

Physics 1320L
Laboratory Manual

New Mexico Tech

Spring 2026

Preface

Our freshman laboratory program aspires to provide students with engaging and rewarding interactions with the physics of the world around them. The weekly laboratories address a cross-section of the concepts introduced in the lecture part of the course. The *Physics Laboratory Manual* is the handbook for the class and introduces the student to the techniques of obtaining and analyzing experimental observations using diverse methods and equipment. The sessions are led by a Teaching Assistant (TA), who is usually a physics graduate student.

Your TA will provide you with a syllabus during the first lab session that will outline the requirements for each lab and its associated laboratory report. In general, students are asked to report their activities and results clearly and concisely in formats ranging from “worksheets” to a formal lab report write-up. The time spent outside of lab on preparation, data analysis, and presentation will vary somewhat on the lab and on the TA, and especially on how much work is done while in the lab. An average time of no more than 3 hours of outside work per lab is encouraged.

Some guidelines to remember throughout the semester:

1. Make sure to always get your raw data sheet signed and/or initialed by your TA prior to leaving the lab session.
2. Punctuality in attendance and completion of assignments.
3. Rotation of individual roles in a team effort to ensure everyone’s participation in the exercises.
4. Approaching all issues with professional courtesy and respecting the efforts, opinions, and property of others.
5. **Disruptive behavior**, including horseplay and reckless use of equipment, will NOT be tolerated!

In an effort to provide the most interesting and interactive physics labs possible, the department of physics at New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology undertook a significant revision of its lab course manual (Physics 122) during the 2017 – 2018 academic year. This involved major modifications and improvements to already existing labs, and building labs combining ideas from several different sources and universities. Some of the worksheets used for labs are adapted from those written by graduate student Virginie Montes.

Of course, nothing is ever done in isolation, and our efforts relied heavily on the work of those who came before, most notably the original author of a major portion of the labs found within this manual. Also, Dr. Paul Krehbiel and Dr. Barry

Sabol provided useful, additional material and information for the labs over the years, which directly led to several of the modifications made. We'd like to also thank current and previous NM Tech physics graduate student instructors and physics professors for their efforts on behalf of this course, including informative and critical feedback.

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Part I

Laboratory Exercises

Chapter 1

Wave Superposition

In this Lab exercise, we investigate standing waves on a string under tension to introduce the concept of superposition. Superposition is at the base of the study of electromagnetic phenomena and will be investigated in that context in a later lab.

1.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

Look up and read about superposition of waves in your physics text.

1.2 Introduction

The superposition of oppositely moving waves causes standing waves. In the specific case of a string under tension, the velocity of a traveling wave is given by

$$v_p = \sqrt{F/\mu} \quad (1.1)$$

where F is the string tension in Newtons (N) and μ is the mass per unit length of the string in kgm^{-1} .

In a short high-tension string, like a guitar string, traveling waves are reflected at the end-point. There are many such reflections for each pluck of the string, leading to the superposition of forward and backward traveling waves.

It can be shown that the superposition of waves (with amplitude A , angular frequency ω ,

and wave number k) that travel in opposite directions can be represented as

$$S(x, t) = 2A \sin(kx) \sin(\omega t). \quad (1.2)$$

For a given value of x , say, $x = x_o$, the $\sin(\omega t)$ factor indicates that this ‘point’ is undergoing simple harmonic motion with a amplitude of $2A \sin(kx_o)$. For certain values of x , the amplitude is zero. These points are called nodes. They are found by setting $\sin(kx) = 0$ which implies that

$$kx = m\pi \implies x = \frac{j\pi}{k}, \quad (1.3)$$

where j is an integer, note that the first node occurs for $j = 0$, the second for $j = 1$, etc.

For this experiment, we would like an expression for the wavelength that can be calculated easily from quantities that are easy to measure on a string exhibiting standing waves. We now derive such an expression.

The definition of wavelength, λ tells us that the distance between nodes denoted Δx , is half the wavelength, that is

$$\lambda = 2\Delta x. \quad (1.4)$$

Does this make sense based on Figure 1.1? From Figure 1.1, we can see that the length of the string, L (measured from the first node to the last node) can be written as

$$L = \Delta x(n - 1) \implies \Delta x = L/(n - 1), \quad (1.5)$$

where n is the node number –we need at least two nodes for the equation to be valid. Plugging this into Equation 1.4 gives us

$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n - 1} = \frac{2L}{m}, \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (1.6)$$

where m is best thought of as the number of antinodes on the standing waveform. Antinodes are the points of maximum amplitude along the string. The points of minimum amplitude on the string of a guitar are remarkably close to true nodal points. In contrast, the low tension string in this lab is highly dissipative and requires a mechanically driven oscillator at a constant frequency to continuously generate standing waves. In this case, except for the node at the end of the string (away from the driver), the nodal points allow a bit of motion for the energy to flow from the driver to the end of the string and back. Nevertheless, their amplitude is small enough (compared to the amplitude at the antinodes) that they can be considered true nodes.

1.3 Procedure

Suspend a mass of 150g from the string and tune the driver to produce well-defined envelopes on the string. Find the frequencies that produce 1, 2, 3, ..., 7 antinodes. Repeat for a hanging

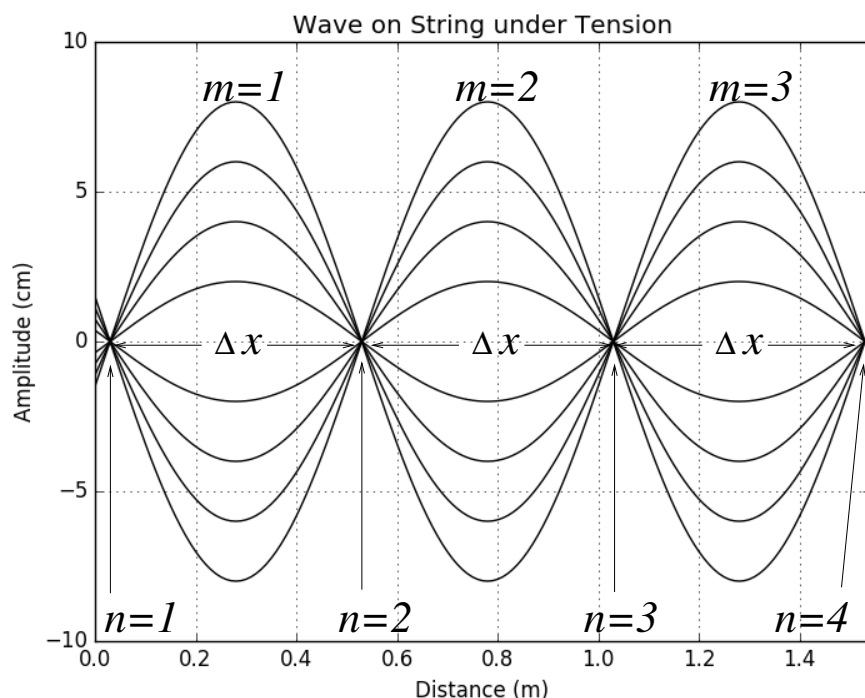


Figure 1.1: Standing waves on a string with 4 nodes and 3 antinodes. This is sometimes referred to as the third harmonic.

mass of 300g. Finally, use a piece of string of the same kind as that of the set up to find the density for this type of string.

Do Not Disassemble the Setup!

1.4 Data

Record the length of the string on your setup, the frequencies that produce each number of antinodes, and the number of nodes. Organize your results in a table. Also, record the mass and length of the sample string to determine its density.

1.5 Analysis

Determine the density of the string; next, for each hanging mass find the tension on the string; afterward, use Equation 1.1 to find the predicted velocities for each tension.

Use Equation 1.6 to find the wavelength. From each frequency, obtain the period, T . Make

a plot λ versus T . Use a ruler to find the best-fit line for your data and determine its slope (observed velocity). Compare the predicted velocity to the observed velocity.

Chapter 2

Oscilloscopes

This lab is a tutorial on oscilloscopes. It is introduced here in preparation for some of the labs dealing with signals that change in time. Nevertheless, it gives you hands-on practice with wave concepts like amplitude and frequency. The important concept of Voltage and its relationship to work is introduced later in the semester, but here it is used as an example of a time-varying signal.

2.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

2.2 Introduction

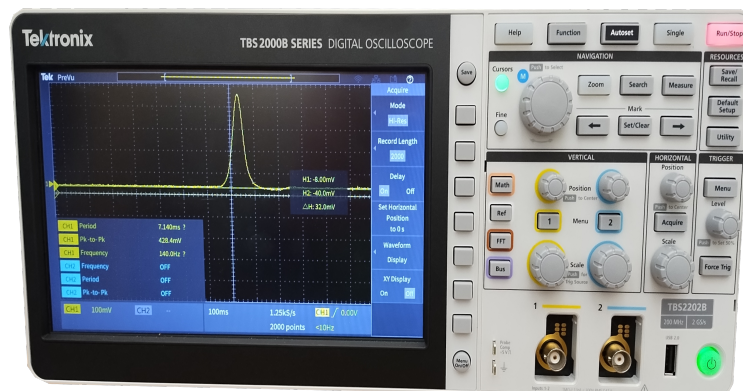


Figure 2.1: Oscilloscope's Screen.

In this lab, the Oscilloscope is introduced as a tool to measure alternating voltages arising in AC circuits. The lab will guide you through a series of simple exercises to practice the usage of this important measurement device. As such, this laboratory may not require a full report, but you may be required to pass a practice quiz or fill out a worksheet. Follow the directions of your instructor to report your data and observations.

An oscilloscope is a device for measuring and displaying a voltage trace (waveform), either versus time or another voltage. In contrast to an analog oscilloscope, which displays the signal in real-time, a modern digital oscilloscope like the ones used in this lab samples the input analog (continuous) voltage at regular intervals and store samples until it has enough to display the voltage trace. Regardless of the specific type of digital Oscilloscope, all of them have VERTICAL, HORIZONTAL, ACQUISITION, and TRIGGERING systems. Which we now describe.

2.2.1 VERTICAL System

Input signals are first passed through this system to prepare their amplitudes for the rest of the systems, but otherwise, they are left unaltered. Through this system, we set the vertical scale shown on the screen: how many volts per major screen division. This system allows us to move the voltage trace vertically so you can align it with the grid to facilitate the measurements.

2.2.2 HORIZONTAL System

This system contains the sample clock and sets the time per division on the screen. The input voltage is converted from analog (continuous) to digital (discrete) values; these discrete voltage values correspond to the vertical coordinates on the screen. The clock assigns each voltage sample a precise time, so each sample corresponds to a specific horizontal coordinate. When displayed on the screen, the list of horizontal and vertical values will form the signal's trace.

2.2.3 ACQUISITION System

This system is typically part of the HORIZONTAL system and determines how many voltage samples are collected and recorded. Digital oscilloscopes should have enough memory to hold this list of data; the amount of memory required to keep these data is called the record length, which is an important performance parameter of the Oscilloscope.

2.2.4 TRIGGERING System

This system is essential to the proper operation of the Oscilloscope. At its core, this system tells the Oscilloscope when to display the voltage trace. It looks at the triggering signal and waits until its Amplitude reaches a certain level to display the trace. Usually, the triggering signal is the same as the input signal, but not always. For instance, we could have an input signal on CH1 and a triggering signal on CH2.

The trigger system inspects the incoming signal for a user-specified condition; the time this condition happens is set as a reference time and attached to the data record. Typically, the voltage trace is displayed starting at the time when the trigger condition is met. Having a reference time to start displaying the data record ensures that a stable and consistent voltage trace is displayed on the screen. In general, the trigger condition could be a voltage threshold, pulse widths, or many other conditions.

2.3 Setup

2.3.1 Oscilloscope

The initial setup could be as simple as turning on the Oscilloscope, plugging the input signal into CH1, and pressing the autosetting button. Nevertheless, there will be times when you need more skill.

Please refer to Figures (2.1) which show the front of the Oscilloscopes used in this lab. Setting up the Oscilloscope is very important to obtain accurate and consistent measurements. Later in the semester, we will have more opportunities to explore various settings. For the exercises in this lab, a basic setup will suffice. Before taking any measurements, familiarize yourself with the Oscilloscope's operation.

When you know some basic information about the input signal, like what sort of frequency and Amplitude should be expected, even if it is approximated. Then, you can manually set up the Oscilloscope. In this case, you adjust the vertical and horizontal systems to select an appropriate voltage range and adequate time scale. Then, you set the trigger point to produce a stable trace. However, you often have to tweak the initial setup to produce a nice trace. Nevertheless, with a modern oscilloscope, an adequate and stable voltage trace can be easily obtained by pressing the autosetting button. You may still have to tweak the setup before you make your measurements, and for this reason, you should get familiar with the various systems of the Oscilloscope.

2.3.2 Signal Generator.

Connect the output of the signal generator to the CH1 input of the Oscilloscope. This connection can be made using the ‘banana’ leads and BNC-to-banana adapters. The outside conductor of the coaxial BNC connector is the ground side and corresponds to the black banana terminal. Ensure that the ground of the signal generator is connected to the ground of the Oscilloscope. Select a sine wave output from the signal generator. Adjust the signal generator to produce a sine wave of frequency 1 kilo Hertz (1 kHz). The signal’s frequency, f , is related to its period, T , as $T = 1/f$. Use this relationship to adjust the Oscilloscope’s time scale so that each cycle of the input signal corresponds to two major divisions of the screen.

Adjust the range of the input signal to 2 volts peak-to-peak (p-p). Normally, it is easier to measure peak-to-peak values and then divide them by two to find the Amplitude of the wave.

If needed, fine-tune the output of the signal generator so the frequency is as close as 1 kHz, according to the Oscilloscope. To check our setup, we use some of the Oscilloscope’s features that facilitate the measurements. We access these features by pressing the cursor button in the navigation controls. After pressing the button, a menu will appear on the right-hand side of the screen. We can select from this menu by pressing the buttons next to the screen. Select the vertical lines from the menu to measure time and the horizontal lines to measure voltage. Once we select the parallel lines to be used, we can position them on the screen one at a time using the knob next to the cursor button. We can toggle between the lines by pushing this knob. Note that we can switch from coarse motions to fine motions of the lines by pressing the button label ‘fine’, located below the cursors button. These features allow us to accurately measure the distance between lines in the screen’s scales. We’ll use these tools below.

2.4 Time Delays

During the semester, you will learn about the physics of resistors, capacitors, and inductors. These components are widely used in electrical circuits. In this lab, we used them to illustrate how the Oscilloscope can be used to measure time delays on voltage signals that arise due to the presence of these components.

Consider the circuit shown in Figure 2.3 with a sinusoidal input signal from the function generator. The output signal observed at the resistor R_0 will have the same frequency as the input signal. However, depending on the type of component used in the circuit, the output signal could have a different amplitude and phase constant, ϕ_0 . The Oscilloscope allows us to observe these signals and determine their amplitudes and relative phases. Figure 2.2 shows a sketch of these kinds of signals and their phase differences in the time domain. The time differences can be converted to angles by considering that one full oscillation corresponds

to an angle of 2π radians or 360 degrees. Hence, to convert a time interval like Δt_A to an angle, we could use the following proportions

$$\frac{\Delta t_A}{T} = \frac{\phi_A}{2\pi} = \frac{\theta_A}{360} \quad (2.1)$$

where T is the period (in the same units as Δt_A), ϕ_A is the phase difference in radians, and θ_A the same phase difference but in degrees. Also shown in the Figure 2.2 is the peak-to-peak range of the input signal. It is usually easier to measure peak-to-peak values and divide them by two to get the signal's Amplitude.

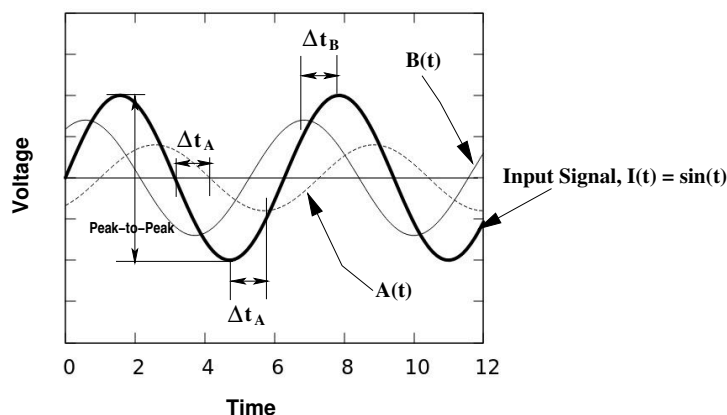


Figure 2.2: Sinusoidal signals $I(t) = \sin(t)$, $A(t) = 0.7 \sin(t + 1)$, and $B(t) = 0.4 \sin(t - 1)$; the phase differences, in the time domain, between $I(t)$ and the other signals are labeled Δt_A , and Δt_B . The peak-to-peak range for $I(t)$ is also shown. Note that phase differences may be easier and more accurate to measure between the signals' intersection with a common time axis rather than between their peaks.

2.4.1 Procedure

This procedure will guide you through a series of signal observation in the oscilloscope. Your data will consist of a series of sketches to document your observations. There is no analysis section for this lab. Connect the series Resistor-Resistor circuit of Figure 2.3 and provide a

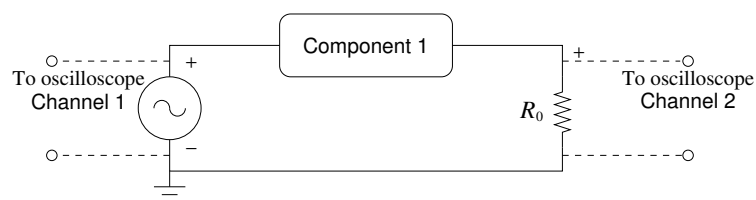


Figure 2.3: Base Circuit: Component 1 can be a Resistor, R , a Capacitor C , or an Inductor, L . Nominal values for these components are $R = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$, $C = 100 \text{ nF}$, $L = 65 \text{ mH}$, respectively. The nominal value for R_o is 220Ω . The Signal generator is set to 1 kHz and 2 V (p-p).

sinusoidal input to the circuit from your signal generator. Set the frequency of the signal generator to 1 kHz and its amplitude to 2 V (p-p). The input from the signal generator should be connected to CH1, while the signal from the RR-circuit is connected to CH2 (ensure both channels are AC coupled). Observe both channels and adjust the vertical *Position to bring the peaks from CH1 to one of the horizontal grid lines; Adjust the vertical* Position of the peaks in CH2 to the same level as in CH1. Sketch the waveforms with appropriately labeled axes. Can you measure any difference in time between the peaks in CH1 and CH2? If so, what is it?

