

A black and white photograph of Nikola Tesla sitting in a chair, leaning back with his hands clasped near his face. He is wearing a dark suit and a white shirt. Behind him is a large, circular, multi-layered coil of wire, which is part of his experimental apparatus. The coil is made of many thin wires arranged in concentric circles, with a central hub and spokes. The background is dark, and the lighting highlights the texture of the coil and Tesla's features.

**NIKOLA TESLA**

**TESLA**  
**SELECTED WRITINGS**

# **TESLA**

**SELECTED WRITINGS**

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# **TESLA**

**SELECTED WRITINGS**

# A NEW SYSTEM OF ALTERNATING CURRENT MOTORS AND TRANSFORMERS

—*Delivered before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, May 1888.*

I desire to express my thanks to Professor Anthony for the help he has given me in this matter. I would also like to express my thanks to Mr. Pope and Mr. Martin for their aid. The notice was rather short, and I have not been able to treat the subject so extensively as I could have desired, my health not being in the best condition at present. I ask your kind indulgence, and I shall be very much gratified if the little I have done meets your approval.

In the presence of the existing diversity of opinion regarding the relative merits of the alternate and continuous current systems, great importance is attached to the question whether alternate currents can be successfully utilized in the operation of motors. The transformers, with their numerous advantages, have afforded us a relatively perfect system of distribution, and although, as in all branches of the art, many improvements are desirable, comparatively little remains to be done in this direction. The transmission of power, on the contrary, has been almost entirely confined to the use of continuous currents, and notwithstanding that many efforts have been made to utilize alternate currents for this purpose, they have, up to the present, at least as far as known, failed to give the result desired. Of the various motors adapted to be used on alternate current circuits the following have been mentioned: 1. A series motor with subdivided field. 2. An alternate current generator having its field excited by continuous currents. 3. Elihu Thomson's motor. 4. A combined alternate and continuous current motor. Two more motors of this kind have suggested themselves to me. 1. A motor with one of its circuits in series with a transformer and the other in the secondary of the transformer. 2. A motor having its armature circuit connected to the generator and the field coils closed upon themselves. These, however, I mention only incidentally.

The subject which I now have the pleasure of bringing to your notice is a novel system of electric distribution and transmission of power by means of alternate currents, affording peculiar advantages, particularly in the way of motors, which I am confident will at once establish the superior adaptability of these currents to the transmission of power and will show that many results heretofore unattainable can be reached by their use; results which are very much desired in the practical operation of such systems and which cannot

be accomplished by means of continuous currents.

Before going into a detailed description of this system, I think it necessary to make a few remarks with reference to certain conditions existing in continuous current generators and motors, which, although generally known, are frequently disregarded.

In our dynamo machines, it is well known, we generate alternate currents which we direct by means of a commutator, a complicated device and, it may be justly said, the source of most of the troubles experienced in the operation of the machines. Now, the currents so directed cannot be utilized in the motor, but they must—again by means of a similar unreliable device—be reconverted into their original state of alternate currents. The function of the commutator is entirely external, and in no way does it affect the internal working of the machines. In reality, therefore, all machines are alternate current machines, the currents appearing as continuous only in the external circuit during their transit from generator to motor. In view simply of this fact, alternate currents would commend themselves as a more direct application of electrical energy, and the employment of continuous currents would only be justified if we had dynamos which would primarily generate, and motors which would be directly actuated by such currents.

But the operation of the commutator on a motor is twofold; firstly, it reverses the currents through the motor, and secondly, it effects, automatically, a progressive shifting of the poles of one of its magnetic constituents. Assuming, therefore, that both of the useless operations in the system, that is to say, the directing of the alternate currents on the generator and reversing the direct currents on the motor, be eliminated, it would still be necessary, in order to cause a rotation of the motor, to produce a progressive shifting of the poles of one of its elements, and the question presented itself,—How to perform this operation by the direct action of alternate currents? I will now proceed to show how this result was accomplished.

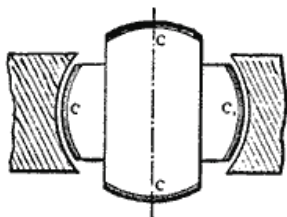


Fig. 1.

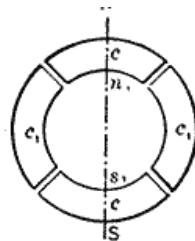


Fig. 1a.

In the first experiment a drum-armature was provided with two coils at right angles to each other, and the ends of these coils were connected to two pairs

of insulated contact-rings as usual. A ring was then made of thin insulated plates of sheet-iron and wound with four coils, each two opposite coils being connected together so as to produce free poles on diametrically opposite sides of the ring. The remaining free ends of the coils were then connected to the contact-rings of the generator armature so as to form two independent circuits, as indicated in figure 9. It may now be seen what results were secured in this combination, and with this view I would refer to the diagrams, figures 1 to 8a. The field of the generator being independently excited, the rotation of the armature sets up currents in the coils  $C$   $C_1$ , varying in strength and direction in the well-known manner. In the position shown in figure 1 the current in coil  $C$  is nil while coil  $C_1$  is traversed by its maximum current, and the connections may be such that the ring is magnetized by the coils  $c_1$   $c_1$  as indicated by the letters  $N$   $S$  in figure 1a, the magnetizing effect of the coils  $c$  being nil, since these coils are included in the circuit of coil  $C$ .

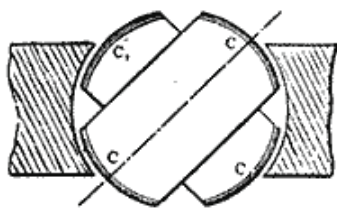


Fig. 2.

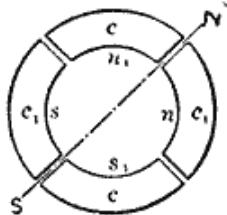


Fig. 2a.

In figure 2 the armature coils are shown in a more advanced position, one-eighth of one revolution being completed. Figure 2a illustrates the corresponding magnetic condition of the ring. At this moment the coil  $c_1$  generates a current of the same direction as previously, but weaker, producing the poles  $n_1$   $s_1$  upon the ring; the coil  $c$  also generates a current of the same direction, and the connections may be such that the coils  $c$   $c$  produce the poles  $n$   $s$ , as shown in figure 2a. The resulting polarity is indicated by the letters  $N$   $S$ , and it will be observed that the poles of the ring have been shifted one-eighth of the periphery of the same.

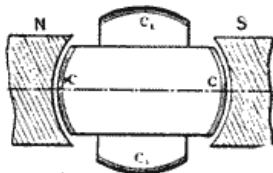


Fig. 3.

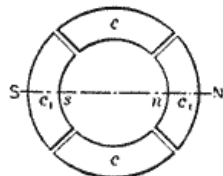


Fig. 3a.

In figure 3 the armature has completed one-quarter of one revolution. In this phase the current in coil C is maximum, and of such direction as to produce the poles N S in figure 3a, whereas the current in coil  $C_1$  is nil, this coil being at its neutral position. The poles N S in figure 3a are thus shifted one-quarter of the circumference of the ring.

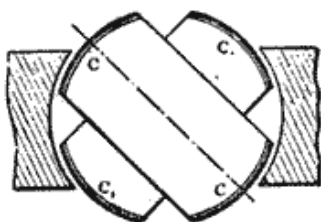


Fig. 4.

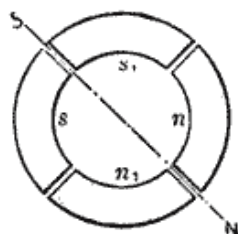


Fig. 4a.

Figure 4 shows the coils C C in a still more advanced position, the armature having completed three-eighths of one revolution. At that moment the coil C still generates a current of the same direction as before, but of less strength, producing the comparatively weaker poles n s in figure 4a, The current in the coil  $C_1$  is of the same strength, but of opposite direction. Its effect is, therefore, to produce upon the ring the poles  $n_1$  and  $s_1$  as indicated, and a polarity, N S, results, the poles now being shifted three-eighths of the periphery of the ring.

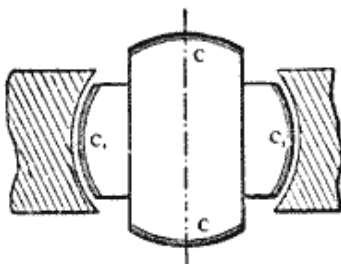


Fig. 5.

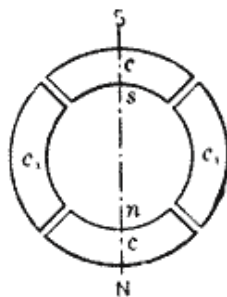


Fig. 5a.

In figure 5 one-half of one revolution of the armature is completed, and the resulting magnetic condition of the ring is indicated in figure 5a. Now, the current in coil C is nil, while the coil  $C_1$  yields its maximum current, which is of the same direction as previously; the magnetizing effect is, therefore, due to the coils  $C_1$   $C_1$  alone, and, referring to figure 5a, it will be observed that the poles N S are shifted one-half of the circumference of the ring. During

the next half revolution the operations are repeated, as represented in the figures 6 to 8a.

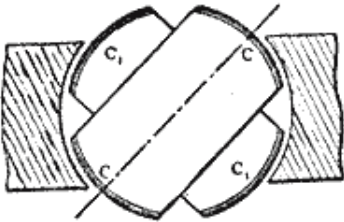


Fig. 6.

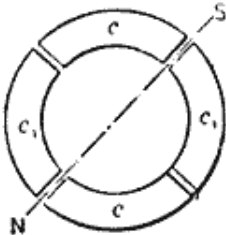


Fig. 6a.

A reference to the diagrams will make it clear that during one revolution of the armature the poles of the ring are shifted once around its periphery, and each revolution producing like effects, a rapid whirling of the poles in harmony with the rotation of the armature is the result. If the connections of either one of the circuits in the ring are reversed, the shifting of the poles is made to progress in the opposite direction, but the operation is identically the same. Instead of using four wires, with like result, three wires may be used, one forming a common return for both circuits.

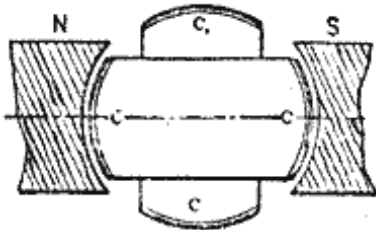


Fig. 7.

