| Name | Major contribution/discovery | Country of Origin |
|-------------------------|--|----------------------|
| Victor Francis Hess | Cosmic radiation | Austria |
| R.A. Millikan | Measurement of electronic charge | U.S.A. |
| Ernest Rutherford | Nuclear model of atom | New Zealand |
| Niels Bohr | Quantum model of hydrogen atom | Denmark |
| C.V. Raman | Inelastic scattering of light by molecules | India |
| Louis Victor de Borglie | Wave nature of matter | France |
| M.N. Saha | Thermal ionisation | India |
| S.N. Bose | Quantum statistics | India |
| Wolfgang Pauli | Exclusion principle | Austria |
| Enrico Fermi | Controlled nuclear fission | Italy |
| Werner Heisenberg | Quantum mechanics; Uncertainty principle | Germany |
| Paul Dirac | Relativistic theory of electron; Quantum statistics | U.K. |
| Edwin Hubble | Expanding universe | U.S.A. |
| Ernest Orlando Lawrence | Cyclotron | U.S.A. |
| James Chadwick | Neutron | U.K. |
| Hideki Yukawa | Theory of nuclear forces | Japan |
| Homi Jehangir Bhabha | Cascade process of cosmic radiation | India |
| Lev Davidovich Landau | Theory of condensed matter; Liquid helium | Russia |
| S. Chandrasekhar | Chandrasekhar limit, structure and evolution of stars | India |
| John Bardeen | Transistors; Theory of super conductivity | U.S.A. |
| C.H. Townes | Maser; Laser | U.S.A. |
| Abdus Salam | Unification of weak and electromagnetic interactions | Pakistan |

of physical laws? We shall now discuss the nature of fundamental forces and the laws that govern the diverse phenomena of the physical world.

1.4 FUNDAMENTAL FORCES IN NATURE*

We all have an intuitive notion of force. In our experience, force is needed to push, carry or throw objects, deform or break them. We also experience the impact of forces on us, like when a moving object hits us or we are in a merry-goround. Going from this intuitive notion to the proper scientific concept of force is not a trivial matter. Early thinkers like Aristotle had wrong

ideas about it. The correct notion of force was arrived at by Isaac Newton in his famous laws of motion. He also gave an explicit form for the force for gravitational attraction between two bodies. We shall learn these matters in subsequent chapters.

In the macroscopic world, besides the gravitational force, we encounter several kinds of forces: muscular force, contact forces between bodies, friction (which is also a contact force parallel to the surfaces in contact), the forces exerted by compressed or elongated springs and taut strings and ropes (tension), the force of buoyancy and viscous force when solids are in

^{*} Sections 1.4 and 1.5 contain several ideas that you may not grasp fully in your first reading. However, we advise you to read them carefully to develop a feel for some basic aspects of physics. These are some of the areas which continue to occupy the physicists today.

Table 1.2 Link between technology and physics

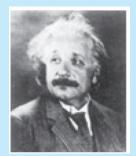
| Technology | Scientific principle(s) | |
|---|---|--|
| Steam engine | Laws of thermodynamics | |
| Nuclear reactor | Controlled nuclear fission | |
| Radio and Television | Generation, propagation and detection | |
| | of electromagnetic waves | |
| Computers | Digital logic | |
| Lasers | Light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation | |
| Production of ultra high magnetic fields | Superconductivity | |
| Rocket propulsion | Newton's laws of motion | |
| Electric generator | Faraday's laws of electromagnetic induction | |
| Hydroelectric power | Conversion of gravitational potential energy into electrical energy | |
| Aeroplane | Bernoulli's principle in fluid dynamics | |
| Particle accelerators | Motion of charged particles in electromagnetic fields | |
| Sonar | Reflection of ultrasonic waves | |
| Optical fibres | Total internal reflection of light | |
| Non-reflecting coatings | Thin film optical interference | |
| Electron microscope | Wave nature of electrons | |
| Photocell | Photoelectric effect | |
| Fusion test reactor (Tokamak) | Magnetic confinement of plasma | |
| Giant Metrewave Radio Telescope (GMRT) | Detection of cosmic radio waves | |
| Bose-Einstein condensate | Trapping and cooling of atoms by laser beams and magnetic fields. | |