Next, turn off the signal generator and replace the resistor R with a Capacitor of about 100 nF (1 nano Farads is equal to 1×10^{-9} Farads); Keep the same settings on the signal generator and monitor both channels of the Oscilloscope. Bring the peaks from both channels to the same level on the grid.

Is there a time difference between the peaks from CH1 and CH2 in this case? If so, which channel shows first a peak? Based on this information, is the signal from the RC-circuit ahead or lag behind the input?

Sketch the waveforms from both channels with appropriately labeled axes. Mark the separation between the peaks from CH1 and CH2; record the value of this time interval in seconds.

Finally, turn off the signal generator and replace the capacitor, C , with an inductor of about 65 mH (millihenries); Keep the same input and monitor both channels of the Oscilloscope. Bring the peaks from both channels to the same level on the grid.

Is there a time difference between the peaks from CH1 and CH2? If so, does the signal from the LR-circuit lag, or is it ahead of the input signal?

Sketch the waveforms from both channels with appropriately labeled axes. Mark the separation of the peaks between them; record the value of this time interval in seconds.

Chapter 3

Coulomb's Law

In this lab, we investigate Coulomb's law using a torsion balance to measure the repulsion force between two charged spheres.

Safety

In this lab, we use a high voltage but low current power supply (Output Voltage: 6kVDC, 3mA). The power supply is grounded and by itself does not pose a risk to your health. Nevertheless, you should not touch the charging probe with your bare hand. Make sure that the negative terminal is also grounded. Ask your instructor if you have questions about the operation of the power supply.

3.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

3.2 Introduction

In this exercise, We investigate the Force versus distance between two charged spheres as a function of their separation using the configuration depicted in Figure 3.1.

According to Coulomb's Law, the magnitude of the Force between two point particles charged with charges q_1 and q_2 , respectively, is inversely proportional to the square of their separation.

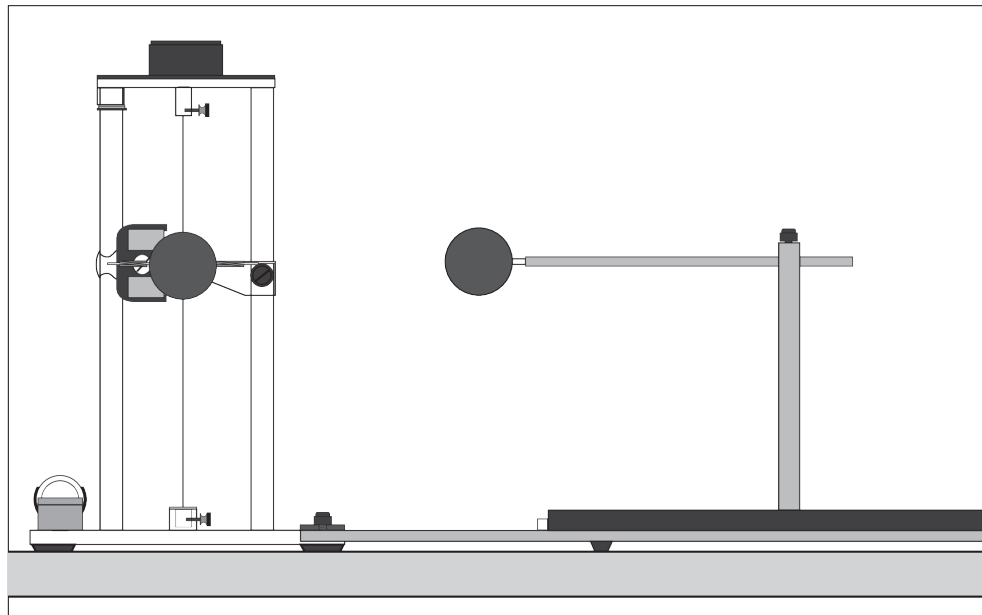


Figure 3.1: Coulomb's Law Setup.

In general, the formula for Coulomb's law is given by

$$F = k \frac{q_1 q_2}{d^2}, \quad (3.1)$$

where k is a constant of proportionality, q_1 , q_2 , are the excess charge on the particles, and d their separation.

If the excess Charge on the spheres is unknown, then we could absorb them in the constant of proportionality and rewrite the equation (3.1) as

$$F = K \frac{1}{d^2}, \quad (3.2)$$

where $K = kq_1q_2$ is the new and unknown proportionality constant.

To investigate the relationship between the Force between the charged spheres and their distance, we will use a sensitive torsion balance. For this apparatus, the Force between the charges is proportional to the torsion angle.

That is

$$F = c\theta, \quad (3.3)$$

where θ is the torsion angle due to the electrical force F . Therefore, equation (3.2) can be written as

$$c\theta = K \frac{1}{d^2}, \quad (3.4)$$

or

$$\theta = C \frac{1}{d^2}, \quad (3.5)$$

where, $C = kq_1q_2/c$ is yet another unknown proportionality constant.

Note that for the configuration shown in Figure 3.1, the particles are not really point-like objects. However, we could assume that they are if their separation is much larger than their diameter. In this case, the conducting spheres behave like point charge particles because the excess Charge resides on the surface and is uniformly distributed over it.

If Coulomb's law, and our assumptions, are satisfied, then equation (3.5) implies that plotting θ against $1/d^2$ should result in a straight line. We will put equation (3.5) to the test.

3.3 Procedure

The setup for this experiment is shown in Figure 3.1. The torsion balance is sensitive enough to detect small amounts of excess Charge on the spheres. However, it is very delicate, so be careful while you work with it. The spheres are non-metallic but covered with graphite to make them conductive. Try not to touch the spheres with your bare hands as you could reduce their conductivity and affect the charge distribution on the sphere.

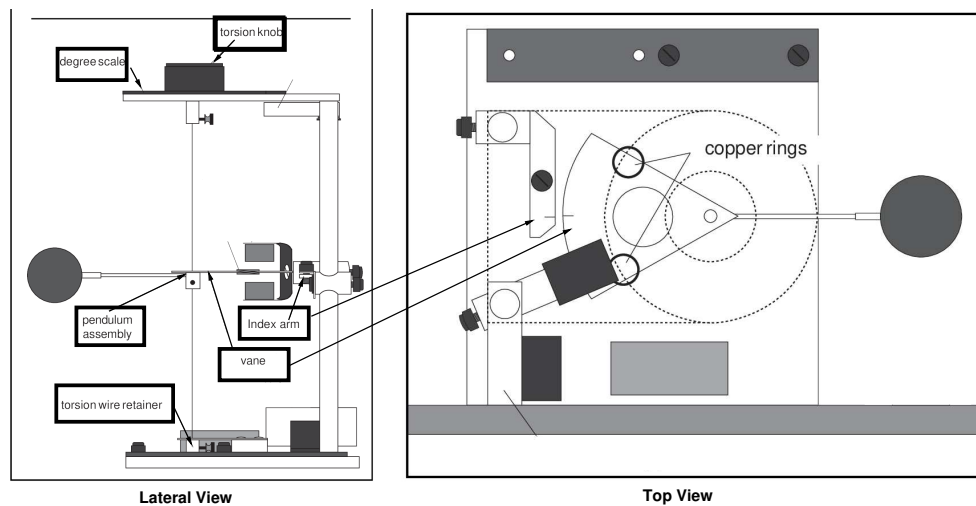


Figure 3.2: Torsion Balance; lateral and top views.

3.3.1 Setup

Start by setting the torsion dial to 0° , then rotate the bottom torsion wire retainer until the mark on the vane is aligned with the mark on the index arm, see Figure 3.2.

Next, position the slide arm at the 3.8 mark of the centimeter scale. Loosen the thumbscrew on the top of the rod supporting the sliding sphere; slide the rod with the sphere until the

two spheres just touch and tighten the thumbscrew. Since the sphere's diameter is 3.8 cm, This configuration allows us to read the distance between the centers of the spheres directly off the centimeter scale.

Make sure that in the current configuration, the degree scale is at zero, the marks on the vane and the index arm are aligned, the spheres are just touching, and the sliding support is at the 3.8 cm mark.

3.3.2 Charging the spheres

To charge the spheres, use a high voltage but low current power supply. The power supply is grounded and by itself does not pose a risk to your health. Nevertheless, you should not touch the charging probe with your bare hand. Make sure that the negative terminal is also grounded. Ask your instructor if you have questions about the operation of the power supply.

The torsion balance is very sensitive, and many things can affect its performance. In particular, the high voltage at the terminals of the Power supply could affect the measurements. Hence, when charging the spheres, turn on the power supply, charge the spheres and immediately turn the supply off.

Discharge the spheres before charging them by touching them with a grounded probe. Move the sliding support as far away as possible from the pendulum assembly; then, charge the spheres to a potential of 5 kV using the charging probe.

3.3.3 Measurements

After charging the spheres, position the sliding sphere at the 20 cm mark (the spheres' centers are 20 cm apart according to our setup). Adjust the torsion knob as necessary to realign the marks on the vane and the index arm. Record the distance between the spheres and the angle, θ in a table that includes headings and units. Repeat this measurement until your results are repeatable within two degrees (that is $\pm 1^\circ$).

Once you are satisfied, ask your instructor if you can move on to measure the angles for other distances. Use the set 14, 10, 8, 6 cm, or any set of distances provided by your instructor.

Remember to start each measurement with the spheres discharged and as far as possible from each other and charge them to the same potential.

3.4 Data

Organize the data for each distance in a table that includes headings and units. You should have at least five distances and several rows for each distance.

3.5 Analysis

Start by making a scatter plot of θ v.s. d . Next, determine if your data supports equation (3.5), by plotting θ v.s. $1/d^2$. If this graph resembles a straight line, use a ruler to find the best-fit line and determine its slope. The slope is equal to the constant in equation (3.5).

Determine the value of Q for each separation distance used, and add the results, including the units, to your data table. You may assume that when you charged the spheres they got the same amount of charge, Q . Also take the accepted value for the Coulomb's constant in equation (3.1) as $k = 8.99 \times 10^9 \text{ Nm}^2\text{C}^{-2}$, and the value of the proportionality constant in equation (3.3) as $c = 1.448574 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N}(\text{degree})^{-1}$.

Make a scatter plot of the Charge Q against distance; is this result to be expected? Include the plots in your report as part of the analysis.

Chapter 4

Electric Field and Superposition Principle

This exercise uses a computer simulation to explore further the concept of superposition in the context of electricity. In particular, we study the resultant electric field from various charge configurations.

4.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

4.2 Introduction

The lab is divided as follows. In section 4.1, the pre-Lab tasks, along with a brief description of the simulation, are given. A brief introduction to the concept of the electric field is offered in section 4.3. The electric field associated with a single charge is explored in section 4.4. The principle of superposition is investigated in sections 4.5 (The Dipole) and 4.6 (The Quadrupole).

In this computer lab, the simulation found at

<http://phet.colorado.edu/en/simulation/charges-and-fields>

is used to investigate electric fields and the associated principle of superposition. Each student is responsible for getting the simulation working on their own device. It is rec-

ommended that you download the simulation and work off-line; Your device should have a diagonal display size over 6 ".

4.2.1 Working with the Simulation

Before beginning the lab, familiarize yourself with the basic usage of the simulation. Open the PHET simulation in your browser; you should see an image similar to Figure 4.1.

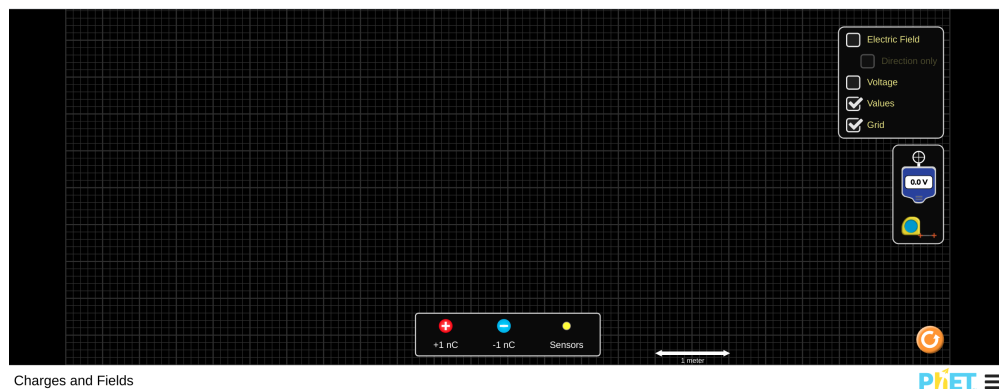


Figure 4.1: Splash screen from PHET simulation.

From the box on the upper-right corner, you can control what is displayed on the screen. Turn off Electric values, and turn on Values and Grid. As seen from the scale at the bottom of the screen, the side of the smallest squares of the grid is 0.1 m; the side for the large squares is 0.5 m. You could drag charges or sensors from the lower bin to any position on the grid. All distances throughout the lab will be given in meters.

In this lab, we do not explore the full potential of the simulation. You are welcome to explore all aspects of it. Ask your instructor if you have questions about its operation.

4.3 Introduction

The electric field is defined in terms of the electric force felt by a small positive test charge located at the point where the field is to be examined:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{\vec{F}_e}{q_0}, \quad (4.1)$$

where \vec{F}_e is the electric force acting on the test charge q_0 . Substituting Coulomb's law for the electric force, which is given by

$$\vec{F}_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{qq_0}{r^3} \vec{r}, \quad (4.2)$$

into (4.1) we get an expression for the electric field due to a charge q at a distance r from that charge:

$$\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^3} \vec{r}. \quad (4.3)$$

In practice, it is easier to calculate the magnitude and direction separately. The direction is found using basic trigonometric techniques, and the magnitude can be found using

$$E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2}.$$

Does this equation make sense based on (4.3)?

A note about units: from equation (4.1), it should be clear that the dimensions of the Electric field are Force per Unit Charge. In consequence, the SI units of the Electric field are Newtons per Coulomb (NC^{-1}). However, since the Volt (V) is defined as one Joule per Coulomb, a Volt per meter is equivalent to one Newton per Coulomb. Hence, it is customary to measure the electric field in Volts per meter (Vm^{-1}). The PHET simulation used in this lab displays the magnitude of the electric field in these alternate SI units.

4.4 Single Charge

Let's start by exploring the electric field created by a single charge. This is a very important exercise, as the field produced by a single charge does not change in the presence of other charges. However, as we will see later, at any given point, an electric field sensor can only detect the vector sum of all the fields present there.

4.4.1 Procedure

After setting up the simulation, drag and drop a 1 nC charge (of either sign) in the middle of the screen. Call this point (0,0) m. Take four yellow 'Sensors' out of their bin and place them at (0.5,0), (-1,0), (0,1.5), and (0,-2) m.

4.4.2 Data

Use a piece of graph paper to sketch the displayed configuration. On this sketch record the magnitude and direction of the electric field at the location of each sensor in Vm^{-1} .

4.4.3 Analysis

Calculate what the electric field should have been at the location of the sensors. Check the simulation results against the theory. When more than two point-charges are present, the electric force between each pair of charges is independent of the rest of the charges –each pair acts as if the rest were not there. This observation implies that the net electric force on a test charge, due to a group of charges, is the sum of the forces applied to it by each charge in the group. More simply: find the force on the test charge from each charge in the group, then add the forces, and you will have the total force on the test charge. This way of finding the whole by simply adding the parts is called the superposition principle. The application of this principle to calculate the the electric field produced by various charge configurations is explored in this part of the lab.

4.5 Dipole

A Dipole consists of two equal charges of opposite sign separated by a distance, d . We are going to measure the Dipole's field at various locations and compare it with the superposition of the fields produced by the individual charges at the same location.

4.5.1 Procedure

Take a 1 nC charge and put it in the middle of the screen at (0,0.5) m. Take a -1 nC charge and put it at (0,-0.5) m. We define the center of the Dipole to be the point (0,0) m.

Place a sensor at (0,1) or (0,2) or (0,3) or (0,4) m or any other location specified by your instructor. Use another piece of graph paper to sketch the displayed configuration; label this sketch as 'Dipole.' On this sketch, record the magnitude and direction of the electric field at the location of the sensor in Vm^{-1} .

Leave the sensor in its place, but return the negative charge to its bin. Use the Dipole's sketch to record the electric field's value and direction produced by the positive charge at the sensors' location. Ensure that this electric field is clearly distinguished from the electric field produced by the dipole configuration.

Next, return the negative charge to its original position in the Dipole and remove the positive charge. On the Dipole's sketch, record the electric field's value produced by the negative charge at the position of the sensors. Ensure that this field is clearly distinguished from the previous cases.

4.5.2 Data

Make a table to record the values and directions of the electric fields obtained in this exercise; on the first two columns, record the value and direction produced by the Dipole; on the next two, the value and direction of the field produced only by the positive charge; use the last two columns for the field produced only by the negative charge. The table's columns should have headers that include a descriptive name and units.

4.5.3 Analysis

Use the superposition principle to combine the results from the positive and negative charges, and compare your results with those obtained when both charges were present.

4.6 quadrupole

A quadrupole basically consists of two Dipoles oriented in opposite directions. We can think of it as four charges arranged in a square. We are going to measure the field at the center of the quadrupole and compare with the superposition of the fields produced by the individual charges at the same location.

4.6.1 Procedure

Select four charges and arrange them in a square of side 2 meters to form a quadrupole. Place a field sensor at the center of the square, and measure the electric field there. Keep the electric field sensor in its place, but return all charges to their bin, except for the one on the upper left corner of the square. Record the electric field due to this charge. Return this charge to its bin and bring back the charge at the upper right corner; record the electric field due to this charge. Do the same for the charges at the other corners.

4.6.2 Data

Sketch of the charge configuration of your quadrupole. Make a table with columns with headers with units to record the electric fields' value at the center of the quadrupole. Use the first column to record the field due to the quadrupole.

4.6.3 Analysis

Superimpose the results from the individual charges and compare to the result when the four charges were present simultaneously.

4.7 Questions

1. Considering the results from section 4.6, what would be the electric field at the center of the square if the charge at the upper-left corner is removed?
Do not use the simulation to produce the answer; show your calculations.
2. Use equation (4.1) to verify the equivalence between Newtons per Coulomb and Volts per meter.

