Experiment 1: Velocity, acceleration and measurement of g

Nate Saffold nas2173@columbia.edu Office Hour: Monday, 5:30PM-6:30PM @ Pupin 1216

INTRO TO EXPERIMENTAL PHYS-LAB 1493/1494/2699



Introduction

- Brief historical introduction (Galilei and Newton)
- The physics behind the experiment (equations of kinematics, force equation, elastic collisions)
- The experiment
 - Description of the apparatus
 - Part 1: the coefficient of restitution
 - Part 2: acceleration of gravity, g
 - Tips

History: Galieo Galilei

- Experiments aimed at studying the motion of bodies undergoing a uniform acceleration are literally the first scientific experiments of human history!
- Galileo (circa 1638):
 - Built his own smooth, frictionless inclined plane
 - He realized that bodies possess inertia
 - He showed for the first time that <u>bodies</u> <u>undergoing constant acceleration</u> <u>move with displacement proportional to</u> <u>a squared time</u>



- In doing this he set the criteria for the scientific method:
 - Observation \rightarrow Prediction \rightarrow Experiment

PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

History: Sir Isaac Newton

- After Galileo, other very important experimental physicists studied the kinematics of bodies on Earth and in the sky (Johannes Kepler, Tycho Brahe, ...)
- They paved the road to the first great theoretical physicist: Sir Isaac Newton

"If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants"

Isaac Newton

- Newton formulated a theory that has been regarded as the definitive, exact one for centuries
- To change this paradigm we will have to wait the revolutionary work of Albert Einstein in 1905

History: Sir Isaac Newton

Three Newtonian laws of motion:

- First Law: A body will stay in constant motion unless it is acted upon by a force.
- <u>Second Law</u>: the acceleration due to a force is proportional to the force itself:

$$\vec{F}_{\rm tot} = m\vec{a}_{
m tot}$$

- <u>Third Law</u>: For every force there will be a reaction force equal in magnitude, but opposite in direction.
- The first law is due to the inertial nature of mass
- If a body is at <u>rest</u> it will stay so. If it is in motion with <u>constant velocity</u> it will stay so.



Every change in motion must be due to a force!

Motion under constant acceleration

 If a body is subject to a constant acceleration in 2 dimensions it is easy to find the velocity as a function of time:

$$\frac{dv_x}{dt} = a_x = \text{const.} \qquad \int dv_x = a_x \int dt \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_x(t) = v_{0,x} + a_x t$$

$$\frac{dv_y}{dt} = a_y = \text{const.} \qquad \int dv_y = a_y \int dt \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad v_y(t) = v_{0,y} + a_y t$$

Motion under constant acceleration

 If a body is subject to a constant acceleration in 2 dimensions it is easy to find the velocity as a function of time:

$$\frac{dv_x}{dt} = a_x = \text{const.} \qquad \int dv_x = a_x \int dt \qquad \implies v_x(t) = v_{0,x} + a_x t$$

$$\frac{dv_y}{dt} = a_y = \text{const.} \qquad \int dv_y = a_y \int dt \qquad \implies v_y(t) = v_{0,y} + a_y t$$

Integrating again we find the position as a function of time:

$$\int dx = \int v_x(t)dt = \int (v_{0,x} + a_x t)dt \implies x(t) = x_0 + v_{0,x} t + \frac{1}{2}a_x t^2$$
$$\int dy = \int v_y(t)dt = \int (v_{0,y} + a_y t)dt \implies y(t) = y_0 + v_{0,y} t + \frac{1}{2}a_y t^2$$

This is exactly what Galileo observed experimentally

Vector equations

• <u>Very important:</u>

Newton's law is a vectorial equation

It contains one equation for each direction in space!

