in different directions. These beams reflect off mirrors and return to the beam splitter.

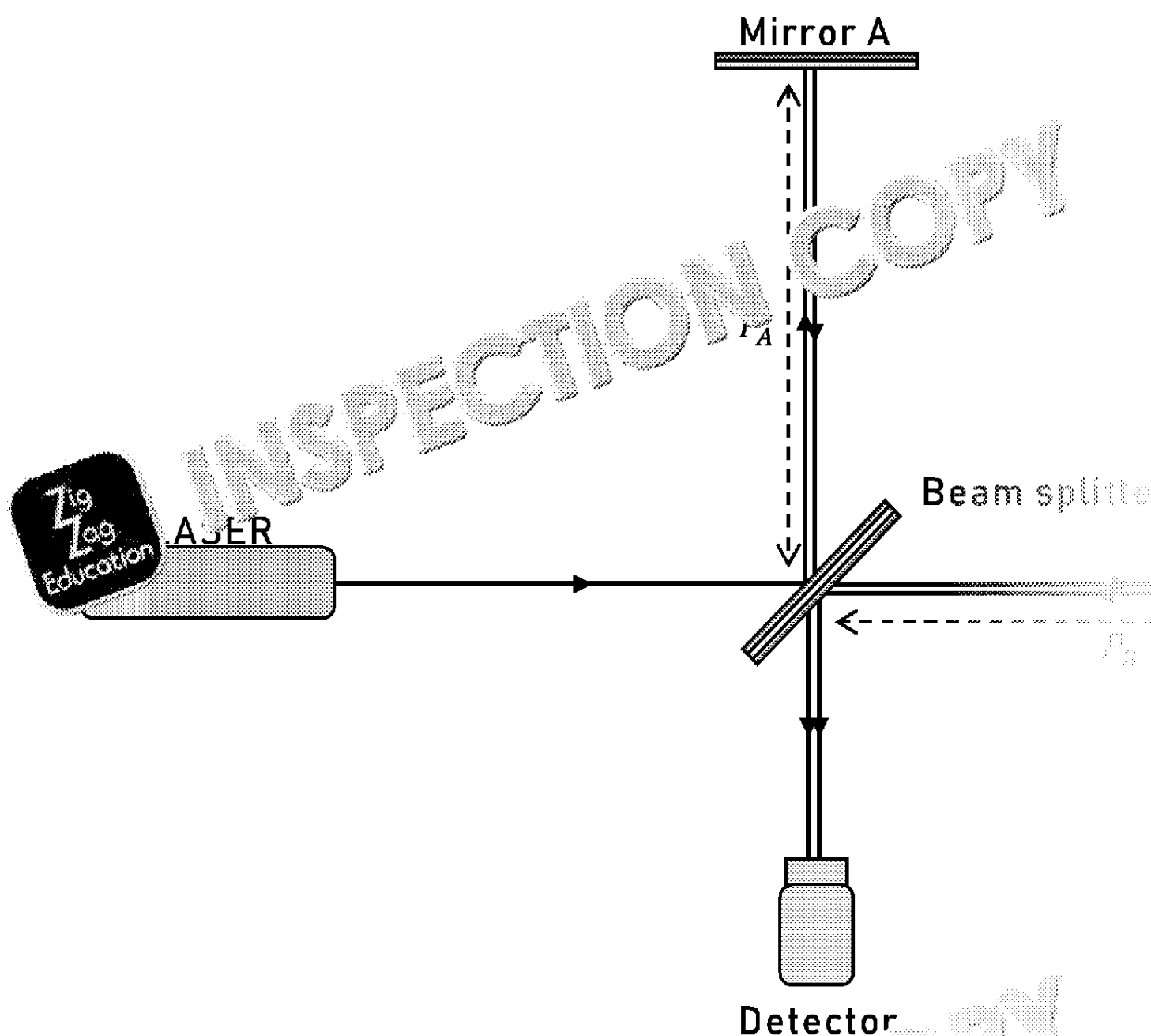
The waves of these two beams interfere and propagate towards a detector. The beams originate from the same source of light, so are initially coherent (in phase); however, if the path lengths are different they return to the beam splitter and interfere out of phase. The intensity of the light measured therefore, be smaller due to waves destructively interfering.



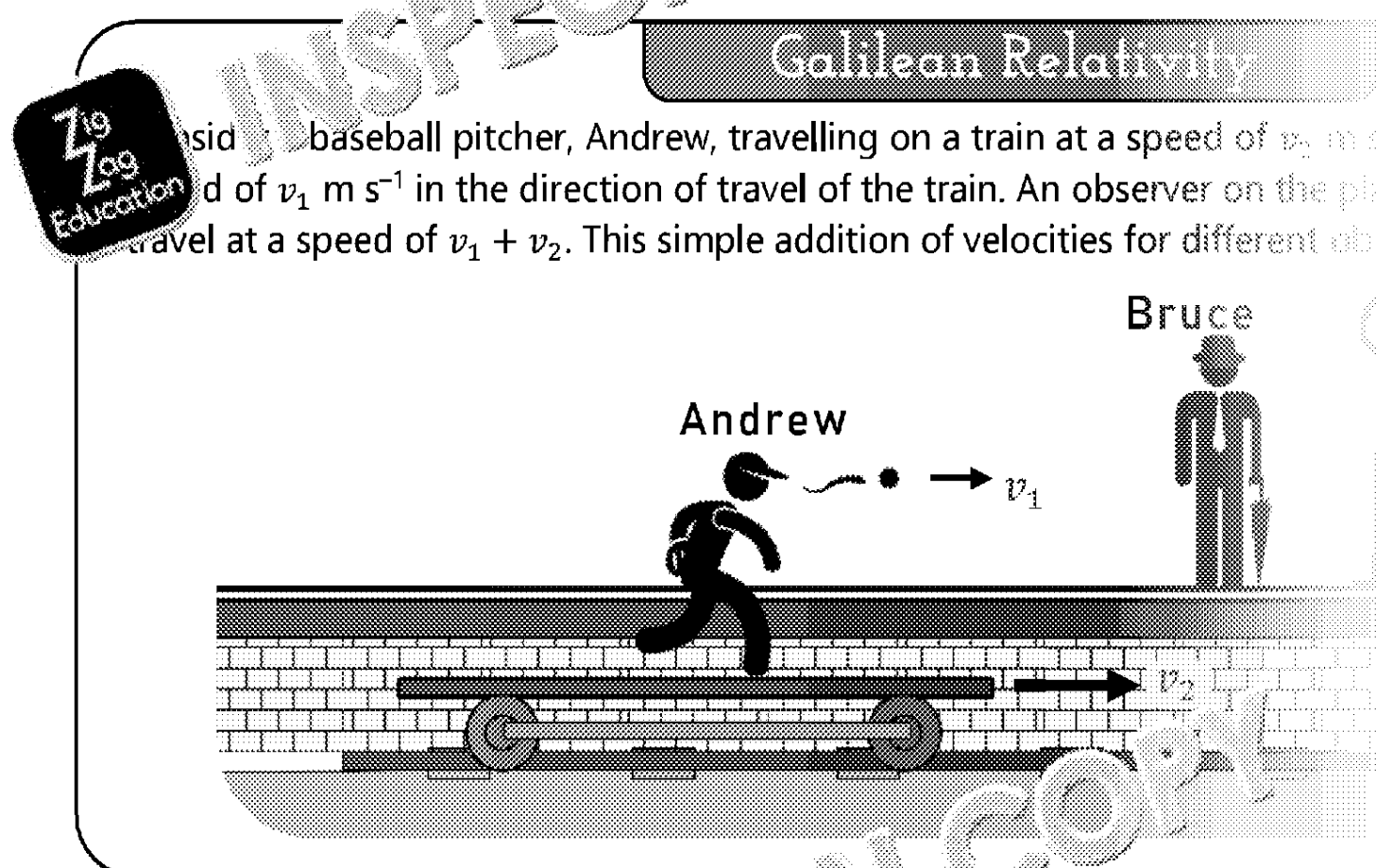
The phase difference between the waves is related to the difference in path length. By using extremely coherent light, such as LASER light, with small wavelengths, small changes in distance can be measured.

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The first and most famous application of the interference experiment was performed by Albert Michelson in 1887. At the time it was thought that the laws of physics obeyed Galilean relativity, which states that the laws of physics are the same for all observers moving at constant velocity. This means that the velocities of objects are perceived differently by different observers.



During the nineteenth century, physicists believed that just like the way sound waves must propagate through a medium called the 'aether'. Also during the mid nineteenth century, James Clerk Maxwell calculated that light waves travel at a constant speed.

Special relativity tells us that if Andrew shone light in the direction of motion of the train, the speed of the light as measured by Bruce would be the speed of light as its initial speed plus the speed of the train. Therefore, the speed of light would be different. It was thought that this constant speed calculated by Maxwell was the speed of light in its aether, a constant in the background. Up until this point, however, the aether had not been observed. No other matter interacts with this aether, it's only suggested to explain the results of the Michelson-Morley experiment.

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This is where the Michelson–Morley experiment comes in. Their hypothesis was that if this aether, the two arms of the interferometer will be travelling at different speeds. The results in a difference in path length which will result in some change in interference. The experiment found no change in the path length between the two arms.

Light propagated along each arm at the same speed; therefore, it was not constant, but just constant to any observer. This contradicts Galilean relativity and eventually led to special relativity, making this one of the most important experiments in science.

Detecting gravitational waves

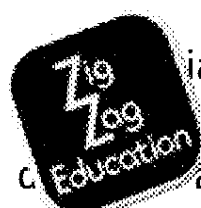


Albert Einstein revolutionised how we thought about time and space with his theory of general relativity. While the special theory of relativity applies to objects at constant speeds, general relativity applies to accelerating objects.

One aspect of general relativity is its application to gravitational fields. Imagine you're on a weighing scale. Standing on the weighing scale when the elevator is stationary gives a reading W . If the elevator starts accelerating upwards at $g = 9.81 \text{ m s}^{-2}$, the weight would instead read $2W$. If the elevator is accelerating upwards at 9.81 m s^{-2} , the weighing scales would still read W . Inertial effects (acceleration) and gravitational effects are indistinguishable, and can't be distinguished.

General relativity explains gravity as a curvature in space and time, which light follows. This means that gravitational effects can only travel at the speed of light and no faster.

This weird consequence means that if the Sun were to suddenly disappear, the Earth would continue to orbit about the point where the Sun was for another 8 minutes (the time it takes for light from the Sun to reach Earth). The theory implies that the speed of light is not unique to light, but is the speed limit for how fast information can travel through the universe.



Special relativity and general relativity describe space and time to be one four-dimensional continuum called space-time. Objects with mass distort this space-time, causing it to 'bend' towards them. This is how we experience gravitational forces between objects with mass.

If an object with a large enough mass distorts space-time with a large enough power, it can create ripples in space-time called gravitational waves. The energy needed to create these ripples is enormous, even on the cosmological scale. Therefore, only events like the merging of black holes will result in gravitational waves, and even these waves are small.

Detecting these waves requires extremely precise equipment, such as an interferometer. A laser beam emitted from somewhere in outer space will pass through the Earth, causing the space-time to oscillate. The length of the arms of an interferometer will, therefore, vary and the interference pattern will change.

The Laser Interferometer Gravitational Wave Observatory (LIGO) is designed to do this. It consists of two interferometers situated 3000 km apart in the USA. By comparing the two interferometers, the source of the gravitational waves can be deduced.

Each interferometer has arms that are 3.0 km long, 1000 times longer than the interferometer used by Michelson and Morley. At the end of each arm are 40 kg mirrors suspended from a pair of a four-segment pendulum (a pendulum hanging from a pendulum hanging from a pendulum that is hanging from a pendulum). This design isolates the mirrors from any vibrations from the ground, reducing noise in measurements. There are also many other tricks to reduce noise, such as passive and active seismic isolation and vacuum systems.



To further increase the sensitivity of the interferometers, mirrors are added near the end of each arm. The laser beam travels up and down its arm many times before interfering at the beam splitter. This increases the path length and the sensitivity of the interferometer.

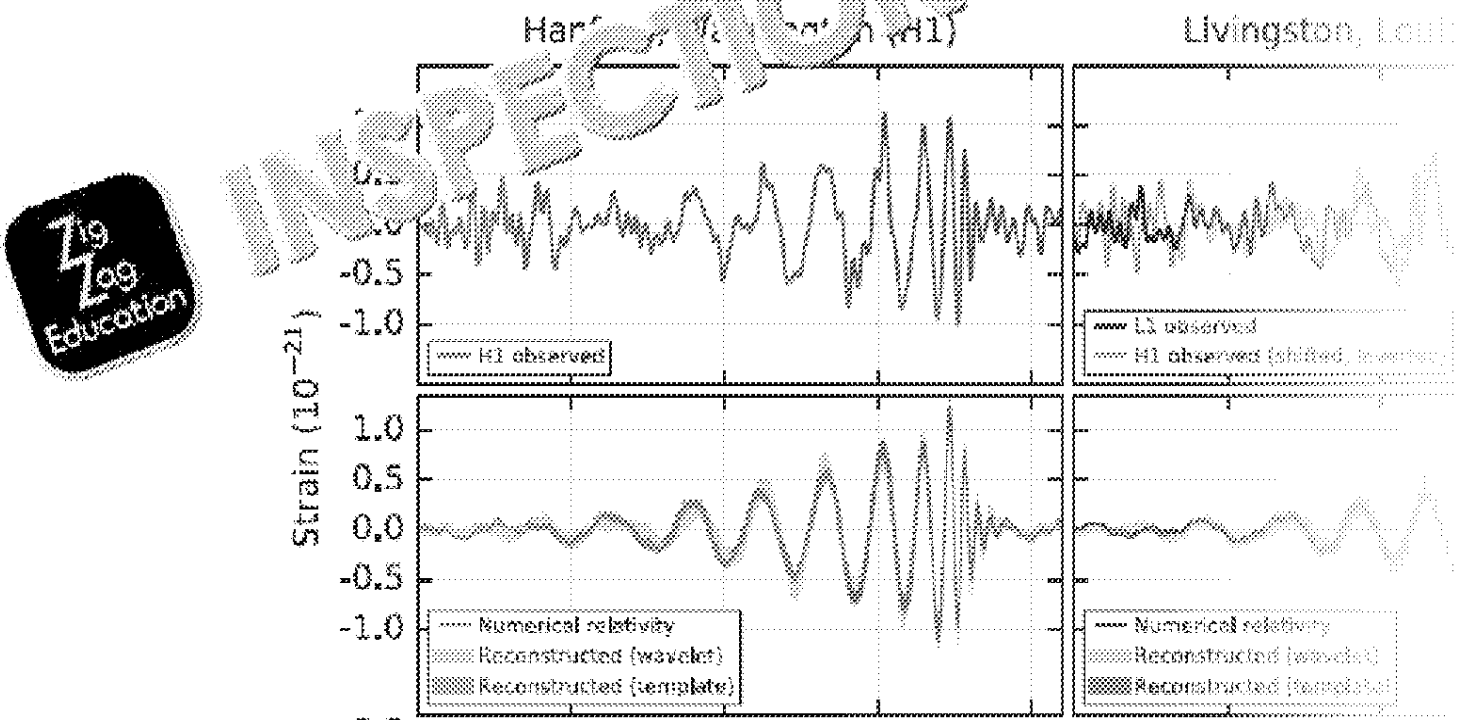
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the LIGO interferometers 1120 km long, 144,000 times longer than the interferometer at Morley! All of this means the LIGO interferometers can detect a change in arm length

After only a few days of operation, on 14th September 2015, both LIGO detection sites detected a gravitational wave. It was created by the merging of two 30 M_{\odot} black holes with a mass of 1.3 billion light years away (this means this event happened 1.3 billion years ago, and we only detected it after turning the interferometers on!). Below is the signal detected by each LIGO detector.



Since then, four other black hole mergers have been detected and the first neutron star merger on 17th August 2017. LIGO is currently on pause but will continue operation in late 2019.

The European Space Agency hopes to build its own gravitational wave detector – the space-based Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA) will work on the same principles as LIGO but with arms 2.5 million km long. It will contend with interference caused by vibrations from other sources, making LISA a higher-frequency, smaller and lower-frequency gravitational wave detector.

Comprehension questions

1. How does an interferometer work? How does the interference between two beams allow an interferometer to measure changes in distance?
2. What was the aim of the Michelson–Morley experiment?
3. What was proposed by Einstein to solve the issue of the results of the Michelson–Morley experiment?
4. How large were the black holes that merged to create the first detected gravitational wave?

Discussion

Previously, astronomy has collected all of its data by looking into the sky and detecting electromagnetic radiation emitted by the stars and galaxies. Now with the advent of gravitational wave detectors, there is a new way to study the universe. Discuss as a group the implications of this new way of studying the universe.

Extension

The Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA) project, is a proposed set of satellites that will position themselves to form a huge interferometer. It will differ from a standard line interferometer in that it will consist of three spacecraft, arranged in a triangle with sides that are 2.5 million km long. Designed to be used in a science education convention.

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Holograms: Seeing Things That a

3.3.2 Refraction, diffraction and interference

Keywords

Laser	A device that emits coherent light at a precise frequency
Lens	A transparent object that refracts light in a way to converge or diverge it
Interference	The superposition of two waves when they propagate through the same medium

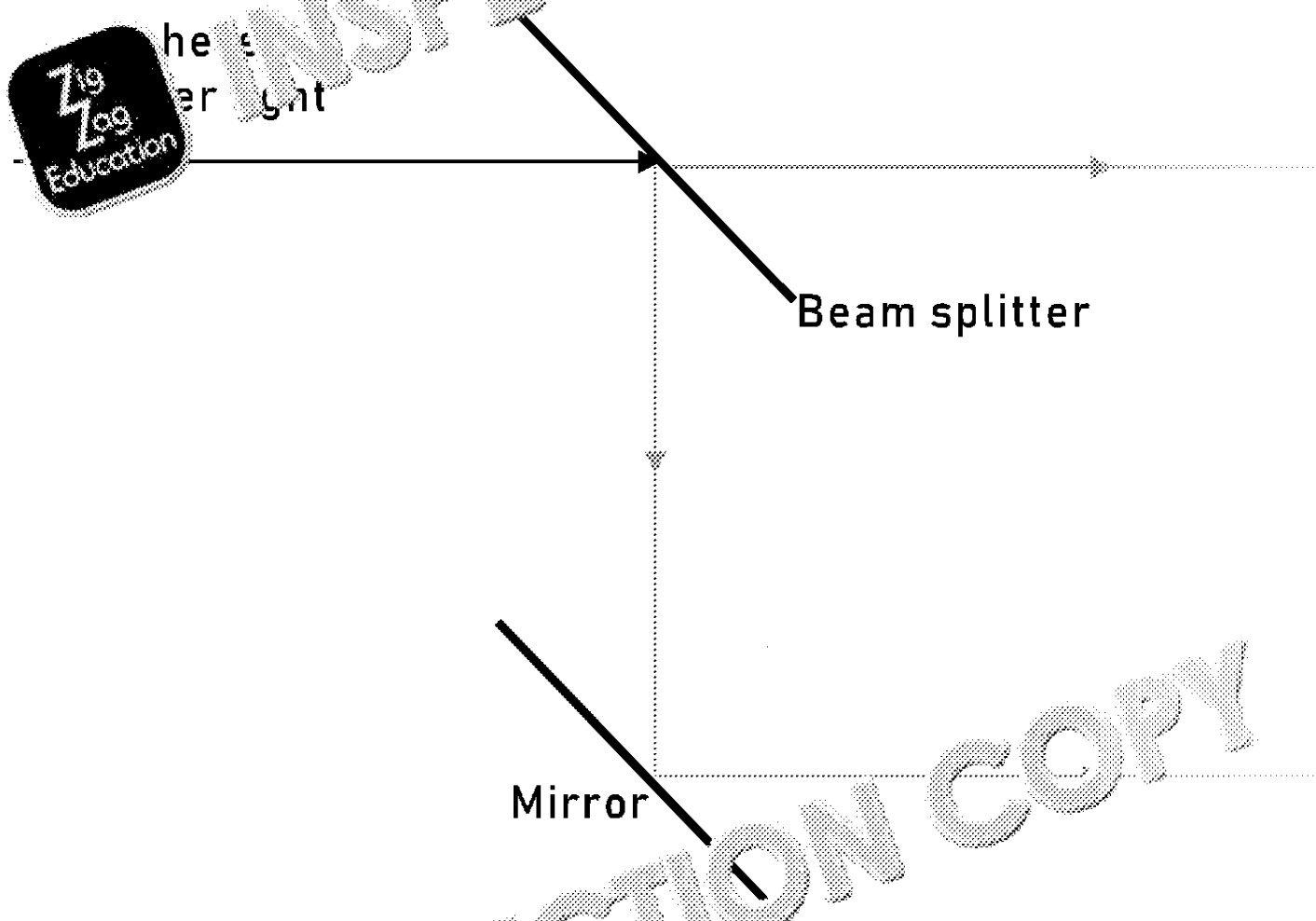
In Greek, *holos* means 'whole' and *-gram* means 'message', so a hologram is a whole image. A 'hologram' has been used to mean a message or image created using laser light that appears to float in space as if a real object was there. This illusion can be created using the most common uses coherent laser light with holographic plates.

