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Tides and Eclipses

Your life on earth involves many orbital paths:

- The earth is spinning. If you are standing at the equator, you are traveling at 1,674 km per hour around the center of the planet. We are all spinning east, which is why the sun comes up in the east and sets in the west.
- The earth is orbiting the sun. It takes 365.242 days for the earth to go once around the sun. This is why different constellations appear at different times during the year we only see the stars at night and the direction of night shifts as the earth moves around the sun.
- The moon is orbiting the earth. The moon travels once around the earth once every 27.3 days.

You can see the effects of these orbits on our planet. Let's go over a few.

1.1 Leap Years

Note that it takes 365.242 days for the earth to go around the sun. If we declared "The calendar will *always* be 365 days per year!" then the seasons would gradually shift by 0.242 days every year. After a century, they would have migrated 24 days.

So, we made a rule: "Every fourth year, we will add an extra day to the calendar!" The years 2021, 2022, and 2023 get no February 29th, but 2024 does.

That got us a calendar with an average 365.25 days per year, so the seasons would not have migrated as quickly, but they still would have migrated about three days every four hundred years.

So, we made another rule: "There will be no February 29th in the three century years (multiples of 100) that are not multiples of 400." So the year 1900 had no Feb 29, but the year 2000 had one. Now, the average number of days per year is 365.2425.

1.2 Phases of the Moon

The earth, the moon, and the sun form a triangle. If you were standing on the moon, you could measure the angle between the light coming from the sun and the the light going to the earth. That angle would fluctuate between 0 degrees and 180 degrees.

- When the angle was close to 0, the people on earth would see a full moon.
- When the angle was close to 90 degrees, the people on earth would see a half moon.
- When the angle was nearing 180 degrees, the people on earth would see a slim crescent.
- When the angle was very close to 180 degrees, the moon would be dark. This is called a "new moon."



Even though it takes 27.3 days for the moon to travel around the earth once, it takes 29.5 days to get from one full moon to the next. Why? In the 27.3 days that it took the moon to travel around the earth, the earth has moved about 17 degrees around the sun. To get back into the same triangle configuration takes another 2.2 days.







To explain why we often see a curve in the shadow of the moon, we can look at a ball that has one side painted yellow and the other red.



As we rotate the ball, we can see that the straight color boundary between each hemisphere begins to look curved. The curve we see in the moon is due to this same basic principle of how the shading of spheres works.

FIXME: Add text about scale In all of these graphics, we have been using incorrect scale. Here is the true scale of the distance of the earth and the moon with accurate radii:

FIXME: Add text about tidal lock



1.3 Eclipses

While the earth orbits the sun and the moon orbits the earth, the two orbits are *not in the same plane*. We call the plane that the earth orbits the sun in the *ecliptic plane*. The plane of the moon's orbit is about 5 degrees tilted from the ecliptic plane.

Note that the moon passes through the ecliptic plane only twice every 27.3 days. Imagine

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that the instant it passed through the ecliptic plane was also the precise instant of a full moon. The sun, the earth, and the moon would be in a straight line! The earth would cast a shadow upon the moon — it would go from a bright full moon to a dark moon until the moon moved back out of the shadow of the earth. This is known as a *lunar eclipse*.



The diameter of the moon is a little more than a quarter the diameter of the earth, so they don't have to be in perfect alignment for the moon to be darkened. Lunar eclipses actually happen once or twice per year.

Now, imagine that the instant the moon passed through the ecliptic plane was also the precise instant of a new moon. The sun, the moon, and the earth would be in a straight line! The moon would cast a shadow upon some part of the earth. To a person in that shadow, the sun disappear behind the moon. This is known as a *solar eclipse*.



The sun is pretty big, so if the moon blots out just part of it, we call it a *partial solar eclipse*. There are a few partial solar eclipses every year. Note that because the moon's shadow

is too small to shade the whole earth, only certain parts of the world will experience any solar eclipses.

Every 18 months or so, there is a total eclipse of the sun. Once again, only certain parts of the world experience it. You can expect to experience a total eclipse of the sun at your home about once every 375 years.



1.4 The Far Side of the Moon

Like the earth, the moon spins on its axis. Due to earth's gravity, the rotation of the moon slowed down until its spin matched the rate it orbits earth. That is: we are always looking at the same side of the moon. Until we orbited the moon, we had no idea what the far side looked like.



Some people call it "The Dark Side of the Moon," but it gets just as much sunshine as the side that faces earth. The name comes from the fact that we lose communication with spacecraft (like the Apollo missions to the moon) when they are on the far side of the moon. When we lose communications with a craft, we often say "It went dark."

1.5 Tides

When we say "The moon orbits the earth," that is a bit of an oversimplification. The force of gravity that pulls the moon toward the earth, also pulls the earth toward the moon. The earth is about 81 times heavier than the moon, so the moon moves more, but the moon definitely moves the earth.

The center of the moon and the center of the rotate around each other. The point they rotate around is inside the the earth, but it is closer to the surface of the earth than it is to the center of the earth.

Orbits happen, remember, when the centripetal force is equal to gravitational force. So the centripetal force created by the earth being swung by the moon is equal to the gravitational force that the moon exerts on all the mass on the moon.

However.

The parts of the earth that are closer to the moon experience less centripetal force (away from the moon) and more gravitational force (toward the moon).

The parts of the earth that are farther from the moon experience more centripetal force (away from the moon) and less gravitational force (away from the moon).

The effects are not big. For example, you won't notice that you can jump higher when the moon is overhead. You will lose only about 1/200,000 of your weight.

