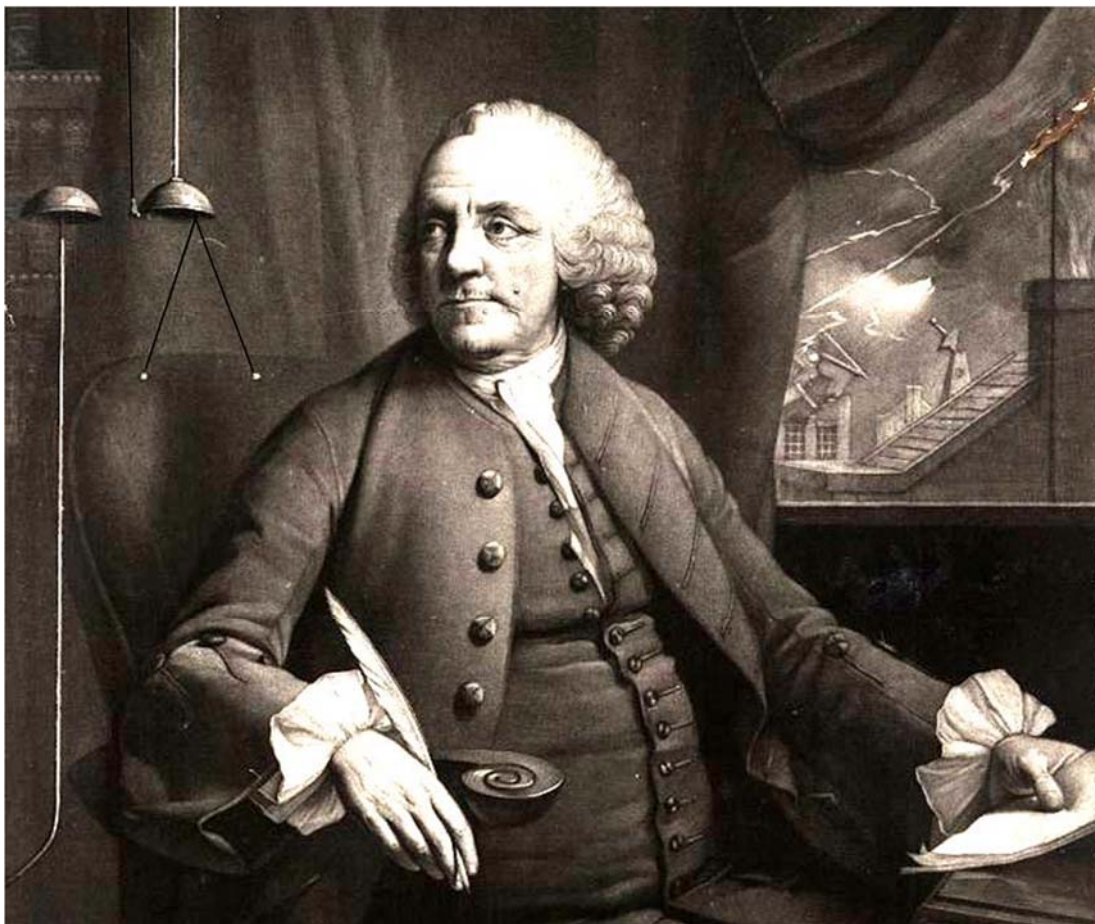
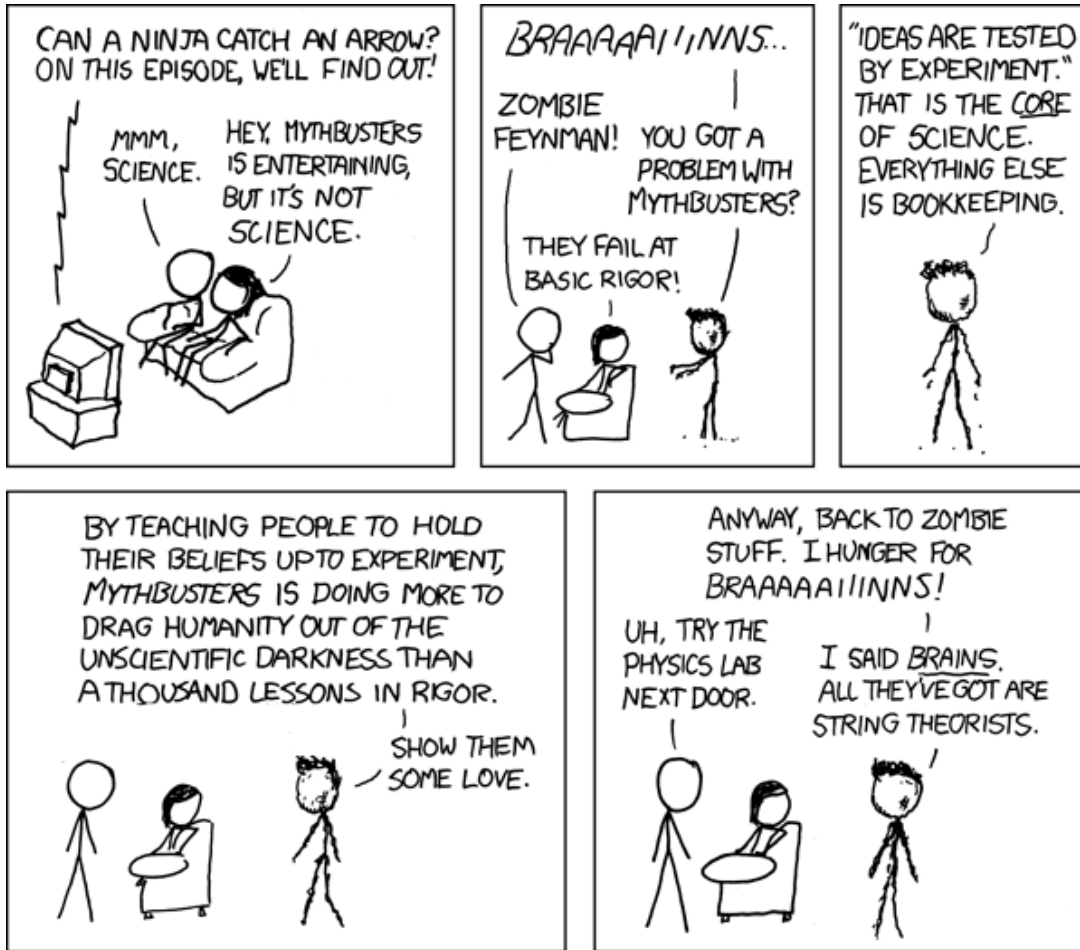


Laboratory Manual for General Physics II
PHYS 1602L
Spring 2020

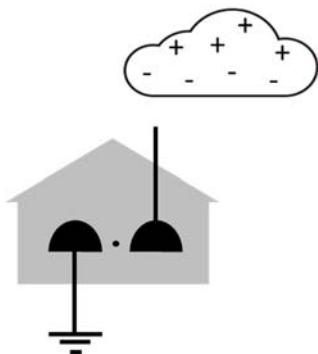


Developed by Forrest Charnock
 Vanderbilt University
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 Nashville, TN

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Cover image: Detail of Franklin with his electric bells from Edward Fisher's mezzotint, after a painting by Mason Chamberlain. Franklin used this device to detect oncoming thunderstorms. How this worked is illustrated in the diagram on the left.

Safety note: DO NOT INSTALL THIS DEVICE IN ANY HOME! There are far safer methods of detecting electrical storms than grounding a lighting bolt through your living room.

General Physics Laboratory II

PHYS 1602L

(Prior to the Fall of 2015, this lab was referred to as PHYS 118B.)

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Introduction

The Sermon

The speed of light is 2.99792458×10^8 m/s. This is not science.

The Wikipedia entry on Newton's 2nd law of motion is not science.

Nor is the periodic table of the elements.

Science is not a collection of facts. (Not even true facts!) Rather, science is a **process** for figuring out what is really going on. *What is the underlying principle here? How does this relate to some other observation?* If you are not involved in such a process, you are not doing science. A brilliant, dedicated, A+ student memorizing a list of equations is not doing science. A baby dropping peas on the floor to see what happens: now *that's science!!* (Does oatmeal fall too? Let's find out!!)

This is a science lab. I expect you to do some science in it.

"Yeah, yeah, Dr. Charnock, I've heard this sermon before."

Perhaps so, but I have seen too many brilliant and dedicated students who have learned to succeed in their other science classes by learning **lots of stuff**. So, they come into physics planning to memorize every equation they encounter and are completely overwhelmed. **You cannot succeed in physics by learning lots of stuff**. There are simply too many physics problems in the world; you cannot learn them all.

Instead, **you should learn as little as possible!*** More than any other science, physics is about fundamental principles, and those few principles[†] must be the focus of your attention. Identify and learn those fundamental principles and how to use them. Then you can **derive** whatever solution that you need. And that **process** of derivation is the **process** of science.

"OK, thanks for the advice for the class, but this is a lab!"

It's still about fundamental principles. Look, each week you will come to lab and do *lots of stuff*. By following the instructions and copying (. . . oh, I mean *sharing* . . .) a few answers from your lab partners, you can blunder through each lab just fine. The problem is that the following week you will have a quiz, and you will not remember everything you did in that lab the week before.

When you are doing each lab, consciously relate your experiments to the underlying principles.

How did I measure this? Which principle am I applying? Why are we doing this?

On the subsequent quiz, instead of having to **remember what you did**, you can apply the principles to **figure out what you did**. Trust me. It really is easier this way.

* . . . but not less.

† $F = ma$, conservation of energy and momentum, oscillations and waves, trigonometry. You will learn a few more in the second semester.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Physics is about the real world, not some idealized Platonic world that only exists in your head.* The purpose of this lab is to relate the theories and equations you are learning in the classroom to reality. Hopefully, we'll convince you that all that physics stuff actually does work. Of course, reality can be messy, and along the way you will learn to deal with experimental uncertainty, loose cables, bad sensors, sticky wheels, temperamental software, temperamental lab partners, your own awful handwriting, and the typos in this lab book.

Welcome to experimental physics!



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CORRELATION WITH LECTURE

Most of the topics covered in the lab will also be covered in your lecture, although not necessarily in the same sequence or at the same time during the semester. Given the scheduling (and re-scheduling) of the different lecture sections (some are MWF and some are TR), and the different lab sections (the first lab is Monday at 1 PM, the last is Thursday at 4 PM), *perfect correlation of lecture and lab topics is not possible*. The TA will provide a brief overview of the physics concept being explored in the lab during the first part of each lab section.

Occasionally, to improve the correlation with the lecture, the order of the labs may be changed from the sequence in this lab book. If so, you will be informed by your TA. **Check your email regularly.**

* That's the Mathematics Dept. Walk over to Bldg. 3.

PREPARATION

Prior to coming to lab, you should read over each experiment. Furthermore, for each laboratory, you must complete a *pre-lab* activity printed at the beginning of each lab in this manual. The pre-lab should be completed before the lab and turned in at the **beginning** of the lab. See the course syllabus for more details. In some labs, you may also be required to complete experimental predictions and enter them in your lab manual before you come to lab. Your TA will discuss this with you when necessary. Bring the following to each lab:

- Your complete lab manual secured in a 3-ring binder, including your previous graded labs.
- Your completed pre-lab.
- A scientific calculator. Graphing calculators are nice but not necessary. For some calculations, you may find a spreadsheet (such as Excel), Matlab, or some other computer based tools more appropriate. You are welcomed and encouraged to use such tools, but you still need a calculator.
- A pen, pencil and an eraser.

Often, the pre-lab includes online media for you to watch. Direct URL links are printed in the text, but clickable links may be found here:

<https://my.vanderbilt.edu/physicslabs/videos/>



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PROCEDURE IN THE LABORATORY

In the laboratory, you will need to be efficient in the use of your time. We encourage a free exchange of ideas between group members and among students in the section, and we expect you to share both in taking data and in operating the computer, but **you should do your own work (using your own words) in answering questions in the lab manual and on the review questions handed out in lab.**

HONOR CODE

The Vanderbilt Honor Code applies to all work done in this course. Violations of the Honor Code include, but are not limited to:

- Copying another student's answers on a pre-lab, lab questions, review questions, or quiz;
- Submitting data as your own when you were not involved in the acquisition of that data; and
- Copying data or answers from a prior term's lab (even from your own, in the event that you are repeating the course).

GRADING

Your lab reports will be graded each week and returned to you the following week. Grades (including lab and quiz grades) will be posted on Brightspace.

- ***Mistakes happen!*** Check that the scores on Brightspace are correct. If you don't do this, *no one will*.
- Retain your lab reports so that any such errors can be verified and corrected.
- Details of grading may be found on the online syllabus.

MAKING UP MISSED LABS

For details, I refer you to the syllabus (see below), but the main points are . . .

- **All** labs must be completed.
- If you know ahead of time that you will miss a lab, you must email both Dr. Charnock and your TA no later than the Friday before you will miss the lab.

forrest.t.charnock@vanderbilt.edu

In that email, include

- Your lab (1601L, 1602L, 1501L, or 1502L)
- Section number
- TA name
- A brief explanation of why you are missing lab.
- If arranging a make-up ahead of time is not possible, email us as soon as possible.
 - If you are abducted by aliens, whip out your phone and compose an email describing your predicament while the tractor beam is lifting you into the air. Make sure to hit SEND before the iris door closes or the message won't go out.* Update us on your situation as soon as you are returned to Devil's Tower.
- You must be pro-active in making up labs.
 - Do NOT passively wait for someone to tell you what to do.
 - If you do not receive a reply from Dr. Charnock within 24 hrs, ***email him again***. Repeat as necessary.†

* Aliens rarely share their Wi-Fi passwords.

† Luke 18:1-5

SYLLABUS: available online

<https://my.vanderbilt.edu/physicslabs/documents/>

The Greek Alphabet

The 26 letters of the Standard English alphabet do not supply enough variables for our algebraic needs. So, the sciences have adopted the Greek alphabet as well. You will have to learn it eventually, so go ahead and learn it now, particularly the lower case letters. (Just be glad you don't have to learn Cyrillic.)

Alpha	A	α
Beta	B	β
Gamma	Γ	γ
Delta	Δ	δ
Epsilon	E	ϵ
Zeta	Z	ζ
Eta	H	η
Theta	Θ	θ
Kappa	K	κ
Lambda	Λ	λ
Mu	M	μ
Nu	N	ν
Xi	Ξ	ξ
Omicron	O	\omicron
Pi	Π	π
Rho	P	ρ
Sigma	Σ	σ
Tau	T	τ
Upsilon	Y	υ
Phi	Φ	ϕ or φ
Chi	X	χ
Psi	Ψ	ψ
Omega	Ω	ω

Useful Physical Constants*

Speed of Light (exact)	c	$2.99792458 \times 10^8 \frac{m}{s}$
Elementary charge (exact) [†]	e	$1.602176634 \times 10^{-19} C$
Electron volt (exact) [†]	1 eV	$1.602176634 \times 10^{-19} J$
Plank's constant (exact) [†]	h	$6.62607015 \times 10^{-34} Js$
	$\hbar = h/2\pi$	$1.054571818 \times 10^{-34} Js$
Permeability of free space (exact)	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7} \frac{Wb}{Am}$
Permittivity of free space (exact)	$\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 c^2}$	$8.854187187187... \times 10^{-12} \frac{C^2}{Nm^2}$
Universal gravitational constant:		$G = 6.67408(31) \times 10^{-11} \frac{m^3}{kg s^2}$
Avogadro's Constant (exact) [†]	N_A	$6.02214076 \times 10^{23} mol^{-1}$
Boltzmann's Constant (exact) [†]	k	$1.380649 \times 10^{-23} J/K$
Universal gas constant	R	$8.3144598(48) \frac{J}{mol K}$
Absolute zero		$0 K = -273.15^\circ C$
Acceleration due to gravity at Vanderbilt [‡] :		$g = 9.7943(32) \frac{m}{s^2}$

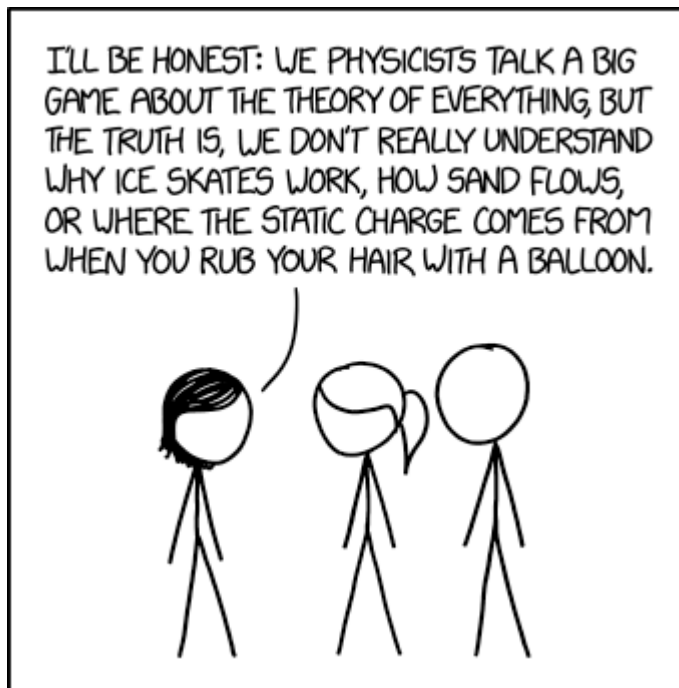
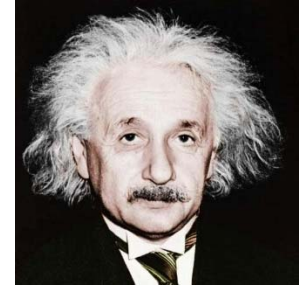
* Unless otherwise stated, values are from NIST (physics.nist.gov/cuu). The number in parentheses is the standard uncertainty of the final digits of the main number. For example, $6.67408 \pm 0.00031 = 6.67408 (31)$

[†] As of May 20, 2019, this exact value is adopted by the General Conference on Weights and Measures (GCWM)

[‡] Dr. Medford Webster, Vanderbilt University

For this first lab, you will need an efficient electrostatic generator. Fortunately, you probably have half of one conveniently located on top of your head. However, to work well, it needs to be very clean. So, before coming to this first lab, **please wash your hair using little or no conditioner** or styling products. The frizzier, the better.

This is by no means a requirement, but the lab will go more smoothly. And, it's quite the rage among natty physicists.



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Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____
TA _____ Section _____

Lab 1: Electrostatics

“Electricity is really just organized lightning.”
--George Carlin

Objective:

To understand electrostatic phenomena in terms of the basic physics of electric charges.
To experimentally distinguish positive and negative charges.
Properties of conductors and insulators.

Equipment:

Braun electroscope, polar electroscope, Faraday cage
Fur, Saran Wrap, two rubber balloons, tissue paper
Electrophorus

Introduction

Electrostatic theory, while profound, is quite simple. Many otherwise mysterious phenomena can be understood by applying a few simple principles:

1. Electrical charges come in two types: *positive* (+) and *negative* (-).
2. Like charges repel. Opposite charges attract.
3. Electrical charges cannot be created or destroyed, but may be separated and moved.
4. If an object is observed to be electrically neutral, equal amounts of + and – charges are present. If it is positively charged, a surplus of + charges are present. If it is negatively charged, it has a surplus of – charges.
5. There are two types of materials:
 - a. *Insulators*: electrical charges are frozen in place in the material.
 - b. *Conductors*: electrical charges may freely move throughout the volume of the object like a gas in a container.

Franklin himself thought of these charges arising from an excess or deficiency of a single electric fluid. Today, we understand the charges are due to particles of protons (+) and electrons (-). *Usually*, it is the electrons (that is, the negative charges) that move around; however, it is often useful to think of positive charges moving as well. A negative charge moving to the left is equivalent to a positive charge moving to the right.

Triboelectricity

First, you must move some electrons around to produce a net electric charge. You can do this with the *triboelectric effect*.*

6. Vigorously rub an inflated balloon with your over dry, frizzy, unconditioned hair.†



Fig 1

7. Tear off a few small pieces of tissue paper. Hold the balloon next to the chaff and observe the effect.
8. Touch the balloon to the electroscopes and observe the effect.

Some materials (such as hair) have a slight tendency to give up electrons. Other materials (such as rubber) tend to pick up a few extra electrons. Hence, if you rub a balloon with hair, electrons will be transferred, and a net electric charge will appear on each. When Ben Franklin did this, he declared the hair to have a “positive” charge and the rubber to have a “negative” charge.‡ Today, following Franklin’s convention, we declare electrons to have a negative charge.

The Triboelectric Series ranks different materials by their tendency to give up or absorb electrons.

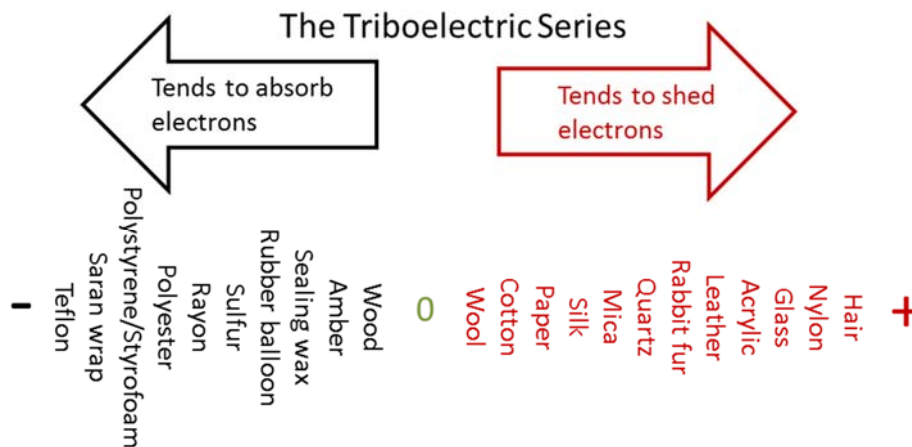


Fig 2

* *Tribo* is from the Greek term for rubbing.

† If you are follicly challenged, use the fur.

‡ An unfortunate choice in retrospect. Electrical currents would be a little more intuitive if Franklin had declared the rubber (and hence, electrons) to be positive.

For any two materials brought in contact, you can estimate the sign and relative strength of the triboelectric effect by the relative position of materials on the series. For instance, hair is to the right of rubber on the series; hence, when rubbed against rubber, hair will acquire a positive charge. Rub hair against hair and nothing happens.

9. If hair is rubbed against Styrofoam, would you expect a stronger or weaker effect? What type of charge would appear on the Styrofoam? What charge on the hair?

10. What would be the sign of the charges on each of the following items if they were rubbed against each other:

a. Cotton _____ + Nylon _____

b. Fur _____ + Rubber _____

11. From Fig. 2, do artificial fabrics tend to be more or less more prone to static cling? Explain.

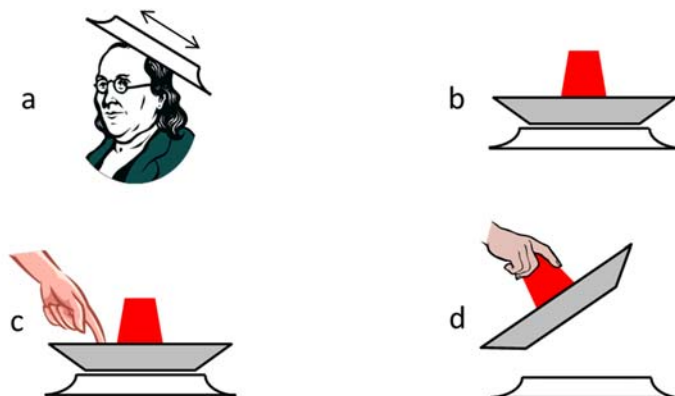
12. Charge two balloons by rubbing them with hair or fur. What is the charge on these balloons? Observe and describe the force between the balloons.

13. Re-charge one of the balloons by rubbing it with Saran wrap. What is the charge on this balloon? Observe and describe the force between it and the balloon charged using hair.

14. Charge the Styrofoam plate by rubbing it with your hair. Observe and describe the force between the Styrofoam and the negatively charged balloon. What is the charge on the Styrofoam?

The Electrophorus and Electrostatic Induction

The electrophorus is a simple device for easily generating and transferring electrostatic charges. It consists of an insulating plate (the Styrofoam plate) and a conductive plate (the aluminum pie pan) with an insulated handle.* The cartoon below illustrates how to use the electrophorus to charge the metal plate. Initially, the aluminum plate is uncharged.



Charging an electrophorus

Fig 3

- Rub the **underside** of the Styrofoam plate with an appropriate material[†] to produce a large negative charge on the plate.
- Place metal plate on top.
- Touch the metal plate to remove excess charge.
- Remove the metal plate with the insulated handle.

Notice that charge cannot move from the Styrofoam to the aluminum.

- Experimentally determine the charge on the aluminum plate. Describe your procedure, and explain your reasoning.

* We use the term *electrophorus* because that sounds much more impressive than *picnic supplies*.

[†] Refer to the triboelectric series above.

16. Now, determine exactly how the aluminum plate is charged. Initially, the aluminum plate has no charge.

a. After the aluminum is placed on the Styrofoam, what is the net charge on the aluminum?

b. How are the + and – charges on the aluminum distributed?

c. What happens when you touch the aluminum?

17. For each step, add + and – symbols to the cartoons in Fig. 3 to illustrate the distribution of charges on the plates. Discuss these distributions with your lab partners and finally with your TA

Charging an Electroscope by Contact

Static charges on insulators are *sticky*, that is these charges do not easily move to other objects. Static charges on conductors are much more promiscuous.

An electroscope is used to detect an electric charge. By tapping an electroscope with charged aluminum plate, charge will move from the plate to the electroscope.

You will be using several different electroscopes. While the Braun electroscope is more sensitive to small charges, its reaction time is slow due to the relatively large mass of its needle. Be patient with it. The others react more quickly, but may be less sensitive.

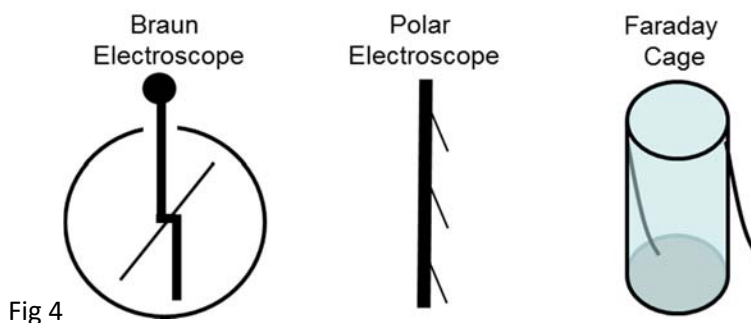


Fig 4

18. Verify that there is no charge on each device by touching them with your finger. This is called *grounding* the device. Any excess charge on the device will dissipate through your body to the ground.*
19. After charging the aluminum plate, touch the aluminum plate to the each of the electroscopes, and then remove the plate. Using the principles above, explain why is the needle or foil leaves deflected?

* The human body is essentially a bag of salt water and therefore a fairly good conductor.

24. Bring the charged Styrofoam plate close, but not touching, to the top of the charged electroscope. Describe the effect this has on each of the foil leaves. Illustrate your results and explain your observations using the principles listed at the beginning of this lab.

The Faraday Cage

25. Touch the Faraday cage to verify that it is discharged.
26. Recharge the electrophorus
27. Transfer three doses of charge from the electrophorus to the Faraday cage. Describe the effect on both of the foil leaves. (Note that there is a leaf inside the can.)

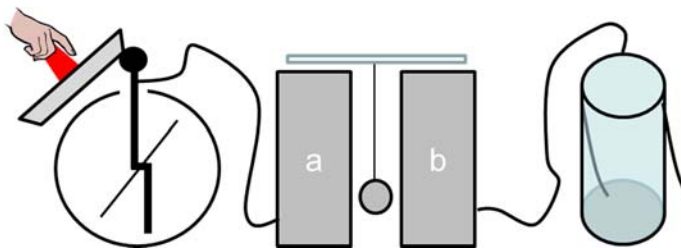
28. Exactly where on the cage does the charge reside? Applying the principles above, think of an intuitive explanation for this and discuss it with your TA.

29. What is the electric field inside the cage?

30. Have one member of your group wrap a cell phone with foil. Have another member make a call to the wrapped phone. Explain the result.