Chapter 5

Electric Field Mapping

This Lab exercise uses the electric equipotential lines to map the electric field produced by an electrode configuration.

5.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

5.2 Introduction

The purpose of this lab is to map the electric field for various electrode configurations. In contrast with the previous computational laboratory, in which you were given the electric field vector, you must experimentally determine the electric field in this lab.

One approach for mapping the electric field vector is to first map the electric potential, which is a scalar field. Mapping the electric potential means finding regions of equal potential, called equipotentials, for the area surrounding the electrodes. For the cases considered in this lab, the equipotentials are simple lines. Figure 5.1 shows an example of an equipotential map for a dipole configuration. Note that only a selected group of equipotential lines are shown; in principle, we could find the equipotentials for any value of the electric potential.

We show in the next section that the direction of the electric field must be perpendicular to the equipotentials, that is, it must point in the direction of decreasing electric potential, and that its magnitude is related to the changes in electric potential by equation (5.3), below.

An advantage of the equipotentials' method is that for many situations the electric potential difference required in equation (5.3) is readily measured with a DMM (Digital MultiMeter).

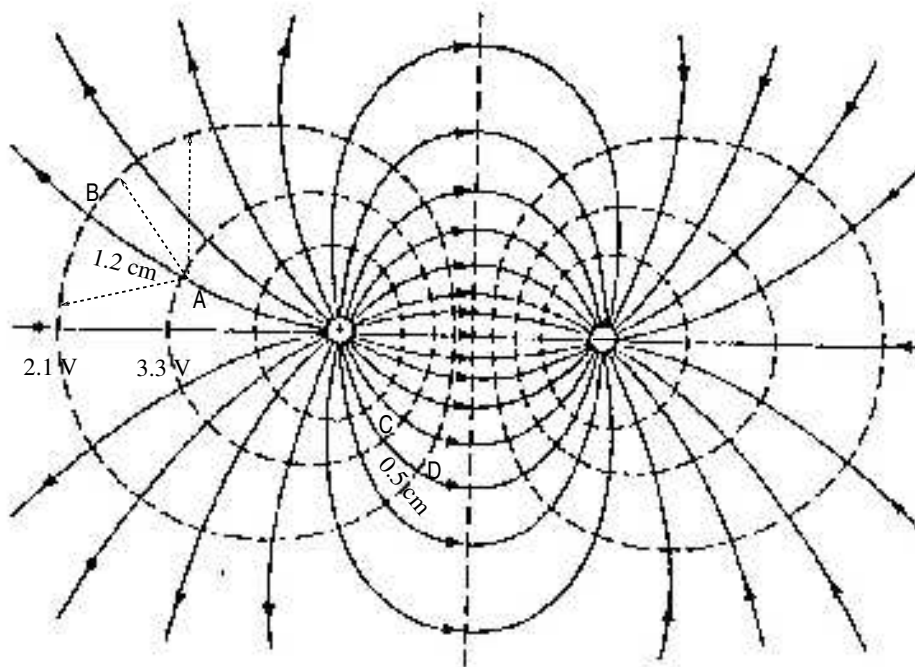


Figure 5.1: Contours of constant electric potential (equipotentials) and lines of the Electric Field between two point charges of equal magnitude and opposite polarity. The electric field lines are shown as solid lines pointing from high potential to low potential (indicated by arrows). The equipotentials are shown as dashed lines. The two sets of lines always intersect at right angles.

The setup in this lab allows us to use a DMM to map equipotential lines. The potential difference between two points is referred as the voltage between the points, and it is what a DMM can measure. Because of this, we need a reference point to assign an electric potential value to each equipotential. Conventionally, the reference point is given the value of zero, and it is called ground (this convention is similar to the one used to measure gravitational potential from the surface of the Earth).

To illustrate the use of equipotential maps, let us examine the values in Figure 5.1. Since the lines are equipotentials, placing the probes of the DMM on any two points on the same line should result in a reading of zero volts. On the other hand, putting the positive probe on the line labeled 3.3 V and the negative probe on the one labeled 2.1 V should give a reading of 1.2 V. You should notice that the separation between these two particular equipotentials is not constant. Furthermore, starting at one point over one of these lines, the other could be reached in many ways (see the dashed lines emerging from point A). However, there is one path that is perpendicular to both equipotentials; the distance along this path is 1.2 cm. Hence, using equation (5.3), the magnitude of the average electric field, between points A and B, is just 1.0 V/cm; the direction goes from the high (3.3 V) to lower the (1.2 V) equipotential (shown by the solid arrow emerging from point A). For the electric field emanating from point C, the voltage between the equipotentials is the same, but the

distance is smaller (0.5 cm). Hence, the magnitude of the average electric field that goes from C to D is (2.4 V/cm). From this example, it should be clear that for areas where the equipotentials are tightly packed, the electric field is more intense, because the changes in electric potential occur over smaller distances.

For the student familiar with topographical maps, it is worth pointing out that contours of equipotential lines are analogous to contours of elevations on topographical maps, where the lines indicate paths with the same elevation. Similar to equipotential maps, the proximity of elevation lines in topographical maps indicates regions with large drops in elevation over short distances. In this analogy, positive charge is like water running downhill; electric charge moves from higher to lower electric potential and flows faster through regions with stronger variations on the equipotential map. The setup for this lab places the positive electrode at the top of a ‘hill’ and charge will flow ‘downhill’ towards the negative electrode.

5.3 $\vec{E}(V)$ Relationship

To understand the theory behind the retrieval of the electric field from equipotential maps, we now examine the changes in electric potential for a charged particle in an electric field.

By definition, the electric potential is the electric potential energy per unit charge $\Delta V = U/q$. Hence, we begin by considering the changes in potential energy for such particle. In general, but not always, an external force does work in moving the particle between two points. The work done is partially stored as potential energy and partially used to increase the kinetic energy of the particle. In the special case when the particle’s kinetic energy does not change (constant speed), all work done is stored as potential energy of the particle. In this case, the external force must exactly balance the electric force, otherwise the particle would be accelerated increasing the particle’s kinetic energy. Therefore for the equilibrium case, the external force must be equal in magnitude and opposite to the electric force, that is $\vec{F} = -(q\vec{E})$. In this case, the work done by the external force can be written in terms of the electric field. Assuming that the particle’s displacement is small enough, the electric field may be considered constant. Hence, by definition, the work is simply

$$W = -(q\vec{E}) \cdot \Delta\vec{d}, \quad (5.1)$$

where $\Delta\vec{d}$ is the net displacement vector between the initial and final points of the particle’s path. The dot product in equation (5.1) implies that work is either only done by the component of the external force parallel to the displacement vector ($\Delta\vec{d}$) or that it is only done when moving the charge parallel to the full electric field vector. Taking the second alternative, the work can be written as $W = -q|E|\Delta d_{\parallel}$, where Δd_{\parallel} is the component of the displacement vector parallel to the electric field vector. Since this work is only used to change the electric Potential energy of the particle, we have that $\Delta U = -q|E|\Delta d_{\parallel}$. It follows that the change in electric potential (change in potential energy per unit charge) can

be written as $\Delta V = -|E|\Delta d_{\parallel}$. Solving for $|E|$, results in

$$|E| = -\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta d_{\parallel}}. \quad (5.2)$$

Note that equation (5.2) implicitly requires the direction of the electric field to find the component of the displacement parallel to it (Δd_{\parallel}). The direction of the electric field is found indirectly by determining the direction perpendicular to it, which is readily determined by tracing the equipotentials (regions of equal potential). The reason is that by definition there is no change in electric potential along the equipotentials. As a result, the change in potential energy for a particle moving along an equipotential is zero, which implies that an external force in equilibrium with the electric field ($\vec{F} = -q\vec{E}$) cannot do Work to increase the potential energy of a charged particle along an equipotential. Therefore, the dot product of the electric field with a displacement vector parallel to an equipotential must be zero. Because we know that the displacement vector is not zero in general along an equipotential, we conclude that the electric field must be perpendicular to them.

Furthermore, to increase the potential energy of the particle, the external force must be directed from low to high equipotentials, implying that the electric field must be directed from high to low values of the electric potential.

In summary, the electric field vector is perpendicular to the equipotentials at any point, its direction points from higher to lower electric potential and its magnitude is given by

$$|E| = \left(\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta d} \right)_{pp}, \quad (5.3)$$

where ΔV is the electric potential difference between two equipotentials, and Δd is the distance between the equipotentials along a path perpendicular to them. The subscript pp is there to remind us that the change must be measured along this specific path.

It should be pointed out that the magnitude of the electric field could be defined at a single point by taking the limit when Δd goes to zero, in equation (5.3). However, for finite values of Δd , the magnitude of the electric field given by equation (5.3) is interpreted as the average value between equipotential lines.

Finally, notice that work and U have dimensions of energy, while the dimensions of ΔV are energy per unit charge; the SI units for ΔV are joules per coulomb; this combination of units is called the volt.

5.4 Maps

By applying a potential difference across the electrodes, an electric field is generated between them. A DMM (Digital Multimeter) will be used to measure the potential differences between

the electrodes and their surrounding points. This requires the media between the electrodes to have low resistivity, which in our setup is provided by a piece of carbon paper placed in contact with and between the two electrodes.

5.4.1 Procedure

The equipotentials will be measured for two configurations of electrodes, corresponding to the two-dimensional cross-sections of:

1. two parallel plates
2. a coaxial cable.

The conductors are charged by connecting them to a DC power supply, which provides a constant potential difference across its terminals. The potential difference between the electrodes and their surrounding points is measured using a DMM.

Two Parallel Plates

This setup mimics a parallel plate capacitor. Set the DC power supply to 10 V and apply the positive and negative terminals to opposite electrodes. Use the DMM to find a value of 1 V on the carbon paper. Trace the location of the equipotential for 1 V parallel to and between the conductors, outside the conductors, and around the edges. One student in your group should find the location of the equipotential points while another student reproduces the locations on a copy of the grid. While symmetry may exist in theory, the carbon paper is not perfect and there will be defects that will affect your equipotentials. Ensure there are enough data points to show the edge effects of the conductors and the behavior inside the capacitor.

Repeat this for equipotentials of 2 V, 3 V, 4 V, ... until you get to 9 V. Use different symbols to distinguish between points of different potential differences.

Coaxial Cable.

This setup mimics the electric field inside of a coaxial cable, like a television cable. Set the DC power supply to 5 V and apply the positive lead to the inner electrode and use the negative terminal to ground the outer electrode. Use the DMM to find a value of 0.5 V on the carbon paper. Follow the steps as before and find enough data points to represent the equipotential contour for 0.5 V.

Repeat this for equipotentials of 1 V, 1.5 V, 2 V, ... etc. until you get as close to 4.5 V as possible. Explore the magnitude of the potential difference at locations outside the outer grounded electrode and take some notes or record data about what you find.

5.4.2 Data

Data for each configuration must be collected on its own copy of the grid and different symbols used to distinguish between points of different potentials. Include a legend to identify your symbols. Make sure that you collected enough data by tracing the equipotential lines. Keep the original in case you need to make more copies. Before you leave the lab, have your instructor initial your original data and the copies.

5.4.3 Analysis

For each electrode configuration, use a different color or line type to make a sketch of the electric field lines on your copy of the data. Recall that the electric field is perpendicular, at every point, to the equipotential lines and its direction runs from high to low values of electric potential difference. Illustrate its direction using small arrow heads along the electric field lines. Your sketch should resemble Figure 5.1.

In each sketch, locate the most direct (shortest) electric field line between the two electrodes. Make a plot of the electric potential as a function of distance along this particular path. Next, measure the horizontal distance between each pair of adjacent equipotentials along this path and calculate the magnitude of the electric field using equation (5.3). The resultant value may be considered the average electric field between the pair of adjacent equipotentials. Repeat this for each adjacent pair of potentials until you have values over the entire path. Plot this average field as a function of distance along the path.

Make sure to have proper labels, legends and the same horizontal scale for both plots (potential and field magnitude). Include your sketches and plots as part of your analysis.

5.5 Questions

1. Describe what you found about the potential difference values outside of the coaxial cable setup. Explain this using Gauss' Law.

Chapter 6

Capacitors and Dielectrics

In this lab, we use an LCR meter to measure the value of the capacitance for various geometries and the effective capacitance for capacitors connected in series and parallel. In addition, the effect of a dielectric material inside the parallel plate capacitor is also explored.

6.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

6.2 Introduction

The capacitor is a device that can store electric charge. The charge is stored on two metal plates inside the capacitor which are insulated from each other. Since the capacitor is always neutral, the metal plates contain an equal amount of negative and positive charge. One of the metal plates contains the negative charge while the other plate has the positive charge. The metal plates can have many shapes. In this lab we will examine two different plate configurations: parallel flat plates and concentric cylindrical plates.

Various dielectric materials can be placed between the plates of a capacitor. The effect of the dielectric on the behavior of a capacitor is given by a unitless parameter called the dielectric constant, κ . It has a value of 1 for vacuum and is very close to 1 for air.

The capacitance, C , of a capacitor is defined as the ratio of the charge, Q , on a surface of the capacitor to the potential difference, ΔV , between the surfaces of the capacitor. The unit of capacitance (coulombs per volt) is called the farad.

$$C = \frac{Q}{\Delta V} \quad (6.1)$$

6.3 Effective Capacitance

In this part of the lab, the effective capacitance (C_{eff}) for capacitors connected in series and parallel is measured and the results compared to the theoretical values obtained from the formulae:

Parallel Connection:

$$C_{eff} = C_1 + C_2 \quad (6.2)$$

Series Connection:

$$\frac{1}{C_{eff}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} \quad (6.3)$$

where C_1 and C_2 are the values of two capacitors.

6.3.1 Procedure

Familiarize yourself with the LCR meter (an instrument to measure inductance (L), capacitance (C) and resistance (R)).

Select two different fixed value capacitors that differ in capacitance by less than a factor of ten and measure their individual capacitance. Connect the two capacitors in series on the miniature breadboard and measure the effective capacitance. Then connect the capacitors in the parallel configuration and measure the effective capacitance.

6.3.2 Data

Record the capacitance of the individual capacitors and the effective capacitance when they are connected in the series and parallel configurations.

6.3.3 Analysis

Compare the measured effective capacitance for both the series and parallel connections to the theoretical values.

6.4 Geometry and Capacitance

The capacitance is actually independent of the charge on the plates and the voltage between them. It is only a function of the geometry of the capacitor. In this part of the lab, the capacitance will be determined from the geometry of the capacitor and then compared to its actual value measured with the LCR meter.

In order to get an accurate calculated capacitance, we have to accurately determine the geometry of the capacitor by measuring certain dimensions. A tool commonly used to make accurate measurements of length is the caliper, or vernier. Figure 6.1 shows how to use the vernier scale.

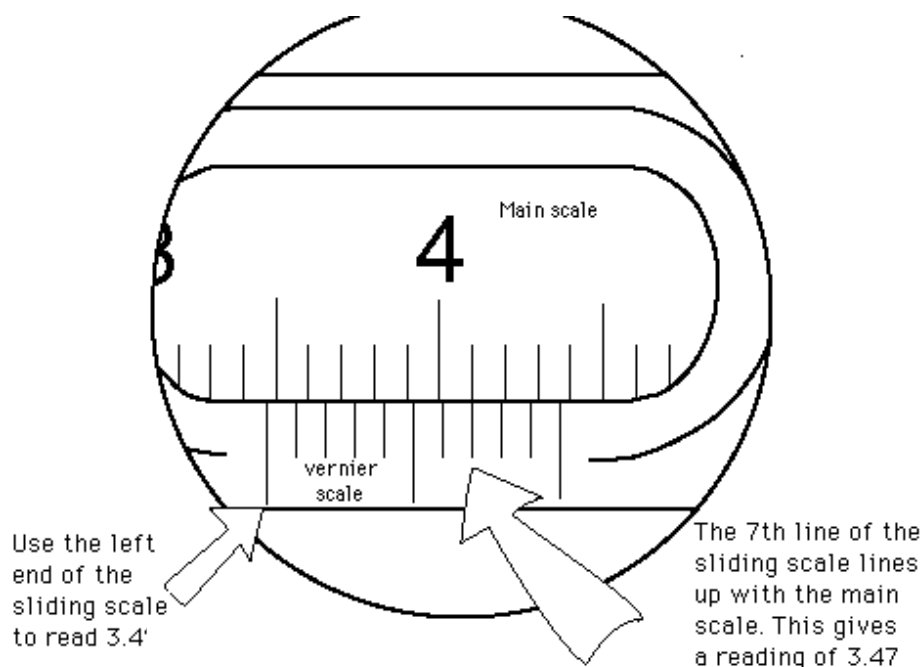


Figure 6.1: Schematic showing how to read a vernier caliper measurement. Note that since the left end of sliding part lies between 3.4 and 3.5, we read off 3.4. The third digit is obtained from noting that the 7th line of vernier scale aligns almost perfectly with the main scale. Therefore the reading is 3.47cm.

6.4.1 Parallel Plate Capacitor

In this case, the capacitance is given by

$$C = \kappa \epsilon_o \frac{A}{d} \quad (6.4)$$

where d and A are the plate separation and area, respectively; κ is the value of the dielectric constant between the plates; ϵ_o is the electric permittivity.

Procedure

Acquire a movable plate capacitor, select an acrylic insert, and measure its thickness using a caliper. Insert the acrylic between the two movable circular plates and close the plates until they contact the acrylic insert and hold it securely. Using the LCR meter, measure the capacitance with the insert between the two circular plates. Carefully remove the inserted acrylic, being sure not to change the distance between the plates and measure the capacitance when the dielectric between the plates is only air. Repeat for a total of 7 plate thickness separations. Assume that the properties of the acrylic are the same for all pieces. Measure the diameter of one of the circular movable plates –you may assume they are identical in size.

Data

Record the thickness of each of the acrylic pieces used. Make a table showing the value of the capacitance and the distances between the plates with and without the dielectric.

Analysis

Determine the dielectric constant of the acrylic used, κ . For this purpose, use the measurements of the acrylic's capacitance, $C_{acrylic}$, and the capacitance of air, C_{air} that were obtained by varying the distance between the plates.

Start by Plotting the data in your table: $C_{acrylic}$ versus C_{air} . Use this plot and Equation 4 to determine the dielectric constant, κ , for acrylic. Explain your work.