Laser holography

A laser beam is split into two using a beam splitter. One of these beams is directed towards the object, and the other is reflected off the object towards a holographic plate. The second beam skips the object and is reflected off the holographic plate using a mirror. This second beam is known as the reference beam.

The two beams meet and interfere at the holographic plate. Their interference pattern is recorded on the plate, just like the way a camera takes a picture by exposing a photographic plate.

The pattern recorded on the holographic plate doesn't look like the object, but it contains the information to display a 3D image of the object. To display the image, the holographic plate must be illuminated with laser light of the same wavelength as the recording beam. The reconstruction beam either transmits through the plate or is reflected off of the holographic plate to an observer.



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The emerging wave front from the holographic plate is exactly the same as if the object was actually there. Therefore, optical manipulation such as placing a lens in the path of the wave front will magnify the image of the object, just as if the observer was looking at the real object through the lens.

A common example of reflecting holograms can be found on credit cards and banknotes. These holograms are hard to replicate, making fraudulent copies more difficult, strengthening the security of the objects.

Dynamic holograms

The classic laser holography process is equivalent to taking photos and printing them out. But what is the holographic equivalent of videos and are they even possible?

Well, the technology is young but with the use of metamaterials, generating holograms that can change with time are possible. A metamaterial is a material that 'goes beyond' what is naturally possible. Basically, these are materials that are designed and engineered to manipulate light in a specific way.

In early 2017, a team of scientists published a paper on a metamaterial they had developed. Their metamaterial would turn nano-sized silicon discs on and off to manipulate the direction of polarised light passing through the discs so the later interference produced a holographic image. The sites are controlled electrically so can switch on and off in quick enough succession to produce a dynamic hologram.

The Star Wars-esque dynamic holograms won't be replacing our video calling any time soon, but they could be a useful addition to the primary method of communication.

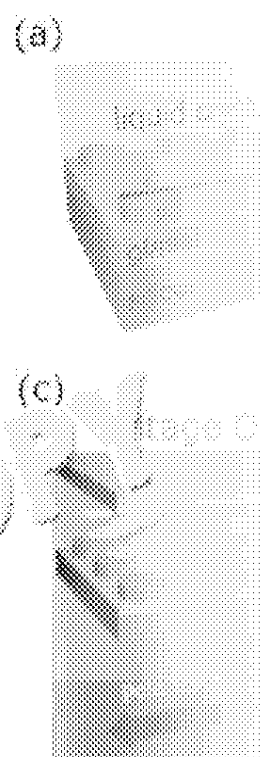
Acoustic holography

Holograms aren't specific to light. Any wave can be used to create a hologram, including sound. The process works slightly differently to laser holography. The basic principle is to produce two waves that interfere to create a pattern of pressure variations in the medium in which they travel.

One method uses a 3D printed sheet placed on top of a speaker. This sheet is designed in such a way as to transmit the sound to create the desired pressure waves. Another method uses an array of speakers that emit waves that interfere with one another, creating pockets of high and low pressure.

This second method has the application of levitating small objects. The object gets stuck in a 'trough' well, with high pressure air surrounding it. The flow of air due to these high pressure areas is strong enough to counteract the weight of the object, and any small movements by the object, keeping the object in place. This technology could be useful in manufacturing or in medicine where there is a need to transport an object without making direct contact with the object.

Reconstruction beam



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The holographic principle

The three-dimensional image produced by a holographic plate looks exactly like the original object, in theory, whereas in reality things like resolution and dirty mirrors/lenses interfere with the information that generates this three-dimensional virtual image. The information is stored on a two-dimensional plate. This storing of information of an n -dimensional object on a $(n - 1)$ -dimensional surface is the **holographic principle**.

The holographic principle comes from **string theory**. In string theory, all particles are made of one-dimensional strings or **branes**. Although these strings are one-dimensional, they can form multidimensional objects like the world around us. In fact, in string theory, the physical world (three spatial dimensions + time) representation of an 11-dimensional space.

The holographic principle also applies to black holes, and can explain the **black hole information paradox**. A black hole is the remnant of a very massive star. It's so dense that not even light can escape. A surface around a black hole called the event horizon, where anything that crosses it has no chance of escaping. As the object falls into the black hole it takes its information with it. What happens to the molecules and how they are arranged to make up the object?

A problem arises when merging this extreme case of gravity with quantum mechanics. Quantum mechanics state that information cannot be created or destroyed, just moved around. If information that falls into a black hole isn't destroyed, where does it go? According to the holographic principle, the information contained by the matter is displayed as deformations in the 2D surface of the event horizon.

Some scientists have taken this principle one step further and suggested that the information is stored on a two-dimensional surface, just as on the surface of a black hole. This is called the **hologram**, projected from this hypothetical two-dimensional surface. If this is true, the noise due to this hologram should be detectable by gravitational wave detectors, but as yet there is no conclusive evidence for the theory.

Revision questions

1. What is meant by the reference beam?
2. Describe the construction of a metamaterial that can produce dynamic holograms.
3. Describe one application of acoustic holography.
4. How does the holographic principle propose a solution to a problem found with quantum mechanics?

Discussion

Discuss the possible implications of the holographic principle if it applies to our entire universe. How does this theory affect your view of the universe?

Extension

Holograms are commonly used on credit cards and bank notes as a form of security. What is another common application of holograms? How can you present your findings as a short report?

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Laser Focus

3.3.2 Refraction, diffraction and interference

Keywords

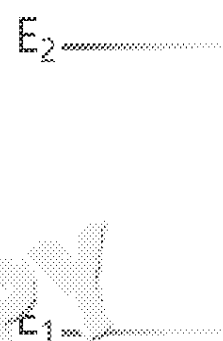
Ground state	The lowest possible energy state of a particle. Note that the ground state is not necessarily zero energy.
Energy transition	The gain or loss of energy by a particle, causing it to transition between energy levels.
Optical resonator	The part of a laser where light resonates and amplifies, often between two mirrors.

Fundamental principles

Electrons in an atom have associated energy levels. These energy levels are discrete, meaning an electron is only allowed to have energies that correspond to these levels. An electron can change energy level if it gains or loses energy. It can do this via three ways.

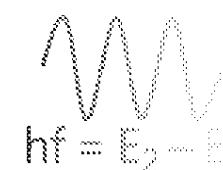
Spontaneous emission

An electron in an excited state (a higher energy level than normal) will eventually transition into its ground state. The average time it takes to do this is called the **damping time constant** and is typically a few nanoseconds. When the electron does decay to its lower energy level, it emits a photon with an energy equal to the difference in energy levels. The higher the excited energy level, the shorter the wavelength of the emitted photon. This emission of a photon is called **spontaneous emission**.



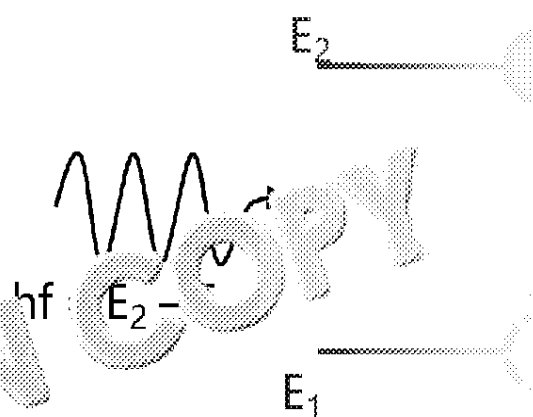
Absorption

As the name suggests, absorption is where an electron in a low energy state (ground state) absorbs an incoming photon to transition to a higher energy state (excited state), the opposite of spontaneous emission. The incident photon must have the exact same energy as the energy difference between the low and high energy levels, otherwise the photon will just miss the electron without interacting with it.



Stimulated emission

Consider an electron in a high energy state, as for spontaneous emission. If an incident photon with an energy equal to the energy transition ($E_2 - E_1$) comes along, the photon will interact with the electron, causing the electron to transition to the lower energy level. The change in energy causes a new photon to be emitted with an energy equal to the energy transition ($E_2 - E_1$). There are now two photons, each with an energy equal to the energy transition ($E_2 - E_1$) that can interact with each other. This first photon stimulated the emission of a second photon, a process called **stimulated emission**.



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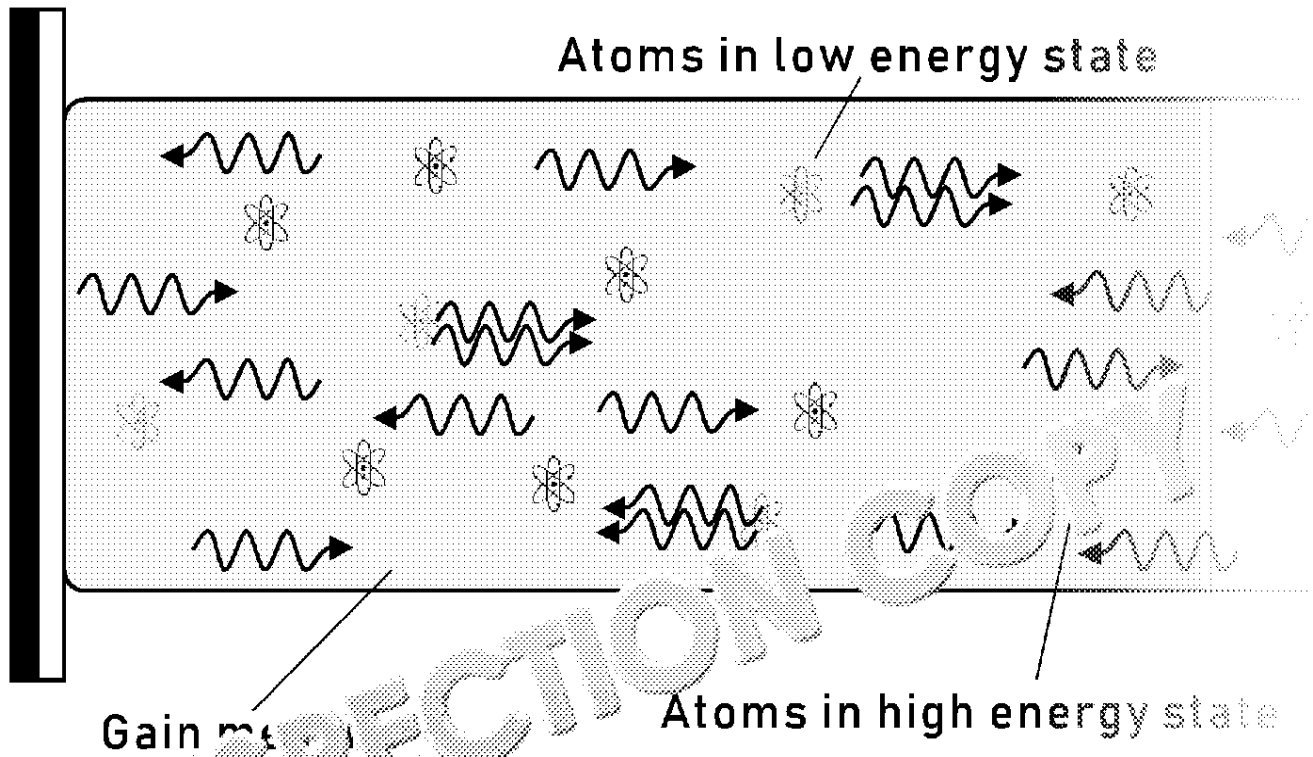


How a laser works

A laser uses the principle of stimulated emission to create many coherent photons of frequency. The photons are generated using a **gain medium**. This a material (in any plasma) that is excited by either external light sources (**optical pumping**) or an external **pumping**).

The emission of one photon (via spontaneous emission) from one of the excited atoms start a chain reaction of photon production via stimulated emission. If the number of photons is larger than the number of atoms in the lower energy state, the rate of stimulated emission exceeds absorption, resulting in a net gain of photons travelling through the gain medium.

Further generated photons can be further increased by placing the gain medium between two mirrors (called an optical cavity). This is basically adding two mirrors either end of the gain medium so that photons can pass backwards and forwards through the gain medium, stimulating the emission of more photons.



This process creates a beam of light inside the gain medium. Releasing this light through a small aperture produces a beam of coherent light, useful in many applications. This device is called a Laser, or Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation, or LASER for short.

Applications of lasers

Lasers have a huge number of applications, from barcode scanners and optical disc drives to medical treatments and cutting-edge research.

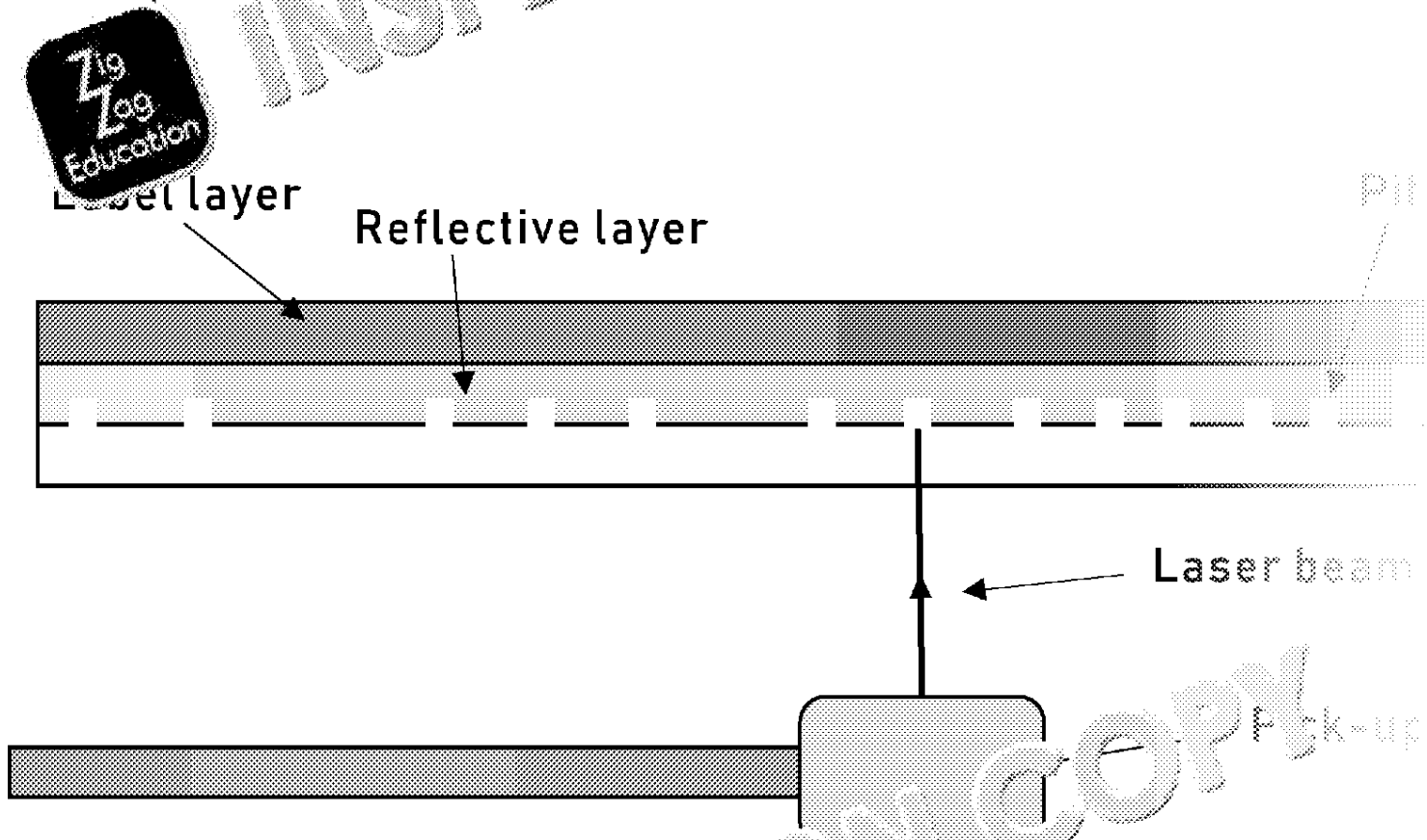
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Optical disc drives

An optical disc drive is a common method of storing data. Information is stored on the discs used are split into three types: compact discs (CDs), digital versatile discs (DVDs) and Blu-ray discs. These types are ordered in increasing storage capacity but are also ordered in increasing cost.

The basic optical drive is made of a **pick-up head (PUH)** that can move along the disc by a **servomechanism**. Information is stored on the disc as a series of 'pits' in one line. The PUH usually contains a semi-conductor laser for focusing the laser light, a photodiode to detect the reflected light and a lens. The lens also has a servomechanism to adjust the focus of the laser light so that it is focused exactly on the disc.



Discs can come in various formats: read-only (ROM), recordable (write once) and rewritable (write many times). The read-only disc (ROM) comes with pre-written data, such as a music CD.

Data is stored as a series of 'pits' and 'raises' in a reflective layer, similar to '1s and 0s'. The width of each pit is around 1/5 the wavelength of the laser light used. This method of storage interferes with the incoming laser light. The reduction in amplitude of the reflected light is detected by the photodiodes, recording the hard-coded information electronically.

