Practical Guide to 'Free-Energy' Devices

Author: Patrick J. Kelly

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Preface

Here is a small amount of background information in order that you can understand the nature of this “Practical Guide to Free-Energy Devices”.

I am just an ordinary person who became interested in “free-energy” as a result of a television programme entitled ‘It Runs on Water’ shown in the 1980s by a UK television company called ‘Channel 4’. From my point of view, the content of this documentary seemed to be rather unsatisfactory as it suggested quite a number of very interesting things but gave no real hard and fast specifics for the viewer to follow up on to investigate the subject further. However, it had the enormous benefit of making me aware that there was such a thing as “free-energy”.

My attempts to find out more were not very successful. I bought paper copies of several of Stan Meyer’s HHO gas patents from the Patent Office in 1986 but while they were interesting, they did not provide much in the way of additional information. Searching on the internet at that time did not produce much more in the way of practical information. Things have changed dramatically since then and there has been an enormous increase in available information. But, even today, it is relatively difficult to find much in the way of direct, useful and practical information on free-energy systems and techniques. Much of the information consists of chatty, lightweight articles describing people, events and inventions in vague, broad outline terms which are almost completely lacking in specifics.

These articles have the style of saying “There is a new invention called a ‘bus’ which is used to carry passengers from place to place. We saw one the other day, it was painted green and blue and looked most attractive. It is driven by Joe Bloggs who wears an engaging smile and a hand-knitted sweater. Joe says that even his children could drive a bus as it is so easy to do. Joe expects to retire in six months time as he is going to take up gold prospecting.” While I’m sure that an article like that is interesting, the sort of description which I would want would be: “There is a new invention called a ‘bus’ which is used to carry passengers from place to place. We saw one the other day, and were very impressed as it has seats for some forty-five people. It has bodywork made of pressed aluminium, a wheel at each corner of its considerable 40’ x 10’ structure, a five litre diesel engine made by the Bosworth Engineering Company of Newtown, and has power-assisted steering, hydraulic brakes and ……”

There are also many articles, scientific papers and books, some of which, quite frankly, I am not able to understand as the authors think mathematically and express themselves in equations (where they frequently do not define the terms which they use in their equations, making them effectively meaningless). I do not think in mathematical equations, so I do not share in this much higher level of thinking and analysis, though I do have some of these papers on my web site for the benefit of visitors who do have the ability to understand them easily.

After a long period of searching and investigating I was beginning to gather enough information to be fairly confident of what was being done, what had already been achieved, and some of the possible background reasons for the effects which were being observed. Early in 2005 I decided that as I had encountered so much difficulty and had to put in so much effort to find out the basics of “free-energy” that it could be helpful to others if I shared what I had found out. So I wrote the first edition of this presentation and created a simple web site to make it available to others. Of course, this body of information is not static – on the contrary, it is very fast-moving. Consequently, this information digest is updated and refined typically many times each year. The present form of presentation is the third style of layout which has been used as the volume of material has increased.

It should be stressed that this information is what I have discovered as part of my interest in the subject and is mainly a reporting on what is being said by other people. I have not built and proved every device described – to do that would take many lifetimes, so please understand that this is just an attempt to aid your own investigation. While it can be proved that some device works as described, through independent replication and verification, the reverse is not true. If someone were to build a device and fail to get it to work as described, then the most that can honestly be said is that an unsuccessful attempt was made to replicate it. It does not, of course, show that the original device did not operate exactly as described, just that the (possibly inept) attempt at replication, was not successful. In some instances, you will see that I have expressed the opinion that the device is not viable, or, as in the case of the ‘Nitro Cell’ that I do think that it does work, but as many people have tried to build it and failed to get the results described, that it can’t be recommended as an investigation project. However, as soon as I said
that, a local man announced that he had made two Nitro Cells and attached them to his two Ford Transit trucks and that resulted in saving him an estimated £500 over the course of two years.

I do not suggest that this set of information covers every possible device, nor that my description is by any means the complete and definitive statement of everything to be known on the subject. The old saying applies here: “If you think you know all the answers, then you just haven’t heard all the questions!” So, this material is just an introduction to the subject and not an encyclopaedia of every known device.

I should like to thank the very large number of people who have most kindly given me their permission to reproduce details of some of their work, providing photographs, checking what I have written, suggesting additions, etc. Also those kind people who have given me permission to reproduce their own works directly on my web sites or in my documents. There seems to be a common thread of concern among many people that shows as a desire to share this information freely rather than to try to make money from selling it, and I thank these people for their generosity.

Many people hold “conspiracy theory” views and believe that there is a concerted effort to suppress this information, and more especially, to prevent free-energy devices reaching the market. Personally, I think that while that is certainly true, much of this opposition may be just the normal reaction of vested commercial interests. If you were making a profit of literally millions per hour, would you welcome the introduction of a system which would eventually cut your income to zero? If not, then how much would you be willing to pay someone to make sure that the present system is never changed – a million? A billion? While this opposition is definitely there and people who stand to lose money and/or power through change will continue to oppose this knowledge, and to a much greater extent, the introduction of any commercial free-energy device, almost the entire focus of the information is on devices – what they do, how they are made and how they may operate when they draw additional energy from the local environment.

Let me stress again, that this set of information is not by any means the final word on the subject, but just an introduction to the subject by a single person who makes no claims to knowing all the answers. Enjoy your research – I hope you are successful in every respect.

Patrick Kelly

April 2008
# Contents

**Index**  .......................................................................................................................... 1

**Introduction**  .................................................................................................................. 1

**Chapter 1: Magnet Power**  
The ShenHe Wang permanent magnet motor-generator ........................................ 1 - 1  
The Ecklin-Brown generator ......................................................................................... 1 - 4  
The Howard Johnson magnet motor ......................................................................... 1 - 8  
The Stephen Kundel permanent magnet motor ....................................................... 1 - 10  
Charles Flynn's permanent magnet motor ................................................................. 1 - 12  
Stein's Magnet Motor .................................................................................................. 1 - 22  
George Soukup's Magnet Motor .............................................................................. 1 - 24  
Dietmar Hohl's V-Magnet Motor and Jes Ascanius' implementation of it ........ 1 - 27  
Constructing a simple permanent magnet motor .................................................... 1 - 28  
Donald Kelly's Magnet Motor .................................................................................. 1 - 34  
Mike Brady's Perendev Magnet Motor ................................................................ 1 - 34  
Magnetic shielding from Pasi Mäkilä ...................................................................... 1 - 35  
The Twin Rotor suggestion ...................................................................................... 1 - 36  
The Permanent Magnet Motor of Victor Diduck ...................................................... 1 - 38

**Chapter 2: Moving Pulsed Systems**  
The Adams Motor/Generator ..................................................................................... 2 - 1  
The Teruo Kawai Motor ............................................................................................. 2 - 14 
The Buie-Morin Power System ............................................................................... 2 - 17  
James Hardy's Water-jet Generator ........................................................................ 2 - 37  
Raoul Hatem's Energy System ............................................................................... 2 - 39  
Lawrence Tseung's COP = 3.3 Pulsed Rotor .......................................................... 2 - 41  
Raising DC Motor Efficiency ................................................................................ 2 - 48  
The Infinity Motor ..................................................................................................... 2 - 58  
Faraday's Homopolar or N-Machine ...................................................................... 2 - 59  
Art Porter's Magnetic device .................................................................................. 2 - 65  
The RotoVerter ......................................................................................................... 2 - 66

**Chapter 3: Motionless Pulsed Systems**  
Charles Flynn's devices ............................................................................................... 3 - 1  
Lawrence Tseung's magnetic frame ......................................................................... 3 - 2  
Thane Heins' dual toroidal magnetic frame .............................................................. 3 - 3  
The high-power Motionless Generator of Clemente Figuera ............................ 3 - 6  
The Zero back-EMF Coils of Alexkor .................................................................. 3 - 9  
The Self-Powered Generators of Barbosa and Leal .............................................. 3 - 15  
The First Barbosa and Leal Replication ................................................................ 3 - 26  
The Ultra-simple Device of Lorrie Matchett .......................................................... 3 - 31  
The Motionless Generator of Theodore Annis and Patrick Eberly ....................... 3 - 38  
Valeri Ivanov's Motionless Generator .................................................................... 3 - 47  
The Motionless Generators of Kelichiro Asaoka .................................................. 3 - 48  
Floyd Sweet's VTA .................................................................................................. 3 - 61  
Pavel Imris’ Optical Generator ............................................................................... 3 - 67  
The Michel Meyer and Yves Mace Isotopic Generator .................................... 3 - 70  
The Colman / Seddon-Gillespie Generator ............................................................ 3 - 71  
Don Smith's Magnetic Resonance System ............................................................. 3 - 73  
A Practical Implementation of One of Don Smith's devices ................................ 3 - 98  
Making a Solid-state Tesla Coil ............................................................................. 3 - 186  
Constructing High-quality Coils .......................................................................... 3 - 190  
Ming Cao's Developments ..................................................................................... 3 - 192  
Russian Developments ............................................................................................ 3 - 197  
Chinese Developer ‘Salty Citrus’ ............................................................................ 3 - 200
Chapter 7: Aerial Systems
Nikola Tesla’s Aerial Plate Power System ............................................................. 7 - 1
The Jes Ascanius replication of Tesla’s Aerial Plate System ............................. 7 - 8
Thomas Henry Moray’s System ................................................................. 7 - 14
Herman Plauson’s System ............................................................................. 7 - 30
The ‘Alexkor’ Aerial System ........................................................................ 7 - 32
The ‘TREC’ Aerial System of Lawrence Rayburn ........................................ 7 - 34

Chapter 8: Fuel-less Motors
The Bob Neal Motor ......................................................................................... 8 - 1
The Scott Robertson air compressor ............................................................ 8 - 4
The Leroy Rogers Motor ............................................................................. 8 - 6
The Eber Van Valkinburg Motor .................................................................. 8 - 21
The Clem Motor ........................................................................................... 8 - 22
The Papp Motor .......................................................................................... 8 - 24
The Robert Britt Motor ................................................................................ 8 - 27
Heinrich Klostermann’s Air Plasma Motor .................................................. 8 - 27

Chapter 9: Passive Systems
Hans Cohler’s device .................................................................................... 9 - 1
Thomas Traweeger’s pyramid ..................................................................... 9 - 3
James Brock’s pyramid ............................................................................... 9 - 17
Les Brown’s pyramid ................................................................................. 9 - 20
Joseph H. Cater’s explanation of how a pyramid actually works ............ 9 - 27
Pier Luigi Ighina’s “ERIM” and “Elios” passive devices ............................. 9 - 29
The Joe Cell .................................................................................................. 9 - 33
The Italian B.A.C. Coil ............................................................................... 9 - 64
Co-axial Cable Electrets ............................................................................ 9 - 65
Dan Davidson’s Research ......................................................................... 9 - 67

Chapter 10: Vehicle Systems
Booster design ............................................................................................. 10 - 1
Simple DC boosters .................................................................................... 10 - 2
The “Smack’s” booster .............................................................................. 10 - 17
The “Hotsabi” booster ............................................................................... 10 - 17
Controlling the Oxygen Sensor .................................................................. 10 - 18
The Zach West booster .............................................................................. 10 - 39
Bill Williams’ “DuPlex” booster ................................................................. 10 - 48
The ‘Hogg’ Electrolyser ............................................................................. 10 - 49
AVA Magnetic Levitation’s Spiral booster ............................................... 10 - 54
Advanced Boosters ..................................................................................... 10 - 61
The Bob Boyce DC electrolyser ................................................................. 10 - 62
Pulsed Water-Splitters .............................................................................. 10 - 102
Dave Lawton’s Meyer Replication ............................................................... 10 - 103
Dr Cramton’s water-splitter ....................................................................... 10 - 122
Bob Boyce’s Toroidal water-splitter ............................................................ 10 - 128
Resonance Water-Splitting ..................................................................... 10 - 129
Dave Lawton’s Auto-Tune Circuit ............................................................... 10 - 130
Running an Electrical Generator on Water Alone ...................................... 10 - 131
Running an Unmodified Generator on Water Alone ................................... 10 - 156
Stan Meyer’s Water Injection System ........................................................ 10 - 160
Peter Lindemann running a lawnmower on water alone ....................... 10 - 165
Peter Lowrie’s High-Current Electrolyser System .................................. 10 - 166
Water use in engines ................................................................................ 10 - 167
Ted Ewert’s Vortex Tube ......................................................................... 10 - 170
Cam timing Issues ..................................................................................... 10 - 175
Robert Krupa’s ‘FireStorm’ Spark Plug ..................................................... 10 - 176
Plasma Ignition ......................................................................................... 10 - 177
Roger Maynard’s Water Vapour Injection System ..................................... 10 - 178
“Fuelsavers” streamlining ........................................................................ 10 - 180
The Ram Implosion Wing ......................................................................... 10 - 180
Chapter 13: Doubtful Devices
Paul Baumann's “Thestakia” ................................................................. 13 - 1
The Homopolar or “N-Machine” ......................................................... 13 - 4
The “Romag” and “Mini-Romag” Generators ...................................... 13 - 8
The Frolov / Moller's Atomic Hydrogen Generator ............................. 13 - 11
Jesse McQueen ................................................................................. 13 - 12
The Nitro Cell (“D18”) ..................................................................... 13 - 16
The HydroStar and HydroGen .......................................................... 13 - 29
Hydrogen from Aluminium ............................................................... 13 - 33
Francois Cornish ............................................................................. 13 - 34
Dave Lawton’s assymetric MEG variation ......................................... 13 - 35
The Devices of Hans Coler ............................................................... 13 - 38

Chapter 14: Renewable Energy Devices
Heaters ............................................................................................. 14 - 1
The Wood-gas Stove ....................................................................... 14 - 1
Mr Teslonian’s wood-gas stove / electrical generator / fuel producer ... 14 - 4
The solid-fuel electricity stove ......................................................... 14 - 5
Henry Paine’s HHO patent ................................................................ 14 - 7
Sang Nam Kim’s HHO heaters ....................................................... 14 - 7
The H-Cat HHO heater from Justin Church ...................................... 14 - 10
Eugene Frenette ............................................................................... 14 - 11
Eugene Perkins ................................................................................ 14 - 12
The re-wired halogen heater .......................................................... 14 - 15
William McDavid’s Wind-Power or Water-Power Generator .......... 14 - 15
Frank Herbert’s Wind Generator .................................................... 14 - 17
Mead and Holmes Power System ................................................... 14 - 19
Solar Ovens ..................................................................................... 14 - 19
Solar Water Pasteurisation .............................................................. 14 - 36
Solar Water Stills ............................................................................ 14 - 45
Water purity and quality ............................................................... 14 - 53
Making Colloidal Silver ................................................................ 14 - 60
Agriculture ...................................................................................... 14 - 62
Kimbal Musk’s “Urban Farming Accelerator” .................................. 14 - 63
Toribio Bellocq’s Water Pump .......................................................... 14 - 64
Richard Dickinson’s Water Pump .................................................... 14 - 65
Arthur Bentley’s Water Pump .......................................................... 14 - 66
The Self-powered Ram Pump .......................................................... 14 - 67
Discouraging mosquitoes and small flies ...................................... 14 - 69
Wave Power .................................................................................... 14 - 70
Cooling Using Heat ........................................................................ 14 - 74
Solar Panels .................................................................................... 14 - 76
Lighting for Africa .......................................................................... 14 - 106
Manoj Bhargava’s energy system .................................................... 14 - 110
Low-cost Cooling Systems ............................................................. 14 - 112
Sensible Building – Earthships .......................................................... 14 - 117

Chapter 15: A Simple Generator
Building a simple generator ........................................................... 15 - 1

Chapter 16: Avoiding Lenz’s Law
An examination of the difficulty ...................................................... 16 - 1

Chapter 17: Building a Simple Generator
Suggestions for building a flywheel generator ............................... 17 - 1

Chapter 18: Building an Advanced Flywheel Generator
Suggestions for building an advanced flywheel generator ............... 18 - 1

Chapter 19: Building a Small Self-Powered Generator
Suggestions for building an advanced flywheel generator ............... 19 - 1
Chapter 20: Health
Methods of home treatment which have proved effective ........................................ 20 - 1

Chapter 21: Reversing Genetic Modification
A method of returning seed to its original healthy state ........................................ 21 - 1

Chapter 22: The Sabourin Generator
Self-powered generator which charges a mobile phone overnight .......................... 22 - 1

Appendix
US and UK Wire sizes and capacities ................................................................. A - 1
Howard Johnson’s permanent magnet motor patent ................................................. A - 2
The Pavel Imris minimal power lighting system patent ........................................... A - 10
The Colman/Seddon-Gillespie 70-year battery patent ........................................... A - 19
The Jon Sok An Lenz-less electrical generator patent ............................................ A - 23
The Molina Martinez self-powered electrical generator patent ............................. A - 36
Michael Ognyanov’s solid-state electrical generator patent ................................... A - 49
Edwin Gray’s electric motor patent ...................................................................... A - 55
Edwin Gray’s electric power supply patent ........................................................ A - 74
The Adams-Aspden electrical motor-generator patent ........................................... A - 80
William Barbat’s self-powered electrical generator patent .................................... A - 94
John Reardon’s AC generator patent ................................................................... A - 126
Geoffrey Spence’s self-powered electrical generator patent ................................ A - 143
Robert Alexander’s COP = 2.93 electrical generator patent ............................... A - 156
Shigeki Hayasaka’s electrical generator patent ..................................................... A - 162
Larry Jamison’s electrical generator patent application ...................................... A - 175
Teruo Kawai’s COP=1 electric motor patent ......................................................... A - 181
Joseph Newman’s Energy Generator patent ....................................................... A - 202
Charles Flynn’s controlled magnetic devices patent ............................................. A - 216
Dan Davidson’s acoustic-magnetic electrical generator patent ............................ A - 285
John Bedini’s battery-charging patent ................................................................ A - 291
John Bedini’s motor-generator patent ................................................................ A - 302
John Bedini’s pulse-charging system patent ......................................................... A - 313
Hermann Plauson’s aerial power systems patent .................................................... A - 325
Roy Meyers’ Electricity-producing device patent .................................................. A - 364
Paulo and Alexandra Correa’s energy conversion patent ..................................... A - 372
Stanley Meyer’s Water Fuel patent 4,936,961 ......................................................... A - 401
Stanley Meyer’s hydrogen injection system for vehicles patent 4,389,981 ........ A - 407
Stanley Meyer’s hydrogen gas burner patent 4,421,474 ....................................... A - 417
Stanley Meyer’s hydrogen generation and enhancement patent 5,149,407 .... A - 422
Stanley Meyer’s water fuel generator patent CA 2,067,735 .................................. A - 439
Stanley Meyer’s WFC control circuitry patent WO 92/07881 .............................. A - 450
Stephen Meyer’s water-splitting patent application 2005/0246059 .................. A - 459
Henry Puhanich’s water-splitting patent 4,392,230 ............................................. A - 467
Shigeta Hasebe’s spiral electrolyser patent ......................................................... A - 497
Stephen Chambers’ hydroxy generator patent (Xogen Power Inc.) ................. A - 503
Charles Garrett’s water carburettor patent ......................................................... A - 518
Archie Blue’s electrolyser patent ...................................................................... A - 526
Juan Aguero’s water-engine patent application .................................................. A - 531
Stephen Horvath’s water-powered car patent ..................................................... A - 536
Christopher Eccles’ water-splitting cell patent ............................................... A - 561
Spiro Spiros’ COP>1 electrolyser patent ........................................................ A - 568
Henry Paine’s hydroxy gas conversion patent .................................................... A - 603
Charles Pogue’s first high-mpg carburettor patent ............................................. A - 606
Charles Pogue’s second high-mpg carburettor patent ........................................ A - 614
Charles Pogue’s third high-mpg carburettor patent ............................................ A - 619
Ivor Newberry’s high-mpg carburettor patent .................................................. A - 627
Robert Shelton’s high-mpg carburettor patent .................................................. A - 632
Harold Schwartz’s high-mpg carburettor patent ............................................... A - 636
Oliver Tucker’s high-mpg carburettor patent ..................................................... A - 639
Thomas Ogle’s high-mpg carburettor patent ...................................................... A - 642
Stephen Kundel’s permanent magnet motor ........................................................ A - 653
Charles Flynn’s permanent magnet motor ........................................................ A - 675
A Practical Guide to ‘Free-Energy’ Devices

Overview

This eBook contains most of what I have learned about this subject after researching it for a number of years. I am not trying to sell you anything, nor am I trying to convince you of anything. When I started looking into this subject, there was very little useful information and any that was around was buried deep in incomprehensible patents and documents. My purpose here is to make it easier for you to locate and understand some of the relevant material now available. What you believe is up to yourself and is none of my business. Let me stress that almost all of the devices discussed in the following pages, are devices which I have not personally built and tested. It would take several lifetimes to do that and it would not be in any way a practical option. Consequently, although I believe everything said is fully accurate and correct, you should treat everything as being “hearsay” or opinion.

The Wright brothers were told that it was impossible for aeroplanes to fly because they were heavier than air. That was a commonly believed view. The Wright brothers watched birds flying and since, without question, birds are considerably heavier than air, it was clear that the commonly held view was plain wrong. Working from that realisation, they developed aeroplanes which flew perfectly well.

The years passed, and the technology started by the Wright brothers and their careful scientific measurements and well-reasoned theory, advanced to become the “science” of aeronautics. This science was used extensively to design and build very successful aircraft and “aeronautics” gained the aura of being a “law”.

Unfortunately, somebody applied aeronautic calculations to the flight of bumblebees and discovered that according to aeronautics, bumblebees couldn’t possibly fly as their wings could not generate enough lift to get them off the ground. This was a problem, as it was perfectly possible to watch bees flying in a very competent manner. So, the “laws” of aeronautics said that bees can’t fly, but bees actually do fly.

Does that mean that the laws of aeronautics were no use? Certainly not - those “laws” had been used for years and proved their worth by producing excellent aircraft. What it did show was that the “laws” of aeronautics did not yet cover every case and needed to be extended to cover the way that bees fly, which is through lift generated by turbulent airflow.

It is very important to realise that what are described as scientific “laws” are just the best working theories at the present time and it is virtually certain that those “laws” will have to be upgraded and extended as further scientific observations are made and further facts discovered.

Introduction

It should be stressed at this point, that this material is intended to provide you with information and only that. If you should decide, on the basis of what you read here, to build some device or other, you do so solely and entirely at your own risk and on your own responsibility. For example, if you build something in a heavy box and then drop it on your toe, then that is completely your own responsibility (you should learn to be more careful) and nobody other than yourself is in any way liable for your injury, or any loss of income caused while your toe is recovering. Let me amplify that by stating that I do not warrant that any device or system described in this document works as described, or in any other way, nor do I claim that any of the following information is useful in any way or that any device described is useful in any way or for any purpose whatsoever. Also, let me stress that I am not encouraging you to actually construct any device described here, and the fact that very detailed construction details are provided, must not be interpreted as my encouraging you to physically construct any device described in this document. You are welcome to consider this a work of fiction if you choose to do so.

I apologise if this presentation seems very elementary, but the intention is to make each description as simple as possible so that everybody can understand it, including people whose native language is not English. If you are not familiar with the basic principles of electronics, then please read the simple step-by-step electronics tutorial in Chapter 12 which is intended to help complete beginners in the subject.

At this point in time - the early years of the twenty-first century - we have reached the point where we need to realise that some of the “laws” of science do not cover every case, and while they have been very useful in the past, they do need to be extended to cover some cases which have been left out until now.
For example, suppose a bank robber broke into a bank and stole all of the cash there. How much could he take? Answer: "every coin and every note". The limit is the sum total of all cash in the building. This is what the "Law" of Conservation of Energy is all about. What it says is very simple – you can’t take out any more than there is there in the beginning. That seems pretty straightforward, doesn’t it?

As another example, consider a glass tumbler filled completely with water. Using common sense, tell me, how much water can be poured out of the glass? For the purposes of this illustration, please take it that temperature, pressure, gravity, etc. all remain constant for the duration of the experiment.

The answer is: "the exact volume contained inside the tumbler". Agreed. This is what present day science says. To be strictly accurate, you will never be able to pour all of the water out as a small amount will remain, wetting the inside of the glass. Another way of putting this is to say that the “efficiency” of the pouring operation is not 100%. This is typical of life in general, where very few, if any, actions are 100% efficient.

So, are we agreed with current scientific thinking then – the maximum amount of water which can pour out of the tumbler is the total volume inside the tumbler? This seems simple and straightforward, doesn’t it? Science thinks so, and insists that this is the end of the story, and nothing else is possible. This arrangement is called a "closed system" as the only things being considered are the glass, the water and gravity.

Well, unfortunately for current scientific thinking, this is not the only possible situation and "closed systems" are almost unknown in the real world. Mostly, assumptions are made that the effects of anything else around will cancel out and add up to a net zero effect. This is a very convenient theory, but unfortunately it has no basis in reality.

Let’s fill our glass with water again and begin to pour it out again, but this time we position it underneath a source of flowing water:
So, now, how much water can be poured out of the tumbler? Answer: “millions of times the volume of the tumbler”. But hang on a moment, haven’t we just said that the absolute limit of water poured from the tumbler has to be the volume inside the tumbler? Yes, that’s exactly what we said, and that is what current science teaching says. The bottom line here is that what current science says does in fact hold true for most of the time, but there are cases where the basic assumption of it being a “closed system” is just not true.

One popular misconception is that you can’t get more energy out of a system than you put into it. That is wrong, because the sentence was worded carefully. Let me say it again and this time, emphasise the key words: “you can’t get more energy out of a system than you put into it”. If that were true, then it would be impossible to sail a yacht all the way around the world without burning any fuel, and that has been done many times and none of the driving energy came from the crews. If it were true, then a grain mill driven by a waterwheel would not be able to produce flour as the miller certainly does not push the millstones around himself. If that were true, then nobody would build windmills, or construct solar panels, or tidal power stations.

What the statement should say is “more energy can’t be taken out of a system than is put into it or is already in it” and that is a very different statement. When sailing a yacht, the wind provides the driving force which makes the trip possible. Notice that, it is the environment providing the power and not the sailors. The wind arrived without them having to do anything about it, and a lot less than 100% of the wind energy reaching the yacht actually becomes forward thrust, contributing to the voyage. A good deal of the energy arriving at the yacht ends up stretching the rigging, creating a wake, producing noise, pushing the helmsman, etc. etc. This idea of no more energy coming out of a system than goes into it, is called “The Law of Conservation of Energy” and it is perfectly right, in spite of the fact that it gets people confused.

“Free-Energy Devices” or “Zero-Point Energy Devices” are the names applied to systems which appear to produce a higher output power than their input power. There is a strong tendency for people to state that such a system is not possible since it contravenes the Law of Conservation of Energy. It doesn’t. If it did, and any such system was shown to work, then the “Law” would have to be modified to include the newly observed fact. No such change is necessary, it merely depends on your point of view.
For example, consider a crystal set radio receiver:

Looking at this in isolation, we appear to have a free-energy system which contradicts the Law of Conservation of Energy. It doesn’t, of course, but if you do not view the whole picture, you see a device which has only passive components and yet which (when the coil is of the correct size) causes the headphones to generate vibrations which reproduce recognisable speech and music. This looks like a system which has no energy input and yet which produces an energy output. Considered in isolation, this would be a serious problem for the Law of Conservation of Energy, but when examined from a common sense point of view, it is no problem at all.

The whole picture is:

Power is supplied to a nearby transmitter which generates radio waves which in turn, induce a small voltage in the aerial of the crystal set, which in turn, powers the headphones. The power in the headphones is far, far less than the power taken to drive the transmitter. There is most definitely, no conflict with the Law of Conservation of Energy. However, there is a quantity called the “Coefficient Of Performance” or “COP” for short. This is defined as the amount of power coming out of a system, divided by the amount of power that the operator has to put into that system to make it work. In the example above, while the efficiency of the crystal set radio is well below 100%, the COP is greater than 1. This is because the owner of the crystal radio set does not have to supply any power at all to make it work, and yet it outputs power in the form of sound. As the input power from the user, needed to make it work is zero, and the COP value is calculated by dividing the output power by this zero input power, the COP is actually infinity. Efficiency and COP are two different things. Efficiency can never exceed 100% and almost never gets anywhere near 100% due to the losses suffered by any practical system.
As another example, consider an electrical solar panel:

Again, viewed in isolation, this looks like (and actually is) a Free-Energy device if it is set up out of doors in daylight, as current is supplied to the load (radio, battery, fan, pump, or whatever) without the user providing any input power. Again, Power Out with no Power In. Try it in darkness and you find a different result because the whole picture is:

The energy which powers the solar panel comes from the sun. Only some 17% of the energy reaching the solar panel is converted to electrical current. This is most definitely not a contravention of the Law of Conservation of Energy. This needs to be explained in greater detail. The Law of Conservation of Energy applies to closed systems, and only to closed systems. If there is energy coming in from the environment, then the Law of Conservation of Energy just does not apply, unless you take into account the energy entering the system from outside.

People sometimes speak of “over-unity” when talking about the efficiency of a system. From the point of efficiency, there is no such thing as “over-unity” as that would mean that more power was coming out of the system than the amount of power entering the system. Our trusty bank robber mentioned above would have to take out of the bank vault, more money than was actually in it, and that is a physical impossibility. There are always some losses in all practical systems, so the efficiency is always less than 100% of the power entering the system. In other words, the efficiency of any practical system is always under unity.

However, it is perfectly possible to have a system which has a greater power output than the power input which we have to put into it to make it work. Take the solar panel mentioned above. It has a terribly low efficiency of about 17%, but, we don’t have to supply it with any power to make it work. Consequently, when it is in sunlight, its Coefficient Of Performance ("COP") is its output power (say, 50 watts) divided by the input power needed to make it work (zero watts) which is infinity. So, our humble, well-known solar panel has terrible efficiency of 17% but at the same time it has a COP of infinity.

The actual situation is, that we are sitting in a vast field of energy which we can’t see. This is the equivalent of the situation for the crystal set shown above, except that the energy field we are in is very, very much more powerful than the radio waves from a radio transmitter. The problem is, how to tap the energy which is freely available all around us, and get it to do useful work for us. It can definitely be done, but it is not easy to do.
Some people think that we will never be able to access this energy. Not very long ago, it was widely believed that nobody could ride a bicycle faster than 15 miles per hour because the wind pressure on the face of the rider would suffocate him. Today, many people cycle much faster than this without suffocating - why? - because the original negative opinion was wrong.

Not very long ago, it was thought that metal aircraft would never be able to fly because metal is so much heavier than air. Today, aircraft weighing hundreds of tons fly on a daily basis. Why? - because the original negative opinion was not correct.

It is probably worth while, at this point, to explain the basics of Zero-Point Energy. Every cubic centimetre of our environment is seething with energy, so much in fact, that if it were converted using Oliver Heaviside’s equation (made famous by Albert Einstein) \( E = mc^2 \) (that is Energy = Mass multiplied by a very big number), then it would produce as much matter as can be seen by the most powerful telescope. You can’t actually see energy. All right then, why can’t you measure the energy there? Well, two reasons actually, firstly, we have never managed to design an instrument which can measure this energy, and secondly, the energy is changing direction incredibly rapidly, billions and billions and billions of times each second.

There is so much energy there, that particles of matter just pop into existence and then pop back out again. Half of these particles have a positive charge and half of them have a negative charge, and as they are evenly spread out in three-dimensional space, the overall average voltage is zero. So, if the voltage is zero, what use is that as a source of energy? The answer to that is "none" if you leave it in it’s natural state. However, it is possible to change the random nature of this energy and convert it into a source of unlimited, everlasting power which can be used for all of the things we use mains electricity for today - powering motors, lights, heaters, fans, pumps, ... you name it, the power is there for the taking.

So, how do you alter the natural state of the energy in our environment? Actually, quite easily. All that is needed is a positive charge and a negative charge, reasonably near each other. A battery will do the trick, as will a generator, as will an aerial and earth, as will an electrostatic device like a Wimshurst machine. When you generate a Plus and a Minus, environmental energy is affected. Now, instead of entirely random plus and minus charged particles appearing everywhere, the Plus which you created gets surrounded by a sphere of minus charge particles popping into existence all around it. Also, the Minus which you created, gets surrounded by a spherical-shaped cloud of plus-charge particles popping into existence all around it. The technical term for this situation is "broken symmetry" which is just a fancy way of saying that the charge distribution of the quantum foam is no longer evenly distributed or "symmetrical". In passing, the fancy technical name for your Plus and Minus near each other, is a "dipole" which is just a techno-babble way of saying “two poles: a plus and a minus" - isn’t jargon wonderful?

So, just to get it straight in your mind, when you make a battery, the chemical action inside the battery creates a Plus terminal and a Minus terminal. Those poles actually distort the local environment around your battery, and causes vast streams of energy to radiate out in every direction from each pole of the battery. Why doesn’t the battery run down? Because the energy is flowing from the environment and not from the battery. If you were taught basic physics or electrical theory, you will probably have been told that the battery used to power any circuit, supplies a stream of electrons which flows around the circuit. Sorry Chief - it just ain’t like that at all. What really happens is that the battery forms a “dipole” which nudges the local environment into an unbalanced state which pours out energy in every direction, and some of that energy from the environment flows around the circuit attached to the battery. The energy does not come from the battery.

Well then, why does the battery run down, if no energy is being drawn from it to power the circuit? Ah, that is the really silly thing that we do. We create a closed-loop circuit (because that’s what we have always done) where the current flows around the circuit, reaches the other battery terminal and immediately destroys the battery’s “dipole”. Everything stops dead in it’s tracks. The environment becomes symmetrical again, the massive amount of readily available free-energy just disappears and you are back to where you started from. But, do not despair, our trusty battery immediately creates the Plus and Minus terminals again and the process starts all over again. This happens so rapidly that we don’t see the breaks in the operation of the circuit and it is the continual recreation of the dipole which causes the battery to run down and lose it’s power. Let me say it again, the battery does not supply the current that powers the circuit, it never has and it never will - the current flows into the circuit from the surrounding environment.

What we really need, is a method of pulling off the power flowing in from the environment, without continually destroying the dipole which pushes the environment into supplying the power. That is the tricky bit, but it has been done. If you can do that, then you tap into an unlimited stream of inexhaustible energy, with no need to provide any input energy to keep the flow of energy going. In passing, if you want to check out the details of all of this, Lee and Yang were awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1957 for this theory which was proved by...
experiment in that same year. This eBook includes circuits and devices which manage to tap this energy successfully.

Today, many people have managed to tap this energy but very few commercial devices are readily available for home use. The reason for this is human rather than technical. More than 10,000 Americans have produced devices or ideas for devices but none have reached commercial production due to opposition from influential people who do not want such devices freely available. One technique is to classify a device as “essential to US National Security”. If that is done, then the developer is prevented from speaking to anyone about the device, even if he has a patent. He cannot produce or sell the device even though he invented it. Consequently, you will find many patents for perfectly workable devices if you were to put in the time and effort to locate them, though most of these patents never see the light of day, having been taken for their own use, by the people issuing these bogus “National Security” classifications.

If you feel that this opposition to free-energy and related technology is a figment of my imagination and that the people who state that more than 40,000 free-energy device patents have already been suppressed, then please consider this extract from a 2006 reminder to Patent Office staff in America to single out all patents which have to do with free-energy and any related subjects and take those patent applications to their supervisor to be dealt with differently to all other patent applications:

**B. Subject matter of special interest in TC 2800**

1. Perpetual motion machines; classes 310 and 290
2. Anti-gravity devices
3. Room temperature superconductivity; class 310
4. Free energy – Tachyons, etc.
5. Gain-Assisted Superluminal Light Propagation (faster than the speed of light); class 702, 359
6. Other matters that violate the general laws of physics; classes 73, 290.
7. Applications containing claims to subject matter which, if issued, would generate unfavorable publicity for the USPTO, class 84, 702.
8. Reexamination proceedings involving patents in litigation and:
   - The court decision/verdict is subject to review by the Supreme Court
   - The court decision includes high monetary awards
   - The technology and companies involved would likely generate high publicity

Here “USPTO” is the United States Patent and Trademark Office, which is a privately owned commercial company run to make money for its owners.

The purpose of this eBook is to present the facts about some of these devices and more importantly, where possible, explain the background details of why and how systems of that type function. As has been said before, it is not the aim of this book to convince you of anything, just to present you with some of the facts which are not that easy to find, so that you can make up your own mind on the subject.

The science taught in schools, colleges and universities at this time, is well out of date and in serious need of being brought up to date. This has not happened for some time now as people who make massive financial profits have made it their business to prevent any significant advance for many years now. However, the internet and free sharing of information through it, is making things very difficult for them. What is it that they don't want you to know? Well, how about the fact that you don't have to burn a fuel to get power? Shocking, isn't it!! Does it sound a bit mad to you? Well, stick around and start doing some thinking.

Suppose you were to cover a boat with lots of solar panels which were used to charge a large bank of batteries inside the boat. And if those batteries were used to operate electric motors turning propellers which drive the boat...
Along. If it is sunny weather, how far could you go? As far as the boat can travel while the sun is up and if the battery bank is large, probably most of the night as well. At sun-up on the next day, you can continue your journey. Oceans have been crossed doing this. How much fuel is burned to power the boat? None!!! Absolutely none at all. And yet, it is a fixed idea that you have to burn a fuel to get power.

Yes, certainly, you can get power from the chemical reaction of burning a fuel - after all, we pour fuel into the tanks of vehicles “to make them go” and we burn oil in the central heating systems of buildings. But the big question is: “Do we have to?” and the answer is “No”. So why do we do it? Because there is no alternative at present. Why is there no alternative at present? Because the people making incredibly large financial profits from selling this fuel, have seen to it that no alternative is available. We have been the suckers in this con trick for decades now, and it is time for us to snap out of it. Let’s have a look at some of the basic facts:

Let me start by presenting some of the facts about electrolysis. The electrolysis of water is performed by passing an electric current through the water, causing it to break up into hydrogen gas and oxygen gas. This process was examined in minute detail by Michael Faraday who determined the most energy efficient possible conditions for electrolysis of water. Faraday determined the amount of electric current needed to break the water apart, and his findings are accepted as a scientific standard for the process.

We now bump into a problem which scientists are desperate to ignore or deny, as they have the mistaken idea that it contradicts the Law of Conservation of Energy – which, of course, it doesn’t. The problem is an electrolyser design by Bob Boyce of America which appears to have an efficiency twelve times greater than Faraday’s maximum possible gas production. This is a terrible heresy in the scientific arena and it gets the average “by the book” scientist very up-tight and flustered. There is no need for this worry. The Law of Conservation of Energy remains intact and Faraday’s results are not challenged. However, an explanation is called for.

To start with, let me show the arrangement for a standard electrolyser system:

![STANDARD ELECTROLYSER SYSTEM](image)

Here, current is supplied to the electrolyser by the electrical supply. The current flow causes breakdown of the water contained in the electrolyser, resulting in the amount of gas predicted by Faraday (or less if the electrolyser is not well designed and accurately built).

Bob Boyce, who is an exceptionally intelligent, perceptive and able man, has developed a system which performs the electrolysis of water using power drawn from the environment. To a quick glance, Bob’s design looks pretty much like a high-grade electrolyser (which it is) but it is a good deal more than that. The practical construction and operational details of Bob’s design are shown in [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/D9.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/D9.pdf), but for here, let us just consider the operation of his system in very broad outline:

![BOB BOYCE’S ELECTROLYSER SYSTEM](image)

The very important distinction here is that the power flowing into the electrolyser and causing the water to break down and produce the gas output, is coming almost exclusively from the environment and not from the electrical supply. The main function of Bob’s electrical supply is to power the device which draws energy in from the environment. Consequently, if you assume that the current supplied by the electrical supply is the whole of the power driving the electrolyser, then you have a real problem, because, when properly built and finely tuned, Bob’s electrolyser produces up to 1,200% of Faraday’s maximum efficiency production rate.

This is an illusion. Yes, the electrical input is exactly as measured. Yes, the gas output is exactly as measured. Yes, the gas output is twelve times the Faraday maximum. But Faraday’s work and the Law of Conservation of Energy are not challenged in any way because the electrical current measured is used primarily to power the
interface to the environment and nearly all of the energy used in the electrolysis process flows in from the local environment and is not measured. What we can reasonably deduce is that the energy inflow from the environment is probably about twelve times the amount of power drawn from the electrical supply.

At this point in time, we do not have any equipment which can measure this environmental energy. We are in the same position as people were with electrical current five hundred years ago – there was just no equipment around which could be used to make the measurement. That, of course, does not mean that electrical current did not exist at that time, just that we had not developed any equipment capable of performing measurement of that current. Today, we know that this environmental energy exists because we can see the effects it causes such as running Bob’s electrolyser, charging batteries, etc. but we can’t measure it directly because it vibrates at right-angles to the direction that electrical current vibrates in. Electrical current is said to vibrate “transversely” while this zero-point energy vibrates “longitudinally”, and so has no effect on instruments which respond transversely such as ammeters, voltmeters, etc.

Bob Boyce’s 101-plate electrolyser produces anything up to 100 litres of gas per minute, and that rate of production is able to power internal combustion engines of low capacity. The vehicle alternator is perfectly capable of powering Bob’s system, so the result is a vehicle which appears to run with water as the only fuel. This is not the case, nor is it correct to say that the engine is powered by the gas produced. Yes, it does utilise that gas when running, but the power running the vehicle is coming directly from the environment as an inexhaustible supply. In the same way, a steam engine does not run on water. Yes, it does utilise water in the process, but the power that runs a steam engine comes from burning the coal and not from the water.

The Basics of "Free-Energy":

This beginner’s introduction presumes that you have never heard of free-energy before and would like an outline sketch of what it is all about, so let’s begin at the beginning.

We tend to have the impression that people who lived a long time ago were not as clever as we are - after all, we have television, computers, mobile phones, games consoles, aeroplanes, …. But, and it is a big "but", the reason why they did not have those things is because science had not advanced far enough for those things to become possible. That did not mean that the people who lived before us were any less clever than we are.

You have probably heard of the geometry of Pythagoras who lived hundreds of years ago, and that geometry is still used in remote areas to lay out the foundations for new buildings. You have probably heard of Archimedes who worked out why things float. He lived more than two thousand years ago. So, how do those people stack up against you and me? Were they stupid people?

This is quite an important point because it demonstrates that the body of scientific information enables many things which were not thought possible in earlier times. This effect is not restricted to centuries ago. Take the year 1900. My father was a youngster then, so it is not all that long ago. It would be another three years before Orville and Wilbur Wright made their first ‘heavier-than-air’ flight, so there no aircraft around in 1900. There were no radio stations and most definitely, no television stations, nor would you have found a telephone inside a house. The only serious forms of information were books and periodicals or teaching establishments which relied on the knowledge of the teachers. There were no cars and the fastest form of transport for the average person was on a galloping horse.

Today, it is difficult to grasp what things were like not all that long ago, but come closer in time and look back just fifty years. Then, people researching in scientific fields had to design and build their own instruments before they ever got to experimenting in their chosen fields of knowledge. They were instrument makers, glass-blowers, metal workers, etc. as well as being scientific researchers. Nowadays there are measuring instruments of all kinds for sale ready-made. We have silicon semiconductors which they didn’t have, integrated circuits, computers, etc. etc.

The important point here is the fact that advances in scientific theory have made possible many things which would have been considered quite ridiculous notions in my father’s time. However, we need to stop thinking as if we already know everything there is to know and that nothing which we think of as "impossible!!" could ever happen. Let me try to illustrate this by remarking on just a few things which as recently as the year 1900 would have marked you out as a "lunatic crank", things which we take for granted today because, and only because, we are now familiar with the science behind each of these things.
Certainties in the year 1900

A metal aeroplane weighing 350 tons couldn't possibly fly - everyone knows that!!

You couldn't possibly watch someone who is a thousand miles away - talk sense!!
No! Of course you can't speak to somebody who lives in a different country unless you visit them!

The fastest way to travel is on a galloping horse.

A machine could never beat a man at chess - be realistic!
Today, we know that these things are not just possible, but we take them for granted. We have a mobile phone in our pocket and could easily use it to talk to friends in other countries almost anywhere in the world. It would seem very strange if we could not do that any more.

We each have a television and can watch, say, a golf tournament taking place at the other side of the world. We watch in real time, seeing the result of each stroke almost as soon as the golfer does himself. Even suggesting that such a thing was possible might have got you burnt at the stake for witchcraft, not all that long ago, but not having television would seem a very strange situation for us today.

If we see a 350 ton metal Boeing 747 aircraft flying past, we would not think it to be strange in any way, let alone think it was "impossible". It is routine, casual travel at 500 mph, a speed which would have been considered to be a fantasy when my father was young. The fact that the aircraft is so heavy, is of no concern to us as we know that it will fly, and does so, routinely, every day of the year.

We take for granted, a computer which can do a million things in one second. Today, we have lost the understanding of how big a "million" is, and we know that most people are likely to lose a game of chess if they play against a computer, even a cheap chess computer.

What we need to understand is that our present scientific knowledge is far from being comprehensive and there is still a very large amount to be learned, and that things which the average person today would consider "impossible" are quite liable to be casually routine day-to-day things in just a few years time. This is not because we are stupid but instead it is because our current science still has a long way to go.

The objective of this website (http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl) is to explain some of the things which current science is not teaching at the present time. Ideally, we want a device which will power our homes and cars without the need to burn a fuel of any kind. Before you get the idea that this is some new and wild idea, please remember that windmills have been pumping water, milling grain, lifting heavy loads and generating electricity for a very long time now. Water wheels have been doing similar work for a very long time and neither of these devices burn a fuel.

The energy which powers windmills and water wheels comes to us via the Sun which heats air and water, causing wind and rain, feeding power to our devices. The energy flows in from our local environment, costs us nothing and will keep on coming whether we make use of it or not.

Most of the pictures of wind generators and water wheels which you will see, show devices which would take a large amount of money to set up. The title of this eBook is "The Practical Guide to Free-Energy Devices" and the word "practical" is intended to indicate that most of the things spoken about are things which you, personally, have a reasonable chance of constructing for yourself if you decide to do so. However, while in chapter 14 there are instructions for building your own wind-powered electrical generator from scratch, pumping water uphill without using a fuel and utilising wave power at low cost, these things are subject to the weather. So, because of this, the main subject is the next generation of commercial devices, devices which do not need a fuel in order to function and power our homes and vehicles, devices which operate no matter what the weather is doing.

Perhaps I should remark at this point, that the commercial introduction of this new wave of hi-tech devices is being actively opposed by people who will lose a very large stream of revenue when it does eventually happen, as it most certainly will. For example, Shell BP which is a typical oil company, makes about US $3,000,000 profit per hour, every hour of every day of every year, and there are dozens of oil companies. The government makes even more than that out of the operation, with 85% of the sale price of oil in the UK being government tax. No matter what they say, (and they both do like to talk "green" in order to gain popularity), neither would ever for a single moment, consider allowing the introduction of fuel-less power devices, and they have the financial muscle to oppose this new technology at every possible level.

For example, some years ago Cal-Tech in the USA spent millions proving that on board fuel reformers for vehicles would give us all better fuel economy and cleaner air. They did long-term testing on buses and cars to provide proof. They teamed up with the very large auto-parts supplier Arvin Meritor to put these new devices in production vehicles. Then "One Equity Partners" bought out Arvin Meritor's division that did all the final work to get fuel reformers put into all new vehicles. They created a new company, EMCON Technologies, and that company dropped the fuel reformer from their product line, not because it did not work, but because it did work. This is not "conspiracy theory" but a matter of public record.

Some years ago, Stanley Meyer, a very talented man living in America, found a very energy-efficient way of breaking water into a mixture of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas. He pushed on further and found that a vehicle engine could be run quite a small amount of this "HHO" gas if it was mixed with air, water droplets and some of the exhaust gas coming from the engine. He got funding to allow him to start manufacturing retro-fit kits which would allow any car to run on water alone and not use any fossil fuel at all. You can imagine how popular that
would have been with the oil companies and the government. Just after getting his funding, Stan was eating a meal at a restaurant when he jumped up, said "I've been poisoned!"; rushed out into the car park and died on the spot. If Stan was mistaken, and he died of 'natural causes', then it was remarkably convenient timing for the oil companies and the government, and his retro-fit kits were never manufactured.

Even though Stan left behind many patents on the subject, until recently nobody managed to replicate his very low-power electrolyser, then Dave Lawton in Wales achieved the feat and many people have since replicated it by following Dave's instructions. More difficult still is getting an engine to run on no fossil fuel as Stan did, but recently, three men in the UK achieved just that by getting a standard petrol-engined electrical generator to run with water as the only fuel. Interestingly, this is not something which they want to pursue as they have other areas which appeal more to them. Consequently, they have no objections to sharing the practical information on what they did.

In very brief outline, they took a standard 5.5 kilowatt generator and delayed the spark timing, suppressed the 'waste' spark and fed the engine a mix of air, water droplets and just a small amount of HHO gas (which they measured at a flow rate of just three litres per minute). They test-loaded the generator with four kilowatts of electrical equipment to confirm that it worked well under load, and then moved on to a larger engine. This is the general style of generator which they used:

And their arrangement for running it without petrol, is shown in outline here, the full details being in chapter 10, including how to make your own high-performance electrolyser:
Conventional science says that it can prove mathematically that it is quite impossible to do this. However, the calculation is massively flawed in that it is not based on what is actually happening and worse still, it makes initial assumptions which are just plain wrong. Even if we were not aware of these calculations, the fact that it has been done is quite enough to show that the current engineering theory is out of date and needs to be upgraded.

In passing, it might be remarked that an isolated, almost self-sufficient commune in Australia has been supplying their electrical needs by running ordinary electrical generators on water as the only (apparent) fuel for many years now.

However, let us now consider a device built by John Bedini, another talented man in America. He built a battery-powered motor with a flywheel on the shaft of the motor. This, of course, does not sound like startling stuff, but the crunch is that this motor ran in his workshop for more than three years, keeping its battery fully charged during that time - now that is startling. The arrangement is like this:
What makes this arrangement different from a standard set-up is that the battery powered motor is not connected directly to the battery but instead is fed with a rapid series of DC pulses. This has two effects. Firstly, that method of driving a motor is very efficient electrically speaking and secondly, when a flywheel is driven with a series of pulses, it picks up additional energy from the local environment.

One other unusual feature is the way that the motor shaft spins a disc with permanent magnets mounted on it. These sweep past a matching set of coils attached to a stationary board, forming an ordinary electrical generator and the resulting electrical power which is generated is converted to DC current and fed back to the driving battery, charging it and maintaining its voltage.

Standard theory says that a system like this has to be less than 100% efficient because the DC motor is less than 100% efficient (true) and the battery is only about 50% efficient (true). Therefore, the conclusion is that the system cannot possibly work (false). What is not understood by conventional science is that the pulsed flywheel draws in additional energy from the local environment, showing that conventional science theory is inadequate and out of date and needs to be upgraded, after all, this is not a ‘closed system’.

An American called Jim Watson built a much larger version of John's system, a version which was twenty feet (6 meters) long. Jim's version not only powered itself, but generated 12 kilowatts of excess electrical power. That extra 12 kilowatts of power must be a considerable embarrassment for conventional science and so they will either ignore it, or deny that it ever existed, in spite of the fact that it was demonstrated at a public seminar. This is what Jim's device looked like:

Working quite independently, an Australian called Chas Campbell, discovered the same effect. He found that if he used an AC motor plugged into the mains to drive a flywheel which in turn drove an ordinary generator, that it was possible to get a greater power output from the generator than the amount needed to drive the motor.

Chas used his motor to drive a series of shafts, one of which has a heavy flywheel mounted on it, like this:
The final shaft drives a standard electrical generator and Chas found that he could power electrical equipment from that generator, electrical mains equipment which required greater current that his mains-driven motor did.

Chas then took it one stage further and when the system was running at full speed, he switched his mains motor over from the wall socket to his own generator. The system continued to run, powering itself and driving other equipment as well.

Conventional science says that this is impossible, which just goes to show that conventional science is out of date and needs to be upgraded to cover systems like this where excess energy is flowing in from the local environment. Here is a diagram of how Chas Campbell's system is set up:

James Hardy has put a video on the web, showing a variation of this same principle. In his case, the flywheel is very light and has simple paddles attached around the rim of the wheel:
He then aims a powerful jet of water from a high-powered water pump, directly at the paddles, driving the wheel round with a rapid series of pulses. The shaft, on which the wheel is mounted, drives a standard electrical generator which lights an ordinary light bulb:

The really interesting part comes next, because he then unplugs the electrical supply to the water pump and switches it over to the generator which the wheel is driving. The result is that the pump powers itself and provides excess electricity which can be used to power other electrical equipment. The arrangement is like this:

Once again, conventional science says that this is impossible, which in turn, demonstrates that conventional science is out of date and needs to be expanded to include these observed facts.

Permanent Magnets provide continuous power. This is because the poles of the magnet form a dipole, unbalancing the zero-point energy field near the magnet, and causing a continuous flow of energy which we call “lines of magnetic force”. This should be obvious as a magnet can support its own weight on the vertical face of a
refrigerator, for years on end. Conventional science says that permanent magnets can't be used as a source of power. However, the reality is that conventional science just doesn't know the techniques necessary for extracting that power. The lines of magnetic flow around any magnet are symmetrical and in order for a magnet to provide a useful directional force, it is necessary to arrange magnets in such a way that their combined magnetic field is no longer symmetrical. Doing that is not easy, but there are many alternative methods. Magnets are attracted to iron and that principle along with several other techniques have been successfully use by the New Zealander, Robert Adams who produced a motor which is, typically, at least 800% efficient. This, of course, is impossible according to conventional science. Robert was told that if he shared the information, he would be killed. He decided that at his age of seventy, being killed was not a major thing, so he went ahead and published all the details.

Present day motors driven by electricity are always less than 100% efficient as they are deliberately wound in a symmetrical way in order to make them inefficient. The Adams motor looks like a motor driven by electrical pulses, but it is not. The motor power comes from the permanent magnets mounted on the rotor and not from an electrical pulse applied to the electromagnets attached to the stator. The magnets are attracted to the metal cores of the stationary electromagnets. This provides the driving power of the motor. The electromagnets are then powered just enough to overcome the backwards drag of the magnets when they have just passed by the cores of the electromagnets.

The system works like this:

1. The magnets are attracted to the iron cores of the electromagnets, rotating the drive shaft and powering the motor.

2. The moving magnets generate electrical power in the windings of the electromagnets and this power is used to charge the driving battery.

3. When the permanent magnets reach the electromagnets, a small amount of electrical power is fed to the windings of the electromagnets in order to overcome any backward pull hindering the rotation of the drive shaft.

4. When that power supplied to the electromagnets is cut off, the Back EMF pulse is captured and used to charge the driving battery.

5. Although not shown in the diagram above, there are normally additional pick-up coils mounted round the rotor and if they are connected briefly at the right moment, they generate extra current and when they are switched off, their resulting reversed magnetic field also boosts the rotor on it's way, and that can raise the Coefficient Of Performance over 1000. One replication using this technique has an electrical input of 27 watts and a 32 kilowatt output.

When operated in this way, the Adams Motor has output power far in excess of the input power needed to make it run. The design confuses conventional science because conventional science refuses to accept the concept of energy flow into the motor, from the local environment. This is all the more strange, considering that windmills, water wheels, hydro-electric schemes, solar panels, wave-power systems, tidal power systems and geothermal energy systems are accepted and considered perfectly normal, in spite of the fact that they all operate on energy flowing in from the local environment. It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that vested interests are working hard to prevent conventional science accepting the fact that free-energy is all around us and there for the taking. Perhaps it is the case that they want us to go on paying for fuel to burn to "make" energy to power our homes and vehicles.
Another example of magnet power being used in the design of a powerful motor comes from Charles Flynn. He uses a similar method of electrical screening to prevent magnetic drag hindering the drive shaft rotation. Instead of using electromagnets, Charles uses permanent magnets on both the rotor and the stator, and a flat coil of wire to create the blocking fields:

When the coil does not have current flowing through it, it does not produce a magnetic field and the South pole of the rotor magnet is attracted equally forwards and backwards by the North pole of the stator magnet. If there are two coils as shown below, and one is powered and the other is not powered, the backward pull is cancelled out and the forward pull causes the rotor to move forwards:

Conventional science takes a quick glance at this arrangement and proclaims that the motor efficiency has to be less than 100% because of the large electrical pulse needed to make the shaft turn. This just demonstrates a complete lack of understanding of how the motor operates. There is no "large electrical pulse" because the motor is not driven by electrical pulses, but instead it is driven by the attraction of many pairs of magnets, and only a very small electrical pulse is applied to cancel the backward drag as the magnets move past. To put this in context, the powerful prototype motor built by Charles ran at 20,000 rpm and the power for the coils was supplied by an ordinary 9-volt "dry-cell" battery quite incapable of supplying heavy currents.

The motor is easily made more powerful by using a stator magnet on both side of the rotor magnet, as shown here:

There is no real limit to the power of this motor as layer after layer of magnets can be mounted on a single drive shaft as shown here:
The electrical pulses to the screening coils can be synchronised by the light from Light-Emitting Diodes mounted in the timing section, shining through holes in a timing disc attached to the drive shaft of the motor. The light falling on light-dependant resistors on the other side of the disc, provide the switching for the coil-powering electricity.

**Aerial systems.** We are surrounded by so much energy that a simple aerial and earth connection can draw in very large amounts of electrical power from the local environment.

**Thomas Henry Moray** ran frequent public demonstrations during which he lit banks of light bulbs to show that useful amounts of energy could be drawn from the environment:
Moray's device could produce output powers up to fifty kilowatts and it had no moving parts, just a simple aerial and an earth. In spite of the frequent demonstrations, some people would not believe that this was not a hoax, so Moray invited them to choose a place and he would demonstrate the power available at any location they wanted.

They drove fifty miles out into the countryside and picked a really isolated spot away from all power lines and the very few commercial radio stations in the area. They set up a very simple aerial estimated by one observer to be just fifty seven feet long and only seven or eight feet off the ground at its lowest point:

The earth connection was an eight-foot length of gas pipe which was hammered into the ground. There is no significance in the earth connection being a gas pipe, as that was used just because it was to hand at the time. The bank of lights being powered by Moray's device, grew brighter as the gas pipe was driven further and further into the ground, providing a better and better earth connection. Moray then demonstrated that when the aerial was disconnected, the lights went out. When the aerial was connected again, the lights were lit again. He then disconnected the earth wire and the lights went out and stayed out until the earth wire was connected again. The sceptics were completely convinced by the demonstration (which is most unusual for sceptics as sceptics often refuse to accept anything which contradicts their current beliefs).

Moray's is one of several excellent and very successful devices which I can't tell you exactly how to replicate (because the details were never revealed and Moray was intimidated into silence) but the important point here is that a 57-foot aerial raised just 8-feet from the ground can provide kilowatts of electrical power at any location, if you know how to do it.
Moray's demonstrations were highly unpopular with some people and he was shot at in his car. He put bullet-proof glass in his car, so they came into his laboratory and shot at him there. They succeeded in intimidating him into stopping his demonstrations or publishing the exact details of how to replicate his aerial power system.

**Lawrence Rayburn** has developed an aerial system with one part raised thirty feet above the ground. He powers his farm with it and has measured more than 10 kilowatts being drawn from it.

**Hermann Plauson** has a patent which reads more like a tutorial on how to extract useful power from an aerial. He describes installations where one producing 100 kilowatts of excess power he calls a "small" system as each of his aerials can capture up to a kilowatt and he used many aerials.

**Frank Prentice** has a patent on an ‘aerial’ system where he drives a wire loop alongside a long length of wire mounted just seven or eight inches (200 mm) above the ground. His input power is 500 watts and the power drawn from the system is 3,000 watts, giving an excess of 2.5 kilowatts (COP=6):

![Diagram](image)

**Nikola Tesla**, probably the most famous person in the free-energy field, has a patent on an aerial system which uses a shiny metal plate with insulated faces as the main component of his aerial. As is common in this field, a high-quality capacitor is used to store the energy initially and then that power is pulsed through a step-down transformer which lowers the voltage and raises the current available, as shown here:

![Diagram](image)

Instead of using an aerial, it is possible to use a **Tesla Coil** which produces very high currents if the primary winding is placed in the middle of the secondary winding and not at one end which is the usual configuration. With one method, Tesla directs the output on to a single metal plate and powers a load between the plate and the earth.

**Don Smith** demonstrates this in a video currently on YouTube. He uses a capacitor made from two metal plates with a sheet of plastic between them, instead of Tesla's insulated single plate. The load is powered between the capacitor and earth. The video shows Don using a 28-watt hand-held Tesla Coil and producing what looks like several kilowatts of power in the earth line.
Don points out that the output power is proportional to the square of the voltage and the square of the frequency. So if you double the frequency and double the voltage there will be 16 times as much output power.

Tariel Kapanadze demonstrates this in a web video of his interview for Turkish TV. It shows him making an earth connection by burying an old car radiator, and then lighting a row of light bulbs from a fuel-less device. While the commentary is not in English, the video is very informative. You will notice that this is a substantial power output coming from a device built with a very basic style of construction where bare wires are twisted together to form an electrical connection.

When the starting battery is removed, the equipment is held in the air to show that it is self-contained and self-powered. This is another confirmation that free-energy is all around us and ready to be taken by anyone who knows how. Tariel is seen here lighting a row of five light bulbs hanging from a broom handle placed across the backs of two chairs - not exactly a high-tech, high-cost form of construction this!

This is a picture of his circuit housing, spark gap and output transformer:

However, I can't provide you with the exact details as Tariel has never revealed how he does it and there is every indication that he never will. He says that if he told how it worked, then “you would laugh as it is so simple”.

I - 23
The Colman / Seddon-Gillespie 70-year battery. A quite different approach to getting fuel-less power was taken by Colman and Seddon-Gillespie who developed a tiny tube of harmless chemicals - copper, zinc and cadmium:

They found that if his tube was subjected to a few seconds of high-frequency electromagnetic radiation, then it became radioactive for about one hour. During that time, a kilowatt of electrical power could be drawn continuously from this tiny tube. Near the end of the hour, another burst of electromagnetic waves keeps the tube radioactive and maintains the output current. Lead shielding is used to make this a safe device to use. They have a patent on this device. The expected working life of one of these tubes is estimated as being seventy years.

Electrolysis. Michael Faraday did a really excellent job of investigating how much energy was required to change water from its liquid state into a mixture of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas. Conventional science has latched on to this information and refuses to believe that it is not the last possible word on electrolysis.

This is akin to saying that the fastest a man can propel himself over the ground is by running, and refusing to accept the fact that there might be a later invention of a bicycle which would allow a much faster human-powered speed over the ground.

This is maintained in spite of the fact that a patent has been awarded to Shigeta Hasebe for a different style of electrolysis, using magnets and spiral electrodes like this:

In his patent, Shigeta indicates his disappointment that his laboratory tests only showed an efficiency of ten times greater than that of Faraday while his calculations showed that he could be getting twenty times the Faraday result. The different method, along with the use of powerful magnets at the top and bottom of his electrode pairs, bypassed the limits which Faraday had established by changing the working conditions.
Stanley Meyer of the USA discovered a method of splitting water into its gas form, using very little power. Stan's work has been replicated by Dave Lawton and many other people. For example, Dr Scott Cramton has produced the "HHO" gas mix produced by the electrolysis of water, at a rate of 6 litres per minute with a power input of just 36 watts (12 volts at 3 amps). This is dramatically better than Faraday thought was possible and it allows power production through recombining that HHO gas to give water again, as the power produced is well above the amount of power needed to split the water in the first place. It should be remarked in passing, that most of the power produced when HHO is recombined into water, does not come from the hydrogen (even though in its HHO form it is typically four time more energetic than hydrogen gas), but from charged water clusters which are generated during the electrolysis process.

John Bedini of the USA has patented a system for the rapid charging of batteries with a pulsed waveform. Using banks of batteries tends to be very expensive and very space-consuming.

John Bedini's spike-generating system can charge several batteries at the same time. The snag is if you use batteries to power equipment while they are being charged, they don't recharge nearly as well. The system is easy to make and use. The best performance that I have come across is where there is thirteen times more power output than the power input.

There are several variations on John's pulser. The most common is a bicycle wheel with ferrite permanent magnets attached to the rim:

As the wheel spins, the approaching magnet generates a voltage in one winding of an electromagnet. This triggers a circuit which powers a second winding of the electromagnet. This pulse pushes the magnet away, keeping the wheel spinning. When the power to the coil is cut off, the resulting "Back EMF" voltage spike is fed to the batteries being charged. If the spike is sharp enough, it can cause an inflow of additional energy from the local environment. Interestingly, the rate at which the wheel rotates is directly proportional to the amount of charge in the batteries being charged. Here is a picture of Ron Pugh's high-quality construction of a Bedini pulse charger:
Conclusion:
The term "Free-Energy" generally means a method of drawing power from the local environment, without the need to burn a fuel. There are many different successful methods for doing this and these methods span many countries and many years.

The amount of power which can be collected can be very high and the few kilowatts needed to power a household is most definitely within the reach of most of the devices mentioned.

************

In this brief introduction, not much detail has been given about the devices mentioned and only a small selection of devices has been covered. Much more detail is available in the various chapters of this eBook.

The 'bottom line' is that energy can definitely be drawn from the local environment in sufficient quantities to supply all of our needs. For whatever reason, conventional science appears determined not to accept this basic fact and denies it at every opportunity. It seems likely that vested financial interests are the root cause of this refusal to accept the facts. The true scientific method is to upgrade scientific theory in the light of observed fact and new discoveries, but the true scientific method is not being followed at the present time. To conclude this introduction, let us consider some of the many ways which can be used to gather energy from the zero-point energy field in readiness for use in our daily tasks. Here are some of those methods:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Using an aerial</td>
<td>Alexkor’s aerial 100 watts, chapter 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Herman Plauson patent 1 kilowatt from each aerial, chapter 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lawrence Rayburn’s TREC aerial 10 kilowatts, chapter 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Henry Moray demonstrations up to 50 kilowatts, chapter 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Gravity</td>
<td>William Skinner – powered his workshop in 1939, chapter 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>James Kwok 250 to 1000 kilowatts, chapter 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mikhail Dmitriev’s pushed weights, 100 watts, chapter 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. A spinning rotor</td>
<td>Teruo Kawai self-powered electric motor cycle, chapter 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lawrence Tseung’s wheel 100 watts, chapter 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Motionless circuit</td>
<td>Carlos Benitez 2 kilowatts, chapter 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lawrence Tseung’s magnetic frame 10 watts, chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valeri Ivanov’s magnetic frame 10 watts, chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rosemary Ainslie’s heater 100 watts, chapter 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Efficient magnetic transfer</td>
<td>Thane Heins’ 1 kilowatt, chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tewari Paramahamsa’s 3 kilowatts, chapter 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clemente Figuera’s 20 kilowatt transformer, chapter 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Efficient electrolysis for</td>
<td>Dave Lawton, chapter 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Effective battery charging
Motionless: Lawrence Tseung’s FLEET, chapter 5
Alexkor’s many systems, chapter 6
Moving: John Bedini / Ron Pugh, chapter 6

8. Permanent magnets only
Muammer Yildiz’s motor, 300-watts, chapter 1
Dietmar Hohl’s motor, 20 watts, chapter 1
ShenHe Wang’s generators, 1 to 100 kilowatts, chapter 1
Mini Romag / J L Naudin generator, 35 watts, chapter 13

9. Permanent magnets with electricity
Robert Adams’ generator, multi kilowatt, chapter 2
Charles Flynn’s motor, unlimited, chapter 1
Steven Kundel’s motor, 100 watts, chapter 1
Donald Kelly’s motor, 100 watts, chapter 1

10. Passive devices
Dr Oleg Gritschevitch’s Toroid 1500 kilowatts, chapter 5
Bill Williams/Joe Nobel’s Joe Cell, unlimited, chapter 9

11. Inertia
John Bedini’s pulsed flywheel, chapter 4
James Hardy’s water-jet generator, chapter 2
Chas Campbell’s self-powered flywheel, chapter 4

12. Ground energy
Barbosa and Leal 169 kilowatts, COP=102.4, chapter 3
Frank Prentice 3 kilowatts, COP=6, chapter 5
Michael Emme’s Earth Battery, 3 kilowatts, chapter 6

13. Radioactive
Colman / Seddon-Gillespie’s 1 kilowatt, 70-year battery, chapter 3
Tesla’s generator (spark gap alternative), unlimited, chapter 11

14. Isotope exchange
Meyer and Mace using isotopes of iron, 1 kilowatt, chapter 3

15. Splitting the Positive
Clemente Figuera’s 5 kilowatt generator (avoids back-EMF), chapter 3

16. Magnetic Coupling
Raoul Hatem’s multi-generator system, unlimited, chapter 2

17. Inert-gas motors
Josef Papp (Volvo 90 HP engine @300 HP 40 min. demo), chapter 8
Robert Britt, unlimited, chapter 8.

18. Optical amplification
Pavel Imris’ optical amplifier, multiplier of 9 times, unlimited, chapter 3

19. Friction
Paul Baumann’s Thestatika (Wimshurst machine), 3 kilowatts, chapter 13

20. Piezo electricity
Michael Ognyanov’s semiconductor battery, 10 watts, appendix

Not included in this list:
Andrea Rossi’s Cold fusion, 1 kilowatt modules,
Floyd Sweet’s motionless magnetic system (COP=1.612 million at 500 watts),
Steven Mark’s self-powered toroid, hundreds of watts,
Tariel Kapanadze’s 1 kilowatt to 100 kilowatt generators,
Don Smith’s high kilowatt designs,
Alfred Hubbard’s 35 HP engine,
Richard Clem’s 300 HP self-powered engine,
Dan Cook’s self-powered motionless generator,
Joseph Newman’s motor
and many others.