contact with fluids, the force due to pressure of a fluid, the force due to surface tension of a liquid, and so on. There are also forces involving charged and magnetic bodies. In the microscopic domain again, we have electric and magnetic forces, nuclear forces involving protons and neutrons, interatomic and intermolecular forces, etc. We shall get familiar with some of these forces in later parts of this course.

A great insight of the twentieth century physics is that these different forces occurring in different contexts actually arise from only a small number of fundamental forces in nature. For example, the elastic spring force arises due to the net attraction/repulsion between the neighbouring atoms of the spring when the spring is elongated/compressed. This net attraction/repulsion can be traced to the (unbalanced) sum of electric forces between the charged constituents of the atoms.

In principle, this means that the laws for 'derived' forces (such as spring force, friction) are not independent of the laws of fundamental forces in nature. The origin of these derived forces is, however, very complex.

At the present stage of our understanding, we know of four fundamental forces in nature, which are described in brief here:



Albert Einstein (1879-1955)

Albert Einstein, born in Ulm, Germany in 1879, is universally regarded as one of the greatest physicists of all time. His astonishing scientific career began with the publication of three path-breaking papers in 1905. In the first paper, he introduced the notion of light quanta (now called photons) and used it to explain the features of photoelectric effect that the classical wave theory of radiation could not account for. In the second paper, he developed a theory of Brownian motion that was confirmed experimentally a few years later and provided a convincing evidence of the atomic picture of matter. The third paper gave birth to the special theory of relativity that

made Einstein a legend in his own life time. In the next decade, he explored the consequences of his new theory which included, among other things, the mass-energy equivalence enshrined in his famous equation $E = mc^2$. He also created the general version of relativity (The General Theory of Relativity), which is the modern theory of gravitation. Some of Einstein's most significant later contributions are: the notion of stimulated emission introduced in an alternative derivation of Planck's blackbody radiation law, static model of the universe which started modern cosmology, quantum statistics of a gas of massive bosons, and a critical analysis of the foundations of quantum mechanics. The year 2005 was declared as International Year of Physics, in recognition of Einstein's monumental contribution to physics, in year 1905, describing revolutionary scientific ideas that have since influenced all of modern physics.

1.4.1 Gravitational Force

The gravitational force is the force of mutual attraction between any two objects by virtue of their masses. It is a universal force. Every object experiences this force due to every other object in the universe. All objects on the earth, for example, experience the force of gravity due to the earth. In particular, gravity governs the motion of the moon and artificial satellites around the earth, motion of the earth and planets around the sun, and, of course, the motion of bodies falling to the earth. It plays a key role in the large-scale phenomena of the universe, such as formation and evolution of stars, galaxies and galactic clusters.

1.4.2 Electromagnetic Force

Electromagnetic force is the force between charged particles. In the simpler case when charges are at rest, the force is given by Coulomb's law: attractive for unlike charges and repulsive for like charges. Charges in motion produce magnetic effects and a magnetic field gives rise to a force on a moving charge. Electric and magnetic effects are, in general, inseparable – hence the name electromagnetic force. Like the gravitational force, electromagnetic force acts over large distances and does not need any intervening medium. It is enormously strong compared to gravity. The

electric force between two protons, for example, is 10^{36} times the gravitational force between them, for any fixed distance.

Matter, as we know, consists of elementary charged constituents like electrons and protons. Since the electromagnetic force is so much stronger than the gravitational force, it dominates all phenomena at atomic and molecular scales. (The other two forces, as we shall see, operate only at nuclear scales.) Thus it is mainly the electromagnetic force that governs the structure of atoms and molecules, the dynamics of chemical reactions and the mechanical, thermal and other properties of materials. It underlies the macroscopic forces like 'tension', 'friction', 'normal force', 'spring force', etc.