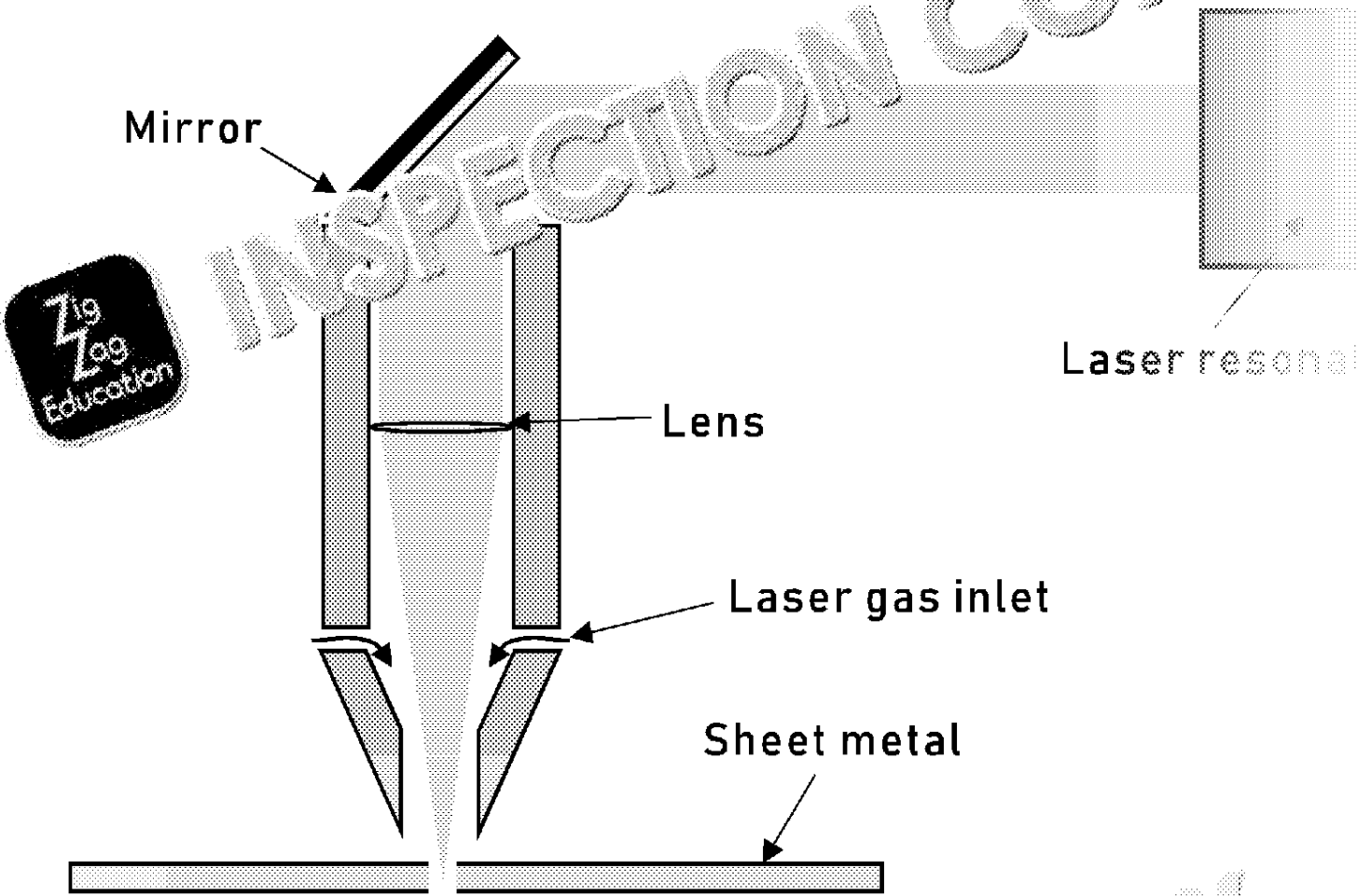
To increase the data storage capacity of a disc, the distance between adjacent pits must be decreased. To ensure the pits are read correctly and the laser dot doesn't spread over multiple pits, the wavelength of the laser light must be decreased. This is why the older CDs use infrared light ($\lambda = 780 \text{ nm}$) whereas the newer DVDs use blue-violet light ($\lambda = 405 \text{ nm}$), hence the name Blu-ray.

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Laser cutters

Powerful lasers can be used to cut through materials such as stainless steel or aluminium. The laser head can be moved using servomotors, allowing intricate designs to be cut into the metal. A laser makes a very clean and smooth cut in comparison to conventional cutting methods.



The most common laser type used in laser cutting is the CO₂ laser, which uses CO₂ gas. It emits infrared light with a wavelength of about 10.6 μm. The emitted beam has a diameter of about 1 mm and is reflected off mirrors towards the sheet metal, passing through a lens. The lens focuses the beam, increasing the intensity of the light. This also allows a small amount of gas to be injected around the point of cutting, making the process efficient compared to conventional cutting techniques.

During the cutting process, a gas is injected around the point of cutting. For mild steel, which is cut using an oxygen-fuelled burning process, the gas used is oxygen. For stainless steel and aluminium, which have lower melting points, the gas used is inert, such as nitrogen or argon.

Comprehension questions

1. Describe how light is amplified in a gain medium.
2. What is the approximate ratio between the wavelength of light used by a PUM and the wavelength of light used by a laser? What is the ratio between the intensity of light created in a disc and the intensity of light used by a laser?
3. Why is a gas used in a laser cutter?

Discussion

With the rise of solid state drives (SSDs) which use microchips (which are much faster to read and write than hard discs) to store information, discuss the future of optical discs such as compact discs and Blu-ray discs.

Extension

Lasers come in a variety of power ratings. Powerful lasers can be dangerous, especially if they are used near someone's eye. For each laser, there is a safety class; the higher the class, the more dangerous the laser. Research the laser safety standards and present your findings as a poster.

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Imaging the Invisible

3.3.2 Refraction, diffraction and interference

Keywords

Photon	An elementary particle that is a quantum of the electromagnetic field.
Focal length	The distance between a lens or a concave mirror and its point of focus.
Wave function	The property of a quantum particle that describes its position with respect to time and space.

Light is made of elementary particles in the electromagnetic field called photons. These particles interact with matter in various ways such as absorption, transmission and reflection.

When light is reflected off an object and enters our eye, our brain then determines the colour of the object. The object will absorb and reflect certain wavelengths by different amounts, as the colour of the object.

However, light doesn't interact with everything. This could be because the energy of the incident photons, or the object is much smaller than the wavelength of the light, or the interactions are very rare. So how do we image things which don't interact with light?

Schlieren photography

Air doesn't interact with light very much. To see any sort of effect, the light must pass through huge amounts of air, like the scattering of blue light by the atmosphere through kilometres of our atmosphere (and hence the sky looks blue). But air has some density and light propagates through materials of different densities at different speeds. Materials of higher density, such as water, slow down light compared to materials of lower density, such as air.

The density of air is not constant. It can vary due to turbulences such as the wind, or due to pressure waves, like sound. In 1864, August Toepler, a German physicist, was the first to use Schlieren photography to image supersonic motion (faster than the speed of sound). The resulting motion creates pressure waves in the air.

To see these pressure waves, August Toepler developed an imaging technique called Schlieren photography. ('Schlieren' means streak in German. This technique amplifies the refraction of light of varying density, resulting in images like the image of a flammable liquid set alight. When the liquid is hot, less dense air is seen to rise above the cool, denser air to the sides, similar to the

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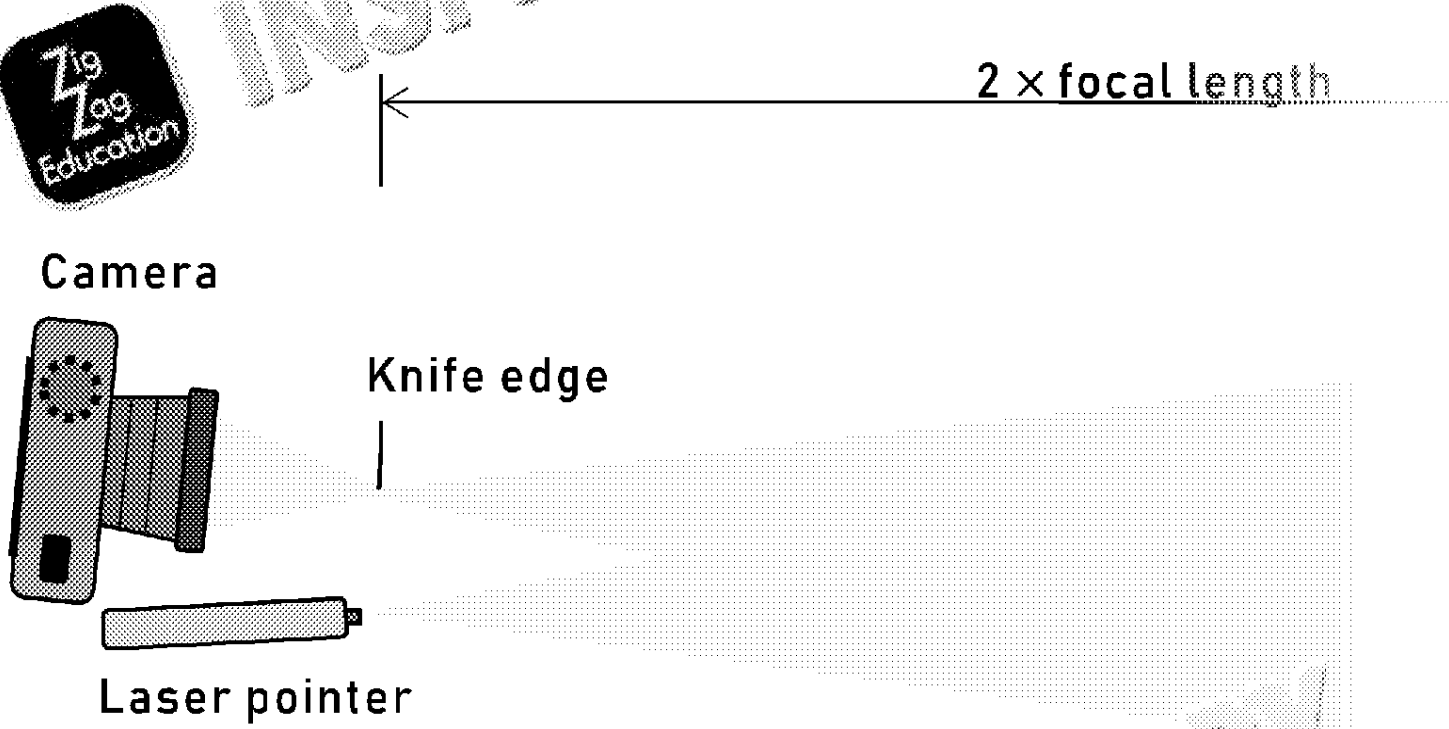
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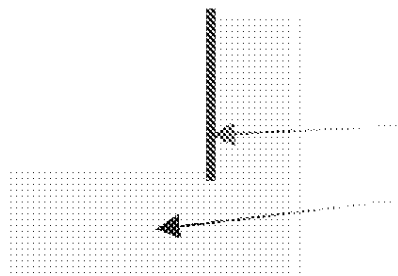
How does it work?

There are a number of ways to set up a schlieren imaging system, the most common is shown below. You will need a high-definition camera, a point source of light (such as a laser), and a parabolic mirror.

- Set up the camera and light source close together, both pointing in the same direction.
- Then position the parabolic mirror at twice the focal length away from the camera, as shown on the diagram below.
- Next, turn the light source on and place the filter or knife edge to cut the reflected light from the camera. You may need to move the camera back a little.



- The point source light is reflected by the parabolic mirror and is focused back to the point source.
- Angle the point source a little so this focused light instead just misses the source and passes the camera.
- The light should then pass a knife edge or the edge of a colour filter. This edge will block some light going in one direction, but allowing light in a slightly different direction to pass on (see the diagram on the right).



Remember that any variation in density in the air near the mirror will cause reflected light to be deflected. Therefore, some densities of air, say low density, will be blocked by the knife / by the filter. This gives our final image some contrast so we see the different densities.

A small point source of light is used, so any change in direction of the light, due to variations in air density, will cause the focused light to miss the normal focus point and create a blurred image in the camera showing the slight variations in air density caused by the flow.

Schlieren photography is used a lot in aerospace and aeronautical engineering. It can be used to observe the behaviour observed in wind tunnels, and design engineers can build a picture of how aerodynamic flow behaves. Schlieren photography is not unique to variations in air density, however; it can be used to image temperature differences, such as the temperature difference between a hot and cold fluid (remember the hotter a fluid is, the less dense it is).

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Probing the nanoscale

How do you image something that is too small to interact with the light, such as an atom, or something smaller than an atom, like an electron, or use the interaction of the atom with the light? We will discuss two methods that are used in scanning tunnelling microscopy (STM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM).

Scanning tunnelling microscopy (STM)

Scanning tunnelling microscope (STM) take advantage of quantum tunnelling. If a particle to tunnel through a potential energy barrier because its wave function 'sp


 further, the wave function of a particle is a quantum description of the particle and is related to a particular position. The probability of finding a particle far away from where it is most likely to be found is small, but it isn't zero.

An STM uses a tungsten tip that is close, but not 'touching' the surface of a material that is to be imaged. The word touching doesn't mean much here, because we are talking about the interactions of atoms which never actually touch, just interact via potential fields.

A potential difference is set up between the tip and the material. This decreases the energy barrier between the tip and surface, increasing the tunnelling current that occurs. The tip and surface are connected to a series of actuators (precision motors) and a computer. These work together to keep the tunnelling current, the number of electrons that tunnel from the tip to the surface (or vice versa), constant.

The tunnelling current is directly proportional to the distance between the tip and surface, so if the surface has a bump in it the tip will raise and lower over the bump. This movement is recorded by the computer and eventually enough data is collected to generate an image of the topology of the surface.

is the image of a molecular structure shown on the right. To give you a t. of measurements an STM makes, if the STM were the size of the Eiffel tower, variations in height due to the 'bumps' of each atom would be around 2 cm!

STMs can also be used to manipulate atoms. By allowing the tunnelling current to flow to a particular atom, the tunnelling current increases. This results in an attractive force on the tip which allows the tip to drag and position the atom anywhere on the surface. IBM scientists used this technique called 'A Boy and His Atom'

(<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oSCX78-8-q0>).

Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

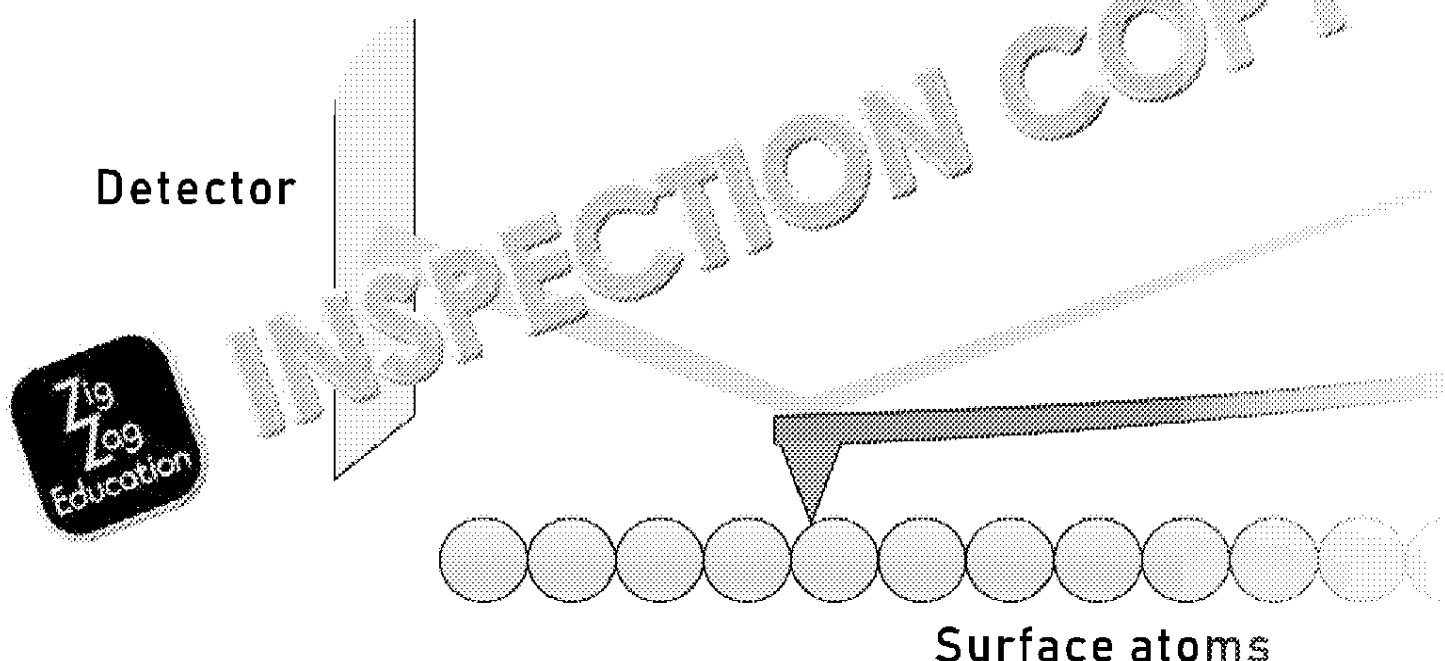
The disadvantage of STMs is that the surface must be able to conduct electricity, or complete and no potential difference between the surface and tip is set up. Atomic force microscopy, however, can also image the surface of insulating materials.

An AFM uses a technique that is very sensitive to variations in the movement of a tip on a surface. The tip in this case is pushed up and down purely due to the electrostatic repulsion between the microscopically sharp tip and the surface. The tip is not in contact with the surface, so the microscopically sharp tip is what we perceive as touch. To measure such tiny variations in the movement of the tip, the AFM uses a technique called piezoelectricity. Piezoelectricity is the ability of a material to generate an electric charge in response to a mechanical stress. In the case of an AFM, the tip is pushed up and down by the electrostatic repulsion between the tip and the surface. This movement is measured by the piezoelectric effect, which generates a small electric charge that is proportional to the displacement of the tip. The AFM then measures this charge and converts it into a voltage, which is then used to create a topographical map of the surface.

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The tip used is a cantilever, a spring-like object that will experience a restoring force equilibrium position, such as being pushed up or down by the atoms of the surface of this cantilever, and a detector is positioned in the path of this reflected laser beam away from the surface and cantilever so any small variation in the cantilever is amplified.



The difficulty with AFM is the number of sources of forces that can act on the cantilever could be due to:

- **Van der Waals forces.** These are the forces caused by the electrostatic attraction between an object that is positively charged on one side, and negatively charged on the other (due to the electric field) and attract one another.
- **Electrostatic forces.** These are caused purely by the attraction or repulsion due to the tip and surface.
- **Chemical forces.** These are caused by the covalent or ionic bonds between atoms. These forces tend to be short range compared to the others.
- **Capillary forces.** A liquid layer on the surface (or condensation in the air) will adhere to the surface, creating a sort of glue between the two. The meniscus (the boundary between the liquid and the surface) result in strong forces that can dominate all other forces. To get around this, the AFM is operated in a vacuum where a meniscus can form, or is used in a vacuum.

Comprehension questions

1. Name the pieces of apparatus needed to set up a schlieren photography static.
2. Describe how schlieren photography is useful to aerospace engineers.
3. What is meant by quantum tunnelling?
4. Describe capillary forces acting on an AFM and how they can be reduced/removed.

Discussion

Discuss the possible applications of STMs and AFMs. Recall that an STM can move the tip across the surface.

Extension

Research another way to image things with atomic or electromagnetic radiation and write a similar style to this article, on this page.