But the ocean is huge: 1/200,000 of its weight is a lot of force.

The water in the oceans bulges a little both toward the moon and away from it.

The earth is still rotating. If you are at the beach as your longitude slides into one of these bulges, you say "Hey, the tide is rising!" The peak of these bulges is known as "high tide". Because there is a bulge on each side of the planet, high tide comes twice a day.

This is a lunar tide – because it is caused by the moon. There is a similar effect from the sun, but the sun is very, very far away: solar tidal forces are about half as powerful lunar tidal forces. When the sun and the moon work together, the tides are stronger. This is called a *spring tide*. Spring tides don't happen in the spring time; they happen close to full moons and new moons.

When the moon and the sun are working against each other, the tides are weaker. This is called a *neap tide*. Neap tides happen when you see a half moon in the sky.

1.5.1 Computing the Forces

We are enumerating several forces that shape the water on the planet. All these forces are pulling on your body too. In these exercises, you are going to calculate how each force would effect a 1 kg mass on the surface of the earth.

Here are some numbers you will need:

- The mass of the earth: $5.97219 \times 10^{24} \mbox{ kg}$
- The mass of the sun: 1.9891×10^{30} kg
- The mass of the moon: 7.347673×10^{22} kg
- Radius of the earth at the equator: 6,371 km
- Average distance from the center of the earth to the center of the sun: 149.6×10^6 km
- Average distance from the center of the moon to the center of the earth: 384, 467 km.

Exercise 1 Life Among the Orbits 1: Earth Gravity

Working Space

If the earth were still and alone in the universe, there would still be the force of gravity. We have said that that a kilogram on the surface of the earth is pulled toward the center of the earth with a force of 9.8 N.

Confirm that the gravity of the earth pulls a 1kg mass on the surface of the planet with a force of about 9.8 N.

You will need the formula for gravitation:

$$F_g = \frac{gm_1m_2}{r^2}$$

If we measure distance in km and mass in kg, the gravitation constant g is 6.67430×10^{-17} .

Answer on Page 57

Exercise 2 Life Among the Orbits 2: Earth Centripetal Force

Working Space

What if we add the spinning of the earth? The spinning would try to throw the kg into space. The formula for centripetal force is

$$F_{\rm c} = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

Calculate the centripetal force on a 1 kg mass on the surface of the earth. It doesn't fly off into space, so the force due to gravity must be bigger. How many times bigger?

Assume that the mass is on the equator, thus rotating around the earth at 465 m/s.

Does the centripetal force increase, decrease, or stay the same as you get closer to the north pole?

____ Answer on Page 57

Exercise 3 Life Among the Orbits 3: The Moon's Gravity

Working Space

Now we add the moon's gravitational force to our model.

When the moon is directly overhead, how strongly will it pull at the 1 kg mass on the equator?

When the moon is directly underfoot, how strongly will it pull at the 1 kg mass on the equator?

Is that a big difference?

Answer on Page 57

Exercise 4 Life Among the Orbits 4: The Swing of the Moon

Working Space

Now we add the moon's motion. The moon and the earth swing each other around. This creates a centripetal force. They both travel in nearly a circle centered at their center of mass.

How far is the center of mass of the moon and the earth from the center of the earth? (You can imagine a see-saw with the center of the earth on one end and the center of the moon on the other. Where would the balance point be?)

What point on the surface of the earth is closest to the center of mass? How far is it?

What point on the surface of the earth is farthest from the center of mass? How far is it?

____ Answer on Page 58

Exercise 5 Life Among the Orbits 5: Lunar Centripetal Force

Working Space

The moon swings us around that center of mass once every 27.3 days. (Forget about the spinning of the earth for this part.) What is the largest and smallest centripetal forces on the surface of the earth created by this swinging

What is the largest centripetal force on a 1 kg mass with the moon directly underfoot? (You need an answer from the previous question: There is a point on the surface of the earth that is 11,044,000 m from the center of gravity.)

What is the resulting centripetal force on a 1 kg mass with the moon directly overhead? (You will need the other answer from the previous exercise: That point is 1,698,000 m from the center of mass of the moon and the earth.)

For this problem is probably easier to use this formula for centripetal force:

$$F_c = mr\omega^2$$

Where m is mass in kg, r is radius in m, and ω is the angular velocity in radians per second.

Answer on Page 59

Exercise 6 Life Among the Orbits 6: Net Force



1.5.2 Solar Tidal Forces

The sun has a much larger gravitational effect on the earth than the moon does:

- When the sun is overhead, it will pull on a 1 kg mass with a force of about 0.00593 N.
- When the moon is overhead, it will pull on a 1 kg mass with a force of about 0.0000343 N.

Why are lunar tides about twice as powerful solar tides?

Tides occur because the pull of gravity and the pull of the centripetal force are out of balance somewhere on the planet. The sun is so far away that the effects of gravitational and centripetal forces are very close to equal everywhere on earth.

Chapter 2

Electromagnetic Waves

Sound is a compression wave — to travel, it needs a medium to compress: air, water, etc. (Regardless of what you have seen in movies, sound does not travel through a vacuum!)

Light is an electromagnetic wave — it causes fluctuations in the electric and magnetic fields that are everywhere. It can cross a vacuum, as it does to reach us from the sun.

Electromagnetic waves travel at about 300 million meters per second in a vacuum. The waves travel slower through things. For example, an electromagnetic wave travels at 225 million meters in water.

Electromagnetic waves come in different frequencies. For example, the light coming out of a red laser pointer is usually about 4.75×10^{14} Hz. The wifi data sent by your computer is carried on an electromagnetic wave too. It is usually close to 2.4×10^{6} Hz or 5×10^{6} Hz.

