

Investigative Physics

Activity Units for Physics 125

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Abstract

The exercises in this manual have been developed to support an investigative physics course that emphasizes active learning. Some of these units have been taken from the Workshop Physics project at Dickinson College and the Tools for Scientific Thinking project at Tufts University and modified for use at the University of Richmond. Others have been developed locally.

The units are made up of activities designed to guide your investigations in the laboratory. The written work will consist primarily of documenting your class activities by filling in the entries in the spaces provided in the units. The entries consist of observations, derivations, calculations, and answers to questions. Although you may use the same data and graphs as your partner(s) and discuss concepts with your classmates, all entries should reflect your own understanding of the concepts and the meaning of the data and graphs you are presenting. Thus, each entry should be written in your own words. Indeed, it is very important to your success in this course that your entries reflect a sound understanding of the phenomena you are observing and analyzing.

We wish to acknowledge the support we have received for this project from the University of Richmond and the Instrumentation and Laboratory Improvement program of the National Science Foundation. Also, we would like to thank our laboratory directors for their invaluable technical assistance.

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1 Measuring and Graphing Horizontal Motion¹

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To explore the nature of horizontal motion.
- To learn to use Excel for graphing and fitting data.

Measuring the Horizontal Motion of a Bowling Ball

A key to understanding how to describe motion near the surface of the earth is to observe horizontal motions and vertical motions separately. Eventually, situations in which an object undergoes both horizontal and vertical motion can be analyzed and understood as a combination of these two kinds of basic motions.

Lets start with horizontal motion. How do you think the horizontal position of a bowling ball changes over time as it rolls along on a smooth surface? For example, suppose you were to roll the ball a distance of 6.0 meters on a fairly level smooth floor. Do you expect that the ball would: (1) move at a steady speed, (2) speed up, or (3) slow down? To observe the horizontal motion of a “bowling ball” you can use a bocce ball which is slightly smaller but quite similar to a regulation bowling ball.

Apparatus

- A bocce ball
- 3 stop watches
- A 2-meter stick
- Masking tape for marking distances
- A smooth level surface (> 7 meters in length)

Activity 1: Horizontal Motion

(a) What do you predict will happen to the position of the ball as a function of time? Will the ball move at a steady speed, speed up, or slow down after it leaves the bowler’s hand? Why?

(b) Find a 7 meter length of smooth floor and use masking tape to mark off a starting line and distances of 2.00 m, 4.00 m, and 6.00 m. from the starting line. Then: (1) Bowl the ball along the surface. (2) Measure the time it takes to travel 2.0 m, 4.0 m & 6.0 m. (3) Record the results in the table below.

Note: This is a cooperative project. You will need a bowler, three people to measure the times, and someone to stop the ball. Practice several times before recording data in the table below.

t (s)	x (m)
0.00	0.00

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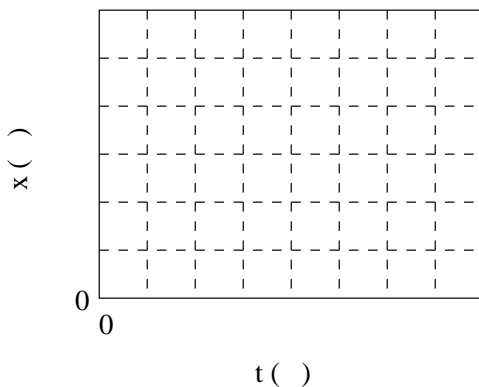
- (c) Calculate the average speed, v , in m/s of the bowling ball as it travels the 6.00 meters.

Activity 2: Drawing a Graph of Position vs. Time

In this activity, you should graph your data for the position of the ball as a function of the rolling-time of the ball. This graphing should be done both by hand and on the computer.

NOTE on creating graphs: Whenever an instruction says “plot variable 1 as a function of variable 2” or “plot variable 1 vs. variable 2”, variable 2 goes on the horizontal axis (independent variable) and variable 1 goes on the vertical axis (dependent variable). Every graph requires a title (like “Position vs. Time”) and labeled axes with units in parentheses.

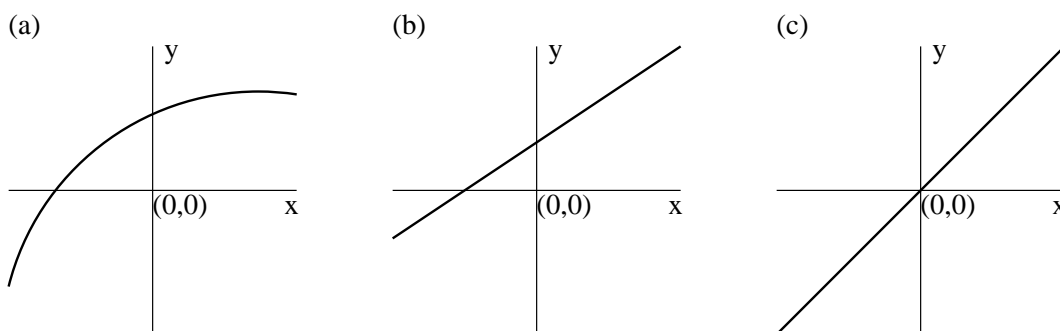
- (a) Fill in the units and the scale numbers in the graph below and plot the data you collected, including the (0,0) point listed on the first line of the above table.



- (b) Now use *Excel* on the computer to create the same graph. Just plot the data points; don't try to fit with a line (we will do that in Activity 4). See Appendix C for instructions. Print the graph and insert a copy in your notebook at the end of this unit.

How does the Position of the Ball Vary with Time?

We are interested in the mathematical nature of the relationship between position and time for rolling on a level surface. Some definitions of mathematical relationships are shown in the sketches below. Figure (a) shows a function y that increases with x so that $y = f(x)$. In sketch (b) y is a linear function that increases with x so that $y = mx + b$, where m is the slope and b is the y intercept. In figure (c) y is proportional to x ($y = mx$ where $b = 0$).

**Activity 3: The Mathematical Relationships**

(a) By comparing the shape of the graph you have just produced with the sketches shown above, would you say that the position, x , increases with time, t ? Decreases with time? Is it a linear function of t ? Is it proportional to t ? Explain.

(b) How do the results compare with the prediction you made in Activity 1? Are you surprised?

(c) What do you think would happen to the slope, m , of the graph, if the ball had been rolled faster? Would it increase? Decrease? Stay the same?

Activity 4: Mathematical Modeling

(a) Create a mathematical model of the bocce ball motion data you collected in Activity 1. This can be done by using *Excel* to fit the data with a line. Use a linear trendline for this process, telling the computer to print the equation for the line. See Appendix C for instructions. Be sure to label the graph with a title and axis labels with units. Then print the graph and include it with this unit. Does the line provide a good description of the data?

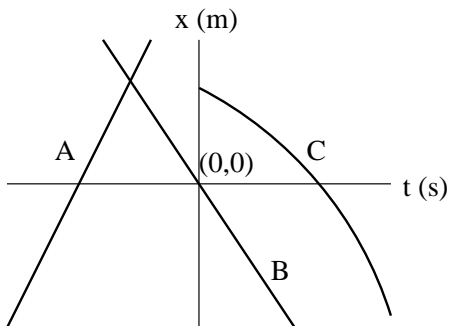
(b) Write the equation describing the motion in the form Position $x = vt + x_o$, using the numbers from the equation of your graph. Don't forget units.

(c) Compare the slope of the line with the average speed you calculated in Activity 1. A good way to do this is by calculating the % difference between the two (See Appendix A).

(d) Give a brief discussion of the meaning of the slope of a graph of Position vs. Time. What does it tell you?

Homework

The diagram below shows the graphs of three possible relationships between the time, t , in seconds and the position, x , in centimeters that the object has traveled.



(a) Which graphs represent position as a linear function of time? A, B, and/or C?

(b) Which graphs, if any, show position as proportional to time?

2 Measurement and Uncertainty²

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn to measure length using a meter stick and a vernier caliper.
- To learn to express the results of measurements with the appropriate number of significant figures.
- To learn how to compensate for systematic error in measurements so that accuracy can be improved.

Measuring Lengths and Significant Figures

We are interested in determining the number of significant figures in length measurements you might make. How is the number of significant figures determined? Suppose God could tell us that the “true” width of a certain car key in centimeters was:

2.435789345646754456540123544332975774281245623... etc.

If we were to measure the key width with a ruler that is lying around the lab, the precision of our measurement would be limited by the fact that the ruler only has lines marked on it every 0.1 cm. We could estimate to the nearest 1/100th of a centimeter how far the key edge is from the last mark. Thus, we might agree that the best estimate for the width of the key is 2.44 cm. This means we have estimated the key width to three significant figures.

If God announces that the width of a pair of sun glasses is 13.27655457787654267787... cm, then upon direct measurement we might estimate the width to be 13.28 or 13.27 or 13.26 cm. In this case the estimated width is four significant figures. Obviously, there is uncertainty about the “true” value of the right-most digit.

The number of significant figures in a measurement is given by the number of digits from the most certain digit on the left of the number up to and including the first uncertain digit on the right. In reporting a number, all digits except the significant digits should be dropped. (See the discussion of significant figures in Appendix A.)

Let’s do some length measurements to find out what factors might influence the number of significant figures in a measurement.

Apparatus

- A meter stick
- A vernier caliper
- A rectangular board

Activity 1: Length Measurements with the Meter Stick

(a) What factors might make a determination of the “true” length of an object measured with the meter stick uncertain?

(b) Measure the width of the board with the meter stick at least seven times and create a table in the space below to list the measurements. For best results, you should use different regions of the meter stick so that, when an average of these measurements is made, non-uniformities in the scale will tend to cancel. Also, you

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should avoid using the end of the meter stick which might be worn and, therefore, would not be a true zero. The apparent change in the reading on the scale due to the position of the eye is called parallax, an effect which can introduce error into the reading. To reduce the uncertainty due to parallax, you should place the meter stick on edge so that the scale is close to the object being measured. (See Appendix E)

(c) In general, when a series of measurements is made, the best estimate is the average of those measurements. In the space below list the minimum measurement, the maximum measurement, and the best estimate for the width of your board.

(d) Based on these measurements, write the width of your board as a value plus or minus an “uncertainty”.

(e) How many significant figures should you report in your best estimate? Why?

(f) For your board, what limits the number of significant figures most - variation in the actual width of the board or limitations in the accuracy of the meter stick? How do you know?

Activity 2: Length Measurements with the Vernier Caliper

(a) Measure the thickness of the board at least seven times and record the results in a table in the space below. Make the measurements at different places along each of the two edges. If you have questions about how to read the vernier, see Appendix E. If you still have questions, consult your instructor.

(b) Record the minimum, maximum, and average of your measurements below.

(c) Based on these measurements, write the thickness of your board as a value plus or minus an uncertainty.

(d) How many significant figures should you report in your average? Why?

Activity 3: Calculation of Cross-Sectional Area

(a) Calculate the cross-sectional area of the board in the space below.

(b) Calculate the uncertainty in the area, ΔA , as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta A}{A} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta w}{w}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta t}{t}\right)^2}$$

(c) Write the cross-sectional area as a value plus or minus an uncertainty, rounding off as appropriate.

(d) How many significant figures should you report in your result? Why?

The Inevitability of Uncertainty

In common terminology there are three kinds of “errors”: (1) mistakes or human errors, (2) systematic errors due to measurement or equipment problems and (3) inherent uncertainties.

Activity 4: Error Types

(a) Give an example of how a person could make a “mistake” or “human error” while taking a length measurement.

(b) Give an example of how a systematic error could occur because of the condition of the meter stick when a set of length measurements are being made.

(c) What might cause inherent uncertainties in a length measurement?

3 Position vs. Time Graphs³

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn about two of the ways that physicists can describe motion in one dimension-words and graphs.
- To learn how to relate graphs of position vs. time to the motions they represent.

Introduction

The focus of this unit on kinematics is to be able to describe your position as a function of time using words and graphs. You will use a motion detector attached to a computer in the laboratory to learn to describe one-dimensional motion.

The ultrasonic motion detector sends out a series of sound pulses that are of too high a frequency to hear. These pulses reflect from objects in the vicinity of the motion detector and some of the sound energy returns to the detector. The computer is able to record the time it takes for reflected sound waves to return to the detector and then, by knowing the speed of sound in air, figure out how far away the reflecting object is. There are several things to watch out for when using a motion detector. (1) Do not get closer than 0.15 meters from the detector because it cannot record reflected pulses which come back too soon. (2) The ultrasonic waves come out in a cone of about 15°. It will see the closest object. Be sure there is a clear path between the object whose motion you want to track and the motion detector. (3) The motion detector is very sensitive and will detect slight motions. You can try to glide smoothly along the floor, but don't be surprised to see small bumps in velocity graphs. (4) Some objects like bulky sweaters are good sound absorbers and may not be "seen" well by a motion detector. You may want to hold a book or a board in front of you if you have loose clothing on.

Apparatus

- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- Ultrasonic motion detector
- *DataStudio* software (Position Graphs application)
- Wooden board
- Masking tape for marking distances

Position vs. Time Graphs of Your Motion

The purpose of this unit is to learn how to relate graphs of position as a function of time to the motions they represent. How does a position vs. time graph look when you move slowly? Quickly? What happens when you move toward the motion detector? Away? After completing the next few activities, you should be able to look at a position vs. time graph and describe the motion of the object. You should also be able to look at the motion of an object and sketch a graph representing that motion.

Note that the motion detector measures the distance of an object from the detector, and that the motion detector is located at the origin of each graph. It is common to refer to the distance of an object from some origin as the position of the object. Therefore, it is better to refer to these graphs as position vs. time graphs than distance vs. time graphs.

You will use the *DataStudio* software to do the following activities. Launch the **Position Graphs** application by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **131 Workshop** → **Position Graphs**. To start a data run, click the **Start** button. To stop a data run, click the **Stop** button. After a data run, the graph

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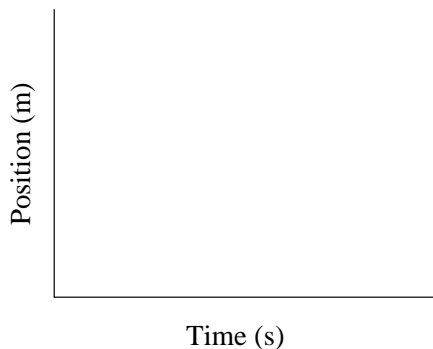
can be expanded by clicking on the **Scale to fit** button in the upper left corner of the Graph window. Multiple data sets can be displayed on the same graph. Data can be removed from the graph by selecting **Delete Last Data Run** or **Delete All Data Runs** from the **Experiment** menu. When you are finished with the activities, choose **Quit** from the **File** menu and do not save this activity.

Before you begin the activities, you should mark a position scale on the floor. To do this, position one person at approximately 1 meter in front of the motion detector and take data for 1 second. The computer will display a horizontal line showing the position measured by the detector. The person standing in front of the detector should then adjust his/her position and the procedure repeated until the 1 meter position is established. Mark the 1 meter position on the floor with a piece of masking tape and then mark the 2, 3 and 4 meter positions using the 2 meter stick.

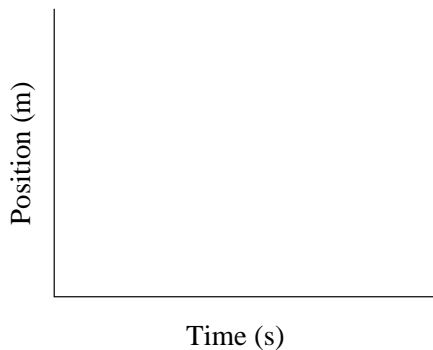
Activity 1: Making Position vs. Time Graphs

Make position-time graphs for the following motions and sketch the graph you observe in each case:

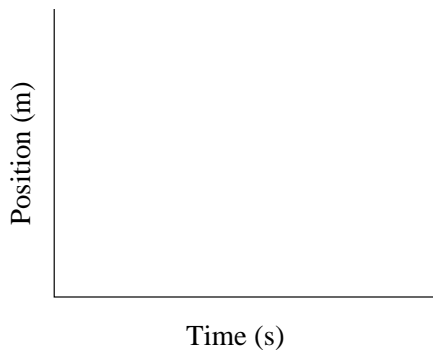
(a) Starting at 0.5 m, walk away from the origin (i.e., the detector) slowly and steadily.



(b) Walk away from the origin medium-fast and steadily.



(c) Walk toward the detector (origin) slowly and steadily.

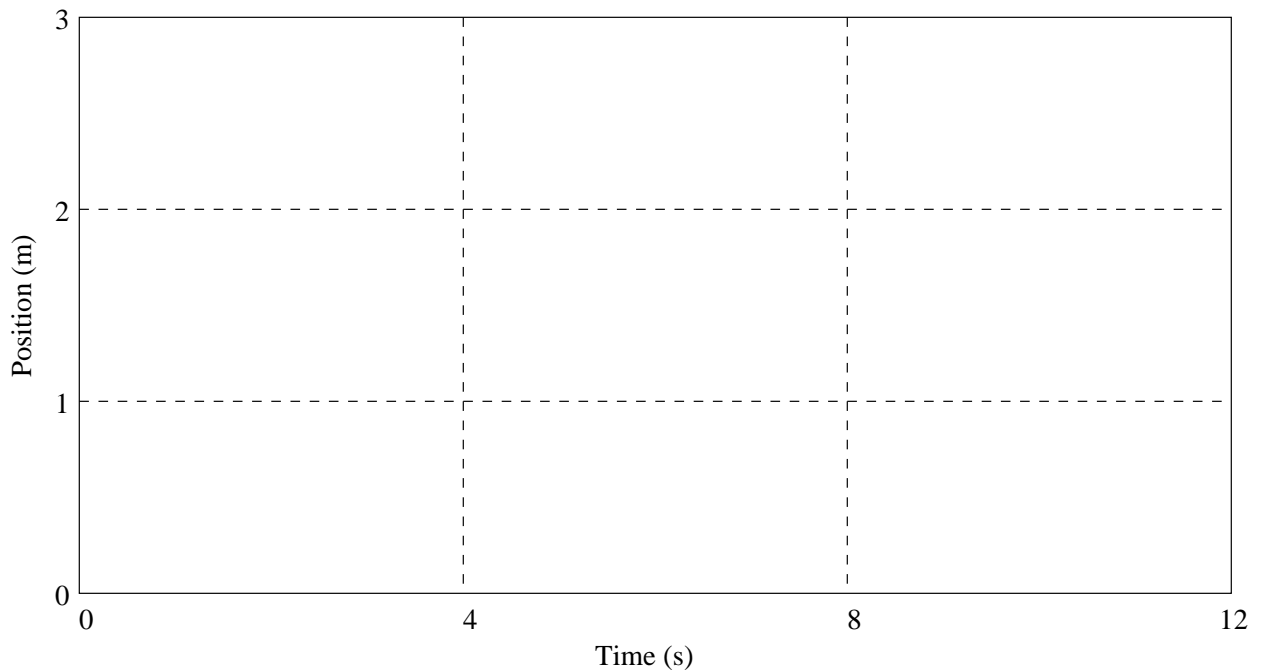


(d) Describe the difference between the graph you made by walking away slowly and the one made by walking away more quickly.

(e) Describe the difference between the graph made by walking toward and the one made walking away from the motion detector.

Activity 2: Predicting a Position vs. Time Graph

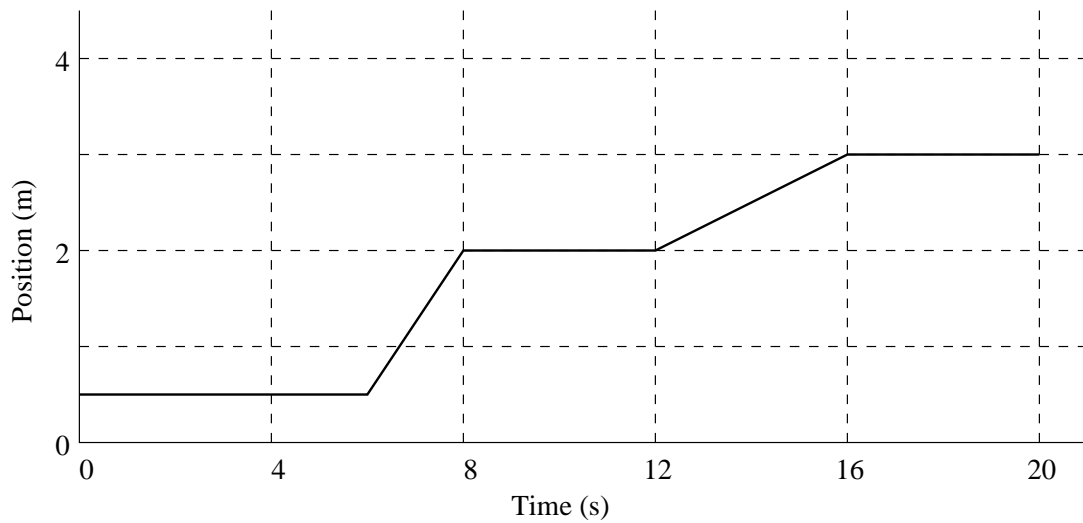
(a) Suppose you were to start 1.0 m in front of the detector and walk away slowly and steadily for 4 seconds, stop for 4 seconds, and then walk toward the detector quickly. Sketch your prediction on the axes below using a dashed line.



(b) Test your prediction by moving in the way described and making a graph of your motion with the motion detector. Sketch the trace of your actual motion on the above graph with a solid line.

(c) Is your prediction the same as the final result? If not, describe how you would move to make a graph that looks like your prediction.

Activity 3: Matching Position vs. Time Graphs

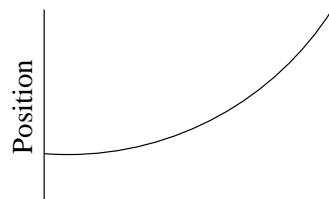


(a) Describe in your own words how you would move in order to match the graph shown above.

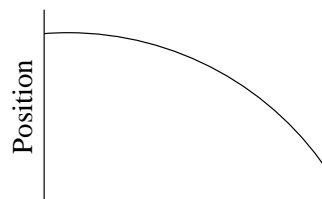
(b) Move to match the above graph on the computer screen. You may try a number of times. It helps to work as a team. Get the times right. Get the positions right. Do this for yourself. (Each person in your group should do his or her own match.) You will not learn very much by just watching!

(c) What was the difference in the way you moved to produce the two differently sloped parts of the graph you just matched?

(d) Make curved position vs. time graphs like those shown below.



Time
Graph 1



Time
Graph 2

(e) Describe how you must move to produce a position vs. time graph with each of the shapes shown.

Graph 1 answer:

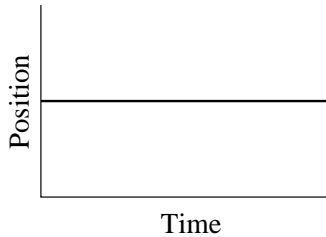
Graph 2 answer:

(f) What is the general difference between motions which result in a straight-line position vs. time graph and those that result in a curved-line position vs. time graph?

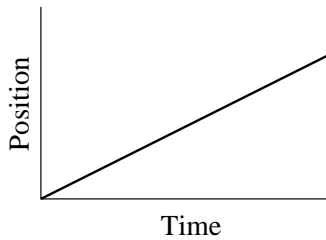
Homework

Answer the following questions in the spaces provided.

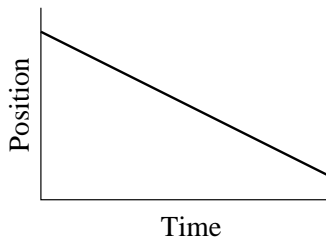
1. What do you do to create a horizontal line on a position-time graph?



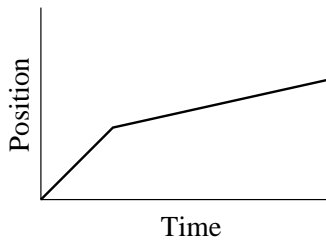
2. How do you walk to create a straight line that slopes up?



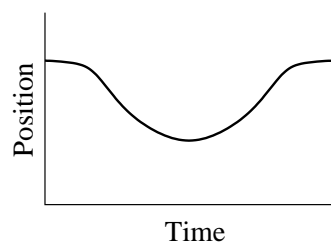
3. How do you walk to create a straight line that slopes down?



4. How do you move so the graph goes up steeply at first, then continues up gradually?

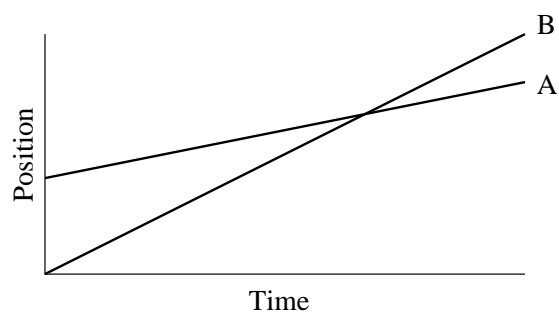


5. How do you walk to create a U-shaped graph?

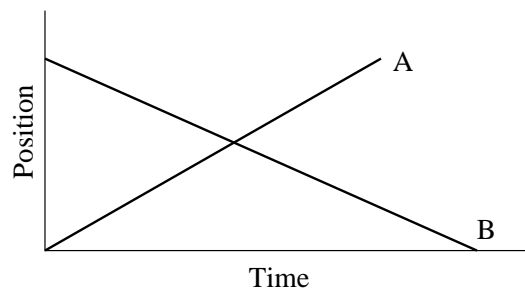


Answer the following about the two objects, A and B, whose motion produced the following position-time graphs.

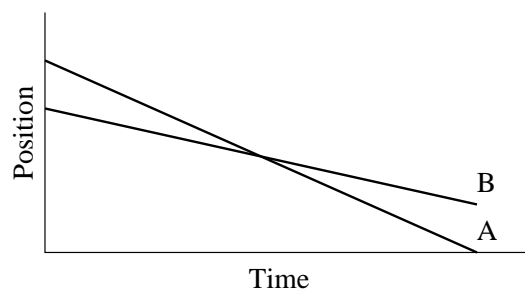
6. (a) Which object is moving faster? (b) Which starts ahead? Define what you mean by “ahead.”
(c) What does the intersection mean?



7. (a) Which object is moving faster? (b) Which object has a negative velocity according to the convention we have established?



8. (a) Which object is moving faster? (b) Which starts ahead? Define what you mean by “ahead.”



Sketch the position-time graph corresponding to each of the following descriptions of the motion of an object.

9. The object moves with a steady (constant) velocity away from the origin.



10. The object is standing still.



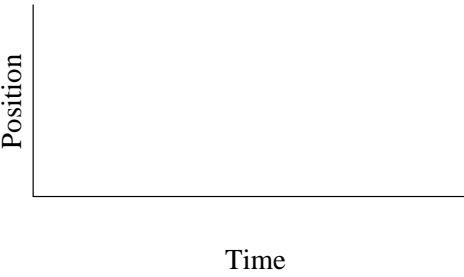
11. The object moves with a steady (constant) velocity toward the origin for 5 seconds and stands still for 5 seconds.



12. The object moves with a steady velocity away from the origin for 5 seconds, then reverses direction and moves at the same speed toward the origin for 5 seconds.



13. The object moves away from the origin, starting slowly and speeding up.



4 Velocity vs. Time Graphs⁴

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To acquire an intuitive understanding of speed and velocity in one dimension.
- To learn how to relate graphs of velocity vs. time to the motions they represent.

Introduction

You have already plotted your position as a function of time. Another way to represent your motion during an interval of time is with a graph which describes how fast and in what direction you are moving from moment to moment. How fast you move is known as your speed. It is the rate of change of position with respect to time. Velocity is a quantity which takes into account your speed and the direction you are moving. Thus, when you examine the motion of an object moving along a line, its velocity can be positive or negative depending on whether the object is moving in the positive or negative direction.

Graphs of velocity over time are more challenging to create and interpret than those for position. A good way to learn to interpret them is to create and examine velocity vs. time graphs of your own body motions, as you will do in the next few activities.

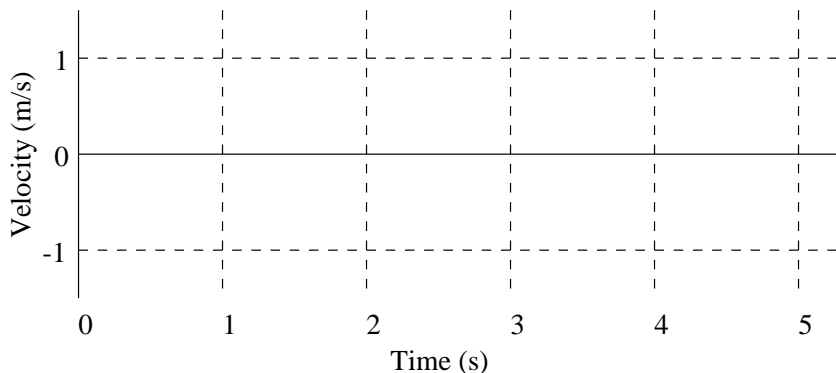
Apparatus

- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- Ultrasonic motion detector
- *Data Studio* software (Velocity Graphs application)
- Wooden board

To make the graphs in the following activities, use the **Velocity Graphs** application by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **131 Workshop** → **Velocity Graphs**. Click **Start** to begin, **Stop** to end a data run.

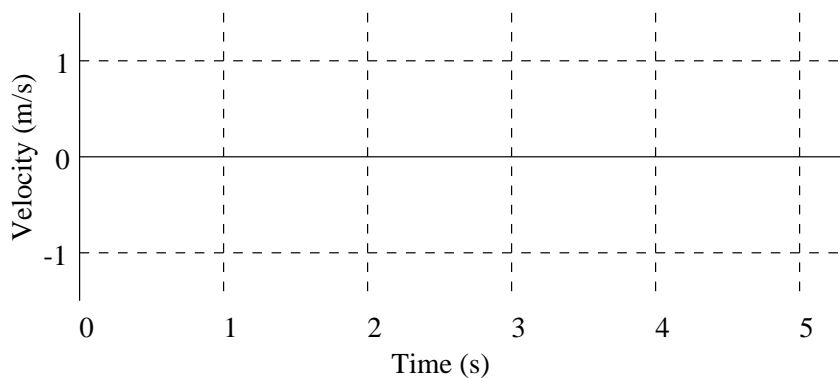
Activity 1: Making Velocity vs. Time Graphs

(a) Make a velocity graph by walking away from the detector slowly and steadily. Try again until you get a graph you're satisfied with and then sketch your result on the graph that follows. (We suggest you draw smooth patterns by ignoring smaller bumps that are mostly due to your steps.)

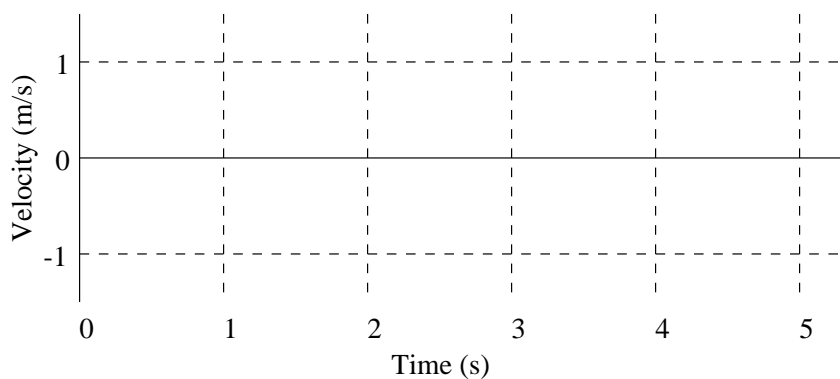


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(b) Make a velocity graph, walking away from the detector steadily at a medium speed. Sketch your graph below.



(c) Make a velocity graph, walking toward the detector slowly and steadily. Sketch your graph below.



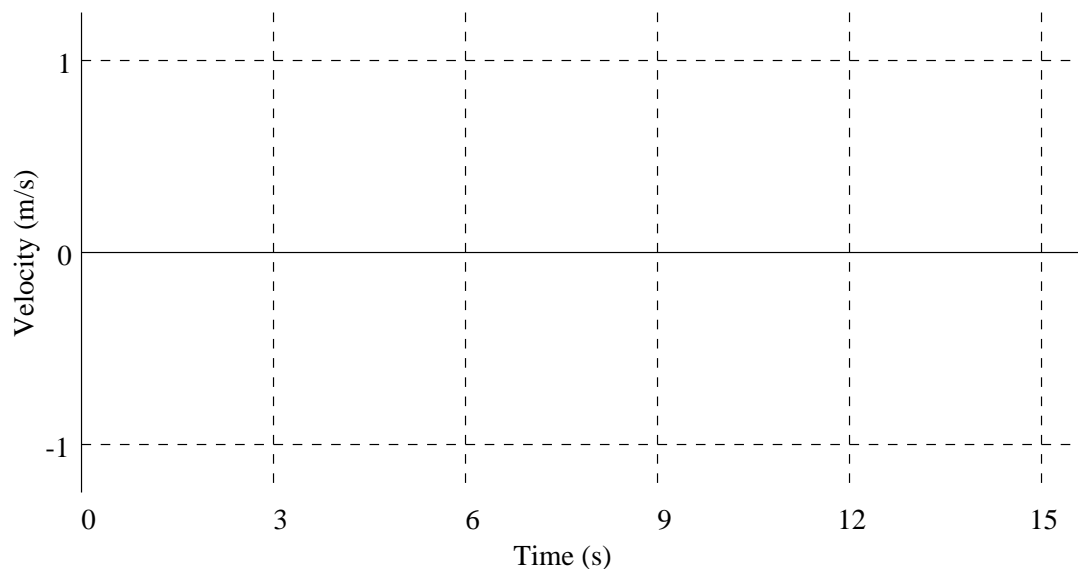
(d) What is the most important difference between the graph made by slowly walking away from the detector and the one made by walking away more quickly?

(e) How are the velocity vs. time graphs different for motion away and motion toward the detector?

Activity 2: Predicting a Velocity vs. Time Graph

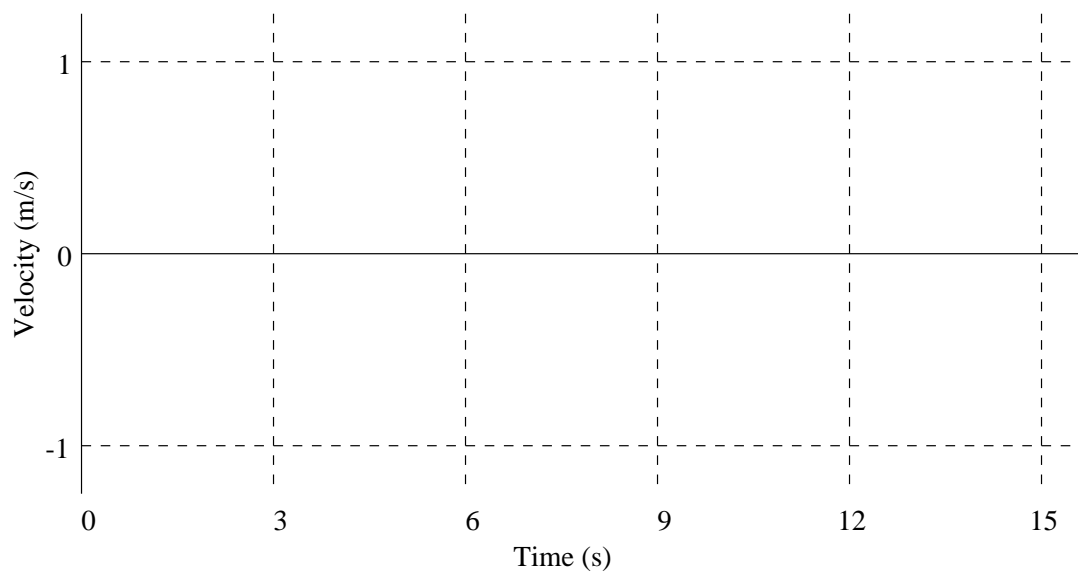
Suppose you were to undergo the following sequence of motions: (1) walk away from the detector slowly and steadily for 6 seconds, (2) stand still for 6 seconds, (3) walk toward the detector steadily about twice as fast as before.

(a) Use a dashed line in the graph that follows to record your prediction of the shape of the velocity graph that will result from the motion described above.



(b) Compare predictions with your partner(s) and see if you can all agree. Use a solid line to sketch your group prediction in the graph above.

(c) Adjust the sampling time to 15 s and then test your prediction. Repeat your motion until you are confident that it matches the description in words and then draw the actual graph on the axes below. Be sure the 6-second stop shows clearly.



(d) Did your prediction match your real motion? If not, what misunderstanding of what elements of the graph did you have?

Velocity Vectors

The two ideas of speed and direction can be combined and represented by vectors. A velocity vector is represented by an arrow pointing in the direction of motion. The length of the arrow is drawn proportional to the speed;

the longer the arrow, the larger the speed. If you are moving toward the right, your velocity vector can be represented by the arrow shown below.



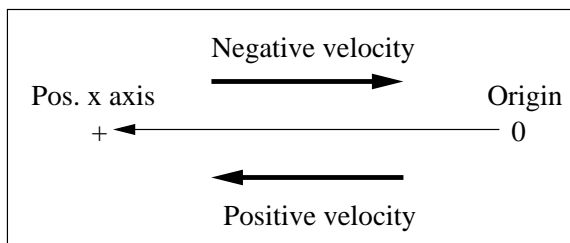
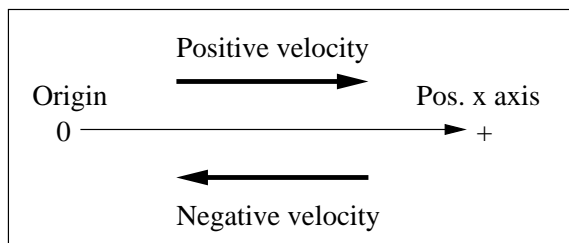
If you were moving twice as fast toward the right, the arrow representing your velocity vector would look like:



while moving twice as fast toward the left would be represented by the following arrow:



What is the relationship between a one-dimensional velocity vector and the sign of velocity? This depends on the way you choose to set the positive x -axis.



In both diagrams the top vectors represent velocity toward the right. In the left diagram, the x -axis has been drawn so that the positive x -direction is toward the right. Thus the top arrow represents positive velocity. However, in the right diagram, the positive x -direction is toward the left. Thus the top arrow represents negative velocity. Likewise, in both diagrams the bottom arrows represent velocity toward the left. In the left diagram this is negative velocity, and in the right diagram it is positive velocity.

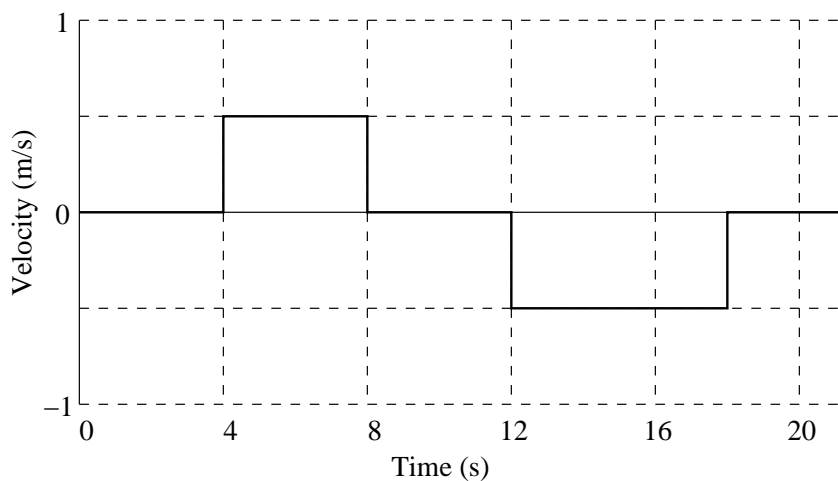
Activity 3: Sketching Velocity Vectors

Sketch below velocity vectors representing the three parts of the motion described in the prediction you made in Activity 2.

- (a) Walking slowly away from the detector:
- (b) Standing still:
- (c) Walking rapidly toward the detector:

Activity 4: Matching a Velocity Graph

- (a) Describe how you think you will have to move in order to match the velocity graph shown below.



(b) Move in such a way that you can reproduce the graph shown. You may have to practice a number of times to get the movements right. Work as a team and plan your movements. Get the times right. Get the velocities right. You and each person in your group should take a turn. Then sketch your group's best match on the above graph.

(c) Describe how you moved to match each part of the graph.

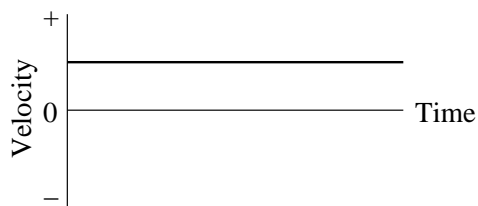
(d) Is it possible for an object to move so that it produces an absolutely vertical line on a velocity-time graph? Explain.

(e) Did you run into the motion detector on your return trip? If so, why did this happen? How did you solve the problem? Does a velocity graph tell you where to start? Explain.

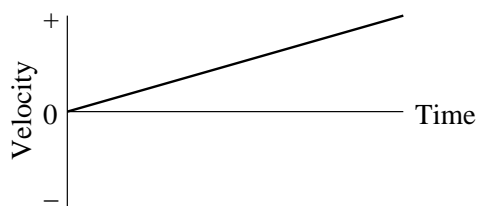
Homework

Answer the following questions in the spaces provided.

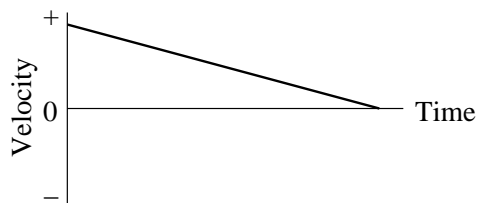
1. How do you move to create a horizontal line in the positive part of a velocity-time graph, as shown below?



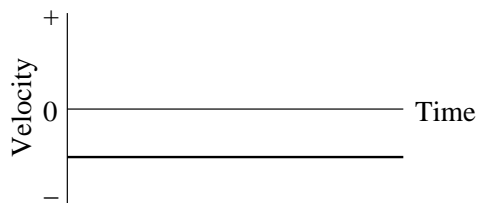
2. How do you move to create a straight-line velocity-time graph that slopes up from zero, as shown below?



3. How do you move to create a straight-line velocity-time graph that slopes down, as shown below?

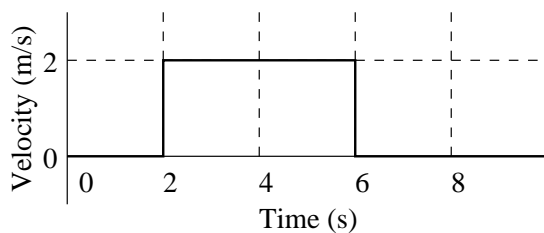


4. How do you move to make a horizontal line in the negative part of a velocity-time graph, as shown below?

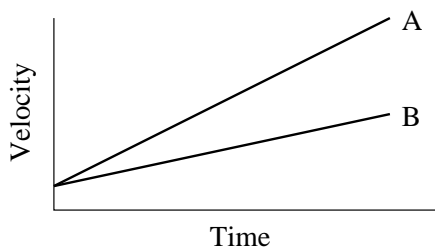


5. The velocity-time graph of an object is shown below. Figure out the total change in position (displacement) of the object. Show your work.

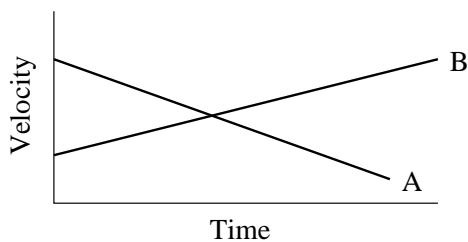
Displacement = _____ meters.



6. The velocity graph below shows the motion of two objects, A and B. Answer the following questions separately. Explain your answers when necessary. (a) Is one faster than the other? If so, which one is faster? (A or B) (b) What does the intersection mean? (c) Can one tell which object is “ahead”? (define “ahead”) (d) Does either object A or B reverse direction? Explain.



7. The velocity graph below shows the motion of two objects, A and B. Answer the following questions separately. Explain your answers when necessary. (a) Is one faster than the other? If so, which one is faster? (A or B) (b) What does the intersection mean? (c) Can one tell which object is “ahead”? (define “ahead”) (d) Does either object A or B reverse direction? Explain.



Sketch the velocity-time graph corresponding to each of the following descriptions of the motion of an object.

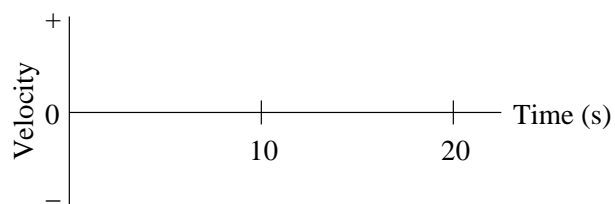
8. The object is moving away from the origin at a constant velocity.



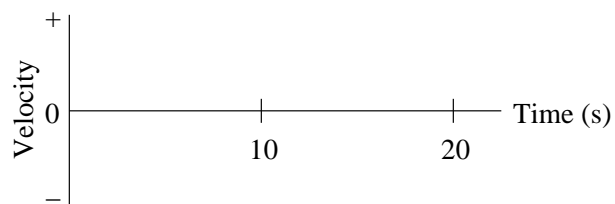
9. The object is standing still.



10. The object moves toward the origin at a steady (constant) velocity for 10 s and then stands still for 10 s.



11. The object moves away from the origin at a steady (constant) velocity for 10 s, reverses direction and moves back toward the origin at the same speed for 10 s.



5 Relating Position and Velocity Graphs⁵

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

To understand the relationship between position vs. time and velocity vs. time graphs.

Introduction

You have looked at position and velocity vs. time graphs separately. Since position vs. time and velocity vs. time graphs are different ways to represent the same motion, it ought to be possible to figure out the velocity at which someone is moving by examining her/his position vs. time graph. Conversely, you ought to be able to figure out how far someone has traveled (change in position) from a velocity vs. time graph.

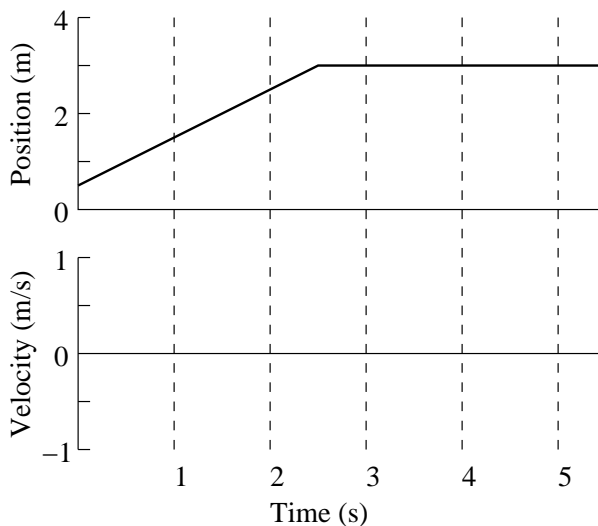
To explore how position vs. time and velocity vs. time graphs are related, go to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **131 Workshop** → **Position & Velocity Graphs**. For some of the runs it may be necessary to adjust the time axis for one of the graphs so that the time scales are the same for the position and velocity graphs.

Apparatus

- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- Ultrasonic motion detector
- *DataStudio* software (Position & Velocity Graphs application)
- Wooden board

Activity 1: Predicting Velocity Graphs from Position Graphs

(a) Carefully study the position graph shown below and predict the velocity vs. time graph that would result from the motion. Using a dashed line, sketch your prediction of the corresponding velocity vs. time graph on the velocity axes.