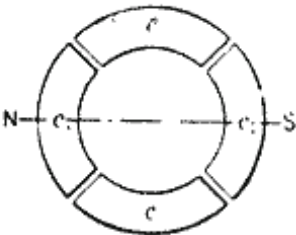


Fig. 7a.

This rotation or whirling of the poles manifests itself in a series of curious phenomena. If a delicately pivoted disc of steel or other magnetic metal is approached to the ring it is set in rapid rotation, the direction of rotation varying with the position of the disc. For instance, noting the direction outside of the ring it will be found that inside the ring it turns in an opposite direction, while it is unaffected if placed in a position symmetrical to the ring. This is easily explained. Each time that a pole approaches it induces an opposite pole in the nearest point on the disc, and an attraction is produced upon that point; owing to this, as the pole is shifted further away from the disc a tangential pull is exerted upon the same, and the action being constantly repeated, a more or less rapid rotation of the disc is the result. As the pull is exerted mainly

upon that part which is nearest to the ring, the rotation outside and inside, or right and left, respectively, is in opposite directions, figure 9. When placed symmetrically to the ring, the pull on opposite sides of the disc being equal, no rotation results. The action is based on the magnetic inertia of the iron; for this reason a disc of hard steel is much more affected than a disc of soft iron, the latter being capable of very rapid variations of magnetism. Such a disc has proved to be a very useful instrument in all these investigations, as it has enabled me to detect any irregularity in the action. A curious effect is also produced upon iron filings. By placing some upon a paper and holding them externally quite close to the ring they are set in a vibrating motion, remaining in the same place, although the paper may be moved back and forth; but in lifting the paper to a certain height which seems to be dependent on the intensity of the poles and the speed of rotation, they are thrown away in a direction always opposite to the supposed movement of the poles. If a paper with filings is put flat upon the ring and the current turned on suddenly; the existence of a magnetic whirl may be easily observed.

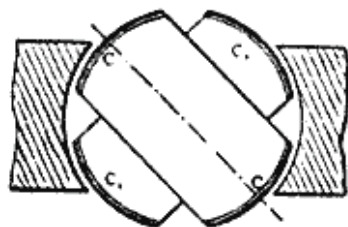


Fig. 8.

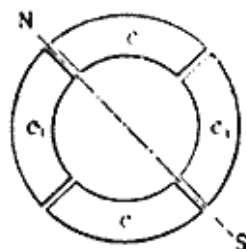


Fig. 8a.

To demonstrate the complete analogy between the ring and a revolving magnet, a strongly energized electro-magnet was rotated by mechanical power, and phenomena identical in every particular to those mentioned above were observed.

Obviously, the rotation of the poles produces corresponding inductive effects and may be utilized to generate currents in a closed conductor placed within the influence of the poles. For this purpose it is convenient to wind a ring with two sets of superimposed coils forming respectively the primary and secondary circuits, as shown in figure 10. In order to secure the most economical results the magnetic circuit should be completely closed, and with this object in view the construction may be modified at will.

The inductive effect exerted upon the secondary coils will be mainly due to the shifting or movement of the magnetic action; but there may also be cur-



rents set up in the circuits in consequence of the variations in the intensity of the poles. However, by properly designing the generator and determining the magnetizing effect of the primary coils the latter element may be made to disappear. The intensity of the poles being maintained constant, the action of the apparatus will be perfect, and the same result will be secured as though the shifting were effected by means of a commutator with an infinite number of bars. In such case the theoretical relation between the energizing effect of each set of primary coils and their resultant magnetizing effect may be expressed by the equation of a circle having its center coinciding with that of an orthogonal system of axes, and in which the radius represents the resultant and the co-ordinates both of its components. These are then respectively the sine and cosine of the angle  $U$  between the radius and one of the axes ( $O X$ ). Referring to figure 11, we have  $r_2 = x_2 + y_2$ ; where  $x = r \cos a$ , and  $y = r \sin a$ .

Assuming the magnetizing effect of each set of coils in the transformer to be proportional to the current—which may be admitted for weak degrees of magnetization—then  $x = Kc$  and  $y = Kc_1$ , where  $K$  is a constant and  $c$  and  $c_1$  the current in both sets of coils respectively. Supposing, further, the field of the generator to be uniform, we have for constant speed  $c_1 = K_1 \sin a$  and  $c = K_1 \sin (90^\circ + a) = K_1 \cos a$ , where  $K_1$  is a constant. See figure 12.

Therefore,

$$x = Kc = K K_1 \cos a;$$

$$y = Kc_1 = K K_1 \sin a; \text{ and}$$

$$K K_1 = r.$$

That is, for a uniform field the disposition of the two coils at right angles will secure the theoretical result, and the intensity of the shifting poles will be constant. But from  $r_2 = x_2 + y_2$  it follows that for  $y = 0$ ,  $r = x$ ; it follows that the joint magnetizing effect of both sets of coils should be equal to the effect of one set when at its maximum action. In transformers and in a certain class of motors the fluctuation of the poles is not of great importance, but in another class of these motors it is desirable to obtain the theoretical result.

In applying this principle to the construction of motors, two typical forms of motor have been developed. First, a form having a comparatively small rotary effort at the start, but maintaining a perfectly uniform speed at all loads, which motor has been termed synchronous. Second, a form possessing a great rotary effort at the start, the speed being dependent on the load.

These motors may be operated in three different ways: 1. By the alternate currents of the source only. 2. By a combined action of these and of induced

currents. 3. By the joint action of alternate and continuous currents.

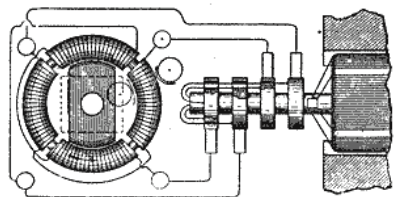


Fig. 9.

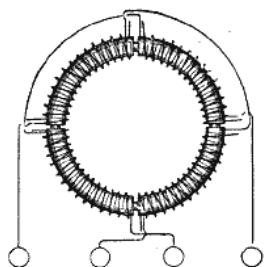


Fig. 10.

The simplest form of a synchronous motor is obtained by winding a laminated ring provided with pole projections with four coils, and connecting the same in the manner before indicated. An iron disc having a segment cut away on each side may be used as an armature. Such a motor is shown in figure 9. The disc being arranged to rotate freely within the ring in close proximity to the projections, it is evident that as the poles are shifted it will, owing to its tendency to place itself in such a position as to embrace the greatest number of the lines of force, closely follow the movement of the poles, and its motion will be synchronous with that of the armature of the generator; that is, in the peculiar disposition shown in figure 9, in which the armature produces by one revolution two current impulses in each of the circuits. It is evident that if, by one revolution of the armature, a greater number of impulses is produced, the speed of the motor will be correspondingly increased. Considering that the attraction exerted upon the disc is greatest when the same is in close proximity to the poles, it follows that such a motor will maintain exactly the same speed at all loads within the limits of its capacity.

To facilitate the starting, the disc may be provided with a coil closed upon itself. The advantage secured by such a coil is evident. On the start the currents set up in the coil strongly energize the disc and increase the attraction exerted upon the same by the ring, and currents being generated in the coil as long as the speed of the armature is inferior to that of the poles, considerable work may be performed by such a motor even if the speed be below normal. The intensity of the poles being constant, no currents will be generated in the coil when the motor is turning at its normal speed.

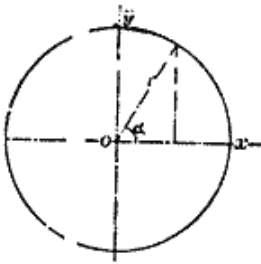


Fig. 11.

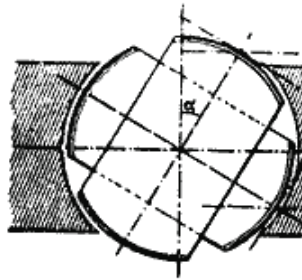


Fig. 12.

Instead of closing the coil upon itself, its ends may be connected to two insulated sliding rings, and a continuous current supplied to these from a suitable generator. The proper way to start such a motor is to close the coil upon itself until the normal speed is reached, or nearly so, and then turn on the continuous current. If the disc be very strongly energized by a continuous current the motor may not be able to start, but if it be weakly energized, or generally so that the magnetizing effect of the ring is preponderating it will start and reach the normal speed. Such a motor will maintain absolutely the same speed at all loads. It has also been found that if the motive power of the generator is not excessive, by checking the motor the speed of the generator is diminished in synchronism with that of the motor. It is characteristic of this form of motor that it cannot be reversed by reversing the continuous current through the coil.

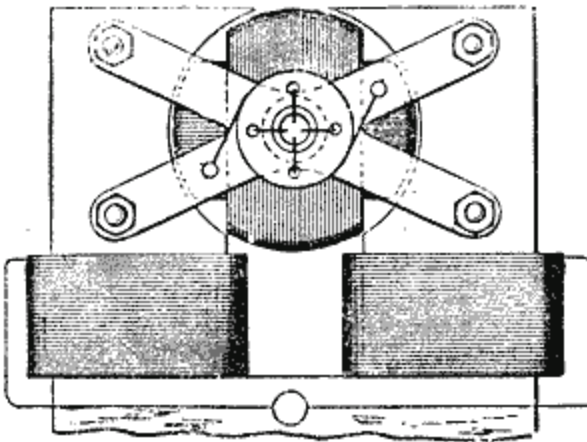


Fig. 13.

The synchronism of these motors may be demonstrated experimentally in a variety of ways. For this purpose it is best to employ a motor consisting of a stationary field magnet and an armature arranged to rotate within the

same, as indicated in figure 13. In this case the shifting of the poles of the armature produces a rotation of the latter in the opposite direction. It results therefrom that when the normal speed is reached, the poles of the armature assume fixed positions relatively to the field magnet and the same is magnetized by induction, exhibiting a distinct pole on each of the pole-pieces. If a piece of soft iron is approached to the field magnet it will at the start be attracted with a rapid vibrating motion produced by the reversals of polarity of the magnet, but as the speed of the armature increases; the vibrations become less and less frequent and finally entirely cease. Then the iron is weakly but permanently attracted, showing that the synchronism is reached and the field magnet energized by induction.

The disc may also be used for the experiment. If held quite close to the armature it will turn as long as the speed of rotation of the poles exceeds that of the armature; but when the normal speed is reached, or very nearly so; it ceases to rotate and is permanently attracted.

