MISCELLANEOUS.

THE PHYSIOLOGICAL AND OTHER EFFECTS OF HIGH FREQUENCY CURRENTS.

BY

Nikola Tesla

IN THE ELECTRICAL ENGINEER of January 25, 1893, I note an article by Mr. A. A. C. Swinton, referring to my experiments with high frequency currents. Mr. Swinton uses in these experiments the method of converting described by me in my paper before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, in May, 1891, and published in THE ELECTRICAL ENGINEER of July 8, 1891, which has since been employed by a number of experimenters; but it has somewhat surprised me to observe that he makes use of an ordinary vibrating contact-breaker, whereas he could have employed the much simpler method of converting continuous currents into alternating currents of any frequency which was shown by me two years ago. This method does not involve the employment of any moving parts, and allows the experimenter to vary the frequency at will by simple adjustments. I had thought that most electricians were at present familiar with this mode of conversion which possesses many beautiful features.

The effects observed by Mr. Swinton are not new to me and they might have been anticipated by those who have carefully read what I have written on the subject. But I cannot agree with some of the views expressed by him.

First of all, in regard to the physiological effects. I have made a clear statement at the beginning of my published studies, and my continued experience with these currents has only further strengthened me in the opinion then expressed. I stated in my paper, before mentioned, that it is an undeniable fact that currents of very high frequency are less injurious than the low frequency currents, but I have also taken care to prevent the idea from gaining ground that these currents are absolutely harmless, as will be evident from the following quotation: "If received directly from a machine or from a secondary of low resistance, they (high frequency currents) produce more or less powerful effects, and may cause serious injury, especially when used in conjunction with condensers." This refers to currents of ordinary potential differences such as are used in general commercial practice.

As regards the currents of very high potential differences, which were employed in my experiments, I have never considered the current's *strength*, but the *energy* which the human body was capable of receiving without injury, and I have expressed this quite clearly on more than one occasion. For instance, I stated that "the higher the frequency the greater the amount of electrical energy which may be passed through the body without serious discomfort." And on another occasion when a high tension coil was short-circuited though the body of the experimenter I stated that the immunity was due to the fact that less *energy* was available externally to the coil when the experimenter's body joined the terminals. This is practically what Mr. Swinton expresses in another way; namely, by saying that with "high frequency currents it is possible to obtain effects with exceedingly small currents," etc.

In regard to the experiments with lamp filaments, I have, I believe, expressed myself with equal clearness. I have pointed out some phenomena of impedance which at that time (1891) were considered very striking, and I have also pointed out the great importance of the rarefied gas surrounding the filament when we have to deal with currents of such high frequency. The heating of the filament by a comparatively small current is not, as Mr. Swinton thinks, due to its impedance or increased ohmic resistance, but principally to the presence of rarefied gas in the bulb. Ample evidence of the truth of this can be obtained in very many experiments, and to cite them would be merely lengthening this communication unduly.

Likewise, observations made when the experimenter's body was included in the path of the discharge, are, in my opinion, not impedance, but capacity, phenomena. The spark between the hands is the shorter, the larger the surface of the body, and no spark whatever would be obtained if the surface of the body were sufficiently large.

I would here point out that one is apt to fall into the error of supposing that the spark which is produced between two points on a conductor, not very distant from each other, is due to the impedance of the conductor. This is certainly the case when the current is of considerable strength, as for instance when, like in the Faraday experiment or some of Dr. Lodge's, a heavily-charged battery of Leyden jars is discharged through a bent wire. But, when there is a vibration along a wire which is constantly maintained, and the current is inappreciable whereas the potential at the coil terminal is exceedingly high, then lateral dissipation comes into play prominently. There is then, owing to this dissipation, a rapid fall of potential along the wire and high potential differences may exist between points only a short distance apart. This is of course not to be confounded with those differences of potential observed between points when there are fixed waves with ventral and nodal points maintained on a conductor. The lateral dissipation, and not the skin effect, is, I think, the reason why so great an amount of energy may be passed into the body of a person without causing discomfort.

It always affords me great pleasure to note, that something which I have suggested is being employed for some instructive or practical purpose; but I may be pardoned for mentionting that other observations made by Mr. Swinton, and by other experimenters, have recently been brought forward as novel, and arrangements of apparatus which I have suggested have been used repeatedly by some who apparently are in complete ignorance of what I have done in this direction.

ELECTRICAL RECORDING METERS.—II.

BY CARYL D. HASKINS.

There is another device, or perhaps I had better say there might be another device for accomplishing the object of this last meter in a somewhat similar manner. The actinometer is probably familiar to all who have indulged in amateur photography; it consists of a piece of glass covered with small cubes, each cube of a more intense ruby red than the one beyond it, merging, in fact, from an almost clear glass to an almost perfectly non-actinic medium. Now, it suggestd itself to a certain electrician that if a number of these squares were arranged in a piece of glass, one above the other, and a lamp whose light should vary more or less directly with the potential on the lines, be placed before this glass or actinometer, a sensitive film being rotated behind the actinometer at a constant speed, that the varying light of the lamp would draw a curved line, or rather a curved block of light and shade on the paper, which would be measured by a planimeter to get the average voltage, or could be taken at points, to see what the voltage was at certain times; in fact, a recording voltmeter. This device seemed very nice indeed. It had only one fault—it would not work. I might say that the device is my own.

There is almost an endless variety of clock meters. They are not all electricity meters by any means; some are recording voltmeters, others recording ammeters, and others have still different purposes. The familiar recording steam gauge is only a modification of this instrument. A paper is almost invariably rotated over a drum, sometimes being fixed to the drum, and sometimes being drawn from one drum to another, the paper moving at uniform speed, and generally being divided into hours or other fractions of time by abscissæ lines.

This clock mechanism can be combined with any indicating device; it is only necessary to supply the connection which shall cause the indicator to mark the paper, and draw a crooked line. First attempts of this kind are generally made with an ordinary solenoid, or sometimes with a simple coil and iron core rising and falling with the current. Whatever the character of the indicator or method of communication between the indicator and paper, it remained necessary to keep the friction of contact low.

First attempts were made with a pencil, bearing directly upon the paper, but the friction introduced by this device was fatal to accuracy. A glass pen has been substituted for the pencil with better results, but even this caused too much friction. The photographic method of line drawing is one of the best systems yet introduced, and is probably more familiar to the majority of us than other methods, because it forms a component part of the Walker meter which has attracted attention at various times.

One of the best methods of accomplishing the registration, perhaps, when all things are considered, the very best, is to attach to the pointer of the indicator, a steel point or needle with an iron armature mounted in the form of a spring, or in some similar manner. By placing an electromagnet behind the paper to be marked, and sending through this magnet an electrical impulse at fixed periods of say, one, two or five minutes, the pointer is drawn sharply down to the paper, puncturing it, and is immediately released by the cessation of energizing current in the electromagnet. Thus, the paper when removed, will have a continuous marking of punctures tantamount to a curved line. This device presents practically no friction, and is more or less simple and easy to carry out. The make-and-break necessary for the electromagnet is easily actuated by the clock movements. But we may say of these forms, as well as of the forms of clock meter which are to follow, that there is one serious objection to them all—they have to be wound up, which is certainly a fault. We may modify this statement by saying that many of these devices have an electrical attachment which makes them self-winding,