Franklin's Bells

31. Attach an electroscope to each side of the Franklin Bells (that is, the soda cans) as shown below. Each bell should be about 0.5 cm from the clapper. Ground each electroscope to ensure the system is neutral.



32. Using the electrophorus, transfer enough charge to the electroscope for the bells to start ringing.
33. When the motion stops, briefly ground one of the electroscopes with your finger.
34. Using the principles from the introduction, explain what you observed.*

* With one bell attached to a lightning rod and the other grounded, Franklin used his bells to detect approaching electrical storms; thus letting him know when he could perform his experiments. His bells are illustrated on the cover of this lab book.

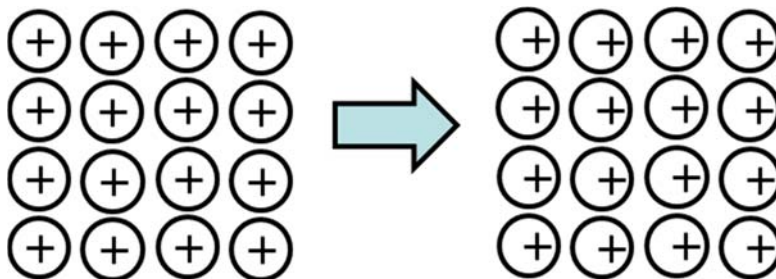
“I was one night awaked by loud cracks on the staircase. . . I perceived that the brass ball, instead of vibrating as usual between the bells, was repelled and kept at a distance from both; while the fire passed, sometimes in very large, quick cracks from bell to bell, and sometimes in a continued, dense, white stream, seemingly as large as my finger, whereby the whole staircase was inlightened (sic) as with sunshine”

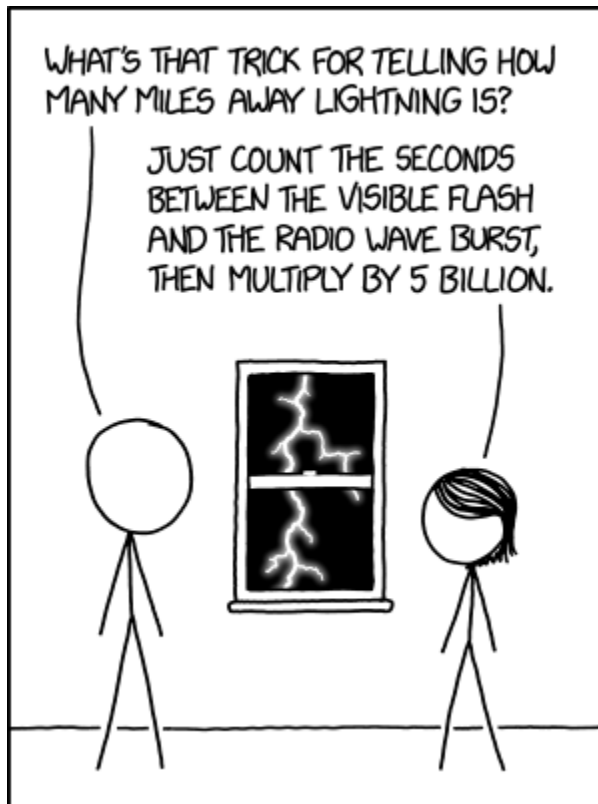
Wisely, Franklin also invented fire insurance.

Induced Polarization of Insulators

35. Charge the electrophorus.
36. Hold metal plate close to, but not touching, the hanging wooden dowel.
37. Hold the insulating plate close to, but not touching, the hanging wooden dowel.
38. Describe the effects below.

Even though electrical charges are not free to move through the insulating wood (unlike a conductor), the wood can still be slightly polarized. Model each atom in the wood as a positive nucleus surrounded by a negative shell of electrons. In the presence of an external electric field, the electrons will be slightly pulled one way and the nuclei are pulled the other way. This polarizes each atom, and hence the entire object, by having just a little more positive charge on one side, and a little more negative charge on the other.





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Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

TA _____ Section _____

Lab 2: Geometric Optics – Reflection and Refraction

*All that is now
All that is gone
All that's to come
and everything under the sun is in tune
but the sun is eclipsed by the moon.*

--Pink Floyd, Dark Side of the Moon

Objectives

To understand Snell's law, reflection, refraction, and total internal reflection

Equipment

2 equilateral prisms

1 right angle glass prism

1 right angle acrylic prism

Light box

Clear plastic cup half filled

Aluminum block

Protractor and ruler

Paper towels

Introduction

Waves may travel at different speeds in different media. When a wave travels from one medium into another with different wave speeds, two things will occur:

1. Part of the wave will *reflect* off the interface. The reflected angle is equal to the incident angle.

$$\theta_i = \theta_r \quad (1)$$

2. Part of the wave will transmit into the 2nd medium, but its direction of travel will be bent or *refracted*. The angle of the transmitted wave is given by Snell's Law

$$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_t} = \frac{v_i}{v_t} \quad (2)$$

where v_i and v_t are the speeds of the incident and transmitted waves.

This is true of all waves: sound waves, light waves, tsunamis, . . . *any kind of wave*.

When dealing with light waves, we define a value called the *index of refraction*:

$$n \equiv \frac{c}{v}, \quad (3)$$

Where v is the velocity of light in a particular material, and c is the velocity of light in a vacuum $\left(2.998 \times 10^8 \frac{m}{s}\right)$. Hence, we can write Snell's Law as

$$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \theta_t} = \frac{n_t}{n_i} \quad (4)$$

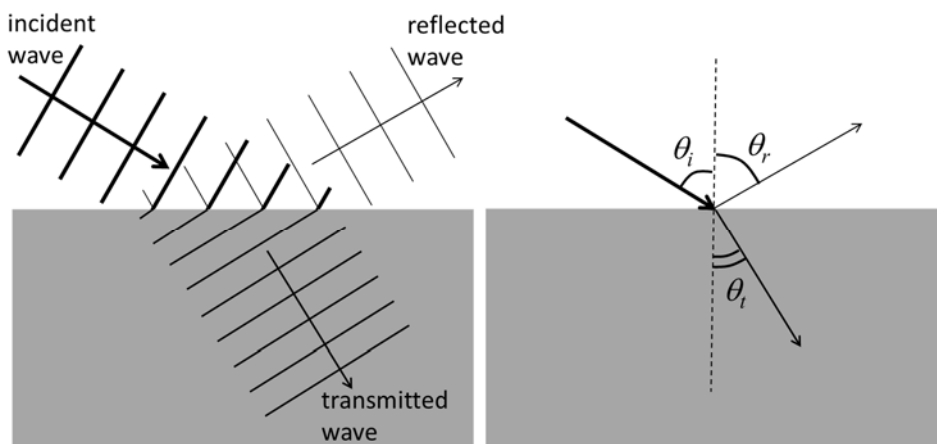


Figure 1

Exercise 1: Reflection and Refraction

1. Place the semi-circle of glass on the printed protractor. Adjust the light box so that a single beam of light is produced. Shine the beam on the center of the flat surface with the incident angle θ_i (listed in Table 1A) and measure the corresponding reflected θ_r and transmitted θ_t angles. (See Figure 2.) Fill in Table 1A below.
2. Next, reverse the semi-circle as illustrated in Figure 2B. Again, Measure the angles and fill in Table 1B below.

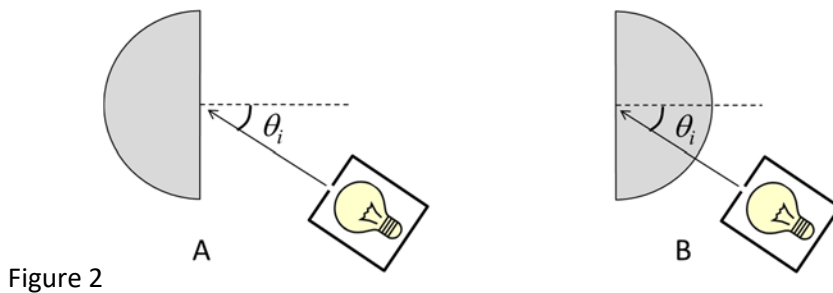
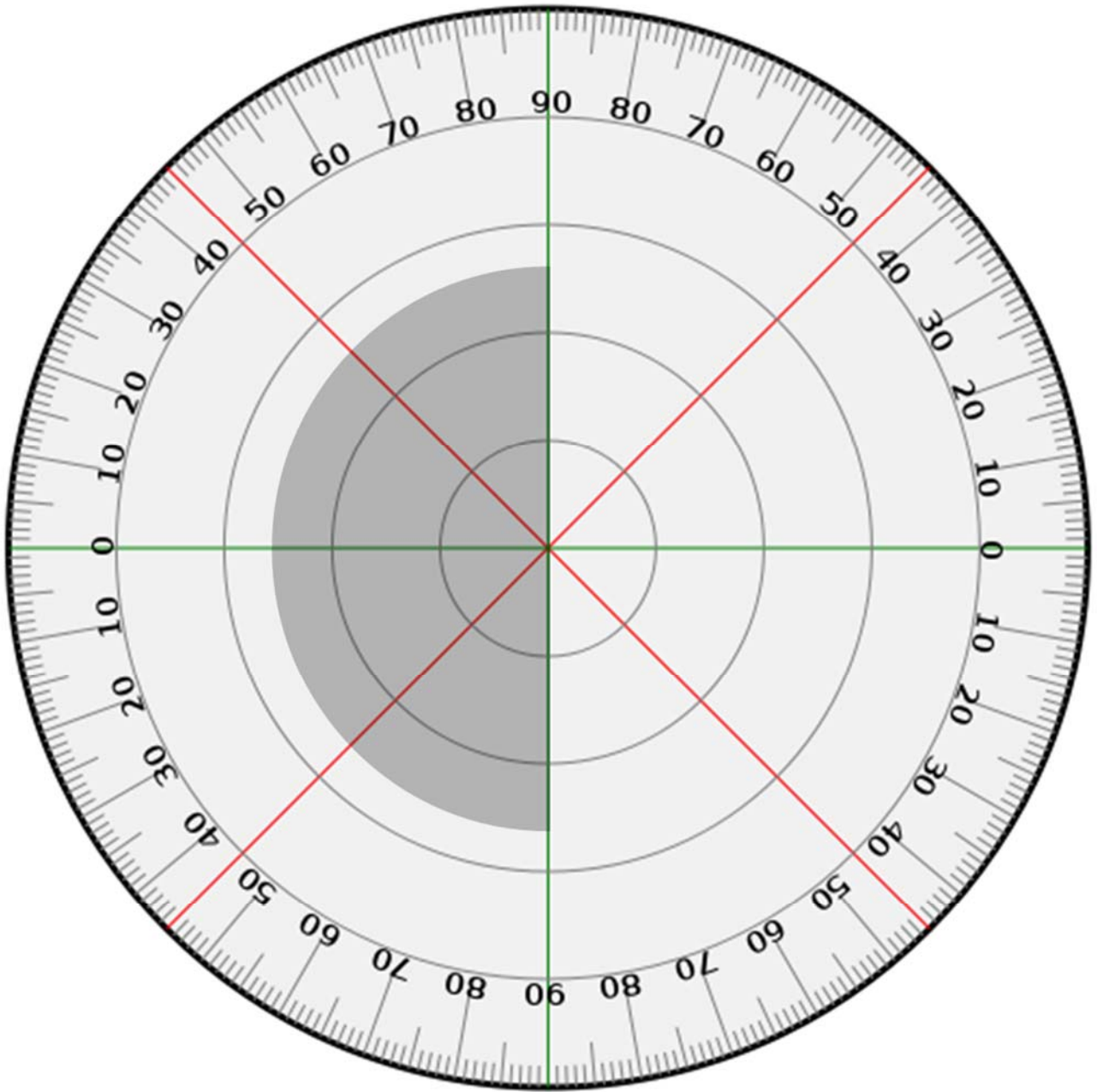


Figure 2



- Using Excel, plot $\sin(\theta_i)$ vs. $\sin(\theta_r)$ for both tables. From this plot, determine the index of refraction of glass.

- You will notice that light may be bent toward the normal or away from the normal. (See the figure below.) What determines the direction?

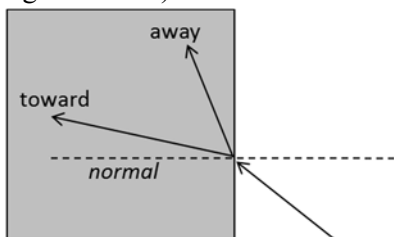


Figure 3

For some of your measurements, there was no transmitted light beyond a particular angle. Instead, all of the light is reflected off the interface. This condition is called *total internal reflection* and occurs because the transmitted angle θ_t cannot be larger than 90° . The minimum incident angle at which this occurs is called the *critical angle* θ_c .

- Carefully measure the critical angle of glass.
- At the critical angle, what is the transmitted angle θ_t ?

7. What are the required conditions for total internal reflection?
 - a. Explain in English:
 - b. Derive an expression for θ_c .

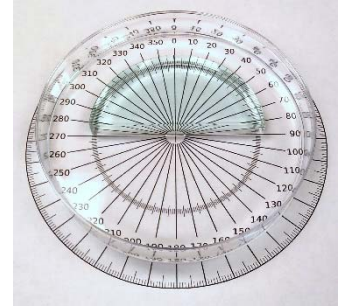
8. Similarly use the water lens to measure the index of refraction for water via multiple refractions and the critical angle.



9. Compare your value for the index of refraction of water to the accepted value.

Snell's Law still applies if the glass block is placed in water.

10. Submerge the glass block in the water. Measure the critical angle of the glass / water interface.



11. From this, calculate the index of refraction of water. Compare your result with the commonly accepted value.

θ_i	θ_t	$\sin(\theta_i)$	$\sin(\theta_t)$
0°			
10°			
20°			
30°			
40°			
50°			
60°			
70°			
80°			

Table 1A: Air to glass

θ_i	θ_t	$\sin(\theta_i)$	$\sin(\theta_t)$
0°			
10°			
20°			
30°			
40°			
50°			
60°			
70°			
80°			

Table 1B: glass to Air

Exercise 2: A glass of water

You should find a clear plastic cup on the table. The bottom of the cup is painted white.

12. Fill half with water, and place it on the black surface of the table.
13. Looking straight down into the cup, observe the reflections on the side.
14. Place a dry finger against the side of the cup and observe the effect on the reflection.
15. Place a wet finger against the side of the cup and observe the effect on the reflection.
16. Describe the phenomenon, then write a complete explanation of the phenomenon.



Figure 4

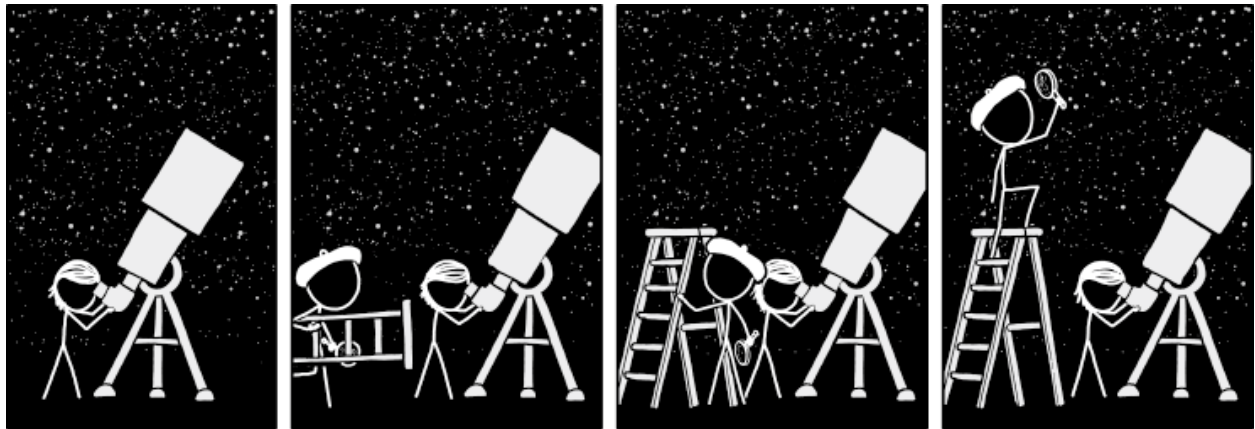
Exercise 3: Dispersion

17. Using Google, study the cover art for Pink Floyd's *The Dark Side of the Moon*. Then, attempt to reproduce it with an equilateral prism.* Which color is bent the most? The least?
18. What does this imply about the speed of light and the index of refraction of the different colors in glass? Which color is the fastest? Slowest?
19. Using a 2nd prism, can you recombine the colors? Can you separate them more?

* This is best done while humming *The Great Gig in the Sky*.

20. Position the aluminum block after the 1st prism so that only red light can pass. Then send the single color through the 2nd prism. Does the 2nd prism have any effect on the color or dispersion of the red beam? How about blue light?





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Lab 3: Geometric Optics – Lenses

" . . . it is not yet twenty years since there was found the art of making eyeglasses which make for good vision, one of the best arts and most necessary that the world has."

--Giordano da Rivalto of St. Catherine's Monastery, 1306

Objectives:

To understand the basic properties of lenses: focal length and aperture.

To apply the rules of ray optics to understand imaging and the effects of combining lenses.

Equipment

Mounted Lenses: 20 cm, 10 cm, -15 cm	Un-mounted Lenses
Optical track	Screen
Light box with power supply	Aperture card
Meter stick and ruler	white/red bulb pair
Flat lenses	

Introduction

With geometric optics, we treat light as rays which travel in straight lines until they . . .

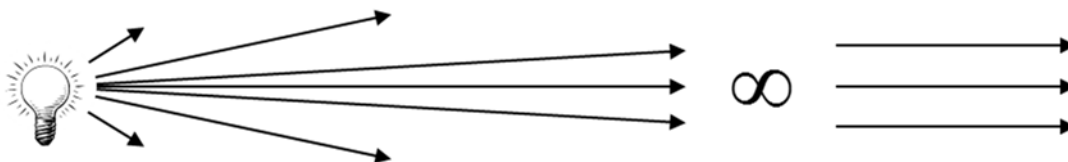
- reflect off a surface (angle of reflection = angle of incidence), or
- refract at an interface (Snell's Law).*

The wave-like properties of interference and diffraction are ignored. This is equivalent to saying that your optical elements (mirrors, lenses, apertures[†], *etc.*) are much larger than the wavelength of light.

* In principle, you could design a telescope with nothing but a straight edge, a protractor, and a *really* sharp pencil.

† An aperture is the opening through which light can pass.

As light rays move further from a point source, they diverge from their neighboring rays. However, at large distances the rays diverge slowly, and they become more parallel. As the range approaches infinity, the rays become perfectly parallel.



With a lens, we can modify the direction of these rays to create one of two devices

1. A camera.
2. An eyepiece (such as a magnifying glass).

Focal Length

Consider Figure 1 below. A set of parallel beams are bent in different directions depending on the incident angle of the glass.

Consider Figure 2 below. If we curved the surface of the glass *just right*, all of the parallel rays will be bent toward a single **focal point**. This is a **convex** or **positive lens**.

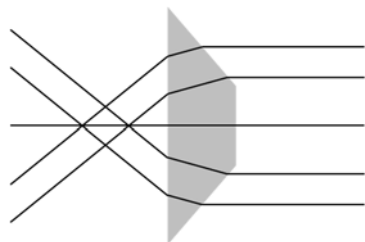


Fig. 1

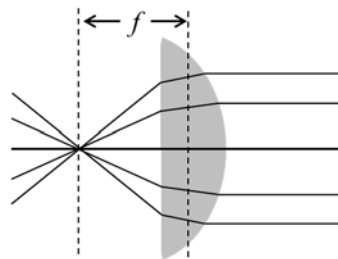
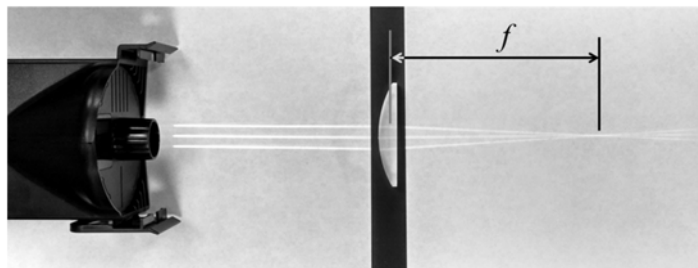


Fig. 2

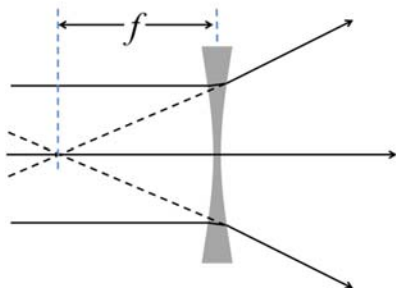
The distance from the lens to the focal point of the parallel rays is the **focal length** f of the lens.

Exercise 1: Focal length



A **concave** (or **negative**) **lens** diverges the light rays. We measure the focal length of such lenses by tracing the rays backward to the point where they appear to come to a focus. We define such a focal length to be negative.

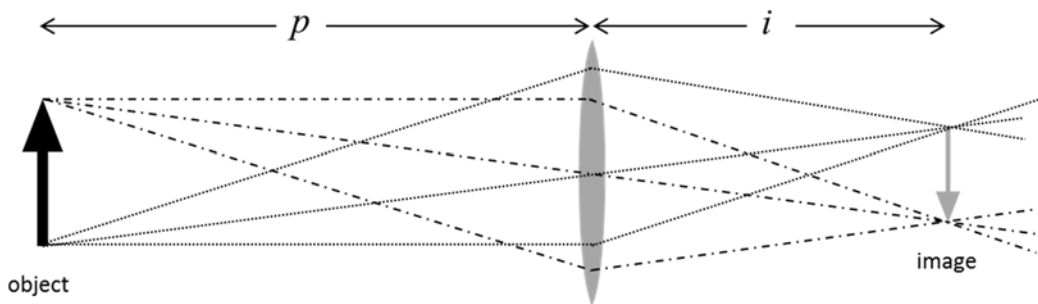
d. Measure the focal length of the concave lens.



Note: Throughout this lab, we will apply the **thin lens approximation**: *The thickness of the lens is much less than the focal length.* Most of the errors you will find in your calculations arise from the shortcomings of this approximation.

Imaging

A focused image is formed when light rays from each point on an object converge at a corresponding point on the image. This is called a **real image**, as the light rays *really* do converge at a point in space.



Note in the middle of the lens, the glass is flat. Hence, rays passing through the center of the lens are not deflected. The position of the object and image are given by the *Lens Equation*:

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{i} \quad (1)$$

Exercise 3: Imaging

You will first image a “distant” object.

1. Attach the screen and the 10 cm lens to the track.



2. Project an image of *your neighbor's computer screen* on the opposite side of the lab. Describe the orientation of the image.

3. Measure the image distance and the size of the image.

4. How does the image distance compare to the focal length? Explain.

5. Replace the lens with the 20 cm lens.
6. Measure the image distance and size. How does the size of the image scale with focal length?

- Replace the lens with the -15 cm lens. Describe and explain your observations.

Now, you will image a nearby object.

- Assemble the object (light box), 20 cm lens, and screen on the track as shown below.



- Measure the object p and image i distances and calculate the focal length f . Enter the data onto Table 1 below.
- Calculate the magnification $\left(M \equiv \frac{\text{image height}}{\text{object height}} \right)$ of the object and record the result in the table. Mathematically, how does the magnification relate to p and i found above?
- With the object and screen fixed, move the lens to locate another point on the track where a focused image is formed. Again, record the results in the table. How do the image and object distances for this case relate to the previous focal position?

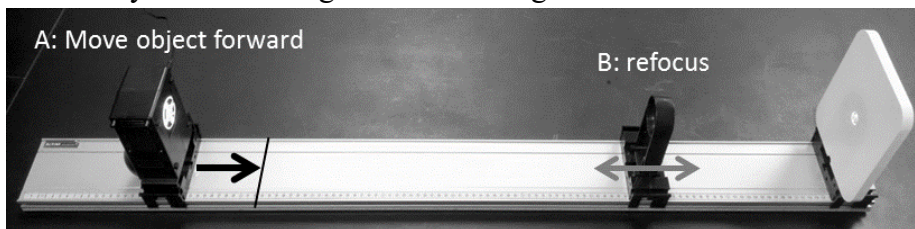
Table 1: 20 cm lens, fixed object

	p	i	M
Position 1			
Position 2			

Exercise 4: Changing the object distance

Continue using the 20 cm lens.

12. In approximately 5 cm increments, move the object forward, refocus, and record p and i . Continue until you can no longer focus an image.



13. Find the closest possible screen\object distance and record the result.
14. Create a scatter plot from the data points and print the result. Include all image distances from the **very distant object** (your neighbor’s screen) to the **closest possible focus**. On the printout, annotate the plot noting the extremes of distant and close imaging. How far have you moved the lens?

Exercise 5: Changing the aperture

15. Place the object 30 cm from the end of the track. With the lens relatively close to the screen, focus the image.
16. Move the object back and forth to note the range over which the object can move while remaining in focus. This range is called the *depth of field*. Record the result in Table 2 below.



17. With the aperture card (the card with the holes), cover the lens with the largest hole. Again, measure the depth of field and record the result. Repeat with the other holes.

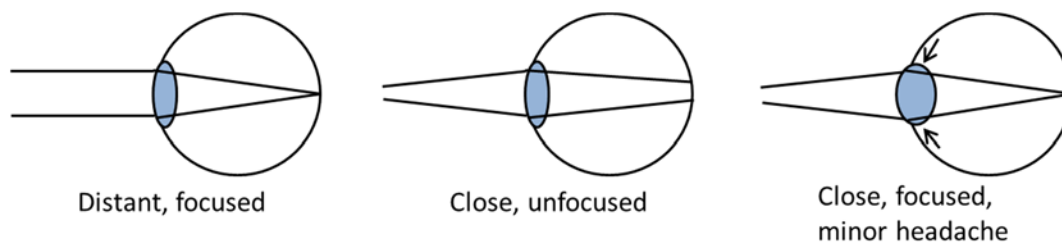
Table 2: Changing the aperture

	Near focus	Far focus	Difference
No masking			
Large aperture			
Middle aperture			
Small aperture			

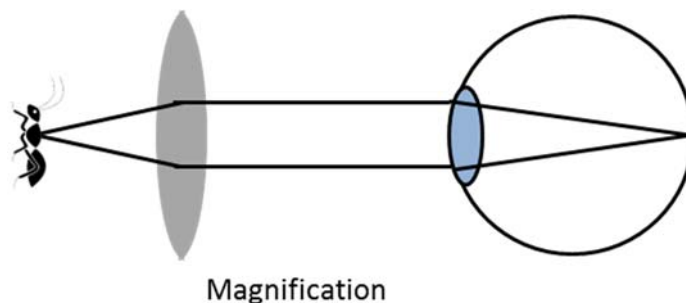
18. Now, remove the lens and form an image with just the aperture. This is a **pinhole camera**. Describe the result with the different apertures. What does this mean about the focal length of a pinhole? Describe the depth of field of a pinhole camera? How are these related?

Exercise 6: The magnifying lens.

If you want to magnify some object, the simplest thing to do is bring it closer to your eye. (*Well, duhh!*) However, get too close and we run into a problem. A normal, relaxed human eye will focus on distant objects. That is, it will bring parallel light rays to a point on the retina (the back of the eyeball). To focus on close objects, muscles in the eye squeeze on the lens to shorten the focal length.



Of course, you can only squeeze your lens so much. A magnifying lens works by bending the rays from a nearby object so they are parallel. The relaxed eye can focus these parallel rays as though the object were infinitely distant.



19. Hold the 10 cm lens directly in front of your eye and observe this text. How close to the text must you hold the lens?



20. Repeat with the 20 cm lens. Which lens makes things look bigger? Why?

Exercise 7: Combining lenses and Eyeglasses

21. Position the 10 and 20 cm lenses side by side. What is the effective focal length of the combined lenses?



22. Position the 10 and -15 cm lenses side by side. What is the effective focal length of the combined lenses?

A person with myopia (near-sightedness) can only focus on nearby objects. Distant objects remain blurry.

23. Is the focal length of his too long or too short? Explain.

24. What type of eyeglass lens could correct myopia?

25. A person with hyperopia (far-sightedness) cannot focus on nearby objects. What's wrong with the lens, and what type of eyeglass could correct for it?