A crude but illustrative experiment is made with an incandescent lamp. Placing the lamp in circuit with the continuous current generator, and in series with the magnet coil, rapid fluctuations are observed in the light in consequence of the induced current set up in the coil at the start; the speed increasing, the fluctuations occur at longer intervals, until they entirely disappear, showing that the motor has attained its normal speed. A telephone receiver affords a most sensitive instrument; when connected to any circuit in the motor the synchronism may be easily detected on the disappearance of the induced currents.

In motors of the synchronous type it is desirable to maintain the quantity of the shifting magnetism constant, especially if the magnets are not properly subdivided.

To obtain a rotary effort in these motors was the subject of long thought. In order to secure this result it was necessary to make such a disposition that while the poles of one element of the motor are shifted by the alternate currents of the source, the poles produced upon the other element should always be maintained in the proper relation to the former, irrespective of the speed of the motor. Such a condition exists in a continuous current motor; but in a synchronous motor, such as described, this condition is fulfilled only when the speed is normal.

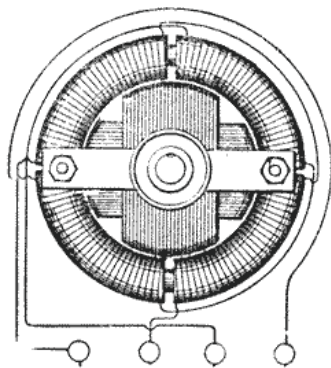


Fig. 14.

The object has been attained by placing within the ring a properly subdivided cylindrical iron core wound with several independent coils closed upon themselves. Two coils at right angles as in figure 14, are sufficient, but greater number may be advantageously employed. It results from this disposition that when the poles of the ring are shifted, currents are generated in the closed armature coils. These currents are the most intense at or near the points of the greatest density of the lines of force, and their effect is to produce poles upon the armature at right angles to those of the ring, at least theoretically so; and since action is entirely independent of the speed—that is, as far as the location of the poles is concerned—a continuous pull is exerted upon the periphery of the armature. In many respects these motors are similar to the continuous current motors. If load is put on, the speed, and also the resistance of the motor, is diminished and more current is made to pass through the energizing coils, thus increasing the effort. Upon the load being taken off, the counter-electromotive force increases and less current passes through the primary or energizing coils. Without any load the speed is very nearly equal to that of the shifting poles of the field magnet.

It will be found that the rotary effort in these motors fully equals that of the continuous current motors. The effort seems to be greatest when both armature and field magnet are without any projections; but as in such dispositions the field cannot be very concentrated, probably the best results will be obtained by leaving pole projections on one of the elements only. Generally, it may be stated that the projections diminish the torque and produce a tendency to synchronism.

A characteristic feature of motors of this kind is their capacity of being very rapidly reversed. This follows from the peculiar action of the motor. Suppose the armature to be rotating and the direction of rotation of the poles to be reversed. The apparatus then represents a dynamo machine, the power to drive

this machine being the momentum stored up in the armature and its speed being the sum of the speeds of the armature and the poles.

If we now consider that the power to drive such a dynamo would be very nearly proportional to the third power of the speed, for this reason alone the armature should be quickly reversed. But simultaneously with the reversal another element is brought into action, namely, as the movement of the poles with respect to the armature is reversed, the motor acts like a transformer in which the resistance of the secondary circuit would be abnormally diminished by producing in this circuit an additional electromotive force. Owing to these causes the reversal is instantaneous.

If it is desirable to secure a constant speed, and at the same time a certain effort at the start, this result may be easily attained in a variety of ways. For instance, two armatures, one for torque and the other for synchronism, may be fastened on the same shaft, and any desired preponderance may be given to either one, or an armature may be wound for rotary effort, but a more or less pronounced tendency to synchronism may be given to it by properly constructing the iron core; and in many other ways.

As a means of obtaining the required phase of the currents in both the circuits, the disposition of the two coils at right angles is the simplest, securing the most uniform action; but the phase may be obtained in many other ways, varying with the machine employed. Any of the dynamos at present in use may be easily adapted for this purpose by making connections to proper points of the generating coils. In closed circuit armatures, such as used in the continuous current systems, it is best to make four derivations from equidistant points or bars of the commutator, and to connect the same to four insulated sliding rings on the shaft. In this case each of the motor circuits is connected to two diametrically opposite bars of the commutator. In such a disposition the motor may also be operated at half the potential and on the three-wire plan, by connecting the motor circuits in the proper order to three of the contact rings.

In multipolar dynamo machines, such as used in the converter systems, the phase is conveniently obtained by winding upon the armature two series of coils in such a manner that while the coils of one set or series are at their maximum production of current, the coils of the other will be at their neutral position, or nearly so, whereby both sets of coils may be subjected simultaneously or successively to the inducing action of the field magnets.



Fig. 15.



Fig. 16.

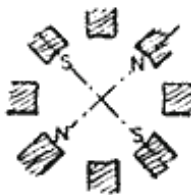


Fig. 17.

Generally the circuits in the motor will be similarly disposed, and various arrangements may be made to fulfill the requirements; but the simplest and most practicable is to arrange primary circuits on stationary parts of the motor, thereby obviating, at least in certain forms, the employment of sliding contacts. In such a case the magnet coils are connected alternately in both the circuits; that is 1, 3, 5... in one, and 2, 4, 6... in the other, and the coils of each set of series may be connected all in the same manner, or alternately in opposition; in the latter case a motor with half the number of poles will result, and its action will be correspondingly modified. The figures 15, 16 and 17, show three different phases, the magnet coils in each circuit being connected alternately in opposition. In this case there will be always four poles, as in figures 15 and 17, four pole projections will be neutral, and in figure 16 two adjacent pole projections will have the same polarity. If the coils are connected in the same manner there will be eight alternating poles, as indicated by the letters *ns'* in fig.15.

The employment of multipolar motors secures in this system an advantage much desired and unattainable in the continuous current system, and that is, that a motor may be made to run exactly at a predetermined speed irrespective of imperfections in construction, of the load, and, within certain limits, of electromotive force and current strength.

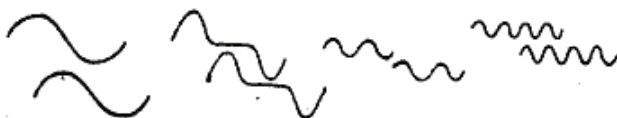
In a general distribution system of this kind the following plan should be adopted. At the central station of supply a generator should be provided having a considerable number of poles. The motors operated from this generator should be of the synchronous type, but possessing sufficient rotary effort to insure their starting. With the observance of proper rules of construction it may be admitted that the speed of each motor will be in some inverse proportion to its size, and the number of poles should be chosen accordingly. Still exceptional demands may modify this rule. In view of this, it will be advantageous to provide each motor with a greater number of pole projections or coils, the number being preferably a multiple of two and three. By this means, by simply changing the connections of the coils, the motor may

be adapted to any probable demands.

If the number of the poles in the motor is even, the action will be harmonious and the proper result will be obtained; if this is not the case the best plan to be followed is to make a motor with a double number of poles and connect the same in the manner before indicated, so that half the number of poles result. Suppose, for instance, that the generator has twelve poles, and it would be desired to obtain a speed equal to  $12/7$  of the speed of the generator. This would require a motor with seven pole projections or magnets, and such a motor could not be properly connected in the circuits unless fourteen armature coils would be provided, which would necessitate the employment of sliding contacts. To avoid this the motor should be provided with fourteen magnets and seven connected in each circuit, the magnets in each circuit alternating among themselves. The armature should have fourteen closed coils. The action of the motor will not be quite as perfect as in the case of an even number of poles, but the drawback will not be of a serious nature.

However, the disadvantages resulting from this unsymmetrical form will be reduced in the same proportion as the number of the poles is augmented.

If the generator has, say,  $n$ , and the motor  $n_1$  poles, the speed of the motor will be equal to that of the generator multiplied by  $n/n_1$ .



**Fig. 18.**

**Fig. 19.**

**Fig. 20.**

**Fig 21.**

The speed of the motor will generally be dependent on the number of the poles, but there may be exceptions to this rule. The speed may be modified by the phase of the currents in the circuits or by the character of the current impulses or by intervals between each or between groups of impulses. Some of the possible cases are indicated in the diagrams, figures 18, 19, 20 and 21, which are self-explanatory. Figure 18 represents the condition generally existing, and which secures the best result. In such a case, if the typical form of motor illustrated in figure 9 is employed, one complete wave in each circuit will produce one revolution of the motor. In figure 19 the same result will be effected by one wave in each circuit, the impulses being successive; in figure 20 by four, and in figure 21 by eight waves.

By such means any desired speed may be attained; that is, at least within the limits of practical demands. This system possesses this advantage besides others, resulting from simplicity. At full loads the motors show efficiency fully equal to that of the continuous current motors. The transformers present an



additional advantage in their capability of operating motors. They are capable of similar modifications in construction, and will facilitate the introduction of motors and their adaptation to practical demands. Their efficiency should be higher than that of the present transformers, and I base my assertion on the following:

In a transformer as constructed at present we produce the currents in the secondary circuit by varying the strength of the primary or exciting currents. If we admit proportionality with respect to the iron core the inductive effect exerted upon the secondary coil will be proportional to the numerical sum of the variations in the strength of the exciting current per unit of time; whence it follows that for a given variation any prolongation of the primary current will result in a proportional loss. In order to obtain rapid variations in the strength of the current, essential to efficient induction, a great number of undulations are employed. From this practice various disadvantages result. These are, increased cost and diminished efficiency of the generator, more waste of energy in heating the cores, and also diminished output of the transformer, since the core is not properly utilized, the reversals being too rapid. The inductive effect is also very small in certain phases, as will be apparent from a graphic representation, and there may be periods of inaction, if there are intervals between the succeeding current impulses or waves. In producing a shifting of the poles in the transformer, and thereby inducing currents, the induction is of the ideal character, being always maintained at its maximum action. It is also reasonable to assume that by a shifting of the poles less energy will be wasted than by reversals.