Because we know how fast the waves are moving, we sometimes talk about their wavelengths instead of their frequencies. The light coming out of a laser pointer is $300 \times 10^{6}/4.76 \times 10^{14} = 630 \times 10^{-9}$ m, or 630 nm.

Exercise 7 Wavelengths

A green laser pointer emits light at 5.66× 10¹⁴ Hz. What is its wavelength in a vacuum?

We have given names to different ranges of the electromagnetic spectrum:

Name	Hertz	Meters
Gamma rays	×10	×10
X-rays	×10	×10
Ultraviolet	×10	×10
Blue	×10	×10
Red	×10	×10
Infrared	×10	×10
Microwaves	×10	×10
Radio waves	×10	×10

(You may have heard of "cosmic rays" and wonder why they are not listed in this table. Cosmic rays are actually the nuclei of atoms that have been stripped of their electron cloud. These particles come flying out of the sun at very high speeds. They were originally thought to be electromagnetic waves, and were mistakenly named "rays".)

In general, the lower frequency the wave is, the better it passes through a mass. A radio wave, for example, can pass through the walls of your house, but visible light cannot. The people who designed the microwave oven chose the frequency of 2.45 GHz because the energy from those waves tended to get absorbed in the first few inches of food that it passed through.

2.1 The greenhouse effect

Humans have dug up a bunch of long carbon-based molecules (like oil and coal) and burned them, releasing large amounts of CO_2 into the atmosphere. It may not be obvious why that has made the planet warmer, but the answer is electromagnetic waves.

A warm object gives off infrared electromagnetic waves. That's why, for example, motion detectors in security systems are actually infrared detectors: even in a dark room, your body gives off a lot of infrared radiation.

You may have heard of "heat-seeking missiles." These are more accurately called "Infrared homing missiles" because they follow objects giving off infrared radiation – hot things like jet engines.

The sun beams a lot of energy to our planet in the form of electromagnetic radiation: visible light, infrared, ultraviolet. (How much? At the top of the atmosphere directly facing the sun, we get 1,360 watts of radiation per square meter. That is a lot of power!)

Some of that radiation just reflects back into space. 23% is reflected by the clouds and the atmosphere, while 7% makes it all the way to the surface of the planet and is reflected back into space.

The other 71% is absorbed. 48% is absorbed by the surface and 23% is absorbed by the atmosphere. All of that energy warms the planet and the atmosphere so that it gives

off infrared radiation. The planet lives in equilibrium; the infrared radiation leaving our atmosphere is exactly the same amount of energy as that 71% of the radiation that it absorbs.

(If the planet absorbs more energy than it releases, the planet gets hotter. Hotter things release more infrared. When the planet is in equilibrium again, it stops getting hotter.)

So, what is the problem with CO_2 and other large molecules in the atmosphere? They absorb the infrared radiation instead of letting it escape into space. This means the planet must be hotter to maintain equilibrium.





The planet is getting hotter, and it is creating a multitude of problems:

- Weather patterns are changing, which leads to extreme floods and droughts.
- Ice and snow in places like Greenland are melting and flowing into the oceans. This is raising sea levels.
- Biomes with biodiversity are resilient. Rapidly changing climate is destroying biodiversity everywhere, which is making these ecosystems very fragile.
- In many places, permafrost, which has trapped large amounts of methane in the ground for millenia, is melting.

That last item is particularly scary, because methane is a large gas molecule — it absorbs even more infrared radiation than CO_2 . As it escapes the permafrost, the problem will get worse.

Scientists are working on four kinds of solutions:

- Stop increasing the amount of greenhouse gases in our atmosphere. It is hoped that non-carbon based energy systems like solar, wind, hydroelectric, and nuclear could let us stop burning carbon. Given the methane already being released, it maybe too late for this solution to work on its own.
- Take some of greenhouse gases out of our atmosphere and sequester them somewhere. The trunk of a tree is largely made up of carbon molecules. When you grow a tree where there had not been one before, you are sequestering carbon inside the tree. There are also scientists that are trying to develop a process that pulls greenhouse gases out of the air and turn them into solids.
- Decrease the amount of solar radiation that is absorbed by our planet and its atmosphere. Clouds reflect a lot of radiation back into space. Could we increase the cloudiness of our atmosphere? Or maybe launch mirrors into orbit around our planet?
- Adapt to the changing climate. These scientists are assuming that global warming

will continue, and are working to minimize future human suffering. How will we relocate a billion people as the oceans claim their homes? When massive heat waves occur, how will we keep people from dying? As biodiversity decreases, how can we make sure that species that are important to human existence survive?

What are the greenhouse gases and how much does each contribute to keeping the heat from exiting to space? These numbers are still being debated, but this will give you a feel:

Water vapor	H ₂ O	36 - 72 %
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	9 - 26 %
Methane	CH4	4 - 9 %
Ozone	O ₃	3 - 7 %

Notice that while we talk a lot about carbon dioxide, the most important greenhouse gas is actually water. Why don't we talk about it? Given the enormous surfaces of the oceans, it is difficult to imagine any way to permanently decrease the amount of water in the air. Additionaly, a great deal of water in the air is in the form of clouds, which help reflect radiation before it is absorbed.

CHAPTER 3

How Cameras Work

Let's say it is a sunny day and you are standing in a field a few meters from a cow. You use the camera on your phone to take a picture of the cow. How does that whole process work?