⁵1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

(b) After each person in your group has sketched a prediction, test your prediction by matching the position vs. time graph shown. When you have made a good duplicate of the position graph, sketch your actual graph over the existing position vs. time graph. Use a solid line to draw the actual velocity graph on the same graph with your prediction. (Do not erase your prediction).

(c) How would the position graph be different if you moved faster? Slower?

(d) How would the velocity graph be different if you moved faster? Slower?

Activity 2: Average Velocity Calculations

(a) Find your average velocity during the time you were moving from your velocity graph in the previous activity. To do this, use the Smart Tool on the graph menu bar (sixth box along the top of the graph window) to determine the velocity at ten points on the left part of the graph. Record these ten values, then average them to get an estimate of the average velocity (for the time you were moving).

Velocity values (m/s) _____

Average value of the velocity: _____ m/s

Standard deviation: _____ m/s

Average velocity with uncertainty: _____ m/s

(b) Average velocity during a particular time interval can also be calculated as the change in position divided by the change in time. (The change in position is often called the displacement.) By definition, this is also the slope of the position vs. time graph for that time period. Use the cursors on the position vs. time graph to read the position and time coordinates for two typical points while you were moving. (For a more accurate answer, use two points as far apart as possible but still typical of the motion, and within the time interval over which you took velocity readings in part (a).) Record the coordinates of the points below.

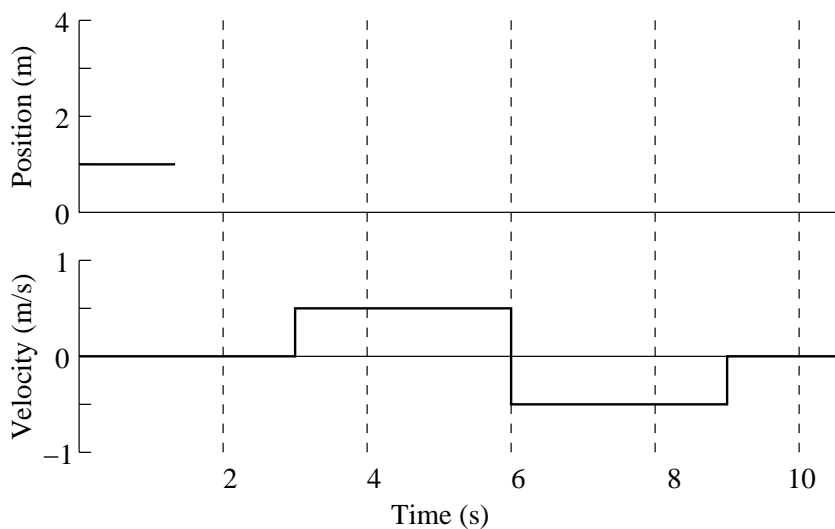
(c) Calculate the change in position (displacement) between the two points in part (b). Also calculate the corresponding change in time (time interval). Divide the change in position by the change in time to calculate the average velocity. Show your calculations below.

(d) Is the average velocity positive or negative? Is this what you expected?

(e) Does the average velocity you just calculated from the position graph agree with the average velocity you estimated from the velocity graph? Do you expect them to agree? How would you account for any differences?

Activity 3: Finding Position from a Velocity Graph

(a) Carefully study the velocity graph that follows. Using a dashed line, sketch your prediction of the corresponding position graph on the top set of axes. (Assume that you started at the 1-meter mark.)



(b) After each person has sketched a prediction, do your group's best to duplicate the bottom (velocity vs. time) graph by walking. When you have made a good duplicate of the velocity vs. time graph, draw your actual result over the existing velocity vs. time graph. Use a solid line on the top graph to draw the actual position vs. time graph on the same axes with your prediction. Do not erase your prediction.

(c) How can you tell from a velocity vs. time graph that the moving object has changed direction?

(d) What is the velocity at the moment the direction changes?

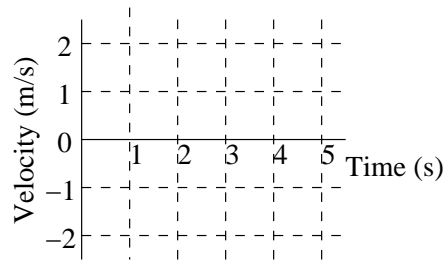
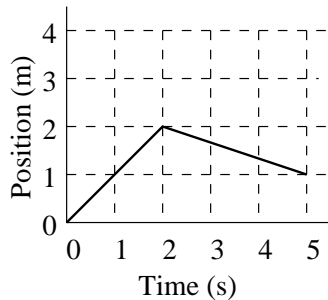
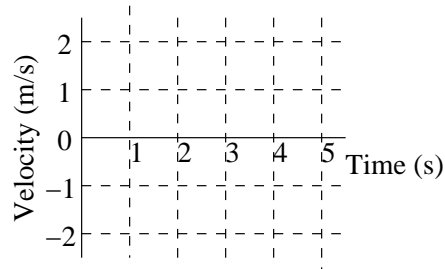
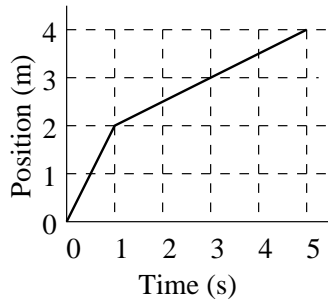
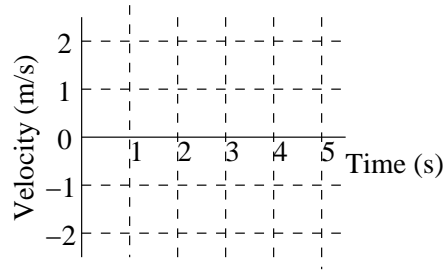
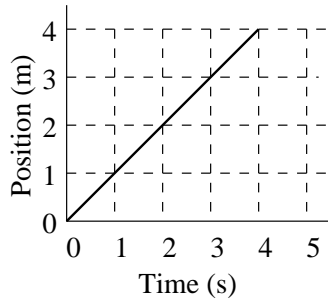
(e) Is it possible to actually move your body (or an object) to make vertical lines on a position vs. time graph? Why or why not? What would the velocity be for a vertical section of a position vs. time graph?

(f) How can you tell from a position vs. time graph that your motion is steady (motion at a constant velocity)?

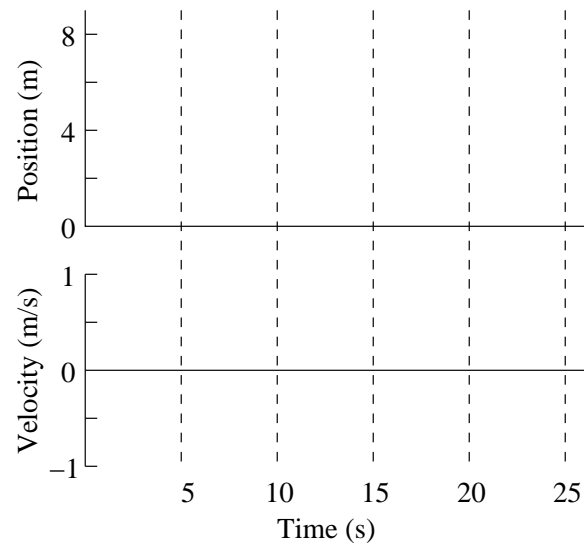
(g) How can you tell from a velocity vs. time graph that your motion is steady (constant velocity)?

Homework

1. Draw the velocity graphs for an object whose motion produced the position-time graphs shown below on the left. Position is in meters and velocity in meters per second. Note: Unlike most real objects, you can assume these objects can change velocity so quickly that it looks instantaneous with this time scale.



2. Draw careful graphs below of position and velocity for a cart that (a) moves away from the origin at a slow and steady (constant) velocity for the first 5 seconds; (b) moves away at a medium-fast, steady (constant) velocity for the next 5 seconds; (c) stands still for the next 5 seconds; (d) moves toward the origin at a slow and steady (constant) velocity for the next 5 seconds; (e) stands still for the last 5 seconds.



6 Changing Motion⁶

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn how to relate graphs of acceleration vs. time to the motions they represent.
- To understand the relationship between position vs. time, velocity vs. time, and acceleration vs. time graphs.

Velocity and Acceleration Graphs

We are interested in having you learn to describe simple motions in which the velocity of an object is changing. In order to learn to describe motion in more detail for some simple situations, you will be asked to observe and describe the motion of a dynamics cart on a track. Although graphs and words are still important representations of these motions, you will also be asked to draw velocity vectors, arrows that indicate both the direction and speed of a moving object. Thus, you will also learn how to represent simple motions with velocity diagrams .

In the last session, you looked at position vs. time and velocity vs. time graphs of the motion of your body as you moved at a “constant” velocity. The data for the graphs were collected using a motion detector. Your goal in this session is to learn how to describe various kinds of motion in more detail. It is not enough when studying motion in physics to simply say that “the object is moving toward the right” or “it is standing still.” You have probably realized that a velocity vs. time graph is better than a position vs. time graph when you want to know how fast and in what direction you are moving at each instant in time as you walk. When the velocity of an object is changing, it is also important to know how it is changing. The rate of change of velocity is known as the acceleration.

In order to get a feeling for acceleration, it is helpful to create and learn to interpret velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs for some relatively simple motions of a cart on a track. You will be observing the cart with the motion detector as it moves at a constant velocity and as it changes its velocity at a constant rate. Use the **P, V & A Graphs** application by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **131 Workshop** → **P, V & A Graphs** for all of the activities in this unit.

Apparatus

- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- Ultrasonic motion detector
- *DataStudio* software (P, V & A Graphs application)
- Collision cart and track
- Lab stand to incline the track

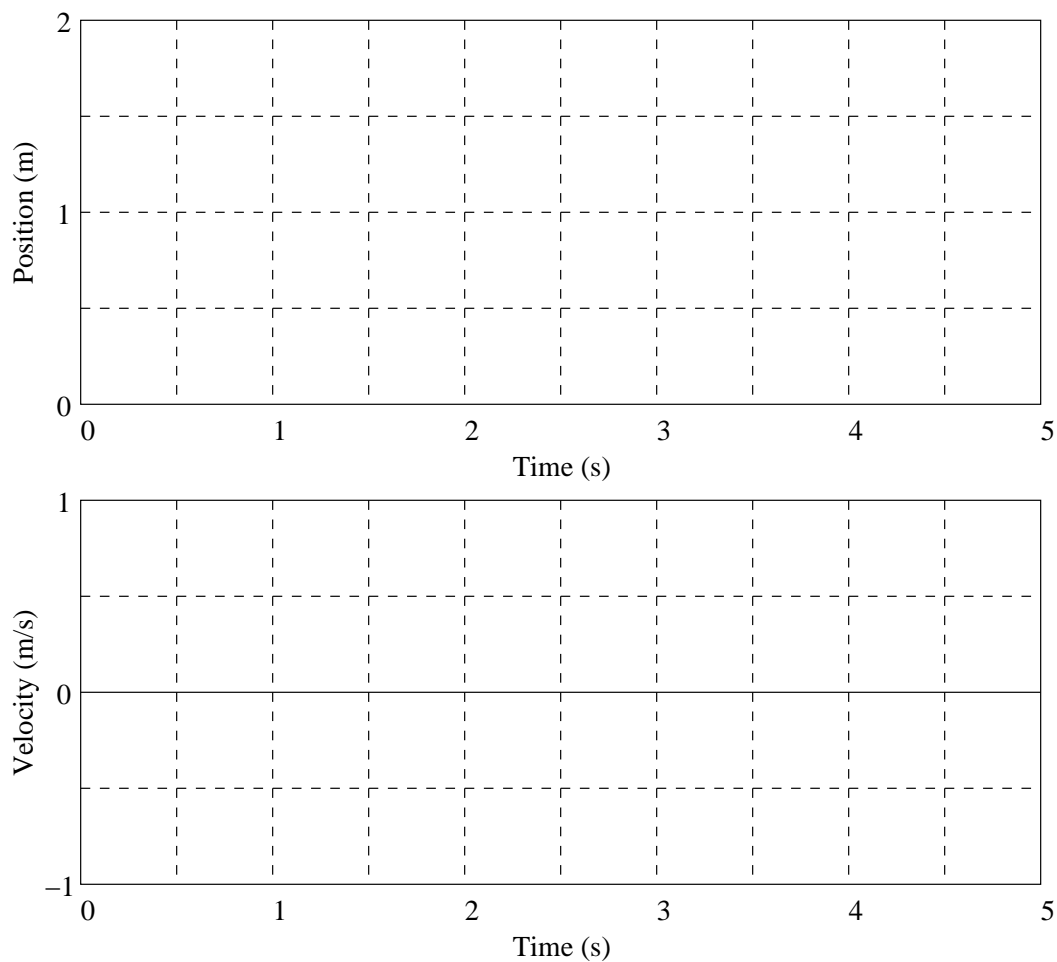
Graphing a Constant Velocity Cart Motion

Let’s start by giving the cart a push along the level track and graphing its motion.

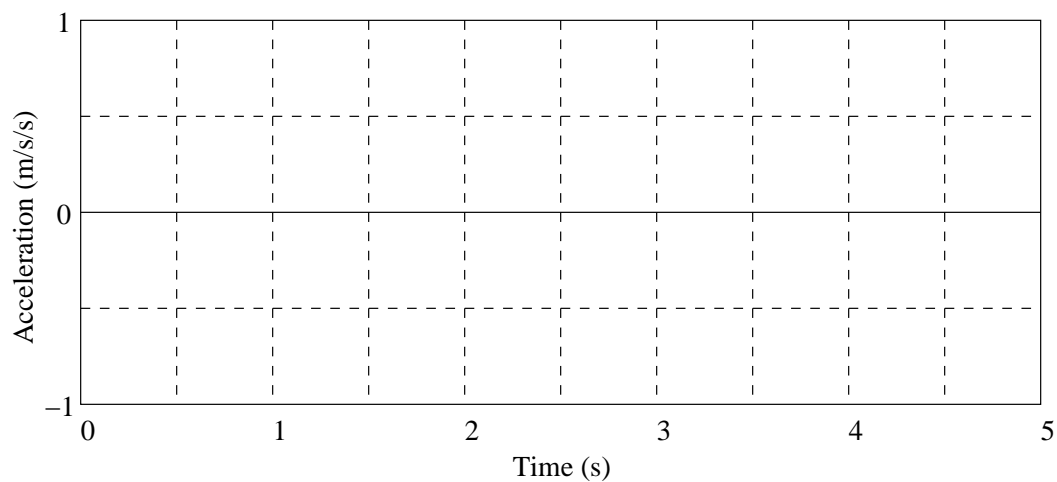
Activity 1: Position, Velocity and Acceleration Graphs of Constant Velocity

(a) Based on your observations of the motions of your body in the last session, how should the position and velocity graphs look if you move the cart at a constant velocity away from the motion detector starting at the 0.5 meter mark? Sketch your predictions with dashed lines on the axes that follow.

⁶1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.



(b) Acceleration is defined as the time rate of change of velocity. Sketch your prediction of the cart acceleration on the axes that follow using a dashed line.



(c) Test your prediction. Be sure that the cart is never closer than 0.15 meter from the motion detector. Try

several times until you get a fairly constant velocity. Sketch your results with solid lines on the axes shown above. The acceleration vs. time graphs will exhibit small fluctuations due to irregularities in the motion of the cart. You should ignore these fluctuations and draw smooth patterns.

(d) Did your graphs agree with your predictions? What characterizes constant velocity motion on a position vs. time graph?

(e) What characterizes constant velocity motion on a velocity vs. time graph?

(f) What characterizes constant velocity motion on an acceleration vs. time graph?

Finding Accelerations

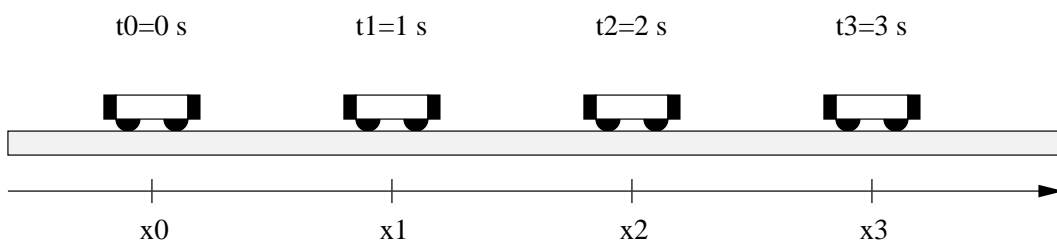
To find the average acceleration of the cart during some time interval (the average time rate of change of its velocity), you must measure its velocity at two different times, calculate the difference between the final value and the initial value and divide by the time interval.

To find the acceleration vector from two velocity vectors, you must first find the vector representing the change in velocity by subtracting the initial velocity vector from the final one. Then you divide this vector by the time interval.

Activity 2: Representing Acceleration

(a) Calculate the average acceleration during some time interval from your velocity graph in Activity 1. Does the result agree with your acceleration graph in Activity 1?

(b) The diagram below shows the positions of the cart at equal time intervals. (This is like taking snapshots of the cart at equal time intervals.) At each indicated time, sketch a vector above the cart which might represent the velocity of the cart at that time while it is moving at a constant velocity away from the motion detector.



(c) Show how you would find the vector representing the change in velocity between the times 1.0 s and 2.0 s by creating a vector diagram using the vectors above. From the resultant vector, what value would you calculate for the acceleration? Is this value in agreement with the acceleration graph you obtained in Activity 1?

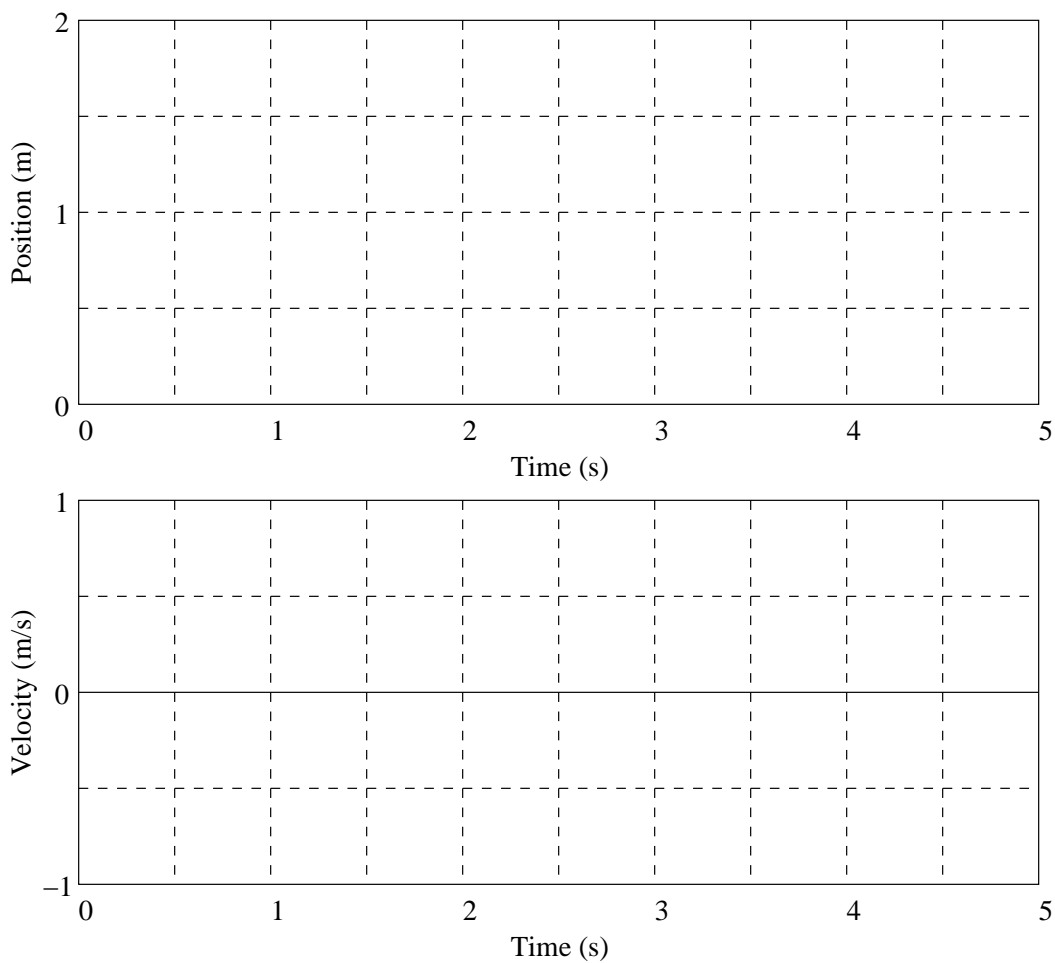
Speeding Up at a Moderate Rate

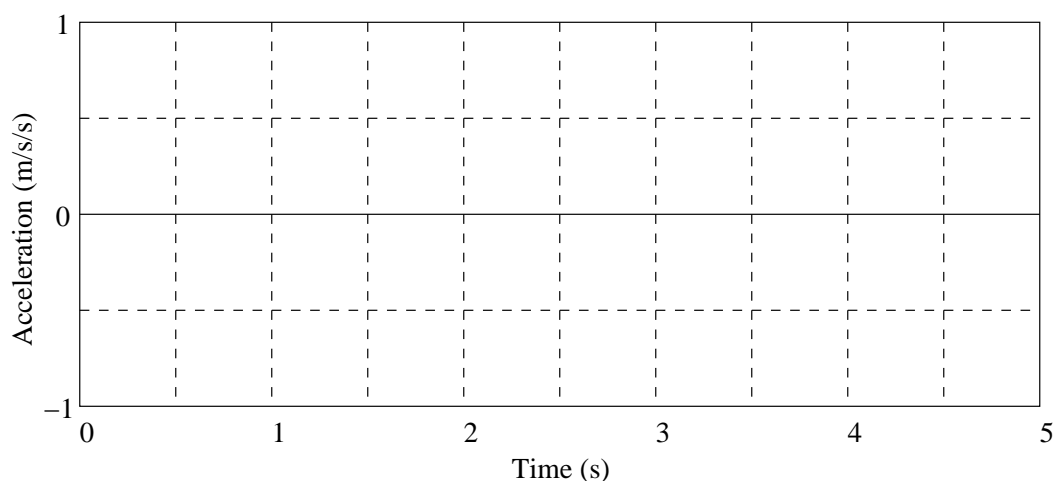
In the next activity you will look at velocity and acceleration graphs of the motion of a cart when its velocity is changing. You will be able to see how these two representations of the motion are related to each other when the cart is speeding up.

In order to get your cart speeding up smoothly use the lab stand to raise the track several centimeters at the end where the motion detector is mounted.

Activity 3: Graphs Depicting Speeding Up

(a) Predict the shape of the position, velocity, and acceleration vs. time graphs for the cart moving away from the sensor and speeding up. Sketch your predictions on the following axes using dashed lines.





(b) Create graphs of the motion of your cart as it moves away from the detector and speeds up. Sketch the graphs neatly on the above axes using solid lines.

(c) How does your position graph differ from the position graphs for steady (constant velocity) motion?

(d) What feature of your velocity graph signifies that the motion was away from the detector?

(e) What feature of your velocity graph signifies that the cart was speeding up? How would a graph of motion with a constant velocity differ?

(f) During the time that the cart is speeding up, is the acceleration positive or negative? How does speeding up while moving away from the detector result in this sign of acceleration? Hint: Remember that acceleration is the rate of change of velocity. Look at how the velocity is changing.

(g) How does the velocity vary in time as the cart speeds up? Does it increase at a steady rate or in some other way?

(h) How does the acceleration vary in time as the cart speeds up? Is this what you expect based on the velocity graph? Explain.

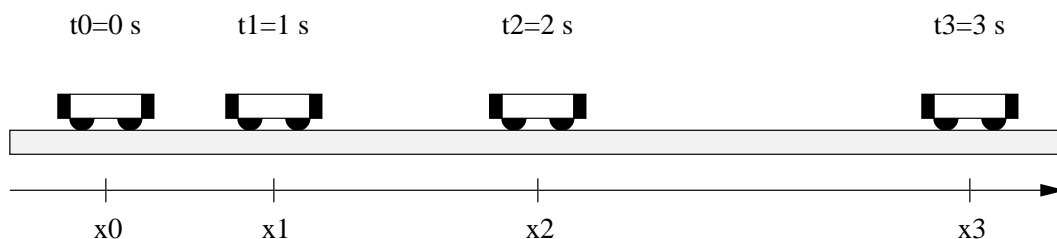
(i) Do not delete the graphs from the computer screen. They will be used in Activity 5.

Using Vectors to Describe the Acceleration

Let's return to the Vector Diagram representation and use it to describe the acceleration.

Activity 4: Acceleration Vectors

(a) The diagram that follows shows the positions of the cart at equal time intervals. At each indicated time, sketch a vector above the cart which might represent the velocity of the cart at that time while it is moving away from the motion detector and speeding up.



(b) Show below how you would find the approximate length and direction of the vector representing the change in velocity between the times 1.0 s and 2.0 s by creating a vector diagram using the vectors above. No quantitative calculations are needed. Based on the direction of this vector and the direction of the positive x-axis, what is the sign of the acceleration? Does this agree with your answer to Activity 3 (f)?

Measuring Acceleration

In this investigation you will analyze the motion of your accelerated cart quantitatively. This analysis will be quantitative in the sense that your results will consist of numbers. You will determine the cart's acceleration from the slope of your velocity vs. time graph and compare it to the average acceleration read from the acceleration vs. time graph. You can display actual values for your acceleration and velocity data using the Smart Tool on the graph window menu.

Activity 5: Calculating Accelerations

(a) List 10 of the typical accelerations of the cart measured in Activity 3. Use the Smart Tool on the acceleration vs. time graph to get these values. (Only use values from the portion of the graph after the cart was released and before you stopped it.)

(b) Calculate the average value of the acceleration and record it below. Also calculate the standard deviation and write the acceleration with its uncertainty.

(c) The average acceleration during a particular time period is defined as the change in velocity divided by the change in time. This is the average rate of change of velocity. By definition, the rate of change of a quantity graphed with respect to time is also the slope of the curve. Thus the (average) slope of an object's velocity vs. time graph is the (average) acceleration of the object.

Use the Smart Tool to read the velocity and time coordinates for two typical points on the velocity vs. time graph. For a more accurate answer, use two points as far apart in time as possible but still during the time the cart was speeding up. Record the points in the space below.

(d) Calculate the change in velocity between points 1 and 2. Also calculate the corresponding change in time (time interval). Divide the change in velocity by the change in time. This is the average acceleration. Show and then summarize your calculations below.

(e) Is the acceleration positive or negative? Is this what you expected?

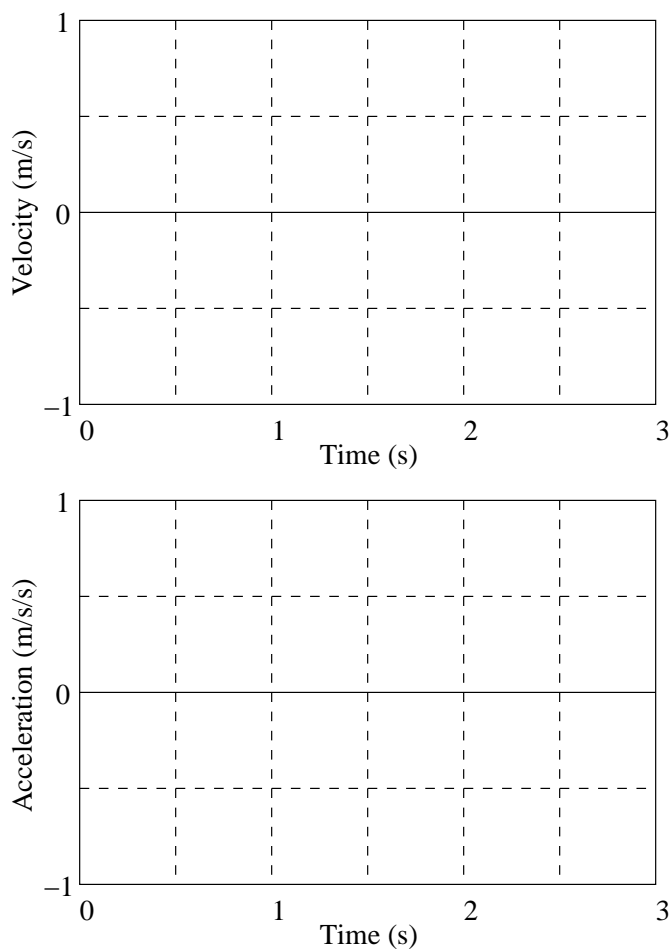
(f) Does the average acceleration you just calculated agree with the average acceleration you calculated from the acceleration vs. time graph? Do you expect them to agree? How would you account for any differences?

Speeding Up at a Faster Rate

Suppose that you accelerate your cart at a faster rate by raising the end of the track several more centimeters. How would your velocity and acceleration graphs change?

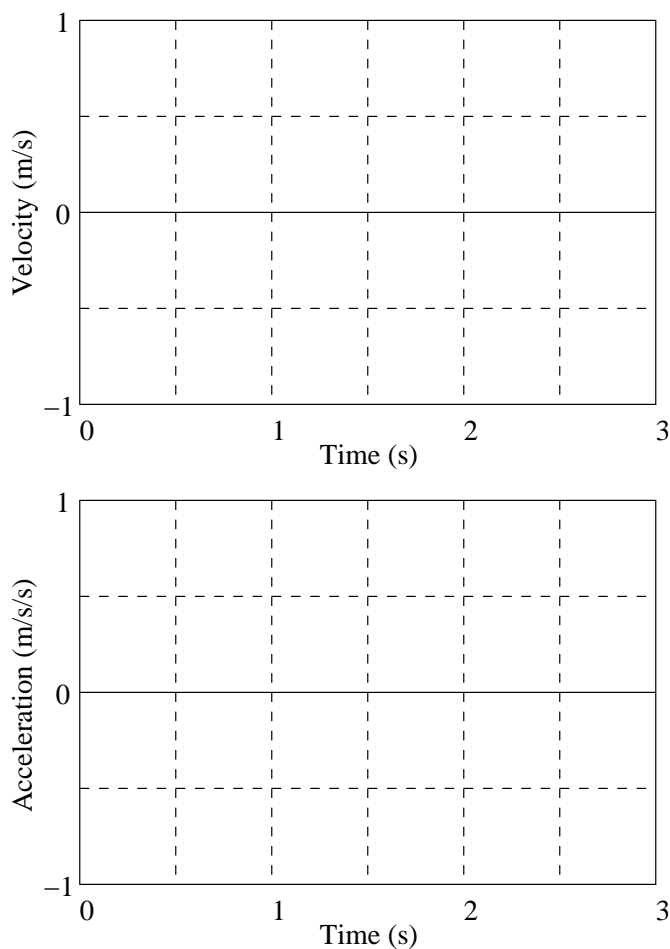
Activity 6: Graphs for a Greater Acceleration

(a) Resketch the velocity and acceleration graphs you found in Activity 3 using the axes that follow.



(b) In the previous set of axes, use a dashed line or another color to sketch your predictions for the general graphs that depict a cart speeding up at a faster rate. Exact predictions are not expected. We just want to know how you think the general shapes of the graphs will change.

(c) Test your predictions by accelerating the cart with the end of the track raised several centimeters more than in Activity 3. Repeat if necessary to get nice graphs and then sketch the results using the axes that follow.

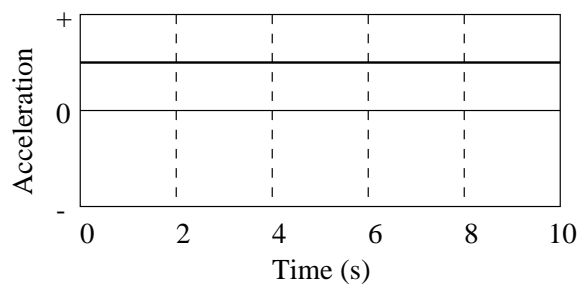


(d) Did the general shapes of your velocity and acceleration graphs agree with your predictions? How is the greater magnitude (size) of acceleration represented on a velocity vs. time graph?

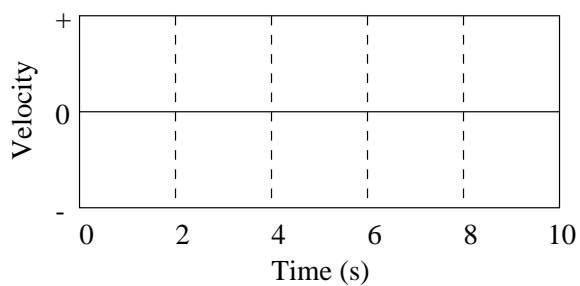
(e) How is the greater magnitude (size) of acceleration represented on an acceleration vs. time graph?

Homework

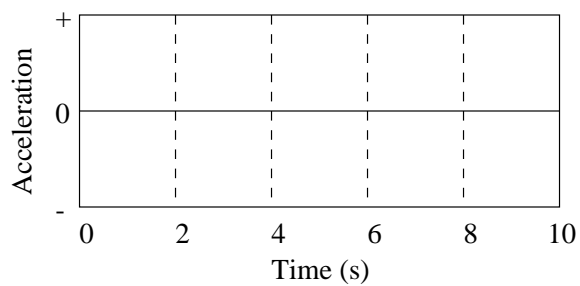
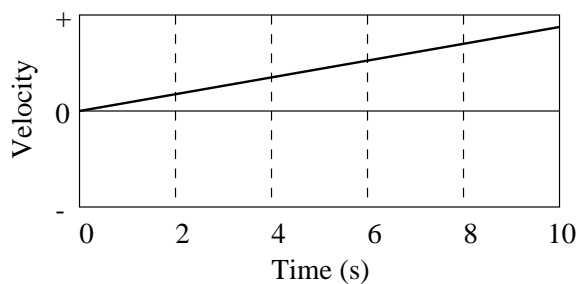
1. An object moving along a line (the + position axis) has the acceleration-time graph shown below. Describe how might the object move to create this graph if it is moving away from the origin?

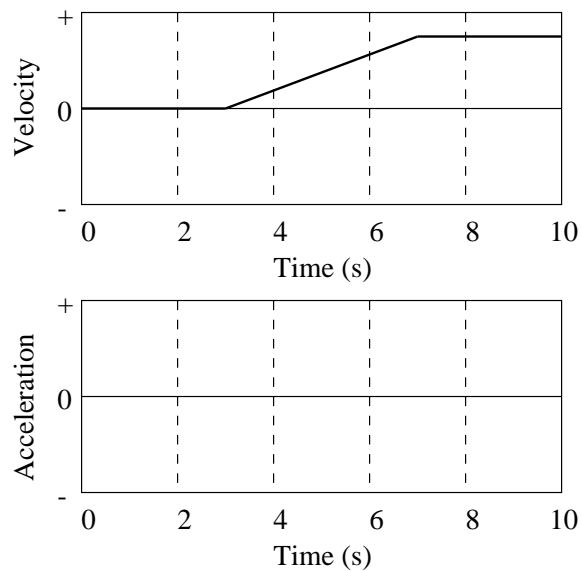


2. Sketch on the axes below a velocity-time graph that goes with the above acceleration-time graph.

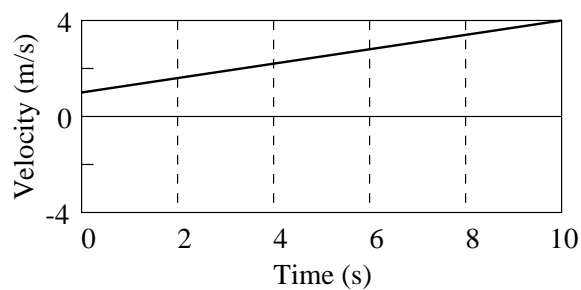


3. For each of the velocity-time graphs below, sketch the shape of the acceleration-time graph that goes with it.



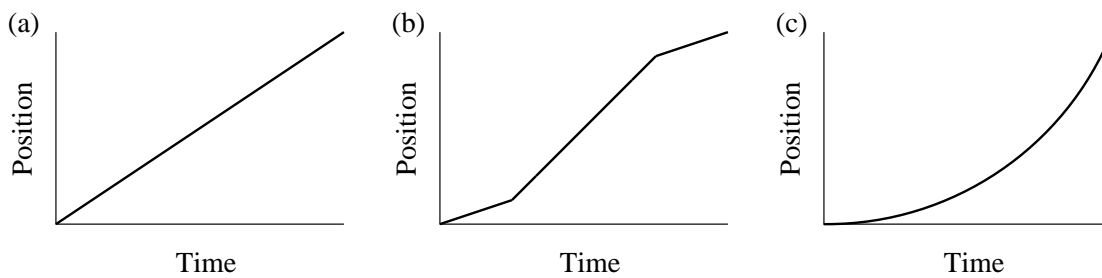


4. The following is a velocity-time graph for a car.



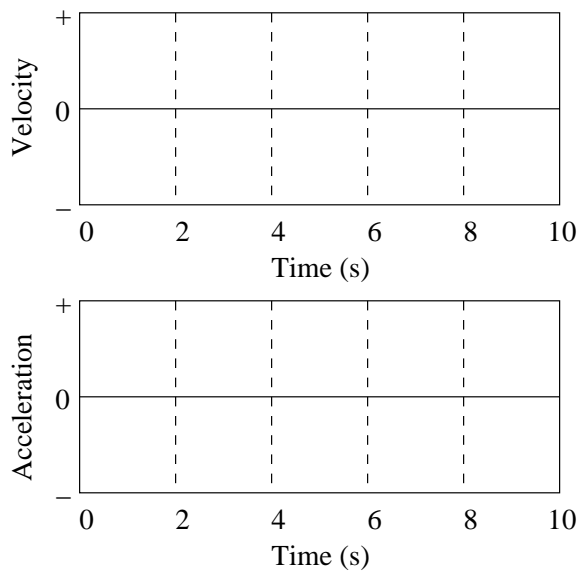
What is the average acceleration of the car? Show your work below.

5. Which position-time graph below could be that for a cart that is steadily accelerating away from the origin?

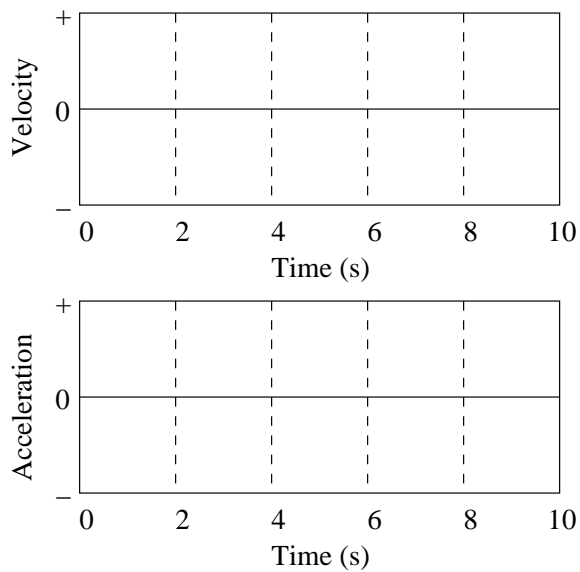


A car can move along a line (the + position axis). Sketch velocity-time and acceleration-time graphs which correspond to each of the following descriptions of the car's motion.

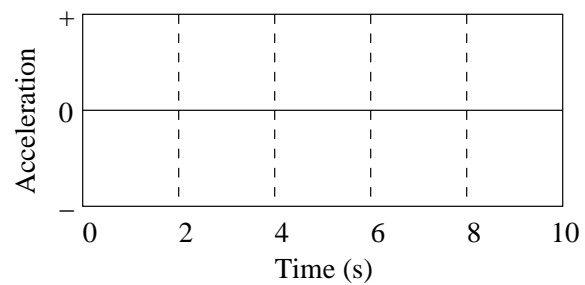
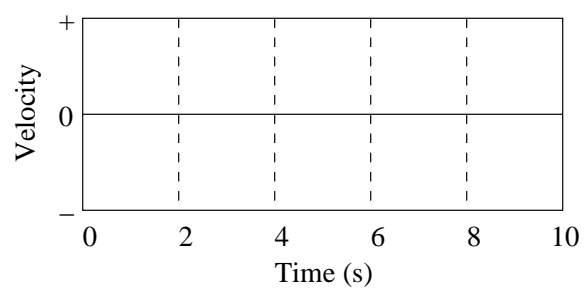
6. The car starts from rest and moves away from the origin increasing its speed at a steady rate.



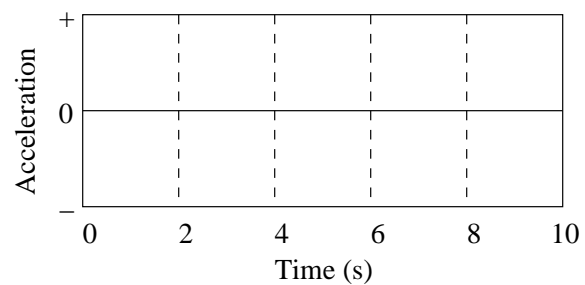
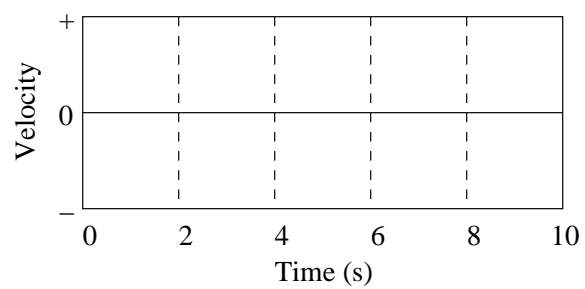
7. The car is moving away from the origin at a constant velocity.



8. The car starts from rest and moves away from the origin increasing its speed at a steady rate twice as large as in (6) above.



9. The car is moving away from the origin at a constant velocity twice as large as in (7) above.



7 Slowing Down, Speeding Up, and Turning⁷

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn how to relate graphs of acceleration vs. time to the motions they represent.
- To understand the relationship between velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs.

About Slowing Down, Speeding Up and Turning

In the previous session, you explored the characteristics of position vs. time, velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs of the motion of a dynamics cart. In the cases examined, the cart was always moving away from a motion detector, either at a constant velocity or with a constant acceleration. Under these conditions, the velocity and acceleration are both positive. You also learned how to find the magnitude of the acceleration from velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs, and how to represent the velocity and acceleration using vectors.

In the motions you studied in the last session, the velocity and acceleration vectors representing the motion of the cart both pointed in the same direction. In order to get a better feeling for acceleration, it will be helpful to examine velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs for some slightly more complicated motions of a cart on an inclined track. Again you will use the motion detector to observe the cart as it changes its velocity at a constant rate. Only this time the motion may be toward the detector, and the cart may be speeding up or slowing down.

Apparatus

- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- Ultrasonic motion detector
- *DataStudio* software (P, V & A Graphs application)
- Collision cart and track
- Lab stand to incline the track

Slowing Down and Speeding Up

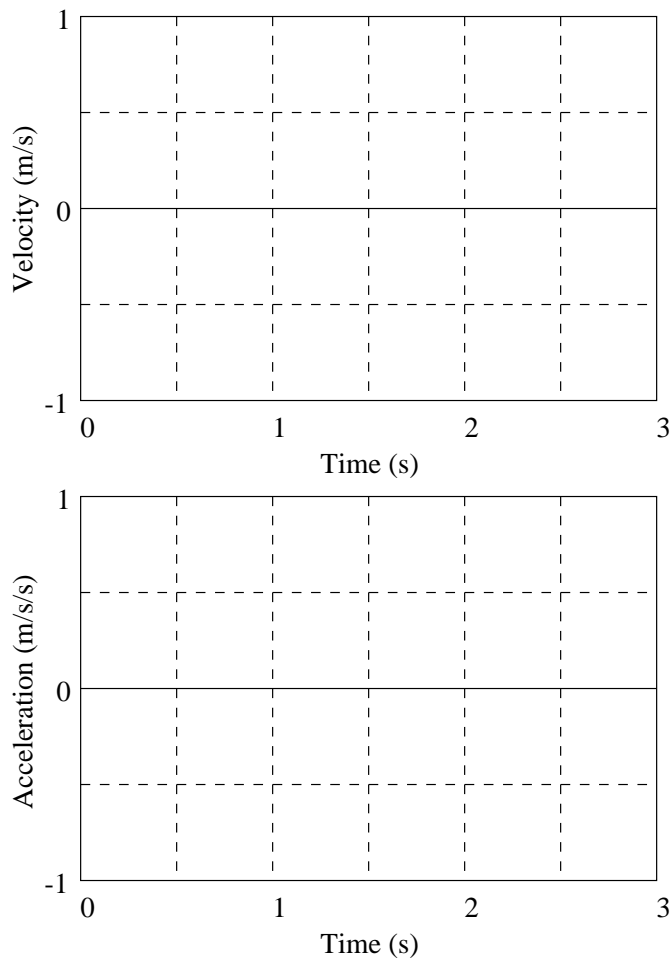
In this activity you will look at a cart moving along an inclined track and slowing down. A car being brought to rest by the steady action of brakes is a good example of this type of motion. Later you will examine the motion of the cart toward the motion detector and speeding up. In both cases, we are interested in the shapes of the velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs, as well as the vectors representing velocity and acceleration.

Let's start with the creation of velocity and acceleration graphs of when it is moving away from the motion detector and slowing down. To do this activity, the track should be inclined with a lab stand at one end and the motion detector set up at the lower end of the track. Adjust the lab stand so that the track is raised a few centimeters at the opposite end from where the motion detector is located. Now when you give the cart a push away from the motion detector, it will slow down after it is released. In this activity you will examine the velocity and acceleration of this motion.

Activity 1: Graphs Depicting Slowing Down

(a) If you give the cart a push away from the motion detector and release it, will the acceleration be positive, negative or zero (after it is released)? Sketch your predictions for the velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs on the axes below using dashed lines.

⁷1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.



(b) To test your predictions, open the **P, V & A Graphs** application as you did in the previous experiment. Locate the cart 0.15 m from the motion detector and gently push the cart away from the motion detector once it starts clicking. Catch the cart before it turns around or hits the end of the track.

Draw the results on the axes above using solid lines for the part of the motion after the cart is released. You may have to try a few times to get a good run. The acceleration vs. time graphs will exhibit small fluctuations due to irregularities in the motion of the cart. You should ignore these fluctuations and draw smooth patterns.

(c) Did the shapes of your velocity and acceleration graphs agree with your predictions? How is the sign of the acceleration represented on a velocity vs. time graph?

(d) How is the sign of the acceleration represented on an acceleration vs. time graph?

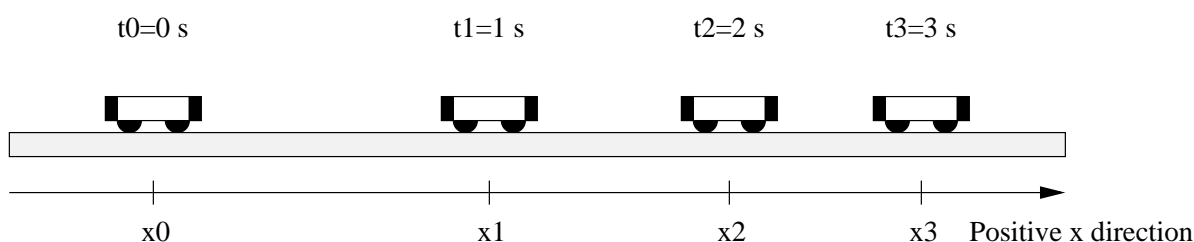
(e) Is the sign of the acceleration what you predicted? How does slowing down while moving away from the detector result in this sign of acceleration? Hint: Remember that acceleration is the rate of change of velocity. Look at how the velocity is changing.

Constructing Acceleration Vectors for Slowing Down

Let's consider a diagrammatic representation of a cart which is slowing down and use vector techniques to figure out the direction of the acceleration.