As many people are not aware of the cost of running existing mains equipment, here is some indication of the current draw from the mains and from a 90% efficient 12-volt inverter running from a battery. There is a continuous current draw when an inverter is switched on, whether the inverter is powering equipment or not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Load</th>
<th>220V mains</th>
<th>110V mains</th>
<th>12V inverter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 watts</td>
<td>0.46 Amps</td>
<td>0.909 Amps</td>
<td>9.26 Amps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 watts</td>
<td>2.27 Amps</td>
<td>4.55 Amps</td>
<td>46.3 Amps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 kilowatt</td>
<td>4.55 Amps</td>
<td>9.09 Amps</td>
<td>92.6 Amps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
People looking for free-energy generators generally have no idea what is involved. In the UK, household mains appliances have a 13-Amp fuse, limiting them to 3 kilowatts of power before the fuse burns out. House wiring is run in a ring which allows each power socket to be fed by two lengths of mains wiring, so that the current is supplied from two directions, doubling the current available at each socket. Ten kilowatts from a battery inverter would need to carry a massive 926 Amps which is far more than the starter motor current in a vehicle and that 926 Amps is more than 70 times the UK household fuse rating.

To determine how much electricity you use in a day, you list everything electrical that you use and how long you have each item on for during the day. For example, a 100-watt bulb which is on for 8 hours, uses 0.1 kilowatts multiplied by 8 hours which is a total of 0.8 kilowatt-hours (which is the ‘Unit’ used by power companies to charge their customers). So, if you are charged 15 pence per Unit, then that bulb being on for eight hours will cost you 0.8 x 15 = 12 pence during that one day.

The power rating of each item of equipment is normally shown on a plate or sticker on the back of the unit. To give you a general idea of typical power ratings, here is a list:

- Light bulb: 100 watts
- Kettle: 1.7 to 2.5 kilowatts
- Cooker: 7 kilowatts
- Hot plate: 1.2 kilowatts
- Dishwasher: 2 kilowatts
- Washing machine: 2.25 kilowatts maximum but during most of the cycle it is much less than that
- Tumble dryer: 2 to 2.5 kilowatts
- TV set: 50 to 100 watts
- Radio: 10 watts
- DVD player: 50 watts
- Computer: 150 watts
- Music system: 100 watts
- Fridge/freezer: 500 watts maximum, but very little during a day as it is off most of the time
- Air conditioning: anything from 1 kilowatt to perhaps 4 kilowatts, depending very much on the actual A/C unit
- Fan: 50 watts

A very effective way to determine the actual power draw of any item of household equipment is to use a cheap, mains watt-meter such as the one shown here. Equipment can be plugged into it and the watt-meter plugged into the mains. It will then tell you the actual power draw and the cumulative power ‘consumption’ for any item of equipment. Using it on a fridge or fridge-freezer is very informative as the cumulative reading shows the actual amount of current draw over a day, and at night, with the lower temperatures and nearly zero opening of the door, the current draw is very much lower than the peak current draw. A domestic watt-meter is low-cost as they are made in large volumes. The one shown below is a fairly typical unit.
If you manage to buy a free-energy generator, it is likely to be expensive. However, if you examine what items of household equipment are costing you the most to run, it is quite possible that a fairly small generator could make a major difference to your electricity costs.

**Already on sale:**

Even though the people who have been denying that free-energy is possible and suppressing inventors and inventions for more than a hundred years now, they do slip up on some things, possibly thinking that the general public are just not smart enough to see the facts. For example, portable air conditioning units are on sale and some provide heating as well as cooling. In the sales literature, the sellers state quite clearly that the heat output is substantially greater than the electrical input, typically 2.6 to 3.0 times greater. They point out very clearly that if you heat with electricity, then you can reducing your heating bills to one third by using their equipment. Here are three typical examples of this:

This is the ElectriQ “Air Cube” AC9000E with 7000 BTU capacity and in 2015 retails for £220 from [www.appliancesdirect.co.uk](http://www.appliancesdirect.co.uk). Intended for rooms of up to 18 square metres floor space, it uses 900 watts maximum input for cooling and 750 watts maximum input for 2 kilowatts of heating. That is three quarters of a kilowatt input for 2 kilowatts of output, so the Coefficient Of Performance which is output divided by the user’s input is 2.67 or heating bills would drop to 37.5% of what they were. This is very interesting as we are repeatedly told that COP greater than 1 is impossible and “there is no such thing as a free meal”. Fortunately, the ElectriQ company disagrees.
This is the Climachill Ltd. PAC12H (KYD32) 12000 BTU air conditioner, in 2015 retailing at £312 and when heating it has a COP of about 3.0 with a 3.5 kilowatt performance with an input just over 1 kilowatt. Climachill Ltd. Also fails to understand that “there is no such thing as a free meal” and that it is impossible to have a greater output than the input.

This is the Electrolux EXP09HN1WI retailing in 2015 at £336 and providing cooling and 2.32 kilowatt heating with a COP=2.82 meaning that for an output of 2.32 kilowatts, the required input is 823 watts. Supplied by many different retailers.

There are many other portable air conditioning units including much larger versions. What they all have in common is an output which is much larger than the input. The average refrigerator also has a performance nearly three times greater than the power needed to operate it.

You may disagree, but it is clear to me that if I can get 3 kilowatts of heating for 1 kilowatt of input power, then I am receiving 2 kilowatts of free-energy.

I hope that you can see from the long list of methods presented in this introduction, that there is nothing actually strange or weird about the concept of using free-energy or self-powered generators. Therefore, I invite you to examine the facts, read the information in this eBook and the additional information on the website http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/ and make up your own mind on the subject. Please note that this is not a fixed body of information and this eBook normally gets a significant upgrade on a regular basis Consequently, I suggest that you download a new copy say, once per month in order to stay up to date with what is happening. Good luck with your research.

The “Scientists”
People who are not familiar with free-energy, sometimes wonder why free-energy generators are not on sale in the local shops and why ‘scientists’ claim that these things are not possible. There are a number of reasons. One reason is that they have been taught to consider all physical things as part of a “closed system” where all outside influences have been excluded. That is a nice idea for performing analysis but it must not be thought to have anything much to do with real systems in the real world because there is no such thing as a closed system. If you think you can make a closed system, then I would be delighted if you would tell me how. Your system would have to exclude gravity, cosmic particles, heat, light, all electromagnetic influences, magnetic effects, longitudinal waves, the zero-point energy field and everything else you can think of. So far as I am aware, nobody has ever managed to construct a closed system and some experiments are carried out in deep mines in an attempt to lower some of the effects which we just cannot block. So, while a “closed system” is a nice idea, you will never encounter one.
Another reason is that scientists not only are not aware of current technology, but they are not even aware that they don’t know the relevant facts. It seems to be a strange feature of people who have received a university degree, that they think that they are smarter than other people, when in fact, all that the degree shows is that they have sat through long periods listening to what the professors have to say, and as those professors are frequently wrong and the graduates have been misled (and that is not a case of ‘sour grapes’ as I have more letters after my name than are in my name, and I assure you that university graduates can be lacking a great deal of factual information). For example, ‘scientific experts’ have performed calculations and say that the laws of physics shows that an electrical generator cannot be run on the gas mix which is produced from water when electricity is passed through it. This is a typical conclusion which is totally wrong considering that people in isolated areas have been getting their daily electricity from generators whose only fuel appears to be water. Let’s examine their approach.

1. They say that water consists of two molecules of Hydrogen and one molecule of Oxygen. That is nearly right, and fish should be very thankful that they are not completely right. They then say that the amount of current needed for splitting water into a gas mix is shown by Faraday’s experiments. What they are not aware of is that Bob Boyce, Stan Meyer and Shigeta Hasebe have each produced ten times the Faraday results and each using completely different methods. A factor of 10 in a calculation makes a major difference.

2. They then calculate the energy produced when hydrogen is burnt. That is a major mistake as the gas produced by electrolysis of water is not hydrogen but instead is a mixture of highly charged single hydrogen atoms and highly charged single oxygen atoms. That mix is generally called “HHO” and has a recombination energy which is usually four or five times greater than hydrogen gas. HHO is so active and energetic that compressing it to a pressure over 15 pounds per square inch (“15 psi”) causes it to ignite spontaneously. This means that the ‘scientific’ calculations are already low by a factor of at least 40.

3. They are not aware that if a fine spray of cold water droplets or ‘mist’ is added to the incoming air, that the water converts to flash-steam on ignition of the HHO, producing high pressure inside the cylinder of the generator and causing the generator to act as an internal combustion steam engine.

As a result of these details, the ‘scientific’ calculations which show that a generator cannot be self-powered are completely wrong, as are many of the ‘scientific’ pronouncements made by ignorant ‘scientists’.

However, moving on, probably the most important reason for the rubbish spouted by scientists and university researchers is a human problem. Universities have to maintain their standing and prestige by constantly publishing research papers. Those research papers are produced as the result of research work done by graduates under the guidance of a professor. That work costs money which is provided by rich people as ‘grants’. The rich people are normally rich because they have a lucrative business, and they can bring pressure to bear on the Professor, not to allow any research which would compete with their existing business profits. That way, the output from the main universities is controlled and if any honest researcher is not willing to go along with what is being said, then that researcher is blacklisted and even ridiculed by his former colleagues, and he finds it impossible to get any further research position anywhere. Scientific information has been suppressed for more than a hundred years now.

So, the result of these things is that the straightforward reality of free-energy devices is denied (tongue in cheek generally) by scientists who don’t want to be blacklisted and who are fully aware that what they are stating is actually lies. The internet is making things difficult for them, but they are still doing a fine job of fooling most of the people for most of the time, banking on a general lack of knowledge by the public.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
Chapter 1: Magnet Power

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to follow parts of this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

One thing which we are told, is that permanent magnets can’t do any work. Oh yes, magnets can support themselves against the pull of gravity when they stick on your refrigerator, but, we are told, they can’t do any work. Really?

What exactly IS a permanent magnet? Well, if you take a piece of suitable material like ‘mild’ steel, put it inside a coil of wire and drive a strong electrical current through the coil, then that converts the steel into a permanent magnet. What length of time does the current need to be in the coil to make the magnet? Less than one hundredth of a second. How long can the resulting magnet support its own weight against gravity? Years and years. Does that not strike you as strange? See how long you can support your own body weight against gravity before you get tired. Years and years? No. Months, then? No. Days, even? No.

Well if you can’t do it, how come the magnet can? Are you suggesting that a single pulse for a minute fraction of a second can pump enough energy into the piece of steel to power it for years? That doesn’t seem very logical, does it? So, how does the magnet do it?

The answer is that the magnet does not actually exert any power at all. In the same way that a solar panel does not put any effort into producing electricity, the power of a magnet flows from the environment and not from the magnet. The electrical pulse which creates the magnet, aligns the atoms inside the steel and creates a magnetic “dipole” which has the same effect that the electrical “dipole” of a battery does. It polarises the quantum environment surrounding it and causes great streams of energy flow around itself. One of the attributes of this energy flow is what we call “magnetism” and that allows the magnet to stick to the door of your refrigerator and defy gravity for years on end.

Unlike the battery, we do not put it in a position where it immediately destroys its own dipole, so as a result, energy flows around the magnet, pretty much indefinitely. We are told that permanent magnets can’t be used to do useful work. That is not true.

ShenHe Wang’s Permanent Magnet Motor.
This is a picture of a Chinese man, ShenHe Wang, who has designed and built an electrical generator of five kilowatt capacity. This generator is powered by permanent magnets and so uses no fuel to run. It uses magnetic particles suspended in a liquid. It should have been on public display at the Shanghai World Expo from 1st May
2010 to 31st October 2010 but the Chinese government stepped in and would not allow it. Instead, they would only allow him show a wristwatch-size version which demonstrated that the design worked but which would be of no practical use in power generation:

Most inventors don't seem to realise it, but almost every government is opposed to members of the public getting hold of any serious free-energy device (although they are happy to use these devices themselves). Their objective is to dominate and control ordinary people and a major factor in that is to control the supply and cost of power. A second method used everywhere is to control money, and without noticing it, governments manage to take away about 78% of people's income, mainly by concealed methods, indirect taxes, charges, fees, .... If you want to know more about it, then visit www.yourstrawman.com but please understand that the reason why free-energy devices are not for sale in your local shop has to do with political control and vested financial interests and has nothing whatsoever to do with the technology. All technological problems have been solved, literally thousands of times, but the benefits have been suppressed by those in power.

Two of Mr Wang's 5 kilowatt generators successfully completed the Chinese government's mandatory six-month “Reliability and Safety” testing programme in April 2008. One large Chinese consortium has started buying up coal-fired electricity generating stations in China in order to refurbish them with pollution-free large versions of Wang’s generator. Some information on the construction of the Wang motor is available here: http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl//Wang.pdf.

The motor consists of a rotor which has four arms and which sits in a shallow bowl of liquid which has a colloidal suspension of magnetic particles in it:
There is a patent on the motor but it is not in English and what it reveals is not a major amount.

It was Mr Wang's intention to give his motor design to every country in the world and invite them to make it for themselves. This very generous attitude does not take into account the many vested financial interests in each country, not the least of which is the government of that country, which will oppose the introduction of any device which taps into free-energy and which, consequently, would destroy their continuous streams of income. It is even possible that you would not be allowed to go to China, buy one and bring it back with you for use at home.

It is not easy to arrange permanent magnets in a pattern which can provide a continuous force in a single direction, as there tends to be a point where the forces of attraction and repulsion balance and produce a position in which the rotor settles down and sticks. There are various ways to avoid this happening. It is possible to modify the magnetic field by diverting it through a soft iron component.
There are many other designs of permanent magnet motor, but before showing some of them, it is probably worth discussing what useful work can be performed by the rotating shaft of a permanent magnet motor. With a home-built permanent magnet motor, where cheap components have been used and the quality of workmanship may not be all that great (though that is most definitely not the case with some home construction), the shaft power may not be very high. Generating electrical power is a common goal, and that can be achieved by causing permanent magnets to pass by coils of wire. The closer to the wire coils, the greater the power generated in those coils. Unfortunately, doing this creates magnetic drag and that drag increases with the amount of electrical current being drawn from the coils.

There are ways to reduce this drag on the shaft rotation. One way is to use an Ecklin-Brown style of electrical generator, where the shaft rotation does not move magnets past coils, but instead, moves a magnetic screen which alternatively blocks and restores a magnetic path through the generating coils. A commercially available material called “mu-metal” is particularly good as magnetic shield material and a piece shaped like a plus sign is used in the Ecklin-Brown generator.

John Ecklin’s Magnetic-Shielding Generator.
John W. Ecklin was granted US Patent Number 3,879,622 on 29th March 1974. The patent is for a magnet/electric motor generator which produces an output greater than the input necessary to run it. There are two styles of operation. The main illustration for the first is:

Here, the (clever) idea is to use a small low-power motor to rotate a magnetic shield to mask the pull of two magnets. This causes a fluctuating magnet field which is used to rotate a generator drive.

In the diagram above, the motor at point ‘A’ rotates the shaft and shielding strips at point ‘B’. These rectangular mu-metal strips form a very conductive path for the magnetic lines of force when they are lined up with the ends of the magnets and they effectively shut off the magnet pull in the area of point ‘C’. At point ‘C’, the spring-loaded traveller is pulled to the left when the right-hand magnet is shielded and the left hand magnet is not shielded. When the motor shaft rotates further, the traveller is pulled to the right when the left-hand magnet is shielded and the right hand magnet is not shielded. This oscillation is passed by mechanical linkage to point ‘D’ where it is used to rotate a shaft used to power a generator.

As the effort needed to rotate the magnetic shield is relatively low, it is claimed that the output exceeds the input and so can be used to power the motor which rotates the magnetic shield.

The second method for exploiting the idea is shown in the patent as:
Here, the same shielding idea is utilised to produce a reciprocating movement which is then converted to two rotary motions to drive two generators. The pair of magnets ‘A’ are placed in a housing and pressed towards each other by two springs. When the springs are fully extended, they are just clear of the magnetic shield ‘B’. When a small electric motor (not shown in the diagram) moves the magnetic shield out of the way, the two magnets are strongly repelled from each other as their North poles are close together. This compresses the springs and through the linkages at ‘C’ they turn two shafts to generate output power.

A modification of this idea is the Ecklin-Brown Generator. In this arrangement, the movable magnetic shielding arrangement provides a direct electrical output rather than a mechanical movement:

Here, the same motor and rotating magnetic shield arrangement is used, but the magnetic lines of force are blocked from flowing through a central I-piece. This I-piece is made of laminated iron slivers and has a pickup coil or coils wound around it.

The device operates as follows:

In the position shown on the left, the magnetic lines of force flow downwards through the pickup coils. When the motor shaft has rotated a further ninety degrees, the situation on the right occurs and there, the magnetic lines of force flow upwards through the pickup coils. This is shown by the blue arrows in the diagram. This reversal of magnetic flux takes place four times for every rotation of the motor shaft.

While the Ecklin-Brown design assumes that an electric motor is used to rotate the mu-metal shield, there does not seem to be any reason why the rotation should not be done with a permanent magnet motor.
Toroidal shapes are clearly important in many devices which pull in additional energy from the environment. However, the Ecklin-Brown generator looks a little complicated for home construction, the principle can be used with a much more simple style of construction where the cores of the output coils are straight bars of suitable material such as ‘soft’ iron or perhaps the more readily available masonry anchors:

If using the masonry anchors, be sure to cut the conical end off as it alters the magnetic effect in an undesirable way. Using a hand hacksaw and a vise, cutting the end off is a very easy thing to do and that allows an ordinary helical coil to be wound either directly on the shaft or on a simple bobbin which slides on to the shaft. With any such coil, the voltage produced increases as the number of turns in the coil increases. The maximum current draw depends on the thickness of the wire as the thicker the wire, the greater the current which it can carry without overheating.

We can use an ordinary magnet or set of magnets at each end of the straight core to cause a strong magnetic field to flow through the core of our coil. As the motor spins the two screening arms they pass alternately between the magnet at one end of the core and then the magnet at the other end of the core, creating a fluctuating magnetic field passing through the coil.

The drawing shows just one output coil, but there could be two coils:
Or there could be four coils:

The coils can be connected in parallel to increase the output current, or they can be connected in series (in a chain configuration) to increase the output voltage. While the drawings show the shields connected directly to the motor drive shaft (a short length of plastic sleeving from a piece of wire would probably be used to help with alignment of the motor shaft and the shielding axle) there is no reason why the shielding should not be on a separate axle mounted in bearings and driven by a belt and pulley wheel arrangement.

With a separate shielding axle, allows a long, stiff axle to be used and that allows there to be additional coils and magnets. The result could be like this:
Returning to permanent magnet motors themselves, one of the top names in this field is Howard Johnson. Howard built, demonstrated and gained US patent 4,151,431 on 24th April 1979, from a highly sceptical patent office for, his design of a permanent magnet motor. He used powerful but very expensive Cobalt/Samarium magnets to increase the power output and demonstrated the motor principles for the Spring 1980 edition of *Science and Mechanics* magazine. His motor configuration is shown here:

The point that he makes is that the magnetic flux of his motor is always unbalanced, thus producing a continuous rotational drive. The rotor magnets are joined in stepped pairs, connected by a non-magnetic yoke. The stator magnets are placed on a mu-metal apron cylinder. Mu-metal is very highly conductive to magnetic flux (and is expensive). The patent states that the armature magnet is 3.125" (79.4 mm) long and the stator magnets are 1" (25.4 mm) wide, 0.25" (6 mm) deep and 4" (100 mm) long. It also states that the rotor magnet pairs are not set at 120 degrees apart but are staggered slightly to smooth out the magnetic forces on the rotor. It also states that the air gap between the magnets of the rotor and the stator are a compromise in that the greater the gap, the smoother the running but the lower the power. So, a gap is chosen to give the greatest power at an acceptable level of vibration.

Howard considers permanent magnets to be room-temperature superconductors. Presumably, he sees magnetic material as having electron spin directions in random directions so that their net magnetic field is near zero until the electron spins are aligned by the magnetising process which then creates an overall net permanent magnetic field, maintained by the superconductive electrical flow.
The magnet arrangement is shown here, with the inter-magnet gaps assessed from the drawing in Howard’s patent:

Note that Howard Johnson did not draw the inter-magnet gaps as equal distances.

A magazine article on this can be seen at [http://newebmasters.com/freeenergy/sm-pg48.html](http://newebmasters.com/freeenergy/sm-pg48.html).
Stephen Kundel’s Permanent Magnet Motor.
Stephen Kundel’s motor design is shown in full detail in his patent which is shown on page A - 968 of the Appendix. It uses a simple oscillating motion to position the “stator” magnets so that they provide a continuous rotational force on the output shaft:

Figures 2 and 3 show the position of the magnets, with the Figure 3 position showing a point in the output shaft rotation which is 180 degrees (half a turn) further on than the position shown in Figure 2.
Some other, more powerful magnet arrangements which can be used with this design are shown in the full patent in the Appendix.

This design does not seem to appeal to many constructors in spite of the fact that it must be one of the easiest magnet motors to set up and make work. The output power level can be as big as you want as additional layers of magnets can be added. The operation is very simple and it can, perhaps, be seen more easily if just one lever arm is considered. The lever arm has just two working positions. In one position it acts on one set of rotor magnets and in the second position it acts on a second set of rotor magnets. So, we will look at each set in turn. If there are two magnets near each other, one fixed in position and the other free to move like this:

The magnets have a strong attraction to each other because of the North and South poles attracting each other. However, as the two South poles repel each other, the movement of the approaching magnet is not directly along the green arrows shown but initially is in the direction shown by the red arrow. This situation continues with the moving magnet approaching the fixed magnet and the pull between them getting stronger all the time. But, the situation changes immediately the moving magnet reaches its closest point to the fixed magnet. Momentum starts to carry it past, but at that point the direction of the pull between the magnets starts to oppose the onward movement of the moving magnet:

If the fixed magnet remains in that position, then the moving magnet will oscillate briefly and come to a halt directly opposite the fixed magnet like this:

The attraction forces between the two magnets is now wholly horizontal and there is no force on the movable magnet to cause it to move. This is simple stuff, understood by anyone who has examined permanent magnets in order to see what they do. Stephen Kundel is well aware of this, and so he moves the “fixed” magnet rapidly out of the way before the reverse-direction pull slows the moving magnet down. He moves the magnet sideways and slides another one into position like this:
The new magnet is now much closer to the moving magnet and so has a much greater influence on it. The poles of the new magnet match the poles of the moving magnet which causes them to push apart very strongly, driving the moving magnet onwards in the direction it was moving in. The moving magnet moves very quickly and so gets out of the range of the fixed magnets quite quickly, at which point, the “fixed” magnets of the stator are moved back into their original position where they act in the same way on the next moving magnet attached to the rotor.

This very simple operation only requires a small force to move the stator magnets sideways between their two positions, while the force between the stator magnets and the rotor magnets can be high, producing considerable rotational power to the axle on which the rotor discs are attached.

The efficiency of the system is further boosted because when the stator magnets are in the first position shown, the second “fixed” magnet is not sitting idle but instead, it acts on the magnet of the next rotor disc:

For this, the magnets attached to Rotor disc 2 have to be positioned so that their poles are the reverse of those attached to Rotor disc 1. Stephen uses a loudspeaker to wobble the horizontal bar on which the stator magnets are mounted, backwards and forwards as a loudspeaker has that mechanism already built into it. Don Kelly’s permanent magnet motor also uses this very simple idea of moving the stator magnets out of the way at the appropriate moment.

**Charles “Joe” Flynn's Permanent Magnet Motor.**
Patent US 5,455,474 dated 3rd October 1995 and shown in full in the Appendix, gives details of this interesting design. It says: “This invention relates to a method of producing useful energy with magnets as the driving force and represents an important improvement over known constructions and it is one which is simpler to construct, can be made to be self starting, is easier to adjust, and is less likely to get out of adjustment. The present construction is also relatively easy to control, is relatively stable and produces an amazing amount of output energy considering the source of driving energy that is used. The present construction makes use of permanent magnets as the source of driving energy but shows a novel means of controlling the magnetic interaction or coupling between the magnet members and in a manner which is relatively rugged, produces a substantial...
amount of output energy and torque, and in a device capable of being used to generate substantial amounts of energy.”

The patent describes more than one motor. The first one is like this when seen from the side:

An exploded view, shows the different parts clearly:
This construction is relatively simple and yet the operation is powerful. The power is provided by three magnets, shown shaded in blue and yellow. The lower magnet is in the form of a disc with the poles arranged on the large, circular, flat faces. This is the stator magnet which does not move. Positioned above it is a disc made of non-magnetic material (shaded in grey) and which has two magnets embedded in it. This disc is the rotor and is attached to the central vertical shaft.

Normally, the rotor would not rotate, but between the two discs there is a ring of seven coils which are used to modify the magnetic fields and produce powerful rotation. The powering up of these coils is very simple and it is arranged by shining a beam of Ultra Violet light from one of the Light-Emitting Diodes through a slot in an optical-timing disc attached to the rotating shaft. The LEDs and the photo-transistors are aligned with the centres of the seven coils. The position and width of the slot controls which photo-transistor gets switched on and for how long it remains powered up. This is a very neat and compact arrangement. The really interesting part of the design is how the coils modify the magnetic fields to produce the output power of the device. The orientation of the magnet poles can be swapped over, provided that this is done for all three magnets.
Shown here is the situation when one of the rotor magnets has rotated to where it is above one of the coils which is not yet powered up. The South pole of the rotor magnet is attracted to the North pole which is the entire upper face of the stator magnet as shown by the three arrows. If a voltage is applied to the coil, then this magnetic coupling is disrupted and altered. If any torque is developed as a result of the coil being powered up, then it will be developed to either side of the energised coil. If the coil is not powered up, then there will be full attraction between the magnets and no rotational force will be produced. You will notice that there are two rotating magnets (an even number) and seven coils (an odd number) so when one of the rotor magnets is above a coil, then the other isn’t. This staggering of the two positions is essential for generating smooth, continuous rotational torque and self-starting without any need to rotate the shaft manually.

The diagram above shows a piece from both sides of the rotor disc, to explain the operation of the coils. On the left, magnet 56 overlaps coil 32 and coil 34. Coil 32 is powered up and this breaks the magnetic link on the left hand side of magnet 56. But, coil 34 is not powered up, so the attraction between magnet 56 and the disc magnet under the coils remains. Even though this attraction is at a downward angle, it creates a push on the rotor, driving it towards the right as shown by the red arrow.

While this is happening, the situation around the other side of the rotor disc, is shown on the right. Here, magnet 54 is above coil 36 and that coil is not powered up, so there is no resulting drive in either direction - just a downward pull on the rotor magnet, towards the stator magnet below it. The adjacent coil 38 is also not powered up and so has no effect on the rotation. This method of operation is very close to that of the motor design of Robert Adams described in the next chapter. It is important to understand that this method of operation is nothing like that of the John Bedini pulsers where the rotation of a disc is caused by the electrical pulse applied to a coil creating a repulsion thrust to a rotor magnet. Instead, here, the coil acts as a magnetic shield, being provided with the minimum possible power to do its job. The coil is, in effect, a shield which has no moving parts, and so is a very clever mechanism for overcoming the tendency for the rotor magnets to lock on to the stator magnets and preventing rotation.

At any moment, six of the seven coils in this design are inactive, so in effect, just one coil is powered. This is not a major current drain. It is important to understand that the power of this motor is provided by the permanent magnets pulling towards each other. Each of the two magnets applies a horizontal pull on the rotor every seventh of a turn, that is, every 51.1 degrees in the rotation. As the coils are an uneven number, the rotor gets a magnetic pull every 25.5 degrees in the rotation, first from one rotor magnet and then from the other rotor magnet.

It follows then, that the power of the motor can be increased by adding more magnets. The first step in this search for additional power is to add a second disc magnet and coils on the other side of the rotor, so that there is a second pull on the magnet. This has the added advantage that it balances the downwards pull of the first disc magnet with an upward pull, giving an enhanced and balanced horizontal thrust as shown here:
The coil switching with the additional layer of coils is shown here:

![Coil switching diagram](image)

This produces a larger horizontal thrust. While this design goes for optimum performance, I suggest that a much more simple form of construction with a ring of standard circular neodymium magnets could be used instead of one large disc magnet, and ordinary circular coils placed on top of the circular magnets, and this allows large diameter rotors to be constructed, the larger diameter giving greater output shaft power:

![Magnets and coils diagram](image)

To increase the power of the output shaft further again, additional sets of magnets and coils can be added as shown here:
It should be remembered that the timing section shown above could be replaced by a NE555 timer circuit which generates a steady stream of On / Off pulses. When those pulses are fed to the coils, the motor rotates, slaving itself to the pulse rate. This gives an immediate speed control for the motor as well as avoiding the need for the precise positioning of the slotted disc which allows the LEDs to shine directly on to the phototransistors at the appropriate instant. If that approach is taken, then the timing section shown above would be omitted.

The circuitry that Charles specifies for powering the coils to block the magnetic fields of the permanent magnets uses N-channel MOSFETs and is very simple. Here is his circuit for driving one of the coils:
Just five components are used. The current through the coil is controlled by a transistor. In this case it is a Field-Effect Transistor usually called a "FET". The most common type of FET is used, namely an "N-channel" FET which is the rough equivalent to an NPN transistor as described in Chapter 12. A FET of this type is switched off when the voltage on it's "gate" (marked "g" in the diagram) is 2.5 volts or lower. It is switched on when the voltage on it's gate is 4.5 volts or more.

In this circuit we want the FET to switch on when the motor's timing disc is in the right position and be off at all other times. This is arranged by shining the light from a Light-Emitting Diode or "LED" through a hole in the timing disc which rotates with the shaft of the motor. When the hole is opposite the LED for the coil which is to be powered up, light shines through the hole and on to a light-sensitive device, Charles has opted to use a Light-Sensitive transistor, but a light-dependent resistor such as an ORP12 could be used instead. When the light shines on the "Opto1" device in the circuit diagram, it's resistance falls dramatically, raising the voltage on the gate of the FET and switching it on. When the timing disc hole moves past the LED, the light is cut off and the FET gate voltage drops down, switching the FET off. This arrangement causes the coil of the motor to be switched on and off at just the right time to give a powerful rotation of the motor shaft. In the circuit, the resistor "R1" is there to make sure that the current flowing through the LED is not excessive. The resistor "R2" has a low value compared to the resistance of "Opto1" when no light falls on it, and this holds the gate voltage of the FET down to a low value, making sure that the FET is completely off.

As you can see, this is basically a very simple circuit. However, as one of these circuits is used for each coil (or each pair of coils if there is an even number of coils in this slice of the motor), the circuit in the patent looks quite complicated. It is actually very simple. The resistor "R1" is used to limit the current flow through all of the LEDs used and not just one LED. You could, of course, use one resistor for each LED if you wanted to. The circuit for powering two coils (and not showing the timing disc) looks like this:
Connecting several coils "in series" (in a chain) like this, reduces the number of electronic components needed and it makes sure that the pulses to each of these coils is at exactly the same instant. Alternatively, it is possible to wire these coils across each other "in parallel", the choice is generally dictated by the resistance of the coils. The patent drawing shown above seems to indicate that there is a big gap between the LEDs and the optical devices. This is probably not the case as most people would choose to keep the gap between the LED and the light-dependent device as small as possible, mounting them so that they are just clear of the timing disc on each side of it.

In this patent, Charles Flynn remarks that this magnet motor can be used for almost any purpose where a motor or engine drive is required and where the amount of energy available or required to produce the driving force may vary little to nil. Charles has produced motors of this type which are capable of rotating at very high speed - 20,000 rpm and with substantial torque. Lesser speeds can also be produced, and the motor can be made to be self-starting. Because of the low power required to operate the device, Charles has been able to operate the motor using just a nine volt dry battery.

One application which sees most appropriate for this motor design is the Frenette heater shown in Chapter 14. Using this motor to drive the discs inside the heater drum would produce a heater which appears to be driven by just a nine-volt battery. However, while that is the appearance, the reality is that the power of this motor comes from the permanent magnets and not from the battery. The battery current is only used to prevent the backward pull of the magnets and it is not used to drive the motor.

While the use of a timing disc is a very satisfactory arrangement, it is also possible to use electronic circuitry instead of the mechanical timing disc, the opto devices and the LEDs. What is needed here is a device which produces a series of voltage pulses which can be used to drive the gate voltage of each FET from below 2.5 volts to over 4.5 volts. It looks as if the well-known 555 timer chip would be suited to this task and it would certainly run off the nine-volt battery. However, we have more than one set of coils which need to be run. For example, if we have say, four sets of coils to drive by powering up four different FET transistors one after the other, then we could use a "Divide-by-Eight" chip, like the 4022 chip. This chip can be set to divide by any number from two to eight. All that is needed to select the number to divide by, is one connection between two of the pins on the chip.
The output voltage on the pins marked "1", "2", "3" and "4" goes high one after the other as shown in the diagram above. So, each of these output pins would be connected to the FET gates in that order and the FETs would get switched on in that same order.

With the 4022 chip, the connections for the rate of division are as follows:

- For ‘Divide by 7’ operation, connect pin 10 to pin 15
- For ‘Divide by 6’ operation, connect pin 5 to pin 15
- For ‘Divide by 5’ operation, connect pin 4 to pin 15
- For ‘Divide by 4’ operation, connect pin 11 to pin 15
- For ‘Divide by 3’ operation, connect pin 7 to pin 15
- For ‘Divide by 2’ operation, connect pin 3 to pin 15

When using a circuit like this, the pulse rate from the 555 chip is set to a very low value like half a second, so that the motor shaft can get started. Once it gets moving, the pulse rate is gradually increased to speed the motor up. One advantage of this method is that it allows speed control, and if the motor was being used to power a Frenette heater, then the speed control would also act as a temperature control for the heater.

A possible 555 chip circuit might be:
As this allows the speed to be controlled and when the required speed is reached, the pulse width can then be adjusted to give the minimum current draw to maintain that speed. There are, of course, many other suitable circuits which could be used instead of this one and Chapter 12 will fill you in on some of them as well as explaining how circuits work and how to build them.

If it so happens that it is difficult to find suitable circular magnets with the poles on opposing faces, then I suggest that it should be possible to use standard rectangular magnets throughout and rectangular coils as shown here:

And while this arrangement is not as magnetically efficient as a circular magnet, it does have the convenience of allowing the construction of a rotor of any chosen size. Ideally, unlike the stator shown above, there should be an odd number of magnets, or failing that, an odd number of coils. Alternatively, the rotor could have an odd number of magnets so as to allow self-starting. But, it should be noted that if the motor is to be driven by an electronic pulsing system, then it is very much more simple to have an even number of magnets on the stator and start the motor moving by hand. This is because with an odd number of stator magnets, the opto sensors are not exactly opposite each other and so do not fire together. With an even number of stator magnets, the coils which are 180 degrees apart can be wired together as they fire at exactly the same time. With the slotted optical timing disc, the slots are exactly opposite each other and match the width of the rotor magnets, but the coils (nearly) opposite each other are not powered on and off at exactly the same time, although their powered arcs are likely to overlap for part of their operation. This could be catered for electronically by using a monostable delay for the coil on the opposite side of the disc.

The objective of each coil is to just, and only just, cancel out the magnetic field of the permanent magnet underneath it. The magnetic field produced by the coil depends on the current flowing in the coil, the number of turns in the coil and the area of the coil. The current flowing depends on the diameter of the wire and the voltage applied to it. It is probably necessary to mount just one magnet on the stator and experiment with the coil until
your current drive and coil allow the rotor to spin freely. Whatever the coil result is, should be ok for all of the magnets even though they are likely to vary in strength a bit.

**Steorn's Magnetic Devices.**
The Irish company Steorn have produced a system which is almost identical to the Charles Flynn magnet motor just described. They call their device "Orbo" and its operation is pretty much the same. The advance made by Steorn is that they have devised a very clever magnetic masking system using ferrite toroids wound with a copper wire coil. This is a slick method of switching magnetic attraction on and off. When the coil carries a sufficient current it generates a circular magnetic field spiralling around the toroid and not going outside the toroid. This field does not have an attraction for outside magnets. It makes no difference if the direction of the current flow through the coil is reversed as the resulting magnetic field just spins around the toroid in the opposite direction and performs exactly the same magnetic blocking of the ferrite ring which forms the toroid. If no current flows, then the copper wire does not block off the influence of the ferrite ring and the permanent magnets on the rotor are strongly attracted to it, causing the rotor to spin.

On their web site [www.steorn.com](http://www.steorn.com), Steorn illustrate their design like this:

![Diagram of Steorn's Magnetic Devices](image)

In this implementation, eight ferrite rings are mounted on the stator in four locations ninety degrees apart. These are wound with copper wire coils which can be powered by a battery, via a timing mechanism. The rotor has embedded in it, eight pairs of small permanent magnets, also spaced ninety degrees apart.

In exactly the same way as the Adams motor described in chapter 2, the current through the coils is set to the minimum level which allows the rotor to spin freely. The timing mechanism is then switched in and the motor and the rotor given a spin. The rotor magnets are strongly attracted to their corresponding ferrite rings mounted on the stator posts and this accelerates the rotor.

If no current is passed through the coils, then the rotor will oscillate backwards and forwards for a short time before coming to rest with the magnets as close to the ferrite rings as possible. To prevent this happening, the timing circuit senses when the magnets reach the ferrite rings, and passes that minimum current through the coils, trapping the rings inside a magnetic field which has no effect on the rotor magnets. The momentum of the rotor causes it to spin on past the stator rings to a position where the magnets are closer to the next rings than they are to the ones which they have just passed, at which point, the current is cut off and the magnetic attraction to the ferrite rings returns. This is identical to one mode of operation of the Adams motor.

The next step is also identical to that of the Adams motor, namely, to add on some pick-up coils to convert some of the rotating magnetic energy into electrical energy, either to recharge the driving battery or to power other equipment, or both.

Steorn's arrangement for doing this is to add an additional disc, containing permanent magnets, to the rotor and positioning wire coils opposite those magnets as is normal for a generator. Steorn choose to show the resulting energy charging up the battery again:

On their web site [www.steorn.com](http://www.steorn.com), Steorn illustrate their design like this:  

![Diagram of Steorn's Magnetic Devices](image)
Video presentations on this style of motor/generator are at:
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AXamGLyRkt8&NR=1
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rg3rlqYMzN4&feature=related and
http://jnaudin.free.fr/steorn/indexen.htm

We tend to think of this style of magnet-powered motor as being low-power. This is probably because it is often the case that the demonstration proof-of-principle implementations shown are minor devices. These motors can be very powerful and the one shown here, designed and built by Mr Sung of China has an output power of 20 kilowatts or twenty-seven horsepower:

And another design which has a larger diameter and about 144 magnets has a reported output of 225 horsepower:
You will notice that each ring of magnets is positioned further around the rim of the cylinder providing powerful pulses from 64 magnets every 22.5 degrees of rotation, so it is little wonder that the motor has considerable shaft power. Some of the coils can be switched to collect power if the working conditions do not need the full shaft output power, charging the drive battery. The rotating inner cylinder has permanent magnets mounted on it.

George Soukup’s Permanent Magnet Motor.
There used to be a video on the web, showing a magnet motor built on the “V” style of magnet placement which has two sets of permanent magnets spaced like this:

This style of magnet arrangement (North magnets shown in blue and South in red) has a locking point where the switch from wide spacing to narrow spacing occurs and this causes the rotation to stop there.

The implementation shown in this video has the V magnets spaced rather more widely apart as shown here:
The taper is much less pronounced with an inner gap some four times greater than the gap to the outer ring. It also appears that the last inner magnet has a greater gap around the drum than the remaining ring of magnets.

The housing is very simple looking, with an evenly spaced ring of twelve holes to take long magnets with alternating North and South magnetised areas along their length. You will notice from the photographs, that George has cavities to take up to twelve stacks of stator magnets, although he only uses any five of them for his demonstrations.

The housing has considerable clearance for the drum and magnets. The rear shaft bearing is just set into the back of the housing:
The front has two sheets of acrylic, one to hold the insert magnets in place and one to provide the shaft's front bearing support:

As there is no commentary with the video it is a little difficult to pick up all of the details, but it seems that positioning stator magnets allows the motor to overcome the normal sticking point of the typical V-motor arrangement. The video shows various arrangements including the non-symmetrical grouping shown here where four or five consecutive magnets are used and the remaining slots left empty:
Dietmar Hohl’s Permanent Magnet Motor

If you would like to make a simple motor of this type, then the information provided by Dietmar Hohl, passed to me by Jes Ascanius of Denmark, shows you how. He uses 20 mm diameter round neodymium magnets 10 mm thick, stacked in pairs in the stator of this layout:

![Diagram of Magnetic Gate Arrangement]

This shows a magnetic gate arrangement built on a flat piece of Medium-Density Fibreboard 30 mm thick. The holes drilled in it are 20.1 mm in diameter and positioned so as to take two of the 10 mm thick magnets stacked together. The holes are drilled at an angle of 63 degrees to the horizontal or 27 degrees to the vertical, whichever way you prefer to think of it. On one side of the board, the inserted magnets have their North poles facing upwards, while on the other side of the board, the magnets are inserted with their South poles facing upwards. Dietmar shows six holes to take bolts or screws to fasten the piece of MDF to a larger board or table. Those do not form any part of the magnetic system and can be omitted. A video of one version of it in action can be found at [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Vtrack.mpg](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Vtrack.mpg).

The gate operates by causing a stack of ten of the magnets to roll along the V-shaped track and pass smoothly across the junction with the next set of V-positioned magnets. There can be as many of these V-sets as you want and the magnet stack will still keep rolling. This is one of the few magnetic gate designs which adapts to drum operation as a motor rotor.

The magnets are positioned at an angle in order to use the magnetic fields at the edge of the magnets. They are stacked in pairs to increase their power. The power of the motor depends on the strength of the magnets, how close the stator magnet stacks are to the VF-track magnets and the number of stacks of stator magnets. If you decide to construct one of these motors, then it is suggested that you make things easier for yourself by keeping the curvature low, using three or four of the Vs. With Dietmar’s dimensions, a 2-V drum would be 216.5 mm (8.5”) in diameter, a 3-V drum would have a 325 mm (12.8”) diameter and a 4-V drum a diameter of 433 mm (17”) and those dimensions include the 30 mm (1 3/16”) strip which holds the magnets, so the inner drum diameters are 30 mm less in each case.

When making the motor drum, it is possible to use a flexible material to hold the magnets. This allows the strip to be laid out flat while the holes are drilled, and then attached to the outside of a rigid drum with a 60 mm lesser diameter than the ones mentioned above. Jes Acaniaus of Denmark shows how a jig can be made to make drilling the holes easier:
This one has had a length of copper pipe inserted at the correct angle, in order to direct the drill bit at the exact angle required. This motor has been successfully replicated by Jes Ascanius of Denmark who used 10 mm magnets which were to hand, and again with square magnets which were pushed into round holes and not even angled in this proof-of-concept implementation which only took one hour to build using scrap material to hand, and which did work:

With Dietmar’s design using angles magnet pairs, the number of magnets needed is quite high. For a single V, there are 58 magnets. For a 2-V version, 106 magnets. For a 3-V version, 154 magnets and for a 4-V version, 202 magnets if there is only one stack of stator magnets, so ten extra magnets need to be added to the count for each additional ten-magnet stack of stator magnets. The motor power is likely to increase as the diameter increases as the lever arm that the magnet has to turn the drum, increases – double the diameter to (almost) double the power.

Simple Permanent Magnet Motors
It is very difficult to use the power of permanent magnets to make a motor powered by them alone. The Dietmar Hohl design shown above is one of the very few which can readily be made and tested at home. The problem is that almost all magnets have a symmetrical magnetic field, while what is needed for a magnet-powered motor is an asymmetrical magnetic field. Consequently, magnets have to be combined in ways which distort their normal field shape. You will notice that in the Hohl motor, the drive magnets are angled and that is an important feature of using magnets in motors.
Schools currently teach that the magnetic field surrounding a bar magnet is like this:

This is deduced by scattering iron filings on a sheet of paper held near the magnet. Unfortunately, that is not a correct deduction as the iron filings distort the magnetic field by their presence, each becoming a miniature magnet in its own right and alters the magnetic properties of the space around the magnet in the plane of the iron filings. More careful measurement shows that the field actually produced by a bar magnet is like this:

There are many lines of force, although these diagrams show only two of them. In reality, the lines of force at the corners fan out in three dimensions, with curved, circular-flowing lines above the top of the magnet, circular lines below the lower face of the magnet. These lines of force are roughly in the shape of a football with the corner of the magnet in the centre of the football. Actually, there are many layers of these lines of magnetic force, so it is like having a whole series of gradually bigger and bigger footballs all centred on the corner of the magnet. It is extremely difficult to draw those lines and show them clearly. Howerd Johnston’s book “The Secret World of Magnets” will give you a good idea of the actual lines of force around a bar magnet. The arrangement of these lines of magnetic force is not generally known and if you Google ‘magnetic lines of force images’ you will only find the fiction taught in schools. However, the important fact is that there is a rotating magnetic field at each corner of a typical bar magnet. It follows then that if a row of magnets is placed at an angle, then there will be a resulting net field in a single direction.

For example, if the magnets are rotated forty five degrees clockwise, then the result would be like this:
With this arrangement, the opposing corners of the magnets as shown here, are lower down and so there should be a net magnetic force pushing to the right just above the set of magnets. However, the situation is not as simple and straightforward as you might imagine. The additional lines of magnetic force which have not been shown in the diagram above, act further out from the magnets and they interact, creating a complex composite magnetic field. It is frequently found that after four or five magnets that a short gap needs to be left before the line of magnets is continued on.

Two boys; Anthony and Andreas, have used this magnet arrangement to create a magnetic track and they have a lot of fun, sending a magnet sliding between two of these rows of angled magnets. Initially, they used the cheaper ceramic magnets and got a very satisfactory movement when using a neodymium magnet as the moving component:

You will notice that they have managed a row of 18 ceramic magnets on each side of their track and the results which they are getting are very good. They have three videos on the web at the present time:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vo2-Qb3fUYs
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VeXrFfw4RSU
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VTbFfEEE_qU

The moving magnet is made up of four 12 mm x 12 mm x 12 mm (or half-inch by half inch by half inch) neodymium magnets attached North - South - North - South - North - South - North - South:

They have not disclosed all of the details of what they are using (accidentally rather than by intention). The ceramic stator magnets are 48 mm x 20 mm x 10 mm with the poles on each of the main faces. They position each magnet with it's North pole facing towards the track and they angle the magnets at 45 degrees. There is a
15 mm gap between the stator magnets and the moving magnets on both sides of the track. Wooden strips direct the moving magnets.

Neodymium magnets have very different characteristics to those of ceramic magnets (and that is not just strength of the magnetic field). It is not unusual for experimenters to find that devices will work well with one type of magnet but not with the other type. Here the developers have also tried using two sets of five angled neodymium magnets on each side of their track and the result was a more powerful thrust on their moving magnets.

The magnets are held in place in this picture, by wooden dowels driven into the base plank. They used these in order to avoid any magnet-fastening material which could alter the magnetic field.

The next step would be for them to power a motor using their magnetic track technique. However, this has been tried many times and the conclusion is that it is VERY hard to change a straight magnetic track into one which forms a complete circle. Therefore, I would suggest the following arrangement:

Here, a simple disc rotor has four magnets (of the type used to move down the magnetic track) attached to the underside of the disc and positioned so that they move through four short sets of four, or at the outside, five angled stator magnets as the disc spins. It does not matter if the rotor shaft is horizontal or vertical. If the disc spins well, then sets of two air-core pick-up coils can be positioned between each of the stator magnet arrays so that electricity is generated as the rotor magnets pass by overhead. If a constructor decides to attach two rotor discs to the one rotor shaft, then the two rotors should be positioned so that the rotor shaft gets pushed every 45 degrees of rotation rather than every 90 degrees as shown here. This style of motor is definitely within the scope of the average person to build should they be inclined to do so.
I have been asked to say how I personally would go about constructing a prototype of this nature. As I have very limited constructional skills, I would do it like this:

For the bearing, I would pick a computer cooling fan, as these have very good bearings and if one is not to hand inside an old, obsolete computer, then they can be bought very, very cheaply. The diameter of the fan is not important. These fans generally look something like this:

As the part of the fan which spins round does not normally project above the stationary frame, a spacing disc of wood or plastic is needed to provide the clearance. The disc is glued to the centre of the fan using perhaps, Impact Evostick, epoxy resin or super glue. It would then look like this:

A square of wood can then be screwed to the spacer, like this:

And as I am hopeless at creating good-quality mechanical devices, I would then hold a pencil very steadily against a support and give the wood a spin, so that the pencil draws a perfect circle exactly centred on the bearing of the fan. Then, marking the wood and the spacer so that there is no doubt as to which way round the wood is attached to the spacer, I would unscrew the wood and cut around the pencil line very carefully, smoothing the edges of the disc gently with fine sandpaper. Screwing the disc back in place, a spin should confirm that the edge of the disc stays steadily in place with no wavering of the edge. Actually, if the disc is not perfect, that is not a major problem as it is the rotor magnets which need to be positioned accurately, and for that, another pencil line can produced by spinning the disc when the desired position has been determined.

Permanent magnets vary enormously in size and strength, so when magnets are purchased, it is a matter of testing them using a track of the type used by Anthony and Andreas. The stator magnets are angled at about 45
degrees to the track and with just four on each side, it is a case of finding the spacing between the two sets of angled magnets which pushes the stator magnets furthest along the track.

While it is interesting to see a permanent magnet motor rotate entirely on its own, we really want it to do useful work, and so we mount output coils so that the rotor magnets pass over them during rotation:

An effective method of connecting the output coils together comes from Denis Sabourin of France. The coils are wound as bi-filar coils, that is, wound with two identical lengths of wire side-by-side for every turn, using 50 grams of 0.19 mm diameter wire. Then, they are connected in pairs and the pairs placed in parallel like this:

This method of connection has been found to be very effective for coils which have magnets moving past them and the output might be used to power a Joule Thief to charge batteries:
Donald Kelly's Permanent Magnet Motor.
In 1979, Mr Kelly was granted a patent on a permanent magnet motor design. He comments that apart from it being very difficult to generate sufficient power to mechanically move the stator magnets slightly to achieve continuous rotation, the resulting rate of revolutions is very low. For those reasons, he has opted to move the stator magnets slightly using small DC motors. His design is included here as it is a concept which is relatively easy to understand. The overall idea is not unlike that of Stephen Kundel who rocks the stator magnets with a solenoid, as shown earlier in this chapter. The objective here is to use a small electrical current to generate a powerful rotation far greater than would be possible from the electrical current itself, and so, produce what is in effect, a power multiplication through the use of permanent magnets. A slightly reworded copy of his patent is shown in the Appendix.

The operation is a simple strategy. Eight sets of magnets are mounted on rocker arms. These have two main positions. In the first position, the rocker magnets attract the magnets mounted on the rotor. When the rotor moves because of this attraction and reaches a point where there is about to be a backward drag on the rotor, the position of the rocker arms is altered so that the first set of rocker magnets are moved out of the way to a position where they have little effect due to their increased distance from the rotor magnets. This rocker movement also moves magnets of the opposite polarity which push the rotor magnets on their way. In this design, the attraction and the push are applied to different sets of magnets. If the attraction is on magnets 1, 3, 5, etc. then the push is on magnets 2, 4, 6, etc. But, in spite of this, the pull and push are applied to every rotor magnet as it passes. The power needed to operate the electric motors is minimal as the power of the motor is provided by the magnets. Instead of two tiny motors, it would be possible to operate the rocker arms using small solenoids and if the motor is used to power an electrical generator, then the design could be made self-powered by using some of the electrical output to provide the necessary input power. The sketch above shows just one layer of the motor, but there can be as many layers as you like, each driving the single output shaft, and increasing it's power with every layer.

Mike Brady's “Perendev” Magnet Motor.
One of the most widely known permanent magnet motors is the “Perendev” motor, which catches the imagination of most people. It is said that dozens of these motors have been made and sold as motor/generators with an output of not less than 100 kilowatts. As far as I am aware, this has not been confirmed, nor have there been independent tests made on the motor other than a brief test by Sterling Allan. However, let me stress again that it is very difficult to get any permanent-magnet-only motor operating and it is much easier to start with one like the Adams motor shown in Chapter 2, or the Charles Flynn motor shown earlier in this chapter. Please notice as well, that the magnets used in this design are non-standard magnets and so will be difficult to get and probably very expensive because of that and specialised magnetic shielding is used.
Mike’s Patent Application WO 2006/045333 A1 dated 4th May 2006 is shown in the Appendix. In mid 2010, Mike had so much difficulty in getting his design into commercial production that his financial backers are most unhappy with the situation, and if Mike is having difficulty in replicating it (as did Howard Johnson with his magnet motor) then a newcomer to this field would be well advised to stick with magnet motors which use movement of the stator magnets, such as Don Kelly, Stephen Kundel and others, or magnet motors using mechanical or electrical shielding such as the Charles Flynn motor, the Robert Tracy motor, or the Jines motor.

**Magnetic shielding from Pasi Mäkilä**

A method of blocking a magnetic field using simple materials, comes from Pasi Mäkilä of Finland. His video showing this is at [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=14ayyu9PVSI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=14ayyu9PVSI) and he concentrates on placing shielding around a cylindrical magnet:

![Magnetic shielding example](image)

However, when used as general shielding, a series of flat steel and aluminium layers can be used and while Pasi uses aluminium sheet 1.5 mm thick and zinc-plated steel which is 1 mm thick he suggests using thinner sheets. He suggests using four layers of steel with a sheet of aluminium between the steel sheets and perhaps one or more layers of aluminium on the outside. Pasi’s main aim is to share this arrangement to allow people to make permanent magnet motors. One arrangement which may well be worth trying out is to use the shielding to block the backward drag of rotor magnets passing stator magnets, perhaps like this:
With this arrangement, the South poles of the rotor magnets are attracted to the exposed North poles of the stator magnets, causing the rotor to rotate. As soon as a rotor South passes the stator North pole, the stator shielding blocks the reverse pull which would normally slow the rotor down.

We then have the repulsion of the North pole of the stator magnet and the North pole of the rotor magnet. To block that, a short length of shielding is placed beside the north pole end of the rotor magnet. It would probably be an advantage to run the stator north pole shielding over the top and underside of the rotor magnet to cause major magnetic blocking.

This magnetic motor design is just a suggestion and has not yet been built and tested.

**The Twin Rotor Suggestion**

When you are considering shielding magnets using iron or steel, you need to remember that fridge magnets stick to refrigerators because the refrigerators are made of steel. This demonstrates the fact that there is an attraction between magnets and iron or steel. Consequently, if a magnet is shielded with steel so that it blocks the whole of the magnetic field of the magnet, a second magnet will be attracted to that metal shielding material. At [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vUcWn1x3Tss](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vUcWn1x3Tss) there is, at the present time, a video by “magneticveil” where he proposes the use of this feature of simple shielding in the construction of a magnet motor.

He suggests using two rotors geared together. The rotors have magnets on them, but for the purposes of explanation, just one pair of magnets are shown here:

Each magnet is attracted to the metal shield material between the rotors. This causes the rotors to rotate in the direction shown by the red arrows. The magnets are drawn to the nearest point to the shield which they can reach as shown here:
At this point you would expect the rotors to stop moving and lock into a stationary position. However, the interesting idea is to adjust the shape of the shield like this:

![Diagram of shield and magnets](image)

**SIDE VIEW**

At the end of the shield, its width is reduced and tapered so that the magnetic field from the magnet behind it exactly matches the attraction of the magnet on the near side of the shield. This has the effect of giving a completely neutral zone at the tip of the shield, with neither an attraction or a repulsion in that region. The degree of tapering depends on the strength of the magnets, the thickness and material of the shield and the spacing between the magnets and the shield, and it needs to be discovered by experiment.

This neutral zone stops there being a major pull between the magnets and the shield, and so momentum carries the rotors on past the end of the shield. This produces a situation like this:

![Diagram of magnets and rotors](image)

**TOP VIEW**

Here, the magnets have moved past the shield and are repelling each other strongly. They are beyond the axles of the rotors, so the repelling force produces a turning effect on each rotor. This is the situation with just one pair of magnets, but each rotor will have many magnets on it. This produces an additional turning effect. Consider just one other pair of magnets, in the same position as our first diagram:
The pull between the magnets “A” and the shield, adds to the rotation caused by the push between the unshielded magnets. This arrangement of magnets and shield should allow continuous rotation of both rotors and the motor can be stopped by removing the shield.

It should be noted that this arrangement uses magnets in repulsion mode. That is, the outward-facing poles of the magnets on both rotors are the same. There have been reports of permanent magnet motors where the magnets were in repulsion mode, and while these motors ran well, it was found that after about three months, the magnets lost their magnetisation. If at all possible, magnets should be used in their attraction mode. This is not possible in the above twin-rotor arrangement, so if one is being constructed, it might be a good idea to arrange the physical construction in such a way that the rotor magnets can easily be removed. This allows remagnetisation of the magnets, or alternatively, their replacement if very cheap types are used.

The Permanent Magnet Motor of Victor Diduck
In US patent application number US2007/0296284 of 27th December 2007, there is shown a convincing design for a powerful permanent magnet motor. Here is one of the embodiments from that patent – one which looks reasonably easy to build.

Abstract:
A magnetic motor having a magnetic drive assembly magnetically coupled to a magnetic slave assembly. The drive assembly has at least one drive magnet. In one embodiment the drive magnet is mounted on a cowling. In another embodiment the drive magnet is mounted on a drive wheel. The slave assembly has at least one slave wheel mounted on a slave shaft. At least one slave magnet is mounted on the slave wheel. In one embodiment slave magnets are mounted in grooves running diagonally across the face of the slave wheel. In another embodiment the slave magnets are mounted in notches cut into the slave wheel. The drive magnet is magnetically coupled to the slave magnet with the poles arranged in a like-faces-like orientation. The gap between the drive magnet and slave magnet can be adjusted in order to optimise the magnetic coupling between them. The slave wheel and its slave shaft are caused to rotate by the magnetic coupling between the drive magnet and the slave magnet. The slave shaft can be coupled to an output device such as an electric generator.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
There have been a number of attempts to perfect magnetic motors; for instance, U.S. Pat. No. 4,151,431 issued to Howard Johnson. However, in most such devices no working models have been achieved. In order to make a permanent magnet motor operate it is necessary to accomplish a switching function equivalent to that accomplished in electric motors by brushes, commutators, alternating current, or other means. In permanent magnet motors magnetic leakage must be shielded so as to reduce energy lost as eddy-current energy. A proper combination of materials, geometry, and magnetic concentration is required in order to be able to construct a magnetic motor that can operate continuously.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
A magnetic motor is provided comprising a magnetic drive assembly magnetically coupled to a magnetic slave assembly. The magnetic slave assembly includes a rotatable slave shaft upon which is mounted at least one rotatable slave wheel. Upon the slave wheel is mounted at least one slave magnet. The magnetic drive assembly includes at least one drive magnet which is magnetically coupled to the slave magnet in a like-faces-like orientation. As a result of the magnetic coupling between the drive magnet and the slave magnet, magnetic forces produced between the coupled drive magnet and slave magnet drive the rotatable slave wheel, making it
rotate and therefore causing the slave shaft to rotate. The slave shaft is coupled to an output device such as the armature of an electric generator.

The slave assembly is coupled to a frame. The slave wheels are fixed to the shaft so that the wheels rotate together. Each slave wheel has embedded in its surface a plurality of slave magnets set in indentations cut into the slave wheel. One pole of each slave magnet is exposed and facing outwards from the surface of the slave wheel, and the other magnet pole faces the slave wheel. Either the north pole or the south pole of the slave magnets may face outward, as long each magnet has the same pole facing outwards.

In one embodiment the indentations in the slave wheels for receiving the slave magnets form spaced apart, parallel grooves running from one side of the surface of the slave wheel to the other for receiving the slave magnets. The angle of each groove across the surface of the slave wheel is preferably about 35 degrees with respect to horizontal. The direction of orientation of the grooves of the other of the slave wheels is also about 35 degrees off of the horizontal, but in the opposite direction to that of the first wheel.

In another embodiment the indentations in the slave wheels for receiving the slave magnets are notches cut into the slave wheel at measured and equal intervals along the edges of the wheel, intervals of 45 degrees being preferred.

In this “cowling” embodiment of the invention, the magnetic drive assembly comprises a pair of non-magnetic cowlings surrounding and substantially enclosing each of the slave wheels. Each pair of cowlings forms a semi-circular surface having a diameter slightly larger than the diameter of its respective slave wheel. The concave curvature of the cowlings faces the slave wheels. Mounted on the convex surface of the cowlings are a plurality of permanent drive magnets. The drive magnets are mounted so that they present to the slave magnets the same pole as the slave magnets present to the drive magnets; i.e., like-faces-like: north-to-north or south-to-south. Neither the cowlings nor their drive magnets rotate.

In the various embodiments, the gap between the drive magnets and the slave magnets is adjustable.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Further features and advantages of the invention will be apparent from the following detailed description taken in conjunction with the accompanying drawings, where:

![Fig 1](image)

*Fig.1 is a perspective view of the cowling embodiment of the magnetic motor with fly wheels attached.*
Fig. 2 is partially disassembled perspective view of the cowling embodiment of the magnetic motor.

Fig. 3 is a diagram of the magnet placement on the cowling.
Fig. 4 is a schematic diagram of one slave wheel of the cowlings embodiment showing the position of the permanent magnets.

Fig. 5 is a schematic diagram of another slave wheel of the cowlings embodiment showing the position of the permanent magnets.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

In the various embodiments of the invention there is generally provided a magnetic drive assembly and a magnetic slave assembly, with a magnetic field coupling the drive assembly to the slave assembly such that when the drive assembly rotates it causes the slave assembly to rotate. The coupling is entirely magnetic, where no chains, gears, pulleys, worm drives or other physical couplers are required.

Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show a first embodiment of the invention, referred to herein as the “cowling” embodiment. In this embodiment the magnetic slave assembly of the magnetic motor 101 comprises two solid non-magnetic slave wheels 102 and 202, most clearly seen in Fig. 2. The slave wheels are mounted on a slave shaft 201. Fig. 1 shows an embodiment in which optional fly-wheels 301, 401 are mounted on slave shaft 201. The fly-wheels may be conveniently mounted at or near the ends of the slave shaft. A device 1301 for generating electric current is provided that is directly coupled to the slave shaft, or indirectly coupled through a fly-wheel, as shown in Fig. 1, or through some other element of the magnetic slave assembly.

Except for elements noted herein, the invention is constructed of a non-magnetic material. Phenolic plastic or ceramic materials are currently preferred for the slave wheels and drive wheels, but a wide variety of non-magnetic materials is acceptable so long as the material does not create or exacerbate eddy currents. The diameter of the slave wheels in currently operating models is approximately 10 inches (250 mm), and the width approximately 5 inches (125 mm). The optimum dimensions of the slave wheels will be determined by the specific application of the invention.

As seen in Fig. 2, each slave wheel has a plurality of grooves running from one side to the other. One such groove is designated 701. The grooves in one wheel are oriented at an angle of about 35 degrees to the slave wheel edge, while the grooves of the second wheel are oriented at about 35 degrees to the opposite edge, as can be seen clearly in Fig. 2.
Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 demonstrate the orientation of the grooves and the placement of the slave magnets. The rectangles 104 and 105 represent the surfaces of the slave wheels as if they were laid out flat. The grooves in slave wheel 104 slope downwards from left to right at an angle of about 35 degrees to the horizontal. The grooves in slave wheel 501 slope upward from left to right at an angle of about 35 degrees to the horizontal. In Fig. 4, grooves 204, 404, 604, and 804 are representative of the grooves in one slave wheel. Grooves 205, 405, 605, and 805 of the slave wheel represented in Fig. 5 are representative of grooves in the other slave wheel. Slave magnets are fitted into the grooves. In Fig. 4, representative slave magnets are 304, 504, 704, 904, 1004, and 1104. The preferred position of the slave magnets is that two adjacent grooves have magnets positioned at their ends as shown with 304, 504, and 704 in grooves 204 and 404. The next groove 604 has a single slave magnet 904 centrally placed. This pattern of two grooves with end magnets and the third with a central magnet is repeated. The preferred embodiment has a total of 9 grooves and 15 slave magnets per slave wheel. Fig. 5 shows that the same pattern is used in the second slave wheel, for instance in the manner in which slave magnets 305, 505, 706, 905, 1005, and 1105 are positioned in grooves 205, 405, 605, and 805.

In the preferred embodiment, the north pole of each slave magnet faces outwards from the groove; however, having the south pole facing outwards produces equally satisfactory results. The magnets can be glued into place or otherwise firmly fixed so they do not shift. The attractive forces these magnets produce if opposite poles are allowed to make magnetic contact requires approximately 1200 ft. lbs. to overcome. Slave and drive magnets are permanent magnets and have the same pole facing outwards, producing repulsive forces on the order of a measured 38 gauss.

The magnetic drive assembly of the “cowling” embodiment comprises paired clam-shell cowlings 601a, 601b and 501a, 501b, best seen in Fig. 2, which shows the cowlings in an open position, exposing the slave wheels. Fig. 1 shows the cowlings in the closed position, in which the invention operates. Crank handles 1001, 1101 operate worm-drives to provide for opening and closing the cowlings in order to adjust the gap between the cowlings and the slave wheels, and, hence, the gap between the drive magnets and the slave magnets.

Fig. 1 also shows drive magnets 701, 801 placed on the outer surface of cowlings 501a and 601a respectively. A plurality of ferro-magnetic bolts 901 penetrate the clam-shell cowling through threaded holes. These bolts modify the magnetic field and eliminate dead spots. The placing of the drive magnets and bolts is discussed below.

From Fig. 1 it can be seen that the combined curvature of the paired clam-shell cowlings results in them nearly surrounding their respective slave wheel when in the closed position. That is, each member of a cowling pair surrounds somewhat less than 180 degrees of the slave wheel’s circumference so that when juxtaposed in the closed position, together they surround nearly 360 degrees of the slave wheel circumference.
Fig. 3A and Fig. 3B represent a pattern for mounting the slave magnets on the outside, or convex, surface of one pair of cowlings. The figure represents the cowling-halves 103, 703 as if they were laid flat. Guide lines are provided in the figure to indicate the longitudinal bisecting lines 403 and horizontal lines 503 dividing each cowling into eighths.

With respect to the cowling-half shown in Fig. 3A, two permanent drive magnets, 203, 303 are glued to the outside surface of the cowling on line 403 bisecting the cowling longitudinally. One drive magnet 203 is placed approximately one eighth of the way from one end. The second drive magnet 303 is placed three eighths of the way from the opposite end. Ferro-magnetic bolts 603 are inserted in the cowling through threaded holes. The purpose of the bolts is to modify the magnetic field to eliminate dead spots.

With respect to the cowling-half shown in Fig. 3B, drive magnet 803 is placed three eighths of the way from one end, and drive magnet 903 is placed one eighth (one sixteenth ?) of the way from the other end. Again, ferro-magnetic bolts 603 are provided for eliminating dead spots in the magnetic field.

The diameter across each slave wheel is approximately 10 inches (250 mm). Measured from the bottom of groove 404 the diameter is 9 inches (225 mm). Consequently, the arc length from the bottom of one groove to the bottom of an adjacent groove is $\pi$ inches (i.e., 3.14 inches or 80 mm).

The drive magnets are glued or otherwise firmly fixed to the outer or concave surfaces of the cowlings. Assuming that the slave magnets have been mounted in the grooves of the slave wheels with the north pole facing outwards, the north pole of each drive magnet is fixed against the cowling surface so that like poles face one another. As the cowlings are moved toward the slave wheels by turning the cranks 1101, 1001 the drive magnets repel the slave magnets, causing the slave wheels to rotate.

Adjustment of the spacing between the cowlings and the slave wheels by means of cranks 1101, 1001 adjusts the strength of the interaction of the fields of the drive magnets and slave magnets and, hence, the torque on the slave wheels.

As shown in Fig. 1, fly-wheels 301, 401 can optionally be mounted on the slave shaft. The preferred position is at or near the end of the shaft.

Slave shaft 201 thus turns as a result of the magnetic force from the cowlings being applied to the slave wheels. This shaft can be coupled to an output such as the armature of a generator 1301, either directly or through a flywheel, as shown. Alternatively, the magnetic motor could itself drive a hydraulic pump of a transmission,
thereby reducing the number transmission components and the overall complexity of transmissions. Many different applications for this motor become obvious once it is realised that by using very strong permanent drive magnets useful power can be generated.

It is possible to vary the dimensions of the slave wheels. Presently, the preferred diameter is approximately 10 inches and a width of 5 inches. The motor can operate with the slave shaft vertical or horizontal. While aluminium is a suitable material for the motor, the use of a hard plastic or ceramic materials have also been used with success. Pheotic plastic is presently preferred.

By using two slave wheels rather than just one, any dead spots in one wheel will be compensated for by the other wheel. The upper limit of the number of slave wheels is not yet known. The lower limit is one.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.co.uk
Chapter 2: Moving Pulsed Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

There are three categories of pulsed system and we will consider each in turn. These are drive-pulsed systems, energy-tapping pulsed systems and gravity free-energy pulsing systems. Here we will look at systems where an electrical pulse is used to cause the device to operate by creating a temporary magnetic field caused by electric current flowing through a coil or “electromagnet” as it is often called. Many of these systems are rather subtle in the way that they operate. One very well-known example of this is

The Motor/Generator of Robert Adams.
The late Robert Adams, an electrical engineer of New Zealand designed and built several varieties of electric motor using permanent magnets on the rotor and pulsed electromagnets on the frame of the motor (called the "stator" because it does not move). He found that if they were configured correctly, then the output from his motors exceeded their input power by a large margin (800%).

The diagram of his motor intended to show the basic operating principle is shown here:

If a motor is built like this, then it will most certainly work but it will never reach 100% efficiency let alone exceeding the 100% mark. It is only with a specific configuration which is hardly ever publicised that high performance figures can be achieved. While Robert has shown several different configurations, in order to avoid confusion I will describe and explain just one of them. I am indebted to several of Robert's friends and colleagues for the following information and I should like to express my thanks to them for their help and support in bringing you this information.