6.4.2 Cylindrical Capacitor

It can be shown that in this case the capacitance is given by

$$C = \frac{2\pi\kappa\epsilon_0 L}{\ln \left[\frac{b}{a} \right]}, \quad (6.5)$$

where L is the length of the cylinder, a is the inner radius of the capacitor, b is the outer radius of the capacitor, and κ is the dielectric constant for the material between the cylinders –see Figure 6.2. Before measuring a and b , try answering question 1 in section 6.5.

Procedure

Use a caliper to measure the inner and outer diameters of the cylindrical capacitor. Measure the length of the capacitor with a meter stick. Measure the capacitance using the LCR meter.

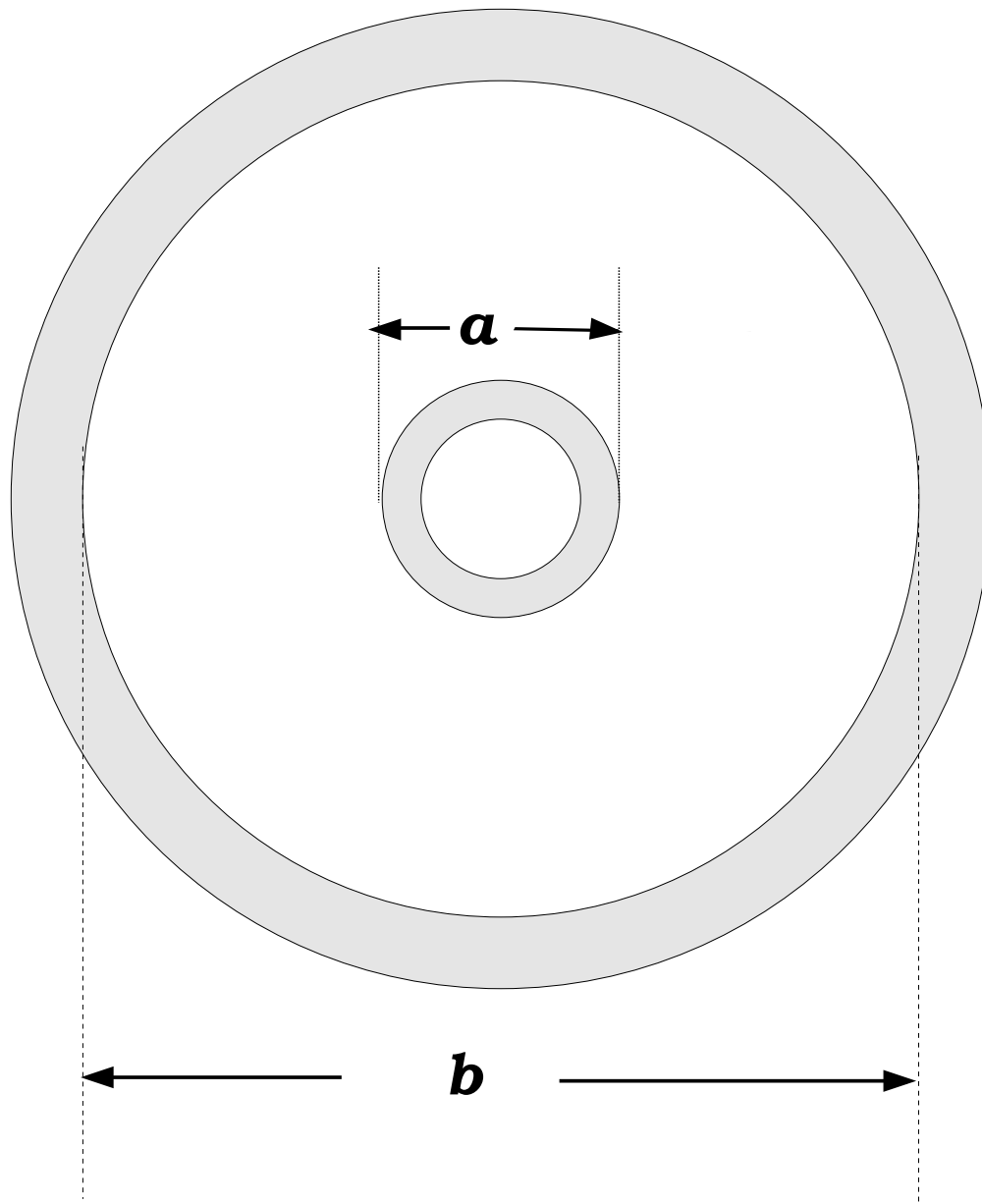


Figure 6.2: Cross section of the Cylindrical capacitor.

Data

Record the capacitance, the values of the inner and outer diameters, and the length of the capacitor.

Analysis

Based on the measured geometric dimensions of this capacitor, determine the predicted value for its capacitance. Compare this value to the measured value.

6.5 Questions

1. Use Gauss's Law to outline the derivation of the concentric cylinder capacitor without dielectric –eq(6.5).
2. Suppose that you suspect that the dielectric constant for air is not really one; describe how would you use your data from section 6.4.1 to determine κ_{air} . Assume that the movable metallic plates have a perfect circular shape.

Chapter 7

Ohm's Law

In this lab, the relationship between the voltage across, and the current flowing through, a so-called Ohmic material is explored. The measuring techniques developed in this lab will be essential in the following labs.

7.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

7.2 Introduction

In this lab, Ohm's law is explored. This law is a relationship between the electric potential difference across a resistor and the current flowing through it. Since resistors are ubiquitous elements of electrical circuits, a solid first hand knowledge of Ohm's law is fundamental.

Potential difference is often referred as voltage and represented as V . However, to emphasize that voltage is a difference in potential between two points, the symbol ΔV will be used to denote it. In the case of a resistor, the voltage across it refers to the difference in potential between its terminals.

Note that in some contexts, it is convenient to have a reference value for the potential and measure the potential difference with respect to that reference. Usually, the reference value is arbitrarily set to zero and called ground. In this context when people speak of voltage at a given point, it is usually understood that such voltage refers to the difference in potential between the given point and ground.

For some materials, the voltage across them is proportional to the current I , flowing through

them. That is

$$\Delta V = IR, \quad (7.1)$$

where the constant of proportionality, R , is the resistance of the material. It is a constant in the sense that it does not depend on voltage or current. However, R may depend on the type of material, shape, temperature, etc. Equation (7.1) is known as Ohm's law and materials that obey this law are called ohmic. This lab is limited to the study of ohmic materials, like metals and carbon resistors. Resistance is measured in ohms, which are denoted by the Greek letter Ω , capital omega. It can be seen from equation (7.1) that $1\Omega = 1VA^{-1}$. The resistance of metals is generally very low and therefore they are good conductors. In contrast, carbon resistors have a large range of values typically from milli to mega ohms. Often, the analysis of circuits that use carbon resistors joined by metallic contacts neglects the metallic resistance of the connections.

Ohm's law will be investigated using a DC (direct current) power supply and a DMM (Digital Multimeter) for measuring resistance, current and potential difference. Before beginning the lab, familiarize yourself with the basic usage of these instruments. Regarding the DC power supply, keep in mind that it has polarity. Hence, the current flows from the positive terminal into the load and then comes back to the power supply through the negative terminal. This means that cables connected backwards will give a potential difference with the opposite sign.

Ask your instructor if you have questions about the operation of these instruments.

This lab is divided into three parts. In the first, the applicability of Ohm's law to common carbon resistors is examined. In the other two, Ohm's law is applied to examine two common configurations of carbon resistors, namely parallel and series.

7.3 Common Resistor

In this part, the relationship between voltage and current across a common carbon resistor is studied. The applicability of Ohm's law to these resistors is examined next. A DC power supply is used to vary the potential difference across the resistor and observe how much current flows through it in response.

7.3.1 Procedure

Obtain three resistors of nominal values: 1 k, 5 k, and 10 k. Using the DMM, measure the actual resistances and record them. Install a resistor of about 1 k into the screw-down board. Use the DMM to set the power supply to about 1 V and connect it to the resistor. Measure the actual potential difference across the resistor and record it. Turn off the power supply, but do not change its settings. Set the DMM to measure current and connect it in series with

the resistor. Turn on the power supply, measure the current flowing through the resistor (and the DMM), and record it. Repeat your measurements for power supply voltages between 1 V and 12 V, with increments of about 2 V. Collect the same kind of data for the other two resistors.

7.3.2 Data

Organize the data for each resistor in a table that include headings and units.

7.3.3 Analysis

Determine if your data supports Ohm's law for your resistors. For each resistor, make a voltage vs. current plot, use a ruler to draw the best fit line for your data, and then determine its slope. Write the equations for these lines and compare the slope to the resistance value measured for the corresponding resistor.

Combine all of your plots, including the fitted lines, in the same graph using the same scale. Mark the data for each resistor with a different symbol and add an appropriate legend. Include this graph in your report as part of the analysis.

7.4 Resistors in Series

Most resistors in a typical circuit are carbon resistors that follow Ohm's law. In this part, Ohm's law is used to study resistors connected in series. The distinctive feature of this connection is that, in steady state, conservation of charge demands that the same current flows through each resistor. On the other hand, the voltage across each resistor may be different, but it is related to the current by Ohm's law.

7.4.1 Procedure

Refer to Figure 7.1 for circuit and meter setup.

Use resistors with nominal values of $R_1 = 1\text{ k}$, $R_2 = 5\text{ k}$, and $R_3 = 10\text{ k}$ (or any combination given by the instructor). Measure the resistance of each resistor. Using short banana cables, connect the resistors in series. Using your multimeter, set the power supply to 10 V (open circuit voltage). Connect the power supply with the array of resistors and measure the voltage at the terminals of power supply (loaded voltage).

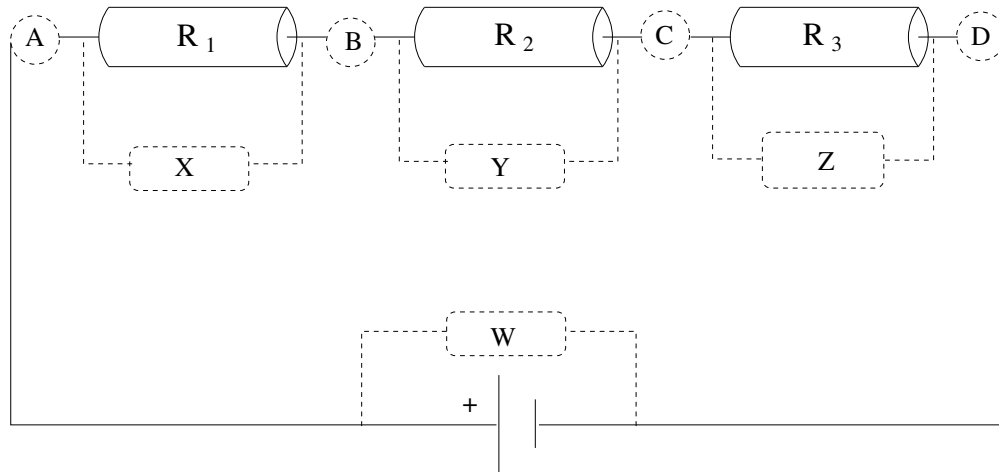


Figure 7.1: Resistors in series. The circles marked A, B, C, and D show the locations for current measurements. Rectangles marked W, X, Y, and Z show the locations for voltage measurements.

Proceed to measure the voltage across each resistor (DMM in parallel with resistor at locations X, Y, Z).

Set the DMM to measure DC current in mA (milli-amperes) and insert it in series at location 'A' to measure the current flowing from the power supply into R_1 . In a similar fashion measure the current flowing from R_1 into R_2 (location B), the current flowing from R_2 into R_3 (location C), and the current flowing from R_3 back into the power supply (location D).

7.4.2 Data

For each resistor, measure and record its resistance, voltage across and current flowing through it. Also, the current flowing into the circuit and the voltage across the terminals of the power supply (both open circuit and loaded values). Organize the measurements associated with the individual resistors (resistance, current and voltage) in a table with headings that include units.

7.4.3 Analysis

Use Ohm's law to calculate the resistance of each resistor from your voltage and current measurements. Using the same technique, calculate the effective resistance of the circuit. Compare all calculations with your resistance measurements. Add this information to your data table and turn it in as part of your analysis.

7.5 Resistors in Parallel

In this part another common configuration, the parallel connection, will be studied using the same resistors as in section 7.4. The distinctive characteristic of this connection is that, in steady state, conservation of energy demands the same voltage across each resistor. On the other hand, the current flowing through each resistor may be different, but it is related to the voltage by Ohm's law.

7.5.1 Procedure

Using short banana cables, connect the resistors in parallel, using Figure 7.2 as a guide. Set the power supply to 5 V (open circuit) and then connect it to the circuit. Measure the loaded value of the voltage across the terminals of the power supply (location W). Also, measure the voltage across each individual resistor (locations X, Y, and Z).

Set the multimeter to measure DC current in mA (milli-ampere). Measure the current through each resistor (locations A, B, and C) as well as the current going back into the power supply (location D).

7.5.2 Data

Organize your data in a table similar to the one created for the connection in series, section 7.4.

7.5.3 Analysis

Use Ohm's law to calculate the resistance of each resistor and the effective resistance of the circuit from your voltage and current measurements. Compare with your resistance measurements. Add this information to your data table and turn it in as part of your analysis.

7.6 Questions

1. Given your measured values for R_1 , R_2 , and R_3 , what does the theory predicts for their equivalent resistance when they are connected in series?
2. Given your measured values for R_1 , R_2 , and R_3 , what does the theory predicts for their equivalent resistance when they are connected in parallel?

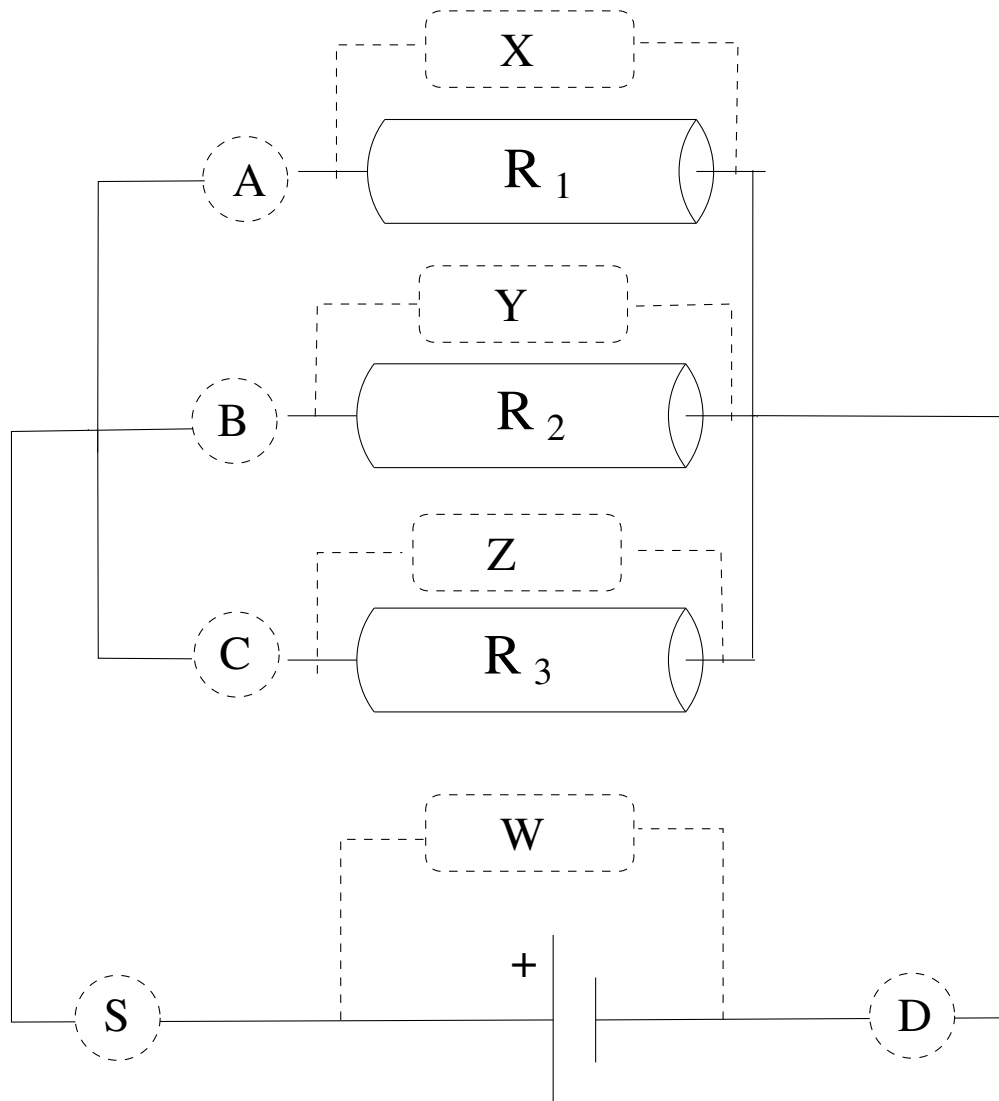


Figure 7.2: Resistors in parallel. The circles marked A, B, C, and D show the locations for current measurements. Rectangles marked W, X, Y, and Z show the locations for voltage measurements.

3. Does your data support the predictions in the previous questions? Show your work.

Chapter 8

Kirchhoff's Laws

This lab explores the Kirchhoff's loop and node laws using direct current circuits. In this context, we also examine the voltage divider, a simple but widely used circuit.

8.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

8.2 Introduction

Kirchhoff's loop and node laws are fundamental for the study of circuits. The loop law states that the algebraic sum of all potential differences around a closed loop is zero, which follows from conservation of energy. The node law states that the current flowing into a circuit node is the same as the current flowing out of it and this follows from conservation of charge.

Kirchhoff's laws are explored using direct current, DC, circuits. The lab is divided in three parts. In the first two, Kirchhoff's laws are tested. In the last, the laws are used to examine a simple but widely used circuit: the voltage divider. This lab assumes that the student already knows how to measure current and voltage using a DMM and has some experience using DC power supplies. Ask your instructor if you need help.

8.3 Kirchhoff's Loop Law

Conservation of energy applied to a closed branch of a circuit (a loop) implies that the algebraic sum of potential differences across each element in the loop must be zero. This statement is one of the basic concepts in the study of electrical circuits and will be tested in this part of the lab.