Activity 2: Vector Diagrams for Slowing Down

(a) The diagram that follows shows the positions of the cart at equal time intervals. (This is like taking snapshots of the cart at equal time intervals.) At each indicated time, sketch a vector above the cart which might represent the velocity of the cart at that time while it is moving away from the motion detector and slowing down.



(b) Show below how you would find the vector representing the change in velocity between the times 1 s and 2 s by creating a vector diagram using the vectors above. Based on the direction of the resultant vector and the direction of the positive x-axis, what is the sign of the acceleration? Does this agree with your answer to Question (e) in Activity 1?

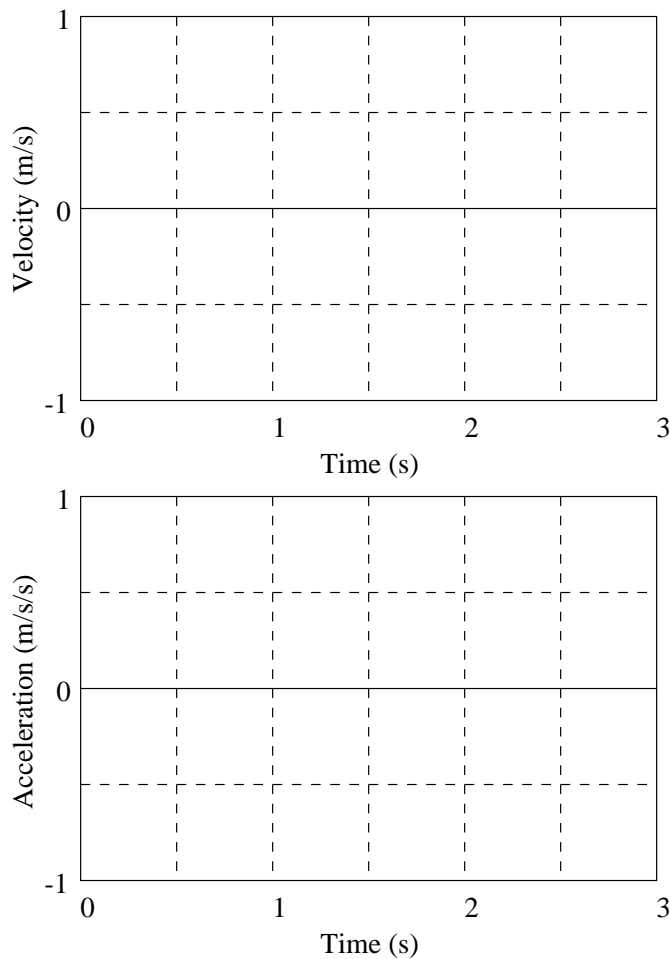
(c) Based on your observations in this activity and in the last session, state the general rules to predict the sign of the acceleration if you know the sign of the velocity (i.e., the direction of motion) and whether the object is speeding up or slowing down.

Speeding Up Toward the Motion Detector

Let's investigate another common situation. Suppose the cart is allowed to speed up when traveling toward the motion detector. What will be the direction of the acceleration? Positive or negative?

Activity 3: Graphs Depicting Speeding Up

(a) Use the general rules that you stated in Activity 2 to predict the shapes of the velocity and acceleration graphs. Sketch your predictions using dashed lines on the axes that follow.



(b) Test your predictions by releasing the cart from rest at the raised end of the track after the motion detector starts clicking. Catch the cart before it gets too close to the detector.

Draw the results using solid lines on the axes above. You may have to try a few times to get a good run.

(c) How does your velocity graph show that the cart was moving toward the detector?

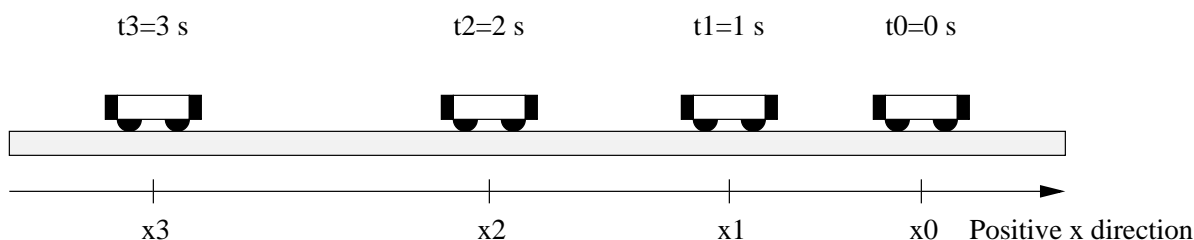
(d) During the time that the cart was speeding up, is the acceleration positive or negative? Does this agree with your prediction? Explain how speeding up while moving toward the detector results in this sign of acceleration. Hint: Think about how the velocity is changing.

Constructing Acceleration Vectors for Speeding Up

Let's consider a diagrammatic representation of a cart which is speeding up and use vector techniques to figure out the direction of the acceleration.

Activity 4: Vector Diagrams for Speeding Up

(a) The diagram that follows shows the positions of the cart at equal time intervals. (This is like taking snapshots of the cart at equal time intervals.) At each indicated time, sketch a vector above the cart which might represent the velocity of the cart at that time while it is moving toward the motion detector and speeding up.



(b) Show below how you would find the vector representing the change in velocity between the times 1s and 2 s as you did in Activity 2(b). Based on the direction of the resultant vector and the direction of the positive x-axis, what is the sign of the acceleration? Does this agree with your answer to Question (d) in Activity 3?

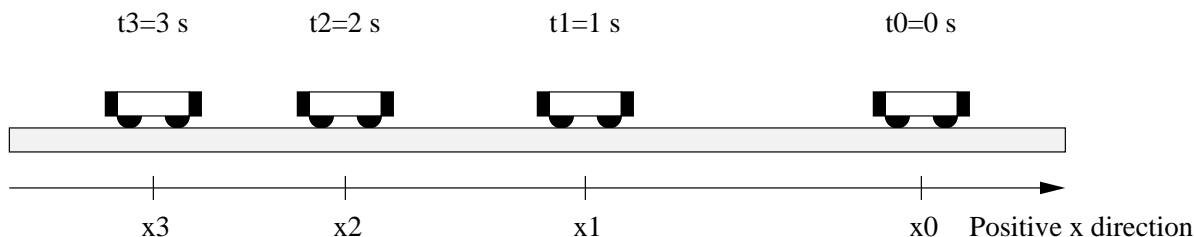
Moving Toward the Detector and Slowing Down

There is one more possible combination of velocity and acceleration for the cart, that of moving toward the detector while slowing down.

Activity 5: Slowing Down Toward the Detector

(a) Use your general rules to predict the sign of the acceleration when the cart is slowing down as it moves toward the detector. Explain why the acceleration should have this direction and this sign in terms of the velocity and how the velocity is changing.

(b) The diagram below shows the positions of the cart at equal time intervals for slowing down while moving toward the detector. At each indicated time, sketch a vector above the cart which might represent the velocity of the cart at that time while it is moving toward the motion detector and slowing down.



(c) Show below how you would find the vector representing the change in velocity between the times 1s and 2 s as you did in Activity 2(b). Based on the direction of the resultant vector and the direction of the positive x-axis, what is the sign of the acceleration? Does this agree with the prediction you made in part (a)?

Acceleration and Turning Around

In the last session and in the first activity in this session, you looked at velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs for a cart moving in one direction with a changing velocity. In this investigation you will look at what happens when the cart slows down, turns around and then speeds up.

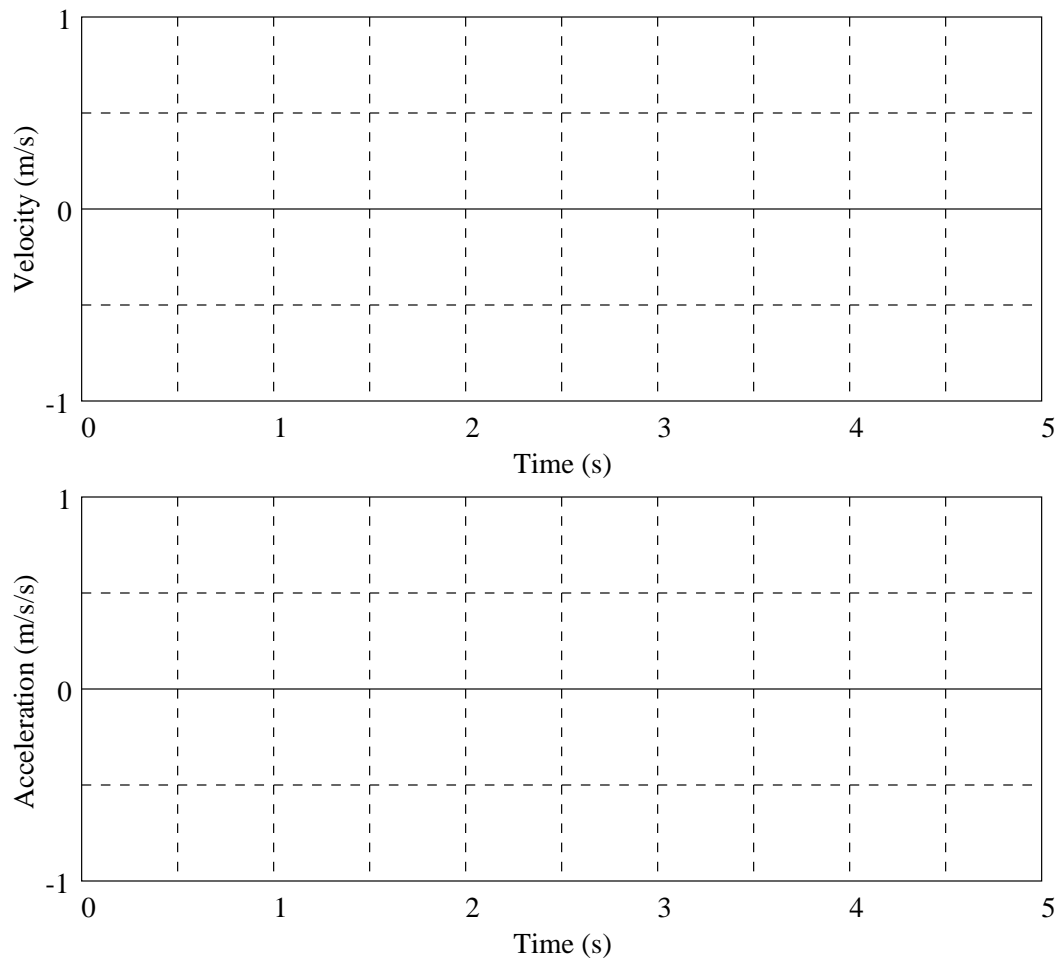
To practice this motion you should position the cart 0.15 m from the detector and give the cart a gentle push away from the motion detector. It should move up the track, slow down, reverse direction and then move back down toward the detector. Try it without activating the motion detector! Be sure that the cart does not hit the end of the track before it turns around.

Activity 6: Reversing Direction

(a) For each part of the motion-away from the detector, at the turning point, and toward the detector, predict in the table that follows whether the velocity will be positive, zero or negative. Also indicate whether the acceleration is positive, zero or negative.

	Moving Away	Turning Around	Moving Toward
Velocity			
Acceleration			

(b) Sketch the predicted shapes of the velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs of this entire motion on the axes that follow using dashed lines.



(c) Test your predictions by making graphs of the motion. Use the procedures you used in the slowing down and speeding up activities. You may have to try a few times to get a good run. When you get a good run, sketch both graphs on the axes above using solid lines.

(d) Did the cart have a zero velocity at any point in the motion? (Hint: Look at the velocity graph. What was the velocity of the cart at the end of the ramp?) Does this agree with your prediction? How much time did it spend at zero velocity before it started back toward the detector?

(e) According to your acceleration graph, what is the acceleration at the instant the cart comes to rest? Is it positive, negative or zero? Does this agree with your prediction?

(f) Explain the observed sign of the acceleration at the end of the ramp. (Hint: Remember that acceleration is the rate of change of velocity.)

(g) Print a copy of the velocity and acceleration graphs for each person in your group and add the graphs to this unit.

(h) Notice that the slope of the velocity graph is not quite the same for positive velocities as it is for negative velocities. (This difference can also be seen on the acceleration graph.) What accounts for this difference?

Tossing a Ball

Suppose you throw a ball up into the air. It moves upward, reaches its highest point and then moves back down toward your hand. We will now consider what can be said about the directions of its velocity and acceleration vectors at various points.

Activity 7: The Rise and Fall of a Ball

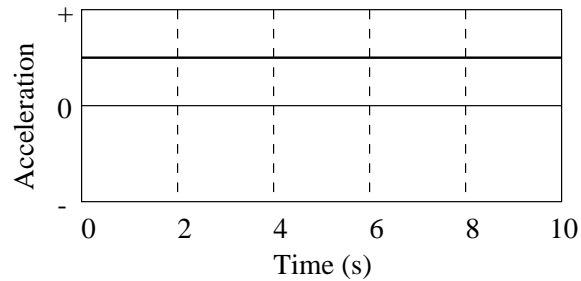
(a) Consider the ball toss carefully. Assume that upward is the positive direction. Indicate in the table that follows whether the velocity is positive, zero or negative during each of the three parts of the motion. Also indicate if the acceleration is positive, zero or negative. Hint: Remember, to find the acceleration you must look at the change in velocity.

	Moving Up (After Release)	At Highest Point	Moving Down
Velocity			
Acceleration			

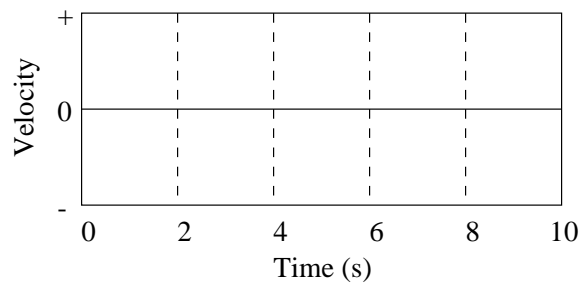
(b) In what ways is the motion of the ball similar to the motion of the cart which you just observed?

Homework

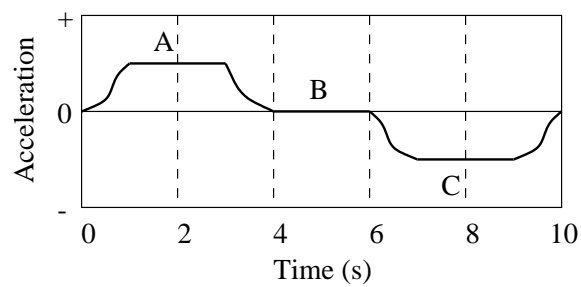
1. An object moving along a line (the + position axis) has the acceleration-time graph below. How might the object move to create this graph if it is moving toward the origin?



2. Sketch on the axes below the velocity-time graph that goes with the above acceleration- time graph.



3. How would an object move to create each of the three labeled parts of the acceleration- time graph shown below?

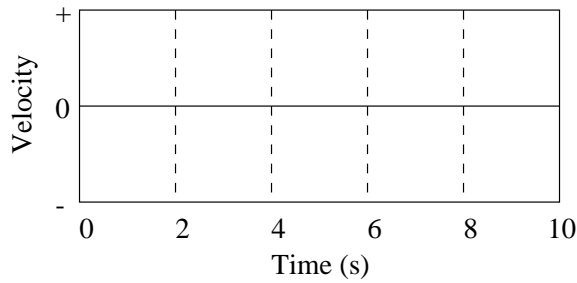


A:

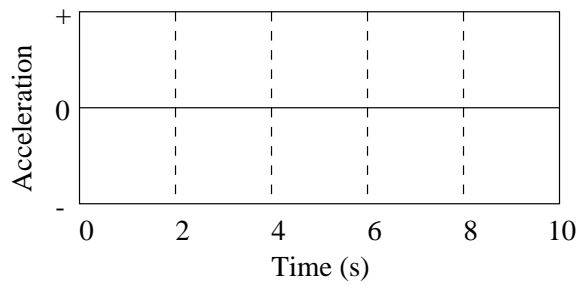
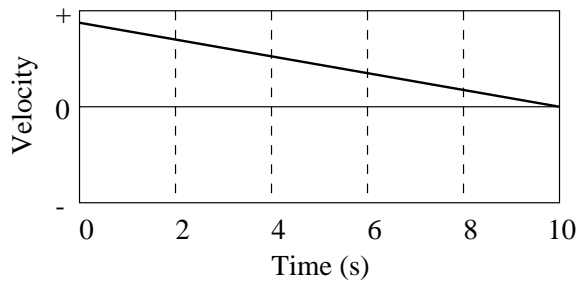
B:

C:

4. Sketch below a velocity-time graph which might go with the acceleration-time graph in question (3).



5. Sketch the shape of the acceleration-time graph that goes with the velocity-time graph shown below.

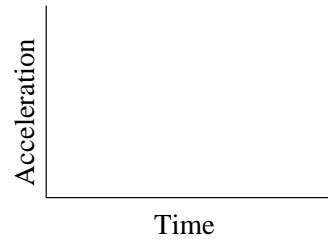
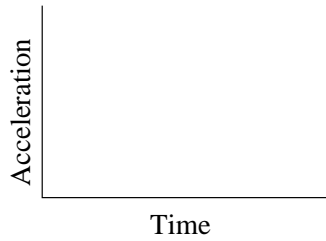
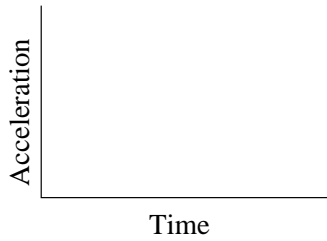
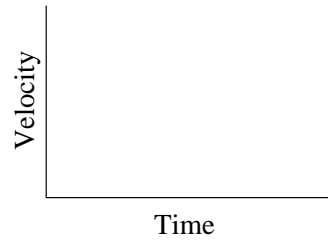
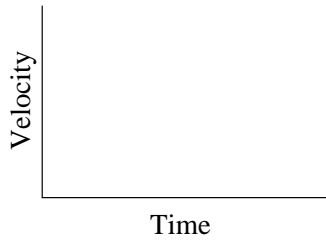
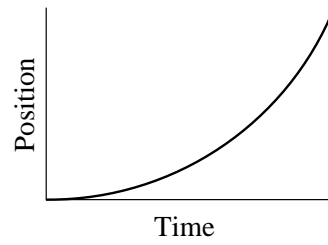
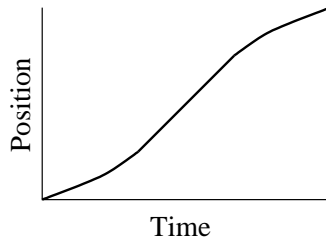
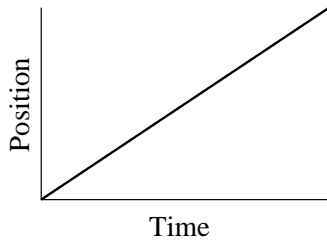


6. A car moves along a line [the + position axis]. Fill in the table below with the sign (+ or -) of the velocity and acceleration of the car for each of the motions described.

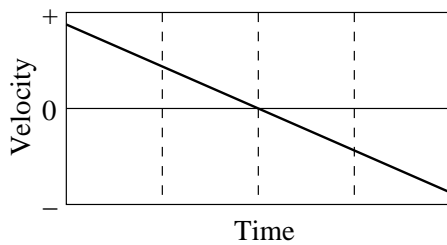
	Position	Velocity	Acceleration Speeding Up	Acceleration Slowing Down
Car Moves Away from the Origin	+			
Car Moves Toward the Origin	+			

7 SLOWING DOWN, SPEEDING UP, AND TURNING

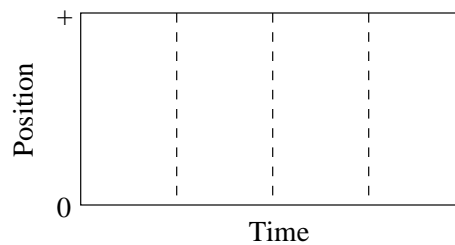
7. For each of the position-time graphs shown, sketch below it the corresponding velocity-time and acceleration-time graphs.



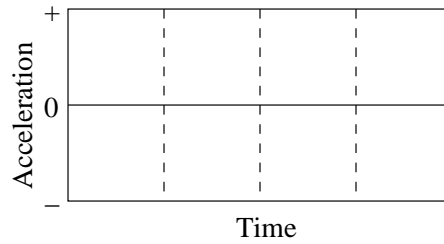
8. Describe how you would move to produce the velocity-time graph shown below.



9. Sketch a position-time graph corresponding to the velocity-time graph above.

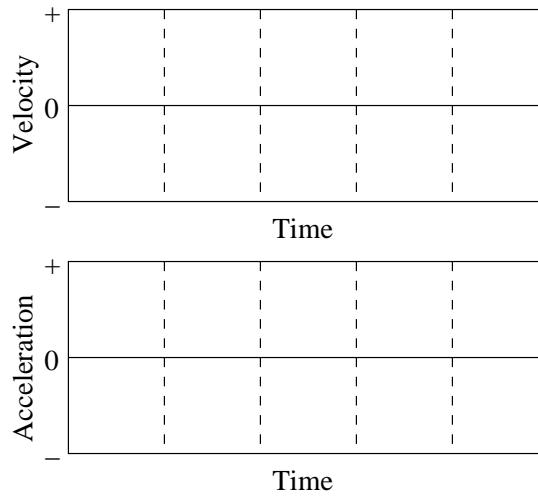


10. Sketch an acceleration-time graph corresponding to the velocity-time graph above.

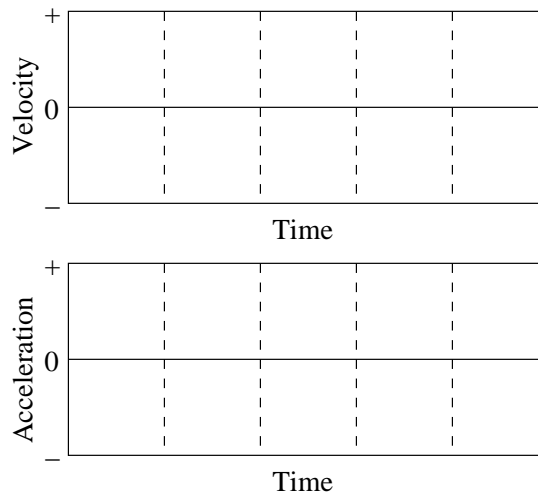


A car can move in either direction along a line (the + position axis). Sketch velocity-time and acceleration-time graphs that correspond to each of the following descriptions of the car's motion.

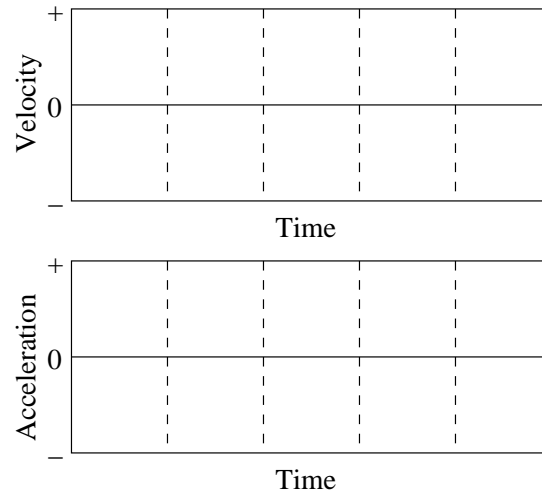
11. The car is moving toward the origin at a constant velocity.



12. The car starts from rest and moves toward the origin, speeding up at a steady rate.

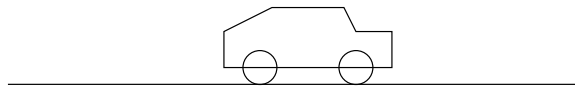


13. A ball is tossed in the air. It moves upward, reaches its highest point and falls back downward. Sketch a velocity-time and an acceleration-time graph for the ball from the moment it leaves the thrower's hand until the moment just before it reaches her hand again. Consider the positive direction to be upward.

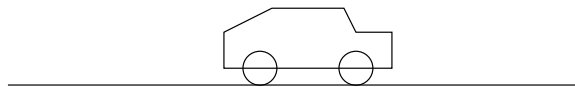


14. Each of the pictures below represents a car driving down a road. The motion of the car is described. In each case, draw velocity and acceleration vectors above the car which might represent the described motion. Also specify the sign of the velocity and the sign of the acceleration. (The positive direction is toward the right.)

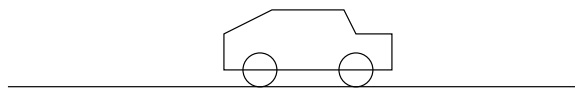
(a) The driver has stepped on the accelerator and the car is just starting to move forward.



(b) The car is moving forward. The brakes have been applied. The car is slowing down, but has not yet come to rest.

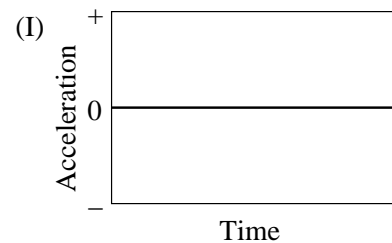
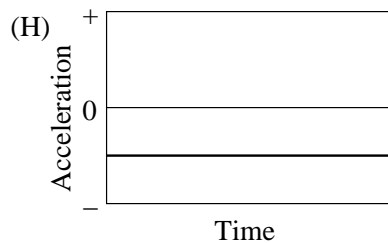
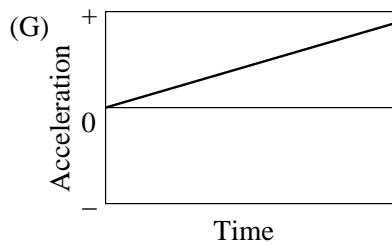
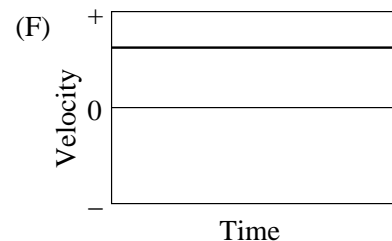
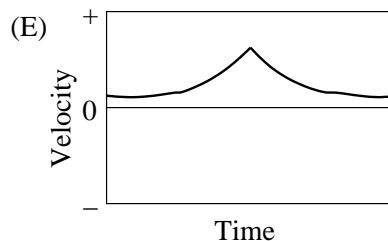
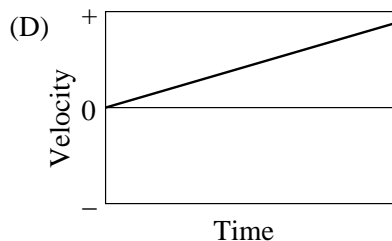
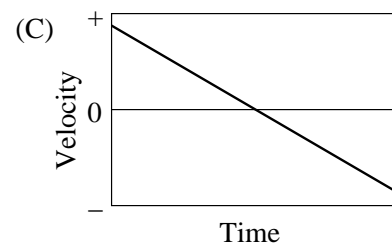
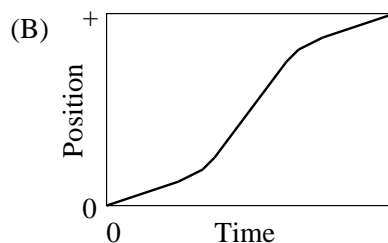
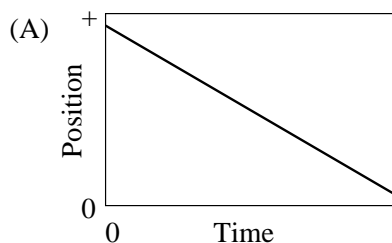


(c) The car is moving backward. The brakes have been applied. The car is slowing down, but has not yet come to rest.



The following graphs represent the motions of objects along the positive position axis. Notice that the motion of the objects is represented by position, velocity, or acceleration graphs.

Answer the following questions. You may use a graph more than once or not at all, and there may be more correct choices than blanks. If none of the graphs is correct, answer none.



15. Pick one graph that gives enough information to indicate that the velocity is always negative. _____

Pick three graphs that represent the motion of an object whose velocity is constant. _____

16. _____ 17. _____ 18. _____

19. Pick one graph that definitely indicates an object has reversed direction. _____

20. Pick one graph that might possibly be that of an object standing still. _____

Pick 3 graphs that represent the motion of objects whose acceleration is changing. _____

21. _____ 22. _____ 23. _____

Pick a velocity graph and an acceleration graph that could describe the motion of the same object during the time shown. _____

24. Velocity graph. _____ 25. Acceleration graph. _____

8 Gravity and Free Fall⁸

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

To explore the phenomenon of gravity and study the nature of motion along a vertical line near the earth's surface.

Overview

When an object falls close to the surface of the earth, there is no obvious force being applied to it. Whatever is causing it to move is invisible. Most people casually refer to the cause of falling motions as the action of "gravity." What is gravity? Can we describe its effects mathematically? Can Newton's laws be interpreted in such a way that they can be used for the mathematical prediction of motions that are influenced by gravity? In this investigation we will study the phenomenon of gravity for vertical motion. You will need:

Apparatus

- A tennis ball.
- A movie scaling ruler.
- A video analysis system (*VideoPoint*).
- Graphing software (*Excel*).

Vertical Motion: Describing How Objects Rise and Fall

Let's begin the study of the phenomenon of gravity by predicting the nature of the motion of an object, such as a tennis ball, when it is tossed up and then allowed to fall vertically near the surface of the earth. This is not easy since motion happens pretty fast! To help you with this prediction you should toss a ball in the laboratory several times and see what you think is going on.

Activity 1: Predicting the Motion of a Tossed Ball

(a) Toss a ball straight up a couple of times and then describe how you think it might be moving when it is moving upward. Some possibilities include: (1) rising at a constant velocity; (2) rising with an increasing acceleration; (3) rising with a decreasing acceleration; or (4) rising at a constant acceleration. What do you think? (You may want to review Activity 7 of Experiment 9.)

(b) Explain the basis for your prediction.

(c) Now describe how you think the ball might be moving when it is moving downward. Some possibilities include: (1) falling at a constant velocity; (2) falling with an increasing acceleration; (3) falling with a decreasing acceleration; or (4) falling at a constant acceleration. What do you think?

⁸1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

(d) Each group in the laboratory will measure the acceleration of a ball. Should these different measurements be the same? Why or why not?

(d) Explain the basis for your prediction.

(e) Do you expect the acceleration when the ball is rising to be different in some way from the acceleration when the ball is falling? Why or why not?

(f) What do you think that the acceleration will be at the moment when the ball is at its highest point? Why?

The motion of a tossed ball is too fast to observe carefully by eye without the aid of special instruments. In the next activity we will use a video analysis system to study the motion of a freely falling object. You will use a sequence of these video frames and mathematical modeling techniques to find an equation that describes the fall.

Activity 2: Analyzing the Motion of a Tennis Ball

(a) Make a movie of a tennis ball in flight by following these steps.

1. Turn on the video camera and center the field of view on the region where you will toss the ball. This region should be about 2 meters from the camera to get a large enough area for the flight of the ball. Place a ruler or meter stick somewhere in the field of view where it won't interfere with the motion. This ruler will be used later to determine the scale.
2. Make a movie of the tennis ball being dropped from rest. Make sure most of the trajectory is visible to the camera. See **Appendix D: Video Analysis** for details on making the movie. **NOTE:** The procedure described in the first part of **Appendix D (Making a Movie)** must be followed step by step in order to get good results.

IMPORTANT: Do NOT save the movie to your netfiles space. Save it to the DESKTOP as indicated in **Appendix D** number 2. (Before logging out later you can save the movie file to your own space on Saturn.)

(b) Determine the vertical position, y , of the tennis ball at different times during the motion. To do this follow the instructions in the second section of **Appendix D: Video Analysis - Analyzing the Movie**.

(c) Use *Excel* to plot a graph of y vs. t . See **Appendix C: Introduction to Excel** for details.

(d) What is the initial value of y (usually denoted y_0)(from your data table)?

(e) By examining your data table, calculate the approximate value of the initial velocity of the ball in the y -direction (from the first two lines of data). Include the sign of the velocity and its units. (Use the convention that on the y -axis up is positive and down is negative.)

(f) Examine the graph of your data. What does the nature of this motion look like? Constant velocity, constant acceleration, an increasing or decreasing acceleration? How does your observation compare with the prediction you made earlier in this unit for the ball on its way down?

(g) Using the convention that on the y -axis up is positive and down is negative, is the acceleration positive or negative (i.e., in what direction is the magnitude of the velocity increasing)?

(h) If you think the object is undergoing a constant acceleration, use the fitting capability of *Excel* (see **Appendix C: Introduction to Excel** for details) to find an equation that describes y as a function of t as the ball drops. Hints: (1) You might try to model the system with a second order equation like the kinematic equation for uniformly accelerated motion. (2) Write the equation of motion in the space below. Then use coefficients of the best-fit equation to find the values of a , v_0 and y_0 with the appropriate units. **Note: The numbers from your graph should be rounded off to no more than 3 significant figures.** When you have found a good fit to the data, print it and attach a copy to this unit.

1. The equation of motion with proper units is: $y =$
2. The acceleration with proper sign and units is: $a =$
3. The initial velocity with proper sign and units is: $v_0 =$
4. The initial position with proper sign and units is: $y_0 =$
5. The initial position and velocity of the ball depend on the details of your throwing motion. The acceleration does not. It depends only on the motion of the ball after you have released it. Go around to the other groups in the lab and ask them for the value of the acceleration they obtained. Make a histogram of your results and calculate the average and standard deviation of the acceleration for the whole class. For information on making histograms, see **Appendix C**. For information on calculating the average and standard deviation, see **Appendix A**. Record the average and standard deviation here. Attach the histogram to this unit.

7. What does the histogram of the class data tell you? Be quantitative in your answer.

9 Force and Motion I⁹

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn how to use a force probe to measure force.
- To understand the relationship between forces applied to an object and its motions.
- To find a mathematical relationship between the force applied to an object and its acceleration.

Overview

In the previous labs, you have used a motion detector to display position-time, velocity-time and acceleration-time graphs of the motion of different objects. You were not concerned about how you got the objects to move, i.e., what forces (pushes or pulls) acted on the objects. From your experiences, you know that force and motion are related in some way. To start your bicycle moving, you must apply a force to the pedal. To start up your car, you must step on the gas pedal to get the engine to apply a force to the road through the tires.

But, exactly how is force related to the quantities you used in the previous unit to describe motion — position, velocity and acceleration? In this unit you will pay attention to forces and how they affect motion. You will apply forces to a cart, and observe the nature of its resulting motion graphically with a motion detector.

Apparatus

- Force probe
- Variety of hanging masses
- CS2000 compact scale (for measuring mass)
- Low friction pulley and string
- Motion detector
- Dynamics cart and track
- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- *DataStudio* software (V, A & F Graphs application)

Measuring Forces

In this investigation you will use a force probe (also called a force sensor) to measure forces. The force probe puts out a voltage signal proportional to the force applied to the arm of the probe. Physicists have defined a standard unit of force called the newton, abbreviated N. For your work on forces and the motions they cause, it will be more convenient to have the force probe read directly in newtons rather than voltage. Before the force probe is used it must be calibrated. To calibrate the force probe, see *Calibrating Force Sensors* in **Appendix F: Instrumentation**.

Motion and Force

Now you can use the force probe to apply measured amounts of force to an object. You can also use the motion detector, as in the previous units, to examine the motion of the object. In this way you will be able to establish the relationship between motion and force.

⁹1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

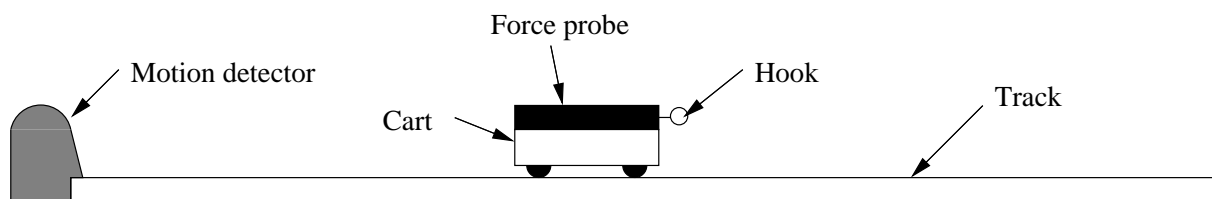


Figure 1: Equipment setup for qualitative measurements of force and motion.

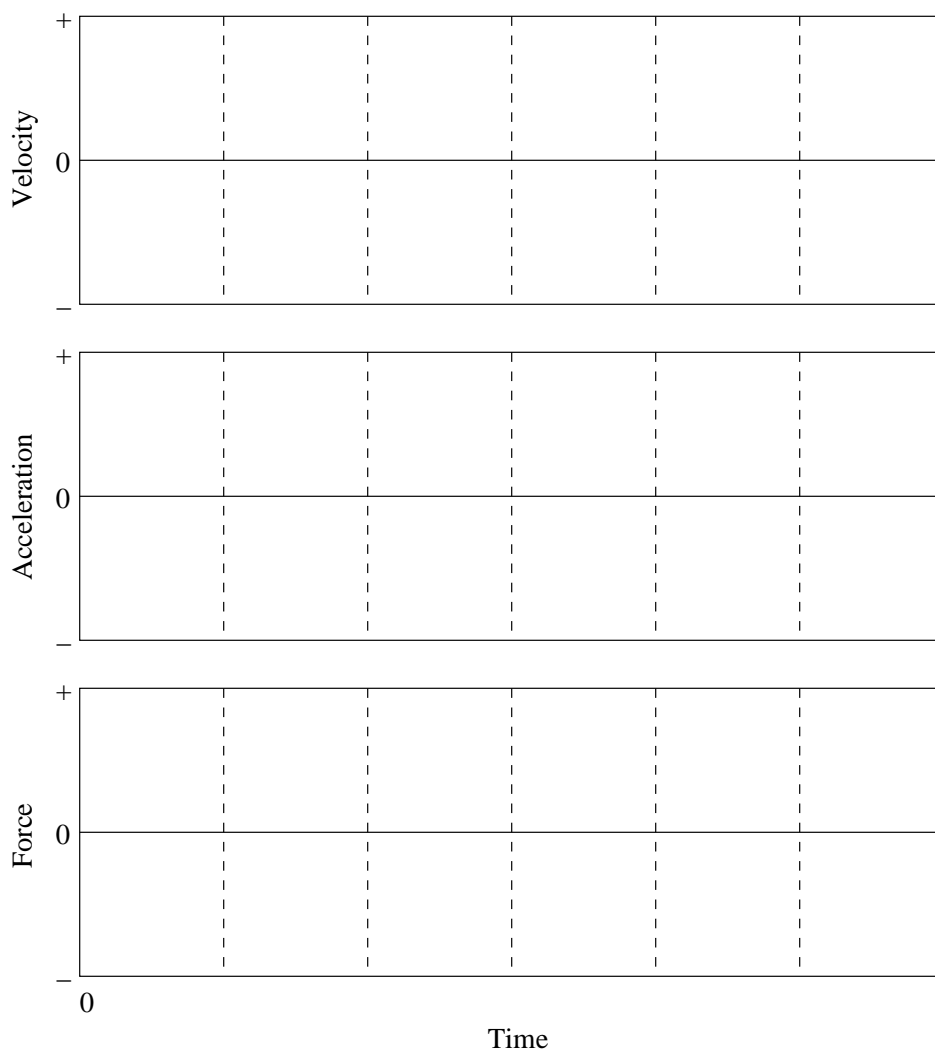
Activity 1: Pushing and Pulling a Cart

In this activity you will move a cart by pushing and pulling it with your hand. You will measure the force, velocity and acceleration. Then you will be able to look for relationships between the applied force and the motion quantities, to see which is (are) related to force.

(a) Calibrate the force probe, if you haven't already done so. Set up the cart, force probe and motion detector on the level track as shown in Figure 1. Measure and record the mass of the cart and force probe assembly (using the compact scale).

(b) Suppose you grasp the hook on the force probe and move the cart forwards and backwards in front of the motion detector. Do you think that either the velocity or the acceleration graph will look like the force graph? Is either of these motion quantities related to force? That is to say, if you apply a changing force to the cart, will the velocity or acceleration change in the same way as the force?

(c) To test your predictions, open the V, A & F Graphs application. Grasp the hook on the force probe and start acquiring data. When you hear the clicks, pull the cart away from the motion detector, and quickly stop it. Then push it back towards the motion detector, and again quickly stop it. Be sure that the cart never gets closer than 0.15 m away from the detector and be careful of the wires. Repeat until you get a good run, and adjust the sampling time and scale of the axes if necessary. Sketch your graphs on the axes that follow.



(d) Does either graph—velocity or acceleration—resemble the force graph? Which one? Explain.

(e) Based on your observations, does it appear that either the velocity or acceleration of the cart might be related to the applied force? Explain.

(f) Use the **Smart Tool** to read 5-7 values from the acceleration graph, also recording the time for each value. Then read the force values for times as close to the previous times as possible. Include your data in the following table:

Time (s)	Acceleration (m/s^2)	Force (N)

(g) Using *Excel*, plot a graph of force vs. acceleration. Include a linear trendline, and appropriate title, and axis labels with units. Print the graph and include it with this unit.

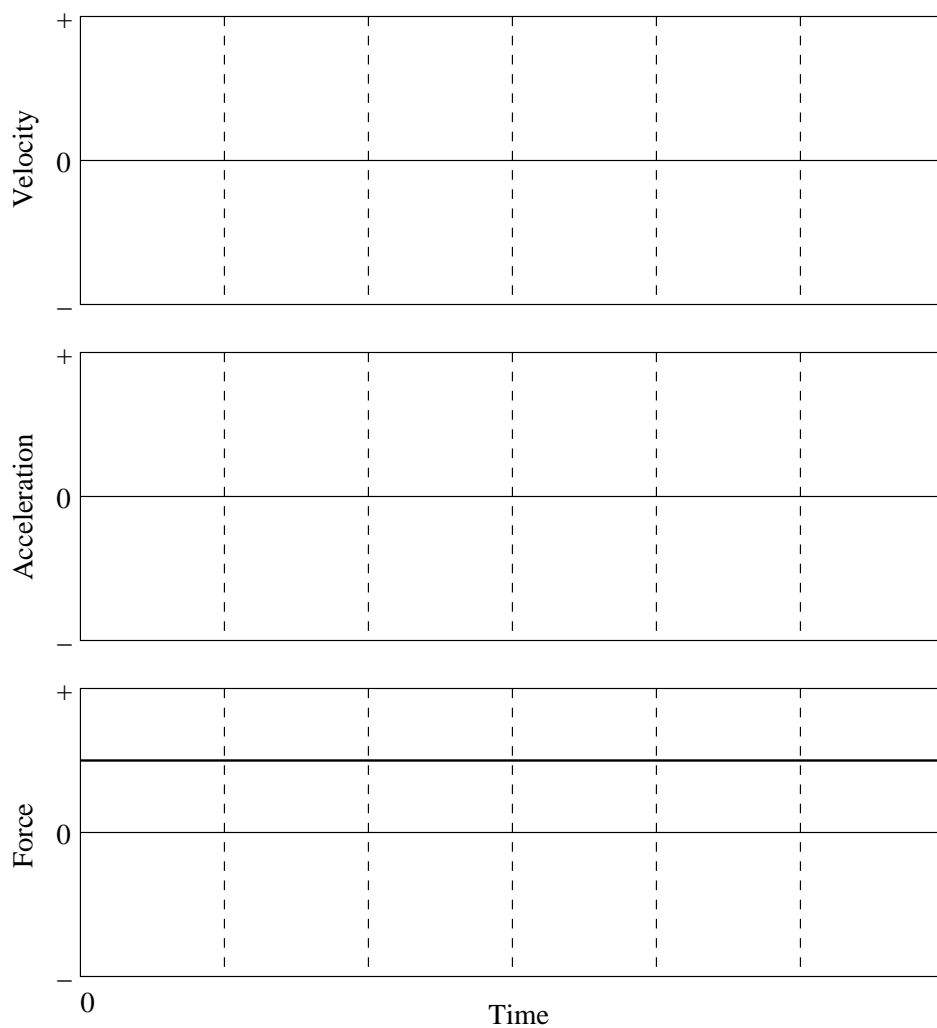
(h) What is the slope of the graph (with units)? How does it compare with the mass of the cart and force probe assembly that you measured in Activity 1(a)? Calculate a percent difference.

NOTE: The relationship which you have been examining between applied force and the acceleration of the cart/force probe assembly is known as Newton's Second Law $F = ma$.

Activity 2: Speeding Up

You have seen in the previous activity that force and acceleration seem to be related. But just what is the relationship between force and acceleration?

(a) Suppose you have a cart with very little friction, and that you pull this cart with a constant force as shown below on the force-time graph. Sketch on the axes below the velocity-time and acceleration-time graphs of the cart's motion.



(b) Describe in words the predicted shape of the velocity vs. time and acceleration vs. time graphs for the cart.

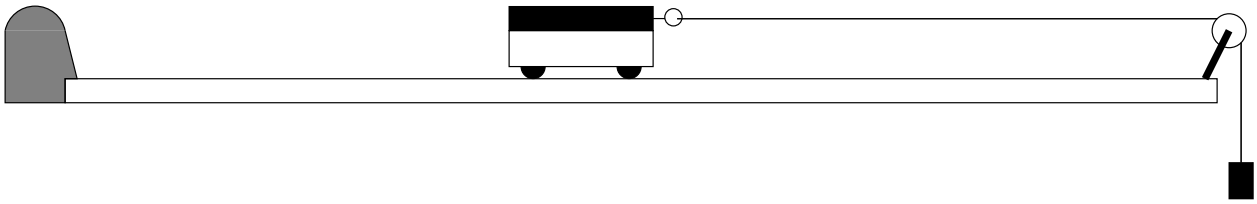
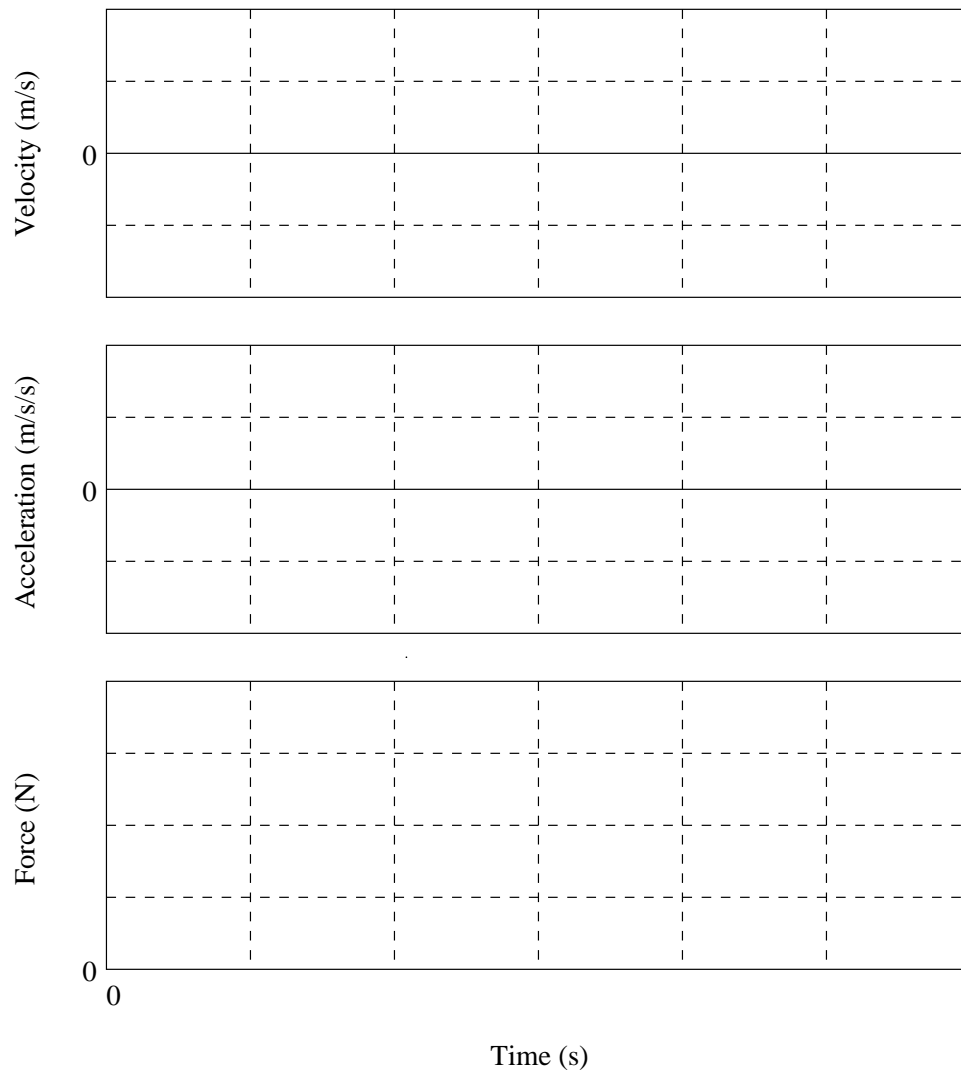


Figure 2: Equipment setup for quantitative measurements of force and motion.