First and foremost, high performance can only be achieved with the clever use of power collection coils. These coils need to be positioned accurately and their power collection restricted to just a very short arc of operation by connecting them to, and disconnecting them from, the output circuit at just the right instant so that the back EMF generated when the current draw stops, actually contributes to the drive of the rotor, speeding it on it's way and raising the overall efficiency of the motor/generator as a whole.
Next, the shape of the magnets used is important as the length to width proportion of the magnet alters the pattern of its magnetic fields. In direct opposition to the diagram shown above, the magnets need to be much longer than their width (or in the case of cylindrical magnets, much longer than their diameter).

Further, a good deal of experimentation has shown that the size and shape of the electromagnets and pick-up coils has a major influence on the performance. The cross-sectional area of the core of the pick-up coils should be four times that of the cross-sectional area of the permanent magnets in the rotor. The reverse is true for the cores of the drive coils as their cores should have a cross-sectional area of just one quarter of the rotor magnet cross-sectional area.

Another point which is almost never mentioned is the fact that big circuit gains will not be achieved unless the drive voltage is high. The minimum should be 48 volts but the higher the voltage, the greater the energy gain, so voltages in the 120 volts (rectified US mains voltage) to 230 volts (rectified mains voltage elsewhere) should be considered. Neodymium magnets are not recommended for drive voltages under 120 volts.

There are several important steps in the way that the Robert Adams motor/generator works and it is important for you to understand each of the steps.

**Step 1:** A rotor magnet is attracted to the iron core of a stator “drive” electromagnet. As it approaches the drive electromagnet, the lines of magnetic force from the stator magnet move across the drive electromagnet coil. This generates an electric current in the drive electromagnet coil and that current is fed back to the battery which is powering the motor/generator:

![Diagram of Robert Adams motor/generator](image)

Notice that the movement of the rotor is caused by the permanent magnets being attracted to the iron cores of the drive electromagnets and **not** by any electric current. The electric flow is going back into the battery and is being caused by the movement of the rotor which in turn is being caused by the permanent magnets.

**Step 2:** When the rotor turns far enough, the magnets align exactly with the cores of the drive electromagnets. The rotor continues to rotate because of its inertia, but if we do nothing about it, the rotor magnet attraction to the drive electromagnet core will act to slow it down and then drag it back to the drive coil core. We want to prevent that, so we feed a small amount of current into the drive electromagnet coils – just enough current to stop the backward drag of the rotor magnets. This current is **NOT** to push the rotor magnets away, it is just enough to prevent the rotor being slowed down:
Step 3: When the rotor magnet has moved away far enough, the current being fed to the drive electromagnets is cut off. As happens with any coil, when the current is cut off a large reverse voltage spike is generated. That voltage spike is rectified and fed back to the battery.

The system so far produces a spinning rotor for very little current draw from the battery. But we want the system to provide us with excess electrical output, so for that, four additional electromagnets are added around the rotor. These output coils are mounted on a non-magnetic disc which can be rotated to adjust the gap between the drive coils and the output coils. Like the rotor magnets, the output coils are spaced evenly around the circumference of the rotor at 90-degree intervals:

Step 4: Surprisingly, the output coils are switched Off for most of the time. This sounds mad but it most definitely isn't mad. With the output coils disconnected, the approaching rotor magnets generate a voltage in the output coil windings but no current can flow. As no current is flowing, no magnetic field is generated and so the rotor magnets just pull directly towards the output coil iron cores. The
maximum output coil voltage is when the rotor magnets are aligned with the output coil cores. At that instant the output switch is closed and a strong pulse of current is drawn off and then the switch is opened again, cutting off the output current. The output switch is closed for only three degrees or so of the rotor’s rotation and it is off again for the next eighty seven degrees, but the opening of the switch has a major effect. The switch being opened cuts off the current flowing in the output coils and that causes a major reverse voltage spike causing a major magnetic field which pushes the rotor on its way. That voltage spike is rectified and passed back to the battery.

The rectification of every possible spare voltage pulse as described, returns 95% of the drive current to the battery, making this an extremely effective motor/generator. The performance can be further enhanced by rotating the set of output coils to find their optimum position and then locking the disc in place. When properly set up, this generator has an output current which is eight times greater than the input current.

Notice that the cores of the "generator" pick-up coils are very much wider than the cores of the drive coils. Also notice the proportions of the magnets where the length is much greater than the width or diameter. The four generator windings are mounted on a single disc allowing them to be moved through an angle to find the optimum operating position before being locked in position and the two drive coils are mounted separately and held clear of the disc. Notice also that the power pick-up coils are much wider compared to their length than the drive coils are. This is a practical feature which is explained in greater detail later.

The DC input is shown passing through Robert's custom-made contactor switch which is mounted directly on the shaft of the motor/generator. This is a mechanical switch which allows an adjustable On / Off ratio, which is known as the "Mark/Space Ratio" or, if the "On" period is of particular interest, the "Duty Cycle". Robert Adams indicates that when the motor is running and has been adjusted to it's optimum performance, then the Mark/Space ratio should be adjusted to minimise the On period and ideally get it down to about 25% so that for three quarters of the time, the input power is actually switched off. There are various ways of achieving this switching while still having a very sharp turn on and turn off of the power.

Robert considered mechanical switching of the drive current to be a very good option although he was not opposed to using the contact to power a transistor to do the actual switching and so reduce the current through the mechanical contacts by a major factor. His reasons for his preference for mechanical switching are that it gives very sharp switching, needs no electrical power to make it operate and it allows current to flow in both directions. The current flow in two directions is important because Robert produced various ways of getting the motor to feed current back into the driving battery, allowing it to drive the motor for long periods without lowering its voltage hardly at all. His preferred method of switching is shown here:
This switching gear operates as follows: The timing disk is bolted securely to the drive shaft of the motor and its position is set so that the electrical switch-on occurs when the rotor magnet is exactly aligned with the drive coil core. Adjustment of that timing is done by loosening the locking nut, rotating the disc very slightly and clamping the disc in position again. A spring washer is used to keep the assembly tight when the device is running. The disc has a star-shaped piece of copper sheet set into its surface and two silver-tipped, copper arm "brushes" slide across the surface of the copper star. One of these two brushes is fixed in position and slides across the copper star near the drive shaft, making a permanent electrical connection to it. The second brush slides alternatively on the non-conducting surface of the disc and then over the conducting arm of the copper. The second brush is mounted so that its position can be adjusted and, because the copper arms taper, that alters the ratio of the "On" time to the "Off" time. The actual switching is achieved by current flowing through the first brush, through the copper arm and then through the second brush. The brush arms shown in the diagram above rely on the springiness of the copper arm to make a good brush-to-copper electrical connection. It might be preferred to use a rigid brush arm, pivot it and use a spring to ensure a very good contact between the brush and the copper star at all times.

The adjustment of the On to Off time, or "Mark/Space Ratio" or "Duty Cycle" as the technical people describe it, could perhaps do with some description. If the moveable brush is positioned near the centre of the disc, then, because of the tapering of the copper arms, the part of the non-conducting disc...
that it slides over is shorter and the part of the conducting copper arm with which it connects is longer, as the two sliding paths are about the same length, the current is on for about the same length as it is off, giving a Mark/Space ratio of about 50% as shown here:

The On path is about the same length as the Off path and so the Mark/Space ratio is about 50%

If, instead, the moveable brush is positioned near the outside edge of the disc, then because of the tapering of the copper arm, the On path is shorter and the non-conducting Off path is very much longer, being about three times as long as the On path, giving a Mark/Space ratio of about 25%. As the moveable brush can be positioned anywhere between these two extremes, the Mark/Space ratio can be set to any value from 25% to 50%.

The On path is shorter and the Off path is much longer giving a Mark/Space ratio of about 25%

The two brushes can be on the same side of the drive shaft or on opposite sides as shown. One important feature is that the brushes touch in a position where the disc surface is always moving directly away from the brush mounting, causing any drag to be directly along the arm and giving no sideways loading on the brush. The diameter of the device is usually one inch (25 mm) or less.

You will also notice that the output is switched although the diagram does not give any indication of how or when that switching takes place. You will notice that the diagram has angles marked on it for the optimum positioning of the pick-up coils, well, an Adams Motor builder with a forum ID of "Maimariati" who achieved a Coefficient Of Performance of 1,223, found that the optimum switching for his motor is On at 42 degrees and Off at 44.7 degrees. That tiny 2.7 degree part of the rotor turn gives a substantial power output and cutting the output current off at that point causes the back EMF of the coils to give the rotor a substantial additional boost on its way. His input power is 27.6 watts and the output power is 33.78 kilowatts

Now for some practical details. It is suggested that a good length for the power pick-up coils can be determined by using the “paper clip test”. This is done by taking one of the permanent magnets used in the rotor, and measuring the distance at which that magnet just begins to lift one end of a 32 mm (1.25 inch) paper clip off the table. The optimum length of each coil from end to end is exactly the same as the distance at which the paper clip starts to lift.
The core material used in the electromagnets can be of various different types including advanced materials and alloys such as ‘Somalloy’ or ‘Metglas’. The power pick-up coil proportions are important as an electromagnet becomes less and less effective as its length increases, and eventually, the part furthest from the active end can actually be a hindrance to the effective operation. A good coil shape is one which you would not expect, with the coil width being, perhaps 50% greater than the coil length:

Contrary to what you would expect, the device draws in energy from the local environment better if the end of the pick-up coil farthest from the rotor is left unaffected by any other part of the device and the same applies to the magnet facing it. That is, the coil should have the rotor at one end and nothing at the other end, that is, no second rotor behind the coil. The speed at which the voltage is applied to, and removed from, the coils is very important. With very sharp voltage rises and falls, additional energy is drawn from the surrounding environmental energy field. If using transistor switching, then the IRF3205 FET has been found to be very good and a suitable driver for the FET is the MC34151.

If using a Hall-effect semiconductor to synchronise the timing, say the UGN3503U which is very reliable, then the life of the Hall-effect device is much improved if it is provided with a 470 ohm resistor between it and the positive supply line, and a similar 470 ohm resistor between it and the negative line. These resistors in series with the Hall-effect device effectively “float” it and protect it from supply-line spikes.

Here, two electromagnets are driven by the battery via Robert’s 4-arm commutator which is mounted on the rotor shaft. Some of the recommendations given by Robert are the opposite of what you would expect. For example, he says that a single rotor construction tends to be more electrically efficient than one where several rotors are mounted on a single shaft. Robert is against the use of reed switches and he recommends making one of his commutators.

At one stage, Robert recommended the use of standard transformer shims for constructing the cores of the electromagnets. This has the advantage that matching bobbins for holding the coil windings are readily available and can still be used for pick-up coils. Later on, Robert swung towards the use of solid
cores from the old PO Series 3000 telephone relays and eventually said that electromagnet cores should be solid iron.

The diagrams presented by Robert show the magnets located on the rim of the rotor and pointing outwards. If this is done, then it is essential that the magnets in the rotor are firmly attached on at least five of their six faces and the possibility of using a ring of non magnetic material such as duct tape around the outside should be considered. That style of construction also lends itself to streamlining the rotor by having a completely solid construction, although it might be remarked that the motor would run better and more quietly if it were enclosed in a box which had the air pumped out of it. If that is done, then there will be no air resistance and because sound can't pass through a vacuum, quieter operation is bound to result.

While this may sound a bit complicated, there is no reason why it should be. All that is needed is two discs and one central disc which is the thickness of the magnets, with slots cut in it, the exact size of the magnets. The assembly starts with the lower disc, magnets and central disc. These are glued together, probably with epoxy resin, and that holds the magnets securely on four faces as shown here:

Here, the magnets are attached on the lower face, the right and left faces, and the unused pole face, and when the upper disc is attached, the upper faces are also secured and there is the minimum of air turbulence when the rotor spins:
There is a "sweet spot" for the positioning of the power pick-up coils and it will usually be found that this is two or three millimetres away from the rotor. If that is the case, then there will be room for an outer band of duct tape on the rim of the rotor to provide additional protection against the failure of the magnet attachment method.

High-power versions of the motor/generator need to be enclosed in a metal box which is earthed as they are quite capable of generating a substantial amount of high frequency waves which can damage equipment such as oscilloscopes and create TV reception interference. There would probably be an improvement in performance as well as a reduction in sound if the box was airtight and had the air pumped out of it. If that is done, then there will be no air resistance as the rotor spins and since sound does not pass through a vacuum, quieter operation is possible.

Experienced rotor builders do not like the radial magnets style of construction because of the stresses on the magnet attachments if high rotational speeds are reached. It should not need to be said, but it is obviously a major requirement to keep your hands well away from the rotor when the motor is running as it is perfectly possible to be injured by the high-speed movement if you are careless. Please remember that this presentation must not be considered to be a recommendation that you build or use any device of this nature and it must be stressed that this text, in common with the entire contents of this eBook, is intended to be for information purposes only and no representations or warranties are implied by this presentation. Should you decide to construct, test or use any device, then you do so entirely at your own risk and no liability attaches to anybody else if you sustain any kind of injury or property damage as a result of your own actions.

Because of the mechanical stresses caused during rotation, some experienced constructors feel that the magnets should be embedded in the rotor as shown here where they are kept well clear of the rim of a rotor which is made from a tough material. This is so that the outer strip of the material prevents the magnets breaking loose and becoming dangerous high-speed projectiles, which at best would destroy the electromagnets and at worst could injure someone quite badly:
It needs to be remembered that the proportions of the magnets are for the magnet length to be more than the diameter, so in cases like this where circular magnet faces are to be used, the magnets will be cylindrical and the rotor needs to have a significant thickness, which will depend on the magnets which are available locally. The magnets should be a tight push-fit in their holes and securely glued in place.

Robert Adams has used this construction style as well. However, if an arrangement like this is used, then there will be a substantial sideways pull on the rotor as it reaches the electromagnet core, tending to pull the magnets out of the rotor.

It is important that the rotor should be perfectly balanced and have the minimum amount of bearing friction possible. This calls for precision construction and either roller or ball bearings. The construction style shown above has the distinct advantage that it has an open end to both the magnet and the coils and this is believed to facilitate the inflow of environmental energy into the device.

When getting ball-race bearings for an application like this, please be aware that "closed" bearings such as these are not suitable as supplied:

This is because this type of bearing is usually packed with dense grease which completely destroys its free motion, making it worse as a bearing than a simple hole-and-shaft arrangement. However, in spite of this, the closed or "sealed" bearing is popular as the magnets tend to attract dirt and dust and if the device is not enclosed in a steel box as is necessary for the high power versions, then having the seal is considered to be an advantage. The way to deal with the grease packing is to soak the bearing in an
isopropyl solvent cleaner to remove the manufacturer's grease, and then, when it has dried out, lubricate the bearing with two drops of a high quality thin oil. If it is intended to house the motor/generator in an earthed, sealed steel box then an alternative type of bearing which might be suitable is an open design like this:

especially if the air is removed from the box. Some constructors prefer to use ceramic bearings which are supposed to be immune to dirt. One supplier is http://www.bocabearings.com/main1.aspx?p=docs&id=16 but as with everything else, these choices have to be made by the builder and will be influenced by his opinions.

I'm not sure where it came from, but here is a circuit diagram showing a transistor drive and the return of the back EMF of the drive coils to the driving power supply. Using this method, about 95% of the drive current can be returned, lowering the current draw enormously:

The diode feeding the power back to the supply is a Shotky type because of it's high-speed operation. It needs to be able to handle the peak pulse power and so should be one of the more robust types. What this circuit does not have is the very important switching on the output coils circuit. Another strange item is the way that the FET sensor is arranged with two sensors rather than one and with an additional battery. While it must be admitted that the current draw of the FET gate should be very low, there still does not seem to be much reason to have a second power supply. One other peculiarity in this diagram is the positioning of the drive coils. With them offset as shown, it has the effect of them being at an angle relative to the rotor magnets. It is not at all clear if this is an advanced operating technique or just poor drawing - I am inclined to assume the latter although I have no evidence for this other than the circuit design and the low quality of the original drawing which had to be improved considerably to arrive at the diagram shown above.

The coil generator output should be fed into a capacitor before being passed to whatever equipment is to be powered by the device. This is because the energy is being drawn from the local environment
and is not conventional energy. Storing it in a capacitor converts it to a more normal version of electrical power, a feature which has also been mentioned by Don Smith and by John Bedini although their devices are quite different in operation.

The DC resistance of the coil windings is an important factor. The overall resistance should be either 36 ohms or 72 ohms for a complete set of coils, whether they are drive coils or power pick-up coils. Coils can be wired in parallel or in series or in series/parallel. So, for 72 ohms with four coils, the DC resistance of each coil could be 18 ohms for series-connected, 288 ohms for parallel connected, or 72 ohms for connection in series/parallel where two pairs of coils in series are then wired in parallel.

To help with assessing the wire diameter and length which you could use, here is a table of some of the common sizes in both American Wire Gage and Standard Wire Gauge:

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So far, we have not discussed the generation of the timing pulses. A popular choice for a timing system is to use a slotted disc mounted on the rotor axle and sensing the slots with an "optical" switch. The "optical" part of the switch is usually performed by UV transmission and reception and as ultra violet is not visible to the human eye, describing the switching mechanism as "optical" is not really correct. The actual sensing mechanism is very simple as commercial devices are readily available for performing the task. The sensor housing contains both a UV LED to create the transmission beam, and a UV dependent resistor to detect that transmitted beam.

Here is an example of a neatly constructed timing mechanism made by Ron Pugh for his six-magnet rotor assembly:
This device happens to be one which is supplied by www.bayareaamusements.com under their product code number: OP-5490-14327-00. As the slotted disc rotates, one of the slots comes opposite the sensor and allows the UV beam to pass through to the sensor. That lowers the resistance of the sensor device and that change is then used to trigger the drive pulse for whatever length of time the slot leaves the sensor clear. You will notice the balanced attachment method used by Ron to avoid having an unbalanced rotor assembly. There can be two timing discs, one for the drive pulses and one for switching the power pickup coils in and out of the circuit. The slots in the power pick-up timing disk will be very narrow as the switch-on period is only about 2.7 degrees. For a six-inch diameter disc where 360 degrees represents a circumference length of 18.85 inches (478.78 mm) a 2.7 degree slot would be only 9/64 inch (3.6 mm) wide. The arrangement for an axial magnet rotor set-up could be like this:

So to recap, the things which are necessary for getting an Adams Motor output into the serious bracket are:
1. A performance of COP>1 can only be achieved if there are power pick-up coils.

2. The rotor magnets need to be longer than they are wide in order to ensure the correct magnetic field shape and the rotor must be perfectly balanced and have bearings as low-friction as possible.

3. The face area of the rotor magnets needs to be four times that of the drive coil cores and one quarter the area of the core of the power pick-up coils. This means that if they are circular, then the drive coil core diameter needs to be half the diameter of the magnet and the magnet diameter needs to be half the diameter of the power pick-up core. For example, if a circular rotor magnet is 10 mm across, then the drive core should be 5 mm across and the pick-up core 20 mm across.

4. The drive voltage needs to be a minimum of 48 volts and preferably, a good deal higher than that.

5. Do not use neodymium magnets if the drive voltage is less than 120 volts.

6. The drive coils should not be pulsed until they are exactly aligned with the rotor magnets even though this does not give the fastest rotor speed.

7. Each complete set of coils should have a DC resistance of either 36 ohms or 72 ohms and definitely 72 ohms if the drive voltage is 120 volts or higher.

8. Collect the output power in large capacitors before using it to power equipment.

It may also be possible to boost the output power further, by using the Coil-Shorting technique shown in the section of this chapter on the RotoVerter.

If you want the original drawings and some explanation on the operation of the motor, then two publications from the late Robert Adams can be bought from www.nexusmagazine.com where the prices are quoted in Australian dollars, making the books look much more expensive than they actually are.

http://www.totallyamped.net/adams/index.html is a really impressive collection of well-informed practical material on building and using an Adams motor with details of sensors and how they work, core materials and their performances and how to locate the "sweet spot" - very highly recommended web site.

**Teruo Kawai’s COP=3.18 Magnetic Motor.**

In July 1995, a patent was granted to Teruo Kawai of Japan, for an electric motor. In the patent, Teruo states that a measured electrical input of 19.55 watts produced an output of 62.16 watts, and that is a COP of 3.18. The main sections of that patent are included in the Appendix.

This is an interesting design which has twelve stator electromagnets surrounding a rotor which has three magnetic poles:
The left hand diagram shows the front face of the motor with its twelve red electromagnets surrounding an unusually shaped steel rotor (coloured yellow).

The right hand diagram shows a cross-section through the motor. The blue rectangles are permanent magnets which Teruo describes as being “a ring of permanent magnets” although it is not immediately obvious why a ring magnet should not be used – perhaps none with the necessary diameters were available. He also says that the magnets are bolted to the rotors.

The frame material supporting the ball bearings and electromagnets is any suitable non-magnetic material and while aluminium is mentioned, I would strongly recommend that neither aluminium nor copper is used, especially since plastic chopping board material is very cheap and highly robust.

The rotor and stator are somewhat unusual:
Because of the inner magnets, each of the steel rotors have three poles each – three North poles at one end and three South poles at the other end. The axle of the motor is made of good quality stainless steel as that is both robust and non-magnetic.

The switching of the supply current is similar to that of the Charles Flynn magnet motor, and Teruo’s motor has been measured with COP>3 which means that the output power is more than three times greater than the input power.

The input power switching occurs four times per revolution and it occurs just as the leading edge of a rotor arm approaches an electromagnet (the electromagnets shown in blue are powered up):

Here, the electromagnets shown in blue have just been powered up and this draws the yellow rotor arms in a clockwise direction towards those powered up electromagnets. The magnetic force is in attraction mode and while this is slightly less powerful than repulsion mode, it does not have an adverse effect on the magnets which should remain in top condition for many years.

The switching suggested is the same as for the Charles Flynn motor, and that is an optical timing disc mounted on the axle shaft:

While Teruo shows various alternative versions of the motor, he states the result of a test run on the motor: “Pure steel was used as a magnetic material. It was 30 mm thick with teeth of 218 mm diameter
and notches of 158 mm diameter. A 1000 gauss ferrite magnet was used as the permanent magnet. Electric power of 19.55 watts was applied to the electromagnets (17 volts at 1.15 amps). This produced 100 rpm with a torque of 60.52 Kg-cm and an output of 62.16 watts”.

While an optical switching disc certainly works well, it will produce a rotational speed which is determined by the power supply and the load. I suggest that a simple divide-by-four power supply would give speed control:

The Buie-Morin Power System

Thomas Buie of America and Gerard Morin of Canada both worked on developing a self-powered system which provides kilowatts of excess power to power other equipment. Thomas feels strongly that water and electricity are part of a person’s rights and not a privilege which has to be paid for. They developed this self-powered generator in order to supply the electric needs of a household. First, we need to know what sort of power is used by typical household appliances. Perhaps this illustration might help:
These power levels are only approximate as many devices have different power settings which the user can select. For example, in Iraq during the night, some households have communal air conditioning of only 1000 watts, Americans have daytime air conditioning of at least 3000 watts while in Britain almost no households have any kind of air conditioning, while some adults in India don’t know what an electric fire is.

Anyway, it would be nice to be able to power electrical equipment without having to pay for electricity, and that is what this system allows you to do, whether it is the 120 volts 60 cycles per second used in America or the 240 volt 50 cycles per second used in the rest of the world.

The self-powered electricity generator which can provide you with free electricity is essentially very simple in outline. A battery is used to power a standard DC-to-AC inverter. Then the voltage is stepped up to around 400 volts. Next, a special controller is used to feed that 400 volts to a powerful motor at high frequency, and finally, the motor is used to spin an AC generator called an “alternator” which produces the electricity which we want. Part of that electricity is fed back to the battery and inverter input in order to make the system self-powered:
The “magic” is caused by the high voltage and the high speed pulses with which that voltage is applied to a carefully chosen type of motor. With 700 watts of input power, the system puts out 10,000 watts of power.

The most important components of this system are the controller and the motor. You are probably familiar with the most common type of motor which is a single-phase motor, but the more powerful motors used in industry are three-phase motors. There are several varieties of three-phase motors, but the one which we want to use has 36 coils connected as three sets of twelve windings in parallel:

This is a very powerful arrangement as sending one pulse of current to each of these three chains, only advances the motor by 30 degrees. There is a continuous ring of magnets immediately outside the coils. This motor is used in a Samsung washing machine. A three-phase motor sounds very technical, but it really isn’t. It is just a motor which has three sets of drive coils instead of just one coil:
So, the motor has effectively just three coils in it and it is made to go round by pulsing the coils in order, that is coil 1, then coil 2, then coil 3, then coil 1 again and so on. The more rapidly the coils are pulsed, the faster the motor rotates, and in this system that rotation can be very fast indeed.
The pulsing of those three coils sets one after the other in sequence, is done by the “controller” unit which is a key component in this design. The motor is a permanent magnet, synchronous motor which has no sensors built into it. That sounds ever so impressive, but it is actually the cheapest type of three-phase motor, and because it has no sensors, it is the most difficult to drive reliably. There are several varieties of three-phase motors, but the one which we want to use has 36 coils connected as three sets of twelve coils in parallel.

The controller consists of two parts. The first is an Arduino board which is a general purpose development board - essentially a simple computer which can be programmed from an ordinary PC or laptop. It holds the program in its memory and runs it whenever it is instructed to do so. The second part is an electronics link between the Arduino board and the motor. That link boosts the power fed to the motor using high-power transistors which can feed high currents to the motor, and some other wires which feed information back to the Arduino board to give it full control of what is happening with the motor.

The Arduino program powers the motor coils in sequence and as well as that, it senses the position of the actual rotor as it spins. It does that by sensing the voltages in each of the three coil sets at all times.

At the web site here: https://www.espares.co.uk/product/es1578438/washing-machine-motor?pageNumber=2&PartTypeId=1752&ManufacturerId=596 The motor is offered at £150 and here: https://www.buyspares.co.uk/washing-machine/samsung/catalogue.pl?path=495970:496636,127481:496051&page=36 also at £150.

It is not necessary for you to become an expert programmer of an Arduino board as the program used is provided for you here. A good instruction video on programming the Arduino Uno board is shown here: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5OtMqr5hGjE.

The Arduino code is shown below is from https://simple-circuit.com/arduino-sensorless-bldc-motor-controller-esc/ but can be downloaded as a text file from: www.free-energy-info.com/Arduino.txt

The Arduino board looks like this:
The interface between the Arduino Uno board and the motor, needs the following components:

- 6 x IRF840 FET transistors
- 3 x IR2104 DIP gate driver IC
- 3 x 1.3M ohm 0.5 watt resistors
- 3 x 10K ohm 0.5 watt resistors
- 3 x 33K ohm resistors
- 6 x 100 ohm quarter watt resistors
- 3 x IN5408 or UF5408 diodes
- 3 x 10uF 25 volt capacitors.
- 3 x 2.2uF 25 volt capacitors.
- 2 x pushbuttons
- 12V source
• Construction board and connecting wires

These components are connected up like this:

We need to connect this Arduino Uno up to drive one of the three phases of our three-phase motor, so to do that we will use an IR2104 driver chip and an IRF840 Field Effect Transistor ("FET") to feed our 400 volt power supply to the motor at some 14,800 pulses per second. So, the power drive for the first phase is like this:

The 1N5408 diode can handle high voltages and so protect the 12 volt section of the circuit from the high voltage section feedback. The power drive for the second phase is:
And the Power drive for the third phase is:

But we also need to provide the Arduino board with feedback information to let it know where the motor is in its rotation. That is done by sensing the Phase connections to the motor like this:
First, a word of warning here. You can get a shock from any voltage above 30 volts. If the voltage is Alternating Current at a frequency under 100 cycles per second (as is supplied by your mains wall socket) then that shock can be serious. The power supply described here is very easy to understand and to make BUT if you get a shock from it that shock is very likely to kill you!!

Disclaimer: You are responsible for your own actions. This document is for information purposes only and if you decide to make or experiment with voltages higher than 12 volts, then you and you alone are responsible for your actions and neither the author, the web hosting service nor anyone else is responsible for what you do or for any damage or injury caused by your own actions.

Having said that, please understand that if you are careful and sensible, there is no danger in constructing this power generator in spite of the very high 400 volt input to this power driver circuit. To stay safe, you make all the necessary connections and insulate them before you apply power.

So, we need to construct an electronics component board to connect the Arduino to the phases of the motor. Please remember that this board will be carrying 400 volts and so you need to enclose the board in a plastic box before powering it up.

The suggestion for a physical layout for the components is based on using stripboard like this:
These boards come in many sizes and are very versatile. However, because the pin spacing of integrated circuit is just 0.1 inches, the solder joints can be very close together and that does not suit a beginner to soldering, so ask a friend for help in soldering unless you are already expert.

We want to place these components on the board, so perhaps a layout like this might be suitable:

The red circles show where the copper strip on the underside of the board is to be broken. You can make three separate board, one for each phase or you can place all three circuits on a single board. Integrated circuits are heat sensitive so I suggest that you use a socket and solder it in place and then plug the chip into the socket when everything is cool. An 8-pin socket looks like this:

Here is a possible physical layout for the Arduino / Motor interface using a piece of stripboard with 31 copper strips each with 39 holes in it:
Thomas Buie describes the power supply method which he has used successfully in the past. It is a very simple arrangement which uses readily available parts which can be purchased easily through the internet:
First, there is a car battery and that feeds an inverter like this particular unit which is an European inverter which produces anything from 220 to 240 volts with powers of 2000 watts continuous and 4000 watts peak output. It is also cheap at £25 delivered and it has two handy USB output power sockets as well:
However, we want 400 volts or more at 1 amp or more, and as that is some 800 watts for a 12 volt inverter like this, so Thomas has used a transformer to step the voltage up higher:

Getting a transformer like this is not at all easy as very few people want a 400 volt power supply.

The rectification is very straightforward:

A possibility which bypasses the need for a transformer of that type would be to use a voltage doubler circuit to raise the inverter output up to 440 volts or so, the diodes being say, 1N5408 or UF5408 which can handle 1000 volts at 3 amps which is a good deal more than is needed for this system:

The disadvantage of doing that is that the output is effectively only a half-wave power supply. The capacitors would be 400 volts each and so the output capacitance would be safe for anything up to 800 volts. The transformer in the diagram is inside the inverter and “V” in the diagram would be 220 volts, giving an output of 440 volts.
One possibility which avoids the need for a transformer and still provides a full wave rectified 440V output is to use two 220V inverters:

In this arrangement, both inverters are supplied by a single car battery and the output is 440 volts. Each inverter supplies only half of the wattage.

It is suggested that a method which skips both the inverter and the transformer would be to use a “DC chopper” circuit which could take the 12 volts from the car battery and produce a 400 volt 20 kHz output directly in one operation. A DC chopper of that type looks like this:

While a DC chopper power supply is not suitable for all applications, it is felt that this cheap unit costing US $35 from https://s.click.aliexpress.com/e/1rHgPQC would be suitable for this generator project.

While the circuit wiring is shown above, we need a physical board with the electronic components attached to it. The wiring connections are normally soldered joints but making those joints can be quite
difficult as some of them are very close together. If you are experienced at soldering, then there should be no problem, but if you have not soldered before, then you should get an experienced friend to do the soldering for you. Here is a suggested board layout using stripboard often called “Veroboard”.

No matter how the 400 volts is generated, it is necessary to feed some 70 amps back to the battery output and inverter input to sustain the motor indefinitely. While the diagram above just shows a battery charger, the level of feedback is much higher than any ordinary battery charger can supply. So, we are talking about a professional-level charger able to deliver some 700 watts of power continuously. This generator system has a Coefficient Of Performance greater than 14 but even with that high performance it needs an input of about 700 watts for an output of 10,000 watts. Consequently, this “battery charger” link is very important and commercial units which can do the job cost something like £150.

We come now to the alternator which produces the electrical output which is the whole point of the system. All of the components and methods described so far have the objective of spinning the alternator indefinitely in order to provide electrical power for a household. However, please understand clearly that your local power company is most unlikely to allow you to connect your generator up to their wiring which goes to your fuse box. Consequently, it is better if you use your new supply of electrical power as if it were an emergency back-up generator. That is, you connect it up to your appliances without connecting it to any external power supply or wall socket.

The system described so far is perfectly capable of driving an alternator of any power level up to ten kilowatts without altering any of the components. So, the size of the alternator which you buy is up to you. Personally, I would consider an output of five kilowatts as being adequate to excessive, but then my electrical needs are probably far lower than yours might be.

Anyway, in the UK one supplier is MachineMart and they offer three different alternators. They look like this and each needs to be driven at 3000 rpm:

![MachineMart 6.5 KVA alternator £324 Pulley £15](image-url)
Looking at the small price difference between the alternators, there seems to be very little reason not to pick the 6.5 KVA unit even if your expected current is likely to be well below that rating. The KVA rating is the same as kilowatts IF the power factor of the load is 1, that is just light bulbs. Generally speaking, a 6.5 KVA alternator is considered to be a 5 kilowatt unit for driving washing machines, vacuum cleaners or equipment like that.

The final step is to mount the motor unit and alternator unit together so that the motor can drive the alternator to provide the required electrical output:

Thanks is due to Thomas Buie for sharing his design freely. Thomas has joined with the Free Energy Special Interest Group (“FESIG”) and they are preparing a series of instruction videos and actual physical construction of an a generator via the website http://www.truevisionofpeace.com/fesig.html and you can ask questions during the live sessions. Thomas’ own website is https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCDiOZlHfkioVtHfSzS2qPWg.

The Arduino code file www.free-energy-info.com/Arduino.txt is a free download.

There is one issue which needs to be dealt with and that is the plastic construction of parts of the motor. The motor was intended to power a washing machine and because that operation is slow and the
mechanical stresses involved are fairly low, plastic was used. In this application the stresses are much higher and the usage is all day every day as opposed to the occasional use of a washing machine (my apologies to mothers with children), it would be necessary to replace the plastic parts with mild steel, both for the hub of the rotor and the casing of the stator in order to drive the larger sizes of alternator. Machining by a local steel fabrication shop may be necessary unless you already own a lathe or have access to one. Alternatively, Gerard Morin offers those components although at what looks to me like rather large prices at https://www.hyper-drive-hv.com/ the idea being that the existing plastic rotor boss:

is replaced with a metal unit:

and the motor effectively rebuilt until only the original coils and magnets remain:
While doing that adds considerable extra cost and effort, it does result in a very robust and powerful motor which is ready to drive a large alternator.

Let me stress that if you were to construct a generator system like this, you do not connect it to the wiring of the local electricity power supply company. For example, the electrical mains supply wiring will come into your household fuse box or contact breaker box. Do not connect your generator wiring to
that same box but instead treat your generator in the same way as an emergency generator, feeding the generator output directly to your washing machine, electric heater, vacuum cleaner or whatever through an extension cable and not through a wall socket.

If you are very keen to have your new generator connected to your fuse box, then be sure to install a “Break-before Make” heavy duty switch to disconnect the outside power supply cable before your generator output is connected to the fuse box. This is important because if a fault occurs in the mains wiring and they turn off the mains power while they fix it, the workmen might get a fatal shock from your generator even though their wiring is supposed to be switched off..

**Update on 17th March 2019:**

It has been pointed out that this possible version of the interface board which goes between the Arduino and the 400-volt drive to the 3-phase motor has one feature which could be considered to be a potential weakness. The three red arrows show a copper strip which passes from the 12-volt Arduino area into the 400-volt motor area and it is felt that there is the potential for a back-EMF voltage spike to be fed back along that copper track and damage the IR2104 chip or even the Arduino board itself. It is suggested that the introduction of a fast Schottky diode in those links would block that possibility. For that we would need a Schottky diode which can withstand the 400 to 500 volts which gets fed to the motor and the current needed by the motor.

The Mouser supplier of electronic components has a range of such diodes. For example:

- SCS306AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 6 amps and 46 watts, sells for £2.91
- SCS308AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 8 amps and 57 watts, sells for £3.47
- SCS310AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 10 amps and 71 watts, sells for £4.04
- SCS312AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 12 amps and 78 watts, sells for £4.76
- SCS315AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 15 amps and 93 watts, sells for £5.08
- SCS320AHGC9 rated at 650 volts, 20 amps and 115 watts, sells for £6.17

The packaging is like this:

![Schottky Diode Package](image)

So, if we are to take the advice which recommends one of these diodes placed in line with lines which lead out to each phase of the motor, then the board layout would change to this:
However, please understand that the FESIG presentation deals with the construction of a multi-kilowatt generator in far greater detail than this and that includes the construction of a much more robust interface between the Arduino and the 3-phase motor. That interface does not use the IR2104 chip but instead constructs the interface using discrete components which are believed to be much more robust than the IR2104 chip. The FESIG presentation is to cover the operation and other relevant details of the generator.
each component used in the construction and so the people being trained should understand clearly how every part of the generator works and so be able to perform maintenance if that should ever prove to be necessary.

James Hardy's Self-Powered Water-Pump Generator.
There is a video on Google which shows an interesting self-powered water-pump driven, electrical generator at: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IGpXA6qhH_Q

This is a very simple device where the jet of water from the pump is directed at a simple water-wheel which in turn, spins an electrical alternator, powering both the pump and an electric light bulb, demonstrating free-energy.

Initially, the generator is got up to speed, driven by the mains electrical supply. Then, when it is running normally, the mains connection is removed and the motor/generator sustains itself and is also able to power at least one light bulb. The generator output is normal mains current from a standard off-the-shelf alternator.
James has Patent Application US 2007/0018461 A1 published in 2007 on his design. In that application he points out that a major advantage of his design is the low noise level produced when the generator is running. In the video and the pictures above, the demonstration has the housing opened up in order to show how the generator system works, but during normal use, the compartments are completely sealed.

In his document, James shows the overall system like this:

The housing is divided into three separate compartments. The first compartment has a strong axle shaft running through it, supported on ball or roller bearings – possibly ceramic for this environment. The bearings are protected by being covered by splash guards which keep the water (or other liquid) off them. A waterwheel of almost any type is mounted on the shaft and a high-capacity water pump directs a stream of liquid on to the waterwheel, striking the paddles at right angles in order to provide the maximum impact.

This first compartment is sealed in order to contain all of the liquid inside it and the bottom is effectively a sump for the liquid. A pipe located near the bottom of the compartment feeds the liquid to the pump which is located in the second compartment. The pump boosts the liquid through a nozzle, directing it at the waterwheel. While almost any nozzle will work, it is usual to choose one which produces a concentrated jet of liquid in order to generate the largest possible impact. One would expect that the larger the diameter of the waterwheel, the more powerful the system would be. However, that is not necessarily the case as other factors such as the overall weight of the rotating members might affect the performance. Experimentation should show the most effective combination for any given pump.

The rotating shaft is given a third bearing supported by the side of the final compartment. The shaft then has a large diameter belt pulley mounted on it, the belt driving a much smaller pulley mounted on the shaft of the generator. This raises the rate at which the generator shaft is rotated. If the pump operates on AC mains voltage, then the generator will be one which generates mains voltage AC. If the pump operates on, say, 12 volts, then the generator will be one which generates 12 volts DC. The diagram above, shows the arrangement for a mains voltage system as that is probably the most convenient. If a 12-volt system is chosen, then the inverter can be omitted.

The generator is started by pressing the 'normally open' press-button switch marked “A” in the diagram. This passes the battery power through to the 1-kilowatt inverter which then generates AC mains voltage. The switch marked “B” is a “changeover” switch, and for starting, it is set so that it passes the AC power through switch “A” to the pump. This causes the pump to turn on and direct a powerful jet of liquid at the waterwheel, forcing it around and so powering the generator. When the generator gets up to full speed, switch “B” is flipped over, disconnecting the inverter and feeding the generator power
through to the pump, keeping it running and supplying additional power to the output power sockets mounted on top of the housing. The press-button switch is released, disconnecting the battery which is no longer needed. Switch “C” is an ordinary On/Off mains switch which is needed if you want to turn the generator off.

A major advantage of this generator system is that the main components can be bought ready-made and so only very simple constructional skills and readily available materials are needed. Another advantage is that what is happening can be seen. If the pump is not working, then it is a simple task to discover why. If the generator is not spinning, then you can see that and sort the problem. Every component is simple and straightforward.

James suggests that a suitable pump is the 10,000 gallons per hour “Torpedo Pump” from Cal Pump, web site: http://www.calpumpstore.com/products/productdetail/part_number=T10000/416.0.1.1:

Raoul Hatem’s Magnetic Coupling System.
Generally, the RotoVerter has very low input power when not loaded and about a 90% energy reduction when under load. The ideal situation is where there is a constant load as the tuning of the RotoVerter does depend to some degree on the load. However, the RotoVerter performance can be increased very substantially by using the techniques introduced by Raoul Hatem in 1955, which conventional science will not accept because according to current theory, any such energy gain has to be “impossible” and so, cannot happen no matter what evidence there is:
Raoul Hatem’s heretical statement is that using spinning magnets draws in energy from the environment, allowing a system to have COP>1. His method is to use a motor (whether RotoVerter or not) to spin a heavy rotor disc with 36 powerful rare-earth magnets mounted on it. Then, using an identical heavy disc with magnets mounted on a generator to give a magnetic coupling between the motor and the generator can give not just coupling, but an energy gain as well, an energy gain which Hatem says is 20 times:

The heavy rotor provides some flywheel effect which helps with the operation of the system. Even with one motor as shown above, there is an energy gain as demonstrated in a recent video demonstration of the effect at [http://www.dailymotion.com/video/x19s9b_moteur-magnetique-de-leon-raoul-hatem_webcam#.UaGyVTcr6Bo](http://www.dailymotion.com/video/x19s9b_moteur-magnetique-de-leon-raoul-hatem_webcam#.UaGyVTcr6Bo) where a simple system produces 144 watts of excess power. However, the really big gains are got when several generators are driven by just the one motor. In passing, it may be remarked that there are two separate energy gain systems operating here. Firstly, the rotating magnetic field acts directly on the excess electrons in the local environment, drawing them into the system just as the fluctuating magnetic field of the secondary winding of any transformer does. Secondly, the rotors are receiving a rapid stream of drive pulses, and as Chas Campbell has demonstrated, that draws in excess energy from the gravitational field.

Anyway, you will notice that the powerful magnets used have their North poles outwards on one rotor while the adjacent rotor has the South poles outwards. The very strong attraction between these opposite poles cause the generator disc to rotate in step with the motor disc. This process allows many generators to be driven by just the one motor as shown here and in the photograph above:

For ease of drawing, the diagram above shows only eight magnets per rotor disc, but you will notice in the photograph (and in the video) that there are three stepped rows of magnets on each rotor:
You will also notice that direction of the stepping is reversed on every second rotor disc in order for the magnets to match each other in position as they rotate in opposite directions. The relevant patent on this is FR 2,826,800 of January 2003. Hatem has an interesting video at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3UJZ9hDQnyA&ebc=ANyPxKp3VkBwv2Iy9UZEWfogEY_TYOSb bmUFDqYa5zZ88hiyiitlyUlniyVjUzu6hUluHgoT2.

**Lawrence Tseung's COP=3.3 Pulsed-Flywheel.**
Lawrence has been presenting his theory of lead-out energy which indicates that excess energy is drawn from the environment when there is an impact. The method of producing this effect which he has followed is to create an unbalanced wheel and demonstrate that excess energy is produced. It should be stressed that energy is never created or destroyed and so, when he measures more energy in his device than the energy which he uses to power it, energy is not being created but is instead, being drawn in from the local environment. Lawrence has recently demonstrated a prototype to members of the public:
This simple device was demonstrated to have 3.3 times as much output power as the input power needed to make it operate. This is an early prototype which was demonstrated in October 2009 and Lawrence and his helpers are working on to produce more advanced models which have kilowatts of excess electrical power.

Mr Tseung remarks: "The **Lee-Tseung Lead-Out Energy Theory** was first disclosed to the world on 20th December 2004 at Tai Po, in Hong Kong. The Lead-Out Energy Theory basically says that one can lead-out (or bring-in) Energy from the surrounding environment into a Lead-Out Energy Machine. The total Input energy is equal to the sum of the Supplied Energy plus the Lead-Out Energy. For example, if the supplied energy is 100 units and the lead-out energy is 50 units, the device's total Input Energy will be 150 units. This means that the Output Energy can be more than the Supplied Energy of 100 units provided by the person using the device.

If we ignore the small loss of energy caused by less than 100% efficiency of the device itself, then the Output Energy will be the whole of the 150 units. If we use 50 of the output energy units and feed back 100 of the output units as the Supplied Energy, then that Supplied Energy can again lead-out another 50 units of excess output Energy for us to use. Thus a Lead-Out Energy Machine can continuously lead-out pollution-free, virtually inexhaustible and readily available energy for us to use. We do not need to burn any fossil fuel or pollute our environment. The two examples of Lead-Out energy which we access are Gravitational and Electron-Motion energy.

The Lead-Out Energy theory does not violate the Law of Conservation of Energy. The Law of Conservation of Energy has been used as a roadblock for the so called “Overunity” devices. The patent offices and the scientific establishment routinely dismiss an invention as belonging to the impossible “perpetual-motion machine” category if the inventor cannot identify the energy source of his invention.

We got the help of Mr. Tong Po Chi to produce a 60 cm diameter Lead-Out Energy machine in October 2009. The Output Energy of that device is greater than the Input Energy by a factor of 3 times. These results are confirmed by voltmeters and ammeters measuring the Input and Output energies.

The Tong wheel has been shown at two Open Shows in Hong Kong (Inno Carnival 2009 and Inno Design Tech Expo) in November and December 2009. Over 25,000 people have seen it. The Better Hong Kong Radio Show has video recorded it, the discussions being conducted in Chinese. At this time, the Tong wheel is at the Radio Studio available for experts to view and examine with their own instruments."

The Tong wheel has a diameter of 600 mm and this large size is considered to be important. It has 16 permanent magnets mounted on its rim and 15 air-core coils mounted around it on the stator. There is one position sensor. The coils can be switched to act as drive coils or as energy collection coils:
With this arrangement, if the positions the switches as shown for ten of the fifteen coils shown here, then they act as drive coils. The sensor is adjusted so that the drive circuit delivers a brief energising pulse to those coils just after the magnets have passed their exact alignment position with the coils. This causes them to generate a magnetic field which repels the magnets, thrusting the rotor around.

The pulse is very brief, so very little power is needed to accomplish this pulsing. As mentioned before, any number of coils can be switched to provide this driving force. With this particular wheel construction by Mr Tong, the best number has been found to be ten drive coils.

The power pick-up is achieved by gathering the electricity generated in some of the coils as the magnets move past them:
In this particular arrangement, five of the coils gather energy while ten provide the drive. For the sake of simplicity, the diagram shows the five collection coils adjacent to each other and while that would work, the wheel is better balanced if the drive coils are evenly spaced out around the rim. For that reason, this switching would actually be selected to give five sets of two drive coils followed by one pick-up coil as that gives a perfectly balanced thrust on the wheel.

The two diagrams above are shown separately in order to make it clear how the drive switching and the power pick-up switching are arranged. The full design arrangement and the balanced switching are shown in the following diagram which indicates how the full design is implemented on this particular implementation of the wheel design. The sensor can be a coil feeding a semiconductor switching circuit, or it can be a magnetic semiconductor called a Hall-effect device which can also feed a semiconductor circuit. An alternative would be a reed switch which is a simple mechanical switch encased in an inert gas inside a tiny glass envelope. Suitable switching circuits are described and explained in chapter 12 of this eBook.
Mr Tseung remarks that the large wheel size is due to the fact that the Pulse Force takes time to impart the impulse to the wheel and lead-out energy from the environment into the system. If you want to see this actual wheel, you can email Dr. Alexandra Yuan at ayuan@hkstar.com to make an appointment. The Tong wheel is located at the Better Hong Kong Radio Studio in Causeway Bay, Hong Kong. Just say that you want to see the Lead-Out Energy Machine. The demonstration can be in English or in Chinese. Ideally, there should be a group of at least six visitors with one or more being a qualified engineer or scientist, and you are welcome to bring your own cameras and/or test equipment. It is planned to produce a version which has a 300 watt output, and another with a 5 kilowatt output. Educational kits are also planned.

If you decide to replicate this particular design, then to raise the output power level you might consider putting another set of coils around the wheel and either using them as fifteen additional energy pick-up coils or alternatively, pulsing the wheel twice as often. Adding one or more additional rotor discs to the same rotating shaft is also an option and that has the advantage of increasing the rotor weight and improving the effect of the impulses on the rotor.

The diameter of the wire used to wind the coils is a design choice which has a wide scope. The thicker the wire, the greater the current and the larger the impulse given to the wheel. The coils are normally connected in parallel as shown in the diagrams.

Because of the way magnetic field strength drops off with the square of the distance, it is generally considered good design practice to make the coils one and a half times as wide as they are deep, as indicated in the diagrams above, but this is not a critical factor. This design is, of course, a version of the Adams motor described at the start of this chapter. Although motors of this kind can be built in many different ways, the construction used by Mr Tong has some distinct advantages, so here is a little more detail on how I understand the construction to be carried out.
There are two side pieces which are attached together by sixteen cross timbers, each of which are held in place by two screws at each end. This produces a rigid structure while the construction method is as simple as is possible, using readily available materials which are worked with the most basic of hand tools. The construction also allows the motor to be taken apart completely without any difficulty, transported as a “flat-pack” package and then assembled at a new location. It also facilitates people who want to see the motor taken apart after a demonstration in order to assure themselves that there is no hidden power source.

Each of the cross timbers provide a secure mounting platform for an electromagnet and it’s associated switch. In the implementation by Mr Tong, there appears to be just the one rotor, configured as shown above with sixteen permanent magnets mounted in it’s rim. The magnetic poles of these magnets are all orientated in the same direction. That is to say, the magnetic poles facing outwards are all either South or all North poles. It is not critical whether the outward facing poles are North or South as Robert Adams used both arrangements with great success, but having said that, most people prefer to have the North poles facing outwards.

Robert has always said that one rotor was enough, but his techniques were so sophisticated that he was able to extract kilowatts of excess power from a single small rotor. For us, just starting to experiment and test a motor of this type, it seems sensible to stick with what Mr Tong has experienced success. However, this build by Mr Tong is not his final motor but just one in a series of continuously improved motors.

The following diagram shows an arrangement which has three rotors attached to a single shaft and while you may choose to construct this with just one rotor, if the cross timbers are long enough, then one or two extra rotors can be added in very easily at a later date.
Here, just two of the cross timbers are shown. The electromagnet coils used by Mr Tong are air-core as that type have the least effect on the passing magnets. However, electromagnets with cores tend to be much more power for any given current flowing through them. In theory, the core should be made of lengths of insulated iron wire as that would reduce power loss through eddy currents flowing in the core, but Robert actually recommends solid metal cores, and as he was the most experienced person in this field, paying attention to what he said seems sensible.

The core material needs to be a metal which magnetises easily and powerfully, but which does not retain any of its magnetism when the current stops flowing. Not many metals have those characteristics and soft iron is usually recommended. Nowadays, soft iron is not always readily available and so a convenient alternative is the central bolt of a masonry anchor which has excellent properties:

![Masonry anchor bolt](image)

The shaft of the bolt can be cut quite easily with a hacksaw, but be sure to remove (or file down) the head of the bolt as the increase in diameter has a marked effect on the magnetic properties of the electromagnet core if it is left in place. The bolt shown above is a M16 x 147 mm masonry anchor bolt with a bolt diameter of 10 mm. Some makes of dry-ink felt white-board markers have a rigid body which fits the 10 mm bolt exactly and provide an excellent tube for constructing an electromagnet bobbin.

With a core in the electromagnets, the rotor gets additional rotating power. Initially, the magnets on the rotor are attracted to the electromagnet cores, giving the rotor a turning force which does not require any current to be supplied. When the rotor magnets are at their closest point to the electromagnet cores, the windings are powered up briefly and that gives the rotor magnets a strong push away, causing the rotor to spin.

There are many different designs of simple drive circuits and it is probably worth trying out different types to see which works best with your particular build of motor. In the same way, there are many kinds of collection circuits for taking off some of the excess power generated. The most simple of these is just a diode bridge, perhaps feeding a battery and charging it up for use at a later time. If you
get sophisticated with the collection circuit and just take power off for a very short period of time at the
correct moment, the cutting off of the current draw, causes a back-EMF magnetic pulse in the collection
electromagnet which causes it to give the rotor an extra drive push – both current collection and rotor
drive in one combined package.

Here are two of the most simple circuits possible, one for drive and one for power collection. The drive
transistor is switched on by a voltage generated in the grey coil by a rotor magnet passing by. The
transistor then feeds a large current pulse to the black coil, driving the rotor on its way. The neon and
diode are there to protect the transistor and a physical layout for this circuit might be:

The 1K variable resistor is adjusted to give the best performance and the On/Off switch is optional. More
advanced circuits, such as the one on page 2 - 9 can also be tried and the performance compared. Generally speaking, I would expect a three-rotor version to give a better performance than a single rotor implementation, but experimentation is needed.

**DC Motor Efficiency**

Commercially available DC motors are deliberately designed and manufactured to have extremely poor
performance. In my opinion, the reason for this is that a properly designed electric motor could easily
do away with the need for using internal combustion engines in vehicles and that would not suit the oil
companies or their owners, the New World Order cartels. Worse still, electric motors with COP>1 open
the way to self-powered free-energy systems and that would never do!!

The video: [http://torrentdb.in/95d95cffe2bbc8039ed9/Peter-Lindemann-Electric-Motor-Secrets.torrent](http://torrentdb.in/95d95cffe2bbc8039ed9/Peter-Lindemann-Electric-Motor-Secrets.torrent) is
available on the web and I strongly recommend that you watch all of it. It presents the basic facts very
nicely. In brief outline, present day motors act both as a motor and as a generator of electrical power, but they are deliberately wound so that the power generation is used to oppose the input power and so produce a completely crippled output. During World War II, a German Engineer re-wired a standard electric motor and made it self-powered, that is, it ran and produced mechanical output power without the need for any input power once it had been started. That shows the potential of a properly constructed electric motor with the same size and general structure of any commercial electric motor.

Presumably, he did that by adding extra brushes and using some of the windings in generator mode with their output powering the drive windings which were arranged asymmetrically. There was also one other man who achieved self-powered re-wiring of a motor, but neither of those men made their information public knowledge.

The con job which has been run on us for many decades now is to wind the motor in such a way that the magnetic fields inside the motor oppose each other. When a current is passed through a coil of wire, it stores energy in that coil, and when the current flow is cut off, that energy needs to flow back out of the coil and it will do so in the reverse direction. This is sometimes called back-EMF (“Electro-Motive Force”) although many people are not happy with that description. However, no matter what you call it, there is energy stored in the coil and that energy can be used to do useful work. But, the motor manufacturers choose to wind the motor so that instead of extracting that useful power, they use it to oppose a major part of the input power, creating a weak motor which heats up due to the wasted energy.

Contributor “UFOpolitics” points out that a deliberate mis-design of electric motors has, for the last 130 years, been presented to us as the only way to make and operate such motors. He states that because the windings are arranged in a symmetrical way, that a braking effect is produced which reduces the output power of the motor by anything from 50% to 90%. That is, a properly wound motor would have anything from twice to ten times the output power for the same input power. This mis-design guarantees that present day motors are always less than 100% efficient and always heat up when run. This mis-design is caused by using symmetrical windings in the motor.

Standard motor wiring is quite different and the killer effect is caused by having two windings which face each other, powered simultaneously with currents flowing in opposite directions. This causes a complete conflict between the magnetic fields and that destroys the efficiency of the motor: A very experienced experimenter has started a forum thread on the energetic-forum, both to explain this and to show new and more advanced construction methods and to answer questions and encourage replications and further developments. The forum is at: http://www.energeticforum.com/renewable-energy/11885-my-asymmetric-electrodynamic-machines.html and is definitely worth visiting, especially if you are good with mechanical devices. The experimenter uses the forum ID of “UFOpolitics” and he has produced an animated video in an attempt to explain the basic problems with present day DC electric motors: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Mj4rV0AoI-Q&feature=channel&list=UL. He points out that a problem winding in the standard DC motor looks like this:
The input current for any winding is fed in through a single pair of brush contacts. The generated electrical power “Ec” is not extracted and is forced to oppose the input energy “Ea”, leaving only a fraction of the input power to actually run the motor. It is likely that a motor of this type will only operate at 25% of it’s potential efficiency.

“UFOpolitics” has produced and demonstrated a simple way of overcoming this problem while using the existing motor housing, magnets and brush contacts. He does this by extracting the generated electrical power as a useful output and so preventing that useful power being used against the motor’s operation. To implement this, he adds one additional pair of brushes and re-winds the motor coils like this:

Here, one pair of brushes is at the top and one pair at the bottom of the ‘armature’ (the bit that rotates inside the motor housing and provides the mechanical power output). The coils are rewound to form a series of separate vertical coils, connecting to one brush terminal at the top and one brush terminal at the bottom as shown above.

The input power is between the terminals on the left and flows through the coil shown in brown. The current flow generates a magnetic field, causing rotation because of the Permanent magnets marked “N” (for a magnet which has it’s North pole facing the coils) and “S” (for a magnet which has it’s South pole facing the coils). The black zig-zag line represents the resistance to current flow of the wire and brush contacts.

The coil shown in green on the right represents that same coil at a later moment when it has been disconnected from the power supply and rotated until it reaches that position, at which point, the energy stored in it is taken off as a useful output via the right hand pair of brushes. However, this is just an explanatory diagram and it does not show the very important fact that the discharging coil must not directly face a driving coil, because if it does, then the energy discharge would create a magnetic field which would interfere with the magnetic field of the driving coil and create a major problem.

Right, to say that again, any one coil is powered on the left hand side to drive the armature around and provide the output shaft with turning power (“torque”). Then that rotation disconnects that coil from the input power, leaving the coil charged with energy which has nowhere to go. That charged coil continues round until it hits the second set of brushes, which allow it to discharge through a load and do useful work.
The really clever part of the adaption of the motor is best seen from above the vertical rotor. If, for example, you were to take a five-pole DC motor apart and remove the windings, the shaft and armature body might look like this:

When making an asymmetrical wound rotor, the windings go like this.

The start of the wire is secured at the top and then fed downwards through the opening “A” and back up through the opening “B”. For the small Radio Shack motor, this winding would be 25 turns of # 30 AWG wire (described as radio Shack ‘red’ wire, with a copper wire diameter of 0.255 mm). If you are rewinding a motor armature, please understand that each wire turn needs to be pulled tight in order to make a tight, solid and robust coil which will not vibrate unduly when the armature is spinning.

The end of the wire marked “FINISH” is not cut, but is taken down through opening “A” and this time, up through opening “C”. For clarity, these continuing turns are shown in a different colour, but please realise that it is the same single strand of wire being used throughout:
The final wire turn goes down through opening “A” and finishes at the other end of the body of the armature. In these views, the wire runs down into the paper, each turn forming a cylinder. This view may give you a better visual picture of what the coils are wound on:

The next step is to connect the START and FINISH wire ends of this V-shaped double coil to the “commutator” slip rings which allow current to be passed through the coil at just the right moment. Seen again from one end of the armature, the connections are like this:
The commutator slip rings are connected further up on the drive shaft and the start of the winding wire (shown previously in dark green) is connected to the top commutator sector in the position shown here. The finishing end of the wire is connected to the corresponding commutator sector at the far end of the shaft – that is, the sector directly in line with the upper sector just connected to the start of the wire.

This completes the first of five identical V-shaped coils. The next coil is wound in the same way. The armature is rotated one sector counter-clockwise so that sector “D” replaces “A” at the top and the next coil is wound with the wire starting at the top and going down through opening “D” and up through opening “E”, repeating the same number of turns, and then, without cutting the wire the next set of wires are wound going down through opening “D” and back up through opening “F”. The start of the wire is then connected to the commutator sector which spans between openings “A” and “E” and the end connected to the corresponding commutator sector at the other end of the shaft.

For each of the remaining three windings, the shaft is rotated one position counter-clockwise and the same winding and connecting procedure carried out. When completed, no matter which opening is placed at the top of the view along the shaft, the windings and commutator sector for the wire connections will be identical.

3-Pole Motors
The winding arrangement is slightly different for motors which have three poles (or multiples of three poles such as 6, 9, 12, etc poles). For the very simple 3-pole motors, the armature looks like this:
and with this style of armature, the winds are around the three arms, like this:

![Armature Diagram](image1)

And as before, the commutator sectors at the top are duplicated at the bottom, allowing separate input and output circuits for each of the three coils. The windings have many turns, filling the available space and each winding is connected to the slip ring sector directly opposite it, like this:

![Armature Diagram](image2)

The Start of each winding is connected to the commutator slip ring sector at the top of the armature and the Finish is connected to the slip ring sector directly below it, that is, the sector which is at the same angle as the top one where the Start of the wire is connected. This allows the brushes which press against the slip ring sectors to connect to both ends of each coil in turn as the armature rotates. Three pole motors are particularly powerful and motors with six poles can be re-wound with pairs of adjacent sectors amalgamated to give three larger sectors. Nine pole motors can have three adjacent sectors wound as a single coil to provide the same effect as a three pole motor, and twelve pole motors can have four adjacent sectors wound as a single coil.

The positioning of the brushes is important. With the three-pole and five-pole arrangements, the brushes are aligned with the gaps between the magnets which surround the armature. However, the re-wound motor can be ‘tuned’ for improved torque and reduced drive current by adapting the motor housing to allow some adjustment of the position of the brush and commutator slip rings relative to the coils. This adjustment need only be slight as the angular movement of the brushes will be small. It is, of course, essential that the upper and lower adjusted positions move by exactly the same angular amount so that every upper commutator slip ring sector remains exactly above its corresponding lower slip ring sector. In other words, the commutator slip ring sector at the top and bottom of each coil, must be exactly aligned vertically so that the electrical connections are made and broken at exactly the same instant.

The commutator and brush arrangement are shown here in UFOpolitics’ diagrams:
The Commutator brush marked “G” (for “Generator”) takes away the energy stored in each coil and passes it to an electrical load. The Commutator brush marked “M” (for “Motor”) feeds energy into the coil from the battery which is driving the motor. The red and blue stripes surrounding the armature are two permanent magnets. The magnet shown in red has its South pole facing the armature and the magnet shown in blue has its North pole facing the armature. This creates a magnetic field flowing horizontally across the armature. The five-pole arrangement is like this:
Here, the designation “R/S” stands for “Radio Shack” which is a chain of stores in America. In the forum, that is sometimes changed to “RS” and should not be confused with the large electronics outlet “Radio Spares” whose trademark is “RS”. UFOpolitics has suggested that the cheap 5-pole DC motor available from Radio Shack should be used by experimenters to become familiar with re-winding DC motor coils. Being a cheap product, those motors do not have a particularly high build quality, but they are suitable motors for experiments. Forum members share the details of how they dealt with adapting these and other motors.

I have to admit that motor windings and operation tend to confuse me and I sometimes find it difficult to understand what ‘UFOpolitics’ means when he talks about different winding strategies. However, it seems reasonably clear at this early stage of forum development, that his objective is to produce two things:

1. A very powerful electric motor which can be used in serious forms of road transport as well as for other practical applications, and
2. A powerful motor/generator combination which can produce useful generated electrical power.

While ‘UFOpolitics’ is very patiently going through many of the possible variations on how a DC motor can be wound and connected, and showing various forum members where they have failed to get some of their windings positioned correctly, he has also shown some of the best ways of connecting a re-wound motor used as a driver or “Prime Mover” as some people like to call it, and a re-wound motor which is to be used as an electrical generator. He shows two important ways for making a very effective Motor/Generator combination, as shown here:
It needs to be realised that these arrangements are not conventional arrangements and that the re-wound motors operate in a different way to motors bought 'off the shelf'. For this reason, it is necessary to isolate the electrical output to prevent current flowing through the load from affecting the operation of the Motor/Generator combination. This can be done by placing a diode in each of the output lines and charging a capacitor bank which is then used to feed whatever load is to powered. If my understanding is correct, then feeding any cold electricity produced into a capacitor causes the current to become conventional hot electricity. It is not clear if that action is part of this arrangement although the circuitry shown should be used. This is the second version:

’UFOpolitics’ comments on these arrangements as follows: As we excite the input of the Motor, the Generator will start producing energy and that additional energy will flow through the Motor Output side
because they are connected in series here. Two rectifiers must be connected at both output terminals, Positive and Negative, to avoid back flow from closing the circuit through the load.

As the Motor accelerates, the Generator boosts the energy flow which then runs through the Motor augmenting the Output Fields and when the output is loaded then an ‘Engagement’ of both Machines occurs as they start to compensate each other through their output flows. It should be understood that the Output should be Capacitor Banked in a dedicated Reservoir.

When designing a Generator for a specific, existing Asymmetric Motor machine, it must be understood that Generator Interactions should be considered to run as “Counter Rotation” to the Motor Machine’s originally conceived rotation (which is easily done by just moving brush-lines passing stator bisector angles to the opposite of those needed for a Motor, or alternatively, setting the timing backwards). This will definitely enhance the assisted rotation of both Machines when connected together in this Face-to-Face mode.

As I do not find the forum comments easy to understand, I recommend that you visit the forum and read the posts as you may well understand the conversations easier to follow than I do.

On the forum, ‘Sanskara316’ states “I have re-wound a small 3-volt 3-pole motor. I used an almost dead, 6-volt sealed lead-acid battery to power the motor. This battery just sits at around 4 volts and if given a load, even a small LED, it’s voltage drops to 1 volt. The re-wound motor started very slowly - barely spinning, then after a minute or two it started to spin faster, and I noticed that the voltage on the battery was slowly climbing. I connected a small LED flashlight to the generating side and it lit up. Now the battery voltage under load is around 2+ volts. It’s been running for an hour now and the machine squeals a lot. It is conditioning the battery and the meter cannot be showing what really is happening. The motor draws 300 mA?? – That’s not possible as the battery just doesn’t have that power”. To which ‘UFOpolitics’ remarks: “Well I am glad you have witnessed some of the ‘Effects’... these re-wound motors do recondition batteries...remember, Radiant Energy is taking over the Machine...so Radiant Energy comes out through the Input also... which is the reason why we get high Volts-Amps reading on a meter... these motors use very small amounts of current and volts. Inside the motor, every coil is being ‘Self-Electromagnetically-Pulsed’ because they auto-disconnect from the power source, then the next coil in the sequence is assisted by the first coil when it has rotated to it’s next position, and so on. The commutator switching has become a ‘Self-Oscillator’ for every independently-energised coil.”

Another forum member ‘prochiro’ says: “I have also replicated the battery-charging events that ‘Sanskara316’ indicated. I started with a 12-volt 4 Amp-Hour battery which I had been using with another circuit two weeks ago and had not recharged it after using it for hours. It was sitting at 12.40 volts. I took my best-running re-wound motor, plugged it in direct and ran it. The battery voltage dropped to 12.24 volts and stayed at that level for 30 seconds. The battery voltage then started to rise 1/100 of a volt per minute. When it was at 12.27 volts, I disconnected the motor (the total run time was less than 5 minutes). I then let it rest for five minutes. At the end of the five minutes, the battery voltage had risen to 12.43 volts and is still at that voltage now. Just think what a larger motor would do on a big battery bank. Everybody needs to document this test as it proves what ‘UFOpolitics’ said.”

New DC motors, and particularly cheap motors, will have brushes which do not mate cleanly with the commutator slip ring sectors and so, when the modification has been made, running the motor for some time allows the brushes to wear in and that raises the efficiency of the electrical connections which in turn, improves the performance of the motor. If you wish to build and test one of these motors, then you can find help and support in the forum with your questions answered and numerous videos and photographs from different experimenters to help you.

The Infinity SAV Motor / Generator
A Motor/Generator which demonstrates clearly that it outputs substantial power as well as generating its own input power is seen operating at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EmdKVecQhXs&feature=iv&src_vid=Qrw6Xj5a0nM&annotation_id=channel%3A56c3cdf0-0000-2004-bcb5-94eb2c062a9c.
I certainly don’t understand their statement that spinning a magnet past a coil does not produce a force which opposes the passing magnet. However, if this South Korean video is genuine, and it certainly seems to be, then it is a most encouraging step forward. This particular design has 25 rows of 10 neodymium magnets spinning past 250 bi-filar coils of wire and it is demonstrated powering itself while lighting 100 bulbs, driving a fan and operating a heater. Their web site now offers ready made free energy generators at https://infinitysav.com/magneticgenerator/.

The Homopolar or “N-Machine”.
This device was the brainchild of Michael Faraday in 1831 and has an intriguing method of operation and a remarkably large output.

The principle of operation is incredibly simple:

If a copper disc is rotated in a magnetic field, then power is developed between the shaft and the outer edge (or any intermediate position). It was then found that the device will still operate even if the magnet is attached to the copper disc and rotates with it - not something which is intuitively obvious. The power output is tremendous with the capability of extracting 1000 Amps but at a low voltage of less than 1 Volt. The power take-off can be from one face of the disc near the shaft rather than having to
have a copper shaft integral with the copper disc. This device also works with a magnet just attached to the copper disc and rotating with it.

This looks like a very viable starting point to develop a device which can run itself and provide useful additional output, since a motor to rotate the disc will not require anything remotely like 1000A to drive it. The snag is, it is very difficult to provide reliable sliding contacts capable of handling large currents for extended periods of time. The second picture above shows the disc with its outer edge immersed in a bath of mercury. This is sufficient for a brief demonstration at low power but not realistic for a serious working device.

It might just be possible to get a reasonable working device by accepting that the current output is not going to be anything like 1000A. Long-life brushes could be made from solid copper bar and spring-loaded against the copper disc in matching pairs so that the brush thrusts oppose each other and so do not generate a sideways load. These could be made in multiple sets for each disc, say four or eight per disc, so that the effective electrical resistance between the brushes and the disc is reduced and the possible current draw increased.

Similar multiple brushes could be applied to the central shaft cylinder. Multiple discs could then be mounted on a non-conducting, non-magnetic shaft and their brushes wired in series as shown, to raise the output voltage:

It is said that in India, Professor Tewari used homopolar generators to extract hydrogen from water and that bus services were run on hydrogen as the fuel, but I have not managed to find confirmation of that. The main difficulty in using the design is the difficulty in drawing off the very high low-voltage currents produced without creating a major drag factor which is a serious problem. Bruce DePalma managed to overcome this problem but he assigned his development to the US Military.

