

# NIKOLA TESLA

## LECTURES & PATENTS

# **NIKOLA TESLA**

## **LECTURES AND PATENTS**

# DISCOVERY PUBLISHER

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b>	V
<b>PATENTS INDEX</b>	XIII
PATENTS BY NUMBER	XIV
PATENTS BY NAME	XVII
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	1
INTRODUCTION	4
<b>LECTURES</b>	7
1. A NEW SYSTEM OF ALTERNATE CURRENT MOTORS AND TRANSFORMERS	8
Discussion	16
Tesla replies to Dr. Louis Duncan, explaining his alternating current motor	18
2. EXPERIMENTS WITH ALTERNATE CURRENTS OF VERY HIGH FREQUENCY AND THEIR APPLICATION TO METHODS OF ARTIFICIAL ILLUMINATION	19
3. EXPERIMENTS WITH ALTERNATE CURRENTS OF HIGH POTENTIAL AND HIGH FREQUENCY	47
4. ON LIGHT AND OTHER HIGH FREQUENCY PHENOMENA	99
4.1 Introductory — Some thoughts on the eye	99

4.2 On the apparatus and method of conversion	103
4.3 On phenomena produced by electrostatic force	112
4.4 On current or dynamic electricity phenomena	117
4.5 Impedance phenomena	122
4.6 On electrical resonance	123
4.7 On the light phenomena produced by high-frequency currents of high potential and general remarks relating to the subject	128
<b>5. HIGH FREQUENCY OSCILLATORS FOR ELECTRO-THERAPEUTIC AND OTHER PURPOSES</b>	142
<b>PATENTS</b>	153
<b>1. AIRCRAFT</b>	155
Tesla Patent 1,655,113 Method of Aerial Transportation	156
Tesla Patent 1,655,114 Apparatus for Aerial Transportation	162
<b>2. CIRCUIT CONTROLLERS</b>	171
Tesla Patent 609,251 Electric-Circuit Controller	172
Tesla Patent 609,245 Electrical-Circuit Controller	178
Tesla Patent 611,719 Electrical-Circuit Controller	183
Tesla Patent 609,246 Electric-Circuit Controller	188
Tesla Patent 609,247 Electric-Circuit Controller	192
Tesla Patent 609,248 Electric-Circuit Controller	195
Tesla Patent 609,249 Electric-Circuit Controller	199
Tesla Patent 613,735 Electric-Circuit Controller	203
<b>3. CONDENSERS</b>	209
Tesla Patent 464,667 Electrical Condenser	210
Tesla Patent 567,818 Electrical Condenser	212
<b>4. HIGH FREQUENCY ENGINEERING</b>	217
Tesla Patent 514,167 Electrical Conductor	218
Tesla Patent 568,177 Apparatus for Producing Ozone	221
Tesla Patent 568,178 Method of Regulating Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	225
Tesla Patent 568,179 Method of and Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	230
Tesla Patent 568,180 Apparatus for Producing Electrical Currents of High Frequency	235
Tesla Patent 568,176 Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency and Potential	239
Tesla Patent 577,670 Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency	243
Tesla Patent 583,953 Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	247



Tesla Patent 609,250	Electrical Igniter for Gas-Engines	250
Tesla Patent 593,138	Electrical Transformer	254

## 5. LIGHTING 259

Tesla Patent 335,786	Electric-Arc Lamp	260
Tesla Patent 335,787	Electric-Arc Lamp	265
Tesla Patent 447,920	Method of Operating Arc-Lamps	271
Tesla Patent 454,622	System of Electric Lighting	274
Tesla Patent 455,069	Electric Incandescent Lamp	279
Tesla Patent 514,170	Incandescent Electric Light	283

## 6. METERS 287

Tesla Patent 455,068	Electrical Meter	288
Tesla Patent 514,973	Electrical Meter	291
Tesla Patent 1,402,025	Frequency Meter	294

## 7. MOTORS & GENERATORS 299

Tesla Patent 334,823	Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	300
Tesla Patent 336,961	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	303
Tesla Patent 336,962	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	307
Tesla Patent 350,954	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	311
Tesla Patent 396,121	Thermo-Magnetic Motor	314
Tesla Patent 359,748	Dynamo-Electric Machine	318
Tesla Patent 382,845	Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	324
Tesla Patent 428,057	Pyromagneto-Electric Generator	329
Tesla Patent 381,968	Electro-Magnetic Motor	332
Tesla Patent 381,969	Electro-Magnetic Motor	341
Tesla Patent 382,279	Electro-Magnetic Motor	345
Tesla Patent 390,414	Dynamo-Electric Machine	350
Tesla Patent 390,820	Regulator for Alternate-Current Motors	355
Tesla Patent 390,721	Dynamo-Electric Machine	360
Tesla Patent 390,415	Dynamo-Electric Machine or Motor	364
Tesla Patent 555,190	Alternating Motor	367
Tesla Patent 524,426	Electromagnetic Motor	371
Tesla Patent 405,858	Electro-Magnetic Motor	374
Tesla Patent 401,520	Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	377
Tesla Patent 406,968	Dynamo-Electric Machine	381
Tesla Patent 459,772	Electro-Magnetic Motor	384
Tesla Patent 416,191	Electro-Magnetic Motor	389
Tesla Patent 416,192	Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	393
Tesla Patent 416,193	Electro-Magnetic Motor	398
Tesla Patent 416,194	Electric Motor	401
Tesla Patent 416,195	Electro-Magnetic Motor	404
Tesla Patent 418,248	Electro-Magnetic Motor	410
Tesla Patent 424,036	Electro-Magnetic Motor	413

Tesla Patent 445,207	Electro-Magnetic Motor	418
Tesla Patent 417,794	Armature for Electric Machines	421
Tesla Patent 433,700	Alternating-Current Electro-Magnetic Motor	425
Tesla Patent 433,701	Alternating-Current Motor	428
Tesla Patent 433,703	Electro-Magnetic Motor	431
Tesla Patent 447,921	Alternating-Electric-Current Generator	434
Tesla Patent 455,067	Electro-Magnetic Motor	439
Tesla Patent 464,666	Electro-Magnetic Motor	443
Tesla Patent 514,168	Means for Generating Electric Currents	446

## 8. POWER DISTRIBUTION 451

Tesla Patent 382,280	Electrical Transmission of Power	452
Tesla Patent 382,281	Electrical Transmission of Power	462
Tesla Patent 381,970	System of Electrical Distribution	466
Tesla Patent 382,282	Method of Converting and Distributing Electric Currents	471
Tesla Patent 390,413	System of Electrical Distribution	476
Tesla Patent 487,796	System of Electrical Transmission of Power	481
Tesla Patent 511,915	Electrical Transmission of Power	487
Tesla Patent 511,559	Electrical Transmission of Power	490
Tesla Patent 511,560	System of Electrical Power Transmission	493
Tesla Patent 405,859	Method of Electrical Power Transmission	499
Tesla Patent 413,353	Method of Obtaining Direct from Alternating Currents	502
Tesla Patent 433,702	Electrical Transformer or Induction Device	509
Tesla Patent 462,418	Method of and Apparatus for Electrical Conversion and Distribution	512

## 9. RADIANT ENERGY 517

Tesla Patent 685,957	Apparatus for the Utilization of Radiant Energy	518
Tesla Patent 685,958	Method of Utilizing Radiant Energy	523

## 10. RECIPROCATING ENGINES 529

Tesla Patent 511,916	Electric Generator	530
Tesla Patent 514,169	Reciprocating Engine	536
Tesla Patent 517,900	Steam-Engine	541

## 11. TURBO MACHINERY 547

Tesla Patent 1,061,142	Fluid Propulsion	548
Tesla Patent 1,061,206	Turbine	552
Tesla Patent 1,113,716	Fountain	557
Tesla Patent 1,209,359	Speed-Indicator	562
Tesla Patent 1,329,559	Valvular Conduit	571
Tesla Patent 1,274,816	Speed-Indicator	577
Tesla Patent 1,314,718	Ship's Log	583
Tesla Patent 1,365,547	Flow-Meter	586



## 12. WIRELESS

591

Tesla Patent 645,576	System of Transmission of Electrical Energy	592
Tesla Patent 649,621	Apparatus for Transmission of Electrical Energy	599
Tesla Patent 613,809	Method of and Apparatus for Controlling Mechanism of Moving Vessels Or Vehicles	603
Tesla Patent 685,953	Method of Intensifying Effects Transmitted Through Natural Media	617
Tesla Patent 685,954	Method of Utilizing Effects Transmitted Through Natural Media	624
Tesla Patent 685,955	Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted from a Distance to a Receiving Device Through Natural Media	634
Tesla Patent 685,956	Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	642
Tesla Patent 685,012	Means for Increasing the Intensity of Electrical Oscillations	651
Tesla Patent 787,412	Art of Transmitting Electrical Energy Through the Natural Medium	655
Tesla Patent 725,605	System of Signaling	661
Tesla Patent 723,188	Method of Signaling	667
Tesla Patent 1,119,732	Apparatus for Transmitting Electrical Energy	673

## 13. MISCELLANEOUS

679

Tesla Patent 514,972	Electric-Railway System	680
Tesla Patent 512,340	Coil for Electro-Magnets	683
Tesla Patent 577,671	Manufacture of Electrical Condensers, Coils, & C	686
Tesla Patent 655,838	Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	689
Tesla Patent 11,865	Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	695
Tesla Patent 1,266,175	Lightning-Protector	701

## PATENTS INDEX

## PATENTS BY NUMBER

11,865	Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	695
334,823	Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	300
335,786	Electric-Arc Lamp	260
335,787	Electric-Arc Lamp	265
336,961	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	303
336,962	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	307
350,954	Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	311
359,748	Dynamo-Electric Machine	318
381,968	Electro-Magnetic Motor	332
381,969	Electro-Magnetic Motor	341
381,970	System of Electrical Distribution	466
382,279	Electro-Magnetic Motor	345
382,280	Electrical Transmission of Power	452
382,281	Electrical Transmission of Power	462
382,282	Method of Converting and Distributing Electric Currents	471
382,845	Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	324
390,413	System of Electrical Distribution	476
390,414	Dynamo-Electric Machine	350
390,415	Dynamo-Electric Machine or Motor	364
390,721	Dynamo-Electric Machine	360
390,820	Regulator for Alternate-Current Motors	355
396,121	Thermo-Magnetic Motor	314
401,520	Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	377
405,858	Electro-Magnetic Motor	374
405,859	Method of Electrical Power Transmission	499
406,968	Dynamo-Electric Machine	381
413,353	Method of Obtaining Direct from Alternating Currents	502
416,191	Electro-Magnetic Motor	389
416,192	Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	393
416,193	Electro-Magnetic Motor	398
416,194	Electric Motor	401
416,195	Electro-Magnetic Motor	404
417,794	Armature for Electric Machines	421
418,248	Electro-Magnetic Motor	410
424,036	Electro-Magnetic Motor	413
428,057	Pyromagneto-Electric Generator	329
433,700	Alternating-Current Electro-Magnetic Motor	425
433,701	Alternating-Current Motor	428
433,702	Electrical Transformer or Induction Device	509
433,703	Electro-Magnetic Motor	431