- electron microscopy
- medical imaging such as ultrasound

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Optical Fibres

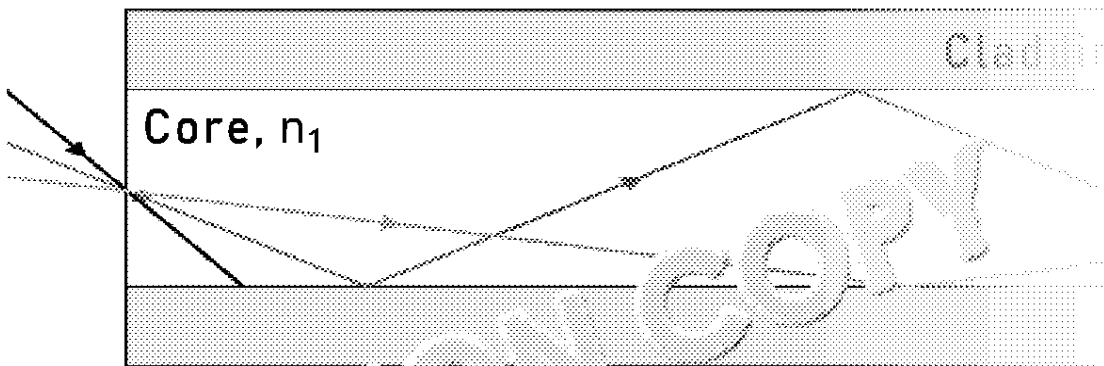
3.3.2.3 Refraction at a plane surface

Keywords	
Cladding	The outer material of a fibre-optic cable with the lower refractive index.
Core	The inner material of a fibre-optic cable, with the higher refractive index.
Dispersion	The spreading out of different parts of a signal as it propagates.

Optical fibres are a type of waveguide that transmit light in a controlled manner over long distances, resulting in fast (at light speed) data connections between devices.

How they work

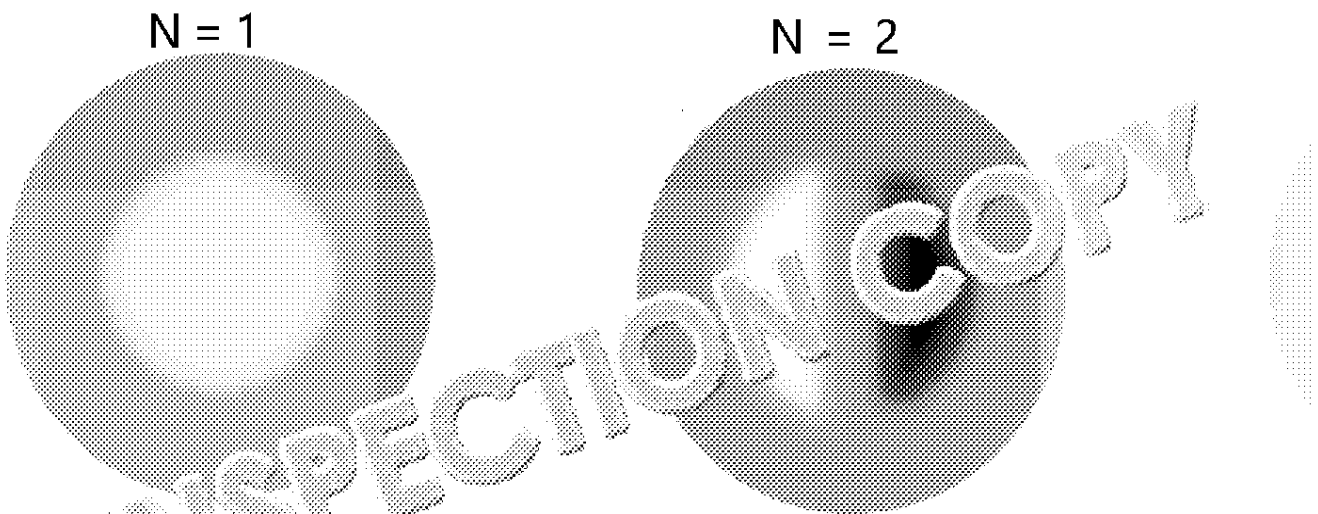
The basic fibre is constructed with a core encased in a cladding. The core has a high refractive index (n_1), so a light ray that is incident at the boundary between the two media at an angle greater than the critical angle will be totally reflected. This principle is called total internal reflection and is used in waveguides such as fibre-optic cables.



A waveguide will have a number of modes depending on its dimensions and refractive index. Light is an electromagnetic wave that propagates through the waveguide without changing its shape. A waveguide can be constructed with different amounts of the waveguide's modes. This is analogous to the Taylor series expansion of trigonometric functions such as

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \frac{1}{5040}x^7 + \dots$$

In this analogy, the powers of x are the different modes and the coefficients in front of each term represent the contribution of each mode to the overall function ($\sin x$). The first three modes ($N = 1, 2, 3$) for a circular waveguide are shown below.



The white and black represent positive and negative amplitudes of the waveguide's electric field. The number of modes a waveguide can hold is finite, typically only a few. A waveguide can also be designed to only allow the fundamental mode ($N = 1$) to propagate through it with all others being absorbed. This is called single-mode fibre and removes the effect of dispersion but is also expensive to manufacture.

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Dispersion

A pulse of light can be made up of many different components that each travel at different speeds. In a vacuum, all wavelengths travel at the same speed. In a medium, different wavelengths travel at different speeds. Even for a single wavelength in a medium, depending on the angle at which the light passes through, it can have a shorter path length, meaning it will travel a different distance and take more time to reach the other end at the same speed.

If the length of the fibre-optic cable is long enough, these different components can arrive at different times, which could interfere with the meaning of the signal. There are three types of dispersion:

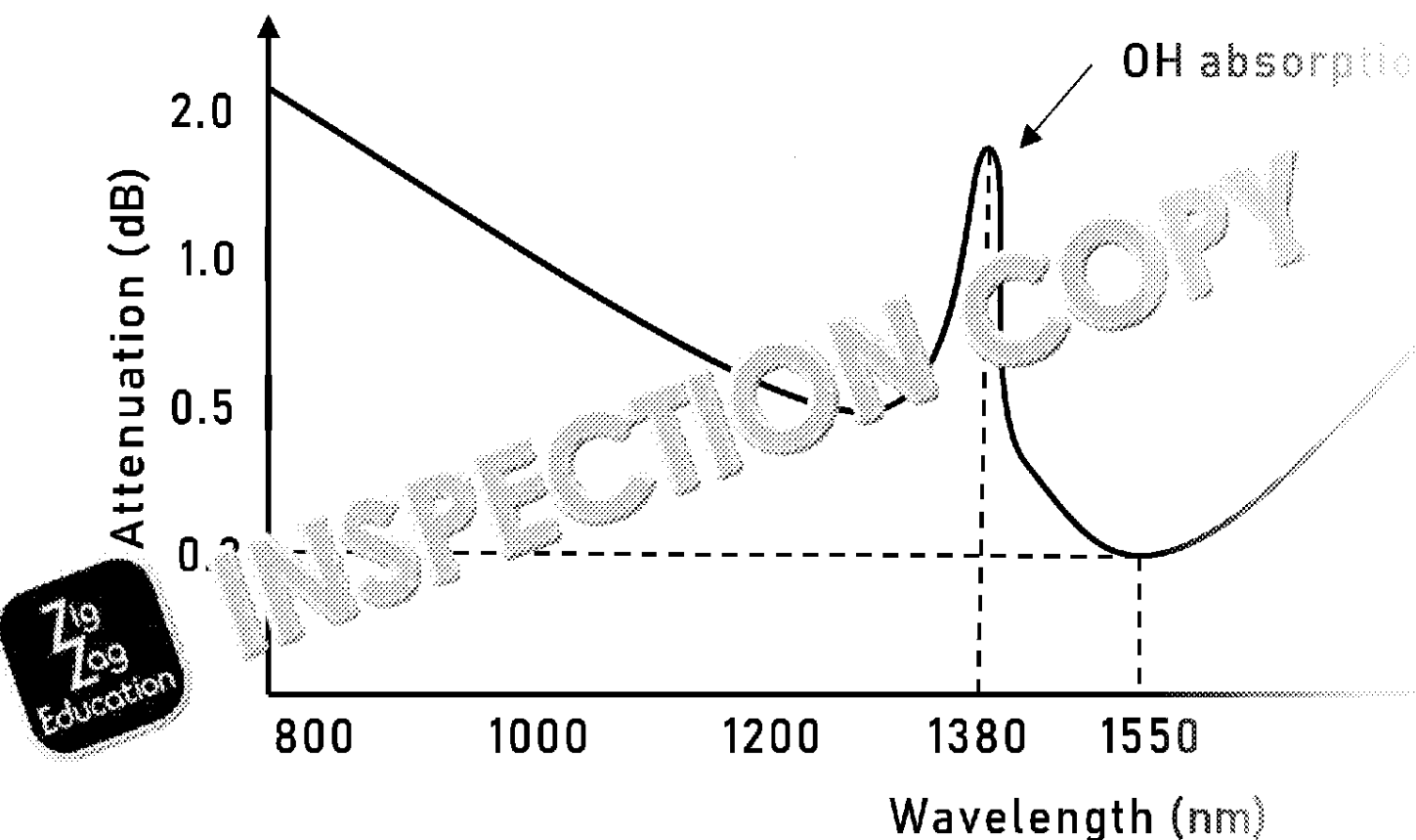
1. **Modal dispersion:** Different modes in a multi-mode fibre have different speeds. Single-mode fibres were invented to remove this type of dispersion. Single-mode fibres are more expensive, so the cheaper multi-mode fibres are used for short-distance transmission.
2. **Chromatic dispersion:** Different frequencies of light (i.e. different colours, although this includes radiation outside the visible part of the spectrum) travel at different speeds. This is subdivided into two other types of dispersion:
 - **Material dispersion:** The refractive index of a material may vary depending on the wavelength of light travelling through it.
 - **Waveguide dispersion:** The way the materials have been used to make the fibre can cause a frequency dependence on the refractive index, even though the materials themselves do not have a frequency dependence.

A pulse of light will have a range of frequencies when generated, meaning the different components will travel at different speeds during propagation. For a high density of information, as in today's signals, this becomes a problem. A regenerator is positioned at 50–100 km intervals to regenerate the signal and remove this chromatic dispersive effect. Also, the use of laser light (coherent light of a single frequency) reduces the effect of this dispersion.

3. **Polarisation mode dispersion:** Different polarisations of modes can also travel at different speeds. Polarisation-maintaining fibres will remove this effect.

Attenuation is the loss of signal strength as it travels down a fibre. A fibre is completely transparent to all wavelengths of light. The atoms of the fibre absorb some of the light, exciting their electrons to higher energy levels. Combine this with the fact that the fibre will be exempt from impurities, which results in the absorption of some light propagating down the fibre.

The longer the signal travels down a fibre, the more light is absorbed. The measure of the loss of light is called its attenuation and is measured in decibels, dB. Below is the absorption spectrum for a common material in fibre optics.



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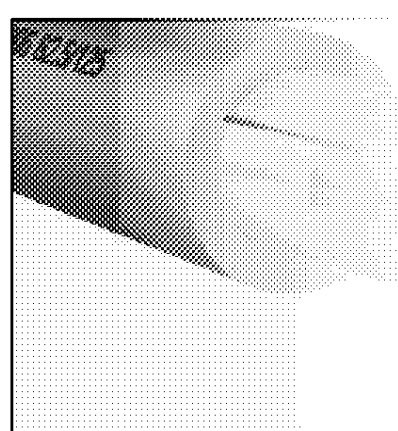
From the attenuation spectrum of silica it can be seen that the wavelengths of 1550 nm (in the spectrum) experience the lowest attenuation, which is why this wavelength is used for telecommunications. The peak at 1380 nm is caused by O–H bonds (oxygen and hydrogen). This impurity is mainly water, which is why fibre-optic cables must be made in a dry environment. This is also why food, which contains water, heats up in a microwave.

Silica glass is typically used as both the core and cladding in optical fibres, with the cladding having a small amount of material to slightly decrease its refractive index. Optical fibres where the core and cladding are very similar, with a refractive index difference of less than 1 %.

Real-world applications of optics

Optic cables

Optic cables are used to transmit data between continents. For example, a transatlantic telecommunications cable (TAT) connects Europe to North America via a shielded optical fibre (see right). A network of these cables ensures large amounts of data can continuously be sent between the continents. Without them, we wouldn't be able to use websites based in America, or make phone calls to people across the pond.



These cables run along the sea bed, placed by a large boat that unreels them over the side from one coast to the other. A robot then moves across the sea floor (as it's too deep for divers) using water jets to dig a trench and lay the cable in. The cable is designed to withstand high pressure and its environment.

The most common fault in TATs is a breakage, often due to an anchor from a boat dragging and cutting through the cable. To reduce the risk of this happening, cables are buried under large amounts of shielding, as seen in the cross section of a TAT cable.

Optic fibres can also transmit an image. This makes them very useful in medicine and industry because optical fibres are thin and can bend around corners without distorting the image (there is a limit to how much a fibre bends before the signal is distorted, however).

An endoscope is used in medicine to get a better look at something within the body. It's made of two fibre-optic cables that both join to the capturing lens. The first fibre-optic cable is used to supply a light source. Light travels down this cable into the body, reflects off the part of the body that is to be looked at, and then is reflected into the second fibre-optic cable. This image is sent through the second cable up to the doctor's eye.

Optical fibres are also used in cutting-edge research into stimulating synapses. A synapse is the tiny gap between two neurones in the central nervous system (including the brain) that transmits signals as electrical impulses. By manually stimulating synapses, researchers can study diseases like motor neurone disease. Optical fibres that use infrared radiation for stimulation have the advantage of sending a precise impulse at the synapse without physical contact (no inflammation from injury, etc.); however, it can be difficult to target the right area of the tissue.

Comprehension questions

1. Draw an image that represents the second mode of an optical fibre.
2. What type of fibre-optic cable is used for short distance transmission and why?
3. Describe one type of dispersion.
4. What wavelength of light is typically used in fibre-optic cables made of silica?

Discussion

Communication satellites are becoming ever more popular and it is predicted that telecommunications cables we currently use today. The connection speeds will be able to be performed by TATs. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of communication satellites.

Extension

A photonic crystal fibre is created using only one material. An array of 'holes' acts as the cladding whereas the centre is purely the material used and acts like the core. Research photonic crystal fibres and report on the research currently being done on them.

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Big Engineering: The International Space Station

3.4 Mechanics and materials

Keywords

Monolithic	An object built with one piece
Orbit	The curved trajectory of an object caused by the gravitational attraction of a larger body
Module	A self-contained unit that combines with other modules to make a larger structure

The International Space Station (ISS) is the largest structure ever built by humans in space. It required the launching of many modules, the necessary materials into space and constructing the structure in a microgravity environment. It was a massive undertaking, but is worth the data and experience we gain about living and working in space.

Before the ISS

The first ever space station was the Salyut 1; a monolithic (launched in one piece) space station launched on 19th April 1971 by the Soviet Union. It stayed in orbit for 175 days before re-entering the atmosphere on 11th October.

The following six Salyut missions throughout the seventies were all successful, apart from one which failed during its launch. All monolithic space stations were sent into space unmanned, so the failed missions only resulted in financial loss.

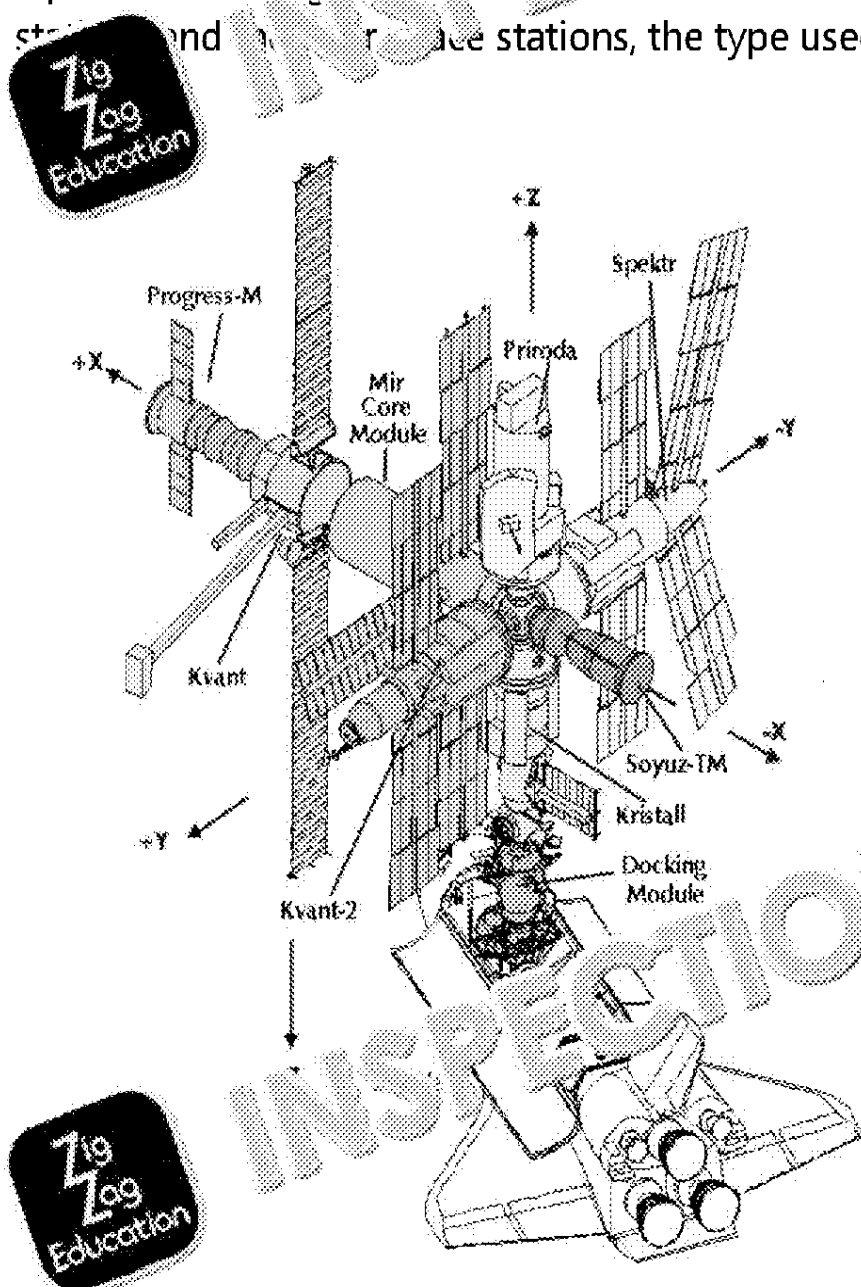
The last Salyut mission, Salyut 7, stayed in orbit for longer than its predecessors, a total of 3216 days between 1982 and 1991. However, it was only occupied by cosmonauts for 16 days up until June 1986. Salyut 7 provided the legacy for the transition between monolithic space stations and modular space stations, the type used today.

A Soyuz TM docked to Salyut 7

Using everything they had learned from the Salyut missions, the Soviets launched their first modular space station into low Earth orbit in 1986. Mir was made up of several habitable modules and several unhabitable modules. These modules were built and launched in orbit using six launches of the Soviet space shuttle. The last module, the US-built Freedom module, was launched in 1995.

This was the first long-term space station with continuous human presence – the space station was occupied for 12 years, twelve and a half of which had a continuous habitation of at least one person. It was the longest successful mission until it was decommissioned in 2001.