In 1987, three of the Borderlands Science team, Michael Know, Peter Lindemann, and Chris Carson experimented with the homopolar design and found that a much more satisfactory version could be produced. Their version produces sawtooth AC instead of DC and so the output could be fed directly
into a step-up transformer. Their design has four ferrite magnets glued between two metal discs, and for additional mechanical strength, copper wire wound around the outer edges of the magnets in order to prevent magnets flying outwards if the glue bond should fail. Their arrangement is like this:

This appears to contradict the “laws” of conventional electricity as there is a very low resistance short-circuit directly across the brushes which pick up the AC voltage output. The output current from a small prototype was estimated at 100 amps. The frequency of the AC is directly proportional to the shaft speed of the motor, but the output voltage was almost independent of the shaft speed of the motor, increasing only very slightly with much greater speed. It was also found that putting the brushes at 90 degrees apart on the metal shaft of the motor gave the same output in spite of the contacts nearly touching each other. This design appears to have considerable potential for construction in a larger size and further investigation.

While the operation of these devices looks impossible at first glance, it needs to be understood that copper has some very unusual characteristics when interacting with magnetic fields. This is explained in the web site http://magnetism.vfedtec.com/SpinningCylinder.htm where it can be seen that a spinning copper cylinder exerts a large sideways force on a permanent magnet placed near it. This does not happen with spinning cylinders made from other metals.

Nikola Tesla took Faraday’s 1831 design further as can be seen from his 1889 US patent No. 406,968. He remarked that to get any kind of useful power from the device would require a copper disc of very large diameter, or a disc which is spun very fast. A large copper disc would be an inconvenient size, and a high rate of rotation makes it very difficult to get a good, long-lasting, sliding contact at the outside edge of the disc. He also pointed out that current flowed from the shaft out to the outside edge if the magnetic field passing through the disc was in one direction, but if the direction of the magnetic field were reversed, then the current flow would be from the outer edge inwards to the shaft. The same change of direction of the current flow also happens if the direction of rotation of the disc is reversed.

Using those facts and considerable ingenuity, Tesla proposed an arrangement where the power take-off is from the axle alone, by using two separate copper discs and magnetic fields which moved in opposite directions. This arrangement has the advantage that it has an output voltage which is the sum of the two separate voltages. This basic concept uses four ring-shaped magnets and two discs of copper, brass or iron. Both of the discs are given a wide flange, as shown here:
The circuit shown here is broken by the gap between the discs and Tesla dealt with that by using a flexible metal belt linking the two discs together:
While it is possible to use the belt to drive one of the discs, Tesla did not use that method. The belt overcomes the need for a sliding contact at the outside edge of the discs and so both sliding contacts are at the axles which is an easy place to have a sliding contact. Tesla shows the contact against the end of the axles as that is just a rotary movement with respect to the stationary contact, but even if the contact pressed against the outer face of the axle, the sliding movement would still be relatively slow. In spite of this clever design from Tesla, I have never heard of anybody building this style of generator in spite of the large currents which it can generate.

A developer who prefers to remain anonymous, says “For people who have an interest in homopolar generators of the type experimented with by Tewari, Trombly-Kahn, DePalma and others:”

What if there were another configuration to the engineering of a homopolar generator than the standard method of running a magnetic field parallel to a rotating shaft and through a conducting spinning disk? Though someone may have formulated this alternate type of a homopolar generator, I have never read nor am I aware of anyone having put forth this idea nor having constructed any such homopolar generator mentioned below. The below design information is Public Domain information and so anyone is free to construct a device and/or make use of this information however they wish without royalty demands. In principle it is no more complex than the Faraday model.

Having made some study of these above mentioned devices by Tewari and de Palma and learning of some of their shortcomings I kept wondering why it is that at this point in time (since the coming of the age of neodymium magnets which were not available in their time) no one has considered their use in an alternate configuration. Neodymium magnets can be had in what is termed as “arc magnets”. These magnets are designed to be mounted on drums or cylinders to serve as poles on a rotor in a motor or generator. The Faraday Dynamo or standard homopolar generator was made such that the magnetic field is parallel to the rotating axle through a rotating and conducting disc. With arc magnets we can mount them so that the field is now perpendicular to the axle, in other words on a drum circular about the axle with one magnetic field directed outward and the other inward to the axle. Let us say the north pole is going outwards and the south pole going inwards toward the axle and then curving out of the ends of the drum as shown here in Fig.1.

![Diagram](image.png)

At this point it is interesting to note that the axle is serving as a magnet and since the south pole is directed out the ends of the drum the axle itself has become a magnet that has a south pole at each end of the axle. Where the north pole might be in the axle I’ll leave to the debating society. A tubular conductor is placed over or under the magnets (the magnets can be difficult to mount in this fashion as...
they will not want to be mounted that way) the charge (also referenced to as a space charge) will separate to the ends of a conducting tube or copper sheet wrapped over or under the set of magnets where brushes at the ends can tap the current when the device is rotated.

![Diagram of homopolar generator](image)

This new arrangement opens up multiple manner of possibility. It can allow for a lengthy drum - the addition of added drum segments of magnet sets which should increase voltage. It should also be possible to mount magnets on the drum that alternate magnetic poles - in common fashion similar to a common motor and use back and forth wiring over the poles faces to multiple voltage, of course this can not be considered homopolar but rather polypolar. The reason for attempting this is to raise voltage to the point that exotic brushes need not be considered as much higher voltages can be achieved.

For those not familiar with this form of homopolar generator the reason for rotating the conductor with the field is to overcome the effect of the counter electromotive force of the generator or circumvent undesired effect of Lenz’s Law.

While I do not have the machine tools to make a good homopolar generator I was able to hand make parts that I assembled into a proof of concept generator. I was able to prove to my satisfaction that this tubular type of homopolar generator does work but I cannot say how well. I have reason to think that it should prove just as valid a method as the standard Faraday Dynamo. Anyone with the tools is free to make his own. I would like to learn the outcome of your work. Here are some pictures of my construction:
The builder states that in his opinion, the voltage will be increased if the device is built with a longer cylinder containing more magnets, and so the sliding brushes which take off the output current are further apart. He is also of the opinion that if the diameter of the device is increased that the output voltage will also be increased. He does not have the necessary equipment nor the finance required to develop this further but he invites you to build this design and take the design further.

In my opinion, it should be possible to use ordinary rectangular magnets positioned so that they touch along their inner ends and have a slight gap at the upper face all along their length. It should be possible to mount them securely on a non-magnetic cylinder before wrapping copper sheet around them to form the copper cylinder of the device.

**Art Porter’s Magnetic System.**

Art uses an electromagnet with a ring magnet mounted on the core. When the coil is pulsed so as to augment the field of the permanent magnet, Art says that his prototype produces 2.9 times the field strength of the permanent magnet on its own. When the coil is pulsed in the direction which opposes the field of the permanent magnet, the resulting magnetic field is zero.

This is a very serious change of magnetic field which can be used in different applications. One which Art has implemented is using the arrangement to power a crankshaft motor. Art shows several different motor builds including this one:

With this arrangement, Art states that 95% of the motor power comes from the permanent magnet. Art’s website is at [http://www.gap-power.com/index.html](http://www.gap-power.com/index.html) and he has a very interesting, lengthy video showing all of the details at [http://www.gap-power.com/videos/Full%20Length%20Video.wmv](http://www.gap-power.com/videos/Full%20Length%20Video.wmv).

In the video, Art attempts to apply Ohm’s Law in an attempt to analyse the operation and is puzzled when the oscilloscope readings do not match his Ohm’s Law calculations. He thinks that there is a contradiction between the oscilloscope and Ohm’s Law, which he repeatedly stresses is a law of Nature, and he concludes that one of them has to be wrong. In actual fact, neither are wrong because Ohm’s Law only applies to DC current flow in resistive circuits, and Art is not using steady DC current or a resistive load.

Applying short DC pulses to a substantial coil of wire is the equivalent of applying AC to that inductor. Ohm’s Law does not apply due to the inductance of the coil. There is a Power Factor involved and Back EMF voltage pulses, so the oscilloscope readings are what is needed to calculate the input and output powers.
This arrangement is almost identical to that used in the Charles Flynn magnet motor described in chapter 1, and very close to the techniques used by Robert Adams in a properly tuned Adams Motor as shown at the start of this chapter. In my opinion, the effect which Art is exploiting would best be used if a large pick-up coil is placed against the end of the electromagnet core and the drive coil pulsed at the coil’s (high) resonant frequency as that will minimise the input power and maximise the output power. Stacking those units in a bank could well produce a very sizeable excess electrical output. Our thanks are due to Art and his colleagues for sharing their research work freely for others to replicate and progress further.

The Rotoverter Power Amplification System

The Rotoverter is a high-efficiency motor drive system which uses a standard three-phase electric motor. A three-phase motor has got three windings, each of which is powered up sequentially to provide rotation of the output drive shaft. This circuit has been presented as a Public Domain non-copyrightable circuit by Hector Perez Torres.

The Rotoverter has been reproduced by several independent researchers and it produces a substantial power gain when driving devices which need an electrical motor to operate. Typically, the input power requirement is cut to just 10% of the original power needed. For example, it is possible to power a Rotoverter with a solar panel and use it to pump water from a well. However, the greatest interest is in generating an electrical output. One method is shown here:

The output device is an alternator which is driven by a three-phase mains-powered, 3 HP to 7.5 HP motor (both of these devices can be standard ‘asynchronous squirrel-cage’ motors). The drive motor is operated in a highly non-standard manner. It is a 240V motor with six windings as shown below. These windings are connected in series to make an arrangement which should require 480 volts to drive it, but instead, it is fed with 120 volts of single-phase AC. The input voltage for the motor, should always be a quarter of its rated operational voltage. A virtual third phase is created by using a capacitor which creates a 90-degree phase-shift between the applied voltage and the current. The arrangement needs a different value capacitor when starting compared to when the motor is running normally. The best capacitor size for any particular drive motor has to be determined by experiment.

A capacitor switching box can be very helpful. The capacitors shown above, can produce any value from 0.5 microfarad to 31.5 microfarad, and can be rapidly switched to find the correct resonant value.
These values allow combined values of 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, ..... by selecting the appropriate switches to be ON or OFF. Should you need a value greater than this, then wire a 32 microfarad capacitor in place and connect the substitution box across it to test higher values step by step to find the optimum value of capacitor to use. The capacitors need to be powerful, oil-filled units with a high voltage rating - in other words, large, heavy and expensive.

The power being handled in one of these systems is large and setting one up is not without a certain degree of physical danger. These systems have been set to be self-powered but this is not recommended, presumably because of the possibility of runaway with the output power building up rapidly and boosting the input power until the motor burns out.

The Yahoo EVGRAY Group at [http://groups.yahoo.com/group/EVGRAY](http://groups.yahoo.com/group/EVGRAY) has many members many of whom are very willing to offer advice and assistance. A unique jargon has built up on this forum, where the motor is not called a motor but is referred to as a “Prime Mover” or “PM” for short, which can cause confusion as “PM” usually stands for “Permanent Magnet”. RotoVerter is abbreviated to “RV” while “DCPMRV” stands for “Direct Current Permanent Magnet RotoVerter” and “trafo” is a non-standard abbreviation for “transformer”. Some of the postings in this Group may be difficult to understand due to their highly technical nature and the extensive use of abbreviations, but help is always available there.

To move to some more practical construction details for this system. The motor (and alternator) considered to be the best for this application is the “Baldor EM3770T” 7.5 horsepower unit. The specification number is 07H002X790, and it is a 230/460 volts 60Hz 3-phase, 19/9.5 amp, 1770 rpm, power factor 0.81, device.

The Baldor web site is [www.baldor.com](http://www.baldor.com) and the following details should be considered carefully before trying any adaption of an expensive motor. The following constructional photographs are presented here by kind permission of Ashweth of the EVGRAY Group.

The end plate of the drive motor needs to be removed and the rotor lifted out. Considerable care is needed when doing this as the rotor is heavy and it must not be dragged across the stator windings as doing that would damage them.

The second end-plate is then removed and placed on the opposite end of the stator housing:
The fan is removed as it is not needed and just causes unnecessary drag, and the rotor is inserted the opposite way round to the way it was removed. That is, the housing is now the other way round relative to the rotor, since the rotor has been turned through 180 degrees before being replaced. The same part of the shaft of the rotor passes through the same end plate as before as the end plates have also been swapped over. The end plates are bolted in position and the rotor shaft spun to confirm that it still rotates as freely as before.

To reduce friction to an absolute minimum, the motor bearings need to be cleaned to an exceptional level. There are various ways of doing this. One of the best is to use a carburettor cleaner spray from your local car accessories shop. Spray inside the bearings to wash out all of the packed grease. The spray evaporates if left for a few minutes. Repeat this until the shaft spins perfectly, then put one (and only one) drop of light oil on each bearing and do not use WD40 as it leaves a residue film. The result should be a shaft which spins absolutely perfectly.

The next step is to connect the windings of the two units. The motor (the “Prime Mover”) is wired for 480 volt operation. This is done by connecting winding terminals 4 to 7, 5 to 8 and 6 to 9 as shown below. The diagram shows 120 volts AC as being the power supply. This is because the RotoVerter design makes the motor operate at a much lower input than the motor designers intended. If this motor were operated in the standard way, a 480 volt 3-phase supply would be connected to terminals 1, 2 and 3 and there would be no capacitors in the circuit.

It is suggested that the jumpering of the motor windings is more neatly done by removing the junction box cover and drilling through it to carry the connections outside to external connectors, jumpered neatly to show clearly how the connections have been made for each unit, and to allow easy alterations should it be decided to change the jumpering for any reason.
The same is done for the unit which is to be used as the alternator. To increase the allowable current draw, the unit windings are connected to give the lower voltage with the windings connected in parallel as shown below with terminals 4, 5 and 6 strapped together, 1 connected to 7, 2 connected to 8 and 3 connected to 9. This gives a three-phase output on terminals 1, 2 and 3. This can be used as a 3-phase AC output or as three single-phase AC outputs, or as a DC output by wiring it as shown here:

The motor and the alternator are then mounted securely in exact alignment and coupled together. The switching of the direction of the housing on the drive motor allows all of the jumpering to be on the same side of the two units when they are coupled together, facing each other:
The input drive may be from an inverter driven from a battery charged via a solar panel. The system how needs to be ‘tuned’ and tested. This involves finding the best ‘starting’ capacitor which will be switched into the circuit for a few seconds at start-up, and the best ‘running’ capacitor value.

To summarise: This device takes a low-power 110 Volt AC input and produces a much higher-power electrical output which can be used for powering much greater loads than the input could power. The output power is much higher than the input power. This is free-energy under whatever name you like to apply to it. One advantage which should be stressed, is that very little in the way of construction is needed, and off-the-shelf motors are used. Also, no knowledge of electronics is needed, which makes this one of the easiest to construct free-energy devices available at the present time. One slight disadvantage is that the tuning of the “Prime Mover” motor depends on its loading and most loads have different levels of power requirement from time to time. A 220 Volt AC motor can also be used if that is the local supply voltage.

It is not essential to construct the RotoVerter exactly as shown above, although that is the most common form of construction. The Muller Motor can have a 35 kilowatt output when precision-constructed as Bill Muller did. One option therefore, is to use one Baldor motor jumpered as the “Prime Mover” drive motor and have it drive one or more Muller Motor style rotors to generate the output power:

T. J. Chorister in America has used a Rotoverter style circuit for some time now. He uses a 200V 3-phase electric motor driven by a single-phase 120V 60 Hz mains. He says: The hot wire goes direct
to one phase, and it also goes through a ‘run’ capacitor to the second phase, also through an inductor to the 3rd phase. You have to experiment with the values of the capacitor and inductor in order to get the smoothest running of the motor. Often you will not even need a switched starting capacitor. Generally, a one-horsepower motor will output about three-quarters of a horsepower. However, the arrangement will be much more efficient than a single phase motor. The neutral is not needed, but be sure to use a ground connected to the frame of the motor.

Run capacitors pass about 1-amp for each 22 microfarads of its capacity and so they act as current limiters when in series in an AC circuit. Inductors should have wire which is thick enough to carry the current needed by the motor. I have no guidelines for inductors, so just try it (if you can measure one leg of the motor winding, then that would be about right for the inductor). The inductor value is adjusted by trial and error until you find the value where the motor runs most smoothly.

If a starting capacitor is needed, then just parallel a starting capacitor and switch and connect a bleeder resistor to the run capacitor. The circuit is like this:

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**Phil Wood**

has many years of experience working with all varieties of electric motor, has come up with a very clever circuit variation for the RotoVerter system. His design has a 240 volt Prime Mover motor driven with 240 volt AC. The revised circuit now has automated start-up and it provides an extra DC output which can be used to power additional equipment. His circuit is shown here:

---

Phil specifies the diode bridges as 20 amp 400 volt and the output capacitor as 4000 to 8000 microfarads 370 volt working. The ON/OFF switch on the DC output should be 10 amp 250 volt AC working. The circuit operates as follows:
The charge capacitor “C” needs to be fully discharged before the motor is started, so the press-button switch is pressed to connect the 1K resistor across the capacitor to discharge it fully. If you prefer, the press-button switch and resistor can be omitted and the switch to the DC load closed before the AC input is applied. The switch must then be opened and the AC connected. The starting capacitor “S” and capacitor “R” both operate at full potential until capacitor “C” begins to charge. As capacitor “C” goes through its charging phase, the resistance to capacitors “R” and “S” increases and their potential capacitance becomes less, automatically following the capacitance curve required for proper AC motor operation at start-up.

After a few seconds of run time, the output switch is operated, connecting the DC load. By varying the resistance of the DC load, the correct tuning point can be found. At that point, the DC load resistance keeps both of the capacitors “R” and “S” operating at a potentially low capacitance value.

The operation of this circuit is unique, with all of the energy which is normally wasted when the AC motor is starting, being collected in the output capacitor “C”. The other bonus is where a DC load is powered for free while it keeps capacitors “R” and “S” in their optimum operating state. The DC load resistance needs to be adjusted to find the value which allows automatic operation of the circuit. When that value has been found and made a permanent part of the installation, then the switch can be left on when the motor is started (which means that it can be omitted). If the switch is left on through the starting phase, capacitor “C” can be a lower value if the DC load resistance is high enough to allow the capacitor to go through its phase shift.

The capacitor values shown above were those found to work well with Phil's test motor which was a three-winding, 5 horsepower, 240 volt unit. Under test, driving a fan, the motor draws a maximum of 117 watts and a variable speed 600 watt drill was used for the DC load. The motor operates at its full potential with this circuit.

The circuit will need different capacitors for operation with a 120 Volt AC supply. The actual values are best determined by testing with the motor which is to be used, but the following diagram is a realistic starting point:

![Circuit Diagram](image)

The 120 V AC motor runs very smoothly and quietly drawing only 20 watts of input power.

Advancing the design even further, Phil has now produced an extremely clever design by introducing an additional DC motor/generator coupled to the “Prime Mover” motor. The coupling is nominally mechanical with the two motors physically linked together with a belt and pulleys, but the electrical
linking is such that the two motors will synchronise automatically if the mechanical linkage is omitted. I should like to express my thanks to him for sharing this information, diagrams and photographs freely.

This circuit is very clever as the DC motor/generator automatically adjusts the running of the AC motor both at startup and under varying loading. Also, the selection of the capacitors is not so critical and no manual intervention is needed at startup. In addition, the DC motor/generator can be used as an additional source of electricity.
As the loading on the drive motor is quite low due to the very, very high efficiency of the RotoVerter arrangement, it is perfectly feasible to drive the whole system with a low-power inverter run from a battery. If that is done, then it is possible to use two batteries. One is charged by the DC generator while the other is driving the inverter. A timer circuit then switches the batteries over on a regular basis using relay switching.

**Extra Energy Collection**

A very effective additional circuit has been developed by David Kousoulides. This circuit allows extra current to be drawn off a RotoVerter while it is running, without increasing the input power needed to drive the RotoVerter. David’s circuit can be used with a wide range of systems, but here it is being shown as an addition to the RotoVerter system, raising it’s efficiency even higher than before.

As is common with many effective circuits, it is basically very simple looking, and it’s apparent operation is easily explained. The objective is to draw additional current from the RotoVerter and use that current to charge one or more batteries, without loading the RotoVerter at all. The current take off is in the form of a rapid series of current pulses which can be heard as a series of faint clicks when fed into the battery.

Let us examine the circuit section by section:

First, we start with a standard “off the shelf” 3-phase motor. In this example, the motor is a 7.5 horsepower motor, which when wired in RotoVerter mode, using just a single-phase supply as shown here, only draws a very low amount of power when running, especially if the single-phase supply is about 25% of the voltage rating of the motor:

Because the running power draw is so low, it is possible to run this motor from a standard battery-
powered inverter, but the current draw at start-up is some 17 amps, so the mains is used to get the motor started and then the motor is switched from the mains to the inverter. The inverter also allows easy measurement of the power input and so makes for easier calculation of the overall power efficiency of the system.

There is a power extraction device called a “diode-plug”, which in spite of its seeming simplicity, is actually much more subtle in its operation than would appear from a quick glance at the circuit:

This circuit has been presented as a public-domain non-copyrightable circuit by Hector Perez Torres and it is capable of extracting power from a range of different systems, without affecting those systems or increasing their power draw. In the circuit presented below, just the first half of the diode plug is utilised, though it should perhaps be stressed that it would be perfectly feasible to raise the efficiency of the circuit even further by adding extra components to duplicate the power feed from the battery, drawing on both parts of the diode-plug circuit. For clarity, this is not shown here, but it should be understood that it is a possible, and indeed desirable, extension to the circuitry described here.

When the motor is running, high voltages are developed across the windings of the motor. As only the first half of the diode-plug is being shown here, we will be capturing and using the negative-going voltages. These negative-going pulses are picked up, stored in a capacitor and used to charge a battery using the following circuit:

Here we have the same RotoVerter circuit as before, with high voltage being developed across
capacitor C1. The battery-charging section is a free-floating circuit connected to point A of the motor. The high-voltage diode D1 is used to feed negative-going pulses to capacitor C2 which causes a large charge to build up in that capacitor. At the appropriate moment, the PC851 opto-isolator is triggered. This feeds a current into the base of the 2N3439 transistor, switching it on and firing the 2N6509 thyristor. This effectively switches capacitor C2 across the battery, which discharges the capacitor into the battery. This feeds a substantial charging power pulse into the battery. As the capacitor voltage drops, the thyristor is starved of current and it turns off automatically. The charging sequence for the capacitor starts again with the next pulse from the windings of the motor.

The only other thing to be arranged is the triggering of the opto-isolator. This should be done at the peak of a positive voltage on the motor windings and has been built like this:

Here, we have the RotoVerter motor as before, with the voltage developed on C1 being used to trigger the opto-isolator at the appropriate moment. The voltage on C1 is sensed by the diode D2, the pre-set resistor VR1 and the resistor R1. These place a load of some 18.2K ohms on capacitor C1 as the neon has a very high resistance when not conducting. The ten-turn preset resistor is adjusted to make the neon fire at the peak of the voltage wave coming from the motor. Although the adjustment screw of most preset resistors is fully isolated from the resistor, it is recommended that adjustment of the screw be done using an insulated main-tester type of screwdriver, or a solid plastic trimmer-core adjustment tool.

The circuit to test one half of the diode plug is then:
The switch SW1 is included so that the charging section can be switched off at any time and this switch should not be closed until the motor gets up to speed. All wire connections should be made before power is applied to the circuit. Capacitor C1 which is shown as 36 microfarads, has a value which is optimised for the particular motor being used and will normally be in the range 17 to 24 microfarads for a well-prepared motor. The motor used for this development was retrieved from a scrap yard and was not prepared in any way.

The value of capacitor C2 can be increased by experimenting to find at what value the resonance gets killed and the charging section starts drawing extra current from the supply. It should be noted that many new thyristors (Silicon Controlled Rectifiers or “SCR”s) are faulty when supplied (sometimes as many as half of those supplied can be faulty). It is therefore important to test the thyristor to be used in this circuit before installing it. The circuit shown below can be used for the testing, but it should be stressed that even if the component passes the test, that does not guarantee that it will work reliably in the circuit. For example, while 2N6509 thyristors are generally satisfactory, it has been found that C126D types are not. A thyristor passing the test may still operate unpredictably with false triggers.
Please note that the 2N6509 package has the Anode connected inside the housing to the metal mounting tab.
Components List:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bands: Gray, Red, Red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K ohm preset resistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ten turn version</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7 mF 440V (or higher) capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Polypropylene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 mF 440V (or higher) capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Non-polarised polypropylene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N5408 diode</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N4007 diode</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2N3439 NPN transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2N6509 thyristor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Several may be needed to get a good one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PC851 opto-isolator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neon, 6 mm wire-ended, 0.5 mA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radiospares 586-015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5A fuse and fuseholder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Any convenient type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30A switch 1-pole 1-throw</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Toggle type, 120-volt rated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veroboard or similar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Your preferred construction board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-pin DIL IC socket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Black plastic opto-isolator holder (optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wire terminals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ideally two red and two black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic box</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Injection moulded with screw-down lid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mounting nuts, bolts and pillars</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hardware for 8 insulated pillar mounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber or plastic feet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Any small adhesive feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundry connecting wire</td>
<td>4 m</td>
<td>Various sizes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When using and testing this circuit, it is important that all wires are connected securely in place before the motor is started. This is because high voltages are generated and creating sparks when making connections does not do any of the components any particular good. If the circuit is to be turned off while the motor is still running, then switch SW1 is there for just that purpose.

The operating technique is as follows:

Before starting the motor, adjust the slider of the preset resistor VR1 to the fixed resistor end of it’s track. This ensures that the charging circuit will not operate as the neon will not fire. Power up the circuit and start adjusting the preset resistor very slowly until the neon starts to flash occasionally. There should be no increased load on the motor and so no extra current drawn from the input supply.

If there is an increase in the load, you will be able to tell by the speed of the motor and the sound it makes. If there is an increase in the load, then back off VR1 and check the circuit construction. If there is no increased load, then continue turning VR1 slowly until a position is reached where the neon remains lit all the time. You should see the voltage across the battery being charged increase without any loading effects on the motor.

If you use an oscilloscope on this circuit, please remember that there is no “ground” reference voltage and that the circuit is not isolated.

Here is a picture of David’s actual board construction. There are various ways for building any circuit. This particular construction method uses plain matrix board to hold the components in position and the bulk of the interconnections are made underneath the board. The charge-collecting capacitor is made here from two separate polypropylene 440 volt capacitors wired in parallel. David has opted to use a separate diode on each capacitor as this has the effect of doubling the current-carrying capacity of a single diode and is a popular technique in pulse charge circuits where sometimes several diodes are wired in parallel.

David has included a heat sink, which he marks as being “not required” but you will notice that there is insulation between the SCR and the heat sink. Mica “washers” available from the suppliers of
semiconductors are particularly good for this, as mica is a good insulator and it also conducts heat very well.

Phil Wood has developed a particularly effective method for extracting the excess resonant circulating energy of a RotoVerter Prime Mover. This is the circuit:

Care needs to be taken when constructing this circuit. For example, the circuit performance is displayed by an HEF4017B 5-stage Johnson counter, but for some lunatic reason, the 4017 designation
is also used for a completely different chip of the same size and number of DIL pins, namely the “CMOS high-speed hex flip-flop with Reset”, an action definitely worthy of a stupidity award. Another point to watch out for is that the 1A 1N5819 diode is a very high-speed Schottky barrier component.

The circuit operation is as follows: the input from the Rotovertor motor is stepped-down by a transformer to give an 18-volt (nominal) AC output, which is then rectified by a standard rectifier bridge and the output smoothed by an 18-volt zener diode and a 330mF smoothing capacitor, and used to power the MC34151 chip. This DC power supply line is further dropped and stabilised by a 15-volt zener diode and a 47mF capacitor and used to power the LED display chip HEF4017B.

The raw RotoVerter input is also taken direct and rectified by a second 400-volt 35-amp rectifier diode bridge and smoothed by a 20mF capacitor with a high voltage rating. It must be understood that the RotoVerter system is liable to produce considerable power surges from time to time and so this circuit must be capable of handling and benefiting from these surges. This is why the IRG4PH40UD IGBT device was selected (apart from it’s very reasonable price) as it robust and can handle high voltages.

The resulting high-voltage DC is taken by the chain of components two 75-volt zener diodes, 20K resistor and the 100K variable resistor. The voltage developed on the slider of this variable resistor is loaded with a 10K resistor and voltage-limited with a 10-volt zener diode, and decoupled with a 10nF capacitor before being passed to the MC34151 high-speed MOSFET dual driver chip. Both of these drivers are used to sharpen up the pulse and drive the IGBT cleanly. The result is an output which is a series of DC pulses. The operation of the circuit can be seen quite clearly, thanks to the HEF4017B display circuit which drives a row of LEDs, triggered by the IGBT gate signal, divided by the 1K / 4.7K voltage divider decoupled by the 10nF capacitor. This display shows clearly when the IGBT is switching correctly - actually, the display circuit is quite a useful device for people who do not own an oscilloscope, not just for this circuit, but a wide range of different circuits.

The physical board layout for Phil’s circuit is shown here: As you will notice from the notes on Phil’s board layout shown above, the first of the 75-volt zener diodes used on the direct RotoVerter power feed, should be replaced with a 30-volt zener if a 120-volt motor is used in this circuit.
Another important point which needs to be stressed, is that the pulsed DC output from this circuit can be at extremely high voltages and needs to be treated with considerable care. This is not a circuit for beginners and anyone who is not familiar with handling high voltages needs the supervision of an experienced person. Also, if either this circuit or the RotoVerter is connected to the mains, then no scope ground leads should be connected as the circuit can be a hundred volts or more below ground potential.
And component packaging is:

HEF4017B

IRG4PH40UD
Phil’s build of his circuit was implemented like this:
Thyristor testing:

The components needed to construct the thyristor testing circuit shown below can be bought as Kit number 1087 from www.QuasarElectronics.com

The circuit is operated by operating SW1 several times so as to get capacitors C1 and C2 fully charged. LED1 and LED2 should both be off. If either of them light, then the thyristor is faulty.

Next, with SW1 at its position 1, press switch SW2 briefly. LED1 should light and stay on after SW2 is released. If either of these two things does not happen, then the thyristor is faulty.

With LED1 lit, press SW3 and LED1 should go out. If that does not happen, then the thyristor is faulty.

As mentioned before, even if the thyristor passes these tests it does not guarantee that it will work correctly in any circuit as it may operate intermittently and it may trigger spuriously when it shouldn’t.
## Component List:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Black</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
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<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Brown</td>
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<tr>
<td>1K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Red</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.2K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
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<td>Bands: Red, Red, Red</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.7K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
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<td>Bands: Purple, Yellow, Red</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Orange</td>
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<tr>
<td>22K ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
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<td>Bands: Red, Red, Orange</td>
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<td>10nF capacitor</td>
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<td>Polypropylene</td>
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<tr>
<td>5mF 440V (or higher) capacitor</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20mF 440V (or higher) capacitor</td>
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<td>47mF 25V capacitor</td>
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<tr>
<td>1N5619 Schottky barrier diode</td>
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<tr>
<td>10-volt zener diode</td>
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<td>15-volt zener diode</td>
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<td>18-volt zener diode</td>
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<tr>
<td>75-volt zener diode</td>
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<td>400-volt, 40 A rectifier bridge</td>
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<td>35-volt 1 A rectifier bridge</td>
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<tr>
<td>HEF4017B IC</td>
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<tr>
<td>IRG4PH40UD transistor</td>
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<td>100K ohm variable resistor</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Plastic knob for variable resistor</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>240:18 volt mains transformer</td>
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<td>150 mA or higher rated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10A switch 1-pole 1-throw</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Toggle type, 120-volt rated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veroboard or similar</td>
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<td>Your preferred construction board or pcb</td>
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<td>Wire terminals</td>
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<td>Ideally two red and two black</td>
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<td>Plastic box</td>
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<td>Injection moulded with screw-down lid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mounting nuts, bolts and pillars</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hardware for 8 insulated pillar mounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber or plastic feet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Any small adhesive feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundry connecting wire</td>
<td>4 m</td>
<td>Various sizes</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 3: Motionless Pulsed Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

The pulsed devices mentioned so far have had moving parts but rotating or fluctuating magnetic fields can be created without moving parts. An example of this is Graham Gunderson’s solid-state electric generator shown in US Patent Application 2006/0163971 A1 of 27th July 2006 which is shown on page A-1038 of the appendix. Another example is:

Charles Flynn’s Magnetic Frame.
Another device of this type comes from Charles Flynn. The technique of applying magnetic variations to the magnetic flux produced by a permanent magnet is covered in detail in the patents of Charles Flynn which are included in the Appendix. In his patent he shows techniques for producing linear motion, reciprocal motion, circular motion and power conversion, and he gives a considerable amount of description and explanation on each, his main patent containing a hundred illustrations. Taking one application at random:

He states that a substantial enhancement of magnetic flux can be obtained from the use of an arrangement like this:

Here, a laminated soft iron frame has a powerful permanent magnet positioned in its centre and six coils are wound in the positions shown. The magnetic flux from the permanent magnet flows around both sides of the frame.

The full patent details of this system from Charles Flynn are in the Appendix.
Lawrence Tseung’s Magnetic Frame.
Lawrence Tseung has recently produced a subtle design using very similar principles. He takes a magnetic frame of similar style and inserts a permanent magnet in one of the arms of the frame. He then applies sharp DC pulses to a coil wound on one side of the frame and draws off energy from a coil wound on the other side of the frame.

He shows three separate operating modes for the devices as follows:

1. No Permanent Magnet, No Lead-Out Energy, Maximum COP = 1

Lawrence comments on three possible arrangements. The first on shown above is the standard commercial transformer arrangement where there is a frame made from insulated iron shims in order to cut down the “eddy” currents which otherwise would circulate around inside the frame at right angles to the useful magnetic pulsing which links the two coils on the opposite sides of the frame. As is very widely known, this type of arrangement never has an output power greater than the input power.

However, that arrangement can be varied in several different ways. Lawrence has chosen to remove a section of the frame and replace it with a permanent magnet as shown in the diagram below. This alters the situation very considerably as the permanent magnet causes a continuous circulation of magnetic flux around the frame before any alternating voltage is applied to the input coil. If the pulsing input power is applied in the wrong direction as shown here, where the input pulses generate magnetic flux which opposes the magnetic flux already flowing in the frame from the permanent magnet, then the output is actually lower than it would have been without the permanent magnet.

However, if the input coil is pulsed so that the current flowing in the coil produces a magnetic field which reinforces the magnetic field of the permanent magnet then it is possible for the output power to exceed the input power. The “Coefficient of Performance” or “COP” of the device is the amount of output power divided by the amount of input power which the user has to put in to make the device operate. In this instance the COP value can be greater than one:

As it upsets some purists, perhaps it should be mentioned that while a square wave input signal is applied to the input of each of the above illustrations, the output will not be a square wave although it is shown that way for clarity. Instead, the input and output coils convert the square wave to a low-quality sine wave which only becomes a pure sine wave when the pulse frequency exactly matches the resonant frequency of the output winding. The oscilloscope display shown here is a typical output power waveform which has nearly 390,000 of these pulses per second.

There is a limit to this as the amount of magnetic flux which any particular frame can carry is determined by the material from which it is made. Iron is the most common material for frames of this type and it has a very definite saturation point. If the permanent magnet is so strong that it causes saturation of the frame material before the input pulsing is applied, then there can’t be any effect at all from positive DC pulsing as shown. This is just
common sense but it makes it clear that the magnet chosen must not be too strong for the size of the frame, and why that should be.

As an example of this, one of the people replicating Lawrence’s design found that he did not get any power gain at all and so he asked Lawrence for advice. Lawrence advised him to omit the magnet and see what happened. He did this and immediately got the standard output, showing that both his input arrangement and his output measuring system both worked perfectly well. It then dawned on him that the stack of three magnets which he was using in the frame were just too strong, so he reduced the stack to just two magnets and immediately got a performance of COP = 1.5 (50% more power output than the input power).

The Transformers of Thane Heins.
Thane has developed, tested and applied for a patent for a transformer arrangement where the output power of his prototype can be thirty times greater than the input power. He achieves this by using a figure-of-eight double toroid transformer core. His Canadian patent CA2594905 is titled "Bi-Toroid Transformer" and dated 18th January 2009. The abstract says: The invention provides a means of increasing transformer efficiency above 100%. The transformer consists of a single primary coil and two secondary coils.

Magnetic flow is a thousand times easier through iron than it is through air. Because of that fact transformers are generally constructed on a frame made of iron or a similarly magnetic material. The operation of a transformer is nothing like as simple as school teaching would suggest. However, leaving parametric excitation aside for the moment, let us consider the effects of magnetic flow.

The way that off-the-shelf transformers work at the moment is like this:

When a pulse of input power is delivered to Coil 1 (called the "Primary winding"), it creates a magnetic wave which passes around the frame or "yoke" of the transformer, passing though Coil 2 (called the "Secondary winding") and back to Coil 1 again as shown by the blue arrows. This magnetic pulse generates an electrical output in Coil 2, which flows through the electrical load (lighting, heating, battery charging, video displays, or whatever) providing it with the power which it needs to operate.

This is all well and good but the catch is that when the pulse in Coil 2 finishes, it also generates a magnetic pulse, and unfortunately, that magnetic pulse runs in the opposite direction, opposing the operation of Coil 1 and causing it to have to boost it's input power in order to overcome this magnetic flow in the opposite direction, shown here by the red arrows:

This is what makes current scientific "experts" say that the electrical efficiency of a transformer will always be less than 100%. This effect is caused by the magnetic path being symmetrical. Like the flow of electricity, magnetic flow passes along every possible path. If the magnetic path has low magnetic resistance (generally due to having a large cross-sectional area), then the magnetic flow through that path will be large. So, faced with several paths, magnetic flow will go along all of them in proportion to how good each path is for carrying magnetism.
Thane Heins has made use of this fact by making a transformer like this:

This style of transformer has got quite complicated magnetic flows when it is operating, although the diagram above only shows some of the flow paths generated when the input coil “Coil 1” is pulsed. The really interesting result is seen when that input pulse cuts off and we expect return magnetic flow from coil 2 and coil 3. What happens is this:

Assume that coil 2 and coil 3 are identical. The reverse magnetic flux coming out of coil 2 immediately encounters a junction with one path being far easier to use than the other. As a result, the vast majority of that magnetic flow follows the broad path, and only a small percentage flows through the narrow path. The broad path flow meets and is opposed by an identical large flow coming from coil 3, and those flows effectively cancel each other out. This produces a major improvement over an ordinary transformer. But, the small flow reaching the entrance to Coil 1 encounters two identical paths, and only one of those paths goes to coil 1, so the flux divides with half going towards coil 3 and half going through coil 1. That halves the strength of the already small percentage of the original, unwanted reverse magnetic flow into coil 1. The other half runs into the reduced flow from coil 3 and those halves cancel each other out. The overall effect is a really major improvement in the performance of the transformer as a whole.

In the patent document, Thane quotes a prototype test which had a primary coil winding with 2.5 ohms resistance, carrying 0.29 watts of power. The secondary coil 1 had a winding with 2.9 ohms resistance, receiving 0.18 watts of power. The Resistive load 1 was 180 ohms, receiving 11.25 watts of power. The secondary coil 2 had a winding with 2.5 ohms resistance, and received 0.06 watts of power. Resistive load 2 was 1 ohm, receiving 0.02 watts of power. Overall, the input power was 0.29 watts and the output power 11.51 watts, which is a COP of 39.6 and while the document does not mention it directly, the primary coil should be driven at it's resonant frequency.
A variation of this arrangement is to attach an outer toroid to the existing bi-toroid arrangement, like this:

This prototype, as you can see, is fairly simple construction, and yet, given an input power of 106.9 milliwatts, it produces an output power of 403.3 milliwatts, which is 3.77 times greater.

This is something which needs to be considered carefully. Conventional science say that "there is no such thing as a free meal" and with any transformer, you will get less electrical power out of it than you put into it. Well, this simple looking construction demonstrates that this is not the case, which shows that some of the dogmatic statements made by present day scientists are completely wrong.

At https://youtu.be/-LBnnL4v8MQ?list=PLkH1zLdXy1Sy3_St1tUwtY_6qiusDkyG9 Thane shows a video where his bi-toroidal transformer is constructed from three ordinary toroids held together with cable ties:

Thane then goes on to demonstrate the performance of this combination:
The LED associated with the power being fed to the primary winding is so low that no light is visible. The output LED is lit so powerfully that the camera has difficulty in displaying it. The dummy load is a single resistor placed across the third winding and there is a major performance difference when it is plugged into place. This video demonstrates very clearly, the difference caused by using a bi-toroidal transformer.

This simple and elegant modification of the humble transformer, converts it into a free-energy device which boosts the power used to drive it and outputs much greater power. Congratulations are due to Thane for this technique and for his sharing it openly with anyone who is interested.

The High-power Motionless Generator of Clemente Figuera

In 2012 a contributor who uses the ID ‘Wonju-Bajac’ started a forum to investigate the work of Clemente Figuera at http://www.overunity.com/12794/re-inventing-the-wheel-part1-clemente_figuera-the-infinite-energy-achine/#.UXu9gzcQHqU and member ‘hanlon1492’ contributed enormously by producing English translations of Figuera’s patents.

Clemente Figuera of the Canary Islands died in 1908. He was a highly respected individual, an Engineer and University Professor. He was granted several patents and was known to Nikola Tesla. Figuera’s design is very simple in outline.

In 1902 the Daily Mail announced that Mr. Figuera, a Forestry Engineer in the Canary Islands, and for many years Professor of Physics at St. Augustine’s College, Las Palmas, had invented a generator which required no fuel. Señor Figuera has constructed a rough apparatus by which, in spite of it’s small size and it’s defects, he obtains 550 volts, which he utilises in his own house for lighting purposes and for driving a 20 horse-power motor.

The Figuera Device looks like a complicated transformer, but in fact, it isn’t. Instead, it is two sets of seven opposing electromagnets with an output coil positioned between each opposing pair of electromagnets. The physical position of the electromagnets and output coils is important as they are positioned very close to each other and there are induced magnetic fields between adjacent electromagnets and between the output coils due to their close proximity.

The two sets of electromagnets are wound with very low-resistance, high-current wire or possibly, even with thick foil. The information given in the Figuera patent states that the electromagnets will be referred to in the patent by the letters “N” and “S” and it is now thought that those two letters are deliberately misleading as people tend to think of those letters referring to “North magnetic pole” and “South magnetic pole” while in reality, the electromagnets almost certainly oppose each other, that is, with North poles facing each other or possibly, with South poles facing each other. The arrangement is believed to be like this when seen from above:
This arrangement creates a magnetic Bloch wall (or magnetically null point) in the centre of the yellow output coils and the position of that magnetic balance point is very easily moved if the power supply to the two sets of electromagnets is altered slightly and any movement of that magnetic balance point creates a substantial electrical output due to the alteration of the magnetic lines cutting the turns of wire in the yellow output coils. While the sketch shown above indicates a small gap between the electromagnets and the output coils, it is by no means certain that any such gap is needed and while winding the three coils is more convenient if they are separate, when wound and being assembled, their cores may well be pushed together to form one continuous magnetic path.

Another thing which has confused people (including me), is the drawing in the patent which looks like an electrical commutator, but which is not part of the Figuera generator design. It looks like this:

The dotted lines indicate internal electrical connections, so for example, contact 14 is connected to contact 3, but let me stress again that this unit is not part of the design and while it is used to “explain” the actual operation, I would not be surprised if it were not intended to misdirect people from the actual operation.

This point has been stressed and it has been suggested that the actual working device is magnetic in nature and could be constructed like this:
This looks like a very simple device but it is an item of major importance in the Figuera design. First, the core is solid iron (sometimes called "soft iron" but if you were beaten with a bar of it you certainly wouldn't call it "soft"). The most important characteristic of such a core is its magnetic properties as it is able to store energy. Please remember that this switching device is primarily magnetic in nature. It looks like this:

This core is then wound with thick wire – perhaps AWG #10 or 12 SWG (2.3 x 2.3 mm square wire). The turns of wire should be tight, side by side and sit exactly flat on the top surface as the wire there will be contacted by the sliding brush:

The sliding brass contact or “brush” is dimensioned so that it connects across two adjacent wires so that there is never any sparking as the brush contact slides around the circle of wires. The brush is driven by a small DC motor. In order for the sliding brush to contact the wire, the plastic insulation needs to be removed from the top half of the wire with the remaining insulation keeping the turns from short-circuiting together. The wire is wound half of the way around the iron core and a short length of wire is left to make an electrical connection. An additional winding is then made to cover the remaining half of the core and again, a length for connection is left before cutting the wire. This gives you two windings each covering 180 degrees around the core. The wire turns
are strapped tightly with tape or cord wound around the side of the core as that holds the wires securely in place. The two wire ends on each side are connected together, giving a 360 degree winding with good electrical connections 180 degrees apart.

There are many ways to arrange the small DC motor so that it drives the brush slider. The motor could be mounted on a strip passing over the core, or on the baseboard, or to one side using a belt or gearwheel drive link. It does not matter which direction the brush moves around the core. The speed of rotation is not critical either although it does determine the alternating frequency of the output. In most cases, the output will power a heating element or will be converted to DC to give the local mains frequency and voltage.

When we first look at a device like this, we immediately think of the flow of electric current passing through the wire wound around the iron core. It appears as if the current is limited by the overall length of the wire between the brush position and the two outputs, but the reality is that while that is correct to a certain extent, the main control of the current flow is the magnetic field inside the circular iron core, and that field causes reluctance (resistance to current flow) proportional to the number of coil turns between the brush and each output. This alters the current flow to the set of “N” electromagnets compared to the current flow to the set of “S” electromagnets.

As the magnetic intensity generated by the set of “N” electromagnets increases, the magnetic intensity generated by the set of “S” electromagnets decreases. But, as the magnetic power of the set of “N” electromagnets overcomes the magnetic field of the set of “S” electromagnets, that magnetic field gets pushed back into the soft iron core of the commutator device, essentially storing energy in that core. When the system needs to replace the energy lost in heating, it can use that stored magnetic energy in the commutator core, raising the overall efficiency. In this design, the current flowing through the electromagnets is always in the same direction and never drops to zero, merely oscillating in its intensity.

The overall arrangement is like this:

While the sketch above shows a 12-volt battery, there is no great reason why it should not be 24-volt or higher, especially if the wire used to wind the electromagnets is smaller diameter. The amount of power needed to create a magnetic field is not related to strength of the magnetic field and a larger number of turns of thinner wire with a small current flowing through the wire can create a stronger magnetic field than few turns of thick wire with a large current flowing through those turns.

The Alexkor Zero-Back-EMF Coils

Alex in Russia who has shared several of his motionless pulse-charging systems for batteries, now shares his design which does not appear to have any back-EMF effect on the primary coil. If that is the case, then any increase in output current draw does not have a corresponding increase in the current flowing through the primary coil. That is completely different to the way in which a conventional transformer operates.

The arrangement is somewhat like the Transmitter / Receiver arrangement of Don Smith and while it looks to be a simple arrangement, is isn’t. Alex draws his coil configuration like this:
Here, his chosen form of construction is a frame of twelve lengths of 20 mm diameter plastic pipes – four at the top, four at the bottom and four verticals. Each pipe is filled with ferrite powder and there is an output coil wound on each of the four vertical pipes. Suspended in the centre is the primary coil which is 15 mm in diameter. All five coils are wound using 0.5 mm diameter enamelled copper wire (swg 25 or AWG #24). While Alex’s drawing shows a single strand of wire, the actual arrangement for the four output coils is that they are wound as a single layer bi-filar coil:

For this, the output coils are wound with two strands of wire side by side, in a single layer along the length of the plastic pipe. Then, the start of one wire is connected to the end of the other wire. As the coils are filled with ferrite, they can operate at high frequency, when the 15 mm primary coil is fed with either DC pulses or an AC sine wave. Each output coil can provide a separate output or the output coils can be connected in series to give a higher voltage or connected in parallel to give a higher output current.

Alex also shows how ferrite toroids can be used, even with 220V mains, to give back-EMF-free transformer operation. If the input frequency is as low as the mains, then the toroids may be iron-dust types or they can be constructed from iron shims in the same way that ordinary mains transformers are constructed. However, please understand clearly that the current flowing through any coil connected across a high voltage source such as 110V or 220V and using any of the following configurations, is limited by the impedance of the coil itself. ‘Impedance’ is effectively ‘AC resistance’ at the frequency of the AC voltage supply. If the coil impedance is low, then the current flowing through the coil will be high and since the power dissipated by the current flow is Voltage x Current, the power dissipation with increased current goes up very quickly when the voltage level is as high as 220 volts. The power dissipation is in the form of heat which means that with excessive power dissipation, the wire in the coil is liable to melt or ‘burn out’ in an impressive flash of flame, smoke and blackened wire. Consequently, the coil winding needs to have many turns and the wire diameter needs to be sufficient to carry the current flow – the wire table on page 1 of the Appendix shows the current which can be carried by each size of wire when wound into a
coil. If there is no back-EMF effect with the following configurations, then the current in the primary winding connected across the mains will not be affected by the other coils, so remember that when preparing the primary coil.

The first arrangement uses three toroids to give four separate outputs. The amount of current which can be drawn from any secondary depends on the amount of magnetic flux which can be carried by the magnetic core or cores between the primary coil and that particular secondary coil. Obviously, the output current draw will also be limited by the current-carrying capacity of the wire used in the secondary coil. If that level of current is exceeded for any length of time, then the insulation of the wire will fail, turns will short-circuit together, the coil impedance will drop, the current increase further and the coil will burn out – so, common sense is called for.

Here, the primary coil “1” is wound on a toroid which is horizontal in the picture above, and the secondary coils “2” are wound on toroids which are shown as vertical in the drawing. The important point here is that the toroids with the secondary coils, touch the primary coil toroid at right angles, that is, at 90-degrees. For convenience of winding the coils, any toroid can be assembled from two half toroids which allows the coil to be wound separately and when completed, slid on to one of the C-shaped half toroids before the two halves are placed together to form the complete toroid.

The second arrangement three toroids:

The third arrangement uses four toroids, in a more powerful arrangement where the magnetic flux carrying capacity of the transformer is doubled as the cross sectional area of the toroids inside each coil is doubled. This is a more difficult arrangement to construct and if the coils are to be wound on a separate coil winder, then the toroids each need to be made from one half-toroid plus two quarter toroids so that the coils can be slipped on to two separate quarter-toroid sections which are curving in opposite directions, unless of course, the inside diameter of the coils is a good deal larger than the toroid cross section (which reduces the number of turns for any given length of coil wire):
If these simple transformer arrangements operate as back-EMF-free devices as claimed, then the current draw from any, or all, of the secondary windings does not have any effect on the current flowing through the primary coil. This is quite unlike present day commercial transformers which are wound symmetrically, which in turn causes the current draw in the secondary coil to force an increased current in the primary winding.

Alex also shows another arrangement which uses seven toroids. He states that this arrangement is also free from the energy-wasting back-EMF designs used at present in most commercial items of equipment. He specifies that the intended operating frequency is 50 Hz which is the frequency of the mains as the difference between 50 Hz and the 60 Hz used in America is not significant in any way. This frequency suggests that the toroids could readily be made of iron as in commercial transformers. The prototype was wound with 0.5 mm diameter wire and aimed at a power level of 100 watts. The capacitors are high-power oil filled with capacitances up to 40 microfarad and rated at 450V when using 220V mains input. The tuning is very much like that of the RotoVerter shown in chapter 2. The physical layout is:

The central toroid is wound all around its circumference as indicated by the blue colour. This winding is fed directly with the input current source which would normally be from the mains or from a mains transformer, probably at a lower voltage.

There are then twelve output coils, six shown here in green and six shown in red. For best operation, each of these output coils need to be 'tuned' to the central coil and that needs to be done by altering the capacitor size by experiment to get the best performance from each coil. When properly set up, increasing the current draw from any of the output coils does not increase the power flowing into the central input coil. This contradicts what is normally taught in schools and universities as they are only familiar with symmetrically wound transformers and motors where increased output current does indeed oppose the input power, causing increased input current and heat waste. The circuit is:
The blue coil has the power input at “A” and the capacitor in series with each coil is there to get all of the windings to resonate at the same frequency. The items “B” and “C” represent the useful load being powered by each coil, although, obviously, only two of the twelve output coils are shown in the circuit diagram above, and there are an additional five green and five red coils which are not shown in the circuit diagram.

It is probably worth remembering that adding a magnet to a toroid or closed-loop core transformer can boost the output provided that the permanent magnet is not strong enough to saturate the core completely and prevent oscillation of the magnetic flux. This has been shown by Lawrence Tseung, Graham Gunderson and others, and so it might be worth while to experiment further with these configurations along the lines shown in the video at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sTb5q9o8F8c&list=UUaKHAdY13gp-un2hn_HJehg&index=1&feature=plcp.

The Easiest Version:
Alexkor has produced a simplified Lenz-law-free design, using commercial toroids already wound as step-down mains transformers. One supplier is http://www.electro-mpo.ru/card8524.html#.VXsKlIon7s with transformers of this type on offer:
The technique is to remove the plate covering the central opening and connecting the 220V and 110V windings in series. Two of these transformers are used, each of them connected with their 220V and 110V windings wired in series and then the toroids either placed side by side or alternatively stacked on top of one another with a 1 millimetre thick sheet of plastic between them.

In the configuration where the toroids “A” and “B” are placed side by side, a power extraction winding “D” is wound between them:

![Diagram of toroids A and B placed side by side with winding D](image)

In the case where the toroids “A” and “B” are arranged in a stack with 1 mm plastic sheet between them, the power extraction winding “D” is wound around the two toroids, enclosing them both:

![Diagram of toroids A and B stacked with winding D](image)

While the winding “D” is shown as a narrow strip in the diagram, that is only to make the drawing easier to understand as in reality, the winding “D” is continued all the way around the whole of the circumference of the toroids and it can be many layers deep to suit the desired output voltage.

Toroid “A” has a tuning capacitor “C1” which is adjusted in value to achieve resonance in that circuit as that minimises the current flowing into toroid “A” from the mains.

Toroid “B” has a capacitor “C2” which is adjusted to give the highest output voltage (typically 600 volts) coming from toroid “B”. The purpose of toroid “B” is to divert the reverse magnetic flow in Toroid “A” and so, produce an
efficient working system. The load “L” is in theory, a dummy load, but in reality there is no reason why it should not be considered to be an actual working load if that output is convenient to use.

The output winding “D” is free of the Lenz law effect and the input current from the mains is not affected in any way when the current draw from coil “D” is increased, or even short-circuited. Alexkor stresses the fact that as the toroids are supplied already wound, this is actually a very easy design to replicate.

The Self-Powered Generators of Barbosa and Leal

In July 2013, two Brazilian men, Nilson Barbosa and Cleriston Leal, published a series of patents which appear to be very significant. Their patent WO 2013/104042 published on 18th July 2013, is entitled “Electromagnetic device for Capturing Electrons from the Ground to Generate Electricity” and has some very interesting features. It describes a simple device which they describe as an “electron trap”. Their patents are written in Portuguese.

An unusual feature of this design is the fact that it has a continuous conductive loop, in which it is claimed, current flows continuously, even without the need for an applied voltage. Instead, it is the magnetic fields of electromagnets which keep the current flowing. They state that an insignificant amount of input power produces a substantial power output, and they consider a COP of 100 to be about the minimum performance which can be expected from the design. That is a 1 watt input for a 100 watt output. One version of the electron trap looks like this:

The inventors describe their device like this: “this electromagnetic-field-generating device, powered by a power source, produces an electromagnetic field which induces an electric current in a closed conductive circuit, creating an interaction between the magnetic poles of the equipment and the magnetic poles of the earth - through both electromagnetic attraction and repulsion. An endless supply of electrons is drawn from the earth into the conductive closed loop, which is connected to the ground through a conductive interconnected grid. The attracted electrons add to the current already flowing in the conductive closed loop, making power available for driving high-power loads, although the device itself is supplied with only a small amount of power.”

One very interesting feature is that the continuous-loop coil formed by wire 4 in the diagram above, is literally, only two turns of wire. The power-gaining mechanism, amazingly, is the earth wire (shown in blue) which is merely wrapped around wire 4 and not directly connected to it as the electron-transfer link is by induction. With this arrangement, the current circulating in the closed loop wire 4, attracts more electrons from the ground, flowing through the wrapped connection of wire 5, into wire 4, augmenting the current flow there by a major amount. Wire 3 can have an alternating voltage applied to it in order to get alternating current in wire 4, but please understand
that the current flowing in wire 4 is not the result of the current in wire 3. If the current in wire 3 is DC, then the current in wire 4 will be DC as this is not a conventional transformer, but instead, it is an electron trap, operating in an entirely different way.

The electron trap can be connected in an AC circuit of this type:

Here, the earth wire 5 is wrapped around the continuous loop wire 4, feeding it additional electrons captured from the ground. The ends of wire 4 are connected together to form the loop, and that connection also forms the positive side of the output (where a DC output is being produced). The magnetic field produced by the current flowing in wire 3, acts on the electron flow coming from the earth, but as it does not provide any of the electric power flowing in wire loop 4, the current flowing in wire 3 can be tiny, without affecting the power output.

In their patent WO 2013/104043, also of 18th July 2013, they show several different ways of connecting their electron trap in a useful circuit. For example, like this:

Here, the battery 13, is used to power an ordinary inverter 12, which produces a high alternating voltage, in this case, at very low power. That voltage is applied to the wire 3.1 to 3.2 of the electron trap, creating an oscillating magnetic field, which creates an oscillating inflow of electrons into the closed loop wire (4), which creates an amplified electrical output at the same frequency – typically 50 Hz or 60 Hz as those are the common mains frequencies. That amplified power output from the electron trap 14, is passed along wire 18 to an ordinary diode bridge 10, and the pulsing DC from the bridge is smoothed and used to replace the battery input to inverter 12. The battery is now switched out of the circuit and, as well as making the overall circuit self-powered, the power coming from the electron trap is used to recharge the battery if it needs recharging (and/or, perhaps, to charge the batteries of an electric car). Because the electron trap needs almost no input power at all, the input power to the inverter is very small, and so a good deal of additional AC power can be drawn off through cable 17, and used to drive powerful electrical loads, with no electrical power being needed from the battery. Being self-powered, the COP value for the circuit is infinity.

Just as there are several different ways of using an electron trap in a circuit, there are several ways of constructing and connecting an electron trap. While it is possible to arrange the components so that the power output is 2-phase or 3-phase, here we will just deal with the ordinary, household, single-phase power supply.

The first variation is to use more than one frame. Two frames can be connected like this:
This is the actual drawing from the patent and it presents a slight problem in that it is not physically possible to implement the number 4 wire in the way shown. Each frame will have two complete turns wound on it, although the drawing does not show this. Because of the inaccuracy of the drawing, I am not able to say if the coil turns on frame 2, are in the same direction as those on frame 1. There are four possible ways of winding these 2-turn coils when interconnecting them, so perhaps experimentation can be used to determine which method works best.

With this two-frame arrangement, there is just the one earth wire 5, as before, again, it is wrapped around wire 4 rather than being physically connected to it. The continuous wire loop 4 has two ends as before, but there are now two 3.1 wire ends and two 3.2 wire ends. The Portuguese translation programs produce highly questionable results for this area of the patent, but I gather that the inventors intend the two 3.1 ends to be connected together and the two 3.2 ends to be connected together, and then the joined ends are treated exactly as before, effectively putting the two windings in parallel.

One disadvantage of this design is that it is not portable due to the earth connection. Barbosa and Leal deal with this problem in their patent WO 2013/104041 of the same date where they show a method of constructing an electron trap which collects excess electrons from the air. If you feel that there are no excess electrons in the air, then consider the fact that all of the aerial designs in chapter seven all extract and use those electrons. Also, consider the amount of electricity in a lightning strike, where much of the electrical energy comes from the air, and remember that world wide, there are between 100 and 200 lightning strikes every second.

The free-electrons-in-the-air electron trap is somewhat more complicated than the earth-wire electron trap, with four pairs of coils (3 and 4) being mounted inside two aluminium hemispheres (1):
The methods for using the air-electrons trap are the same as those for the earth-wire electron trap.

An earth-wire video demonstration is here: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SvcrqODpDY4 with 22 watts producing 6 kilowatts. To further research this invention, try the extensive information available via https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=Barbosa+e+Leal

An attempted translation of one of the three Barbosa/Leal patents is here:

WO Patent 2013/104043 18th July 2013 Inventors: Nilson Barbosa and Cleriston Leal

ELECTRIC ENERGY GENERATION SYSTEM WITH FEEDBACK

Note: These three patents are in Portuguese and what is shown here is a low-quality attempt at translation into English using a translation program. The originals can be downloaded free from: http://worldwide.espacenet.com/singleLineSearch?locale=en_EP.

Abstract:
The present invention relates to electric energy generation equipment comprising a basic circuit formed by a rectifier (10), for example, an AC/DC converter connected in series to an inverter (12), for example, a DC/AC converter, and a bank of batteries (13) connected in series between the rectifier (10) and the inverter (12). An electron-capturing element (14), which can be either a free space electron-capturing element or, alternatively, an earth electron-capturing element, is connected in series to the basic circuit formed by the rectifier (10), the inverter (12) and the battery assembly (13). The bank of batteries (13) powers the basic circuit because it is
connected to the system. Consequently, the inverter (12) converts direct current into alternating current and supplies this current to the electron-capturing element (14). After receiving the electric current from the inverter (12), the electron-capturing element (14) starts capturing electrons from the alternating current and powering the rectifier (10), which converts the alternating current into a direct current in order to recharge the bank of batteries (13) and power the inverter (12) which powers the electron-capturing element, closing the feedback loop, and also providing electric energy for consumption by external loads.

WIPO Patent Application WO/2013/104043  Filing Date: 01/11/2013
Application Number: BR2013/000016  Publication Date: 07/18/2013

Assignee: EVOLUÇÕES ENERGIA LTDA (Rua Santa Tereza 1427-B Centro - Imperatriz -MA, CEP -470 - Maranhão, 65900, BR)

SELF-POWERED ELECTRICITY GENERATOR.

Technical field
The present invention relates to a device for generating electricity, in particular self-powered equipment for generating electricity.

Description of the Related Art
There are many methods for generating electricity using electromagnetism, but all of these are electromechanical devices using magnets and have limited generating capacity and an ecological impact which makes them unsuited to large scale projects.

Objectives of the Invention
The aim of this invention is the sustainable generation of electricity, using a generator which is able to produce large amounts of electricity from an extremely low input current, which initially is supplied by a bank of batteries, but subsequently is supplied by the output from the generator which is also able to power external loads.

The above objective, and other objectives, are achieved by the present invention through the use of a typical Uninterruptible Power Supply circuit comprising of an AC/DC rectifier feeding a battery bank which powers a DC/AC inverter, which is connected to a device to trap electrons from space (as described in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008378 of 13th January 2012) or alternatively, a device which extracts electrons from the Earth (as described in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008386 of 13th January 2012), which then passes the extracted electrons to the AC/DC rectifier, charging the battery bank, thus closing the loop as well as providing electricity to power external loads.

The self-powered system for generating electricity from the present invention can be fixed or mobile. It is fixed when using electron capture from the earth due to the ground connection, or mobile when using electron capture from space.

The self-powered electricity generating system of this invention may be configured in several different ways, each using the same inventive concept but using different arrangements of components. Different versions include single-phase, two-phase or three-phase versions, producing outputs of any power and voltage.

Brief Description of the Drawings
The present invention will now be described with the aid of drawings, but this patent is not limited to the versions and details shown in these drawings, although they show additional details and advantages of the present invention.

The drawings:
Figure 1 - shows a basic circuit system for self-powered electricity generation of the present invention.

Figure 2 - shows a first embodiment of the constructive system for self-powered electricity generation of the present invention.

Figure 3 - shows a second embodiment of the self-powered system for generating electricity of the present invention.
Figure 4 - shows a third embodiment of the self-powered system for generating electricity of the present invention;

Figure 5 - shows a fourth embodiment of the self-powered system for generating electricity of the present invention;
Detailed description of the Invention:

There are different ways of closing the self-feeding cycle depending on the circuit configuration chosen. Some of these arrangements are shown in Figures 2 to 6, wherein the main circuitry continues to oscillate, continuously generating instant electricity.

As shown in Fig.1, the self-powered system for generating electricity comprises a basic circuit consisting of a rectifier (AC/DC converter) 10 which is connected in series to an inverter (DC/AC) 12. A bank of batteries 13 is connected between the rectifier 10 and the inverter 12. The output from the DC/AC inverter 12, connects to an electron-trap 14 which can extract electrons from space (as described in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008378 of 13th January 2012) or alternatively, extracts electrons from the Earth (as described in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008386 of 13th January 2012).

When connected, the battery bank 13 provides power to the DC/AC inverter 12 which converts the direct current into alternating current and provides current to the electron-trap 14. The output of the electron trap 14 is passed through wire 18, to the AC/DC bridge rectifier 10, which keeps the battery bank charged as well as powering the DC/AC inverter 12. Additional power is passed to external equipment through wire 17.
Fig. 2 shows another embodiment of the system of this self-powered electric power generation equipment. It comprises a typical Uninterruptible Power Supply circuit of a battery charger (AC/DC converter) 21 connected to a drive device (a DC/AC inverter) 23 and between them, a battery bank 22 forming the basic circuit. Additional devices are an electron-trap 27 which may collect free electrons from space (as defined in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008378 of 13th January 2012) or, alternatively, collects electrons from the Earth (as described in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008386 of 13th January 2012). The 3-phase electronic switch 24 normally connects 24.1 to 24.3 connecting the electron trap 27 to inverter 23. Connected in parallel is the surge suppressor 25, which, when activated, via filter 26, causes switch 24 to disconnect the 24.3 to 24.1 link and instead, connect 24.3 to 24.2.

An alternative arrangement for use in emergency situations, is to use the system no longer self-powered. For this, the system is comprised of a power input from an external power source, directly to the interconnection point 29 to provide power to surge suppressor 25, which provides power to feed the power output point 28 in order to power external loads. When the electron-trap 27 is turned off, the electronic transfer switch 24 reverts to its default position which connects point 24.1 to point 24.3 causing the circuit to function, once again, in its self-feeding mode. As soon as the electron sensor 27 provides sufficient power to the over-voltage sensor 25, it operates the transfer switch 24 through filter 26, ending the self-feeding phase and supplying energy directly to the power output point 28, in order to feed external loads.

Fig. 3 shows another embodiment of the self-powered system for generating electricity, comprising a device which includes the basic circuit of a typical Uninterruptible Power Supply, consisting of a battery charger (AC/DC converter) 31 connected to a drive device (inverter DC/AC) 35 and attached to them, a battery bank 32. This basic circuit together with other devices is connected to an electron-trap 37 for collecting free electrons from surrounding space or, alternatively, an Earth-connected electron trap 37. We have then, a bank of batteries 32 connected to the DC/DC converter 33, which is connected to the phase transfer switch 34 / 34.1 which is connected to point 34.3, which connects to the inverter 35, and so, the electron-trap 37.
Fig. 4 shows another embodiment of the system for self-powered electricity generation which is comprised of a basic circuit of a typical uninterruptible power supply, consisting of a battery charger (AC/DC converter) A connected to an inverter (DC/AC) 42 and attached to them, battery bank 41, and this basic circuit together with other devices are connected to a free space electron-capture device 44 or an earth-connection electron-trap 44. Comprising thus, a battery charger A connected to a battery bank 41, which is connected in series with inverter 42 at point B which is in series with point C of inverter 42 which is in series with the electron sensor 44, which is in series with the phase transfer switch 43 via the three-phase load output connection point 45. The phase transfer switch 43 is in series with the inverter 42, which is connected in series the (AC/DC converter) battery charger A feeding the battery bank 41.

An alternative construction for use in emergency situations, in which the system ceases to be self-powered, the system may include power input from an external power source, via the interconnection point 46, thus providing electricity output 45, to power external loads. The battery bank 41 provides power to the inverter 42 which converts the direct current into alternating current and feeds the electron trap 44. The phase transfer switch closes when the batteries need recharging.

Sensor 44 captures electrons, producing alternating current, which feeds the phase transfer switch 43 with alternating current input power. The phase transfer switch 43 feeds the inverter 42 which charges the batteries, closing the self-powering loop which provides power at the output 45, feeding both the power input and any external loads.

Fig. 5 shows another embodiment of the system for self-powered electric power generation equipment comprising a circuit which includes a typical uninterruptible power supply comprising a battery charger (AC/DC converter) 51 connected to a DC/AC inverter 53 and attached to them, a battery bank 52. This basic circuit together with other devices are connected to a space free-electron capture device 56 (as defined in Brazilian patent application No. BR1020120008378 of 13/1/12) or, alternatively, an earthed free-electron collector 56 (as defined in Brazilian
This then comprises a battery charger 51 which is connected in series with a battery bank 52, which is connected in series with the inverter 53, which is connected in series with the transformer 55 at its point C, which is in series with its point B which is in series with the electron collector 56, which is in series with the battery charger 51 which is connected to the load exit point 58, which is also the circuit entry point 59, which is in series with the phase transfer switch 54 section 54.1, which is connected to terminal 54.3, which is in series with point A of the transformer 55 which exits at point B. Points A and 54.3 as well as the parallel points 54.1 and 54.2, are all parallel to the battery charger 51, the battery bank 52, the inverter 53 and to point C of the transformer 55.

An alternative construction for use in emergency situations, in which the system ceases to be self-powered, the system may include an external power input point 59, allowing phase transfer switch 54 to provide power output 58, to feed external loads. Battery bank 52 provides power to the inverter 53, which converts the direct current into alternating current, feeding point C of the transformer, which comes out at points B and A of the transformer 55. Point B of the transformer feeds the electron-trap 56 producing alternating current which feeds the battery charger 51, recharging the battery bank 52.

The battery charger 51 is connected in parallel with the transfer switch 54 via connection points 54.1 and 54.3, feeding point A of the transformer, which comes out at point B. Point A of the transformer and the switch transfer points 54.3 and 54.1 are in parallel to the battery charger 51, the battery 52, the inverter 53 and point C of the transformer 55.