445,207	Electro-Magnetic Motor	418
447,920	Method of Operating Arc-Lamps	271
447,921	Alternating-Electric-Current Generator	434
454,622	System of Electric Lighting	274
455,067	Electro-Magnetic Motor	439
455,068	Electrical Meter	288
455,069	Electric Incandescent Lamp	279
459,772	Electro-Magnetic Motor	384
462,418	Method of and Apparatus for Electrical Conversion and Distribution	512
464,666	Electro-Magnetic Motor	443
464,667	Electrical Condenser	210
487,796	System of Electrical Transmission of Power	481
511,559	Electrical Transmission of Power	490
511,560	System of Electrical Power Transmission	493
511,915	Electrical Transmission of Power	487
511,916	Electric Generator	530
512,340	Coil for Electro-Magnets	683
514,167	Electrical Conductor	218
514,168	Means for Generating Electric Currents	446
514,169	Reciprocating Engine	536
514,170	Incandescent Electric Light	283
514,972	Electric-Railway System	680
514,973	Electrical Meter	291
517,900	Steam-Engine	541
524,426	Electromagnetic Motor	371
555,190	Alternating Motor	367
567,818	Electrical Condenser	212
568,176	Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency and Potential	239
568,177	Apparatus for Producing Ozone	221
568,178	Method of Regulating Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	225
568,179	Method of and Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	230
568,180	Apparatus for Producing Electrical Currents of High Frequency	235
577,670	Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency	243
577,671	Manufacture of Electrical Condensers, Coils, & C	686
583,953	Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	247
593,138	Electrical Transformer	254
609,245	Electrical-Circuit Controller	178
609,246	Electric-Circuit Controller	188
609,247	Electric-Circuit Controller	192
609,248	Electric-Circuit Controller	195
609,249	Electric-Circuit Controller	199
609,250	Electrical Igniter for Gas-Engines	250

609,251	Electric-Circuit Controller	172
611,719	Electrical-Circuit Controller	183
613,735	Electric-Circuit Controller	203
613,809	Method of and Apparatus for Controlling Mechanism of Moving Vessels or Vehicles	603
645,576	System of Transmission of Electrical Energy	592
649,621	Apparatus for Transmission of Electrical Energy	599
655,838	Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	689
685,012	Means for Increasing the Intensity of Electrical Oscillations	651
685,953	Method of Intensifying Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	617
685,954	Method of Utilizing Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	624
685,955	Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted from a Distance to a Receiving Device Through Natural Media	634
685,956	Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	642
685,957	Apparatus for the Utilization of Radiant Energy	518
685,958	Method of Utilizing Radiant Energy	523
723,188	Method of Signaling	667
725,605	System of Signaling	661
787,412	Art of Transmitting Electrical Energy through the Natural Medium	655
1,061,142	Fluid Propulsion	548
1,061,206	Turbine	552
1,113,716	Fountain	557
1,119,732	Apparatus for Transmitting Electrical Energy	673
1,209,359	Speed-Indicator	562
1,266,175	Lightning-Protector	701
1,274,816	Speed-Indicator	577
1,314,718	Ship's Log	583
1,329,559	Valvular Conduit	571
1,365,547	Flow-Meter	586
1,402,025	Frequency Meter	294
1,655,113	Method of Aerial Transportation	156
1,655,114	Apparatus for Aerial Transportation	162

# PATENTS BY NAME

Alternating Motor	367
Alternating-Current Electro-Magnetic Motor	425
Alternating-Current Motor	428
Alternating-Electric-Current Generator	434
Apparatus for Aerial Transportation	162
Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	247
Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency and Potential	239
Apparatus for Producing Electric Currents of High Frequency	243
Apparatus for Producing Electrical Currents of High Frequency	235
Apparatus for Producing Ozone	221
Apparatus for the Utilization of Radiant Energy	518
Apparatus for Transmission of Electrical Energy	599
Apparatus for Transmitting Electrical Energy	673
Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted from a Distance to a Receiving Device through Natural Media	634
Apparatus for Utilizing Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	642
Armature for Electric Machines	421
Art of Transmitting Electrical Energy through the Natural Medium	655
Coil for Electro-Magnets	683
Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	300
Commutator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	324
Dynamo-Electric Machine or Motor	364
Dynamo-Electric Machine	318
Dynamo-Electric Machine	350
Dynamo-Electric Machine	360
Dynamo-Electric Machine	381
Electric Generator	530
Electric Incandescent Lamp	279
Electric Motor	401
Electric-Arc Lamp	260
Electric-Arc Lamp	265
Electric-Circuit Controller	172
Electric-Circuit Controller	188
Electric-Circuit Controller	192
Electric-Circuit Controller	195
Electric-Circuit Controller	199
Electric-Circuit Controller	203
Electric-Railway System	680
Electrical Condenser	210
Electrical Condenser	212
Electrical Conductor	218

Electrical Igniter for Gas-Engines	250
Electrical Meter	288
Electrical Meter	291
Electrical Transformer or Induction Device	509
Electrical Transformer	254
Electrical Transmission of Power	452
Electrical Transmission of Power	462
Electrical Transmission of Power	487
Electrical Transmission of Power	490
Electrical-Circuit Controller	178
Electrical-Circuit Controller	183
Electro-Magnetic Motor	332
Electro-Magnetic Motor	341
Electro-Magnetic Motor	345
Electro-Magnetic Motor	374
Electro-Magnetic Motor	384
Electro-Magnetic Motor	389
Electro-Magnetic Motor	398
Electro-Magnetic Motor	404
Electro-Magnetic Motor	410
Electro-Magnetic Motor	413
Electro-Magnetic Motor	418
Electro-Magnetic Motor	431
Electro-Magnetic Motor	439
Electro-Magnetic Motor	443
Electromagnetic Motor	371
Flow-Meter	586
Fluid Propulsion	548
Fountain	557
Frequency Meter	294
Incandescent Electric Light	283
Lightning-Protector	701
Manufacture of Electrical Condensers, Coils, & C	686
Means for Generating Electric Currents	446
Means for Increasing the Intensity of Electrical Oscillations	651
Method of Aerial Transportation	156
Method of and Apparatus for Controlling Mechanism of Moving Vessels or Vehicles	603
Method of and Apparatus for Electrical Conversion and Distribution	512
Method of and Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	230
Method of Converting and Distributing Electric Currents	471
Method of Electrical Power Transmission	499
Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	689



Method of Insulating Electric Conductors	695
Method of Intensifying Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	617
Method of Obtaining Direct from Alternating Currents	502
Method of Operating Arc-Lamps	271
Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	377
Method of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	393
Method of Regulating Apparatus for Producing Currents of High Frequency	225
Method of Signaling	667
Method of Utilizing Effects Transmitted through Natural Media	624
Method of Utilizing Radiant Energy	523
Pyromagneto-Electric Generator	329
Reciprocating Engine	536
Regulator for Alternate-Current Motors	355
Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	303
Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	307
Regulator for Dynamo-Electric Machines	311
Ship's Log	583
Speed-Indicator	562
Speed-Indicator	577
Steam-Engine	541
System of Electric Lighting	274
System of Electrical Distribution	466
System of Electrical Distribution	476
System of Electrical Power Transmission	493
System of Electrical Transmission of Power	481
System of Signaling	661
System of Transmission of Electrical Energy	592
Thermo-Magnetic Motor	314
Turbine	552
Valvular Conduit	571

# PATENTS BY DATE

## 1886

335,786 Electric-Arc Lamp	260
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 335,786, Dated February 9, 1886	
335,787 Electric-Arc Lamp	265
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 335,787, Dated February 9, 1886	
334,823 Commutator For Dynamo-Electric Machines	300
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 334,823, Dated January 26, 1886	
336,961 Regulator For Dynamo-Electric Machines	303
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 336,961, Dated March 2, 1886	
336,962 Regulator For Dynamo-Electric Machines	308
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 336,962 Dated March 2, 1886	
350,954 Regulator For Dynamo-Electric Machines	312
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 350,954 Dated October 19, 1886	

## 1887

359,748 Dynamo-Electric Machine	318
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 359,748, Dated March 22, 1887	

## 1888

382,280 Electrical Transmission Of Power	452
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 382,280, Dated May 1, 1888	
382,281 Electrical Transmission Of Power	462
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 382,281, Dated May 1, 1888	
381,970 System Of Electrical Distribution	466
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 381,970, Dated May 1, 1888	
382,282 Method Of Converting And Distributing Electric Currents	471
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 382,282, Dated May 1, 1888	
381,968 Electro-Magnetic Motor	332
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 381,968, Dated May 1, 1888	
381,969 Electro-Magnetic Motor	341
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 381,969, Dated May 1, 1888	
382,279 Electro-Magnetic Motor	345
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 382,279, Dated May 1. 1888	
382,845 Commutator For Dynamo-Electric Machines	324
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 382,845, Dated May 15, 1888	
390,415 Dynamo-Electric Machine Or Motor	364
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 390,415 Dated October 2, 1888	
390,413 System Of Electrical Distribution	476
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 390,413 Dated October 2, 1888	
390,414 Dynamo-Electric Machine	350
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 390,414 Dated October 2, 1888	

390,820 Regulator For Alternate-Current Motors	355
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 390,820 Dated October 9, 1888	
390,721 Dynamo-Electric Machine	360
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 390,721 Dated October 9, 1888	
<b>1889</b>	
396,121 Thermo-Magnetic Motor	315
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 396,121, Dated January 15, 1889	
401,520 Method Of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	377
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 401,520, Dated April 16, 1889	
406,968 Dynamo-Electric Machine	381
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 406,968, Dated July 16, 1889	
405,859 Method Of Electrical Power Transmission	499
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 405,859, Dated June 25, 1889	
405,858 Electro-Magnetic Motor	374
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 405,858, Dated June 25, 1889	
413,353 Method Of Obtaining Direct From Alternating Currents	502
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 413,353, Dated October 22, 1889	
416,191 Electro-Magnetic Motor	389
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 416,191, Dated December 3, 1889	
416,192 Method Of Operating Electro-Magnetic Motors	393
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 416,192, Dated December 3, 1889	
416,193 Electro-Magnetic Motor	398
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 416,193, Dated December 3, 1889	
416,194 Electric Motor	401
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 416,194, Dated December 3, 1889	
416,195 Electro-Magnetic Motor	404
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 416,195, Dated December 3, 1889	
417,794 Armature For Electric Machines	421
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 417,794, Dated December 24, 1889	
418,248 Electro-Magnetic Motor	410
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 418,248, Dated December 31, 1889	
<b>1890</b>	
424,036 Electro-Magnetic Motor	413
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 424,036, Dated March 25, 1890	
428,057 Pyromagneto-Electric Generator	329
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 428,057, Dated May 13, 1890	
433,702 Electrical Transformer Or Induction Device	509
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 433,702, Dated August 5, 1890	
433,700 Alternating-Current Electro-Magnetic Motor	425
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 433,700, Dated August 5, 1890	
433,701 Alternating-Current Motor	428
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 433,701, Dated August 5, 1890	

433,703 Electro-Magnetic Motor	431
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 433,703, Dated August 5, 1890	
<b>1891</b>	
445,207 Electro-Magnetic Motor	418
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 445,207, Dated January 27, 1891	
447,921 Alternating-Electric-Current Generator	434
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 447,921, Dated March 10, 1891	
447,920 Method Of Operating Arc-Lamps	271
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 447,920, Dated March 10, 1891	
454,622 System Of Electric Lighting	274
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 454,622, Dated June 23, 1891	
455,067 Electro-Magnetic Motor	439
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 455,067, Dated June 30, 1891	
455,069 Electric Incandescent Lamp	279
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 455,069, Dated June 30, 1891	
455,068 Electrical Meter	288
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 455,068, Dated June 30, 1891	
459,772 Electro-Magnetic Motor	385
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 459,772, Dated September 22, 1891	
462,418 Method Of And Apparatus For Electrical Conversion And Distribution	513
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 462,418, Dated November 3, 1891	
464,666 Electro-Magnetic Motor	443
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 464,666, Dated December 8, 1891	
464,667 Electrical Condenser	210
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 464,667, Dated December 8, 1891	
<b>1892</b>	
487,796 System Of Electrical Transmission Of Power	481
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 487,796 Dated December 13, 1892	
<b>1893</b>	
511,559 Electrical Transmission Of Power	490
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 511,559, Dated December 26, 1893	
511,560 System Of Electrical Power Transmission	493
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 511,560, Dated December 26, 1893	
<b>1894</b>	
511,915 Electrical Transmission Of Power	487
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 511,915 Dated January 2, 1894	
511,916 Electric Generator	530
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 511,916, Dated January 2, 1894	
512,340 Coil For Electro-Magnets	683
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 512,340, Dated January 9, 1894	
514,167 Electrical Conductor	218
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,167, Dated February 6, 1894	