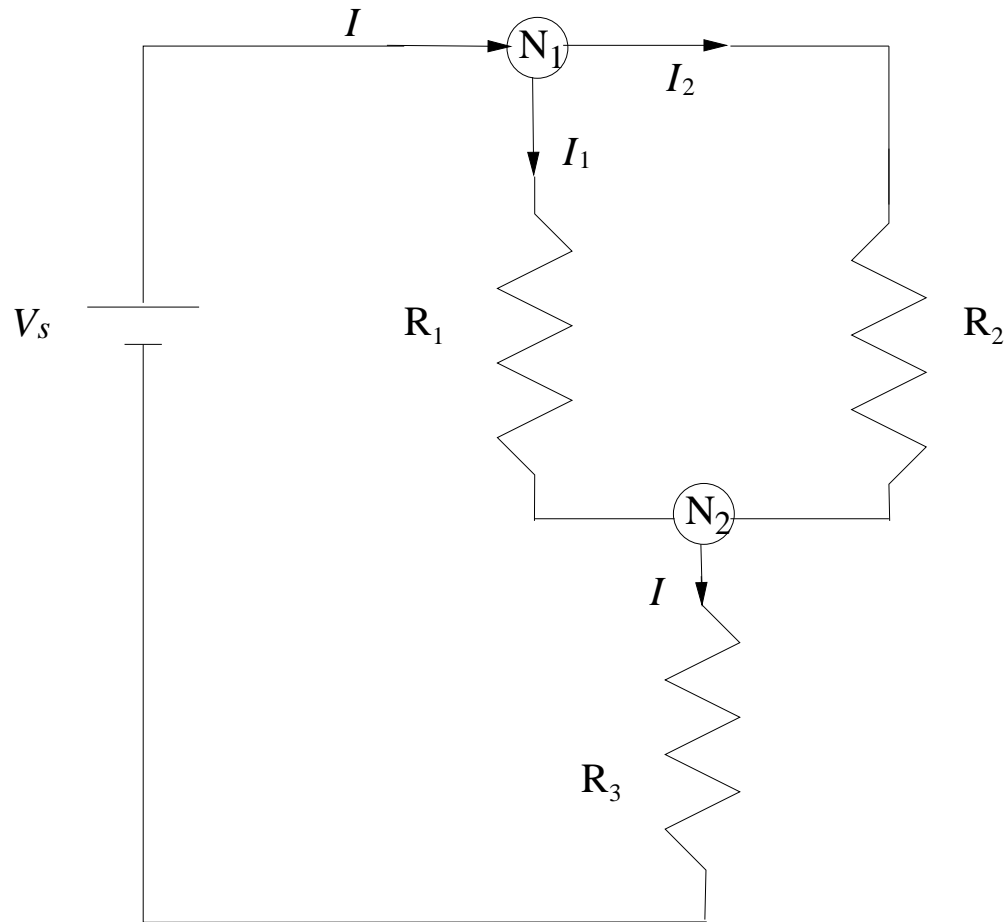


Figure 8.1: Test circuit: This figure shows the setup for sections 8.3 and 8.4. Use the following values (or those provided by your instructor): $R_1 = 10\text{k}\Omega$, $R_2 = 5\text{k}\Omega$, and $R_3 = 1\text{k}\Omega$.

8.3.1 Procedure

Build the circuit as shown in Figure 8.1. Set voltage of the power supply to 5 V. Measure and record the potential difference across each resistor in the circuit. Recall that the DMM must be connected in parallel (across the element).

8.3.2 Data

Your data should be organized in a table listing the measured value of resistances and potential difference with appropriate units.

8.3.3 Analysis

Examine whether or not your data support the Kirchhoff's loop law. Start by writing the algebraic expression for Kirchhoff's loop law for the loop that contains the power supply, R_1 , and R_3 . Proceed similarly for the other two possible loops in Figure 8.1.

8.4 Kirchhoff's Node Law

Conservation of charge applied to any node in a circuit implies that the algebraic sum of all currents at the node must be zero. This statement is another key concept in the study of electrical circuits and will be tested next.

8.4.1 Procedure

Using the circuit shown in Figure 8.1, measure the current flowing in and out of node N_1 and record your measurements. Recalling that the DMM must be connected in series (with a circuit element), you must break the circuit at the points of measurement to insert the multimeter. For N_1 you would want the meter to replace the wire between V_s and N_1 for one measurement, N_1 and R_1 for another, and N_1 and R_2 for the final measurement. Before starting, mark on the schematic in this manual where you think the meter should be inserted and check it with your lab instructor. Don't forget to make sure the DMM is set and wired to measure DC current.

Repeat the above procedure for N_2 . Where do you need to measure the current for measurements associated with N_2 ? Do you already have any of these measurements?

8.4.2 Data

Make a table of the currents you measured. Be clear about the location of each measurement.

8.4.3 Analysis

Examine whether or not your data support the Kirchhoff's node law. Start by writing the algebraic expression for Kirchhoff's node law for node N_1 in Figure 8.1.

8.5 Voltage Divider

Voltage dividers are one of the most widespread electronic circuit fragments, typically used when one portion of a circuit requires a smaller voltage than the input voltage. The goal of the voltage divider, shown in Figure 8.2, is to provide an specific voltage between points A and B, which is obtained by carefully choosing R_a and R_b . The potential difference across each resistor can be obtained by applying the loop law for voltages around the circuit, and the node law to currents at the junction of the resistors (point A) along with Ohm's law to the individual resistors. The result is

$$V_{MA} = \frac{R_a}{R_a + R_b} V_s \quad (8.1)$$

and

$$V_{AB} = \frac{R_b}{R_a + R_b} V_s \quad (8.2)$$

The value of R_b can be obtained from Equation 8.2, given the input voltage, V_s , and the required V_{AB} as

$$R_b = \frac{V_{AB}}{V_s - V_{AB}} R_a. \quad (8.3)$$

This equation is the starting point in the selection of a resistor pair. For example if you need to reduce the input voltage from 0–100 volts to 0–1 volts, Equation 8.3 gives $R_b = R_a/99$, which (for many practical purposes) is $R_b = R_a/100$. (When considering resistor tolerances and availability.) It should be clear that the required reduction could have been obtained using various resistor pairs (e.g. $R_a \approx 100 \Omega$ and $R_b \approx 1 \Omega$).

8.5.1 Power Considerations

Another important consideration in choosing the pair is power dissipation. For instance, choosing $R_a \approx 100 \Omega$ and $R_b \approx 1 \Omega$ for an input voltage of 100 V results in a power dissipated

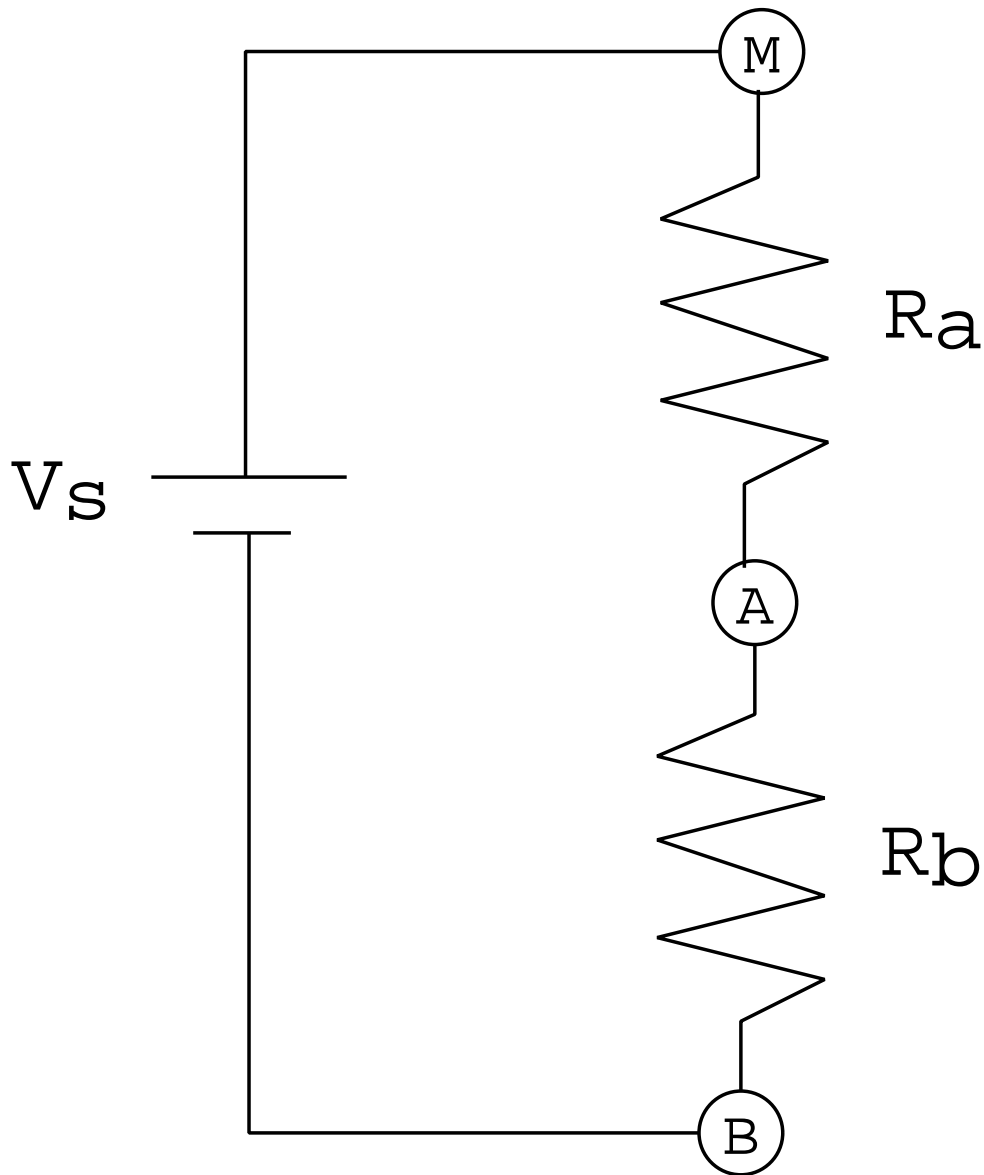


Figure 8.2: Voltage Divider.

by R_a of

$$P_{R1} = \frac{V_{MA}^2}{R_a} = \frac{(99 \text{ V})^2}{100 \Omega} \approx 100 \text{ W} \quad (\text{watts}) \quad (8.4)$$

Fortunately, the power supply will not put out 100 Volts, so there is no need to worry about ‘fried’ resistors and possibly burned fingers.

The resistors you are using are probably rated at 0.25 W and this rating is greatly exceeded when the input is 100 V. To solve this problem, you could use resistors rated at 100 W or use a different resistor pair. Note that the largest voltage drop is across the large resistor, R_a , and the power dissipated in the circuit is almost all dissipated by it.

8.5.2 Procedure

Select resistors with nominal values of $R_a = 10\text{ k}\Omega$ and $R_b = 100\ \Omega$. Measure their actual resistances and record them. Construct the circuit shown in Figure 8.2 with the voltage supply set to 10 V. Measure the potential differences across each resistor and record your values.

8.5.3 Data

Organize your data in a table with headings that include units.

8.5.4 Analysis

As part of your analysis, derive Equations 8.1 and 8.2. Make a sketch of Figure 8.2 showing all your measurements and analysis results. Include this sketch in the analysis section of your report. Also include the power dissipated in each resistor.

Chapter 9

Magnetic Forces

This experiment investigates the magnetic field produced by an electrical current and the force exerted on moving charge by a magnetic field. These effects are described respectively by Ampere's Law and the magnetic force law. Furthermore, a hands-on demonstration of applying the right-hand rule is provided.

Safety

Class 2 lasers are considered safe for normal operation; their output power is below 1 milliwatt, and they emit visible light only. Class 2 lasers are considered safe for unintentional eye exposure because people normally turn away or blink to avoid bright light. Laser-protective eyewear is normally not necessary.

Do Not *deliberately stare into the beam, as this can cause injury to the retina in the back of the eye. Mirror-like reflections: be aware of beam reflections off glass and shiny surfaces. Depending on the surface, the reflected beam could be about as intense and as focused as a direct beam. A Class 2 laser is not a skin or materials burn hazard. Do not point the laser at anyone; this is not a toy.!*

9.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

9.2 Introduction

The experiment is divided into two parts. In the first part, a qualitative feel for the magnetic field produced by a current along a straight wire and for the force on such current by a permanent laboratory magnet is developed. The second part involves a quantitative determination of the magnetic force between parallel wires using a current balance.

The magnitude of the magnetic field produced by a current I passing through a long straight wire is given by

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}, \quad (9.1)$$

where r is the radial distance from the wire and μ_0 is the permeability of free space. In SI units, $\mu_0 \equiv 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$. The units of μ_0 are left as an exercise.

The direction of the magnetic field is perpendicular both to the direction of I and to the radius vector \vec{r} . The result of this is that the magnetic field lines circle the wire according to the right-hand rule. (With the thumb of your right hand pointing in the direction of I , your fingers curl in the direction of \vec{B} .) The strength of the field decreases with distance from the wire as $1/r$.

When two current-carrying wires are placed parallel to each other, the magnetic field from one wire produces a force on the current in the other wire, and vice-versa. The law describing the force that a magnetic field exerts on moving charge, in particular on a current I flowing through a wire of length ℓ , is given by

$$\vec{F} = I(\vec{\ell} \times \vec{B}). \quad (9.2)$$

When the two wires are parallel, and \vec{B} and $\vec{\ell}$ are mutually perpendicular, the cross product is just the product of the magnitudes, $F = I\ell B$. Substituting for B from the other wire, one obtains that

$$F = \mu_0 \frac{I^2 \ell}{2\pi d} = \left(\frac{\mu_0 \ell}{2\pi d} \right) I^2, \quad (9.3)$$

where d is the spacing between the wires. This expression is valid as long as $d \ll \ell$. The force is attractive if the currents are in the same direction and repulsive if they are in opposite directions.

9.3 Qualitative Observations

9.3.1 Magnetic field lines.

Use a compass to investigate the magnetic field produced by a current in a straight wire. A compass needle orients itself with magnetic field lines, as indicated in Figure 9.1. The north pole of the compass points in the same direction as the field. **Note:** on our compasses, magnetic north is indicated by the red end of the needle.

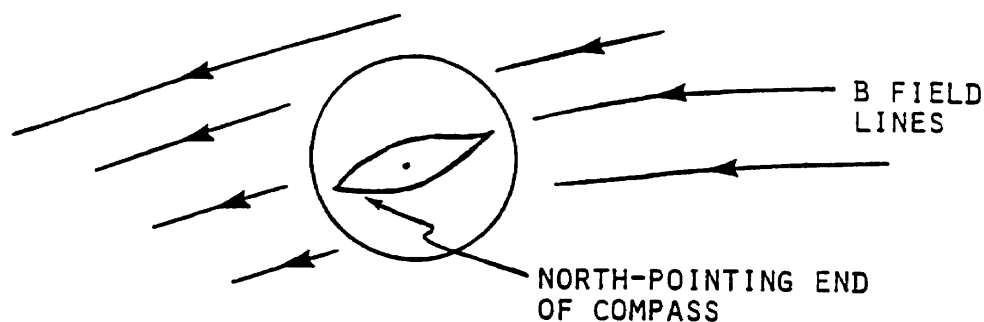


Figure 9.1: Diagram of the system for testing Ampere's Law.

The magnetic field is generated by passing a large current through a vertically mounted wire segment. The value of I is determined by measuring the voltage which it produces in passing through a piece of metal, called a 'shunt', that has a very low resistance. The resistance is such that the voltage is 1 mV per ampere of current.

Turn on the power supply and measure the voltage across the shunt resistor. Record its value and use it to calculate the current. Include your findings in your report.

Explore the B field surrounding the wire and sketch out the pattern of the magnetic field lines. Also, use the compass to determine if the field goes around the wire in the direction predicted by the right-hand rule. Give a short description of the results in your write-up.

9.3.2 Earth's magnetic field.

By experimenting with the compass, find the point along the meter stick at which B due to both wires is equal to the earth's magnetic field, B_{earth} . Can you figure out a way of doing this? Measure the distances r_1 and r_2 from the wires to the point where the fields are equal. Use equation (9.1) to calculate the magnetic field due to each wire. Being careful to account for the direction of these fields, superimpose the wire's fields (add them) to obtain B_{earth} . The SI unit for magnetic field is the tesla (T). Compare your result with the known value for B_{earth} of about 3×10^{-5} T.

9.3.3 Permanent magnet.

Examine the force which a permanent magnet produces on the current. Remove the ‘keeper’ from the magnet (keep any compasses well away) and hold one of the wires from the power supply between the poles of the magnet. Turn on the power supply and feel the force on the wire. From the direction of the force, the direction of the current, and remembering that field lines come out of the north pole and go into the south pole of a magnet (as in Figure 9.2 determine which pole of the magnet (labeled A and B) is the north pole. Make a sketch of the situation and include it in your report.

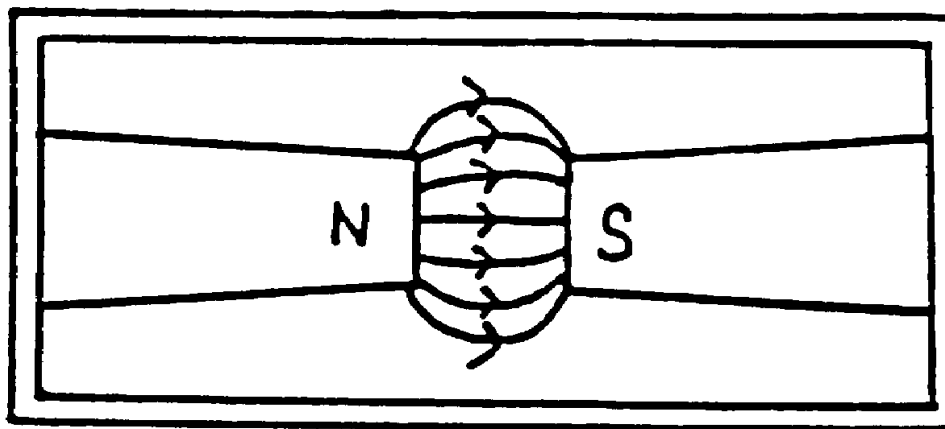


Figure 9.2: The magnetic field lines between the poles of a strong magnet.