May 1888

## PHENOMENA OF ALTERNATING CURRENTS OF VERY HIGH FREQUENCY

—*Electrical World*, Feb. 21, 1891

Electrical journals are getting to be more and more interesting. New facts are observed and new problems spring up daily which command the attention of engineers. In the last few numbers of the English journals, principally in the *Electrician* there have been several new matters brought up which have attracted more than usual attention. The address of Professor Crookes has revived the interest in his beautiful and skillfully performed experiments, the effect observed on the Ferranti mains has elicited the expressions of opinion of some of the leading English electricians, and Mr. Swinburne has brought out some interesting points in connection with condensers and dynamo excitation.

The writer's own experiences have induced him to venture a few remarks in regard to these and other matters, hoping that they will afford some useful information or suggestion to the reader.

Among his many experiments Professor Crookes shows some performed with tubes devoid of internal electrodes, and from his remarks it must be inferred that the results obtained with these tubes are rather unusual. If this be so, then the writer must regret that Professor Crookes, whose admirable work has been the delight of every investigator, should not have availed himself in his experiments of a properly constructed alternate current machine—namely, one capable of giving, say 10,000 to 20,000 alternations per second. His researches on this difficult but fascinating subject would then have been even more complete. It is true that when using such a machine in connection with an induction coil the distinctive character of the electrodes—which is desirable, if not essential, in many experiments—is lost, in most cases both the electrodes behaving alike; but on the other hand, the advantage is gained that the effects may be exalted at will. When using a rotating switch or commutator the rate of change obtainable in the primary current is limited. When the commutator is more rapidly revolved the primary current diminishes, and if the current be increased, the sparking, which cannot be completely overcome by the condenser, impairs considerably the virtue of the apparatus. No such limitations exist when using an alternate current machine as any desired rate of change may be produced in the primary current. It is thus; possible to obtain excessively high electromotive forces in the secondary circuit with a

comparatively small primary current; moreover, the perfect regularity in the working of the apparatus may be relied upon.

The writer will incidentally mention that any one who attempts for the first time to construct such a machine will have a tale of woe to tell. He will first start out, as a matter of course, by making an armature with the required number of polar projections. He will then get the satisfaction of having produced an apparatus which is fit to accompany a thoroughly Wagnerian opera. It may besides possess the virtue of converting mechanical energy into heat in a nearly perfect manner. If there is a reversal in the polarity of the projections, he will get heat out of the machine; if there is no reversal, the heating will be less, but the output will be next to nothing. He will then abandon the iron in the armature, and he will get from the Scylla to the Charybdis. He will look for one difficulty and will find another, but, after a few trials, he may get nearly what he wanted.

Among the many experiments which may be performed with such a machine, of not the least interest are those performed with a high-tension induction coil. The character of the discharge is completely changed. The arc is established at much greater distances, and it is so easily affected by the slightest current of air that it often wriggles around in the most singular manner. It usually emits the rhythmical sound peculiar to the alternate current arcs, but the curious point is that the sound may be heard with a number of alternations far above ten thousand per second, which by many is considered to be, about the limit of audition. In many respects the coil behaves like a static machine. Points impair considerably the sparking interval, electricity escaping from them freely, and from a wire attached to one of the terminals streams of light issue, as though it were connected to a pole of a powerful Toepler machine. All these phenomena are, of course, mostly due to the enormous differences of potential obtained. As a consequence of the self-induction of the coil and the high frequency, the current is minute while there is a corresponding rise of pressure. A current impulse of some strength started in such a coil should persist to flow no less than four ten-thousandths of a second. As this time is greater than half the period, it occurs that an opposing electromotive force begins to act while the current is still flowing. As a consequence, the pressure rises as in a tube filled with liquid and vibrated rapidly around its axis. The current is so small that, in the opinion and involuntary experience of the writer, the discharge of even a very large coil cannot produce seriously injurious effects, whereas, if the same coil were operated with a current of lower frequency, though the electromotive force would be much smaller, the discharge would be most certainly injurious. This result, however, is due in

part to the high frequency. The writer's experiences tend to show that the higher the frequency the greater the amount of electrical energy which may be passed through the body without serious discomfort; whence it seems certain that human tissues act as condensers.

One is not quite prepared for the behavior of the coil when connected to a Leyden jar. One, of course, anticipates that since the frequency is high the capacity of the jar should be small. He therefore takes a very small jar, about the size of a small wine glass, but he finds that even with this jar the coil is practically short-circuited. He then reduces the capacity until he comes to about the capacity of two spheres, say, ten centimetres in diameter and two to four centimetres apart. The discharge then assumes; the form of a serrated band exactly like a succession of sparks viewed in a rapidly revolving mirror; the serrations, of course, corresponding to the condenser discharges. In this case one may observe a queer phenomenon. The discharge starts at the nearest points, works gradually up, breaks somewhere near the top of the spheres, begins again at the bottom; and so on. This goes on so fast that several serrated bands are seen at once. One may be puzzled for a few minutes, but the explanation is simple enough. The discharge begins at the nearest points; the air is heated and carries the arc upward until it breaks, when it is re-established at the nearest points, etc. Since the current passes easily through a condenser of even small capacity, it will be found quite natural that connecting only one terminal to a body of the same size, no matter how well insulated, impairs considerably the striking distance of the arc.

Experiments with Geissler tubes are of special interest. An exhausted tube, devoid of electrodes of any kind, will light up at some distance from the coil. If a tube from a vacuum pump is near the coil the whole of the pump is brilliantly lighted. An incandescent lamp approached to the coil lights up and gets perceptibly hot. If a lamp have the terminals connected to one of the binding posts of the coil and the hand is approached to the bulb, a very curious and rather unpleasant discharge from the glass to the hand takes place, and the filament may become incandescent. The discharge resembles to some extent the stream issuing from the plates of a powerful Toepler machine, but is of incomparably greater quantity. The lamp in this case acts as a condenser, the rarefied gas being one coating, the operator's hand the other. By taking the globe of a lamp in the hand, and by bringing the metallic terminals near to or in contact with a conductor connected to the coil, the carbon is brought to bright incandescence and the glass is rapidly heated. With a 100-volt 10 c.p. lamp one may without great discomfort stand as much current as will bring the lamp to a considerable brilliancy; but it can be held in the hand only

for a few minutes, as the glass is heated in an incredibly short time. When a tube is lighted by bringing it near to the coil it may be made to go out by interposing a metal plate on the hand between the coil and tube; but if the metal plate be fastened to a glass rod or otherwise insulated, the tube may remain lighted if the plate be interposed, or may even increase in luminosity. The effect depends on the position of the plate and tube relatively to the coil, and may be always easily foretold by assuming that conduction takes place from one terminal of the coil to the other. According to the position of the plate, it may either divert from or direct the current to the tube.

In another line of work the writer has in frequent experiments maintained incandescent lamps of 50 or 100 volts burning at any desired candle power with both the terminals of each lamp connected to a stout copper wire of no more than a few feet in length. These experiments seem interesting enough, but they are not more so than the queer experiment of Faraday, which has been revived and made much of by recent investigators, and in which a discharge is made to jump between two points of a bent copper wire. An experiment may be cited here which may seem equally interesting.

If a Geissler tube, the terminals of which are joined by a copper wire, be approached to the coil, certainly no one would be prepared to see the tube light up. Curiously enough, it does light up, and, what is more, the wire does not seem to make much difference. Now one is apt to think in the first moment that the impedance of the wire might have something to do with the phenomenon. But this is of course immediately rejected, as for this an enormous frequency would be required. This result, however, seems puzzling only at first; for upon reflection it is quite clear that the wire can make but little difference. It may be explained in more than one way, but it agrees perhaps best with observation to assume that conduction takes place from the terminals of the coil through the space. On this assumption, if the tube with the wire be held in any position, the wire can divert little more than the current which passes through the space occupied by the wire and the metallic terminals of the tube; through the adjacent space the current passes practically undisturbed. For this reason, if the tube be held in any position at right angles to the line joining the binding posts of the coil, the wire makes hardly any difference, but in a position more or less parallel with that line it impairs to a certain extent the brilliancy of the tube and its facility to light up. Numerous other phenomena may be explained on the same assumption. For instance, if the ends of the tube be provided with washers of sufficient size and held in the line joining the terminals of the coil, it will not light up, and then nearly the whole of the current, which would otherwise pass uniformly through the

space between the washers, is diverted through the wire. But if the tube be inclined sufficiently to that line, it will light up in spite of the washers. Also, if a metal plate be fastened upon a glass rod and held at right angles to the line joining the binding posts, and nearer to one of them, a tube held more or less parallel with the line will light up instantly when one of the terminals touches the plate, and will go out when separated from the plate. The greater the surface of the plate, up to a certain limit, the easier the tube will light up. When a tube is placed at right angles to the straight line joining the binding posts, and then rotated, its luminosity steadily increases until it is parallel with that line. The writer must state, however, that he does not favor the idea of a leakage or current through the space any more than as a suitable explanation, for he is convinced that all these experiments could not be performed with a static machine yielding a constant difference of potential, and that condenser action is largely concerned in these phenomena.

It is well to take certain precautions when operating a Ruhmkorff coil with very rapidly alternating currents. The primary current should not be turned on too long, else the core may get so hot as to melt the *guta-percha* or paraffin, or otherwise injure the insulation, and this may occur in a surprisingly short time, considering the current's strength. The primary current being turned on, the fine wire terminals may be joined without great risk, the impedance being so great that it is difficult to force enough current through the fine wire so as to injure it, and in fact the coil may be on the whole much safer when the terminals of the fine wire are connected than when they are insulated; but special care should be taken when the terminals are connected to the coatings of a Leyden jar, for with anywhere near the critical capacity, which just counteracts the self-induction at the existing frequency, the coil might meet the fate of St. Polycarpus. If an expensive vacuum pump is lighted up by being near to the coil or touched with a wire connected to one of the terminals, the current should be left on no more than a few moments, else the glass will be cracked by the heating of the rarefied gas in one of the narrow passages—in the writer's own experience *quod erat demonstrandum*.