514,170 Incandescent Electric Light	283
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,170, Dated February 6, 1894	
514,168 Means For Generating Electric Currents	446
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,168, Dated February 6, 1894	
514,169 Reciprocating Engine	536
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,169, Dated February 6, 1894	
514,973 Electrical Meter	291
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,973, Dated February 20, 1894	
514,972 Electric-Railway System	680
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 514,972, Dated February 20, 1894	
517,900 Steam-Engine	541
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 517,900, Dated April 10, 1894	
524,426 Electromagnetic Motor	371
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 524,426, Dated August 14, 1894	
<b>1896</b>	
555,190 Alternating Motor	367
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 555,190, Dated February 25, 1896	
567,818 Electrical Condenser	212
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 567,818, Dated September 15, 1896	
568,177 Apparatus For Producing Ozone	221
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 568,177, Dated September 22, 1896	
568,178 Method Of Regulating Apparatus For Producing Currents Of High Frequency	225
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 568,178, Dated September 22, 1896	
568,179 Method Of And Apparatus For Producing Currents Of High Frequency	230
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 568,179, Dated September 22, 1896	
568,180 Apparatus For Producing Electrical Currents Of High Frequency	235
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 568,180, Dated September 22, 1896	
568,176 Apparatus For Producing Electric Currents Of High Frequency And Potential	239
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 568,176, Dated September 22, 1896	
<b>1897</b>	
577,671 Manufacture Of Electrical Condensers, Coils, & C	686
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 577,671, Dated February 23, 1897	
577,670 Apparatus For Producing Electric Currents Of High Frequency	243
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 577,670, Dated February 23, 1897	
583,953 Apparatus For Producing Currents Of High Frequency	247
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 583,953, Dated June 8, 1897	
593,138 Electrical Transformer	254
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 593,138, Dated November 2, 1897	
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609,250 Electrical Igniter For Gas-Engines	250
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,250, Dated August 16, 1898	

609,251 Electric-Circuit Controller	172
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,251, Dated August 16, 1898 Application Filed June 8, 1897. Renewed June 15, 1898. Serial No. 683,525. (No Model.)	
609,245 Electrical-Circuit Controller	178
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,245, Dated August 16, 1898	
611,719 Electrical-Circuit Controller	183
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 611,719, Dated October 4, 1898	
609,246 Electric-Circuit Controller	188
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,246, Dated August 16, 1898	
609,247 Electric-Circuit Controller	192
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,247, Dated August 16, 1898	
609,248 Electric-Circuit Controller	195
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,248, Dated August 16, 1898	
609,249 Electric-Circuit Controller	199
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 609,249, Dated August 16, 1898	
613,735 Electric-Circuit Controller	203
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 613,735, Dated November 8, 1898	
613,809 Method Of And Apparatus For Controlling Mechanism Of Moving Vessels Or Vehicles	603
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 613,809, Dated November 8, 1898	
<b>1900</b>	
649,621 Apparatus For Transmission Of Electrical Energy	599
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 649,621, Dated March 15, 1900	
645,576 System Of Transmission Of Electrical Energy	592
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 645,576, Dated March 20, 1900	
655,838 Method Of Insulating Electric Conductors	689
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 655,838, Dated April 14, 1900	
11,865 Method Of Insulating Electric Conductors	695
Specification Forming Part Of Reissued Letters Patent No. 11,865 Dated October 23, 1900	
<b>1901</b>	
685,012 Means For Increasing The Intensity Of Electrical Oscillations	651
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,012, Dated October 22, 1901	
685,957 Apparatus For The Utilization Of Radiant Energy	518
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,957 Dated November 5, 1901	
685,958 Method Of Utilizing Radiant Energy	523
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,958 Dated November 5, 1901	
685,953 Method Of Intensifying Effects Transmitted Through Natural Media	617
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,953, Dated November 5, 1901	
685,954 Method Of Utilizing Effects Transmitted Through Natural Media	624
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,954, Dated November 5, 1901	
685,955 Apparatus For Utilizing Effects Transmitted From A Distance To A Receiving Device Through Natural Media	634
Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,955, Dated November 5, 1901	

685,956 Apparatus For Utilizing Effects Transmitted Through Natural Media Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 685,956, Dated November 5, 1901	642
<b>1903</b>	
723,188 Method Of Signaling Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 723,188, Dated March 17, 1903	667
725,605 System Of Signaling Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 725,605, Dated April 14, 1903	661
<b>1905</b>	
787,412 Art Of Transmitting Electrical Energy Through The Natural Medium Specification Forming Part Of Letters Patent No. 787,412, Dated April 18, 1905	655
<b>1913</b>	
1,061,142 Fluid Propulsion Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented May 6, 1913	548
1,061,206 Turbine Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented May 6, 1913	552
<b>1914</b>	
1,113,716 Fountain Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Oct. 13, 1914	557
1,119,732 Apparatus For Transmitting Electrical Energy Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Dec. 1, 1914	673
<b>1916</b>	
1,209,359 Speed-Indicator Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Dec. 19, 1916	562
<b>1918</b>	
1,266,175 Lightning-Protector Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented May 14, 1918	701
1,274,816 Speed-Indicator Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Aug. 6, 1918	577
<b>1919</b>	
1,314,718 Ship's Log Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Sept. 2, 1919	583
<b>1920</b>	
1,329,559 Valvular Conduit Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Feb. 3, 1920	571
<b>1921</b>	
1,365,547 Flow-Meter Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Jan. 11, 1921	586
1,655,113 Method Of Aerial Transportation Application Filed September 9, 1921, Serial No. 499,519, And In Great Britain April 1, 1921	156



## **1922**

1,402,025 Frequency Meter

294

Specification Of Letters Patent. Patented Jan. 3, 1922

## **1927**

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163

Application Filed October 4, 1927. Serial No. 223,915

# INTRODUCTION

*The Yugoslav National Committee for the Celebration of the Centennial Birthday of Nikola Tesla and the Nikola Tesla Museum in Beograd consider the publishing of Nikola Testa's scientific works to be an honourable obligation to this great scientist and inventor, to science and humanity. The lucky circumstance that, according to Testa's will, his entire works have been collected in the Nikola Tesla Museum in Beograd, has made the carrying out of this task much easier. Unfortunately, we have not at our disposal one part of Nikola Testa's documents, the part regarding the first period of his creative activity, which were lost when his laboratory was destroyed by fire. Among the documents at our disposal, a large part could not yet be examined. The documents chosen for this book are published not only as a precious evidence of Tesla's important scientific work, which constitutes one of the bases of contemporary electrical engineering, but they also provide a worthy signpost for the present and future generations of inventors in all fields of science and technics, in which such great results were achieved by Nikola Tesla.*

The President  
of the Yugoslav National Committee  
for the Celebration of the Centennial  
Birthday of Nikola Tesla,  
Rodoljub Colakovic

# INTRODUCTION

Nikola Tesla was born at Smiljan, Province of Lika, in Yugoslavia on July 10, 1856. From 1862 to 1874 he attended elementary and lower secondary school at Smiljan and Gospic, and high secondary one at Karlovac. From 1875 to 1878 he attended the Advanced Technical School at Graz and finished his studies at the University of Prague in 1880.

From the year 1876, when a student in Graz, Tesla was interested in the construction of a motor without commutator. In February 1882, in Budapest, he discovered the principle of the rotating magnetic field. In 1883, at Strasbourg, he made the first models of induction motors. The following year, Tesla left for the United States of America where he worked in Edison Laboratory for a short period of time; later, in 1885, he founded the enterprise “Tesla Arc Light Company” in New York. After founding the enterprise “Tesla Electric Company” in 1887, Tesla was able to obtain the necessary financial and material resources that were needed for the realization of his invention of the polyphase system of the transmission of power and for induction motors of highgrade efficiency.

After taking out the original patents for the asynchronous motor and the polyphase system for the transmission of electric power on October 12, 1887, Tesla took out a further series of 40 patents within the same field from 1887 to 1891. Tesla's polyphase system of power transmission was applied in 1891 at the hydroelectric power station at the Niagara Falls, the first three aggregates of which began to operate in 1896 with a total amount of 15,000 horsepower.

In the second half of 1890, Tesla started to work in the field of high frequency currents by building machine generators with a frequency of up to approximately 30 kc/s. In 1891 he invented a transformer for the production of currents of high frequency and of high tension, which later became known as “The Tesla transformer”. Tesla explained the results achieved in the field of high frequency currents in his famous lectures which were held in the period between 1891 and 1893.

Work in this field was interrupted temporarily owing to a fire in Tesla's laboratory on March 13, 1895.

After the erection of a new laboratory in 1896, Tesla resumed his work once again, and from 1896 to 1914 he published a series of new inventions which are the fountainhead for contemporary radio technics. The discovery of the four tuned circuits system, which is the basis of radio transmission, is of particular importance here. The construction of a large radio station of 200 kW in Colorado, during 1899, enabled Tesla to apply the principles and ideas set forth in his lectures in 1892 and 1893.

In the spring of 1898, Tesla constructed a radio-guided ship model, and, on July 1, 1898, he took out a patent dealing with the remote control by radio of moving vessels and vehicles. By this invention, he laid the basis for wireless telemechanics. He displayed the results of his work in the article entitled “The Problem of Increasing Human Energy”, published in June 1900.

With these extremely important discoveries and inventions, Tesla occupies one of the outstanding places in the history of modern sciences and technics. For his scientific accomplishments, Nikola Tesla received worthy and esteemed recognition from many distinguished scientific institutions, from renowned fellow scientists throughout the world. He was presented with doctor's degrees from the following universities:

Sorbonne (Paris), Columbia, Vienna, Prague, Beograd, Zagreb, Yale, Nebraska, Grenoble, Brno, Bucharest, Graz, Poitiers, Sofia, etc.

He died in New York on January 7, 1943, where he had spent the longest period of his life.

The purpose of this book is to acquaint the reader with Nikola Tesla's most important works in the numerous fields of science to which he dedicated himself. Following Tesla's example, who published his inventions in lectures held at various scientific institutions, who took out numerous patents for his inventions during the course of his life, and who wrote articles in various newspapers and magazines, the book contains two parts: lectures and patents.

The first part of the book contains five of the most important lectures of Nikola Tesla in chronological order. Of primary importance is the classical lecture: "A New System of Alternate Current Motors and Transformers", held at The American Institute of Electrical Engineers, on May 16, 1883, in which Tesla explained the principle of his famous induction motor. Other important lectures herein included are: "Experiments with Alternate Currents of very High-Frequency and their Application to Methods of Artificial Illumination", read before The American Institute of Electrical Engineers on May 20, 1891; "Experiments with Alternate Currents of High Potential and High Frequency" delivered before The Institute of Electrical Engineers and at The Royal Institute in London, as well as at The International Association of Electricians in Paris, on February 3, 4 and 19, 1892 respectively; "On Light and other High-Frequency Phenomena", held at The Franklin Institute in Philadelphia on February 24, 1893, and repeated before the American National Electric Light Association at Saint Louis in March of the same year. In these lectures, Tesla explained his achievements in the field of high frequencies and high voltages. This part of the book ends with the lecture "High-Frequency Oscillators for Electro-therapeutic and other Purposes", held before The American Electro-Therapeutic Association at Buffalo, on September 13, 1898.