3.1 The Light That Shines On the Cow

The sun is a sphere of hot gas. About 70% of the gas is hydrogen. About 28% is helium. There's also a little carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen.

Gradually, the sun is converting hydrogen into helium through a process known as "nuclear fusion" (which we will be discussing more in a future chatper). A large amount of

heat is created in this process. This heat makes the gases glow.

How does heat make things glow? The heat pushes the electrons into higher orbitals. When they come back down to a lower orbital, they release a photon of energy, which travels away from the atom as an electromagnetic wave.



Heat is not the only way to push the electrons into a higher orbital. For example, a fluorescent lightbulb is filled with gas. When we pass electricity through the gas, its electrons are moved to a higher orbital. When they fall, light is created.

What is the frequency of the wave that the photon travels on? Depending on what orbital it falls from and how far it falls, the photon created has different amounts of energy. The amount of energy determines the frequency of the electromagnetic wave.

Formula for enegy of a photon

If you want to know the amount of energy E in a photon, here is the formula:

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

where c is the speed of light, λ is the wavelength of the electromagnetic wave, and h Planck's constant: $6.63 \times 10^{-34} m^2 kg/s$

For example, a red laser light has a wavelength of about 630 nm. So, the energy in each photon is:

$$\frac{(300 \times 10^6)(6.63 \times 10^{-34})}{630 \times 10^{-9}} = 3.1 \times 10^{-19} \text{ joules}$$

In the sun, there are several kinds of molecules and each has a few different orbitals that the electrons can live in. Thus, the light coming from the sun is made up of electromagnetic waves of many different frequencies.

We can see some of these frequencies as different colors, but some are invisible to humans, such as ultraviolet and infrared.

3.2 Light Hits the Cow

When these photons from the sun hit the cow, the hide and hairs of the cow will absorb some of the photons. These photons will become heat and make the cow feel warm. Some of the photons will not be absorbed – they will leave the cow. When you say "I see the cow," what you are really saying is "I see some photons that were not absorbed by the cow."



Different materials absorb different amounts of each wavelength. A plant, for example, absorbs a large percentage of all blue and red photons that hit it, but it absorbs only a small percentage of the green photons that hit it. Thus, we say "That plant is green."

White things absorb very small percentages of photons of any visible wavelength. Black things absorb very *large* percentages of photons of any visible wavelength.

Before we go on, let's review: The sun creates photons that travel as electromagnetic waves of assorted wavelengths to the cow. Many of those photons are absorbed, but some are not. Some of those photons that are not absorbed go into the lens of our camera.

3.3 Pinhole camera

The simplest cameras have no lenses. They are just a box. The box has a tiny hole that allows photons to enter. The side of the box opposite the hole is flat and covered with film or some other photo-sensitive material.

The photons entering the box continue in the same direction they were going when they passed through the hole. Thus, the photons that entered from high hit the back wall at a low point. The photons that came from the left hit the back wall on the right. This is how the image is projected onto the back wall, rotated 180 degrees; what was up is down, what was on the left is on the right.



Exercise 8 Height of the image

Working Space

FIXME: cow swap

Let's say that that the pinhole is exactly the same height as the shoulder of the cow, and that the shoulder is directly above one hoof. This means the pinhole, the shoulder, and the hoof form a right triangle.

Now, let's say that the camera is being held perpendicular to the ground. The pinhole, the image of the shoulder, and the image of the hoof on the back wall of the camera now also form a right triangle.

These two triangles are similar.

The shoulder is 2 meters from the hoof. The cow is standing 3 meters from the camera. The distance from the pinhole to the back wall of the camera is 3 cm. How tall is the image of the cow on the back wall of the camera?

Answer on Page 60

3.4 Lenses

Now, a quick review: A photon leaves the sun in some random direction. It travels 150 million km from the sun and hits a cow. It is not absorbed by the cow, and heads off in a new direction. It passes through the pinhole and hits the back wall of the camera. That seems incredibly improbable, right?

It actually is relatively improbable, especially if there isn't a lot of light — like you are taking the picture at dusk. To increase the odds, we added a *lens* to the camera.

If you focus a lens on a wall and you draw a dot on that wall, the lens is designed such that all the photons from the dot that hit the lens get redirected to the same spot on the back wall of the camera — regardless of which path it took to get to the lens.



Note that the image still gets flipped. There is a *focal point* that all the photons pass through.



The distance from the lens to its focal point is called the lens's *focal length*. Telephoto lenses, that let you take big pictures of things that are far away, have long focal lengths. Wide-angle lenses have short focal lengths.

3.5 Sensors

The camera on your phone has a sensor on the back wall of the camera. The sensor is broken up into tiny rectangular regions called pixels. When you say a sensor is 6000 by 4000 pixels, we are saying the sensor is a grid of 24,000,000 pixels: 6000 pixels wide and 4000 pixels tall.

Each pixel has three types of cavities that take in photos. One of the cavities measures the amount of short wavelength light, like blues and violets. One of the cavities measures the long wavelength light, like reds and oranges. One of the cavities measures the intensity of wavelengths in the middle, like greens.

Thus, if your camera has a resolution of 6000×4000 , the image is 72,000,000 numbers: Every one of the 24,000,000 pixels yeilds three numbers: intensity of long wavelength, mid wavelength, and long wavelength light. We call these numbers "RGB" for Red, Green, and Blue.

CHAPTER 4

How Eyes Work

Dr. Craig Blackwell has made a great video on the mechanics of the eye. You should watch it: https://youtu.be/Z8asc2SfFHM

Mechanically, your eye works a lot like a camera. The eye is a sphere with two lenses on the front: The outer lens is called the *cornea*, while the second lens is simply called "the lens."