There are a good many other points of interest which may be observed in connection with such a machine. Experiments with the telephone, a conductor in a strong field or with a condenser or arc, seem to afford certain proof that sounds far above the usual accepted limit of hearing would be perceived. A telephone will emit notes of twelve to thirteen thousand vibrations per second; then the inability of the core to follow such rapid alternations begins to tell. If, however, the magnet and core be replaced by a condenser and the terminals connected to the high-tension secondary of a transformer, higher

notes may still be heard. If the current be sent around a finely laminated core and a small piece of thin sheet iron be held gently against the core, a sound may be still heard with thirteen to fourteen thousand alternations per second, provided the current is sufficiently strong. A small coil, however, tightly packed between the poles of a powerful magnet, will emit a sound with the above number of alternations, and arcs may be audible with a still higher frequency. The limit of audition is variously estimated. In Sir William Thomson's writings it is stated somewhere that ten thousand per second, or nearly so, is the limit. Other, but less reliable, sources give it as high as twenty-four thousand per second. The above experiments have convinced the writer that notes of an incomparably higher number of vibrations per second would be perceived provided they could be produced with sufficient power. There is no reason why it should not be so. The condensations and rarefactions of the air would necessarily set the diaphragm in a corresponding vibration and some sensation would be produced, whatever — within certain limits — the velocity, of transmission to their nerve centres, though it is probable that for want of exercise the ear would not be able to distinguish any such high note. With the eye it is different; if the sense of vision is based upon some resonance effect, as many believe, no amount of increase in the intensity of the ethereal vibration could extend our range of vision on either side of the visible spectrum.

The limit of audition of an arc depends on its size. The greater the surface by a given heating effect in the arc, the higher the limit of audition. The highest notes are emitted by the high-tension discharges of an induction coil in which the arc is, so to speak, all surface. If  $R$  be the resistance of an arc, and  $C$  the current, and the linear dimensions be  $n$  times increased, then the resistance is  $R/n$ , and with the same current density the current would be  $n_2 C$ ; hence the heating effect is  $n_3$  times greater, while the surface is only  $n_2$  times as great. For this reason very large arcs would not emit any rhythmical sound even with a very low frequency. It must be observed, however, that the sound emitted depends to some extent also on the composition of the carbon. If the carbon contain highly refractory material, this, when heated, tends to maintain the 'temperature' of the arc uniform and the sound is lessened; for this reason it would seem that an alternating arc requires such carbons:

With currents of such high frequencies it is possible to obtain noiseless arcs, but the regulation of the lamp is rendered extremely difficult on account of the excessively small attractions or repulsions between conductors conveying these currents:

An interesting feature of the arc produced by these rapidly alternating currents is its persistency. There are two causes for it, one of which is always

present, the other sometimes only. One is due to the character of the current and the other to a property of the machine. The first cause is the more important one, and is due directly to the rapidity of the alternations. When an arc is formed by a periodically undulating current, there is, a corresponding undulation in the temperature of the gaseous column, and, therefore, a corresponding undulation in the resistance of the arc. But the resistance of the arc varies enormously with the temperature of the gaseous column, being, practically infinite when the gas between the electrodes is cold. The persistence of the arc, therefore, depends on the inability of the column to cool. It is for this reason impossible to maintain an arc with the current alternating only a few times a second. On the other hand, with a practically continuous current, the arc is easily maintained, the column being constantly, kept at a high temperature and low resistance. The higher the frequency the smaller the time interval during which the arc may cool and increase considerably in resistance. With a frequency of 10,000 per second or more in any arc of equal, size excessively small variations of temperature are superimposed upon a steady temperature, like ripples on the surface of a deep sea. The heating effect is practically continuous and the arc behaves like one produced, by a continuous current, with the exception, however, that it may not be quite as easily started, and that the electrodes are equally consumed; though the writer has observed 'some irregularities in this respect. The second cause alluded to, which possibly may not be present, is due to the tendency of a machine of such high frequency to maintain a practically constant current. When the arc is lengthened, the electromotive force rises in proportion and the arc appears to be more persistent.

Such a machine is eminently adapted to maintain a constant current, but it is very unfit for a constant potential. As a matter of fact, in certain types of such machines a nearly constant current is an almost unavoidable result. As the number of poles or polar projections is greatly increased, the clearance becomes of great importance. One has really to do with a great number of very small machines. Then there is the impedance in the armature, enormously augmented by the high frequency. Then, again, the magnetic leakage is facilitated. If there are three or four hundred alternate poles, the leakage is so great that it is virtually the same as connecting, in a two-pole machine, the poles by a piece of iron. This disadvantage, it is true, may be obviated more or less by using a field throughout of the same polarity, but then one encounters difficulties, of a different nature: All these things tend to maintain a constant current in the armature circuit.

In this connection it is interesting to notice that even today engineers are



astonished at the performance of a constant current machine, just as, some years ago, they used to consider it an extraordinary performance if a machine was capable of maintaining a constant, potential difference between the terminals. Yet one result is just as easily secured as the other. It must only be remembered that in an inductive apparatus of any kind, if constant potential is required, the inductive relation between the primary or exciting and secondary or armature circuit must be the closest possible; whereas, in an apparatus for constant current just the opposite is required. Furthermore, the opposition to the current's flow in the induced circuit must be as small as possible in the former and as great as possible in the latter case. But opposition to a current's flow may be caused in more than one way. It may be caused by ohmic resistance or self-induction. One may make the induced circuit of a dynamo machine or transformer of such high resistance that when operating devices of considerably smaller resistance within very wide limits a nearly constant current is maintained. But such high resistance involves a great loss in power, hence it is not practicable. Not so self-induction. Self-induction does not necessarily mean loss of power. The moral is, use self-induction instead of resistance. There is, however, a circumstance which favors the adoption of this plan, and this is, that a very high self-induction may be obtained cheaply by surrounding a comparatively small length of wire more or less completely with iron, and, furthermore, the effect may be exalted at will by causing a rapid undulation of the current. To sum up, the requirements for constant current are: Weak magnetic connection between the induced and inducing circuits, greatest possible self-induction with the least resistance, greatest practicable rate of change of the current. Constant potential, on the other hand, requires: Closest magnetic connection between the circuits, steady induced current, and, if possible, no reaction. If the latter conditions could be fully satisfied in a constant potential machine, its output would surpass many times that of a machine primarily designed to give constant current. Unfortunately, the type of machine in which these conditions may be satisfied is of little practical value, owing to the small electromotive force obtainable and the difficulties in taking off the current.

With their keen inventor's instinct, the now successful arc-light men have early recognized the desiderata of a constant current machine. Their arc light machines have weak fields, large armatures, with a great length of copper wire and few commutator segments to produce great variations in the current's strength and to bring self-induction into play. Such machines may maintain within considerable limits of variation in the resistance of the circuit a practically constant current. Their output is of course correspondingly diminished,

and, perhaps with the object in view not to cut down the output too much, a simple device compensating exceptional variations is employed. The undulation of the current is almost essential to the commercial success of an arc-light system. It introduces in the circuit a steadying element taking the place of a large ohmic resistance, without involving a great loss in power, and, what is more important, it allows the use of simple clutch lamps, which with a current of a certain number of impulses per second, best suitable for each particular lamp, will, if properly attended to, regulate even better than the finest clock-work lamps. This discovery has been made by the writer—several years too late.

It has been asserted by competent English electricians that in a constant-current machine or transformer the regulation is effected by varying the phase of the secondary current. That this view is erroneous may be easily proved by using, instead of lamps, devices each possessing self-induction and capacity or self-induction and resistance—that is, retarding and accelerating components—in such proportions as to not affect materially the phase of the secondary current. Any number of such devices may be inserted or cut out, still it will be found that the regulation occurs, a constant current being maintained, while the electromotive force is varied with the number of the devices. The change of phase of the secondary current is simply a result following from the changes in resistance, and, though secondary reaction is always of more or less importance, yet the real cause of the regulation lies in the existence of the conditions above enumerated. It should be stated, however, that in the case of a machine the above remarks are to be restricted to the cases in which the machine is independently excited. If the excitation be effected by commutating the armature current, then the fixed position of the brushes makes any shifting of the neutral line of the utmost importance, and it may not be thought immodest of the writer to mention that, as far as records go, he seems to have been the first who has successfully regulated machines by providing a bridge connection between a point of the external circuit and the commutator by means of a third brush. The armature and field being properly proportioned, and the brushes placed in their determined positions, a constant current or constant potential resulted from the shifting of the diameter of commutation by the varying loads.

In connection with machines of such high frequencies, the condenser affords an especially interesting study. It is easy to raise the electromotive force of such a machine to four or five times the value by simply connecting the condenser to the circuit, and the writer has continually used the condenser for the purposes of regulation, as suggested by Blakesley in his book on alternate

currents, in which he has treated the most frequently occurring condenser problems with exquisite simplicity and clearness. The high frequency allows the use of small capacities and renders investigation easy. But; although in most of the experiments the result may be foretold, some phenomena observed seem at first curious. One experiment performed three or four months ago with such a machine and a condenser may serve as an illustration. A machine was used giving about 20,000 alternations per second. Two bare wires about twenty feet long and two millimetres in diameter, in close proximity to each other, were connected to the terminals of the machine at the one end, and to a condenser at the other. A small transformer without an iron core, of course, was used to bring the reading within range of a Cardew voltmeter by connecting the voltmeter to the secondary. On the terminals of the condenser the electromotive force was about 120 volts, and from there inch by inch it gradually fell until at the terminals of the machine it was about 65 volts. It was virtually as though the condenser were a generator, and the line and armature circuit simply a resistance connected to it. The writer looked for a case of resonance, but he was unable to augment the effect by varying the capacity very carefully and gradually or by changing the speed of the machine. A case of pure resonance he was unable to obtain. When a condenser was connected to the terminals of the machine—the self-induction of the armature being first determined in the maximum and minimum position and the mean value taken—the capacity which gave the highest electromotive force corresponded most nearly to that which just counteracted the self-induction with the existing frequency. If the capacity was increased or diminished, the electromotive force fell as expected.

With frequencies as high as the above mentioned, the condenser effects are of enormous importance. The condenser becomes a highly efficient apparatus capable of transferring considerable energy.

The writer has thought machines of high frequencies may find use at least in cases when transmission at great distances is not contemplated. The increase of the resistance may be reduced in the conductors and exalted in the devices when heating effects are wanted, transformers may be made of higher efficiency and greater outputs and valuable results may be secured by means of condensers. In using machines of high frequency the writer has been able to observe condenser effects which would have otherwise escaped his notice. He has been very much interested in the phenomenon observed on the Ferranti main which has been so much spoken of. Opinions have been expressed by competent electricians, but up to the present all still seems: to be conjecture. Undoubtedly in the views expressed the truth must be contained, but as the

opinions differ some must be erroneous. Upon seeing the diagram of M. Ferranti in the Electrician of Dec. 19 the writer has formed his opinion of the effect. In the absence of all the necessary data he must content himself to express in words the process which, in his opinion, must undoubtedly occur. The condenser brings about two effects: (1) It changes the phases of the currents in the branches; (2) it changes the strength of the currents. As regards the change in phase, the effect of the condenser is to accelerate the current in the secondary at Deptford and to retard it in the primary at London. The former has the effect diminishing the self-induction in the Deptford primary, and this means lower electromotive force on the dynamo. The retardation of the primary at London, as far as merely the phase is concerned, has little or no effect since the phase of the current in the secondary in London is not arbitrarily kept.