9.4 Current Balance

In this part, we make a quantitative measurement of the force between two parallel wires carrying equal currents. The force is measured using a specially designed apparatus called a current balance. This apparatus balances the magnetic force against the gravitational force provided by small weights. The measurements are used in two ways:

1. To test if the force is proportional to I^2 , as predicted by equation (9.3).
2. Estimate the value of μ_0 from the constant of proportionality

$$C' = \mu_0 \ell / 2\pi d g \quad (9.4)$$

This will be approximate because it is difficult to accurately measure the wire separation d .

The experimental setup is shown in Figure 9.3. A laser beam is reflected onto the wall by a small mirror attached to the rotating balance. The long ‘lever arm’ of this arrangement

enables even small departures from balance to be detected as a deflection of the laser beam on the wall. The deflection depends on the amount of mass used. We counteract the gravitational force by increasing the magnetic force between the wires. Hence, to bring the laser beam back to its initial position, we increase the current. This procedure allows us to determine how F varies with I for constant wire separation d . The circuit for providing

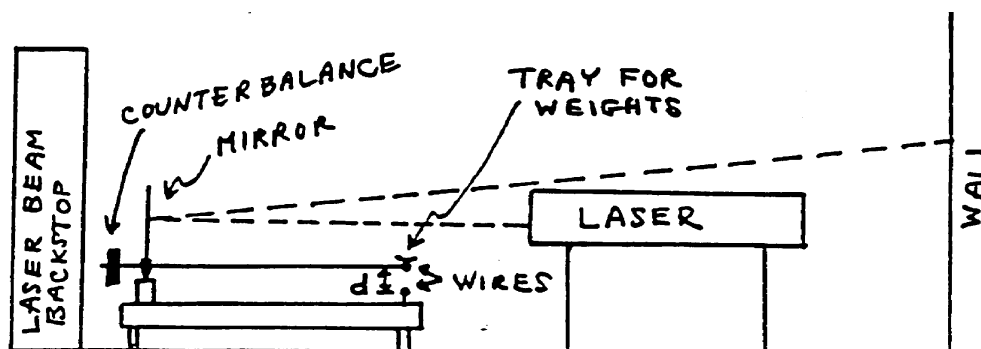


Figure 9.3: Current balance setup.

current to the balance is shown in Figure 9.4. As long as the current in the two wires is oppositely directed, it does not matter what its sign is. Therefore, a source of alternating current or an AC voltage can be used. The variac is a variable transformer that enables the alternating voltage to be manually adjusted, and the flexiformer reduces the voltage to safe levels. The current value is read by an AC ammeter.

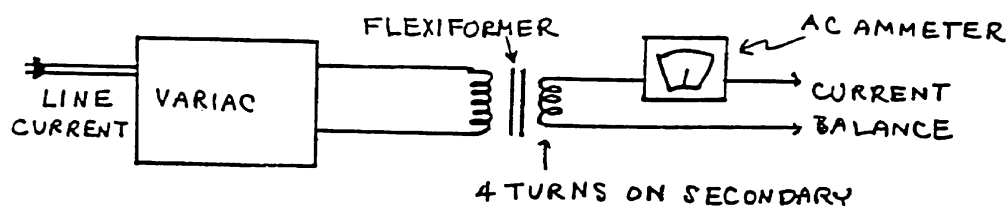


Figure 9.4: Circuit for supplying current to the balance.

9.4.1 Procedure

LASERs used in this laboratory are all class II. Treat them with respect! They will not hurt your skin, but a sustained direct or reflected beam can cause permanent eye damage! To begin, check that you understand the wiring of the circuit, for example, that the current does indeed flow in opposite directions in the two wires. A diagram can be helpful here. Make sure that the balance moves freely without binding. The two wires should be about 0.5 cm apart (center-to-center) with no current flowing and no weights in the pan. The movable wire should be directly above the fixed wire. With no current applied to the balance, mark the position where the laser beam hits the paper on the wall.

Next, turn the variac on and carefully increase the current to see if the balance responds. Check that the laser beam returns to its initial position when the current is turned off. Once you have gone through these checks, be careful not to disturb the balance, or you have to start your measurements over.

Obtain a set of observational data by placing one of the small weights in the pan. Adjust the current with the variac until the laser beam returns to its initial spot, then read the current. Repeat several times with additional weights. Increments of about 50 mg work well (covering the available current range).

When you are done, check that the balance returns to its initial position with all the weights removed and the current turned off. As accurately as you can, measure d , the center-to-center distance between the two wires, and L , the length through which current flows.

9.4.2 Data

Measure the length, L , of the wires and the center-to-center distance between them, d . Each team member should do its own measurement of d and the team's average should be used in the analysis section. Record the individual measurements and make a note of how much variability there is in the sample. Report in a table the masses used and the corresponding measurements of the current required to balance each mass.

9.4.3 Analysis

Make a plot of the mass m versus I^2 to see if the data make sense. Since the gravitational force is proportional to m , your points should lie along a straight line that passes through the origin. The slope should be proportional to the constant C' . Use a ruler to draw the best fit line to your data and determine the slope and the value of C' . From this, calculate μ_0 and compare it to its actual value.

9.5 Questions

1. What is the shunt current?
2. What are the units of μ_0 ?
3. Make a Free Body Diagram for the mass supported by the balance.

Chapter 10

Magnetic Forces II

In this lab, we investigate the magnetic force on individual charges. In the process, we estimate the charge-to-mass ratio for electrons.

10.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

10.2 Introduction

To estimate the charge-to-mass ratio for electrons, q_e/m_e , we use the magnetic field produced by two identical coils known as Helmholtz coils, see Figure 10.1. In this configuration, the current circulates in the same direction in both coils, and the resultant magnetic field is fairly uniform close to the axis of the coils, around the mid-point between them.

The magnitude of the magnetic field along the axis, exactly at the mid-point, can be easily calculated by applying Biot-Savart law to a single loop carrying a current, I , and then superimposing the results for the N loops on each coil. The result is

$$B = \frac{16\mu_0}{\sqrt{125}} \left(\frac{NI}{D} \right), \quad (10.1)$$

where $\mu_0 \equiv 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{TmA}^{-1}$ is the permeability of free space, I is the current on each loop of the coils, N is the number of loops per coil, and D is the coil's diameter. The field's direction is parallel to the axis of the coils; we assume the field to be uniform in the vicinity of the mid-point between the coils.

In a previous lab, we have seen that a current-carrying wire feels a force due to a magnetic field – presumably due to the interaction between charges moving in the wire and the magnetic field. In this lab, we examine the motion of a stream of free electrons under the influence of a magnetic field.

The magnetic force on individual charges is given by

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}, \quad (10.2)$$

where, \vec{B} is the magnetic field acting on a charge q moving with velocity \vec{v} .

Even when there are no wires to confine the electrons, we are not going to be able to see the actual electrons. However, the trace that they leave behind as they collide with gas molecules is visible. To visualize the electron's trajectories, we place a vacuum tube at the mid-point between the Helmholtz coils, see Figure 10.1. This tube contains a low-pressure inert gas and an electron gun that can shoot electrons with a given kinetic energy and direction. The tube is aligned so the electron's velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field produced by the Helmholtz coils.

Inside the electron gun, electrons that have broken free from a hot filament are accelerated by a potential difference, ΔV . Assuming that the electrons start from zero velocity, the change in their kinetic energy is equal to the work done on them by the potential difference,

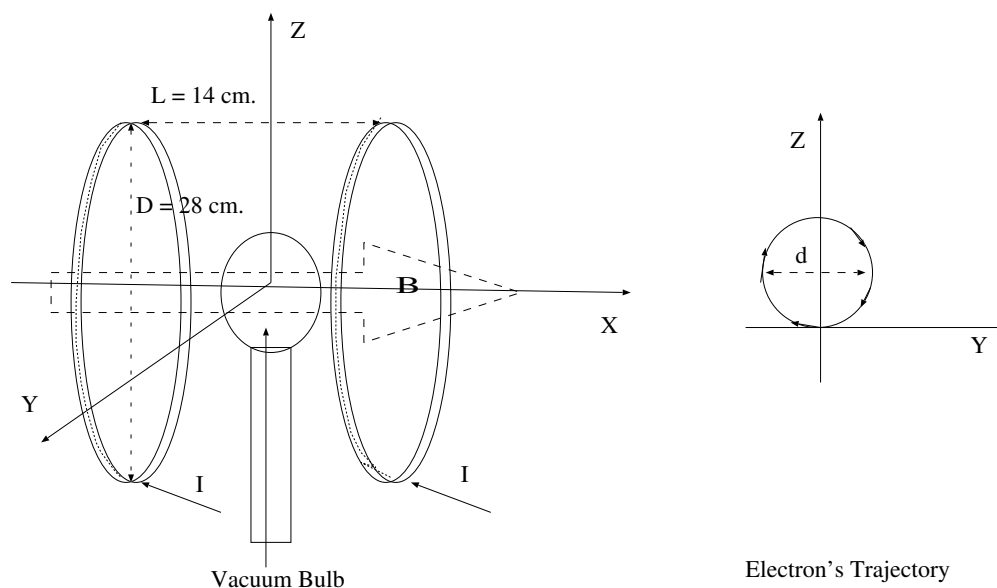


Figure 10.1: Instrument Setup. The magnetic field is generated by two identical coils; each coil has 140 turns. In this configuration, the magnetic field is fairly uniform at the mid-point between the coils. The vacuum tube contains a rarefied inert gas and has an electron gun that controls the velocity of the electrons. The inset on the right depicts the electron's track on a plane perpendicular to the coil's axis at the mid-point between them –the magnetic field is entering the page.

ΔV . That is

$$q_e \Delta V = \frac{1}{2} m_e v_e^2, \quad (10.3)$$

where q_e , m_e , v_e are the charge, mass, and speed of the electron.

Once an electron leaves the electron gun, it finds itself immersed in a uniform magnetic field, whose magnitude is given by equation (10.1). It turns out that the electrons trace circles, whose radius depends on the magnitude of their velocity and strength of the magnetic field. The motion of electrons moving at speeds much smaller than the speed of light (non-relativistic electrons) is described by Newton's second law, $\vec{F} = m_e \vec{a}$. For circular motion, the acceleration is given by $\vec{a} = (v^2/r)\hat{r}$, where v is the speed of the particle, r the radius of the circle and \hat{r} is a unit vector pointing radially inwards. In our setup, the electron velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field. Therefore, the equation of motion for the electrons can be written as

$$q_e v_e B = m_e \frac{v_e^2}{r}. \quad (10.4)$$

Furthermore, the B field and the electron's velocity are given by equations (10.1) and (10.3), respectively. Substituting those equations into (10.4), we obtain an expression for the electron's charge-to-mass ratio.

$$q_e/m_e = \frac{2\Delta V}{B^2 r^2}, \quad (10.5)$$

where ΔV is the electron's accelerating voltage, r is the radius of circle traced by the electrons, and B is given by equation (10.1).

10.3 Procedure

WARNING

The instrument that we are going to use is shown in Figure 10.1. Do not use this instrument continuously for more than one hr. Pay special attention to the startup and shutoff sequences. Also after each measurement, return the accelerating voltage to zero.

Before turning on the main switch (Red Switch), make sure that all switches are in their off position, and all the control knobs are in their start positions (lowest value).

Once the main switch is on, an orange glow from the filament at the electron gun should be visible; before continuing, wait about 5 minutes for the filament to get to the operating temperature.

Next, increase the accelerating voltage to about 100 V. A blue ray exiting the electron gun should now be visible – this is the track left by the electrons as they collide with the atoms inside the tube. Turn on the current on the Helmholtz coils and increase it to about 1.5 A.

Observe the new trajectory of the electrons. The new track should be a circle. Since the Earth's magnetic field may interfere with the electron's track, use a magnetic compass to align the instrument's magnetic field with the horizontal component of the Earth's magnetic field. If after doing this alignment, the electron's track looks more like a helix than a circle, ask your TA to align the vacuum tube –to avoid leaving any residual grease on the tube, gloves are required for this operation. After the alignment, reset the current and accelerating voltage to zero.

Once your apparatus is set up, you can start collecting data. Set the current at 1.5 A, and vary the accelerating voltage from 100 V to 250 V in increments of 50 V. For each of these voltages, measure and record the diameter of the electron's track.

The diameter of the circular trajectory is the most critical measurement in this exercise; the uncertainty can be reduced by sighting the edges of the electron's track perpendicularly to the ruler. A bad alignment produces unreliable readings. This is a common problem, and it is known as parallax. A mirror plays a key role in reducing parallax. A suitable mirror is located on the back of the instrument and should be used to improve the alignment of the electron's track and the ruler. The mirror produces a reflection of the scale's pointers and the electron track. When sighting the edge of the electron's track through the pointer, it's important to ensure that the pointer and the track are aligned with their reflections. This alignment is crucial for accurate measurements.

Each team member should make their own diameter determination, and then the team should use the average value.

Increase the current to 2 A, and vary the voltages as before, recording each team member's track diameter for each voltage.

After finishing collecting data, reset the current and accelerating voltage to zero. Set the switches of the accelerating voltage and current to their off position; finally set the main switch to its off position.

Note: *should you need to repeat your measurements, then you must repeat the start and alignment procedures for the instrument.*

10.4 Data

Organize all your data (current, voltage, and trajectory diameter) in a table with descriptive headers that include units. The first column should be an index to indicate the sequence of your measurements.

Record the coil's mean diameter and the number of loops, N , per coil.

10.5 Analysis

For each current value, calculate the magnetic field near the electron's track.

Using the accepted value for the mass and the charge of the electron, calculate the speed of the electrons for each accelerating voltage. Write your response as a fraction of the speed of light. Incorporate your results into your data table.

Calculate the value of electron's charge-to-mass ratio, q_e/m_e , for each measurement. Incorporate your values into your data table.

Plot the sequence of q_e/m_e values against their index in your data table.

From your data, calculate the average value of q_e/m_e .

Trace a horizontal line on your plot to represent the average value of q_e/m_e .

Based on your plot, how much confidence do you have on your results?

Calculate the percentage difference between your average and the accepted value of q_e/m_e .

Chapter 11

Faraday's Law

In this lab, Faraday's Law is applied to determine the magnetic field in a permanent magnet's gap and the inside of a solenoid.

11.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

11.2 Introduction

Faraday's Law is the starting point in the study of electrodynamic fields. It would not be an exaggeration to state that our modern civilization rests on the shoulders of Faraday's law.

In this lab, Faraday's Law is used to obtain estimates of the magnetic field associated with a permanent magnet and a time-varying current.

The change in magnetic flux through a coil induces a current along the coil. The motion of charge along the coil is associated with an induced electric field that runs along the wire in the direction that positive charges are moving.

According to Faraday's Law, a changing magnetic flux induces a voltage. The polarity of this voltage is determined by Lenz's Law, which requires the current resulting from the induced voltage to run in a sense such that it generates a magnetic field that opposes the change in the original flux. In general, Faraday's Law can be written as

$$E(t) = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_A \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a}, \quad (11.1)$$

where the integral represents the flux, Φ , of the magnetic field through the Area of the loop, A . The derivative in front of the integral indicates that the total time rate of change of the magnetic flux must be taken. Note that for the cases considered here, the magnetic field \vec{B} is assumed to be uniform over the Area of integration and also parallel to the area vector, $d\vec{a}$. In this case, the magnetic flux can be written as

$$\Phi = BA, \quad (11.2)$$

where A is the Area of integration, and B is the magnitude of the magnetic field. It should be clear that the flux can change with time if the magnitude of the magnetic field, the Area integrated over, or both change with time.

A word on notation:

For historical reasons, the voltage (work per unit charge) measured at the terminals of the coil is sometimes called electromotive force (EMF) and often denoted with $E(t)$. Historically, the EMF has been associated with non-electrical sources of the electric field (like batteries).

So far, we have been using the word voltage to denote electric potential difference, more specifically, the difference between the electric potential at a given point and a reference point, called ground (zero potential). However, the electric potential is a function defined only for electrostatic fields, which is helpful in calculating the work per unit charge done by an electric field. In contrast, in the electrodynamic case, the electric field cannot be associated with an electric potential (make sure you understand why). Nevertheless, we can still measure the work per unit charge done by the electric field, moving charges between two points. This work per unit charge is referred to as the voltage between the points.

In this lab, we keep the notation $E(t)$ for work per unit charge but refer to it simply as voltage. As usual, the units of choice to measure work per unit charge are Volts (V).

11.3 Relative Motion

In this part of the lab, Faraday's Law is used to determine the magnitude of the magnetic field B , in a permanent magnet. For this purpose, a coil of wire is placed between the poles of a large permanent magnet, which sets up a flux of B through the coil. Pulling the coil away from the poles reduces the number of magnetic field lines passing through it, reducing the flux through the coil. Far from the magnet, the magnetic flux is reduced to zero.

Note that in this case, neither B nor the Area of the coil are changing in time, but the relative motion of the coil in a spatially-varying magnetic field produces a change in flux through the coil. Thus, according to Faraday's Law, we should observe a voltage generated across the terminals of the coil. The induced voltage can be measured by connecting the coil to a voltmeter. The voltage will vary with time depending both on the speed with which the coil is pulled out and the spatial variation of B , neither of which are known. However, the total change in flux is given by the difference between the final and initial magnetic fluxes.

If the magnetic field, B (between the poles of the magnet), is uniform over the Area of the coil, A_c , then flux through a coil with N_c loops is simply $\Phi = N_c A_c B$. Hence, the change in the magnetic flux when pulling the coil away from the magnet is

$$\Delta\Phi = \Phi_{final} - \Phi_{initial} = -N_c A_c B. \quad (11.3)$$

This change in the flux can also be obtained by integrating Faraday's law, equation (11.1), with respect to time

$$\Delta\Phi = \int d\Phi = - \int E(t) dt. \quad (11.4)$$

These results together imply that the magnetic field between the magnet's poles can be written as

$$B = \frac{1}{N_c A_c} \int E(t) dt. \quad (11.5)$$

To evaluate this integral the voltage must be known as a function of time.

11.3.1 Procedure

Start by measuring and recording the coil's diameter. The coil has 100 turns –no need to count them.