The second part of the book deals with Nikola Tesla's 112 U.S. patents registered at the Patent Office of the United States of America. These patents are divided into select groups, each of the groups being arranged

according to the order of registration. The first group numbers 2 patents for aircraft, while the second group consists of 8 patents for circuit controllers. Then follows a group of 2 patents for condensers; 10 patents for high frequency engineering and a group of 6 patents for lighting; 3 patents for meters; 37 patents for motors & generators; 13 patents for power distribution; 2 patents for radiant energy; 3 patents for reciprocating engines; 8 patents for turbo machinery; 12 patents for wireless; and 6 miscellaneous patents.

Note from the Publisher: the original 1952 edition of this book included 24 scientific and technical articles written by Tesla between 1891 and 1920. However, to comply with a 800-page-count limit imposed by the printing company, these articles are now part of the book "Selected Tesla Writings" (ISBN-13: 978-1502972804) from the same publisher.



# 1. A NEW SYSTEM OF ALTERNATE CURRENT MOTORS AND TRANSFORMERS

*Read before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, May 16, 1888. 2, Nikola Tesla*

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 readily 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.

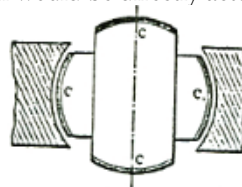


Fig. 1.

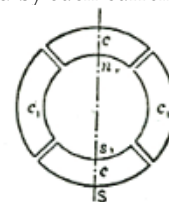


Fig. 1a.



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.

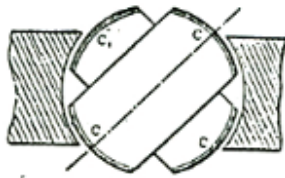


Fig. 2.

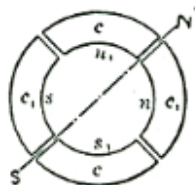


Fig. 2a.

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, 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 c being nil, since

these coils are included in the circuit of coil C.

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.

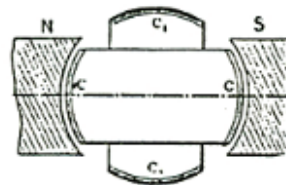


Fig. 3.

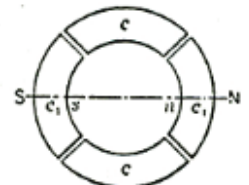


Fig. 3a.

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.

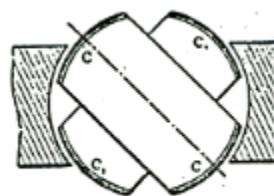


Fig. 4.

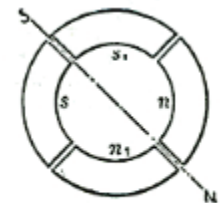


Fig. 4a.

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.

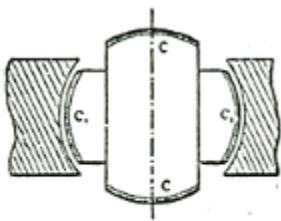


Fig. 5.

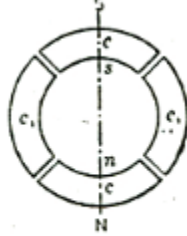


Fig. 5a.

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.

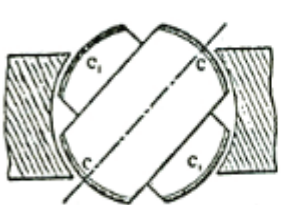


Fig. 6.

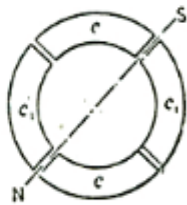


Fig. 6a.

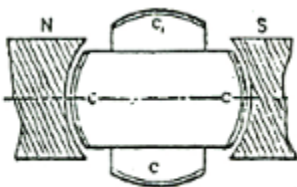


Fig. 7.

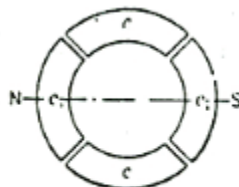


Fig. 7a.

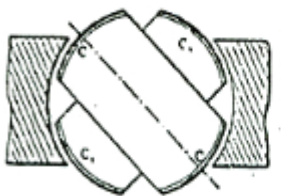


Fig. 8.

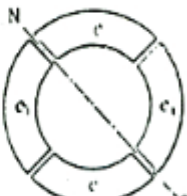


Fig. 8a.

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.

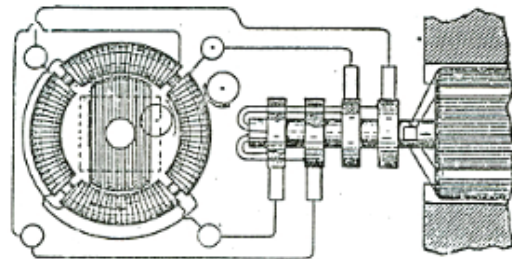


Fig. 9.

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.

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.

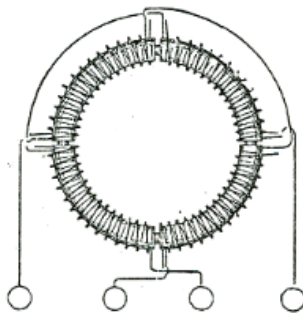


Fig. 10.

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 currents 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 centre 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  $\alpha$  between the radius and one of the axes (O X). Referring to figure 11, we have  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ ; where  $x = r \cos \alpha$ , and  $y = r \sin \alpha$ .



Fig. 11.

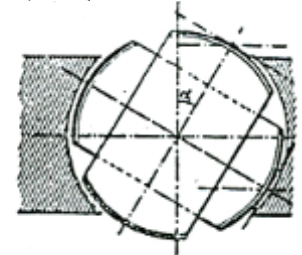


Fig. 12.

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  $c_1 = K_1 \sin \alpha$  and  $c = K_1 \sin (90^\circ + \alpha) = K_1 \cos \alpha$ ; where  $K_1$  is a constant. See figure 12.

Therefore,  $x = Kc = K K_1 \cos \alpha$ ;

$y = K c_1 = K K_1 \sin \alpha$ , and

$KK_1 = r$ .

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.

The simplest form of a synchronous motor is obtained by winding abominated 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.

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.

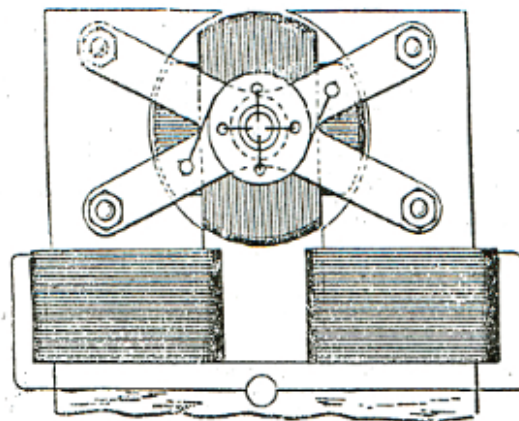


Fig. 13.

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 currents 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.

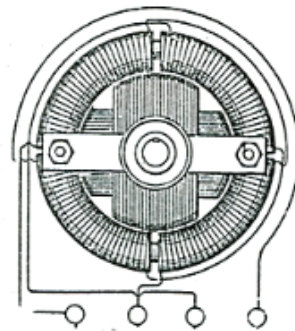


Fig. 14.

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 a 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 n's' 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  $n / n_1$ .

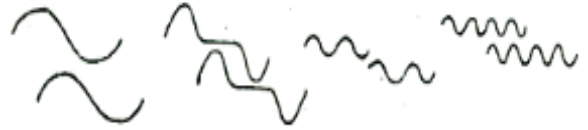


Fig. 18.

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 an 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.

## DISCUSSION

**Mr. Martin**—Professor Anthony, I believe, is here, and as he has given this subject some attention, I think he might very properly supplement Mr. Tesla's paper by some remarks.

**Mr. Tesla**—I want to express once more my best thanks to Professor Anthony for aiding me in many respects, and I hope he will be able to explain many of the features in this system that I was unable to explain at present.

**Professor Anthony**—Mr. President and Gentlemen: I have been referred to as having had something to do with these forms of motors. I am very glad to be able to add my testimony to what Mr. Tesla has already given you in regard to their action, and I confess that

on first seeing the motors the action seemed to me an exceedingly remarkable one. After my first visit to Mr. Tesla's works, some of the motors, I think these very two that you see here on the table, were brought to me to make some tests of their efficiency, and probably you will be more interested in those than in anything else that I might say. I am sorry I have not brought with me the exact figures that we obtained, but I can give you from memory something of the result. This little motor that you see here gave us about half a horse-power, and gave an efficiency of something above 50%, which I considered a very fair efficiency for a motor of this size, as we cannot expect on such small motors to get as high efficiency as we can on larger ones. This, I believe, is the armature that Mr. Tesla calls the armature for high rotary effort. This little pulley, which is only about three inches in diameter, gave a pull of something like fifty pounds, as I remember it on turning on the current, so that you see the rotary effort is very considerable, and that is also shown in the quickness with which the armature will reverse its motion on reversing the relation of the two currents which pass through the two opposite coils. That could be done by shifting two of the wires, or simply shifting a reversing key in one of the circuits, and the armature would stop and reverse its motion so quickly that it was almost impossible to tell when the change took place. This shows also the very considerable rotary effort that the armature presents. This motor (referring to the second specimen) gave us, I think, about 1/4 h.p., and showed a somewhat higher efficiency than the other—a little over 60%. This would run, with the armature as here constructed, almost at the speed of the generator even under a very heavy load. When the load was brought up to the maximum load, where the efficiency began to fall off somewhat, the speed of rotation was reduced. As I remember now, it was reduced to about twenty-eight hundred, and the speed, per sec. kept up very nearly to that of the generator under heavy load.

I can add very little to what Mr. Tesla has already given you in regard to these motors. I have no question but that all of you would be as much interested as I was in seeing them work. That is really the best way in which

to determine what the motors will do.

**Mr. Tesla**—Mr. President and Gentlemen: Professor Anthony Just made the remark that the speed of this motor fell off when the load was increased. That was due to the fact that this armature was designed to secure a strong effort from the start. But if we make an armature which is only designed for synchronism, the speed will always be the same no matter what the load; only there is a disadvantage that at the start the rotary force is so small that it is apt not to start. It would generally start if put in a proper position, but if not put in a proper position it might not start. If we employ an armature consisting of a cut-away block of steel with a coil, it will maintain its speed at all loads. The importance of maintaining the intensity of the pole constant is that if this can be produced we can utilize, instead of the subdivided armature, an ordinary steel block with the same result. It is only desired to close the magnetic field. You can readily see, if the poles are fixed, that it is not necessary to subdivide the armature, if the intensity of the force is constantly maintained the same. But, if the intensity is not maintained the same, then it is necessary to subdivide, and generally in the results that I have obtained I have found that it is necessary to subdivide. I have also observed that in the tests of Professor Anthony the results obtained were superior. I attribute that to the fact that the dynamo has got a powerful field and a small armature and the field is very concentrated, and for that reason probably, the result is nearer a theoretical result.

**Professor Thomson**—I have been very much interested in the description given by Mr. Tesla of his new and admirable little motor. I have, as probably you may be aware, worked in somewhat similar directions, and towards the attainment of similar ends. The trials which I have made have been by the use of a single alternating current circuit—not a double alternating circuit—a single circuit supplying a motor constructed to utilize the alternation and produce rotation. I have carried on since the last annual meeting of the Institute the development and perfecting, as far as my time allowed, of a closed circuited armature—if we may so term it—related to the alternating field. That is, the plan

which I used and which I brought to the notice of the Institute last year, was to make a laminated field and an that field to place an armature also laminated, winding upon the armature a coil which periodically is close circuited during the revolution by a suitable commutator or circuit-closing device. I have made several such motors on different designs and they uniformly start from a state of rest and develop power, and some of them show, at speeds close to the rate of alternations of the dynamo, a tendency to synchronize. Their rotary effort in most cases is a little greater nearer that point than at other points. I hope sometime before a great while to bring most of these results before the notice of the Institute, and I would therefore prefer delaying further remarks on motors of this description. I certainly think there is a field for alternating motors, and there is undoubtedly an opportunity for obtaining motors which possess even some advantages over the continuous current motors.