Now, the second effect of the condenser is to increase the current in both the branches. It is immaterial whether there is equality between the currents or not; but it is necessary to point out, in order to see the importance of the Deptford step-up transformer, that an increase of the current in both the branches produces opposite effects. At Deptford it means further lowering of the electromotive force at the primary, and at London it means increase of the electromotive force. at the secondary., Therefore, all the things coact to bring about the phenomenon observed. Such actions, at least, have been formed to take place under similar conditions. When the dynamo is connected directly to the main, one can see that no such action can happen.

The writer has been particularly interested in, the suggestions and views expressed by Mr. Swinburne. Mr. Swinburne has frequently honored him by disagreeing with his views. Three years ago, when the writer, against the prevailing opinion of engineers, advanced' an open circuit transformer, Mr. Swinburne was the first to condemn it by stating in the Electrician: "The (Tesla) transformer must be inefficient; it has magnetic poles revolving, and has thus an open magnetic circuit." Two years later Mr. Swinburne becomes the champion of the open circuit transformer, and offers to convert him. But, *tempora mutantur, et nos mutamur in illis.*

The writer cannot believe in the armature reaction theory as expressed in Industries, though undoubtedly there is some truth in it. Mr. Swinburne's interpretation, however, is so broad that it may mean anything.

Mr. Swinburne seems to have been the first who has called attention to the heating of the condensers. The astonishment expressed at that by the ablest electrician is a striking illustration of 'the desirability to execute experiments on a large scale. To the scientific investigator, who deals with the minutest

quantities, who observes the faintest effects, far more credit is due than to one who experiments with apparatus on an industrial scale; and indeed history of science has recorded examples of marvelous skill, patience and keenness of observation. But however great the skill, and however keen the observer's perception, it can only be of advantage to magnify an effect and thus facilitate its study. Had Faraday carried out but one of his experiments on dynamic induction on a large scale it would have resulted in an incalculable benefit.

In the opinion of the writer, the heating of the condensers is due to three distinct causes: first, leakage or conduction; second, imperfect elasticity in the dielectric, and, third, surging of the charges in the conductor.

In many experiments he has been confronted with the problem of transferring the greatest possible amount of energy across a dielectric. For instance, he has made incandescent lamps the ends of the filaments being completely sealed in glass, but attached to interior condenser coatings so that all the energy required had to be transferred across the glass with a condenser surface of no more than a few centimetres square. Such lamps would be a practical success with sufficiently high frequencies. With alternations as high as 15,000 per second it was easy to bring the filaments to incandescence. With lower frequencies this could also be effected, but the potential difference had, of course, to be increased. The writer has then found that the glass gets, after a while, perforated and the vacuum is impaired. The higher the frequency the longer the lamp can withstand. Such a deterioration of the dielectric always takes place when the amount of energy transferred across a dielectric of definite dimensions and by a given frequency is too great. Glass withstands best, but even glass is deteriorated. In this case the potential difference on the plates is of course too great and losses by conduction and imperfect elasticity result. If it is desirable to produce condensers capable to stand differences of potential, then the only dielectric which will involve no losses is a gas under pressure. The writer has worked with air under enormous pressures, but there are a great many practical difficulties in that direction. He thinks that in order to make the condensers of considerable practical utility, higher frequencies should be used: though such a plan has besides others the great disadvantage that the system would become very unfit for the operation of motors.

If the writer does not err Mr. Swinburne has suggested a way of exciting an alternator by means of a condenser. For a number of years past the writer has carried on experiments with the object in view of producing a practical self-exciting alternator: He has in a variety of ways succeeded in producing some excitation of the magnets by means of alternating currents, which were not commutated by mechanical devices. Nevertheless, his experiments have

revealed a fact which stands as solid, as the rock of Gibraltar. No practical excitation can be obtained with a single periodically varying and not commutated current. The reason is that the changes in the strength of the exciting current produce corresponding changes in the field strength, with the result of inducing currents in the armature; and these currents interfere with these produced by the motion of the armature through the field, the former being a quarter phase in advance of the latter. If the field be laminated, no excitation can be produced; if it be not laminated, some excitation is produced, but the magnets are heated. By combining two exciting currents—displaced by a quarter phase, excitation may be produced in both cases, and if the magnet be not laminated the heating effect is comparatively small, as a uniformity in the field strength is maintained, and, were it possible to produce a perfectly uniform field, excitation on this plan would give quite practical results. If such results are to be secured by the use of a condenser, as suggested by Mr. Swinburne, it is necessary to combine two circuits separated by a quarter phase; that is to say, the armature coils must be wound in two sets and connected to one or two independent condensers. The writer has done some work in that direction, but must defer the description of the devices for some future time.

Feb. 21, 1891

# THE TESLA EFFECTS WITH HIGH FREQUENCY AND HIGH POTENTIAL CURRENTS (1/4)

## Introduction : The scope of the Tesla lectures

Before proceeding to study the three Tesla lectures here presented, the reader may find it of some assistance to have his attention directed to the main points of interest and significance therein. The first of these lectures was delivered in New York, at *Columbia College*, before the *American Institute of Electrical Engineers*, May 20, 1891. The urgent desire expressed immediately from all parts of Europe for an opportunity to witness the brilliant and unusual experiments with which the lecture was accompanied, induced Mr. Tesla to go to England early in 1892, when he appeared before the Institution of Electrical Engineers, and a day later, by special request, before the Royal Institution. His reception was of the most enthusiastic and flattering nature on both occasions. He then went, by invitation, to France, and repeated his novel demonstrations before the *Societe Internationale des Electriciens*, and the *Societe Frangaise de Physique*. Mr. Tesla returned to America in the fall of 1892, and in February, 1893, delivered his third lecture before the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia, in fulfilment of a long standing promise to Prof. Houston. The following week, at the request of President James I. Ayer, of the *National Electric Light Association*, the same lecture was re-delivered in St. Louis. It had been intended to limit the invitations to members, but the appeals from residents in the city were so numerous and pressing that it became necessary to secure a very large hall. Hence it came about that the lecture was listened to by an audience of over 5,000 people, and was in some parts of a more popular nature than either of its predecessors. Despite this concession to the need of the hour and occasion, Mr. Tesla did not hesitate to show many new and brilliant experiments, and to advance the frontier of discovery far beyond any point he had theretofore marked publicly.

We may now proceed to a running review of the lectures themselves. The ground covered by them is so vast that only the leading ideas and experiments can here be touched upon; besides, it is preferable that the lectures should be carefully gone over for their own sake, it being more than likely that each student will discover a new beauty or stimulus in them. Taking up the course of reasoning followed by Mr. Tesla in his first lecture, it will be noted that he

started out with the recognition of the fact, which he has now experimentally demonstrated, that for the production of light waves, primarily, electrostatic effects must be brought into play, and continued study has led him to the opinion that all electrical and magnetic effects may be referred to electrostatic molecular forces. This opinion finds a singular confirmation in one of the most striking experiments which he describes, namely, the production of a veritable flame by the agitation of electrostatically charged molecules. It is of the highest interest to observe that this result points out a way of obtaining a flame which consumes no material and in which no chemical action whatever takes place. It also throws a light on the nature of the ordinary flame, which Mr. Tesla believes to be due to electrostatic molecular actions, which, if true, would lead directly to the idea that even chemical affinities might be electrostatic in their nature and that, as has already been suggested, molecular forces in general may be referable to one and the same cause. This singular phenomenon accounts in a plausible manner for the unexplained fact that buildings are frequently set on fire during thunder storms without having been at all struck by any lightning. It may also explain the total disappearance of ships at sea.

One of the striking proofs of the correctness of the ideas advanced by Mr. Tesla is the fact that, notwithstanding the employment of the most powerful electromagnetic inductive effects, but feeble luminosity is obtainable, and this only in close proximity to the source of disturbance; whereas, when the electrostatic effects are intensified, the same initial energy suffices to excite luminosity at considerable distances from the source. That there are only electrostatic effects active seems to be clearly proved by Mr. Tesla's experiments with an induction coil operated with alternating currents of very high frequency. He shows how tubes may be made to glow brilliantly at considerable distances from any object when placed in a powerful, rapidly alternating, electrostatic field, and he describes many interesting phenomena observed in such a field. His experiments open up the possibility of lighting an apartment by simply creating in it such an electrostatic field, and this, in a certain way, would appear to be the ideal method of lighting a room, as it would allow the illuminating device to be freely moved about. The power with which these exhausted tubes, devoid of any electrodes, light up is certainly remarkable.

That the principle propounded by Mr. Tesla is a broad one is evident from the many ways in which it may be practically applied. We need only refer to the variety of the devices shown or described, all of which are novel in character and will, without doubt, lead to further important results at the hands of Mr. Tesla and other investigators. The experiment, for instance, of light-



ing up a single filament or block of refractory material with a single wire, is in itself sufficient to give Mr. Tesla's work the stamp of originality, and the numerous other experiments and effects which may be varied at will, are equally new and interesting. Thus, the incandescent filament spinning in an unexhausted globe, the well-known Crookes experiment on open circuit, and the many others suggested, will not fail to interest the reader. Mr. Tesla has made an exhaustive study of the various forms of the discharge presented by an induction coil when operated with these rapidly alternating currents, starting from the thread-like discharge and passing through various stages to the true electric flame.

A point of great importance in the introduction of high tension alternating current which Mr. Tesla brings out is the necessity of carefully avoiding all gaseous matter in the high tension apparatus. He shows that, at least with very rapidly alternating currents of high potential, the discharge may work through almost any practicable thickness of the best insulators, if air is present. In such cases the air included within the apparatus is violently agitated and by molecular bombardment the parts may be so greatly heated as to cause a rupture of the insulation. The practical outcome of this is, that, whereas with steady currents, any kind of insulation may be used, with rapidly alternating currents oils will probably be the best to employ, a fact which has been observed, but not until now satisfactorily explained. The recognition of the above fact is of special importance in the construction of the costly commercial induction coils which are often rendered useless in an unaccountable manner.