Mir was a centre for ground-based research and international collaborations between scientists from the UK, France, Germany, Hungary, and the USA. Studies took advantage of microgravity, including experiments on humans, plants and animals, biotechnologies which were pre-comparably high gravity; testing future missions; astrophysics experiments; and molecules taken from space; and



The space shuttle Atlantis docking with Mir

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allowed monitoring of climate change, changing land use, weather systems and more than simply a scientific laboratory – with tensions high surrounding the Soviet Union scientific collaboration which broke language and cultural barriers was an important

After the Soviet Union (USSR) collapsed in 1991, the operation of the space station was taken over by the Russian Federal Space agency (now known as Roscosmos) and decided to deorbit in 1999 due to a lack of funding. Mir broke up in the Earth's atmosphere in the early hours of 21st March 2001. How a satellite behaves during its re-orbit is very unpredictable because its speed trajectory through the increasingly denser layers of Earth's atmosphere introduces a lot of uncertainty, making any prediction of where the numerous fragments may end up difficult.

NASA had no other space stations in orbit before the ISS was built. The first was Skylab, launched on the Saturn V rocket (the rocket that took man to the moon). Three people lived on Skylab in 1973 and 1979 before its re-entry above Perth, Australia on 11th July 1979. It was a major international media event creating excitement and panic, so much so the president appeared on national television to calm the nation. NASA said the chance of debris hitting a

Building the ISS

The first module of the ISS was the Russian Zarya module, launched on 20th November 1998. Two weeks later, space shuttle Endeavour brought the Unity module to be connected to Zarya, laying the foundations of the American and Russian partnership to build the ISS that would later follow. The ISS wasn't manned until after 26th July 2000, when the third module, the Russian Zvezda was added. Since then, another 29 launches have added further modules and sections built by NASA, Roscosmos, the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA), the Canadian Space Agency (CSA) and the European Space Agency (ESA) to the space station to be fitted, making the ISS an international collaboration.

On 14th April 2001, space shuttle Endeavour took the Canadarm2 to the ISS, a robotic arm built by the CSA that helps with docking and maintenance of the station. On 8th April 2016, A Falcon 9 rocket launched by SpaceX took the Dragon cargo ship to the space station. This module is deflated like a balloon until it reaches its destination, then is inflated up to its operational size. The hope is for future space infrastructure to use a similar principle in launch vehicles. The launch by the Falcon 9 was the first time a private company was to be fitted, and was the first module to be fitted in nearly five years.

The ISS is split into two parts, The US orbital section (USOS) and the Russian orbital section (ROS). Astronauts and cosmonauts can easily travel between the two, but generally stick to their own sections.

The ISS provides a microgravity and space environment for many experiments to be carried out in. Since January 2018, 230 people from 18 countries have visited the ISS. The station only has a capacity of six people at one time, so astronauts and cosmonauts tend to stay at the space station for six months at a time. There have been exceptions, as in 2015/2016 when astronaut Scott Kelly and cosmonaut Mikhail Korolenko stayed on the ISS for a year. They had a twin, Mark, who stayed on Earth during the same period. When Scott came back, the two were medically examined to determine the differences and changes the space environment causes to the human body.



A picture taken of the Earth from board the space shuttle.

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The results provided more evidence the human body does indeed change in space:

- Our bones become less dense and muscles waste away – because of this, it's in astronauts to keep up a strict exercise regime, to remain healthy on their return.
- Humans grow a few inches taller – without the constant pressure of gravity, as a fact, in January 2018, the three inches Japanese astronaut Koichi Wakai had over the 6 foot height limit for astronauts, and he feared he might be too tall to fit in the ISS. (Thankfully, this height limit has a little wiggle room, so he made it home safely.)
- Although the space station has shielding, cosmic radiation is still much higher than on Earth. Prolonged exposure to radiation in space can raise an astronaut's risk of cancer. Astronauts can even see the aurora borealis from space. They also report seeing infrared spectra of light in their vision while in space, which is not something that happens on Earth. This is because of the way the eyes and brain react to the high-energy radiation.

There are also some unexpected effects; red blood cell production decreases, which can lead to anemia. Astronauts also experience changes to their eyesight, which can lead to vision problems, and changes to DNA have even been observed.

However, when an astronaut returns to Earth, most of these changes revert back to normal. One interesting change is the lengthening of telomeres, the end parts of chromosomes. This means that living in space makes you younger?

Another interesting finding from studying astronauts is the difference between men and women. More research needs to be done, but preliminary findings suggest that women's eyesight is more impaired than men's, whereas men are less likely to faint when standing after returning to Earth. This is because men lose less blood in space.

Breaking the ISS

All good things must come to an end and the ISS is no exception. NASA have confirmed that the ISS will be decommissioned in 2025, whereas Roscosmos have endorsed the Russian Soyuz MS-24. Currently, the Soyuz is used to transport supplies and astronauts to the ISS; however, this will change in 2019 and 2020 when the Orion and CST-100 (Boeing) will come into operation. Talks are also underway to extend the life of the ISS, as well as a new joint project between NASA and Roscosmos to develop the replacement station.

Revision questions

1. How many Salyut missions were successful?
2. What was significant about the re-entry of Skylab?
3. What are the names of the two sections of the ISS?
4. Name two changes to the human body when in space for extended periods of time.

Discussion

The research from the ISS helps us understand how humans can travel and live in space. What are the challenges? What is important to carry out this research?

Extension

The replacement for the ISS will likely be designed over the next 10 years to be operational by 2025. In 20 years' time there will likely be an orbital station in low Earth orbit and possibly more than one. Come up with properties the replacement station should have in a similar orbit around Earth for space exploration in 20 years' time.

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Fluid Dynamics: Going with the flow

3.4 Mechanics and materials

Keywords	
Fluid	A substance that easily flows and is susceptible to external forces.
Viscosity	The measure of resistance to external forces by a fluid due to internal friction.
Fluid packet	A piece of a fluid with constant mass but changing volume and shape.

A fluid is a substance that has no fixed shape but instead can flow and take the shape of its container. All liquids and gases are fluids. Fluid dynamics is the study of fluids as they change shape. The many variables involved in such a system makes it a very complex branch of physics. It has a wide range of applications; from aerospace and marine engineering to rocket science and the fluid dynamics found in fusion reactors or stars.

A three-dimensional viscous fluid can be described with just five equations:

1. **A continuity equation.** This ensures that for a given volume in the fluid, the total mass in the volume + any new mass that enters the volume – any mass that leaves the volume is continuous with time, i.e. we don't randomly gain/lose mass in our fluid.
2. **Three Navier–Stokes equations.** These equations describe how fluid packets (fluids) interact with each other. There are three equations, one for each spatial dimension.
3. **An energy equation.** Called the Bernoulli equation, this ensures that energy is conserved.

The Navier–Stokes equation

These equations are the heart and soul of fluid dynamics. They are derived from simple principles, but it's still not been proven if solutions for the equations exist for all cases. It's one of the big problems in mathematics, with a \$1,000,000 prize for who can solve it. Instead of finding solutions from this equation, researchers instead use computers to basically try out different solutions until they find the ones that work. This brute force approach will only give an approximate solution, and it depends on the computing time and power. The longer the program runs the more accurate the solution is, and the more computing power, the more precise the calculated solution is.

The Navier–Stokes equation describes fluids with Newtonian viscosity; any force will result in a change in the rate of change of velocity at the point, i.e. Newton's 2nd law. Most fluids have Newtonian viscosity. A fluid that is not Newtonian is custard. It's possible to move a spoon through custard, but a change in velocity will result in the custard in being very viscous and rigid.

The model used to describe fluids is similar to the particle model used to describe gases, but instead particles are replaced with fluid packets (also called fluid parcels). These are very small 'pieces' of fluid with constant mass but which can have a changing volume and shape. The Navier–Stokes equation describes how all these fluid packets interact with one another.

For simplicity we will only consider the Navier–Stokes equation in one dimension. Based on the following assumptions:

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{4\eta}{3\rho} \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

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Note: The x direction is chosen to be in the horizontal plane, so gravity does not play a part. The Navier–Stokes equation will have an extra gravitational term on the right-hand side.

$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$	Partial derivative of the velocity with respect to time. This is called the temporal derivative term and it makes the equation dynamic (changing with time).
$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$	Partial derivative of the velocity with respect to position, x .
$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$	Partial derivative of the pressure with respect to position, x .
$\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$	The second partial derivative of the velocity with respect to position, x .
ρ	Density of fluid
p	Pressure of fluid
η	Viscosity of fluid

The three-dimensional Navier–Stokes equation is a lot more complicated, because all three dimensions are all dependent on each other.

The nondimensionalised Navier–Stokes equation

Computers can't understand equations of physics, they can only calculate solutions. So the computational physicists to understand the results. To make an equation of physics first be nondimensionalised. This process basically removes all the units from each term. The nondimensionalised 1D Navier–Stokes equation is:

$$\left(\frac{l_0}{t_0 v_0}\right) \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = - \left(\frac{p_0}{\rho v_0^2}\right) \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\eta}{\rho v_0 l_0}\right) \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

The nondimensionalised Navier–Stokes equation has three constants that determine how large each term is (the larger the constant, the more effect that term has). If a constant is really small, we can ignore it.

$\frac{l_0}{t_0 v_0}$ This term determines the acceleration of fluid packets in a fluid packet moving fast (small t_0) compared to the size parameter of the system. t_0 should be large.

$\frac{p_0}{\rho v_0^2}$ This term is the ratio of the pressure and kinetic energy of the system. If the kinetic energy is much larger than the pressure, there is no dynamic system to describe and so we can ignore it.

$\frac{\eta}{\rho v_0 l_0}$ This term is equal to the inverse of the **Reynolds number**, $\frac{1}{Re}$. If the inertial force ($\rho v_0 \propto$ momentum) and the viscous force (η is the viscosity) are comparable, we can't ignore it.

Inertia is the property of an object to keep moving if it has velocity. If it is at rest, therefore, the object exerts on other objects a force due to its motion (think of a car pushing through snow).


Reynolds number

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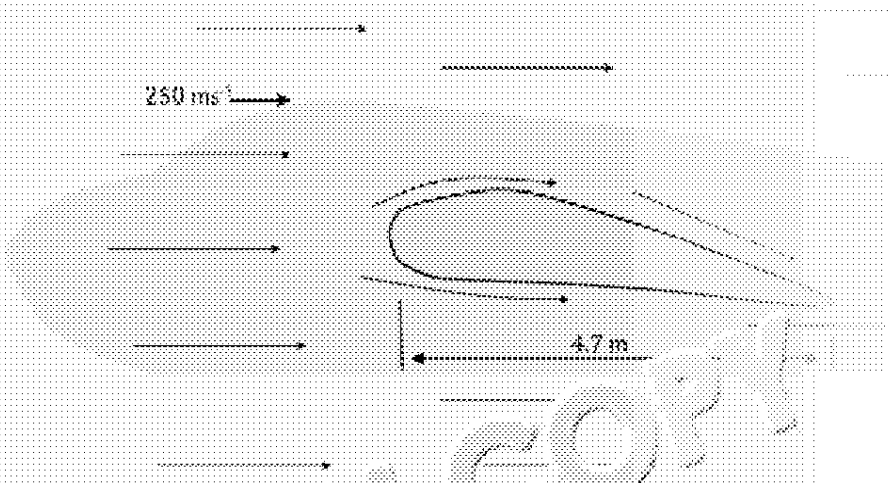
The Reynolds number

This number is an important quantity in fluid dynamics. For low Reynolds numbers, dominated by laminar flow (comparable to sheets of paper sliding past each other), numbers the flow of the fluid becomes more turbulent (comparable to rapids in a river). It is useful because it doesn't matter what the exact values of ρ and η are, just what the ratio is. It is based on this principle that engineers will scale the size of an object, say an aircraft, keeping the Reynolds number constant. This way, engineers can test the aerodynamics of a model in a wind tunnel using a much smaller model. As long as the shape is the same, the Reynolds number of the model in the wind tunnel will be the same as the aircraft during flight and the fluid dynamics will be similar.



Example

A plane flies at 250 m s^{-1} at an altitude of 15 km . The density and viscosity of air are $\rho = 0.20 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ and $\eta = 1.4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N s m}^{-2}$. The width of the cross section of the wing is $l_0 = 4.7 \text{ m}$.



The Reynolds number in this case is given by:

$$Re = \frac{\rho v_0 l_0}{\eta} = \frac{0.2 \times 250 \times 4.7}{1.4 \times 10^{-5}} = 1.7 \times 10^7$$

The value of Re is really large, meaning the fluid flow will be turbulent around the wing. The term $\frac{1}{Re}$ of the Reynolds number, $\frac{1}{Re}$, determines how much the inertial term contributes to the equation. For this plane wing the term is negligible (viscosity forces dominate in the denominator).

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Dragging on

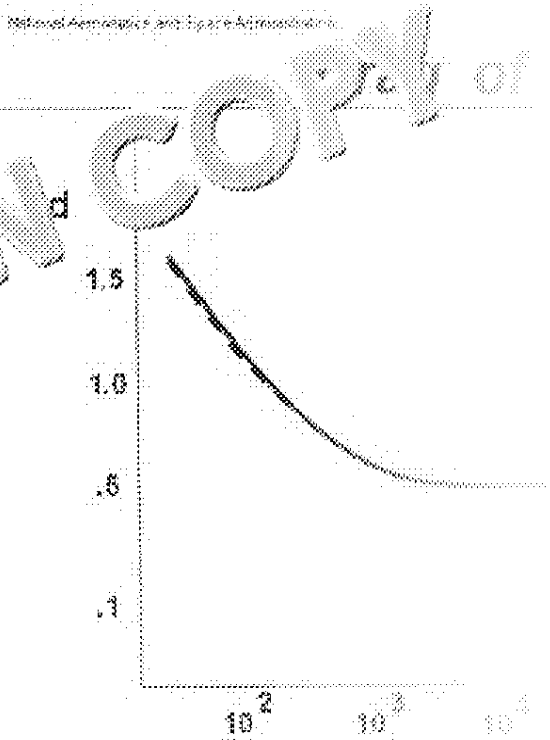
Any object that moves through a fluid will experience a drag force caused by the friction between the fluid packets and the object. The magnitude of the force can be calculated using the drag equation:

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 A C_D$$

The drag coefficient, C_D , depends on the shape of the object and the Reynolds number.

For low Reynolds numbers (high viscosity, low speed), the drag coefficient, C_D , is inversely proportional to the Reynolds number, Re . The result is that the drag force is proportional to the velocity of the object, $F_D \propto v$.

For high Reynolds numbers, the drag coefficient tends to stay constant, resulting in drag force being proportional to the square of the speed, $F_D \propto v^2$. Above is a graph showing the drag coefficient for a sphere.



- F_D – Force exerted by fluid on object (N)
- ρ – Density of fluid ($kg\ m^{-3}$)
- v – Velocity of fluid relative to obj. ($m\ s^{-1}$)
- A – Cross-sectional area of object (m^2)
- C_D – Drag coefficient (dimensionless)

But what's the point?

Fluid dynamics theory has a strong basis in many fields of research and development. Some applications are described below.

Weather prediction

Weather is the state of the atmosphere in a certain place at a certain time. The atmosphere changes and interacts with itself in a highly complex manner. The sheer size of the atmosphere makes it difficult to predict the weather at a certain place very difficult. The weather also depends on the dynamic processes from the Sun during the day, the rotation of the Earth, etc., which all further complicate the prediction.

Fluid dynamics, mainly the Navier–Stokes equation, can be used in conjunction with other data to predict the possible future states of the weather for a certain place. The most likely outcome is then used to warn people in that place.

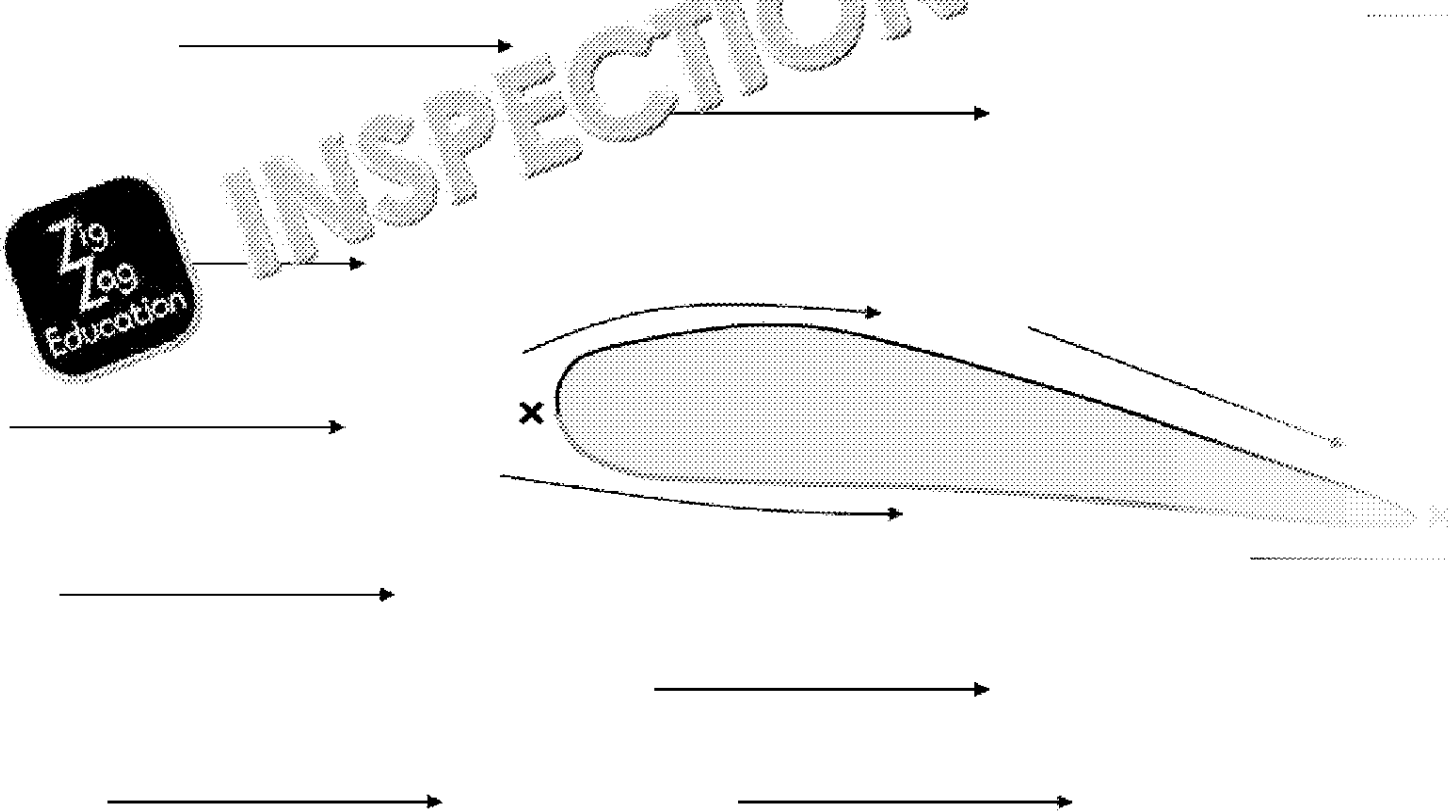
The primary goal of predicting the weather isn't just to warn people what clothes to wear or what changes that could lead to natural disasters (e.g. storms, tornados, typhoons to increased risk of forest fires), but also to get a warning out to the right people so that correct precautions can be taken, ultimately saving lives. Weather prediction also allows people to take precautions before weather changes, increasing their yield and improving the health of the environment. It also helps people to plan their route so as not to be caught in storms, reducing the risk of accidents.