Gravity is always attractive, while electromagnetic force can be attractive or repulsive. Another way of putting it is that mass comes only in one variety (there is no negative mass), but charge comes in two varieties: positive and negative charge. This is what makes all the difference. Matter is mostly electrically neutral (net charge is zero). Thus, electric force is largely zero and gravitational force dominates terrestrial phenomena. Electric force manifests itself in atmosphere where the atoms are ionised and that leads to lightning.

Satyendranath Bose (1894-1974)

Satyendranath Bose, born in Calcutta in 1894, is among the great Indian physicists who made a fundamental contribution to the advance of science in the twentieth century. An outstanding student throughout, Bose started his career in 1916 as a lecturer in physics in Calcutta University; five years later he joined Dacca University. Here in 1924, in a brilliant flash of insight, Bose gave a new derivation of Planck's law, treating radiation as a gas of photons and employing new statistical methods of counting of photon states. He wrote a short paper on the subject and sent it to Einstein who immediately recognised its great significance, translated it in German and forwarded it for publication. Einstein then applied the same method to a

gas of molecules.

The key new conceptual ingredient in Bose's work was that the particles were regarded as indistinguishable, a radical departure from the assumption that underlies the classical Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics. It was soon realised that the new Bose-Einstein statistics was applicable to particles with integers spins, and a new quantum statistics (Fermi-Dirac statistics) was needed for particles with half integers spins satisfying Pauli's exclusion principle. Particles with integers spins are now known as bosons in honour of Bose.

An important consequence of Bose-Einstein statistics is that a gas of molecules below a certain temperature will undergo a phase transition to a state where a large fraction of atoms populate the same lowest energy state. Some seventy years were to pass before the pioneering ideas of Bose, developed further by Einstein, were dramatically confirmed in the observation of a new state of matter in a dilute gas of ultra cold alkali atoms - the Bose-Eintein condensate.

If we reflect a little, the enormous strength of the electromagnetic force compared to gravity is evident in our daily life. When we hold a book in our hand, we are balancing the gravitational force on the book due to the huge mass of the earth by the 'normal force' provided by our hand. The latter is nothing but the net electromagnetic force between the charged constituents of our hand and the book, at the surface in contact. If electromagnetic force were not intrinsically so much stronger than gravity, the hand of the strongest man would crumble under the weight of a feather! Indeed, to be consistent, in that circumstance, we ourselves would crumble under our own weight!

1.4.3 Strong Nuclear Force

The strong nuclear force binds protons and neutrons in a nucleus. It is evident that without some attractive force, a nucleus will be unstable due to the electric repulsion between its protons. This attractive force cannot be gravitational since force of gravity is negligible compared to the electric force. A new basic force must, therefore, be invoked. The strong nuclear force is the strongest of all fundamental forces, about 100 times the electromagnetic force in

strength. It is charge-independent and acts equally between a proton and a proton, a neutron and a neutron, and a proton and a neutron. Its range is, however, extremely small, of about nuclear dimensions (10^{-15}m) . It is responsible for the stability of nuclei. The electron, it must be noted, does not experience this force.

Recent developments have, however, indicated that protons and neutrons are built out of still more elementary constituents called quarks.

1.4.4 Weak Nuclear Force

The weak nuclear force appears only in certain nuclear processes such as the β -decay of a nucleus. In β -decay, the nucleus emits an electron and an uncharged particle called neutrino. The weak nuclear force is not as weak as the gravitational force, but much weaker than the strong nuclear and electromagnetic forces. The range of weak nuclear force is exceedingly small, of the order of $10^{-16}\,\mathrm{m}$.