Between the two lenses is an aperture that opens wide when there is very little light, and closes very small when there is bright light. The opening is called the *pupil* and the tissue that forms the pupil is called the *iris*. When people talk about the color of your eyes, they are talking about the color of your iris. The blackness at the center of your iris is your pupil.

There are two types of photoreceptor cells in your retina: rods and cones. The rods are more sensitive; in very dark conditions, most of our vision is provided by the rods. The cones are used when there is plenty of light, and they let us see colors.



The white part around the outside of the eyeball? That is called the *sclera*.



The walls of the eye are lined inside with the *retina*, which has sensors that pick up the light and send impulses down the optic nerve to your brain.

Just like a camera, the images are flipped when they get projected on the back of the eye.

4.1 Eye problems

Now that you know the mechanics of the eye, let's go over a few things that commonly go wrong with the eye.

4.1.1 Glaucoma

The space between your cornea and lens is filled with a fluid called *aqueous humor*. To feed the cells of the cornea and lens, the aqueous humor carries oxygen and nutrients like blood would, but unlike blood, it is transparent so you can see. Aqueous humor is constantly being pumped into and out of that chamber. If aqueous humor has trouble exiting, the pressure builds up and can damage the eye. This is known as *glaucoma*.

4.1.2 Cataracts

The lens should be clear. As a person ages, the proteins in the lens break down and clump together, becoming opaque. This can also be accelerated by diabetes, too much exposure to sunlight, obesity, and high blood pressure. From the outside, the eye will look cloudy. This is called a *cataract*, and it makes it difficult for the person to see.

This problem can be corrected, however. The person's cloudy lens is removed and replaced with a clear, manufactured lens.



4.1.3 Nearsightedness, farsightedness, and astigmatism

If you are in a dark room and a tiny LED is turned on, the photons from that LED can pass through your cornea in many different places. If your eye is focusing on that light correctly, all the photons should meet up at the same place on the retina.

FIXME: Diagram here

If the lenses are bending the light too much, the photons meet up before they hit the retina and get smeared a bit across it. To the person, the LED would appear blurry. The eye is said to be *nearsighted* or *myopic*.

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If the lenses are not bending it enough, the photons would meet up behind the retina. Once again, they get smeared a bit across the retina and the LED looks blurry to the person. The eye is said to be *farsighted* or *hyperoptic*.

Your lenses are supposed to bend the photons the same amount vertically and horizontally. If one dimension is focused, but the other is myopic or hyperoptic, the eye is said to have *astigmatism*.

Myopia, hyperoptia, and astigmatism can be corrected with glasses or contact lenses. Doctors can also do surgical corrections, usually by changing the shape of the cornea.



4.2 Seeing colors

TED-Ed has made a good video on how we see color. Watch it here: https://youtu.be/ 18_fZPHasdo

When a rainbow forms, you are seeing different wavelengths separating from each other. In the rainbow:

- Red is about 650 nm.
- Orange is about 600 nm.
- Yellow is about 580 nm.

- Green is about 550 nm.
- Cyan is about 500 nm.
- Blue is about 450 nm.
- Violet is about 400 nm.



If you shine a light with a wavelength of 580 nm on a white piece of paper, you will see yellow.

However, if you shine two lights with wavelengths of 650 nm (red) and 550 nm (green), you will also see yellow.

Why? Our ears can hear two different frequencies at the same time. Why can't our eyes see two colors in the same place?

As mentioned above, the cone photoreceptors in our eyes let us see colors. There are three

kinds of cones:

- Blue: Cones that are most sensitive to frequencies near 450nm.
- Green: Cones that are most sensitive to frequencies near 550nm.
- Red: Cones that let us see the frequencies up to about 700nm.

When a wavelength of 580 nm hits your retina, it excites the red and green receptors, and your brain interprets that mix as yellow.

Similarly, when light that contains both 650 nm and 550 nm waves hits your retina, it excites the red and green receptors, and your brain interprets that mix as yellow.

You can't tell the difference!

Now we know why the sensors on the camera are RGB. The camera is recording the scene as closely as necessary to fool your eye.

A TV or a color computer monitor only has three colors of pixels: red, green, and blue. By controlling the mix of them, it creates the sensation of thousands of colors to your eye.

4.3 **Pigments**

A color printer works in the opposite fashion. Instead of radiating colors, it puts pigments on the paper that absorb certain frequencies. A pigment that absorbs only frequencies near 650 nm (red) will appear to your eye as cyan. This makes sense, because the sensation of cyan is created when your blue and green receptors are activated.

Thus, pigment colors come in:

- Cyan: absorbs frequencies around red
- Magenta: absorbs freqencies around green
- Yellow: absorbs frequencies around blue

If you buy ink for a color printer, you know there is typically a fourth ink: black. If you put cyan, magenta, and yellow pigments on paper, the mix won't absorb all the visible spectrum in a consistent manner. Our eyes are pretty sensitive to this, so we would see brown. This is why we add black ink to get pretty grays and blacks.

We call this approach to color CMYK (as opposed to RGB). If an artist is creating an image to be viewed on a screen, they will typically make an RGB image. If they are creating an image to be printed using pigments, they typically create a CMYK image. (Most of us

don't care so much — we just let the computer do conversions between the two color spaces for us.)

CHAPTER 5

Reflection

What happens when light hits a mass?

In a previous chapter, we talked about light as a wave, and we mentioned that each color in the rainbow is a different wavelength. You can also think of light as particles of energy called *photons*. Every photon comes with an amount of energy that determines what color it is.