**Mr. Tesla**—Gentlemen, I wish to say that the testimony of such a man as Professor Thomson, as being foremost in his profession, flatters me very much. I might say that I have worked in the same line with Professor Thomson at a period when the invention of Professor Thomson was not known to me. I had a motor identically the same as that of Professor Thomson but I was anticipated by him. I believe that although that peculiar form of motor represents the disadvantage that a pair of brushes must be employed to short circuit the armature coil, that such a form of motor may be made practicable for the simple reason that a motor represents a transformer, and such a transformer we well know we can bring to a very high efficiency. On the other hand, the armature may be provided with conductors that are of comparatively low resistance, and it is a mere matter of making a perfect arrangement for short circuiting. You will see the advantage of this disposition of the closed circuit coil—that this action is always maintained at the maximum and it is indeed more perfect than if the polarities were shifted by means of a commutator.

## **TESLA REPLIES TO DR. LOUIS DUNCAN, EXPLAINING HIS ALTERNATING CURRENT MOTOR**

To the Editor of Electrical Review:

I find in your issue of last week a note of Mr. Duncan referring to my system of alternate current motors.

As I see that Dr. Duncan has not as yet been made acquainted with the real character of my invention, I cannot consider his article in the light of a serious criticism and would think it unnecessary to respond; but desiring to express my consideration for him and the importance which I attach to his opinion, I will point out here briefly the characteristic features of my invention, inasmuch as they have a direct bearing on the article above referred to.

The principle of action of my motor will be well understood from the following:

By passing alternate currents in proper manner through independent energizing circuits in the motor a progressive shifting or rotation of the poles of the same is effected. This shifting is more or less continuous according to the construction of the motor and the character and relative phase of the currents employed, and I have indicated the theoretical conditions which should exist in order to secure the most perfect action.

If a laminated ring be wound with four coils, and the same be connected in proper order to two independent circuits of an alternate current generator adapted for this purpose, the passage of the currents through the coils produces theoretically a rotation of the poles of the ring, and in actual practice in a series of experiments. I have demonstrated the complete analogy between such a ring and a revolving magnet. From the application of this principle to the operation of motors, two forms of motor of a character widely differing have resulted, one designed for constant and the other for variable load. The misunderstanding of Dr. Duncan is due to the fact that the prominent features of each of these two forms have not been specifically stated. In illustration of a representative of the second class, I refer to Fig. 1, on page 1 of ELECTRICAL REVIEW of May 12th. In

this instance, the armature of the motor is provided with two coils at right angles. As it may be believed that a symmetrical arrangement of the coils with respect to the poles is required. I will assume that the armature is provided with a great number of diametrically wound coils or conductors closed upon themselves, and forming as many independent circuits. Let it now be supposed that the ring is permanently magnetized so as to show two poles (N and S) at two points diametrically opposite, and that it is rotated by mechanical power. The armature being stationary, the rotation of the ring magnet will set up currents in the closed armature coils. These currents will be most intense at or near the points of the greatest density of the force, and they will produce poles upon the armature core at right angles to those of the ring. Of course there will be other elements entering into action which will tend to modify this, but for the present they may be left unconsidered. As far as the location of the poles upon the armature core is concerned, the currents generated in the armature coils will always act in the same manner, and will maintain continuously the poles of the core in the same position, with respect to those of the ring in any position of the latter and independently of the speed. From the attraction between the core and the ring, a continuous rotary effort, constant in all positions, will result, the same as in a continuous current motor with a great number of armature coils. If the armature be allowed; to turn, it will revolve in the direction of rotation of the ring magnet, the induced current diminishing as the speed increases, until upon the armature reaching very nearly the speed of the magnet, just enough current will flow through the coils to keep up the rotation. If, instead of rotating the ring by mechanical power the poles of the same are shifted by the action of the alternate currents in the two circuits, the same results are obtained.

Now compare this system with a continuous current system. In the latter we have alternate currents in the generator and motor coils, and intervening devices for commutating the currents, which on the motor besides effect automatically a progressive shifting or rotation of the poles of the armature; here we have the same elements and identically the same operation,

but without the commutating devices. In view of the fact that these devices are entirely unessential to the operation, such alternate current system will—at least in many respects—show a complete similarity with a continuous current system, and the motor will act precisely like a continuous current motor. If the load is augmented the speed is diminished and the rotary effort correspondingly increased, as more current is made to pass through energizing circuits; load being taken off the speed increases and the current, and consequently the effort, is lessened. The effort, of course, is greatest when the armature is in the state of rest.

But since the analogy is complete, how about the maximum efficiency and current passing through the circuits when the motor is running without any load, one will naturally inquire? It must be remembered that we have to deal with alternate currents. In this form the motor simply represents a transformer in which currents are induced by a dynamic action instead of by reversals, and as it might be expected the efficiency will be maximum at full load. As regards the current, there will be—at least under proper conditions—as wide a variation in its strength as in a transformer, and by observing proper rules, it may be reduced to any desired quantity. Moreover, the current passing through the motor when running free, is no measure for the energy absorbed since the instruments indicate only the numerical sum of the direct and induced electro-motive forces and currents instead of showing their difference.

Regarding the other class of these motors, designed for constant speed, the objections of Dr. Duncan arc, in a measure, applicable to certain constructions, but it should be considered that such motors are not expected to run without any, or with a very light load, and, if so, they do not, when properly constructed, present in this respect any more disadvantage than transformers under similar conditions. Besides, both features, rotary effort and tendency to constant speed, may be combined in a motor, and any desired preponderance may be given to either one, and in this manner a motor may be obtained possessing any desired character and capable of satisfying all possible demand in practice.

In conclusion, I will remark, with all respect to Dr. Duncan, that the advantages claimed for my system are not mere assumptions, but results actually obtained, and that for this purpose experiments have been conducted through a long period, and with an assiduity such as only a deep interest in the invention could inspire; nevertheless, although my motor is the fruit of long labor and careful investigation, I do not wish to claim any other merit beyond that of having invented, and I leave it to men more competent than myself to determine the true laws of the principle and the best mode of its application. What the result of these investigations will be the future will tell; but whatever they may be and to whatever this principle may lead, I shall be sufficiently recompensed if later it will be admitted that I have contributed a share, however small, to the advancement of science.

NIKOLA TESLA

New York, May 26, 1888.

## 2. EXPERIMENTS WITH ALTERNATE CURRENTS OF VERY HIGH FREQUENCY AND THEIR APPLICATION TO METHODS OF ARTIFICIAL ILLUMINATION

*A lecture delivered before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, at Columbia College, N. Y., May 20, 1891.*

There is no subject more captivating, more worthy of study, than nature. To understand this great mechanism, to discover the forces which are active, and the laws which govern them, is the highest aim of the intellect of man.

Nature has stored up in the universe infinite energy. The eternal recipient and transmitter of this infinite energy is the ether. The recognition of the existence of ether, and of the functions it performs, is one of the most important results of modern scientific research. The mere abandoning of the idea of action at a distance,

the assumption of a medium pervading all space and connecting all gross matter, has freed the minds of thinkers of an ever present doubt, and, by opening a new horizon—new and unforeseen possibilities—has given fresh interest to phenomena with which we are familiar of old. It has been a great step towards the understanding of the forces of nature and their multifold manifestations to our senses. It has been for the enlightened student of physics what the understanding of the mechanism of the firearm or of the steam engine is for the barbarian. Phenomena upon which we used to look as wonders baffling explanation, we now see in a different light. The spark of an induction coil, the glow of an incandescent lamp, the manifestations of the mechanical forces of currents and magnets are no longer beyond our grasp; instead of the incomprehensible, as before, their observation suggests now in our minds a simple mechanism, and although as to its precise nature all is still conjecture, yet we know that the truth cannot be much longer hidden, and instinctively we feel that the understanding is dawning upon us. We still admire these beautiful phenomena, these strange forces, but we are helpless no longer; we can in a certain measure explain them,” account for them, and we are hopeful of finally succeeding in unraveling the mystery which surrounds them.

In how far we can understand the world around us is the ultimate thought of every student of nature. The coarseness of our senses prevents us from recognizing the ulterior construction of matter, and astronomy, this grandest and most positive of natural sciences, can only teach us something that happens, as it were, in our immediate neighborhood; of the remoter portions of the boundless universe, with its numberless stars and suns, we know nothing. But far beyond the limit of perception of our senses the spirit still can guide us, and so we may hope that even these unknown worlds—infinately small and great—may in a measure become known to us. Still, even if this knowledge should reach us, the searching mind will find a barrier, perhaps forever unsurpassable, to the true recognition of that which seems to be, the mere appearance of which is the only and slender basis

of all our philosophy.

Of all the forms of nature’s immeasurable, all-pervading energy, which ever and ever changing and moving, like a soul animates the inert universe, electricity and magnetism are perhaps the most fascinating. The effects of gravitation, of heat and light we observe daily, and soon we get accustomed to them, and soon they lose for us the character of the marvelous and wonderful; but electricity and magnetism, with their singular relationship, with their seemingly dual character, unique among the forces in nature, with their phenomena of attractions, repulsions and rotations, strange manifestations of mysterious agents, stimulate and excite the mind to thought and research. What is electricity, and what is magnetism? These questions have been asked again and again. \*The most able intellects have ceaselessly wrestled with the problem; still the question has not as yet been fully answered. But while we cannot even to-day state what these singular forces are, we have made good headway towards the solution of the problem. We are now confident that electric and magnetic phenomena are attributable to ether, and we are perhaps justified in saying that the effects of static electricity are effects of ether under strain, and those of dynamic electricity and electro-magnetism effects of ether in motion. But this still leaves the question, as to what electricity and magnetism are, unanswered.

First, we naturally inquire, What is electricity, and is there such a thing as electricity? In interpreting electric phenomena, we may speak of electricity or of an electric condition, state or effect. If we speak of electric effects we must distinguish two such effects, opposite in character and neutralizing each other, as observation shows that two such opposite effects exist. This is unavoidable, for in a medium of the properties of ether, we cannot possibly exert a strain, or produce a displacement or motion of any kind, without causing in the surrounding medium an equivalent and opposite effect. But if we speak of electricity, meaning a thing, we must, I think, abandon the idea of two electricities, as the existence of two such things is highly improbable. For how can we imagine that there should be two things, equivalent



in amount, alike in their properties, but of opposite character, both clinging to matter, both attracting and completely neutralizing each other? Such an assumption, though suggested by many phenomena, though most convenient for explaining them, has little to commend it. If there is such a thing as electricity, there can be only one such thing, and, excess and want of that one thing, possibly; but more probably its condition determines the positive and negative character. The old theory of Franklin, though falling short in some respects, is, from a certain point of view, after all, the most plausible one. Still, in spite of this, the theory of the two electricities is generally accepted, as it apparently explains electric phenomena in a more satisfactory manner. But a theory which better explains the facts is not necessarily true. Ingenious minds will invent theories to suit observation, and almost every independent thinker has his own views on the subject.

It is not with the object of advancing an opinion, but with the desire of acquainting you better with some of the results, which I will describe, to show you the reasoning I have followed, the departures I have made—that I venture to express, in a few words, the views and convictions which have led me to these results.