1.4.5 Towards Unification of Forces

We remarked in section 1.1 that unification is a basic quest in physics. Great advances in physics often amount to unification of different

Table 1.3 Fundamental forces of nature

| Name | Relative strength | Range | Operates among |
|-----------------------|----------------------|---|---|
| Gravitational force | 10-39 | Infinite | All objects in the universe |
| Weak nuclear force | 10-13 | Very short, Sub-nuclear size (~10 ⁻¹⁶ m) | Some elementary particles, particularly electron and neutrino |
| Electromagnetic force | 10^{-2} | Infinite | Charged particles |
| Strong nuclear force | 1 | Short, nuclear size (~10 ⁻¹⁵ m) | Nucleons, heavier elementary particles |

theories and domains. Newton unified terrestrial and celestial domains under a common law of gravitation. The experimental discoveries of Oersted and Faraday showed that electric and magnetic phenomena are in general inseparable. Maxwell unified electromagnetism and optics with the discovery that light is an electromagnetic wave. Einstein attempted to unify gravity and electromagnetism but could not succeed in this venture. But this did not deter physicists from zealously pursuing the goal of unification of forces.

Recent decades have seen much progress on this front. The electromagnetic and the weak nuclear force have now been unified and are seen as aspects of a single 'electro-weak' force. What this unification actually means cannot be explained here. Attempts have been (and are being) made to unify the electro-weak and the strong force and even to unify the gravitational force with the rest of the fundamental forces. Many of these ideas are still speculative and inconclusive. Table 1.4 summarises some of the milestones in the progress towards unification of forces in nature.

1.5 NATURE OF PHYSICAL LAWS

Physicists explore the universe. Their investigations, based on scientific processes, range from particles that are smaller than atoms in size to stars that are very far away. In addition to finding the facts by observation and experimentation, physicists attempt to discover the laws that summarise (often as mathematical equations) these facts.

In any physical phenomenon governed by different forces, several quantities may change with time. A remarkable fact is that some special physical quantities, however, remain constant in time. They are the conserved quantities of nature. Understanding these conservation principles is very important to describe the observed phenomena quantitatively.

For motion under an external conservative force, the total mechanical energy i.e. the sum of kinetic and potential energy of a body is a constant. The familiar example is the free fall of an object under gravity. Both the kinetic energy of the object and its potential energy change continuously with time, but the sum remains fixed. If the object is released from rest, the initial

Table 1.4 Progress in unification of different forces/domains in nature

| Name of the physicist | Year | Achievement in unification |
|---|--------------|---|
| Isaac Newton | 1687 | Unified celestial and terrestrial mechanics; showed that the same laws of motion and the law of gravitation apply to both the domains. |
| Hans Christian Oersted Michael Faraday | 1820 1830 | Showed that electric and magnetic phenomena are inseparable aspects of a unified domain: electromagnetism. |
| James Clerk Maxwell | 1873 | Unified electricity, magnetism and optics; showed that light is an electromagnetic wave. |
| Sheldon Glashow, Abdus Salam, Steven Weinberg | 1979 | Showed that the 'weak' nuclear force and the electromagnetic force could be viewed as different aspects of a single electro-weak force. |
| Carlo Rubia, Simon Vander Meer | 1984 | Verified experimentally the predictions of the theory of electro-weak force. |

potential energy is completely converted into the kinetic energy of the object just before it hits the ground. This law restricted for a conservative force should not be confused with the general law of conservation of energy of an isolated system (which is the basis of the First Law of Thermodynamics).

The concept of energy is central to physics and the expressions for energy can be written for every physical system. When all forms of energy e.g., heat, mechanical energy, electrical energy etc., are counted, it turns out that energy is conserved. The general law of conservation of energy is true for all forces and for any kind of transformation between different forms of energy. In the falling object example, if you include the effect of air resistance during the fall and see the situation after the object hits the ground and stays there, the total mechanical energy is obviously not conserved. The general law of energy conservation, however, is still applicable. The initial potential energy of the stone gets transformed into other forms of energy: heat and sound. (Ultimately, sound after it is absorbed becomes heat.) The total energy of the system (stone plus the surroundings) remains unchanged.