- This means that in general one has to <u>apply the following</u> procedure:
 - 1. Choose a suitable, convenient system of Cartesian axes
 - 2. Consider <u>all</u> the forces in play and compute their vector sum, $ec{F}_{
 m tot}$
 - 3. Each component of \vec{F}_{tot} will correspond to one Newton's equation for the body:

$$F_{\text{tot},x} = ma_x$$
$$F_{\text{tot},y} = ma_y$$
$$F_{\text{tot},z} = ma_z$$

PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

Vector equations: an example

 Let's take a quick look at a <u>simple example</u>: a body on a table with two external forces applied as follow



• Newton's law along the x- and y-axes:

 $F_{\text{net},x} = F_1 \cos \theta - F2 = ma_x$

 $F_{\text{net},y} = N + F_1 \sin \theta - mg = ma_y$

If we know every force we can then solve for the accelerations.
 Viceversa, if we know the accelerations we can find some of the forces

(Quasi) elastic collision

- In a perfectly elastic collision <u>both</u> energy <u>and</u> momentum are conserved
- If you have a single body of mass *m* and velocity *v* bouncing <u>elastically</u> off a wall it will reverse its direction. Hence, from conservation of momentum:

$$p_i = p_f \Rightarrow mv_i = -mv_f \Rightarrow v_i = v_f$$

Mass of the body clearly stays the same

- If the collision is perfectly elastic the velocity only changes direction but the magnitude remains the same
- One can then have a measure of the elasticity of a collision by computing the coefficient of restitution:

$$e = \left| \frac{v_f}{v_i} \right| = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{elastic} \\ < 1 & \text{non elastic} \end{cases}$$
PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

The Experiment

PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

Apparatus: the "frictionless" air-track

- <u>Air-track</u>: metal bar with pinholes for air to flow
- Thanks to the flow of air the rider runs on a nearly frictionless cushion of air
- Timing is performed by Sonic Ranger



Apparatus: position measurement

• Sends out pulses of sound waves with a frequency f = 20 Hz.



Apparatus: position measurement

Sends out pulses of sound waves with a frequency f = 20 Hz.



- Detects reflected sound waves and records "round trip" time (τ) for each pulse.
- It then measures the distance to the reflecting object using the knowledge of au and of the speed of sound (v_s): $v_s au$

Apparatus: velocity measurement

- Traditional radars measure the velocity of a body by detecting the shift in frequency between sent and received waves (Doppler effect)
- Our radar as a less sophisticated method. It simply <u>computes the</u> <u>average velocity over very small time intervals</u>:

$$v(t) = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)}{\Delta t}$$

Apparatus: velocity measurement

- Traditional radars measure the velocity of a body by detecting the shift in frequency between sent and received waves (Doppler effect)
- Our radar as a less sophisticated method. It simply <u>computes the</u> <u>average velocity over very small time intervals</u>:



The output will look like this:

<u>Velocity vs. time</u>

$$v(t) = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)}{\Delta t}$$
Position vs. time - - - x(t) vs. t

PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

VS. l

Main goals

- Measure x(t) vs. t and v(t) vs. t under different physical circumstances
- Part 1:
 - Achieve <u>motion with constant velocity</u> with level air-track
 - Collide the rider with one end of the air-track
 - Measure coefficient of restitution
- Part 2:
 - Achieve <u>motion with constant acceleration</u> with inclined air-track
 - Extract the acceleration of gravity, g, from the x(t) and v(t) curves
 - Estimate effect of friction

Leveling Air-track

- It is essential for the whole experiment to level the airtrack carefully before performing your measurements
- Use the following <u>procedure</u>:
 - 1. Turn on air and place the rider on the air-track
 - 2. Adjust the feet of the track until the air-track doesn't move on its own anymore
 - 3. Check for different positions of the rider
- IMPORTANT NOTES:
 - Some track might be slightly bent on different spots and therefore the rider might never be at rest. Check that the motion is random and slow
 - Do not use shims to raise the track! You will need them later. You can use paper instead