![Diagram](image_url)

Fig.6 shows another embodiment where a rectifier 61 is connected to an inverter 63 and a battery bank 62, and to a space free-electron trap 64 or alternatively, an earth electron trap 64 comprising thus, a delta (AC/DC) converter 61, which is connected in series to a battery bank 62, which is connected in series with the (DC/AC) inverter 63, which is in series with the electron collector 64 which is connected in series with the delta converter (AC/DC) 61 whose AC part is in series with the alternating AC current inverter 63 via a connecting wire 65 which is in parallel with the DC part of the delta converter 61 with the battery bank 62 and the DC part of inverter 63. An alternative construction for use in emergency situations, in which the system ceases to be self-powered, the system may comprise a power input from an external power source, via the interconnection point 66 connected to the delta converter 61, the output 67 supplying power, to the external loads.

Battery bank 62 provides power to the inverter 63, which converts the direct current into alternating current, powering the free-electron collector 64. The captured electrons from collector 64 form an alternating current which feeds the delta converter 61 via an output power load wire 67.

The alternating part of the three-phase delta converter 61 is fed with alternating current from inverter 63 via connecting wire 65, which is connected in parallel to the continuous DC delta converter 61, which feeds the battery bank 62 and with the continuous portion the inverter 63, closing the cycle of self-feeding and supplying power at the output 67, which is the output power point.

Having described examples of preferred embodiments, it should be understood that the scope of the present invention encompasses other possible forms of construction, using the electron collectors connected to a basic circuit of a typical uninterruptible power supply of energy, known as a UPS, comprising a rectifier device (an AC/DC converter) 10, connected to one inverter (DC/AC converter) 12, and attached between them, an energy storage device (typically, a battery bank).
The First Barbosa and Leal Replication

While many people have tried to replicate the Barbosa and Leal power generator design which draws power from the Earth, and failed. One man whose forum ID is "Clarence" read the relevant patents and knew immediately how the design works and what items in the patents are misdirection by Barbosa and Leal. He has built his own implementation of the circuit and it works perfectly. He has generously shared the relevant details. Please understand that what follows is not a description of where to start experimenting, but instead it is an actual working design. Build it as described and it will work. Build it differently and it won't work. Clarence has this to say:

In the Barbosa and Leal patent they make a vague reference to the Lenz Law. It just so happens that this is the key to the whole device. On the overunity forum, a circuit diagram posted by member "ZeroZero" showed the exact and complete method of defeating the Lenz Law, although most forum members did not seem to understand the importance of the circuit. However, I knew immediately that Lenz's Law was just another name for back-EMF. The Lenz Law effect is overcome by winding the single primary coil in a clockwise direction and the AWG #4 2.5 turn windings are wound on the bare core in an anti-clockwise direction and that totally negates the Lenz Law.

What does this achieve? It gets rid of the voltage component in the secondary windings, leaving only the amperage component! When you wind two toroids exactly the same using this method and connect them as shown below, you create a loop similar to a horseshoe magnet with a keeper on it and the amperage in the loop just goes on circulating round and round as shown by Ed Leedskalin. This is the same principle. The loop has the ability within itself to add unlimited amperage, instantaneously to the neutral green Ground Return wire accordingly as the load requires. The only limit to the available amperage is the current-handling capacity of the looped black wire.

You can touch the black wire loop connections with bare hands because as there is no voltage, there is no resulting shock. The connecting of the AWG #10 phase wire to the bottom loop wire only serves to orient the polarisation of the amperage.

The oriented spinning of the amperage in the loop induces the amperage needed by the load, into the Captor output. This little toroid can allow the loop to load an AWG #4 wire enough to melt it!!

The toroid primary wires Live to Live and Neutral to Neutral should be powered from the inverter by a separate circuit

Another separate circuit should be used with the Live connected to the bottom black looped wire in order to polarise it. The Neutral powers the input to ground.

The return ground rods are linked in a series loop and then, from a convenient ground rod to the green 2.5-turn loop around the black captor loop and then on to serve as the captor Neutral to the load.

You will know that you have enough ground rods when the Captor rms output voltage matches the rms voltage of the inverter, and then, you will probably have to add about another ten ground rods in order to keep the rms voltage of the Captor output from dropping. If the Captor rms output voltage drops – simple – add more ground rods. Please understand clearly that without sufficient ground rods, the apparatus just will not work. Here is a connection pattern where many 6-foot (1.8 m) long earthing rods are used:
The circuit diagram from ZeroZero shows this arrangement:

The direction of winding is vitally important as are the wire sizes. You will notice that the windings on the two magnetic frames are in opposite directions, and, the thick wire loop windings are both in opposite directions, and, the thick wire winds also oppose the thin wire winding on the same frame. Looking from above, the thick wire forms the shape of the numeral 8. The thick wire is AWG #4 with a diameter of 5.19 mm and the other core windings are AWG #10 with a diameter of 2.59 mm. The “polarising loop” is produced by taking a few turns of the AWG #10 wire around the insulation of the AWG #4 wire – the wires inside the cables are not actually joined together. The input and output are marked as “mains” as either 110V or 220V can be used, however, not actually fed from the mains as that would create a ground loop, but instead, the input is from an inverter. The earth wire is AWG #6 with a core diameter of 4.11 mm.

While the magnetic frames above are shown as rectangular, they are actually circular toroids (which was what Barbosa and Leal used but failed to mention). The ones used by Clarence are type TD300 1120 toroids with a diameter of 5.2 inches (132 mm) and a thickness of 2.3 inches (58 mm) each weighing 6.2 pounds (2.8 Kg) and available from http://www.tortran.com/standard_isolation_transformers.html. Clarence remarks that building this power generator replication is not cheap and he has spent more than US $2000 on his replication. Mind you, with an output power of 3 kW, this unit meets all of his household electrical requirements.

It is said that all builders should get a global or national Geomagnetic Map of their area before building, but Clarence says that he is in a “dead” area anyway, so there is probably little point in this as the number of earthing rods needed in your area is found by trial anyway, and knowing in advance does not change that number.
Another edition of the circuit diagram is:

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Clarence Replication
Barbosa & Leal
Self Running Generator

Drawing: 2015-03-29 v1.01

Here are some pictures of Clarence’s successful build:
Components used were:
Toroids:
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Bridgeport Magnetics:
Tortran - In Stock Standard Design Toroidal Isolation Transformers - Bridgeport Magnetics Group
Contact: Michael Kharaz  E-mail: sales@bridgeportmagnetics.com
Tortran Division- Contact us - Bridgeport Magnetics Group
Custom ordered toroid (2 required):
TD300-1120-P, 300VA, 60Hz, Primary 120V, 160 degrees winding on toroid surface, no secondary winding - $125 USD each

Smart Battery Charger:
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Xantrex TrueCharge2 Battery Charger - 20Amp model
Website: Truecharge Battery Charger | Truecharge2 20A, 40A, 60A | Xantrex
Xantrex Dealers list:
Where to Buy - N. America
Available from Amazon.com:
Amazon.com: Xantrex 804-1220-02 TRUECharge2 12V 20A Parallel Stackable Battery Charger: GPS & Navigation
Looks like the price is around $260 to $300 USD - depending where you order from.
Minimum recommended battery bank size for use with the 20Amp Charger model is 40 Ah

12V Pure Sinewave Power Inverter
----------------------------------------
AIMS POWER 3000 Watt 12VDC Pure Sine Wave Power Inverter - Model: PWRIG300012120S
Website: http://www.aimscorp.net/3000-Watt-Pure...-Inverter.html
Available from:
InvertersRUs - $699 USD http://www.invertersrus.com/aims-pwrig300012120s.html
Amazon - $799 USD http://www.amazon.com/AIMS-Power-PWR...+wave+inverter

Forum moderator “Level” who has done an excellent job of retrieving and displaying Clarence's material here:
says:

Stick to the battery and inverter method as the power source, as that is the only way you can avoid a ground loop to the mains electrical power system. The one exception is you might be able to avoid such a problem when powering from the mains if you use an isolation transformer, but isolation transformers can be expensive and have a limited capacity as well.

Caution: Also beware that an inverter with an output of 120 volts or 240 Volts can kill you if you touch live wires, so don't build such a setup if you don't understand such things. You need to take necessary safety precautions.

Free energy from Lorrie Matchett
The style of operation used by Barbosa and Leal looks as if it is related to the developments of Lorrie Matchett. On 16th June 2008, Lorrie Matchett published his very simple design for a device which captures usable free-energy (video: http://youtu.be/eGD9o7D4To8). His device is based on a very simple and well-know principle of static electricity. This is a principle which is taught in schools all around the world but is generally considered to be of no importance as static electricity is considered too low-power to be of any use. I seriously doubt that anyone who has been struck by lightning would consider static electricity to be “low-power” and suggesting that to them is likely to expand your vocabulary with some words which are seldom heard.

Important Note: the following details mention the use of mains voltages and so let me stress that this presentation is for information purposes only and must not be construed as being a recommendation that you construct or use any such device. Should you choose to ignore this and construct and use Lorrie Matchett's device, then please
be fully aware that you do so entirely at your own risk and nobody else is in any way responsible for the results of what you do.

The principle which is being used here is that an electrically charged object causes the migration of opposite charges on the surface of any object brought close to it. For example if a charged surface if brought close to a metal sphere, then this happens:

![Diagram of charged surface A close to uncharged sphere B](image)

The ordinary metal sphere “B” which has no particular charge on it is very much affected by being close to a charged surface “A” and the closer it gets, the greater the effect. The surface of the sphere had an even distribution of positive and negative charges on its surface, giving it an overall charge of about zero, but the charged surface changes all that. The positive charges on surface “A” attract the negative charges on the surface of the sphere causing them to migrate towards surface “A”. While the positive charges on surface “A” do repel the existing positive charges on the surface of the sphere, the migrated negative charges of the sphere itself have an even greater effect, causing the segregation of electrical charges shown above. The situation returns to normal if the sphere is moved away again.

However, the situation changes considerably if the metal sphere “B” is connected to the ground:

![Diagram of charged surface A close to uncharged sphere B connected to ground](image)

The movement of charges on the surface of the sphere is the same as before, but the Earth has millions of spare charges of both kinds and so, immediately siphons off the excess positive charges on the side of the sphere away from charged surface “A”. You will notice that charged surface “A” is not directly involved in any way and no charge moves from “A” to “B”.

The same effect is seen if the surface “A” is negatively charged (except for the fact that the sphere has positive charges rather than the negative charges shown above. The only current flow is along the wire connecting the sphere to the earth connection.

Lorrie Matchett uses this principle, and for the charged surface he connects one end of a brass rod to the ‘Live’ side of a 100V 60 Hz mains electricity supply. The other end of the brass rod is not connected to anything else. This produces this situation for 8.3 milliseconds:
And then for the following 8.3 milliseconds the mains reverses and you get this situation:

The result of this is that there is a backwards and forwards flow of static electricity along the earth connecting wire, a flow which reverses direction sixty times per second. This is not conventional electricity but is the same form of electricity which is collected by an aerial. Nikola Tesla’s patents show many different ways of utilising this static electricity, as does Herman Plauson in his patent (www.free-energy-info.com/Chapter7.pdf). Thomas Henry Moray produced fifty kilowatts of continuous power from quite a small aerial. Paul Baumann of the Swiss commune produced several kilowatts from static electricity. Lorrie Matchett settles for just a few watts and he does it like this:

He connects the live wire of a 110V (RMS) AC mains supply to a brass rod 28-inches (710 mm) long and 3/16 inches (4.76 mm) in diameter. The rod is not directly connected to anything else and so does not form part of a closed loop circuit and so, no current flows from the mains. It must be stressed that the rod and connecting wire are potentially very dangerous and need to be insulated very carefully to ensure that touching them will not cause an electric shock. Please understand very clearly that as no current of any kind is drawn from the mains that this circuit is not “stealing electricity from the mains”.

For convenience, and only for convenience, Lorrie uses the earthing system of the house mains supply by connecting a green earthing wire to the earth pin of his mains plug. It needs to be clearly understood that this has nothing directly to do with the mains supply and any good quality separate earth would be at least as good as the earthing point inside the mains plug. Effectively, there is only one mains connection.

Instead of using a metal sphere as shown in the illustrations above, Lorrie uses a coil of wire wound around the insulation layer on his brass rod, and he passes the alternating flow of static electricity, drawn from the earth, through a standard diode bridge as shown here:
Lorrie covers the brass rod with insulation which is as thin as possible. He suggests heat-shrink tubing for the insulation and on top of it he winds 0.405 mm diameter, solid-core enamelled copper wire, covering a 24-inch (610 mm) length of the rod, placing the turns closely side by side and leaving 2-inches (50 mm) clear at each end of the rod. Thicker wire should not be used.

He also shows a 500 milliamp fuse in the mains supply line. I am not at all happy about that as that fuse can power five incandescent 100-watt mains bulbs connected in parallel, and do you really want that amount of power flowing through you if your insulation is not good enough and you touch it? If you use a fuse in that position I would suggest a 20 mm glass quick-blow 100 mA fuse (mainly because no smaller one is readily available). The fuse is not needed for the circuit and is there in an attempt to protect careless humans.

The coil wound on the insulated brass rod is only connected at one end and that end goes to one of the two “Alternating Current” tags on a 3A diode bridge. Lorrie does not specify the voltage rating for the diode bridge, but it needs to be a minimum of 170-volts if the mains is a 110V (RMS) type, and double that for a 220V (RMS) mains connection. I have no idea why he specifies a 3-amp rating, but the minimum bridge available locally at 3-amps which I would recommend is a 400V rated unit which is supplied at trivial cost.

We need to understand the effect of the diode bridge. It halves the available voltage and doubles the frequency as illustrated here:

A 110V supply is supposed to swing from Minus 155V to Plus 155V and back again sixty times per second, which is an overall voltage swing of 310V. When passed through a diode bridge that changes to a voltage waveform which swings from Zero volts to Plus 154V and back again 120 times per second, which is an overall voltage swing of 154V which is an average or “RMS” voltage of 109V due to the sine wave shape.

In the rest of the world, the mains voltage is 220V (RMS) nominal, alternating fifty times per second and the Live mains wire is colour coded brown in the UK and the earth wire yellow/green stripes. In passing, the Neutral wire is white for the American 110V system and blue for the 220V system used in the UK.

This design has been brought to my attention by Jes Ascanius of Denmark who is a very able developer of all kinds of free-energy designs. He has replicated this design of Lorrie Matchett and confirms that it works. He has also taken the design further and shares some of the practical details which he has discovered through his own experimentation:

For greater power, additional rods can be used:
While brass is considered to be the best material for the rod, the diameter is not critical in any way and any size from 5 mm to 20 mm can be used and instead of a rod, a length of brass pipe should be quite suitable. It is also possible to use other materials for the rod but doing that reduces the output power available.

Jes has checked the output of his implementation with the mains fuse removed. The result was an output voltage of 2.6V picked up from the many 220V 50Hz signals generated by the mains wiring all around the place for lighting and sockets. When the fuse is inserted, the voltage rises immediately to 129V with two rods or 162V with five rods. When that voltage is loaded with a 7-watt LED lighting array, the voltage gets pulled down to 61V, but good lighting is being produced for zero current draw from the mains. I would expect that putting a reasonably large capacitor across the load, that the reservoir effect of the capacitor would improve the LED output. Jes initially used two long rods wound with coils:

And later, five rods. His AC ammeter is sensitive enough to show that due to inefficiencies caused by the tiny stray capacitance between the rods and the coils, there is a very slight current draw from the mains. The mains wattage is far less than the output wattage of the system.

An improvement implemented by Jes is adding four high-speed BYV27 diodes to the ordinary diode bridge like this:
This has the effect of improving the action of the diode bridge and allows more power to be extracted from each cycle of the energy flow. When using two brass rods, Jes gets his 5-watt LED array to light up like this:

Two rods

Five rods

Lorrie also extended his development to a remarkable 48 rods:

48- Rod Unit
( rods =14.25" long )
Magnetic wire = #28
The electrical output could be used to charge batteries. Adding extra turns does not increase the output voltage. If the number of turns in each coil matches the output load, then the output power will be greater.

Alexkor in Russia, who is expert in recharging batteries has experimented with this concept and he uses ten coils connected in parallel. He does not use brass, but instead uses the much shorter 300 mm long, 3 mm diameter welding rods with their chemical coating removed. Also, these rods are only used to raise the effectiveness of two separate coils wound on each rod. Each coil is 700 to 750 turns of 0.4 mm diameter wire and the connections are made to the coils and not the rods, as shown here for a single coil pair:

Alex isolates his set of 10 coil-pairs inside a short length of plastic piping:

and uses them to power his battery-charging circuit:

Some people claim that these Matchette style circuits just draw power from the mains. I do not believe that that is the case (although there is a very small leakage caused by the slight capacitance between the coils and the rods, and that is indeed, charged for by the electricity supply company. For drawing power from the mains, a circuit like this is used:
Here, the output voltage is determined by the number of turns in the coils and the available current is controlled by the number of rods involved:

You will notice that these circuits have connections only to the mains and nowhere else. These are not circuits which I use, nor do I recommend that you use it either. The green bars are iron welding rods with the chemical coating removed. These are then wound with a single layer of 0.5 mm diameter enamelled copper wire – that is swg 25 or AWG 24 size wire (a power hand screwdriver is said to be good for coil winding like that). The side-by-side wire coil is then coated with shellac or high-voltage varnish. I am told that with 220V mains power and a 1A diode bridge, that power can be drawn from the circuit without anything being recorded on the electricity supply meter. This is a seriously dangerous circuit as it can produce high voltage at the output of the bridge and that power could kill you. No power drain is recorded, presumably because the coils are wound in opposing directions. Now that is a circuit which could be considered to “steal” power from the mains.

The Matchett style circuit is different in that the power flows through the circuit from the ground. Barbosa and Leal demonstrated 169 kilowatts of power flowing from the ground, and as they powered their circuit from a battery-driven inverter and not the mains, there was definitely no question of ‘stealing’ mains power. The battery input also allowed them to establish the actual performance as 104 times more energy flowing out of their circuit than the energy flowing into it.

Actually, I’m not at all convinced that the circuit shown above does actually draw net power from the mains. The mains meter charges you for power assessed by multiplying the average voltage by the average current, even when those two are out of step and you receive less power than you are charged for. In this instance, if no current draw is registered on the meter, then perhaps as a result of the opposing direction coils, the power drawn is matched by an equal amount being returned to the mains and there may not be any real net current draw. Either way, I do not recommend the use of these circuits.

The Solid-State Magnetostrictive System of Annis and Eberly.
Theodore Annis & Patrick Eberly have produced a variation on this multiple-magnetic-path method which is shown in their US Patent Application 20090096219. They have opted to use a motionless reluctance switch
which is a solid-state device which can block magnetic flow when energised. They have arranged one of their devices like this:

The ring shown in grey is a magnet which connects to the ring shown in yellow through two diagonal ‘reluctance’ (magnetic flow) switches. The yellow ring can carry magnetic flux and the control box marked 118 switches the diagonal strips on and off in turn, causing the magnetic flux to reverse it’s direction through the yellow ring. The coils wound on the yellow ring pick up this reversing magnetic flux and pass it out as an electric current. While only one pair of rings are shown here, the design allows for as many rings as are needed to be connected together as shown here:

The patent says: “The currently preferred motionless reluctance switch is described by Toshiyuki Ueno & Toshiro Higuchi, in their paper entitled „Investigation of the Dynamic Properties of a Magnetic Flux Control Device composed of Laminations of Magnetostrictive Piezoelectric Materials“ – University of Tokyo 2004. As shown in Fig.4, this switch is made of a laminate of a Giant Magnetostrictive Material 42, a TbDyFe alloy, bonded on both sides to a Piezoelectric material 44, 46 to which electricity is applied. The application of electricity causes the reluctance of the piezoelectric material to increase.
ENERGY GENERATION APPARATUS AND METHODS 
BASED UPON MAGNETIC FLUX SWITCHING

Abstract
In an electrical energy generator, at least one permanent magnet generates flux and a magnetisable member forms the single flux path. An electrically conductive coil is wound around the magnetisable member, and a plurality of flux switches are operative to sequentially reverse the flux from the magnet through the member, thereby inducing electrical current in the coil. A “Figure of Eight” construction comprises two continuous loops of magnetisable material sharing a magnetisable member common to both loops. An alternative configuration uses stacked loops and a separate piece of material acting as the magnetisable member. One end of the magnet is coupled to one of the loops, with the other end being coupled to the other loop. Each loop further includes two flux switches operated in a 2 × 2 sequence to sequentially reverse the flux through the magnetisable member. A relatively small amount of electrical power is used to control the magnetic flux of a permanent magnet by switching the flux between alternate paths. The resulting power from the switched magnetic flux yields substantially more power than the power required for the input switching.

Description

FIELD OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates generally to energy generation and, in particular, to methods and apparatus wherein magnetic flux is switched through a flux path to produce electricity.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Magnetic flux may exist in “free-space,” in materials that have the magnetic characteristics of free-space, and in materials with magnetically conductive characteristics. The degree of magnetic conduction in magnetically conductive materials is typically indicated with a B-H hysteresis curve, by a magnetisation curve, or both.

Permanent magnets may now be composed of materials which have a high coercively (Hc), a high magnetic flux density (Br), a high magneto motive force (mmf), a high maximum energy product (BHmax), with no significant deterioration of magnetic strength over time. An example is the NdFeB permanent magnet from VAC of Germany, which has an Hc of 1,079,000 Amperes/meter, a Br of 1.427 Tesla, an mmf ranging up to 575,000 Ampere-turns, and a BHmax of 392,000 Joules/meter³.

According to Moskowitz, “Permanent Magnet Design and Application Handbook” 1995, page 52, magnetic flux may be thought of as flux lines which always leave and enter the surfaces of ferromagnetic materials at right angles, which never can make true right-angle turns, which travel only in straight or curved paths, which follow the shortest distance, and which follow the path of lowest reluctance (resistance to magneto motive force).
Free space presents a high reluctance path to magnetic flux. There are many materials which have magnetic characteristics similar to those of free space. There are other materials which offer a low or lower reluctance path for magnetic flux, and it is these materials that typically comprise a defined and controllable magnetic path.

High-performance magnetic materials for use as magnetic paths within a magnetic circuit are now available and are well suited for the (rapid) switching of magnetic flux with a minimum of eddy currents. Certain of these materials are highly non-linear and respond to a "small" applied magneto motive force (mmf) with a robust generation of magnetic flux (B) within the material. The magnetisation curves of such materials show a high relative permeability (ur) until the "knee of the curve" is reached, at which point ur decreases rapidly approaching unity as magnetic saturation (Bs) is reached.

Some of these non-linear, high-performance magnetic materials are referred to as “square” due to the shape of their B-H hysteresis curves. An example is the FINEMET® FT-3H nanocrystalline core material made by Hitachi of Japan. Other examples include Superperm49, Superperm80, SuperMalloy, SuperSquare80, Square50, and Supermendur, which are available from Magnetic Metals in the USA.

A “reluctance switch” is a device or means that can significantly increase or decrease (typically increase) the reluctance of a magnetic path. This is ideally done in a direct and rapid manner, while allowing a subsequent restoration to the previous (typically lower) reluctance, also in a direct and rapid manner. A reluctance switch typically has analogue characteristics. By way of contrast, an off/on electric switch typically has a digital characteristic, as there is no electricity "bleed-through." With the current state of the art, however, reluctance switches exhibit some magnetic flux bleed-through. Reluctance switches may be implemented mechanically, such as to cause keeper movement to create an air gap, or electrically by various other means.

One electrical reluctance switch implementation uses a control coil or coils wound around a magnetic path or a sub-member that affects the path. U.S. Navy publication, “Navy Electricity and Electronics Series, Module 8 - Introduction to Amplifiers” September 1998, page 3-64 to 3-66 describes how to modulate alternating current by changing the reluctance of the entire primary magnetic path by these means, one of which is used in a saturable-core reactor and the other in a magnetic amplifier. Flynn, U.S. Pat. No. 6,246,561; Patrick et al., U.S. Pat. No. 6,362,718; Pedersen, U.S. Pat. No. 6,946,938; Marshall, and US Patent Application 2005/01256702-A1 all disclose methods and apparatus that employ this type of reluctance switch for switching magnetic flux from a stationary permanent magnet or magnets for the purpose of generating electricity (and/or motive force).

Another electrical means of implementing a reluctance switch is the placement within the primary magnetic path of certain classes of materials that change (typically increase) their reluctance upon the application of electricity. Another electrical means of implementing a reluctance switch is to saturate a sub-region of a primary magnetic path by inserting conducting electrical wires into the material comprising the primary magnetic path. Such a technique is described by Konrad and Brudny in “An Improved Method for Virtual Air Gap Length Computation,” in IEEE Transactions on Magnetics, Vol. 41, No. 10, October 2005.
effect in the primary magnetic path 100 results from the combination of the effects in the two sub-paths 110A and 110B, each of which results from different physics principles. In the first sub-path 110A, the magnetic flux generated by applying electrical current to the windings 110 around toroidal path 110 opposes and subtracts from its portion of the magnetic flux 103 received from the primary magnetic path 100 yielding a reduced magnetic flux, which is also further reduced by a decrease in the sub-path 110A's relative permeability thereby increasing the reluctance of the sub-path. In the second sub-path 110B, the magnetic flux generated by applying electrical current to the toroid windings 111 adds to its portion of the magnetic flux 103 received from primary magnetic path 100 yielding an increased net magnetic flux that approaches or exceeds the knee of the material's magnetisation curve thereby reducing its relative permeability and increasing its reluctance.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

This invention is directed to methods and apparatus where magnetic flux is switched in both direction and intensity through a flux path to produce electricity. The apparatus broadly comprises at least one permanent magnet generating flux, a magnetisable member forming the flux path, an electrical conductor wound around the magnetisable member, and a plurality of flux switches operating to reverse sequentially, the flux from the magnet flowing through the member, thereby inducing electrical current in the coil.

The preferred embodiment includes first and second loops of magnetisable material. The first loop has four segments in order A, 1, B, 2, and the second loop has four segments in order C, 3, D, 4. The magnetisable member couples segments 2 and 4, and the permanent magnet couples segments 1 and 3, such that the flux from the magnet flows through segments A, B, C, D and the magnetisable member. Four magnetic flux switches are provided, each controlling the flux through a respective one of the segments A, B, C, D. A controller is operative to activate switches A-D and B-C in an alternating sequence, thereby reversing the flux through the segment and inducing electricity in the electrical conductor. The flux flowing through each segment A, B, C, D is substantially half of that flowing through the magnetisable member prior to switch activation.
The loops and magnetisable member are preferably composed of a nanocrystalline material exhibiting a substantially square BH intrinsic curve. Each magnetic flux switch adds flux to the segment it controls, thereby magnetically saturating that segment when activated. To implement the switches, each segment may have an aperture formed through it and a coil of wire wound around a portion of that segment and through the aperture. The controller may be at least initially operative to drive the switch coils with electrical current spikes.

The first and second loops may be toroidal in shape, and the loops may be spaced apart from one another, with A opposing C, and 1 opposing 3, and with B opposing D and 2 opposing 4. The magnetisable member in this case is preferably a separate piece of material. Alternatively, the first and second loops may form a “Figure of eight” shape, with the two loops intersecting to form the magnetisable member.

The permanent magnet(s) and the material comprising the magnetic paths are preferably proportioned such that the material through the common segment is at or slightly below its maximum relative permeability before the electrically conducting output coil is energized. In the preferred embodiments, the power resulting from the switched magnetic flux yields substantially more power than the power required for the input switching.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig. 1 is a drawing of a prior art reluctance switch in the form of an electrical toroid inserted into a primary magnetic path;
Fig. 2 is a detail drawing of a reluctance switch according to the invention;
Fig. 3A and Fig. 3B are detail drawings showing the use of four reluctance switches according to the invention;
Fig. 4 is a drawing which depicts a preferred embodiment of the invention;
Fig. 5 is a detail drawing an alternative reluctance switch according to the invention implemented through split laminations;
Fig. 6A and Fig. 6B show the operation of an energy generator according to the invention;
Fig. 7A is an exploded view of a preferred energy generator construction;
Fig. 7B is a side view of the construction shown in Fig. 7A;
Fig. 8 is a simplified schematic diagram of components used to simulate the apparatus of the invention;
Fig. 9A is a diagram that shows the current delivered to one pair of flux switches in the simulation;
Fig. 9B is a diagram that shows the current delivered to the other set of flux switches in the simulation;
Fig. 10 shows the output of the simulation shown here; and
Fig. 11 is a block diagram of a controller applicable to the invention

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

Fig. 2 is a detail drawing of a reluctance switch according to the invention. The reluctance switch includes the following components: a closed magnetic path 110 comprised of a high performance magnetic material (preferably a non-linear material exhibiting a “sharp knee” as saturation is approached), around which is wound a coil 111. The closed magnetic path 110 shares a common segment 101 with a primary magnetic path 100, in which magnetic flux 103 is induced by a permanent magnet (shown in subsequent drawings). Electric current is applied to windings 111 having a polarity and sufficient amperage so that the magnetic flux generated in the path
of switch 110 is additive to the magnetic flux 103 from the permanent magnet, such that the primary path 110 approaches or reaches magnetic saturation.

Fig.3A and Fig.3B are detail drawings of an apparatus which employs four reluctance switches according to the invention in a manner similar to that disclosed in U.S. patent application Ser. No. 11/735,746 entitled “Electricity Generating Apparatus Utilising a Single Magnetic Flux Path”, the entire content of which is incorporated herein by reference. In this and in all embodiments described herein, the geometry of the closed magnetic paths may be circular (toroidal), rectangular, or any other closed-path shapes. A primary path 304 carries the flux from permanent magnet 302 unidirectionally. Flux switch pairs 310 A/E and 310 B/D are activated in alternating fashion to reverse the flux in magnetisable member 304C, thereby inducing electrical current in winding 330. Fig.3A shows the flux flow in one direction, and Fig.3B shows it reversed.

In Fig.3A, switches 310A and 310E are activated by controller 320 in electrical communication with the windings on the switches such as through conductor 322 to winding 324. The additional flux in switches 310A and 310E are additive with the flux that would otherwise be present in segments 304A and 304E, thereby saturating these paths, causing the flux through segment 304C to be in the direction shown. In Fig.3B, switches 310B and 310D are activated, saturating segments 304B and 304D, and reversing the flow.

Fig.4 is a drawing that depicts an embodiment of the invention using circular toroids 400, 401 and multiple permanent magnets 402, 403 disposed in the primary path 404. The two toroids 400, 401 intersect, forming magnetisable member 404E. A coil 430 is wound around the member 404E, as shown.

The primary magnetic path 404 interconnects the upper end of loop 400 and the lower end of loop 401. One of the magnets, 402, couples one end of the primary magnetic path 404 to the first loop 400, and another, 403, couples the other end of the primary magnetic path 404 to the second loop 401.

In this, and all of the embodiments described here, the permanent magnets are strong, rare-earth magnets, and multiple magnets of any length (thickness) may be used in each case. Further, in all embodiments, the loops, primary magnetic path and/or magnetisable member are preferably constructed from a high magnetic permeability.
material such as the FINEMET FT-3H nanocrystalline soft magnetic material available from Hitachi. The invention is not limited in this regard, however, as alternative materials, including laminated materials, may be used.

The connections of the primary magnetic path 404 to the two loops 400, 401 create four segments apart from the magnetisable member 404E, the four segments including two opposing segments A, B in the first loop on either side of magnet 402, and the two opposing segments C, D in the second loop on either side of magnet 403.

Four magnetic flux switches are provided, each being operative to control the flux through a respective one of the four segments. A controller 420 is operative to activate the switches associated with segments A and D, and then B and C, alternately, thereby reversing the flux through the member 404E, and so, inducing electrical current in coil 430.

Apertures may be formed through each of the four segments, with the switches being implemented by coils 410A to 410D which pass through the apertures and around an outer (or inner) portion of each segment. As shown in Fig.5, if the loops are fabricated with laminated material 502, the laminations may be split at 506 to accommodate coil 504. The percentage of the segment surrounded by the coil may vary in accordance with the material used, the waveforms presented to the coils, and other factors, with the goal being to magnetically saturate each segment through activation of the associated switch, thereby reversing the flux through path 404E.

Fig.6A and Fig.6B show the operation of the apparatus of Fig.4. The primary path 404 carries the flux from permanent magnets 402 and 403 unidirectionally. Reluctance switches 410A to 410D are activated alternately to reverse the flux in segment 404E which, in turn, induces electrical current in winding 430. Fig.6A shows the flux flow in one direction, and Fig.6B shows it flowing in the opposite direction.

In Fig.6A, switches 410A and 410D are activated by controller 420 in electrical communication with the windings on the switches, such as through conductors 422 to switch 410B. The flux provided by switches 410A and 410D, thereby saturating these paths, causing the flux through segment 404C to be in the direction shown. In Fig.6B, switches 410B and 410C are activated, saturating segments 404B and 404D, thereby reversing the flux through path 404E.
Fig. 7A depicts a preferred construction of the apparatus depicted in Fig. 4, Fig. 6A and Fig. 6B. Loops 400 and 401 are implemented as complete toroids 700, 701. This is important, since preferred high-performance magnetic materials are currently available in regular shapes of this kind. Note that, in this case, curved slots such as 770 are formed through the sides of each toroid to implement flux switches A to D. The magnetisable member in this embodiment is implemented with a block of material 704, preferably the same high-performance magnetic material used to construct loops 400, 401. Permanent magnet 702, shown at 702, preferably has the same length as block 704, enabling the various constituent parts to be held together with compression, shown in Fig. 7B.

The following sections summarise some of the important characteristics of the preferred embodiments:

In terms of materials, the apparatus benefits from the use of nanocrystalline material with a "Square" BH intrinsic curve, a high Br (remanence) which is about 80% of its Bs (saturation), a low Hc (coercivity), and a fast magnetic response time to saturation. An example is FineMet FT-3H from Hitachi of Japan, which has a Br of 1.0 Tesla, a Bs (saturation) of 1.21 Tesla, a time to saturation (Bs) of 2 usec, and an Hc of −0.6 amp-turns/meter.

Modern permanent magnets are used with a square BH intrinsic curve, a Br in the range of 1.0 Tesla or more, and high Hc in the range of ~800,000 amp-turns/meter or more. An example is the NdFeB magnet from the German company VAC, which has a Br of 1.427 Tesla and an Hc of ~1,079,000 amp-turns/meter.

An important consideration is the matching of the magnet to the nanocrystalline material, both in Tesla rating and in cross-sectional area. The magnet’s Br should be below the Bs of the nanocrystalline material. If the magnet is too “strong” for the nanocrystalline material, this may cause the nanocrystalline material to saturate at the area of contact with the magnet.

The current driving the reluctance switches in the prescribed 2 × 2 sequence should have a sharp rise in the leading edge (Tr) of each pulse with a pulse width (Pw) and Amperage value that are sustained until released at the end of the pulse width (Tf). The table below shows the effects of input current pulse rise times (Tr) on the output. There exists a narrow band of Tr, before which there is small power output, at which there are excellent power output and COPs in the range of 200 to 400 or greater, and after which there is no major increase in power output. The COP of this device without the coupling circuit is defined as “Output power/Drive Power” for the switches.
Valeri Ivanov's Motionless Generator.

There are other devices which have what appears to be a very important air-gap in a magnetic frame. One of these was displayed on a Bulgarian website and is on the web page which is located at http://www.inkomp-delta.com/page3.html, put up by Valeri Ivanov in 2007. Valeri lives in Elin Pelin, Bulgaria and his motionless generator has COP=2.4 performance. Videos: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7IP-buFHKKU and http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=npFVaeSbk1Q are for his design, and it appears that he is about to go commercial: http://www.inkomp-delta.com/index.html in May 2014.

It is shown that an effective device can be constructed from a permanent magnet, a toroid and a laminated iron yoke. The arrangement is displayed like this:
When the input coil is pulsed with an input voltage, it causes a flux reversal in the frame around which the output coil is wound, generating an electrical output.

There is another forum related to this and the better known MEG of Tom Bearden's which can be found at http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/MEG_builders/message/1355 where that particular message states that Valeri's device can be made to work at frequencies as low as 50 Hz and can use standard laminated iron frame components and produces Coefficient Of Performance figures up to 5.4 (that is, the output power is more than five times the input power). A demo video is at http://inkomp-delta.com/page10.html but not in English. It may well be that in order to work well, the MEG needs a very narrow input coil with an air-gap on each side of it and the same may well apply to Lawrence Tseung's magnetic frame shown earlier in this chapter.

The Motionless Generators of Kelichiro Asaoka
Kelichiro Asaoka received US patent 5,926,083 some two years before the well-known MEG patent of Tom Bearden and his associates. Personally, I find it hard to understand how the MEG patent (in the Appendix) could have been awarded when the Asaoka patent was already in place. However, here is most of the content of the Asaoka patent:

US Patent 5,926,083      20 July 1999      Inventor: Kelichiro Asaoka

Static magnet dynamo for generating electromotive force based on changing flux density of an open magnetic path

ABSTRACT
A static magnet dynamo including at least one permanent magnet having different poles; a first core comprising a soft magnetic material and which couples the different poles of the permanent magnet to form a closed magnetic path; a second core comprising a soft magnetic material which couples to the closed magnetic path via a paramagnetic material to form an open magnetic path; a magnetised coil wound around a portion of the first core where the closed magnetic path is formed; and an induction coil wound around a portion of the second core. A direction of a flux of the closed magnetic path is changed by applying an alternating voltage to the magnetised coil, generating an electromotive force in the induction coil by electromagnetic induction due changes in a flux of the open magnetic path induced by the change in direction of the flux of the closed magnetic path.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to a dynamo which generates electromotive force by electromagnetic induction by changing the flux passing through an induction coil. More particularly, this invention relates to a static magnet dynamo that changes magnets that pass through an induction coil without turning the armature or electromagnet.

DISCUSSION OF BACKGROUND
Dynamos currently in practical use are so designed as to generate electromotive force by electromagnetic induction by changing the flux passing through an induction coil. Dynamos that generate power this way come in a wide variety, ranging from large models used in hydroelectric, thermal or atomic power plants to small models such as small dynamos with a diesel engine.

In all dynamo models mentioned above, the armature and electromagnet are turned, to change the flux passing through the induction coil, thus generating electromotive force in the induction coil by electromagnetic induction. For examples, the armature and electromagnet are turned by the torque of a water turbine in hydroelectric power generation, by the torque of the steam turbine in thermal and atomic power generation, and by the torque of the diesel engine in small dynamos.

Disadvantages:
Dynamos that generate electromotive force by electromagnetic induction as mentioned above are so designed that, regardless of the size of the dynamo, the armature and electromagnet are turned in order to change the flux passing the induction coil. These dynamos are disadvantageous in that the said turning of the armature and electromagnet generates vibrations and noise.

OBJECTS OF THE INVENTION
The purpose of this invention is to provide a static magnet dynamo devoid of any torque-giving means or other moving part to eliminate vibrations and noise, in order to resolve the various problems mentioned above.

To resolve the above problems, this invention is composed as described below.

The static magnet dynamo involved in this invention consists of at least one permanent magnet, a first core consisting of a soft magnetic material forming a closed magnetic path by coupling the different poles of the said permanent magnet, a second core consisting of a soft magnetic material forming an open magnetic path by being coupled to the closed magnetic path via a paramagnetic material, a magnetised coil wound around a part consisting of only the closed magnetic path of the first core, and an induction coil wound around the second core. The point of this invention is to generate electromotive force in the induction coil by electromagnetic induction by changing the direction of the flux of the closed magnetic path by applying an alternating voltage to the magnetised coil and by changing the flux of the open magnetic path induced by changes in the direction of the flux in the closed magnetic path.

Effects:
In the above configuration, the static magnet dynamo involved in this invention consists of a first core consisting of a permanent magnet and a closed magnetic path, a second core consisting of an open magnetic path via a paramagnetic material, a magnetised coil wound around the part consisting only of the closed magnetic path of the first core, and an induction coil wound around the second magnetic path. The dynamo is so designed as to generate electromotive force in the induction coil by electromagnetic force by changing the direction of the flux of the first core by applying an alternating voltage to the magnetised coil, and by changing the flux of the second core induced by changes in the direction of the flux of the first core.

This makes it possible to change the flux passing through the induction coil without a torque-giving means or other moving part and to generate electromotive force in the induction coil by electromagnetic induction, thus enabling power generation without causing vibrations or noise. This dynamo can also be downsized and made available at low prices.

Other characteristics and benefits of this invention will be made clear by the description given below with diagrams attached.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
A more complete appreciation of the invention and many of the attendant advantages thereof will be readily obtained as the same becomes better understood by reference to the following detailed description when considered in connection with the accompanying drawings, wherein:

Fig.1 represents a basic configuration of a static magnet dynamo with an open magnetic path involved in this invention.
Fig. 2 represents how a flux in the direction opposed to that of a permanent magnet typically occurs in the magnetised coil.

Fig. 3 represents how a flux in the direction opposed to that of a permanent magnet typically disappears from the magnetised coil.
Fig. 4 represents how a flux in the same direction as that of the permanent magnet typically occurs in the magnetised coil.

Fig. 5 is a first embodiment of the static magnet dynamo involved in this invention.
Fig. 6 is a second embodiment of the static magnet dynamo involved in this invention.

**FIG. 7**

Fig. 7 is a third embodiment of the static magnet dynamo involved in this invention.

**FIG. 8**

Fig. 8 is a fourth embodiment of the static magnet dynamo involved in this invention.

**FIG. 9**
FIG. 9 is a fifth embodiment with an open magnetic path.

![FIG. 9](image1)

Fig.10 is a basic configuration of a static magnet dynamo with a closed magnetic path involved in this invention.

![FIG. 10](image2)

Fig.11 is a first embodiment of the static magnet dynamo with a closed magnetic path involved in this invention.

![FIG. 11](image3)

DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS
Referring now to the drawings, wherein like reference numerals designate identical or corresponding parts throughout the several views, and more particularly to Fig.1 where there is illustrated a basic configuration of the static magnet dynamo with one permanent magnet. Figs. 2, 3, and 4 describe how the static magnet dynamo represented in Fig.1 generates power.
As indicated in the figures, the first core 2 formed to couple the permanent magnet 1 and the different poles of the permanent magnet 1 in an annular manner, forms a closed magnetic path. This closed magnetic path is then equipped with a second core 3 via a paramagnetic material 10 μm to 5 mm thick. This results in the formation of an open magnetic path consisting of a permanent magnet 1, part of a first core 2, a paramagnetic material, and a second core 3. The part consisting only of the closed magnetic path of the first core 2 is wound around with a magnetised coil 4. The second core 3 is then wound around with an induction coil 5 designed to generate electromotive force by electromagnetic induction.

Here, the permanent magnet 1 is a magnet with a high residual flux density, a great coercive force, and a large maximum energy product for higher power generation efficiency. Typical materials used here are neodymium iron boride magnet (Nd₂Fe₁₄B), samarium cobalt magnet (Sm₂Co₁₇), or samarium iron nitride (Sm₂Fe₁₇N₂).

The first core 2 and the second core 3 are made of a soft magnetic material having a high permeability, with high initial, maximum, and other permeability levels, high residual flux density and saturation magnetisation, and small coercive force, thus making effective use of the flux of the magnetic path for power generation. Examples include Permalloy based alloys.

Applicable paramagnetic materials are those with a specific permeability comparable to that of a vacuum, such as air, copper, and aluminium. When air is used as a paramagnetic material, that is, when a gap G is secured between the first core 2 and the second core 3, the second core 3 is retained with a solid paramagnetic material. The figures represent embodiments with a gap G, without a solid paramagnetic material designed to retain the second core 3.

Following is a description of how a static magnet dynamo of the above configuration generates power. First, when no voltage is applied to the magnetised coil 4 of the static magnet dynamo, a first flux 11 is formed in the first core 2 in the direction going from the N pole to the S pole of the permanent magnet 1. In this state, no flux has been formed in the second core 3 coupled via the gap G.
A voltage can be applied to the magnetised coil 4 in three manners described below. In the first voltage application, as indicated in Fig.2, a DC voltage $V_S$ is applied to the magnetised coil 4 in the direction that the voltage repels the first flux 11 of the first core 2 generated by the permanent magnet 1, and vice versa, that is, in such a manner that the second flux 12 occurs in the reverse direction of the first flux 11. As a result, the first flux 11 repels the second flux 12 and vice versa, so that the flux more easily leaks from the closed magnetic path. The first flux 11 and the second flux 12, which more easily leak from the closed magnetic path, jump across the gap $G$ and enter the second core 3, so that a third flux 13 is induced in the second core 3. Furthermore, the induction of this third flux 13 changes the flux passing through the induction coil 5, so that electromotive force $V_1$ occurs in the induction coil 5, resulting in power being generated.

Next, removing the DC voltage applied to the magnetised coil 4 prompts the first core 2 to try going back to a state where only the first flux 11 is formed as indicated in Fig.1. At that time, the second core 3 has a flux in the reverse direction of the third flux 13, that is, the fourth flux 14 indicated in Fig.3, in order to kill the third flux 13. Then, the induction of the fourth flux 14 changes the flux passing the induction coil 5, so that electromotive force $V_2$ occurs in the induction coil 5, resulting in power being generated.

Power generation in this first voltage application can be realised by a static magnet dynamo involved in this invention, a DC power supply to apply a DC voltage $V_S$ to the magnetised coil 4, and a switching circuit that turns the DC power supply on and off. A contact-less switching circuit can be made if a semiconductor switching device, such as a thyristor, is available.

The second voltage application is the same as the first voltage application up to the point where the third flux 13 is induced in the second core 3 by applying a DC voltage $V_S$ to the magnetised coil 4 so as to generate the second flux 12 in the reverse direction of the first flux 11 and where the third flux 13 is induced to generate electromotive force $V_1$ in the induction coil 5, thus generating power.
Next, changing the polarity of the DC voltage applied to the magnetised coil 4 generates in the first core 2 the first flux $\alpha$ caused by the permanent magnet 1, as well as the fifth flux $\beta$ in the same direction as the first flux, caused by the magnetised coil 4. Here, the first flux $\alpha$ is given the fifth flux $\beta$, so that the second core 3 is given the fourth flux $\gamma$ as indicated in Fig.4, as well as the sixth flux $\delta$ in the same direction as the fourth flux $\gamma$. Furthermore, inducing the fourth flux $\gamma$ and the sixth flux $\delta$ changes the flux passing through the induction coil 5, so that an electromotive force $V_3$ larger than the electromotive force $V_2$ is generated in the rotary coil to produce power.

This second voltage application requires a polarity switching circuit PSC that changes the polarity of DO voltage instead of a switching circuit that turns on and off the DC voltage applied to the magnetised coil 4 in the first voltage application. This polarity switching circuit can be made of a semiconductor switching device, similarly to the switching circuit in the first voltage application.

In the third voltage application, AC voltage VS is applied to the magnetised coil 4 instead of applying DC voltage to the magnetised coil 4 in the second voltage application with the polarity changed. The flux generated by applying AC voltage to the magnetised coil 4 becomes an alternating flux that alternates between the second flux $\alpha$ in Fig.2 and the fifth flux $\beta$ in Fig.4. Then, the flux induced in the second core 3 is the third flux $\gamma$ in Fig.2 when the second flux $\alpha$ is generated, and is the fourth flux $\gamma$ trying to kill the sixth flux $\delta$ and the third flux $\delta$ in Fig.4 when the fifth flux $\beta$ is generated. That is, the flux induced in the second core 3 naturally also becomes an alternating flux.

In power generation of this third voltage application, AC voltage is applied to the magnetised coil 4, which overcomes the need for a switching circuit or polarity switching circuit PSC, which was needed in the first and the second voltage application, so that the device becomes simplified. Furthermore, the flux induced in the first core 2 and the second core 3 becomes an alternating flux induced by AC voltage, so that the dynamo functions also as a transformer having a gap G between the first core 2 and the second core 3. It is therefore possible to increase further the electromotive force V generated by electromagnetic induction in the induction coil 5.

Next, the power generation efficiency of a static magnet dynamo involved in this invention is described. The static magnet dynamo can be considered as a transformer if its permanent magnet 1 is removed and there is a gap G.

A transformer entails an eddy current loss $W_e$ and hysteresis loss $W_h$ of the core, and a loss $W_r$ due to the electric resistance of the coil. These factors are in a relation formulated below.

$$\text{Total loss } W_1 = W_e + W_h + W_r \text{ . . . . . . . (1)}$$

Let the input be $W_{in}$ and the output $W_o$, and the $W_{in}$ becomes equal to the total loss, so that the conversion efficiency of the transformer is

$$\text{Eff} = W_o / W_{in} = W_0(W_e + W_h + W_r) < 1 \text{ . . . . . . . (2)}$$

In reality, in Fig.1, the closed magnetic path consisting of the first core 2 contains a permanent magnet 1. The flux of this permanent magnet 1 therefore contributes to power generation. Therefore, in Fig.1, let the input be $W_{in2}$ and the output $W_o$, then

$$W_o = W_p + \alpha W_{in2} \text{ . . . . . . . (3)}$$

Where $W_p$ represents power resulting from the flux of the permanent magnet 1 contributing to power generation, and $\alpha$ represents a conversion efficiency obtained when the device is considered as a transformer with a gap G.

Therefore, power generation efficiency is:

$$\text{Eff} = W_o / W_{in2} \text{ or } \text{Eff} = (W_p / W_{in2}) + \alpha \text{ . . . . . . . (4)}$$

Here, since $\alpha < 1$, if $W_p / W_{in2} > 1$, that is, if power obtained resulting from the flux of the permanent magnet 1 contributing to power generation is larger than dynamo power supplied to the magnetised coil 4, power generation efficiency becomes no less than 1, so that the device can display its performance as a dynamo.

Thus, the inventor examined as described below how much the flux of the permanent magnet 1 contributes to the induction of the third flux $\gamma$ in Fig.2. First, the inventor provided static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration indicated in Fig.1, one with a permanent magnet 1 and another without a permanent magnet 1. The inventor then compared the power levels needed to induce fluxes of equal flux densities to the second core 3 of
each embodiment, that is, the power levels supplied to the magnetised coil 4. As a result, an embodiment with a permanent magnet 1 required only a very low power level to be supplied to the magnetised coil 4. It was observed that the power level required was no more than one fortieth of that of the embodiment without a permanent magnet 1, depending on the test condition.

In a static magnet dynamo involved in this invention, therefore, Win2 can be made sufficiently smaller than Wp, so that the inventor considers it possible to make Wp / Win2 > 1.

**Embodiment 1**

Next, as the first embodiment, a static magnet dynamo system composed of two static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration is described based on Fig.5.

**FIG. 5A**

In Fig.5A, in a static magnet dynamo, a closed magnetic path is made of two permanent magnets 1 and two first cores 2 formed so as to couple the different poles of one permanent magnet 1 with the other permanent magnet 1 in an annular manner. This closed magnetic path is then equipped with a second core 3 via a gap G. This forms an open magnetic path consisting of a permanent magnet 1, part of a first core 2, a paramagnetic material, and a second core 3.

**FIG. 5B**

This open magnetic path can be arranged in two different ways. In one configuration, as indicated in Fig.5A, one open magnetic path can be made of two permanent magnets 1 and two second cores 3. In the other configuration, as indicated in Fig.5B, one open magnetic path can be made of one permanent magnet 1 and another can be made of one first core 2. The static magnet dynamos in Fig.5A and Fig.5B do not differ substantially in terms of effect results, except that their patterns forming such an open magnetic path differ.
The part forming only a closed magnetic path of each first core 2 is wound around with a magnetised coil 4. Each second core 3 is then wound around with an induction coil 5 which generates electromotive force by electromagnetic induction.

This static magnet dynamo forms a first flux 11 in the first core 2 in the direction going from the N pole to the S pole of the permanent magnet 1, with no voltage applied to the magnetised coil 4. Furthermore, the action of this dynamo applying voltage to the magnetised coil 4 and generating electromotive force in the induction coil 5 by electromagnetic induction to generate power is similar to static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration. The static magnet dynamo with two permanent magnets 1 as mentioned above has well-balanced magnetic paths. Since the flux of the permanent magnets 1 can be effectively used, this embodiment achieves higher power generation efficiency than static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration.

The first embodiment is a static magnet dynamo system composed of two static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration. Similarly, a static magnet dynamo system can be made as a combination of three or more static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration (Figs. 1-4). In that case, similarly to the first embodiment, an open magnetic path can be formed in two manners. One configuration is the formation of one open magnetic path by coupling all permanent magnets 1 with a second core 3. The other is the formation of as many open magnetic paths as permanent magnets by coupling the N pole of each permanent magnet 1 to the S pole with a second core 3.

**Embodiment 2**
Next, the second embodiment of the present invention is represented in Fig.6,

![FIG. 6](image1)

the third embodiment in Fig.7,

![FIG. 7](image2)

and the fourth embodiment in Fig.8.
In these embodiments, the action of applying voltage to the magnetised coil 4 and generating electromotive force in the induction coil 5 by electromagnetic induction is similar to that of a static magnet dynamo of the basic configuration (Figs. 1-4).

The second and the third embodiments represented in Fig.6 and Fig.7 have the same basic configuration as the first embodiment, except that the first core 2 in each embodiment is shaped quite differently.

In the second embodiment, the part opposed to the end of the second core 3 sticks out toward the end of the second core 3. Thus, the leakage flux due to the repulsion of the first flux 11 and the second flux 12 generated in the first core 2 jumps across the gap G and enters the second core 3 with greater ease.

**Embodiment 3**

The third embodiment is so designed that the part coupling the second core 3 is that part of the first core 2 which is nearest to the permanent magnet 1 and, to shorten the open magnetic path even further, the two permanent magnets 1 are close to each other. Since a flux tends to form a closed magnetic path with the shortest distance, the leakage flux due to the repulsion of the first flux 11 and the second flux 12 generated in the first core 2 jumps across the gap G and enters the second core 3 with greater ease.

**Embodiment 4**

The fourth embodiment indicated in Fig.8, as opposed to a static magnet dynamo of the basic configuration, consists of a first loop where permanent magnets 1 with multiple closed magnetic paths are arranged circularly with the fluxes oriented in the same direction, and of a second loop which is wound around with a magnetised coil 4 and installed inside the first loop. Furthermore, the parts with their first cores 2 coupling the first loop to the second one stick out toward each other across a specified gap. The parts where this first core 2 stick out are coupled together with a second core 3 via a gap G to form an open magnetic path. This reinforces the flux of the permanent magnets 1 and makes it easier for the leakage flux due to the repulsion of the first flux 11 and the second flux 12 generated in the first core 2 to jump across the gap G and enter the second core 3.

**Embodiment 5**

The configuration of a static magnet dynamo involved in this invention has so far been described in terms of embodiments where an open magnetic path is connected to the first core 2 at both ends of the second core 3 via a paramagnetic material. However, this invention is not limited to these embodiments.
That is, as indicated in Fig.9, the open magnetic path may be embodied by extending any two parts of the first core 2 in the direction that they approach each other, thus defining them as core extensions 6, and coupling these core extensions 6 via a paramagnetic material 6'. This embodiment can be applied to all embodiments mentioned above.

**Embodiment 6**

As indicated in Fig.10, a closed magnetic path consists of a permanent magnet 1 and a first core 2 formed so as to couple the different poles of the said permanent magnet 1 in an annular manner. This closed magnetic path is then equipped with a second core 3 so that it comes magnetically in parallel with the permanent magnet 1, so that a bypass closed magnetic path is composed of a permanent magnet 1, part of a first core 2, and a second core 3.

The part consisting only of the closed magnetic path of the first core 2 is wound around with a magnetised coil 4. The second core 3 is then wound around with an induction coil 5 designed to generate electromotive force by electromagnetic induction.

The action of a static magnet dynamo of the above configuration generating power is described below. First, when no voltage is applied to the magnetised coil 4 of a static magnet dynamo, the first core 2 forms a first flux 11 in the direction going from the N pole to the S pole of the permanent magnet 1. In this state, a flux similar to that of the first core 2 is generated in the second core 3 as well.

**Embodiment 7**
The seventh embodiment is described below based on Fig.11, in terms of a static magnet dynamo system composed of two static magnet dynamos of the basic configuration and with the relative position of the permanent magnets changed.

In a static magnet dynamo, a closed magnetic path is composed of two permanent magnets 1 and two first cores 2 so designed as to couple the different poles of one of the permanent magnets 1 with the other permanent magnet 1 in an annular manner. This closed magnetic path is then equipped with a second core 3. This results in the formation of a bypass closed magnetic path consisting of a permanent magnet 1, part of a first core 2, a paramagnetic material, and a second core 3.

The parts where a closed magnetic path of each first core 2 alone is formed are wound around with a magnetised coil 4. Each second core 3 is then wound around with an induction coil 5 designed to generate electromotive force by electromagnetic induction.

In this static magnet dynamo, where no voltage is applied to the magnetised coil 4, a first flux 11 is formed in the first core 2 in the direction going from the N pole to the S pole of the permanent magnet 1. The action of applying voltage to the magnetised coil 4 and generating electromotive force in the induction coil 5 by electromagnetic induction to generate power is similar to that of a static magnet dynamo of the basic configuration.

In the aforementioned static magnet dynamo incorporating two permanent magnets 1, magnetic paths are arranged in a well-balanced manner. This makes it possible to make effective use of the flux of the permanent magnets 1, so that power generation efficiency is higher than that of a static magnet dynamo of the basic configuration.

This invention has so far been described somewhat in detail in terms of the most favourable embodiments. Since it is clear that a wide variety of embodiments can be realised without opposing the philosophy and scope of this invention, this invention will not be limited to any particular embodiment, except for the limitations described in the attached claim.

**Floyd Sweet's “VTA” Generator.**

Another device in the same category of permanent magnets in conjunction with oscillating coils, was produced by Floyd Sweet. The device was dubbed “Vacuum Triode Amplifier” or “VTA” by Tom Bearden.

The device was capable of producing more than 500 watts of output power at 120 Volts, 60 Hz requiring less than one third of one milliwatt as input power. The output power can operate AC motors, lights, heaters and when rectified, DC motors.
Thanks is due to Horst Weyrich who has recently provided me with links to useful material which I had not seen before. This link: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0gM9natKlyY is to a video in which Floyd shows most of the magnet conditioning process.

Recently, some additional information on Floyd Sweet's device, has been released publicly by an associate of Floyd's who goes just by his first name of "Maurice" and who, having reached the age of seventy has decided that it is time to release this additional information. That information can be found in the Appendix. I am not aware of anybody who has succeeded in replicating Floyd's VTA, but here is as much information as I have at this time.

In the above video, Floyd talks about separating two of his conditioned permanent magnets with an “air gap” which is astonishing as he is putting them on opposite sides of a length of aluminium channel with thick walls and aluminium has a major damping effect on magnetic fields:

![Image of aluminium channel](#)

This arrangement which seems quite mad, is confirmed by a picture from Floyd's lab. As shown here:

![Image of channel and magnets](#)

This shows clearly that the open ends of the channel are not between the two magnets allowing an unrestricted magnetic field to flow between them, but instead, two channel thicknesses of aluminium are between the two magnets, obstructing the magnetic flow – quite remarkable!!

Floyd shows two coils being used to condition the magnets. The first is the large vertical coil shown here in front of Floyd:

![Image of large vertical coil](#)
The second coil is not seen as it is inside the vertical coil, sitting flat on the base, and consisting of an entire reel of AWG #17 (1.15 mm diameter) wire, something like this:

This coil operates effectively as an air-core solenoid, producing a strong axial magnetic field inside the larger coil which surrounds it. This inside coil is driven by a sine wave signal in the 10Hz to 15Hz range, boosted through a 100-watt audio amplifier which provides the current needed to impose the sine wave on this low impedance coil without distorting the waveform.
The first step is to determine the resonant frequency of each of the two permanent magnets to be used. The ferrite magnets used appear to be about 6 x 4 x 1 inch (150 x 100 x 25 mm). As they will eventually be used as a pair, one end of each is marked so that they can be aligned in the correct orientation after conditioning. That size of magnet appears to have a resonant frequency of about 12Hz, but each magnet will be slightly different.

The inside, low frequency coil is powered up at around 12Hz, the length of the magnet aligned with the Earth’s magnetic field (that is, North/South), and placed on top of the vertical coil. An iron shim as used in transformer core construction is placed vertically on top of the magnet as an indication of resonating:

As shown in the video, the sine wave frequency feeding the AWG #17 coil is adjusted slowly to find the point at which the iron shim vibrates most strongly. That frequency is noted, and the same is done for the second magnet. It is not likely that the two resonant frequencies will be the same, and so the average frequency for the pair is used.

Next, the two magnets are placed in attraction mode, one on each side of the aluminium channel, with their marked ends at the same end of the channel. That is, the North pole face of one will touch the aluminium and the South pole face of the other will touch the aluminium. The two magnets and their separating aluminium channel are then placed inside the main coil and aligned so that the outer North pole faces southwards and the opposite external South pole faces Northwards. The large coil dimensions are arranged so that the centre of the magnets is at the centre of the outer coil.

While the inner coil continues to be powered up with a powerful sine wave, the outer coil is now fed a 60Hz stream of sharp voltage pulses. These are generated by charging up a 16,000 microfarad 250V capacitor and then discharging it through an SCR (Thyristor) connected to the outer coil. It is important that the spikes be sharp as they are imposing that frequency on the internal magnetic structure of the magnets. Presumably, if aiming for a European 240V version, then the outer coil would be pulsed at 50Hz rather than the American 60Hz and the capacitor would be a 450V rated type.

The working pictures of Floyd’s prototype powering a load, seem to indicate that the one input coil and one output coil as described by Ashley Gray below, are the same as used by Floyd as we see wires coming out of the open end of the channel.

Horst wishes to emphasise that it is not easy to make a working replication of Floyd’s design as the people at www.hyiq.org have tried to replicate it for a number of years now, without any success.
Ashley Gray of New Zealand.

In April 2014, I was sent some information about a colleague of Floyd Sweet’s – Ashley Gray of Nelson, New Zealand. The version described by Ashley appears to be understandable.

On 20th June 1994, Ashley says:

After a trip to America in 1985 when I was first introduced to Floyd Sweet, I was invited to go back and work with him. At that time he was being funded by Mark Goldes of the Aesop Institute, and Darryl Roberts was working as co-coordinator for the Institute in L.A. After working with Floyd for some time we left America for England. At that stage the “politics” had become difficult. While we were in England, we were contacted by Mark Goldes and told that Floyd had obtained some results which they would like us to verify for them.

On our return to New Zealand, Darryl Roberts sent us the Lab Notes which he had recorded during the first tests of the “Space Quanta Modulator” and it’s construction details. We were asked to repeat the experiments to verify the results. We constructed the device but were unable to get any results at that time. In the light of the new information which had been released, I conducted some further experiments and managed to obtain some interesting results without magnet ‘conditioning’ which, as far as I was aware, was not used in the original device.

The initial device which I constructed when in America, consisted of two 1-inch x 1-inch (25 x 25 mm) neodymium magnets mounted in a steel frame. There were two ‘modulating’ windings and one output winding. It was driven by a specially built sine-wave oscillator which was adjustable from 1 kHz to 2 kHz. We did not get any output or significant result from this device. Floyd felt that this was due to the high field strength of the neodymium magnets and the closed magnetic path. Floyd did not mention anything about magnet conditioning being necessary.

A second prototype was then built, using Barium Ferrite magnets size 6-inches x 4-inches x 1-inch (150 x 100 x 25 mm):

Ashley appears to be using magnets which are not ‘conditioned’. Ashley has had what I consider to be very significant results from his prototype with an output power of 111 watts for an input of just 0.001 watts (a COP of 111,000). Ashley’s successful build has an aluminium housing. People get the very mistaken idea that aluminium is not magnetic because magnets do not stick to it. The reality is that aluminium has a really major effect on magnetic fields and can be used as magnetic shielding if thick enough. Ashley’s design uses two coils at right angles to each other and that style of operation can be seen in other free-energy designs. Anyway, take a look at the version built by Ashley:
The aluminium enclosure is shallow. The ends are 4” x 2.5” which is 100 x 63 mm. The diameter of the input coil is 1.5 inches or 38 mm. Similarly, the output coil length has to be less than 63 mm.

The diagram below may give a slightly better idea of the dimensions involved in the construction. At the present time, magnets of that size are available for £14 each in the UK. They each have an 8 Kg pull and are very heavy.

The magnetic lines of force flow through the length of the output coil and through the width of the input coil. As you can see from the diagram, the unit is compact in spite of the very large magnets. The input needed is a good-quality sine wave. Ashley also says:

**Details From Lab Notes of First Successful Tests**

**Original Test Setup:**
A Signal Generator made by Wavetek, USA, was used to drive the input coil.

**Input coil:** 1.5" diameter 120 turns #20 gauge (0.812 mm diameter, overall resistance about 1 ohm)

Input = 7.5 volts at 3.1 microamps = 23 micro watts

**Output Coil:** 1.5" diameter 12 turns #12 gauge (2.05 mm diameter)

Output = 10.4 volts sine wave at 1.84 amps = 19.15 watts at approx 400 Hz

Comments:
Frequency generally affected resistive 1.8 amp 20 watt bulb load proportionally - brightness increased with frequency, decreased with frequency except at certain points when it appeared inversely related, increasing as frequency decreased etc.

**First Modifications:**
The Signal generator was replaced with a purpose-built Sine Wave Oscillator of 9 volt output. The input coil was increased to 250 turns of #18 gauge (1.024mm) and the output coil was increased to 24 turns of #18 gauge(1.024 mm diameter) wire. Magnets, spacing, etc. all remained the same.

**Input:** 7.2 volts at 143 micro amps (0.001 watts)

**Output:** 24.2 volts at 4.6 amps = 111 watts. Frequency 388 and 402 Hz

**Comments:**
By increasing the area of the wire exposed to/or occupying the fluctuating magnetic field the output was doubled. The exact proportions /ratios of the space filling volume of winding to output had not been determined at the time of writing. Magnet size seems to be less important than the volume of the windings, wire diameter, input voltage and current.

The current is only limited by the impedance of the wire which rises dramatically in the magnetic field to several hundred thousand ohms, while the impedance when outside the magnetic the field is only 2 or 3ohms @ 400 Hz. (250 turns #18 (1 mm diameter) wire).

The AC excitation current is only required to support $I^2R$ losses as the magnetic field requires no additional power, as it is not loaded by the wires passing through the field.

The unit ran for 10 to 12 hours with no heating occurring but no longer duration tests were performed. The tests were witnessed by three people.

**Technical Notes:**
The quality of the oscillator is important - there should be no harmonic distortion i.e. it needs to be a pure sine wave.

The signal diode divides the current into the circuit, and being parallel - puts a small microamp current into the power coil as well as the excitation coil. This works with the magnets in such a way that there is produced a vector complementation.

When in close proximity to the magnets, the output load bulbs vibrate.

**The Optical Generator of Pavel Imris.**
Pavel was awarded a US patent in the 1970’s. The patent is most interesting in that it describes a device which can have an output power which is more than nine times greater than the input power. He achieves this with a device which has two pointed electrodes enclosed in a quartz glass envelope which contains xenon gas under pressure (the higher the pressure, the greater the gain of the device) and a dielectric material.
Here, the power supply to one or more standard fluorescent lamps is passed through the device. This produces a power gain which can be spectacular when the gas pressure in the area marked '24' and '25' in the above diagram is high. The patent is included in this set of documents and it contains the following table of experimental measurements:

**Table 1** shows the data to be obtained relating to the optical electrostatic generator. **Table 2** shows the lamp performance and efficiency for each of the tests shown in **Table 1**. The following is a description of the data in each of the columns of **Tables 1 and 2**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Gas used in discharge tube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Gas pressure in tube (in torr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Field strength across the tube (measured in volts per cm. of length between the electrodes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Current density (measured in microamps per sq. mm. of tube cross-sectional area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Current (measured in amps)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Power across the tube (calculated in watts per cm. of length between the electrodes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Voltage per lamp (measured in volts)</td>
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<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Current (measured in amps)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Resistance (calculated in ohms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Input power per lamp (calculated in watts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Light output (measured in lumens)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test No.</td>
<td>Type of discharge lamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mo elec</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Xe</td>
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The results from Test No. 24 where the gas pressure is a very high 5,000 Torr, show that the input power for each 40-watt standard fluorescent tubes is 0.9 watts for full lamp output. In other words, each lamp is working to its full specification on less than one fortieth of its rated input power. However, the power taken by the device in that test was 333.4 watts which with the 90 watts needed to run the 100 lamps, gives a total input electrical power of 423.4 watts instead of the 4,000 watts which would have been needed without the device. That is an output power of more than nine times the input power.

From the point of view of any individual lamp, without using this device, it requires 40 watts of electrical input power to give 8.8 watts of light output which is an efficiency of about 22% (the rest of the input power being converted to heat). In test 24, the input power per lamp is 0.9 watts for the 8.8 watts of light produced, which is a lamp efficiency of more than 900%. The lamp used to need 40 watts of input power to perform correctly. With this device in the circuit, each lamp only needs 0.9 watts of input power which is only 2.25% of the original power. Quite an impressive performance for so simple a device!

The Michel Meyer and Yves Mace Isotopic Generator.

There is a French patent application number FR 2,680,613 dated 19th August 1991 entitled “Activateur pour Mutation Isotopique” which provides some very interesting information. The system described is a self-contained solid-state energy converter which abstracts large amounts of energy from an ordinary iron bar. This is also shown in Michel’s Czechoslovakia Patent No.284,333

The inventors describes the technique as an “isotopic mutation effect” as it converts ordinary iron (isotope 56) to isotope 54 iron, releasing large amounts of electrical energy in the process. This excess energy can, they say, be used to drive inverters, motors or generators.

The description of the mechanism which is being used by the device is: “the present invention uses a physical phenomenon to which we draw attention and which we will call ‘Isotopic Change’. The physical principle applies to isotope 56 iron which contains 26 protons, 26 electrons and 30 neutrons, giving a total mass of 56.52 Mev, although its actual mass is 55.80 Mev. The difference between the total mass and the actual mass is therefore
0.72 Mev this which corresponds to an energy of cohesion per nucleon of 0.012857 Mev.