26. Is Dr. Charnock myopic or hyperopic? Explain your reasoning. Verify your reasoning with an experiment.





WE WERE GOING TO USE THE TIME MACHINE TO PREVENT THE ROBOT APOCALYPSE, BUT THE GUY WHO BUILT IT WAS AN ELECTRICAL ENGINEER.

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Lab 4: Building and Analyzing Simple Circuits I

“Ben Franklin may have discovered electricity – but it is the man who invented the meter who made the money.”

-- Justice Earl Warren

Objective:

To learn how to build simple circuits and analyze them with a multimeter.

To get the xkcd joke above.

Equipment:

2 multimeters

Vernier circuit board

Two batteries

Two battery holders

Handful of banana cables

Package of alligator jumpers

Introduction





The simplest electronic circuits contain three measurable parameters.

1. **Potential (V)**, measured in **Volts (V)**. Potential can be naively understood as the electrical pressure that pushes charges through the circuit.
2. **Current (I)**, measured in Coulombs/second or **Amperes (A)**. Current measures the rate at which charges move through the circuit.
3. **Resistance (R)**, measured in **Ohms (Ω)**. It measured how strongly particular circuit elements resist the flow of charge. An ideal conductor has zero resistance. An ideal insulator has infinite resistance. Resistance is defined by the expression:

$$R \equiv \frac{V}{I} \quad (1)$$

Note: This is the definition of resistance. This is not Ohm's law. That will be defined later.

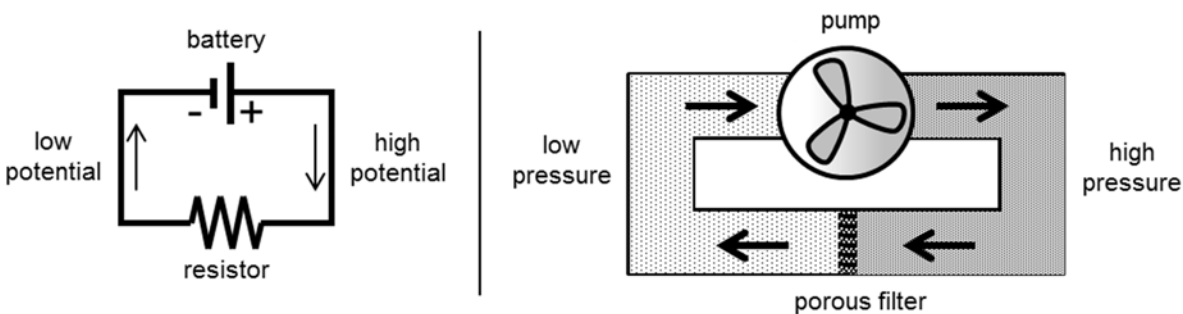
In this lab, you will assemble and analyze some very simple circuits using only the following elements:

- A conductive wire. For our purposes, the resistance of a wire is essentially zero.
-  A resistor.
-  A battery or dc voltage source. The long line indicates the positive side of the battery.
-  A switch.
-  Ground.

We will also define symbols for a voltmeter \textcircled{V} , ammeter \textcircled{A} , and ohmmeter $\textcircled{\Omega}$ since these may also be included in circuit diagrams.

A simple loop

The simplest possible electric circuit contains three elements: a battery, conductive wires, and a resistor.

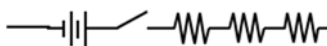


A useful analogy to this circuit is a hydraulic system. The pipes represent the wires, the pump the battery, and a dense filter the resistor. The flowing water is analogous to the electric current.* Much as a pump produces the pressure to push the water through the filter, the battery produces the potential to push the current through the resistor. Even as the water in the pipes does not disappear but returns to the pump, whatever current flows out of the battery must flow back in.

This analogy applies to more complicated circuits as well. Keep it in mind as you work with circuits in this and future labs.

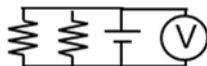
Series and Parallel design

In a series design, the circuit elements are placed one after the other along the wire. For example, below we have 2 batteries, a switch, and 3 resistors arranged in series:

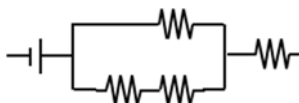


* Note that I speak of the current, not the electrons. Electrons, being negative, move in the opposite direction of the current. You can blame Ben Franklin for this absurdity.

In parallel design, the ends of each element are connected to the same two wires. Below, we elements arranged in parallel:



However, circuits will not always fit neatly into these two categories. For example:



We will deal with such circuits later in the semester.

The Multimeter

The Digital Multi-Meter (DMM) is *the* go-to device for measuring the important properties of almost any electrical circuit, whether it's a motherboard for the latest super-computer or an old string of Xmas lights. Generally, they can measure **voltage** (ac or dc), **current** (ac or dc), **resistance** and **continuity***. Depending on the particular model, other quantities may also be measured such as: capacitance, frequency, inductance, temperature, diode tester, transistor tester, battery tester, alien life detector†, . . . Basically, anything that strikes the fancy of the meter's designer (and the wallet of the purchaser).

Our DMM's are very well engineered devices that are designed to withstand common abuse without failing and uncommon abuse without failing catastrophically. So, be careful with these meters, but don't be paranoid.

Activity 1: Measuring Potential, the Voltmeter

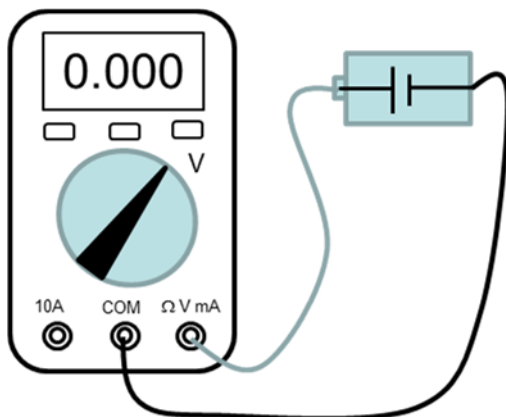
In class, you have learned how electric fields create the forces that cause charged particles to move. However, in practice one rarely actually measures the electric field. Instead we measure the **electric potential** (also called **voltage**). You will study the theory explaining potential in your class and how this relates to the field. For now, we will naively define potential as the pressure on charged particles which causes them to flow.

There are many sources of electric potential: an electrical generator, a solar cell, even a charged rubber comb. But the easiest source to think about is a battery $\neg \text{---} | \text{---}$.

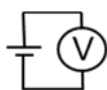
1. Turn the dial to the constant voltage setting **V_{DC}**.
2. Plug the black test lead into the **COM** jack. Plug the red lead into the **V** jack.

* We will define continuity in a bit.

† No, wait. That last one is only on a tricorder. I get them confused sometimes.



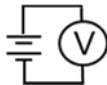
3. Insert batteries into the individual battery holders. By placing the probe leads to the ends of each battery, measure the potential of each.



Battery 1: _____ Battery 2: _____

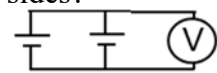
Electric potential is always a relative measurement. One does not measure the absolute potential of some point a , but rather the difference in potential between point a and some other point b . Thus, *a voltmeter is placed in parallel with the circuit element* whose potential you wish to measure. *A voltmeter's resistance is practically infinite*, and very little current moves through it. Note what happens when you reverse the leads.

4. Attach the batteries in series. What is the potential across the pair of batteries?



Potential in series = _____

5. Attach the batteries in parallel. What is the potential between the positive and negative sides?



Potential in parallel = _____

Note: As long as the resistance of a wire is negligible, the potential everywhere along a single wire will be constant.

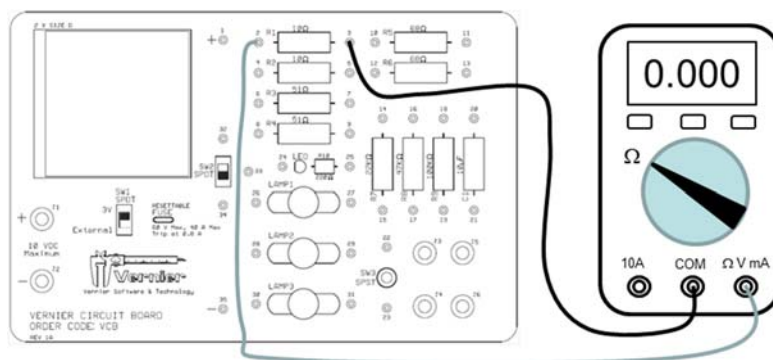
Activity 2: Measuring Resistance, the Ohm Meter

Electrical resistance is a kind of friction inhibiting the flow of charge.

6. Plug the black test lead into the COM jack. Plug the red lead into the Ω jack.
7. Turn the dial to Ω to select the Ohm Meter.



Multiple functions are buried under this switch position. To change the selected function, press the MODE button.



8. Touch the leads to each side of R1 on the circuit board. Verify that the resistance is 10Ω .
9. Do the same with R5 and R7.

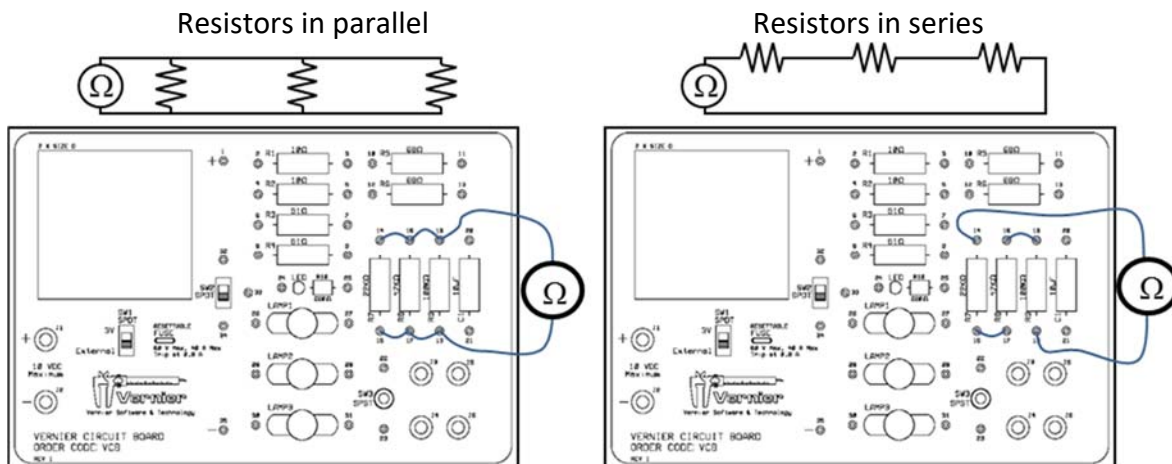
The Ohm Meter works by applying a known voltage to the leads and measuring the resulting current: $R=V/I$. For this to work, ***the resistor you are measuring must be isolated from the rest of the circuit.*** If an external voltage is applied to the leads, you will not get a correct reading (and you *might* damage the meter).

Continuity

10. With the dial on the Ω setting, press the mode button until a \bullet) appears.
11. Touch the leads together. You should hear a buzz, and the displayed resistance should be nearly zero.
12. Touch the leads to each end of a single wire.
13. Touch the leads across a 10Ω resistor.
14. Touch the leads across a 51Ω resistor.

This is the continuity test, a variation on the Ohm Meter setting. As long as the resistance between the two probes is $<40\Omega$, it will buzz. This is a great way to see if your

wires are actually connected or is there a break somewhere in the middle. This is arguably the single most useful feature on a multimeter.*



Resistors in series

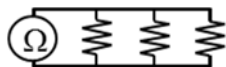
15. Using the wires provided, place R7, R8, and R9 in series. Reference the figure above. Measure the combined resistance.

Resistance = _____

16. What is the effective resistance of several resistors in series?

Resistors in Parallel

17. Using the wires provided, place R7, R8, and R9 in parallel. Reference the figure above. Measure the resistance.



Resistance = _____

* Wondering if a fuse is blown? Is this light bulb any good? This is the setting you want.

18. Now place R7 and R8 in parallel. Measure the resistance.



Resistance = _____

19. **Qualitatively**, how does the effective resistance of resistors in parallel differ from resistors in series?

Activity 4: Measuring Current, the Ammeter

The algebraic symbol used for current is I .^{*} The current setting on your meter is marked with an **A**. Note that your meter has settings for measuring different magnitudes of current:

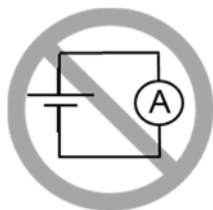
μA : measures up to 4000 μA , uses the right jack.

mA : measures up to 400 mA , uses the right jack.

10A : measures up to 10 A , uses the left jack.

To measure current, *an ammeter must be placed in series with the element* whose current you wish to measure. Since the ammeter itself must not affect the current being measured, *the resistance of the ammeter is nearly zero*.

CAUTION! If you touch the probes of an ammeter directly across a battery or power supply, the resulting current surge would likely blow a fuse and possibly damage the meter.

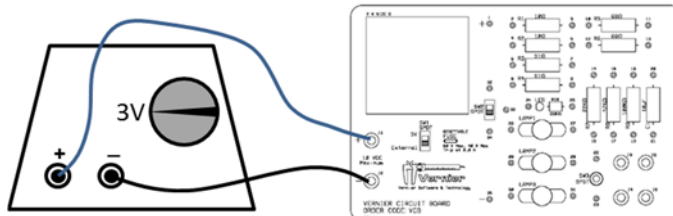


Note: Always start your current measurements using the 10A jack. If the measured current is safely below 400 mA , you may *then* move to the **$\text{mA}/\mu\text{A}$** jack for more accurate measurements.

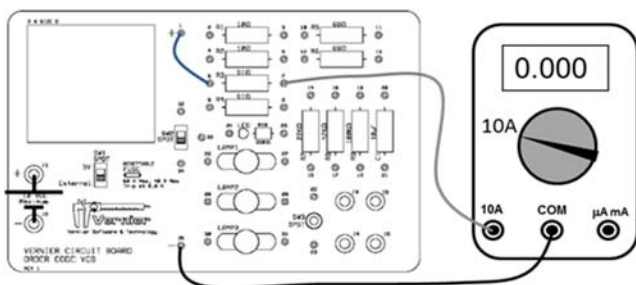
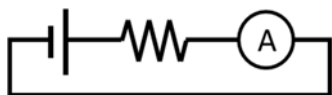
Don't let the smoke out of the meter!

^{*} . . . because *that* makes perfect sense.

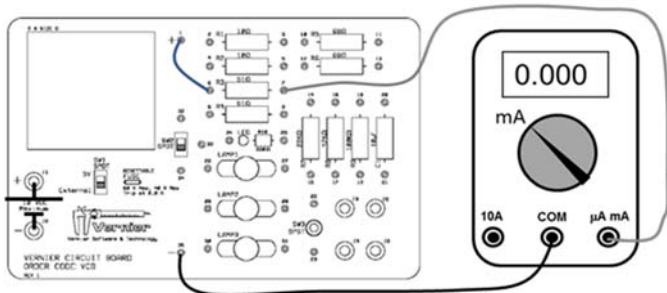
20. Verify that the power supply is set to 3V. Connect the color coded wires to the Vernier Circuit Board. The switch SW1 should be set to External.



21. Construct the following circuit using a $51\ \Omega$ resistor. Refer to the above figure. Measure the resulting current.



To measure current without risk of damaging the meter, first measure the current with the 10 A jack.



If the current is safely below 400 mA, then move to the mA/ μ A jack for a more accurate measurement.

Measured Current = _____

22. Reverse the plugs going into the **COM** and **mA** jacks. Measure the resulting current.

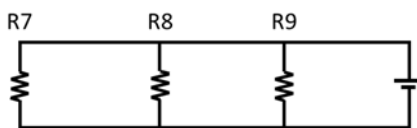
Measured Current = _____

Current flowing out of the **COM** jack is positive. Current flowing in to the **COM** jack is negative.

Activity 5: Bringing it all together

23. With the ohmmeter, verify the resistances of R7, R8, and R9.

R7 = _____ R8 = _____ R9 = _____



24. Construct the following circuit.

25. With a voltmeter, measure the potential across the power supply, and then measure the potential across each resistor.

$V_{\text{power supply}} =$ _____ $V_{R7} =$ _____

$V_{R8} =$ _____ $V_{R9} =$ _____

26. Construct the following circuit.

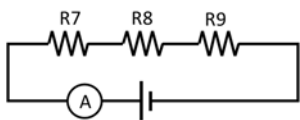


27. Measure the potential across R7, R8, and R9.

$V7 =$ _____ $V8 =$ _____ $V9 =$ _____

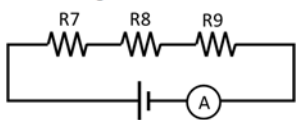
28. How do these potentials relate to the potential of the power supply?

29. Measure the current coming out of the power supply.



$I(\text{out}) =$ _____

30. Moving the ammeter, measure the current flowing into the power supply.



$I(\text{in}) =$ _____

31. Measure the current between the resistors. How are all of these currents related?

32. Using the definition of resistance and the measured voltages, calculate the expected current through each resistor.

$$I_7 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \quad I_8 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \quad I_9 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

Activity 6: Grounding

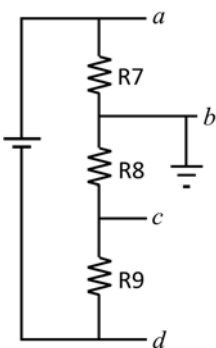
While potential is always a relative measurement, it is useful to define a point of zero potential for a circuit. This point is called the **ground**. Exactly where we define the ground to be is arbitrary.* One may select a particular wire in the device, the metal frame of the device (a chassis ground)[†], or a metal rod driven deeply into the earth (an earth ground).[‡] If a circuit element is not somehow connected to ground (either directly or through a resistor), it is said to be “floating”.

Note: The third socket of a standard North American electrical outlet is connected to a metal rod driven deeply into the earth.



For the circuit in the previous activity, declare *ground* to be the point between R7 and R8.

- a. Connect the **COM** (or ground) probe of your multimeter at point *b*. Then measure the potential at points *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d*. **Note the sign of the voltage!**



* Similarly, the zero for gravitational potential energy is arbitrary.

[†] For example, the structural frame of your car is the ground for your radio.

[‡] By convention, grounding wires are green or bare, positive wires are red, negative wires are black.

$V(a) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(b) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(c) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(d) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

- b. Suppose that no part of the circuit may be more than 2 V from ground. Where should the ground be placed?
- c. Move the ground. Then measure the potentials to verify the circuit meets the requirement.

$V(a) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(b) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(c) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

$V(d) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$



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Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____
 TA _____ Section _____

Lab 5: Building and Analyzing Simple Circuits II

Smoke is the thing that makes electrical circuits work. We know this to be true because every time one lets the smoke out of an electrical circuit, it stops working. This can be verified repeatedly through empirical testing.

--The Electrical Theory of Joseph Lucas

Objective:

To develop a detailed understanding of voltage, current, and resistance in simple circuits.

Equipment:

2 multimeters
 Vernier circuit board
 4 banana cables
 Package of alligator jumpers
 Current sensor
 One current probe into sensor D

Introduction

The resistance of a device is defined to be

$$R = \frac{V}{I} \quad (1)$$

However, strictly speaking, this is not Ohm's Law. This exercise will clarify the distinction.

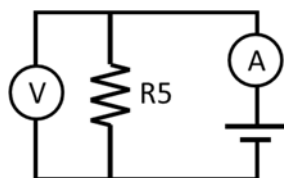
Note: Instead of using batteries, we will use the DC power supply for the voltage source. Verify that it is set to 3V. This setting will be used throughout this lab.

Exercise 1

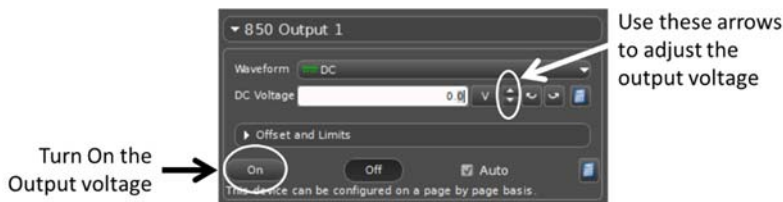
With an ohmmeter, measure the resistance of R5 on the Vernier circuit board.

R5 measured = _____

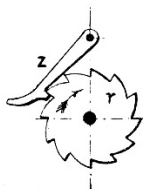
Now, construct the following circuit.



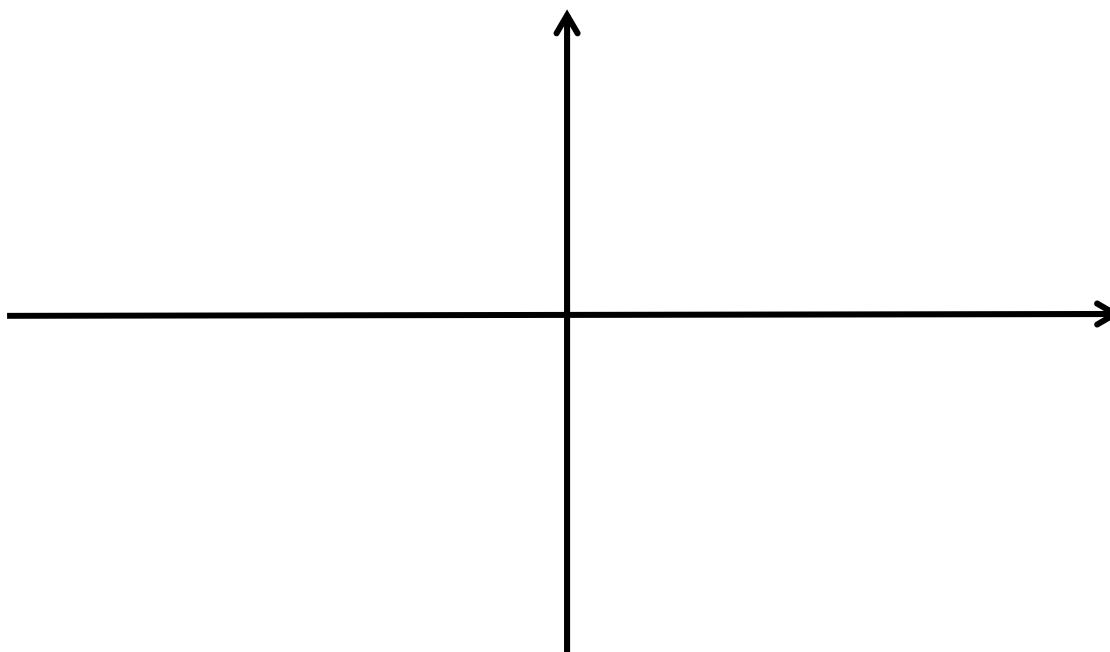
- c. From the desktop, go to Labfile/B Labs/Lab 5 Simple DC Circuits II
Run the application IVcurve.
- d. Vary the output voltage from the PASCO interface from -3 V to +3 V. What does the slope of this line represent?



- e. Replace the resistor with LAMP1 and repeat the experiment. What is the relationship between the brightness of the lamp and the resistance? Can you think of a simple explanation for this behavior?
- f. Replace the lamp with the yellow LED (light emitting diode) found in the lower right corner of the board. Repeat the experiment. How is a diode analogous to a ratchet?



- g. Sketch your three I-V curves below. Label each curve with the corresponding device.



For the rest of the lab, we will use the resistors on the Vernier board. These devices obey Ohm's law quite well. We will also use the 2 amp DC power supply.



Exercise 2: Series circuits

- h. Construct the following circuit. With an arrow, indicate the direction of the current.



Current = _____

- i. Move the ammeter between R7 and R8. Current (R7,R8) = _____
 j. What does this imply about the currents in a series circuit?

- k. Using the definition of resistance, the applied potential, and the measured current, calculate the effective resistance of the combined resistors. How does this relate to the value of the individual resistors?

$R(\text{total}) =$ _____

- l. Using the definition of resistance and the labeled value of each resistor, calculate the potential across each resistor in the circuit.

Calculated potentials:

$V(R7) =$ _____ $V(R8) =$ _____ $V(R9) =$ _____

- m. With the voltmeter, measure each potential. How do they compare to the values above?

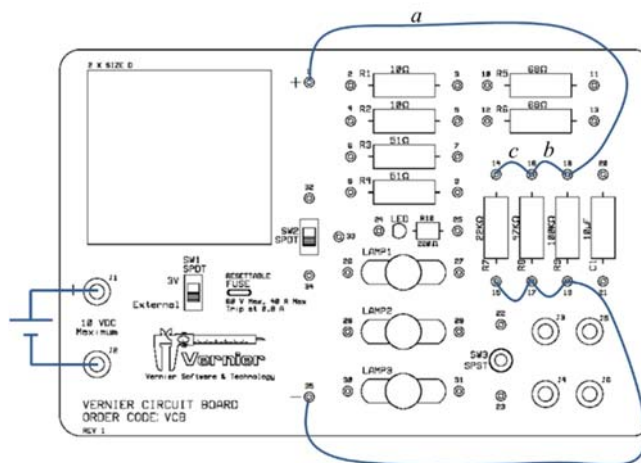
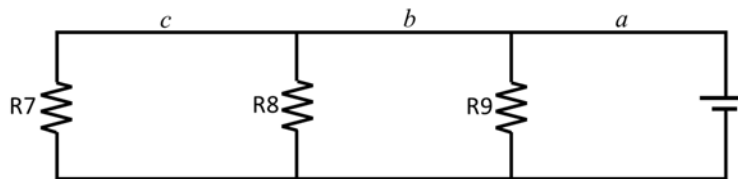
Measured potentials:

$V(R7) =$ _____ $V(R8) =$ _____ $V(R9) =$ _____

- n. How do these potentials relate to the total applied potential?

Exercise 3: Parallel Circuits

Construct the following circuit.



- o. Measure the current coming out of the battery (I_a), through wire segments b and c (I_b , I_c), and through each resistor (I_7 , I_8 , I_9). Label each segment of the above diagram with the appropriate current. Also, with an arrow, indicate the direction of the current along each segment.

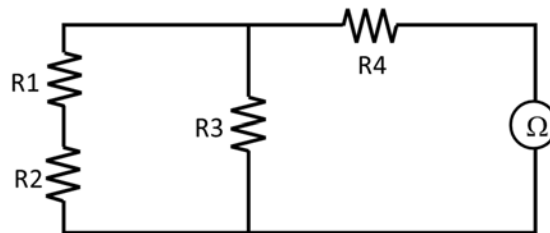
- p. How are the currents at each circuit node (for example [I_c , I_b , I_8]) mathematically related to each other?

- q. How are the currents in the resistors (I_7 , I_8 , I_9) mathematically related to the current coming out of the battery?

- r. Given $I = \frac{V}{R}$, rewrite the expression in part (q) in terms of the values of the individual resistors and the effective resistance of the circuit seen by the battery.

Exercise 4: Combined Series and Parallel Circuits

Construct the following circuit.



- s. The effective resistance of the circuit from the ohmmeter

R(effective) = _____

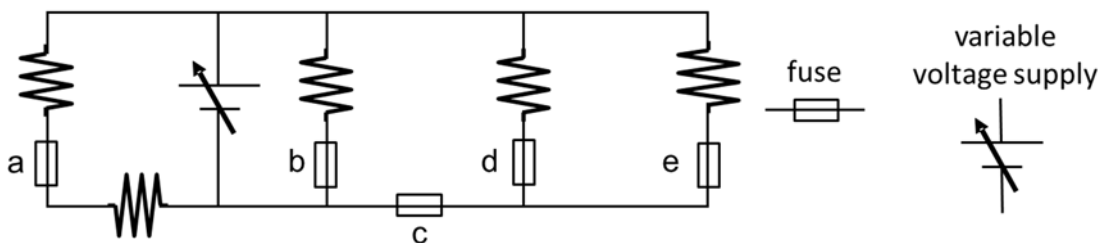
- t. Using the rules for you discovered previously for adding series and parallel resistors, calculate the expected resistance of the circuit. Find the percent difference from the value above.

R(expected) = _____ % difference = _____

Exercise 5: Fuses

As many of you have already discovered, a fuse is a safety device to prevent excessive current from damaging a circuit (or worse). It typically consists of a fine wire with a relatively low melting temperature. When the current exceeds a rated value, the fuse *blows*. That is, the fine wire inside the fuse melts and breaks the circuit.