The truth of these views of Mr. Tesla is made evident by the interesting experiments illustrative of the behavior of the air between charged surfaces, the luminous streams formed by the charged molecules appearing even when great thicknesses of thinnest insulators are interposed between the charged surfaces. These luminous streams afford in themselves a very interesting study for the experimenter. With these rapidly alternating currents they become far more powerful and produce beautiful light effects when they issue from a wire, pinwheel or other object attached to a terminal of the coil; and it is interesting to note that they issue from a ball almost as freely as from a point, when the frequency is very high.

From these experiments we also obtain a better idea of the importance of taking into account the capacity and self-induction in the apparatus employed and the possibilities offered by the use of condensers in conjunction with alternate currents, the employment of currents of high frequency, among other things, making it possible to reduce the condenser to practicable dimensions. Another point of interest and practical bearing is the fact, proved

by Mr. Tesla, that for alternate currents, especially those of high frequency, insulators are required possessing a small specific inductive capacity, which at the same time have a high insulating power.

Mr. Tesla also makes interesting and valuable suggestion in regard to the economical utilization of iron in machines and transformers. He shows how, by maintaining by continuous magnetization a flow of lines through the iron, the latter may be kept near its maximum permeability and a higher output and economy may be secured in such apparatus. This principle may prove of considerable commercial importance in the development of alternating systems. Mr. Tesla's suggestion that the same result can be secured by heating the iron by hysteresis and eddy currents, and increasing the permeability in this manner, while it may appear less practical, nevertheless opens another direction for investigation and improvement.

The demonstration of the fact that with alternating currents of high frequency, sufficient energy may be transmitted under practicable conditions through the glass of an incandescent lamp by electrostatic or electromagnetic induction may lead to a departure in the construction of such devices. Another important experimental result achieved is the operation of lamps, and even motors, with the discharges of condensers, this method affording a means of converting direct or alternating currents. In this connection Mr. Tesla advocates the perfecting of apparatus capable of generating electricity of high tension from heat energy, believing this to be a better way of obtaining electrical energy for practical purposes, particularly for the production of light.

While many were probably prepared to encounter curious phenomena of impedance in the use of a condenser discharged disruptively, the experiments shown were extremely interesting on account of their paradoxical character. The burning of an incandescent lamp at any candle power when connected across a heavy metal bar, the existence of nodes on the bar and the possibility of exploring the bar by means of an ordinary Galvanometer, are all peculiar developments, but perhaps the most interesting observation is the phenomenon of impedance observed in the lamp with a straight filament, which remains dark while the bulb glows.

Mr. Tesla's manner of operating an induction coil by means of the disruptive discharge, and thus obtaining enormous differences of potential from comparatively small and inexpensive coils, will be appreciated by experimenters and will find valuable application in laboratories. Indeed, his many suggestions and hints in regard to the construction and use of apparatus in these investigations will be highly valued and will aid materially in future research.

The London lecture was delivered twice. In its first form, before the

Institution of Electrical Engineers, it was in some respects an amplification of several points not specially enlarged upon in the New York lecture, but brought forward many additional discoveries and new investigations. Its repetition, in another form, at the Royal Institution, was due to Prof. Dewar, who with Lord Rayleigh, manifested a most lively interest in Mr. Tesla's work, and whose kindness illustrated once more the strong English love of scientific truth and appreciation of its votaries. As an indefatigable experimenter, Mr. Tesla was certainly nowhere more at home than in the haunts of Faraday, and as the guest of Faraday's successor. This Royal Institution lecture summed up the leading points of Mr. Tesla's work, in the high potential, high frequency field, and we may here avail ourselves of so valuable a summarization, in a simple form, of a subject by no means easy of comprehension until it has been thoroughly studied.

In these London lectures, among the many notable points made was first, the difficulty of constructing the alternators to obtain, the very high frequencies needed. To obtain the high frequencies it was necessary to provide several hundred polar projections, which were necessarily small and offered many drawbacks, and this the more as exceedingly high peripheral speeds had to be resorted to. In some of the first machines both armature and field had polar projections. These machines produced a curious noise, especially when the armature was started from the state of rest, the field being charged. The most efficient machine was found to be one with a drum armature, the iron body of which consisted of very thin wire annealed with special care. It was, of course, desirable to avoid the employment of iron in the armature, and several machines of this kind, with moving or stationary conductors were constructed, but the results obtained were not quite satisfactory, on account of the great mechanical and other difficulties encountered.

The study of the properties of the high frequency currents obtained from these machines is very interesting, as nearly every experiment discloses something new. Two coils traversed by such a current attract or repel each other with a force which, owing to the imperfection of our sense of touch, seems continuous. An interesting observation, already noted under another form, is that a piece of iron, surrounded by a coil through which the current is passing appears to be continuously magnetized.

This apparent continuity might be ascribed to the deficiency of the sense of touch, but there is evidence that in currents of such high frequencies one of the impulses preponderates over the other.

As might be expected, conductors traversed by such currents are rapidly heated, owing to the increase of the resistance, and the heating effects are

relatively much greater in the iron. The hysteresis losses in iron are so great that an iron core, even if finely subdivided, is heated in an incredibly short time. To give an idea of this, an ordinary iron wire inch in diameter inserted within a coil having 250 turns, with a current estimated to be five amperes passing through the coil, becomes within two seconds' time so hot as to scorch wood. Beyond a certain frequency, an iron core, no matter how finely subdivided, exercises a dampening effect, and it was easy to find a point at which the impedance of a coil was not affected by the presence of a core consisting of a bundle of very thin well annealed and varnished iron wires.

Experiments with a telephone, a conductor in a strong magnetic field, or with a condenser or arc, seem to afford certain proof that sounds far above the usually accepted limit of hearing would be perceived if produced with sufficient power. The arc produced by these currents possesses several interesting features. Usually it emits a note the pitch of which corresponds to twice the frequency of the current, but if the frequency be sufficiently high it becomes noiseless, the limit of audition being determined principally by the linear dimensions of the arc. A curious feature of the arc is its persistency, which is due partly to the inability of the gaseous column to cool and increase considerably in resistance, as is the case with low frequencies, and partly to the tendency of such a high frequency machine to maintain a constant current.

In connection with these machines the condenser affords a particularly interesting study. Striking effects are produced by proper adjustments of capacity and self-induction. It is easy to raise the electromotive force of the machine to many times the original value by simply adjusting the capacity of a condenser connected in the induced circuit. If the condenser be at some distance from the machine, the difference of potential on the terminals of the latter may be only a small fraction of that on the condenser.

But the most interesting experiences are gained when the tension of the currents from the machine is raised by means of an induction coil. In consequence of the enormous rate of change obtainable in the primary current, much higher potential differences are obtained than with coils operated in the usual ways, and, owing to the high frequency, the secondary discharge possesses many striking peculiarities. Both the electrodes behave generally alike, though it appears from some observations that one current impulse preponderates over the other, as before mentioned.

The physiological effects of the high tension discharge are found to be so small that the shock of the coil can be supported without any inconvenience, except perhaps a small burn produced by the discharge upon approaching the hand to one of the terminals. The decidedly smaller physiological ef-

fects of these currents are thought to be due either to a different distribution through the body or to the tissues acting as condensers. But in the case of an induction coil with a great many turns the harmlessness is principally due to the fact that but little energy is available in the external circuit when the same is closed through the experimenter's body, on account of the great impedance of the coil.

In varying the frequency and strength of the currents through the primary of the coil, the character of the secondary discharge is greatly varied, and no less than five distinct forms are observed: A weak, sensitive thread discharge, a powerful naming discharge, and three forms of brush or streaming discharges. Each of these possesses certain noteworthy features, but the most interesting to study are the latter.

Under certain conditions the streams, which are presumably due to the violent agitation of the air molecules, issue freely from all points of the coil, even through a thick insulation. If there is the smallest air space between the primary and secondary, they will form there and surely injure the coil by slowly warming the insulation. As they form even with ordinary frequencies when the potential is excessive, the air-space must be most carefully avoided. These high frequency streamers differ in aspect and properties from those produced by a static machine. The wind produced by them is small and should altogether cease if still considerably higher frequencies could be obtained. A peculiarity is that they issue as freely from surfaces as from points. (having to this, a metallic vane, mounted in one of the terminals of the coil so as to rotate freely, and having one of its sides covered with insulation, is spun rapidly around. Such a vane would not rotate with a steady potential, but with a high frequency coil it will spin, even if it be entirely covered with insulation, provided the insulation on one side be either thicker or of a higher specific inductive capacity. A Crookes electric radiometer is also spun around when connected to one of the terminals of the coil, but only at very high exhaustion or at ordinary pressures.

There is still another and more striking peculiarity of such a high frequency streamer, namely, it is hot. The heat is easily perceptible with frequencies of about 10,000, even if the potential is not excessively high. The heating effect is, of course, due to the molecular impacts and collisions. Could the frequency and potential be pushed far enough, then a brush could be produced resembling in every particular a flame and giving light and heat, jet without a chemical process taking place.

The hot brush, when properly produced, resembles a jet of burning gas escaping under great pressure, and it emits an extraordinary strong smell of

ozone. The great ozonizing action is ascribed to the fact that the agitation of the molecules of the air is more violent in such a brush than in the ordinary streamer of a static machine. But the most powerful brush discharges were produced by employing currents of much higher frequencies than it was possible to obtain by means of the alternators. These currents were obtained by disruptively discharging a condenser and setting up oscillations. In this manner currents of a frequency of several hundred thousand were obtained.

Currents of this kind, Mr. Tesla pointed out, produce striking effects. At these frequencies, the impedance of a copper bar is so great that a potential difference of several hundred volts can be maintained between two points of a short and thick bar, and it is possible to keep an ordinary incandescent lamp burning at full candle power by attaching the terminals of the lamp to two points of the bar no more than a few inches apart. When the frequency is extremely high, nodes are found to exist on such a bar, and it is easy to locate them by means of a lamp.

By converting the high tension discharges of a low frequency coil in this manner, it was found practicable to keep a few lamps burning on the ordinary circuit in the laboratory, and by bringing the undulation to a low pitch, it was possible to operate small motors.

This plan likewise allows of converting high tension discharges of one direction into low tension unidirectional currents, by adjusting the circuit so that there are no oscillations. In passing the oscillating discharges through the primary of a specially constructed coil, it is easy to obtain enormous potential differences with only few turns of the secondary.