So, If one introduces an additional 105 ev of energy to the iron core isotope 56, that core isotope will have a cohesion energy level of 0.012962 Mev per nucleon corresponding to iron isotope 54. The instability created by this contribution of energy will transfer the isotope 56 iron to isotope 54 causing a release of 2 neutrons.

This process generates an excess energy of 20,000 ev since the iron isotope 54 is only 0.70 Mev while isotope 56 has 0.72 Mev. To bring about this iron isotope 56 conversion, we use the principle of Nuclear Magnetic Resonance.”

The practical method for doing this is by using three coils of wire and a magnetic-path-closing support frame of iron as shown in this diagram:

In this arrangement,

**Coil 1**: Produces 0.5 Tesla when fed with DC, converting the iron bar into an electromagnet
**Coil 2**: Produces 10 milli-Tesla when fed with a 21 MHz AC sinewave signal
**Coil 3**: Is the output coil, providing 110, 220 or 380 volts AC at about 400 Hz depending on the number of turns in the coil

This simple and cheap system has the potential for producing substantial energy output for a very long time. The inventors claim that this device can be wired to be self-powered, while still powering external devices. Coil 1 turns the iron rod into an electromagnet with it’s flux channelled in a loop by the iron yoke. Coil 2 then oscillates that magnetic field in resonance with the isotope 56 iron atoms in the rod, and this produces the isotope conversion and release of excess energy. Coil 3 is wound to produce a convenient output voltage.

**The Colman / Seddon-Gilliespie Generator.**
This device, patented by Harold Colman and Ronald Seddon-Gillespie on 5th December 1956, is quite remarkable. It is a tiny lightweight device which can produce electricity using a self-powered electromagnet and chemical salts. The working life of the device before needing refurbishment is estimated at some seventy years with an output of about one kilowatt.

The operation is controlled by a transmitter which bombards the chemical sample with 300 MHz radio waves. This produces radioactive emissions from the chemical mixture for a period of one hour maximum, so the transmitter needs to be run for fifteen to thirty seconds once every hour. The chemical mixture is shielded by a lead screen to prevent harmful radiation reaching the user. The patent, GB 763,062 is included in the Appendix.
This generator unit includes a magnet, a tube containing a chemical mixture of elements whose nuclei becomes unstable as a result of bombardment by short waves so that the elements become radio-active and release electrical energy, the mixture being mounted between, and in contact with, a pair of different metals such as copper and zinc, and a capacitor mounted between those metals.

The mixture is preferably composed of the elements Cadmium, Phosphorus and Cobalt having Atomic Weights of 112, 31 and 59 respectively. The mixture, which may be of powdered form, is mounted in a tube of non-conducting, high heat resistivity material and is compressed between granulated zinc at one end of the tube and granulated copper at the other end, the ends of the tube being closed by brass caps and the tube being carried in a suitable cradle so that it is located between the poles of a magnet. The magnet is preferably an electro-magnet and is energised by the current produced by the unit. The transmitter unit which is used for activating the generator unit may be of any conventional type operating on ultra-shortwave and is preferably crystal controlled at the desired frequency.

The transmitter unit is of any suitable conventional type for producing ultra shortwaves and may be crystal controlled to ensure that it operates at the desired frequency without needing tuning. The quartz tube containing the chemical mixture, works best if made up of a number of small cells in series. In other words, considering the cartridge from one end to the other, at one end and in contact with the brass cap, there would be a layer of powdered copper, then a layer of the chemical mixture, then a layer of powdered zinc, a layer of powdered copper, etc. with a layer of powdered zinc in contact with the brass cap at the other end of the cartridge. With a cartridge some forty five millimetres long and five millimetres diameter, some fourteen cells may be included.
The Devices of Don Smith.
Donald Lee Smith died a few years ago. He is famous for his high-power self-powered free energy designs. There are several videos on the web, showing some of his lectures. He produced one pdf document which is shown at the end of this chapter, and in May 2004 he was granted one patent. Don stated clearly in one of his lectures, that he never did disclose the full details of his designs. However, Don says that he discloses enough for somebody who is experienced in radio-frequency electronics to be able to deduce the things which he does not disclose and so build a device for his own use. If that is the case, then anybody who has succeeded in doing so has kept very quiet about it afterwards (which would be understandable).

Don produced at least forty eight different devices which draw energy from what Don prefers to call "the ambient background". His devices are capable of supplying kilowatts of excess energy and in most cases they do not require any input energy to be supplied by the user.

Don’s work is subtle and not easy to replicate. It is based on the principle that the power output of a circuit increases with the square of the frequency and the square of the voltage. So, if you double the frequency and double the voltage, then the output power goes up and becomes sixteen times greater. As a result of this, Don’s best known design uses a Neon Sign Transformer circuit which raises the frequency to around 35,000 cycles per second and raises the voltage to anything from 2,000 volts to 12,000 volts, giving a power output is physically quite small and yet it has an output of 160 kilowatts (8000 volts at 20 amps) from an input of 12 volts 1 amp. That is, the output power is more than thirteen thousand times greater than the input power. Consequently, his designs are dangerous and can kill you instantly. In other words, his designs are for experienced developers only. Please bear in mind that the voltages here and their associated power levels are literally lethal and perfectly capable of killing anyone who handles the device carelessly when it is powered up. When a replication of this device is ready for routine use, it must be encased so that none of the high-voltage connections can be touched by anyone. This is not a suggestion, but it is a mandatory requirement, despite the fact that the components shown in the photographs are laid out in what would be a most dangerous fashion were the circuit to be powered up as it stands. Under no circumstances, construct and test this circuit unless you are already experienced in the use of high-voltage circuits or can be supervised by somebody who is experienced in this field. This is a "one hand in the pocket at all times" type of circuit and it needs to be treated with great care and respect at all times, so be sensible.


Don states that he repeated each of the experiments found in the book and that gave him his understanding of what he prefers to describe as the 'ambient background energy' which is also called
the 'zero-point energy field'. Don remarks that he advanced further than Tesla in this field, partly because of the devices now available to him and which were not available when Tesla was alive.

Don stresses two key points. Firstly, a dipole can cause a disturbance in the magnetic component of the 'ambient background' and that imbalance allows you to collect large amounts of electrical power, using capacitors and inductors (coils). Secondly, you can pick up as many powerful electrical outputs as you want from that one magnetic disturbance, without depleting the magnetic disturbance in any way. This allows massively more power output than the small power needed to create the magnetic disturbance in the first place. This is what produces a "Coefficient Of Performance"\textgreater{}1 device and Don has created nearly fifty different devices based on that understanding.

Although they get removed quite frequently, there is one video which is definitely worth watching if it is still there. It is located at http://www.metacafe.com/watch/2820531/don_smith_free_energy/ and was recorded in 2006. It covers a good deal of what Don has done. In the video, reference is made to Don's website but you will find that it has been taken over by Big Oil who have filled it with innocuous similar-sounding things of no consequence, apparently intended to confuse newcomers searching for information on Don's designs.

The present situation in 2019 is that few people understand Don's designs fully (and I myself, fall into that category), the high-voltage components are expensive and hard to find, and the high voltages are dangerous. However, we will look at three of his many designs and try to understand them as best we can. We will start with his patented design:

\textbf{Patent NL 02000035 A} \hspace{1cm} 20th May 2004 \hspace{1cm} Inventor: Donald Lee Smith

\textbf{TRANSFORMER GENERATOR MAGNETIC RESONANCE INTO ELECTRIC ENERGY}

\textbf{ABSTRACT}
The present invention refers to an Electromagnetic Dipole Device and Method, where wasted radiated energy is transformed into useful energy. A Dipole as seen in Antenna Systems is adapted for use with capacitor plates in such a way that the Heaviside Current Component becomes a useful source of electrical energy.

\textbf{DESCRIPTION}

\textbf{Technical Field:}
This invention relates to loaded Dipole Antenna Systems and their Electromagnetic radiation. When used as a transformer with an appropriate energy collector system, it becomes a transformer/generator. The invention collects and converts energy which is radiated and wasted by conventional devices.

\textbf{Background Art:}
A search of the International Patent Database for closely related methods did not reveal any prior art with an interest in conserving radiated and wasted magnetic waves as useful energy.

\textbf{DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION}
The invention is a new and useful departure from transformer generator construction, such that radiated and wasted magnetic energy changes into useful electrical energy. Gauss meters show that much energy from conventional electromagnetic devices is radiated into the ambient background and wasted. In the case of conventional transformer generators, a radical change in the physical construction allows better access to the energy available. It is found that creating a dipole and inserting capacitor plates at right angles to the current flow, allows magnetic waves to change back into useful electrical (coulombs) energy. Magnetic waves passing through the capacitor plates do not degrade and the full impact of the available energy is accessed. One, or as many sets of capacitor plates as is desired, may be used. Each set makes an exact copy of the full force and effect of the energy present in the magnetic waves. The originating source is not depleted of degraded as is common in conventional transformers.
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

The Dipole at right angles, allows the magnetic flux surrounding it to intercept the capacitor plate, or plates, at right angles. The electrons present are spun such that the electrical component of each electron is collected by the capacitor plates. Essential parts are the South and North component of an active Dipole. Examples presented here exist as fully functional prototypes and were engineer constructed and fully tested in use by the Inventor. In each of the three examples shown in the drawings, corresponding parts are used.

**Fig.1** is a View of the Method, where N is the North and S is the South component of the Dipole.

Here, 1 marks the Dipole with its North and South components. 2 is a resonant high-voltage induction coil. 3 indicates the position of the electromagnetic wave emission from the Dipole. 4 indicates the position and flow direction of the corresponding Heaviside current component of the energy flow caused by the induction coil 2. 5 is the dielectric separator for the capacitor plates 7. 6 for the purposes of this drawing, indicates a virtual limit for the scope of the electromagnetic wave energy.

**Fig.2** has two parts; A and B.
In Fig.2A 1 is the hole in the capacitor plates through which the Dipole is inserted and in Fig.2B it is the Dipole with its North and South poles shown. 2 is the resonant high-voltage induction coil surrounding part of the Dipole 1. The dielectric separator 5, is a thin sheet of plastic placed between the two capacitor plates 7, the upper plate being made of aluminium and the lower plate made of copper. Unit 8 is a deep-cycle battery system powering a DC inverter 9 which produces 120 volts at 60 Hz (the US mains supply voltage and frequency, obviously, a 240 volt 50 Hz inverter could be used here just as easily) which is used to power whatever equipment is to be driven by the device. The reference number 10 just indicates connecting wires. Unit 11 is a high-voltage generating device such as a neon transformer with its oscillating power supply.

Fig.3 is a Proof Of Principal Device using a Plasma Tube as an active Dipole. In this drawing, 5 is the plastic sheet dielectric separator of the two plates 7 of the capacitor, the upper plate being aluminium and the lower plate copper. The connecting wires are marked 10 and the plasma tube is designated 15. The plasma tube is four feet long (1.22 m) and six inches (100 mm) in diameter. The high-voltage energy source for the active plasma dipole is marked 16 and there is a connector box 17 shown as that is a convenient method of connecting to the capacitor plates when running tests on the device.

Fig.4 shows a Manufacturer's Prototype, constructed and fully tested. 1 is a metal Dipole rod and 2 the resonant
high-voltage induction coil, connected through wires 10 to connector block 17 which facilitates the connection of its high-voltage power supply. Clamps 18 hold the upper edge of the capacitor packet in place and 19 is the base plate with its supporting brackets which hold the whole device in place. 20 is a housing which contains the capacitor plates and 21 is the point at which the power output from the capacitor plates is drawn off and fed to the DC inverter.

**BEST METHOD OF CARRYING OUT THE INVENTION**

The invention is applicable to any and all electrical energy requirements. The small size and its high efficiency make it an attractive option, especially for remote areas, homes, office buildings, factories, shopping centres, public places, transportation, water systems, electric trains, boats, ships and 'all things great and small'. The construction materials are commonly available and only moderate skill levels are needed to make the device.

**CLAIMS**

1. Radiated magnetic flux from the Dipole, when intercepted by capacitor plates at right angles, changes into useful electrical energy.

2. A Device and Method for converting for use, normally wasted electromagnetic energy.

3. The Dipole of the Invention is any resonating substance such as Metal Rods, Coils and Plasma Tubes which have interacting Positive and Negative components.

4. The resulting Heaviside current component is changed to useful electrical energy.

***************

This patent does not make it clear that the device needs to be tuned and that the tuning is related to its physical location on Earth. The tuning will be accomplished by applying a variable-frequency input signal to the neon transformer and adjusting that input frequency to give the maximum output.

The second of Don’s devices to consider is his table-top very high power generator. This is effectively a Tesla Coil system and so the normal electromagnetic effect of the ratio of the number of coil turns does NOT determine the effect between the coils. The demonstration device looks like this:

![Demonstration Device](image)

This device is not the easiest thing in the world to understand. Here is the circuit diagram:
it is probably worth mentioning some of the main points which Don Smith appears to be making. There are some very important points being made here, and grasping these may make a considerable difference to our ability to tap into the excess energy available in our local environment. There are four points worth mentioning:

1. **Voltage**
2. **Frequency**
3. **Magnetic / Electric relationship**
4. **Resonance**

### 1. Voltage

We tend to view things with an 'intuitive' view, generally based on fairly simple concepts. For example, we automatically think that it is more difficult to pick up a heavy object than to pick up a light one. How much more difficult? Well, if it is twice as heavy, it would probably be about twice as much effort to pick it up. This view has developed from our experience of things which we have done in the past, rather than on any mathematical calculation or formula.

Well, how about pulsing an electronic system with a voltage? How would the output power of a system be affected by increasing the voltage? Our initial 'off-the-cuff' reaction might be that the power output might be increased a bit, but then hold on... we've just remembered that Watts = Volts x Amps, so if you double the voltage, then you would double the power in watts. So we might settle for the notion that if we doubled the voltage then we could double the output power. If we thought that, then we would be wrong.

Don Smith points out that as capacitors and coils store energy, if they are involved in the circuit, then the output power is proportional to the **square** of the voltage used. Double the voltage, and the output power is four times greater. Use three times the voltage and the output power is nine times greater. Use ten times the voltage and the output power is one hundred times greater!
Don says that the energy stored, multiplied by the cycles per second, is the energy being pumped by the system. Capacitors and inductors (coils) temporarily store electrons, and their performance is given by:

**Capacitor formula:**  \( W = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times Hz \)  
where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules (Joules = Volts x Amps x seconds)
- \( C \) is the capacitance in Farads
- \( V \) is the voltage
- \( Hz \) is the cycles per second

**Inductor formula:**  \( W = 0.5 \times L \times A^2 \times Hz \)  
where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules
- \( L \) is the inductance in henrys
- \( A \) is the current in amps
- \( Hz \) is the frequency in cycles per second

You will notice that where inductors (coils) are involved, then the output power goes up with the square of the current. Double the voltage and double the current gives four times the power output due to the increased voltage and that increased output is increased by a further four times due to the increased current, giving sixteen times the output power.

### 2. Frequency

You will notice from the formulas above, that the output power is directly proportional to the frequency "Hz". The frequency is the number of cycles per second (or pulses per second) applied to the circuit. This is something which is not intuitive for most people. If you double the rate of pulsing, then you double the power output. When this sinks in, you suddenly see why Nikola Tesla tended to use millions of volts and millions of pulses per second.

However, Don Smith states that when a circuit is at its point of resonance, resistance in the circuit drops to zero and the circuit becomes effectively, a superconductor. The energy for such a system which is in resonance is:

**Resonant circuit:**  \( W = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times (Hz)^2 \)  
where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules
- \( C \) is the capacitance in Farads
- \( V \) is the voltage
- \( Hz \) is the cycles per second
If this is correct, then raising the frequency in a resonating circuit has a massive effect on the power output of the device. The question then arises: why is the mains power in Europe just fifty cycles per second and in America just sixty cycles per second? If power goes up with frequency, then why not feed households at a million cycles per second? One major reason is that it is not easy to make electric motors which can be driven with power delivered at that frequency, so a more suitable frequency is chosen in order to suit the motors in vacuum cleaners, washing machines and other household equipment.

However, if we want to extract energy from the environment, then we should go for high voltage and high frequency. Then, when high power has been extracted, if we want a low frequency suited to electric motors, we can pulse the already captured power at that low frequency.

It might be speculated that if a device is being driven with sharp pulses which have a very sharply rising leading edge, that the effective frequency of the pulsing is actually determined by the speed of that rising edge, rather than the rate at which the pulses are actually generated. For example, if pulses are being generated at, say, 50 kHz but the pulses have a leading edge which would be suited to a 200 kHz pulse train, then the device might see the signal as a 200 kHz signal with a 25% Mark/Space ratio, the very suddenness of the applied voltage having a magnetic shocking effect equivalent to a 200 kHz pulse train.

3. Magnetic / Electric relationship. Don states that the reason why our present power systems are so inefficient is because we concentrate on the electric component of electromagnetism. These systems are always COP<1 as electricity is the 'losses' of electromagnetic power. Instead, if you concentrate on the magnetic component, then there is no limit on the electric power which can be extracted from that magnetic component. Contrary to what you might expect, if you install a pick-up system which extracts electrical energy from the magnetic component, you can install any number of other identical pick-ups, each of which extract the same amount of electrical energy from the magnetic input, without loading the magnetic wave in any way. Unlimited electrical output for the 'cost' of creating a single magnetic effect.

The magnetic effect which we want to create is a ripple in the zero-point energy field, and ideally, we want to create that effect while using very little power. Creating a dipole with a battery which has a Plus and a Minus terminal or a magnet which has North and South poles, is an easy way to do create an electromagnetic imbalance in the local environment. Pulsing a coil is probably an even better way as the magnetic field reverses rapidly if it is an air-core coil, such as a Tesla Coil. Using a ferromagnetic core to the coil can create a problem as iron can't reverse it's magnetic alignment very rapidly, and ideally, you want pulsing which is at least a thousand times faster than iron can handle.

Don draws attention to the "Transmitter / Receiver" educational kit "Resonant Circuits #10-416" which was supplied by The Science Source, Maine. This kit demonstrated the generation of resonant energy and it's collection with a receiver circuit. However, if several receiver circuits are used, then the energy collected is increased several times without any increase in the transmitted energy. This is similar to a radio transmitter where hundreds of thousands of radio receivers can receive the transmitted signal without loading the transmitter in any way. In Don’s day, this kit was driven by a 1.5 volt battery and lit a 60-watt bulb which was supplied. Not surprisingly, that kit has been discontinued and a trivial kit substituted.

If you get the Science Source educational kit, then there are some details which you need to watch out for. The unit has two very nice quality plastic bases and two very neatly wound coils each of 60 turns of 0.47 mm diameter enamelled copper wire on clear acrylic tubes 57 mm (2.25") in diameter. The winding covers a 28 mm section of the tube. The layout of the transmitter and receiver modules does not match the accompanying instruction sheet and so considerable care needs to be taken when wiring up any of their circuits. The circuit diagrams are not shown, just a wiring diagram, which is not great from an educational point of view. The one relevant circuit is:
Before you buy the kit, it is not mentioned that in order to use it, you now need a signal generator capable of producing a 10-volt signal at 1 MHz. The coil has a DC resistance of just 1.9 ohms but at a 1 MHz resonant frequency, the necessary drive power is quite low.

A variable capacitor is mounted on the receiver coil tube, but the one in my kit made absolutely no difference to the frequency tuning, nor was my capacitance meter able to determine any capacitance value for it at all, even though it had no trouble at all in measuring the 101 pF capacitor which was exactly the capacitance printed on it. For that reason, it is shown in blue in the circuit diagram above. Disconnecting it made no difference whatsoever.

In this particular kit, standard screw connectors have had one screw replaced with an Allen key headed bolt which has a head large enough to allow finger tightening. Unfortunately, those bolts have a square cut tip where a domed tip is essential if small diameter wires are to be clamped securely. If you get the kit, then I suggest that you replace the connectors with a standard electrical screw connector strip.

In tests, the LED lights up when the coils are aligned and within about 100 mm of each other, or if they are close together side by side. This immediately makes the Hubbard device spring to mind. Hubbard has a central "electromagnetic transmitter" surrounded by a ring of "receivers" closely coupled magnetically to the transmitter, each of which will receive a copy of the energy sent by the transmitter:

Don points to an even more clearly demonstrated occurrence of this effect in the Tesla Coil. In a typical Tesla Coil, the primary coil is much larger diameter than the inner secondary coil:

If, for example, 8,000 volts is applied to the primary coil which has four turns, then each turn would have 2,000 volts of potential. Each turn of the primary coil transfers electromagnetic flux to every single turn of the secondary winding, and the secondary coil has a very large number of turns. Massively more power is produced in the secondary coil than was used to energise the primary coil. A common mistake is to believe that a Tesla Coil can't produce serious amperage. If the primary coil is positioned
in the middle of the secondary coil as shown, then the amperage generated will be as large as the voltage generated. A low power input to the primary coil can produce kilowatts of usable electrical power.

4. Resonance. An important factor in circuits aimed at tapping external energy is resonance. It can be hard to see where this comes in when it is an electronic circuit which is being considered. However, everything has its own resonant frequency, whether it is a coil or any other electronic component. When components are connected together to form a circuit, the circuit has an overall resonant frequency. As a simple example, consider a swing:

If the swing is pushed before it reaches the highest point on the mother's side, then the push actually opposes the swinging action. The time of one full swing is the resonant frequency of the swing, and that is determined by the length of the supporting ropes holding the seat and not the weight of the child nor the power with which the child is pushed. Provided that the timing is exactly right, a very small push can get a swing moving in a substantial arc. The key factor is, matching the pulses applied to the swing, that is, to the resonant frequency of the swing. Get it right and a large movement is produced. Get it wrong, and the swing doesn't get going at all (at which point, critics would say "see, see …swings just don't work - this proves it !!"). This principle is demonstrated in the video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=irwK1VfoiOA.

Establishing the exact pulsing rate needed for a resonant circuit is not particularly easy, because the circuit contains coils (which have inductance, capacitance and resistance), capacitors (which have capacitance and a small amount of resistance) and resistors and wires, both of which have resistance and some capacitance. These kinds of circuit are called "LRC" circuits because "L" is the symbol used for inductance, "R" is the symbol used for resistance and "C" is the symbol used for capacitance.

Don Smith provides instructions for winding and using the type of air-core coils needed for a Tesla Coil. He says:

1. Decide a frequency and bear in mind, the economy of the size of construction selected. The factors are:

(a) Use radio frequency (above 20 kHz).
(b) Use natural frequency, i.e. match the coil wire length to the frequency - coils have both capacitance and inductance.
(c) Make the wire length either one quarter, one half of the full wavelength.
(d) Calculate the wire length in feet as follows:
   If using one quarter wavelength, then divide 247 by the frequency in MHz.
   If using one half wavelength, then divide 494 by the frequency in MHz.
   If using the full wavelength, then divide 998 by the frequency in MHz.

For wire lengths in metres:
   If using one quarter wavelength, then divide 75.29 by the frequency in MHz.
   If using one half wavelength, then divide 150.57 by the frequency in MHz.
   If using the full wavelength, then divide 304.19 by the frequency in MHz.

2. Choose the number of turns to be used in the coil when winding it using the wire length just calculated. The number of turns will be governed by the diameter of the tube on which the coil is to be wound. Remember that the ratio of the number of turns in the "L - 1" and "L - 2" coils, controls the overall output voltage. For example, if the voltage applied the large outer coil "L - 1" is 2,400
volts and L - 1 has ten turns, then each turn of L - 1 will have 240 volts dropped across it. This 240 volts of magnetic induction transfers 240 volts of electricity to every turn of wire in the inner "L - 2" coil. If the diameter of L - 2 is small enough to have 100 turns, then the voltage produced will be 24,000 volts. If the diameter of the L - 2 former allows 500 turns, then the output voltage will be 120,000 volts.

3. Choose the length and diameter of the coils. The larger the diameter of the coil, the fewer turns can be made with the wire length and so the coil length will be less, and the output voltage will be lower.

4. For example, if 24.7 MHz is the desired output frequency, then the length of wire, in feet, would be 247 divided by 24.7 which is 10 feet of wire (3,048 mm). The coil may be wound on a standard size of PVC pipe or alternatively, it can be purchased from a supplier - typically, an amateur radio supply store.

If the voltage on each turn of L - 1 is arranged to be 24 volts and the desired output voltage 640 volts, then there needs to be 640 / 24 = 26.66 turns on L - 2, wound with the 10 feet of wire already calculated.

PJK: At this point, Don's calculations go adrift and he suggests winding 30 turns on a 2-inch former. If you do that, then it will take about 16 feet of wire and the resonant point at 10-feet will be at about 19 turns, giving an output voltage of 458 volts instead of the required 640 volts, unless the number of turns on L1 is reduced to give more than 24 volts per turn. However, the actual required diameter of the coil former (plus one diameter of the wire) is 10 x 12 / (26.67 x 3.14159) = 1.43 inches. You can make this size of former up quite easily if you want to stay with ten turns on the L1 coil.

5. Connect to the start of the coil. To determine the exact resonant point on the coil, a measurement is made. Off-the-shelf multimeters are not responsive to high-frequency signals so a cheap neon is used instead. Holding one wire of the neon in one hand and running the other neon wire along the outside of the L - 2 winding, the point of brightest light is located. Then the neon is moved along that turn to find the brightest point along that turn, and when it is located, a connection is made to the winding at that exact point. L - 2 is now a resonant winding. It is possible to increase the ("Q") effectiveness of the coil by spreading the turns out a bit instead of positioning them so that each turn touches both of the adjacent turns.

6. The input power has been suggested as 2,400 volts. This can be constructed from a Jacob's ladder arrangement or any step-up voltage system. An off-the-shelf module as used with lasers is another option.

7. Construction of the L - 1 input coil has been suggested as having 10 turns. The length of the wire in this coil is not critical. If a 2-inch diameter PVC pipe was used for the L - 2 coil, then the next larger size of PVC pipe can be used for the L - 1 coil former. Cut a 10-turn length of the pipe (probably a 3-inch diameter pipe). The pipe length will depend on the diameter of the insulated wire used to make the winding. Use a good quality multimeter or a specialised LCR meter to measure the capacitance (in Farads) and the inductance (in henrys) of the L - 2 coil. Now, put a capacitor for matching L - 1 to L - 2 across the voltage input of L - 1, and a spark gap connected in parallel is required for the return voltage from L - 1. A trimmer capacitor for L - 1 is desirable.

8. The performance of L - 2 can be further enhanced by attaching an earth connection to the base of the coil. The maximum output voltage will be between the ends of coil L - 2 and lesser voltages can be taken off intermediate points along the coil if that is desirable.

This frequency information can be rather hard to understand in the way that Don states it. It may be easier to follow the description given by one developer who says:

I have noticed that any machine can be made a super machine just by adding a bipolar capacitor across the coil. Nothing else is needed. With the correct capacitor the coil becomes Naturally Resonant and uses very little Amperage. Each machine uses a different size capacitor. The correct capacitor size can be calculated by dividing the speed of light by the coil's wire length first to get the coil's Natural Frequency and then dividing the voltage to be used by that
frequency. The result is the correct size for the capacitor. Your machine will then be very powerful even working from a 12V car battery, no other additions needed. 

My coil's wire length is 497.333 meters.

$$299000000 \text{ m/sec} / 497.333 \text{ m} = 600000 \text{ Hz}.$$ 

12V / 600000 = 0.00002 or 20 microfarads. A beautiful Naturally Resonant Tank circuit. You can use this with any coil for overunity!

Once we have a Naturally Resonant Coil/Capacitor combination we can bring the frequency down to 50 Hz by calculating for the Power Factor Correction:

$$\text{Hz} = \text{Resistance} \times \text{Farads} \quad \text{then}$$

$$50 \text{ Hz} = R \times 0.00002$$

so $$50 / 0.00002 = 2500000$$

and $$R = 2500000 \text{ or } 2.5 \text{ Meg Ohms}.$$ 

We then place all three components in parallel and our coil should give us a 50 Hz output.

Don provides quite an amount of information on one of his devices shown here:

Without his description of the device, it would be difficult to understand it's construction and method of operation. As I understand it, the circuit of what is mounted on this board is as shown here:

This arrangement has bothered some readers recently as they feel that the spark gap should be in series with the L1 coil, like this:
This is understandable, as there is always a tendency to think of the spark gap as being a device which is there to protect against excessive voltages rather than seeing it as an active component of the circuit, a component which is in continuous use. In 1925, Hermann Plauson was granted a patent for a whole series of methods for converting the high voltage produced by a tall aerial system into useable, standard electricity. Hermann starts off by explaining how high voltage can be converted into a convenient form and he uses a Wimshurst static electricity generator as an example of a constant source of high voltage. The output from a rectified Tesla Coil, a Wimshurst machine and a tall aerial are very much alike, and so Hermann's comments are very relevant here. He shows it like this:

Here, the output of the Wimshurst machine is stored in two high-voltage capacitors (Leyden jars) causing a very high voltage to be created across those capacitors. When the voltage is high enough, a spark jumps across the spark gap, causing a massive surge of current through the primary winding of the transformer, which in his case is a step-down transformer as he is aimed at getting a lower output voltage. Don's circuit is almost identical:

Here the high voltage comes from the battery/inverter/neon-tube driver/rectifiers, rather than from a mechanically driven Wimshurst machine. He has the same build up of voltage in a capacitor with a spark gap across the capacitor. The spark gap will fire when the capacitor voltage reaches its designed level. The only difference is in the positioning of the capacitor, which if it matched Hermann's arrangement exactly, would be like this:
which would be a perfectly viable arrangement as far as I can see. You will remember that Tesla, who always speaks very highly of the energy released by the very sharp discharge produced by a spark, shows a high-voltage source feeding a capacitor with the energy passing through a spark gap to the primary winding of a transformer:

However, with Don’s arrangement, it can be a little difficult to see why the capacitor is not short-circuited by the very low resistance of the few turns of thick wire forming the L1 coil. Well, it would do that if we were operating with DC, but we are most definitely not doing that as the output from the neon-tube driver circuit is pulsing 35,000 times per second. This causes the DC resistance of the L1 coil to be of almost no consequence and instead, the coil’s “impedance” or “reactance” (effectively, it’s AC resistance) is what counts. Actually, the capacitor and the L1 coil being connected across each other have a combined “reactance” or resistance to pulsing current at this frequency. This is where the nomograph diagram comes into play, and there is a much easier to understand version of it a few pages later on in this document. So, because of the high pulsing frequency, the L1 coil does not short-circuit the capacitor and if the pulsing frequency matches the resonant frequency of the L1 coil (or a harmonic of that frequency), then the L1 coil will actually have a very high resistance to current flow through it. This is how a crystal set radio receiver tunes in a particular radio station, broadcasting on it’s own frequency.

Anyway, coming back to Don’s device shown in the photograph above, the electrical drive is from a 12-volt battery which is not seen in the photograph. Interestingly, Don remarks that if the length of the wires connecting the battery to the inverter are exactly one quarter of the wave length of the frequency of the oscillating magnetic field generated by the circuit, then the current induced in the battery wires will recharge the battery continuously, even if the battery is supplying power to the circuit at the same time.

The battery supplies a small current through a protecting diode, to a standard off-the-shelf “true sine-wave” inverter. An inverter is a device which produces mains-voltage Alternating Current from a DC battery. As Don wants adjustable voltage, he feeds the output from the inverter into a variable transformer called a “Variac” although this is often made as part of the neon-driver circuit to allow the brightness of the neon tube to be adjusted by the user. This arrangement produces an AC output voltage which is adjustable from zero volts up to the full mains voltage (or a little higher, though Don does not want to use a higher voltage). The use of this kind of adjustment usually makes it essential...
for the inverter to be a true sine-wave type. As the power requirement of the neon-tube driver circuit is so low, the inverter should not cost very much.

The neon-tube driver circuit is a standard off-the-shelf device used to drive neon tube displays for commercial establishments. The one used by Don contains an oscillator and a step-up transformer, which together produce an Alternating Current of 9,000 volts at a frequency of 35,100 Hz (sometimes written as 35.1 kHz). The term "Hz" stands for "cycles per second". Don lowers the 9,000 volts as he gets great power output at lower input voltages and the cost of the output capacitors is a significant factor. The particular neon-tube driver circuit which Don is using here, has two separate outputs out of phase with each other, so Don connects them together and uses a blocking diode in each line to prevent either of them affecting the other one. Not easily seen in the photograph, the high-voltage output line has a very small, encapsulated, Gas-Discharge Tube spark gap in it and the line is also earthed. The device looks like this:

Please note that when an earth connection is mentioned in connection with Don Smith's devices, we are talking about an actual wire connection to a metal object physically buried in the ground, whether it is a long copper rod driven into the ground, or an old car radiator buried in a hole like Tariel Kapanadze uses. When Thomas Henry Moray performed his requested demonstration deep in the countryside at a location chosen by the sceptics, the light bulbs which formed his demonstration electrical load, glowed more brightly with each hammer stroke as a length of gas pipe was hammered into the ground to form his earth connection.

It should be remarked that since Don purchased his neon-tube driver module that newer designs have generally taken over completely, especially in Europe, and these designs have built in “earth-leakage current” protection which instantly disables the circuit if any current is detected leaking to ground. This feature makes the unit completely unsuitable for use in a Don Smith circuit because there, the transfer of current to the ground is wholly intentional and vital for the operation of the circuit.

The output of the neon-tube driver circuit is used to drive the primary "L1" winding of a Tesla Coil style transformer. This looks ever so simple and straightforward, but there are some subtle details which need to be considered.

The operating frequency of 35.1 kHz is set and maintained by the neon-tube driver circuitry, and so, in theory, we do not have to do any direct tuning ourselves. However, we want the resonant frequency of the L1 coil and the capacitor across it to match the neon-driver circuit frequency. The frequency of the "L1" coil winding will induce exactly the same frequency in the "L2" secondary winding. However, we need to pay special attention to the ratio of the wire lengths of the two coil windings as we want these two windings to resonate together. A rule of thumb followed by most Tesla Coil builders is to have the same weight of copper in the L1 and L2 coils, which means that the wire of the L1 coil is usually much thicker than the wire of the L2 coil. If the L1 coil is to be one quarter of the length of the L2 coil, then we would expect the cross-sectional area of the L1 coil to be four times that of the wire of the L2 coil and so the wire should have twice the diameter (as the area is proportional to the square of the radius, and the square of two is four).
Don uses a white plastic tube as the former for his "L1" primary coil winding. As you can see here, the wire is fed into the former, leaving sufficient clearance to allow the former to slide all the way into the outer coil. The wire is fed up inside the pipe and out through another hole to allow the coil turns to be made on the outside of the pipe. There appear to be five turns, but Don does not always go for a complete number of turns, so it might be 4.3 turns or some other value. The key point here is that the length of wire in the "L1" coil turns should be exactly one quarter of the length of wire in the "L2" coil turns.

The "L2" coil used here is a commercial 3-inch diameter unit from Barker & Williamson, constructed from uninsulated, solid, single-strand "tinned" copper wire (how to make home-build versions is shown later on). Don has taken this coil and unwound four turns in the middle of the coil in order to make a centre-tap. He then measured the exact length of wire in the remaining section and made the length of the "L1" coil turns to be exactly one quarter of that length. The wire used for the "L1" coil looks like Don's favourite "Jumbo Speaker Wire" which is a very flexible wire with a very large number of extremely fine uninsulated copper wires inside it.

You will notice that Don has placed a plastic collar on each side of the winding, matching the thickness of the wire, in order to create a secure sliding operation inside the outer "L2" coil, and the additional plastic collars positioned further along the pipe provide further support for the inner coil. This sliding action allows the primary coil "L1" to be positioned at any point along the length of the "L2" secondary coil, and that has a marked tuning effect on the operation of the system. The outer "L2" coil does not have any kind of tube support but instead, the coil shape is maintained by the stiffness of the solid wire plus four slotted strips. This style of construction produces the highest possible coil performance at radio frequencies. With a Tesla Coil, it is most unusual to have the L1 coil of smaller diameter than the L2 coil.
The "L2" coil has two separate sections, each of seventeen turns. One point to note is the turns are spaced apart using slotted strips to support the wires and maintain an accurate spacing between adjacent turns. It must be remembered that spacing coil turns apart like this alters the characteristics of the coil, increasing its "capacitance" factor substantially. Every coil has resistance, inductance and capacitance, but the form of the coil construction has a major effect on the ratio of these three characteristics. The coil assembly is held in position on the base board by two off-white plastic cable ties. The nearer half of the coil is effectively connected across the further half as shown in the circuit diagram above.

One point which Don stresses, is that the length of the wire in the "L1" coil and the length of wire in the "L2" coil, must be an exact even division or multiple of each other (in this case, the "L2" wire length in each half of the "L2" coil is exactly four times as long as the "L1" coil wire length). This is likely to cause the "L1" coil to have part of a turn, due to the different coil diameters. For example, if the length of the "L2" coil wire is 160 inches and "L1" is to be one quarter of that length, namely, 40 inches. Then, if the "L1" coil has an effective diameter of 2.25 inches, (allowing for the thickness of the wire when wound on a 2-inch diameter former), then the "L1" coil would have 5.65 (or 5 and 2/3) turns which causes the finishing turn of "L2" to be 240 degrees further around the coil former than the start of the first turn - that is, five full turns plus two thirds of the sixth turn.

The L1 / L2 coil arrangement is a Tesla Coil. The positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil, adjusts the voltage to current ratio produced by the coil. When the "L1" coil is near the middle of the "L2" coil, then the amplified voltage and amplified current are roughly the same. The exact wire ratio of these two coils gives them an almost automatic tuning with each other, and the exact resonance between them can be achieved by the positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil. While this is a perfectly good way of adjusting the circuit, in the build shown in the photograph, Don has opted to get the exact tuning by connecting a capacitor across "L1" as marked as "C" in the circuit diagram. Don found that the appropriate capacitor value was around the 0.1 microfarad (100 nF) mark. It must be remembered that the voltage across "L1" is very high, so if a capacitor is used in that position it will need a voltage rating of at least 9,000 volts. Don remarks that the actual capacitors seen in the photograph of this prototype are rated at fifteen thousand volts, and were custom made for him using a "self-healing" style of construction. As has already been remarked, this capacitor is an optional component. Don also opted to connect a small capacitor across the "L2" coil, also for fine-tuning of the circuit, and that component is optional and so is not shown on the circuit diagram. As the two halves of the "L2" coil are effectively connected across each other, it is only necessary to have one fine-tuning capacitor. However, Don stresses that the "height" length of the coil (when standing vertically) controls the voltage produced while the coil "width" (the diameter of the turns) controls the current produced.
The exact wire length ratio of the turns in the "L1" and "L2" coils gives them an almost automatic synchronous tuning with each other, and the exact resonance between them can be achieved by the positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil. While this is a perfectly good way of adjusting the circuit, in the 1994 build shown in the photograph, Don has opted to get the exact tuning by connecting a capacitor across "L1" as marked as "C" in the circuit diagram. Don found that the appropriate capacitor value for his particular coil build, was about 0.1 microfarad (100 nF) and so he connected two 47 nF high-voltage capacitors in parallel to get the value which he wanted. It must be remembered that the voltage across "L1" is very high, so a capacitor used in that position needs a voltage rating of at least 9,000 volts. Don remarks that the actual capacitors seen in the photograph of this prototype are rated at fifteen thousand volts, and were custom made for him using a "self-healing" style of construction.

Don has also connected a small capacitor across the "L2" coil, and that optional component is marked as "C2" in the circuit diagram and the value used by Don happened to be a single 47nF, high-voltage capacitor. As the two halves of the "L2" coil are effectively connected across each other, it is only necessary to have one capacitor for "L2":

There are various ways of dealing with the output from the "L2" coil in order to get large amounts of conventional electrical power out of the device. The method shown here uses the four very large capacitors seen in the photograph. These have an 8,000 or 9,000 volt rating and a large capacity and they are used to store the circuit power as DC prior to use in the load equipment. This is achieved by feeding the capacitor bank through a diode which is rated for both high voltage and high current, as Don states that the device produces 8,000 volts at 20 amps, in which case, this rectifying diode has to be able to handle that level of power, both at start-up when the capacitor bank is fully discharged and "L2" is producing 8,000 volts, and when the full load of 20 amps is being drawn.
This capacitor bank is fed through a diode which is rated for both high voltage and high current, as Don states that the device produces 8,000 volts at 20 amps, in which case, this rectifying diode has to be able to handle that level of power, both at start-up when the capacitor bank is fully discharged and "L2" is producing 8,000 volts, and when the full load of 20 amps is being drawn. The actual diodes used by Don happen to be rated at 25 KV but that is a far greater rating than is actually needed.

In passing, it might be remarked that the average home user will not have an electrical requirement of anything remotely like as large as this, seeing that 10 kW is more than most people use on a continuous basis, while 8 KV at 20 A is a power of 160 kilowatts. As the neon-tube driver circuit can put out 9,000 volts and since the L1 / L2 coil system is a step-up transformer, if the voltage fed to the capacitor bank is to be kept down to 8,000 volts, then the Variac adjustment must be used to reduce the voltage fed to the neon-tube driver circuit, in order to lower the voltage fed to the L1 / L2 coil pair, typically, to 3,000 volts.

A very astute and knowledgeable member of the EVGRAY Yahoo EVGRAY forum whose ID is "silverhealtheu" has recently pointed out that Don Smith says quite freely that he does not disclose all of the details of his designs, and it is his opinion that a major item which has not been disclosed is that the diodes in the circuit diagrams shown here are the wrong way round and that Don operates his voltages in reverse to the conventional way. In fact, the circuit diagram should be:

He comments: "the diodes leaving the Neon-tube Driver may need to be reversed as we want to collect the negative polarity. The spark gap will then operate on ambient inversion and the spark will look and sound totally different with a much faster crack and producing very little heat and even becoming covered in frost is possible.

The Variac should be raised up just enough to get a spark going then backed off slightly. Any higher voltage is liable to make the Neon-tube Driver think that it has a short-circuit condition, and the new electronic designs will then shut down automatically and fail to operate at all if this method is not followed.

When running, C, L1 and L2 operate somewhere up in the Radio Frequency band because the Neon-tube Driver only acts as a tank-circuit exciter. The large collection capacitor C3, should fill inverted to earth polarity as shown above. The load will then be pulling electrons from the earth as the cap is REFILLED back to ZERO rather than the joules in the capacitor being depleted.

Also remember that the Back-EMF systems of John Bedini and others, create a small positive pulse but they collect a super large NEGATIVE polarity spike which shoots off the bottom of an oscilloscope display. This is what we want, plenty of this stored in capacitors, and then let the ambient background energy supply the current when it makes the correction."

This is a very important point and it may well make a really major difference to the performance of a device of this nature.
One reader has drawn attention to the fact that Don's main document indicates that there should be a resistor "R" across the L1 coil as well as the capacitor "C" and he suggests that the circuit should actually be as shown above, considering what Don said earlier about his "suitcase" design. Another reader points out that the wire in the output choke shown in the photograph below appears to be wound with wire that is far too small diameter to carry the currents mentioned by Don. It seems likely that a choke is not needed in that position except to suppress possible radio frequency transmissions from the circuit, but a more powerful choke can easily be wound using larger diameter wire.

When the circuit is running, the storage capacitor bank behaves like an 8,000 volt battery which never runs down and which can supply 20 amps of current for as long as you want. The circuitry for producing a 220 volt 50 Hz AC output or a 110 volt 60 Hz AC output from the storage capacitors is just standard electronics. In passing, one option for charging the battery is to use the magnetic field caused by drawing mains-frequency current pulses through the output "choke" coil, shown here:

The output current flows through the left hand winding on the brown cylindrical former, and when the photograph was taken, the right-hand winding was no longer in use. Previously, it had been used to provide charging power to the battery by rectifying the electrical power in the coil, caused by the fluctuating magnetic field caused by the pulsing current flowing through the left hand winding, as shown here:

The DC output produced by the four diodes was then used to charge the driving battery, and the power level produced is substantially greater than the minor current drain from the battery. Consequently, it is
a sensible precaution to pass this current to the battery via a circuit which prevents the battery voltage rising higher than it should. A simple voltage level sensor can be used to switch off the charging when the battery has reached its optimum level. Other batteries can also be charged if that is wanted. Simple circuitry of the type shown in chapter 12 can be used for controlling and limiting the charging process. The components on Don's board are laid out like this:

Don draws attention to the fact that the cables used to connect the output of "L2" to the output of the board, connecting the storage capacitors on the way, are very high-voltage rated cables with special multiple coverings to ensure that the cables will remain sound over an indefinite period. It should be remarked at this point, that the outer 3" diameter coil used by Don, is not wound on a former, but in order to get higher performance at high frequencies, the turns are supported with four separate strips physically attached to the turns - the technique described later in this document as being an excellent way for home construction of such coils.

Please bear in mind that the voltages here and their associated power levels are literally lethal and perfectly capable of killing anyone who handles the device carelessly when it is powered up. When a replication of this device is ready for routine use, it must be encased so that none of the high-voltage connections can be touched by anyone. This is not a suggestion, but it is a mandatory requirement, despite the fact that the components shown in the photographs are laid out in what would be a most dangerous fashion were the circuit to be powered up as it stands. Under no circumstances, construct and test this circuit unless you are already experienced in the use of high-voltage circuits or can be supervised by somebody who is experienced in this field. This is a "one hand in the pocket at all times" type of circuit and it needs to be treated with great care and respect at all times, so be sensible.

The remainder of the circuit is not mounted on the board, possibly because there are various ways in which the required end result can be achieved. The one suggested here is perhaps the most simple solution:
The voltage has to be dropped, so an iron-cored mains-frequency step-down transformer is used to do this. To get the frequency to the standard mains frequency for the country in which the device is to be used, an oscillator is used to generate that particular mains frequency. The oscillator output is used to drive a suitable high-voltage semiconductor device, be it an FET transistor, an IGBT device, or whatever. This device has to switch the working current at 8,000 volts, though admittedly, that will be a current which will be at least thirty six times lower than the final output current, due to the higher voltage on the primary winding of the transformer. The available power will be limited by the current handling capabilities of this output transformer which needs to be very large and expensive.

As the circuit is capable of picking up additional magnetic pulses, such as those generated by other equipment, nearby lightning strikes, etc. an electronic component called a "varistor" marked "V" in the diagram, is connected across the load. This device acts as a voltage spike suppressor as it short circuits any voltage above its design voltage, protecting the load from power surges.

Don also explains an even more simple version of the circuit as shown here:

This simplified circuit avoids the need for expensive capacitors and the constraints of their voltage ratings, and the need for electronic control of the output frequency. The wire length in the turns of coil "L2" still needs to be exactly four times the wire length of the turns in coil "L1", but there is only one component which needs to be introduced, and that is the resistor "R" placed across the primary winding of the step-down isolation transformer. This transformer is a laminated iron-core type, suitable for the low mains frequency, but the output from "L2" is at much higher frequency. It is possible to pull the frequency down to suit the step-down transformer by connecting the correct value of resistor "R" across the output transformer (or a coil and resistor, or a coil and a capacitor). The value of resistor needed can be predicted from the American Radio Relay League graph (shown as Fig.44 in Don's pdf document. The sixth edition of the Howard Sams book "Handbook of Electronics Tables and Formulas" (ISBN-10: 0672224690 or ISBN-13: 978-0672224690) has a table which goes down to 1 kHz and so does not need to be extended to reach the frequencies used here. The correct resistor value could also be found by experimentation. You will notice that an earthed dual spark gap has been placed across "L2" in order to make sure that the voltage levels always stay within the design range.

Don also explains an even more simple version which does not need a Variac, high voltage capacitors or high voltage diodes. Here, a DC output is accepted which means that high-frequency step-down transformer operation can be used. This calls for an air-core transformer which you would wind yourself from heavy duty wire. Mains loads would then be powered by using a standard off-the-shelf inverter. In this version, it is of course, necessary to make the "L1" turns wire length exactly one quarter of the "L2" turns wire length in order to make the two coils resonate together. The operating frequency of each of these coils is imposed on them by the output frequency of the neon-tube driver circuit. That frequency is maintained throughout the entire circuit until it is rectified by the four diodes feeding the low-voltage storage capacitor. The target output voltage will be either just over 12 volts or just over 24 volts, depending on the voltage rating of the inverter which is to be driven by the system. The circuit diagram is:
As many people will find the nomograph chart in Don's pdf document very difficult to understand and use, here is an easier version:
The objective here is to determine the "reactance" or 'AC resistance' in ohms and the way to do that is as follows:

Suppose that your neon-tube driver is running at 30 kHz and you are using a capacitor of 100 nF (which is the same as 0.1 microfarad) and you want to know what is the AC resistance of your capacitor is at that frequency. Also, what coil inductance would have that same AC resistance. Then the procedure for finding that out is as follows:
Draw a straight line from your 30 kHz frequency (purple line) through your 100 nanofarad capacitor value and carry the line on as far as the (blue) inductance line as shown above.

You can now read the reactance ("AC resistance") off the red line, which looks like 51 ohms to me. This means that when the circuit is running at a frequency of 30 kHz, then the current flow through your 100 nF capacitor will be the same as through a 51 ohm resistor. Reading off the blue "Inductance" line that same current flow at that frequency would occur with a coil which has an inductance of 0.28 millihenries.

I have been passed a copy of Don's circuit diagram for this device, and it is shown here:

![Circuit Diagram]

The 4000V 30mA transformer shown in this circuit diagram, may use a ferrite-cored transformer from a neon-tube driver module which steps up the voltage but it does not raise the frequency as that is clearly marked at 120 Hz pulsed DC. You will notice that this circuit diagram is drawn with Plus shown below Minus (which is most unusual).

Please note that when an earth connection is mentioned in connection with Don Smith's devices, we are talking about an actual wire connection to a metal object physically buried in the ground, whether it is a long copper rod driven into the ground, or an old car radiator buried in a hole like Tariel Kapanadze used, or a buried metal plate. When Thomas Henry Moray performed his requested demonstration deep in the countryside at a location chosen by the sceptics, the light bulbs which formed his demonstration electrical load, glowed more brightly with each hammer stroke as a length of gas pipe was hammered into the ground to form his earth connection.

Don also explains an even more simple version of his main device. This version does not need a Variac (variable voltage transformer) or high voltage capacitors. Here, a DC output is accepted which means that high-frequency step-down transformer operation can be used. This calls on the output side, for an air-core (or ferrite rod core) transformer which you would wind yourself from heavy duty wire. Mains loads would then be powered by using a standard off-the-shelf inverter. In this version, it is of course, very helpful to make the "L1" turns wire length exactly one quarter of the "L2" turns wire length in order to make the two coils automatically resonate together. The operating frequency of each of these coils is imposed on them by the output frequency of the neon-tube driver circuit. That frequency is maintained throughout the entire circuit until it is rectified by the four diodes feeding the low-voltage.
storage capacitor. The target output voltage will be either just over 12 volts or just over 24 volts, depending on the voltage rating of the inverter which is to be driven by the system.

As the circuit is capable of picking up additional magnetic pulses, such as those generated by other equipment, nearby lightning strikes, etc. an electronic component called a "varistor" marked "V" in the diagram, is connected across the load. This device acts as a voltage spike suppressor as it short-circuits any voltage above its design voltage, protecting the load from power surges. A Gas-Discharge Tube is an effective alternative to a varistor.

This circuit is effectively two Tesla Coils back-to-back and the circuit diagram might be:

![Circuit Diagram](image)

It is by no means certain that in this circuit, the red and blue windings are wound in opposing directions. The spark gap (or gas-discharge tube) in series with the primary of the first transformer alters the operation in a somewhat unpredictable way as it causes the primary to oscillate at a frequency determined by it's inductance and it's self-capacitance, and that may result in megahertz frequencies. The secondary winding(s) of that transformer must resonate with the primary and in this circuit which has no frequency-compensating capacitors, that resonance is being produced by the exact wire length in the turns of the secondary. This looks like a simple circuit, but it is anything but that. The excess energy is produced by the raised frequency, the raised voltage, and the very sharp pulsing produced by the spark. That part is straightforward. The remainder of the circuit is likely to be very difficult to get resonating as it needs to be in order to deliver that excess energy to the output inverter.

When considering the "length" of wire in a resonant coil, it is necessary to pay attention to the standing wave created under those conditions. The wave is caused by reflection of the signal when it reaches the end of the wire OR when there is a sudden change in the diameter of the wire as that changes the signal reflection ability at that point in the connection. You should pay attention to Richard Quick’s very clear description of this in the section of his patent which is included later on in this chapter. Also, remember what Don Smith said about locating the peaks of the standing wave by using a hand-held neon lamp.

One very significant thing which Don pointed out is that the mains electricity available through the wall socket in my home, does not come along the wires from the generating station. Instead, the power station influences a local ‘sub-station’ and the electrons which flow through my equipment actually come from my local environment because of the influence of my local sub-station. Therefore, if I can create a similar influence in my home, then I no longer need that sub-station and can have as much electrical energy as I want, without having to pay somebody else to provide that influence for me.

A Practical Implementation of one of Don Smith’s Designs

The objective here, is to determine how to construct a self-powered, free-energy electrical generator which has no moving parts, is not too expensive to build, uses readily available parts and which has an output of some kilowatts. However, under no circumstances should this document be considered to be an encouragement for you, or anyone else to actually build one of these devices. This document is presented solely for information and educational purposes, and as high voltages are involved, it should be considered to be a dangerous device unsuited to being built by inexperienced amateurs. The following section is just my opinions and so should not be taken as tried and tested, working technology, but instead, just the opinion of an inexperienced writer.

However, questions from several different readers indicate that a short, reasonably specific description of the steps
needed to attempt a replication of a Don Smith device would be helpful. Again, this document must not be
considered to be a recommendation that you actually build one of these high-voltage, potentially dangerous
devices. This is just information intended to help you understand what I believe is involved in this process.

In broad outline, the following steps are used in the most simple version of the arrangement:

1. The very low frequency and voltage of the local mains supply is discarded in favour of an electrical supply
which operates at more than 20,000 Hz (cycles per second) and has a voltage of anything from 350 volts to
10,000 volts. The higher voltages can give greater overall output power, but they involve greater effort in
getting the voltage back down again to the level of the local mains voltage in order for standard mains
equipment to be used.

2. This high-frequency high voltage is used to create a series of very rapid sparks using a spark gap which is
connected to a ground connection. Properly done, the spark frequency is so high that there is no audible sound
caused by the sparks. Each spark causes a flow of energy from the local environment into the circuit. This
energy is not standard electricity which makes things hot when current flows through them, but instead this
energy flow causes things to become cold when the power flows through them, and so it is often called “cold”
electricity. It is tricky to use this energy unless all you want to do is light up a series of light bulbs (which
incidentally, give out a different quality of light when powered with this energy). Surprisingly, the circuit now
contains substantially more power than the amount of power needed to produce the sparks. This is because
additional energy flows in from the ground as well as from the local environment. If you have conventional
training and have been fed the myth of “closed systems”, then this will seem impossible to you. So, let me ask
you the question: if, as can be shown, all of the electricity flowing into the primary winding of a transformer,
flows back out of that winding, then where does the massive, continuous flow of electricity coming from the
secondary winding come from? None of it comes from the primary circuit and yet millions of electrons flow
out of the secondary in a continuous stream which can be supplied indefinitely. So, where do these electrons
come from? The answer is ‘from the surrounding local environment which is seething with excess energy’ but
your textbooks won’t like that fact as they believe that the transformer circuit is a ‘closed system’ – something
which probably can’t be found anywhere in this universe.

3. This high-voltage, high-frequency, high-power energy needs to be converted to the same sort of hot electricity
which comes out of a mains wall socket at the local voltage and frequency. This is where skill and
understanding come into play. The first step is to lower the voltage and increase the available current with a
step-down resonant transformer. This sounds highly technical and complicated, and looking at Don Smith’s
expensive Barker & Williamson coil, makes the whole operation appear to be one for rich experimenters only.
This is not the case and a working solution can be cheap and easy. It is generally not convenient to get the
very high voltage all the way down to convenient levels in a single step, and so, one or more of those resonant
transformers can be used to reach the target voltage level. Each step down transformer boosts the available
current higher and higher.

4. When a satisfactory voltage has been reached, we need to deal with the very high frequency. The easiest way
to deal with it is to use high-speed diodes to convert it to pulsing DC and feed that into a capacitor to create
what is essentially, an everlasting battery. Feeding this energy into a capacitor converts it into conventional
“hot” electricity and a standard off-the-shelf inverter can be used to give the exact voltage and frequency of the
local mains supply. In most of the world, that is 220 volts at 50 cycles per second. In America it is 110 volts at
60 cycles per second. Low-cost inverters generally run on either 12 volts or 24 volts with the more common 12
volt units being cheaper.

So, let’s take a look at each of these step in more detail and see if we can understand what is involved and what
our options are:

1. We want to produce a high-voltage, high-frequency, low-current power source. Don Smith shows a Neon-Sign
Transformer module. His module produced a voltage which was higher than was convenient and so he used a
variable AC transformer or “Variac” as it is commonly known, to lower the input voltage and so, lower the
output voltage. There is actually no need for a Variac as we can handle the higher voltage or alternatively, use
a more suitable Neon-Sign Transformer module.

However, we have a problem with using that technique. In the years since Don bought his module, they have
been redesigned to include circuitry which disables the module if any current flows out of it directly to earth, and as that is exactly what we would want to use it for, so most, if not all of the currently available neon-sign transformer modules are not suitable for our needs. However, I’m told that if the module has an earth wire and that earth wire is left unconnected, that it disables the earth-leakage circuitry, allowing the unit to be used in a Don Smith circuit. Personally, I would not recommend that if the module is enclosed in a metal housing.

A much cheaper alternative is shown here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RDDRe_4D93Q where a small plasma globe circuit is used to generate a high-frequency spark. It seems highly likely that one of those modules would suit our needs:

An alternative method is to build your own power supply from scratch. Doing that is not particularly difficult and if you do not understand any electronics, then perhaps, reading the beginner’s electronics tutorial in chapter 12 (http://www.free-energy-info.com/Chapter12.pdf) will fill you in on all of the basics needed for understanding (and probably designing your own) circuits of this type. Here is a variable frequency design for home-construction:

One advantage of this circuit is that the output transformer is driven at the frequency set by the 555 timer and that frequency is not affected by the number of turns in the primary winding, nor it’s inductance, wire diameter, or anything else to do with the coil. While this circuit shows the rather expensive IRF9130 transistor, I expect that other P-channel FETs would work satisfactorily in this circuit. The IRF9130 transistor looks like this:
The circuit has a power supply diode and capacitor, ready to receive energy from the output at some later date if that is possible and desired. The 555 circuit is standard, giving a 50% Mark/Space ratio. The 10 nF capacitor is there to maintain the stability of the 555 and the timing section consists of two variable resistors, one fixed resistor and the 1 nF capacitor. This resistor arrangement gives a variable resistance of anything from 100 ohms to 51.8K and that allows a substantial frequency range. The 47K (Linear) variable resistor controls the main tuning and the 4.7K (Linear) variable resistor gives a more easily adjustable frequency for exact tuning. The 100 ohm resistor is there in case both of the variable resistors are set to zero resistance. The output is fed through a 470 ohm resistor to the gate of a very powerful P-channel FET transistor which drives the primary winding of the output transformer.

The output transformer can be wound on an insulating spool covering a ferrite rod, giving both good coupling between the windings, and high-frequency operation as well. The turns ratio is set to just 30:1 due to the high number of primary winding turns. With a 12-volt supply, this will give a 360-volt output waveform, and by reducing the primary turns progressively, allows the output voltage to be increased in controlled steps. With 10 turns in the primary, the output voltage should be 3,600 volts and with just 5 turns 7,200 volts. The higher the voltage used, the greater the amount of work needed later on to get the voltage back down to the output level which we want.

Looking at the wire specification table, indicates that quite a small wire diameter could be used for the oscillator output transformer's secondary winding. While this is perfectly true, it is not the whole story. Neon Tube Drivers are very small and the wire in their output windings is very small diameter indeed. Those driver modules are very prone to failure. If the insulation on any one turn of the winding fails and one turn becomes a short-circuit, then that stops the winding from oscillating, and a replacement is needed. As there are no particular size constraints for this project, it might be a good idea to use enamelled copper wire of 0.45 mm or larger in an attempt to avoid this insulation failure hazard. No part of the transformer coil spool should be metal and it would not be any harm to cover each layer of secondary winding with a layer of electrical tape to provide additional insulation between the coil turns in one layer and the turns in the layer on top of it.

A plug-in board layout might be:
Please remember that you can’t just stick your average voltmeter across a 4 kV capacitor (unless you really do want to buy another meter) as they only measure up to about a thousand volts DC. So, if you are using high voltage, then you need to use a resistor-divider pair and measure the voltage on the lower resistor. But what resistor values should you use? If you put a 10 Megohm resistor across your 4 kV charged capacitor, the current flowing through the resistor would be 0.4 milliamps. Sounds tiny, doesn’t it? But that 0.4 mA is 1.6 watts which is a good deal more than the wattage which your resistor can handle. Even using this arrangement:

the current will be 0.08 mA and the wattage per resistor will be 64 mW. The meter reading will be about 20% of the capacitor voltage which will give a voltmeter reading of 800 volts. The input resistance of the meter needs to be checked and possibly, allowed for as the resistance in this circuit is so high (see chapter 12). When making a measurement of this type, the capacitor is discharged, the resistor chain and meter attached, and then, and only then, is the circuit powered up, the reading taken, the input power disconnected, the capacitor discharged, and the resistors disconnected. High-voltage circuits are highly dangerous, especially so, where a capacitor is involved. The recommendation to wear thick rubber gloves for this kind of work, is not intended to be humorous. Circuits of this type are liable to generate unexpected high-voltage spikes, and so, it might be a good idea to connect a varistor across the meter to protect it from those spikes. The varistor need to be set to the voltage which you intend to measure and as varistors may not be available above a 300V threshold, two or more may need to be connected in series where just one is shown in the diagram above. The varistor should not have a higher voltage rating than your meter.

2. We now need to use this high voltage to create a strategically positioned spark to a ground connection. When making an earth connection, it is sometimes suggested that connecting to water pipes or radiators is a good idea as they have long lengths of metal piping running under the ground and making excellent contact with it. However, it has become very common for metal piping to be replaced with cheaper plastic piping and so any proposed pipe connection needs a check to ensure that there is metal piping which runs all the way into the ground.
The spark gaps shown can be commercial high-voltage gas discharge tubes, adjustable home-made spark gaps with stainless steel tips about 1 mm apart, car spark plugs, or standard neon bulbs, although these run rather hot in this application. A 15 mm x 6 mm size neon bulb operates with only 90 or 100 volts across it, it would take a considerable number of them connected in series to create a high voltage spark gap, but it is probably a misconception that the spark gap itself needs a high voltage. Later on in this chapter, there is an example of a very successful system where just one neon bulb is used for the spark gap and an oscillating magnetic field more than a meter wide is created when driven by just an old 2,500 volt neon-sign transformer module. If using a neon bulb for the spark gap, then an experienced developer recommends that a 22K resistor is used in series with the neon in order to extend its working life very considerably.

This circuit is one way to connect the spark gap and ground connection:

![Circuit Diagram]

This is an adaption of a circuit arrangement used by the forum member “SLOW-'N-EASY” on the Don Smith topic in the energeticforum. Here, he is using a ‘LowGlow’ neon transformer intended for use on a bicycle. The diodes are there to protect the high-voltage power supply from any unexpected voltage spikes created later on in the circuit. The spark gap is connected between the primary winding of a step-up transformer and the earth connection. No capacitor is used. Seeing this circuit, we immediately think of Don Smith’s large and expensive coils, but this experimenter does not use anything like that. Instead, he winds his transformer on a simple plastic former like this:

![Transformer Image]

And to make matters ‘worse’ the primary winding wire is just 9 inches (228.6 mm) long and the secondary just 36 inches (914.4 mm) long, the primary being wound directly on top of the secondary. Not exactly a large or expensive construction and yet one which appears to perform adequately in actual tests.

This is a very compact form of construction, but there is no necessity to use exactly the same former for coils, nor is there anything magic about the nine-inch length of the L1 coil, as it could easily be any convenient length, say two feet or 0.5 metres, or whatever. The important thing is to make the
L2 wire length exactly four times that length, cutting the lengths accurately. It is common practice to match the weight of copper in each coil and so the shorter wire is usually twice the diameter of the longer wire.

The circuit above, produces a cold electricity output of high voltage and high frequency. The voltage will not be the same as the neon transformer voltage, nor is the frequency the same either. The two coils resonate at their own natural frequency, unaltered by any capacitors.

3. The next step is to get the high voltage down to a more convenient level, perhaps, like this:

![Diagram](image1)

Here, an identical transformer, wound in exactly the same way, is used in reverse, to start the voltage lowering sequence. The wire length ratio is maintained to keep the transformer windings resonant with each other.

Supposing we were to wind the L2 coil of this second transformer in a single straight winding and instead of winding just one L1 winding on top of it, two or more L1 identical windings were placed on top of it – what would happen?:

![Diagram](image2)

Now for a comment which will seem heretical to people steeped in the present day (inadequate) level of technology. The power flowing in these transformers is cold electricity which operates in an entirely different way to hot electricity. The coupling between these coils would be inductive if they were carrying hot electricity and in that case, any additional power take-off from additional L1 coils would have to be ‘paid’ for by additional current draw through the L2 coil. However, with the cold electricity which these coils are actually carrying, the coupling between the coils is magnetic and not inductive and that results in no increase in L2 current, no matter how many L1 coil take-offs there are. Any additional L1 coils will be powered for free. However, the position of the coils relative to each other has an effect on the tuning, so the L1 coil should be in the middle of the L2 coil, which means that any additional L1 coils are going to be slightly off the optimum tuning point.

4. Anyway, following through on just one L1 coil, there is likely to be at least one further step-down transformer needed and eventually, we need conversion to hot electricity:
Probably the easiest conversion is by feeding the energy into a capacitor and making it standard DC. The frequency is still very high, so high-speed diodes (such as the 75-nanosecond UF54008) are needed here although the voltage level is now low enough to be no problem. The DC output can be used to power an inverter so that standard mains equipment can be used. It is not necessary to use just one (expensive) large-capacity inverter to power all possible loads as it is cheaper to have several smaller inverters, each powering it’s own set of equipment. Most equipment will run satisfactorily on square-wave inverters and that includes a mains unit for powering the input oscillator circuit.

PVC pipe is not a great material when using high-frequency high-voltage signals, and grey PVC pipe is a particularly poor coil former material. The much more expensive acrylic pipe is excellent, but if using PVC, then performance will be better if the PVC pipe is coated with an insulating lacquer (or table tennis balls dissolved in acetone as show on YouTube).

However, there are some other factors which have not been mentioned. For example, if the L1 coil is wound directly on top of the L2 coil, it will have roughly the same diameter and so, the wire being four times longer, will have roughly four times as many turns, giving a step-up or step-down ratio of around 4:1. If, on the other hand, the coil diameters were different, the ratio would be different as the wire lengths are fixed relative to each other. If the L2 coil were half the diameter of the L1 coil, then the turns ratio would be about 8:1 and at one third diameter, 12:1 and at a quarter diameter 16:1 which means that a much greater effect could be had from the same wire length by reducing the L2 coil diameter. However, the magnetic effect produced by a coil is linked to the cross-sectional area of the coil and so a small diameter is not necessarily at great advantage. Also, the length of the L1 coil wire and number of turns in it, affect the DC resistance, and more importantly, the AC impedance which affects the amount of power needed to pulse the coil.

It is also thought that having the same weight of copper in each winding gives an improved performance, but what is not often mentioned is the opinion that the greater the weight of copper, the greater the effect. You will recall that Joseph Newman (chapter 11) uses large amounts of copper wire to produce remarkable effects. So, while 9 inches and 36 inches of wire will work for L1 and L2, there may well be improved performance from longer lengths of wire and/or thicker wires.

We should also not forget that Don Smith pointed out that voltage and current act (out of phase and) in opposite directions along the L2 coil, moving away from the L1 coil:

It has been suggested that a greater and more effective power output can be obtained by splitting the L2 coil underneath the L1 coil position, winding the second part of L2 in the opposite direction and
grounding the junction of the two L2 windings. Don doesn’t consider it necessary to reverse the
direction of winding. The result is an L2 winding which is twice as long as before and arranged like this:

Here, the additional high-voltage diodes allow the two out of phase windings to be connected across
each other.
You will notice that this arrangement calls for two separate earth connections, both of which need to be
high-quality connections, something like a pipe or rod driven deeply into moist soil or alternatively, a
metal plate or similar metal object of substantial surface area, buried deep in moist earth, and a thick
copper wire or copper braid used to make the connection. These earthing points need to be fairly far
apart, say, ten metres. A single earth connection can’t be used as that would effectively short-circuit
across the L1/L2 transformer which you really do not want to do.

With this arrangement, the outline circuit becomes:

The thick earth wiring is helpful because in order to avoid the earth wire being included in the resonant
wire length, you need a sudden change in wire cross-section:

These are just some ideas which might be considered by some experienced developer who may be
thinking of investigating Don Smith style circuitry.

To give you some idea of the capacity of some commercially available wires when carrying hot
electricity, this table may help:
It is recommended that the wire have a current carrying capacity of 20% more than the expected actual load, so that it does not get very hot when in use. The wire diameters do not include the insulation, although for solid enamelled copper wire, that can be ignored.

There is a most impressive video and circuit shown at [http://youtu.be/Q3vr6qmOwLw](http://youtu.be/Q3vr6qmOwLw) where a very simple arrangement produces an immediately successful performance for the front end of Don’s circuitry. The circuit appears to be:

![Circuit Diagram]

Here, a simple Neon Sign Transformer module which has no earth connection, is used to produce a 2.5 kV voltage with a frequency of 25 kHz and a maximum output current capacity of 12 mA. There is no difficulty in constructing the equivalent to that power supply unit. The two outputs from the module are converted to DC by a chain of four 1N4007 diodes in series in each of the two outputs (each chain being inside a plastic tube for insulation).