(c) Test your predictions. Set up the pulley, cart, string, motion detector and force probe as shown in Figure 2. The cart should be the same mass as before. Hang 50 g from the end of the string. Start the data acquisition. Release the cart when you hear the clicks of the motion detector. Be sure that there is enough slack in the force probe cables to complete the motion and catch the cart before it crashes into the pulley. Repeat until you get good graphs in which the cart is seen by the motion detector over the entire motion. Sketch the actual velocity, acceleration and force graphs for the motion of interest on the axes below and indicate the scale on the axes. Draw smooth graphs; don't worry about small bumps.



(d) Is the force which is applied to the cart by the string constant, increasing or decreasing? Explain based on your graph.

(e) How does the acceleration graph vary in time? Does this agree with your prediction? What kind of acceleration corresponds to a constant applied force?

(f) How does the velocity graph vary in time? Does this agree with your prediction? What kind of velocity corresponds to a constant applied force?

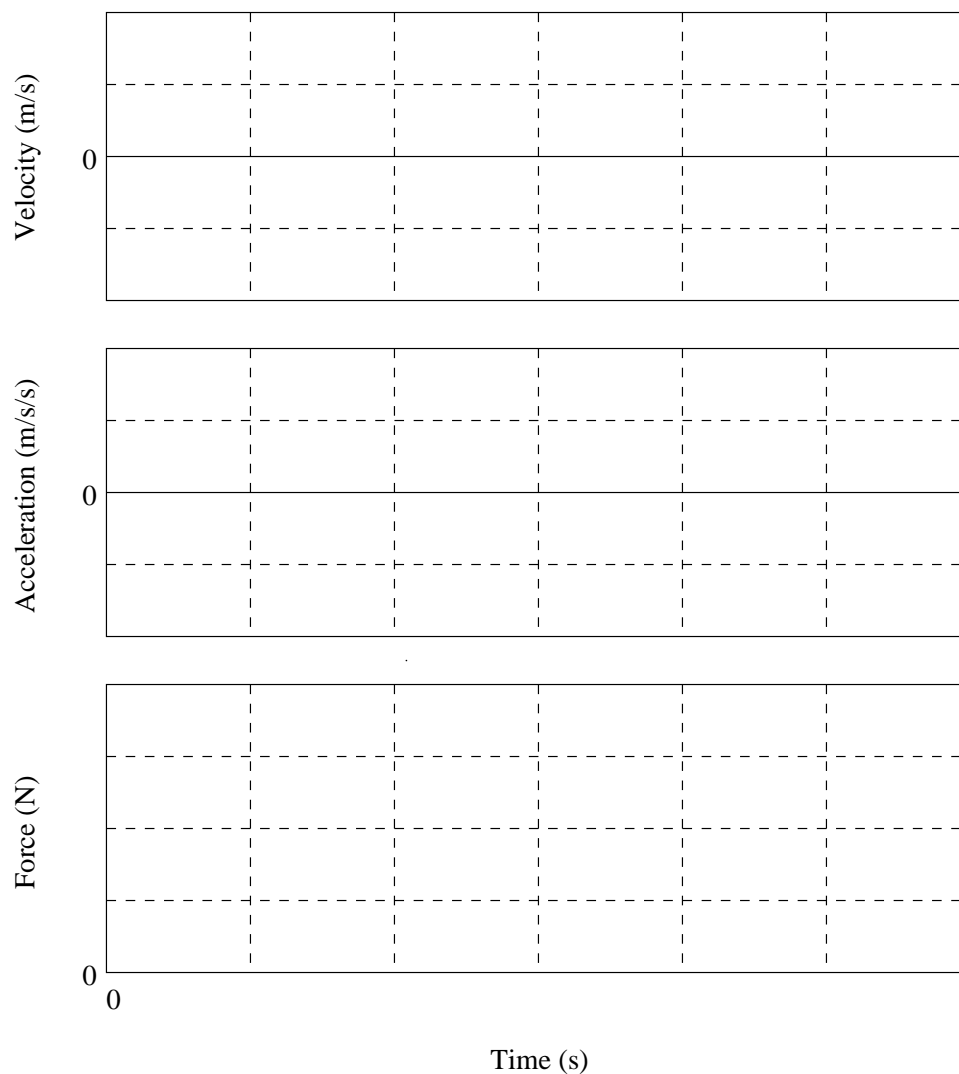
(g) Use the Smart Tool to determine the average force and the average acceleration and record them below. Find the mean values only during the time interval when the force and acceleration are nearly constant. See Appendix B for details on the use of the Smart Tool feature of DataStudio.

Activity 3: Acceleration from Different Forces

In the previous activity you have examined the motion of a cart with a constant force applied to it. But, what is the relationship between acceleration and force? If you apply a larger force to the same cart (same mass as before) how will the acceleration change? In this activity you will try to answer these questions by applying different forces to the cart, and measuring the corresponding accelerations.

(a) Suppose you pulled the cart with a force about twice as large as before. What would happen to the acceleration of the cart? Explain.

(b) Test your prediction by replacing the 50-g mass with a 100-g mass and creating graphs of the motion as before. Repeat until you have a good run. Sketch the results on the axes that follow. Don't forget to put the scale on the axes.



(c) Use the Smart Tool to find the average force and the average acceleration and record them below. Find the mean values only during the time interval when the force and acceleration are nearly constant.

(d) How did the force applied to the cart compare to that with the smaller force in Activity 2?

(e) How did the acceleration of the cart compare to that caused by the smaller force in Activity 2? Did this agree with your prediction? Explain.

Activity 4: The Relationship Between Acceleration and Force

If you accelerate the same cart (same mass) with another force, you will then have three data points—enough data to plot a graph of acceleration vs. force. You can then find the mathematical relationship between acceleration and force.

(a) Accelerate the cart with a force roughly midway between the other two forces tried. Use a hanging mass about midway between those used in the last two activities. Record the mass below.

(b) Graph velocity, acceleration and force. Sketch the graphs on the axes in Activity 3 using dashed lines.

(c) Find the mean acceleration and force, as before, and record the values in the table below (in the Activity 4 line). Also, enter the values from the previous two activities in the table.

	Average Force (N)	Average Acceleration (m/s^2)
Activity 2		
Activity 4		
Activity 3		

(d) Plot the average force applied to the cart as a function of the average acceleration of the cart by fitting the data with a linear function. Label and print the graph showing the best fit, and add it to this unit.

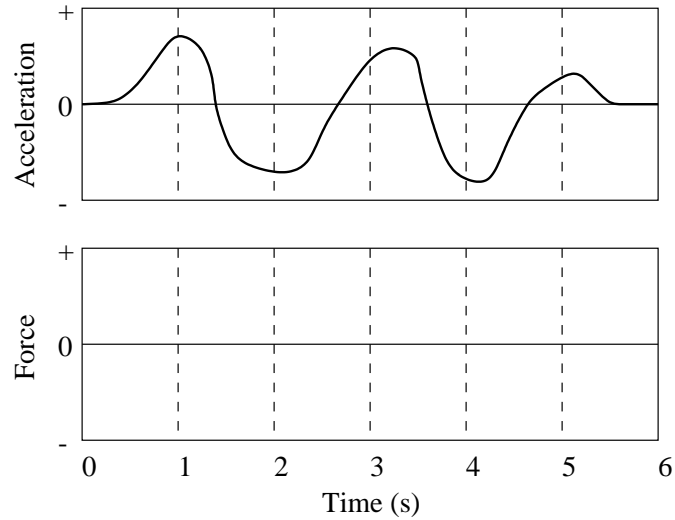
(e) Does there appear to be a simple mathematical relationship between the acceleration of a cart (with fixed mass) and the force applied to the cart (measured by the force probe mounted on the cart)? Write down the equation you found and describe the mathematical relationship in words.

(f) What is the slope of the graph? How does it compare with the mass of the cart and force probe assembly as measured in Activity 1?

Comment: The relationship which you have been examining between the acceleration of the cart and the applied force is known as Newton's Second Law, $F = ma$.

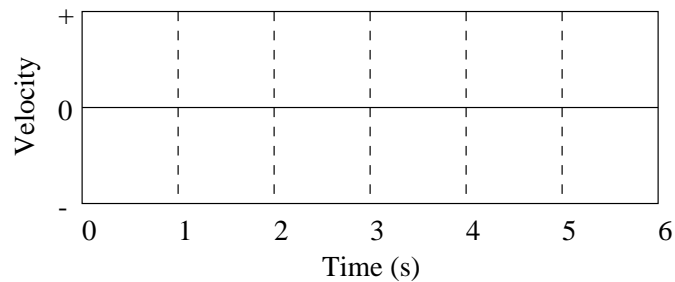
Homework

1. A force is applied which makes an object move with the acceleration shown below. Assuming that friction is negligible, sketch a force-time graph of the force on the object on the axes below.

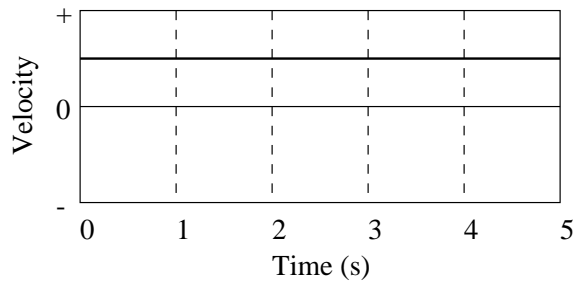


Explain your answer:

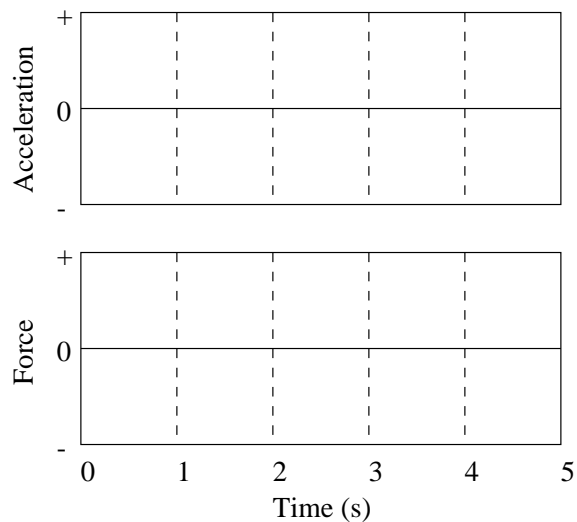
2. Roughly sketch the velocity-time graph for the object in question 1 on the axes below. (Start with a negative velocity.)



3. A cart can move along a horizontal line (the + position axis). It moves with the velocity shown below.



Assuming that friction is so small that it can be neglected, sketch on the axes that follow the acceleration-time and force-time graphs of the cart's motion.



Explain both of your graphs.

Questions 4-6 refer to an object which can move in either direction along a horizontal line (the + position axis). Assume that friction is so small that it can be neglected. Sketch the shape of the graph of the force applied to the object which would produce the motion described.

4. The object moves away from the origin with a constant acceleration.



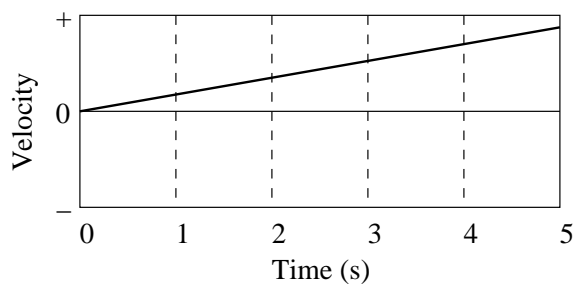
5. The object moves toward the origin with a constant acceleration.



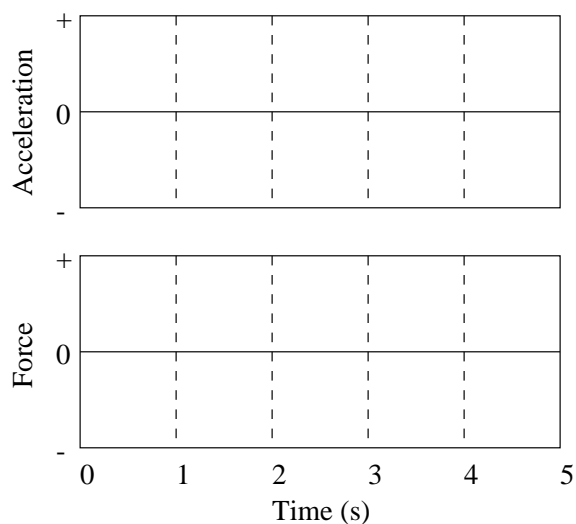
6. The object moves away from the origin with a constant velocity.



Questions 7 and 8 refer to an object which can move along a horizontal line (the + position axis). Assume that friction is so small that it can be ignored. The object's velocity-time graph is shown below.

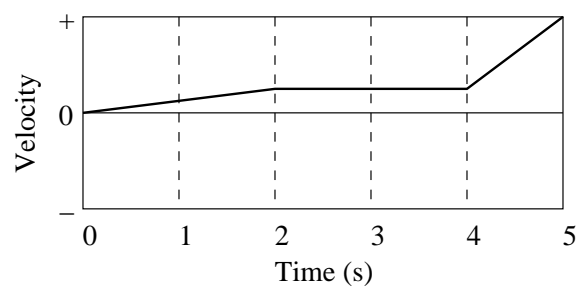


7. Sketch the shapes of the acceleration-time and force-time graphs on the axes below.

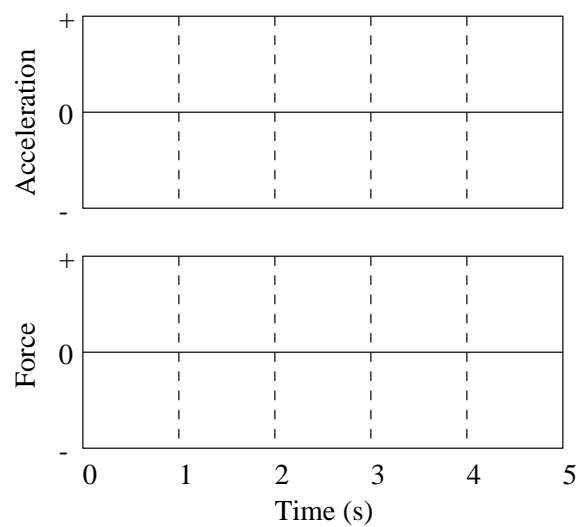


8. Suppose that the force applied to the object were twice as large. Sketch with dashed lines on the same axes above the force, acceleration, and velocity.

Questions 9 refer to an object which can move along a horizontal line (the + position axis). Assume that friction is so small that it can be ignored. The object's velocity-time graph is shown below.



9. Sketch the shapes of the acceleration and force graphs on the axes below.



10 Newton's 3rd Law, Tension, and Normal Forces¹⁰

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To investigate Newton's 3rd law of motion.
- To explore the characteristics of two different types of forces: tension (in strings, ropes, springs, and chains), and normal forces (which support objects that are in contact with solid surfaces).

Apparatus

- Spring scales (2)
- Variety of masses
- Rubber band
- Various lengths of string
- Pulleys (2)

An Introduction to Newton's Third Law

In order to apply Newton's laws to complex situations with strings, pulleys, inclined planes and so forth, we need to consider a third force law formulated by Newton having to do with the forces of interaction between two objects. In order to "discover" some simple aspects of the third law, you should make some straightforward observations using 2 spring scales and a set of masses.



Activity 1: Newton's 3rd Law Forces of Interaction

Set up the situations shown in the diagram above and see if there are any circumstances in which the object that is pulling and the object that is being pulled exert different forces on each other. Describe your conclusions below. Note: You can drag the mass set block across the table for your dynamic observations.

In contemporary English, Newton's third law can be stated as follows:

¹⁰1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

Newton's Third Law

If one object exerts a force on a second object, then the second object exerts a force back on the first object which is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to that exerted on it by the first object.

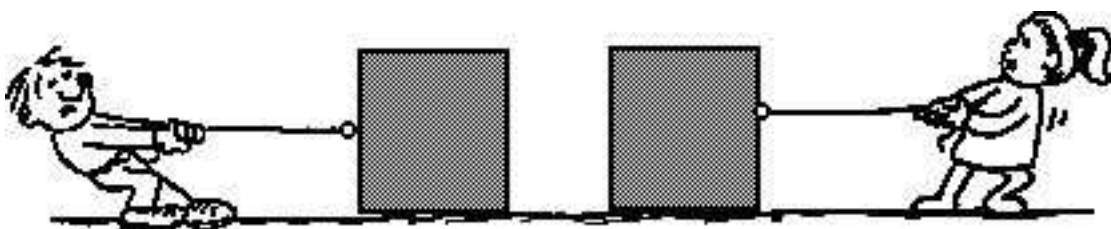
In mathematical terms, using vector notation, we would say that the forces of interaction of object 1 on object 2 are related to the forces of interaction of object 2 on object 1 as follows:

$$\vec{F}_{12} = -\vec{F}_{21}$$


Newton actually formulated the third law by studying the interactions between objects when they collide. It is difficult to understand the significance of this law fully without first studying collisions. Thus, we will consider this law again in the study of collision processes.

Tension Forces

When you pull on one end of a rope attached to a crate, a force is transmitted down the rope to the crate. If you pull hard enough the crate may begin to slide. Tension is the name given to forces transmitted in this way along devices that can stretch such as strings, ropes, rubber bands, springs, and wires.



The end of the rope which is tied to the crate can apply a force to the crate only if you first pull on the other end of the rope.

In order to analyze situations in which objects are attached by strings, rubber bands, or ropes it is necessary to understand some attributes of tension forces. We need to answer the following related questions:

1. (a) What is the mechanism for creating tension in strings, ropes, and rubber bands? (b) If a string exerts a tension force on an object at one end, what is the magnitude and direction of the tension force it exerts on another object at its other end?
2. What happens to the magnitude and directions of the tension forces at each end of a string and in the middle of that string when the direction of the string is changed by a post or pulley?
3. Can a flexible force transmitter (like a string) support a lateral (or sideways) force?

Mechanisms for Tension and the Direction of Forces

For these observations you should stretch a rubber band and then a string between your hands as shown in the diagram below. First, just feel the directions of the forces. Then add the spring scales and both feel and measure the forces.



Activity 2: Tension Mechanisms & Force Directions

(a) Pull on the two ends of a rubber band. (Forget about the spring scales for now). Does the rubber band stretch? What is the direction of the force applied by the rubber band on your right hand? On your left hand?

(b) Does the magnitude of the forces applied by the rubber band on each hand feel the same?

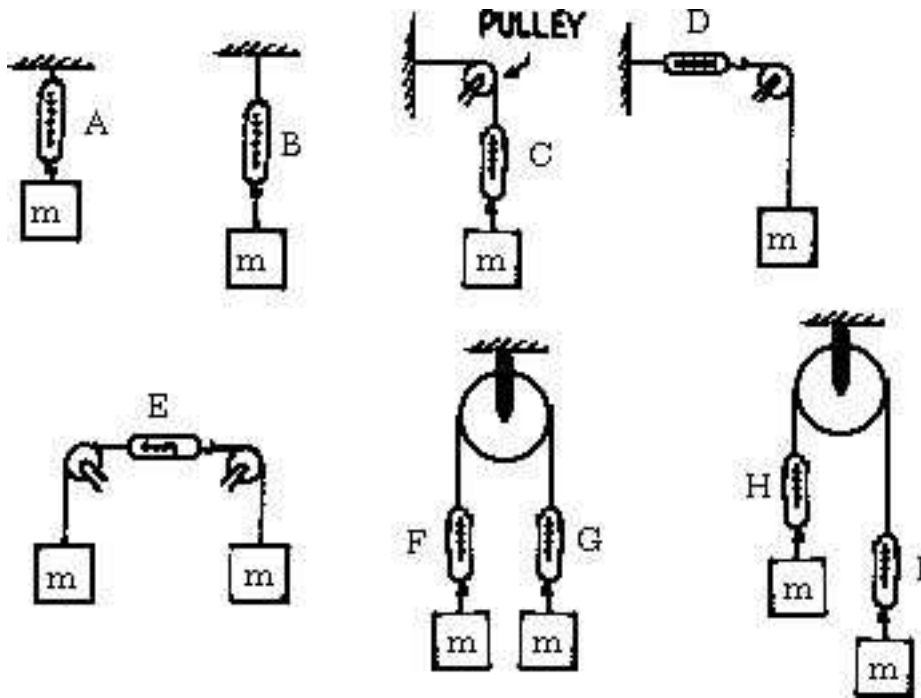
(c) Repeat this activity with a string instead of a rubber band. This time, use a spring scale at each end to measure the forces at the ends of the string. Does the string stretch? (Look carefully!)

(d) If you pull by the same amount on the string as you did on the rubber band, does substituting the string for the rubber band change anything about the directions and magnitudes of the tension forces exerted on each hand?

(e) If the forces caused by the string on your left and right hands respectively are given by F_{T1} and F_{T2} , what is the equation that relates these two forces?

Tension Forces when a String Changes Direction

Suppose you were to hang equal masses of $m = 0.5$ kg in the various configurations shown below. Predict and measure the tension in the string for each of the following situations.

**Activity 3: Tension and Direction Changes**

(a) For each configuration shown above, predict the reading in newtons on each of the spring scales; these readings indicate the forces that are transmitted by the tensions at various places along the string. Then measure all of the forces and record their values. Note: Remember that $m = 0.5 \text{ kg}$.

Predicted Force Magnitudes

$F_A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_B = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_C = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_D = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_E = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_F = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_G = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_H = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_I = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

Measured Force Magnitudes

$F_A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_B = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_C = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_D = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_E = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_F = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_G = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_H = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

$F_I = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \text{ N}$

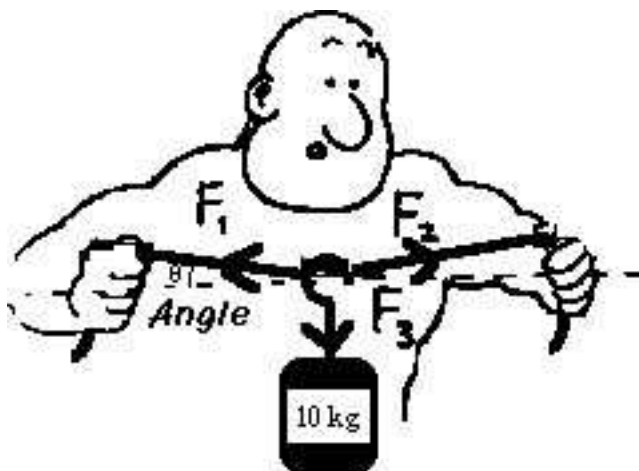
(b) Based on Newton's third law and the observations you just made, answer the following questions using vector notation. If the muscle man in the diagram below is pulling to the left on a rope with a force of $\mathbf{F} = -(150 \text{ N})\mathbf{i}$.



- (1) What is the magnitude and direction of the force that the rope is exerting on the man? _____
 - (2) What force is the left-hand rope exerting on the monkey's right arm? _____
 - (3) What force is the spring scale experiencing on its left end? _____
 - (4) What force is the spring scale experiencing on its right end? _____
 - (5) What is the reading on the spring scale? _____
 - (6) What force is the rope exerting on the tree? _____
 - (7) What force is the tree exerting on the rope? _____
- (c) Summarize what your observations reveal about the nature of tension forces everywhere along a string.

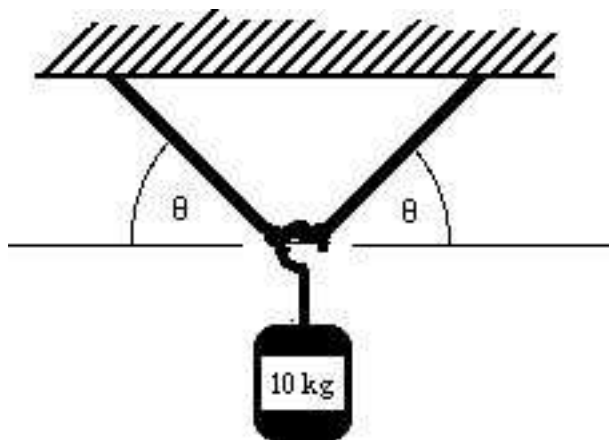
Can a String Support Lateral Forces?

Take a look at the diagram below. Can the strongest member of your group stretch a string or rope so that it is perfectly horizontal when a 10 kg mass is hanging from it? In other words, can the string provide a force that just balances the force exerted by the mass?



Activity 4: Can a String Support a Lateral Force?

- (a) Draw a vector diagram showing the directions of the forces exerted by the strings on the mass hook in the diagram below. What would happen to the direction of the forces as θ goes to zero? Do you think it will be possible to support the mass when $\theta = 0$? Why?



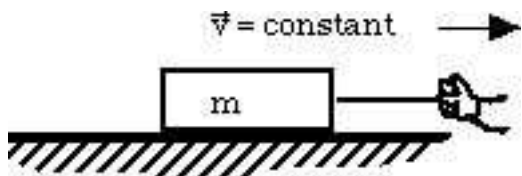
(b) Now, experiment with holding a mass horizontally with a string. What do you conclude about the ability of a string to support a mass having a force which is perpendicular to the direction of the string?

Normal Forces

A book resting on a table does not move; neither does a person pushing against a wall. According to Newton's first law the net force on the book and on the person's hand must be zero. We have to invent another type of force to explain why books don't fall through tables and hands don't usually punch through walls. The force exerted by any surface always seems to act in a direction perpendicular to that surface; such a force is known as a normal force.

Activity 5: Normal Forces

(a) The diagram below shows a block sliding along a table near the surface of the earth at a constant velocity. According to Newton's first law, what is the net force on the block? In other words, what is the vector sum of all the forces on the block?

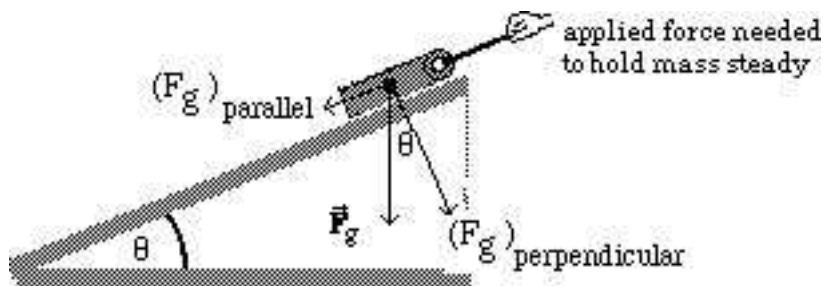


(b) The net force is made up of four forces. In what direction does each one act? Draw a diagram indicating the direction of each of the forces.

Gravitational Force on a Mass on an Incline

Suppose that a block of mass m is perched on an incline of angle θ as shown in the diagram below. Also suppose that you know the angle of the incline and the magnitude and direction of the gravitational force vector. What

do you predict the magnitude of the components of the force vector will be parallel to the plane? Perpendicular to the plane?



Activity 6: Components of F_g on an Incline

(a) The angle that the incline makes with the horizontal and the angle between $F_{\text{perpendicular}}$ and F_g are the same. Explain why.

(b) Choose a coordinate system with the x-axis parallel to the plane with the positive direction up the plane. Using normal mathematical techniques for finding the components of a vector, find the values of F_{parallel} and $F_{\text{perpendicular}}$ as a function of F_g and the angle of the incline θ .

(c) What is the equation for the magnitude of the normal force exerted on the block by the surface of the incline? Hint: Use Newton's first law and the knowledge that the block is not moving in a direction perpendicular to the plane.

11 Friction and Applying the Laws of Motion¹¹

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To explore the characteristics of friction.
- To learn to use free-body diagrams to make predictions about the behavior of systems which are acted on by multiple forces in two and three dimensions.

Predicting and Measuring Friction Factors

If Newton's laws are to be used to describe the sliding of a block in contact with a flat surface, we must postulate the existence of a frictional force that crops up to oppose the applied force. There are two kinds of frictional forces: static friction and kinetic or sliding friction, which is the friction between surfaces in relative motion. We will concentrate on the study of kinetic friction for a sliding block.

Apparatus

- Wooden block with hook
- Spring scale
- Variety of masses
- Triple-beam balance

Activity 1: Prediction of Friction Factors

(a) List several parameters that might influence the magnitude of the kinetic frictional force.

(b) Describe how you might do an experiment to determine the effect of mass on the magnitude of the frictional force.

Measuring the Effect of Mass on Kinetic Friction

Let's determine how mass actually influences the frictional force. Perform the experiment that you designed in the previous activity to determine how the frictional force varies with mass.

¹¹1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

Activity 2: Friction Data and Analysis

(a) Create a data table for the frictional force as a function of mass in the space below. You should make at least 5-7 measurements.

(b) Graph the frictional force (vertical axis) versus the mass and find the best fit to the data. Print the graph showing the fit and put a copy in your notebook. Write the equation (with appropriate units) that describes the data in the space below.

(c) Look up kinetic friction in the index of your text. Read about the coefficient of sliding friction, μ_k , and figure out how to determine μ_k from the fit to your data. Calculate μ_k for the block sliding on the table. How does your value compare with the appropriate value in the table in your text?

Theories of Friction

No material is perfectly “smooth and flat.” Any surface when examined under a microscope is full of irregularities. It is usually assumed that sliding friction forces result from the rubbing of rough surfaces, i.e., from the interlocking of surface bumps during the sliding process. How reasonable is this explanation for sliding friction?

Activity 3: What Surfaces Have High Friction?

(a) Which kinds of surfaces do you think will have the most friction rough ones or smooth ones? Why?

(b) Examine the table of coefficients of friction in a text. Do the values listed in this table support your predictions? Are you surprised?

The fact that smooth surfaces sometimes have more sliding friction associated with them than rough surfaces has led to the modern view that other factors such as adhesion (i.e., the attraction between molecules on sliding

surfaces) also play a major role in friction. Predicting the coefficient of sliding friction for different types of surfaces is not always possible and there is much yet to be learned about the nature of the forces that govern sliding friction. Most authors of introductory physics texts still tend, incorrectly, to equate smooth surfaces with “frictionless ones” and to claim that the rubbing of rough surfaces is the cause of friction.

Free-Body Diagrams: Putting It All Together

You have made a series of observations which hopefully led you to reconstruct Newton’s three laws of motion and some of its ramifications for yourself. In summary the laws are:

Newton’s First Law: If the net force acting on an object is zero its acceleration is zero. [If $\sum \mathbf{F} = 0$ then $\mathbf{a} = 0$ so that $\mathbf{v} = \text{constant or zero.}$]

Newton’s Second Law: The net force on an object can be calculated by multiplying its mass times its acceleration. [$\sum \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$.]

Newton’s Third Law: Any two objects that interact exert forces on each other which are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. [$\mathbf{F}_{12} = -\mathbf{F}_{21}$]

These three laws are incredibly powerful because an understanding of them allows you to either: (1) use a complete knowledge of forces on a system of objects to predict motions in the system or (2) identify the forces on a system of objects based on observations of its motions.

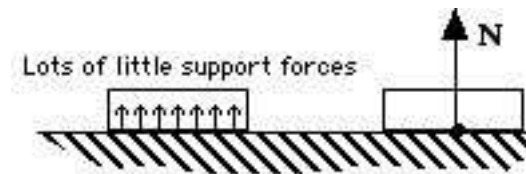
Using Free-Body Diagrams to Predict Motions and Calculate Forces

The key to the effective application of Newton’s laws is to identify and diagram all the forces acting on each object in a system of interest. The next step is to define a coordinate system and break the forces down into components to take advantage of the fact that if $\sum \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$ then $\sum F_x = ma_x$ and $\sum F_y = ma_y$.

A free-body diagram consists of a set of arrows representing all the forces on an object, but NOT the forces that the object exerts on other objects. To create a free-body diagram you should do as follows:

1. Draw arrows to represent all force acting on the object or objects in the system of interest.
2. Place the tail of each arrow at the point where the force acts on the object.
3. Each arrow should point in the direction of the force it represents.
4. The relative lengths of the arrows should, if possible, be made to correspond to the magnitudes of the forces.
5. A set of coordinate axis should be chosen and indicated and all of the arrows should be labeled using standard notation to indicate the type of force involved.

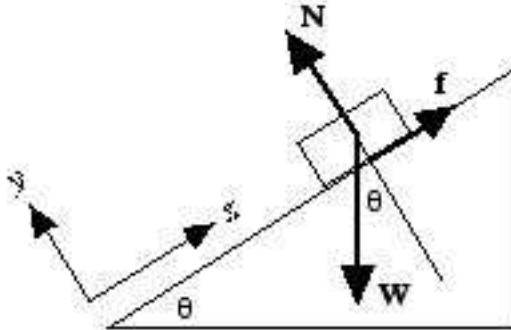
Important Note: The idea of using a single force vector to summarize external forces that act in the same direction is a useful simplification which is not real. For example, when a block rests on a table, we will say that the table exerts a normal force on the block. It is conventional to draw a single upward arrow at the point where the middle of the bottom surface of the block touches the table. This arrow actually represents the sum of all the smaller forces at each point where the block touches the table. This is shown in the diagram below:



An Example of a Free-Body Diagram

Consider a block of mass m sliding on a rough inclined plane as shown in the diagram below. It has three forces on it: (1) a gravitational force, (2) a normal force perpendicular to the surface of the plane, and (3) the friction force opposing its motion down the plane.

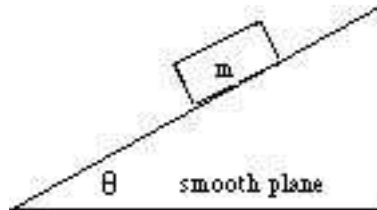
Since the block is sliding it could either be moving at a constant velocity or with a constant acceleration. Thus, it is possible that the vector sum of forces on it is not equal to zero in some cases. For example, if there is accelerated motion, then: $\sum \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{N} + \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{f} = m\mathbf{a}$



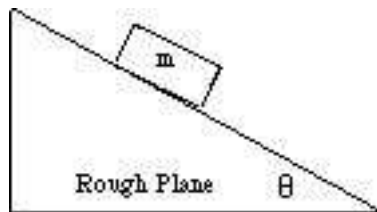
Based on this example, try your hand at drawing the free-body diagrams for the situations described below. In each case, write the equation for the vector sum of forces. As always, be sure to put arrows over symbols representing vector quantities.

Activity 4: Some Free-Body Diagrams

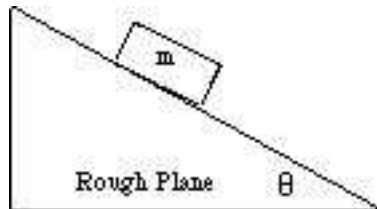
(a) A block slides freely down a smooth inclined plane.



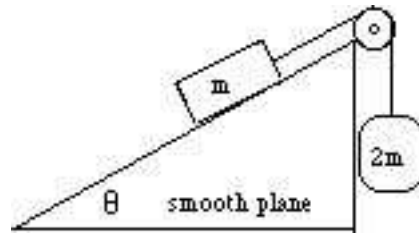
(b) A block is on a rough plane but is not moving due to static friction.



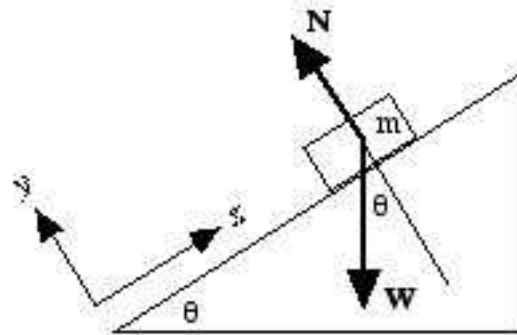
(c) A block is on a rough plane but the coefficient of friction between the block and the plane is small. The block is sliding down the plane at a constant velocity so that kinetic friction is acting.



(d) The block is on a frictionless plane but is attached to a hanging mass of $2m$ by one of our famous "massless" strings over a pulley. Construct free-body diagrams for the forces on the mass m and for the forces on the mass $2m$.

**Breaking the Forces into Components: An Example**

Consider the case of the block sliding down a “smooth” plane with a negligible amount of friction. The free-body diagram and coordinate system chosen for analysis are shown in the figure below.



Taking components: $W_x = -W \sin \theta$ and $W_y = -W \cos \theta$.

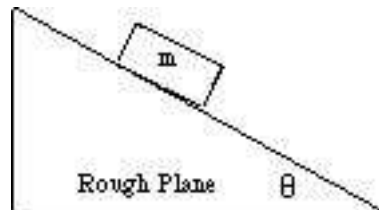
There is no motion perpendicular to the surface so $\sum F_y = 0 = N + W_y$ so that $N = -W_y = W \cos \theta$.

There is no balancing force for the x-component of W so according to Newton’s second law $\sum F_x = ma_x = -W \sin \theta = -mg \sin \theta$ and therefore $a_x = -g \sin \theta$.

Activity 5: Solving an Inclined Plane Problem

(a) Consider a block sliding down a rough inclined plane at a constant velocity. What is the net force on it?

(b) Refer to the free-body diagram you created for this situation in the last activity. Break the forces up into components and apply Newton’s first law to find the equation for the coefficient of kinetic friction as a function of m , θ , and g . You may need to consult a standard textbook for hints on how to tackle this problem.



12 The Electrical and Gravitational Forces¹²

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

I began to think of gravity extending to the orb of the moon, and . . . I deduced that the forces which keep the planets in their orbs must be reciprocally as the squares of their distances from the centers about which they revolve: and thereby compared the force requisite to keep the moon in her orb with the force of gravity at the surface of the earth, and found them to answer pretty nearly. All this was in the two plague years of 1665 and 1666, for in those days I was in the prime of my age for invention, and minded mathematics and philosophy more than at any time since. — Isaac Newton

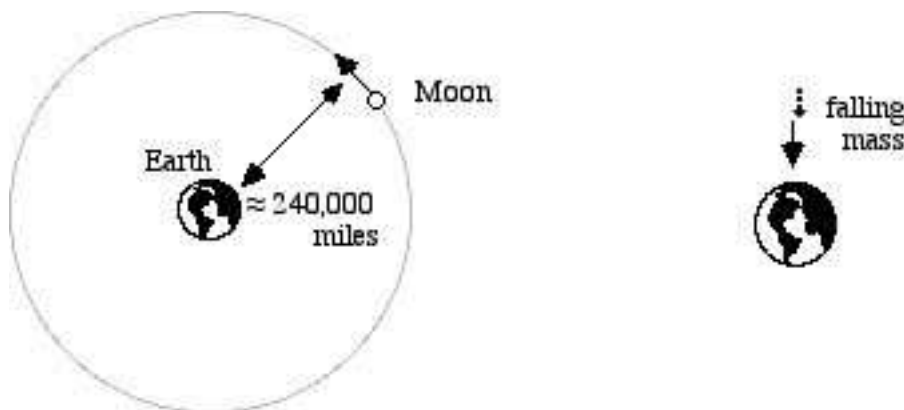
Objective

To understand the similarities of the gravitational and electrical forces.

Overview

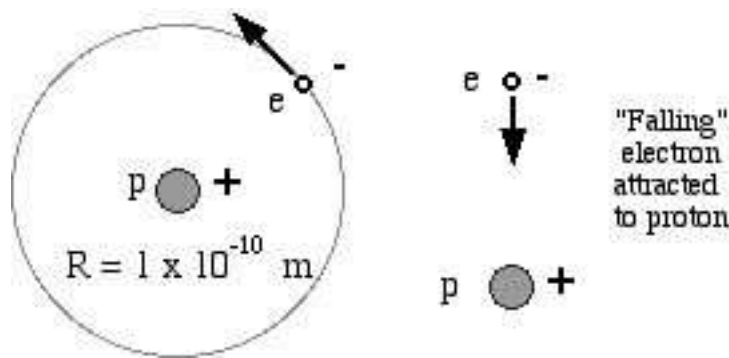
The enterprise of physics is concerned ultimately with mathematically describing the fundamental forces of nature. Nature offers us several fundamental forces, which include a strong force that holds the nuclei of atoms together, a weak force that helps us describe certain kinds of radioactive decay in the nucleus, the force of gravity, and the electromagnetic force.

Two kinds of force dominate our everyday reality: the gravitational force acting between masses and the Coulomb force acting between electrical charges. The gravitational force allows us to describe mathematically how objects near the surface of the earth are attracted toward the earth and how the moon revolves around the earth and planets revolve around the sun. The genius of Newton was to realize that objects as diverse as falling apples and revolving planets are both moving under the action of the same gravitational force.



Similarly, the Coulomb force allows us to describe how one charge “falls” toward another or how an electron orbits a proton in a hydrogen atom.

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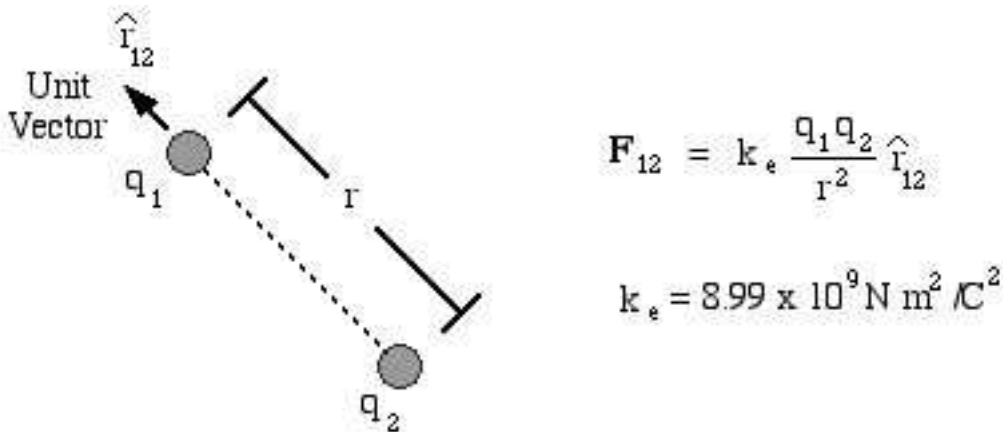


The fact that both the Coulomb and the gravitational forces lead to objects falling and to objects orbiting around each other suggests that these forces might have the same mathematical form.

In this unit we will explore the mathematical symmetry between electrical and gravitational forces for two reasons. First, it is beautiful to behold the unity that nature offers us as we use the same type of mathematics to predict the motion of planets and galaxies, the falling of objects, the flow of electrons in circuits, and the nature of the hydrogen atom and of other chemical elements. Second, what you have already learned about the influence of the gravitational force on a mass can be applied to aid your understanding of the forces on charged particles.

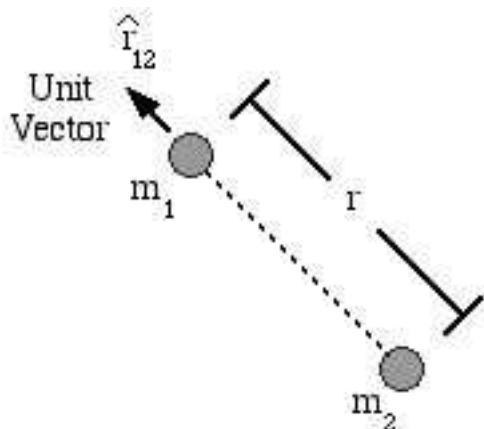
Activity 1: Comparison of Electrical and Gravitational Forces

Let's start our discussion of this comparison with the familiar expression of the Coulomb force exerted on charge 1 by charge 2.



Charles Coulomb did his experimental investigations of this force in the 18th century by exploring the forces between two small charged spheres. Much later, in the 20th century, Coulomb's law enabled scientists to design cyclotrons and other types of accelerators for moving charged particles in circular orbits at high speeds.

Newton's discovery of the universal law of gravitation came the other way around. He thought about orbits first. This was back in the 17th century, long before Coulomb began his studies. A statement of Newton's universal law of gravitation describing the force experienced by mass 1 due to the presence of mass 2 is shown below in modern mathematical notation:



$$\mathbf{F}_{12} = -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}_{12}$$

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N m}^2 / \text{kg}^2$$

About the time that Coulomb did his experiments with electrical charges in the 18th century, one of his contemporaries, Henry Cavendish, did a direct experiment to determine the nature of the gravitational force between two spherical masses in a laboratory. This confirmed Newton's gravitational force law and allowed him to determine the gravitational constant, G . A fact emerges that is quite amazing. Both types of forces, electrical and gravitational, are very similar. Essentially the same mathematics can be used to describe orbital and linear motions due to either electrical or gravitational interactions of the tiniest fundamental particles or the largest galaxies. This statement needs to be qualified a bit when electrons, protons and other fundamental particles are considered. A new field called quantum mechanics was developed in the early part of the last century to take into account the wave nature of matter, which we don't actually study in introductory physics. However, even in wave mechanical calculations electrical forces like those shown above are used.

Activity 2: The Electrical vs. the Gravitational Force

Examine the mathematical expression for the two force laws.

(a) What is the same about the two force laws?

(b) What is different? For example, is the force between two like masses attractive or repulsive? How about two like charges? What part of each equation determines whether the like charges or masses are attractive or repulsive?

(c) Do you think negative mass could exist? If there is negative mass, would two negative masses attract or repel?

Which Force is Stronger— Electrical or Gravitational?

Gravitational forces hold the planets in our solar system in orbit and account for the motions of matter in galaxies. Electrical forces serve to hold atoms and molecules together. If we consider two of the most common

fundamental particles, the electron and the proton, how do their electrical and gravitational forces compare with each other?

Let's peek into the hydrogen atom and compare the gravitational force on the electron due to interaction of its mass with that of the proton to the electrical force between the two particles as a result of their charge. In order to do the calculation you'll need to use some well known constants.

Electron: $m_e = 9.1 \times 10^{-31}$ kg, $q_e = -1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ C

Proton: $m_p = 1.7 \times 10^{-27}$ kg, $q_p = +1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ C

Distance between the electron and proton: $r = 1.0 \times 10^{-10}$ m

Activity 3: The Electrical vs. the Gravitational Force in the Hydrogen Atom

- (a) Calculate the magnitude of the electrical force on the electron. Is it attractive or repulsive?

- (b) Calculate the magnitude of the gravitational force on the electron. Is it attractive or repulsive?

- (c) Which is larger? By what factor (i.e., what is the ratio)?

- (d) Which force are you more aware of on a daily basis? If your answer does not agree with that in part (c), explain why.

Activity 4: The Gravitational Force of the Earth

- (a) Use Newton's law of universal gravitation to show that the magnitude of the acceleration due to gravity on an object of mass m at a height h above the surface of the earth is given by the following expression.

$$\frac{GM_e}{(R_e + h)^2}$$

Hint: Because of the spherical symmetry of the Earth you can treat the mass of the Earth as if it were all concentrated at a point at the Earth's center.