I adhere to the idea that there is a thing which we have been in the habit of calling electricity. The question is, What is that thing? or, What, of all things, the existence of which we know, have we the best reason to call electricity? We know that it acts like an incompressible fluid; that there must be a constant quantity of it in nature; that it can be neither produced nor destroyed; and, what is more important, the electromagnetic theory of light and all facts observed teach us that electric and ether phenomena are identical. The idea at once suggests itself, therefore, that electricity might be called ether. In fact, this view has in a certain sense been advanced by Dr. Lodge. His interesting work has been read by everyone, and many have been convinced by his arguments. His great ability and the interesting nature of the subject, keep the reader spellbound; but when the impressions fade, one realizes that he has to deal only with ingenious explanations. I must confess,

that I cannot believe in two electricities, much less in a doubly-constituted ether. The puzzling behavior of the ether as a solid to waves of light and heat, and as a fluid to the motion of bodies through it, is certainly explained in the most natural and satisfactory manner by assuming it to be in motion, as Sir William Thomson has suggested; but regardless of this, there is nothing which would enable us to conclude with certainty that, while a fluid is not capable of transmitting transverse vibrations of a few hundred or thousand per second, it might not be capable of transmitting such vibrations when they range into hundreds of million millions per second. Nor can anyone prove that there are transverse ether waves emitted from an alternate current machine, giving a small number of alternations per second; to such slow disturbances, the ether, if at rest, may behave as a true fluid.

Returning to the subject, and bearing in mind that the existence of two electricities is, to say the least, highly improbable, we must remember, that we have no evidence of electricity, nor can we hope to get it, unless gross matter is present. Electricity, therefore, cannot be ailed ether in the broad sense of the term; but nothing would seem to stand in the way of ailing electricity ether associated with matter, or bound ether; or, in other words, that the so-called static charge of the molecule is ether associated in some way with the molecule. Looking at it in that light, we would be justified in saying, that electricity is concerned in all molecular actions.

Now, precisely what the ether surrounding the molecules is, wherein it differs from ether in general, can only be conjectured. It cannot differ in density, ether being incompressible; it must, therefore, be under some strain or in motion, and the latter is the most probable. To understand its functions, it would be necessary to have an exact idea of the physical construction of matter, of which, of course, we can only form a mental picture.

But of all the views on nature, the one which assumes one matter and one force, and a perfect uniformity throughout, is the most scientific and most likely to be true. An infinitesimal world, with the molecules and their atoms spinning and moving in orbits, in much the

same manner as celestial bodies, carrying with them and probably spinning with them ether, or in other words, carrying with them static charges, seems to my mind the most probable view, and one which, in a plausible manner, accounts for most of the phenomena observed. The spinning of the molecules and their ether sets up the ether tensions or electrostatic strains; the equalization of ether tensions sets up ether motions or electric currents, and the orbital movements produce the effects of electro and permanent magnetism.

About fifteen years ago, Prof. Rowland demonstrated a most interesting and important fact, namely, that a static charge carried around produces the effects of an electric current. Leaving out of consideration the precise nature of the mechanism, which produces the attraction and repulsion of currents, and conceiving the electrostatically charged molecules in motion, this experimental, fact gives us a fair idea of magnetism. We can conceive lines or tubes of force which physically exist, being formed of rows of directed moving molecules; we can see that these lines must be closed, that they must tend to shorten and expand, etc. It likewise explains in a reasonable way, the most puzzling phenomenon of all, permanent magnetism, and, in general, has all the beauties of the Ampere theory without possessing the vital defect of the same, namely, the assumption of molecular currents. Without enlarging further upon the subject, I would say, that I look upon all electrostatic, current and magnetic phenomena as being due to electrostatic molecular forces.

The preceding remarks I have deemed necessary to a full understanding of the subject as it presents itself to my mind.

Of all these phenomena the most important to study are the current phenomena, on account of the already extensive and ever-growing use of currents for industrial purposes. It is now a century since the first practical source of current was produced, and, ever since, the phenomena which accompany the flow of currents have been diligently studied, and through the untiring efforts of scientific men the simple laws which govern them have been discovered. But these laws are found to hold good only when the currents are of a steady

character. When the currents are rapidly varying in strength, quite different phenomena, often unexpected, present themselves, and quite different laws hold good, which even now have not been determined as fully as is desirable, though through the work, principally, of English scientists, enough knowledge has been gained on the subject to enable us to treat simple cases which now present themselves in daily practice.

The phenomena which are peculiar to the changing character of the currents are greatly exalted when the rate of change is increased, hence the study of these currents is considerably facilitated by the employment of properly constructed apparatus. It was with this and other objects in view that I constructed alternate current machines capable of giving more than two million reversals of current per minute, and to this circumstance it is principally due, that I am able to bring to your attention some of the results thus far reached, which I hope will prove to be a step in advance on account of their direct bearing upon one of the most important problems, namely, the production of a practical and efficient source of light.

The study of such rapidly alternating currents is very interesting. Nearly every experiment discloses something new. Many results may, of course, be predicted, but many more are unforeseen. The experimenter makes many interesting observations. For instance, we take a piece of iron and hold it against a magnet. Starting from low alternations and running up higher and higher we feel the impulses succeed each other faster and faster, get weaker and weaker, and finally disappear. We then observe a continuous pull; the pull, of course, is not continuous; it only appears so to us; our sense of touch is imperfect.

We may next establish an arc between the electrodes and observe, as the alternations rise, that the note which accompanies alternating arcs gets shriller and shriller, gradually weakens, and finally ceases. The air vibrations, of course, continue, but they are too weak to be perceived; our sense of hearing fails us.

We observe the small physiological effects, the rapid heating of the iron cores and conductors, curious

inductive effects, interesting condenser phenomena, and still more interesting light phenomena with a high tension induction coil. All these experiments and observations would be of the greatest interest to the student, but their description would lead me too far from the principal subject. Partly for this reason, and partly on account of their vastly greater importance, I will confine myself to the description of the light effects produced by these currents.

In the experiments to this end a high tension, induction coil or equivalent apparatus for converting currents of comparatively low into currents of high tension is used.

If you will be sufficiently interested in the results I shall describe as to enter into an experimental study of this subject; if you will be convinced of the truth of the arguments I shall advance—your aim will be to produce high frequencies and high potentials; in other words, powerful electrostatic effects. You will then encounter many difficulties, which, if completely overcome, would allow us to produce truly wonderful results.

First will be met the difficulty of obtaining the required frequencies by means of mechanical apparatus, and, if they be obtained otherwise, obstacles of a different nature will present themselves. Next it will be found difficult to provide the requisite insulation without considerably increasing the size of the apparatus, for the potentials required are high, and, owing to the rapidity of the alternations, the insulation presents peculiar difficulties. So, for instance, when a gas is present, the discharge may work, by the molecular bombardment of the gas and consequent heating, through as much as an inch of the best solid insulating material, such as glass, hard rubber, porcelain, sealing wax, etc; in fact, through any known insulating substance. The chief requisite in the insulation of the apparatus is, therefore, the exclusion of any gaseous matter.

In general my experience tends to show that bodies which possess the highest specific inductive capacity, such as glass, afford a rather inferior insulation to others, which, while they are good insulators, have a much smaller specific inductive capacity, such as oils, for instance, the

dielectric losses being no doubt greater in the former. The difficulty of insulating, of course, only exists when the potentials are excessively high, for with potentials such as a few thousand volts there is no particular difficulty encountered in conveying currents from a machine giving, say, 20,000 alternations per second, to quite a distance. This number of alternations, however, is by far too small for many purposes, though quite sufficient for some practical applications. This difficulty of insulating is fortunately not a vital drawback; it affects mostly the size of the apparatus, for, when excessively high potentials would be used, the light-giving devices would be located not far from the apparatus, and often they would be quite close to it. As the air-bombardment of the insulated wire is dependent on condenser action, the loss may be reduced to a trifle by using excessively thin wires heavily insulated.

Another difficulty will be encountered in the capacity and self-induction necessarily possessed by the coil. If the coil be large, that is, if it contain a great length of wire, it will be generally unsuited for excessively high frequencies; if it be small, it may be well adapted for such frequencies, but the potential might then not be as high as desired. A good insulator, and preferably one possessing a small specific inductive capacity, would afford a two-fold advantage. First, it would enable us to construct a very small coil capable of withstanding enormous differences of potential; and secondly, such a small coil, by reason of its smaller capacity and self-induction, would be capable of a quicker and more vigorous vibration. The problem then of constructing a coil or induction apparatus of any kind possessing the requisite qualities I regard as one of no small importance, and it has occupied me for a considerable time.

The investigator who desires to repeat the experiments which I will describe, with an alternate current machine, capable of supplying currents of the desired frequency, and an induction coil, will do well to take the primary coil out and mount the secondary in such a manner as to be able to look through the tube upon which the secondary is wound. He will then be able to observe the streams which pass from the primary to the insulating



tube, and from their intensity he will know how far he can strain the coil. Without this precaution he is sure to injure the insulation. This arrangement permits, however, an easy exchange of the primaries, which is desirable in these experiments.

The selection of the type of machine best suited for the purpose must be left to the judgment of the experimenter. There are here illustrated three distinct types of machines, which, besides others, I have used in my experiments.

Fig. 1 represents the machine used in my experiments before this Institute. The field magnet consists of a ring of wrought iron with 384 pole projections. The armature comprises a steel disc to which is fastened a thin, carefully welded rim of wrought iron. Upon the rim are wound several layers of fine, well annealed iron wire, which, when wound, is passed through shellac. The armature wires are wound around brass pins, wrapped with silk thread. The diameter of the armature wire in this type of machine should not be more than  $\frac{1}{6}$  of the thickness of the pole projections, else the local action will be considerable.

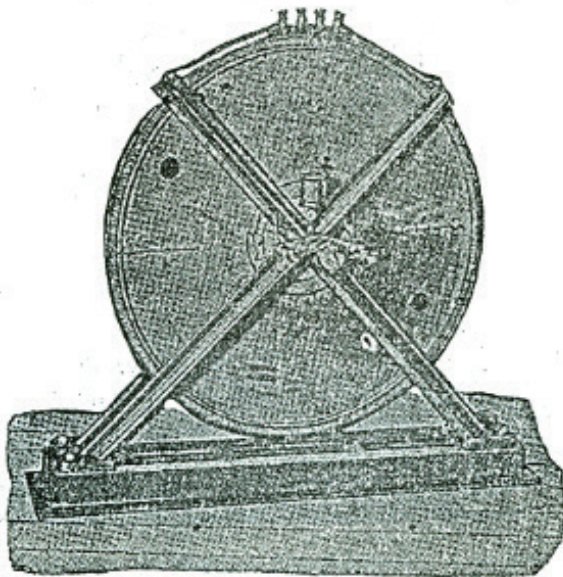


Fig. 1.

Fig. 2 represents a larger machine of a different type. The field magnet of this machine consists of two like

parts which either enclose an exciting coil, or else are independently wound. Each part has 480 pole projections, the projections of one facing those of the other. The armature consists of a wheel of hard bronze, carrying the conductors which revolve between the projections of the field magnet. To wind the armature conductors, I have found it most convenient to proceed in the following manner. I construct a ring of hard bronze of the required size. This ring and the rim of the wheel are provided with the proper number of pins, and both fastened upon a plate. The armature conductors being wound, the pins are cut off and the ends of the conductors fastened by two rings which screw to the bronze ring and the rim of the wheel, respectively. The whole may then be taken off and forms a solid structure. The conductors in such a type of machine should consist of sheet copper, the thickness of which, of course, depends on the thickness of the pole projections; or else twisted thin wires should be employed.