Great difficulties were at first experienced in producing a successful coil on this plan. It was found necessary to keep all air, or gaseous matter in general, away from the charged surfaces, and oil immersion was resorted to. The wires used were heavily covered with gutta-percha and wound in oil, or the air was pumped out by means of a Sprengel pump. The general arrangement was the following: An ordinary induction coil, operated from a low frequency alternator, was used to charge Leyden jars. The jars were made to discharge over a single or multiple gap through the primary of the second coil. To insure the action of the gap, the arc was blown out by a magnet or air blast. To adjust the potential in the secondary a small oil condenser was used, or polished brass spheres of different sizes were screwed on the terminals and their distance adjusted.

When the conditions were carefully determined to suit each experiment, magnificent effects were obtained. Two wires, stretched through the room, each being connected to one of the terminals of the coil, emitted streams so

powerful that the light from them allowed distinguishing the objects in the room; the wires became luminous even though covered with thick and most excellent insulation. When two straight wires, or two concentric circles of wire, are connected to the terminals, and set at the proper distance, a uniform luminous sheet is produced between them. It was possible in this way to cover an area of more than one meter square completely with the streams. By attaching to one terminal a large circle of wire and to the other terminal a small sphere, the streams are focused upon the sphere, produce a strongly lighted spot upon the same, and present the appearance of a luminous cone. A very thin wire glued upon a plate of hard rubber of great thickness, on the opposite side of which is fastened a tinfoil coating, is rendered intensely luminous when the coating is connected to the other terminal of the coil. Such an experiment can be performed also with low frequency currents, but much less satisfactorily.

When the terminals of such a coil, even of a very small one, are separated by a rubber or glass plate, the discharge spreads over the plate in the form of streams, threads or brilliant sparks, and affords a magnificent display, which cannot be equaled by the largest coil operated in the usual ways. By a simple adjustment it is possible to produce with the coil a succession of brilliant sparks, exactly as with a Holtz machine.

Under certain conditions, when the frequency of the oscillation is very great, white, phantom-like streams are seen to break forth from the terminals of the coil. The chief interesting feature about them is, that they stream freely against the outstretched hand or other conducting object without producing any sensation, and the hand may be approached very near to the terminal without a spark being induced to jump. This is due presumably to the fact that a considerable portion of the energy is carried away or dissipated in the streamers, and the difference of potential between the terminal and the hand is diminished.

It is found in such experiments that the frequency of the vibration and the quickness of succession of the sparks between the knobs affect to a marked degree the appearance of the streams. When the frequency is very low, the air gives way in more or less the same manner as by a steady difference of potential, and the streams consist of distinct threads, generally mingled with thin sparks, which probably correspond to the successive discharges occurring between the knobs. But when the frequency is very high, and the arc of the discharge produces a sound which is loud and smooth (which indicates both that oscillation takes place and that the sparks succeed each other with great rapidity), then the luminous streams formed are perfectly uniform. They are

generally of a purplish hue, but when the molecular vibration is increased by raising the potential, they assume a white color.

The luminous intensity of the streams increases rapidly when the potential is increased; and with frequencies of only a few hundred thousand, could the coil be made to withstand a sufficiently high potential difference, there is no doubt that the space around a wire could be made to emit a strong light, merely by the agitation of the molecules of the air at ordinary pressure.

Such discharges of very high frequency which render luminous the air at ordinary pressure we have very likely occasion to witness in the aurora borealis. From many of these experiments it seems reasonable to infer that sudden cosmic disturbances, such as eruptions on the sun, set the electrostatic charge of the earth in an extremely rapid vibration, and produce the glow by the violent agitation of the air in the upper and even in the lower strata. It is thought that if the frequency were low? or even more so if the charge were not at all vibrating, the lower dense strata would break down as in a lightning discharge. Indications of such breaking down have been repeatedly observed, but they can be attributed to the fundamental disturbances, which are few in number, for the superimposed vibration would be so rapid as not to allow a disruptive break.

The study of these discharge phenomena has led Mr. Tesla to the recognition of some important facts. It was found, as already stated, that gaseous matter must be most carefully excluded from any dielectric which is subjected to great, rapidly changing electrostatic stresses. Since it is difficult to exclude the gas perfectly when solid insulators are used, it is necessary to resort to liquid dielectrics. When a solid dielectric is used, it matters little how thick and how good it is; if air be present, streamers form, which gradually heat the dielectric and impair its insulating power, and the discharge finally breaks through. Under ordinary conditions the best insulators are those which possess the highest specific inductive capacity, but such insulators are not the best to employ when working with these high frequency currents, for in most cases the higher specific inductive capacity is rather a disadvantage. The prime quality of the insulating medium for these currents is continuity. For this reason principally it is necessary to employ liquid insulators, such as oils. If two metal plates, connected to the terminals of the coil, are immersed in oil and set a distance apart, the coil may be kept working for any length of time without a break occurring, or without the oil being warmed, but if air bubbles are introduced, they become luminous; the air molecules, by their impact against the oil, heat it, and after some time cause the insulation to give way. If, instead of the oil, a solid plate of the best dielectric, even



several times thicker than the oil intervening between the metal plates, is inserted between the latter, the air having free access to the charged surfaces, the dielectric is variably warmed and breaks down.

The employment of oil is advisable or necessary even with low frequencies, if the potentials are such that streamers form, but only in such cases, as is evident from the theory of the action. If the potentials are so low that streamers do not form, then it is even disadvantageous to employ oil, for it may, principally by confining the heat, be the cause of the breaking down of the insulation.

The exclusion of gaseous matter is not only desirable on account of the safety of the apparatus, but also on account of economy, especially in a condenser, in which considerable waste of power may occur merely owing to the presence of air, if the electric density on the charged surfaces is great.

In the course of these investigations a phenomenon of special scientific interest was observed. It may be ranked among the brush phenomena, in fact it is a kind of brush which forms at, or near, a single terminal in high vacuum. In a bulb with a conducting electrode, even if the latter be of aluminum, the brush has only a very short existence, but it can be preserved for a considerable length of time in a bulb devoid of any conducting electrode. To observe the phenomenon it is found best to employ a large spherical bulb having in its centre a small bulb supported on a tube sealed to the neck of the former. The large bulb being exhausted to a high degree, and the inside of the small bulb being connected to one of the terminals of the coil, under certain conditions there appears a misty haze around the small bulb, which, after passing through some stages, assumes the form of a brush, generally at right angles to the tube supporting the small bulb. When the brush assumes this form it may be brought to a state of extreme sensitiveness to electrostatic and magnetic influence. The bulb hanging straight down, and all objects being remote from it, the approach of the observer within a few paces will cause the brush to fly to the opposite side, and if he walks around the bulb it will always keep on the opposite side. It may begin to spin around the terminal long before it reaches that sensitive stage. When it begins to turn around, principally, but also before, it is affected by a magnet, and at a certain stage it is susceptible to magnetic influence to an astonishing degree. A small permanent magnet, with its poles at a distance of no more than two centimetres will affect it visibly at a distance of two metres, slowing down or accelerating the rotation according to how it is held relatively to the brush.

When the bulb hangs with the globe down, the rotation is always clockwise. In the southern hemisphere it would occur in the opposite direction, and on the (magnetic) equator the brush should not turn at all. The rotation

may be reversed by a magnet kept at some distance. The brush rotates best, seemingly, when it is at right angles to the lines of force of the earth. It, very likely rotates, when at its maximum speed, in synchronism with the alternations, say, 10,000 times a second. The rotation can be slowed down or accelerated by the approach or recession of the observer, or any conducting body, but it cannot be reversed by putting the bulb in any position. Very curious experiments may be performed with the brush when in its most sensitive state. For instance, the brush resting in one position, the experimenter may, by selecting a proper position, approach the hand at a certain considerable distance to the bulb, and he may cause the brush to pass off by merely stiffening the muscles of the arm, the mere change of configuration of the arm and the consequent imperceptible displacement being sufficient to disturb the delicate balance. When it begins to rotate slowly, and the hands are held at a proper distance, it is impossible to make even the slightest motion without producing a visible effect upon the brush. A metal plate connected to the other terminal of the coil affects it at a great distance, slowing down the rotation often to one turn a second.

Mr. Tesla hopes that this phenomenon will prove a valuable aid in the investigation of the nature of the forces acting in an electrostatic or magnetic field. If there is any motion which is measurable going on in the space, such a brush would be apt to reveal it. It is, so to speak, a beam of light, frictionless, devoid of inertia. On account of its marvellous sensitiveness to electrostatic or magnetic disturbances it may be the means of sending signals through submarine cables with any speed, and even of transmitting intelligence to a distance without wires.

In operating an induction coil with these rapidly alternating currents, it is astonishing to note, for the first time, the great importance of the relation of capacity, self-induction, and frequency as bearing upon the general result. The combined effect of these elements produces many curious effects. For instance, two metal plates are connected to the terminals and set at a small distance, so that an arc is formed between them. This arc prevents a strong current from flowing through the coil. If the arc be interrupted by the interposition of a glass plate, the capacity of the condenser obtained counteracts the self-induction, and a stronger current is made to pass. The effects of capacity are the most striking, for in these experiments, since the self-induction and frequency both are high, the critical capacity is very small, and need be but slightly varied to produce a very considerable change. The experimenter brings his body in contact with the terminals of the secondary of the coil, or attaches to one or both terminals insulated bodies of very small bulk, such as



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# TESLA

## SELECTED WRITINGS

Nikola Tesla's accomplishments are today still underrated. While Edison is credited with being the inventor of the light bulb, it is Tesla's alternating current that powers much of the world. Likewise, while Guglielmo Marconi is popularly credited with inventing the radio, Tesla's work was instrumental in its development. In fact, the Supreme Court overturned Marconi's patent in 1943, crediting Tesla with being the first to patent radio technology.

Tesla used his eponymous *Tesla Coil*, a high frequency transformer, as the basis for experiments in electrical lighting, X-rays, phosphorescence, electro-therapy, and the wireless transmission of electric energy. He is also credited with inventing the fluorescent bulb and neon light, as well as the spark plug for internal combustion engines. Tesla provided the basis for radar, the electron microscope, and microwave ovens. He even dabbled in robotics, far ahead of his time.

*Selected Tesla Writings* is a collection of scientific papers and articles about the work of one of the greatest geniuses of our time.



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