Part 1: quasi-elastic collision

- Put the <u>rubber band</u> on the rider x
- Push the rider away from the sonic ranger and let it <u>bounce</u> off the other side
- Your *x(t) vs. t* plot will look like the one on the right
- Use Data Studio to obtain the slopes (with errors!) of the lines before and after the collision



Quasi-elastic collision happens here and the velocity is reversed

Perform the collision 10 times and repeat the above steps

Part 1: analysis

- The slope of each x(t) vs. t is the (constant) velocity of the rider
- For each of the 10 measurement you can then compute the coefficient of restitution:

$$e = \left| \frac{v_f}{v_i} \right| = \left| \frac{\text{slope after}}{\text{slope before}} \right|$$

- <u>Remember to propagate errors!</u>
- After that you will have 10 values of $e \pm \sigma_e$
- Use them to compute both unweighted and weighted average and error for the coefficient of restitution
- This will be your final result

Part 2: set up

- In the set up of this experiment (typical inclined plane) the perpendicular component of g is canceled by the normal reaction
- The parallel component is instead given by:

$$a_x = g\sin\theta = g\frac{h}{L}$$



Part 2: set up

 a_x

Н

 θ

g

- In the set up of this experiment (typical inclined plane) the perpendicular component of g is canceled by the normal reaction
- The parallel component is instead given by:

$$a_x = g\sin\theta = g\frac{h}{L}$$

You can change h by placing shims under the track



PHYS 1493/1494/2699: Exp. 1 – Velocity, acceleration and g

h

Part 2: measurements

For a <u>fixed value of the height</u> do:

- 1. Release the rider on the plane
- 2. Start taking data right before the rider hits the elastic bumper
- 3. Take data until the next collision with the bumper
- 4. Obtain the slope (with error!) of the v(t) vs. t line
- 5. Repeat <u>10 times</u>



Here the rider stops rising, reverse its velocity and starts falling back

Part 2: measurements

For a <u>fixed value of the height</u> do:

- 1. Release the rider on the plane
- 2. Start taking data right before the rider hits the elastic bumper
- 3. Take data until the next collision with the bumper
- 4. Obtain the slope (with error!) of the v(t) vs. t line
- 5. Repeat <u>10 times</u>



Here the rider stops rising, reverse its velocity and starts falling back

- For a few trial (~3) check the consistency of the value of a_x
 obtained from v(t) with that obtained from a <u>quadratic fit of x(t)</u>
- Repeat everything for a total of 4 heights

Part 2: analysis

- For a fixed value of the height h you will have <u>10 values of</u> the slope with errors
- Starting from those values compute the weighted $ar{a}_x\pm\sigma_{a_x}$
- Now you have 4 pairs of measured (a_x, h)
- Recall that: a =

$$a_x = \left(\frac{g}{L}\right)h$$

- Make a plot of a_x vs. h and show that the shape is linear
- Using a weighted fit estimate slope and intercept:
 - From the slope compute $\overline{g} \pm \sigma_g$. Compare with the expected value $g = 9.807 \text{ m/s}^2$
 - Compute the intercept and check if it is statistically compatible with zero. If not, discuss why.

Part 2: estimating friction

- From the v(t) data estimate the initial velocity (immediately after the riders hits the bumper) $\longrightarrow v_1$
- From the x(t) data estimate the total distance traveled between collisions (distance from top to bottom of the parabola) $\longrightarrow l_2$
- If energy is conserved: $\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = mgl_2\sin\theta$



 Statistical deviations of this quantity from zero indicate that energy has been lost because of friction

Tips

- IMPORTANT: never place or move the rider on the airtrack without the air flow on! That would ruin the track
- The experiment is fairly easy and hence not so many tips are needed. However:
 - 1. Make sure very carefully that the track is level before every new set of measurements. This is particularly important for part 2 since <u>a small unaccounted angle would affect</u> severely your acceleration a_x
 - 2. <u>Do not trust the height of the shims</u> reported on them. Once you selected a certain number of them measure their total height directly using a caliper