Consider the following circuit:

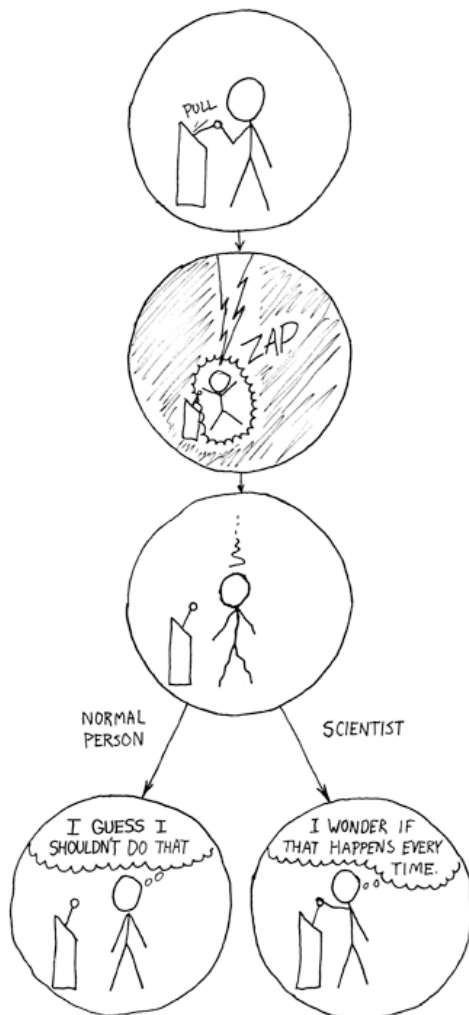


All of the resistors have the same resistance, and each fuse has the same maximum current. The voltage is steadily increased.

u. Which of the fuses is the first to blow? Explain.

v. Which is the 2nd fuse to blow? Explain.

3. Given Equation (6) and definition of current $\left(I(t) \equiv \frac{dQ}{dt}\right)$, derive an expression for the current across a charging capacitor as a function of time.



xkcd.com

A similar experiment is used to clinically diagnose psychopaths. (No, really.)

Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

TA _____ Section _____

Lab 6: Introduction to Capacitors

*" And when I came to I had a revelation, a picture, a picture in my head,
a picture of this. This is what makes time travel possible. The flux
capacitor. "*

--Doc Brown

Objective:

To observe the basic physics of capacitors

To understand the exponential behavior of charge, current, and voltage as capacitors charge and discharge.

Equipment:

Multimeter

Textbook

2 20 cm x 40 cm sheets of aluminum foil

Caliper

22000 μf capacitor

Vernier circuit board

4 banana cables + 4 alligator clips

1 PASCO voltage probe connected to port A

1 PASCO current probe and cable connected to port D

DC power supply

Introduction

A capacitor is *any* device that can store and release an electric charge: a metal plate, a low hanging cloud, a cat, or your finger. However, the most common configuration is two sheets of metal separated by an insulator (also called a dielectric). This description leads to the capacitor circuit symbol shown below.

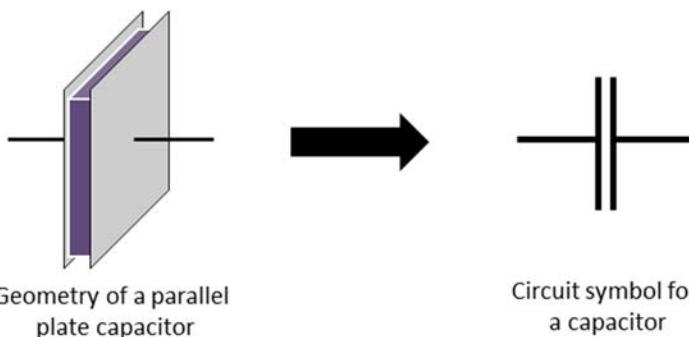


Fig. 1

In practice, these sheets may be folded, rolled up or stacked in any number of ways.

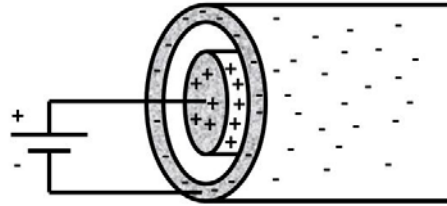


Fig. 2

When a DC voltage is applied across the capacitor, the insulator prevents current from flowing between the two plates leading to the production of equal and opposite charges on each capacitor plate. The capacitance C is a measure of a device's ability to store charge. It is defined as:

$$C \equiv \frac{Q}{V} \quad (1)$$

where Q is the amount of charge stored on one side of the device, and V is the applied voltage. The SI unit of capacitance is the Farad (F).

$$F \equiv \frac{\text{Coulomb}}{\text{Volt}}$$

Typically, capacitors are measured in μF to pF .*

The value of the capacitance depends on the dielectric material, area of the plates, and gap between the plates. For a parallel plate geometry, the capacitance is

$$C = \frac{\kappa \epsilon_0 A}{d} \quad (2)$$

where κ : the dielectric constant of the insulating material; ϵ_0 : the permittivity of free space; A : the surface area of the metal sheets; and d : the thickness of the dielectric. Note that it does not depend on the particular charge or applied voltage, but only on the device itself.

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.85418782 \times 10^{-12} \frac{\text{C}}{\text{V m}}$$

Exercise 1

You are now going to construct your own capacitor using your textbook and two sheets of aluminum.

- Cut the two sheets of aluminum foil to about 20 cm x 30 cm. Cut the sheets as straight as possible so you can calculate the area easily. Do not wrinkle the sheets.
- Follow the diagram below to make your capacitor

* The technical term for a 1 F capacitor is a "freakin' **huge** capacitor!" Such capacitors must be handled with caution.

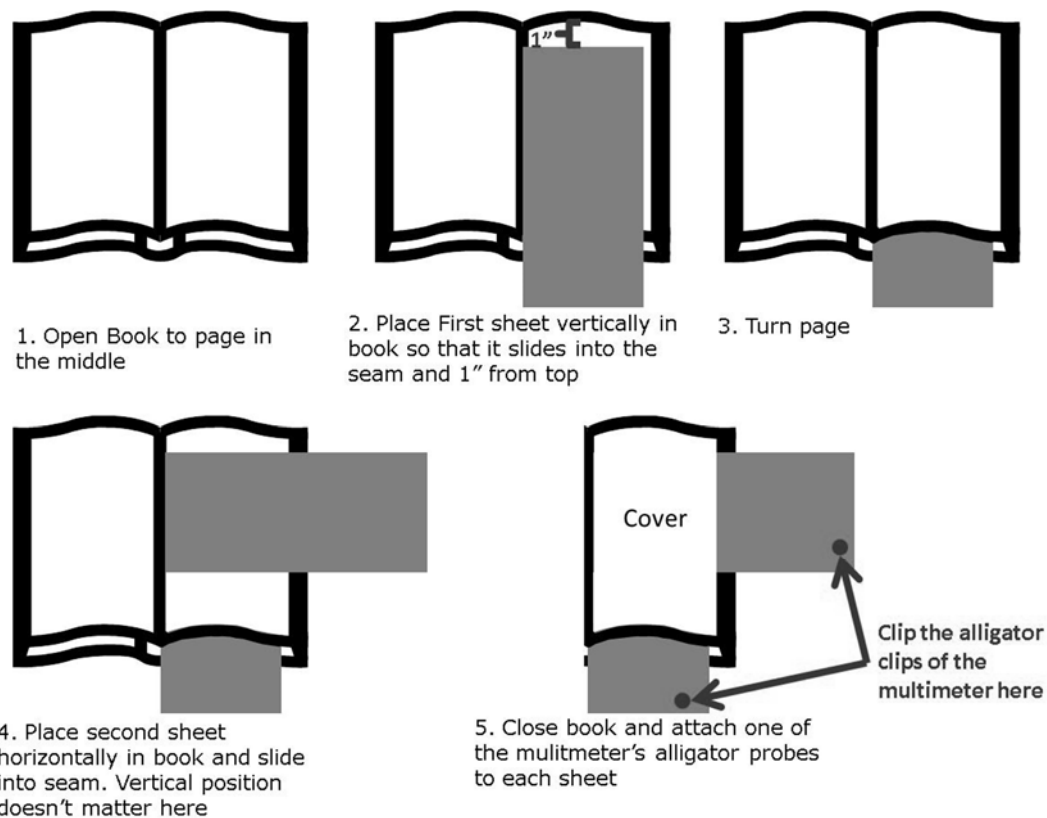


Fig. 3

- c. Set your multimeter to measure capacitance.
- d. Press down firmly on the front cover. Note the effect on the capacitance.*
- e. Observe the capacitance of your homemade capacitor and record your results.

$$C_{1 \text{ page}} = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

- f. Now perform the same experiment but with two pages in between the sheets of aluminum foil and record your results.

$$C_{2 \text{ pages}} = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

- g. Finally, perform the same experiment a third time with three sheets and record your results

$$C_{3 \text{ pages}} = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

- h. What do you observe about the capacitance as you add more pages?

* Congratulations, you just engineered a force sensor.

- i. Now measure the thickness of the three book pages used in a. through h. using the caliper, average the thicknesses, and record your results.

Page 1 Thickness = _____

Page 2 Thickness = _____

Page 3 Thickness = _____

Average Thickness = _____

Area* of the capacitor = _____

- j. The dielectric constant for paper is about 3. Using the average page thickness and the area, calculate the capacitance value found for your 1 page capacitor.

$C_{1\text{page}} =$ _____

- k. Now repeat the calculation for your 2 and 3 page capacitors.

$C_{2\text{pages}} =$ _____

$C_{3\text{pages}} =$ _____

- l. How do these values compare to the measured values?
- m. What could be possible factors that would cause the measured values to deviate from your predictions?

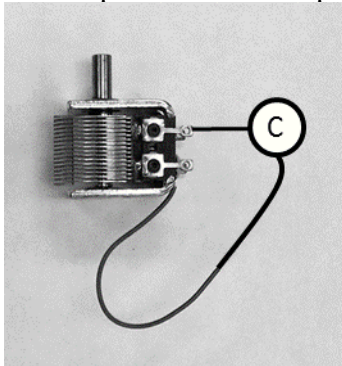
* Carefully consider what part of the area of these sheets you care about.

- n. Based on what you know about parallel plate capacitors, what would you expect to happen if you folded one of the sheets of aluminum foil in half?
- o. Now examine the effect by folding the horizontal sheet in half and measure the capacitance with one 1 page of separation. Record your results.

$$C = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

The Variable Capacitor

- p. Measure the capacitance of the variable capacitor as the knob is rotated. In which position is the capacitance maximized? Why?



Charging a Capacitor: Theory

Consider the circuit below. Assume that initially the capacitor is discharged.

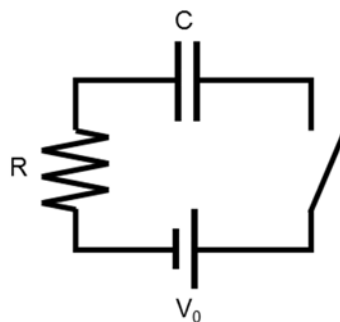


Fig. 4

When the switch is closed, current will flow from the battery and charge the capacitor. We know the voltage across the battery V_0 must equal the sum of the voltages across the resistor V_R and capacitor V_C .

$$V_0 = V_R + V_C \quad (3)$$

Applying the definitions of resistance, capacitance, and current:

$$\begin{aligned} V_0 &= IR + \frac{Q}{C_c} \\ &= \frac{dQ}{dt} R + \frac{Q}{C} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{V_0}{R} - \frac{Q}{RC} \quad (5)$$

The solution* to this differential equation for $Q(t)$ happens to be

$$Q(t) = Q_0 \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau} \right) \quad (6)$$

where

$$Q_0 \equiv CV_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \tau \equiv RC$$

τ is known as the *time constant*[†] and is a measure of how quickly the capacitor is charged. From your work on the pre-lab, now have expressions for $Q(t)$, $V(t)$, and $I(t)$ for the capacitor.

1. Write an expression for the current as a function of time through the resistor. (Write your answers in terms of V_0 , C , and R .)

2. Write an expression for the voltage as a function of time across the resistor:

** To verify this, just plug this expression for $Q(t)$ into Equ. (5) above. (No, you don't *have* to do this.)

† It is basically the same concept as *half-life*.

3. After a very long time, what is the current flowing into the capacitor?
4. After a very long time, what is the charge on the capacitor?
5. After a very long time, what is the voltage on the capacitor?
6. When $t = \tau$, what percentage of the final charge has accumulated? When $t = 4\tau$?

These exponential functions are very common^{*}, so it is worth your time to get familiar with them. These functions are illustrated below.

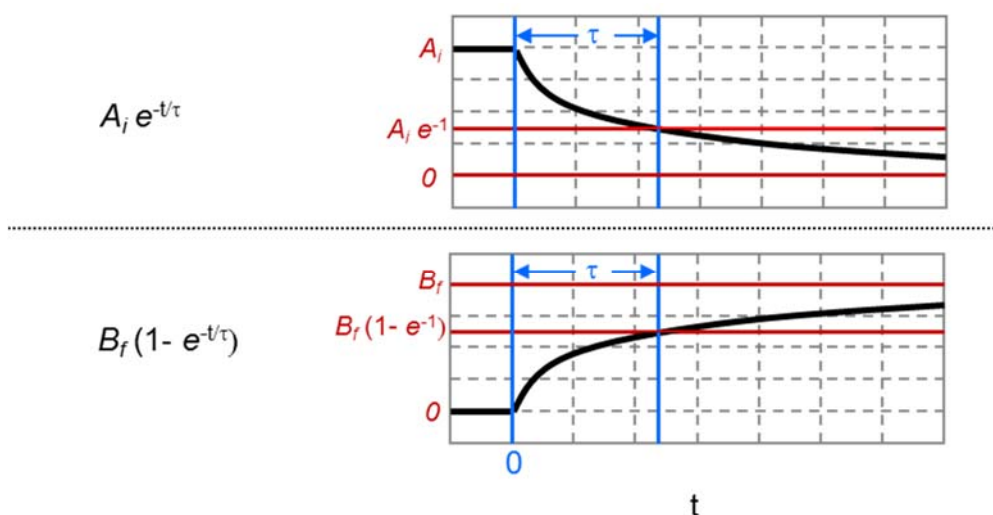


Fig. 5

^{*} They are found in applications as divergent as bank accounts, bacterial growth, and radioactive decay.

Discharging a Capacitor: Theory

Discharging a capacitor works much the same way. Consider the following circuit:

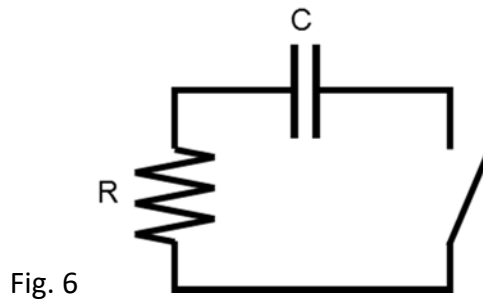


Fig. 6

Before the switch is closed, the capacitor has an initial charge Q_0 . With the equations illustrated in Fig. 5 in mind, think about how one should expect the charge, voltage, and current on the capacitor to behave as it discharges.* Now write expressions for these quantities in terms of V_0 , C , and R :

$$Q_C(t) =$$

$$V_C(t) =$$

$$I_C(t) =$$

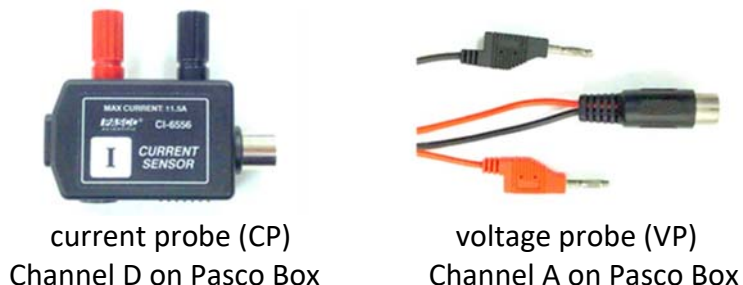
Write an expression for the voltage across the resistor:

$$V_R(t) =$$

Verify these expressions with your TA.

* I'm not looking for a rigorous proof here. Find the simplest that describes the expected trend.

Charging and Discharging a Capacitor: Experiment



Carefully construct the following circuit using the Vernier circuit board and the large 22000 μF capacitor. This particular capacitor is polarized, having defined negative and positive terminals. The negative side is indicated by a stripe running down the side of the capacitor.

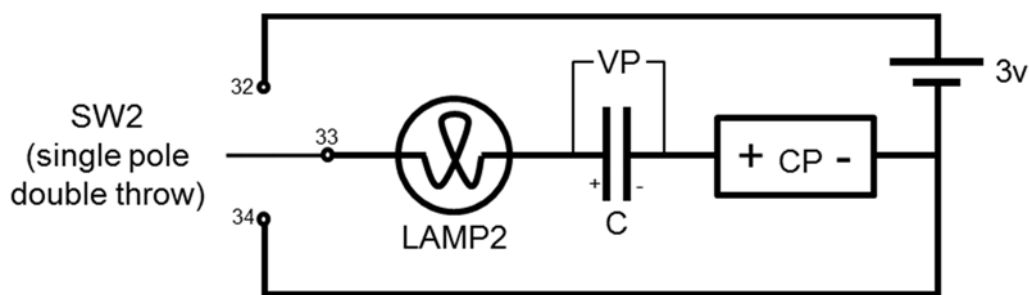


Fig. 7

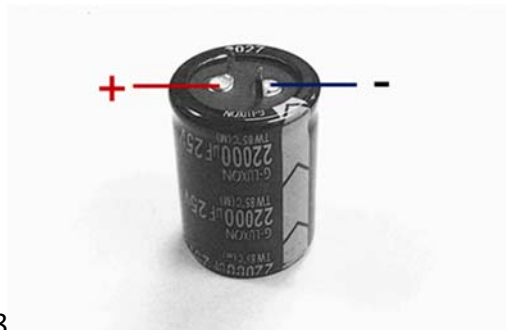


Fig. 8

Here, CP is the PASCO current probe and VP is the PASCO voltage probe. Start with the switch in the lower position (#34 pin).

Exercise 2

- Run the following Capstone program:
 Physicslabs\B Labs\Lab 6 Introduction to Capacitors\Capacitor charging discharging.cap

- Slowly, flip the switch back and forth several times and observe the behavior of the circuit.
- Describe the behavior of the lamp below. A sketch of the brightness vs. time may be useful.

Exercise 3

- Return the switch to the lower position to discharge the capacitor.
- Replace the lamp with a 51Ω resistor.
- Clear the previous data then restart the recording.
- Flip the switch to charge the capacitor.
- When the capacitor is fully charged, reverse the switch and discharge the capacitor. Stop recording when it is fully drained.
- Print your current and voltage plots. Annotate each segment of the plots as charging or discharging.
- Using the mathematical fitting tool, fit each segment of the data with the appropriate function. Annotate each segment of the printout with the corresponding time constant from the fit. **Take care to interpret the results of the fit properly.** Capstone's fitting function is slightly different from the functions described above.
- What is the average value of these time constants?

$$\tau_{\text{avg}} = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

- With this value of τ , calculate the value of the capacitance and the % variance from the listed value.*

$$C(\text{from } \tau) = \underline{\hspace{4cm}} \quad \% \text{ diff} = \underline{\hspace{4cm}}$$

* Electrolytic capacitors, like the one you are using, are notorious for varying from their nominal values.

Consider the charging phase of capacitor. From the definition of current

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \frac{dQ}{dt} \\
 dQ &= I dt \\
 \int_0^{Q_0} dQ &= \int_0^{\infty} I dt \\
 Q_0 &= \int_0^{\infty} I dt
 \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Thus, the area under the $I(t)$ curve is equal to the final charge on the capacitor Q_0 .

10. Using the integration tool, measure Q_0 .

11. From the definition of capacitance, again measure C .

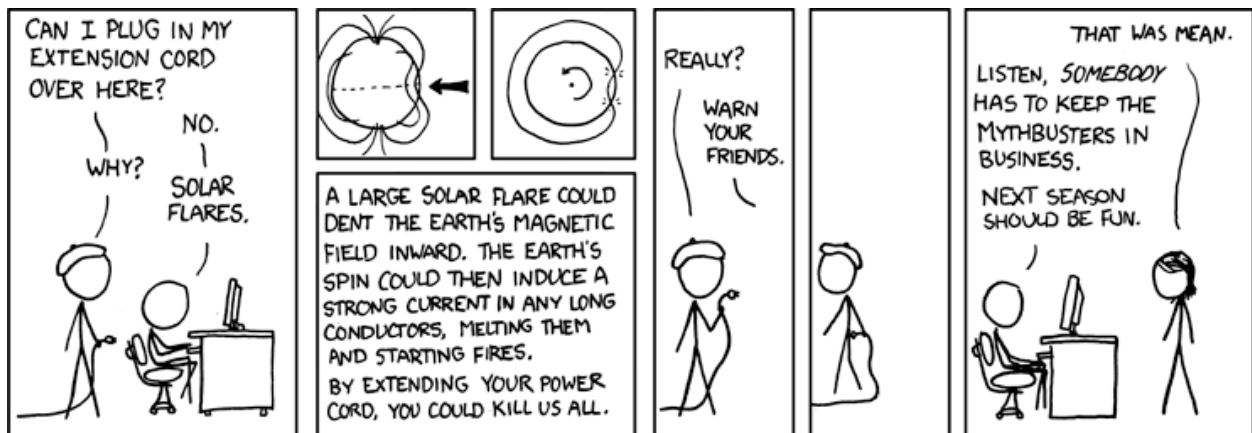
$$Q_0 = \underline{\hspace{10em}} \qquad C(\text{from } Q) = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$$

Exercise 4

1. Replace the 51Ω resistor with a 10Ω resistor.
2. Given the printed value of C , what is the expected time constant for this circuit?
3. Charge the capacitor and find the resulting time constant by fitting the current plot.

$$\tau(\text{theory}) = \underline{\hspace{10em}} \qquad \tau(\text{from fit}) = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$$

3. The North end of a magnetic compass points North. What does this imply about the Earth's magnetic field?



xkcd.com

Well, so much for keeping the Mythbusters in business ☹️

Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

TA _____ Section _____

Lab 7: Magnetism

MAGNET, n. Something acted upon by magnetism.

MAGNETISM, n. Something acting upon a magnet.

The two definitions immediately foregoing are condensed from the works of one thousand eminent scientists, who have illuminated the subject with a great white light, to the inexpressible advancement of human knowledge.

--Ambrose Bierce, The Devil's Dictionary

Objectives

To understand the basic physics of magnets and magnetic fields.

To understand the Lorentz force.

To understand flux and Lenz's Law.

Equipment

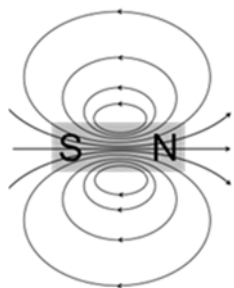
800 turn coil	Magnaprobe	pair of cow magnets
Two iron bars	large PASCO magnet	toothed aluminum plate
current probe	voltage probe	iron filings
nickle rod	multimeters	

CAUTION: The cow magnets (the cylindrical bar magnets with the rounded ends) are quite strong. Keep them away from any hard drives, credit cards, or other magnetic media.

Introduction

Like Electric fields, magnetic fields are often illustrated with lines. The density of these lines reflects the magnitude of the field at any point. Unlike electric fields, these lines always come in closed loops, a consequence of Gauss' Law for Magnetism*:

* In the modern convention, **B** is the standard algebraic symbol for magnetic field because *that* makes perfect sense. We used to use **H** for magnetic field, but not anymore 'cause that's just silly.



$$\oint_{\text{surface}} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0 \quad (1)$$

By convention, the magnetic field lines of a bar magnet run from the north pole to the south pole outside the magnet. Inside the magnet, the loop is completed from south to north. A secondary magnet will tend to align along these field lines.



Play with the cow magnets and note the forces between them.

Note: Throughout this lab, red indicates the North pole of a magnet.

Exercise 0: Ferromagnetism

Ferromagnetism causes some types of metals to be attracted to magnets. You should find a small set of metals on your table: aluminum (the square rod stamped Al), steel which is mostly iron (the other square rod), nickel (the short round rod), and copper (the heavy gauge wire).

1. Which of these metals are ferromagnetic?

Exercise 1: Mapping fields

2. Place a bar magnet in the middle of Figure 1. Using the Magnaprobe, indicate the direction of the magnetic field with a short arrow at each dot. Which end of the Magnaprobe points in the direction of the field of the larger magnet?
3. We can also visualize the magnetic field with iron filings.
 - a. Shake the filing container so the filings are scattered across the bottom.
 - b. Then place the container over the magnet, and tap the top of the container several times until a clear patten appears. Verify that the direction of the field lines match the arrows drawn above.

4. Then, place two cow magnets end to end with opposite poles facing each other. Note the force between them. Using the iron filings, observe the field pattern and sketch the result.



5. Place two cow magnets end to end with like poles facing each other. Note the force between them. Using the iron filings, observe the field pattern and sketch the result.



Magnetic Circuits

The energy of a magnetic field is reduced inside of ferrous metals (such as iron and nickel). Or to put it another way, given the option of going through air or a ferrous metal, Magnetic field lines *prefer* to go through ferrous metal. This is analogous* to a current *preferring* to go through a low resistance material over a high resistance material.

1. Attach two iron bars along each side of a bar magnet, then observe the field with the iron filings. Describe how this compares to the isolated magnet. Apply the concept of magnetic circuits to explain the difference.



2. Attach one end of a cow magnet to one end of a iron bar. Then, use the iron rod to pick up some alligator clips.
3. Remove the magnet. What happens to the alligator clips?

* It's a weak analogy; so, don't read too much into it.

Using the Magnaprobe, indicate the direction of the magnetic field at each dot with a short arrow.