This output is fed through an optional 22K resistor via a neon lamp to a microwave oven capacitor which happens to be 874 nF with a voltage rating of 2,100 volts. You might feel that the voltage rating of the capacitor is too low for the output voltage of the neon sign module, but the neon has a striking voltage of just 90 volts and so the capacitor is not going to reach the output voltage of the power supply. The resistors are solely to extend the life of the neons as the gas inside the tube gets a considerable jolt in the first nanosecond after switch-on. It is unlikely that omitting those resistors would have any significant effect, but then, including them is a trivial matter. The second neon feeds the primary of the resonant transformer which is only shown in notional outline in the diagram above as the developer suggests that the primary acts as a transmitter and that any number of receiving coils can be used as individual secondaries by being tuned to the exact frequency of that resonating primary.

![Fluctuating Field]

In the video showing this arrangement, the developer demonstrates the fluctuating, high-frequency field which extends for some four feet (1.2 m) around the coil. He also remarks that the single neons in his arrangement could each be replaced with two neons in series. In test which I ran, I found that I needed two neons in series ahead of the capacitor in order to get continuous lighting of the output neon. Also,
one of the diodes needed to be reversed so that one faced towards the input and one away from it. It
did not matter which diode was reversed as both configurations worked. Again, please note that this
presentation is for information purposes only and it is NOT a recommendation that you should actually
build one of these devices. Let me stress again that this is a high-voltage device made even more
dangerous by the inclusion of a capacitor, and it is quite capable of killing you, so, don’t build one. The
developer suggests that it is an implementation of the “transmitter” section of Don’s
Transmitter/multiple-receivers design shown below. However, before looking at that design, there is
one question which causes a good deal of discussion on the forums, namely, if the centre-tap of the L2
secondary coil is connected to ground, then should that earth-connection wire length be considered to
be part of the quarter length of the L1 coil? To examine this possibility in depth, the following quote
from Richard Quick’s very clear explanation of resonance in his US patent 7,973,296 of 5th July 2011 is
very helpful.

However, the simple answer is that for there to be exact resonance between two lengths of wire
(whether or not part, or all of those lengths of wire happen to be wound into a coil), then one length
needs to be exactly four times as long as the other, and ideally, half the diameter as well. At both ends
of both lengths of wire, there needs to be a sudden change in wire diameter and Richard explains why
this is. But, leaving that detailed explanation for now, we can use that knowledge to explain the above
simplified system in more detail. Here is the circuit again:

One very important point to note is that no earth connection is required and in spite of that, the
performance shown on video is very impressive. While an earth connection can feed substantial power
into the circuit, not needing one for the front end is an enormous advantage and potentially, opens the
way for a truly portable device. Another very important point is the utter simplicity of the arrangement
where only cheap, readily available components are used (and not many of those are needed). The
resistors for extending the life of the neon bulbs are not shown, but they can be included if desired and
the circuit operation is not altered significantly by having them there. If a higher spark voltage is
wanted, then two or more neon bulbs can be used in series where these circuit diagrams show just one.

A point to note is that the lower diode is shown reversed when compared to the previous diagram. This
is because the power supply shown is any generic power supply which drives a simple output coil which
does not have a centre tap. The neon supply of the earlier diagram appears to have two separate
outputs which will, presumably, be out of phase with each other as that is common practice for neon-
sign driver modules. If you wish, the two diodes shown here could be replaced by a diode bridge of
four high-voltage, high-speed diodes.

The wire lengths of L1 and L2 are measured very accurately from where the wire diameter changes
suddenly, as indicated by the red dashed lines. The L2 wire length is exactly four times as long as the
L1 wire length and the L2 wire diameter is half of the L1 wire diameter.

How long is the L1 wire? Well, how long would you like it to be? It can be whatever length you want
and the radius of the L1 coil can be whatever you want it to be. The theory experts will say that the L1
coil should resonate at the frequency of the power feeding it. Well, good for them, I say, so please tell
me what frequency that is. It is not going to be the frequency of the power supply as that will be
changed by at least one of the neon bulbs. So, what frequency will the neon bulb produce? Not even
the manufacturer could tell you that as there is quite a variation between individual bulbs which are
supposedly identical.

Actually, it doesn’t matter at all, because the L1 coil (and the L2 coil if you measure them accurately)
has a resonant frequency all of its own and it will vibrate at that frequency no matter what the frequency
feeding it happens to be. A coil resonates in very much the same way that a bell rings when it is struck.
It doesn’t matter how hard you strike the bell or how rapidly you strike it – the bell will ring at its own natural frequency. So the L1 coil will resonate at its own natural frequency no matter what rate the voltage spikes striking it arrive, and as the L2 coil has been carefully constructed to have exactly that same frequency, it will resonate in synchronisation with the L1 coil.

This means that the length of the wire for the L1 coil is the choice of the builder, but once that length is chosen it determines the length of the wire for the L2 coil as that is exactly four times as long, unless the builder decides to use an arrangement which has L2 wound in both the Clockwise and counter-clockwise directions, in which case, each half of the L2 coil will be four times the length of the wire in the L1 coil, like this:

Mind you, there is one other factor to be considered when deciding what the most convenient wire length for L1 might be, and that is the number of turns in the L1 coil. The larger the ratio between the turns in L1 and the turns in L2, the higher the voltage boost produced by the L1/L2 transformer, and remember that the length of L2 is fixed relative to the length of L1.

So, a possible circuit style might be:

There are some important points to remember. One is that there must be a sudden change of wire diameter at both ends of each L1 coil and at the ends of each L2 coil. If there isn’t, then the connecting wire length will form part of the coil and if there is some change in diameter but not very much, then it is anybody’s guess what the resonant wire length for that coil will be. There can be as many step-down isolation air-core L1/L2 transformers as desired and these do not need to be particularly large or expensive.

The builder of this circuit put it together in just a few minutes, using components which were to hand, including the microwave oven capacitor marked “C” in the diagrams above. That capacitor is isolated on both sides by the neon bulb spark gaps and so it will have no modifying effect on the resonant frequency of any of the coils in this circuit. But it is vital to understand that the energy stored in that capacitor can, and will, kill you instantly if you were to touch it, so let me stress once again that this information is NOT a recommendation that you actually build this circuit. The DC output from the circuit is intended to power a standard inverter, which in turn, would be perfectly capable of powering the high voltage, high frequency input oscillator.

One final point is that as demonstrated in the video, the oscillating magnetic field produced by the L1 coil can power several identical L2 coils, giving several additional power outputs for no increase in input power, because the coupling is magnetic and not inductive as mentioned earlier in this chapter. Please notice that neither the L1 coil nor the L2 coil has a capacitor connected across it, so resonance is due
solely to wire length and no expensive high-voltage capacitors are needed to get every L1/L2 coil pair resonating together. One possible arrangement might be like this:

Where two of the L2 coils are shown connected together to give increased output power. This arrangement uses low-voltage inexpensive components for the output stages and there is no obvious limit to the amount of output power which could be provided. As the circuit operates at high frequency throughout, there is no particular need for additional L2 coils to be placed physically inside the L1 coil:

However, there can be an advantage to this arrangement in that the wire length of the L1 coil is greater, which in turn makes the wire length of each L2 coil greater (being four times longer). This gives greater flexibility when planning the turns ratio of the L1/L2 transformer. The voltage step-up or step-down of that transformer happens to be in the ratio of the turns, in spite of the fact that this is not inductive coupling and so standard transformer technology does not apply.

When you choose the number of turns and coil diameter for L1, that also gives the length of the L2 wire. In order to get the desired output voltage, if perhaps, the step-down ratio is needed to be an amount of 46:1, then you need 46 times the number of L1 turns on the L2 coil. That means that you know both the wire length and number of turns wanted in the L2 coil. But, as each turn will have a length of 3.14159 times the diameter, it follows then that the wanted diameter is the wire length per turn, divided by 3.14159. The wire sits on top of the tube on which it is wound and so has a greater diameter by one wire thickness, so the calculated tube diameter needs to be reduced by one wire diameter. For example, if the length per turn is 162 mm and the wire diameter 0.8 mm, then the tube diameter would be 162 / 3.14159 – 0.8 which is 50.766 mm (just over two inches).

Now for Richard’s explanation of the resonant frequency of any length of wire:

“Quarter-Wave” Resonance; Standing Electromagnetic Waves"
One of the two main types is electrical resonance is referred to here as quarter-wave resonance. This type of resonance depends almost entirely on the length of a wire element. For reasons described below, if a segment or length of wire is one quarter as long as the “voltage waves” which are travelling through the wire, then a set of
“reflected” waves will be added to the emitted waves, in a synchronised alignment which creates stronger “superimposed waves”.

Accordingly, an understanding of the “quarter-wave” phenomenon will help a reader understand how a straightforward and easily-controlled factor (i.e., the length of a wire ribbon which will be used to form a spiral coil) can help create a “quarter-wave” resonant response, which will create the types of electromagnetic pulses and fields referred to as “standing waves”.

The speed at which a voltage impulse is transmitted through a metal wire is extremely fast. It is essentially the same as the speed of light, which travels 300 million meters (186,000 miles) in a single second (that distance would circle the earth more than 7 times).

If wavelength (in meters) is multiplied by frequency (cycles per second), the result will be the speed of light, 300 million meters/second. Therefore, the wavelength of an “alternating current” (AC) voltage, at some particular frequency, will be the speed of light, divided by which frequency.

Therefore, using simple division, if an alternating voltage operates at a frequency of 1 megahertz (MHz), which is a million cycles per second, then the “wavelength” at that frequency will be 300 meters. If the frequency halves become 500 kilohertz, the wavelength becomes twice as long (600 meters); and, if the frequency were to increase to 2 megahertz, the wavelength drops to 150 meters.

It should be noted which the term “cycles” is what scientists call “a dimensionless unit”, which drops out and becomes silent when other physical terms are multiplied or divided.

At AC frequencies of 10 kilohertz or greater, the common references to “alternating current” (AC) voltage begin using a different term, which is “radio-frequency” (RF) voltage. Accordingly, RF voltage is a form (or subset) of AC voltage, which operates at frequencies higher than 10 kilohertz. RF power generators are readily available, and are sold by numerous companies which can be easily located by an Internet search, using the term “RF power generator”. For example, Hotek Technologies Inc. (hotektech.com) sells two RF power generators, called the AG 1024 and AG 1012 models, which can provide output power at frequencies ranging from 20 kHz to 1 MHz; the 1012 model has a power output of 1000 watts, while the 1024 model has a power output of 2000 watts. The output frequency of any such RF power supply can be adjusted and “tuned” across the entire range of operating frequencies, merely by turning knobs or manipulating other controls in a power supply of this type.

In a wire having a fixed and unchanging length, the easiest way to create a “standing wave” is to adjust the RF frequency emitted by a power supply with an adjustable frequency, until the “tuned” frequency creates a wavelength which is 4 times as long as the wire. This principle is well-known to physicists, and it is commonly referred to as “quarter-wave” behaviour, since the length of the wire segment must be one quarter as long as the wavelength. Since it is important to this invention, the principles behind it are illustrated in a series of drawings provided in Fig.1 to Fig.4, all of which are well-known prior art.

**Fig.1A** indicates an idealized wavelength of an alternating voltage, depicted by a sine wave which is being sent from an AC power supply (shown by a circle at the left end of a horizontal straight wire) into the “input” end of the wire. The voltage waves travel through the wire towards the right, as indicated by the block arrow in Fig.1A. When the waves reach the end of the wire, they cannot leave the wire (at least, not in a simplified and “ideal”
system, which is being assumed and used here to explain the principle of how a simple straight wire can create a standing wave). Therefore, the voltage wave will effectively “bounce” or “reflect” back from the tip of the wire, and the “reflected wave” will begin travelling back through the wire, going in the opposite direction, as indicated by the left-pointing block arrow in Fig.1B.

Because of the laws of conservation of energy, the reflection and “return travel” of these types of waves, when they bounce off the tip of a wire, is actually quite good, and rather efficient, as discussed below, provided which the wire tip does not emit sparks, arc discharges, or other forms of “escaping” electrical energy.

Accordingly, Fig.1A depicts a set of “emitted waves” travelling towards the right, while Fig.1B depicts an idealised set of “reflected waves” travelling toward the left along the same wire.

Fig.1C illustrates what happens when both sets of waves (emitted and reflected) are superimposed on each other. Since the two sets of waves are travelling at exactly the same speed, and since they have exactly the same wavelength, they will create a “standing wave” pattern when they are added together. As can be visualised from Fig.1C, there will be a set of locations, along the length of the wire, which can be referred to as “peak nodes”, where the AC voltage reaches it’s maximum.

At a location halfway between a pair of adjacent “peak nodes”, there will be a spot which can be called a “null node”, a “zero node”, a trough or valley node, or similar terms. At each “null node” location, the AC voltage will appear to be not fluctuating at all. Those are the sites, along the length of the wire, where each “positive” hump (created by a sine wave travelling toward the right) will be counter-balanced and offset by a “negative hump” with exactly the same height, travelling at an identical speed toward the left.

As a result, this type of response within a wire creates a “standing wave”. If the instantaneous voltage is measured at a “null node”, it would appear that nothing is happening, in terms of fluctuating voltage. Furthermore, the “null node” will not be moving, along the length of the wire; instead, it will appear to be standing still.

This can be demonstrated, in a coil, by using a “grounded lead” to test for voltages along the length of a coil. If a “grounded lead” coupled to a volt meter is used to touch the surfaces of a series of strands in a non-insulated coil (such as a coil made of thin copper tubing, wrapped around a plastic cylindrical shape, as used in the types of large transformers used by hobbyists to create “Tesla coils” which will emit large and visually impressive electrical arcs), the “test lead” will detect no apparent voltage at a null node, which will occur at some particular strand in the coil. At a different strand of the coil, the “test lead” will detect an alternating voltage which has twice the strength and intensity of the voltage being emitted by the power supply.

If voltage is measured at a “peak node”, the voltage will be doing something which can be called, using vernacular or laymen's terms, “the full-tilt boogie”. The AC voltage levels will be moving back and forth, between: (i) a very high and intense positive voltage, to (ii) an equally intense negative voltage. This is indicated by the “bubble” shapes shown along the wire in Fig.1C.

The “bubbles” which are shown in Fig.1C can help someone understand how standing waves are created, and how they act in a synchronised manner. However, which drawing fails to show another result which is very important in what actually happens in a standing wave. For purposes of description and analysis at this introductory level, the system can be assumed to be “ideal”, which implies a perfect “mirror-image” reflection of each wave from the right end of the wire. An “ideal” system also implies that no reflections occur at the left hand end of the wire where the power supply is located, and all “reflected” wave activity simply ceases. In real circuits and wires of this type, second and third order reflections do in fact occur, and they are used to further increase the strength and power output of these types of systems; however, those additional factors and “harmonics” should be ignored until after the basic principles of this type of system have been grasped and understood.

In an ideal system, when the reflected waves (which are travelling toward the left, in the wire segments illustrated in Fig.1) are “superimposed” on the emitted waves (travelling toward the right), the “peak” positive voltage which will be instantaneously reached, at the highest point of each “bubble” shown in Fig.1C, will occur when the positive peak of an emitted wave crosses a mirror-image positive peak of a reflected wave, travelling in the opposite direction. Accordingly, when those two “positive peak” values are added to each other, the instantaneous positive peak voltage which will occur, in the wire, will actually be twice as intense as the “positive peak” voltage being emitted by the AC power supply.

An instant later, at that exact point on that segment of wire, a negative peak voltage will be created, which will be the sum of (i) the negative peak voltage emitted by the power supply, and (ii) the negative peak voltage of a reflected wave also will pass through, travelling toward the left. At which instant, when those two negative peak
voltages are added to each other, the instantaneous negative voltage which will occur, in the wire, will be twice as intense as the “negative peak” voltage being generated by the AC power supply.

A more accurate and representative visual depiction of a “standing wave” in a wire would actually show the heights of the peaks as being twice as tall as the peaks of the emitted voltage waves, and the reflected voltage waves. However, which depiction might confuse people, so it usually is not shown in drawings of “standing waves”.

Accordingly, the instantaneous response in the wire, at a location halfway between two “null nodes”, is doing something which can fairly and properly be called “the full-tilt double double boogie”. The “double double” phrase (note which it contains not just one but two “doubles”) was added to that phrase, for two reasons:

(i) To emphasise the fact that each and every voltage peak (maximum positive, and maximum negative) will be twice as strong, and twice as intense, as the maximum positive and negative peak voltages emitted by the power supply; and,

(ii) to point out that the frequency of the superimposed “bubbles”, shown in Fig.1C, is actually twice as fast as the frequency of the AC cycle which is emitted by the power supply, as discussed below.

The “twice the intensity” result is directly comparable to what an observer will see, if a large mirror is placed behind a light bulb in an otherwise dark room. The mirror effectively keeps the room dark, everywhere behind the mirror, so there is no “magical doubling” of the light in the room; which would violate the basic law of conservation of energy. Instead, what the mirror does is to shift light away from the backside of the mirror, and keep that light energy on the reflective side of the mirror. Anyone standing in front of the mirror will see two apparent light bulbs. Both of those light bulbs (the original bulb, and the reflected image) will have the same brightness (if the mirror is perfect). Therefore, the mirror will double the intensity of the light energy reaching the observer.

That same effect, in a circuit, will happen if the end of a wire acts like a mirror. If a wire does not have any components which will cause it to become an active “emission source” (which is the behaviour of transmission antennas and certain other components), in a way which efficiently releases voltage-created energy into the atmosphere, then the basic rules which require conservation of energy will prevent that energy from simply disappearing and ceasing to exist. As a result, even if the end of a wire is not designed to be a perfect reflector, a large portion of the voltage wave will indeed reflect off the wire tip, and travel back through the same wire, in a “second pass”.

To understand adequately, the type and amount of “wave reflection” which occurs at a wire tip, consider what happens if a light bulb is shining in a room which has shiny, glossy white paint on all the walls and ceilings; then, consider how it would look if the same light bulb were located in a room with all of the walls and ceilings painted “matt black”. The total amount of light which would be available, to carry out a task such as reading a newspaper, clearly would be much greater in the white room, because light reflects off white paint, even though white paint does not even begin to approach the type of “reflection quality or clarity” which a mirror creates. The difference in what happens, when light intensity in a room painted matt black is compared to a room painted a glossy white, does not arise from the presence or absence of “reflection quality or clarity”; instead, it is governed by the laws of conservation of energy. When light shines on to a surface which is painted matt black, the light energy is absorbed by the paint, and it literally warms the paint up. In contrast to that, glossy white paint will not absorb light energy, so it reflects the light back out, for a “second pass” through the air which fills a room.

Because of the laws of conservation of energy, and without depending on any “quality of reflectance” characteristic of wire tips, electrical energy cannot simply disappear, when it reaches the end of a wire. Instead, there are only two things which can happen to that energy:

(i) the electrical energy can be emitted into the surroundings, such as by emitting sparks, arcs, or radio-frequency signals which will carry energy; or

(ii) if the energy is not emitted by the tip of the wire, then, by simple necessity and because of the basic law of conservation of energy, it must be reflected back into the wire, and it will be forced to travel back through the wire again.

If a wire has a long and tapered tip, then the reflected wave might become somewhat diffused, and it might lose some portion of the “clarity” of the wave. However, since wavelengths in the frequencies of interest here are hundreds of meters long, the type of tip created by a conventional wire cutter will not create any significant diffusion, in a reflected wave. And, unlike the white-painted walls of a room, there is not a large area which is available, at the tip of a wire, which can create scatter, spread, or diffusion. As a result, the tip of a wire will be a relatively efficient mirror-type reflector, when an AC voltage is “pumped” into one end of the wire.

3 - 113
The second factor mentioned above, when the “double-double” boogie phrase was mentioned, relates to a doubling of the frequency of a standing wave. When a standing wave is created in a wire by reflection of an emitted AC voltage wave, the frequency of the standing wave is, quite literally, double the frequency of the emitted wave.

This can be seen, visually, by noting that in the emitted AC voltage, shown in Fig.1A, a single complete wavelength contains both a “positive hump” and a “negative hump”. Accordingly, three complete sine waves, divided into three segments by the imaginary vertical lines, are shown in Fig.1A.

By contrast, each and every “bubble” shown in Fig.1C depicts a complete and total “wavelength”, in a standing wave. Six of those standing wave “bubbles” fit into exactly the same length of wire which holds only 3 emitted wavelengths from the power supply.

The “frequency doubling” effect of standing waves is important, because AC systems can convey and release energy in a manner which increases, as the frequency of the AC voltage supply increases. To some extent, this is analogous to saying that, if a motor can be run at twice the speed (while still generating the same torque), then the work output of that motor can be twice as great, at the higher speed. That analogy is not entirely accurate, since work output from an electric device which uses AC power depends on “area of the curve” functions which occur when sine waves are involved. Nevertheless, as a general principle, if the frequency of the voltage peaks increases, then power output will also increase, in many types of electric circuit components.

In the three panels of Fig.1, the wire length is three times as long as the wavelength of the voltage from the power supply. However, to create standing waves, a wire length does not need to be any particular multiple of the wavelength of an AC voltage. As can be seen by considering Fig.1C, the same types of “bubbles” would be created: (i) if the wire length were exactly twice as long as the wavelength; or, (ii) if the wire length were the same length as the wavelength.

Accordingly, Fig.2 (which includes Fig.2A showing an emitted wave, Fig.2B showing a reflected wave, and Fig.2C showing the superimposed “bubbles”) shows what happens in a wire segment which has a length which is equal to a single wavelength from an AC voltage at a fixed frequency. A resonant standing wave will be formed, with a frequency which is double the frequency of the input AC voltage. which same result will apply, in a wire having any length which is an exact (integer) multiple (such as 1x, 2x, 3x, etc.) of the wavelength of the AC voltage being pushed (or forced, driven, pumped, etc.) into the wire segment.
Moving to still shorter wires, the same principle also applies to any wire with a length equal to one half of an AC voltage wavelength. As shown in Fig. 3 (which includes Fig. 3A showing an emitted wave, Fig. 3B showing a reflected wave, and Fig. 3C showing the superimposed “bubbles”), if the wire length is one half of the wavelength, a natural and resonant standing wave will still form, with a frequency which is double the frequency of the input AC voltage.

Finally, moving to a still shorter wire, the same principle also applies to any wire which has a length equal to one quarter of an AC voltage wavelength, as shown in Fig. 4A, Fig. 4B, and Fig. 4C. Even though it does not stretch across or cover a complete “bubble”, the standing wave shown in Fig. 4C is nevertheless a stable, natural, and resonant “standing wave”, with a frequency which is exactly twice the frequency of the input AC voltage.

It is possible to create partially stable and semi-resonant responses, using one eighth, one sixteenth, or shorter lengths of wire, by using additional devices which can remove electrical power from the system, or which can generate effects which are usually called “harmonics”. However, those are not the types of natural and stable responses which can be created by a simple, basic system consisting of nothing more than: (i) a wire having a fixed length and a “reflective” tip; and (ii) an AC power source with a frequency which can be “tuned” until it creates a resonant response in any wire segment having a suitable length.

Therefore, since quarter-wave wire lengths are the shortest lengths which can create natural and stable standing waves, the conventional term which is commonly used, to describe what happens when a wire creates a resonant standing-wave response, is a “quarter-wave” response.

In some devices, telescoping components (or other elements which can alter the effective length of a wire-type element) can be used to alter the ability of the element to respond to a fixed wavelength. Many types of antennas use this approach, if they need to process signals which are being transmitted on fixed and known frequencies. However, those examples are not relevant to spiral coil reactors, which will use an approach which involves
tuning and adjusting the frequency of the voltage which is being supplied to a reactor, until a resonant response is observed in coils with fixed and unchanging lengths.

It should also be noted that certain types of “tuning” elements (such as capacitors, which can have either fixed or adjustable capacitance levels) can also be coupled electrically to a wire, in a manner which “emulates” adding more length to that wire. This approach can be used to alter (or increase the range of) the frequencies to which a wire circuit will respond resonantly.

So, if we have resonant standing-wave voltages in our L2 coil and some of that signal passes through the wire connecting one end of the coil to the earth, then what will happen? The best way to check it is to test the way which a prototype behaves, however, if I may express an opinion, I would suggest that the signal passing down the earth wire will be absorbed when it reaches the earth and that will prevent the signal being reflected back to the L2 coil to upset its operation.

The third of Don’s designs which we can consider is particularly attractive because almost no home-construction is needed, all of the components being available commercially, and the output power being adaptable to any level which you want. Don particularly likes this circuit because it demonstrates COP>1 so neatly and he remarks that the central transmitter Tesla Coil on its own is sufficient to power a household.

The coil in the centre of the board is a power transmitter made from a Tesla Coil constructed from two Barker & Williamson ready-made coils. Three more of the inner coil are also used as power receivers. The outer, larger diameter coil is a few turns taken from one of their standard coils and organised so that the coil wire length is one quarter of the coil wire length of the inner coil ("L2").

As before, a commercial neon-tube driver module is used to power the "L1" outer coil with high voltage and high frequency. It should be understood that as power is drawn from the local environment each time the power driving the transmitter coil "L1" cycles, that the power available is very much higher at higher frequencies. The power at mains frequency of less than 100 Hz is far, far less than the power available at 35,000 Hz, so if faced with the choice of buying a 25 kHz neon-tube driver module or a 35 kHz module, then the 35 kHz module is likely to give a much better output power at every voltage level.
The "L1" short outer coil is held in a raised position by the section of white plastic pipe in order to position it correctly relative to the smaller diameter "L2" secondary coil.

The secondary coils are constructed using Barker & Williamson's normal method of using slotted strips to hold the tinned, solid copper wire turns in place.
As there are very slight differences in the manufactured coils, each one is tuned to the exact transmitter frequency and a miniature neon is used to show when the tuning has been set correctly.

The key feature of this device is the fact that any number of receiver coils can be placed near the transmitter and each will receive a full electrical pick up from the local environment, without altering the power needed to drive the Tesla Coil transmitter - more and more output without increasing the input power - unlimited COP values, all of which are over 1. The extra power is flowing in from the local environment where there is almost unlimited amounts of excess energy and that inflow is caused by the rapidly vibrating magnetic field generated by the central Tesla Coil. While the additional coils appear to just be scattered around the base board, this is not the case. The YouTube video http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TiNEHZRm4z4&feature=related demonstrates that the pick-up of these coils is affected to a major degree by the distance from the radiating magnetic field. This is to do with the wavelength of the signal driving the Tesla Coil, so the coils shown above are all positioned at exactly the same distance from the Tesla Coil. You still can have as many pick-up coils as you want, but they will be mounted in rings around the Tesla Coil and the coils in each ring will be at the same distance from the Tesla Coil in the centre.

Each of the pick up coils act exactly the same as the "L2" secondary coil of the Tesla Coil transmitter, each picking up the same level of power. Just as with the actual "L2" coil, each will need an output circuit arrangement as described for the previous device. Presumably, the coil outputs could be connected in parallel to increase the output amperage, as they are all resonating at the same frequency and in phase with each other. Each will have its own separate output circuit with a step-down isolation transformer and frequency adjustment as before. If any output is to be a rectified DC output, then no frequency adjustment is needed, just rectifier diodes and a smoothing capacitor following the step-down transformer which will need to be an air core or ferrite core type due to the high frequency. High voltage capacitors are very expensive. The http://www.richieburnett.co.uk/parts.html web site shows various ways of making your own high-voltage capacitors and the advantages and disadvantages of each type.

There are two practical points which need to be mentioned. Firstly, as the Don Smith devices shown above feed radio frequency waveforms to coils which transmit those signals, it may be necessary to enclose the device in an earthed metal container in order not to transmit illegal radio signals. Secondly, as it can be difficult to obtain high-voltage high-current diodes, they can be constructed from several lower power diodes. To increase the voltage rating, diodes can be wired in a chain. Suitable diodes are available as repair items for microwave ovens. These typically have about 4,000 volt ratings and can carry a good level of current. As there will be minor manufacturing differences in the diodes, it is good practice to connect a high value resistor (in the 1 to 10 mehohm range) across each diode as that ensures that there is a roughly equal voltage drop across each of the diodes:
If the diode rating of these diodes were 4 amps at 4,000 volts, then the chain of five could handle 4 amps at 20,000 volts. The current capacity can be increased by connecting two or more chains in parallel. Most constructors omit the resistors and find that they seem to get satisfactory performance.

The impedance of a coil depends on its size, shape, method of winding, number of turns and core material. It also depends on the frequency of the AC voltage being applied to it. If the core is made up of iron or steel, usually thin layers of iron which are insulated from each other, then it can only handle low frequencies. You can forget about trying to pass 10,000 cycles per second (“Hz”) through the coil as the core just can’t change its magnetic poles fast enough to cope with that frequency. A core of that type is ok for the very low 50 Hz or 60 Hz frequencies used for mains power, which are kept that low so that electric motors can use it.

For higher frequencies, ferrite can be used for a core and that is why some portable radios use ferrite-rod aerials, which are a bar of ferrite with a coil wound on it. For higher frequencies (or higher efficiencies) iron dust encapsulated in epoxy resin is used. An alternative is to not use any core material and that is usually referred to as an “air-core” coil. These are not limited in frequency by the core but they have a very much lower inductance for any given number of turns. The efficiency of the coil is called it’s “Q” (for “Quality”) and the higher the Q factor, the better. The resistance of the wire lowers the Q factor.

A coil has inductance, and resistance caused by the wire, and capacitance caused by the turns being near each other. However, having said that, the inductance is normally so much bigger than the other two components that we tend to ignore the other two. Something which may not be immediately obvious is that the impedance to AC current flow through the coil depends on how fast the voltage is changing. If the AC voltage applied to a coil completes one cycle every ten seconds, then the impedance will be much lower than if the voltage cycles a million times per second.

If you had to guess, you would think that the impedance would increase steadily as the AC frequency increased. In other words, a straight-line graph type of change. That is not the case. Due to a feature called resonance, there is one particular frequency at which the impedance of the coil increases massively. This is used in the tuning method for AM radio receivers. In the very early days when electronic components were hard to come by, variable coils were sometimes used for tuning. We still have variable coils today, generally for handling large currents rather than radio signals, and we call them “rheostats” and some look like this:

These have a coil of wire wound around a hollow former and a slider can be pushed along a bar, connecting the slider to different winds in the coil depending on its position along the supporting bar. The terminal connections are then made to the slider and to one end of the coil. The position of the slider effectively changes the number of turns of wire in the part of the coil which is being used in the circuit. Changing the number of turns in the coil, changes the resonant frequency of that coil. AC current finds it very, very hard to get through a coil which has the same resonant frequency as the AC current frequency. Because of this, it can be used as a radio signal tuner:
If the coil’s resonant frequency is changed to match that of a local radio station by sliding the contact along the coil, then that particular AC signal frequency from the radio transmitter finds it almost impossible to get through the coil and so it (and only it) diverts through the diode and headphones as it flows from the aerial wire to the earth wire and the radio station is heard in the headphones. If there are other radio signals coming down the aerial wire, then, because they are not at the resonant frequency of the coil, they flow freely through the coil and don’t go through the headphones.

This system was soon changed when variable capacitors became available as they are cheaper to make and they are more compact. So, instead of using a variable coil for tuning the radio signal, a variable capacitor connected across the tuning coil did the same job:

While the circuit diagram above is marked “Tuning capacitor” that is actually quite misleading. Yes, you tune the radio receiver by adjusting the setting of the variable capacitor, but, what the capacitor is doing is altering the resonant frequency of the coil/capacitor combination and it is the resonant frequency of that combination which is doing exactly the same job as the variable coil did on its own.

This draws attention to two very important facts concerning coil/capacitor combinations. When a capacitor is placed across a coil “in parallel” as shown in this radio receiver circuit, then the combination has a very high impedance (resistance to AC current flow) at the resonant frequency. But if the capacitor is placed “in series” with the coil, then there is nearly zero impedance at the resonant frequency of the combination:

This may seem like something which practical people would not bother with, after all, who really cares? However, it is a very practical point indeed. Remember that Don Smith often uses an early version, off-the-shelf neon-tube driver module as an easy way to provide a high-voltage, high-frequency AC current source, typically, 6,000 volts at 30,000 Hz. He then feeds that power into a Tesla Coil which is itself, a power amplifier. The arrangement is like this:
People who try to replicate Don’s designs tend to say “I get great sparks at the spark gap until I connect the L1 coil and then the sparks stop. This circuit can never work because the resistance of the coil is too low”.

If the resonant frequency of the L1 coil does not match the frequency being produced by the neon-tube driver circuit, then the low impedance of the L1 coil at that frequency, will definitely pull the voltage of the neon-tube driver down to a very low value. But if the L1 coil has the same resonant frequency as the driver circuit, then the L1 coil (or the L1 coil/capacitor combination shown on the right, will have a very high resistance to current flow through it and it will work well with the driver circuit. So, no sparks, means that the coil tuning is off. It is the same as tuning a radio receiver, get the tuning wrong and you don’t hear the radio station.

This is very nicely demonstrated using simple torch bulbs and two coils in the YouTube video showing good output for almost no input power: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kQdcwDChBoNY and while only one resonant pick-up coil is shown, there is the possibility of using many resonant pick-up coils with just the one transmitter.

With a coil (fancy name “inductor” and symbol “L”), AC operation is very different to DC operation. The coil has a DC resistance which can be measured with the ohms range of a multimeter, but that resistance does not apply when AC is being used as the AC current flow is not determined by the DC resistance of the coil. Because of this, a second term has to be used for the current-controlling factor of the coil, and the term chosen is “impedance” which is the feature of the coil which “impedes” AC current flow through the coil.

The impedance of a coil depends on it’s size, shape, method of winding, number of turns and core material. It also depends on the frequency of the AC voltage being applied to it. If the core is made up of iron or steel, usually thin layers of iron which are insulated from each other, then it can only handle low frequencies. You can forget about trying to pass 10,000 cycles per second (“Hz”) through the coil as the core just can’t change it’s magnetic poles fast enough to cope with that frequency. A core of that type is ok for the very low 50 Hz or 60 Hz frequencies used for mains power, which are kept that low so that electric motors can use it.

For higher frequencies, ferrite can be used for a core and that is why some portable radios use ferrite-rod aerials, which are a bar of ferrite with a coil wound on it. For higher frequencies (or higher efficiencies) iron dust encapsulated in epoxy resin is used. An alternative is to not use any core material and that is usually referred to as an “air-core” coil. These are not limited in frequency by the core but they have a very much lower inductance for any given number of turns. The efficiency of the coil is called it’s “Q” (for “Quality”) and the higher the Q factor, the better. The resistance of the wire lowers the Q factor.

Here is a copy of Don Smith’s pdf:
RESONANCE ENERGY METHODS

Donald L. Smith
TransWorld Energy, CEO
September 23, 2002

Fax/Phone 281-370-4547 and e-mail donsm1@earthlink.net
DIPOLE TRANSFORMER GENERATOR
DESCRIPTION

TECHNICAL FIELD:
The Invention relates to loaded Dipole Antenna Systems and their Electromagnetic radiation. When used as a transformer with an appropriate energy collector system it becomes a transformer generator. The invention collects and converts energy which, with conventional devices, is radiated and wasted.

BACKGROUND ART:
An International search of Patent Databases for closely related methods did not reveal any prior Art with an Interest in conserving radiated and wasted magnetic waves as useful energy.

DISCLOSURE OF INVENTION:
The Invention is a new and useful departure from transformer generator construction, such that radiated and wasted magnetic energy changes into useful electrical energy. Gauss Meters show that much energy from conventional electromagnetic devices is radiated back into the ambient background and wasted. In the case of conventional transformer generators, a radical change in the physical construction, allows better access to the energy available. It is found that creating a dipole and
Inserting capacitor plates at right angle to the current flow, allows magnetic waves to change back to useful electrical (coulombs) energy. Magnetic waves passing through the capacitor plates do not degrade and the full impact of the available energy is accessed. One, or many sets of capacitor plates, may be used as desired. Each set of plates makes an exact copy of the full force and effect of the energy present in the magnetic waves. The originating source is not depleted or degraded as is common in conventional transformers.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS:**
The Dipole at right angle allows the magnetic flux surrounding it to intercept the capacitor plate, or plates, at right angles. The electrons present are spun in such a way that the electrical component of the electrons is collected by the capacitor plates. Essential parts are the South and North component of an active Dipole. Examples presented here, exist as fully functional prototypes, and were engineer constructed and fully tested for utility by the Inventor. Corresponding parts are utilized in each of the three examples as shown in the Drawings.

**DRAWING 1 OF 4: VIEW OF THE METHOD**
N = North and S = South of the Dipole

1. North and South component of the Dipole.
2. Resonate High Voltage induction coil.
3. Dipole's electromagnetic wave emission.
4. Heaviside current component.
5. Dielectric separator for the capacitor plates.
6. For purposes of the drawing, a virtual limit of the electromagnetic wave energy.
7. Capacitor plates with dielectric in between.
Fig. 2-A:
1. Hole for mounting Dipole B-1.
2. Resonate high voltage induction coil.
3. Dielectric separator, a thin sheet of plastic separating the capacitor plate.
4. Capacitor plates, upper plate is aluminium and lower plate is copper.
5. Battery system, deep cycle.
6. Inverter. Input: Direct Current, output 120 Volts at 60 cycles per second.
7. Connector wires.
8. Output to point of use being the load.

Fig. 2-B  N = North and S = South component of the Dipole
1. Metal rod, being soft magnetic metal such as iron.
2. Resonate high voltage induction coil.
3. Connector wires.
4. High Voltage input energy source such as a neon tube transformer.

DRAWING 3 OF 4: Proof of Principle Device, using a Plasma Tube as an active Dipole.
N = North and S = South Components of the active Dipole.
5. Dielectric separator of the capacitor plates.
7. Upper capacitor plate: upper plate is aluminium and lower plate is copper.
10. Connector wires.
15. Plasma Tube, 4 feet long and 6 inches in diameter.
17. Connector block: outlet for testing and use.

**DRAWING 4 OF 4: Manufactures Prototype, Constructed and fully tested.**

1. Metal Dipole rod.
2. Resonate High Voltage induction coil.
10. Connector wires.
17. Connector block for Input from high voltage energy source.
20. Packet of Capacitor Plates.
21. Output connectors of the capacitor, producing energy into a deep cycle battery which then powers the inverter.

BEST METHOD OF CARRYING OUT THE INVENTION:
The Invention is applicable to any and all electrical energy requirements. The small size and high efficiency makes it an attractive option. It is particularly attractive for remote areas, homes, office buildings, factories, shopping centres, public places, transportation, water systems, electric trains, boats, ships and all things small or great. Construction materials are readily available and the skill level required is moderate.

CLAIMS:
1. Radiated magnetic flux from the Dipole, when intercepted by capacitor plates at right angles, changes to useful electrical energy.
2. A Device and method for converting for use, normally wasted electromagnetic energy.
3. The Dipole of the Invention is any resonating substance such as Metal Rods, Coils and Plasma Tubes which have interacting Positive and Negative Components.
4. The Resulting Heaviside current component is changed to useful electrical energy.

ABSTRACT
An Electromagnetic Dipole Device and Method, wherein, radiated and wasted energy is transformed into useful energy. A Dipole as seen in Antenna Systems is adapted for use with capacitor plates such that the Heaviside Current Component becomes a useful source of electrical energy.

TransWorld Energy
227 W. Airtex Blvd.
Houston, Tx. 77090

September 23, 2002

Phone: (281)876-9200 Web-site: altenergy-pro.com
Fax: (281)876-9216 E-mail: donsm1@earthlink.net

Dear Reader:

TransWorld Energy is dedicated to improving the Human Condition in the Field of Energy which, at the same time, makes possible Healthy Water and increases the food Supply. A never-ending source of energy found throughout the universe is easily accessed with the minimum of effort and cost. The technology for doing this has been around since the 1820s. Selfish special interests have made sure that the technology remains discredited. People who control the Energy Sources control the World.

Extensive research and development by TransWorld and Associates has been progressing for more than 15 years. Numerous successful Energy Producing Devices have been produced and demonstrated throughout the World. Some of these can be viewed by the Web Site located using any major search engine (such as Lycos, Yahoo, Altavista, NorthenLight and more than 2,000 others throughout the World).

The Book which You are viewing has more than 40,000 copies in circulation. It has been translated and distributed in all major languages including Japanese, Arabic, Portuguese, French, Italian, Russian, Chinese, German, Spanish and many more. There are seven editions in circulation. An enormous interest is evident in the subject matter. An average of about fifty e-mails per day are received from the
ends of the Earth (that is about 1,500 per month).

Once the Web Site and the book are viewed, it will become evident that abundant, self-sustainable energy is available everywhere for the taking. This is natural energy which does not harm the environment or those using it. The proper Device for Collecting is all that's required.

The Good News is that the problem is solved and with assistance, an ultimate source of energy which is environmentally benign, abundant throughout the universe and inexpensive to capture, is there for the taking.

Thank You for your consideration

_________________________________________
Donald L. Smith, CEO

**Electrical Energy Generating System**

**Description and Function:**
The Generation of Electrical Power requires the presence of electrons with various methods of stimulation, yielding magnetic and electrical impulses, collectively resulting in Electrical Energy (Power). In place of the mechanical - coils and magnet system, present in conventional electrical power generation, visible moving parts are replaced by resonate magnetic induction, using radio frequency. Transfer of energy by resonate induction is related to the ratio of the square of the cycles per second.

The Energy System, presented here, operates at millions of cycles per second verses the conventional 60 C.P.S. This tells us that it has a frequency advantage over conventional methods. This same advantage applies to the amount of electrical energy output. Therefore the Device is small in size and produces large amounts of Electrical Energy. The Electrons acquired, are from the surrounding Air and Earth Groundings, being the same source as in conventional methods. This is accomplished by magnetic resonate radio induction.

**Applications:**
This Electrical System adapts nicely to all Energy Requirements. It is a direct replacement for all existing Energy Systems. This includes such things as Manufacturing, Agricultural, Home Usage, Office Complexes, Shopping Centers, Rail Transportation, Automobiles, Electrical Power Grids, Municipalities, Subdivisions, and Remote Areas. Briefly, the only limiting factor is the imagination.

**Economic Possibilities:**
No Historical Reference Point exists for a comparison of the Possibilities of this System. One can see from the impacted applications listed above, that the magnitude exceeds any known invention, presently
a part of the Human Experience.

**Present and Future Plans:**
The Energy System has been in the developmental stage during the past seven years. It is Patent Pending # 08/100,074 with the Patent Office. No prior art exists according to the Patent Office's response. The System is presently being introduced into the World Market.

Useful energy occurs as the result of imbalances in the ambient background energy, which is a transient phenomena. In the electrical field, it is a closed system subject to heat death, which severely limits its utility. The flip side of the electron, produces magnetic waves which are an open system, not subject to heat death. These waves, being unrestricted, are the universal source of energy when unlimited resonate duplicates from this one source are available. Therefore, the key to unlimited energy, is Magnetic Resonance. In order to understand this, requires putting a stake through the Heart of Antique Physics. Non-linear and Open Systems are universally available in Magnetic Resonance Systems, Explosions of any sort [including Atomic Explosions] and Combustibles of any type. Mechanical equivalents would be levers, pulleys and hydraulics. A highly obvious example is the Piano where the Key impacts the one note giving one sound level, which resonates with its two side keys providing a much higher sound level. Magnetic Resonance Energy clearly amplifies itself, demonstrating more energy out, than in.

Ohmic resistance does not apply to Magnetic Resonance which travels unrestricted for great distances, therefore multitudes of electrons are disturbed, and their back-spin translates magnetic into usable electric energy. The right angle component which the magnetic flux provides, translates into useful electrical energy. Taken at right angles, the Magnetic Dipole provides an unlimited source of electrical energy. The writer is recognized world-wide for his knowledge and experience. See his Web Site at altenergy-pro.com.

Gravity is a function of spin phenomenon as observed in gravity separation of liquids. When spun, milk and cream separate. Therefore, relative specific gravity is function of mass versus spin. Magnetics and gravity are both spin related. In part, a top levitates when spun. Therefore, spinning magnetic fields are a functional motor source as in flying saucers.

**ABSTRACT: Technology of New Energy:**

Developments in the understanding of Electricity, along with Materials which were not previously available, allows the construction of Devices which collect energy in large quantities, from the Earth's Ambient Electrical Background. This Energy is naturally occurring, environmentally benign and is available everywhere. It is available wherever and whenever it is required. New Devices use Resonate Magnetic Waves which replicate upon spinning the locally present electrons, providing multiple duplicate copies of the Energy Present. Each electron when spun yields both magnetic and electric waves in equal proportion. The electrical component is a closed system limited by Ohms Law. The magnetic component is an open system not limited and it replicates multiple copies of the energy present.

Special materials and recent developments allow the magnetic energy to reproduce, through resonance, unlimited duplicate copies acquired from the ambient background. These Devices harvest the energy that has been, and is always present universally. Conventional methods consist of coils and magnets systems. Upon moving past each other, the magnetic flux field disturbs electrons which yield electricity, which is collected by the coils system. This is accomplished electronically with the new technology, without any moving parts and the energy is multiplied such that the Device becomes self-sustaining once
it is started. This Technology, already presented Worldwide, will be shown at the Conference.

Dr. Smith  
[www.altenergy-pro.com](http://www.altenergy-pro.com)  
e-mail donsml@earthlink.net

"Putting a stake through the Heart" and thus removing the mental block created by antique physics is required. Conditions wherein this becomes necessary are non-linearity, resonance and explosions of any sort. Combustibles of any sort such gasoline and atomic explosions are good examples wherein more energy out than in, is obvious. You can add to that the non-linearity found in pulleys, hydraulics, steam power and suchlike. Magnetic resonance is a highly obvious source for multiplying energy output. The sound system present in the piano, demonstrates this very clearly. Energy amplification clearly present in the above, demonstrates the silliness attested to by many Physicists.

Ohmic resistance does not apply to magnetic resonance which travels unrestricted for great distances, therefore multitudes of electrons are disturbed, and their back-spin converts from magnetic energy to usable electric energy. These same electrons have been around from the beginning of time and they are undiminished and will remain so until the end of time.

**ELECTRICAL ENERGY SYSTEMS PREFACE**

Useful Electrical Energy is obtained directly from electron spin induced by incoming magnetic waves, or indirectly through mechanical exchange as in dynamo type devices. Simply put, electron spin converts from magnetic to electrical energy and vice versa. Nature provides grand scale magnetic wave induction throughout the universe, for free. In Electrical Systems, movement is at right angles to the direction of current movement. This explains the rotary movement of the Earth and other related Systems. The rate of Spin for the Earth is known as well as the mass \((5.98 \times 10^{24} \text{ Kg})\) - "Physics for Scientist and Engineers", by Raymond A. Serway, Saunders College Publishing, 2nd Ed. page 288, Table 14.2), therefore the amount of incoming Electrical Energy which produces this action can be calculated.

It can be seen quite easily, that the incoming magnetic wave energy is Vast and Continuous. As an accretion mass, the Earth is an Energy Sink, getting it's energy from elsewhere, being Cosmic, Galactic and Solar. Conversion of incoming magnetic waves into electrical energy provides an unending, inexpensive and environmentally friendly source available to all. Cosmic and Galactic Energy is available twenty four hours per day. Large amounts of this Energy accumulates in the Earth's radiation belts. This Giant Energy Storage, when properly understood, provides a major source of free unending electrical energy. Each of My Inventions plugs into this vast energy source.

A perverse, Intentional Ignorance on the part of the Establishment, prevents recognition of the importance of the Energy Systems shown here. Any new system which is favourable towards the masses, is considered as disruptive, and therefore not allowed. Those who have the (Gold) Energy Rule (Golden rule ) Mandated Destruction of all Humanity is not a consideration.

This Presenter will remove some of the Fog placed with the intention of preventing the recognition of this unending, environmentally clean, electrical energy Source, which is present everywhere throughout
the Universe. The Cost of Harvesting and Using this Free Energy is a function of Human Stupidity.

**RESONANCE CIRCUITS DEMO**

Used to demonstrate electromagnetic radiation between two UC circuits - one a transmitter and the other a receiver. When the 1.5 volt power transmitter is pulsed, the radiated signal is picked up by the remote receiver circuit which then lights up a 70 volt neon lamp.

With this apparatus, the student quickly understands some basic principles governing wireless communication, broadcasting, etc.

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Diagram of transmitter and receiver coils
ULTIMATE ENERGY SOURCES

A human is a speck of dust on Earth, the Solar System is a speck of dust in the Galaxy and in turn, the Galaxy is a speck of dust in the Universe (Cosmos). All of these respectively represent vast ambient energy reservoirs. Awareness of the Sun, opens doors into other energy sources. Electromagnetic Energy which is present everywhere throughout the Universe, is accessed by catalytic activity, directly as in Solar Cells or indirectly as by mechanical means. Resonate, Magnetic Waves (Faraday's "Action at a Distance") allow Energy Activation Transfer to remote points of usage. The method of capture and use of this Energy is optional, and therefore it's cost is a function of Human Stupidity (Free-Energy).

Direct access is more desirable, and technology transfer from Solar Cell-type Devices provides the Catalyst. Enormously high Ambient Energy Levels are not detected by instruments that use the Ambient Background as a Reference Plane. A spoonful of water lifted from the Ocean does not define the Ocean. Incoming magnetic waves are reflected, Deflected or absorbed. Deflected Magnetic Waves spin electrons sideways producing useful Electrical Energy. Absorbed Wave Energy produces heat, therefore a hot interior for the Earth. In Electrical Systems physical movement is in the direction of current flow, frictional drag from inflow current defines gravity. Accretion masses resulting from Energy Sinks, provide all solid entities with their respective gravitational effect.

Increasing the tolerance level for Intellectual Awakening opens Doors of Reality. These doors blink into, and out of existence, and upon recognition, benefit Mankind. Opening some of these Doors, which at the present time are seen through a deep fog, is our purpose. Exploring Unrecognized Energy Sources, which are a Part of the Ambient Background, is another goal. Our Available Instruments do not use reference planes which allow recognition of this energy, as we shall see, vast Energy Sources that totally surround us are available through Technology Transfer. They are inexpensive (Free), fully self-renewable and environmentally benign.

Incoming Magnetic Wave Energy with Faraday's "action at a distance" will be looked at closely. Particle Physics will be left for the Astrophysics. Excited Electrons at point "A" the Sun (including the Galaxy and Cosmos) do not travel to point "B" the Earth, however a corresponding action occurs at point "B". The Electrons being disturbed at the Central Power Plant, in the same manner excite the Electrons at Your House, upon switching into an Earth grounding (known as "flipping the switch"). Correspondingly, there are Four Major Power Sources providing enormous amounts of Ambient Background Magnetic Wave Energy. They are The Cosmic, Galactic, Solar and Earth's Ambient Electromagnetic Backgrounds. The Earth's Electromagnetic Field comes from reflection, deflection and absorption as a result of action at a distance from the above.

Prescription Physics mandates that the Earth's background is of little interest. When we have Considered the evidence herein, it will become obvious that Special Interest's effort at keeping the People ignorant has, until now, largely succeeded.

Information for the entire World is available regarding the Magnetic Flux Background of the Earth's Surface (United State's Geological Survey, Colorado, USA, Office). When examined and properly understood, these Maps yield important information regarding reflection, deflection and absorption of incoming Magnetic Waves, plus action at a distance. When properly understood, these Maps reveal a very large Ambient Electromagnetic Energy Source. This is the Part of the Earth's Energy System that relates to the Bird on the High Voltage Line. When deflected, magnetic flux from electrons changes to electrical flux, providing the Motor System that spins or rotates the Earth. Physical movement by electrical systems is from inflow current movement. What level of current movement is required to spin the Earth? The Earth's Mass is \(5.98 \times 10^{24}\). From this Information, the Watts of Electricity Required may be calculated! Absorbed microwave flux energy heats from the inside out, therefore a hot interior
of the Earth results. Water is strongly diamagnetic, and on windless days, ocean waves provide visible
proof of the overhead incoming magnetic flux. From the information above, the Earth's weight and rate
of spin allows the calculation of the amount of incoming ambient background energy required. As you
can see, it is not inconsequential as prescription physics mandates.

Astrophysicists are concerned with charged particles that whiz by, once every one hundred years, rather
than wave phenomenon associated with action at a distance. This highly active wave energy translates
into electrical energy at point "B". The Galaxy is alive with energy which is billions of times greater
than that of the Sun. Visible light is a very tiny part of the electromagnetic energy spectrum. Frequencies present in the Galaxy and Cosmos allow radio telescope photographs of their existence
and magnitude. One such 408 MHz photograph of the electromagnetic energy spectrum shows that the
Earth is a tiny speck of dust in this enormous ocean of energy, and can be seen near the left end of the
Central High Energy Area.

This energy extends in all directions. Accretion and formation of planets, Sun and Galaxies are results
of energy sinks and variable sized black holes. Mass retains heat, and is cooked from the inside out by
the microwave background energy provided by the Universe. Flux movement into energy sinks, provides
the frictional force known as gravity. Spinning mass in the presence of incoming flux amplifies
the gravitational effect.

At present, only Solar energy is recognized. It is inconsistent, flaky and a very small part of the
magnetic wave energy present. Technology transfer from solar power provides uncomplicated and
inexpensive, direct access to the other greater energy sources. All electromagnetic energy harvesting
methods include a catalyst, a collector and a pump. Catalysts include sensitization through doping with
certain elements, air and earth groundings. Collectors include temporary storage as in capacitors, coils
and transformers. The pump system includes induced movement onward to the point of use. Conventional rotating coils and magnet systems activate electrons present, such that action at a distance
can occur, therefore it is an energy activation pump. In direct access systems such as solar cells, the
same occurs without mechanical action. Direct access occurs when magnetic waves impact a catalyst,
spinning the local electrons sideways, producing useful electrical energy.

Indirect acquisition of electrical energy by mechanical means is wasteful, troublesome, expensive and
degrades the environment. The dynamo is a combination collector and pump of energy which is
collected from the Earth's ambient energy background. Generators do not make electricity, they
collect it from the ambient background and forward it, as in Faraday's "action at a distance". Energy
conservation laws relating to these systems, relate to grey areas, and when understood, are excluded
because of the existence of external forces, open and non-linear systems as per Einstein. The
knowledge base just viewed, provides a direct understanding of the requirements for harvesting of
unending, fully renewable, environmentally benign sources of electrical energy.

**Magnetic Resonance Power System**

**Suggestions for Construction**

This is the basic sonar power system which permits submarines to see approximately 50 miles distance.
What is not commonly known is that it works better at higher frequencies in the gigahertz range. Any
device that can radiate 50 miles plus, is producing an enormous electromagnetic disturbance from a
small input into a rod of magnetostrictive material. Disturbing the Earth's ambient background plus the
strong dipole being produced, turns the magnetostrictive rod into a combination of a receiving antenna
and a vastly superior output transformer.
The Drawing is only the Key Unit. A power input module and an output inverter circuit (diode bridge plus output transformer) are also required. The metal core and the wire size of the output transformer, plus adjusting the Earth Grounding of the Load, will determine the Amperage.

The Ideal rod material is Terfenol-D (check the internet). However a 1.5" diameter 10" long rod, costs over $5,000 each. Less expensive alternatives are obvious. When constructing, use PVC tubing with removable caps. Wind the coils on it and insert the experimental rod. Use only magnetostrictive material. When you get it right, you will have exactly what the Doctor ordered:

![Diagram of Magnetic Resonance Power System for Water Systems](image)

Magnetostriction oscillators work by magnetic resonance in a rod of magnetostriction material. This rod serves two purposes: It vibrates at the frequency of resonance oscillation, and it becomes the feedback transformer. Frequency is determined by items 4, 5, 6 and 8. The diameter, length and volume of the rod and output windings, determines the output. Item 2 provides feedback into the system. The negative magnetic character of item 8 plus the windings 2, in reaction to the magnetic flux field provided by 9, increases (amplifies or magnifies) the output. Magnetic permeability is the counterpart of negative resistance. Resonating with negative magnetic resistance, it pumps energy from the Earth's ambient background. Magnetic permeability is the ratio of flux density (Earth's B field) to the magnetizing force (H) in oersteds.

Magnetostrictive materials are piezoelectric in character, and have a very high resistance to electrical current flow. Examples are:
1. Permealloy Negative Magnetic Permeability > 80,000
2. Sendust Negative Magnetic Permeability 30,000 -120,000
3. Metglas Negative Magnetic Permeability > 200,000
4. Iron with (34%) Cobalt Magnetic Permeability 13,000
5. New Technology Magnetic Permeability > 1,000,000

**ELECTRICAL ENERGY SYSTEMS METHODS**

1. **DIRECT** - Faraday's "Action at a Distance" incoming magnetic wave conversion to useful electrical energy. This includes Cosmic, Galactic, Solar and Magnets. Technology Transfer is from Solar Cell Technology.

Primitive, Indirect Conversion from another form of energy. Coils and Magnet as in Dynamo Systems (Closed Systems). Chemical Systems, Atomic, Pons & Fleischman and etc.

Advanced, Direct Conversion, Magnetic Wave (Open Systems).

Ambient Sources
- Air Core Coil Systems
- Gaseous Tube Systems,
- Solid State Marx Generator Avalanche Type Systems.
- Leyden Bottle Capacitor Types inserted in Lakes and other.
- Magnet Systems
- Electron Beam Antenna Systems

3. TRANSFER MECHANISMS

Solids - as in metal conductors

Gaseous as in radio wave transmission, a form of ionization.

Sensitizing of Systems by use of Trace Doping with Radioactive elements, includes metal surfaces.

Open Systems, non-linear with external forces. Albert Einstein in a direct quote from his biography states that these are excluded from the conservation of energy laws.

Closed Systems Maxwellian Type Systems. Mathematics are predictable requiring deductive reasoning. Ohm's Law is King, and Establishment Intellectuals being comfortable with this, brand all else as a violation of the Laws of Nature by obtaining something for nothing. This is Dishonesty grand mal.

AMBIENT ENERGY SOURCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radiation System</th>
<th>Diffusion Method</th>
<th>Magnetic Wave Energy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cosmic</td>
<td>Reflection, Deflection and Absorption</td>
<td>Ultraviolet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Galactic</td>
<td>Reflection, Deflection and Absorption</td>
<td>Infrared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Solar</td>
<td>Reflection, Deflection and Absorption</td>
<td>Visible Light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Earth</td>
<td>Reflection, Deflection, Absorption</td>
<td>Earth's Electrical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faraday's &quot;Action at a Distance&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>also, a Composite of all of the above</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A deep fog pervades the entire Scientific Community with regards to the Significance of the Above Energy Sources. Magnetic Waves convert directly into Electrical Waves (useful electricity). Two sides of the electromagnetic system are always present and never separate. Local electron spin provides (action at a distance) the flip side of the incoming magnetic wave energy.

Enormous amounts of incoming magnetic wave energy becomes a part of the Ambient Background, and as such, cannot be measured directly. Reconstruction from indirect information, allows us to establish
the actual energy levels which are present. Instruments provided by the Scientific Community measure only point "A" to "B", and when both are ambient, no potential energy is shown. This is the "bird sitting on the million volt power line and sensing nothing" approach. The Earth's actual ambient background has as it's Energy level multi-billions of Volts, which are conveniently and obliviously ignored by the scientific community. When properly understood, this enormous, never-ending source of environmentally-friendly energy becomes available.
Electrical Energy System
Don L. Smith, Energy Consultant

At a meeting between J.P. Morgan, Edison and Tesla, Tesla proposed an Electrical Energy System which could be connected into directly, without using a meter. Tesla's Idea of "Free Energy" was not compatible with their thinking. Courtesy of Morgan and Edison, from that day forward, a complete and total bastardization of the Idea has been in progress. Agents for Morgan and Friends include the U.S. Patent Office and Academia. Academia's bad habit of incestuous quoting of each other, eliminates them as a possibility in cleaning up the mess. This selective ignorance, permeates throughout the study of electricity.

Many people, otherwise known as "intellectuals", have a total blackout and become jabbering idiots when "free-energy" is mentioned. The term has been amended to say, "something which was never there is being harvested and that this violates the laws of physics". For the selectively ignorant, this seems the way to run. Those who choose Morgan's drum beat, have severely limited the possibilities built into electricity.

This paper will be an exercise in creative understanding, in placing updated knowledge at your disposal. Whether it becomes a useful tool or is selectively ignored is your choice.

Electrons are defined as being the practical source of electrical and magnetic energy. The electron as a particle, was postulated by professor J. Thompson in early 1900's. It is now universally accepted that the electron exists and that it is the source of electricity. When the electron is agitated it produces magnetic and negative electrical energy. Physics as it exists today, cannot explain why the electron remains intact and is not diminished by the energy it releases. This is a part of the built-in ignorance provided by the Morgan and Edison Camp.

One volts worth of electrons, when cycled, yields one volts worth of electricity. This can be repeated continuously forever and it never deplete or diminishes the electrons in question. They simply return to their air and/or earth source, waiting to do the whole thing again and again. Therefore, electrical energy is available, anywhere and everywhere humans go. People who intercede for profit, set the cost of electrical energy. Otherwise, all electrical energy is free, Morgan and Edison be damned.

Improving upon Professor Thompson's postulation, other obvious characteristics can be seen to further define the electron. It has both magnetic and electrical emanations resulting from a right-hand and left-hand spin. Since magnetism and amperage come as one package, this suggest, that electrons in their natural non-ionic state, exist as doublets. When pushed apart by agitation one spins and supplies electricity and the other spins and provides magnetic (amperage) energy. When they reunite, we have Volts x Amperage = Watts. This Idea, until now, has been totally absent from the knowledge base.

The number of times that an electron is cycled, sets the collective energy potential present. The electrical equivalent of $E = mc^2$ is $E = (\text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}) \times (\text{Cycles Per Second})^2$. Those who choose, are now free to head for the bushes and make their usual contribution to humanity.

Prior to Tesla, there was a large group of people in Europe, who were building resonant coil systems for medical use. Amperage was dangerous in their coil systems. The Tesla Coil is only the Voltage half of their coil system, as will be demonstrated.

A short list of those (from 1860 onwards) active in resonate high frequency coil systems include; the Curies, Roentgen, Ruhmkoff, Oudin, Hertz, Levassor, Dumont, D'Arsonval and many others.

Peugeot, Panhard-Levassor, Bollee, Renault and others had successful electric automobiles in
production using A C. motors. Various electrically-powered airships, including the Dirigible "France" were in service.

D'Arsonval, Professor of Experimental Medicine at the College of France, invented the electrocardiograph, oscilloscope, amp and volt meters, thermography and numerous other medical applications of high frequency electricity. As early as 1860, he was building high frequency coil systems, which he used in his experimental work. There is a strong connection between the work of Tesla and the people mentioned above.

Electric vehicles of all sorts, dominated until the 1920s, when the electric starter motor made the internal combustion engine practical. Prior to that, upon cranking, it frequently would break the owner's arm. At that point the use of batteries as a source of power was replaced by oil.

The establishment's carpet has some rather large lumps under it. Coulomb's and Newton's inverse square law is politely ignored and it's opposite is allowed to have only the most abstract status. Without opposites we have no definition.

The source value of a remote flux reading, requires the squaring of the distance, times the remote reading, to obtain the original value. The opposite of this, being the derivations relate to Energy equals Mass times the Velocity constant squared. The electrical equivalent, being Energy equal capacitance times voltage squared and Energy equals induction times amperes squared. Flux lines increase as the law of squares and then activate electron energy which was not previously a part of the sum. The cumulative capacitance and inductance increase as the outer ends of a Tesla coil are approached, and this results in output energy being greater than the input energy present. This Energy is real. It can be safely measured by magnetic flux methods and electrostatic voltmeters, based on the inverse square law.

As seen above, flux lines result both from induction-henrys-amperage and capacitance-coulombs-volts, and define electrical energy. The non-linearity of this system does not obey Ohm's law, which is replaced with impedance and reactance for alternating current systems. Impedance is the sum of the system's resistance to AC current flow, and this becomes zero at resonance. In resonant induction systems, a cycles-per-second increase, invokes a second round for the law of squares.

The degree to which flux lines are present, disturbs an equal amount of electrons, upsetting the ambient background energy, resulting in useful electrical energy being obtained. The frequency at which the disturbance occurs, increases the useful energy available, and it obeys the law of squares. Two square-law components, flux density and frequency are involved. Enter resonance which cancels the resistive effect.

Only the electrical energy which is either above or below the ambient level is useful. For the Central U.S. going east to west, ambient as approximated by electro-static voltmeters and flux methods is 200,000 volts on a solar-quiet day. At night time, the ambient energy level drops to about one half of the daytime value. On a solar-active day, it may reach more than five times that of a solar-quiet day. Ambient background energy at the polar regions, is approximately 500,000 volts on a solar-quiet day. The background energy varies as it relates to the North-South component and the East-West continuum.

This leaves us with an interesting problem. Electrons, when disturbed, first produce magnetic flux and then produce electrical flux when they spin back to their normal position. Therefore any electron movement produces above ambient energy, being over unity.
1. Current-amperes results from the unequal distribution of negativity (electrons).
2. Electron spin causes electrical current and magnetic lines of force.
3. Magnetic imbalance causes the gravitational effect. This is evidenced in electric motors by magneto-gravitational displacement of mess, which causes the motor to rotate.

**ENERGY LINES OF FLUX (FORCE)\nFIELDS & WAVES**

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### Derivation of Magnetic and Electrical Power

**Analogous Relationships:**

1. Potential Power is present in a bar magnet as shown:
2. The Source of these Electrons being from the Solar Plasma, are non-ionic and occupy all Free Space. They are commonly obtained from Earth and Air Groundings. They exist in Doublet Pairs, one being more negative than the other. The more negative one has a Left Hand Spin. The less negative one has a Right Hand Spin.

3. Resonate Electrical Coil Systems (Tesla) are Analogous to the System observed in the Bar Magnet (above). The Bloch Wall Area is Located at the base of the L-2 Coil. The Left Spin portion of the coil (Voltage Only) Coil predominates. The Right hand Spin portion of the coil (Magnetic-Amperage) is mostly absent.
Induced Electrical Energy System

Collection and transfer of energy requires temporary storage, which occurs as capacitors and coils of a resonant circuit are cycled, on and off. The frequency at which the capacitors and coils are pumped, determines the amount of electrical energy that moves onward.

The amount of Energy transferred relates directly to the density of lines of flux present. The Kinetic Energy Formula is helpful in establishing the amount of energy present. This formula squares the velocity times mass. In the case of electrical energy, the intensity of voltage and amperes multiplied by the cycles per second, replace the velocity component.

Note that the "acceleration" of the Voltage "E" and Amperage "I", which increase as non-linear components, then obeys the Law of Squares.

Each unit of increase, causes a squaring of the flux lines present. The amount of energy transfer caused by this increase in flux lines is demonstrated below.

In resonant air-core coil energy transfer, the increase in flux lines present disturbs more electrons than previously, resulting in over-unity energy being present and available.

Energy stored, times the cycles per second, represents the energy being pumped by the system. Capacitors and inductors store electrons temporarily.

Capacitor formula:  \[ W = 0.5 \times C \times E \times \text{Cycles per second} \]  where:

- \( W \) = energy in Joules (Watt Seconds)
- \( C \) = capacitance in farads
- \( E \) = applied potential in volts squared.

Inductor (Coil) formula:  \[ W = 0.5 \times L \times I \times \text{Cycles per second} \]  where:

- \( W \) = energy in Joules (Watt Seconds)
- \( L \) = inductance in henrys
- \( I \) = current in amperes squared

Both one henry, and one farad, equal one volt. The higher the cycles per second, including the squaring of the flux lines, cause a large increase in the amount of energy being produced.

The above combined with a resonant energy induction system (where all electrons are moving in the same direction at the same time), make the next move into over-unity practical.

The dampening process of conventional electrical power generation, has all the available electrons bouncing randomly, mostly cancelling out each other. In that System, the useful energy available is a very small percentage of the energy which is present.
In the resonant induction system, a very high percentage of the energy present is useful. At resonance, (ohms-impedance-Z) becomes zero and all of the energy present is not degraded and becomes available to do useful work. "Ohms" is load or wasted energy, and "amperes" is the rate of that wasting of energy.

Using the previous information, if we now apply it to an air-core coil, resonant transformer energy system. L-1 and L-2 coils are now present. L-1 has a smaller number of turns and is several times the diameter of L-2. Input from a 12 volt high-voltage laser driver source, produces 8,000 volts with a low level of wasted energy, pushing amperage into, say, 4 turns of coil L-1. Each turn of the L-1 coil then acquires 2,000 volts of resonant potential. Consequently, each turn of L-2 is then exposed to the electric flux of 2,000 volts. Each turn at the bottom end of L-2 acquires 2,000 volts. The flux lines are squared and are additive as the voltage and amperage progresses towards the top end of L-2's large number of turns.

A huge number of additional flux lines which were not previously present become present at the top end of the L-2 coil. These flux lines excite the nearby electrons in its earth and air and groundings. This high level of excitement above the ambient, causes a large number of electrons which were not previously a part of the energy present, to become available for use. At this point over-unity is present in large amounts.

The "bubble gum between the ears" response to this is: "this must be lots of volts but no amperes". Please recall that amperage is wasted energy, and that until that wasting occurs, there are no amperes. A good way to demonstrate this, would be to let the bubble gum crowd put their hands on the high-voltage end of the device while standing on wet ground (a people zapper). **Note: don't do this.**

This over-unity device produces energy at radio frequencies which range into the megahertz band. This allows the device to be small in size, and yet produce large amounts of energy. A megawatt-sized unit will sit comfortably on a breakfast table. This energy is changed to Direct Current and then switched to produce the desired working frequency AC.