(b) Calculate the acceleration due to gravity of a mass m at the surface of the earth ($h=0$). The radius of the earth is $R_e \approx 6.38 \times 10^3$ km and its mass $M_e \approx 5.98 \times 10^{24}$ kg. Does the result look familiar? How is this acceleration related to the gravitational acceleration g ?

(c) Use the equation you derived in part (a) to calculate the acceleration due to gravity at the ceiling of the room you are now in. How does it differ from the value at the floor? Can you measure the difference in the lab using the devices available?

(d) Suppose you travel halfway to the moon. What is the new value of the acceleration due to gravity (neglecting the effect of the moon's pull)? (Recall that the earth-moon distance is about 384,000 km.)

(e) Is the gravitational acceleration “constant,” g , really a constant? Explain.

(f) In part (d) you showed that there is a significant gravitational attraction halfway between the earth and the moon. Why, then, do astronauts experience “weightlessness” when they are orbiting a mere 120 km above the earth?

13 Momentum and Momentum Change¹³

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To understand the definition of momentum and its vector nature as it applies to one-dimensional collisions.
- To reformulate Newton's second law in terms of change in momentum, using the fact that Newton's "motion" is what we refer to as momentum.
- To develop the concept of impulse to explain how forces act over time when an object undergoes a collision.
- To use Newton's second law to develop a mathematical equation relating impulse and momentum change for any object experiencing a force.

Overview

In the next few units we will explore the forces of interaction between two or more objects and study the changes in motion that result from these interactions. We are especially interested in studying collisions and explosions in which interactions take place in fractions of a second or less. Early investigators spent a considerable amount of time trying to observe collisions and explosions, but they encountered difficulties. This is not surprising, since the observation of the details of such phenomena requires the use of instrumentation that was not yet invented (such as the high speed camera). However, the principles of the outcomes of collisions were well understood by the late seventeenth century, when several leading European scientists (including Sir Isaac Newton) developed the concept of "quantity of motion" to describe both elastic collisions (in which objects bounce off each other) and inelastic collisions (in which objects stick together). These days we use the word momentum rather than motion in describing collisions and explosions.

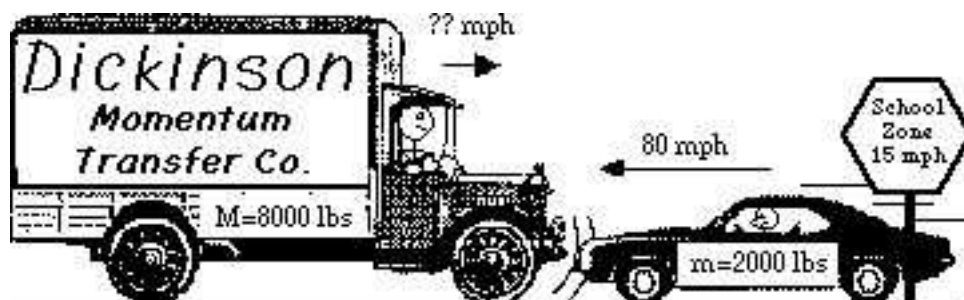
We will begin our study of collisions by exploring the relationship between the forces experienced by an object and its momentum change. It can be shown mathematically from Newton's laws and experimentally from our own observations that the integral of force experienced by an object over time is equal to its change in momentum. This time-integral of force is defined as a special quantity called impulse, and the statement of equality between impulse and momentum change is known as the impulse-momentum theorem.

Apparatus

- Dynamics carts (2) and track

Defining Momentum

In this session we are going to develop the concept of momentum to predict the outcome of collisions. But you don't officially know what momentum is because we haven't defined it yet. Let's start by predicting what will happen as a result of a simple one-dimensional collision. This should help you figure out how to define momentum to enable you to describe collisions in mathematical terms.



¹³1990-93 Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Dickinson College. Supported by FIPSE (U.S. Dept. of Ed.) and NSF. Portions of this material may have been modified locally and may not have been classroom tested at Dickinson College.

It's early fall and you are driving along a two lane highway in a rented moving van. It is full of all of your possessions so you and the loaded truck were weighed in at 8000 lbs. You have just slowed down to 15 MPH because you're in a school zone. It's a good thing you thought to do that because a group of first graders is just starting to cross the road. Just as you pass the children you see a 2000 lb sports car in the oncoming lane heading straight for the children at about 80 MPH. What a fool the driver is! A desperate thought crosses your mind. You figure that you just have time to swing into the oncoming lane and speed up a bit before making a head-on collision with the sports car. You want your truck and the sports car to crumple into a heap that sticks together and doesn't move. Can you save the children or is this just a suicidal act? For simulated observations of this situation you can use two carts of different masses set up to stick together in trial collisions.

Activity 1: Can You Stop the Car?

(a) Predict how fast you would have to be going to completely stop the sports car. Explain the reasons for your prediction.

(b) Try some head on collisions with the carts of different masses to simulate the event. Describe some of your observations. What happens when the less massive cart is moving much faster than the more massive cart? Much slower? At about the same speed?

(c) Based on your intuitive answers in parts (a) and (b) and your observations, what mathematical definition might you use to describe the momentum (or motion) you would need to stop an oncoming vehicle traveling with a known mass and velocity?

Just to double check your reasoning, you should have come to the conclusion that momentum is defined by the vector equation

$$\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}.$$

Expressing Newton's Second Law Using Momentum

Originally Newton did not use the concept of acceleration or velocity in his laws. Instead he used the term "motion," which he defined as the product of mass and velocity (a quantity we now call momentum). Let's examine a translation from Latin of Newton's first two laws (with some parenthetical changes for clarity).

Newton's First Two Laws of Motion

1. *Every body continues in its state of rest, or of uniform motion in a right line, unless it is compelled to change that state by forces impressed on it.*
2. *The (rate of) change of motion is proportional to the motive force impressed: and is made in the direction in which that force is impressed.*

The more familiar contemporary statement of the second law is that the net force on an object is the product of its mass and its acceleration where the direction of the force and of the resulting acceleration are the same. Newton's statement of the law and the more modern statement are mathematically equivalent, as you will show.

Activity 2: Re-expressing Newton's Second Law

(a) Write down the contemporary mathematical expression for Newton's second law relating net force to mass and acceleration. Please use vector signs and a summation sign where appropriate.

(b) Write down the definition of instantaneous acceleration in terms of the rate of change of velocity. Again, use vector signs.

(c) It can be shown that if an object has a changing velocity and a constant mass then $m \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d(m\mathbf{v})}{dt}$. Explain why.

(d) Show that $\sum \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt}$.

(e) Explain in detail why Newton's statement of the second law and the mathematical expression $\sum \mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt}$ are two representations of the same statement, i.e., are logically equivalent.

Momentum Change and Collision Forces*What's Your Intuition?*

You are sleeping in your sister's room while she is away at college. Your house is on fire and smoke is pouring into the partially open bedroom door. The room is so messy that you cannot get to the door. The only way to close the door is to throw either a blob of clay or a super ball at the door — there's not enough time to throw both.

Activity 3: What Packs the Biggest Wallop-A Clay Blob or a Super ball?

Assuming that the clay blob and the super ball have the same mass, which would you throw to close the door: the clay blob (which will stick to the door) or the super ball (which will bounce back with almost the same velocity it had before it collided with the door)? Give reasons for your choice, using any notions you already have or any new concepts developed in physics such as force, momentum, Newton's laws, etc. Remember, your life depends on it!

Momentum Changes

It would be nice to be able to use Newton's formulation of the second law of motion to find collision forces, but it is difficult to measure the rate of change of momentum during a rapid collision without special instruments.

However, measuring the momenta of objects just before and just after a collision is usually not too difficult. This led scientists in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to concentrate on the overall changes in momentum that resulted from collisions. They then tried to relate changes in momentum to the forces experienced by an object during a collision. In the next activity you are going to explore the mathematics of calculating momentum changes.

Activity 4: Predicting Momentum Changes

Which object undergoes the most momentum change during the collision with a door: the clay blob or the super ball? Explain your reasoning carefully.

Let's check your reasoning with some formal calculations of the momentum changes for both inelastic and elastic collisions. This is a good review of the properties of one-dimensional vectors. Recall that momentum is defined as a vector quantity that has both magnitude and direction. Mathematically, momentum change is given by the equation

$$\Delta \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_f - \mathbf{p}_i$$

where \mathbf{p}_i is the initial momentum of the object just before and \mathbf{p}_f is its final momentum just after a collision.

Activity 5: Calculating 1D Momentum Changes

(a) Suppose a dead ball (or clay blob) is dropped on a table and “sticks” in such a way that it has an initial momentum just before it hits of $\mathbf{p}_i = -p_{iy}\hat{\mathbf{j}}$ where $\hat{\mathbf{j}}$ is a unit vector pointing along the positive y axis. Express the final momentum of the dead ball in the same vector notation.

(b) What is the change in momentum of the clay blob as a result of its collision with the table? Use the same type of unit vector notation to express your answer.

(c) Suppose that a live ball (or a super ball) is dropped on a table and “bounces” on the table in an elastic collision so that its speed just before and just after the bounce are the same. Also suppose that just before it bounces it has an initial momentum $\mathbf{p}_i = -p_{iy}\hat{\mathbf{j}}$, where $\hat{\mathbf{j}}$ is a unit vector pointing along the positive y-axis. What is the final momentum of the ball in the same vector notation? Hint: Does the final \mathbf{p} vector point along the +y or -y axis?

(d) What is the change in momentum of the ball as a result of the collision? Use the same type of unit vector notation to express your result.

(e) The answer is not zero. Why? How does this result compare with your prediction? Discuss this situation.

(f) Suppose the mass of each ball is 0.2 kg and that they are dropped from 1 m above the table. Using this value for mass of the balls and a calculated value for the velocity of each of the balls just before they hit the table,

you can calculate the momentum just before the collision \mathbf{p}_i for each of the balls. Also calculate the momentum of the balls just after the collision \mathbf{p}_f and the change in momentum $\Delta\mathbf{p}$ for each ball. Show your calculations in the space below.

Applying Newton's Second Law to the Collision Process (The Egg Toss)

Suppose somebody tosses you a raw egg and you catch it. In physics jargon, one would say (in a very official tone of voice) that “the egg and the hand have undergone an inelastic collision.” What is the relationship between the force you have to exert on the egg to stop it, the time it takes you to stop it, and the momentum change that the egg experiences? You ought to have some intuition about this matter. In more ordinary language, would you catch an egg slowly or fast?

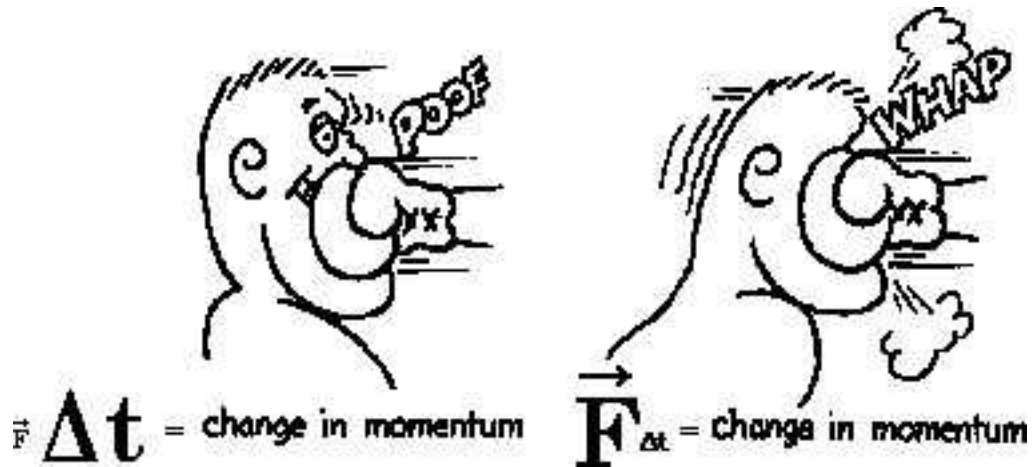
Activity 6: Momentum Changes and Average Forces on an Egg: What's Your Intuition?

(a) If you catch an egg of mass m that is heading toward your hand at speed v , what is the magnitude of the momentum change that it undergoes?

(b) Does the total momentum change differ if you catch the egg more slowly or is it the same?

(c) Suppose the time you take to bring the egg to a stop is Δt . Would you rather catch the egg in such a way that Δt is small or large? Why?

(d) What do you suspect might happen to the average force you exert on the egg while catching it when Δt is small?



You can use Newton's second law to derive a mathematical relationship between momentum change, force, and collision times for objects. This derivation leads to the impulse-momentum theorem. Let's apply Newton's second law to the egg catching scenario.

Activity 7: Force and Momentum Change

(a) Sketch an arrow representing the magnitude and direction of the force exerted by your hand on the egg as you catch it.



(b) Write the mathematical expression for Newton's second law in terms of the net force and the time rate of change of momentum. (See Activity 2(e) for details.)

(c) Explain why, if \mathbf{F} is a constant during the collision lasting a time Δt , then $\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \frac{\Delta\mathbf{p}}{\Delta t}$.

(d) Show that for a constant force \mathbf{F} the change in momentum is given by $\Delta\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{F} \Delta t$. Note that for a constant force, the term $\mathbf{F} \Delta t$ is known as the impulse given to one body by another.

14 Work and Power¹⁴

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

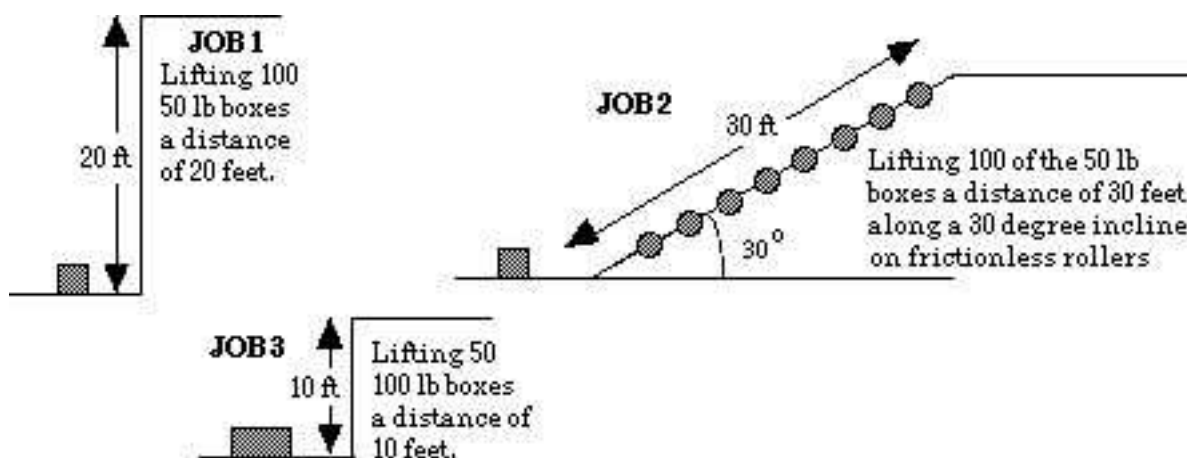
- To extend the intuitive notion of work as physical effort to a formal mathematical definition of work as a function of force and distance.
- To understand the concept of power and its relationship to work.

Apparatus

- Spring scale
- Wooden block with hook
- Variety of masses

The Concept of Physical Work

Suppose you are president of the Richmond Load 'n' Go Co. A local college has three jobs available and will allow you to choose which one you want before offering the other two jobs to rival companies. All three jobs pay the same amount of money. Which one would you choose for your crew? NOTE: The quantities in this figure are given in British units, where “pounds” = mg , not just m , i.e. the g is already included.



Activity 1: Choosing Your Job

Examine the descriptions of the jobs shown in figure above. Which one would you be most likely to choose? Least likely to choose? Explain the reasons for your answer.

You obviously want to do the least amount of work for the most money. Before you reconsider your answers later in this unit, you should do a series of activities to get a better feel for what physicists mean by work and how the president of Load 'n' Go can make top dollar.

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In everyday language we refer to doing work whenever we expend effort. In order to get an intuitive feel for how we might define work mathematically, you should experiment with moving your textbook back and forth along a table top and a rougher surface such as a carpeted floor.

Activity 2: This is Work!

(a) Pick a distance of a meter or so. Sense how much effort it takes to push a heavy book that distance. How much more effort does it take to push it twice as far?

(b) Pile another similar book on top of the original one and sense how much effort it takes to push the two books through the distance you picked. Comment below.

(c) From your study of sliding friction, what is the relationship between the mass of a sliding object and the friction force it experiences? On the basis of your experience with sliding friction, estimate how much more force you have to apply to push two books compared to one book.

(d) If the “effort” it takes to move an object is associated with physical work, guess an equation that can be used to define work mathematically when the force on an object and its displacement (i.e., the distance it moves) lie along the same line.

In physics, work is not simply effort. In fact, the physicist’s definition of work is precise and mathematical. In order to have a full understanding of how work is defined in physics, we need to consider its definition in a very simple situation and then enrich it later to include more realistic situations.

A Simple Definition of Physical Work: If an object that is moving in a straight line experiences a constant force in the direction of its motion during the time it is undergoing a displacement, the work done by the external force, F_{ext} , is defined as the product of the force and the displacement of the object,

$$W = F_{ext}\Delta x$$

where W represents the work done by the external force, F_{ext} is the magnitude of the force, and Δx is the displacement of the object.

What if the force of interest and the displacement are in opposite directions? For instance, what about the work done by the force of sliding friction, F_f , when a block slides on a rough surface? The work done by the friction force is

$$W_f = -F_f \Delta x$$

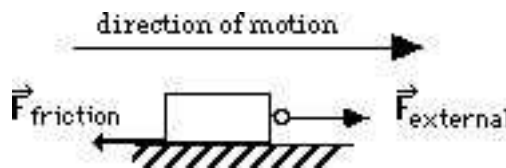
Activity 3: Applying the Physics Definition of Work

(a) Does effort necessarily result in physical work? Suppose two guys are in an evenly matched tug of war. They are obviously expending effort to pull on the rope, but according to the definition of physical work, are they doing any physical work? Explain.



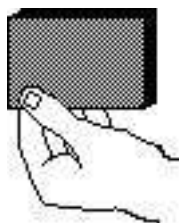
(b) A wooden block with a mass of .30 kg is pushed along a sheet of ice that has no friction with a constant external force of 10 N which acts in a horizontal direction. After it moves a distance of 0.40 m how much work has been done on the block by the external force?

(c) The same wooden block with a mass of .30 kg is pushed along a table with a constant external force of 10 N which acts in a horizontal direction. It moves a distance of 0.40 m. However, there is a friction force opposing its motion. Assume that the coefficient of sliding friction, μ_k , is 0.20.



1. According to the definition of work done by a force, what is the work associated with the external force? Is the work positive or negative? Show your calculation.
2. According to our discussion above of the work done by a friction force, what is the work associated with the friction force? Is the work positive or negative? Show your calculation.

(d) Suppose you lift a 0.3 kg object through a distance of 1.0 m at a constant velocity.



1. What is the work associated with the force that the earth exerts on the object? Is the work positive or negative? Show your calculation.
2. What is the work associated with the external force you apply to the object? Is the work positive or negative? Show your calculation.

Pulling at an Angle What Happens When the Force and the Displacement Are Not Along the Same Line?

Let's be more quantitative about measuring force and distance and calculating the work. How should work be calculated when the external force and the displacement of an object are not in the same direction?



To investigate this, you will use a spring scale to measure the force necessary to slide a block along the table at a constant speed. Before you make your simple force measurements, you should put some weights on your block so that it slides along a smooth surface at a constant velocity even when it is being pulled with a force that is 30 or 60 degrees from the horizontal.

Activity 4: Calculating Work

(a) Hold a spring scale horizontal to the table and use it to pull the block a distance of 0.5 meters along the horizontal surface in such a way that the block moves at a constant speed. Record the force in newtons and the distance in meters in the space below and calculate the work done on the block in joules. (Note that there is a special unit for work, the joule, or J for short. One joule is equal to one newton times one meter, i.e., $J = N \cdot m$.)

(b) Repeat the measurement, only this time pull on the block at a 30° angle with respect to the horizontal. Pull the block at about the same speed. Is the force needed larger or smaller than you measured in part (a)?

(c) Repeat the measurement once more, this time pulling the block at a 60° angle with respect to the horizontal. Pull the block at about the same speed as before.

(d) Assuming that the actual physical work done in part (b) is the same as the physical work done in part (a) above, how could you enhance the mathematical definition of work so that the forces measured in part (b) could be used to calculate work? In other words, use your data to postulate a mathematical equation that relates the physical work, W , to the magnitude of the applied force, F , the magnitude of the displacement, Δs , and the angle, θ , between F and Δs . Explain your reasoning. Hint: $\sin 30^\circ = .500$, $\sin 60^\circ = .866$, $\cos 30^\circ = .866$, $\cos 60^\circ = .500$.

Work as a Dot Product

Review the definition of dot (or scalar) product as a special product of two vectors in your textbook, and convince yourself that the dot product can be used to define physical work in general cases when the force is constant but not necessarily in the direction of the displacement resulting from it.

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{s}$$

Activity 5: How Much Work Goes with Each Job?

(a) Re-examine the descriptions of the jobs shown in the figure on the first page of this section. What is the minimum physical work done in job 1? Note that the data are given in British units, so the work will be expressed in foot pounds (ft lbs), not newton meters (joules). (Remember, the “pounds” are mg , so you don’t need to multiply by g .)

(b) What is the minimum physical work done in job 2?

(c) What is the minimum physical work is done in job 3?

(d) Was your original intuition about which job to take correct? Which job should Richmond Load 'n' Go try to land?

The Concept of Power

People are interested in more than physical work. They are also interested in the rate at which physical work can be done. Average power, $\langle P \rangle$, is defined as the ratio of the amount of work done, ΔW , to the time interval, Δt , it takes to do the work, so that

$$\langle P \rangle = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta t}.$$

Instantaneous power is given by the derivative of work with respect to time, or

$$P = \frac{dW}{dt}.$$

If work is measured in joules and time in seconds then the fundamental unit of power is in joules/second where 1 joule/second equals one watt. However, a more traditional unit of power is the horsepower, which represents the rate at which a typical work horse can do physical work. It turns out that *1 horsepower (or hp) = 746 watts = 746 joules/second*.

Those of you who are car buffs know that horsepower is a big deal in rating high performance cars. The hp in a souped-up car is in the hundreds. How does your stair climbing ability stack up? Let's see how long it takes you to climb the two stories of stairs in the science center.

Activity 6: Rate the Horsepower in Your Legs

(a) Determine the time it takes you to climb the two flights of stairs in the science center. Then measure the height of the climb and compute the work done against the force of gravity.

(b) Compute the average power, $\langle P \rangle$, you expended in hp. How does this compare to the horsepower of your favorite automobile? If you're not into cars, how do you stack up against a horse?

15 Work and Kinetic Energy¹⁵

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To discover Hooke's law.
- To understand the concept of kinetic energy and its relationship to work as embodied in the work-energy theorem.
- To develop an understanding of the physical significance of mathematical integration.

The Force Exerted on a Mass by an Extended Spring

So far we have pushed and pulled on an object with a constant force and calculated the work needed to displace that object. In most real situations the force on an object can change as it moves.

What happens to the average force needed to stretch a spring from 0 to 1 cm compared to the average force needed to extend the same spring from 10 to 11 cm? How does the applied force on a spring affect the amount by which it stretches, i.e., its displacement?

Apparatus

- A large spring
- A support rod to hang the spring
- A 2-meter stick
- A variety of masses

Activity 1: Are Spring Forces Constant?

Hang the spring from a support rod with the large diameter coils in the downward position. Extend the spring from 0 to 1 cm. Feel the force needed to extend the spring. Extend the spring from 10 to 11 cm. Feel the force needed to extend the spring again. How do the two forces compare? Are they the same?

The Force and Work Needed to Stretch a Spring

Now we would like to be able to quantify the force and work needed to extend a spring as a function of its displacement from an equilibrium position (i.e., when it is “unstretched”).

Activity 2: Force vs. Displacement for a Spring

(a) Measure the distance from the floor to the lower end of the spring and record this distance as s_0 below. Create a data table in the space below with the column headings m (kg), s (m), F_{ext} (N), x (m), Δx (m), $\langle F_{ext} \rangle$ (N), ΔW (J), and W_{total} (J). (The last four columns will not be filled in until you get to Activities 3 and 4.) Hang different masses in 0.100 kg increments up to 1.000 kg and measure the distance from the floor to the lower end of the spring, s , for each mass. Record the values of m and s in the data table. Calculate and record the external force, F_{ext} , and the stretch of the spring, x ($= s_0 - s$), for each mass.

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(b) Using *Excel*, create a graph of F_{ext} (vertical axis) vs. x . Is the graph linear? If the force, F_{ext} , increases with the displacement in a proportional way, fit the data to find the slope of the line. Insert a copy of the graph into your notebook. Use the symbol k to represent the slope of the line. What is the value of k ? What are its units? Note: k is known as the spring constant.

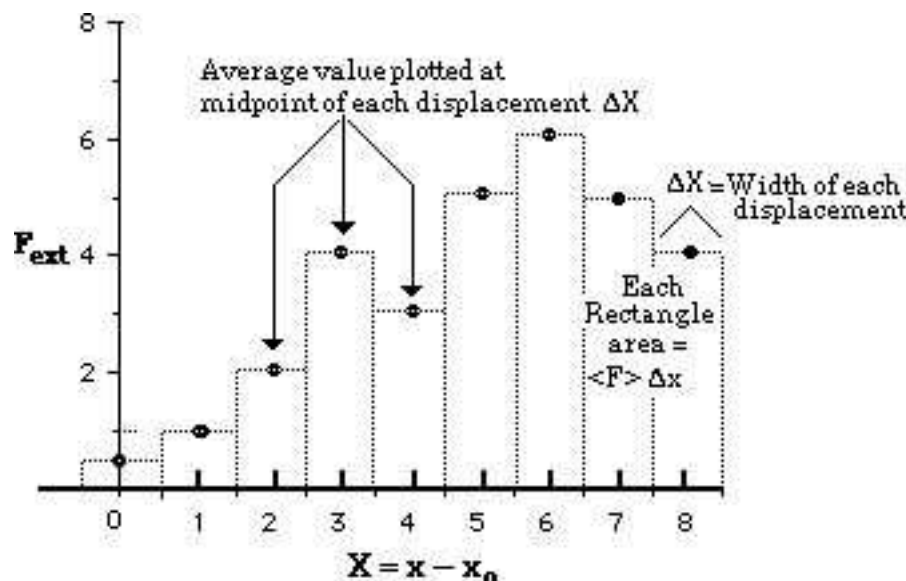
(c) Write the equation describing the relationship between the external force, F_{ext} , and the total displacement, x , of the spring from its equilibrium using the symbols F_{ext} , k , and x .

Note: Any restoring force on an object which is proportional to its displacement is known as a Hooke's Law Force. There was an erratic, contentious genius named Robert Hooke who was born in 1635. He played with springs and argued with Newton.

Calculating Work when the Force is not Constant

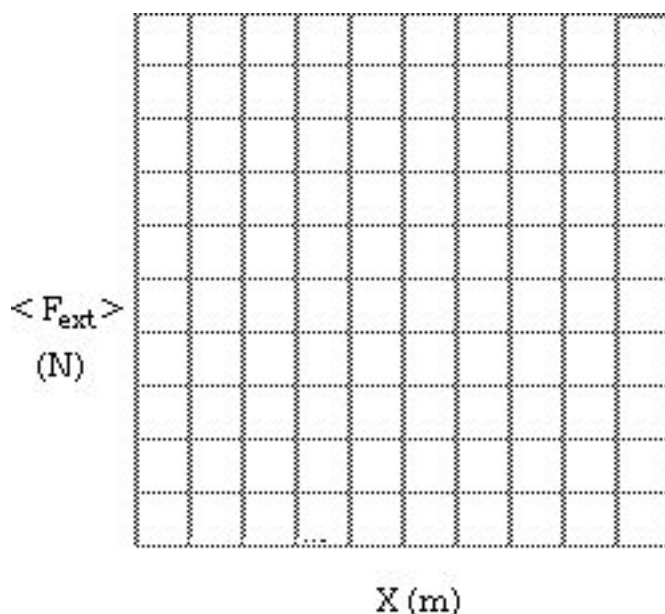
We would like to expand the definition of work so it can be used to calculate the work associated with stretching a spring and the work associated with other forces that are not constant. A helpful approach is to plot the average force needed to move an object for each successive displacement Δx as a bar graph like that shown in the figure below. The figure shows a graph representing the average applied force causing each unit of displacement of an object. This graph represents force that is not constant but not the force vs. displacement of a typical spring.

Note: The bar graph below is intended to illustrate mathematical concepts. Any similarity between the values of the forces in the bar graph and any real set of forces is purely coincidental. In general, the force causing work to be done on an object is not constant.



Activity 3: Force vs. Distance in a Bar Graph

(a) Using your data from Activity 2, calculate the width of each displacement, Δx , and the average external force, $\langle F_{\text{ext}} \rangle$, for each displacement, and record the values in the table above. Plot $\langle F_{\text{ext}} \rangle$ vs. x as a bar graph on the grid below. (Choose appropriate scales for the axes before making the graph.)



How can we calculate the work done in stretching the spring? We can use several equivalent techniques: (1) adding up little pieces of $\langle F_{\text{ext}} \rangle \Delta x$ from the above bar graph, (2) finding the area under the “curve” you created in Activity 2, or (3) using mathematical integration.

All three methods should yield about the same result. If you have not yet encountered integrals in a calculus course, you can compare the results of using the first two methods. If you have studied integrals in calculus you may want to consult your instructor or the textbook about how to set up the appropriate definite integral to calculate the work needed to stretch the spring.

Activity 4: Calculation of Work

(a) Calculate the work needed to stretch the spring by adding up small increments of $\langle F_{ext} \rangle \Delta x$ in your table. Also record the running sum in the table and summarize the result below. Don't forget to specify units.

$W_{total} =$

(b) Calculate the work needed to stretch the spring by computing the area under the curve in the graph of F_{ext} vs. x that you created in Activity 2.

(c) How does adding up the little rectangles in part (a) compare to finding the area under the curve in part (b)?

Note that in the limit where the x values are very small the sum of $\langle F_{ext} \rangle \Delta x$, known by mathematicians as the Riemann sum, converges to the mathematical integral and to the area under the curve.

Defining Kinetic Energy and Its Relationship to Work

What happens when you apply an external force to an object that is free to move and has no friction forces on it? Obviously it should experience an acceleration and end up being in a different state of motion. Can we relate the change in motion of the object to the amount of work that is done on it?

Let's consider a fairly simple situation. Suppose an object is lifted through a distance s near the surface of the earth and then allowed to fall. During the time it is falling it will experience a constant force as a result of the attraction between the object and the earth glibly called the force of gravity. You can use the theory we have already developed for the gravitational force to compare the velocity of the object to the work done on it by the gravitational field as it falls through a distance y . This should lead naturally to the definition of a new quantity called kinetic energy, which is a measure of the amount of "motion" gained as a result of the work done on the mass.

Activity 5: Equations for Falling v vs. y

(a) An object of mass m is dropped near the surface of the earth. What are the magnitude and direction of its acceleration g ?

(b) If the object has no initial velocity and is allowed to fall for a time t under the influence of the gravitational force, what kinematic equation describes the relationship between the distance the object falls, y , and its time of fall, t ? Assume $y_0 = 0$.

(c) Do you expect the magnitude of the velocity to increase, decrease or remain the same as the distance increases? Note: This is an obvious question!!

(d) Differentiate the equation you wrote down in part (b) to find a relationship between v , the acceleration g , and time t .

(e) Eliminate t from the equations you obtained in parts (b) and (d) to get an expression that describes how the velocity, v , of the falling object depends on the distance, y , through which it has fallen.

You can use the kinematic equations to derive the functional relationship you hopefully discovered experimentally in the last activity. If we define the kinetic energy (K) of a moving object as the quantity $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$, then we can relate the change in kinetic energy as an object falls to the work done on it. Note that for an object initially at rest the initial kinetic energy is $K_i = 0$, so the change in kinetic energy is given by the difference between the initial and final kinetic energies. $\Delta K = K_f - K_i = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

Activity 6: Computing Work and Kinetic Energy of a Falling Mass

(a) Suppose the mass of your falling object is 0.35 kg. What is the value of the work done by the gravitational force when the mass is dropped through a distance of $y = 1.2$ m?

(b) Use the kinematic equation you derived in Activity 5(e) that relates v and y to find the velocity of the falling object after it has fallen 1.2 m.

(c) What is the kinetic energy of the object before it is dropped? After it has fallen 1.2 m? What is the change in kinetic energy, ΔK , as a result of the fall?

(d) How does the work done by the gravitational force compare to the kinetic energy change, ΔK , of the object?

Activity 7: The Mathematical Relationship between Work and Kinetic Energy Change During a Fall

(a) Since our simplified case involves a constant acceleration, write down the equation you derived in Activity 5(e) to describe the speed, v , of a falling object as a function of the distance y which it fell.

(b) Using the definition of work, show that $W = mgy$ when the object is dropped through a distance y .

(c) By combining the equations in parts (a) and (b) above, show that in theory the work done on a mass falling

under the influence of the gravitational attraction exerted on it by the earth is given by the equation $W = \Delta K$.

You have just proven an example of the work-energy theorem which states that the change in kinetic energy of an object is equal to the net work done by all the forces acting on it.

$$W = \Delta K \quad [\text{Work-Energy Theorem}]$$

Although you have only shown the work-energy theorem for a special case where no friction is present, it can be applied to any situation in which the net force can be calculated. For example, the net force on an object might be calculated as a combination of applied, spring, gravitational, and friction forces.

16 Conservation of Mechanical Energy¹⁶

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To understand the concept of potential energy.
- To investigate the conditions under which mechanical energy is conserved.

Overview

The last unit on work and energy culminated with a mathematical proof of the work-energy theorem for a mass falling under the influence of the force of gravity. We found that when a mass starts from rest and falls a distance y , its final velocity can be related to y by the familiar kinematic equation

$$v_f^2 = v_i^2 + 2gy \quad \text{or} \quad gy = \frac{1}{2}(v_f^2 - v_i^2) \quad [Eq. 1]$$

where v_f is the final velocity and v_i is the initial velocity of the mass.

We believe this equation is valid because: (1) you have derived the kinematic equations mathematically using the definitions of velocity and constant acceleration, and (2) you have verified experimentally that masses fall at a constant acceleration. We then asked whether the transformation of the mass from a speed v_i to a speed v_f is related to the work done on the mass by the force of gravity as it falls.

The answer is mathematically simple. Since $F_g = mg$, the work done on the falling object by the force of gravity is given by

$$W_g = F_g y = mgy \quad [Eq. 2]$$

But according to Equation 1, $gy = \frac{1}{2}v_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}v_i^2$, so we can re-write Equation 2 as

$$W_g = mgy = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 \quad [Eq. 3]$$

The $\frac{1}{2}mv_f^2$ is a measure of the motion resulting from the fall. If we define it as the energy of motion, or, more succinctly, the kinetic energy, we can define a work-energy theorem for falling objects:

$$W = \Delta K \quad [Eq. 4]$$

or, the work done on a falling object by the earth is equal to the change in its kinetic energy as calculated by the difference between the final and initial kinetic energies.

If external work is done on the mass to raise it through a height y (a fancy phrase meaning “if some one picks up the mass”), it now has the potential to fall back through the distance y , gaining kinetic energy as it falls. Aha! Suppose we define *potential energy* to be *the amount of external work, W_{ext} , needed to move a mass at constant velocity through a distance y against the force of gravity*. Since this amount of work is positive while the work done by the gravitational force has the same magnitude but is negative, this definition can be expressed mathematically as

$$U = W_{ext} = mgy \quad [Eq. 5]$$

Note that when the potential energy is a maximum, the falling mass has no kinetic energy but it has a maximum potential energy. As it falls, the potential energy becomes smaller and smaller as the kinetic energy increases. The kinetic and potential energy are considered to be two different forms of mechanical energy. What about the total mechanical energy, consisting of the sum of these two energies? Is the total mechanical energy constant

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during the time the object falls? If it is, we might be able to hypothesize a law of conservation of mechanical energy as follows: *In some systems, the sum, E , of the kinetic and potential energy is a constant.* This hypothesis can be summarized mathematically by the following statement.

$$E = K + U = \text{constant} \quad [\text{Eq. 6}]$$

The idea of mechanical energy conservation raises a number of questions. Does it hold quantitatively for falling masses? How about for masses experiencing other forces, like those exerted by a spring? Can we develop an equivalent definition of potential energy for the mass-spring system and other systems and re-introduce the hypothesis of conservation of mechanical energy for those systems? Is mechanical energy conserved for masses experiencing frictional forces, like those encountered in sliding?

In this unit, you will explore whether or not the mechanical energy conservation hypothesis is valid for a falling mass.

Activity 1: Mechanical Energy for a Falling Mass

Suppose a ball of mass m is dropped from a height h above the ground.

(a) Where is U a maximum? A minimum?

(b) Where is K a maximum? A minimum?

(c) If mechanical energy is conserved what should the sum of $K + U$ be for any point along the path of a falling mass?

Mechanical Energy Conservation

How do people in different reference frames near the surface of the earth view the same event with regard to mechanical energy associated with a mass and its conservation? Suppose the president of your college drops a 2.0-kg water balloon from the second floor of the administration building (10.0 meters above the ground). The president takes the origin of his or her vertical axis to be even with the level of the second floor. A student standing on the ground below considers the origin of his coordinate system to be at ground level. Have a discussion with your classmates and try your hand at answering the questions below.

Activity 2: Mechanical Energy and Coordinate Systems

(a) What is the value of the potential energy of the balloon before and after it is dropped according to the president? According to the student? Show your calculations and don't forget to include units!

The president's perspective is that $y = 0.0$ m at $t = 0$ s and that $y = -10.0$ m when the balloon hits the student):

$$U_i =$$

$$U_f =$$

The student's perspective is that $y = 10.0$ m at $t = 0$ s and that $y = 0.0$ m when the balloon hits:

$$U_i =$$

$$U_f =$$

Note: If you get the same potential energy value for the student and the president, you are on the wrong track!

(b) What is the value of the kinetic energy of the balloon before and after it is dropped according to the president? According to the student? Show your calculations. Hint: Use a kinematic equation to find the velocity of the balloon at ground level.

President's perspective:

$$K_i =$$

$$K_f =$$

Student's perspective:

$$K_i =$$

$$K_f =$$

Note: If you get the same values for both the student and the president for values of the kinetic energies you are on the right track!

(c) What is the value of the total mechanical energy of the balloon before and after it is dropped according to the president? According to the student? Show your calculations. Note: If you get the same values for both the student and the president for the total energies you are on the wrong track!!!!

President's perspective:

$$E_i =$$

$$E_f =$$

Student's perspective:

$$E_i =$$

$$E_f =$$

(d) Why don't the two observers calculate the same values for the mechanical energy of the water balloon?

(e) Why do the two observers agree that mechanical energy is conserved?

17 Hooke's Law

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives:

- To explore the nature of elastic deformation and restoring forces

Introduction

There is no such thing as a perfectly rigid body. The stiffest of metal bars can be twisted, bent, stretched, and compressed. Delicate measurements show that even small forces cause these distortions. Under certain circumstances (typically, when the forces are not too large), a body deformed by forces acting upon it will return to its original size and shape when the forces are removed, a capacity known as elasticity. Permanent distortion from large forces is referred to as plastic deformation. In this lab, you will stay within the elastic limit.

Apparatus:

- two springs and supports
- collection of masses
- 2-meter stick

Activity:

1. Suspend one of the springs from the support. Using the meter stick, observe the position of the lower end of the spring and record the value in the table below.
2. Hang 100 grams from the lower end of the spring and again record the position of this end.
3. Repeat 2 with loads of 200, 300, 400, and 500 grams hung from the spring.
4. Repeat 2, and 3 with the second spring.

Mass suspended from spring 1 (g)	Position reading (m)	Elongation (m)	Mass suspended from spring 2 (g)	Position reading (m)	Elongation (m)
0		0	0		0
100			100		
200			200		
300			300		
400			400		
500			500		

5. Determine the elongation produced by each load.
6. Plot a graph using the values of the elongation as the abscissas (x values) and the forces due to the corresponding loads as ordinates (y values) for each spring. Make sure you use compatible units. Write the equation for each curve in the space below.

Questions:

1. What do your graphs show about the dependence of each spring's elongation upon the applied force?
2. List the proportionality constant (including proper units) for each spring in the space below.
3. The slope of each line (the proportionality constant) is known as the force constant, k . Which spring has the larger force constant? Express in your own words the physical implications of different size force constants.

18 Periodic Motion

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To learn directly about some of the characteristics of periodic motion, namely period, frequency, and amplitude.
- To investigate the relationships between position, velocity, acceleration, and force in simple harmonic motion.
- To investigate energy in simple harmonic motion.

Introduction

Periodic motion is motion that repeats itself. You can see the repetition in the position-, velocity-, or acceleration-time graphs. The length of time to go through one cycle and begin to repeat the motion is called the period. The number of cycles in each second is called the frequency. The unit of frequency, cycles per second, is given a special name — Hertz.

Motion of a Mass Hanging from a Spring

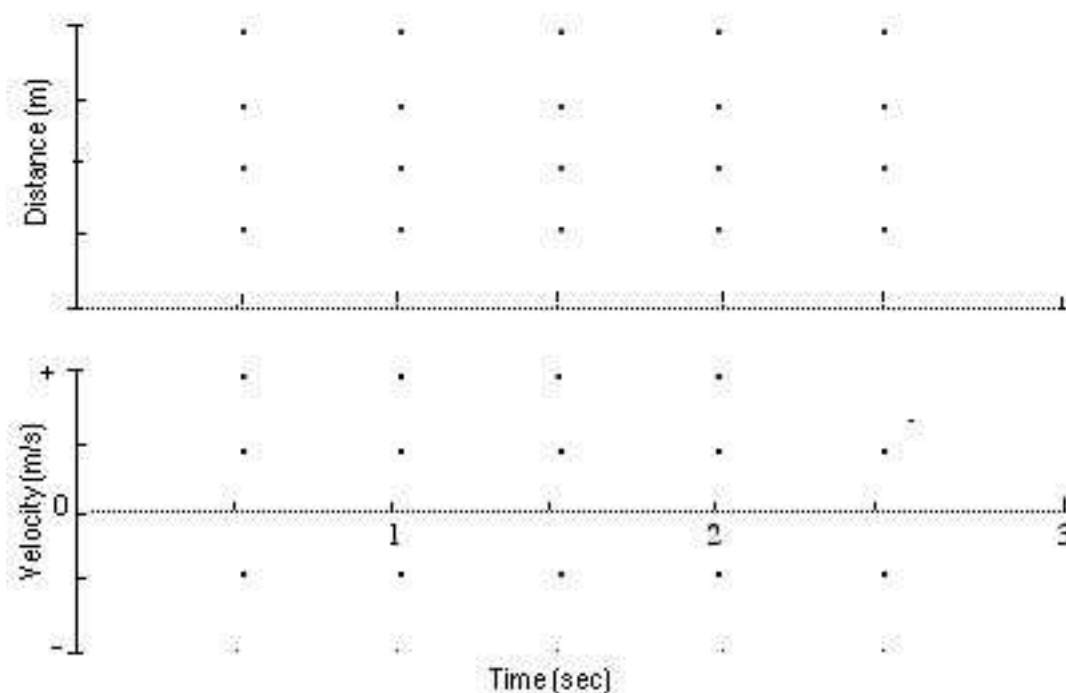
In this unit you will investigate the motion of a mass hanging from a spring.

Apparatus

- Large spring
- Force probe
- Motion detector
- Variety of masses
- *Science Workshop 750 Interface*
- *DataStudio* software (Position & Velocity Graphs application and SHM application)

Activity 1: Periodic Motion of a Mass-Spring System

(a) Open the **Position & Velocity Graphs** application in the **131 Workshop** menu. Hang the large spring from the force probe hook with the large diameter coils down and hang a 200-g mass from the spring. Place the motion detector facing up directly below the spring. Pull the mass downward about 15 cm, and let go. Adjust the height of the support so that the mass comes no closer than 0.15 m to the detector. Record data for a few seconds to display position-time and velocity-time graphs of the motion. Sketch the graphs on the axes below.



Comment: Note that when an object returns to the same position, it does not necessarily mean that a cycle is ending. It must return to the same position, and the velocity and acceleration must also return to the same values in both magnitude and direction for this to be the start of a new cycle.

(b) Do the position and velocity graphs appear to have the same period? Do their peaks occur at the same times? If not, how are the peaks related in time, i.e. what fraction of a period is their phase difference?

(c) Use the Smart Tool to measure the period of the motion. (For better accuracy, measure the total time over as many cycles as possible and divide by the number of cycles.) Record the period here:

(d) Calculate the period from

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{m}{k}}.$$

using the k value determined in the Hooke's Law experiment.

(e) Calculate the percent difference between your two values.

Simple Harmonic Motion

The motion of a mass hanging from a spring that you looked at in Activity 1 is a close approximation to a kind of periodic motion called simple harmonic motion (sometimes abbreviated SHM).

Activity 2: What Factors Determine the Period of the Mass-Spring System?

What can you do to change the period of the SHM of the mass-spring system? What will happen to the period if you increase the amplitude? Increase the mass? Increase the spring constant (use a stiffer spring)?

Activity 3: The Period of SHM and the Amplitude

(a) Repeat the procedure of Activity 1, but with a different starting position (other than 15 cm). (Warning: Do not make the amplitude so large that the mass comes closer than 0.15 m from the motion detector.) When you have good graphs, find and record the period and the amplitude using the methods described in Activity 1.

(b) Take ratios of the period and the amplitude of Activity 1 to those determined here.

(c) Is there evidence that the period depends on amplitude? (Did the change in amplitude result in a comparable change in period?) Explain. How does this compare with your prediction?

Activity 4: The Dependence of the Period of a SHM on the Mass

(a) Carefully measure the period for four other masses. Record the masses and the measured periods in a table in the space below along with the mass and period from Activity 1. **Note:** Add half the mass of the spring to each mass value. This accounts for the fact that the theory of SHM neglects the mass of the spring.

(b) Does the period depend on the mass? Does it increase or decrease as mass is increased?

(c) Determine the mathematical relationship between the period T and the mass m by finding a function that fits the data. Do this by using *Excel* to plot a graph of T vs m and fitting the data with a power function. Write the equation that provides the best fit to the data in the space below.

Comment: You should have found that T is independent of amplitude and proportional to \sqrt{m} . The actual expression for the period is

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{m}{k}}.$$

Velocity, Acceleration, Force and Energy

In this investigation you will look more carefully at the distance, velocity and acceleration graphs for simple harmonic motion. You will also look at the force graph, and will examine the energy associated with simple harmonic motion.