As the coil moves to and from the magnet, an induced voltage is produced at the ends of the coil. An Oscilloscope, which displays voltage as a function of time on the screen, will be used to visualize the trace of the induced voltage.

Setup the oscilloscope as follows:

On the HORIZONTAL controls section, use the Scale knob to set the time scale to 100 ms; On the VERTICAL controls section, use the scale knob to set the vertical scale to 50 mV; next, select Channel 1, set the coupling to DC, and ensure the probe is set to 1X.

On the TRIGGER controls section, press the trigger menu button and set the source to Channel 1 and the Mode to auto Untriggered roll. This setting will run the trace continuously.

You may produce a nice trace using a high-resolution sampling. Do this by pressing the acquire button (on the Horizontal section) and choose mode, then select high resolution (Hi-Res).

Connect the ends of the coil to the oscilloscope, place the coil between the poles of the magnet, wait for the trace to settle down, and then pull the coil away from the magnet. With the present setup, the trace is continuously acquired, so a pulse will be visible on the screen when you move the coil in or out. To capture the trace, press the Run/Stop button. Practice a few trials until you get a good trace.

To analyze the Pulse, use the Cursors button to access the tools to measure Time and Amplitude. Use these tools to measure the Pulse's height and width. Record your measurements.

Before discarding the Pulse, please take a picture and share it with each team member; this picture must be included in your lab report, and its caption must include the Pulse's height and width.

11.3.2 Data

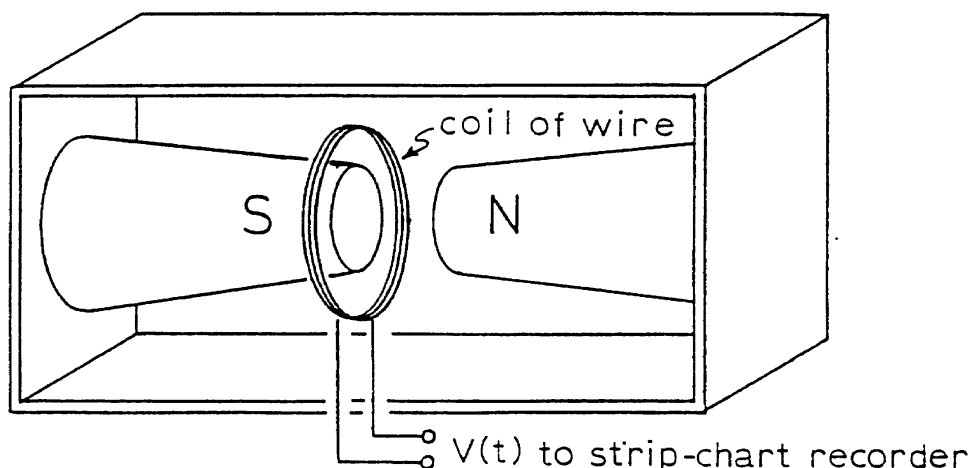


Figure 11.1: Diagram of setup for testing Faraday's Law.

11.3.3 Analysis

To estimate the Area under the $E(t)$ curve, model the Pulse as a Triangle and use your measurements of the Pulse's height and width. Use this estimate and the coil's parameters to compute B for the permanent magnet.

11.4 Time Varying Magnetic Field

The magnetic field generated inside an air-core solenoid by a time-varying current will be examined next. The results will be compared to the theoretical field predicted by Ampere's Law for an ideal solenoid with the same characteristics. Using Ampere's Law, it can be shown that the magnitude of the magnetic field (in Tesla) inside an ideal solenoid of length ℓ and N_s turns is given by

$$B = \mu_0 \left(\frac{N_s}{\ell} \right) I, \quad (11.6)$$

where I is the current flowing through the wire of the solenoid and $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ NA}^{-2}$ is the permeability of free space. Hence for a sinusoidal current of amplitude I_0 and frequency

f , the magnetic field is given by

$$B(t) = \mu_0 \left(\frac{N_s}{\ell} \right) I_0 \sin(2\pi ft). \quad (11.7)$$

For a less-than-ideal solenoid, the magnetic field is still proportional to the current, but the constant of proportionality may not be the one predicted by Ampere's Law. In this case, the magnetic field can be written as

$$B(t) = B_0 \sin(2\pi ft), \quad (11.8)$$

where f is the frequency of the input current. This field can be sensed by a small coil inserted inside the solenoid, such that its Area, A_p , is perpendicular to the axis of the solenoid. If the magnetic flux is uniform through the Area of the pickup coil, the magnetic flux through the N_p loops of this coil is given by

$$\Phi(t) = (N_p A_p) B_0 \sin(2\pi ft), \quad (11.9)$$

According to Faraday's Law, the induced voltage on the pickup coil is minus the time rate of change of this flux. Hence, it must be

$$E(t) = -2\pi f N_p A_p B_0 \cos(2\pi ft), \quad (11.10)$$

$$= 2\pi f N_p A_p B_0 \sin(2\pi ft - \pi/2). \quad (11.11)$$

The amplitude of the induced voltage is therefore

$$E_0 = 2\pi f N_p A_p B_0. \quad (11.12)$$

11.4.1 Procedure

Inside the solenoid.

Set the signal generator to produce a sine wave with a frequency of 1 kHz and use the oscilloscope to set its amplitude to 10 V peak-to-peak. Connect the solenoid to the signal generator as shown in Figure 11.2. The 100 ω resistor is used to sense the current. Since it is connected in series with the solenoid, the same current flows through them. Measure the actual value of the resistor. Turn the signal generator on and measure the voltage across the resistor. (Ohm's Law is used to determine the current.)

Carefully place the pickup coil in the center of the solenoid and connect it to the oscilloscope. Measure the amplitude, E_0 , of the voltage induced in the coil by the solenoid's changing magnetic field.

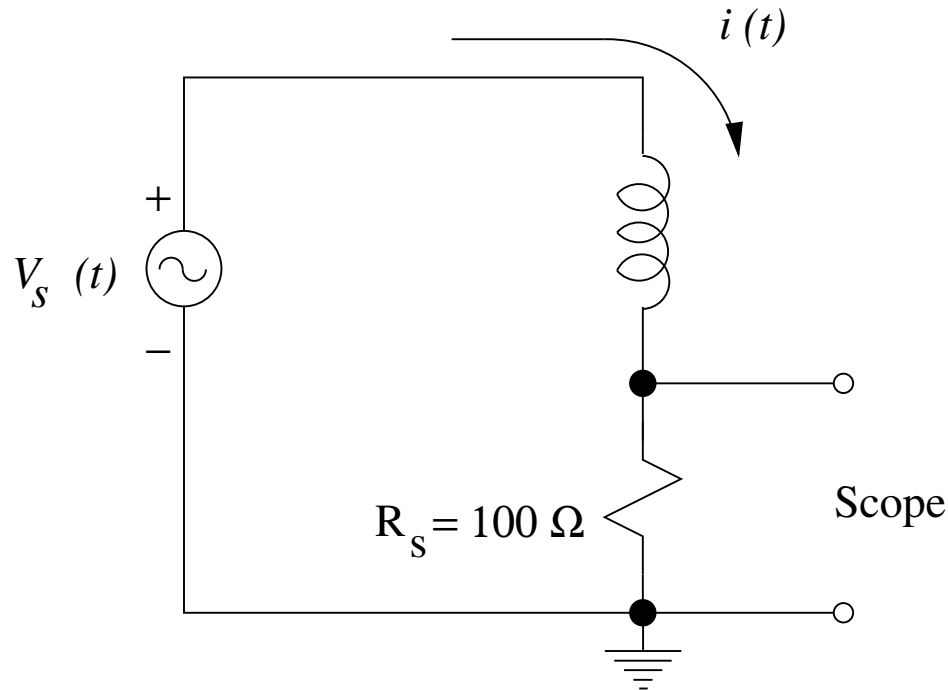


Figure 11.2: Circuit for supplying and measuring current to the solenoid.

Outside the solenoid.

Once you finish your measurements, examine the surroundings of the solenoid. Start by placing the pickup coil on top of the solenoid at the center (on the strip of tape). Turn it straight up, with the coil close to the solenoid, so that its axis is perpendicular to that of the solenoid. Slowly drag the pickup coil to the end of the solenoid. You should see the signal rise. What does this mean? Sketch what you think the magnetic field lines should look like in and around the solenoid.

11.4.2 Data

For the solenoid, record the number of loops, its length, the peak-to-peak voltage applied, and the frequency of the signal applied. Also record the value of the resistor used to sense the current flowing through the solenoid and the peak-to-peak value of the voltage across the resistor. The pickup coil has 50 turns of wire. Measure and record its diameter and the peak-to-peak value of the induced voltage in the pickup coil. Sketch the magnetic field in and around the actual solenoid.

11.4.3 Analysis

Determine the current flowing through the solenoid. Use the value of this current and Ampere's Law to obtain the theoretical value of the amplitude of the magnetic field inside the ideal solenoid.

Use your measurements from the pickup coil and Faraday's Law to determine the amplitude of the magnetic field for the actual solenoid. Compare this value to the ideal value obtained from Ampere's Law.

11.5 Questions

1. Derive equation (11.6).
2. In both experiments, the voltage induced in the coil of wire could be connected to a resistor and would cause the resistor to heat up slightly. What is the source of this energy in each experiment?

Chapter 12

Mutual Inductance

In this Lab, we investigate the Mutual Inductance between two coils in a concentric configuration.

12.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

12.2 Introduction

The coil's configuration is depicted in Figure 12.1.

According to Ampere's Law, a current circulating in a solenoid produces a magnetic field along the solenoid. A schematic of this field is shown in Figure 12.2, and its magnitude is given by

$$B = \mu_o \left(\frac{N_p}{L_p} \right) I_p, \quad (12.1)$$

where N_p , L_p , and I_p are the number of turns, length, and current through the solenoid; $\mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ WbA}^{-1}\text{m}^{-1}$ is the permeability of free space. Once the secondary coil is inserted in the primary coil, as shown in Figure 12.1, the magnetic flux expected to go through each turn of the the secondary coil is simply

$$\phi_s = BA_s, \quad (12.2)$$

where A_s is the area of the secondary coil, and we have assumed that the magnetic field is uniform throughout the area of the primary coil. In this configuration, the coils' area is

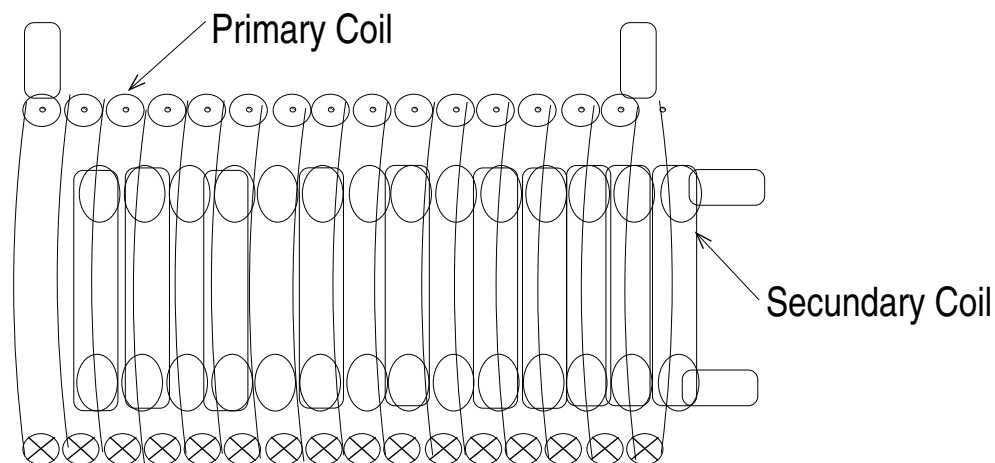


Figure 12.1: Primary and secondary coils in a concentric arrangement, with the secondary as the inner coil.

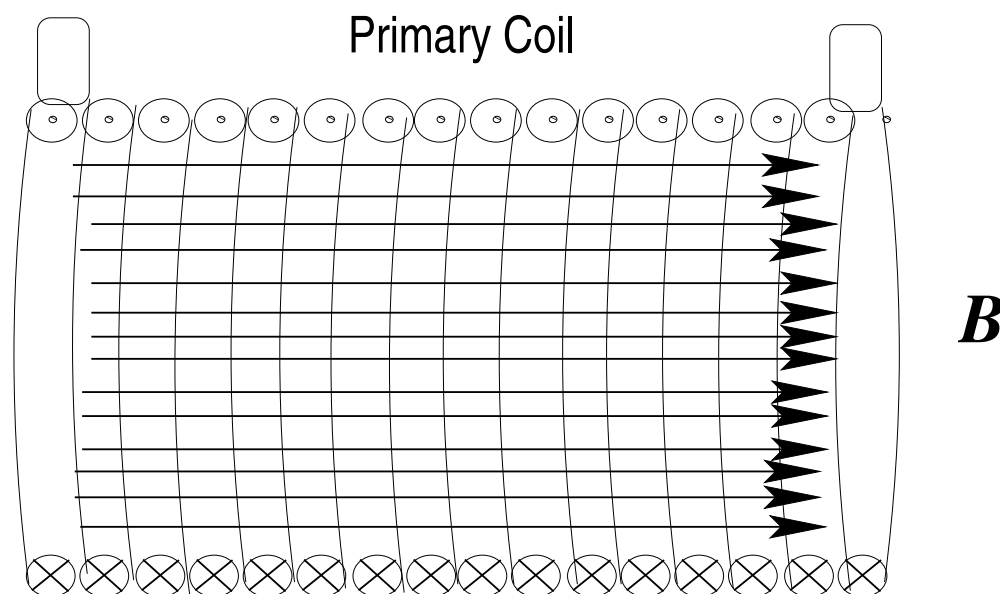


Figure 12.2: Magnetic Field along the axis of a solenoid.

fixed, and there is no relative motion between them. According to Faraday's law for a static magnetic field in the primary coil, there should be no voltage difference between the terminals of the secondary coil. However, according to equations (12.1) and (12.2), a changing current in the primary coil produces a changing magnetic flux through the secondary coil, which in turn induces a voltage across each turn of the secondary coil. In this case, the voltage induced at the terminals of the secondary coils is

$$\varepsilon_s(t) = -N_s \frac{d\phi_s}{dt}, \quad (12.3)$$

where N_s is the number of loops in the secondary coil.

When the magnetic field produced by one coil is felt by another coil, we say that the coils

are linked by the magnetic field. The big assumption is that for any pair of coils in any configuration, the magnetic flux passing through the secondary coil is proportional to the current, I_p , in the primary coil (the coil producing the magnetic field). Representing the magnetic flux per loop in the secondary coil by ϕ_s , we could write the total flux as

$$N_s \phi_s = M I_p, \quad (12.4)$$

where N_s is the number of turns in the secondary coil, and M is a constant that only depends on the coils' configuration. The constant of proportionality M is called the Mutual Inductance of the coils.

It is worth noting that if the coils' roles are interchanged, but their configuration is the same, then equation (12.5) remains valid. The SI unit for M is the henry (H). From equation (12.4), it can be seen that $1 \text{ H} = \text{WbA}^{-1}$.

Combining equations (12.3) and (12.4), we obtain

$$\varepsilon_s(t) = -M \frac{dI_p}{dt}. \quad (12.5)$$

Assuming that the current through the primary can be represented as

$$I(t) = I_0 \cos(\omega t), \quad (12.6)$$

where I_0 and ω are its amplitude and angular frequency, then according to equation (12.5) the voltage across the secondary must be

$$\varepsilon_s(t) = M I_0 \omega \sin(\omega t). \quad (12.7)$$

Calling ε_{s0} the amplitude of the voltage across the secondary, it follows that

$$\varepsilon_{s0} = M \omega I_0. \quad (12.8)$$

We use equation (12.8) to determine experimentally the Mutual Inductance, and compare our results with the theoretical prediction for M , which is obtained next.

For the configuration that is shown in Figure 12.1, the magnetic field in the primary is given by equation (12.1). Hence, the magnetic flux through the secondary coil is simply

$$\phi_s = \frac{\mu_0 \pi D_s^2 N_p}{4L_p} I_p, \quad (12.9)$$

where the D_s is the diameter of the secondary coil. It follows from equation (12.4) that for this configuration the Mutual Inductance is given by

$$M = \frac{\mu_0 \pi D_s^2 N_p}{4L_p} N_s \quad (12.10)$$

Note that equations (12.9) and (12.10) are valid for vacuum and to a good approximation for air, and any non-ferromagnetic material. However, the magnetic field and therefore the magnetic flux are significantly increased in the presence of ferromagnetic materials. In this case, we must replace μ_0 , with the actual permeability of the material.

12.3 Procedure

To investigate the relationship between the current in the primary and the induced voltage in the secondary coil shown in Figure 12.1, We use a signal generator and an Oscilloscope. Ask your instructor if you have questions about the operation of these instruments.

The setup for this experiment is shown in Figure 12.3. Note that the primary coil and the $1\text{ k}\Omega$ resistor are connected in series. Hence, according to Kirchoff's law, the current going through the coil is the same as the current going through the resistor. The signal generator is used to apply a sinusoidal voltage of various amplitudes, but with the same frequency, to drive a sinusoidal current in the primary coil. The current in the primary is tracked by monitoring the voltage drop across the resistor in the circuit (recall that current and voltage across a resistor are related by Ohm's law); the voltage across the secondary coils is observed directly on the oscilloscope.