When we are talking about light interacting with objects, your intuition will be right more often if you think of light as a beam of photons.

When a photon comes from the sun and hits an object, one of several things can happen:

- The energy of the photon is absorbed by the object. It makes the object a little warmer. If a large proportion of photons hitting the mass are absorbed like this, we say the object is "black".
- The photon bounces off the object. If the surface is very smooth, the photons bounce in a predictable manner, and we call this *reflection* and we say the object is "shiny".
- If the surface is rough and the photons are not absorbed, the photons are scattered in random directions. We call this *diffusion*. If most of the photons hitting an object are bounced in random directions, we say that the object is "white".
- The photon passes through the mass. If the mass has smooth surfaces and a consistent composition, the photons will pass throught the mass in a predictable manner. We say that the mass is "transparent".
- If the photons pass through, but in an unpredictable, scattering manner, we say the mass is "translucent".

No object absorbs every photon, but chemists are always coming up with "blacker" materials. Vantablack, for example, is a super-black paint that absorbs 99.965% of all photons in the visible spectrum.

No object reflects every photon, but a mirror is pretty close. Let's talk about reflections in a mirror.

5.1 Reflection

When a beam of light hits mirror, it bounces of the mirror at the same angle it approached from. That is, if it approaches nearly perpendicular to the mirror, it departs nearly perpendicular to the mirror. If it hits the mirror at a glancing angle, it departs at an angle close to the mirror surface.



Law of Reflection

The angle of incidence, denoted as θ_i , is equal to the angle of reflection, denoted as θ_r . This law can be mathematically expressed as:

$$\theta_i = \theta_r$$

where θ_i is the angle between the incident light ray and the normal to the surface, and θ_r is the angle between the reflected light ray and the normal.



Exercise 9 Law of Reflection

You are standing 4 meters from a mirror hung on a wall. The bottom of the mirror is the same height as your chin, so you can't see your whole body. You stick a piece of masking tape to your body.

You walk forward until you are only 3 meters from the mirror, then put a piece of masking tape on your body at the new cut-off point. Is the new masking tape higher or lower on your body?



Answer on Page 60



5.2 Curved Mirrors

Flat mirrors are common and useful, but things get more interesting once you bend the mirrors. In this section, we are going to talk about a few different kinds of curved mirrors.

5.2.1 The Reflective Properties of Circles and Spheres

For example, if you were inside a circular room (a cylinder, actually), you could imagine standing in the center and pointing a flash light in any horizontal direction. The beam of light would bounce right back to you.



How do you know this? Because the tangent line is always perpendicular to the radius to the point of tangency:



You could create a spherical room with mirror walls. You would create a platform in the center where you could stand, and if you pointed your flashlight in any direction, its beam of light would shine back at you.

5.2.2 Ellipses and Ellipsoids

Intuitively, you know what an ellipse is: an oval. However, the ellipse is actually an oval with some special properties. This is a good time to talk about those properties.

Mathematicians talk about a *standard* ellipse. A standard ellipse is centered on the origin (0, 0) and its long axis is parallel with the x-axis or the y-axis.

Equation for a Standard Ellipse

To be precise, a standard ellipse is the set of points (x,y) that are solutions to the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Note that (a, 0), (-a, 0), (0, b), (0, -b) are all part of the set. The complete set looks like this:



We can now talk about two special points: the *foci*. Each focal point is on the long axis of the ellipse. Let's assume for a moment that a > b. (Everything works the same if b > a, but it gets confusing if we try to deal with both cases simultaneously.)

If p is a point on the ellipse, the distance from p to focal point 1 plus the distance from p to focal point 2 is always 2a.



How do we find the foci? We know they are on the long axis and that they are symmetrical across the short axis. All we need to know is how far are they from the short axis.

Distance from Center to the Foci

If you have an ellipse with a long axis that extends a from the center, and a short axis that extends b from the center, the foci lie on the long axis and are c from the center. Where

 $c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$

Exercise 11 Foci of an ellipse

You need to draw an ellipse that is 12 cm long and 7 cm wide. You have a string, two pushpins, a ruler, and a pencil. Using the ruler, you draw two perpendicular axes.

You will stick one pin at each focal point. Each end of the string will be tied to a push pin. Using the pencil to keep the string taut, you will draw an ellipse.



How far from the short axis are the pushpins placed?

How long is the string between them?

Working Space

Answer on Page 61

The Reflective Property of Ellipses

Here is something else that is wonderful about an ellipse: Pick any point p on the ellipse. Draw a line from p to each focal point. Draw the line tangent to the ellipse at p. You will see that the angle between the tangent and the line to focal point 1 is equal to the angle between the tangent and the line to focal point 2.



This is known as "The Reflective Property of Ellipses".

Imagine you and your friend Fred are at an ellipse-shaped skating rink, and the edge of the rink is mirrored. You sit at one focal point and your friend sits at the other. If you point a flashlight at the mirror (in any direction!), the beam will bounce off the wall and head directly for Fred.

If Fred ducks out of the way, the beam will bounce again and head back to you.



This will work for sound as well. If you whisper while on the focal point, Fred (at the other focal point) will hear you surprisingly well, because all the soundwaves that hit the wall will bounce (just like the light) straight at Fred.

5.2.3 Elliptical Orbits

One more fun fact about ellipses: We often imagine the planets traveling in circular orbits with the sun at the center — they actually travel in elliptical orbits, with the sun as one of the focal points.

The earth is closest to the sun around January 3rd: 147 million km.

The earth is farthest from the sun around July 3rd: 152 million km.