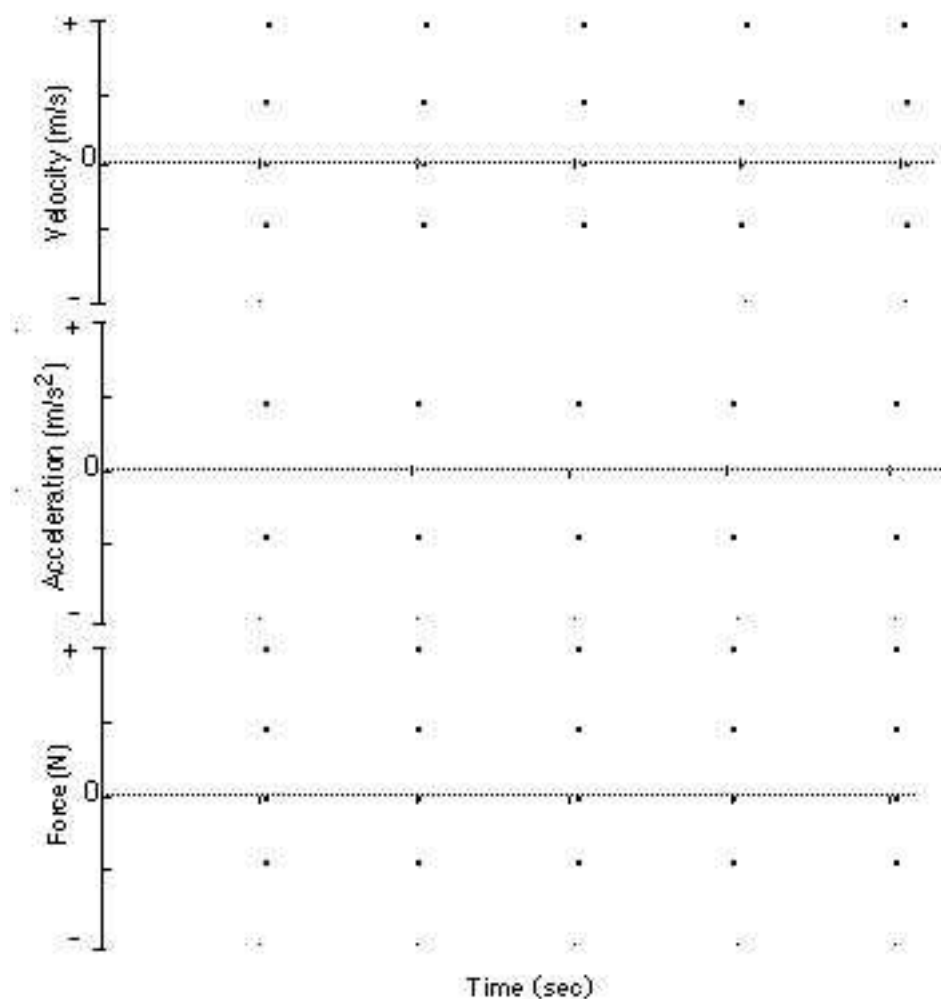
Activity 5: Determination of the Spring Constant

Measure the distance the spring stretches for four different masses and use these data to determine the spring constant, k , as you did in the Hooke's Law experiment. Record your data and the result for k in the space below.

Activity 6: Velocity, Acceleration, and Force for SHM

(a) Consider the motion you looked at in Activity 1 when the mass was 200 g and the initial position was 15 cm. Sketch the position and velocity graphs that you observed on the axes below using dashed lines.





(b) Based on what you know about the relationships between velocity, acceleration, and force, use dashed lines to sketch your predictions for the acceleration and force graphs.

(c) Suspend the 200-g mass from the spring and open the **SHM** application in the **131 Workshop** menu. Start the mass oscillating with an amplitude of 15 cm and record data for a few seconds. When you have obtained good graphs, sketch the results on the above axes using solid lines. Print your graph and attach to this unit.

(d) When the mass is at its maximum distance from the detector, is the velocity maximum, minimum or some other value according to your graphs? Does this agree with your predictions? Does this agree with your observations of the oscillating mass? Explain.

(e) When the mass has its maximum positive velocity, is its distance from the detector maximum, minimum, the equilibrium value or some other value according to your graphs? What about when it reaches maximum negative velocity? Does this agree with your predictions? Does this agree with your observations of the oscillating mass? Explain.

(f) According to your graphs, for what distances from the detector is the acceleration maximum? For what distances is the acceleration zero? What is the velocity in each of these cases?

(g) Compare the force and acceleration-time graphs. Describe any similarities. Does the force graph agree with your prediction?

(h) From your graphs, what would you say is the relationship between force and acceleration?

(i) Compare the force and distance(position)-time graphs. What would you say is the relationship between force and position?

Activity 7: Energy of a Mass Undergoing SHM

Now use the graphs from the last activity to examine the energy relationships in simple harmonic motion. To do this you will need to draw a horizontal line through the equilibrium position on the position vs time graph as you did in Activity 1. x values must be measured relative to this equilibrium position.

(a) At what points is the kinetic energy of the mass zero? Label these points on your distance and velocity graphs above with a K.

(b) Calculate the elastic potential energy due to the spring at one of these points. Label the point you use on your velocity and distance graphs with a 1. Use $U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$, where x is the distance from the equilibrium position and k is the force constant of the spring, which you have already measured. Use the Smart Tool to measure x . Show your data and calculations in the space below.

(c) At what points is the potential energy zero? Label these points with a P on your distance and velocity graphs.

(d) If you measured the kinetic energy at one of these points, what would you expect its value to be? Explain.

(e) Check your prediction. Calculate the kinetic energy at one of these points. Label the point you use on your velocity graph with a 2. Use $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$. Use the Smart Tool to determine v . Show your data and calculations in the space below.

- (f) Did your calculated kinetic energy agree with your prediction?
- (g) If you calculated the potential and kinetic energies at a point where neither of these was zero, what would you expect the total energy to be? Explain.
- (h) Check your prediction. Pick a point where the mass has both kinetic and potential energy and calculate them both. Label this point on your distance and velocity graphs with a 3. Show your calculations.
- (i) Does your result agree with your prediction? Does it appear that energy is conserved? Explain.

19 The Period of a Pendulum

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives:

- Study the influences on the motion of a simple pendulum
- Calculate the acceleration due to gravity from measurements of the period and length of a simple pendulum

Introduction:

The period of a simple pendulum is related to its length and the acceleration due to gravity according to the relationship:

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}. \quad [Eq. 1]$$

T is the period, L is the length, and g is the gravitational acceleration. This assumes the oscillations are small. Let's check this prediction experimentally.

Apparatus:

- string attached to stand
- collection of masses
- stop watch
- meter stick

Activity:

1. With $L = 1.0$ m, place a 1-kg mass at the end of your pendulum. Time twenty-five (25) oscillations of amplitude not greater than 10 degrees. The period is the total time divided by the number of oscillations. Calculate the period and enter the relevant data into the table below.
2. Repeat 1 for masses of 500 g, 200 g, 100 g, 50 g, and 20 g.

Trial No.	Mass (kg)	Length[L] (m)	No. of Oscillations	Total Time (s)	Period[T] (s)
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					

3. With the 200-g mass, fix the length L to be 1.5 m. Time twenty-five (25) oscillations of amplitude not more than 10 degrees. Calculate the period and period squared, and enter the relevant data into the table below.
4. Repeat 3 for pendulum lengths of 1.0, 0.7, 0.4, 0.25, and 0.15 meters.

Trial No.	Mass (kg)	Length[L] (m)	No. of Oscillations	Total Time (s)	Period[T] (s)	T^2 (s ²)
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						

5. Plot T as a function of mass from the first set of data and T^2 as a function of L from the second set of data on SEPARATE graphs. NOTE: Be sure the T versus mass graph contains the origin. (If you don't know how to do this, consult your instructor.) Fit the data and determine the slopes of the lines of each graph. Be sure to include UNITS with each slope. Print both graphs and include with this unit.

slope: period versus mass _____

slope: period² versus length _____

Questions:

1. Interpret the slope of the period versus mass line: What is the relationship between mass and period? How does the period depend on the mass?
2. Interpret the slope of the period² versus length line: What is the relationship between length and period? How does the period depend on pendulum length?
3. If the length of the pendulum were $\frac{1}{16}$ its original length, by how much would its period change?
4. Using the relationship between length and period (equation 1) and the slope you measured for the T^2 vs L graph, determine the acceleration due to gravity g . Calculate the percent difference between your value and the accepted value of $[9.8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2}]$.

20 Heat, Temperature, and Internal Energy

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

To investigate the relationship between heat and temperature.

Apparatus

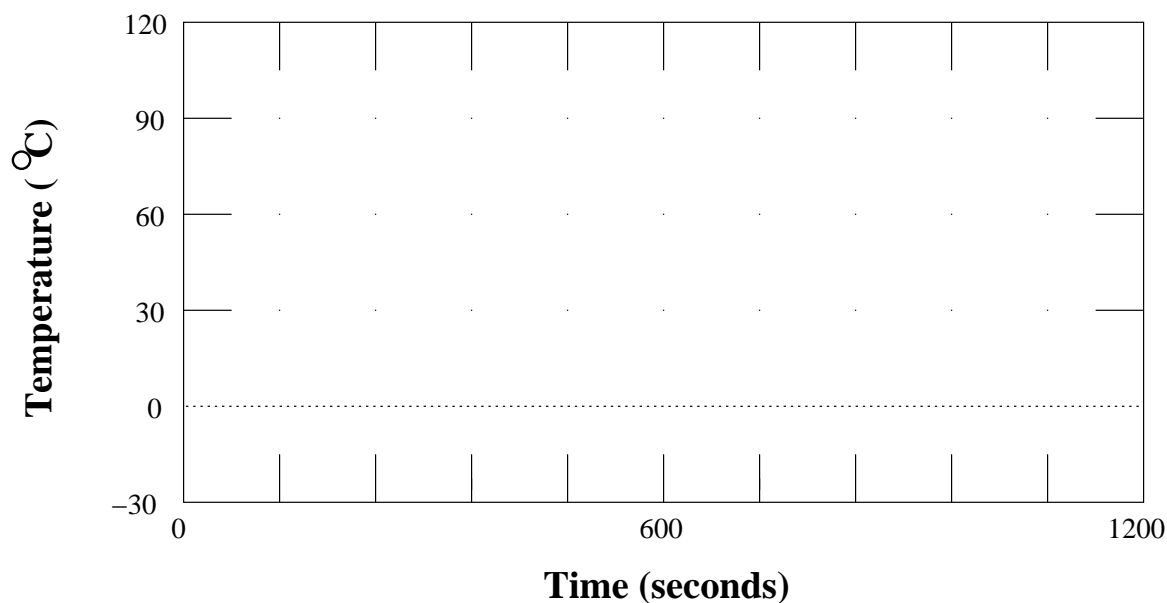
- Glass beaker
- Glass stirring rod
- Hot plate
- Ice
- Data Studio software and temperature probe
- Clamp and stand

Temperature of a Substance as a Function of Heat Transfer

As part of our quest to understand heat energy transfer, temperature, and internal energy of a substance, let's consider the temperature change as ice is changed to water and then to steam.

Activity 1: Predicting T vs. t for Water

Suppose you were to add heat at a constant rate to a container of ice water at 0°C until the water begins to boil. Sketch the predicted shape of the heating curve on the graph below using a dashed line. Mark the points at which the ice has melted and the water begins to boil.



Activity 2: Measuring T vs. t for Water

(a) To test your prediction:

1. Fill the glass beaker one third full of ice and set it on top of the hot plate.
2. Suspend the temperature probe so that the end is submerged in the ice but not touching the side or bottom of the beaker. You will need to use the clamp and stand to do this. **BE SURE THE WIRE FROM THE TEMPERATURE PROBE IS NOT TOUCHING THE HOT PLATE OR GLASS BEAKER.** Also, be sure the temperature probe is attached to port “A” of the Pasco interface. Let set for 60 seconds so temperature probe can come to equilibrium with the ice.
3. Open the *Heat, Temp, & Internal Energy* application in the 132 Workshop folder under *Physics Applications*.
4. Turn on the hot plate to about 6 and click the **Start** button on the monitor to begin recording data. The temperature of the water will be recorded on the graph shown on the monitor. Stir often to keep ice against the temperature probe.
5. When ice begins to turn to water, stir at about 1 minute intervals. When all ice is melted, there is no need to stir any further.
6. After the water begins to boil, keep hot plate on for a minute or two as temperature flattens at 100 degrees.
7. Stop data collection using the **Stop** button and turn off hot plate.
8. Sketch the shape of the measured heating curve on the above graph using a solid line. Ignore small variations due to noise and uneven heating. Mark the points at which the ice has melted and the water begins to boil.

(b) Does your prediction agree with the measured heating curve? If not, what are the differences?

(c) What is the relationship between the temperature and the added heat while the ice is melting?

(d) What is the relationship between the temperature and the added heat after the ice has melted, but before the water begins to boil?

(e) What is the relationship between the temperature and the added heat while the water is boiling?

(f) If there are regions of the heating curve in which the temperature is not changing, what do you think is happening to the added heat in these regions?

21 Boyle's Law

Name _____

Section _____

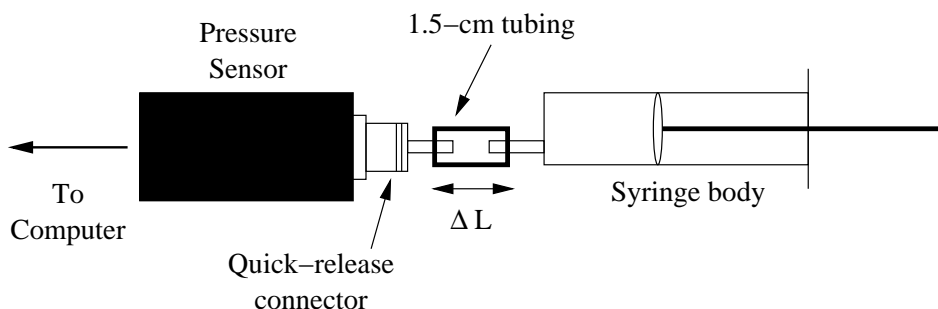
Date _____

Objective

To investigate the relationship between the pressure and volume of a gas.

Apparatus

- DataStudio 750 Interface
- Pasco Pressure Sensor
- Syringe
- Tubing



Apparatus for Boyle's Law.

Introduction

The behavior of a gas can be described in terms of the macroscopic quantities: temperature (T), pressure (P), and volume (V). The relationship between these quantities is given by the equation of state of the gas. A real gas behaves approximately as an ideal gas if it is far from liquefaction. In that case, the equation of state of an ideal gas can be used to describe a real gas. For a given mass of a gas, if one of the quantities P , T , or V is changed, a change in the other two quantities probably will result. However, if one of the quantities is kept constant, the relationship between the other two can be studied. The relationship between pressure and volume of an ideal gas is called Boyle's law.

The experimental apparatus is shown in the figure above. The gas is air contained in a syringe that has marking on its side to measure the volume of the syringe. A short tube connects the syringe with a pressure sensor that measures the pressure in the tube and converts that measurement into a signal that can be read by the DataStudio interface.

Activity 1: Relationship Between P and V of a Gas

(a) Check that there are no leaks in the apparatus by trying to compressing the syringe from the 20.0 ml position to the 10.0 ml position. It should become increasingly difficult to push the plunger as the volume decreases. If this is not the case, check the couplings for fit. If no problem is obvious, then consult your instructor.

(b) The initial volume of air in the syringe should be set at 20.0 ml. If your syringe is set to some other value, disconnect the quick release connector from the sensor by gently rotating it in the counter-clockwise direction as

you look from the syringe toward the pressure sensor. Next, move the piston to the 20.0 ml position, and then re-connect the quick release connector to the pressure sensor.

(c) **Data Recording.** Open the Boyle's Law activity located in the 132 Workshop Folder under the **Start** menu. Click on the window labeled *Volume and Pressure Table*. This is where your data will be displayed as you record it. This table display will show the values of the gas volume in the syringe which you will set by moving the piston to the appropriate marking on the syringe. You will record the pressure at each of these settings with the pressure sensor. To begin recording data, make sure the piston is at the 20-ml setting, and click the Start button. The Start button will change to a Keep button and the table display will show the value of the pressure next to the first volume value (20 ml) in the table. The reading in the pressure column should be colored red. Click the Keep button to record this pressure (notice the reading in the Pressure column beside the 20-ml entry changes from red to black). The next setting for the volume (18 ml) will appear in the Volume column of the data table display.

NOTE: For the first pressure reading at 20 ml, the air in the syringe will be in thermal equilibrium with the environment. This will not be the case immediately after compressing the syringe for the next reading. Therefore, you must allow one second for the system to return to thermal equilibrium after you compress the syringe and before clicking on Keep to record pressure values.

(d) Compress the syringe to the next value of the volume as listed in the data display table (i.e., the window labeled *Volume and Pressure Table*) and wait one second for the system to reach thermal equilibrium. Once thermal equilibrium is reached, click Keep to record the pressure. The data table display will automatically change to show the next value of the volume at which the pressure will be measured.

(e) Repeat step (d) for the remaining values of the volume listed in the table display. In other words, continue taking pressure measurements at the prescribed volume values in the data table display by moving the piston to the prescribed value and clicking on Keep after thermal equilibrium is reached. After you record the pressure for the last volume (8 ml), click the small, red box next to the Keep button (this is the stop button) to end data recording.

(f) **Analysis.** What happened to the pressure when the volume was reduced from 20 ml to 8 ml? From looking at the data, do the pressure and volume seem to be directly or inversely proportional? Explain.

(g) Copy your data into a spreadsheet and plot pressure versus volume. Next, fit your data with a trendline using a power function. Record the result here. What should you get for the power? Why?

(h) If pressure and volume are inversely proportional, then what can you say about the product of pressure and volume? Explain.

(i) The measurements you have made are V in milliliters (ml) and P in kilopascals (kPa). What are the corresponding units of PV ? Show how you get this here (the result must be in energy units).

(j) Construct a table in the space below with the column headings: V (ml), P (kPa), and PV . Include the units from above in the last column. Enter the results for P and V in this new table and calculate PV for each set of readings. Determine the mean value and the standard deviation σ for PV . Record the results in the form $PV = \text{Mean} \pm \sigma$. What does this result tell you about the product PV ? What does it tell you about the relationship between P and V ? Explain.

(k) Is there a trend in the values of PV as the volume decreases? If so, what do you suppose causes this trend?

22 Calorimetry

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Purpose

- To learn to use a method for measuring heat called calorimetry.
- To use calorimetry to determine the specific heat of aluminum.

Apparatus

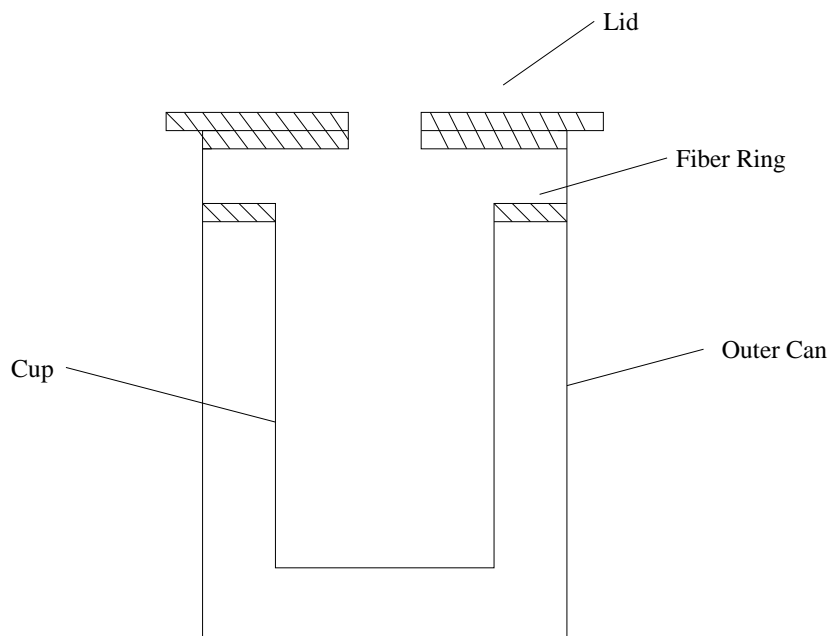
- Hypsometer
- Hot plate
- Aluminum pellets
- Plastic Beaker
- Ice
- Compact scale (for measuring masses)
- Calorimeter
- Temperature probe
- Glass stirring rod
- Clamp and stand
- Safety goggles
- *DataStudio* software (Calorimetry)

Introduction

Calorimetry is a method for measuring heat. As applied in this experiment, the method involves the mixing together of substances initially at two different temperatures. The substances at the higher temperature lose heat and the substances at the lower temperature gain heat until thermal equilibrium is reached.

Activity 1: Statement of Conservation of Energy

If no heat is transferred to the surroundings, what is the relationship between the heat lost by the substances initially at high temperature and the heat gained by the substances initially at low temperature? Note: This is simply a statement of conservation of energy.



Experimental Equipment

A calorimeter, shown in the above figure, is used in this experiment to minimize the exchange of heat between the system and the surroundings. The inner calorimeter cup is thermally insulated from the surroundings by suspending it on a ring of material with low heat conductivity and surrounding it with a layer of air. Also the cup is shiny to minimize radiation loss. Hence, if the mixture of substances is placed inside the calorimeter cup, the heat lost to or gained from the surroundings can be ignored, and the above relationship can be used. The only part of the calorimeter which is involved in the calculation is the inner calorimeter cup which contains water and in which an exchange of heat between the hot and cold bodies takes place. The cup will undergo the same temperature change as the contained water. Of course, an instrument will have to be introduced to measure the temperature of the system, but the heat gained or lost by the instrument is small and can be ignored.

Activity 2: Specific Heat of Aluminum

- (a) Fill the hypsometer (boiler) at least half full of water and start heating the water.
- (b) Determine and record the mass of the hypsometer cup, m_h . Then fill it about half full with dry aluminum pellets. Determine and record the mass of the cup and pellets, m_{hp} , and calculate the mass of the pellets, m_p . Record the measurements in the space below.
- (c) Fill the plastic beaker with ice water. Open the *Calorimetry* application in the 132 Workshop folder in the **Start** menu and start collecting data. To make sure the temperature probe is working properly place it in the ice water and check that it is reading approximately 0°C . If not, then consult your instructor.
- (d) Place the hypsometer cup in the top of the hypsometer and put the temperature probe into the middle of the pellets. To do this, remove the pellets from the cup, place the temperature probe in the proper position (using the clamp and stand), then return the pellets to the cup.
- (e) Determine and record the mass of the calorimeter cup, m_c . Fill this cup about half full of cold tap water. Determine and record the mass of the cup and water, m_{cw} , and calculate the mass of the water, m_w . Then place the calorimeter cup in the outer can and put the lid on.

(f) When the temperature of the pellets becomes constant, at or near 100°C , record the temperature of the pellets as T_p . Remove the probe from the pellets and put it in the cold water in the calorimeter cup. When the temperature of the water levels off, record it as T_w .

(g) Now, quickly but carefully, pour the pellets into the water in the calorimeter cup. Stir the water occasionally with the stirring rod and monitor the temperature of the mixture. When the temperature levels off, record this value as T . Click the **Stop** button on the monitor, print your graph of temperature as a function of time and include it in this unit.

(h) Write the complete heat equation and solve for the unknown specific heat of the metal. The specific heat of the calorimeter cup is $900 \text{ J/kg}\cdot^{\circ}\text{C}$.

(i) Look up the accepted value for the specific heat of aluminum and calculate the percent difference between this value and the one you determined above. Do the two values agree within experimental uncertainties? Comment on possible sources of error.

Activity 3: Average and Standard Deviation

Consult the other lab groups in class and record their values of the specific heat of aluminum below. Calculate the average and standard deviation.

23 Music to Our Ears: Standing Waves in Strings

Name _____ Section _____ Date _____

Aim:

- to study the natural modes of vibration of a stretched string

Equipment:

- string vibrator and power supply
- inelastic braided string
- 2 clamps
- superpulley
- mounting rod for the superpulley
- mass and hanger set
- balance
- tape measure

How do we make musical sounds? To make a sound, we need something that vibrates. If we want to make musical notes you usually need the vibration to have an almost constant frequency: that means stable pitch. We also want a frequency that can be easily controlled by the player. In electronic instruments this is done with electric circuits or with clocks and memories. In non-electronic instruments, the stable, controlled vibration is produced by a standing wave. Here we discuss the way strings work. This is also a good introduction for studying wind instruments, because vibrating strings are easier to visualise than the vibration of the air in wind instruments, but the math is very similar.

Introduction

Waves are oscillations in an elastic medium:

- your own vocal cords (the medium) vibrating as air is forced over them by your lungs;
- a stretched string (the medium) on a musical instrument vibrating as it is bowed, hammered or plucked;
- pressure oscillations in a column of air (the medium) in a wind instrument, organ pipe or your own oral and nasal cavities.

In each case the medium has an equilibrium state, and when displaced or otherwise perturbed from that state, experiences a force which tends to restore it to equilibrium. For small perturbations, the restoring force is proportional to the displacement and the medium becomes a simple harmonic oscillator.

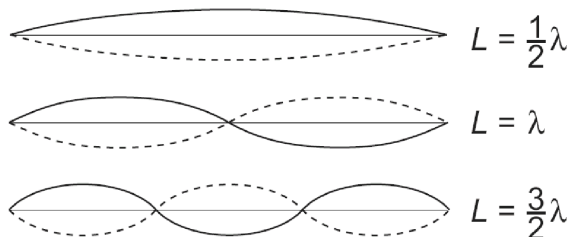
There are also waves that do not require a medium, namely electromagnetic waves, which will be discussed later in the course.

Background

Standing waves (stationary waves) are produced by the interference of two traveling waves, both of which have the same wavelength, speed and amplitude, but travel in opposite directions through the same medium. The necessary conditions for the production of standing waves can be met in the case of a stretched string by having waves set up by some vibrating body, reflected at the end of the string and then interfering with the oncoming waves.

One characteristic of every standing wave pattern is that there are points along the medium which appear to be standing still. These points, sometimes described as points of no displacement, are referred to as nodes. There are other points along the medium which undergo vibrations between a large positive and large negative displacement. These are the points which undergo the maximum displacement during each vibrational cycle of the standing wave. In a sense, these points are the opposite of nodes, and so they are called antinodes. A standing wave pattern always consists of an alternating pattern of nodes and antinodes. When a standing wave pattern is established in a medium, the nodes and the antinodes are always located at the same position along the medium; they are "standing still." It is this characteristic which has earned the name "standing wave."

A stretched string has many natural modes of vibration (three examples are shown below). If the string is fixed at both ends then there must be a node at each end. It may vibrate as a single segment, in which case the length (L) of the string is equal to $1/2$ the wavelength (λ) of the wave. It may also vibrate in two segments with a node at each end and one node in the middle; then the wavelength is equal to the length of the string. It may also vibrate with a larger integer number of segments. In every case, the length of the string equals some integer number of half wavelengths.



If you drive a stretched string at an arbitrary frequency, you will probably not see any particular mode; many modes will be mixed together. But, if the tension and the string's length are correctly adjusted to the frequency of the driving vibrator, one vibrational mode will occur at a much greater amplitude than the other modes. For any wave with wavelength (λ) and frequency f , the speed, v , is:

$$v = \lambda f \quad (1)$$

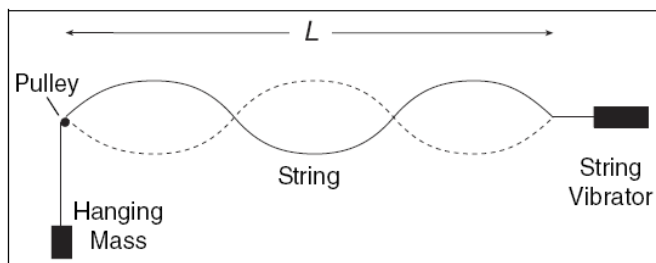
The speed of a wave on a string is also given by:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \quad (2)$$

where T is the tension in the string and μ is the linear density (mass/length) of the string.

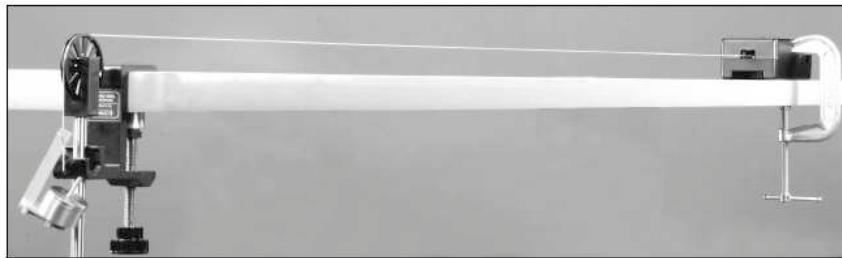
In this experiment, standing waves are set up in a stretched string by the vibrations of an electrically-driven String Vibrator. The tension in the string equals the weight of the masses suspended over the pulley. You can alter the tension by changing the masses. L is the length of the string and n is the number of segments. (Note that n is not the number of nodes). Since a segment is $1/2$ wavelength then

$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (3)$$



Procedure

1. Measure the exact length of a piece of string several meters long. Measure the mass of the string and calculate the linear density (mass/length). (If your balance is not precise enough to measure that length of string, use a longer piece of string to calculate the linear density.)
2. Clamp the String Vibrator and pulley about 100 cm apart. Attach the string to the vibrating blade, run it over the pulley, and hang about 200 g of mass from it. Cut off the excess string.
3. Measure from the knot where the string attaches to the String Vibrator to the top of the pulley. This is the distance L . (L is NOT the total length of the string that you measured in 1.) Record the value here: $L =$



4. Connect the AC power supply to the String Vibrator.
5. Adjust the tension by adding to or subtracting from the hanging mass so that the string vibrates in 2 segments. Adjust the tension further to achieve a “clean” node at the center. Also check the end of the vibrating blade; the point where the string attaches should be a node. It is more important to have a good node at the blade than it is to have the largest amplitude possible. However, it is desirable to have the largest amplitude possible while keeping a good node.
6. Record the hanging mass, m . How much uncertainty is there in your value? By how much can you change the hanging mass before you see an effect? Record the uncertainty.

Part A: Speed of the Wave

- a. Calculate the tension (including the uncertainty) in the string.

b. Calculate the speed v_A (including uncertainty) of the wave from your observed values of tension (T) and linear density (μ). Record your calculated value with the uncertainty and the correct number of significant figures.

c. Calculate the speed v_B from the wavelength (λ) and frequency (f). (In the U.S. $f = 60.0$ Hz.)

d. Compare the two values (v_A and v_B) of speed. What is the difference? How does the difference compare to the uncertainty that you determined in **b** ?

e. Calculate the percentage by which v_A deviates from v_B .

$$\%Deviation = \frac{v_A - v_B}{v_B} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

Part B: Linear Density

a. Produce standing waves of 3, 4, 5, etc. segments in the string. Get as many as you can. Record the mass, m , (including uncertainty) and the number of segments, n , in a table here:

b. For every value of mass, calculate the tension (including uncertainty) in the string, and include in the above table.

c. In *Excel*, plot a graph of T versus n and attach it at the end of this activity. Describe in words the shape of the graph.

d. For every value of n , calculate $\frac{1}{n^2}$ and include in above table. In *Excel*, plot a graph of T versus $\frac{1}{n^2}$. Does the graph look linear? If so, include a linear trend line. Print the graph and include with this unit.

e. Using the LINEST function in *Excel* (see **Appendix C**), find the slope of the graph and its uncertainty. Record the values here (including units):

f. Combine the equations in the **Background** section, and show that the tension can be written as:

$$T = 4\mu f^2 L^2 \frac{1}{n^2} \quad (5)$$

Thus the slope of a T versus $\frac{1}{n^2}$ graph is $4\mu f^2 L^2$.

g. Use the slope from your graph to calculate the density, μ , of the string. Also calculate the uncertainty in μ , assuming the fractional uncertainty in μ is the same as the fractional uncertainty in the slope.

h. Compare this measured value of string density to the accepted value. (You calculated the accepted value of μ from the mass and length of the string at the beginning of the experiment). Does the accepted value fall within the uncertainty limits of your calculated value?

Further Investigation

If a strobe is available, observe the standing wave on a string with the strobe light. Draw a diagram explaining the motion of the string.

24 Resonance in Tubes

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives:

- Determine the resonant frequency for a tube open at one end.
- Determine tube lengths at resonance for a tube of variable length.
- Determine the velocity of sound in air in the laboratory (two ways).

Introduction

The Economy Resonance Tube is designed for the study of resonance in columns of air. The tube set includes a movable inner tube with a closed end and an outer tube which is open at both ends. The inner tube also includes a measuring tape to easily find the length of the air column in the outer tube. To adjust the length of the outer tube, simply slide the inner tube until the desired length appears on the measuring tape. Open tube experiments can also be performed with the outer tube by removing the inner tube.

In order that the tube resonate, the frequency of the vibrating air must coincide with the natural frequency of the tube (which may be its fundamental or one of its overtones). For the Economy Resonance Tube, which is closed at one end, this requirement is met if the tube length is an odd number of quarter wavelengths of the sound waves produced by the source ($L = \lambda/4, 3\lambda/4, 5\lambda/4$, etc., where L is the length of the tube and λ is the wave length of the sound). Note that if the length of the tube is gradually increased while the source is vibrating, the distance between successive resonance positions is $\lambda/2$.

Note: Due to edge effects at the open end of a tube, the effective length of the tube depends on the radius of the opening. Thus, $L_{eff} = L + 0.6r$, where L_{eff} is the *effective* length, L is the length measured, and r is the tube radius.

Apparatus:

- Economy Resonance Tube
- Open speaker
- Sine wave generator
- 2 banana plug leads
- Sound sensor
- Meter stick
- Data Studio 750 Interface
- Thermometer

Room Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) _____ Tube radius (m) _____

Activity 1: Fixed tube length

1. Connect the open speaker to the sine wave generator using standard banana plug leads.
2. Adjust the length of the outer tube to 50 cm (check with meter stick).
3. Place the tube in front of the speaker in such a way that the tube is open at one end (the speaker can be set at an angle relative to the tube length).
4. Set the sound sensor inside the tube and connect it to the Data Studio interface.
5. To activate the sound sensor, perform the following sequence: Start up *DataStudio* by going to *Start* \rightarrow *Programs* \rightarrow *Physics Applications* \rightarrow *DataStudio*. Click on *Create Experiment*, then *Setup*, then *Add Sensor or Instrument*. Scroll down to *Sound level sensor* and select, then click *OK*. Double click *Graph* at left. Click *Start* to begin taking data.

6. Start at a frequency of 130 Hz and increase until you find the frequency of the largest resonance (indicated by a peak on the sound level graph). This is the fundamental frequency. Record the result here:

7. The resonant frequencies for a tube open at one end are given by $f = nv/4L$ where n is an odd integer, v is the velocity of sound and L is the effective tube length. From the fundamental frequency you just found, calculate the velocity of sound in air (using $n = 1$) and record it here:

Activity 2: Fixed frequency

1. Adjust the outer tube length to 20 cm.
2. Set the speaker inside the open end of the tube so that it is closed at both ends.
3. Set the sine wave generator frequency to 600 Hz (with low amplitude).
4. Slowly move the inner tube to increase the effective length of the tube. Record the length of the tube when resonance is achieved. You don't need to use the sound sensor for this. Just listen for maximum loudness.

5. Increase the length of the tube until two more resonance lengths are found for the constant frequency and record them here:

6. The maxima you have determined are spaced a distance $\lambda/2$ apart, where λ is the wavelength. Find the differences between adjacent resonance lengths and calculate the average of the two values:

7. Find λ from your average value of $\lambda/2$ and calculate the velocity of sound in air from $v = f\lambda$.

8. The velocity of sound in air at 0°C is 331.4 m/s. The temperature dependence of sound velocity in air is given by $v(T) = 331.4 + 0.6T$, where T is in °C and v is in m/s. Calculate an "accepted" value of the velocity of sound in air from this formula.

9. What is the percent difference between your experimental result and the "accepted" value?

25 Electrostatics

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To understand the basic phenomena of electric charges at rest.

Introduction

Atoms consist of a central nucleus made up of protons and neutrons surrounded by one or more electrons. While the nuclei of solids are essentially localized, some of the electrons may be free to move about. A substance which has as many electrons as it has protons is said to be electrically neutral. Dissimilar objects have different affinities for electrons. When two such objects, initially neutral, are rubbed together, the friction may cause electrons to pass from one to the other. After separation, neither object is neutral. Each is said to have been “charged by friction”. An isolated, electrified object becomes neutral again if its electron-proton balance is restored. A convenient means for accomplishing this is to connect the object to earth by means of a conductor, through which electrons readily travel. This process is called “grounding the body”. Since an electrified object is referred to as “charged”, grounding is also referred to as “discharging”.

Substances through which electrons do not move easily are called “non-conductors”, or “insulators”. Experiment has shown that when rubber and wool are rubbed together, electrons pass from the wool to the rubber. The electrons remain on the surface of the rubber—a non-conductor—where they were transferred.

Rubbing a metal rod with a wool cloth can also transfer electrons. This rod, however, is a conductor and electrons pass through it to the experimenter and then to the earth. People, made mostly of salt water, are good conductors, as well. Metal that is isolated, however, can be electrified. This can be demonstrated with an electroscope, which has a metal knob connected to a stem from which a thin metal leaf hangs. An insulator prevents contact of these metal parts with the case, and consequently the earth.

Apparatus

- electroscope
- rubber and glass rods
- wool and silk cloth
- plastic rod with metal disk mounted on one end

Activity 1: Charging by Friction

1. Be sure the electroscope is discharged by touching the knob with your finger. Explain what happened and why you are convinced the electroscope is discharged.
2. **Prediction:** If you rub the knob of an electroscope with a wool cloth, what will be the state of the electroscope when you remove the cloth? Explain.

3. Gently and repeatedly rub the knob of the electroscope with the wool cloth for a couple of minutes. Remove the cloth. Note any differences in the electroscope from its appearance before you rubbed.
4. Explain what, if anything, happened.

Activity 2: Charging by Contact

1. Discharge the electroscope as before.
2. Charge the plastic rod by friction with the wool cloth.
3. Does anything occur in the electroscope when you bring the disc close to the knob without touching it?
4. **Prediction:** What will happen to the electroscope if you repeatedly touch its knob with a freshly charged object?
5. Touch the disc to the knob; rub the disc again and again touch it to the knob; repeat this procedure two or three more times. Describe any changes to the electroscope.
6. Repeat the procedure above until the electroscope's leaf is at approximately a twenty degree angle with the stem.

Activity 3: Kinds of Electrification

1. Electrify one end of the rubber rod by wrapping the wool cloth around the rod, squeezing the wool against the rod, twisting the rod vigorously to ensure good contact, and separating the wool from the rod.
2. **Prediction:** What will happen when you bring the electrified end of the rubber rod toward, but not touching, the electroscope's knob? What will happen if you do the same with the wool cloth?
3. Bring the charged end of the rubber rod toward the knob, but do not touch it. Record what happens.

4. Repeat number 3 with the wool cloth.
5. What differences were there between the trial with the rod and the trial with the cloth?
6. How would you account for these differences?
7. **Note:** By definition, the electrical state of the rubber after being rubbed by the wool is negative. That is, an object that has an excess of electrons is said to be negatively charged. Realize that this is only a convention.
8. If the rubber is said to be negatively charged, in what electrical state is the wool cloth?
9. How can an electroscope be used to determine the nature of any charge?
10. Rub the end of the glass rod with the silk cloth and determine the charge of each (positive or negative) after they are separated.

Activity 4: Action of the Electroscope

1. **Discussion:** Two facts explain the rise or fall of the leaves of an electroscope: (a) Like charges repel (unlike charges attract); and (b) Free electrons move about in a conductor when an electric force acts upon them.
2. When the wool cloth approaches the knob (in Activity 3 number 4), which way do the free electrons in the metal of the electroscope move (up toward the knob or down toward the leaf)?
3. In Activity 3, the electroscope was negatively charged before either the rod or the wool was brought toward the knob. For the case of the rod, in which direction do the free electrons in the electroscope move? Does the electron displacement increase or decrease the electrostatic force separating the leaf from the stem?

Activity 5: Charging by Induction

1. Discharge the electroscope.
2. **Prediction:** What will be the effect on the electroscope if you perform the following experiment: while grounding the electroscope with your finger, bring an electrified rubber rod near the knob, then take away your finger and then the rod (in that order)?
3. Carry out the experiment and describe the result.
4. Explain the result and why your prediction agreed or disagreed with it.
5. **Prediction:** Note that no electrons moved between the rod and the electroscope. What charge has been induced on the electroscope?
6. Test your prediction with the negatively charged rubber rod and the positively charged wool.
7. Does the test verify or contradict your prediction?

26 The Electric Field and the Electric Potential I

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate the electric field and potential of a point charge.

Apparatus

- Electric field and potential simulation entitled *EMField*.

Introduction

The direction of an electric field is the direction of the force on a tiny positive test charge placed in the region of space where the field is to be measured. If the magnitude of this test charge is infinitesimally small, so small that it will not displace or disturb the charges that are the source of the field, we can use the test charge to determine quantitatively the strength of the electric field. The strength of the electric field is taken to be the electric force, F , on the test charge divided by the magnitude of the test charge, q_t : $E = \frac{F}{q_t}$. The force (Coulomb's Law) between two charges, q_1 and q_2 , is $F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$, where $k = 9 \times 10^9 \text{ Nm}^2/\text{C}^2$. The units of E are newtons per coulomb, so another way of describing the field strength is to say it is the force experienced by a unit positive test charge.

Recall from a previous laboratory exercise that the potential difference between two points A and B, $V_B - V_A$, is the work done carrying a unit positive charge from point A to point B. Also, the lines of force (the electric field lines) are always perpendicular to the equipotential lines, lines on which all points are at the same potential. In a static electric field, the electric potential difference between two points is a constant and does not depend on the path used for its computation. The absolute potential, as opposed to the potential difference, is the amount of work done in carrying a unit charge from infinity to point B. The magnitude of the absolute potential, then, is computed as the integral from infinity to the point B of the electric field.

Investigation 1: A Single Charge

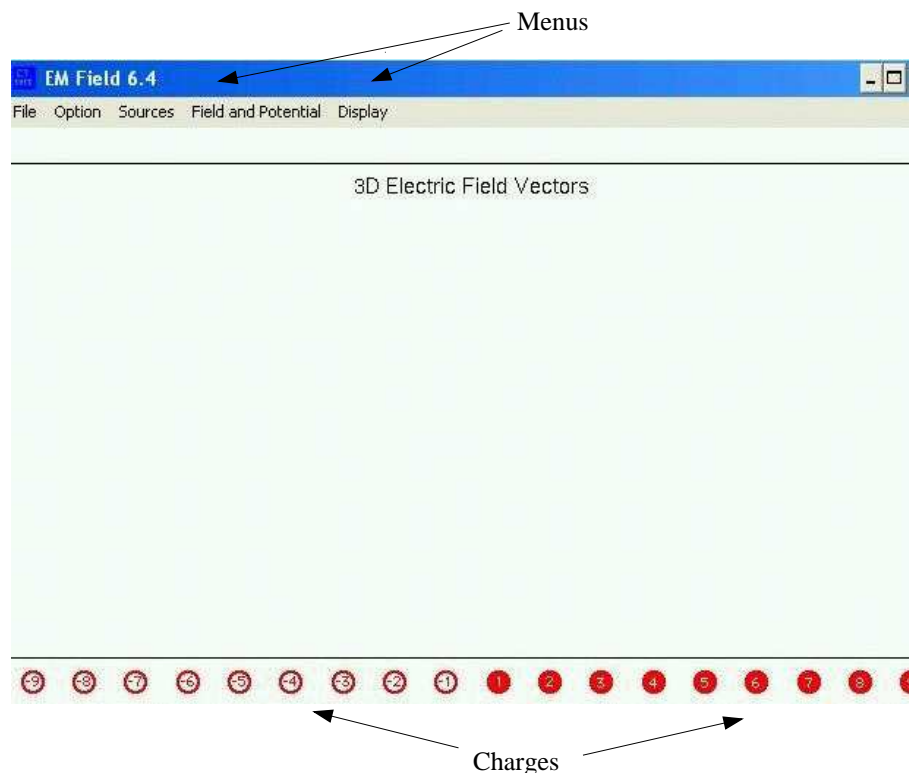
Activity 1: The Electric Field

(a) Start the program *EMField* from the *Physics Applications* menu. Click on the screen and you will see a screen with a set of instructions. Go to the **Sources** menu and select **3D Point Charges**. A blank 'table top' with a set of menu buttons at the top and bottom will appear. See Figure 1 below.

(b) Go to the **Display** menu and set *EMField* to **Show Grid** and **Constrain to Grid**. These choices will make the following investigation a bit easier to perform.

(c) Select the charge labeled "+4" from the available set by clicking on it and dragging it to the center of the table top.

(d) **Prediction:** You will take measurements of the field at different distances from the charge. You know the relative size of the charge (+4), but you don't know the size of the charge in coulombs. Generate an expression for the magnitude of the field from an unknown charge with appropriate numerical constants and units. The only unknown in your result should be the charge in coulombs. How does the electric field depend on r , the distance from the point charge?

Figure 1: Table top for *EMField*.

(e) Click anywhere in the table top and you will see an arrow drawn. The size and direction of the arrow represent the magnitude and direction of the electric field at that point due to the '+4' charge. In what direction does the arrow point? Click on the opposite side of the table top. In what direction does this arrow point? How is it related to the first arrow?

(f) Click on many points so that you get a wide range of magnitudes from large (barely fits on the table top) to small (barely bigger than a dot).

(g) Print the table top and use a ruler to measure the distance of each field point from the charge and the lengths of each of the arrows on your plot. Enter these data in the table below. Use the scale at the bottom of the table top to convert the length of each arrow into an electric field magnitude. The units of the scale electric field vector are 1.0 N/C .

Distance from Charge (m)	Arrow Length (cm)	Measured E (N/C)	Charge (C)

(h) Use the results in column 3 of your table to determine the unknown charge for each electric field measurement and enter the results in the table. NOTE: For this calculation, assume the Coulomb's Law constant $k = 1.00Nm^2/C^2$. This makes the charge a factor of about 10^{10} bigger than it is supposed to be, but we are focussing here on how the electric field varies with distance from the charge. Calculate the average and standard deviation of the values of the charge. Are your results consistent? Explain.

(i) **Prediction:** From Coulomb's Law, we expect the spatial variation of the field strength to obey a power law: $|E| = Ar^n$, where A and n are constants. What do you predict the value of n to be?

(j) Graph field strength as a function of r . Using the power fitting function, determine the power of the function, n , and record it here. Attach the plot to this unit.

(k) Does your result agree with your prediction? Explain any discrepancy.

Activity 2: The Electric Potential

(a) Under the **Display** menu click on **Clean up Screen** to erase the electric field vectors.

(b) **Prediction:** You will now take measurements of the potential. How do you expect the electric potential to change with distance from the point charge?

(c) Click on the **Potential** option under the **Field and Potential** menu. Click on the table top and a marker will be placed at that point and labeled with the value of the potential there. Click on many spots on the table top from very close to the point charge to far away. When you are finished print the table top.

(d) Measure and record in the following table the values of the distance from the point charge and the potential.

Distance (m)	Measured V (volts)

(e) **Prediction:** From Coulomb's Law and the definition of the electric potential, we expect the spatial variation of the potential to obey a power law: $\Delta V = Br^m$, where B and m are constants. What do you predict the value of m to be?

(f) Graph the voltage as a function of r . Using the power fitting function, determine the power of the function, m , and record it here.

(g) Does your result agree with your prediction? Explain any discrepancy.

Activity 3: Field Lines and Equipotentials

(a) Under the **Display** menu click on **Clean up Screen** to erase the potential values.

(b) Click on **Field Lines** under the **Field and Potential** menu. Click on many spots on the table top all around the charge to create field lines. Why are they straight lines?

(c) Click on **Directional Arrows** under the **Field and Potential** menu. Click on many spots to create directional arrows for the field lines. (Remember, electric field is a vector quantity.) Why are they directed away from the charge?

(d) Click on **Equipotentials** under the **Field and Potential** menu. Click on many spots to create equipotential lines. Why are they all circular?

(e) What is the relationship between the field lines and the equipotentials at the points where they cross?

27 The Electric Field and the Electric Potential II

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate the electric field and potential of a charge distribution.

Apparatus

- Electric field and potential simulation entitled *EMField*.

Introduction

In the previous unit (which we will refer to as Investigation 1) we studied the dependence of the electric field and the electric potential on r , the distance from a single charge. Now we will study the same ideas for a different charge distribution.