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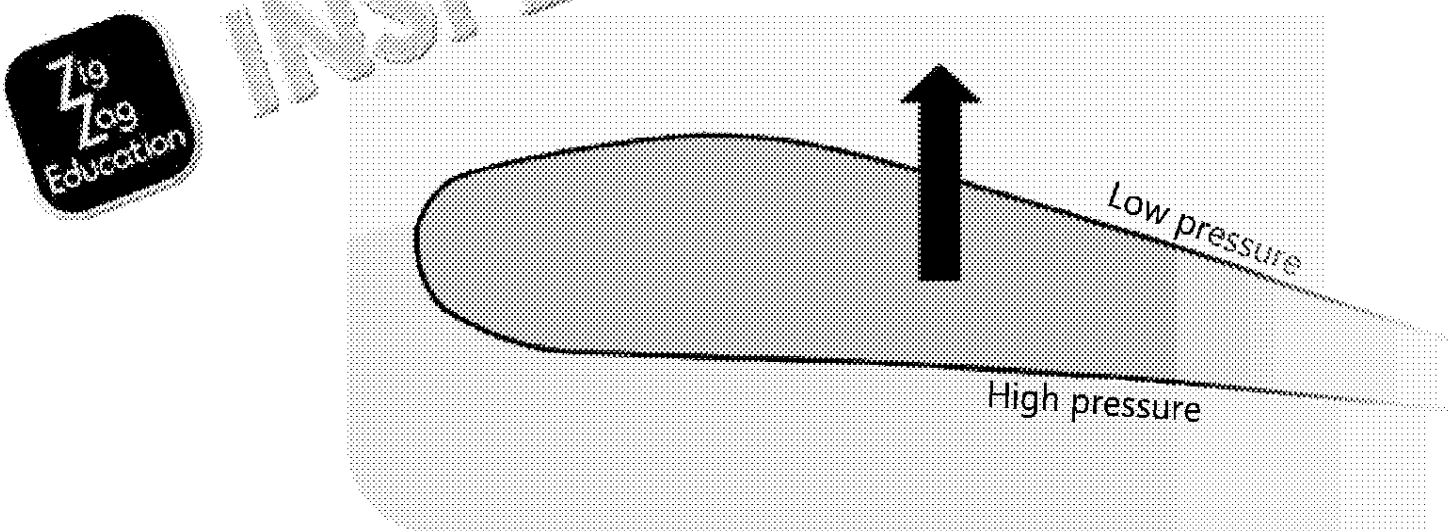


Aerofoils and hydrofoils

Anyone that has lived on Earth knows that air and water are in great abundance. So, it's not surprising that humans have advanced the theory of fluid dynamics. As humans have advanced, the use of fluids has been exploited to provide us with quicker means of transport, including aircraft and boats. Fluids can be manipulated with an object called a foil. A diagram of a foil is shown below.



The foil splits the fluid into two parts at the first point marked with a **x**. The path along the top of the foil (in grey) is shorter than the path along the bottom of the foil (in black). Both parts of the fluid meet at the second **x** at the same time. Therefore, the fluid flows faster over the top of the foil. Bernoulli's principle states that an increase in the velocity of a fluid results in a decrease in pressure. The difference in speeds of the two parts of the fluid therefore, creates a pressure difference called upthrust.



If the foil operates in air, it's called an aerofoil, more commonly known as a wing. If it operates in water, it's called a hydrofoil.

Boats using hydrofoils are uncommon but do exist. Their main purpose is to create upthrust from the flowing water, pushing the boat out of the water, reducing friction between the boat and water, allowing the boat to reach much higher speeds.

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Comprehension questions

- 1. Name the five equations that can describe the dynamical evolution of a fluid.
- 2. Write down an equation that can be used to calculate the Reynolds number of a fluid.
- 3. A rocket is part way through its launch at an altitude of 28 m. The density of air is 1.2 kg m^{-3} and the rocket is travelling at 1.8 m s^{-1} . The rocket has a cross-sectional area of $2.46 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$ and a drag coefficient of 0.15, what is the drag force acting on the rocket at this altitude?
- 4. Describe how a foil produces lift when it is subjected to a flowing fluid.

Discussion

Discuss the importance of funding research into chaotic systems, such as fluids, if they are not getting an exact solution to their behaviour.

Extension

Foils aren't just used as wings for planes or as a source of upthrust for hydrofoil boats. Find another use of foils and present your findings as a factsheet about the application.

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It's Not Exactly Rocket Sci

3.4.1 Force, energy and momentum

Keywords

Exhaust gases	The burnt propellant that exits the engine of a rocket at high velocity.
Orbit	The path of an object as it is gravitationally bound to another object.
Eccentricity	The measure of how much an ellipse is stretched compared to a circle.

Rockets have taken us into space, allowed us to build an array of satellites for communications, and even allowed us to send probes deep into the solar system and interstellar space. But realistically, how hard is the science behind them?

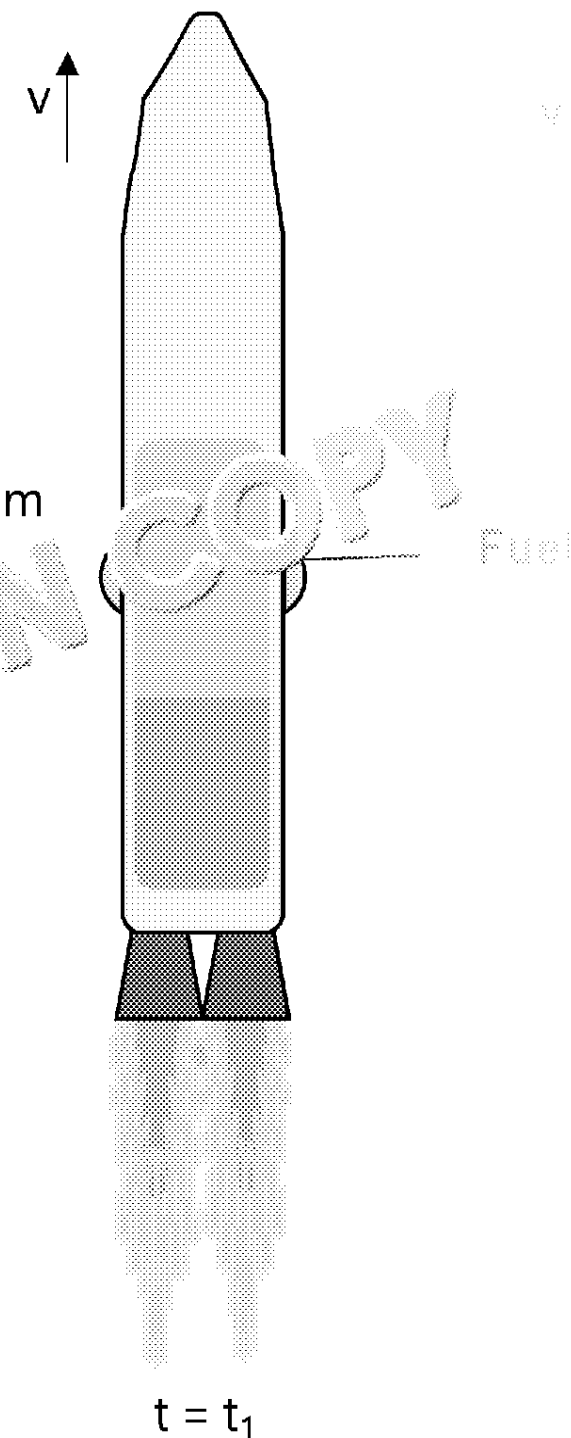
Rocket physics

Disclaimer: All of the following maths you will come across if you study A Level Maths.

You will be familiar with the motion of projectiles and how they behave in gravity. A rocket is a type of projectile, so the equations you have come across apply. The issue with rockets is the majority of their mass is their fuel. They use this fuel as they launch, meaning their mass changes throughout the flight.

To start let's consider a rocket at two different times during its launch.

To derive the equation for the momentum due to exhaust gases released between t_1 and t_2 , we will equate the change in momentum of the rocket. Let's build an equation that describes this in terms of the impulses experienced by the rocket and exhaust gases between t_1 and t_2 (ignoring gravity and air resistance):



Initial momentum of rocket and fuel.

$$mv = -\delta m v_e + (m - \delta m)(v + \delta v)$$

Final momentum of exhaust gases. It's negative because it's moving downwards.

Final momentum of rocket + fuel.

Key	
m	Initial mass of rocket
δm	Change in mass of rocket
v	Initial velocity of rocket
δv	Change in velocity
δm_e	Change in mass of exhaust gases
v_e	Velocity of exhaust gases

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Expanding this gives:

$$mv = -v_e \delta m + mv + m \delta v - v \delta m - \delta m \delta v$$

We can ignore the last term $\delta m \delta v$ because we assume the change in mass and velocity is small, making this term negligible. Cancelling other terms gives:

$$0 = -v_e \delta m - v \delta m + m \delta v$$

This equation describes the relation between t_1 and t_2 . Dividing by the change in time to get a more useful equation with infinitesimal changes, i.e. a differential equation:

$$0 = m \frac{dv}{dt} - (v + v_e) \frac{dm}{dt}$$
$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = (v + v_e) \frac{dm}{dt}$$

You may recognise the left-hand side as Newton's second law, the right-hand side is a slight variation of

$$T = (v + v_e) \frac{dm}{dt}$$

Key
T – Thrust

this with a changing mass. So the force, also called the thrust, acting on the rocket is given by:

The term $v + v_e$ is the velocity of the exhaust gases relative to the rocket. If the exhaust gases leave the rocket at a constant velocity, then $v + v_e$ is to be a constant

but the mass is not. Therefore, our equation says that the change in mass, i.e. the more exhaust the rocket spits out the back, the larger the thrust on the rocket – makes sense.

δv is given by:

$$\delta v = (v + v_e) \frac{\delta m}{m}$$

Key
 v_i – Initial velocity of rocket
 v_f – Final velocity of rocket
 m_i – Initial mass of rocket
 m_f – Final mass of rocket

Integrating this gives:

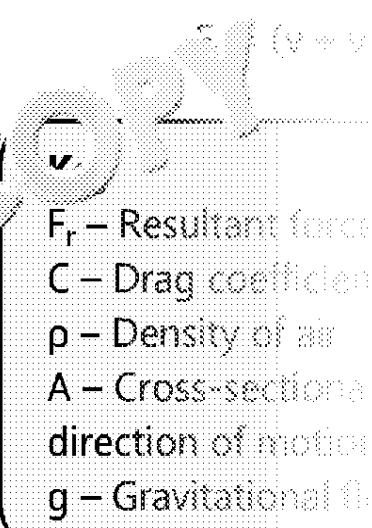
$$v_f = (v + v_e) \ln \left(\frac{m_i}{m_f} \right)$$

$$v_f - v_i = (v + v_e) \int_{m_i}^{m_f} \frac{1}{m} dm$$

$$v_f - v_i = (v + v_e) \ln \left(\frac{m_i}{m_f} \right)$$

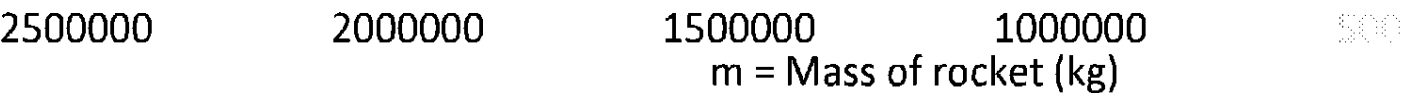
Which gives us the velocity at time t after some initial velocity v_i that $v + v_e$ is a constant

Below is a plot of this equation. Notice how as the rocket burns fuel, its acceleration increases without including air resistance (less air at high altitude) effects of air resistance, the resultant force acting on the rocket



Note how the mass of the rocket, v , the density of the air, ρ , the drag coefficient, C , and the cross-sectional area, A , are all constant on the rocket, and the direction of motion is vertically upwards throughout the flight. This is one of the reasons why rocket science is so complicated

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Orbital mechanics

Getting into space is the hard part. The vast majority of the mass of a rocket is the launch stage.

During launch the rocket will angle itself so it ends up on a trajectory to its desired location, basically a projectile's trajectory with enough initial velocity that it constantly falls back down.

The rocket tends to have multiple stages (different engine designs work efficiently at different altitudes). Once the last stage has deployed the cargo into space, say a new space telescope, it has to stop moving away (although new commercial rockets land themselves, reducing the cost). The telescope is now in free flight, only acted upon by the Earth's gravity.

An object can orbit the Earth (or any object with a gravitational pull) in four ways:

- circular
- elliptical
- parabolic
- hyperbolic

Circular orbits are realistically impossible and parabolic and hyperbolic orbits only describe fly-bys rather than a repetition of motion. Therefore, we will focus on elliptical orbits.

An ellipse is a stretched circle. Instead of one centre it has two, called focal points. The sum of the distance from one focal point, A , to a point on the ellipse, C , and the distance from the other focal point, B , to the point on the ellipse, C is a constant.

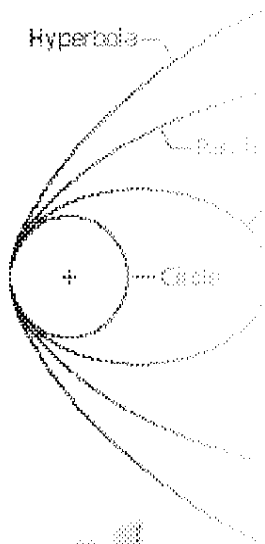
$$AC + BC = \text{constant}$$

The distance between a focal point and the centre of the ellipse is:

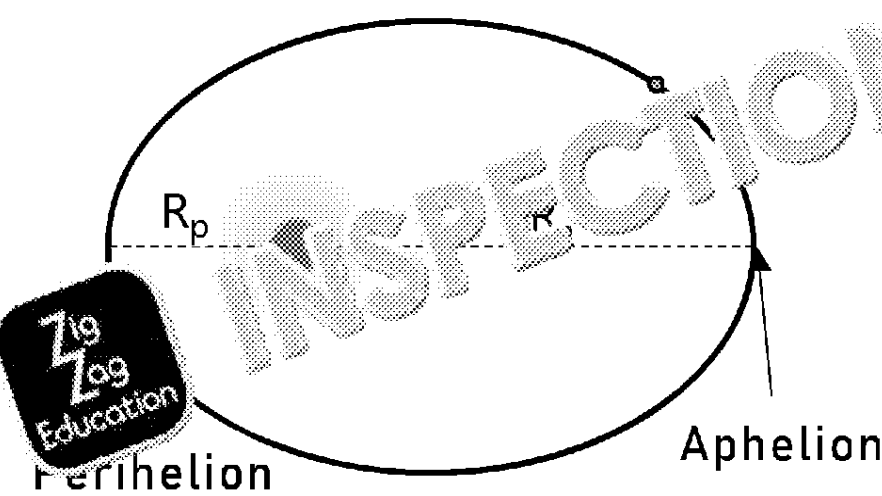
$$e \times a$$

Where e is the eccentricity of the ellipse ($0 < e < 1$) and a is the semimajor axis (this distance is the same for both foci).

For the following explanation we will use the example of a comet orbiting around the Sun. An elliptical orbit will arise when the comet enters the gravitational field of the Sun with a velocity not perpendicular to the gravitational force (all of the planets in our solar system have elliptical orbits around the Sun). The point in the orbit closest to the Sun is called the perihelion (periapsis for an object that isn't the Sun) and the point furthest from the Sun is called the aphelion (apoapsis for other objects).



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Two of Kepler's laws state

$$R_a = a(1 + e)$$

Combining these two gives

$$R_p$$

Remember a = semimajor axis



Orbital motion

Now we know the basics of ellipses, let's look at the motion of an object following an elliptical trajectory, i.e. an orbit. The potential energy of an object in a gravitational field is given by:

$$E_p = -\frac{GMm}{r}$$

And the kinetic energy of an object in motion is given by:

$$E_k = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

Energy is transferred between one and the other during an orbit, but the total energy is always constant. Therefore, picking two points in the orbit:

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 - \frac{GMm}{r_1} = \frac{1}{2}mv_2^2 - \frac{GMm}{r_2}$$

Rearranging gives:

$$v_1^2 - v_2^2 = 2GM\left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2}\right)$$

A useful feature of elliptical orbits is:

$$R_a v_a = R_p v_p$$

Rearranging and substituting into our energy equation gives:

$$\frac{2GM}{(R_p + R_a)} \quad \text{and} \quad v_p = \sqrt{\frac{2GMR_a}{R_p(R_p + R_a)}}$$

Rearranging these gives:

$$R_a = \frac{R_p}{\frac{2GM}{R_p v_p^2} - 1} \quad \text{and} \quad R_p = \frac{R_a}{\frac{2GM}{R_a v_a^2} - 1}$$

These are known as the vis-viva equations. The velocity of an object in an elliptical orbit is given by:

These equations describe how the velocity of an object can change as the rocket engines on. The semi-major axis and, therefore, the shape of the orbiting object is given by:

Where r is the distance from the focus of the ellipse and the orbital velocity of an object in an elliptical orbit is given by:

As the radius of the orbit increases, the velocity of the object approaches the perihelion. This is why planets closer to the sun move faster than those planets further away.

For a rocket that's perigee, the gravity of an object will travel at its perihelion. It is at this point that the rocket will be most effective. The potential energy is at its lowest. The energy added by the engine will not be lost to gravitational potential energy, but will be transferred into kinetic energy. This is the Oberth effect.

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Comprehension questions

1. At the beginning of its launch, a rocket turns its engines on to full power. The rate of exhaust gases is 7500 kg s^{-1} and it leaves the rocket at 1200 m s^{-1} . What is the thrust?
2. State one mathematical property of ellipses.
3. What are the names given to the closest and furthest points of an orbit around the Sun?
4. The orbit of Mars has an eccentricity of 0.09. Its semi-major axis is $2.28 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$. How far from the Sun is Mars when it travels through its perihelion? How far from the Sun? The aphelion?

Discussion

Over the last 10 years in the aerospace industry have seen more private companies launch rockets and develop new technologies, such as SpaceX and Blue Origin with their vertical-lift rockets. Discuss whether you think companies leading the way in space exploration is a good or bad thing, and which company were the first to send man to Mars.

Extension

The typical rocket is comprised of a main stage with either a second or a second and third stage. The rocket launches with the main stage and drops it behind when it runs out of fuel. It then launches the second and third stages at different points in the launch. This means unnecessary weight is lost but also allows engines attached to each stage to be specially designed to operate at different altitudes (recall atmospheric pressure decreases with altitude). An alternative is to use an aerodynamic shape throughout the launch to adapt to the changing atmospheric pressure. Research this and write a report on your findings.

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Special Effects

3.4.1.3 Motion along a straight line

Keywords	
Reference frame	A coordinate system relative to the reference in which a given reference frame comparison is made (e.g. light, this is an excitation in the electromagnetic field in nature)
Electromagnetic radiation	
Paradox	A statement that, despite sounding true, leads to consequences

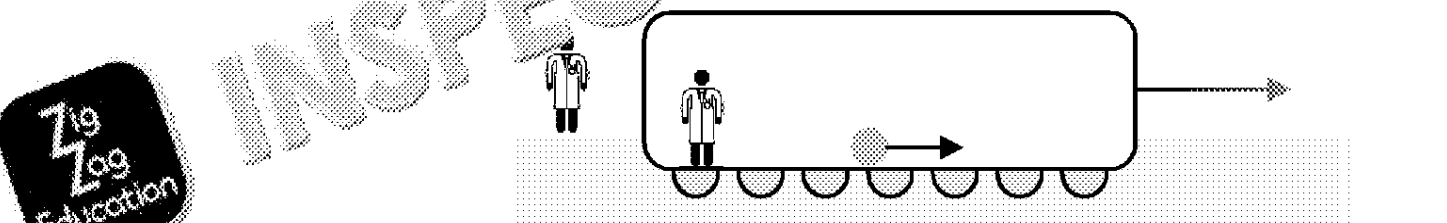
In 1905 Albert Einstein wrote and published one of the most influential scientific papers. The paper brought together ideas about space, time, mass and energy, and solved a widely discussed problems in physics at the time. This paper, *Zur Elektrodynamik bewegter Körper* (*Electrodynamics of Moving Bodies*), set out Einstein's theory of special relativity, which is one of the most important bases of modern physics.