(Note that these dates are not the same as the solstices: The southern hemisphere is tilted the most toward the sun around December 21 and tilted most away around June 21.)

5.2.4 Ellipsoids

Just as we can pull the ideas of a circle into three dimensions to make a sphere, we can extend the ideas of the ellipse into three dimensions to talk about ellipsoids. Ellipsoids are like blimps.

The standard ellipsoids are centered at the origin and aligned with the three axes.

Equation for a Standard Ellipsoid

To be precise, a standard ellipse is the set of points (x, y, z) that satify the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$$

Note that (a, 0, 0), (0, b, 0), (0, 0, c) are all part of the set. The complete set looks like this:



Of course, a, b, and c can be any positive number, but in the real world, we find ourselves working regularly with ellipsoids where two of the numbers are the same.

Oblate Spheroid

If two axes have the same length and one is shorter, you get something that looks like a sphere compressed in one direction — like a pumpkin. These are called *oblate spheroids*.

The earth is actually an oblate spheroid; the axis that goes through the north and south pole is shorter than the axes that pass through the equator. How much shorter? Just a little, relatively speaking. The equator is 6,378 km from the center of the earth; the north pole is 21 km closer.

Prolate Spheroid

If two axes have the same length and one is longer, you get something that looks like a sphere stretched in one direction — like a rugby ball. It is called a *prolate spheroid*.

Like an ellipse, prolate spheroids have two focal points.

Focal Points of a Prolate Spheroid

If the long axis has a radial length of a and the two shorter axes have radial length b, then the focal points are on the long axis. The distance from the center to the focal point is given by

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$$

For any point p on the prolate spheroid, the sum of the distances from p to the focus points will always be 2a.

It has the reflective property: A photon shot in any any direction from one focal point will bounce off the wall and head directly at the other.

Exercise 12 Volume of Ruby Ball

Some jokesters once thought it would be fun to make something that looked like a rugby ball, but made out of lead.

A rugby ball is about 30 cm long and has a circumference of 60 cm at its midpoint. A cubic centimeter of lead has a mass of 11.34 grams.

How much would a solid (not hollow) lead ruby ball weigh?

Answer on Page 61

Working Space

5.2.5 Parabolas and Parabolic Reflectors

You are familiar with quadratic functions:

$$y = ax^2 + bx + c$$

If a is not zero, the graph of a quadratic is a curved line called a *parabola*. The first parabola that most mathematicians think of is the graph of $y = x^2$:



Every parabola has a *focus* and a *directix*. The focus is a point on the parabola's axis of symmetry. The directrix is a line perpendicular to the axis of symmetry. Every point on the parabola is equal distance from the focus and the directrix.

For the graph of $y = x^2$, the focus is the point $(0, \frac{1}{4})$. The directrix is the line $y = -\frac{1}{4}$:



For example, the point (1,1) is on this parabola. It is 5/4 from the directorix. How far is it from the focus? 1 horizontally and 3/4 vertically.

$$\sqrt{1^2 + \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2} = \frac{5}{4}$$

Thus, we have confirmed that (1, 1) is equal distances from the focus and the directrix. When we think about a parabola and its properties, we usually rotate and translate it to be symmetric around the y-axis, flip it so that it is low in the middle and rising on both sides, and push it up or down until the low point is is on the x-axis.

Then, they can all be written:

$$y = \frac{a}{4}x^2$$

where a > 0. If a is small, the parabola opens wider.



The focus is at $(0, \frac{1}{a})$ and the directorix is the line $y = -\frac{1}{a}$.



Reflective Property of a Parabola

Assume you have a parabola-shaped mirror. A beam of light shot from the focus will bounce off the mirror in the direction of the axis of symmetry:



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This is why your flashlight has a parabolic mirror. The lightbulb is at the focus, so any photons that hit the mirror are redirected straight forward.

(Note that in the real world, we use parabolic dishes: a rotated around its axis of symmetry.)

The reflection works exactly the same in reverse. There are solar cookers that are big parabolic mirrors. They let you put a pot on the focus point. You move the dish until its axis of symmetry is pointed at the sun.

You will also see a lot of antennas have parabolic dishes. Note that photons that come in parallel to the axis of symmetry are redirected to a single point: where the receiver is.



Sometimes in a science museum, you will see two parabolic dishes far apart and pointed at each other. One person speaks with their mouth at the focus of one. The other person listens with their ear at the focus of the other. Even though you are very far apart, it sounds like they are really, really close.

This is because the speaker's parabolic wall focuses the sound energy in a nice beam the size of the wall pointed straight at the listener's parabolic wall. The listener's wall focuses the energy of that beam at the listener's ear.

Answers to Exercises

Answer to Exercise 1 (on page 13)

The earth and 1 kg on the surface would attract each other with a force of:

$$F_{g} = \frac{\left(6.67430 \times 10^{-17}\right) \left(5.97219 \times 10^{24}\right) (1)}{6,371^{2}} = \frac{3.98583 \times 10^{8}}{4.0590 \times 10^{7}} = 9.7987 \text{ N}$$

Thus, if the earth were still and alone in the universe, the oceans would form a perfect sphere.

Answer to Exercise 2 (on page 14)

$$F_{c} = \frac{(1)(465)^{2}}{6,371,000} = 0.03373 \text{ N}$$

So the spinning of the earth is trying to throw you into space, but the force of gravity is about 289 times more powerful.

This centripetal force decreases as you move from the equator to the north pole. In fact, at the north pole, there is no centripetal force. Thus, the spinning of the earth makes the oceans an oblate ellipsoid instead of a perfect sphere: the diameter going from pole-to-pole is shorter than a diameter measured at the equator.