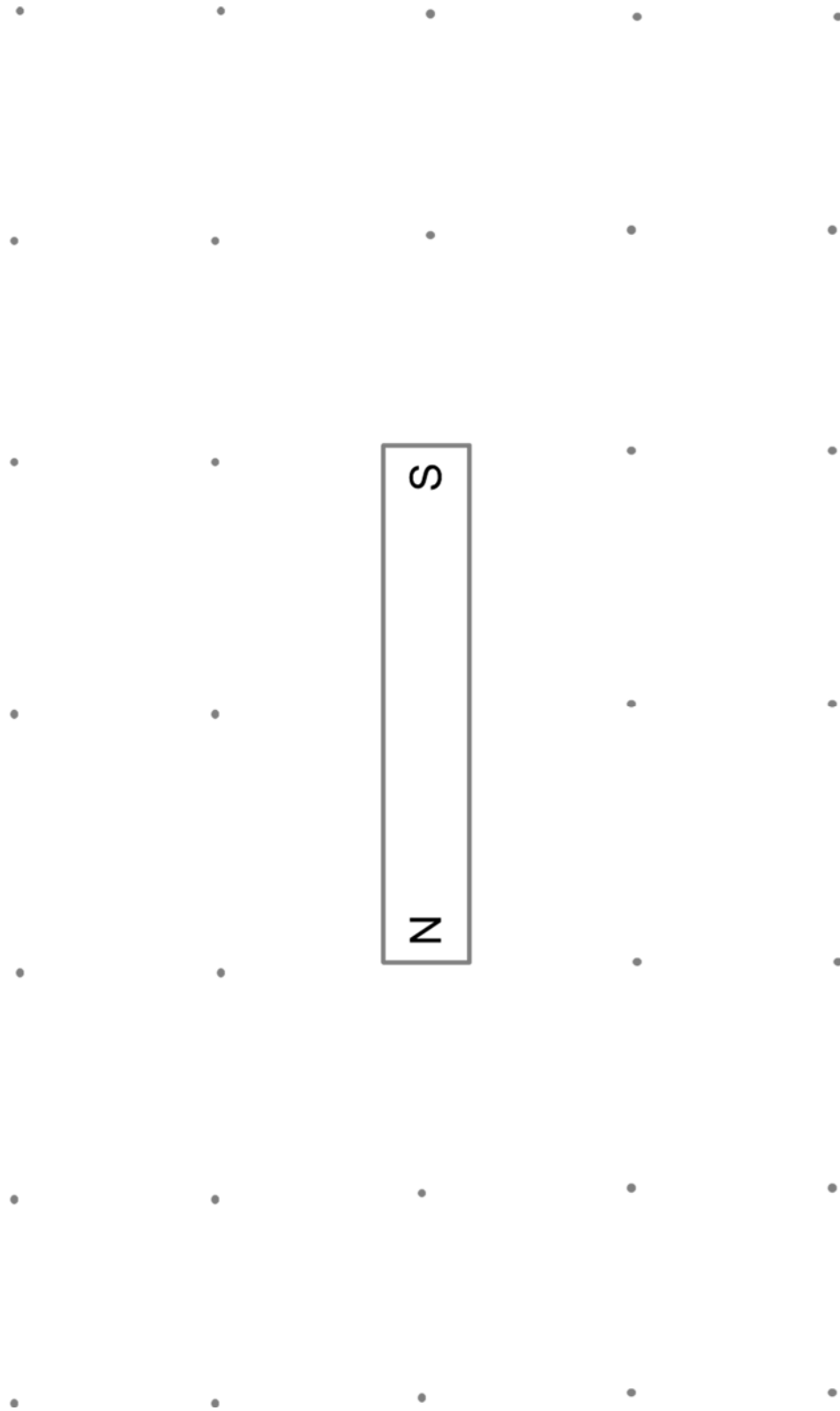


Figure 1

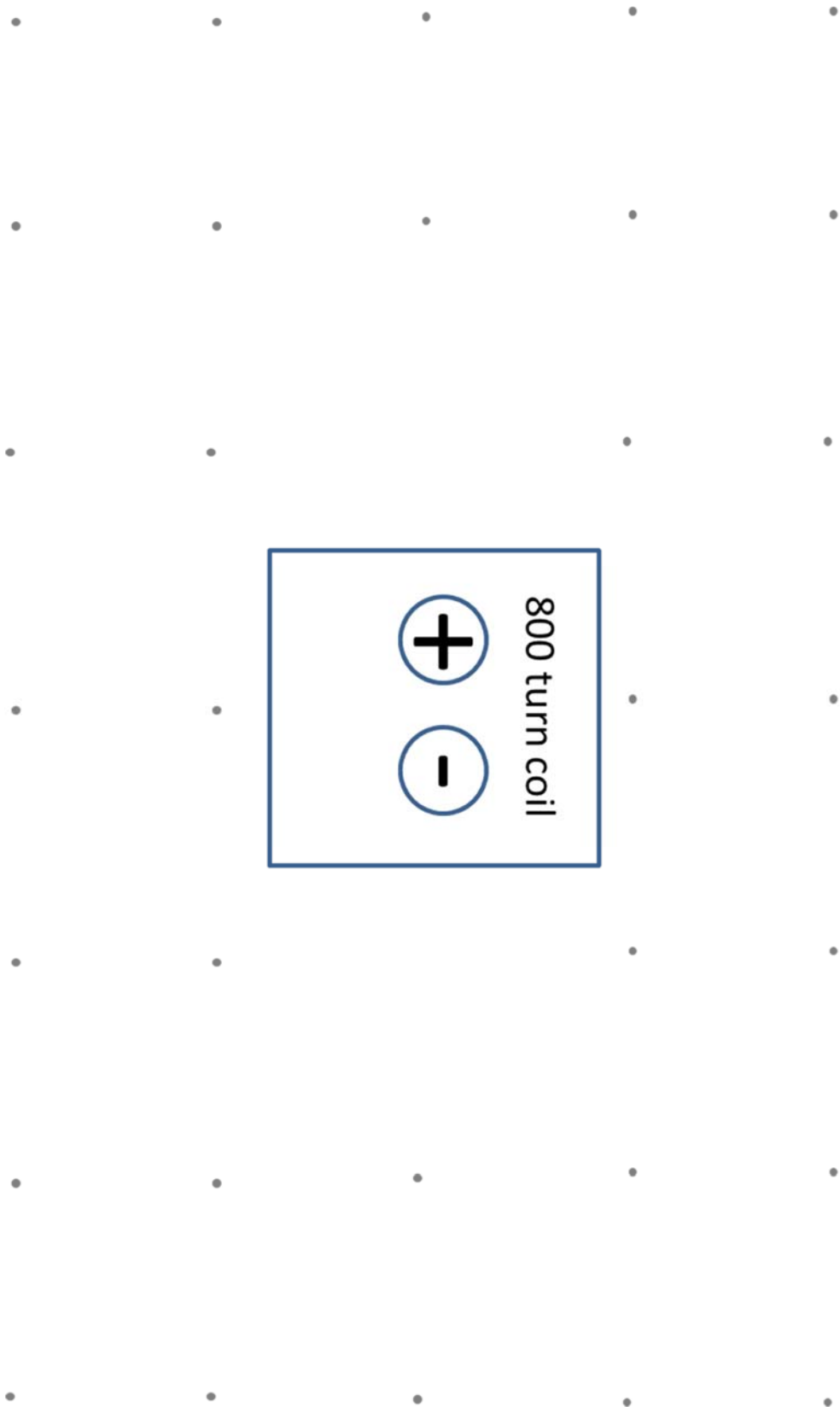


Figure 2

- Place the attached magnet and iron bar on a white sheet of paper. Using the iron filings, observe the field pattern around the iron bar. Sketch the result below.



- Remove the cow magnet and sketch field surrounding the isolated iron bar. Explain the temporary magnetization of the bar in terms of magnetic circuits.

Exercise 2: Creating magnetic fields

A current carrying wire will be ringed by a magnetic field. The direction of the magnetic field can be determined by the right hand rule. (See Figure 3A)

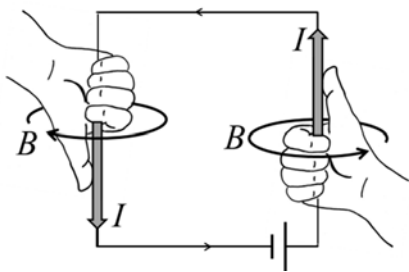


Figure 3 A

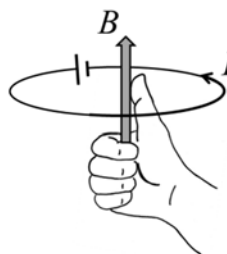


Figure 3 B

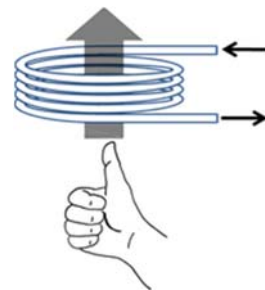


Figure 3 C

Alternatively, you can think of the loop of current. With your right hand, wrap your fingers in the direction of the current. Your thumb points in the direction of the magnetic field in the center of the loop.

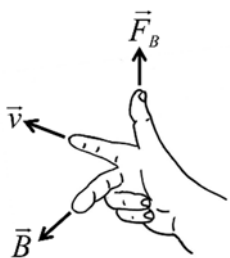
For reasonable currents (less than 1 Amp), the magnetic field is fairly weak. But the field can easily be amplified by looping the wire multiple times.

1. Note the direction of the in which the coil was wound. With the connectors facing up, place the 800 turn coil in the center of Figure 2
2. With the power supply set to 3V, connect the coil to the supply.
3. Using the Magnaprobe, indicate the direction of the magnetic field at each dot with a short arrow.
4. Verify that the right hand rule correctly describes the field direction. How does the field of the coil compare to the field of the bar magnet? On the diagram, note which side of the coil corresponds to the N pole.

Exercise 3: Magnetic forces on charges

Part 1: Applying a force to produce a current

A magnetic field exerts no force on a stationary charge. If the charge is moving, the force is



$$\vec{F}_B = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

(2)

The direction of this force is determined by the *Right Hand Rule*.

5. Open the Capstone file Magnetism.cap. Select the page Current Oscilloscope.
6. Connect a single cable across the inputs of the current probe.

A conducting wire is basically a pipe filled with gas of electrons. We can give these electrons a velocity by physically moving the wire.

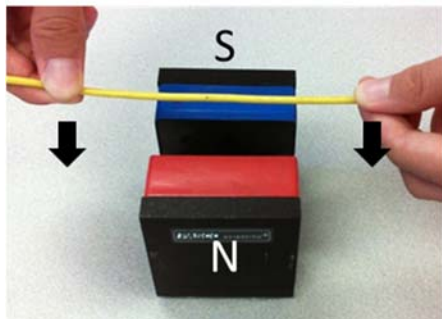


Figure 4A

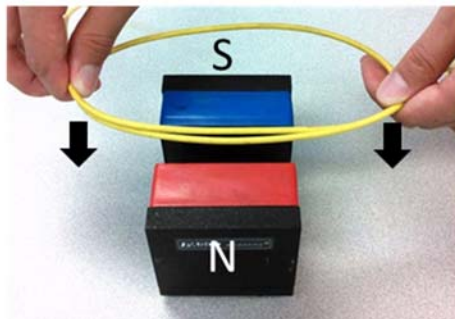


Figure 4B

7. Quickly move the wire down between the poles of the large magnet. (See the Figure 4A above.) Using the right hand rule, determine . . .
 - a. . . the direction of the force on the electrons? (Label the figure.)
 - b. . . the direction of the resulting current? (Label the figure.)
8. Is this consistent with the results from the current probe?

9. Quickly remove the wire. What happens to the current?

10. Repeat while moving the wire more and less quickly. Describe the results.

11. Add a loop to the wire and repeat the experiment. (See Figure 4B above.)
12. Add a third loop to the wire. Describe the results.

Part 2: Applying a current to produce a force

Consider the magnetic force on a tiny charge.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 d\vec{F}_B &= dq \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \\
 &= dq \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} \times \vec{B} \\
 &= \frac{dq}{dt} d\vec{x} \times \vec{B} \\
 &= I d\vec{x} \times \vec{B}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3}$$

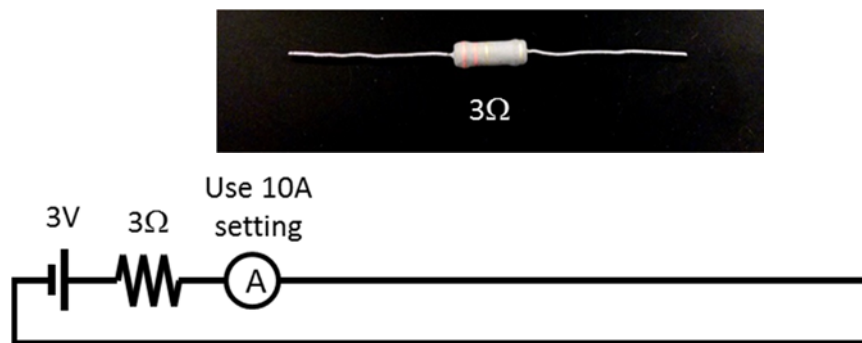
Here, $d\vec{x}$ is a tiny segment of the current carrying wire inside a magnetic field. Integrating, we get

$$\vec{F}_B = I \vec{L} \times \vec{B}
 \tag{4}$$

where \vec{L} is the length of wire inside the magnetic field.

13. Turn on the digital mass balance.
14. Place the large magnet on the balance, then zero the display.
15. Using the long patch cable and the 3Ω resistor, construct the circuit below.

Caution!! The 3Ω resistor will get hot!



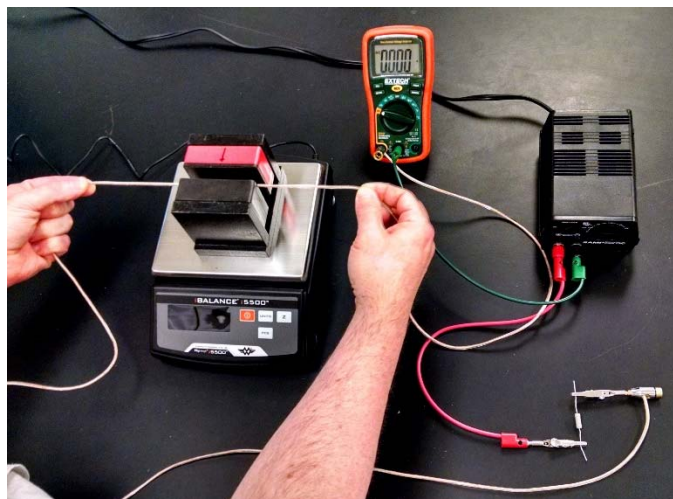
16. Holding the wire inside the magnet, measure the force on the magnet. (See the figure below.)
Verify that the direction of the force is consistent with the right hand rule.

Note 1: The balance will measure the “force” in grams.

You must convert this to Newtons.

Note 2: The scale is measuring the force of the wire on the magnet, not the force of the magnet on the wire.

* No, don't roll your eyes!! Follow through and learn how to do differential algebra. It's actually pretty easy.



17. Reverse the current and measure the force again.
18. Loop the wire three times and measure the force again.
19. Using Equ. (4), calculate the average magnetic field inside the magnet.

Table 1

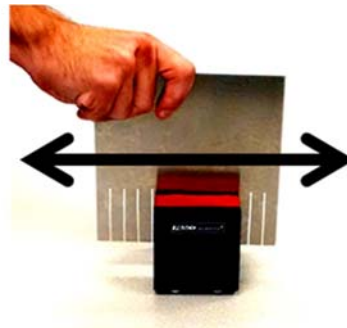
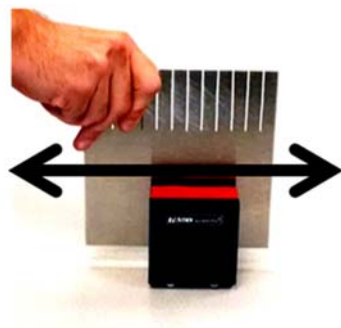
Turn Count	Magnetic Force (N)	Magnetic Field (T)
1		
-1		
3		

Exercise 4: Magnetic Damping

So, a magnetic force can create a current, and a current creates a magnetic force. But it's *not* either / or. Both are happening at the same time. This exercise will illustrate this.

20. Move the aluminum plate back and forth, and in and out of the magnet. Describe the effect on both the solid side and the cut side of the plate. (See figure below.) Then explain the results in terms of the underlying physics.

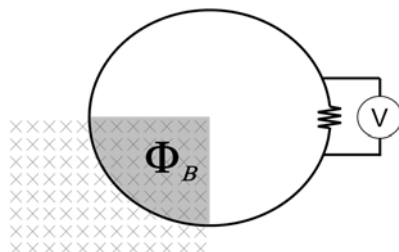
Hint: Think of the electrons as a fluid which is free to move inside the plate. How will this fluid flow when the plate is pulled through the magnetic field? Make a sketch of this motion.



Exercise 4: Magnetic flux and Faraday's Law

The current generation you observed above can also be understood in terms of magnetic flux and Faraday's Law.

Magnetic flux is defined as



$$\Phi_B \equiv \oint_{\text{area of loop}} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} \quad (5)$$

As the loop of wire moves between the poles, the magnetic flux through the loop increases.

Faraday's Law relates the changing magnetic flux Φ_B to the voltage* V_{coil} across the coil of wire

$$V_{coil} = -N \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}, \quad (6)$$

where, N is the number of turns in the coil.

Applying Faraday's law is equivalent to applying Equation (2); however, it involves an important change in perspective. Equation (2) makes you think about the interaction of the magnetic field with the periphery of the coil. Faraday's Law makes you think about the interaction of the magnetic field with the coil as a whole.

Figuring out the current direction using Equation (2) can be awkward. Often it is easier to apply *Lenz's Law*. When the magnetic flux in a coil changes, the induced current will create its own magnetic field.

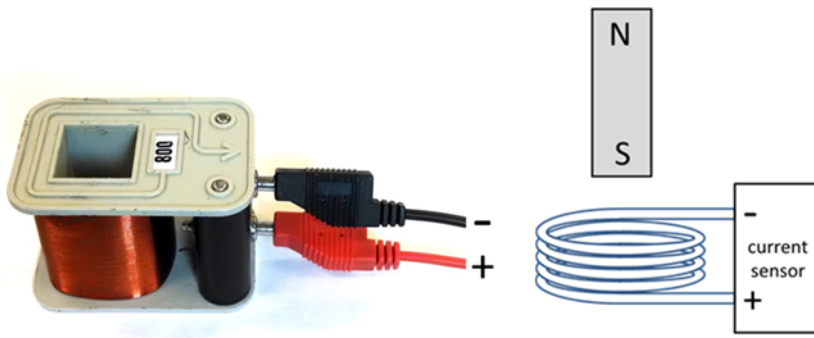
Lenz's Law:

The induced current will try to keep the magnetic flux through the coil from changing.

If pushing a coil into a magnetic field causes the flux to increase, the current in the coil will flow to create its own magnetic field in the opposite direction.

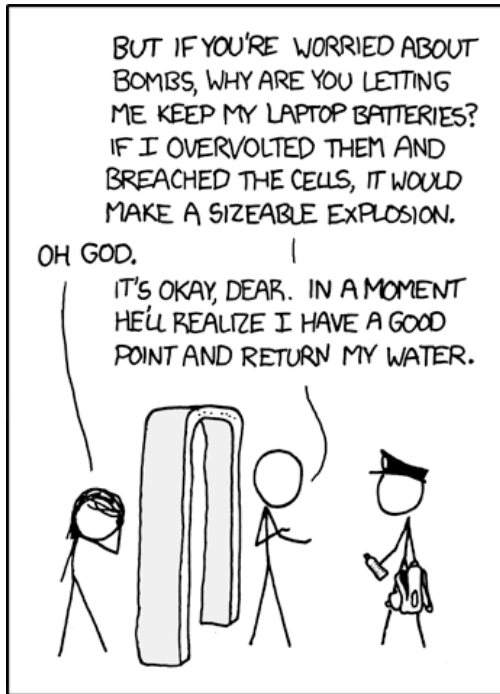
21. Connect the 800 turn coil to the current sensor. (See the figure below.)
22. Return to the Current Oscilloscope.

* This voltage is also called the *electromotive force* or *EMF*. That is a **terrible** term and should be banned from your vocabulary! The *EMF* is not a force at all!! It is an **electric potential**. It is measured in **Volts**, *not* Newtons!



23. Insert the bar magnet (S pole down) into the coil, then quickly remove it. (See the figure above.) Sketch the plot of the resulting current vs. time. Annotate the sketch to indicate insertion and removal. Is the sign of the current consistent with Lenz's Law?

24. Reverse the magnet (N pole down), and repeat the step above.



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Lab 8: Inductors and RL Circuits

*Can't stop a train, can't stop a heart;
 I'm feeling pain when it's falling apart
 Can't keep the one you love from changing;
 When it's rolling, can't stop a train.*

--The Derailers

Objectives

Understand the behavior of an inductor as a circuit element.

Understand the analogous behavior of inductance and mass.

Understand the complementary behavior of capacitors and inductors.

Equipment

800 turn coil	1600 turn coil	iron bar
current probe	voltage probe	multimeter
Vernier circuit board	knife switch	gaggle of wires
33 Ω resistor	aluminum bar	

Introduction

Cast your mind back to your first semester of physics.

Newton's 1st Law of motion (The Law of Inertia): An object at rest tends to remain at rest. An object in motion tends to remain in motion. Mass m measures the amount of inertia of an object.

Newton's 2nd Law of motion: To change the velocity ($v = \frac{dx}{dt}$) of an object, a force F must be applied. The change in velocity is inversely proportional to the mass of the object

$$F = m \frac{dv}{dt}$$

Kinetic energy is the energy due to the motion of an object:

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

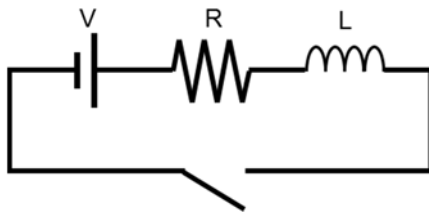
Damped motion: An object moving through a fluid experiences a drag force D that increases with the speed:

$$D = -bv$$

Here, b is a constant that describes the viscosity of the fluid: b is larger for honey and small for water.

Now, back to the present semester.

Consider the following RL circuit: a battery, resistor, and an ideal (zero resistance) solenoid in series.



When a current I flows through a solenoid (or coil), a magnetic field surrounds the coil. This magnetic field requires energy. If the switch is suddenly closes, the *current cannot instantly start flowing* because the energy in the *magnetic field cannot be instantly delivered*. It will take some time to get the current flowing and build up the magnetic field.

So, after closing the switch, what exactly is the current in this circuit?

The voltage across an inductor is given by

$$V_L = -L \frac{dI}{dt},$$

where L is the inductance of the circuit. The voltage drop across a resistor is

$$V_R = -IR.$$

Applying Kirchhoff's rule for loops,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= V - V_R - V_L \\ &= V - IR - L \frac{dI}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

After a semester of Differential Equations, you could easily solve this to find that

$$I(t) = \frac{V}{R} (1 - e^{-t/\tau}),$$

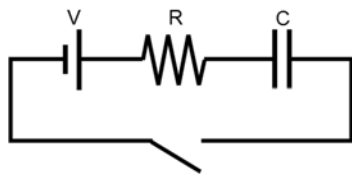
Where τ is the time constant of the RL circuit:

$$\tau \equiv \frac{L}{R}.$$

- a. Sketch a plot of $I(t)$. On the plot, note the maximum current and the time constant.

This should look *somewhat* familiar. For a refresher, . . .

- b. . . . recall the circuit below. Sketch the corresponding plot of $I(t)$; note the maximum current.



A mechanical analogy: *Newton's Laws of Circuits.*

1st Law (The law of inertia): Charges at rest tends to remain at rest. Charges in motion tend to remain in motion. The inductance L measures the amount of inertia of the circuit.

2nd Law: To change the current ($I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$) in a circuit, a voltage V_L must be applied. The change in the current is inversely proportional to the inductance of the circuit.

$$V_L = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

The Magnetic Potential Energy U is the energy in the magnetic field due to the current in the circuit

$$U = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$$

This inertia of inductance is another manifestation of Lenz' Law: the inertia of the solenoid *tries* to keep the magnetic field from changing. This is because **magnetic fields are real things and are made with real energy**. They cannot just appear at the flip of a switch but must be built up or torn down over time.

- c. Now, you tell me: If an inductor is analogous to mass, what is a *resistor* analogous to? Justify your argument.

Exercise 1: Real Solenoids

Real solenoids are made of long strands of wire, and real wire has resistance. So, in addition to inductance, a solenoid also acts as a resistor. A real solenoid can be modeled as an ideal solenoid ($R=0$) in series with a resistor.

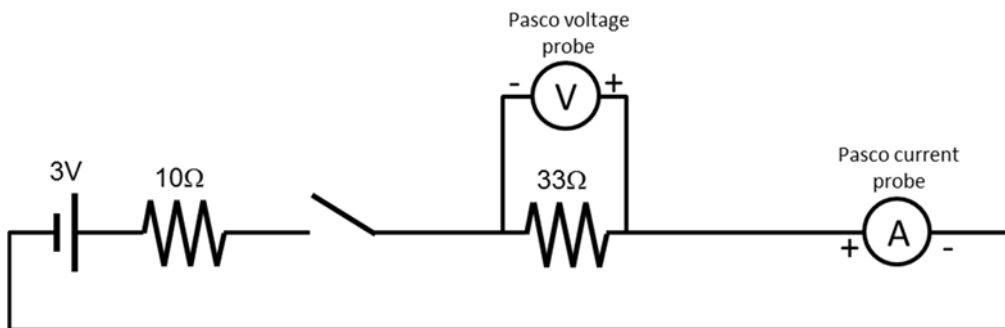


- d. With an ohmmeter, measure the resistances of your two solenoids. Record the values below.

Exercise 2: Resistor Circuits

First, let's remind ourselves of what we know and love.

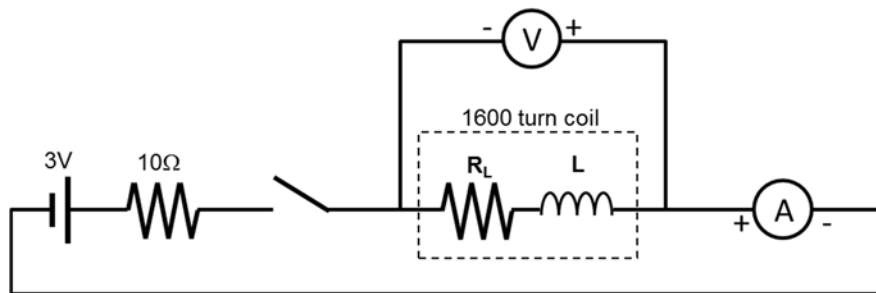
- e. Construct the following circuit. Use the knife switch to open and close the circuit. Use the PASCO current and voltage probes to monitor the current and the voltage across the 33Ω resistor. **Make sure the polarity of the probes is set correctly.**



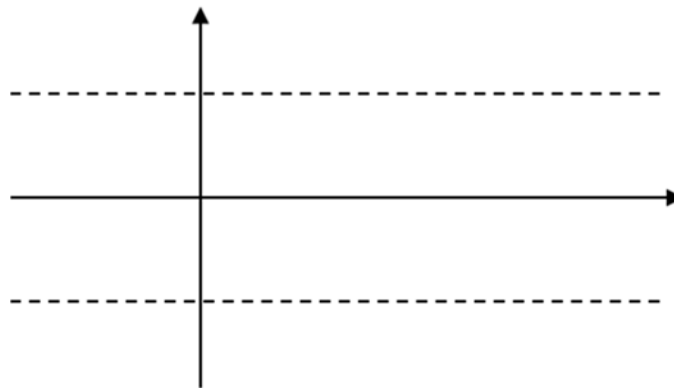
- f. Run the Capstone program Switching Circuit to monitor the voltage and current as the switch is closed and opened. When the switch is closed . . .
- . . the *current should be positive*.
 - . . the *voltage across the resistor should be negative*. This is to reflect the fact that voltage decreases as the current flows from one side of the resistor to the other.
- Adjust the voltage and current probes as necessary to reflect this.
- g. How quickly does the current change after the switch is closed?
- h. Adjust the time axis so that you can clearly see the onset of the current and voltage as the switch is closed. Sketch the result below.
- Note:** You can adjust the time axis by moving the cursor to the time axis and turning the scroll wheel.

Exercise 3: Starting up the inductor

- i. Replace the 33Ω resistor with the 1600 turn coil to create the following circuit.



- j. Again, use Switching Circuit to monitor the voltage and current as the switch is closed and opened.
- k. What is the total resistance of this circuit?
- l. Adjust the time axis so that you can clearly see the onset of the current and voltage as the switch is closed. Sketch the result below.



- m. Diagram the circuit. Then draw an arrow indicating the direction of increasing current $\left(\frac{dI}{dt}\right)$.
Add an arrow indicating the direction of the transient voltage?

- n. Measure the time constant for the current in the solenoid.

- o. Given the resistance of the circuit, calculate the inductance of the solenoid.

Exercise 4: Shutting off the inductor

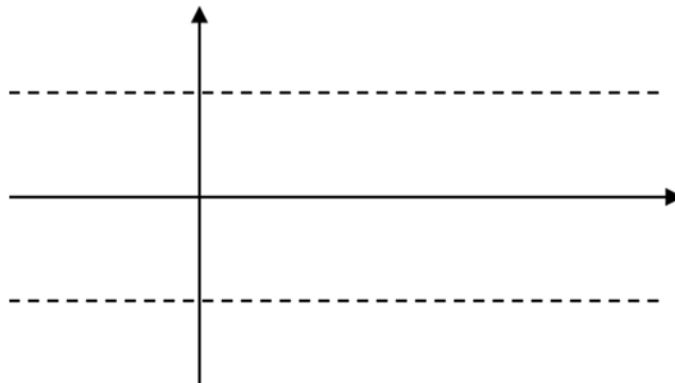
- p. Now, open the switch to observe the response of the inductor as the current shuts down.

To anthropomorphize the situation, the inductor desperately wants the current to keep flowing (Lenz's Law), but with the switch open it literally has *nowhere* to go. So, the *voltage cannot behave in a smooth predictable way*. Instead, the voltage goes crazy for a few micro-seconds*, and the physics of this response is beyond the scope of this lab.