It's all relative

One of the most important aspects of physics is the idea of **relativity**, the idea that all motion is relative. This is actually a quite simple idea:

Consider a passenger on a train with a ball. The train is entirely enclosed and the passenger can perfectly see everything happening inside. The train is moving past a platform at a constant speed.

The passenger takes their ball and bowls it down the train aisle in the same direction as the train is moving. A scientist on the train kindly measures the ball's speed and confirms that it is travelling at 15 m s⁻¹ relative to the train.



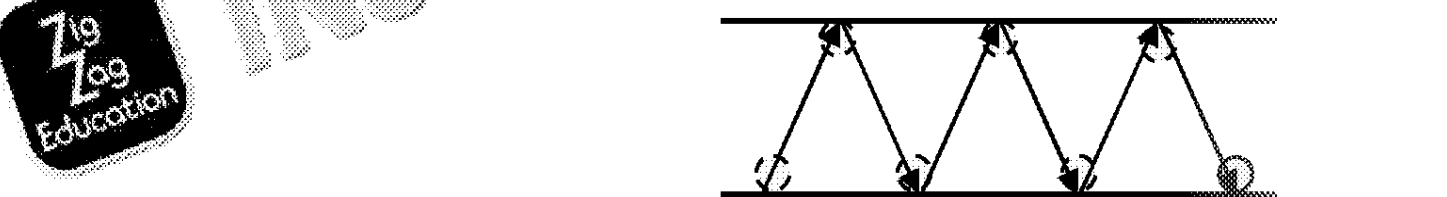
However, another scientist standing on the platform also measures the speed of the ball because they've measured the speed of the ball added to the speed of the train.

Neither scientist is wrong – the scientist on the train is correct in saying that the ball is travelling at 15 m s⁻¹ in the **reference frame of the train**, and the scientist on the platform is correct in saying that the ball is travelling at 25 m s⁻¹ in the **reference frame of the platform**.

Now instead of rolling the ball forwards, imagine the ball being rolled side to side, perpendicular to the direction of the train. The scientist on the train sees the ball simply travelling back and forth.



According to the scientist on the platform, however, the ball is travelling back and forth in a diagonal path because of the motion of the train.



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Again, both scientists are correct in their observations, but because of their different different effects. Neither scientist is more right than the other, they're just measuring different points.

In fact, all physics works exactly as you'd expect, no matter the reference frame, as long as it **isn't accelerating**. In any reference frame, momentum and energy are conserved, and fields act exactly the same. If the train were perfectly opaque with no windows, a passenger would not know the train was moving at all, no matter which physics experiments they performed – sped up, slowed down, or turned around. Even though they might notice the engine!

This idea is known as **Galilean relativity**, and is a simple but crucial aspect of physics.

Travelling light

Between 1855 and 1873, a Scottish scientist called James Clark Maxwell published a series of papers that turned the idea of Galilean relativity on its head. In his papers, Maxwell set out the equations to describe how electromagnetic fields propagate. One crucial aspect of the Maxwell equations is that electromagnetic waves travel at the speed of light, c , which is given by

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

where ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space, and μ_0 is the permeability of free space. These constants define the speed of electric and magnetic waves in a vacuum, and most importantly are **constants**. This means that the speed of light is constant, with all light travelling at a fixed speed. This raised a question: in which reference frame does light travel at this fixed speed?

Think back to our train, but instead of rolling a ball, imagine the passenger is shining a flashlight. According to Maxwell, the light should travel at c , but we have no indication which reference frame it travels at – light as travelling at c or c plus 10 m s⁻¹. Maxwell's equations predicted that light travels at a fixed speed in a special reference frame, where light travelled at its 'correct' speed, in complete violation of Galilean relativity. This was a problem, as all reference frames should be equivalent in terms of physics.

To solve this, the idea of an **aether** was put forwards. This aether was proposed as the medium through which light travelled at its true speed. Two scientists, Albert Michelson and Edward Morley, performed experiments in an attempt to measure the effect of the aether. The experiments involved measuring the speed of light in different directions and at different times of the day – depending on the motion of the Earth. The speed of light should have varied slightly as the light travelled different paths through the aether.

Instead what was found was that the speed of light is constant, regardless of which reference frame it is measured in. The Michelson–Morley experiment would go on to be considered the most precise experiment ever performed at the time.

On the right track

Einstein's solution to this problem couldn't have been simpler – he accepted it, and modified Galilean relativity.

Einstein's theory of special relativity is based on the two postulates of special relativity:

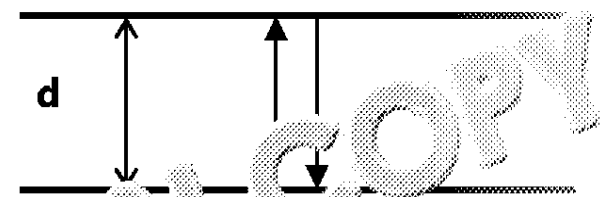
1. In an inertial (non-accelerating) reference frame, the laws of physics are invariant.
2. The speed of light in a vacuum is constant in all reference frames, independent of the motion of the source or the observer.

As a starting point, Einstein made a startling claim: to account for these two postulates, space and time must bend, stretch and squash to accommodate the measurements of different reference frames.

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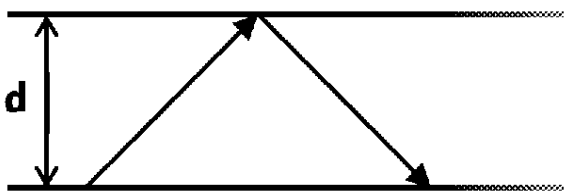


On our train, the passenger once again shines their laser; this time so that a single photon bounces between two mirrors on either side of the aisle.



The time it takes for the photon to travel from one mirror to the other, and back to the other, is $t = \frac{2d}{c}$.

The scientist on the platform sees something quite different, though. Instead of reflecting the photon, the train is also moving forward at the same speed as the train, much like the ball from the first experiment.



This time the distance between the mirrors is d , but in the time taken for the photon to travel from one mirror to the other, the train and photon have moved forward by a distance vt .

This actually means that the photon has travelled further according to the scientist on the platform than it has according to the scientist on the train. If the speed of light is invariant, this can only mean one thing: time is longer to bounce from one mirror to the other and back according to the scientist on the platform.

We can even work out by how much the two scientists differ.

We first need to define the variables in the time dilation equation.

On the train, the scientist measures a distance d and a time t for the photon's path. The scientist on the platform measures a distance x' and a time t' . Both scientists agree that the reference frames are moving relative to each other.

The scientist in the train:

and

$$t = \frac{2d}{c}$$

For the scientist on the platform:

$$x' = \sqrt{v^2 t'^2 + 4d^2}$$

and

$$t' = \frac{\sqrt{v^2 t'^2 + 4d^2}}{c}$$

The equation for x' just comes from Pythagoras' theorem – can you work it through yourself?

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$$t'^2(c^2 - v^2) = 4d^2$$

$$t'^2 = \frac{4d^2}{c^2 - v^2}$$

$$t'^2 = \frac{4d^2}{c^2} \frac{v^2}{c^2}$$

$$t' = \frac{\frac{4d^2}{c^2}}{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

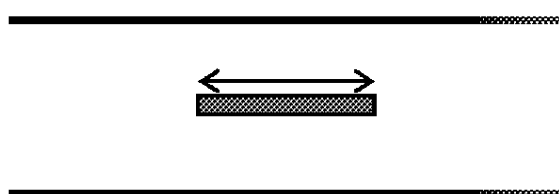
We know that $t = \frac{2d}{c}$, so

$$= \frac{t}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

If the train were to speed up though, the difference becomes a lot more noticeable. If 1 s on the train is measured as 1.005 s on the platform at 87 % of the speed of light, the time measured on the train becomes 1 s less from the platform. For this reason, speeds faster than the speed of light are not possible.

Log the distance

Consider a rod lying along the aisle in the train.



We know already that the two scientists measure different times, so they must also measure different lengths. The scientist on the platform would measure the rocket to be of length L' :

$$L' = L \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

and travelling at 95 % of the speed of light would be measured by a stationary observer as:

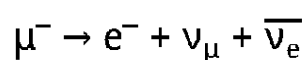
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As a matter of fact

Time dilation and length contraction aren't just matters of theory, they're real effects. We don't see these effects in everyday life because they only become apparent at speeds that have ever travelled, but in the world of particle physics, travelling at high fractions of the speed of light is a day occurrence.

When cosmic rays hit the upper atmosphere, muons are produced. Muons decay by emitting a muon neutrino, and an electron.



Muons have an average lifetime of $2.2 \mu\text{s}$. This means that every single muon produced in the upper atmosphere would decay before reaching the ground, even if it was travelling at the speed of light. What is interesting is that many muons make it to the surface.

While this doesn't make sense for classical physics, special relativity makes it simple. From the perspective of someone standing on the Earth, the muon's lifetime increases.

Travelling at $0.996 c$, the average lifetime extends from $2.2 \mu\text{s}$ to $25 \mu\text{s}$ – over ten times longer!

But what about the muons' reference frame? There still shouldn't be enough time for them to reach the ground before decaying! This can be explained by special relativity as well – the muons are moving so fast that the distance from the upper atmosphere to the ground contracts, reducing the distance they have to travel. In other words, the muons can cover a greater distance in the same amount of time by travelling at high speeds.

Twin peaks

There's a famous paradox in special relativity that people try to use to poke holes in the theory. It's called the twin paradox.

Imagine two twins, one on Earth and one on a spaceship, with only a few minutes difference in their ages. The spaceship twin travels at speeds approaching the speed of light. After a short time, the spaceship twin returns to Earth. Due to time dilation, what was only a short time for the astronaut twin inside the spaceship is a much longer time for Earth, just like the photon on the train. The astronaut twin returns much younger than herself.

But wait! Since all reference frames are equivalent, this can be thought of from the perspective of the spaceship. In this point of view, it's the Earth that is speeding away at close to the speed of light. The earthbound twin that stays young.

Which one is it? Does the effect not happen at all? Or is one of the reference frames wrong? Why?

The answer is that reference frames are only equivalent when they're **not** accelerating. The spaceship has to accelerate up to a fraction of the speed of light away from Earth and then back down to return. This accelerating reference frame takes the problem out of the realm of special relativity and into the realm of **general relativity**. When making this correction, it turns out that it is the astronaut twin that is much younger.

General relativity is another of Einstein's theories. As its name implies, it is a generalization of special relativity, allowing similar ideas to be applied to accelerating reference frames. General relativity is an important and complex branch of physics, and governs all gravitational interactions. It is also the way to integrate general relativity and quantum mechanics, which is the goal of a theory which describes all of physics.

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Comprehension questions

1. What are the two scientific principles that were at odds with each other in class, how did they lead to special relativity?
2. An electron travels through a particle accelerator at $2.38 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$. A scientist travelling around the particle accelerator in 880 ns. How long does this take for the electron?
3. How can the extended lifetime of a muon in a cosmic ray be explained from the observer on Earth and the reference frame of the muon?

Discussion

Special relativity only applies to very high speeds, but that doesn't mean it can't have applications. Try and come up with as many possible applications and technologies that use special relativity.

Extension

The ladder paradox is a special relativity paradox like the twin paradox discussed above.

In it, someone runs near the speed of light holding a ladder in the direction of their motion. As the speed increases, the length of the ladder decreases. The person runs through a barn in which the ladder usually can't fit. Due to the length contraction, the ladder should suddenly fit according to an observer at rest. However, according to the runner, it is the barn that appears shorter, so the ladder doesn't fit.

Do some research and think about the problem yourself, and try to come up with a solution.

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Energy Storage

3.5.1 Current electricity

Keywords	
Generator	A device that turns kinetic energy into electrical energy, like the rotation of a turbine, into energy
Inertia	The willingness of an object to remain in motion if in motion or at rest
Charge	The property of an object caused by an imbalance of positive and negative charges

Storing energy is a technological challenge with well-established solutions, but finding the right time is another challenge in itself. Storage solutions for energy are the basis behind **capacitors** that are vital to digital circuits, as in computers, and such as **batteries**. This article will talk through the various ways energy is stored.

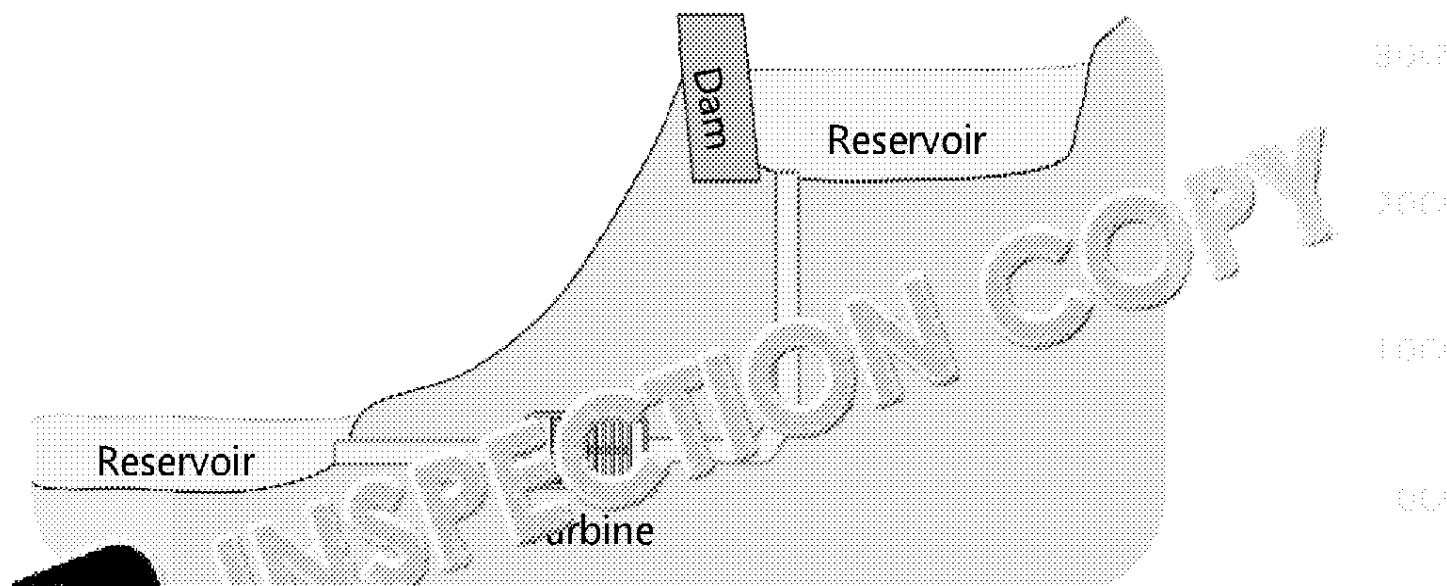
As society moves towards renewable sources which aren't as damaging to the environment, the problem may not be generating energy, but storing it. Solar panels produce energy during the day, but what happens at night? What happens to wind farms when it just isn't windy for the wind turbines to function safely? And with climate change and human activities, not even hydroelectric power might be reliable.

Energy storage in the national grid

Modern life has become dependent on a constant power supply. Without this, our technological infrastructure would power down, reverting us back to the pre-industrial era. Power stations are constantly running to meet demand. However, the demand for power varies throughout the day depending on many factors. In the UK, it is the job of the national grid to make sure there is enough power for the country all of the time. Any excess power is exported to other countries, although this is difficult. Ideally, the national grid will store the excess energy to be used at a later time when demand is high. The demand of the national grid tends to follow a predictable pattern each day, with exceptions such as TV pickup.

When a large programme is broadcast, such as the same programme as the Cup final, the crucial episode ends for everyone, resulting in a spike in demand by up to 50%.

Gas power stations are the quickest type to react, yet still take up to an hour to fully turn on. Therefore, storage solutions are needed that have a large capacity, but can also be quick to respond.



pumped storage: a reservoir of water is held up high, and when power is needed, this water is released through a turbine and into a lower reservoir. The reservoir has a large gravitational store which

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decreases as electricity is generated. The driven turbine generates electricity that can be used to pump the water back up to the upper reservoir. Any excess power from the grid can be used to pump the water from the lower reservoir back up to the upper reservoir, storing the energy for future use.

The Ffestiniog power station in north-west Wales is a pumped storage power station, one of the fastest-responding power stations in the world, being able to generate up to 360 MW of power on demand.

Pumped storage power stations do not have response times and capacity requirements like other power stations; however, they are not as efficient. The Ffestiniog power station uses water back up to the upper reservoir than it generates when the water falls.

There are other ways to store energy. One such method is thermal energy storage, which stores thermal energy in media such as water or molten salts. These can hold energy for long periods of time and are commonly used in conjunction with solar power generation to spread out the power output over a 24-hour period.

Flywheels

A flywheel is essentially a large disc with the majority of its mass concentrated on its outermost section. The disc is rotated by a driving shaft, say from a turbine, storing the energy as rotational kinetic energy. Due to the conservation of angular momentum, the flywheel will continue to rotate, only losing a little energy due to frictional forces. The energy can be withdrawn through the rotating shaft when needed, reducing the angular speed of the flywheel. The kinetic energy stored in a flywheel is given by:

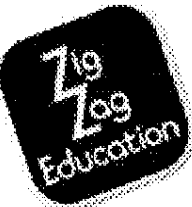
$$E = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$$

E – Energy
I – Moment of Inertia
 ω – Angular speed
m – mass in outermost section of flywheel

Flywheels are commonly used in mechanical applications such as steam or petrol engines. The energy generated by such engines comes in bursts with periods of no power. The flywheel stores and releases the generated energy, spreading the power out during each cycle. This makes the overall power output of the engine smoother and easier to apply.

For more rotational mechanics, look at the content of topic 3.11, engineering physics.

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Batteries

A battery is a device that stores energy. So technically, the flywheel and pumped storage types of batteries; they store mechanical and gravitational energy. The typical battery is of the electrical type.

An electrical battery is a chemical store of energy. Batteries come in two types:

1. **Primary** – the battery is produced fully charged and it can immediately output energy but is discarded once it's completely discharged.
2. **Secondary** – the battery has to be charged before its first use. These batteries can be recharged as their electrochemical reactions are reversible.

Lithium-ion batteries are the most common as they are much more efficient. The higher the energy density of a battery, the better it is. This is why **lithium-ion batteries** are the most common type of electrochemical batteries currently available.

A lithium-ion cell is constructed of an anode (positive terminal) and cathode (negative terminal) suspended in salt solution containing lithium ions (called the electrolyte). When the anode and cathode are connected via a circuit, the lithium ions will be attracted to the cathode, causing the cathode to become positively charged. Electrons then flow through the external circuit to this positive cathode until the battery is completely discharged. Applying a current in the reverse direction to the cell (electrons flow into anode) causes the lithium ions to flow back to the anode, recharging the cell once more.

Battery technology has drastically improved in recent years, resulting in applications for portable batteries and power grid storage becoming ever more popular. In the UK, a company was awarded a contract to build a battery storage facility under the enhanced frequency response (EFR) contract. The first completed project was E.ON's Blackburn Meadow battery storage facility, which can supply the national grid with power in less than a second. Pumped storage solutions. Many of these projects have caused the national grid capacity to increase, rising from 2.5 GW in early 2017 to 8 GW at the end of 2017.