The law of conservation of energy is thought to be valid across all domains of nature, from the microscopic to the macroscopic. It is routinely applied in the analysis of atomic, nuclear and elementary particle processes. At the other end, all kinds of violent phenomena occur in the universe all the time. Yet the total energy of the universe (the most ideal isolated system possible!) is believed to remain unchanged.

Until the advent of Einstein's theory of relativity, the law of conservation of mass was regarded as another basic conservation law of nature, since matter was thought to be indestructible. It was (and still is) an important principle used, for example, in the analysis of chemical reactions. A chemical reaction is basically a rearrangement of atoms among different molecules. If the total binding energy of the reacting molecules is less than the total binding energy of the product molecules, the difference appears as heat and the reaction is exothermic. The opposite is true for energy absorbing (endothermic) reactions. However, since the atoms are merely rearranged but not destroyed, the total mass of the reactants is the same as the total mass of the products in a chemical reaction. The changes in the binding energy are too small to be measured as changes in mass.

According to Einstein's theory, mass m is equivalent to energy E given by the relation $E = mc^2$, where c is speed of light in vacuum.

In a nuclear process mass gets converted to energy (or vice-versa). This is the energy which is released in a nuclear power generation and nuclear explosions.

Sir C.V. Raman (1888-1970)

Chandrashekhara Venkata Raman was born on 07 Nov 1888 in Thiruvanaikkaval. He finished his schooling by the age of eleven. He graduated from Presidency College, Madras. After finishing his education he joined financial services of the Indian Government.

While in Kolkata, he started working on his area of interest at Indian Association for Cultivation of Science founded by Dr. Mahendra Lal Sirkar, during his evening hours. His area of interest included vibrations, variety of musical instruments, ultrasonics, diffraction and so on.

In 1917 he was offered Professorship at Calcutta University. In 1924 he was elected 'Fellow' of the Royal Society of London and received Nobel prize in Physics in 1930 for his discovery, now known as Raman Effect.

The **Raman Effect** deals with scattering of light by molecules of a medium when they are excited to vibrational energy levels. This work opened totally new avenues for research for years to come.

He spent his later years at Bangalore, first at Indian Institute of Science and then at Raman Research Institute. His work has inspired generation of young students.



Energy is a scalar quantity. But all conserved quantities are not necessarily scalars. The total linear momentum and the total angular momentum (both vectors) of an isolated system are also conserved quantities. These laws can be derived from Newton's laws of motion in mechanics. But their validity goes beyond mechanics. They are the basic conservation laws of nature in all domains, even in those where Newton's laws may not be valid.

Besides their great simplicity and generality, the conservation laws of nature are very useful in practice too. It often happens that we cannot solve the full dynamics of a complex problem involving different particles and forces. The conservation laws can still provide useful results. For example, we may not know the complicated forces that act during a collision of two automobiles; yet momentum conservation law enables us to bypass the complications and predict or rule out possible outcomes of the collision. In nuclear and elementary particle phenomena also, the conservation laws are important tools of analysis. Indeed, using the conservation laws of energy and momentum for β-decay, Wolfgang Pauli (1900-1958) correctly predicted in 1931 the existence of a new particle (now called neutrino) emitted in β -decay along with the electron.

Conservation laws have a deep connection with symmetries of nature that you will explore in more advanced courses in physics. For example, an important observation is that the laws of nature do not change with time! If you perform an experiment in your laboratory today and repeat the same experiment (on the same objects under identical conditions) after a year, the results are bound to be the same. It turns out that this symmetry of nature with respect to translation (i.e. displacement) in time is equivalent to the law of conservation of energy. Likewise, space is homogeneous and there is no (intrinsically) preferred location in the universe. To put it more clearly, the laws of nature are the same everywhere in the universe. (Caution: the phenomena may differ from place to place

Conservation of energy, momentum, angular momentum, charge, etc are considered to be fundamental laws in physics. At this moment, there are many such conservation laws. Apart from the above four, there are others which mostly deal with quantities which have been introduced in nuclear and particle physics. Some of the conserved quantities are called spin, baryon number, strangeness, hypercharge, etc, but you need not worry about them.