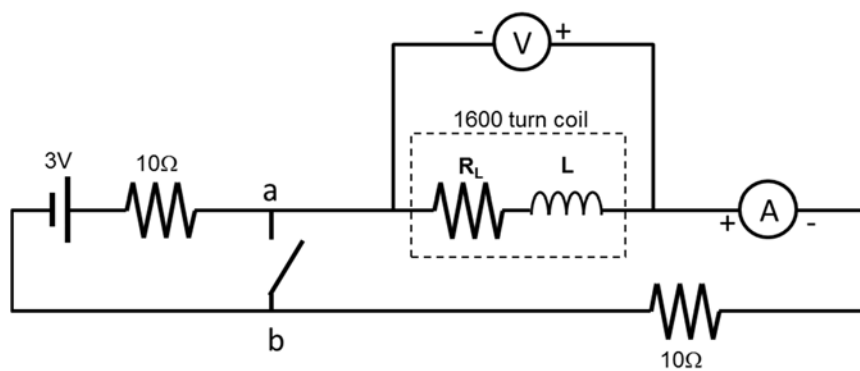
What we need is a way to shut off the battery while still giving the current from the inductor *somewhere* to go.

- q. Now, adjust the time axis to that you can clearly resolve the voltage and current as the switch is opened. Sketch the result below.

* Think of Wile E. Coyote running into the painted tunnel.

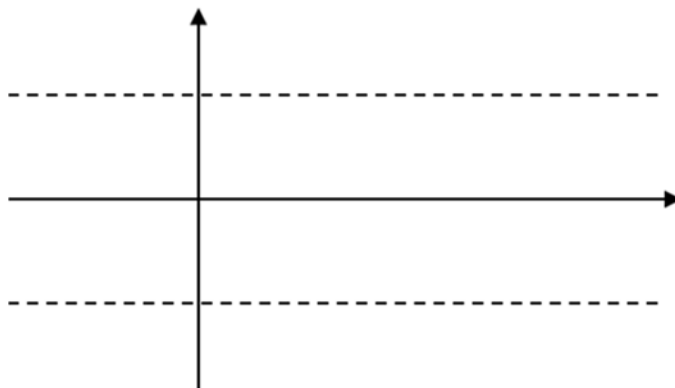


- r. Create the circuit shown below.



- s. With the switch closed, what is the potential difference from a to b? (This is easy. Don't overthink it.)
- t. With the switch closed, sketch the equivalent circuit from the perspective of the solenoid.

- u. Using Switching Circuit, observe the current and voltage as the switch is quickly opened and closed.
- v. Adjust the time axis so you can clearly observe the curve as the current shuts down. Sketch the results below.



- w. Study the diagram you made in section *t*. Then draw an arrow indicating the direction of the current. Add an arrow indicating the direction of the transient voltage? How does this compare with the results of Exercise 3?
- x. Measure the time constant for the current in the solenoid by numerically fitting the data. (Careful with the resistance in your circuit.)
- y. Given the resistance of the circuit, calculate the inductance of the solenoid.

Exercise 5: Changing the Inductance

The inductance of a tightly wound solenoid is

$$L = \frac{\mu_0 \pi N^2 r^2}{d},$$

where N is the number of turns, r is the radius of the solenoid, and d is the length of the solenoid.

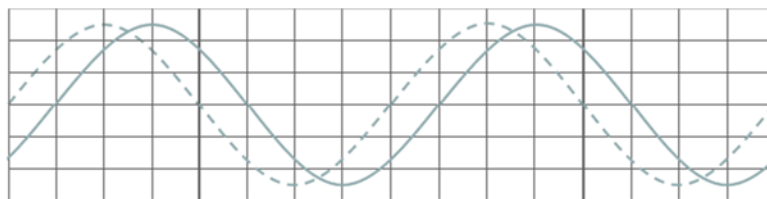
- z. Given your measured value of L for the 1600 turn coil, what would be your expected value of L for the 800 turn coil?

aa. Measure the inductance of the 800 turn coil.

bb. Place a iron bar inside the 800 turn coil, and again measure the inductance. How does iron affect the inductance? Repeat for the aluminum bar and the nickel rod.

4. What is the phase difference (in cycles, degrees, and radians) between the two curves illustrated below?

$$1 \text{ cycle} = 360^\circ = 2\pi \text{ radians}$$



OHM NEVER FORGOT HIS DYING UNCLE'S ADVICE.

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Lab 9: Alternating Current and Impedance

*“I’m pickin’ up good vibrations
She’s giving me excitations”*

--Brian Wilson and Mike Love

Objectives

To develop a basic understanding of *Resistance*, *Reactance*, and *Impedance*

To observe and understand resonance in an electric circuit.

Equipment:

- 800 and 1600 turn coils
- ~33 μF capacitor
- Vernier circuit board
- A iron rod and an aluminum rod
- Multimeter
- 6 banana cables + 2 alligator clips
- Current sensor

Introduction

In the first few labs, you learned that *resistance* is the “*thing*” that restricts the flow of current. But resistance only applies to resistors. For capacitors and inductors, there is something else that can restrict the flow of current: *reactance*. You received a taste of this over the last couple of labs as you observed the changing current in capacitors and inductors. Now, we will go into more detail.


First, a few definitions:

For an AC voltage, the voltage is constantly changing, usually in a sinusoidal pattern:

$$V(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) \quad (1)$$

where ω is the angular frequency,

$$\omega = 2\pi f \quad (2)$$

The circuit symbol for sinusoidal (AC) voltage source is .

Likewise for an AC current, except that there may be a phase difference ϕ from the applied voltage:

$$I = I_0 \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (3)$$

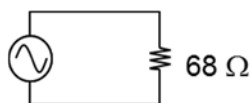
The instantaneous power drawn by a circuit element is the instantaneous voltage across the device times the instantaneous current

$$P = IV \quad (4)$$

Resistance

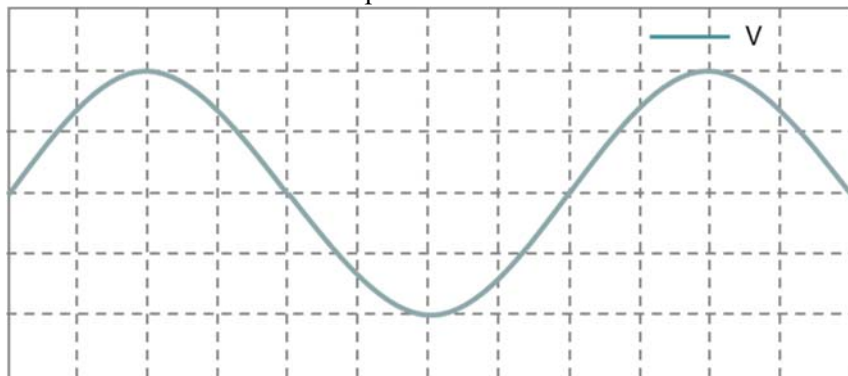
First, we will look at the simplest case.

- Using the OUTPUT of the PASCO interface as an AC voltage supply, assemble the following circuit.



- Run the Capstone program IVscope. Click the Monitor button (lower left corner of the window). From the Output window, you can control the frequency and amplitude of the AC voltage. The Capstone software is now acting as an oscilloscope observing the voltage and current in the circuit in real time.

- Adjust the frequency and amplitude of the OUTPUT and observe the effect.
 - Sketch the current trace in the plot below.



- Are the current and voltage in phase with each other?
- Does the circuit obey Ohm's Law?

4. Set the amplitude of the voltage to 1 V.
 - a. What is the *maximum* power consumed by the circuit? What is the *minimum* power consumed? Does this vary with the frequency?

5. From the tabs at the top, select Page #2: Voltage, Current, and Power. Click Record to view a trace. Now, in addition to the I and V traces, you should see a trace for the power.

Note: In this mode, Capstone is not running continuously. With any change in settings, you must click Record to refresh the display.

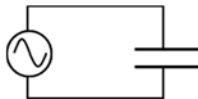
Verify your above answers. How does the frequency of the power compare to the frequency of the voltage?

Capacitance

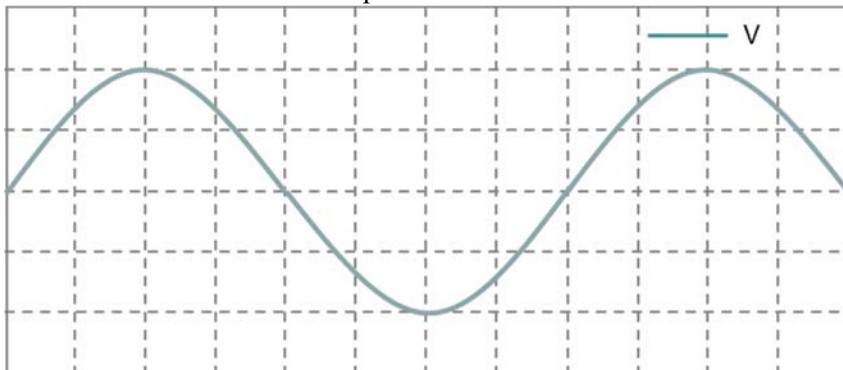
1. Return to the Oscilloscope tab.
2. Select the capacitor on your circuit board with a nominal value of 33 μf . With your multimeter, measure the actual value of the capacitor.

$$C = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

3. Lower the frequency to 100 Hz and set the voltage amplitude to 1 V. Replace the resistor with the capacitor.



4. Turn the Output back on, and Monitor the signal.
5. Sketch the current trace in the plot below.



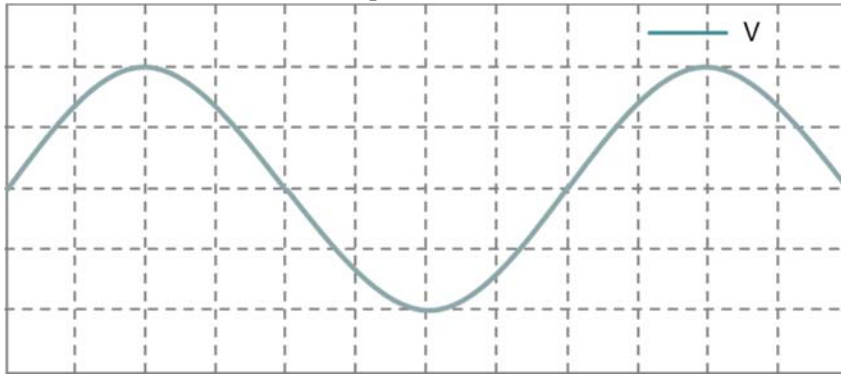
Inductance

Consider the circuit below

10. Replace the capacitor with the 800 turn coil. Set the frequency to 500 Hz.



11. Sketch the current trace on the plot below.



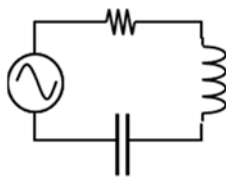
12. What is the phase shift between the applied voltage and the current? How does the direction of the phase shift compare to the phase shift of the capacitor?

13. How does this power trace compare with the power trace of the capacitor?

As with capacitors, inductors also exhibit a reactance X_L . Of course, as you have noticed in the past, the coils also exhibit a non-trivial amount of resistance, and this causes the average power consumption that you observed. But let's set that aside for the time being.

14. With the amplitude of the voltage set at 1V, measure the current amplitude and calculate the reactance of the inductor from 100 Hz to 500 Hz at 50 Hz intervals.
15. Add this data to the Excel spreadsheet and superimpose this curve on the to the previous plot.
16. How does the power trace vary with frequency?

Impedance



For a circuit containing both resistive and reactive elements, the net effect is called *impedance*. For an LRC (inductor, resistor, capacitor) circuit, the impedance Z is given by

$$Z = \frac{V_{\max}}{I_{\max}} = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} \quad (6)$$

1. With the multimeter, measure the resistance of the coil.

R = _____

2. Assemble the coil and capacitor in series with the OUTPUT of the PASCO interface. **Do not include the resistor.** For this LRC circuit, the resistance will be the inherent resistance of the components.

3. With the amplitude of the voltage set at 1V, measure the following from 100 Hz to 500 Hz at 50 Hz intervals:
 - a. The impedance Z .
 - b. The phase shift ϕ between the voltage V and current I .
4. Add this data into the Excel spreadsheet.
5. Add this impedance curve to your Excel plot.
6. Using the oscilloscope (Page #1), finely adjust the frequency to locate the resonant frequency to within 1 Hz. (That is, the frequency with the maximum current.) Explain this resonance in terms of Equ. (6) and your Excel plot.

$$f_0 \text{ (800 turns, capacitor)} = \underline{\hspace{15em}}$$

7. What is the phase shift ϕ at resonance?
8. What is the impedance at resonance? What circuit element is largely responsible for this minimum impedance? Explain.

9. When is the average power consumption maximized?

10. Print out your Excel plots.

Tunable Circuits

It can be shown that the resonant frequency of a circuit is

$$\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \quad (7)$$

1. Replace the capacitor with the 10 μF capacitor (C1) on the Vernier board. With the oscilloscope on Page #1, measure the resonant frequency calculate and the inductance.

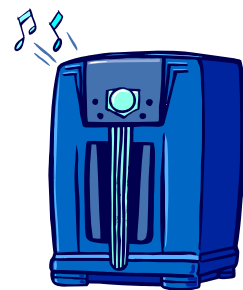
f_0 (800 turns, 10 μF) = _____ L (800 turns)= _____

2. Replace the 800 turn coil with a 1600 coil. Measure the resonant frequency and calculate the inductance.

f_0 (1600 turns, 10 μF) = _____ L (1600 turns)= _____

3. Move an iron rod inside the coil while watching the oscilloscope.
 - a. What happened to the resonant frequency?

- b. What happened to the inductance?
- c. Repeat the above experiment with the aluminum and nickel rods. How do these rods affect the resonant frequency? What property of the rods explains these effects?
- d. How does the tuning circuit of an old fashioned radio work? That is, when you rotate the tuning knob of an antique Zenith set, what are you doing mechanically?*



* *“Be sure to drink your Ovaltine™!”*

Name _____ Section _____ Date _____

**Pre-Lab Preparation Sheet for Lab 10:
Wave Optics**

(Due at the beginning of lab)

Directions:

Watch the following videos,

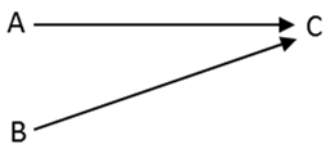
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GgfKdVFfM28><https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Iuv6hY6zsd0>

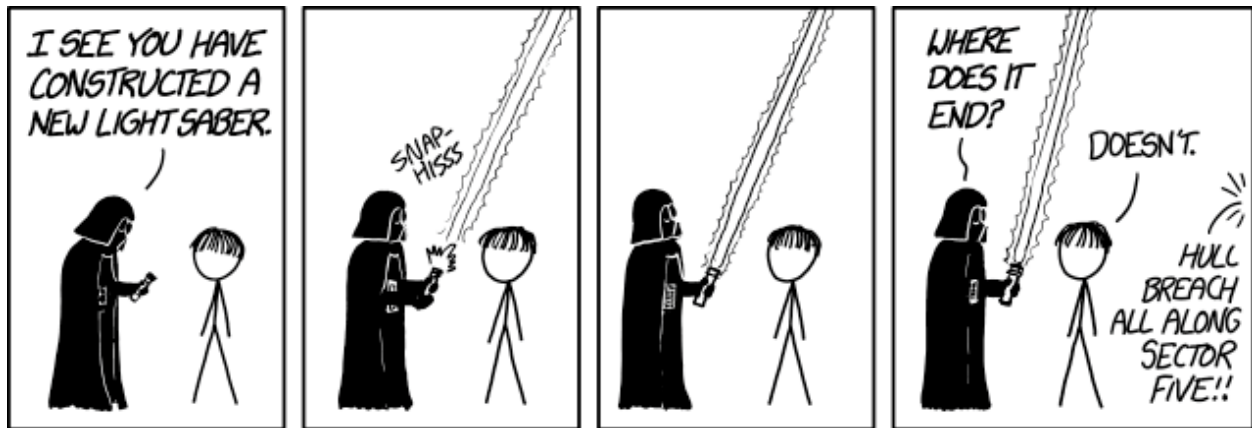
. . . then read over the lab. Answer the following questions.

1. A slit is illuminated first by red light, then by blue light. Which color will spread out the most? Explain.

2. Two sources (A and B) of red light (650 nm wavelength) destructively interfere on a screen. An observer sees a dark spot on the screen. What difference in path length (in nanometers) could account for this? Explain.

$$\Delta L = BC - AC$$





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Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

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Lab 10: Wave Optics

“And God said . . .

$$\oint E \cdot dA = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0} \quad \oint E \cdot dS = \frac{-d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

$$\oint B \cdot dA = 0 \quad \oint B \cdot dS = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{-d\Phi_E}{dt} + \mu_0 I$$

. . . and there was light.”

--Genesis 1:4

Objective: To observe and understand diffraction, constructive interference and destructive interference.

Relate constructive and destructive interference to path length.

Equipment:

Optics track	red and green lasers	
Single slit set	multiple slit set	corkboard & pins
Metal bead glued to a slide	steel/magnetic optics holder	
Ruler	phosphorescent calipers	
100 and 300 lines/mm gratings	Desk lamp	lab jack
One CD and one DVD		

CAUTION: A laser beam hitting someone’s eye is serious!! Practice proper laser safety throughout this lab!

- Remove all watches and shiny jewelry from your hands and wrists. Secure any necklace so it will not fall into the beam.
- If you use glossy nail polish, you must wear gloves.
- Always ensure that the primary and reflected beams are pointed in a safe direction.
- Ensure that the beam always remains parallel to the table.

Introduction

Light is a wave. It exhibits frequency, wavelength, diffraction, and interference: all of the properties associated with waves. However, in our everyday experience, we rarely notice these effects. This is

because the wavelength of light is so small: 400 – 750 nm. To easily observe the wave effects of light, one usually* needs objects (apertures, films, antennae, etc.) with dimensions of a few microns or less.

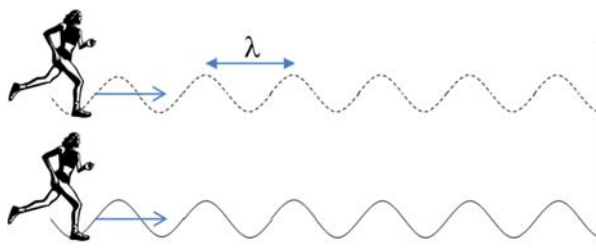
Interference

When two (or more) waves overlap, the type of interference observed depends on the phase difference between the beams.

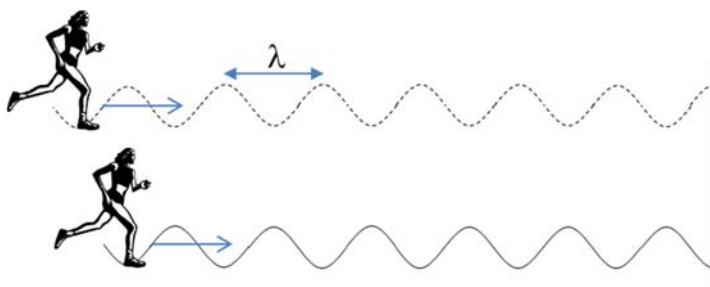
If the phase difference is $0, 2\pi, 4\pi, 6\pi, \dots$, (that is, the waves are *in phase*), one observes constructive interference. The amplitudes of the waves add together, and the intensity is maximized.

If the phase difference is $\pi, 3\pi, 5\pi, \dots$, (that is, the waves have *opposite phase*), one observes destructive interference. One amplitude is subtracted from the other, and the intensity is minimized.

The simplest way to ensure that two waves are in phase is for the path length of the two waves to be the same. Imagine twin runners with identical strides. They start the race together and remain in step throughout the race, they both land on the finish line with their right foot. *In phase*.



However, if one runner starts *half a stride* $\left(\frac{\lambda}{2}\right)$ behind the other, she will finish on her left foot. *Opposite phase*.

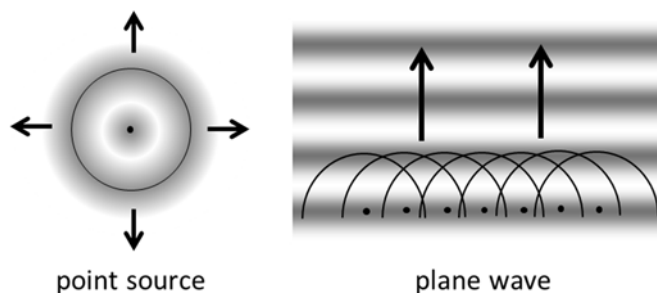


If one runner starts a *full stride* behind the other (λ), she will finish on her _____ foot,
and the runners will be _____ phase.

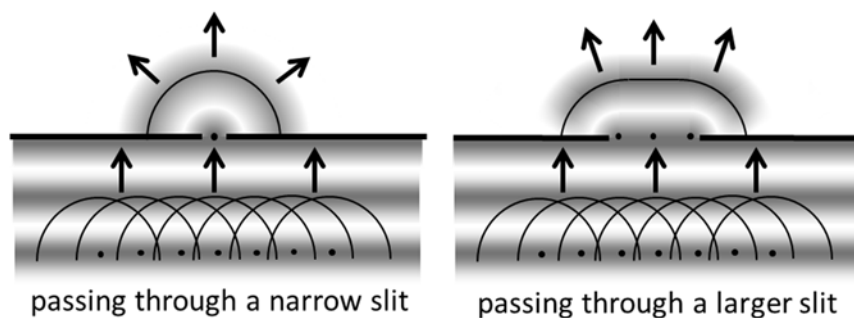
* . . . but not always, . . .

Huygens' Principle

Consider a plane wave moving upward. (See the image below.) Christiaan Huygens* observed that every point along a wave-front can be considered a point source of waves. That is, if you break up the wave front into an infinite number of point sources and then add all of those circular waves together, you will recreate the plane wave.



As a wave passes through a narrow[†] slit, the wave front on the sides is eliminated. The remaining portion of the wave front acts as a point source for circular waves.

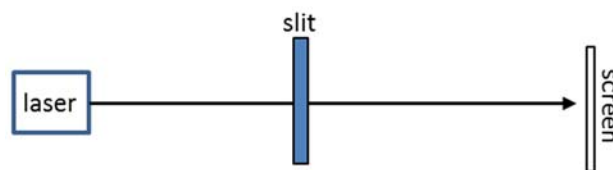
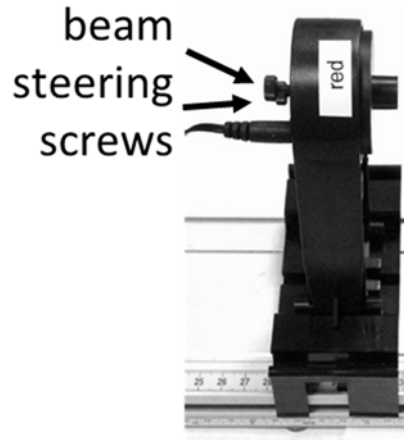


* Only native Dutch speakers can pronounce his name properly, but it is something like *HOW-gkens*. That is *HOW* as in *house*, and *gkens* is just as unpronounceable as it looks.

[†] That is, the width of the slit is close to the wavelength.

Exercise 1: Diffraction

CAUTION: Do not move the lasers or the track! You may steer the laser beam with the adjustment screws.



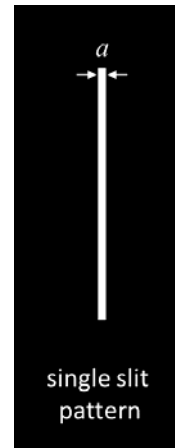
1. Adjust the single slit mask so that the variable slit is active.
2. Turn on the red laser. Using the thumb-screws on the back of the laser module, aim the beam so it passes through the slit and onto the screen..
3. Describe the pattern on the screen. How does the pattern respond to changes in the width of the slit? What distinguishes the patterns produced by the two lasers?

4. How does the orientation of the slit (vertical or horizontal) compare to the orientation of the pattern on the screen?

Exercise 2: Single slit interference

A detailed understanding of the interference pattern produced by a single slit is a subtle problem beyond the concerns of this lab. For a detailed explanation, refer to your physics text.* For now, let's just describe the pattern empirically.

1. Select the $a = 0.04$ mm slit. Position the slit at least 0.8 m from the screen.
2. Adjust both lasers so the beams pass through the slit.
3. Sketch the patterns for each laser. Measure the separation of the adjacent dark spots in each pattern.
4. Repeat for the $a = 0.08$ mm slit.



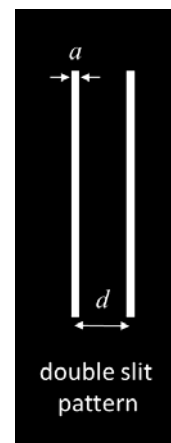
* No, it's not *that* hard.

Exercise 3: Double slit interference

5. Replace the single slit mask with the double slit mask.
6. Adjust the mask so the variable slit is active. Note the effect on the pattern as the gap between the slits changes.

Note: The separation between the slits varies, but the width of each slit remains the same.

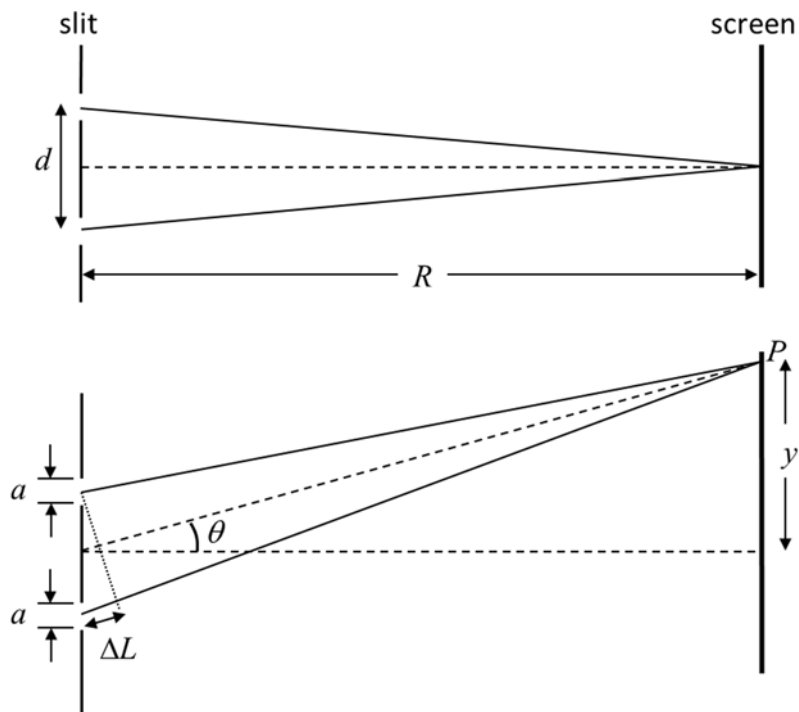
7. Now, try the different double slit patterns, changing a (from 0.04 mm to 0.08 mm) and d (from 0.50 mm to 0.25 mm)
8. Make a sketch of the double slit pattern below. What aspect of the pattern is due to the width a of the individual slits? What aspect is due to the separation d between the slits?
9. Note the value of the width a of each slit and the separation d between the two slits. How do the sizes of these features (a and d) get smaller or larger, what happens to the corresponding feature of the interference pattern observed on the screen?



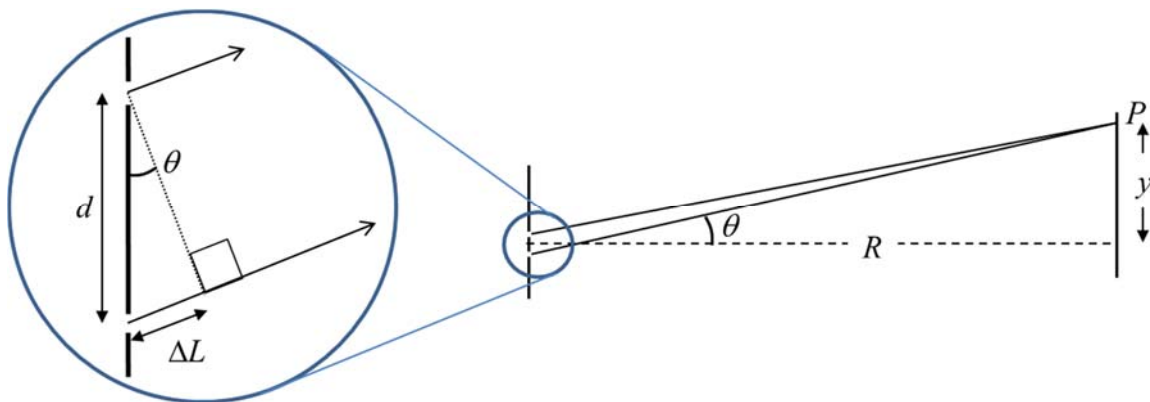
The physics of the double slit

Because of the double slit, the screen is illuminated by two sources of light. Depending on the distance travelled from each slit to a given point on the screen, the light from these slits will interfere constructively (producing a maximum of intensity), or destructively (producing a minimum of intensity), or something in-between.