Investigation 2: Four Symmetrically Arranged Charges

Activity 1: The Electric Field

(a) Start the program *EMField* from the *Physics Applications* menu or (if it's already running) use the options under the **Display** menu to clear the table top and delete any charges. Go to the **Sources** menu and select **3D Point Charges**. A blank 'table top' with a set of menu buttons at the top and bottom will appear (see Figure 1 in Investigation 1, the previous unit).

(b) Go to the **Display** menu and set *EMField* to **Show Grid** and **Constrain to Grid** if they are not already set. These choices will make the following investigation a bit easier to perform.

(c) Under **Sources**, click on **3D Point Charges**. Select the charge labeled "+4" from the available set by clicking on it. Add four individual charges, arranging them symmetrically within about 1 cm of the central point where the "+4" charge was located in Investigation 1 (the previous unit).

(d) **Prediction:** How will the electric field be oriented within the region of the four charges? How will the field be oriented outside the region of the four charges? How will the field depend on r , the distance from the center of the four charges, at large r ?

(e) Click anywhere in the table top and you will see an arrow drawn. The size and direction of the arrow represent the magnitude and direction of the electric field at that point due to the four charges. In what direction does the arrow point? Click on the opposite side of the table top. In what direction does this arrow point? How is it related to the first arrow?

(f) Click on many points so that you get a wide range of magnitudes from large (barely fits on the table top) to small (barely bigger than a dot).

(g) Print the table top and use a ruler to measure the lengths of each of the arrows on your plot, for points **outside** the region of the four charges. Enter this data in the following table. Use the scale at the bottom of the table top to convert the length of each arrow into an electric field magnitude. The units of the scale electric field vector are 1.0 N/C .

Distance from Charge Center (m)	Arrow Length (m)	Measured E (N/C)

(h) **Prediction:** From Coulomb's Law, we expect the spatial variation of the field strength to obey a power law: $|E| = Ar^n$, where A and n are constants. What do you predict the value of n to be?

(i) Graph your results. Using the power fitting function, determine the power of the function, n , and record it here. Attach the plot to this unit.

(j) Does your result agree with your prediction? Explain any discrepancy.

Activity 2: The Electric Potential

(a) Under the **Display** menu click on **Clean up Screen** to erase the electric field vectors.

(b) **Prediction:** You will now take measurements of the potential. How do you expect the electric potential to change with distance from the center of the four charges?

(c) Click on the **Potential** option under the **Field and Potential** menu. Click on the table top and a marker will be placed at that point and labeled with the value of the potential there. Click on many spots on the table top from very close to the charges to far away. When you are finished print the table top.

(d) Measure and record in the following table the values of the distance from the center of the point charge region (for points outside the region of the four charges) and the potential.

Distance from Charge Center (m)	Measured V (volts)

(e) **Prediction:** From Coulomb's Law and the definition of the electric potential, we expect the spatial variation of the potential to obey a power law: $\Delta V = Br^m$, where B and m are constants. What do you predict the value of m to be?

(f) Graph your results. Using the power fitting function, determine the power of the function, m , and record it here.

(g) Does your result agree with your prediction? Explain any discrepancy.

(h) How do your results for the power constants, n and m , of the four symmetrically-arranged charges compare with the power constants you determined in Investigation 1 (the previous unit) for the single point charge?

(i) What can you conclude about the field and potential effects due to a distribution of charge outside the region of the distribution (in relation to a single point charge)?

28 Ohm's Law

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To investigate the most important principle in electronics.
- To determine how resistors in series and parallel add.

Introduction

The rate at which electric charge flows through a conductor is called the electric current. In order to have a current, a potential difference, or voltage is necessary. We first want to determine the relationship between the potential difference at two ends of a conductor and the current flowing through it.

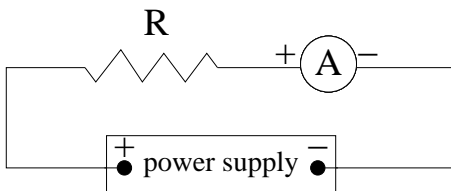
Note: Do not turn on a power supply until you are sure your circuit is correct. If you are at all unsure, please ask your instructor to approve your setup. Ammeters can be instantly and permanently ruined by an improper connection. Be sure to turn off the power supply before making any changes to the circuit.

Apparatus

- Power supply
- Two resistors
- Leads and alligator clips
- DC Milliammeter
- Multimeter

Activity 1: Ohm's Law

- With the power supply off, turn the coarse current control all the way up and both voltage controls all the way down. Connect one of the resistors in series with the milliammeter (marked "A" for "ammeter") as shown in the figure below. Be sure the polarity of the milliammeter is as shown.

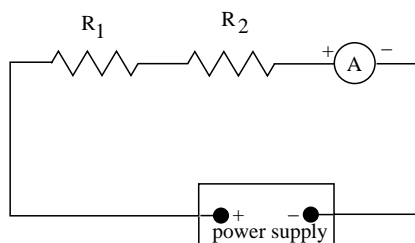


- When sure of your circuit, turn on the power supply, and turn the coarse voltage control up until the milliammeter reads 20 ma. Measure the voltage across the resistor (with the multimeter set for DC voltage) and record both voltage and current here. Include an uncertainty in the voltage measurement.

- Now turn the coarse voltage control up and record current and voltage for four more values of current: 40, 60, 80, and 100 ma. Include uncertainties in the voltage measurements.
- Turn off the power supply.
- Using *Excel*, plot your five pairs of readings with the voltage on the vertical axis and the current on the horizontal axis. Include the origin as a sixth point (why is this valid?).
- Fit a straight line to the points (including the origin). Include a trendline with equation. What is the meaning of the slope of the line? Write its value here (including the proper unit). Do not include more than 3 significant figures in your result:
- Print the graph and include it with this unit.
- Remove the resistor from the rest of the circuit and use the ohmmeter option on the multimeter to measure the resistance of R directly. Compare with the value determined above. Calculate a percent difference.
- What is the general relationship between voltage, current, and resistance? This is Ohm's Law.
- Why is the origin a legitimate point on the curve?

Activity 2: Resistors in Series

- Turn the voltage control down to zero, and connect two resistors in series as shown in the figure below.



- Turn on the power supply and turn up the coarse voltage control to approximately 10 volts. Measure the voltages across R_1 , R_2 , and the milliammeter. (The voltage across the milliammeter may be in millivolts.) Also measure the total voltage across all three elements in series. Include uncertainties in each measurement. Record your results here:

- How is the last measurement related to the three individual measurements?

- What can you conclude about the voltage across resistors in series?

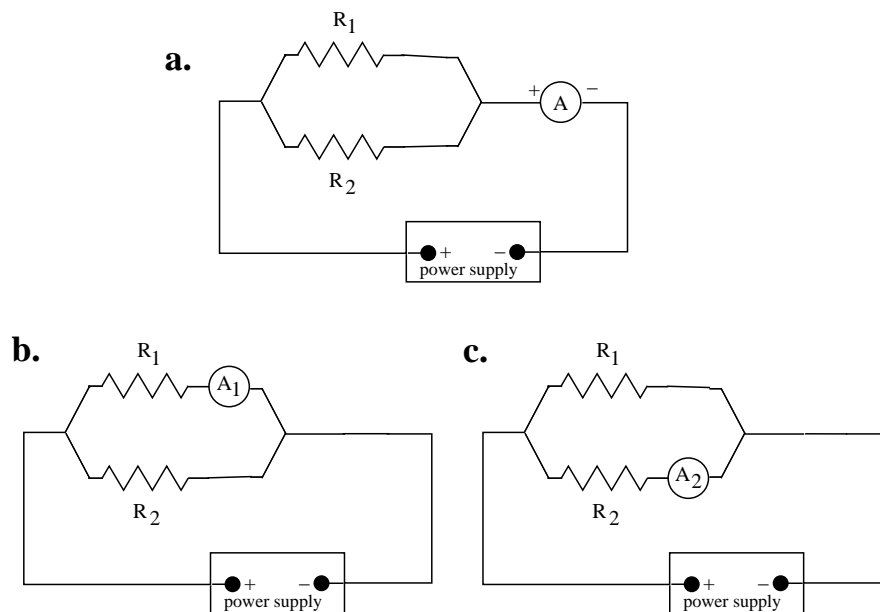
- Measure the current in the series circuit and record it here:

- Turn off the power supply.
- Calculate R_1 , R_2 , and R_A from Ohm's Law and your above readings. Also calculate the total resistance of the circuit from Ohm's Law. Record your results here:

- What can you conclude about the total resistance in a circuit containing resistors in series?

Activity 3: Resistors in Parallel

- Connect the two resistors in parallel as shown in figure **a** below, with the milliammeter at the point marked “A”. Have circuit checked before continuing.



- When you are sure the circuit is set up correctly, turn on the power supply and turn the coarse voltage control up to about 10 volts. Record the total current through the circuit and the voltage across the parallel resistance combination. Also measure the voltage across the milliammeter (which may be in millivolts). Turn off the power supply.
- Connect the milliammeter to the point marked A_1 in figure **b** above, without disturbing the rest of the circuit. Turn on the power supply and record the current through R_1 and the voltage across the parallel combination. Turn off the power supply.
- Repeat the above measurements for R_2 , connecting the milliammeter at A_2 as in figure **c** above. Turn off the power supply.

- What is the relationship between the total current and the current in each of the branches of the parallel circuit? (This is an example of Kirchhoff's junction rule which is based on conservation of charge.)
- Using Ohm's Law and your data above, calculate the resistance of each resistor and the total resistance of the circuit.
- What is the relationship between the total resistance of the parallel circuit and the resistance of each of the branches? Look up in a reference what the correct relationship should be and show that your results agree with it.

29 Magnetism I

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

- To investigate the characteristics of magnets.
- To understand how a compass works.

Introduction

The electric interaction, you probably know, is not the only one in which opposites attract and likes repel. Magnetic interactions have similar characteristics. All simple magnets, regardless of size, are bipolar: there are two magnetic poles. Consider this question, then: Can we talk about like and unlike as we do for electricity?

Apparatus

- 2 bar magnets
- 2 cylindrical magnets
- rods and clamps
- wool cloth
- rubber rod
- string

Activity 1: The Characteristics of Magnets

1. Feel the attraction between two magnets when pulled apart after having come together without effort on your part. Describe qualitatively in terms of strength and separation.
2. Feel the repulsion when one of them is turned around and pushed toward the other. Describe as in step 1.
3. Note and describe the difference in (strength and direction of) interactions between the ends and the middle.

Activity 2: How a Compass Works

1. Identify geographic north and south.
2. Hang one of the cylindrical magnets horizontally from a horizontal rod.

3. When it comes to rest, along which geographical line does the magnet lie?
4. Which end (colored or uncolored) is the "north-seeking" end?
5. Remove the cylindrical magnet and repeat step 2 with the second cylindrical magnet. Answer, again, the questions above.
6. What happens when you bring the "north-seeking" end of the first magnet near the hanging one's north-seeking end?
7. What happens when you bring the first magnet's opposite end near the second's north-seeking end?
8. What about the first magnet's north-seeking end near the opposite end of the hanging one?
9. What happens when you bring the opposite ends near one another?
10. Define in your own words like and unlike poles?
11. What always happens between like poles?
12. What always happens between unlike poles?

13. Determine with a labelled bar magnet which end of your hanging magnet should be identified as the north pole and which the south.
14. Why do we identify one end of a magnet as the north pole and the other as the south?
15. In your own words, explain a compass.
16. In terms of magnetism, what is the earth?
17. Charge a rubber rod with the wool cloth and bring it near the ends of the suspended magnet; describe its effect on the magnet.
18. Does a south magnetic pole repel a negative electric charge?
19. Does a north magnetic pole attract a negative electric charge?

30 Magnetism II

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate the magnetic field around a permanent magnet.

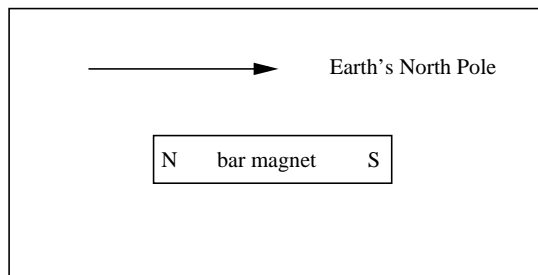
Introduction

The magnetic field characterizes magnetic forces in much the same way that the electric field characterizes electric forces. At a given point in the region around a magnet, the strength of the field, similar to that of an electric field, is the force per unit north pole (one positive unit of magnetism), and the direction is indicated by the orientation of the north pole of a compass located at the point. On earth, the field mapped out around the magnet is actually the resultant of the field due to the magnet and the field due to the earth.

Apparatus

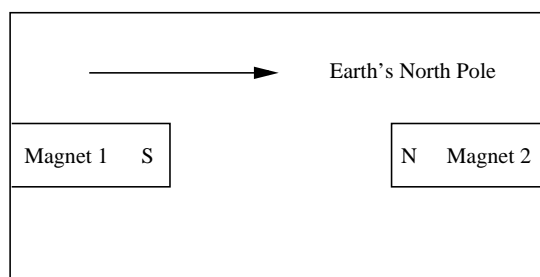
- 2 bar magnets
- small compass
- white paper

Activity 1: A Single Bar Magnet

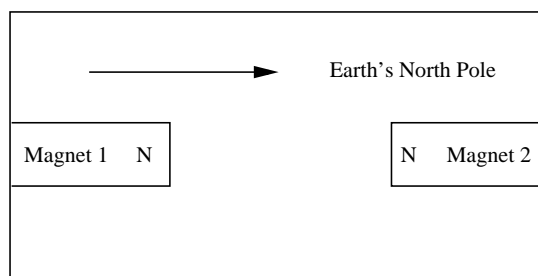


1. Trace the outline of a bar magnet on a piece of paper. Indicate the magnet's polarity on the outline.
2. Place the small compass on the side of the magnet near the north pole and make a dot at each end of the needle using a pencil not encased in metal.
3. Move the compass forward until its south pole points at the previous north pole dot, and make a new dot at the north pole (kind of a leap-frog effect).
4. Repeat 3 until the series of dots reaches the side of the magnet near the south pole or the edge of the paper.
5. In a similar manner, trace enough lines to map the magnetic field over the entire paper.
6. Do lines of force ever cross?

7. Where is the magnetic field strongest? Weakest? How do the field lines indicate this? Does a field line represent a constant field along its entire length?
8. Do the lines intersect the magnet at a particular angle (like the electric field lines near a conductor)?

Activity 2: Two Bar Magnets—Unlike Poles Facing One Another

1. Set up two bar magnets on a sheet of paper as shown in the figure above. The magnets should be 8-10 cm apart.
2. Repeat steps 2 through 5 from the previous activity.
3. What sort of charge configuration produces an electric field that looks similar to the magnetic field you just identified?
4. What differences can you recognize?

Activity 3: Two Bar Magnets—Like Poles Facing One Another

1. Set up two bar magnets on a sheet of paper as shown in the figure above. The magnets should be 8-10 cm apart.
2. Repeat steps 2 through 5 from Activity 1 of this investigation.
3. Try to identify on your map a point at which the magnetic field is zero. Explain what causes this effect.
4. What sort of electric charge configuration would produce a similar field map?

31 Magnetism III

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

To investigate:

- The effect of magnetic fields on moving charges.
- The effect of moving charges (currents) on magnets.

Apparatus

- Bar magnet
- Oscilloscope
- Tangent galvanometer
- Compass
- Power supply

Activity 1: Magnetic Forces on Moving Charges

1. An oscilloscope is built around the principle of the cathode ray tube. It emits electrons from its back end. These are accelerated by a series of electrodes and focused to strike a fluorescent screen at its front. The result is a visible spot (or trace) indicating voltage as a function of time.
2. **Predictions:** What, if anything, will happen to the spot on the screen if the north pole of a magnet is brought near the left side of the oscilloscope? What will happen if you do the same with the south pole? What about when each of the poles are brought near to the top? [Please do not touch the oscilloscope with the magnet.]
3. Turn on the oscilloscope by pressing the power button. Turn the TIME/DIV knob completely counter-clockwise. Adjust the INTEN (intensity) and FOCUS knobs so that a small bright spot is formed on the oscilloscope screen by the beam of electrons traveling toward the screen. Do not make the spot very bright. Adjust the ILLUM (illumination) knob so that the grid on the screen can be seen clearly. Use the horizontal and vertical POSITION controls to center the spot on the screen.
4. Bring the N-pole of a horizontal bar magnet near, but not touching, the left side of the oscilloscope case at the height of the spot. Record the direction of any deflection. Repeat with the S-pole.

5. Bring the N-pole of a vertical bar magnet near, but not touching, the top of the oscilloscope case just above the spot. Record the direction of any deflection. Repeat with the S-pole.
6. Turn off the oscilloscope.
7. Did the directions of deflections meet your expectations? Explain.

Activity 2: The Effect of Moving Charges (Currents) on Magnets

In this investigation we will use a device known as a tangent galvanometer to make a qualitative study of the effect of current (moving charges) in a coil of wire on a compass. A sketch of the galvanometer is shown below.

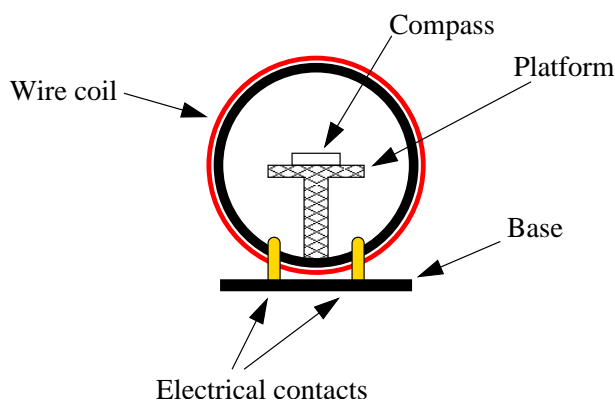


Figure 1. Tangent galvanometer and compass.

1. With the power supply off, connect the positive and negative terminals on the power supply to the two side screws on the tangent galvanometer. Turn the coarse current control on the power supply all the way up and the voltage controls all the way down.
2. Before turning the power supply on, place the compass on the platform in the center of the tangent galvanometer. Rotate the galvanometer until the compass needle is aligned with the plane of the wire coil of the galvanometer. Turn the power supply on and slowly turn up the fine voltage control. What do you observe? Make a sketch to show the orientation of the compass needle and galvanometer coil with the voltage on and off. (It may be easiest to do this with TOP views.)

3. Turn the voltage on the power supply to zero. Rotate the entire setup (galvanometer, compass, wires) 180° so the contacts are on the opposite side from where they were before. Make sure the compass needle is again aligned with the plane of the wire coil. Slowly turn the voltage back up. What do you observe? Make another sketch to show the orientation of the compass needle and galvanometer coil with the voltage on and off.

4. The deflection of the compass when current flows in the tangent galvanometer implies the current creates a magnetic field. From your observations can you tell the direction of the magnetic field? Explain.

5. Reverse the wires on the contacts of the tangent galvanometer to reverse the direction of the current in the coil of the galvanometer. We will now repeat the observations from above. With the voltage off, align the compass needle and the plane of the wire coil of the galvanometer as in number 2 above. Slowly turn up the voltage. What do you observe? Make a sketch to show the orientation of the compass and galvanometer coil with the voltage on and off.

6. Rotate the entire setup (galvanometer, compass, wires) 180° so the contacts are on the opposite side from where they were before. Make sure the compass needle is again aligned with the plane of the wire coil. Slowly turn the voltage back up. What do you observe? Make another sketch.

7. Based on your observations, what happens to the magnetic field of the tangent galvanometer when you reverse the direction of the current?

32 Magnetic Field of the Earth

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

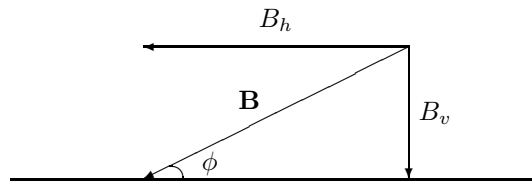
Objective

- A measurement of the earth's magnetic field.

Introduction

The magnetic field lines of a bar magnet, though emanating from its full length, are densest near the poles. These lines are typically not perpendicular to the faces of the magnet. The Earth, as you know, is like a giant bar magnet, with its magnetic south pole near its geographic north pole.

The field lines of the Earth's magnetic field, therefore, tend to point obliquely at any given spot on its surface. The angle (let's call it ϕ) that a line makes with a surface is known as its *dip angle* (see figure). Thus, each locality on earth has its characteristic value for ϕ with regard to the terrestrial magnetic field.



The horizontal component of the Earth's magnetic field,

$$B_h = B \cos \phi, \quad (1)$$

causes the magnetized needle of a compass to align in the geographic north-south direction.

You will use a tangent galvanometer to produce an additional horizontal magnetic field perpendicular to the Earth's field (in other words, one that points east or west). A tangent galvanometer consists of a vertical, circular coil of wire with N turns, a pedestal compass at the center of the coil, and electrical contacts so that a direct current can be established in the coil. The magnetic field at the center of the galvanometer coil caused by a current I in the coil is

$$B_c = N \frac{\mu_0 I}{2R} \quad (2)$$

where R is the radius of the coil and μ_0 is the permeability of free space (1.25664×10^{-6} T·m/A). B_c is perpendicular to the vertical plane of the coil. If the plane of the coil is placed in the north-south direction (that is, parallel to the compass needle when there is no current in the coil), then, when there is current in the coil, the compass will be influenced by two perpendicular fields, B_h and B_c . The compass needle will now point in the direction of the vector sum $\mathbf{B}_h + \mathbf{B}_c$.

Let θ be the angle through which the compass needle turns when the current in the tangent galvanometer is turned on. In other words, θ is the angle between \mathbf{B}_h and $\mathbf{B}_h + \mathbf{B}_c$. Sketch a picture of these vectors, and use it to convince yourself that

$$B_h = \frac{B_c}{\tan \theta} \quad (3)$$

By measuring the angle θ , we can determine B_h . If we then measure the dip angle ϕ , we can determine the Earth's magnetic field from equation (1) above.

Apparatus

- tangent galvanometer
- power supply
- DC ammeter (0-1 amp)
- banana plug leads (1 red, 2 black) with alligator clips
- compass
- ruler
- dip angle compass

Activity

1. Measure and record on the accompanying data sheet the diameter D of the galvanometer coil. Calculate and record the radius R of the coil.
2. Count and record the number of turns, N , of the coil.
3. With the power supply off, connect its positive and negative terminals to the tangent galvanometer and a DC ammeter (in series). Be sure the ammeter is connected in series with the coil. Use long wires to connect the outside terminals of the coil to the circuit so that the coil may be removed from the magnetic effects of the ammeter and power supply. Be sure no magnetic material other than the compass is in the vicinity of the coil. Turn the coarse current control on the power supply all the way up and the voltage controls all the way down.
4. Place the compass on the platform of the tangent galvanometer and rotate the galvanometer until the compass needle is aligned with the plane of the wire coil of the galvanometer. Rotate the compass body so that the needle points north and south on the compass.
5. Turn on the power supply and slowly turn up the fine voltage control until the current is about 0.2 A as measured with the orange ammeter. Note that the compass needle rotates. It might be a good idea to tap lightly the face of the compass to be sure the needle hasn't become stuck. Record the current and the displacement angles at both the north and south poles of the needle. Calculate B_c from equation (2).
6. Average the north and south angles; use this average to calculate B_h from equation (3).
7. Repeat steps 5 and 6 for currents of 0.4 A, 0.6 A, and 0.8 A.
8. Reverse the current (by switching the two leads at the galvanometer coil) and repeat steps 5, 6 and 7.
9. Determine and record the dip angle at two separate locations in the classroom (using the dip angle compasses). Average these measurements and use the result for the dip angle, ϕ .
10. Using equation (1) above, calculate the Earth's magnetic field \mathbf{B} for each set of data. Remember that in equation (1), ϕ is the dip angle, not the displacement angle of the compass. Calculate an average value for \mathbf{B} and a standard deviation. How far off, in terms of numbers of standard deviations, is your result from the accepted value for Richmond, 5.1×10^{-5} T?

Data Sheet

Diameter of Coil, D (m) _____

Radius of Coil, R (m) _____

Number of Turns of Coil, N _____

Dip Angle, ϕ ($^\circ$): reading 1 _____ reading 2 _____Average Dip Angle, ϕ ($^\circ$): _____

Current (A)	Coil Field B_c (T)	North Angle θ_N ($^\circ$)	South Angle θ_S ($^\circ$)	Average Angle ($^\circ$)	Horizontal Component B_h (T)	Earth's Field \mathbf{B} (T)

Earth's Magnetic Field (measured), $\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle$ (T) _____Standard Deviation on Measurement, σ_B (T) _____Number of Standard Deviations from Accepted Value, $\frac{|\langle B \rangle - B_{\text{accepted}}|}{\sigma_B}$: _____**Show calculations for one trial here:**

33 Electromagnetic Induction

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objectives

To investigate:

- The effect of changing magnetic fields on induced emf and current.

Introduction

If the magnetic flux through a coil of wire changes, an emf (or voltage) will be induced in the coil. This is Faraday's Law. If the coil of wire forms a closed loop, then a current will be induced in the wire. The direction of this current is such that the magnetic field it produces opposes the change in the external field. This is known as Lenz's Law. Similarly, varying the current in one coil (the primary) produces a current in another nearby coil (the secondary) due to the varying magnetic field produced by the first coil. The current in the second coil, too, will flow in a direction that creates a magnetic field which opposes the change in the field of the first coil (again, due to Lenz's Law). These relationships between changing fields and currents are known collectively as electromagnetic induction.

Apparatus

- one small wire coil
- voltage sensor
- two alligator clips
- bar magnet
- Pasco 750 Interface

Activity: A Moving Magnet and a Coil

1. Connect the coil to the voltage sensor using the alligator clips. Connect the voltage sensor to port A on the Pasco 750 interface.
2. Turn on the computer and launch *EM Induction* in the 132*Workshop* under *PhysicsApplications* in the **Start, Programs** menu.
3. Place a bar magnet vertically along the axis of the small coil with the N-pole touching the coil.
4. Start recording data and lift the bar magnet quickly straight up.
5. At the end of the data taking interval, the computer should display a value for the electromotive force (emf) induced in the small coil. Several trials may be required to get the correct timing between starting the data acquisition and removing the magnet. Note and record the sign of the induced emf.
6. **Prediction:** If you lower the magnet, N-pole down, quickly toward the coil, what will be the sign of the emf?

7. Carry out the experiment, starting the data acquisition, then lowering the magnet. Record the sign of the induced emf.
8. Did your result confirm or refute your prediction?
9. **Prediction:** What will happen to the emf if you perform the same pair of experiments with the S-pole toward the coil?
10. Perform the two experiments, lifting and lowering the magnet, with the S-pole down. Record the sign of the induced emf in each case.
11. How did the results compare with your predictions?

34 Electromagnetic Induction II

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Introduction. In this lab, we'll take a further look at Faraday's Law, which says that a changing magnetic field can produce an emf (that is, a voltage) in a loop of wire. Current will be supplied to a large coil (which is a series of loops of wire), resulting in a magnetic field. If the current were constant in time, then a steady magnetic field would be produced. Since we want to produce a changing magnetic field, we supply the coil with *alternating current*, that is, current that flows back and forth in alternating directions, oscillating in a sine-wave fashion. The result is an ever-changing magnetic field, which induces an emf in a separate small coil.

Apparatus

- one large wire coil
- one small wire coil
- two banana plug leads with alligator clips
- voltage sensor
- Pasco 750 Interface

Setup. The apparatus should be wired up to the computer interface in the following way: The two ends of the large coil should be connected to the output terminals on the right side of the interface (using the banana plug leads with alligator clips). These output terminals supply alternating current to the large coil. The two ends of the small coil should be connected to a voltage sensor, which is plugged into port A on the interface. Place the small coil in the center of the large coil. Both coils should be arranged horizontally (that is, with the axes pointing straight up and down). If you are not sure whether things are hooked up correctly, consult your instructor.

Activity 1: Qualitative predictions. Suppose that the top graph on the last page of this experiment represents the current flowing through the large coil as a function of time. When I is positive, that means current is flowing in one direction around the coil, and when I is negative the current is flowing in the other direction. On the axes below the top graph, sketch the shapes of the following other quantities. In each case, don't worry about the overall scale on the vertical axis; just focus on the shapes of the graphs, and particularly the locations of the peaks and valleys. Hint: some of the graphs will be exactly the same shape as the given graph of I .

1. On the first set of axes, sketch the vertical component of the magnetic field, B_z , at the center of the large coil (realizing that this field is directly proportional to the current in the coil).
2. On the the next set of axes, sketch the magnetic flux Φ_B passing through the small coil. (This flux is proportional to the magnetic field produced in the large coil).
3. On the bottom set of axes, sketch the emf \mathcal{E} induced in the small coil (which, by Farady's law, is proportional to the negative time derivative of the flux through the coil).

The computer will measure and graph $I(t)$, the current in the large coil, and $\mathcal{E}(t)$, the emf in the small coil. We want to test whether the two graphs are related to each other in the way you predicted. To be specific, make the following predictions from your graphs before trying the experiment:

1. At times when $I(t)$ is at its maximum value, what is \mathcal{E} ?
2. At times when $I(t)$ is at its minimum value, what is \mathcal{E} ?
3. At times when $I(t) = 0$, what is \mathcal{E} ?

Activity 2: Testing the predictions.

Start the program called “induction2.” You should see two graphs, one showing the current in the large coil and one showing the emf (voltage) across the small coil. Both graphs will be blank until you start taking data, of course. There should be an additional box that allows you to control the frequency of oscillation of the alternating current. Leave this alone for now; we’ll mess around with it later.

Hit “Start” and take data for about 5 seconds. Do the shapes of the two graphs generally match your predictions from Activity 1? (To answer this, you may want to expand the scales of the horizontal axes of the graphs so you can see the shapes better, and also align the graphs so that the times are synchronized.)

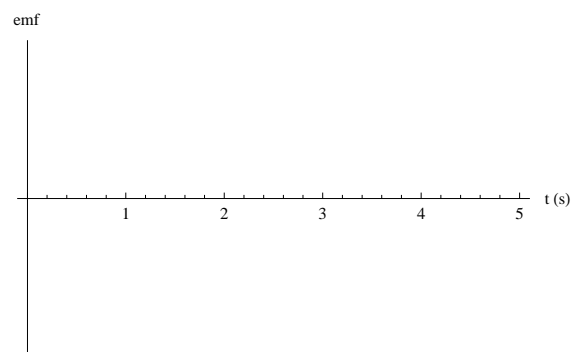
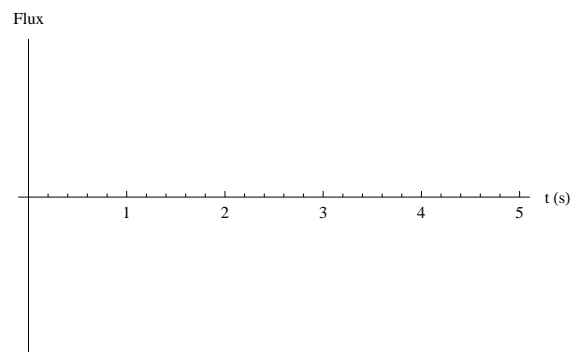
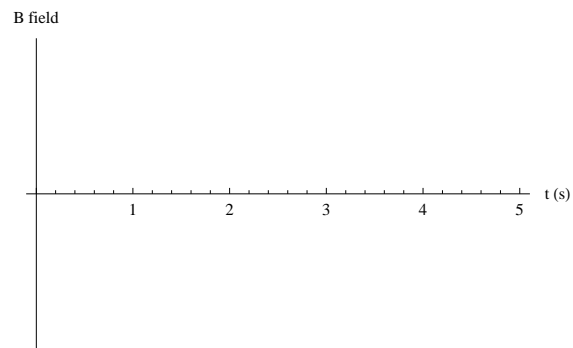
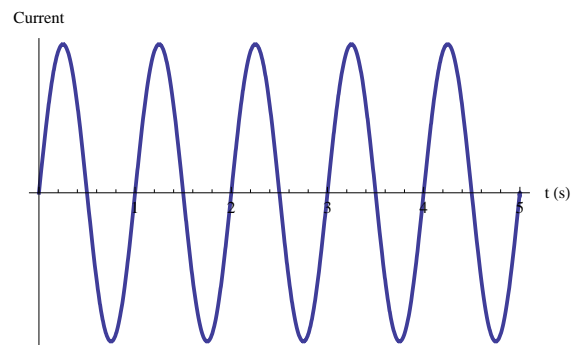
If the answer to this question is “yes,” then go on. If it’s “no, the shape of the second one is exactly the opposite of what I expected,” then you just have the small coil upside-down. Turn it over and try again. If the answer is not one of those two, then consult your instructor.

Let’s be a bit more specific in comparing the predictions with the data. Examine the current graph, and record the times of the first four moments when the current reaches a maximum. Then look at the other graph, and record the emf at those same four times. Are the results consistent with your prediction number 1 in Activity 1?

Perform a similar analysis to check your predictions 2 and 3 from Activity 1. In each case, check several appropriately-chosen moments of time to see if the relationship between I and \mathcal{E} is as you predicted.

Suppose that you rotate the small coil 90° , so that its axis is horizontal. What do you predict about the resulting emf? Test your prediction and record the results here.

Graphs for Activity 1



35 Refraction of Light

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

To investigate the path traveled by light through a plate of plexiglass (a transparent solid material).

Introduction

The speed of light depends on the medium in which it travels. In passing from one medium, at least some light energy is reflected. If the second medium is transparent, most of the light will pass into and through it. If the beam is not perpendicular to the boundary between the two media, it will bend as it enters, an effect known as refraction. The direction a single ray of light travels when refracted is given by Snell's law:

$$\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

where

i = incident angle

r = refracted angle

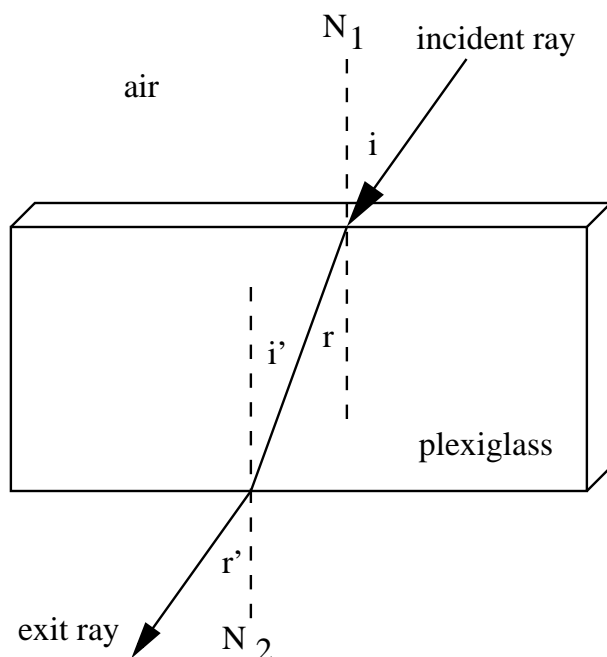
v_1 = light speed in medium 1

v_2 = light speed in medium 2

n_1 = index of refraction of medium 1

n_2 = index of refraction of medium 2

Note: All angles are measured from the normal to the boundary at the point the ray enters the medium. The index of refraction is the ratio of light's speed in a vacuum, c , to its speed in the medium, v : $n = c/v$. It is worth remembering that $n_{air} \approx 1.00$.



Apparatus

- light fence
- plexiglass block
- white paper, pins, and wood board
- protractor

Activity

1. Put a plexiglass plate at the center of a piece of paper. Outline its position. Identify a normal, N_1 , perpendicular to an edge of the plate.
2. Arrange the light source apparatus so that the parallel rays of light cross the paper and are incident at a 30° - 35° angle to the normal. Trace one of these rays.
3. Sight the corresponding ray as it emerges from the other side of the plexiglass. Trace this ray.
4. Remove the plexiglass and connect the points where the light ray entered and left the plexiglass with a straight line. This represents the path of the light ray as it passes through the plexiglass.
5. Construct the normal, N_2 , and measure and record i , r , i' , and r' .
6. Repeat the above procedure for two more incident angles between 40° and 60° .
7. Plot a graph of $\sin i$ as a function of $\sin r$, including the point (0,0) which corresponds to a light ray incident perpendicular to the plexiglass. Include a linear trendline and don't forget to include a title and axis labels. Print the graph and include it with this unit.
8. Determine the slope of the graph, $n_{\text{plexiglass}}$, based on your data. Do not include more than three significant figures.
9. Does $i = i'$? Explain.

10. Does $r = r'$? Explain.
11. Are the incident and exit rays parallel? Explain.
12. What is the speed of light in the plexiglass?
13. Under what conditions would a refraction angle be greater than an incident angle?
14. Collect the results from the other lab groups and determine an average and standard deviation for the index of refraction of the plexiglass.

36 Refraction at Spherical Surfaces: Thin Lenses

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate thin lenses.

Introduction

A lens converges or diverges light rays. It is a transparent material bounded, in the case of thin lenses, by spherical edges. The line between the centers of curvature of these edges is referred to as the principal axis. The principal focus is the point on the principal axis where parallel incident rays converge. The distance from the lens to this point is known as the focal length. The relation between the focal distance, f , the object distance, p , and the image distance, q , is:

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{f}.$$

Apparatus

- light fence
- converging (convex) lens in holder
- converging and diverging lenses (1 each) without holders
- optical bench
- light source with 12v output power source
- optical viewing screen (white)
- plastic ruler

Activity 1

- Arrange the light source apparatus so that the parallel rays of light cross a piece of paper.
- Place a convex lens (without holder) on the paper perpendicular to the central ray. Outline its position and the path of the rays. Pay particular attention to the condition near the principal focus.
- What is the focal length of this lens?

- Include a sketch of the light rays in your lab book, showing the focal point and focal length of the lens.

Activity 2

- Place the light source in its bracket at one end of the optical bench. The arrow on the light source will be the object in this investigation. Measure and record its height, h_0 .

- Place a converging lens in its holder on the optical bench 70 cm from the object (this is the object distance p). Turn on the light source and position the optical viewing screen on the optical bench so that a sharp image of the arrow appears on the screen. Measure the distance of the screen from the lens. This is the image distance q . Also measure the height of the image h_i . Record p , q , and h_i in the first line of the following table.

p	q	h_i	$\frac{h_i}{h_0}$	$\frac{q}{p}$	f

- Move the lens to create four more object distances of 60, 50, 40, and 30 cm. In each case, measure the image distance and the height of the image and record in the above table. Calculate and record the ratios of the image and object heights, h_i/h_0 , and the image and object distances, q/p . Record these values in the above table. You should now have the first five columns of the above table filled in.
- Calculate and record the focal length, f , for each observation. Show one of the calculations here:
- Determine an average focal length, f_{ave} , and a standard deviation based on your five values.
- What is the relationship between the ratio of the image to object heights and the ratio of image and object distances? The first ratio is called the magnification.
- Replace the converging lens with a diverging one. Try to obtain a real image on a piece of white paper.
- Why can you not form a real image with a diverging lens?

Activity 3

- Repeat the procedure of Activity 1 with a concave lens. Locate the principal focus by extending the refracted rays backwards.
- What is the focal length of this lens?
- Include a sketch of the light rays in your lab book, showing the focal point and focal length of the lens.

37 The Interference of Light

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate the interference of light waves as they pass through a set of slits.

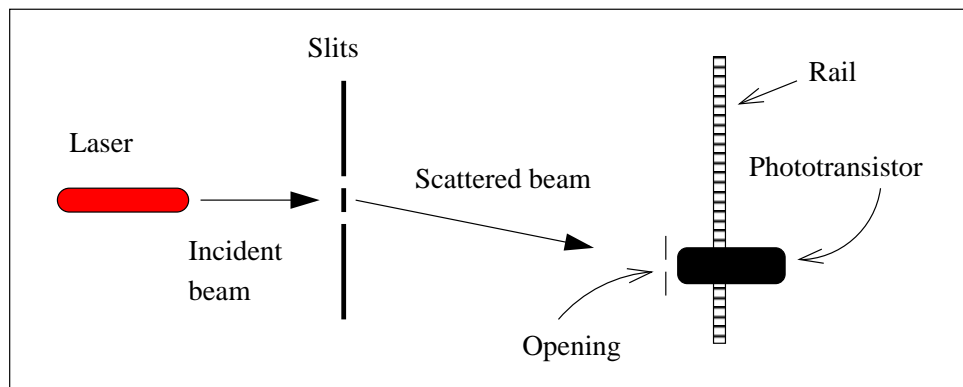
Apparatus

- Basic optics diode laser
- Optical bench with rotary motion sensor
- Phototransistor for measuring light intensity (mounted on rotary motion sensor)
- “Multiple Slit Set” slit accessory
- Glass plate with sets of narrow slits
- *DataStudio* 750 Interface

Introduction

In this laboratory you will investigate the interference of light produced by a laser beam passing through a set of narrow, adjacent slits. When light passes the slits each opening acts as an independent source of waves that can overlap one another to produce a distinctive pattern of bright and dark spots on a screen. The position of the bright spots depends on the separation of the adjacent slits and the wavelength of the incident light.

You can measure this interference pattern with the setup shown below. (This is a top view of the set-up.) A phototransistor is seated behind the narrow opening on top of the large, metal mount sitting on a rail. The phototransistor can translate the intensity of the light falling on it into a voltage signal that can be read by the computer. In addition, the phototransistor can be moved back and forth on a rotary motion sensor that measures the position of the mount. These two signals can be combined to make a graph of the intensity as a function of position.



In this unit you will pass light from the laser through slits of known separation and use the interference pattern to determine the wavelength of the light.

Activity 1: An Alternative View

Isaac Newton believed that light was made up of small, unseen particles that obeyed (surprisingly enough!) Newton’s Laws. This view is known as the corpuscular theory. We want to consider how this model of light predicts different behavior from the wave theory.

(a) Consider a laser beam shining on a circular hole. If a beam of light consisted of small, unseen particles that behaved as tiny billiard balls what would you see on a screen that is downstream from the circular hole? A sketch might be useful here.

(b) Now consider the same laser beam shining on a pair of narrow slits. What would you see on a screen downstream from the slits if light were made of corpuscles?

For the questions above you should have predicted that the laser would form a single bright spot (for part a) or two parallel lines (for part b). The experiment you are about to perform provided compelling evidence that Newton's corpuscular theory was wrong.

Activity 2: The Interference of Light

(a) You are now ready to turn on the laser. **DO NOT LOOK DIRECTLY INTO THE BEAM OR POINT THE LASER CARELESSLY ABOUT THE ROOM.** Mount the laser on the optical bench at the opposite end from the rotary motion sensor. Turn on the laser and you should see the bright red spot of the beam striking the rotary motion sensor assembly. On the "Multiple Slit Set" accessory, select a double slit of width .04 mm and separation .125 mm. Rotate the wheel so that the double slit is at the center of the opening.

(b) Position the double slit about 70 cm from the phototransistor mount. Adjust the laser beam direction so that it falls on the double slit you have selected. (There are two adjustment screws on the back of the laser.) You should see the interference pattern on the phototransistor mount.

(c) Position the phototransistor mount so the interference pattern is at the same height as the opening in the center of the phototransistor mount. The phototransistor is mounted behind this hole. To make accurate measurements it is important to carefully determine the geometry of your setup. Check to see if the slits and the phototransistor mount are perpendicular to the incident laser beam. You want to make sure the phototransistor can "see" as many bright spots as possible. Carefully slide the phototransistor mount back and forth to make sure that it stays centered on the interference pattern. Then set it at one side of the pattern to begin the experiment. Start the "Interference" activity in the **132 Workshop** folder. When you are ready, click **Start** and slowly move the phototransistor from one side of the slide to the other by turning the wheel on the rotary motion sensor. Move carefully and take about 4-5 seconds to complete the motion. Click **Stop**. When data acquisition is complete you will see a graph representing the intensity reading versus the position reading. You should see several distinct peaks. This graph is the interference pattern. If you do not see this pattern consult your instructor. Add the title "Double Slit Interference/Diffraction Pattern" and the axis labels "Relative Intensity" (vertical) and "Position (m)" (horizontal). Make a hardcopy of this graph and attach it to this unit.

(d) In theory, the interference pattern should look like the figure at the bottom of page 915 of your textbook (also shown in Fig. 2 of the next experiment). The intensity is just a \cos^2 function. Obviously, the pattern doesn't look like that. The reason is that light from each slit undergoes single slit diffraction which we will study in the next experiment. (That's why we are calling the pattern an "interference/diffraction" pattern.) But the peaks should still be equally spaced. Is the spacing between the intensity peaks constant? Is the intensity of each peak the same? Does it appear that any peaks are missing? The more peaks you see the more (and hopefully better) data you can collect. There is a button on top of the phototransistor labeled "Gain" which changes the size of the intensity signal. Try changing this setting to see if you can get more peaks in your spectrum (do this only if necessary).

(e) Now switch to 3 slits by rotating the wheel on the slit accessory appropriately, and run the pattern again. You will see that the peaks are narrower, because the pattern is not just a \cos^2 function; it is more complicated. Now try 4 slits and then 5 slits. In each case the peaks are a bit narrower, although overall the pattern is similar because you haven't changed the slit width or the slit separation.

(f) Now switch to the center opening in the glass plate. This has 15 or 20 slits, so the peaks will be narrower still. In this case the slit separation is 0.03295 mm, so the maxima will be farther apart than in the previous cases. Run the pattern again. Measure the distance from the glass plate to the phototransistor as accurately as possible (the distance L below), realizing that the phototransistor lies 25.4 mm behind the opening in the mount.

(g) When you are satisfied with the quality of your spectrum record the position of each peak in the left column of the table below, with the central peak halfway down the column. Use the **Smart Tool** to accurately read off the peak positions by clicking on the appropriate button along the top of the graph. A set of cross-hairs will appear on the plot. Grab the cross-hairs by clicking on them and dragging them to the point you want to measure. The coordinates will be printed by the cross-hairs. Turn off the laser when you are finished. Print the graph with the title "Multiple slit Interference/Diffraction pattern" and the same axis labels as before.

Position Reading (m)	Change in Reading (m)

Activity 3: Determining the Wavelength of the Laser

(a) For the data you recorded in the previous activity, calculate the difference between each pair of adjacent readings and record it in the right column of the above table (first space will be blank).

(b) Calculate the average and standard deviation of the separation between adjacent peaks (right hand column values). Don't forget units.

(c) The position of the interference maxima can be described by (see text p. 914)

$$y_m = \frac{\lambda L}{d} m$$

where y_m is the distance of a bright spot from the central maximum (the distance along the slide in this experiment) and L is the distance from the slits to the phototransistor. The quantity d is the slit separation, λ is the wavelength of the light, and m is the order of the bright spot. Generate an expression for the distance Δy between adjacent bright spots.

(d) Use the expression you generated in part (c) and the average separation between bright spots you determined in part (b) to calculate the wavelength of the laser light and its uncertainty (both in nm). Show how you get the result in nanometers. Compare your result with the wavelength range indicated on the laser.

(e) Collect the results for the wavelength from the other teams in class and calculate the average and standard deviation. Record the results here. (Don't forget units.) Are your results consistent with the class results? Why or why not?

(f) Recall the earlier discussion of Newton's corpuscular theory of light. Does your data support Newton's theory or the wave theory? Why?

38 Diffraction 2

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To investigate the diffraction of light from a single slit and to see how this diffraction combines with interference from multiple slits.

Apparatus

- Basic optics diode laser
- Optical bench with rotary motion sensor
- Phototransistor for measuring light intensity (mounted on rotary motion sensor)
- “Single Slit Set” slit accessory
- “Multiple Slit Set” slit accessory
- *DataStudio* 750 Interface

Introduction

The set-up for this experiment is the same as for the Interference of Light experiment. Mount the laser on the optical bench on the opposite end from the rotary motion sensor.