A conservation law is a hypothesis, based on observations and experiments. It is important to remember that a conservation law cannot be proved. It can be verified, or disproved, by experiments. An experiment whose result is in conformity with the law verifies or substantiates the law; it does not prove the law. On the other hand, a single experiment whose result goes against the law is enough to disprove it.

It would be wrong to ask somebody to prove the law of conservation of energy. This law is an outcome of our experience over several centuries, and it has been found to be valid in all experiments, in mechanics, thermodynamics, electromagnetism, optics, atomic and nuclear physics, or any other area.

Some students feel that they can prove the conservation of mechanical energy from a body falling under gravity, by adding the kinetic and potential energies at a point and showing that it turns out to be constant. As pointed out above, this is only a verification of the law, not its proof.

because of differing conditions at different locations. For example, the acceleration due to gravity at the moon is one-sixth that at the earth, but the **law of gravitation** is the same both on the moon and the earth.) This symmetry of the laws of nature with respect to translation in space gives rise to conservation of linear momentum. In the same way isotropy of space (no intrinsically preferred direction in space) underlies the law of conservation of angular momentum*. The conservation laws of charge and other attributes of elementary particles can also be related to certain abstract symmetries. Symmetries of space and time and other abstract symmetries play a central role in modern theories of fundamental forces in nature.

Conservation laws in physics

^{*} See Chapter 7

SUMMARY

- 1. Physics deals with the study of the basic laws of nature and their manifestation in different phenomena. The basic laws of physics are universal and apply in widely different contexts and conditions.
- 2. The scope of physics is wide, covering a tremendous range of magnitude of physical quantities.
- 3. Physics and technology are related to each other. Sometimes technology gives rise to new physics; at other times physics generates new technology. Both have direct impact on society.
- 4. There are four fundamental forces in nature that govern the diverse phenomena of the macroscopic and the microscopic world. These are the 'gravitational force', the 'electromagnetic force', the 'strong nuclear force', and the 'weak nuclear force'. Unification of different forces/domains in nature is a basic quest in physics.
- 5. The physical quantities that remain unchanged in a process are called conserved quantities. Some of the general conservation laws in nature include the laws of conservation of mass, energy, linear momentum, angular momentum, charge, parity, etc. Some conservation laws are true for one fundamental force but not for the other.
- 6. Conservation laws have a deep connection with symmetries of nature. Symmetries of space and time, and other types of symmetries play a central role in modern theories of fundamental forces in nature.

EXERCISES

Note for the student

The exercises given here are meant to enhance your awareness about the issues surrounding science, technology and society and to encourage you to think and formulate your views about them. The questions may not have clear-cut 'objective' answers.

Note for the teacher

The exercises given here are not for the purpose of a formal examination.

- 1.1 Some of the most profound statements on the nature of science have come from Albert Einstein, one of the greatest scientists of all time. What do you think did Einstein mean when he said: "The most incomprehensible thing about the world is that it is comprehensible"?
- **1.2** "Every great physical theory starts as a heresy and ends as a dogma". Give some examples from the history of science of the validity of this incisive remark.
- **1.3** "Politics is the art of the possible". Similarly, "Science is the art of the soluble". Explain this beautiful aphorism on the nature and practice of science.
- 1.4 Though India now has a large base in science and technology, which is fast expanding, it is still a long way from realising its potential of becoming a world leader in science. Name some important factors, which in your view have hindered the advancement of science in India.
- 1.5 No physicist has ever "seen" an electron. Yet, all physicists believe in the existence of electrons. An intelligent but superstitious man advances this analogy to argue that 'ghosts' exist even though no one has 'seen' one. How will you refute his argument?
- 1.6 The shells of crabs found around a particular coastal location in Japan seem mostly to resemble the legendary face of a Samurai. Given below are two explanations of this observed fact. Which of these strikes you as a scientific explanation?
 - (a) A tragic sea accident several centuries ago drowned a young Samurai. As a tribute to his bravery, nature through its inscrutable ways immortalised his face by imprinting it on the crab shells in that area.