Using simple geometry, we can calculate the positions of the bright and dark spots for a given wavelength λ of light.



The difference in the optical path length ΔL from each slit to point P on the screen depends on the angle θ and the separation between the two slits d . As the separation between the slits is much smaller than the distance to the screen D , the lines from each slit to point P become essentially parallel.



We can then write the difference in path length ΔL as

$$\Delta L = d \sin \theta \quad (1)$$

A similar triangle relates R and y .

$$\tan(\theta) = \frac{y}{R} \quad (2)$$

When the difference in path length ΔL is a multiple of the wave length, light from the two slits will be in phase and a **maximum** of intensity will be observed on the screen.

$$\Delta L = d \sin \theta = m\lambda, \quad \text{where } m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (3)$$

10. Derive an expression for the angles θ at which a **minimum** of intensity will be observed.

Exercise 4: Measuring the slit

11. Select the $a = 0.04$ mm, $d = 0.50$ mm slit.

While PASCO has kindly described d as 0.50 mm in width, let's not take that number too serious yet. Instead, knowing the wavelength of the red laser (650 nm)*, use the interference pattern to measure d precisely. First, note that the pattern is symmetric about the central bright spot, and then ask yourself the following:

- Can you more accurately locate the dark spots or the bright spots?
 - Which order of m would allow for the most accurate measurement? (Hint: It is easier to measure distances of tens of millimeters than distances of one or two millimeters.)
12. Briefly but clearly, describe your measurement procedure.
13. Perform your measurements and calculate d .
14. Assuming the wavelength is exactly 650 nm, estimate your uncertainty in d .

* I trust the manufacturers of the laser diode more than PASCO.

Exercise 5: Wavelength of the green laser

15. Knowing the value of d , measure the wavelength of the green laser. Estimate your uncertainty.

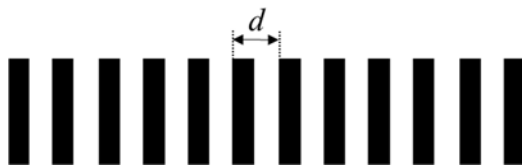
Exercise 6: Multiple slits and Diffraction Gratings

16. Replace the single slit mask to the multiple slit mask. Rotate the mask to the MULTIPLE SLITS setting. Progressively observe the patterns produced by 2, 3, 4, and 5, slits. Record the width a and separation d of the slits.

Note: The width and separation of the slits do not change.

17. How does the pattern change as the number of slits increases? What remains the same?

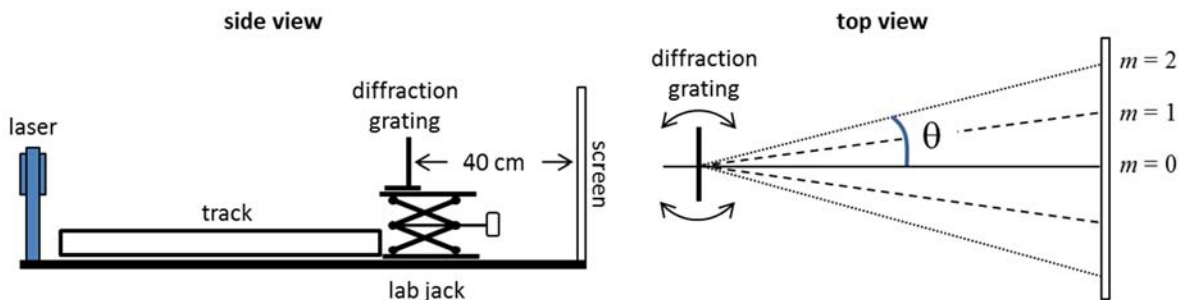
A **diffraction grating** is a sheet of glass or plastic with fine array of lines etched onto the surface. Each line effectively blocks part of the incident light. Basically, it's multiple slits on steroids: lots of *very* narrow slits separated by a *very* small distance d .



The **grating constant** $\left(\frac{1}{d}\right)$ tells you how many lines per millimeter are etched onto the surface. For the two gratings you are given, calculate the separation between adjacent lines.

Caution: Do **not** touch the surface of the diffraction gratings!

18. Look through the diffraction gratings at the lights in the room. Note the color patterns and the differences between the two gratings.
19. Remove the slit and place the 100 lines/mm grating in the path of the laser.



Note the pattern on the screen. The angle to the m^{th} bright spot is given by*

$$\sin(\theta_m) = \frac{m\lambda}{d} \quad (4)$$

20. Slightly rotate the grating back and forth. Note the effect on the diffraction pattern.
21. Repeat for the 300 lines/mm grating.
22. Given Equation (4), briefly explain the difference in the effect changing the diffraction grating and of slightly rotating each grating.

* Does this look familiar?

23. With the 300 lines/mm diffraction grating square to the beam, fill in the table below.

300 lines/mm grating: $d =$ _____

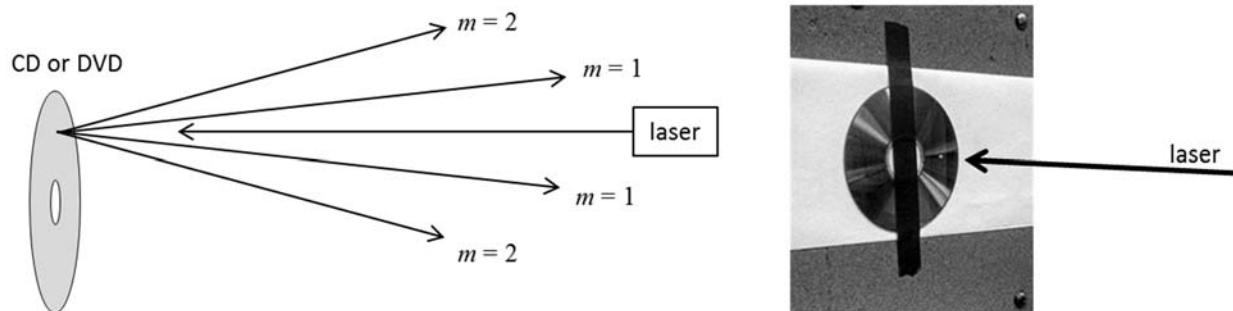
m	θ red	λ red	θ green	λ green
1				
2				

Exercise 7: CD vs. DVD

CDs and DVDs are basically circular diffraction gratings with a mirror added to the back. By measuring the angle of the diffracted light, you can measure the grating constant of these devices.

CAUTION: For this exercise, use only the red laser. Turn the beam off until after the disk is secured to the screen.

24. Consecutively, tape each disk against the screen and observe the reflected pattern. Which disk has the larger grating constant?



Name _____ Section _____ Date _____

Pre-Lab Preparation Sheet for Lab 11:
Spectroscopy and Fluorescence
(Due at the beginning of lab)

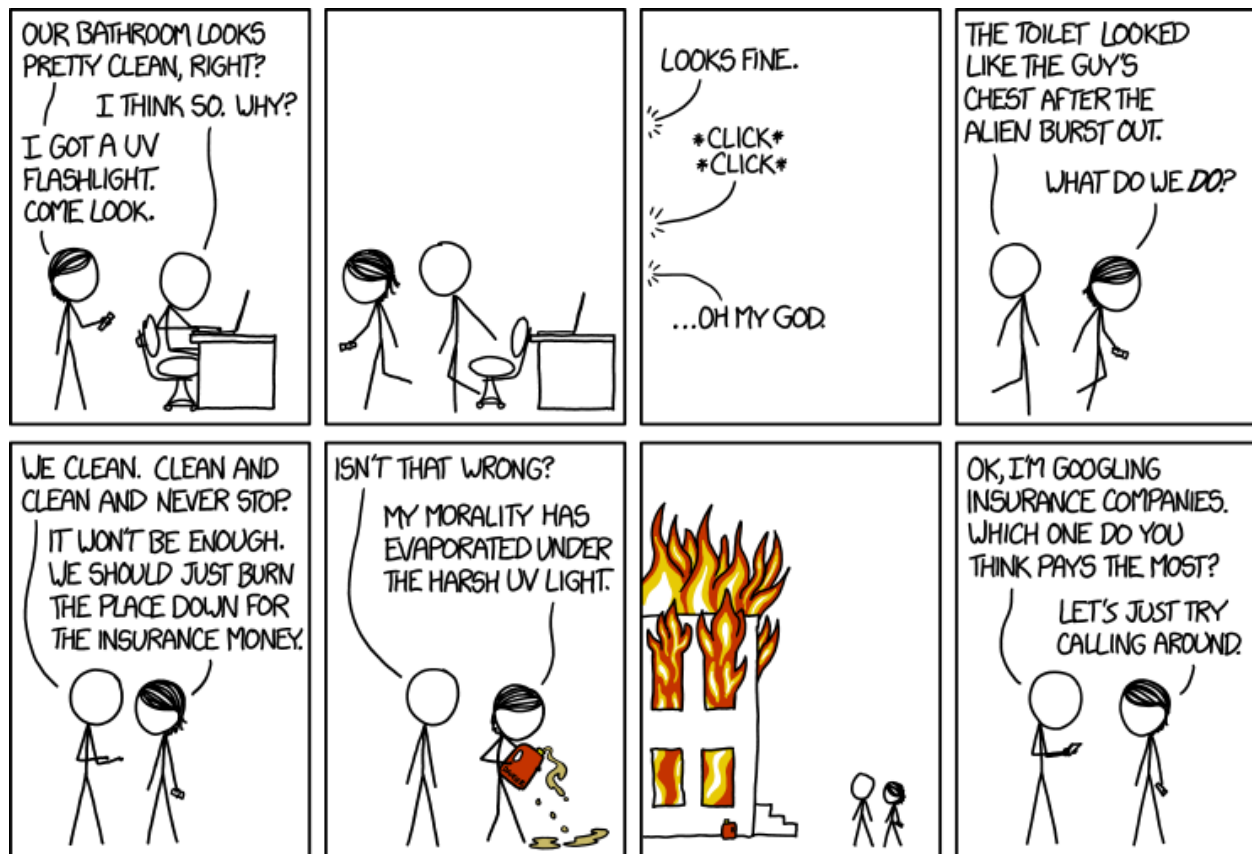
Directions:

First, take this online color vision test.

<http://enchroma.com/test/instructions/>

1. In units of eV , what is the approximate energy of blue photons? Of red photons? Of WiFi photons (2.4 GHz)?

1. Go to publiclab.org/signup, and join Public Lab.



xkcd.com (Don't worry about those stains on the table. I'm sure it's nothing.)

Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

TA _____ Section _____

Lab 11: Spectroscopy and Fluorescence

“If one could only catch that true color of nature - the very thought of it drives me mad.”
 --Andrew Wyeth

Objective: To observe the emission and absorption spectra of various light sources and materials. To understand how conservation of energy applied to absorption and emission spectra.

Equipment

252 mm lens

Hg lamp

steel/magnetic optics holder

corkboard & pins

Ruler

phosphorescent calipers

300 lines/mm gratings

Desk lamp

2 lab jacks

Glow paper

Spectrometer

fresh leaves

Introduction

Light is a **wave**. It exhibits frequency f , wavelength λ , diffraction, and interference: all of the properties we associate with waves.

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

But, it can also behave as a **particle**. Whenever light is absorbed or emitted, it does so in discrete lumps (or *quanta*) of energy called *photons*. The energy of a single photon depends on the frequency of that photon:

$$E = hf = h \frac{c}{\lambda}, \quad (2)$$

where h is a universal constant known as **Plank’s constant**.

$$h \approx 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s} \quad (3)$$

Hence, photon energy is inversely proportional to wavelength. This energy is typically expressed in units of electron-volts (eV).

$$1\text{ eV} \approx (1.602176565(35) \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}) \times (1\text{ V})$$

$$\approx 1.602176565(35) \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \quad (4)$$

In units of eV, Plank's constant is

$$h \approx 4.135667662(25) \times 10^{-15} \text{ eV} \cdot \text{s} \quad (5)$$

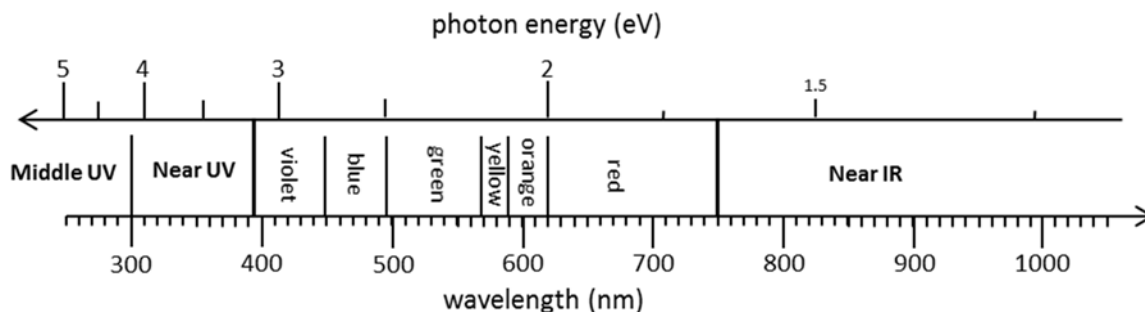


Figure 1

By observing the spectrum of light from an object, we can discover the particular energies emitted or absorbed by that object. In this lab, you will observe several different types of spectra and see what can be learned from each.

The UV Flashlight

Caution: When using ultra-violet (UV) light sources, you must wear eye protection. You will be issued protective eyewear. If you wear corrective eyeglasses, ask your TA to verify that they will provide adequate protection. If your eyeglasses are not adequate, you must wear protective goggles over your glasses.*

The UV flashlight produces mostly UV light, but you will see a very faint violet glow. If you shine it on the walls of the lab, you should see virtually no reflected light. (Go ahead, I'll wait.)

However, if you illuminate a phosphorescent material (such as, a sheet of office paper, a dirty toilet, or clothing washed with fabric brightener), UV light will excite the phosphors in the material which will then glow with visible light. Note the difference between newsprint paper and office paper.

* Also, find a different optometrist.

One such fluorescent material is chlorophyll.

1. Compare its color under room light to its color under UV light. Similarly, compare the color of a leaf under visible and UV.

- How does the energy of the UV light compare to the energy of the fluorescent light? In the case of an actual leaf, what does the leaf do with this difference in energy?

Broad Spectra: Black-Body Radiation

All objects warmer than absolute zero emit a broad spectrum of photons. As the temperature increases, both the average energy (*i.e.* frequency) and total number of photons increases. Get something hot enough (such as a red-hot stove element [~ 830 K], the filament of an incandescent bulb [~ 2800 K], or the surface of the sun [~ 5800 K]), and it will visibly glow. This is called thermal radiation or *black-body radiation**.

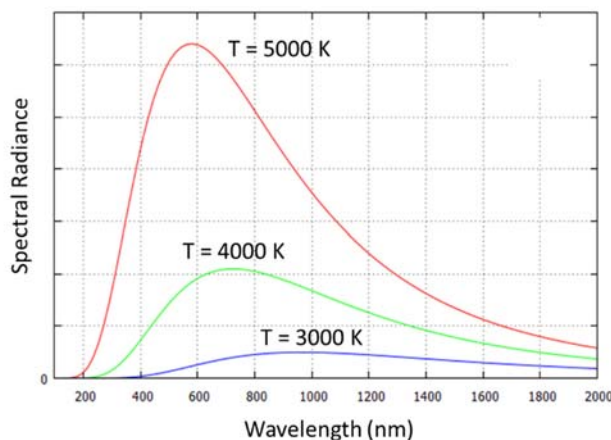


Figure 2: Ideal black-body radiation spectra for objects at three different temperatures.

- Attach a strip of newsprint paper to the corkboard.

* Here, “*black*” implies that there is no reflected light. The emitted light is entirely due to thermal radiation.

- Using a diffraction grating, observe the spectrum from the light box. From the center out, what colors do you observe in the spectrum?

Note: There is no *right* answer here; tell me what *you* see. Compare your observations with your lab partners. If you are color-blind, please mention this.

- As you learned in the last lab, the diffracted angle θ of a light beam is related to the wavelength λ by

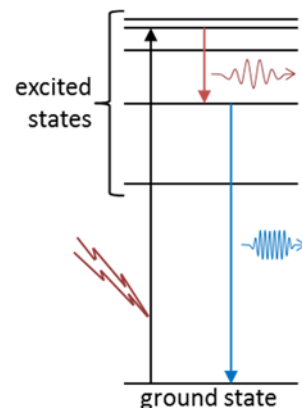
$$\sin(\theta_m) = \frac{m\lambda}{d} \quad (6)$$

Here, m is the order of the diffraction and d is the separation between adjacent lines on the grating. Using this formula, calculate the longest and shortest wavelengths you can see in the spectrum.

- You have 3 filters: yellow, orange, and magenta. Place each in front of the slit and observe what colors are removed from the spectrum.

Discreet Spectra: Atomic line emission

Electrons in an atom can occupy only certain energy levels. Typically they lie in the lowest available level, its so called *ground state*. However, when high voltage current flows through the gas tube, electrons are bumped to higher energy levels (*excitation*). These electrons subsequently drop to lower energy levels (*relaxation*), and with each drop in the electron's energy, a photon is emitted to carry away the lost energy. The larger the change in energy of the electron, the shorter the wavelength of the photon. Since electrons can occupy only certain energy levels in an atom, only energy transitions can be observed.

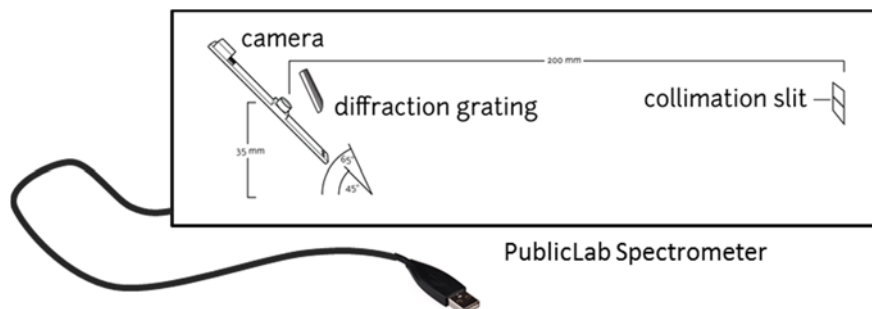


5. Replace the incandescent lamp with the mercury lamp. Refocus the spectrum on the screen and note the colors observed in the spectrum.
6. Replace the newsprint paper with the white paper. Do you see anything different? Describe the full spectrum from the mercury lamp.

7. Place the glow paper over the spectrum for a few seconds, then quickly remove it. Which colors stimulate the glow paper? Which do not? How does this relate to the phosphorescent color of the glow paper? How do the energies of the stimulating light and phosphorescent light compare?

The Spectrometer

To simplify the analysis of spectra, you will now use the PublicLab Spectrometer. It's a very simple device: basically a webcam looking through a diffraction grating*. Unfortunately, it is only sensitive to visible light.



First, you must calibrate your spectrometer.

8. Using Firefox, have one person in your group log into spectralworkbench.org.
9. Click Capture spectra, and grant access to your camera (Share Selected Device).
10. Point the spectrometer at the Mercury lamp, and adjust the angle until you see the image from the webcam on the screen.
11. The yellow line represents the cross section of the image used for the spectrum. Select the optimum cross section with the mouse. Don't overwhelm the detector; keep the intensity below 100%.
12. Begin capturing
13. Once you have acquired a clean spectrum, click Save.
14. Name the spectrum *calibration* and provide a clear description.
15. Click Save & Calibrate later
16. Click Calibrate
17. With the mouse, move the blue B2 line of the standard image to the bright blue line in your spectrum. Move the green G2 line to the bright green line in your spectrum.
18. Click Save.
19. Verify that the blue line is 436 nm and the green line is 546 nm.

You will use this calibration for all future spectra.

* In this case, a broken DVD.

White Light

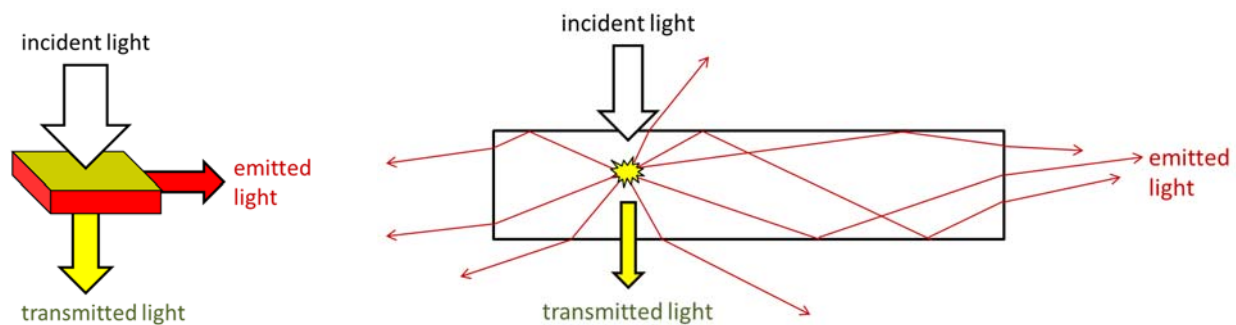
20. Acquire a spectrum of your desk lamp. After saving the spectrum, click Calibrate, then Use existing calibration. Select your *calibration* file. Note the minimum wavelength of light produced.

Note: The spectrum is illustrated with four lines: red, green, blue, and black. For this lab, just use the black line

21. Make a sketch of the white light spectrum on the plot below. (See the next page of the lab.)

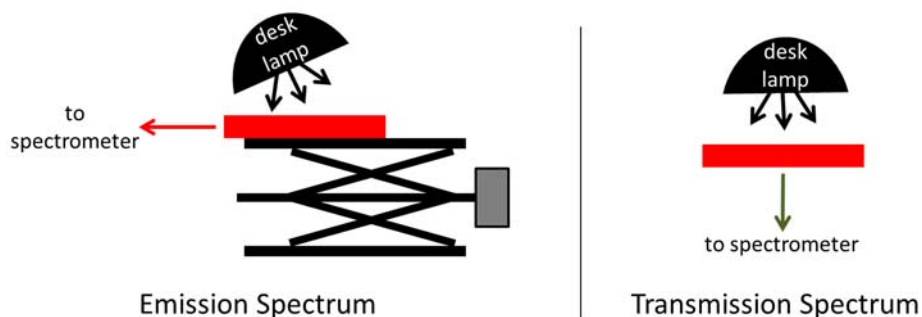
Transmission and Emission Spectra

When a fluorescent material is illuminated with white light, some frequencies are absorbed while others are freely transmitted through the material. Of the light that is absorbed, some of that energy is emitted as fluorescent light while the rest is converted into heat. By looking at the spectra of the transmitted and emitted light, we can determine what frequencies are absorbed and how much energy is converted into heat.



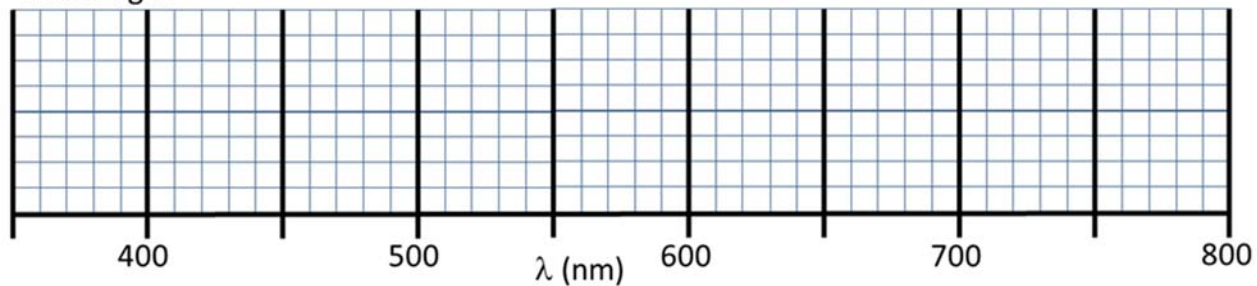
This process can easily be observed with the fluorescent filters. Much of the emitted light, trapped by total internal reflection, bounces between the surfaces of each filter until escaping through the edge.

22. Hold up each of the filters to a white light source. Compare the color of the transmitted light to the light emitted from the edge.
 23. Illuminate the magenta filter with white light. Acquire and save a spectra of the light emitted from the edge.
 24. . . . then acquire and save a spectra of the transmitted light.



25. Compare these two spectra and the white light spectrum.
26. On the diagram below, sketch and label the *emission* band.
27. Also on the same diagram below, sketch and label the *transmission* spectrum.

White light



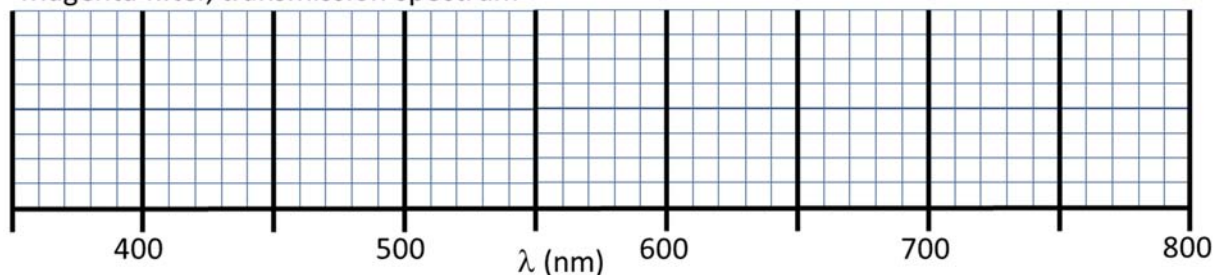
The Stokes Shift

We'll describe the *absorption spectrum* as the *incident spectrum* (white light) minus the *transmitted spectrum*. The difference in frequency between the emission band and the light absorbed by the filter is called the *Stokes Shift*.

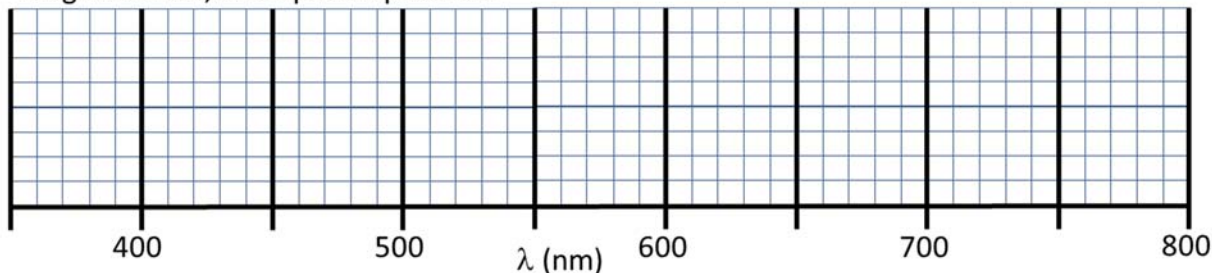
28. Repeat this comparison for the yellow/green filter.
29. In each case, what is the direction of the Stokes Shift? Explain this in terms of energy conservation.

30. Approximately, what is the Stokes Shift in each case?
31. Applying Equ. (2), what is the difference in energy (in eV) between the absorbed and emitted photons?