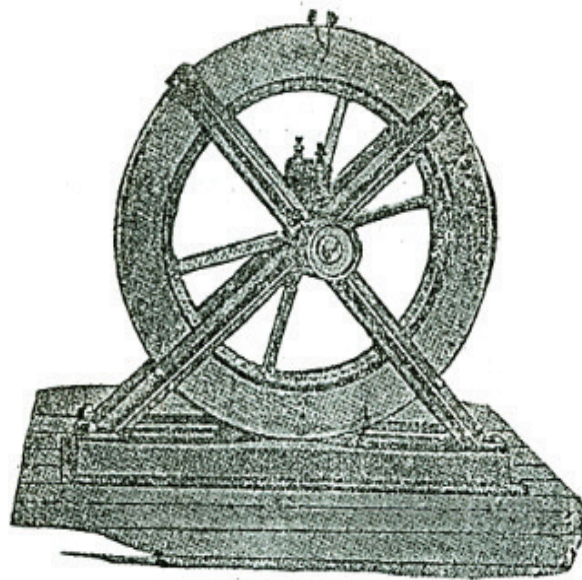


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3 is a smaller machine, in many respects similar to the former, only here the armature conductors and the exciting coil are kept stationary, while only a block of wrought iron is revolved.

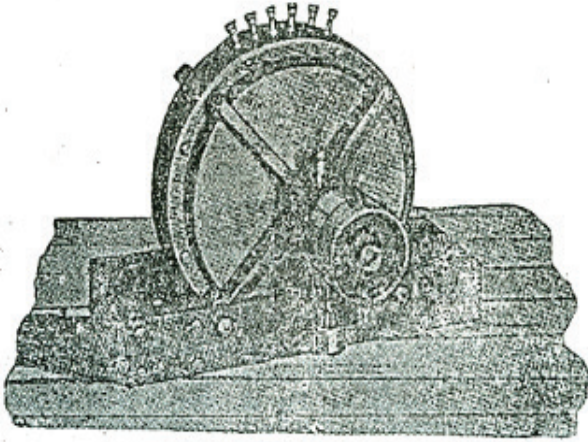


Fig. 3.

It would be uselessly lengthening this description were I to dwell more on the details of construction of these machines. Besides, they have been described somewhat more elaborately in *The Electrical Engineer*, of March 18, 1891. I deem it well, however, to call the attention of the investigator to two things, the importance of which, though self evident, he is nevertheless apt to underestimate; namely, to the local action in the conductors which must be carefully avoided, and to the clearance, which must be small. I may add, that since it is desirable to use very high peripheral speeds, the armature should be of very large diameter in order to avoid impracticable belt speeds. Of the several types of these machines which have been constructed by me, I have: found that the type illustrated in Fig. 1 caused me the least trouble in construction, as well as in maintenance, and on the whole, it has been a good experimental machine.

In operating an induction coil with very rapidly alternating currents, among the first luminous phenomena noticed are naturally those presented by the high-tension discharge. As the number of alternations per second is increased, or as—the number being high—the current through the primary is varied, the discharge gradually changes in appearance. It would be difficult to describe the minor changes which occur, and the conditions which bring them about, but one may note five distinct forms of the discharge.

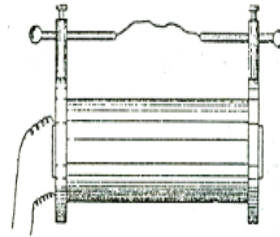


Fig. 4a.

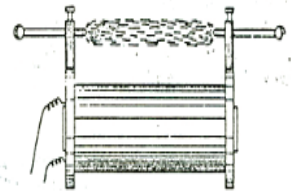


Fig. 4b.

First, one may observe a weak, sensitive discharge in the form of a thin, feeble-colored thread (Fig. 4a). It always occurs when, the number of alternations per second being high, the current through the primary is very small. In spite of the excessively small current, the rate of change is great, and the difference of potential at the terminals of the secondary is therefore considerable, so that the arc is established at great distances; but the quantity of “electricity” set in motion is insignificant, barely sufficient to maintain a thin, threadlike arc. It is excessively sensitive and may be made so to such a degree that the mere act of breathing near the coil will affect it, and unless it is perfectly well protected from currents of air, it wriggles around constantly. Nevertheless, it is in this form excessively persistent, and when the terminals are approached to, say, one-third of the striking distance, it can be blown out only with difficulty. This exceptional persistency, when short, is largely due to the arc being excessively thin; presenting, therefore, a very small surface to the blast. Its great sensitiveness, when very long, is probably due to the motion of the particles of dust suspended in the air.

When the current through the primary is increased, the discharge gets broader and stronger, and the effect of the capacity of the coil becomes visible until, finally, under proper conditions, a white flaming arc, Fig. 4b, often as thick as one’s finger, and striking across the whole coil, is produced. It develops remarkable heat, and may be further characterized by the absence of the high note which accompanies the less powerful discharges. To take a shock from the coil under these conditions would not be advisable, although under different conditions, the potential being much higher, a shock from the coil may be taken with impunity. To produce this kind of

discharge the number of alternations per second must not be too great for the coil used; and, generally speaking, certain relations between capacity, self-induction and frequency must be observed.

The importance of these elements in an alternate current circuit is now well-known, and under ordinary conditions, the general rules are applicable. But in an induction coil exceptional conditions prevail. First, the self-induction is of little importance before the arc is established, when it asserts itself, but perhaps never as prominently as in ordinary alternate current circuits, because the capacity is distributed all along the coil, and by reason of the fact that the coil usually discharges through very great resistances; hence the currents are exceptionally small. Secondly, the capacity goes on increasing continually as the potential rises, in consequence of absorption which takes place to a considerable extent. Owing to this there exists no critical relationship between these quantities, and ordinary rules would not seem to be applicable. As the potential is increased either in consequence of the increased frequency or of the increased current through the primary, the amount of the energy stored becomes greater and greater, and the capacity gains more and more in importance. Up to a certain point the capacity is beneficial, but after that it begins to be an enormous drawback. It follows from this that each coil gives the best result with ...a given frequency and primary current. A very large coil, when operated with currents of very high frequency, may not give as much as 1/s inch spark. By adding capacity to the terminals, the condition may be improved, but what the coil really wants is a lower frequency.

When the flaming discharge occurs, the conditions are evidently such that the greatest current is made to flow through the circuit. These conditions may be attained by varying the frequency within wide limits, but the highest frequency at which the flaming arc can still be produced, determines, for a given primary current, the maximum striking distance of the coil. In the flaming discharge the *eclat* effect of the capacity is not perceptible; the rate at which the energy is being stored then just

equals the rate at which it can be disposed of through the circuit. This kind of discharge is the severest test for a coil; the break, when it occurs, is of the nature of that in an overcharged Leyden jar. To give a rough approximation I would state that, with an ordinary coil of, say, 10,000 ohms resistance, the most powerful are would be produced with about 12,000 alternations per second.

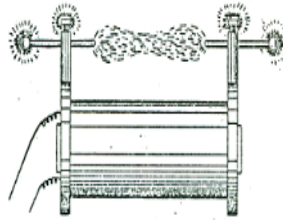


Fig. 5.

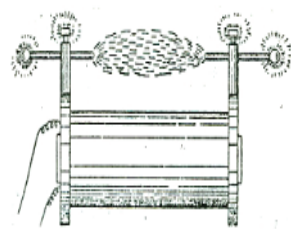


Fig. 6.

When the frequency is increased beyond that rate, the potential, of course, rises, but the striking distance may, nevertheless, diminish, paradoxical as it may seem. As the potential rises the coil attains more and more the properties of a static machine, until, finally, one may observe the beautiful phenomenon of the streaming discharge, Fig. 5, which may be produced across the whole length of the coil. At that stage streams begin to issue freely from all points and projections. These streams will also be seen to pass in abundance in the space between the primary and the insulating tube. When the potential is excessively high they will always appear, even if the frequency be low, and even if the primary be surrounded by as much as an inch of wax, hard rubber, glass, or any other insulating substance. This limits greatly the output of the coil, but I will later show how I have been able to overcome to a considerable extent this disadvantage in the ordinary coil

Besides the potential, the intensity of the streams depends on the frequency; but if the coil be very large they show themselves, no matter how low the frequencies used. For instance, in a very large coil of a resistance of 67,000 ohms, constructed by me some time ago, they appear with as low as 100 alternations per second and less, the insulation of the secondary being 3/4 inch of ebonite. When very intense they produce a noise similar



to that produced by the charging of a Holtz machine, but much more powerful, and they emit a strong smell of ozone. The lower the frequency, the more apt they are to suddenly injure the coil. With excessively high frequencies they may pass freely without producing any other, effect than to heat the insulation slowly and uniformly, the existence of these streams shows the importance of constructing an expensive coil so as to permit of one's seeing through the tube surrounding the primary, and the latter should be easily exchangeable; or else the space between the primary and secondary should be completely filled up with insulating material so as to exclude all air.

The non-observance of this simple rule in the construction of commercial coils is responsible for the destruction of many an expensive coil.

At the stage when the streaming discharge occurs, or with somewhat higher frequencies, one may, by approaching the terminals quite nearly, and regulating properly the effect of capacity, produce a veritable spray of small silver-white sparks, or a bunch of excessively thin silvery threads (Fig. 6) amidst a powerful brush—each spark or thread possibly corresponding to one alternation. This, when produced under proper conditions, is probably the most beautiful discharge, and when an air blast is directed against it, it presents a singular appearance. The spray of sparks, when received through the body, causes some inconvenience, whereas, when the discharge simply streams, nothing at all is likely to be felt if large conducting objects are held in the hands to protect them from receiving small burns.

If the frequency is still more increased, then the coil refuses to give any spark unless at comparatively small distances, and the fifth typical form of discharge may be observed (Fig. 7). The tendency to stream out and dissipate is then so great that when the brush is produced at one terminal no sparking occurs, even if, as I have repeatedly tried, the hand, or any conducting object, is held within the stream; and, what is more singular, the luminous stream is not at all easily deflected by the approach of a conducting body.

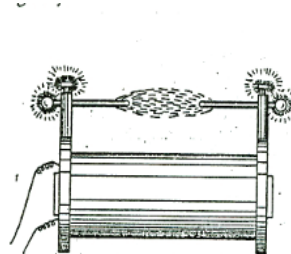


Fig. 7.

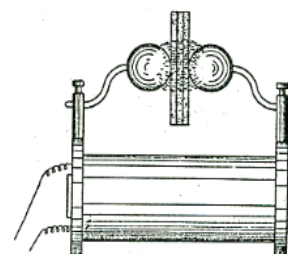


Fig. 8.

At this stage the streams seemingly pass with the greatest freedom through considerable thicknesses of insulators, and it is particularly interesting to study their behavior. For this purpose it is convenient to connect to the terminals of the coil two metallic spheres which may be placed at any desired distance, Fig. 8. Spheres are preferable to plates, as the discharge can be better observed. By inserting dielectric bodies between the spheres, beautiful discharge phenomena may be observed. If the spheres be quite close and the spark be playing between them, by interposing a thin plate of ebonite between the spheres the spark instantly ceases and the discharge spreads into an intensely luminous circle several inches in diameter, provided the spheres are sufficiently large. The passage of the streams heats, and, after a while, softens, the rubber so much that two plates may be made to stick together in this manner. If the spheres are so far apart that no spark occurs, even if they are far beyond the striking distance, by inserting a thick plate of glass the discharge is instantly induced to pass from the spheres to the glass in the form of luminous streams. It appears almost as though these streams pass through the dielectric. In reality this is not the case, as the streams are due to the molecules of the air which are violently agitated in the space between the oppositely charged surfaces of the spheres. When no dielectric other than air is present, the bombardment goes on, but is too weak to be visible; by inserting a dielectric the inductive effect is much increased, and besides, the projected air molecules find an obstacle and the bombardment becomes so intense that the streams become luminous. If by any mechanical means we could effect such violent agitation of the molecules we could produce the same phenomenon. A jet of air

escaping through a small hole under enormous pressure and striking against an insulating substance, such as glass, may be luminous in the dark, and it might be possible to produce a phosphorescence of the glass or other insulators in this manner.