You should feel a teensy-tiny bit lighter on your feet at the equator than you do at the north pole: 0.34% lighter.

Answer to Exercise 3 (on page 15)

Overhead, the moon is 384,467 - 6,371 = 378,096 km from your 1 kg mass.

$$F_{g} = \frac{gm_{1}m_{2}}{r^{2}} = \frac{\left(6.67430 \times 10^{-17}\right) \left(7.347673 \times 10^{22}\right) (1)}{378,096^{2}} = \frac{4.9040574 \times 10^{6}}{1.42956585216 \times 10^{11}} = 3.43058 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$$

This is a very small force: The force due to earth's gravity is nearly three hundred thousand times stronger.

Underfoot, the moon is 384, 467 + 6, 371 = 390, 838

$$F_{g} = \frac{gm_{1}m_{2}}{r^{2}} = \frac{\left(6.67430 \times 10^{-17}\right) \left(7.347673 \times 10^{22}\right) (1)}{390,838^{2}} = \frac{4.9040574 \times 10^{6}}{1.52754 \times 10^{11}} = 3.2103 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$$

The force due to the moon's gravity is about 6% stronger when the the moon is overhead than when it is underfoot.

Answer to Exercise 4 (on page 16)

If we let r be the distance (in km) from the center of the earth to the center of mass, the distance from the center of the mass to the center of the moon is 384,467 - r.

To find the balance point, multiply each mass by how far it is from the center of mass:

$$(5.97219 \times 10^{24})$$
 r = $(7.347673 \times 10^{22})$ (384,467 - r)

Solving for r:

$$r = \frac{4,730.15}{1+0.0123} = 4,673 \text{ km}$$

The point on the earth closest to this? It is where the moon is directly overhead. The it is 6,371 - 4,673 = 1,698 km from the center of mass.

The point on the earth farthest from this? It is where the moon is directly underfoot. The it is 6,371 + 4,673 = 11,044 km from the center of mass.

Answer to Exercise 5 (on page 17)

First, lets figure out ω . It travels through 2π radians in 27.3 days. 27.3 days = 2,358,720 seconds. $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{2,358,720} = 2.663811435 \times 10^{-6}$

$$F_c = (1)(11,044,000)(2.663811435 \times 10^{-6})^2 = 7.8365 \times 10^{-5}$$

Now the weakest:

$$F_c = (1)(1,698,000)(2.663811435 \times 10^{-6})^2 = 1.20512 \times 10^{-5}$$

Answer to Exercise 6 (on page 18)

Closest to the moon, the gravitational force of the moon and the centripetal forces are in the same direction: toward the moon.

$$F_{total} = 1.20488 \times 10^{-5} + 3.43045 \times 10^{-5} = 4.6356 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$$

Farthest from the moon, the gravitational force of the moon and the centripetal forces are in opposite directions:

$$F_{total} = 7.8367 \times 10^{-5} - 3.2104 \times 10^{-5} = 4.62604^{-5}N$$

This is great conclusion: The two forces are basically equal: one pulls the water closest to the moon toward the moon, the other pulls water farthest from the moon away from the moon.

Both forces are pretty small: The force due to earth's gravity is about 211,000 times more than either.

And that is why there are two basically equally large high tides every day.

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Answer to Exercise 7 (on page 19)

$$\frac{300 \times 10^6}{5.66 \times 10^{14}} = 530 \times 10^{-9} = 530 \text{ nm}$$

Answer to Exercise 8 (on page 29)

The two triangles are similar; one is 2 m and 3m, the other is x cm and 3 cm.

The image of the cow is 2 cm tall.

Answer to Exercise 9 (on page 43)

Assuming the mirror is truly vertical and the floor is truly horizontal, the new cut off should be exactly the same as the old one: It should be below your chin the same amount that your eyes are above your chin.

Illustration Here

Answer to Exercise 10 (on page 44)

Are there white photons? No. What we call "white" is a blend of photons that are several different colors.

Some people like to say white light is the combination of all visible colors of photons in equal amounts. That seems oddly specific and unusual.

Maybe it is better to imagine it from the human experience of white light. In our eyes, we have three different types of color-sensing cones, which generally correspond to the the red, green, and blue regions of the spectrum. When all three are excited about equal amounts, humans experience that as white. On your computer screen, for example, what you see as white is just a blend of three colors of photons: a red, a green, and a blue.

Are there black photons? No. What we call "black" is an absence of photons in the visible range.

Are there yellow photons? Yes! There is a region of the color spectrum that is yellow. It has a wavelength of about 527 nm. Photons at this energy level excite both our green-sensitive and red-sensitive cones. Your computer monitor does not actually create light with a 527 metabolic context.

nm wavelength. Instead, it creates red light and green light, which our eyes interpret as yellow.

Answer to Exercise 11 (on page 47)

The length of the string is easy: $2 \times 12 = 24$ cm.

The distance from the center to the focal point is $\sqrt{12^2 - 7^2}$ approx6.78 cm.

Answer to Exercise 12 (on page 51)

We need the distance from the center out to each of the three axes. We know that $a = (\frac{1}{2}) 30 = 15$ cm.

We can calculate the b and c (which are equal) using the circumference given: $2b\pi = 60$, so $c = b \approx 9.55$ cm.

The volume, then is

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi(15)(9.55)(9.55) \approx 5,730 \text{ cubic centimeters}$$

The mass would be $5,730 \times 11.34 = 64,973$ grams or about 65 kg.

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