(b) After the sea tragedy, fishermen in that area, in a gesture of honour to their dead hero, let free any crab shell caught by them which accidentally had a shape resembling the face of a Samurai. Consequently, the particular shape of the crab shell survived longer and therefore in course of time the shape was genetically propagated. This is an example of evolution by artificial selection.

[Note: This interesting illustration taken from Carl Sagan's 'The Cosmos' highlights the fact that often strange and inexplicable facts which on the first sight appear 'supernatural' actually turn out to have simple scientific explanations. Try to think out other examples of this kind].

- 1.7 The industrial revolution in England and Western Europe more than two centuries ago was triggered by some key scientific and technological advances. What were these advances?
- 1.8 It is often said that the world is witnessing now a second industrial revolution, which will transform the society as radically as did the first. List some key contemporary areas of science and technology, which are responsible for this revolution.
- **1.9** Write in about 1000 words a fiction piece based on your speculation on the science and technology of the twenty-second century.
- 1.10 Attempt to formulate your 'moral' views on the practice of science. Imagine yourself stumbling upon a discovery, which has great academic interest but is certain to have nothing but dangerous consequences for the human society. How, if at all, will you resolve your dilemma?
- 1.11 Science, like any knowledge, can be put to good or bad use, depending on the user. Given below are some of the applications of science. Formulate your views on whether the particular application is good, bad or something that cannot be so clearly categorised:
 - (a) Mass vaccination against small pox to curb and finally eradicate this disease from the population. (This has already been successfully done in India).
 - (b) Television for eradication of illiteracy and for mass communication of news and ideas.
 - (c) Prenatal sex determination
 - (d) Computers for increase in work efficiency
 - (e) Putting artificial satellites into orbits around the Earth
 - (f) Development of nuclear weapons
 - (g) Development of new and powerful techniques of chemical and biological warfare).
 - (h) Purification of water for drinking
 - (i) Plastic surgery
 - (j) Cloning
- 1.12 India has had a long and unbroken tradition of great scholarship in mathematics, astronomy, linguistics, logic and ethics. Yet, in parallel with this, several superstitious and obscurantistic attitudes and practices flourished in our society and unfortunately continue even today among many educated people too. How will you use your knowledge of science to develop strategies to counter these attitudes?
- 1.13 Though the law gives women equal status in India, many people hold unscientific views on a woman's innate nature, capacity and intelligence, and in practice give them a secondary status and role. Demolish this view using scientific arguments, and by quoting examples of great women in science and other spheres; and persuade yourself and others that, given equal opportunity, women are on par with men.
- 1.14 "It is more important to have beauty in the equations of physics than to have them agree with experiments". The great British physicist P. A. M. Dirac held this view. Criticize this statement. Look out for some equations and results in this book which strike you as beautiful.
- 1.15 Though the statement quoted above may be disputed, most physicists do have a feeling that the great laws of physics are at once simple and beautiful. Some of the notable physicists, besides Dirac, who have articulated this feeling, are: Einstein, Bohr, Heisenberg, Chandrasekhar and Feynman. You are urged to make special efforts to get

access to the general books and writings by these and other great masters of physics. (See the Bibliography at the end of this book.) Their writings are truly inspiring!

1.16 Textbooks on science may give you a wrong impression that studying science is dry and all too serious and that scientists are absent-minded introverts who never laugh or grin. This image of science and scientists is patently false. Scientists, like any other group of humans, have their share of humorists, and many have led their lives with a great sense of fun and adventure, even as they seriously pursued their scientific work. Two great physicists of this genre are Gamow and Feynman. You will enjoy reading their books listed in the Bibliography.