The greater the specific inductive capacity of the interposed dielectric, the more powerful the effect produced. Owing to this, the streams show themselves with excessively high potentials even if the glass be as much as one and one-half to two inches thick. But besides the heating due to bombardment, some heating goes on undoubtedly in the dielectric, being apparently greater in glass than in ebonite. I attribute this to the greater specific inductive capacity of the glass, in consequence of which, with the same potential difference, a greater amount of energy is taken up in it than in rubber. It is like connecting to a battery a copper and a brass wire of the same dimensions. The copper wire, though a more perfect conductor, would heat more by reason of its taking more current. Thus what is otherwise considered a virtue of the glass is here a defect. Glass usually gives way much quicker than ebonite; when it is heated to a certain degree, the discharge suddenly breaks through at one point, assuming then the ordinary form of an arc.

The heating effect produced by molecular bombardment of the dielectric would, of course, diminish as the pressure of the air is increased, and at enormous pressure it would be negligible, unless the frequency would increase correspondingly.

It will be often observed in these experiments that when the spheres are beyond the striking distance, the approach of a glass plate, for instance, may induce the spark to jump between the spheres. This occurs when the capacity of the spheres is somewhat below the critical value which gives the greatest difference of potential at the terminals of the coil. By approaching a dielectric, the specific inductive capacity of the space between the spheres is increased, producing the same effect as if the capacity of the spheres were increased. The potential at the terminals may then rise so high that the air space is cracked. The experiment is best performed with dense glass or mica.

Another interesting observation is that a plate of insulating material, when the discharge is passing through it, is strongly attracted by either of the spheres, that is by the nearer one, this being obviously due to the smaller mechanical effect of the bombardment on that side, and perhaps also to the greater electrification.

From the behavior of the dielectrics in these experiments, we may conclude that the best insulator for these rapidly alternating currents would be the one possessing the smallest specific inductive capacity and at the same time one capable of withstanding the greatest differences of potential; and thus two diametrically opposite ways of securing the required insulation are indicated, namely, to use either a perfect vacuum or a gas under great pressure: but the former would be preferable. Unfortunately neither of these two ways is easily carried out in practice.

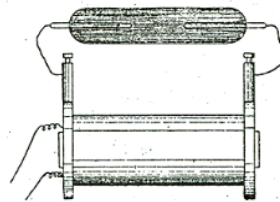


Fig. 9.

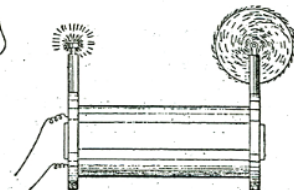


Fig. 10.

It is especially interesting to note the behavior of an excessively high vacuum in these experiments. If a test tube, provided with external electrodes and exhausted to the highest possible degree, be connected to the terminals of the coil, Fig. 9, the electrodes of the tube are instantly brought to a high temperature and the glass at each end of the tube is rendered intensely phosphorescent, but the middle appears comparatively dark, and for a while remains cool.

When the frequency is so high that the discharge shown in Fig. 7 is observed, considerable dissipation no doubt occurs in the coil. Nevertheless the coil may be worked for a long-time, as the heating is gradual.

In spite of the fact that the difference of potential may be enormous, little is felt when the discharge is passed through the body, provided, the hands are armed. This is to some extent due to the higher frequency, but principally to the fact that less energy is available

externally, when the difference of potential reaches an enormous value, owing to the circumstance that, with the rise of potential, the energy absorbed in the coil increases as the square of the potential. Up to a certain point the energy available externally increases with the rise of potential, then it begins to fall off rapidly. Thus, with the ordinary high tension induction coil, the curious paradox exists, that, while with a given current through the primary the shock might be fatal, with many times that current it might be perfectly harmless, even if the frequency be the same. With high frequencies and excessively high potentials when the terminals are not connected to bodies of some size, practically all the energy supplied to the primary is taken up by the coil. There is no breaking through, no local injury, but all the material, insulating and conducting, is uniformly heated.

To avoid misunderstanding in regard to the physiological effect of alternating currents of very high frequency, I think it necessary to state that, while it is an undeniable fact that they are incomparably less dangerous than currents of low frequencies, it should not be thought that they are altogether harmless. What has just been said refers only to currents from an ordinary high tension induction coil, which currents are necessarily very small; if received directly from a machine or from a secondary of low resistance, they produce more or less powerful effects, and may cause serious injury, especially when used in conjunction with condensers.

The streaming discharge of a high tension induction coil differs in many respects from that of a powerful static machine. In color it has neither the violet of the positive, nor the brightness of the negative, static discharge, but lies somewhere between, being, of course, alternatively positive and negative. But since the streaming is more powerful when the point or terminal is electrified positively, than when electrified negatively, it follows that the point of the brush is more like the positive, and the root more like the negative, static discharge. In the dark, when the brush is very powerful, the root may appear almost white. The wind produced by the escaping streams, though it may be very strong—often indeed to such a degree that it may be felt quite a distance from

the coil—is, nevertheless, considering the quantity of the discharge, smaller than that produced by the positive brush of a static machine, and it affects the flame much less powerfully. From the nature of the phenomenon we can conclude that the higher the frequency, the smaller must, of course, be the wind produced by the streams, and with sufficiently high frequencies no wind at all would be produced at the ordinary atmospheric pressures.

With frequencies obtainable by means of a machine, the mechanical effect is sufficiently great to revolve, with considerable speed, large pin-wheels, which in the dark present a beautiful appearance owing to the abundance of the streams (Fig. 10).

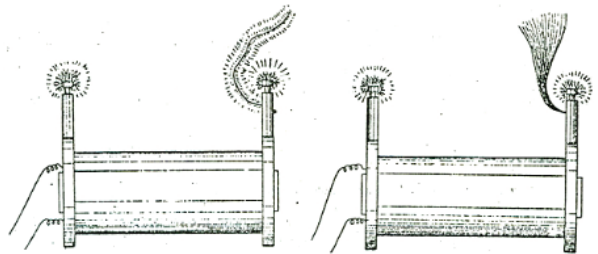


Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.

In general, most of the experiments usually performed with a static machine can be performed with an induction coil when operated with very rapidly alternating currents. The effects produced, however, are much more striking, being of incomparably greater power. When a small length of ordinary cotton covered wire, Fig. 11, is attached to one terminal of the coil, the streams issuing from all points of the wire may be so intense as to produce a considerable light effect. When the potentials and frequencies are very high, a wire insulated with *gutta percha* or rubber and attached to one of the terminals, appears to be covered with a luminous film. A very thin bare wire when attached to a terminal emits powerful streams and vibrates continually to and fro or spins in a circle, producing a singular effect (Fig. 12). Some of these experiments have been described by me in *The Electrical World*, of February 21, 1891.

Another peculiarity of the rapidly alternating discharge of the induction coil is its radically different behavior with respect to points and rounded surfaces.

If a thick wire, provided with a ball at one end and

with a point at the other, be attached to the positive terminal of a static machine, practically all the charge will be lost through the point, on account of the enormously greater tension, dependent on the radius of curvature. But if such a wire is attached to one of the terminals of the induction coil, it will be observed that with very high frequencies streams issue from the ball almost as copiously as from the point (Fig. 13).

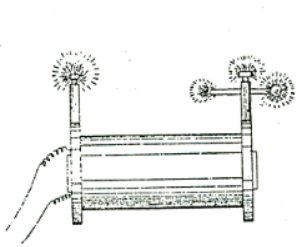


Fig. 13.

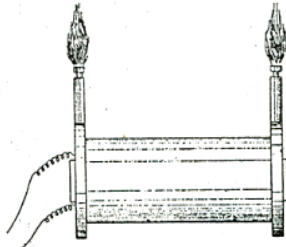


Fig. 14.

It is hardly conceivable that we could produce such a condition to an equal degree in a static machine, for the simple reason, that the tension increases as the square of the density, which in turn is proportional to the radius of curvature; hence, with a steady potential an enormous charge would be required to make streams issue from a polished ball while it is connected with a point. But with an induction coil the discharge of which alternates with great rapidity it is different. Here we have to deal with two distinct tendencies. First, there is the tendency to escape which exists in a condition of rest, and which depends on the radius of curvature; second, there is the tendency to dissipate into the surrounding air by condenser action, which depends on the surface. When one of these tendencies is at a maximum, the other is at a minimum. At the point the luminous stream is principally due to the air molecules coming bodily in contact with the point; they are attracted and repelled, charged and discharged, and, their atomic charges being thus disturbed, vibrate and emit light waves. At the ball, on the contrary, there is no doubt that the effect is to a great extent produced inductively, the air molecules not necessarily coming in contact with the ball, though they undoubtedly do so. To convince ourselves of this we only need to exalt the condenser action, for instance, by enveloping the ball, at some distance, by a better

conductor than the surrounding medium, the conductor being, of course, insulated; or else by surrounding it with a better dielectric and approaching an insulated conductor; in both cases the streams will break forth more copiously. Also, the larger the ball with a given frequency, or the higher the frequency, the more will the ball have the advantage over the point. But, since a certain intensity of action is required to render the streams visible, it is obvious that in the experiment described the ball should not be taken too large.

In consequence of this two-fold tendency, it is possible to produce by means of points, effects identical to those produced by capacity. Thus, for instance, by attaching to one terminal of the coil a small length of soiled wire, presenting many points and offering great facility to escape, the potential of the coil may be raised to the same value as by attaching to the terminal a polished ball of a surface many times greater than that of the wire.

An interesting experiment, showing the effect of the points, may be performed in the following manner: Attach to one of the terminals of the coil a cotton covered wire about two feet in length, and adjust the conditions so that streams issue from the wire. In this experiment the primary coil should be preferably placed so that it extends only about half way into the secondary coil. Now touch the free terminal of the secondary with a conducting object held in the hand, or else connect it to an insulated body of some size. In this manner the potential on the wire may be enormously raised. The effect of this will be either to increase, or to diminish, the streams. If they increase, the wire is too short; if they diminish, it is too 'long. By adjusting the length of the wire, a point is found where the touching of the other terminal does not at all affect the streams. In this case the rise of potential is exactly counteracted by the drop through the coil. It will be observed that small lengths of wire produce considerable difference in the magnitude and luminosity of the streams. The primary coil is placed sidewise for two reasons: first, to increase the potential at the wire; and, second, to increase the drop through the coil. The sensitiveness is thus augmented.

There is still another and far more striking peculiarity





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# NIKOLA TESLA LECTURES & PATENTS

*Nikola Tesla: Lectures and Patents* is one of the first reference works to come out of Belgrade following the arrival of Tesla's inheritance in 1952. Here is a wealth of information in the form of documents drawn from the Nikola Tesla Museum archive, compiled into a single large volume.

The purpose of *Nikola Tesla: Lectures and Patents* is to acquaint the reader with Nikola Tesla's most important works in the numerous fields of science to which he dedicated himself. This book contains two parts: lectures and patents.

The first part contains five of the most important lectures of Nikola Tesla in chronological order. In these lectures, Tesla explained his achievements in the field of high frequencies and high voltages as well as high-frequency oscillators for electro-therapeutic and other purposes.

The second part deals with Nikola Tesla's 112 patents registered at the Patent Office of the United States of America. These patents are divided into select groups, each of which arranged according to its order of registration, and ranging from aircraft, circuit controllers, condensers, high frequency engineering, lighting, meters, motors & generators, power distribution, radiant energy, reciprocating engines, turbo machinery, to wireless technology.