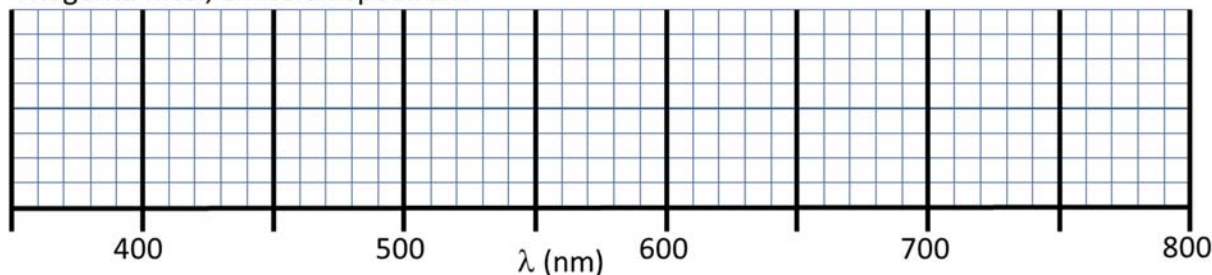
Magenta filter, transmission spectrum



Magenta filter, absorption spectrum



Magenta filter, emission spectrum

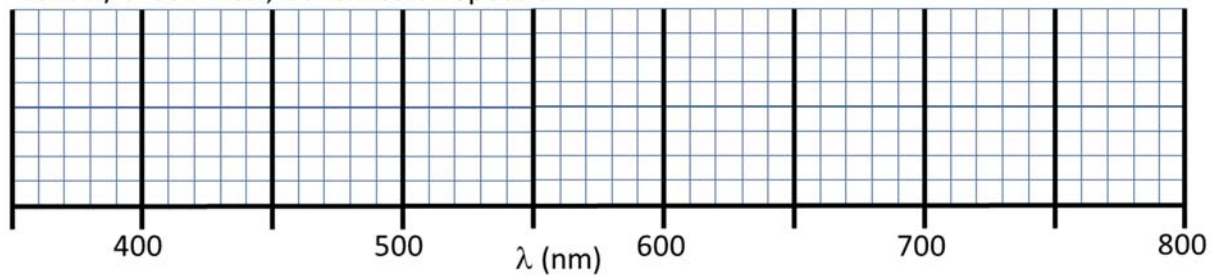


Stokes shift (nm) = _____

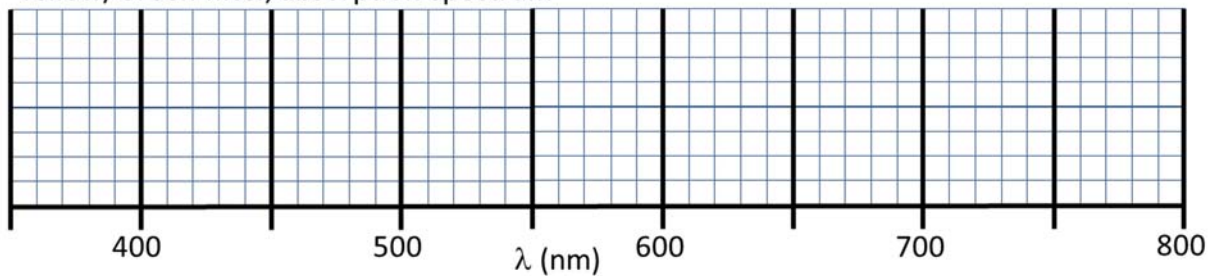
Change in photon energy (eV) = _____

(Be careful with your math here.)

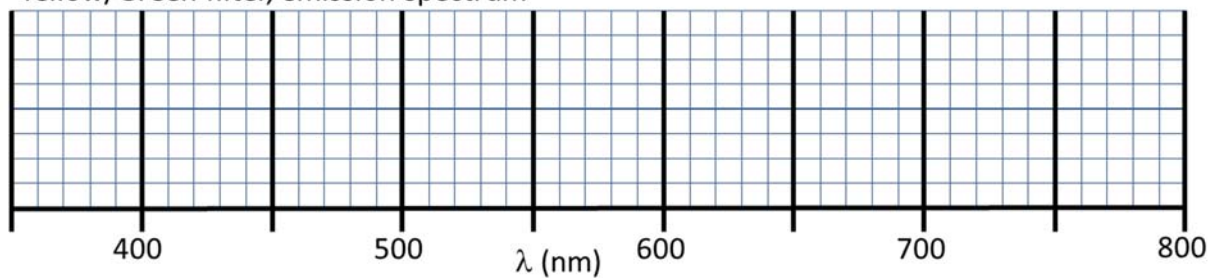
Yellow/Green filter, transmission spectrum



Yellow/Green filter, absorption spectrum



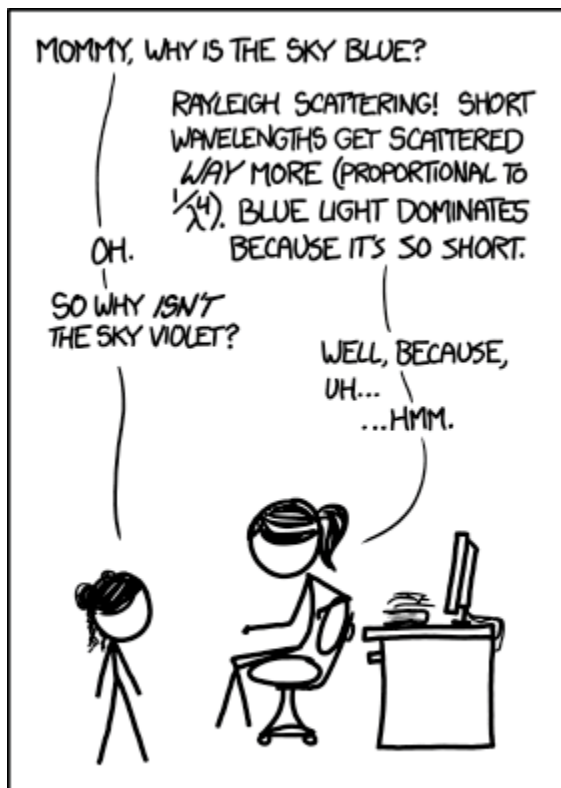
Yellow/Green filter, emission spectrum



Stokes shift = _____

Change in photon energy (eV) = _____

3. Feynman recounted another good one upperclassmen would use on freshmen physics students: When you look at words in a mirror, how come they're reversed left to right but not top to bottom? What's special about the horizontal axis?



MY HOBBY: TEACHING TRICKY QUESTIONS TO THE CHILDREN OF MY SCIENTIST FRIENDS.

xkcd.com

Name _____ Date _____ Partners _____

TA _____ Section _____

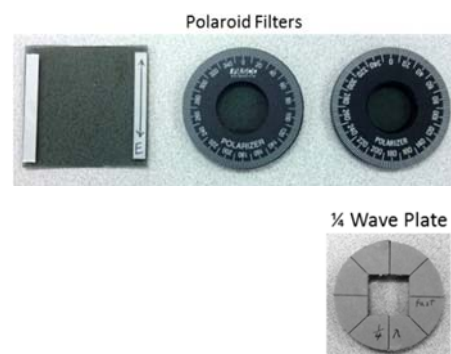
Lab 12: Polarization of Light

Any sufficiently advanced technology is indistinguishable from magic.
 --Arthur C. Clark's 3rd Law

Objective: To understand linear and circular polarization of light in terms of component waves.

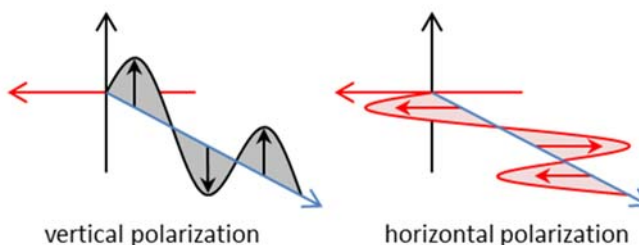
Equipment:

- Three polaroid filters
- Two $\frac{1}{4}$ wave plates
- Magnetic optic rail
- Four magnetic optic mounts
- One steel optic mount
- White screen with magnetic mount
- White light source
- Green flashlights



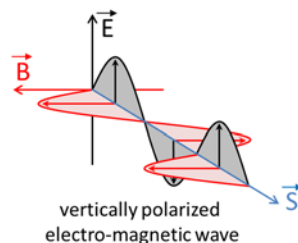
Introduction

Transverse waves, *ipso facto*, have orientation dependence. Consider the case of someone shaking a rope to produce waves: the wave will be different if he shakes his hand *up and down* versus *left to right*. We call this difference **polarization**. Shaking the rope *up and down* will produce a *vertically polarized* wave. Shaking the rope *left to right* will produce a *horizontally polarized* wave.



In contrast, longitudinal waves have no such orientation dependence. One does not speak of polarized sound waves.

Electromagnetic waves, including visible light, are transverse waves. The orientation of the oscillating electric \vec{E} and magnetic \vec{B} fields are perpendicular to the travel direction \vec{S} of the wave.



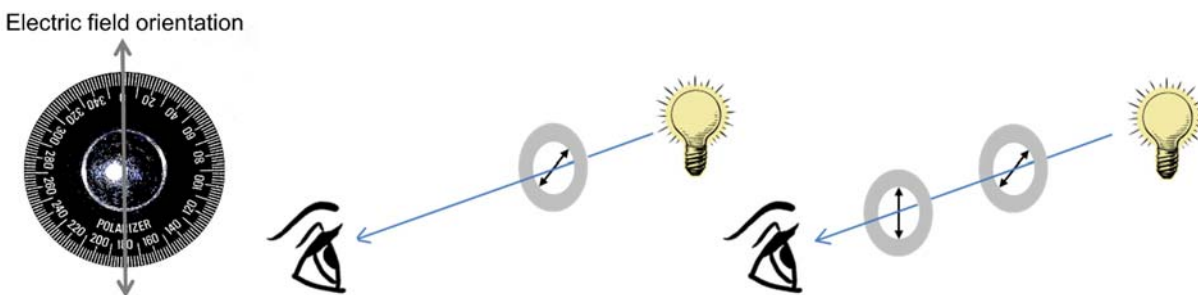
By convention, the polarization axis is defined by the orientation of the electric field. While we will not mention the magnetic component of the electro-magnetic wave for the rest of the lab, rest assured that it is still there.

So if light is a transverse wave, and transverse waves are polarized, how can you have non-polarized light?

Good question! I'm glad you asked. Imagine someone shaking a rope, but they are constantly changing the way they shake it. Say, three up and down shakes, followed by two horizontal shakes, and then four diagonal shakes. On average, there is no particular orientation to the waves. Similarly, most light sources (sunlight, light bulbs, and even some lasers) produce non-polarized (or more accurately *randomly polarized*) light. However, there are several methods to convert randomly polarized light into polarized light.

Polaroid Filters and Linearly Polarized Light

A Polaroid* filter works by absorbing light of one orientation (say, horizontal) while allowing the other orientation (say, vertical) to pass freely. You are provided with several such polarizers. The 0° angle marks the orientation of the electric field which can pass through the filter.



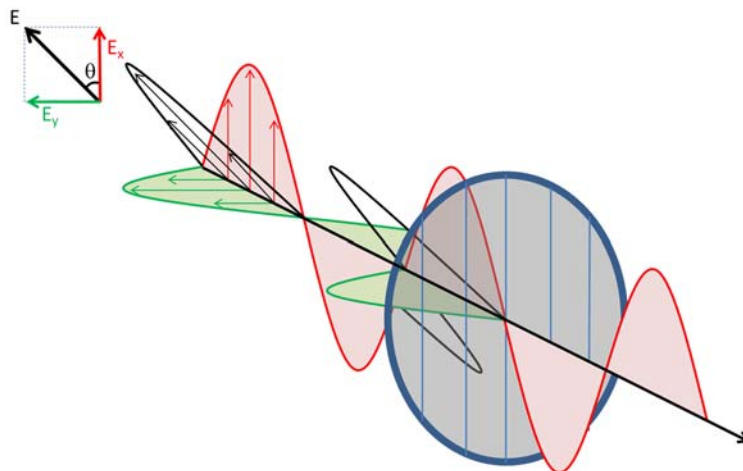
1. Look through one of your Polaroid filters. Rotate the polarizer in your hand. Since the room lights are randomly polarized, half of the light will be absorbed by the filter regardless of the orientation of the filter.

The other half of the light will pass through the filter. It will be polarized in the direction set by the filter.

* The Polaroid filter was invented by Edwin Land, who also invented the instant camera.

2. Look through two polarizers. Rotate one polarizer with respect to the second.
 - a. How should the two polarizers be oriented to maximize the light transmission?

 - b. How should the two polarizers be oriented to minimize the light transmission?



This Polaroid filter is oriented to block the y component of the incoming beam.

The electric field of the polarized beam is a vector, and like any vector you can break it into component vectors and treat each component separately.

3. To better visualize this, run the program EMANIM from your desktop. You will see just the horizontal component of a light beam. Check the box for Wave 2 and Wave1 + Wave2.

NOTE: Throughout this lab, relate your physical observations to the EMANIM simulation. This is the best way to understand the underlying wave theory.

If you orient a Polaroid filter along the x -axis, it will allow the x component to pass while blocking the y component.

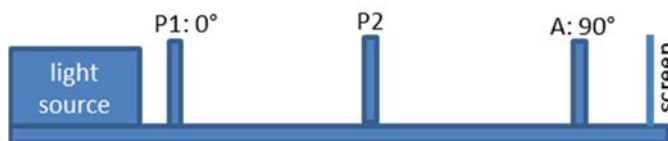
4. Look through a single Polaroid filter at desktop screen of your computer monitor. Rotate the polarizer and observe the effect.
Polarization of light from the screen : *horizontal* or *vertical*
5. Assemble two polarizers (P1 and A) on the optical bench as shown. Use the square polarizer for A.

Rotate A relative to P1 and observe the effect on the transmitted light.

NOTE: The last polarizer in your system is called the *analyzer*, for it is used to determine the final polarization of a system. Here, A is the analyzer.



6. Adjust the analyzer to 90° . Note the effect on the transmitted light.
7. Suppose you were to add a third polarizer between P1 and A. What would be the effect on the transmitted light? Discuss this with your lab partner.
8. Perform the experiment. Insert P2 as shown. Rotate P2 from 270° to 90° (-90° to $+90^\circ$) and record at what angles the transmitted light is maximized and at what angles it is minimized.

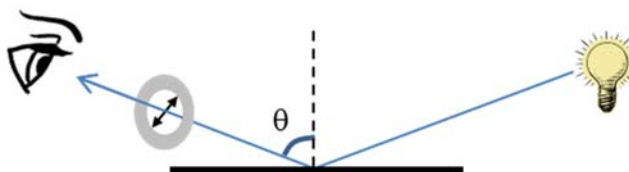


Maximum transmission:

Minimum transmission:

Polarization by Reflection

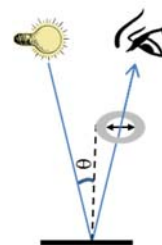
Light can be polarized (or partially polarized) by specular reflection off an insulator (such as glass, water, or the surface of your table).



1. Looking through a polarizer, observe the reflection of your desk lamp off a glossy surface such as the table top. Which orientation of light is preferentially reflected? Light oriented parallel or perpendicular to the plane table?

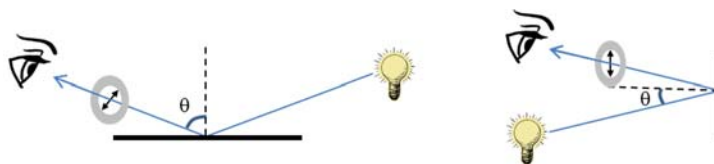
- Which way should a driver's polarized glasses be oriented to minimize the glare off a wet highway?

- Now observe the reflection of the lamp at a steep angle. How does the angle of incidence θ affect the polarization?



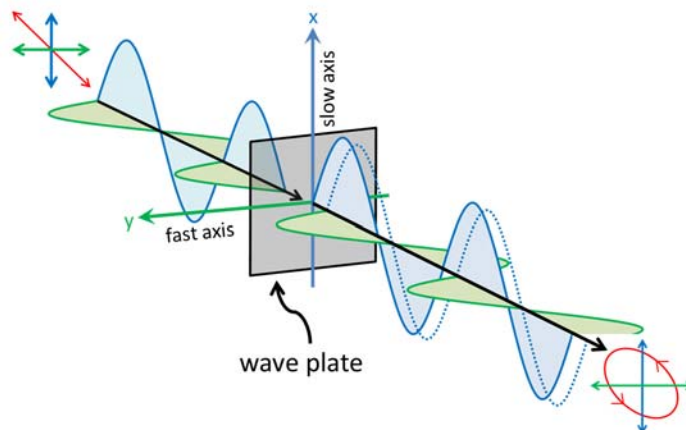
For polarization to be possible there must be an asymmetry in the system between perpendicular components of the light. Somehow, the x -axis must be different from the y -axis.

- With the Polaroid filter, the plastic is engineered so that long thin crystals of herapatheite are oriented along one direction in the filter. Light oriented parallel to these crystals is absorbed; light oriented perpendicular to these crystals passes freely.
 - For light reflecting off a surface, the orientation of the electric field to the surface of the glass is different for light parallel to the surface of the glass verses light perpendicular to the surface of the glass.
- Applying this principle of symmetry**, explain the difference in the observed polarization of light with a large incidence angle θ verses a small incidence angle.



Circular Polarization

Consider a linearly polarized beam oriented 45° to the x axis. It will have components of equal amplitude in the x and y directions. (See the figure below.)



Let's pass this beam through a material where the speed of light of the x component is slower than the speed of the y component.* This causes the x component to lag behind. Such materials are called *birefringent*. A birefringent material used in such a manner is called a *wave plate*.

Now, instead of oscillating up and down, the electric field spirals around in a helix. At no point is the electric field zero. The beam is *elliptically polarized*.

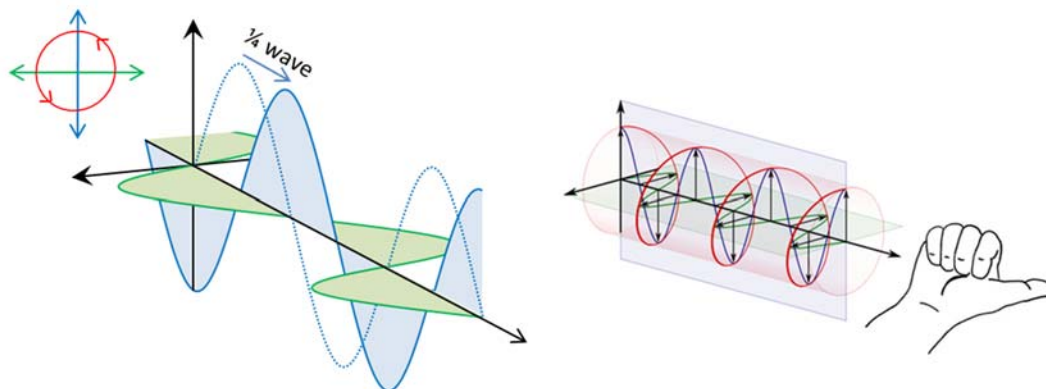
1. To better visualize this, return to the EMANIM program. Adjust the Phase difference slider for Wave2 and watch the effect on the resultant wave.

If we adjust the thickness of the material just right, we can delay the x component by $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength behind the y component (phase shift of -90°). Such a device is called a $\frac{1}{4}$ wave plate. Now, the amplitude is constant as it rotates and the light is *left circularly polarized (lcp)*.† If we rotate the wave plate by 90° , the x component would be advanced by $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength ($+90^\circ$ phase shift) and the light would become *right circularly polarized (rcp)*.

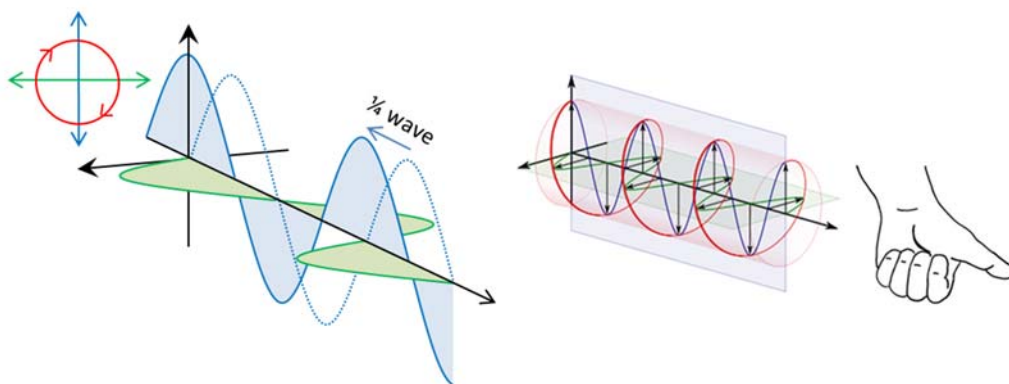
Note: Your wave plates are optimized for green light. Thus, for the following measurements, place the green filter in front of the light source.

* Equivalently, we could say that the index of refraction for the x component is greater than the index of refraction for the y component.

† That is, the electric field vector would trace out a left handed helix through space. This is best seen in the animation.

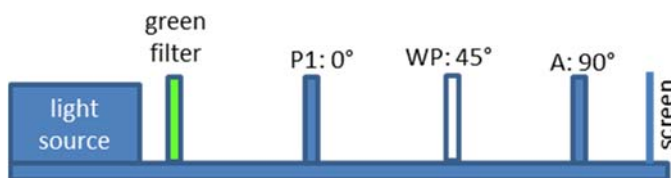


Right Circular Polarization (RCP)



Left Circular Polarization (LCP)

2. Examine the quarter wave plates. You will notice the fast axis is marked with a red line. Look through the wave plate at the room lights and your computer monitor. You should find it completely unremarkable.
3. Arrange your optical bench as shown below, with the $\frac{1}{4}$ wave plate oriented at 45° .



4. Slowly rotate the analyzer and observe the effect on the screen. What happens to the intensity? Describe the result below.

5. Orient the wave plate so that the fast axis is parallel (0°) to P1. Rotate the analyzer and observe the effect on the screen. Is the light linear or circular? If linear, what is the direction of the polarization?

6. Look at the light from your cell phone screen through an analyzer. Rotate the analyzer in your hand. Is the light from your cell phone or calculator linearly polarized or circularly/elliptically polarized? Explain.

7. Hold up the U shaped plastic* window to the computer screen. Then look at it through the analyzer. Gently squeeze on the arms and observe the changing color pattern.



In this case, the birefringence arises from internal stress in the material. The birefringence is also a function of wavelength. As different colors become more or less elliptical, they will be more or less blocked by the polarizer. Hence, the observed colors.

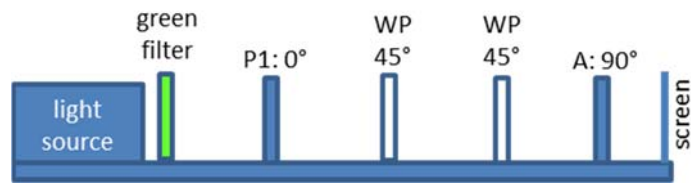
$\frac{1}{2}$ Wave Plate

If we add a 2nd $\frac{1}{4}$ wave plate oriented in the same direction as the first, you will create a $\frac{1}{2}$ wave plate. Study the diagram below.

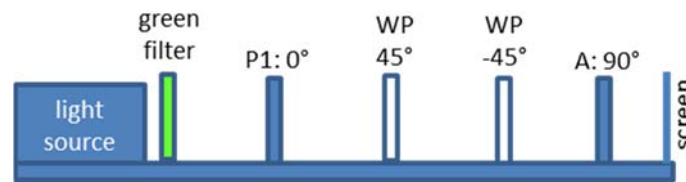
8. Simulate the effect of a $\frac{1}{2}$ wave plate on linearly polarized light with EMANIM. Describe the effect below.

* Polycarbonate, in this case.

9. Combine both $\frac{1}{4}$ wave plates to create a $\frac{1}{2}$ wave plate. Place this on the optical bench at 45° relative to P1. Is the light linear or circular? If linear, what is the direction of the polarization?



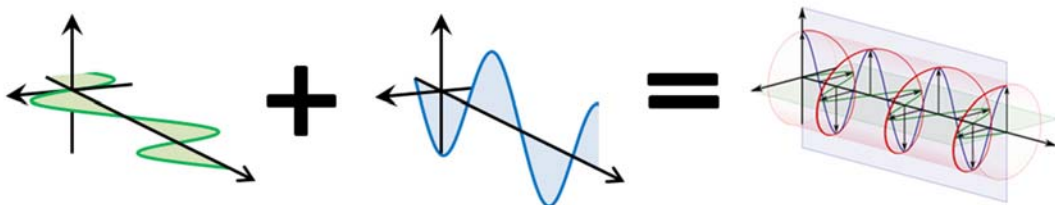
10. Orient the 2nd wave plate so that its fast axis is parallel to the slow axis of the 1st wave plate. Is the light linear or circular? If linear, what is the direction of the polarization?



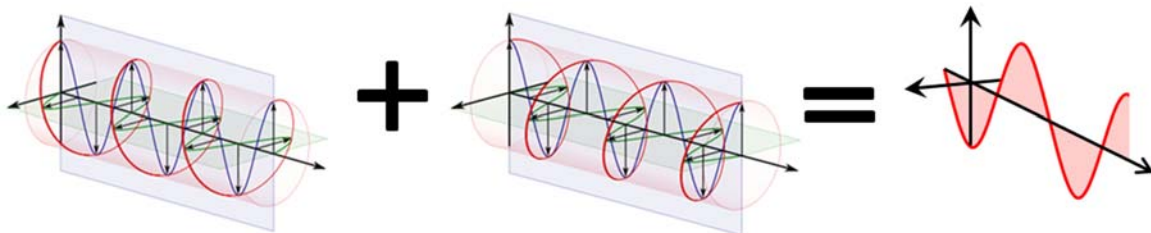
11. What is the difference in velocity for the vertical and horizontal components of the wave plate?

Polarization and Components

We can think of an elliptically polarized beam as being the sum of a horizontally polarized beam and a vertically polarized beam. The amplitudes and phases of these two linear component beams determine the ellipticity of the resulting beam and whether it will be left or right handed.



Similarly, a linearly polarized beam can be thought of as the sum of a right circularly polarized beam and a left circularly polarized beam.



12. Return to the EMANIM program. Change the Polarization of Wave1 to Left circular and the polarization of Wave2 to Right Circular.

13. Adjust the Phase difference for Wave2. How does this affect the resultant wave?

Summing Up

14. Explain how you could experimentally distinguish linearly polarized light and non-polarized light. (Draw a diagram of you detector.)

15. Explain how you could experimentally distinguish linearly polarized light and circularly polarized light

16. Explain how you could experimentally distinguish circularly polarized light and non-polarized light.

17. Explain how you could experimentally distinguish left circularly polarized light and right circularly polarized light.

18. Examine the three sets of spectacles on your table. Determine if the lenses are polarized and if so how (linear or circular), and how each lens is constructed. Explicitly explain your reasoning with each lens.

Hint:

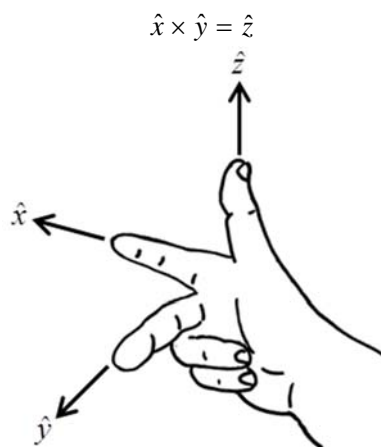
Are the polarizations of the right and left lenses the same?

Does the polarization properties depend on which direction light passes through the lenses?

Appendix: The Right Hand Rule and Right Handed Coordinates

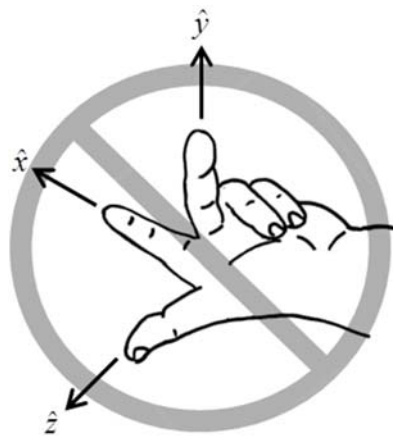
Many of the equations used in this lab and the associated class require that you use a *Right Handed Coordinate System*, particularly for those equations involving cross products. Using the wrong coordinates can lead to considerable confusion and grief; so, **get in the habit of drawing your coordinate axes correctly!**

Consider the illustration of a Right Handed Coordinate axes below*. The unit vectors \hat{x} , \hat{y} , and \hat{z} correspond to the index finger, middle finger, and thumb respectively. Here



Right Handed Coordinates

Below is an example of a Left Handed Coordinate system where $\hat{x} \times \hat{y} = -\hat{z}$, and *that's wrong!!*



Left Handed Coordinates

* . . . aka, *the physics gang sign*.