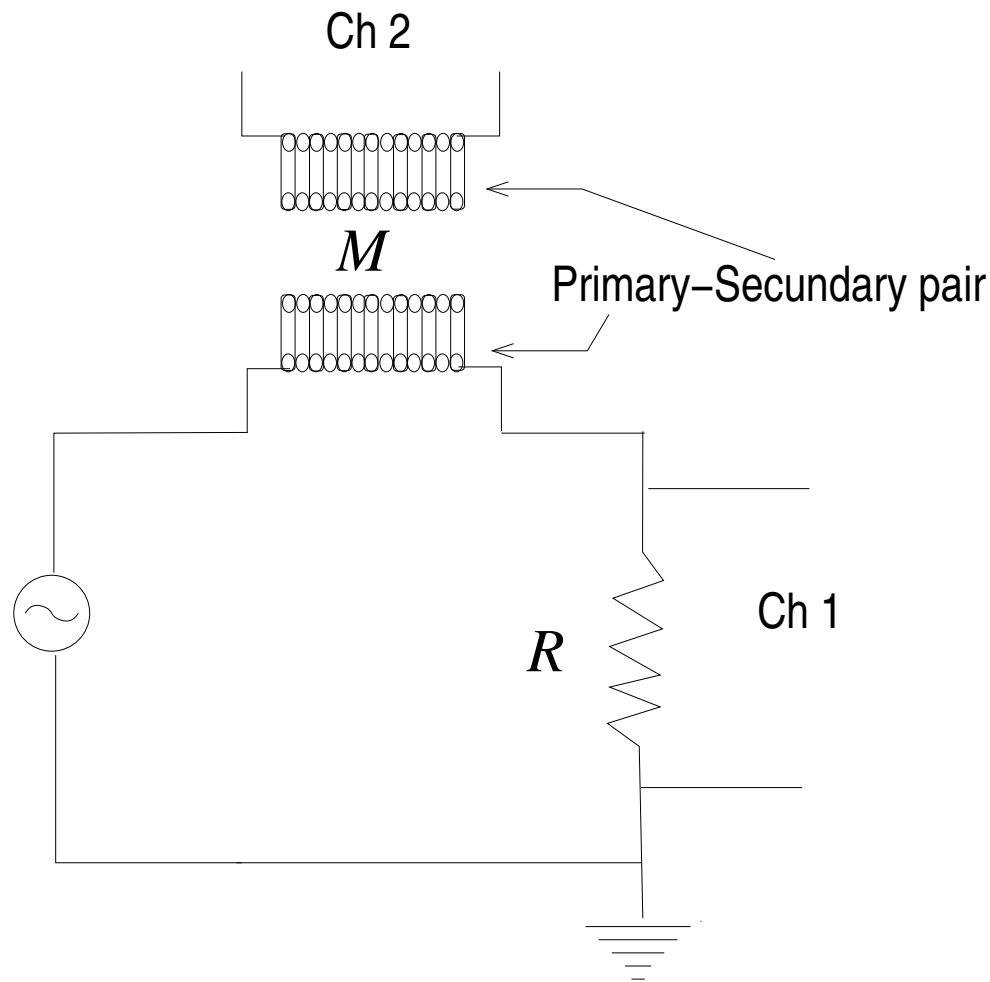


Figure 12.3: Diagram of the setup to examine the Mutual Inductance between coils; the number of turns of the secondary coil is $N_s = 235$; R has a nominal value of $1\text{ k}\Omega$; M is the Mutual Inductance.

Obtain a resistor of about $1\text{ k}\Omega$; use a DMM to determine the actual resistance and record its value. Install the resistor on the screw-down board.

Verify the calibration of the Oscilloscope and then use it to set the signal generator to produce a 1 kHz sinusoidal signal of 2 V p-p.

Connect the primary coil, the $1\text{ k}\Omega$ resistor, and the signal generator in series, as shown in Figure 12.3. Changing the amplitude of the input signal changes the current across the primary inductor. Use the Oscilloscope's **Ch 1** to monitor this current by looking at the voltage drop across the resistor. Use **Ch 2** to monitor the voltage across the secondary coil.

12.3.1 air-core solenoid

The coils are made out of copper wire wind around tubes of insulating material; the tube's core is just air. Insert the secondary coil into the primary; monitor the voltage across the resistor on **Ch 1** and the voltage across the secondary coil on **Ch 2**. Vary the voltage drop across the resistor from 2 V p-p to 12 V in increments of 2 V p-p and measure the voltage across the secondary coil; record your measurements.

12.3.2 iron-core solenoid

Reduce the voltage drop across the resistor to about 1 V p-p, and remove the secondary from the primary coil. Insert the iron bar into the core of the secondary. Reinstall the secondary (with the iron core) back into the primary coil. Adjust the voltage drop across the resistor to be 1 V p-p; proceed to increase the voltage drop across the resistor, and collect the same kind of data as in the case of the air-core solenoid.

12.4 Data

Organize the data for each case in a table that includes headings and units. You should have at least six pairs of measurements per case.

12.5 Analysis

Determine if your data supports equation (12.8). For each case (air and iron core), calculate the current in the primary coil, and make a plot of the voltage across the secondary vs. current in the primary; use a ruler to draw the best fit line for your data; write the equation

for the line and determine its slope. Use your experimental values for the Mutual Inductance to determine the permeability for the air and iron cores; compare your results with the permeability of vacuum.

Combine all of your plots, including the fitted lines, in the same graph using the same scale. Mark the data for each case with a different symbol and add an appropriate legend. Include this graph in your report as part of the analysis.

Chapter 13

Displacement Current

In this Lab, we investigate the displacement current through a Capacitor in an LR-circuit. We compare the displacement and conduction current in this circuit.

13.1 Pre-Lab

Read this lab and come to class with questions on anything you do not understand.

13.2 Introduction

For this Lab, we use the configuration depicted in Figure 13.1.

Connecting a DC power supply to the circuit will charge the capacitor and set its potential difference to the voltage of the power supply. For a brief moment, an electric charge will move from one plate of the capacitor to the other, but not across the gap of the capacitor. After the capacitor is charged, no more transport of charge will occur. At this point, the Electric field inside the capacitor is at its maximum value and will not change anymore.

Using an AC power supply changes the behavior of the circuit. The oscillating voltage at the plates of the capacitor sets an oscillating Electric field between the plates, which in turns induces a Magnetic field inside the plates of the capacitor. Figure 13.2 depicts the situation at a given point in time. Notice the circular nature of the Magnetic field around the Electric field. The Magnetic field behaves as if it were produced by a conduction current (charge moving) between the capacitor's plates.

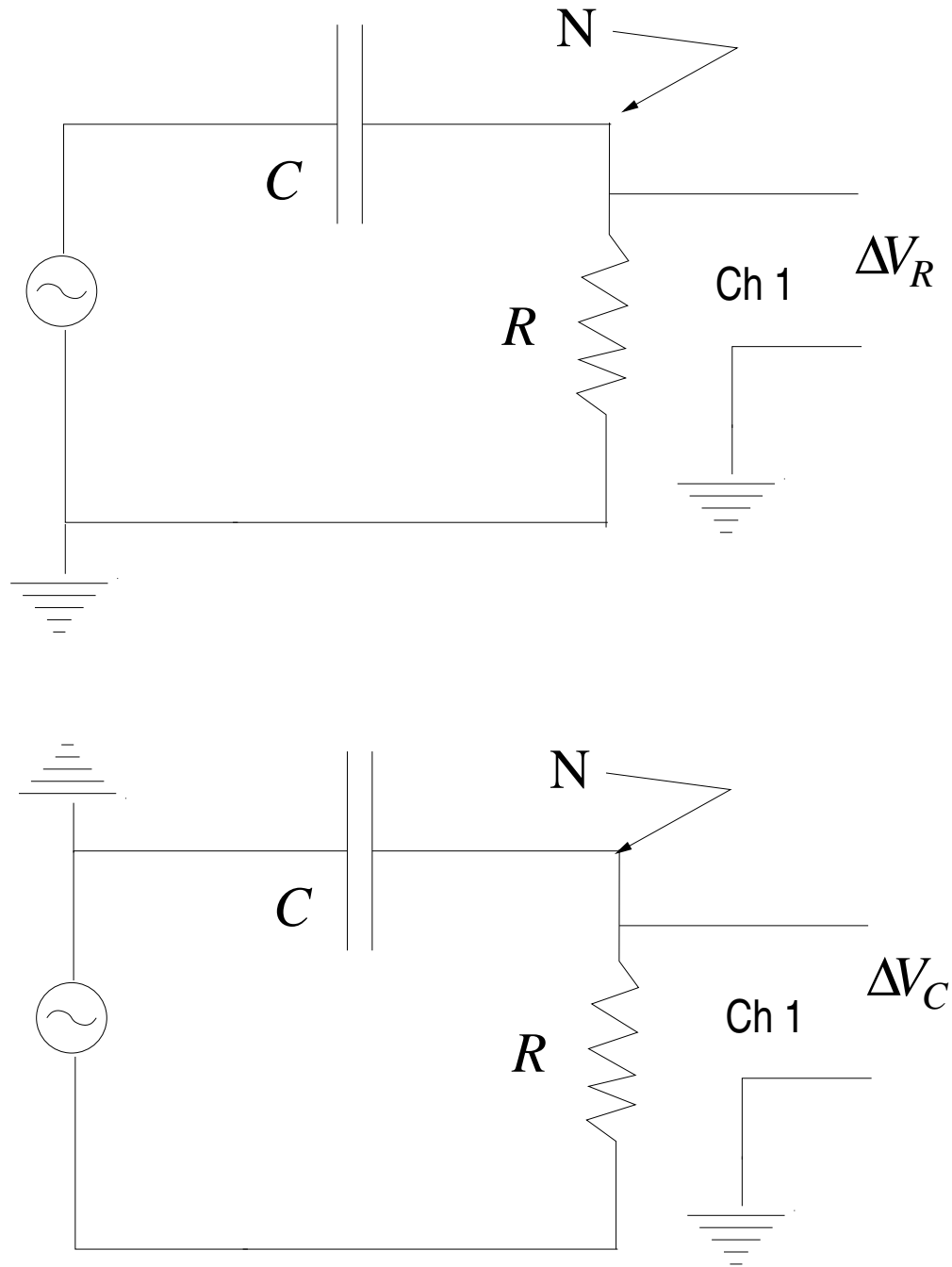


Figure 13.1: Capacitor in series with a resistor joined at node N, where we connect them to Ch 1. The top panel shows the resistor grounded, while in the bottom panel, the capacitor is grounded. Both configurations set the same conduction current through the resistor.

The origin of the Magnetic field was explained by Maxwell ¹, who proposed that the changing electric Flux inside the capacitor is responsible for the emergence of the Magnetic field, just

¹James Clerk Maxwell (1831-1879). Scottish physicist, who unified in a single theory all electricity and magnetism phenomena

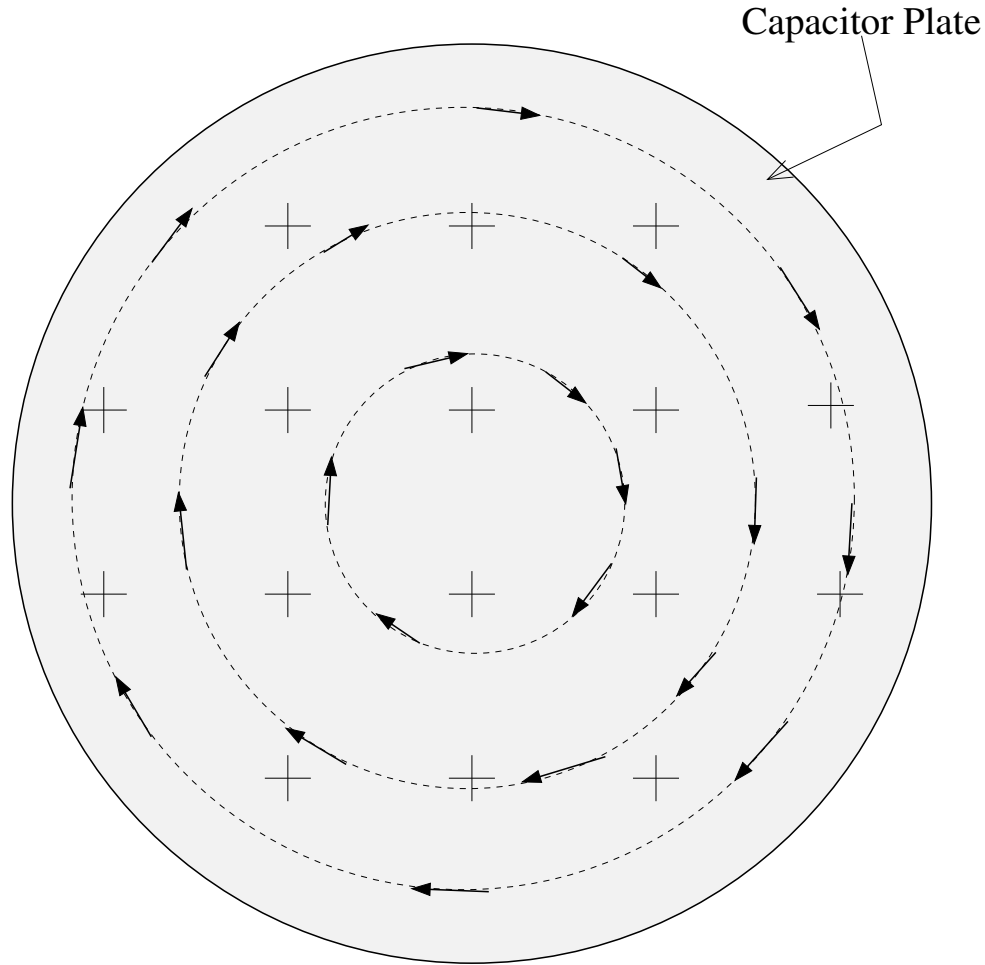


Figure 13.2: Electromagnetic fields inside a capacitor when the voltage across the capacitor changes as a function of time. The Crosses indicate an Electric field into the plane of the figure, while the arrows indicate the associated Magnetic field.

like a changing magnetic Flux inside a solenoid induces an Electric field. To account for this effect, Maxwell added an extra term into Ampere's law. He called it, the displacement current I_d .

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0(I_c + I_d). \quad (13.1)$$

The first term on the right hand side of this extended Ampere's law is the standard conduction current, which is related to the motion of charge; the second term is the displacement current, which is given by

$$I_d(t) = \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} \int_A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a}, \quad (13.2)$$

where A is the area of the capacitor's plates; the integral is the flux of Electric field across the area of the capacitor. The rate of change of this flux is what determines the magnitude of the Magnetic field in the gap of the capacitor. The direction of the Magnetic field is obtained by the right-hand rule (fingers curl in the direction of the Magnetic field, when the

thumb points in the direction of the changing Electric field).

In terms of the voltage across the capacitor, the magnitude of the Electric field is

$$E = \frac{V_c(t)}{d}, \quad (13.3)$$

where d is the distance between the capacitor's plates; the direction of the Electric field is from the higher to the lower potential and it alternates with the same frequency as $V_c(t)$.

Assuming that the Electric field is uniform across the area of the capacitor simplifies the integral in equation (13.2). In this case, the displacement current is given by

$$I_d(t) = \epsilon_0(A/d) \frac{d}{dt} V_c(t); \quad (13.4)$$

Since the capacitance for this geometry (parallel plate capacitor) is given by $C = \epsilon_0(A/d)$, the displacement current can be written as

$$I_d(t) = C \frac{d}{dt} V_c(t); \quad (13.5)$$

Applying the sinusoidal voltage

$$V_s(t) = V_{s0} \sin(\omega t) \quad (13.6)$$

to the circuit of Figure 13.1, sets up a sinusoidal voltage across the resistor and capacitor. These voltages have the same frequency as the input voltage, but in general, will have different amplitudes and phases. The voltage drop across the capacitor can be written as

$$V_c(t) = V_{c0} \sin(\omega t + \phi_c), \quad (13.7)$$

where V_{c0} , ω , and ϕ_c are the amplitude, angular frequency and phase constant, respectively. Similarly for the resistor, the voltage drop can be written as

$$V_R(t) = V_{R0} \sin(\omega t + \phi_R). \quad (13.8)$$

Substituting equation (13.7) into (13.5), results in

$$I_d(t) = C\omega V_{c0} \cos(\omega t + \phi_c). \quad (13.9)$$

Hence, the amplitude of the displacement current is

$$I_{d0} = C\omega V_{c0} \quad (13.10)$$

On the other hand, the amplitude of the conduction current through the resistor is, by Ohm's law,

$$I_{c0} = V_{R0}/R. \quad (13.11)$$

According to Kirchhoff's Node Law, the current through elements connected in series must be the same. In this Lab, We test whether the amplitudes of the conduction current, through the resistor, and the displacement current, in the capacitor, are the same.

13.3 Procedure

We will use a signal generator and an Oscilloscope to perform the experiment. Ask your instructor if you have questions about the operation of these instruments. The setup for this experiment is shown in Figure 13.1.

To measure the conduction and displacement currents start by procuring a resistor with a resistance of about $30\text{ k}\Omega$; determine its actual value using a multimeter. Next set the gap of the capacitor to about half a centimeter and measure its capacitance using an LCR meter.

Verify the calibration of the Oscilloscope and then use it to set the signal generator to produce a sinusoidal signal with 6 V peak-to-peak and a frequency of 30 kHz . Connect the signal generator to **Ch 1** and measure the actual amplitude and period of the input signal. After setting up the signal generator, turn it off and disconnect it from the Oscilloscope.

On the screw-down board, connect the capacitor in series with a resistor and signal generator using banana cables.

To measure the voltage drop across the resistor make sure that the AC source is connected as shown on the Top panel of Figure 13.1. Ensure that **Ch 1** of the oscilloscope is connected to Node N; in this configuration, **Ch 1** will show the Voltage drop across the resistor; turn on the signal generator and measure the amplitude of the voltage drop across the resistor.

According to Kirchhoff's loop law, we can find the voltage across the capacitor by taking the difference between the input voltage and the drop across the resistor. However, this difference depends not only on the amplitudes, but also on the phases of these voltages—see equations (13.6), (13.7), and (13.8). For this reason, we use the configuration shown in the Bottom panel of Figure 13.1, which allows for a direct measurement of the voltage drop across the capacitor. To set this configuration without modifying the original settings, only reverse the cables at the signal generator.

After measuring the voltage drop across the resistor, turn off the signal generator and reverse its connection to the circuit (be careful and do not change the amplitude and frequency); once the connection is reversed, **Ch 1** will show the voltage drop across the capacitor; turn on the signal generator and measure the amplitude of the voltage drop across the capacitor.

Repeat your measurements for the rest of the input voltages given by your instructor. Note that instead of directly measuring the amplitude, it may be easier and more accurate to measure the peak-to-peak range and obtain the amplitude from those measurements.

13.4 Data

Record the actual resistance and capacitance of the components in your circuit. For each input voltage, you should have recorded the period of the input signal and its amplitude; also the amplitudes of the voltage drop across the resistor and capacitor; Organize your data in a table that includes headings and units.

13.5 Analysis

To compare the amplitude of the conduction and displacement currents, make a plot of one against the other. If the currents are the same, your plot should resemble a straight line. What should be the value of the slope?

Compare your slope to the expected value.