Activity 1 - Single Slit Diffraction

(a) On the “Single Slit Set” slit accessory, select a slit of width .08 mm. Rotate the wheel so that this single slit is at the center of the opening. Position the single slit about 70 cm from the phototransistor mount. Measure the distance from the slit to the phototransistor carefully, realizing that the phototransistor lies 25.4 mm behind the opening in the mount. This is the distance L below. Record the distance here.

(b) Turn on the laser and adjust the beam direction so that it falls on the single slit you have selected. (There are two adjustment screws on the back of the laser.) You should see the diffraction pattern on the phototransistor mount.

(c) Position the phototransistor mount so the diffraction pattern is at the same height as the opening in the center of the phototransistor mount. The phototransistor is mounted behind this hole. Slide the phototransistor mount back and forth to make sure that it stays centered on the diffraction pattern. Then set it at one side of the pattern to begin the experiment. Start the “Interference” activity in the **132 Workshop** folder. When you are ready, click **Start** and move the phototransistor from one side of the slide to the other as you did in the Interference of Light experiment, taking 4-5 seconds to complete the motion. Click **Stop**. The diffraction pattern will appear on the computer screen. In theory, the pattern should look like Fig. 3 of the Diffraction of Light experiment (also see p. 921 of your textbook). Add the title “Single Slit Diffraction Pattern” and the axis labels “Relative Intensity” (vertical) and “Position (m)” (horizontal). Print the graph and attach it to this unit.

(d) Use the **Smart Tool** to measure the positions of the first minima on either side of the central maximum and record them here. Estimate an uncertainty in each measurement.

(e) Determine the difference between these two measurements (with uncertainty).

(f) The width of the central maximum is given by (see text p. 922)

$$\Delta y = \frac{2\lambda L}{a}$$

where λ is the wavelength of the laser beam, L is the distance from the slit to the phototransistor, and a is the slit width. Using your data from above, calculate the wavelength of the laser beam and its uncertainty.

Activity 2 - Double Slit Interference/Diffraction Pattern

(a) Replace the “Single Slit Set” accessory with the “Multiple Slit Set” accessory that you used in the Interference of Light experiment. Select a double slit of width .04 mm and separation .125 mm. Position the double slit about 70 cm from the phototransistor, measure the distance carefully, and run the scan as you did in the Interference experiment. The result should look like Fig. 4 of the Diffraction of Light experiment. This is the same pattern you did in Activity 2 of the Interference experiment. Include an appropriate title and axis labels and print the graph. Use the **Smart Tool** to read the positions of the maxima in the left column of the table below, with the central peak half way down the column.

Position Reading (m)	Change in Reading (m)

(b) Calculate the difference between each pair of adjacent readings (as you did in the Interference experiment) and record it in the right column of the above table. Calculate the average and standard deviation of the separation between adjacent peaks and record them here.

(c) Calculate the wavelength of the laser beam as you did in the Interference experiment. Determine an uncertainty and express both in nanometers.

39 The Diffraction Grating

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To determine the wavelength of laser light using a diffraction grating.

Introduction

Light bends (a bit) around corners. This phenomenon is called diffraction. Interference, or the overlap of waves, is the basis for diffraction. In a transmission grating, lines, about 4,000 to 8,000 per centimeter, are ruled onto glass. The unruled portions of the glass act as slits. The interference, and thus diffraction, which results from shining a beam of light through the grating permit the measurement of the wavelength of the light. The relevant relationship, known as the grating equation is:

$$n\lambda = d \sin \theta$$

where n is the order of the spectrum (the number of bright spots from the center), λ is the wavelength in nanometers (10^{-9} meters), d is the separation in nanometers between grating lines, and θ is the angle of deviation from the light beam's original direction through the grating (the angle of diffraction).

Activity

1. Record the separation between grating lines: $d =$
2. Turn on the laser, being careful to avoid looking directly into the beam or shining it at anyone. Aim the light beam through the diffraction grating so that a horizontal series of dots appears on the wall. Adjust the positions of the laser and grating until you easily see at least two dots on either side of the brightest (central) dot.
3. Are the dots of the interference/diffraction pattern the same intensity? Describe the pattern you observe.
4. Measure and record the distance from the grating to the wall, L , as well as the distances from the central dot to the first dot to the right, x , and the first dot to the left, x' . Compute the average of these x values and record it as x_{ave} .
5. Compute and record a value for θ by using the appropriate trigonometric relation between L and x_{ave} . Then, compute $\sin \theta$. Finally, compute the wavelength using equation above.
6. Repeat the procedure for three additional values of L .
7. Compute the average of your four determinations of the laser light's wavelength. Compute the standard deviation and consider it an uncertainty in your measurement. Express the result as $\lambda = \text{average plus or minus uncertainty}$.

L (cm)	x (cm)	x' (cm)	x_{ave} (cm)	θ (deg)	$\sin \theta$	λ (nm)

40 The Optical Spectrum of Hydrogen

Name _____

Section _____

Date _____

Objective

- To determine the wavelengths of the visible lines in the hydrogen spectrum using a spectrometer and a diffraction grating.
- To determine the value of Rydberg's constant.
- To compare the predicted energy levels with the measured ones.

Introduction

The spectral lines of the hydrogen spectrum that fall in the visible region are designated as the H_α , H_β , H_γ , and H_δ lines. All (there happen to be four of them) belong to the Balmer series. In general, the spectrum of hydrogen can be represented by Rydberg's formula:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_H \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right) \quad (1)$$

where n_f can be any positive integer and n_i takes on the values of $n_f + 1$, $n_f + 2$, $n_f + 3$, and so on and R_H is the Rydberg constant for hydrogen and equals $1.097 \times 10^7 m^{-1}$.

Apparatus

- Spectrometer
- Diffraction grating
- Hydrogen gas spectral tube
- Power supply for hydrogen tube

Activity 1: Measuring Spectral Lines

Diffraction grating spacing $d =$ _____ Å

Using the spectrometer, measure the angular position of the direct beam, θ_0 , and record it here: $\theta_0 =$ _____ degrees. For each spectral line, measure the angular position of the first order maximum (once on each side) and record them in columns 2 and 3 below. Then determine the diffraction angle on each side (columns 4 and 5) and an average of the two (column 6). Calculate the wavelength of each line using the relation:

$$\lambda = d \sin \theta \quad (2)$$

where d is the diffraction grating spacing.

Line	θ_{left} (degrees)	θ_{right} (degrees)	$\theta_0 - \theta_{left}$ (degrees)	$\theta_{right} - \theta_0$ (degrees)	$\theta_{average}$ (degrees)	Wavelength (Å)	Color
H_α							red
H_β							blue
H_γ							violet

Activity 2: Calculating the Rydberg Constant

The visible spectral lines for hydrogen correspond to transitions where $n_f = 2$. Using values for n_i of 3, 4, and 5 for the three lines you have measured, and the wavelengths you have determined, calculate a value of R_H for each line (from equation 1) and compare the average of these with the accepted value. Use your results to predict the wavelength of the next line in the series λ_δ . Its measured value is 4101.2Å. How does your prediction compare?

$$R_\alpha =$$

$$R_\beta =$$

$$R_\gamma =$$

$$R_{average} = \qquad \qquad \% \text{ difference} =$$

$$\lambda_\delta = \qquad \qquad \% \text{ difference} =$$

Collect values of $R_{average}$ from the other groups in the class and calculate an average and standard deviation. Record it below. How does this result compare with the accepted value? How does it compare with your individual measurement? Be quantitative in your answer.

Activity 3: The Hydrogen Level Diagram

The energy levels of hydrogen can be described with the equation

$$E_n = -\frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2} \qquad (3)$$

where n is called the principle quantum number. The relationship between the wavelength of the emitted light and its energy is $E = hc/\lambda$ where c is the speed of light and h is Planck's constant. Continue on next page.

Make an energy level diagram showing the transitions you believe you have measured. Calculate the transition energies (from $E = hc/\lambda$) based on your measured wavelengths.

Calculate the theoretical values of these transition energies predicted by equation 3, noting that $E = E_i - E_f$.

How do your measured transition energies compare with the predicted ones?

A Treatment of Experimental Data

Recording Data

When performing an experiment, record all required original observations as soon as they are made. By “original observations” is meant what you actually see, not quantities found by calculation. For example, suppose you want to know the stretch of a coiled spring as caused by an added weight. You must read a scale both before and after the weight is added and then subtract one reading from the other to get the desired result. The proper scientific procedure is to record both readings as seen. Errors in calculations can be checked only if the original readings are on record.

All data should be recorded with units. If several measurements are made of the same physical quantity, the data should be recorded in a table with the units reported in the column heading.

Significant Figures

A laboratory worker must learn to determine how many figures in any measurement or calculation are reliable, or “significant” (that is, have physical meaning), and should avoid making long calculations using figures which he/she could not possibly claim to know. *All sure figures plus one estimated figure are considered significant.*

The measured diameter of a circle, for example, might be recorded to four significant figures, the fourth figure being in doubt, since it is an estimated fraction of the smallest division on the measuring apparatus. How this doubtful fourth figure affects the accuracy of the computed area can be seen from the following example.

Assume for example that the diameter of the circle has been measured as .5264 cm, with the last digit being in doubt as indicated by the line under it. When this number is squared the result will contain eight digits, of which the last five are doubtful. Only one of the five doubtful digits should be retained, yielding a four-digit number as the final result.

In the sample calculation shown below, each doubtful figure has a short line under it. Of course, each figure obtained from the use of a doubtful figure will itself be doubtful. The result of this calculation should be recorded as 0.2771 cm², including the doubtful fourth figure. (The zero to the left of the decimal point is often used to emphasize that no significant figures precede the decimal point. This zero is not itself a significant figure.)

$$(.526\underline{4} \text{ cm})^2 = .2770\underline{9}6\underline{9}6 \text{ cm}^2 = 0.277\underline{1} \text{ cm}^2$$

In multiplication and division, the rule is that a calculated result should contain the same number of significant figures as the least that were used in the calculation.

In addition and subtraction, do not carry a result beyond the first column that contains a doubtful figure.

Statistical Analysis

Any measurement is an intelligent estimation of the true value of the quantity being measured. To arrive at a “best value” we usually make several measurements of the same quantity and then analyze these measurements statistically. The results of such an analysis can be represented in several ways. Those in which we are most interested in this course are the following:

Mean - The mean is the sum of a number of measurements of a quantity divided by the number of such measurements. (In other words, the mean is the same thing as what people generally call the “average.”) It generally represents the best estimate of true value of the measured quantity.

Standard Deviation - The standard deviation (σ) is a measure of the range on either side of the mean within which approximately two-thirds of the measured values fall. For example, if the mean is 9.75 m/s² and the standard deviation is 0.10 m/s², then approximately two-thirds of the measured values lie within the range 9.65 m/s² to 9.85 m/s². A customary way of expressing an experimentally determined value is: Mean $\pm \sigma$, or (9.75 \pm 0.10) m/s². Thus, the standard deviation is an indicator of the spread in the individual measurements, and a small σ implies high precision. Also, it means that the probability of any future measurement falling in this range is approximately two to one. The equation for calculating the standard deviation is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \langle x \rangle)^2}{N - 1}}$$

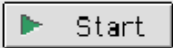
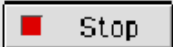
where x_i are the individual measurements, $\langle x \rangle$ is the mean, and N is the total number of measurements.








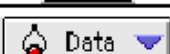


% Difference - Often one wishes to compare the value of a quantity determined in the laboratory with the best known or “accepted value” of the quantity obtained through repeated determinations by a number of investigators. *The % difference is calculated by subtracting the accepted value from your value, dividing by the accepted value, and multiplying by 100.* If your value is greater than the accepted value, the % difference will be positive. If your value is less than the accepted value, the % difference will be negative. The % difference between two values in a case where neither is an accepted value can be calculated by choosing either one as the accepted value.

B Introduction to DataStudio

Quick Reference Guide

Shown below is the quick reference guide for DataStudio.

What You Want To Do	How You Do It	Button
Start recording data	Click the 'Start' button or select 'Start Data' on the Experiment menu (or on the keyboard press CTRL - R (Windows) or Command - R (Mac))	
Stop recording (or monitoring) data	Click the 'Stop' button or select 'Stop Data' on the Experiment menu (or on the keyboard press CTRL - . (period) (Win) or Command - . (Mac))	
Start monitoring data	Select 'Monitor Data' on the Experiment menu (or on the keyboard press CTRL - M (Win) or Command - M (Mac))	none

On the Graph Display	In the Graph Toolbar	Button
Re-scale the data so it fills the Graph display window	Click the 'Scale to Fit' button.	
Pinpoint the x- and y-coordinate values on the Graph display	Click the 'Smart Tool' button. The coordinates appear next to the 'Smart Tool'.	
'Zoom In' or 'Zoom Out'	Click the 'Zoom In' or 'Zoom Out' buttons.	
Magnify a selected portion of the plotted data	Click the 'Zoom Select' button and drag across the data section to be magnified.	
Create a Calculation	Click the 'Calculate' button	
Add a text note to the Graph	Click the 'Note' button.	
Select from the Statistics menu	Click the Statistics menu button	
Add or remove a data run	Click the 'Add/Remove Data' menu button	
Delete something	Click the 'Delete' button	
Select Graph settings	Click the 'Settings' menu button	

Selecting a Section of Data

1. To select a data section, hold the mouse button down and move the cursor to draw a rectangle around the data of interest. The data in the region of interest will be highlighted.
2. To unselect the data, click anywhere in the graph window.

Fitting a Section of Data

1. Select the section of data to be fitted.

2. Click on the **Fit** button on the Graph Toolbar and select a mathematical model. The results of the fit will be displayed on the graph.
3. To remove the fit, click the **Fit** button and select the checked function type.

Finding the Area Under a Curve

1. Use the **Zoom Select** button on the Graph Toolbar to zoom in around the region of interest in the graph. See the quick reference guide above for instructions.
2. Select the section of data that you want to integrate under.
3. Click the **Statistics** button on the Graph Toolbar and select **Area**. The results of the integration will be displayed on the graph.
4. To undo the integration, click on the **Statistics** button and select **Area**.

C Introduction to Excel

Microsoft Excel is the spreadsheet program we will use for much of our data analysis and graphing. It is a powerful and easy-to-use application for graphing, fitting, and manipulating data. In this appendix, we will briefly describe how to use Excel to do some useful tasks. The current version is Excel 2013.

C.1 Data and formulae

Figure 1 below shows a sample Excel spreadsheet containing data from a made-up experiment. The experimenter was trying to measure the density of a certain material by taking a set of cubes made of the material and measuring their masses and the lengths of the sides of the cubes. The first two columns contain her measured results. **Note that the top of each column contains both a description of the quantity contained in that column and its units.** You should make sure that all of the columns of your data tables do as well. You should also make sure that the whole spreadsheet has a descriptive title and your names at the top, as indicated in the sample spreadsheet below.

In the third column, the experimenter has figured out the volume of each of the cubes, by taking the cube of the length of a side. To avoid repetitious calculations, she had Excel do this automatically. She entered the formula `=B5^3` into cell C5. Note the equals sign, which indicates to Excel that a formula is coming. The \wedge sign stands for raising to a power. After entering a formula into a cell, you can grab the square in the lower right corner of the cell with the mouse and drag it down the column, or you can just double-click on that square. (Either way, note that thing you're clicking on is the tiny square in the corner; clicking somewhere else in the cell won't work.) This will copy the cell, making the appropriate changes, into the rest of the column. For instance, in this case, cell C6 contains the formula `=B6^3`, and so forth.

Column D was similarly produced with a formula that divides the mass in column A by the volume in column C.

At the bottom of the spreadsheet we find the mean and standard deviation of the calculated densities (that is, of the numbers in cells D5 through D8). Those are computed using the formulae `=average(D5:D8)` and `=stdev(D5:D8)`.

C.2 Graphs

Here's how to make graphs in Excel. First, use the mouse to select the columns of numbers you want to graph. (If the two columns aren't next to each other, rearrange them so that they are next to each other. The variable you want on the horizontal axis needs to be to the left of the variable you want on the vertical axis). Then

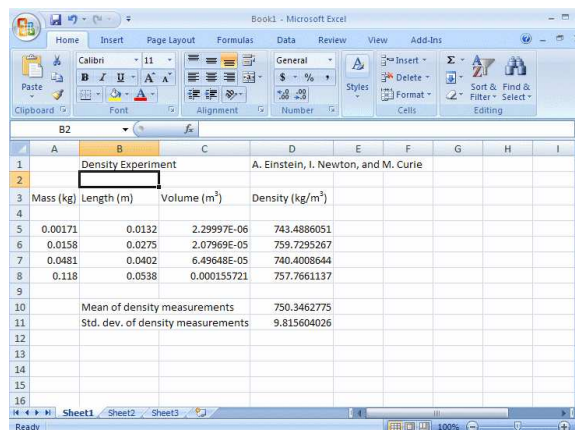



Figure 1: Sample Excel spreadsheet

click on the **Insert** tab at the top of the window. In the menu that shows up, there is a section called **Charts**. Almost all of the graphs we make will be scatter plots (meaning plots with one point for each row of data), so click on the **Scatter** icon, which is the lower one in the group that looks like this . Several possible scatter plots appear. Select the first one with the same icon as before, and your graph will appear.

Next, you'll need to customize the graph in various ways, such as labeling the axes correctly.

This is done in the **Chart Elements** menu which is accessed by clicking on the plus sign (+) in a box, at the upper right corner of your graph. Click on **Axis Titles**, and places appear for axis titles. Edit the text inside of the two axis titles so that it indicates what's on the two axes of your graph, *including the appropriate units for each*.

Next, give your graph an overall title. Click on **Chart Title** and a box appears around it. Delete "Chart Title" and enter a proper title such as "Position vs Time" or whatever.

Usually you want your graph to contain a best-fit line passing through your data points. To do this, right click on one of the data points and select **Add Trendline**. A number of options appear such as "linear", "polynomial", "power", and so on. Select the one you want, and also check the **Display Equation on chart** option near the bottom. You can then drag the equation to someplace else on the chart so you can read it better. Remember that Excel won't include the correct units on the numbers in this equation, but you should. Also, Excel will always call the two variables x and y , even though they might be something else entirely. Bear these points in mind when transcribing the equation into your lab notebook.

Sometimes, you may want to make a graph in Excel where the x column is to the right of the y column in your worksheet. In these cases, Excel will make the graph with the x and y axes reversed. Here's how to fix this problem: Before you make your graph, make a copy of the y column in the worksheet and paste it so that it's to the right of the x column. Then follow the above procedure and everything will be fine.

C.3 Making Histograms

A histogram is a useful graphing tool when you want to analyze groups of data, based on the frequency at given intervals. In other words, you graph groups of numbers according to how often they appear. You start by choosing a set of 'bins', *i.e.*, creating a table of numbers that mark the edges of the intervals. You then go through your data, sorting the numbers into each bin or interval, and tabulating the number of data points that fall into each bin (this is the frequency). At the end, you have a visualization of the distribution of your data.

Start by entering your raw data in a column like the one shown in the left-hand panel of Figure 2. Look over your numbers to see what is the range of the data. If you have lots of values to sift through you might consider sorting your data in ascending or descending order. (You don't need to do this if you can easily see the range of data.) To do this task, choose the column containing your data by clicking on the letter at the top of the column, go to **Data** in the menubar, select **Sort**, and pick ascending or descending. The data will be rearranged in the order you've chosen and it will be easier to see the range of the data. For an example, see the middle column of data in the left-hand panel of Figure 2.

Now to create your bins pick a new column on your spreadsheet and enter the values of the bin edges. Bins should be of equal size with the bin edges given by simple numbers. Make sure the bins you choose cover the range of the data. See the left-hand panel of Figure 2 again for an example.

You now have the ingredients for making the histogram. Go to **Data** in the menubar, select **Data Analysis** (on the right) and choose **Histogram**. Click OK. You should see a dialog box like the one in the right-hand panel of Figure 2. Click in the box labeled **Input Range** and then highlight the column on the spreadsheet containing your data. Next, click in the box labeled **Bin Range** and highlight the column on the spreadsheet containing the bins. Under **Output Options**, select **Chart Output** and click OK. The histogram should come up. If it doesn't, go to **Insert** in the menubar and select the histogram icon in the **Charts** section (the first icon in that section). Change the horizontal axis label to whatever you are plotting (including units). The vertical axis should already be labeled "Frequency". Change the chart title to an appropriate title for whatever you are plotting. The result should look like the right hand panel of Figure 3.

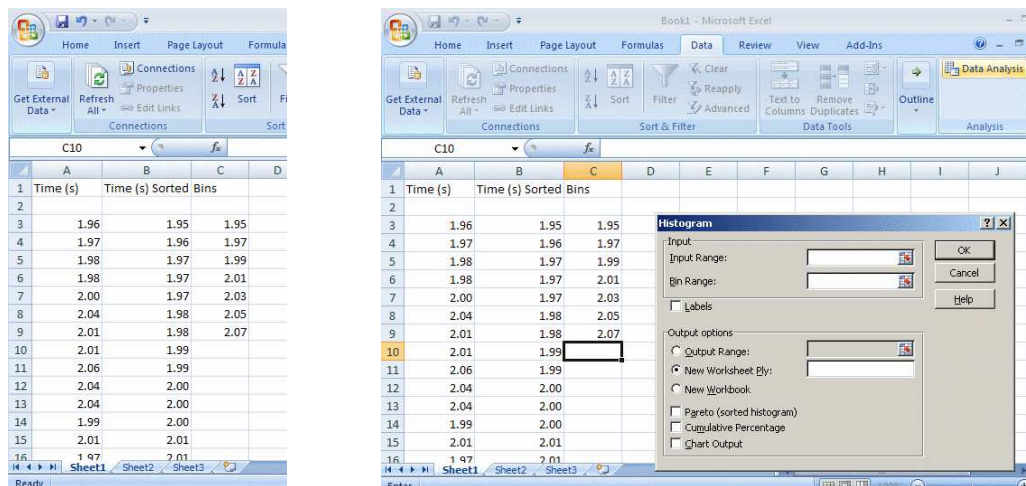


Figure 2: Column data and bins (left-hand panel) and dialog box (right-hand panel) for making a histogram in Excel.

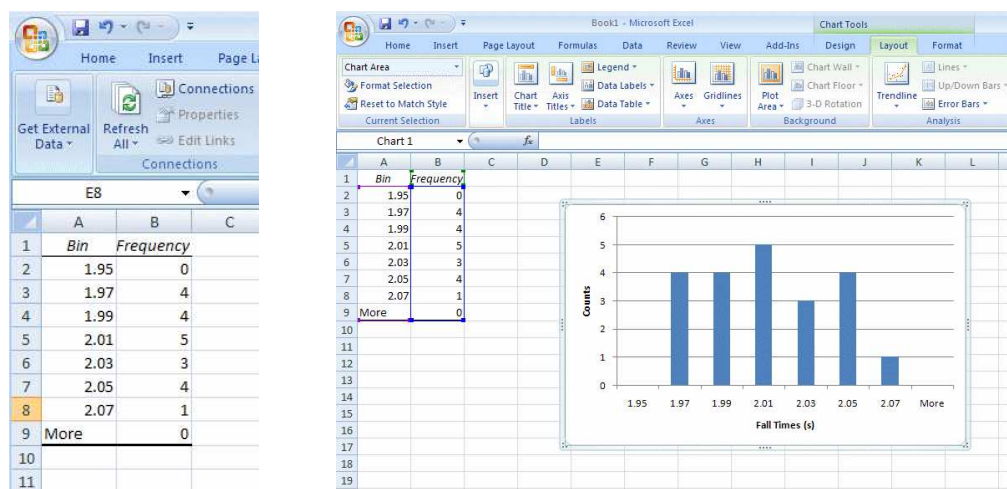


Figure 3: Newly-created worksheet (left-hand panel) and final plot (right-hand panel) for histogram worksheet in Excel.

D Video Analysis Using VideoPoint

Making a Movie Using VideoPoint

To make a movie, perform the following steps:

1. Start up *Videopoint Capture* by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **VideoPoint** → **VP Capture**.
2. The program will first ask you to choose a file name and location for the video you are going to make. You should choose to put the file on the **Desktop** (so the data transfer will be fast enough).
3. Click on the **Capture rate** box and set the capture rate to 30 frames per second.
4. Go to the **Size & Colors** under the **Capture Options** menu, and choose the largest available size for the video.
5. Be sure the camera is at least 2 meters from the object you will be viewing. This constraint is required to reduce the effect of perspective for objects viewed near the edge of the field of view. Set up the camera so that its field of view is centered on the expected region where you will perform the experiment. When you perform the experiment only use the data when the object is in this central region.
6. Focus the camera by rotating the barrel on the outside of the lens until you have a clear picture.
7. Place a meter stick or some object of known size in the field of view where it won't interfere with the experiment. The meter stick should be the same distance away from the camera as the motion you are analyzing so the horizontal and vertical scales will be accurately determined. It should also be parallel to one of the sides of the movie frame.
8. One member of your group should perform the computer tasks while the other does the experiment.
9. To start recording your video, click **Record**. When you're done, click **Stop**.
10. The next step is to decide how much of the movie to save. Use the slider to step through the movie frame by frame. When you find the first frame you want to save, click **First**. When you find the last frame you want to save, click **Last**. You may want to save the entire movie, in which case **First** and **Last** really will be the first and last frames. Often, though, there will be "dead" time either at the beginning or the end of the movie, which you might as well cut out before saving.
11. After you've selected the range of frames you want to save, the button at the lower right should say **Keep**. Make sure that the box next to this button says **All**. (If it says **Double**, change it to **All**.) Then click **Keep** and **Save**. You will be asked to provide a file name. Pick something unique that you can easily identify. You will then see a quick replay of the movie as Videopoint converts and saves it.

Analyzing the Movie

To determine the position of an object at different times during the motion, perform the following steps:

1. Start up *Videopoint* by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **VideoPoint** → **VideoPoint 2.5**. Click **Open Movie**. You will see a dialog box. Set the **Files of type:** box to **All Files (*.*)** and select the file you created before. The file should have an extension like '.mov' or '.movvv'. Click **Open**.
2. **VideoPoint** will request the number of objects you want to track in the movie. Carefully read the instructions for the unit you are working on to find this number. Enter it in the space provided. You will now see several windows. (Note: You may have to move the movie window out of the way to see the other windows.) One contains the movie and has control buttons and a slider along the bottom of the frame to control the motion of the film. Experiment with these controls to learn their function. Another window below the movie frame (labeled **Table**) contains position and time data and a third window to the right of the frame (labeled **Coordinate Systems**) describes the coordinate system in use.

3. This is a good time to calibrate the scale. Go to a frame where an object of known size is clearly visible (see item 7 in the previous section). Under the **Movie** menu highlight **Scale Movie**. A dialog box will appear. Enter the length of the object and set **Scale Type** to **Fixed**. Click **Continue**. Move the cursor over the frame and click on the ends of scaling object.
4. You are now ready to record the position and time data. Go to the first frame of interest. Move the cursor over the frame and it will change into a small circle with an attached label. Place the circle over the object of interest in the frame and click. The x and y positions will be stored and the film advanced one frame. Move the circle over the position of the object in the frame and repeat. Continue this process until you have mapped out the motion of the object. If you entered more than one object to keep track of when you opened the movie, then you will click on all those objects in each frame before the film advances. Remember to restrict your analysis to the central region of the field of view to reduce any distortion created by the camera lens. For example, to study free-fall the ruler used for setting the scale should be in the central region of the camera's field of view. You should only take data while the object is falling from one end of the ruler to the other.
5. When you have entered all the points you want, go to the **File** menu and select **Export data**. This will allow you to save your data table as an Excel file. Save this file on the desktop (by clicking on the "Open" button, which actually doesn't open anything), and double-click on the saved file to start up Excel. You will now be able to continue your data analysis in Excel.
6. Once you have looked at your data in Excel and made sure everything looks OK, you can quit Videopoint Analysis. If you are sure you have exported your data correctly to Excel, there is no need to save in Videopoint.

Changing the Origin

To change the position of the origin take the following steps.

1. Click on the arrow icon near the top of the menu bar to the left. The cursor will be shaped like an arrow when you place it on the movie frame.
2. Click at the origin (where the axes cross) and drag the origin to the desired location.
3. Click on the circle at the top of the menu bar to the left to return to the standard cursor for marking points on the film.

Using a Moving Coordinate System

To record the position of an object and to change the coordinate system from frame to frame take the following steps.

1. Open the movie as usual and enter one object to record. First we have to select the existing origin and change it from a fixed one to a moving one. Click on the arrow near the top of the menu bar to the left. The cursor will have the shape of an arrow when you place it on the movie frame. Click on the existing origin (where the axes cross) and it will be highlighted.
2. Under the **Edit** menu drag down and highlight **Edit Selected Series**. A dialog box will appear. Click on the box labeled **Data Type** and highlight the selection **Frame-by-Frame**. Click OK.
3. Click on the circle at the top of the menu bar to the left to change the cursor back to the usual one for marking points. Go to the first frame of interest. When the cursor is placed in the movie frame it will be labeled with "Point S1." Click on the object of interest. The film will NOT advance and the label on the cursor will change to "Origin 1." Click on the desired location of the origin in that frame. The film will advance as usual. Repeat the procedure to accumulate the x - and y -positions relative to the origin you've defined in each frame.

E Video Analysis Using Tracker

Making a Movie with “Movie Maker”

To make a movie, perform the following steps:

1. Make sure the camera is connected to a USB port on your computer. Close all windows, applications, programs, and browsers.
2. Click the **Start** button in the lower-left corner of your screen and type ‘movie maker’ in the Search programs and files box. Once the search results appear, click on **Movie Maker** at top of window. After movie maker starts, close any pop-up windows that may appear.
3. Click the **Webcam Video** button. A webcam video window opens.
4. Position the camera 2-3 meters from the object you will be viewing. Adjust the camera height and orientation so that the field of view is centered on the expected region where the object will move.
5. Place a meter stick or an object of known size in the field of view where it won’t interfere with the experiment. The meter stick should be the same distance away from the camera as the motion you are analyzing so the horizontal and vertical scales will be accurately determined. It should also be parallel to one of the sides of the movie frame. Make sure that the meter stick is not far away from the central region of field of view, and that it is perpendicular to the line of sight of camera.
6. One member of your group should perform the computer tasks while the other does the experiment.
7. To start recording your video, click **Record**. When you are done, click **Stop**.

Save the video on your Desktop with a unique name that you can easily identify. The video will be saved in Windows Media Video format, i.e. with extension wmv. (Do not save the video as a Movie Maker Project file.)

Analyzing the Movie

To determine the position of an object at different times during the motion, perform the following steps:

1. Start up Tracker by going to **Start** → **Programs** → **Physics Applications** → **Tracker**. When **Tracker** starts it appears as shown below. The menu icons and buttons that we will use are identified by arrows.
2. Click the **Open Video** button on the toolbar to import your video. After your video is imported, Tracker will warn you that the video frames don’t have the same time duration. This is okay since Movie Maker uses a variable frame rate. Click **OK** on the warning window to ignore Tracker’s recommendation.
3. Click the **Clip Settings** button to identify the frames you wish to analyze. A clip settings dialog box appears. Here, you only need to identify and set the start and end frames. Leave everything else in the dialog box unchanged. To find and set the start frame, drag the player’s left slider to scan forward through the video, and stop when you get to the first frame of interest. Now, the start frame is set and the corresponding frame number should be displayed in the dialog box. If not, then click on the **Start Frame** in the dialog box, enter the number of the frame (printed in the lower left part of the Tracker window), and click outside the box. Then, click the **Play video** button to go to the last frame in the video. Next, drag the player’s right slider to scan backward through the video to find the last frame of interest. Stop when you get to the frame of interest. Now, the end frame is also set and the corresponding frame number should be displayed in the dialog box. If not, then click on the **End Frame** in the dialog box, enter the number of the frame, and click outside the box. Finally, click the **OK** button to close the dialog box, and then click the player’s **Return** button to return to the start frame.

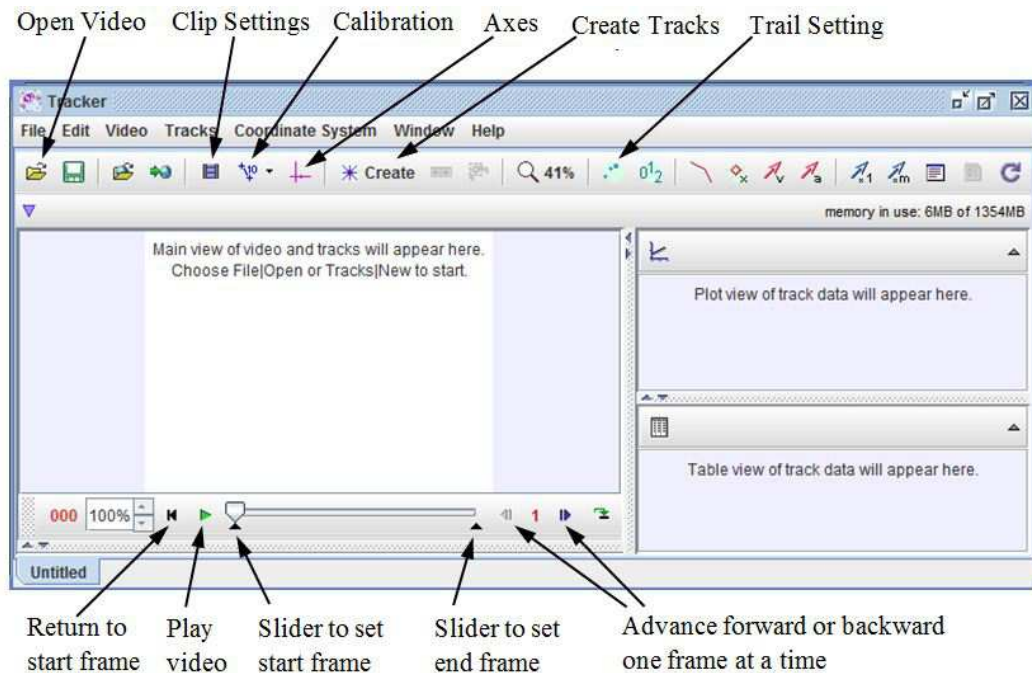


Figure 4: Initial **Tracker** window for video analysis.

4. Click the **Calibration** button and select the **calibration stick**. A blue calibration line appears on the video frame. Drag the ends of this blue line to the ends of your calibration meter stick. Then click the readout box (the number indicating length) on the calibration line to select it. Enter the length of the meter stick in this box (without units). For example, if your calibration meter stick is 1.00 meter long, enter 1.00 in the box (if not already there) and then click outside the box to accept the value. At this point, you can right-click the video frame to zoom in for more accurate adjustment of the ends of the calibration stick. Right-click the video again to zoom out.
5. Click the **Axes** button to set the origin and orientation of the x-y coordinate axes. Drag the origin of the axes to the desired position (in most cases the initial position of the object of interest). Click the video outside the origin to fix the position of the origin. To change the orientation (angle) of the axes, drag the x axis. Click the video to fix the new orientation.
6. Click the **Create** button to track the object of interest in the video. From the menu of choices select **Point Mass** for the track type. Make sure the video is at the start frame, which shows the initial position of the object of interest. Mark this position by holding down the **shift key** and clicking the mouse (crosshair cursor) on the object. As the position is marked, the video automatically advances to the next frame. Similarly, mark the position of the object on this and subsequent frames by holding down the **shift key** and clicking the mouse. Do not skip any frames.

After marking the position on the end frame, you can adjust any one of the marked positions. Advance the video to the frame where you would like to make a fine adjustment. Right-click the video frame to zoom in and drag the marked position with the mouse.

If you would like to track additional objects, repeat the procedure outlined here for each object.

7. **Plotting and Analyzing the Tracks:** The track data (position versus time) are listed in the Table View and plotted in Plot View sections of the Tracker screen. Click the vertical axis label of the plot to change the variable plotted along that axis. To plot multiple graphs, click the **Plot** button, located above the plot, and select the desired number. Right-click on a plot to access display and analysis options in a pop-up menu. To fit your data to a line, parabola, or other functions, select the **Analyze** option.

On the Data-Tool window that opens up, click the **Analyze** button and check the **Curve Fits** box from the drop-down menu. Then select the fit type from the **Fit Name** drop-down menu (lower left). Make sure the **Auto fit** box is checked. Note that the curve fitter fits the selected function to the data in the two leftmost columns of the displayed data table. The leftmost column, identified by a yellow header cell, defines the independent variable, and the second leftmost column, identified by a green header cell, defines the dependent variable. So, to fit the data in other columns, their corresponding headers must be dragged to the two leftmost columns. To print out the displayed plot and data table on the Data Tool screen, select **Print** from the **File** menu on the Data Tool screen.

8. **Printing and Exporting Data:** Track data can also be easily exported to Excel for further analysis by copying the data from the data table to the clipboard and pasting into Excel. Select the desired data (on Data Tool screen), go to **Edit** → **copy** → **selected data** (on Data Tool screen). Open Excel (in Microsoft Office folder) and click the Paste clipboard. Data should appear in Excel. Graph can now be plotted in Excel (see **Appendix C: Introduction to Excel**) and printed.

F Instrumentation

Introduction

Being both quantitative and experimental, physics is basically a science of measurement. A great deal of effort has been expended over the centuries improving the accuracy with which the fundamental quantities of length, mass, time, and charge can be measured.

It is important that the appropriate instrument be used when measuring. Ordinarily, a rough comparison with a numerical scale, taken at a glance and given in round numbers, is adequate. Increasing precision, though, requires a more accurate scale read to a fraction of its smallest division. The “least count” of an instrument is the smallest division that is marked on the scale. This is the smallest quantity that can be read directly without estimating fractions of a division.

Even at the limit of an instrument’s precision, however, accidental errors — which cannot be eliminated — still occur. These errors result in a distribution of results when a series of seemingly identical measurements are made. The best estimate of the true value of the measured quantity is generally the arithmetic mean or average of the measurements.

Other errors, characteristic of all instruments, are known as systematic errors. These can be minimized by improving the equipment and by taking precautions when using it.

Length Measurement

Three instruments will be available in this class for length measurements: a ruler (one- or two-meter sticks, for example), the vernier caliper, and the micrometer caliper.

The Meter Stick

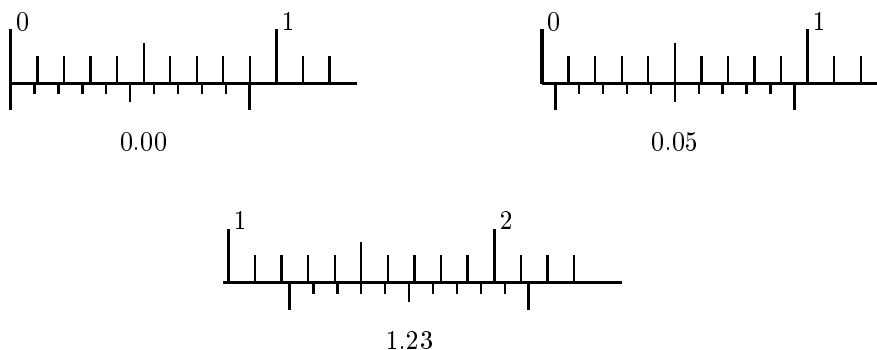
A meter stick, by definition, is 1 meter (m) long. Its scale is divided, and numbered, into 100 centimeters (cm). Each centimeter, in turn, is divided into 10 millimeters. Thus $1\text{ cm} = 10^{-2}\text{ m}$, and $1\text{ mm} = 10^{-1}\text{ cm} = 10^{-3}\text{ m}$.

When measuring a length with a meter stick, different regions along the scale should be used for the series of measurements resulting in an average value. This way, non-uniformities resulting from the meter stick manufacturing process will tend to cancel out and so reduce systematic errors. The ends of the stick, too, should be avoided, because these may be worn down and not give a true reading. Another error which arises in the reading of the scale is introduced by the positioning of the eyes, an effect known as parallax. Uncertainty due to this effect can be reduced by arranging the scale on the stick as close to the object being measured as possible.

The Vernier Caliper

A vernier is a small auxiliary scale that slides along the main scale. It allows more accurate estimates of fractional parts of the smallest division on the main scale.

On a vernier caliper, the main scale, divided into centimeters and millimeters, is engraved on the fixed part of the instrument. The vernier scale, engraved on the movable jaw, has ten divisions that cover the same spatial interval as nine divisions on the main scale: each vernier division is $\frac{9}{10}$ the length of a main scale division. In the case of a vernier caliper, the vernier division length is 0.9 mm. [See figures below.]



Examples of vernier caliper readings

To measure length with a vernier caliper, close the jaws on the object and read the main scale at the position indicated by the zero-line of the vernier. The fractional part of a main-scale division is obtained from the first vernier division to coincide with a main scale line. [See examples above.]

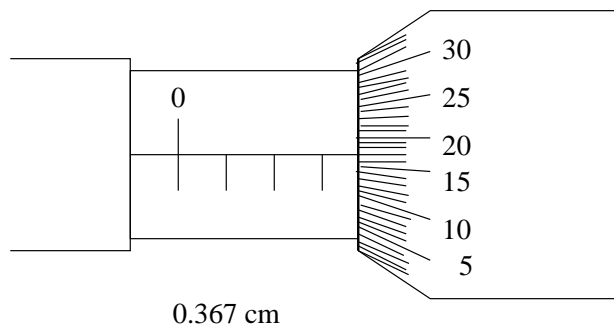
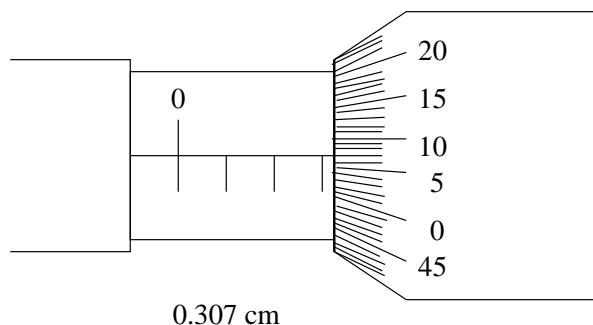
If the zero-lines of the main and vernier scales do not coincide when the jaws are closed, all measurements will be systematically shifted. The magnitude of this shift, called the zero reading or zero correction, should be noted and recorded, so that length measurements made with the vernier caliper can be corrected, thereby removing the systematic error.

The Micrometer Caliper

A micrometer caliper is an instrument that allows direct readings to one hundredth of a millimeter and estimations to one thousandth of a millimeter or one millionth of a meter (and, hence, its name). It is essentially a carefully machined screw housed in a strong frame. To measure objects, place them between the end of the screw and the projecting end of the frame (the anvil). The screw is advanced or retracting by rotating a thimble on which is engraved a circular scale. The thimble thus moves along the barrel of the frame which contains the screw and on which is engraved a longitudinal scale divided in millimeters. The pitch of the screw is 0.5 mm, so that a complete revolution of the thimble moves the screw 0.5 mm. The scale on the thimble has 50 divisions, so that a turn of one division is $\frac{1}{50}$ of 0.5 mm, or 0.01 mm.

Advance the screw until the object is gripped gently. Do not force the screw. A micrometer caliper is a delicate instrument.

To read a micrometer caliper, note the position of the edge of the thimble along the longitudinal scale and the position of the axial line on the circular scale. The first scale gives the measurement to the nearest whole division; the second scale gives the fractional part. It takes two revolutions to advance one full millimeter, so note carefully whether you are on the first or second half of a millimeter. The result is the sum of the two scales. (See examples below).



As with the vernier caliper, the zero reading may not be exactly zero. A zero error should be checked for and recorded, and measurements should be appropriately corrected.

Mass Measurement

Three kinds of instruments will be available to determine mass: a digital scale and two types of balances. The operation of the first instrument is trivial, and so will not be explained here.

Please understand that with each of these instruments we are really comparing weights, not masses, but the proportionality of weight and mass allows the instruments to be calibrated for mass.

The Equal-Arm Balance

The equal-arm balance has two trays on opposite sides of a pivot. The total mass placed on one tray required to balance the object on the other gives the mass of the object. Most equal-arm balances have a slider, as well, that can move along a scale and allow for greater precision than the smallest calibrated mass available. Typically, this scale has 0.5 g divisions.

The Triple-Beam Balance

The triple-beam balance, so-called because of its three slider scales, can be read to 0.1 g and estimated to half that. With an object on the tray, the masses of the different scales are slid to notches until balanced. Get close with the larger masses first and then fine-adjust with the smallest slider.

Time Measurement

Time measurements in this course will be made either with a computer or with a stop watch. This first is out of your control.

The Stop Watch

The stop watches you will use in class have a time range of from hours to hundredths of a second. There are two buttons at the top: a stop/start button and a reset button. The operation of these should be evident, although once the watch is reset, the reset button also starts the watch (but doesn't stop it). Please be aware of this feature.

Charge Measurements

The magnitude of charge is among the most difficult measurements to make. Instead a number of indirect measurements are undertaken to understand electric phenomena. These measurements are most often carried out with a digital multimeter

The Digital Multimeter

The digital multimeters available for laboratory exercises have pushbutton control to select five ac and dc voltage ranges, five ac and dc current ranges, and six resistance ranges. The ranges of accuracy are 100 microvolts to 1200 volts ac and dc, 100 nanoamperes to 1.999 amperes ac and dc, and 100 milliohms to 19.99 megaohms.

To perform a DC voltage measurement, select the DCV function and choose a range maximum from one of 200 millivolts or 2, 20, 200, or 1200 volts. Be sure the input connections used are V- Ω and COMMON. The same is true for AC voltage, regarding range and inputs, but the ACV function button should be selected.

For DC current choose DC MA (for DC milliamperes), while for AC current choose AC MA. Your choices for largest current are 200 microamperes or 2, 20, 200, or 2000 milliamperes. Check that the input are connected to MA and COMMON.

There are two choices for resistance measurement: Kilohms ($k\Omega$) and Megohms ($20M\Omega$). The input connectors are the same as when measuring voltage, namely V- Ω and COMMON. The range switches do not function with the Megohm function, but one of the range buttons must be set. The maximum settings for Kilohm readings are 200Ω or 2, 20, 200, or $2000k\Omega$.

Calibrating Force Sensors

1. Connect force sensor to Pasco interface (in port “A”).
2. Open whatever software application you will be using in the current experiment.
3. Click “Setup”.
4. Click “Calibrate Sensors”.

FOR HORIZONTAL USE:

5. Set force sensor on track, and with no force applied to the sensor, press TARE button on side of the sensor. This sets the sensor to zero. Then set 1st calibration point to 0 newtons, press upper “Read from sensor” button.
6. While holding sensor stationary (with your hand), hang 200g from sensor over a pulley at end of track, as in Figure 2 of Experiment 13. Set 2nd calibration point to 1.96 newtons, press lower “Read from sensor” button.
7. Click “OK”. Force sensor is now calibrated for the rest of your experiment. Close “Calibrate Sensors” window, close “Setup” window.
8. While still holding the force sensor still, press “Start”. Graph should now show a reading of 1.96 N. Press “Stop”.
9. Try hanging a different mass from the force sensor (over the pulley); press “Start” and check that it is reading correctly.

FOR VERTICAL USE:

5. Holding sensor vertically (with hook down and no force applied to it), press TARE button on side of the sensor. This sets the sensor to zero. Then set 1st calibration point to 0 newtons, press upper “Read from sensor” button.
6. Hang 200 g from sensor, set 2nd calibration point to 1.96 newtons, press lower “Read from sensor” button.
7. Click “OK”. Force sensor is now calibrated for the rest of your experiment. Close “Calibrate Sensors” window, close “Setup” window.
8. While still holding the force sensor still, press “Start”. Graph should now show a reading of 1.96 N. Press “Stop”.
9. Try hanging a different mass from the force sensor; press “Start” and check that it is reading correctly.