The future of batteries will see the incorporation of metamaterials such as graphene. Scientists at Harvard University have developed an electrochemical system that can store large amounts of energy between 2D layers of graphene. The graphene provides a low-resistance pathway for the anode to cathode, increasing the ion capacity of the battery; therefore, increasing the charge capacity of the battery (<https://phys.org/news/2018-06-physics-batteries>). Other ions, such as magnesium ions, could also be the future of batteries. Magnesium is an area of research because they have a theoretical energy density by volume that's 50 % greater than lithium.

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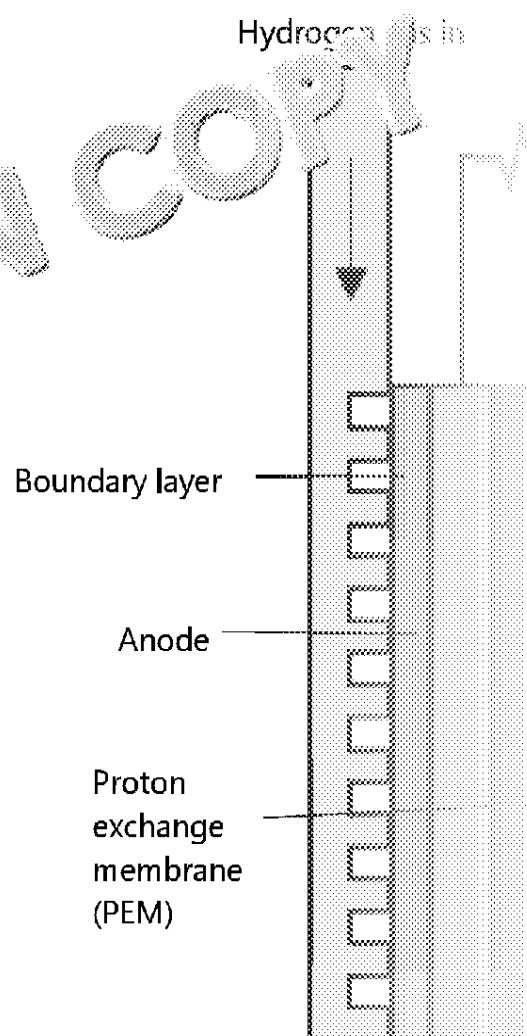


Hydrogen fuel cells

Standard combustion engines use fossil fuels and release harmful gases into the environment. An alternative to fossil fuels is **hydrogen fuel cells**.

The fuel is simply hydrogen gas, H_2 that mixes with oxygen from the air. The result is generated electricity, some dissipated heat, and water vapour; nothing harmful there.

A **catalyst** in the form of a layer next to the electrodes uses the hydrogen molecules to split into hydrogen ions (two protons) and two electrons. The **proton exchange membrane (PEM)** only allows protons (i.e. hydrogen ions) to pass through, and not electrons. The ions pass through the PEM to the cathode (to react with the oxygen atoms), making the cathode positively charged (similar to a lithium cell). Electrons are attracted to flow around the external circuit, doing work as they do, and then neutralise the hydrogen ions, which react with oxygen atoms to form water vapour.



Hydrogen fuel cells are much more efficient than standard combustion engines and the production of hydrogen gas is less harmful compared to extracting fossil fuels. However, the current market seems to favour charging and superpower electrical vehicles, rather than hydrogen fuel cells.

Capacitors

A capacitor is a quick way to store electrical energy. Two electrodes are separated by an insulator, creating an electric field for a short time. The capacitor is charged when a potential difference across the capacitor reaches a critical point, where it then discharges. The capacitance (the amount of charge it can hold) is measured in farads, F, and a typical capacitor has a capacitance that can hold charge for several seconds.

Supercapacitors have a much higher capacitance (10 F to 100 F) compared to typical capacitors. They can hold charge for much longer, too, bridging the temporal gap between capacitors and batteries in quick charge/discharge applications, such as regenerative braking or static random access memory.

Computers use **random access memory (RAM)** to temporarily store information while running programs or calculations, similar to short-term memory in humans. Most RAM in computers will be **dynamic random access memory (DRAM)** which uses normal capacitors. Due to the short discharge time of these capacitors, the information stored would be quickly lost. Therefore, DRAM uses a separate refresh circuit to keep the information stored. **Static random access memory (SRAM)** instead uses supercapacitors which can hold information for much longer. A separate refresh circuit is, therefore, not needed, which makes the RAM much faster to respond.

The principle of regenerative braking is to store the kinetic energy of a moving car in a flywheel. This kinetic energy can be used to power the car when it starts, increasing the overall efficiency of the system. The electric motors on the car can absorb the kinetic energy generated by the flywheel, allowing the car to start. **Kinetic energy storage** is also installed in cars at the 2009 Formula One in 2009. The energy is stored in a flywheel or a capacitor and discharged in later acceleration.

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Comprehension questions

- 1. Other than pumped storage, name one way energy is stored and later used by
- 2. A flywheel has a radius of 25 cm and a mass in the outermost region of 13.5 kg. Calculate the kinetic energy of the flywheel if it's spun to an angular speed of 283 rad s^{-1} .
- 3. Describe how flywheels aid petrol and steam engines.
- 4. Describe the difference between DRAM and SRAM.

Discussion

A private company wants to generate its own electricity on-site to completely disconnect from the grid. It will generate its power using an array of solar panels and a wind turbine. The power output from these sources varies a lot and doesn't match their requirements. They need to consider what are available to the company and decide which solution is the best.

Extension

Prepare a two-minute presentation to explain what a hydrogen fuel cell is and how it works to your classmates. To aid with the explanation, draw a diagram of a hydrogen fuel cell and label its parts.

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Mark Scheme

Article	Question	
When Particles Collide	1	<p>First calculate the force (acting on the proton):</p> $F = \frac{qV}{d}$ $F = \frac{(1.60 \times 10^{-19})}{(3.5 \times 10^{-4})}$ $F = 2.057 \times 10^{-16}$ <p>Then use Newton's second law to find the acceleration:</p> $a = \frac{F}{m}$ $a = \frac{2.057 \times 10^{-16}}{1.67 \times 10^{-27}}$ $a = 1.23 \times 10^{11} \text{ m/s}^2$
	2	They are cheap and easy to build and maintain particle accelerators.
	3	A charged particle moving in the presence of a magnetic field experiences a force. This force (due to Fleming's left-hand rule) is perpendicular to the direction of motion of the charged particle, acting like a centripetal force, causing the particle to move in a circular path.
	4	Protons are injected through Linac2 and into the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS). They are then accelerated to 1.4 GeV until being injected into the Large Hadron Collider (LHC). The LHC accelerates them to 6.5 TeV before finally colliding them into the ATLAS and CMS detectors. The LHC has a circumference of 27 km and the protons have an energy of 6.5 TeV.
	5	<p>Points that could be discussed:</p> <p>Advantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• large amount of funding• wide range of expertise• central place of work allows quick communication <p>Disadvantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Scientists and engineers need to relocate.• Political influences between involved nations.• There may be difficulty in deciding where to build the collider.• Individual projects can only use the equipment for a limited time.
What's the Antimatter with You?	1	<p>Einstein's relation between energy and mass is:</p> $E^2 = m^2c^4 + p^2c^2$ <p>Which if we square root gives:</p> $E = \pm \sqrt{m^2c^4 + p^2c^2}$ <p>A square root can have positive or negative solutions. The energy cannot be negative because of the symmetrical nature of the equation.</p>
	2	<p>An antiparticle is the combination of a particle and its antiparticle. The annihilation of the particles and the release of gamma photons propagating in opposite directions (to conserve momentum). The energy of the gamma photons is equal to the rest mass energy of the particles (by $E = mc^2$).</p>
	3	Containing the antimatter before it annihilates is normally done by slowing the antimatter down using strong magnetic fields.

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Article	Question	Answer
What's the Antimatter with You?	4	The results are accurate to 1 part in 1 billion. The measurements taken, one of the measurement measurements. Therefore, the 90% and 99% measurements give us high confidence in the theory. b. measurements that match theory, so certainly!
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: • Potential use as research into antimatter • Use as a fuel for power generation / rockets • Compare to other energy resources • Potential use as a weapon, and consequent hands • Enforcing laws on the use and production
Neutrino, Pussycat?	1	Reacts with a proton in water, which is then observed (cadmium), which releases a gamma ray which travels through a medium than light does, and creates a shockwave like a 'sonic boom'.
	2	The Sun only produces electron neutrinos via fusion. Neutrinos oscillate between muon and tau neutrinos. If all three types are detected, so only around a third of the original number are detected.
	3	Neutrinos would be their own antiparticles. Lepton number is conserved in all interactions, which could explain why there is more matter than antimatter in the universe.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: • Neutrinos aren't considered matter-antimatter. • They can pass through billions of years of space time without interacting. • They can travel long distances without being absorbed. • They are produced in large quantities by high-energy events (like supernovae). • They can give information about gravitational waves or dark matter.
Schrödinger's Cat to the Quantum World	1	Electromagnetic radiation is a wave, so can interfere constructively or destructively interference. When it's confined to a small space, only certain wavelengths survive and be the only wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation that survive, hence the quantization of energy levels in the confined space.
	2	It states that the system is simultaneously in all possible states until an observation, such as a measurement, is made on it.
	3	The analogy describes the state of a cat that is both alive and dead. It is only when the state of the cat is determined (by observation) that it becomes either alive or dead. The analogy applies to quantum mechanics, which says that particles exist in all possible states at once until they are observed. Once observed, it falls into one state. So, if a cat is both alive and dead, it's either one or the other, we can see it or not.



Article	Question	Answer
Gateway to the Quantum World	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none">For larger systems, all aspects of the system with each other.This is essentially an 'collapse' as the wave function collapses the wave function into a larger state.Quantum effects cancel out at larger scales.Quantum effects only apply to very small scales.Effects can be seen (certain experiments have shown quantum effects)Quantum mechanics is very well studied, so with larger-scale observations for the above
	1	A metamaterial is a material that goes beyond normal materials. This typically means it manipulates electromagnetic radiation, resulting in effects like
	2	8–13 μm
	3	The Persians would fill a shallow bath with water. The ambient temperatures in the desert at night (lack of clouds), which would cause the water to radiate heat into the atmosphere. The shallow water would radiate heat into the atmosphere. Infrared radiation emitted is barely absorbed by water past its freezing point.
	4	A negative refractive index means the component of the wave parallel to the boundary is reflected, causing the wave to bend back in one direction. This is achieved by using a material with a negative refractive index, such as a metamaterial.
Metamaterials	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none">using metamaterials to create invisibility cloaksusing metamaterials to create heat shieldsusing metamaterials to create heat shields for Sun-facing satelliteskeeping fresh produce from farms coolextra layer on thermos flasks to keep drinks hot
	1	e.g. the San Andreas fault line
	2	$E > 10^{12} \times 7.5 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$ $E > 5.6 \times 10^{18} \text{ J}$
	3	The amplitude of the seismic waves as they are generated (lose their energy) as they propagate through a medium. The amplitude of a seismic wave, the further it is from the source.
	4	The use of satellites that are sensitive to the electromagnetic spectrum will result in the detection of earthquakes. This will allow the affected area to properly prepare, potentially saving millions of lives.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Research into geoseismology can increase our understanding of earthquakes, potentially saving a lot of lives.Geoseismology can help develop better earthquake-resistant buildings as the way buildings are designed and constructed.Researching helioseismology could help develop better systems against solar flares. These solar flares can be detected by satellites, including the satellites that predict solar flares.Studying helioseismology could help us understand the internal structure of the sun, solving our energy needs.



Article	Question	Answer
Laser Focus	1	A gain medium has more excited atoms than of photon with the right energy will cause an electron to its ground state, emitting another photon, the emission. These photons cause more photons to be emitted, resulting in a chain reaction. The gain medium is a medium in which the photons pass through. It is the amplification of light in the gain medium.
	2	Either oxygen is used to help burn the material being cut, or nitrogen is used to push the excess material away to be disposed of.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> SSDs will replace optical discs for information storage, replacing tape. Use of CDs, DVDs and Blu-ray will diminish as data is wirelessly downloaded. Storage of information at the site it is used, as cloud services become ever more popular. An advantage of using SSDs and cloud services is the reduced risk of loss of data due to mechanical failure. A disadvantage of using cloud services over having so much information stored in one place is the risk of data being lost or stolen.
Imaging the Invisible	1	For a simple set-up to photograph interference in a double-slit apparatus will be needed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a camera a laser as a point source of light a double-slit or a diffraction grating a parabolic mirror
	2	It allows the engineers to see minute differences in surface, help the engineers design aerofoils or other aerodynamic shapes to perform as they require.
	3	Quantum tunnelling is the effect of a quantum particle moving through a potential energy barrier. This has an associated wave function that is related to the probability of the particle at a particular position. The wave function is further away from the particle's expected position, the wave function of the particle spills over the barrier, the chance of finding the particle on the other side of the barrier is non-zero, the particle has tunneled through the barrier.
	4	Capillary forces are created by a meniscus, a bubble of gas (such as water and air), that creates an attractive force between objects it is connected to. These forces can be used in the experiment entirely in a liquid, such as water, where the water is the medium.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Scanning probe microscopy (SPM) can image the roughness and defects of surfaces. Scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) can image the conductive properties of surfaces and design nanostructures. STM can manipulate single atoms, so can be used to build and test new materials. STM can be used to design, build and test new semiconductors. AFMs can analyse non-conducting objects, such as crystals of amino acids. Imaging the nano-sized biological objects can lead to a better understanding and even cures for diseases.

Article	Question	Answer
Optical fibres	1	
	2	<p>A multi-mode fibre, because multi-mode fibres will experience effects from modal dispersion and any one of the following:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Intermodal dispersion: Different modes travel at different speeds, which is why single-mode fibres remove this type of dispersion. Single-mode fibres are more expensive, however, so the cheaper multi-mode fibre is used for transmission. Chromatic dispersion: Different frequencies (colours, although this also applies to EM radiation outside part of the spectrum) travel at different speeds. Chromatic dispersion can be sub-divided into two other types of dispersion: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Material dispersion: The refractive index of the fibre material depends on the frequency of light travelling through it. Waveguide dispersion: The way the fibre is made makes the waveguide properties of the fibre depend on the frequency of light travelling through the material. <p>A pulse of light will have a range of frequencies, meaning the pulse spreads out with time, meaning the information, as in today's signal transmission, has to overlap, which becomes a problem. To avoid this, at 60–70 km intervals along a fibre to remove this chromatic dispersive effect, a device called a dispersion compensator (coherent light with the same frequency and phase) is used.</p>
	4	1550 nm, because this wavelength experiences the least loss in silica, meaning a signal can travel further down the fibre.
	Discussion	<p>Points that could be discussed:</p> <p>Advantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> no risk of damage or breakage due to anchoring can constantly change direction of travel <p>Disadvantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> difficult and costly to install and maintain can be damaged from radiation and objects
Big Engineering: The International Space Station	2	it was an international media event because the debris falling on populated areas.
	3	The US orbital section, USOS, and the Russian Orbital Service Module, Zvezda.
	6	that 2 failed during its launch.

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Article	Question	Answer
	4	Any two from: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bones become less dense. Humans grow a few inches taller. Muscles start to waste away. Red blood cell production decreases. Immune systems weaken.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human travel in space allows us to inhabit other planets. The longer we can get humans to survive in space, the more we can send humans. It gives us access to planets/asteroids with resources such as metals that are rare here on Earth. By sending humans into space we reduce the risk of becoming extinct (due to global disasters, etc.). Research could help understand and develop new technologies potentially saving lives here on Earth. The increase in funding for the research on space exploration expands the space industry.
Fluid Dynamics: Going with the Flow	1	The continuity equation, three Navier–Stokes equations, and the Bernoulli equation.
	2	$Re = \frac{\rho v_0 l_0}{\eta}$
	3	$F_D = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 A C_D$ $F_D = \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 1.2 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000\right) \times 1000$ $F_D = 5.7 \times 10^1 \text{ N}$
	4	The flow of the incoming air into two parts: one part travels over the foil, the other travels underneath. These parts must meet at the same time. The top of the foil is curved, so the air travelling over the top must travel faster than the air travelling under the foil. This means that the faster a fluid travels, the lower the pressure. This creates a pressure difference on the top of the foil and high pressure on the bottom, creating an upward force called upthrust.
	Discussion	Points that could be discussed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An exact solution isn't needed to gain insight into the flow of a fluid system. Techniques developed for one chaotic system can be applied to other chaotic systems. An exact solution may be possible, it just hasn't been found yet. The information learnt from studying chaotic systems can be used in many areas/industries. The computational power required for these calculations is huge, so purpose/application for powerful computer systems is needed for these calculations and future technologies.
It's Not Exactly Rocket Science	1	$T = (v + v_0) \left(\frac{dm}{dr} \right)$ $T = (0 + 1200)(75)$ $T = 9 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$
	2	Any one from: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $AC + BC = \text{constant}$ where A and B are the vertices of the ellipse The distance between the centre of the ellipse and a focus is $e \times a$, where e is the eccentricity of the ellipse
	3	Periapsis and apoapsis respectively

Article	Question	Answer
	4	$v = \sqrt{GM \left(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a} \right)}$ $v = \sqrt{G(5.97 \times 10^{24}) \left(\frac{2}{(2.06 \times 10^7)} - \frac{1}{2.06 \times 10^7} \right)}$ $v = 2.66 \times 10^4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$
	Discussion	<p>Points that could be discussed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> More efficient rockets (drive by basic busin space cheaper. A quicker turnaround of rockets makes mo becomes much more regular, leading to m Competition in the space industry drives m developed. Advertisements in space or on a mission to or importance that space or the mission to Expanding the space industry to many priv universal standards being lost, although thi
Special Effects	1	Galilean relativity (all non-accelerating referenc Maxwell's equations (giving a fixed value for c). time slows down and speeds up depending on always travels at c through a vacuum.
	2	$t' = \frac{t}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$ $t = \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} t' = \sqrt{1 - \frac{(3.0 \times 10^{-9})^2}{(3.0 \times 10^8)^2}} \times \sqrt{1 - \frac{(3.0 \times 10^{-9})^2}{(3.0 \times 10^8)^2}}$ $t = 536 \text{ ns}$ <p>For the observer, the time it takes for the muon because of time dilation, and for the muon only For the muon, the Earth is travelling at relativistic covers through the atmosphere is contracted, so whole atmosphere in its lifetime.</p>
	Discussion	<p>Points that could be discussed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> particle accelerators medical imaging mass spectrometry GPS high-precision equipment where even a sm timing can have a big effect
Energy Storage	1	Thermal energy storage in media such as water
	2	$I = mr^2$ $I = 13.5 \times 0.25^2$ $I = 0.844 \text{ kg m}^2$ $E = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$ $E = \frac{1}{2} \times 0.844 \times 28$ $E = 3.4 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$ <p>The flywheel stores and releases the generated spreading the power out during each cycle. This output of the engine smoother and easier to tr</p>
	4	DRAM uses a refresher circuit to keep the store whereas SRAM uses supercapacitors which can longer, removing the need for a refresher circu

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Article	Question	Answer
Energy Storage	Discussion	<p>Points that could be discussed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The company could use a miniature pump• They could use large flywheel• They could use battery as has been used• They could use hydrogen fuel cells.• Industrial sized batteries make most sense <p>As the cost of storage can be sufficiently argued</p>



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