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**Power Triangle**

![Power Triangle Diagram](image)

A: Volts x Amperes (the Available Power)  
B: Volts x Amperes x Time (the Used Power)  
C: Volts x Amperes x Reactive (the Resonant Power)

1. Random movement of electrons in "A" and "B", mostly cancel each other out. This dampening, or wasteful concept of energy, is a source of much pleasure for the establishment.  
2. "C" (Volt, Amperes, Reactive "V.A.R."), is the situation where all of the electrons move in the same direction at the same time. This results in near-unity energy output by resonant induction transfer.  
3. Resonant induction transfer from one isolated power system, allows other resonant induction systems to duplicate the original source, which in no way diminishes the original source. Air-core coils (isolation-transformers) confirm this when they are a part of one of these functioning systems. A less perfect illustration would be the fact that the number of radio sets tuned to a particular radio...
transmission, does not alter the power required at the radio transmitter.

4. Resonant induction transfer, disturbs a large number of adjacent electrons which were not a part of
the original input power source. The pulsating-pumping effect then draws in the newly available
additional electrons into the on-going energy generation system. A near unity energy system of
resonant air-core coils and the extra acquired electron-energy source constitute an over-unity system.

Electrical Power Generation / Points of Reference

Useful Electrical Power is Generated when Electrons from Earth and Air Groundings are disturbed by
the movement of coils and magnets with reference to each other. The resulting electrical and magnetic
energy is then changed to joules [watt-seconds: Volts x Amps x Seconds]. Each forward electron
movement results in a magnetic impulse and each return movement causes an electrical impulse. The
composite of the electrical energy impulses from these electrons yields useful energy [Power].

Let the above electron movement be represented by a room full of ping pong balls bouncing randomly.
Most of the energy present cancels out by random impacts. This is the Classic Under-Unity approach to
Electrical Power Generation, sanctioned by the Establishment.

In contrast to that, in the Electrical Energy Generation System presented here, the resonant Electrons are
all moving in the same direction at the same time. This allows Near-Unity Electrical Power to Develop.
This is the room-temperature equivalent of super conductivity.

The Energy System presented here, consists of a properly-adjusted and functional resonant air-core coil
tank. The magnetic energy is stored in the coil system and the Electrical Energy is stored in capacitors.
From Maxwell and others, we know that electrical-related energy has an equal amount of magnetic
energy associated with it.

"The formula which establishes the Useful Energy of the System":

\[
\text{Joules} = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times (\text{Cycles Per Second})^2
\]

units:
Joules (Volts x Amps x Seconds)  Watt Seconds  where

\[
C = \text{Capacitance in microfarads}
\]
\[
V = \text{Potential in Volts}
\]

The transfer of Electrical Power by Resonant Induction is a direct function of the squaring of the cycles
per second. For example, square 60 C.P.S. and then square the radio frequency C.P.S.s of the System
here presented. Obviously, One Million Cycles per Second transfers more energy than Sixty Cycles per
second. The Sanctioned Method of Electrical Power Generation uses the 60 C.P.S. Method. Using 60
C.P.S. and the random scattering of the Electrons System, assures the Establishment of it's desired
Under-Unity Goal.

This random bouncing of the Electrons is the Ohms of Ohm's Law and is used to establish the rate of
dissipation and/or Load [Work].

In the Resonant Tank Induction Energy Transfer System presented here, Impedance [system resistance]
replaces the conventional ohm's usage. At Resonance, impedance becomes zero and the full force and
effect of the Energy Transfer occurs. This is superconducting conditions at room temperature. At radio
frequency the Electrons do not pass through the conductor as they do at lower frequencies. Instead, these Electrons encircle the conductor and are free of the conductor’s resistance.

Let the Establishments Power Generation System be called 'A' and the System presented here be called "B".

With "A": Given 60 C.P.S. at 120 Volts using a 10 microfarad Capacitor:

\[
\text{Joules} = [0.5 \times 0.000010 \times 120]^2 \times (\text{C.P.S})^2
\]

\[
(120 \times 120 = 14,400)
\]

\[
[0.000010 \times 14,400 = 0.144]
\]

\[
[0.144 \times 0.5 = .072]
\]

\[
(0.072 \times 3,600 = 259.2)
\]

Using the Inventor's Resonant Induction System, the Electrical Power available would then be 259.2 Joules [Watt-Seconds]. Using the Establishment's method only permits less than 10 Watt-Seconds of Useful Electrical Energy.

"B". Given One Million Cycles per second at 100,000 Volts, using a 10 microfarad Capacitor.

\[
\text{Joules} = [0.5 \times 0.000010 \times 100,000]^2 \times (\text{C.P.S.})^2
\]

\[
(100,000 \times 100,000 = 10,000,000,000)
\]

\[
[0.000010 \times 10,000,000,000 = 100,000]
\]

\[
(100,000 \times 0.5 = 50,000]
\]

\[
(50,000 \times \text{One Million squared} = 50,000,000,000,000,000)
\]

The useful Electrical Energy available is greater than 50 Mega Watts. Since the Resonant Electrons are non-impacting, all of the Energy is available for direct usage.

**Benefits of the Inventor's System**

1. Induction Energy transfer is enhanced by the squaring of the cycles per second produced by the System.

2. Induction Energy transfer is enhanced by the squaring the input voltage and amperage.

3. The increase of the flux lines occurring from the above, disturbing more electrons, causes more electrical energy to become available.

4. Resonant Induction has all of the Electrons moving unimpeded, resulting in superconductor conditions at room temperature.

5. A smaller amount of energy is used to disturb a larger number of Electrons. Electrons not originally a part of the System then contribute their energy, resulting in a net gain in available usable power.
6. The physical size of the System [Device] is small. The Device described in "B" sits comfortably on a breakfast table.

7. A small energy source is used to start the device and that source remains fully charged at all times by the System.

The Evidence Against Under Unity

1. Use of Logarithmic Scales on electrical measurement instruments. Linear measurement works fine where Ohm's Law applies (direct current). In alternating current, ohms are replaced by impedance and the measurements become non-linear.

2. Infinite "Q" at resonance confirms that voltage and amperage is squared, as in the kinetic energy formula. See the formulas of this report.

3. Square waves are clipped infinite "Q"s.

4. Maxwell and others show that magnetic-inductance-amperage and electrical-capacitance-voltage are two sides of the same coin. Magnetic-inductance is directly equal to amperage. Both obey the Law of Squares, which has over-unity built-in.

5. Magnetic and electrical flux are present in enormous amounts at the outer ends of an operating Tesla Coil.

6. Ignorance of how to measure and relate magnetic and electrical flux, is the chief weapon of the under-unity gaggle.

7. The Cumulative inductance and capacitance of the Tesla Coil grounds itself out, if not properly utilized. See this report for the temporary energy storage accessible, when properly managed.

8. The Patent Office refers devices related to over-unity to their metering group, which is a sure indication that they are aware and accept the logarithmic measuring devices. This is direct and absolute evidence that they accept the square law as it relates to kinetic energy. This also indicates they are aware that over-unity exists. Since their bureaucratic brain is improperly motivated they continue to badger inventors who are working in the over-unity arena. Their level of intellectual dishonesty is sanctioned by, and is a real part of doing business with, a government which prides itself in being a hooliganistic bureaucracy.

Reading List

An Answer to America's Energy Deficit

Donald L. Smith
Energy Consultant

Energy, energy everywhere and not a Joule to Jounce. Conventional wisdom, when properly tuned will appreciate the nature of energy, as here presented. The basic unit of electricity (the electron) upon encountering a moving magnetic field (or wave) spins, giving off an electric impulse. When this impulse collapses, it spins back to it's natural position, giving off a magnetic impulse. Therefore, magnetic and electric are two sides of the same coin. When the magnetic side is pulsed, it yields electricity and conversely, pulsing of the electrical side yields a magnetic field. Moving one in relation to the other produces useful energy. When done consecutively, each cycle pushes (current) forward, while pulling electrons into the system... in much the same way as a water pump moves water. These electrons are obtained from Earth and air grounding.

The word "electric" comes from the Latin word electron "amber". When rubbed, amber develops an electrical charge, which can be transferred to a dissimilar substance. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, a great deal of attention was centered on this attribute of amber. Amber was used to differentiate the non-metals.

Useful electrical energy can be obtained by grounding into the Earth's non-metal crust and into it's atmosphere as

3 - 153
a natural source of electrons. These electrons have accumulated from the solar plasma during the aging of the Earth for more than 4.5 billion years, at a rate exceeding 3.9 exajoules per year. This indicates that the Earth's electrical field contains in excess of $17.6 \times 10^{18}$ of cumulative exajoules of energy. One exajoule is the approximate energy equivalent of 125 million barrels of oil. The electrical energy in one display of lightning is approximately ten trillion joules. During each 24 hour period, the land portions of Earth's surface yields in excess of 200,000 emissions, which involves more than 2,000 quadrillion watts.

C.F. Gauss (1777-1855) and H.C. Oersted (1777-1851) were each separately trying to define the Earth's electrical field with all external influences removed. These external influences being solar-quiet periods and being remote from the land's surface. The air electricity background which they measured varies with latitude. Their European measurements correspond to approximately the latitude of Washington, D.C. They were measuring magnetic field flux as an indicator of negative electron energy active and present. A related family of measurement are now presented. Units of measurement used to define flux fields include Gauss (one unit = 100,000 volts), Oersted (one unit = 50,000 volts), Tesla (one unit = 10,000 Gauss) and Gamma (one unit = 1/10,000 of a Gauss). Much confusion exists in electrical related publications about these units. As presented here they are correct with values taken from their original definitions.

The entire surface of the Earth has been surveyed by aerial magnetometer, in most cases using gamma or nano teslas. One gamma is the magnetic flux equivalent of 10 active volts of electricity. When the data is corrected for flight height it becomes obvious that there are numerous areas where the gamma readings exceed one trillion gammas. Lightning strikes from the ground up are in that energy range. With knowledge of these electron enriched areas, the quality of Earth grounding, becomes enhanced. The correction necessary for land surface data when acquired from aerial magnetometer maps (using Coulomb's law) requires that the remote distance be squared and then multiplied by the remote reading. As an example, if the remote reading is 1,600 gammas and the flight height being 1,000 feet. Take $1,000 \times 1,000 = 1,000,000 \times 1,600$ gammas $= 1.6$ trillion gammas $\times 10$ volts $= 16$ trillion volts equivalent for land surface data. Present day methodology requires mechanical energy in exchange for electrical energy. Once obtained, this energy is subject to Ohm's Law. Present Methodology obtains it's electrical energy from it's non-metal and air groundings.

This same energy can be obtained without the wasteful mechanical approach and at a much, much lower cost. Any required amount of electricity is available by resonant induction transfer from the Earth's magnetic and electrical fields. The major difference is in the functioning of Ohm's Law in relation to resonant circuits. In the resonant induction system suggested here, system resistance $Z$ becomes zero at resonance.

Therefore, Volts and Amperes are equal (V.A.R.) until work (load) is introduced.

Each cycling of this resonant induction system pulls in additional electrons from the Earth's electrical field, generating electrical energy in any required amount. In this system, a small amount of electrical energy is used to activate and pull a much larger amount of energy into the system.

This electrical advantage corresponds to the pulley and lever of the mechanical world. The electrical system presented here is extremely efficient. Using present methodology as a basis for comparison, with it's 60 cycles per second system. The resonant induction system, cycling at 60 million times per second produces one million times the energy which is produced by the present energy systems. A single small size unit of the resonant induction system has more usable electrical output than a major conventional unit. The radio frequency energy produced is easily changed to Direct Current, and then to the present 60 cycles per second system in preparation for commercial usage.

The Patent Pending on this system is #08/100,074, "Electrical Energy Generating System", dated 4 February, 1992.

**Definitions:**

- One Joule is one watt for one second
- One Watt is one volt ampere
- V.A.R. is Volt Amperes Reactive
**Additional Reading:**

Electricity and Magnetism by B.I. Bleany and B. Bleany Oxford University Press 1991
ISBN. 0-19-851172-8


Energy Methods in Electromagnetism by P. Hammond Oxford University Press 1986
ISBN. 0-19-859368-6

Energy in Electromagnetism by H. G. Booker Institution of Electrical Engineers by Peter Peregrinus Ltd. 1982
ISBN 0-900040-59-1


Geomagnetic Diagnosis of the Magnetosphere by A. Nishida, University of Tokyo 1978 Pub: Springer-Verlag ISBN. 0-387-08297-2


The Electromagnetic Field by A. Shadowitz, Dover Publications, New York, N.Y.


Geomagnetism by S. Chapman and J. Bartels, 3 Volumes Oxford University Press, 1940


Units and Standards for Electromagnetics By P. Vigoureux, National Physical Laboratory Pub: Springer-Verlag 1071 ISBN. 0-387-91077-8

Surveyor's Guide to Electromagnetic Distance Measurement. Edited by J. J. Saastamoinen, Canada Pub: University of Toronto Press

3 - 155
E.E.S. II, BACKGROUND INFORMATION & CONCEPT

With alternating electrical current, electrons do not move from point "A" to point "B" as commonly envisioned! Electrical potential (oscillating electrons) at point "A", results in harmonic electron activity at point "B", when the grounding switch (circuit) is closed. That is to say, point "B" supplies it's own electrons and mirrors the activity of point "A". Impulsing (turbulence) by magnetic induction causes electrons to be pulled into the system, which then oscillates. When the magnetic field collapses (becomes absent) the electrical potential returns to it's natural background level.

Several major flaws are present in the conventional 60 cycles per second method of electrical power generation and it's iron core transformer system. This system is handcuffed by the inverse relationship of volts to amperes. This represents a stodgy, inflexible inheritance, courtesy of Mr. T.A. Edison and his concept of electrical power generation.

Nikola Tesla stood, almost alone, against Edison and managed to prevail with his Alternating Current system. Without the alternating current system, electronic things in the modern sense would not exist.

This report will be concerned with some of the extensions and benefits of the alternating current electrical system. This study will limit it's scope to air core coil transformers at radio frequency and upwards. The electrical power produced by this method is inverted to Direct Current and then to Alternating Current as required for popular usage. There are several important advantages of this system over conventional power generation.
Start with two coils (separate-apart), one being a reactor coil (L-1) and a second coil (L-2), being the reactant coil. Magnetic field fluxing (off-on of the electrical source) causes inductive reactance of L-1 which replicates by induction in L-2. Pulsing of the magnetic field (from L-1) in the presence of L-2, generates electrical potential. For example, should the L-1 coil have ten turns, with an imposed AC. potential of 1,200 volts. This results in each turn of L-1 acquiring 120 volts of potential. This induced magnetic field, then replicates itself in each turn of the L-2 coil. The L-2 coil may have one or many hundreds of turns. Modern encapsulation techniques makes high frequency and high energy controllable.

Let's take another important step in this air-core transformer process. For purpose of discussion, let the value of inductive reactance at 60 cycles per second, equal one. Each time the frequency is doubled, the effectiveness of induction is squared. At about 20,000 Hz, when radio frequency is achieved, the electrons begin spinning free, outside of the inductor and they become increasingly free of the inverse relationship of volt-amperes. From this point on, they replicate by the inductive process as V.A.R.. That is to say, volts and amperes are equal, until resistance (work) is introduced. Therefore, additional, not previously available electrons become incorporated for a very large net gain in potential. This gain is real!

The quality of the grounding system determines the effectiveness of this method of producing electricity. A handy reference to locate the negative grounding areas for power generation can be found in the Aeromagnetic Map Studies of the US Geological Survey. They provide an excellent method for locating the best sites for optimum negative grounding areas.

When this method is combined with the induction coil system, already described, it provides an electrical power generating system millions of times more efficient than any known conventional method.

This new system ("E.E.S. II") is uncomplicated, physically small and it is inexpensive to build. The technology required for it's construction already exists. Maintenance is near zero, as there are no moving parts. Once operating, this system could last forever.

Small mobile E.E.S. II units are already available as replacements for the batteries used in electric automobiles. Larger E.E.S. II units can be provided as a replacement source of power for hotels, office buildings, subdivisions, electric trains, manufacturing, heavy equipment, ships, and generally speaking, any present day application of electrical power.

Earth Electrical System II, Modular Units

The system consists of three separate modules. Reverse engineering is used in matching the modules to the desired usage.

HIGH VOLTAGE INDUCTION TRANSFORMER MODULE:
1. Preferably an off-the-shelf-unit similar to a TV flyback and/or automobile ignition type related coil (transformer).
2. Ratio of input to output may be from less than 1:100 to greater than 1:1,000 A voltage tripler may then be used.
3. A connection allowing the high voltage output to pass onward through the induction coil L-1 and then to it's grounding.

AN AIR CORE INDUCTION COIL TRANSFORMER MODULE:
1. There are two coils: the reactor coil L-1 and the reactant coil L-2. L-1 has a high voltage radio frequency capacitor between it and it's grounding.
2. Input into the L-1 inductor is divided by the number of turns in it. The magnetic flux field provided from each turn of L-1 replicates itself as an electrical potential in each turn of L-2.
3. L-2 may have one turn or many hundreds of turns. The net gain depends upon the number of turns in L-2. Output from L-2 is in V.A.R. With this type of output, volts and amperes are the same until work(resistivity) is introduced.
THE INVERTER MODULE:
1. Inverts to direct current (D C.)
2. Inverts to alternating current (A C.), as desired.
3. Provides customized output of electrical power ready for designated usage.

Diagram:
- Power Source Module
- High Voltage Induction Transformer Module
- Air Core Induction Coil Module
- Capacitor

Parts:
1. Coil, Variable
2. Capacitor, Variable
3. Resistor, Variable
4. Transistor, R.F.
5. Battery, Rechargeable
6. Off-On Switch, Variable
7. High Voltage Transformer
8. Feed Back with Spark Gap
9. Reactor, Induction Coil
10. Feed Back with Spark Gap
11. Reactant Coil
12. Output for #11
13. Input for Eleven
14. Grounding for Eleven
PARTS: 1. VARACTOR, RADIO FREQUENCY. 2. RESISTOR. 3. TRANSISTOR, RADIO FREQUENCY.
4. OFF-ON SWITCH, MULTI-POSITION. 5. BATTERY, RECHARGEABLE. 6. TRANSFORMER GROUNDING.
7. HIGH VOLTAGE INDUCTION TRANSFORMER. 8. REACTOR, INDUCTION COIL. 9. FEED BACK WITH
SPARK GAP. 10. REACTANT, INDUCTION COIL. 11. GROUNDING FOR # 10. OUTPUT CIRCUIT,
IN VOLT-AMPERES-REACTIVE.
The word "electric" comes from the Latin word electron "amber". When rubbed, amber develops an electrical charge, which can be transferred to a dissimilar substance. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, a
great deal of attention was centered on this attribute of amber. Amber was used to differentiate the non-metals. Carbon-related substances and other non-metals, when subjected to friction, give up negative electrical charges. On the other hand, metals when subjected to friction, simply conduct the charge. It is important to note that approximately 70% of the Earth's exposed crustal portions (surface) consist of silicone related non-metals (electron donors) and therefore becomes a direct source of electrical energy when properly agitated.

Useful electrical energy is obtained by grounding into the Earth's non-metal crust and into it's atmosphere as a natural source of electrons. These electrons have accumulated from the solar plasma during the aging of the Earth for more than 4.5 billion years, at a rate exceeding 3.9 exajoules per year. This indicates that the Earth's electrical field contains in excess of $17.6 \times 10^{18}$ power of cumulative exajoules of energy. One exajoule is the approximate energy equivalent of 125 million barrels of oil. The electrical energy in one display of lightning is approximately ten trillion joules. During each 24 hour period, the land portions of the Earth's surface yields in excess of 200,000 emissions, which involves more than 2,000 quadrillion watt-seconds of active energy on display.

This physical phenomenon indicates that the Earth's crust is an unending source of electrical energy. The surface area involved is a very small portion of the Earth's crust.

J.C. Maxwell (1891) suggested that an active electron field gives rise to an associated magnetic field. Therefore, both are present with pulsating current. Early studies, involving observation of compass needles by microscopy, revealed that the needle vibrates as with alternating current. More recent studies by A. Nishida and others, confirm that alternating current is common in the Earth's crust.

C.F. Gauss (1777-1855) and H.C. Oersted (1777-1851), both were separately trying to define the Earth's electrical field with all external influences removed. These external influences being solar-quiet periods and being remote from the land's surface. The air electricity background which they measured varies with latitude. Their European measurements correspond to approximately the latitude of Washington, D.C. They were measuring magnetic field flux as an indicator of negative electron energy active and present.

A related family of measurement is now presented. Units of measurement used to define flux fields include Gauss (one unit = 100,000 volts), Oersted (one unit - 50,000 volts), Tesla (one unit = 10,000 Gauss) and Gamma (one unit = 1/10,000 th of a Gauss). Much confusion exists in electrical related publications about these units. As presented here, they are correct with values taken from their original definitions.

The entire surface of the Earth has been surveyed by aerial magnetometer, in most cases using gamma or nano teslas. One gamma is the magnetic flux equivalent of 10 active volts of electricity. When this data is corrected for flight height, it becomes obvious that there are numerous areas where the gamma readings exceed one trillion gammas. Lightning strikes from the ground up are in that energy range. With knowledge of these electron enriched areas, the quality of Earth grounding, becomes enhanced.

The correction necessary for land surface data when acquired from aerial magnetometer maps (using the inverse square law) requires that the remote distance be squared and then multiplied by the remote reading. For example, if the reading is 1,600 gammas and the flight height is 1,000 feet. Take $1,000 \times 1,000 = 1,000,000 \times 1,600$ gammas $= 1.6$ trillion gammas x 10 volts $= 16$ trillion volts equivalent for land surface data.

Present day methodology requires mechanical energy to be expended in exchange for electrical energy. Any required amount of electricity is available by resonant induction transfer from the Earth's magnetic and electrical fields. Each cycling of this resonant induction system pulls in additional electrons, generating energy in any required amount. A small amount of electrical energy is used to activate and pull into the system a much larger amount of energy.

**ENERGY VERSUS MASS**
Functions of active Electrons

Electrons become active when placed inside the critical distance allowed by their negativity.

Active Electrons provide:
1. Electricity
2. Magnetics
3. Gravitational thrust as in Electric Motors
4. The source of Visible Light
5. It's charge is Negative

They move in a closed loop as seen in the Icon for infinity, not in a circle as shown in many books. One half of the loop consist of a magnetic impulse and the return half consist of the electrical impulse. This is seen as the classic sine wave of alternating electrical energy.

A flash of light occurs when two electrons suddenly find they are too close together. Daylight results from the impingement of Electrons in the Earth's atmosphere with the Electrons of the Solar Plasma.

My Concept of the Forces of Nature differs from the conventional. It consist of a weak and a strong force, each being additionally composed of electrical, magnetic and gravitational (fields and waves). Any two of the three constitute the third member; Gravity "B" of the weak force competes with humans on a daily basis. Gravity "A" of the strong force is the force that holds the Solar System and the Universe in place. Energy from the Electrons represent the weak force. Energy inside the Atom represents the strong force "A". Controlled resonant induction of any two of the three, changes into the third and is the motor that runs the Universe. We see this in the electrically-induced magnetic thrust against gravity in electric motors.

Weak force is required to dislodge electrons and strong force (atomic) to dislodge protons. Unless dislodged, these particles are of little value in producing Conventional Electrical Energy.

Therefore, in conventional electrical energy production, the particle of importance is the negative electron. Electrons have a "grudging" relationship with other electrons. They like each other, especially at arms length. Like potentials repel each other, and unlike potentials attract. To demonstrate this, take two batteries of the same type, but of a different charge level (unequal potentials). Put the plus and minus ends facing the same direction. Then with a volt meter, measure the electrical potential between the two negative ends and then the two positive ends. It is obvious that the "more negative" moves to the "less negative" is the correct concept for electrical energy generation. Electrical Energy flow consist of a higher concentration of electrons moving to an area of lesser concentration.
OHM'S LAW WITH CORRECTIONS:
A major obstruction in reference to the correct function of electrical energy is the establishment's incorrect interpretation of Ohm's Law. The corrected version is:

\[
\text{Volts} = \text{Energy Available (Potential)}
\]

\[
\text{Ohm} = \text{Scattering, dissipation of Energy (Load)}
\]

\[
\text{Ampere} = \text{the rate of, dissipation / scattering of energy}
\]

It is important to note that Ohm and Ampere are after the fact, and are not decisive except for the dissipation factor. High Voltage at low amperage simply means that the High Voltage is still intact for future usage. In no way is the potential diminished by low amperage.

EXAMPLES OF OVERUNITY
Dominos did not exist in England when the Laws of Conservation were originally put in place. Otherwise they might have been very different. For example, let us take a long row of upright dominos, (many thousands) and flip number one. The Energy required to flip the first domino must now be added with that of thousands more in order to have a correct assessment.

The Electron itself is an excellent example of over-unity. The electron provides various forms of energy continuously throughout eternity and is in no way diminished. It simply cycles through the system and is available thereafter.

In Electrical Systems, Electrons active at point "A" are not the same Electrons active at point "B". That is to say, the Electrons activated at the Central Electrical Energy Station are not the ones used at your house. When you ground your system by flipping the wall switch, you use your own electrons. In closed energy systems, electrons communicate with and replicate the activity of the overbalanced potential, when provided with Earth and or Air Groundings.

The number of Radio sets and Television sets running at any one time do not diminish, in any way the electrical output of the source station.

For example, let now use an Air Coil Resonant Induction System for the purpose of flipping some electrons. The flipping device (reactor coil L-1) is pulsed, which then provides a resonant induction pulse. In turn, this flips the electrons present at the (reactant L-2) Coil. The energy input in L-1 is divided by the number of turns present. The induced magnetic pulsing in turn flips the electrons in each turn of L-2. If more turns are present in L-2 than L-1, there is a net gain in the Energy present, as demonstrated by the dominos above. The farads and henrys of the resonant system provide the resonant frequency when pulsed by an external energy system. A system shunt in the resonant circuit sets the containment level for energy potential.

The Induction Process itself provides an excellent example of over-unity. When comparing rate of induction, the cycles per second must be squared and then compared to the square of the second System. Let us then compare the 60 Hz System with my 220 MHz Device. Energy produced at radio frequency has several major advantages over the conventional system. Ohm's Law does not apply to a resonant air-core radio frequency system.

For example: When the system is resonant, the following is true:
This is named the V.A.R. (Volt Amperes Reactive) System.

When compared to the Conventional Under-Unity iron-core transformer system, the results are over-unity. It is strange that mechanical advantage as in pulleys, gears, levers and others which correspond to the electrical advantage above mentioned, are not considered over-unity devices.

Let us take a closer look at resonant induction. As an example, let a room full of ping pong balls randomly bouncing at a high speed represent the Conventional method of under-unity energy generation. Suppose that by resonant induction the balls all move in the same direction at the same time. When this occurs a huge amount of energy not previously available is present. The resonant air-core coil system lines up the electrons in such a manner that the energy factor is nearly 100%, and not the 2% or 3% of Conventional under-unity devices sanctioned by the establishment.

Some other devices where overunity is common would be resonant induction circuits present in conventional radio tubes (high plate voltage), negative-feedback systems found in Op-Amps and possibly others.

**SUMMARY**

Useful electrical energy is achieved when the electron density at point "A" becomes greater than at point "B", (being the more-negative moving to the less-negative concept). Coils moving through a magnetic field or vice versa causes this imbalance.

The mindset of the professional Electrical Engineer is restricted to non-resonant and iron-core coil resonant systems. Ohm's Law, when applied to resonant air-core induction systems, becomes, system resistivity (impedance, Z). "Z" becomes zero at resonance. Therefore, in this system, volts and amperes are equal until load (resistivity) is introduced. This is called the Volt Ampere Reactive (V.A.R.) System. With impedance being zero, the System grounding is coupled directly into the Earth's immense electrical potential. Efficiency of induction relates to the square of the cycles per second. Compare the ratio of the conventional 60 c.p.s. System and the 220 million plus cycles of my Earth Electrical System II.

Electrons which cycle through this system, after being used, are returned intact to their former state for future usage.

Electron spin causes electrical current and magnetic lines of force

The effect of current, results from the unequal distribution of negativity (electrons).

Magnetic imbalance causes the gravitational effect. This is evidenced in electric motors by magnet-gravitational displacement of mass which causes the motor to rotate.

The System is an extension of present technology.
The System and it's source utilizes magnetometer studies.

This System (Earth Electrical System II. "EES.II") utilizes a fully renewable energy source.

This System utilizes a non-polluting energy source.

This System utilizes an universally available energy source.

Endorsement and Certification of The System can be anticipated by States with pollution problems.

AIR CORE INDUCTION COIL BUILDERS GUIDE

DONALD L. SMITH
Energy Consultant

1. Decide frequency. Considerations are: (economy of size)
   a. Use radio frequency upward (above 20,000 Hz).
   b. Use natural frequency (coils have both capacitance and inductance), that is match the wire length of the wire in the coil to the desired frequency.
   c. Wire length is either one quarter, one half or full wave length.
   d. To obtain the wire length (in feet) use the following: If using one quarter wave length divide 247 by the desired frequency (megahertz range is desirable). If using one half wave length divide 494 by the desired frequency. If using full wave length divide 998 by the desired frequency.

2. Decide number of turns, ratio of increase in number of turns sets the function. In the case of the L-1 coil, each turn divides the input voltage by the number of turns. In the case of L-2 coil, the resulting voltage in each turn of L-1 is induced into each turn of L-2, adding up with each turn. For example if the input into L-1 from a high voltage, low amperage module is 2,400 volts, and L-1, for example, has 10 turns, then each turn of L-1 will have 240 volts of magnetic induction which transfers 240 volts of electricity to each turn of L-2. L-2 may be one turn or many turns, such as 100 to 500 or more turns. At 100 turns, 24,000 volts would be produced. At 500 turns, 120,000 volts would be produced.

3. Decide the height and diameter of the coil system. The larger the diameter of the coil, the fewer turns are required, and the coil has a lesser height. In the case of L-2 this results in lowering the amplification of the induced voltage from L-1.

4. For example, if 24.7 MHz is the desired frequency output from L-2. One quarter wave length would be 247 divided by 24.7 which equals 10 feet of wire. The number of turns will be the amplification factor. The coil may be wound on standard size P.V.C. or purchased from a supplier. The supplier is normally a ham radio supply source. Once the length is determined and the number of turns decided, move to the next step. For example, let each turn of L-1 have 24 volts and desired output of L-2 be 640 volts. Therefore L-2 needs 26.67 turns. It has been determined that the wire length for one quarter wave length is 10 feet. The number of inches in 10 feet is 120. Using Chart "A" supplied look for next higher number of turns showing (being between 20 and 30 turns with a 2" diameter coil). This tells us to use a 2 inch coil. If ready-made as in the case of Barker and Williamson, 10 Canal Street, Bristol, Penna., 215-788-5581, the coils come in standard sizes of 4, 6 and 10 turns per inch. For higher "Q" use wider spacing of the turns. These coils come in a ready-made length of 10 inches. Select from the coil 30 turns and put input clamps on the base of the coil and at 30 turns. For exact determination of the correct position of the output clamp, use an externally grounded voltage probe. The node of maximum intensity, being the natural resonant point. Off the shelf multimeters are not radio frequency responsive. The easiest way to accomplish the above is to get from the hardware store or Radio Shack a voltage detector having a neon bulb system (Radio Shack Cat. No. 272-1100b, NE2-Neon.
Lamps) will work. With your hand as a ground, move the wire extension of the neon lamp along the coil surface until the neon is brightest. This is the desired point of resonance and it is the optimum connection point.

5. The input power now needs consideration. A 2,400 High Voltage module has been previously selected. This module can be made from a diode bridge or any combination of voltage amplifiers. The one used here is an off-the-shelf type, similar to those used for laser technology.

6. Construction of the input L-1 coil. It has already been decided that there will be 10 turns. The length of the wire here is not critical. Since the L-2 coil is 2-inches in diameter, the next off-the-shelf larger size may be used for L-1. Use a 3 inch diameter off-the-shelf coil which has 10 turns to the inch. Remove (cut) a 10 turn portion from the larger coil. Use an L.C.R. meter and measure the natural farads (capacitance) and henrys (inductance) values of the L-2 coil. Now do the same for the L-1 coil. It will be necessary to put a capacitor across the voltage input of L-1 in order to match the L-1 coil to the L-2 coil. A spark gap across L1 is also required to deal with the return voltage from L-1. A tuneable capacitor of the pad ("trimmer") type for L-1 is desirable.

7. The performance of the L-2 coil can be further enhanced by having an Earth grounding from the base of the coil. The maximum voltage output will be between the base and the top of the L-2 coil. Lesser voltages can be obtained at intermediate points along the length of the L-2 coil.

SUPPLY SOURCES
1. HAM RADIO SUPPLY STORES
2. COILS, AIR INDUCTOR IN HOUSTON
3. BAKER AND WILLIAMSON (READY MADE), BRISTOL. PENNA.
ALSO R.F. DUMMY LOADS AND WATTMETERS.

NOTES
The use of electricity is so commonplace that most people assume that it will always be available on demand. To fully realize our dependence upon electricity, consider the ways in which electricity is being used each day in the home, on the farm and the ranch. Electricity is doing more to increase work efficiency and promote enjoyable living than any other single factor. The use of electricity has grown to the extent that an increasing portion of the home or business budget, is used in paying for this source of energy.

1. Definition of Electricity

Electricity can be defined in several ways. The layman defines electricity as a source of energy that can be converted to light, heat, or power. Electrical Engineers define electricity as a movement of electrons caused by electrical pressure or voltage. The amount of energy produced depends on the number of electrons in motion.
2. The Manufacture and Distribution of Electricity

Electricity is produced from generators that are run by water, steam, or internal combustion engines. If water is used as a source of power to turn generators, it is referred to as hydroelectric generation. There are a number of this type located in areas where huge dams have been built across large streams.

Steam is used as a source of power for generating much of today's electricity. Water is heated to a high temperature, and the steam pressure is used to turn turbines which generate electricity. These are referred to as thermal-powered generators. Fuels used to heat the water are coal, natural gas, and/or fuel oil.

Generators at the power plant generate from 13,800 to 22,000 volts of electricity. From the power plant, electricity is carried to a step-up sub-station which, through the use of transformers, increases the voltage from 69,000 to 750,000 volts. This increase in voltage is necessary for the efficient transmission of electricity over long distances. From the step-up sub-station, the electricity is carried on transmission lines to a step-down sub-station which reduces the voltage to 7,200 to 14,000 volts for distribution to rural and city areas.

Transformers at the business or residence reduce the voltage to 120 or 240 volts to supply the meter of the customer:
3. Common Electrical Terms

In order to work safely and efficiently with electricity and have the ability to converse on the subject, the following terms should be understood:

**Ampere (Amp)** - A measurement in units of the rate of flow of electrical current. This may be compared with the rate of flow of water in gallons per minute.

*Example:* A 60-watt incandescent lamp on a 120V circuit would pull 1/2 ampere of electricity (60 divided by 120 = 0.5 or 1/2, Formula: Amperes = Watts / Volts)

**Volt (V)** - A unit of measure of electrical pressure. A given electrical pressure (V) causes a given amount of electrical current (Amps) to flow through a load of given resistance. Voltage may be compared to water pressure in pounds per square inch in a water system. Common service voltages are 120 volts for lighting and small appliance circuits and 240 volts for heating, air conditioning, and large equipment circuits.

**Watt (W)** - A unit of measure of electrical power. When applied to electrical equipment, it is the rate that electrical energy is transformed into some other form of energy such as light. Watts may be compared to the work done by water in washing a car. (Formula: Volts x Amps = Watts)

**Kilowatt (KW)** - A unit of measurement used in computing the amount of electrical energy used. Kilowatts are determined by dividing the number of watts by 1000 as 1 kilowatt = 1,000 watts.

**Kilowatt-Hour (KWH)** - A measure of electricity in terms of power in kilowatts and time in hours. One KWH is 1000 watts used for one hour.

**Alternating Current (A.C.)** - Electrical current that alternates or changes direction several times per second. The direction current moves depends on the direction in which the voltage forces it.
**Cycle** - The flow of electricity in one direction, the reverse flow of electricity in the other direction, and the start of the flow back in the other direction. The cycles per second are regulated by the power supplier and are usually 60 in America. Most electric clocks are built to operate on the mains frequency. More or fewer cycles per second would cause mains-operated clocks to gain or lose time. The present practice is to use the term Hertz (Hz) rather than "cycles per second".

**Direct Current (D.C.)** - Electrical current flowing in one direction. Example: electrical circuits in automobiles and tractors.

**Transformer** - A device used to increase or decrease voltage.

**Single Phase** - The most common type of electrical service or power available to consumers. One transformer is used between the distribution line and the meter. Usually three wires, two "hot" and one neutral, are installed to provide 120V and 240V single-phase service. Single-phase service may also be supplied with a three-phase service.
Three-Phase - This type of service is designed especially for large electrical loads. It is a more expensive installation due to three wires and three transformers being required. The important advantage of three-phase power is that the total electrical load is divided among the three phases, consequently, the wire and transformers can be smaller. Other advantages exist in the design of three-phase motors.

Short Circuit - A direct connection (before current flows through an appliance) between two "hot" wires, between a "hot" and neutral wire, or between a "hot" wire and ground.

Voltage Drop - A reduction of current between the power supply and the load. Due to resistance, there will be a loss of voltage any time electricity flows through a conductor (wire). Factors that influence voltage drop are size of wire, length of wire, and the number of amps flowing. A drop in voltage may cause a loss of heat, light, or the full power output of a motor. It could cause motor burn-out unless the motor is properly protected (time-delay fuse).

Fuse - A device used to protect circuits from an overload of current.

Circuit Breaker - A device used to protect circuits from an overload of current. May be manually reset.

Time-Delay Fuse - A fuse with the ability to carry an overload of current for a short duration without disengaging the contacts or melting the fuse link.

Horsepower (hp) - A unit of mechanical power equal to 746 watts of electrical power (assuming 74.6% electric motor efficiency). Motors of one horsepower and above are rated at 1000 watts per hp while motors below one horsepower are rated at 1,200 watts per hp.

Conductor - The wire used to carry electricity (typically, copper or aluminum). Copper and aluminum should not be spliced together due to their incompatibility resulting in deterioration and oxidation.

Insulator - A material which will not conduct electricity and is usually made of glass, Bakelite, porcelain, rubber, or thermo-plastic.

"Hot" Wire - A current-carrying conductor under electrical pressure and connected to a fuse or circuit breaker at the distribution panel. (Color Code: usually black or red)

Neutral Wire - A current-carrying conductor not under electrical pressure and connected to the neutral bar at the distribution panel. (Color Code: usually white)

Grounding - The connection of the neutral part of the electrical system to the earth to reduce the possibility of damage from lightning and the connection of electrical equipment housings to the earth to minimize the danger from electrical shock. (Color Code: Can be green or bare wire).

Underwriters' Laboratory (U.L.) - An American national organization which tests all types of wiring materials and electrical devices to insure that they meet minimum standards for safety and quality.

National Electric Code (N.E.C.) - Regulations approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters primarily for safety in electrical wiring installations. All wiring should meet the requirements of the national as well as the local code.
4. Computing Electrical Energy Use and Cost

If an estimate of cost for electricity used is desired, the name plate data on appliances and equipment and an estimate of operating time may be used. The following formulas should be used for determining watts, amps, volts, watt-hours, kilowatt-hours, and cost.

\[
\text{Watts} = \text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}
\]

\[
\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{Volts}}
\]

\[
\text{Volts} = \frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{Amperes}}
\]

\[
\text{Watt-Hours} = \text{Watts} \times \text{Hours of operation}
\]

\[
\text{Kilowatt-Hours} = \frac{\text{Watt-Hours}}{1000}
\]

\[
\text{Cost} = \text{Kilowatt-Hours} \times \text{Local Rate per Kilowatt-Hour (or per "Unit")}
\]

Example:

Local electricity rate per Kilowatt-Hour: 8 cents
Equipment plate data: 120 Volts 5 Amps
Monthly hours of operation: 10

1. Watts = Volts x Amperes, so Watts = 120 x 5 = 600 watts
2. Watt-Hours = 600 x 10 = 6,000 watt-hours
3. Kilowatt-Hours = 5,000 / 1,000 = 6 kilowatt-hours (or 6 Units)
4. Cost = 6 x 8 = 48 cents

5. Electrical Circuits

An Electrical Circuit is a completed path through which electricity flows. Insulated conductors (wires) provide the path for the flow of electricity. A water system and an electrical circuit are similar in many respects. Water flows through pipes and is measured in gallons per minute, and electricity flows through conductors and is measured in amperes. A simple circuit is shown here:

A circuit includes a "hot" wire (red or black) carrying current from the source through a switch, circuit protector (fuse or circuit-breaker), and an appliance. The neutral wire (white) conducts the current from the appliance to the source (ground).

There are two methods for connecting devices in a circuit - "in series" or "in parallel". In a series circuit, all of the current must flow through each device in the circuit. Removing any one of the devices in a series circuit will stop the flow of current. In parallel circuits, the load (lights or appliances) are connected between the two wires of the circuit providing an independent path for the flow of current, and removing a lamp has no effect on the other lamps in the circuit.
Switches, fuses, and circuit breakers are always connected in series. In most cases, except for some Christmas tree lights, appliances and lights are connected in parallel.

6. 120 Volt and 240 Volt Circuits

The 120V circuit has one "hot" and one neutral wire, with the switch and circuit protector in the hot line. The neutral wire from the appliance is connected to the neutral bar in the fuse or breaker box. For safety, the neutral wire should never be broken or interrupted with a switch or fuse.

The voltage in a 120V circuit is measured with a voltmeter with one lead on the hot terminal and the other lead on the neutral bar. The number of amperes flowing may be measured with a clamp-on ammeter by encircling the hot or neutral wire with the jaws of the ammeter.

The 240V circuit has two hot wires and one safety-ground wire. Switches and fuses are installed in the hot lines. The two hot wires arc necessary for the operation of 240V welders and motors. The safety-ground wire, connected to the metal frame of the equipment or motor and to the neutral bar, does not carry current unless a "short" develops in the motor or welder. If a short should occur, one of the circuit protectors will burn-out or open, thus opening the circuit.
The voltage on a 240V circuit is measured by fastening a lead on the voltmeter to each of the hot wires. Voltage between either hot terminal and the neutral bar will be one-half of the voltage between the two hot wires. The number of amperes flowing can be measured by clamping an ammeter around either of the hot wires.

7. Safety Grounding of Electrical Equipment

Refer back, to the 240V circuit and note the ground wire from the metal frame to the neutral bar. The following illustration shows proper safety grounding when operating a drill in a 120V circuit. The safety-ground wire may be bare, but a three-wire cable is recommended. Safety-ground wire in three-wire cable is usually green in color. A current-carrying neutral wire should never be used for a safety-ground. Likewise, a safety-ground wire should never be used as a current-carrying hot or neutral wire.

Using grounded receptacles and a safety-ground on all circuits will allow the safety-grounding of appliances when they are plugged into the outlet. An adapter must be used to properly ground appliances connected to receptacles which are not safety-grounded. If an adapter is used, the green pigtail wire must be connected to a known ground to give protection from electrical shock should a short-circuit occur.
A test lamp can be used to check a circuit completed between a "hot" wire and a neutral wire. Use the test lamp to check appliances for shorts. With the appliance plugged into an outlet, touch the appliance frame with one lead of the test lamp while the other lead of the test lamp is grounded to a water or gas pipe. If the test light does not burn, reverse the appliance plug and check with the test lamp again. If the light burns, a short exists (the hot wire is touching the frame of the appliance). Unplug the appliance and repair or discard it.

8. Electrical Circuit Protection

Electrical circuits should be protected from an overload of amperes. Too many amperes flowing through an unprotected circuit will generate heat, which will deteriorate or melt the insulation and possibly cause a fire. The number of amperes that a given conductor can safely carry, depends upon the kind and size of wire, type of insulation, length of run in feet, and the type of installation. Charts are available in reference texts giving allowable current-carrying capabilities of various conductors.

The four types of circuit protection are: common fuses, fusetrons (time-delay), fustats (two- part time-delay), and circuit-breakers. Fuses are of two basic types: plug, and cartridge.

Common fuses contain a link made from a low-temperature melting alloy which is designed to carry current up to the rating of the fuse. Current higher than the amperage rating causes the link to heat above it's melting point. When the fuse "blows", the link melts and opens the circuit.

Fusetrons (time-delay fuses) are made to carry a temporary overload, such as the overload caused by the starting of an electric motor. The fuse, however, still provides protection for the circuit, and a short-circuit will melt the fuse link. If a common fuse is used, the fuse link will melt every time an electric motor starts. The use of a larger ampere common fuse will prevent the "blow" resulting from the temporary overload, but will not provide protection for the motor or the circuit.
Fustats, non-tamperable fuses of the time-delay type, have a different size base and require a special adapter which is screwed into the standard fuse socket. After the adapter is installed, it cannot be removed. For example, the installation of a 15-ampere adapter allows only the use of 15-ampere or smaller fuse.

Circuit breakers eliminate the replacement of fuses and are commonly used even though a circuit breaker box costs more than a fuse box. Circuit breakers are of two types, thermal and magnetic. The thermal breaker has two contacts held together by a bi-metal latch. A current overload causes the bi-metallic strip to become heated, the latch releases, and the points spring open. After the bi-metallic strip cools, the switch is reset and service is restored.
The magnetic breaker has contacts that are held together by a latch which is released by the action of an electromagnet. The amount of current flowing through the circuit will determine the size of the electromagnet. This type of circuit-breaker is reset by moving the toggle switch to the "on" position.

The following diagram shows the parts of a circuit breaker.

9. No Fault Grounding
Fuses and circuit-breakers are safety devices which limit current (amperage) in a circuit. Their main function is to protect equipment and wiring from overload. Ground fault circuit interrupters (GFI) are designed to protect humans, equipment, and/or electrical systems from injury or damage if electricity flows in an unintended path (a short-circuit).

A GFI is a very sensitive device that functions by comparing the current moving in the "hot" wire with that in the neutral wire. If these two currents are not equal, a fault exists, and current is "leaking" out of the circuit. If the difference in current between the two wires is 5/1000 of an ampere or greater, the GFI will open the circuit, shutting off the power and eliminating any shock hazard.
The National Electrical Code requires GFI's for all 120V, single phase, 15 and 20 amp receptacles installed outdoors, in bathrooms, and in garages for residential buildings. A GFI is required at construction sites and some other applications. After correcting a circuit fault, the GFI may be reset for further use.

A variety of GFI equipment is made for 120 and 240 volt circuits:

REFERENCES:
COOPER, ELMER L., AGRICULTURAL MECHANICS: FUNDAMENTALS AND APPLICATIONS. DELMAR PUBLISHERS INC., ALBANY, NEW YORK

ELECTRICAL WIRING - RESIDENTIAL, UTILITY BUILDINGS, SERVICE AREAS, AAVIM, ATHENS, GEORGIA.

Note: This electrical information does not apply directly to areas outside America and local regulations for electrical supply should be checked.

Variations
Some people have experimented with Don Smith’s basic ideas and found some interesting things. One of these people is Ukrainian: I. M. Solovey. The translation for his application for a PhD is shown below and thanks is due to Howard Halay for making this translation:

ELECTRIC POWER GENERATION SYSTEM HIGH FREQUENCY

I. M. Solovey, Candidate Ph.D.
Considered:
Existing scientific views do not have a convincing theoretical basis for the phenomenon of excess energy output. Power supply, Inductance, power, high-frequency measuring range, filter, energy.

Currently, there is a great deal of information about devices, after which "Activation" in whatever working field; in the process of "relaxation" output energy is in excess of input energy used.

For example, in the "production" of thermal energy observed in the oxygen-hydrogen electrolyzers for normal and heavy water (Filimonenko V., 1957, S. Jones, 1989), the electric discharger (Chernetsky A., 1971), vortex heat generators (Potapov Y., 1992).

In the late 1980s Stanley Meyer patents "Water Fuel Cell" (WFC) that allows the conversion of ordinary tap water into hydrogen and oxygen with far less expenditure of energy than would be required by conventional electrolysis, and in much greater quantity than expected with simple electrolysis. His explanation of the results is based on the resonant electric field effects on water molecules [2].

Later Don Smith built a number of devices based on Tesla's experiments, mostly with high output power. In his articles, he notes that he repeated each of the experiments found in the Tesla books, and this gave him an understanding of "ambient background energy" [3].

Objective. Repeat one of the above methods of obtaining energy. To test whether these devices really work. For this we implemented the circuit of the Don Smith device from his patent of 1994, where the generator can achieve an output of 15 kW (Fig. 1).
Basic materials and methods of research.
The main element in the schematic of Fig. 1 is an air-core transformer with the windings numbered 6 (primary), 6A (optional), 7 (secondary).

For the study we prepared Primary L1, secondary L2 and an additional L3 coil according to specifications given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>Secondary L2</th>
<th>Additional L3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coil length, cm</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of turns</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diameter, cm</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active resistance, ohms</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copper wire length per</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>winding, M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wire diameter, mm</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To calculate the electromagnetic parameters of the secondary coil L2 we used a program named “Flyback Tesla calculator”.

Calculation results: L2
Coil inductance - 1559.9 uH;
self capacity - 4.61 pF;
Wire Length 73.2 m;
number of turns - 457;
quality factor - 8492;
resonance frequency AC - 1.875 MHz; and ¼ resonance frequency – 1.024 MHz
(Actual Experiment - 1.1 MHz).

The study was conducted according to the schematic in Fig. 2.

Placing of coil windings - as a Tesla transformer: primary on the base of the secondary.
Measurement of current was carried out by a DC ammeter on the PSU. Current consumption in the above schematic is 0.3 A. The value of voltage $U_2$ at the output ends of the winding $L_2$ is calculated by the formula: 

$$U_2 = \frac{U_m}{N_1 N_2} = \frac{14}{8.463} = 810.25 \text{ V}$$

where $U_m$ is the voltage, 14 V; $N_1$ is the number of primary turns and $N_2$ is the number of secondary turns (see. Table).

**Note.** The formula does not take into account the resistance of the transistor’s base-emitter pn junction nor that of the connecting conductors.

Experimentally determined values of voltage - largest breakdown in the air gap between the initial winding ends at $L_2$ point of discharge. The magnitude of the voltage was 500-700 Volts. Frequency: 1.1 MHz measured experimentally by the use of a frequency generator.

When connecting the circuit (see. Fig. 2) to the constant power supply, power consumption was $0.3 \times 14 = 4.2 \text{ W}$ and this power can be called a complete network power consumption of 4.7VA. On output of the $L_2$ winding we obtain (at the base of the coil) current of about 0.3 A and a voltage between the two ends of the coil of 700 V which calculates to $0.3 \times 700 = 210 \text{ VAR}$. The study of high-energy parameters of the generator power circuit was conducted in Figs. 3 - 6 where a bulb was used as an active load. The magnitude/intensity of lamp brightness determined the output power measurement. Lamps used were various capacities from 0.3 watts to 21 watts.

Under the schematic of Fig. 3 switching in various incandescent lamps, for example 0.3 W, did not lead to lighting, although consumption of the circuit energy was $14 \times 0.3 = 4.2 \text{ watts}$. 

![Fig. 2. Schematic of windings L1 and L2](image)
We placed an extra coil L3, as in Smith's schematic (Fig. 4). Coil L3 was placed in the upper third of the L2 coil. A 6 volt, 3 watt lamp was connected to the additional coil L3 (see Table) and it showed a subtle glow.

When we inserted a capacitor C2 in series with the winding L2 (Fig. 5) We inserted a 12 volt 21 watt lamp to the L3 coil output. The lamp became brightly lit and in 4 to 5 seconds it burned out. The current consumption was a net 1.2 amps.
Fig. 5. Switching incandescent bulb(s) through the additional winding L3 when creating L2-C2 path.

An analogous result was obtained when we switched in a tungsten lamp using the schematic in Fig. 6 in a series circuit L2 / C2. A 12 volt 21 watt lamp also burns out in 4 to 5 seconds. The current in the lamp in this configuration was 1.8 - 2.3 Amps.

Fig. 6. Schematic: inserting an incandescent lamp in series through L2 and C2.

Conclusions
The results of exploratory studies confirm the existing scientific thought that the processes of input and output routing/transmission of electricity using high-voltage high-frequency electromagnetic field (radiation) phenomena require further deep theoretical and experimental studies.

References
2. Fominsky LP Rotary generators of free heat. DIY

The phenomena of appearance of excess energy effects have not found a convincing theoretical explanation from the standpoint of existing scientific views.
The interesting thing about this paper from Solovey is that the input voltage is so low at a mere 14 volts, although, of course, the output voltage is much higher and is at 1.1 Megahertz. Solovey’s final diagram Fig.6 is interesting in that his 21 watt 12 volt bulb was destroyed in just a few seconds.

The measurement of current through the bulb was 2.1 amps while the bulb’s design current is 1.75 amps. That difference is not enough to have destroyed the bulb so rapidly, so the problem will have been that the bulb wattage was exceeded severely. Earlier, the voltage across the coil “L2” was measured at 700 volts, so there may have been as much as that applied to the twelve volt bulb. If 700 volts were applied to the bulb and a current of 2.1 amps flowed through the bulb, then the dissipated power in the bulb would have been as much as 700 x 2.1 = 1470 watts which is 70 times the rating for the bulb and more than a kilowatt! Please don’t be misled by the 14 volt input voltage, this circuit steps up the voltage and it could easily kill you. It is said that the high frequency of 1.1 MHz makes the output harmless to humans. I have not tested this and you really need to be careful around any high voltage circuit.

A point which Solovey seems to have missed is the fact that the positioning of the L1 primary coil along the length of the L2 secondary coil has a major effect on the output amperage, so, positioning the L1 coil in the middle of the L2 coil should increase the output power considerably.

The lamp used as the load is essentially a resistive load. I don’t know enough about the subject, but putting a step-down air-core transformer in place of the bulb should lower the output voltage and increase the available output current considerably. However, a transformer is an inductive load and whether or not that change would completely alter the functioning of the circuit remains to be seen.

It might be worth testing the following simple circuit if we were to assume that the output voltage is indeed the 700 volts measured by Solovey and that a resistive load is needed. Three 220-volt 100-watt filament bulbs connected in series would appear to be a satisfactory test load:
Another possibility would be to take an ordinary cheap halogen heater and re-wire it so that the three 400-watt lamps are in series rather than in parallel:

A standard, low-cost halogen heater consists of three separate 400-watt sections with a switching arrangement which allows one, two or three sections to be powered up:

You can change the wiring inside the heater, so that all three halogen lamps are connected in a chain. As the wires connecting the lamps have push-on 'spade' connectors to allow for both simple manufacturing and easy replacement of a halogen lamp, this can often be done without any soldering. The new arrangement is like this:
This arrangement 'under-runs' the lamps as each lamp only gets one third of the voltage which it was designed for. If the halogen heater is now connected across 700 volts and the three lamps are similar to each other, then about one third of the 700 volts will be across each bulb. This is only an untested 700 volt suggestion although a heater of this type works well at low power on 220 volts. However, should give a high voltage resistive load as a starting point for experimentation.

Making a Solid-State Tesla Coil.
As some readers may feel that there is some "black magic" about the neon-driver circuit used by Don to drive the Tesla Coil section of his circuitry and that if a suitable unit could not be purchased then the circuit could not be reproduced or tested, it seems reasonable to show how it operates and how it can be constructed from scratch:

The circuit itself is made up of an oscillator to convert the 12-volt DC supply into a pulsating current which is then stepped up to a high voltage by a transformer. Here is a circuit which has been used for this:

The supply for the 555 timer chip is protected against spikes and dips by the resistor "R" and the capacitor "C". The 555 timer chip acts as an oscillator or "clock" whose speed is governed by the two 10K resistors feeding the 440 nF capacitor. The step-up transformer is an ordinary car coil and the drive power to it is boosted by the IRF9130 FET transistor which is driven by the 555 chip output coming from it's pin 3.

The output from the (Ford Model T) car coil is rectified by the diode, which needs to have a very high voltage rating as the voltage at this point is now very high. The rectified voltage pulses are stored in a
very high-voltage capacitor before being used to drive a Tesla Coil. As a powerful output is wanted, two car coils are used and their outputs combined as shown here:

You will notice that the car coil has only three terminals and the terminal marked "+" is the one with the connection common to both of the coils inside the housing. The coil may look like this:

and the "+" is generally marked on the top beside the terminal with the two internal connections running to it. The circuit described so far is very close to that provided by a neon-tube driver circuit and it is certainly capable of driving a Tesla Coil.

There are several different way of constructing a Tesla Coil. It is not unusual to have several spark gaps connected in a chain. This arrangement is called a "series spark gap" because the spark gaps are connected "in series" which is just a technical way of saying "connected in a row". In the chapter on aerial systems, you will see that Hermann Plauson uses that style of spark gap with the very high voltages which he gets from his powerful aerial systems. These multiple spark gaps are much quieter in operation than a single spark gap would be. One of the possible Tesla Coil designs uses a pancake coil as the "L1" coil as that gives even higher gain. The circuit is as shown here:
The connection to the pancake coil is by a moveable clamp and the two coils are tuned to resonance by careful and gradual adjustment of that connection, 10 mm at a time (after powering down and discharging the “C1” capacitor).

It has been found recently, that connecting two of these (non-ballast resistor) car coils back to back with the plus and minus connections switched over, that the performance is very much improved. It has been suggested that the small self-capacitance of each coil when connected across the other coil, causes a very much higher frequency of operation, giving much sharper voltage spikes which is a very desirable situation in a circuit of this type. This arrangement might be connected like this:

The series spark gap can be constructed in various ways, including using car spark plugs, gas-discharge tubes or neon lamps. The one shown here uses nuts and bolts projecting through two strips of a stiff, non-conducting material, as that is much easier to adjust than the gaps of several spark plugs:
Tightening the bolts which compress the springs moves the bolt heads closer together and reduces all of the spark gaps. The electrical connections can be made to the end tags or to any of the intermediate wire connection straps if fewer spark gaps are required in the chain.

Let me remind you again that this is not a toy and very high voltages will be produced. Also, let me stress again that if you decide to construct anything, then you do so entirely on your own responsibility. This document is only provided for information purposes and must not be seen as an encouragement to build any such device nor is any guarantee given that any of the devices described in this ebook will work as described should you decide to attempt to construct a replication prototype of your own. Generally, it takes skill and patience to achieve success with any free-energy device and Don Smith's devices are some of the most difficult, especially since he admits quite freely that he does not disclose all of the details.

The output capacitor marked "C1" in the circuit diagram above has to be able to handle very high voltages. There are various ways of dealing with this. Don dealt with it by getting very expensive capacitors manufactured by a specialist company. Some home-based constructors have had success using glass beer bottles filled with a salt solution. The outside of the bottles are wrapped in aluminium foil to form one of the contacts of the capacitor and bare wires are looped from deep inside each bottle on to the next one, looping from the inside of one bottle to the inside of the next one, and eventually forming the other contact of the capacitor. While that appears to work well, it is not a very convenient thing to carry around. An alternative is just to stand the bare bottles in a container which is lined with foil which forms the second contact of the capacitor.

One method which has been popular in the past is to use two complete rolls of aluminium foil, sometimes called "baking foil", laying them one flat, covering it with one or more layers of plastic cling film and laying the second roll of foil on top of the plastic. The three layers are then rolled up to form the capacitor. Obviously, several of these can be connected together in parallel in order to increase the capacitance of the set. The thicker the plastic, the lower the capacitance but the higher the voltage which can be handled.

The November 1999 issue of Popular Electronics suggests using 33 sheets of the thin aluminium used as a flashing material by house builders. At that time it was supplied in rolls which were ten inches (250 mm) wide, so their design uses 14" (355 mm) lengths of the aluminium. The plastic chosen to separate the plates was polythene sheet 0.062 inch (1.6 mm) thick which is also available from a builders merchants outlet. The plastic is cut to 11 inch (280 mm) by 13 inch (330 mm) and assembly is as follows:
The sandwich stack of sheets is then clamped together between two rigid timber sheets. The tighter that they are clamped, the closer the plates are to each other and the higher the capacitance. The electrical connections are made by running a bolt through the projecting ends of the plates. With two thicknesses of plastic sheet and one of aluminium, there should be room for a washer between each pair of plates at each end and that would improve the clamping and the electrical connection. An alternative is to cut a corner off each plate and position them alternatively so that almost no plate area is ineffective.

As Don Smith has demonstrated in one of his video presentations, Nikola Tesla was perfectly correct when he stated that directing the discharge from a Tesla Coil on to a metal plate (or in Don’s case, one of the two metal plates of a two-plate capacitor where a plastic sheet separates the plates just as shown above), produces a very powerful current flow onwards through a good earth connection. Obviously, if an electrical load is positioned between the plates and the earth connection, then the load can be powered to a high level of current, giving a very considerable power gain.

Constructing High-Quality Coils.
The Barker & Williamson coils used by Don in his constructions are expensive to purchase. Some years ago, in an article in a 1997 issue of the “QST” amateur radio publication, Robert H. Johns shows how similar coils can be constructed without any great difficulty. The Electrodyne Corporation research staff have stated that off-the-shelf solid tinned copper wire produces three times the magnetic field that untinned copper does, so perhaps that should be borne in mind when choosing the wire for constructing these coils.
These home-made coils have excellent “Q” Quality factors, some even better than the tinned copper wire coils of Barker & Williamson because the majority of electrical flow is at the surface of the wire and copper is a better conductor of electricity than the silver tinning material.

The inductance of a coil increases if the turns are close together. The capacitance of a coil decreases if the turns are spread out. A good compromise is to space the turns so that there is a gap between the turns of one wire thickness. A common construction method with Tesla Coil builders is to use nylon fishing line or plastic strimmer cord between the turns to create the gap. The method used by Mr Johns allows for even spacing without using any additional material. The key feature is to use a collapsible former and wind the coil on the former, space the turns out evenly and then clamp them in position with strips of epoxy resin, removing the former when the resin has set and cured.

Mr Johns has difficulty with his epoxy being difficult to keep in place, but when mixed with the West System micro fibres, epoxy can be made any consistency and it can be applied as a stiff paste without any loss of it's properties. The epoxy is kept from sticking to the former by placing a strip of electrical tape on each side of the former.

I suggest that the plastic pipe used as the coil former is twice the length of the coil to be wound as that allows a good degree of flexing in the former when the coil is being removed. Before the two slots are cut in the plastic pipe, a wooden spreader piece is cut and its ends rounded so that it is a push-fit in the pipe. This spreader piece is used to hold the sides of the cut end exactly in position when the wire is being wrapped tightly around the pipe.

Two or more small holes are drilled in the pipe beside where the slots are to be cut. These holes are used to anchor the ends of the wire by passing them through the hole and bending them. Those ends have to be cut off before the finished coil is slid off the former, but they are very useful while the epoxy is being applied and hardening. The pipe slots are cut to a generous width, typically 10 mm or more.

The technique is then to wedge the wooden spreader piece in the slotted end of the pipe. Then anchor the end of the solid copper wire using the first of the drilled holes. The wire, which can be bare or insulated, is then wrapped tightly around the former for the required number of turns, and the other end of the wire secured in one of the other drilled holes. It is common practice to make the turns by rotating the former. When the winding is completed, the turns can be spaced out more evenly if necessary, and then a strip of epoxy paste applied all along one side of the coil. When that has hardened, (or immediately if the epoxy paste is stiff enough), the pipe is turned over and a second epoxy strip applied to the opposite side of the coil. A strip of paxolin board or strip-board can be made part of the epoxy strip. Alternatively, an L-shaped plastic mounting bracket or a plastic mounting bolt can be embedded in the epoxy ready for the coil installation later on.
When the epoxy has hardened, typically 24 hours later, the coil ends are snipped off, the spreader piece is tapped out with a dowel and the sides of the pipe pressed inwards to make it easy to slide the finished coil off the former. Larger diameter coils can be wound with small-diameter copper pipe.

The coil inductance can be calculated from:

Inductance in micro henrys \( L = \frac{d^2 n^2}{18d + 40l} \)

Where:
- \( d \) is the coil diameter in inches measured from wire centre to wire centre
- \( n \) is the number of turns in the coil
- \( l \) is coil length in inches (1 inch = 25.4 mm)

Using this equation for working out the number of turns for a given inductance in micro henrys:

\[
 n = \frac{\sqrt{L(18d + 40l)}}{d}
\]

Chinese Developer Ming Cao.
a free-energy developer in mainland China, comments on the designs of Don Smith, and Tariel Kapanadze. He says:

None of these things originate from me, they come from Tesla and God.

1. The most important issue, is resonance. Don Smith said that we should make the wire length of the primary coil to be one quarter of the wire length of the secondary coil in order that they will resonate together. My experiments show that this is not true. In a Tesla Coil, the primary coil and it's capacitor form a tank circuit which is an L/C circuit, which oscillate at it's own resonant frequency, and when it does that, it generates a longitudinal wave at that exact frequency. The frequency of this longitudinal wave is determined by the inductance of the primary coil combined with the capacitance of it's tank circuit capacitor, and not the wire length of the primary coil alone. The secondary coil with it's sphere at the top, together form an antenna, which transmits this longitudinal wave. The secondary coil and it's top sphere together form a quarter-wave resonant antenna for this longitudinal wave. They do not form an L/C circuit and that is why very few people have managed to replicate Don Smith's devices.

2. In the devices of Don Smith and Tariel Kapanadze, there is no sphere. We see a single coil as the secondary. This is no longer a quarter-wave antenna, but a half-wave antenna. The highest voltage shows up at the very centre of this coil, and zero voltage shows up at the two ends of the coil winding. These are where the energising coil and the pick up coil should be positioned.

3. The longitudinal wave which passes through the secondary coil is not a current at all, it is a signal running through it, so if we let the secondary to charge a capacitor, we will get nowhere. All we will get is hot electricity caused by the loose induction coupling. The arc at the top of a typical Tesla coil is lightning voltage, and no capacitor on earth can handle that voltage, so even a very high voltage capacitor will be over stressed and the arc will shock through it.

4. The speed of this wave is well defined. It depends on the total capacitance of the coil, and the sphere if there is one. In a typical Tesla coil, the bigger the sphere, the bigger the capacitance, and the lower the resonant frequency of the secondary coil. People are trying to explain it by L/C circuit theory, but this is not necessarily true. Increased capacitance will slow the wave down. If there is no sphere, as in the devices of Don Smith and Tariel Kapanadze, the total capacitance is quite small, and so, the speed of the wave should approach the value \((\pi/2) \times C\), where \( C \) is the speed of light. This speed of the longitudinal wave is claimed by Tesla himself. I kind of verified this by experiment. I said “kind of”, because in my experiment, I got a speed of \((\pi/2) \times C \times (8/9)\). The wave is slowed down by the copper losses and the capacitance of the coil, mostly the capacitance, but it's definitely faster than the speed of light.

5. So, to tune the secondary, we should not use the speed of light at all, Don was playing a game with us here. Take Don's device as an example. If we position the primary coil at the centre of the secondary coil, then that...
middle point of the secondary should either be grounded or connected to a large metal sphere, and each half of the secondary coil should act as a half-wave antenna. Also, the pick-up coils should be located at the two far end terminals. The speed of the longitudinal wave along the secondary coil is unpredictable and so we can only predict a general speed range, we cannot tell whether it is already resonating by performing calculations. Like Nick Giannopoulou's arrangement (see below) and Tesla's patent diagram, there are two quarter wave coils, whose inner terminals are connected together and open to the air. Here 'open to the air' means that it is different from the other turns of the coil. The longitudinal wave is climbing the turns rather than passing along the wire. But at the end of each quarter wave coil, there is no other turn to climb any more, only a long wire for it to travel along. This straight long wire is open to the air and provides a capacitance for the whole device, and this additional capacitance will slow down the longitudinal wave which is passing through it, so that the resonant frequency for the combination of these two secondary coils will be lower. But if we eliminate the straight wire, and make it a single half-wave secondary coil, the longitudinal wave can keep climbing the turns, and there's no additional capacitance, so that the speed of the longitudinal wave will be very close to \((\pi/2) \times C\), and the resonant frequency will be higher. We can use the same wire length and same diameter coil former to build different devices, which will work at completely different frequencies. So the resonant frequency is unpredictable and we need to find the exact frequency by equipment measurement, or it won't work. The only correct way of tuning the secondary is shown by Eric Dollard in his video of the 1980s, entitled "Eric Dollard Transverse and Longitudinal Wave" which at the present time can be found on YouTube at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6BnCUBKgnnc.

6. A pick-up coil is always necessary, and it should be positioned near the zero node of a standing wave. This is one of the only two ways of harness the longitudinal wave. This method is the dynamic way, the other way is the static method, which I believe was used by Ed Gray.

7. In Dr. Peter Lindemann's book and video, he says that Tesla is using unidirectional current. I have to disagree with this. When we charge a capacitor and discharge it through a spark gap, the discharge current "bounces" between the two plates of the capacitor, until the energy is all lost at the spark gap. This process repeats itself endlessly in a typical Tesla Coil. We can see this primary waveform with an oscilloscope and it is alternating current. Thousands of Tesla Coils work in this way and generate lightning. I am confident that this is how it operates.

8. It is not like Don Smith said, that doubling the voltage quadruples the output. It does look like that, but it is actually the current flowing through the primary doing the job. Of course we increase the current by increasing the breakdown voltage of the spark gap by widening the gap. But fundamentally, it is the current which is doing the job. Ed Gray's tube uses a short straight copper bar as the energising 'coil', but it's not a coil, it has little inductance to generate voltage, it only has high current passing through it to energise the longitudinal wave. Of course I haven't actually seen this process, it is a conclusion which is not fully based on experiment.

9. The larger the number of turns in the pick-up coil, the higher the output voltage will be. I still cannot understand how the pick-up process works, but it does pick up more energy.

I get all these by low voltage from a signal generator, as I haven't finished building a high voltage device yet, although I'm already working on it. But I think it's safe for me to believe that these results are solid and good enough to share.

Here is a image from Tesla's patent 593,138 Electrical Transformer.
We can see it's exactly the same as Nick Giannopoulos' setup, except that Tesla is using a generator in this diagram, I believe for simplicity. As long as the generator is generating the exact frequency of current, it will work fine. The secondary at the energising side is a quarter-wave coil, and at the pick-up side is another quarter-wave coil. The highest voltage is at the far end of these two secondary coils and their connecting wire, and zero voltage is at the very outside turn of each of the coils. Now if we change the spiral form coil to helical, it becomes Nick's set-up. And let's take this further, we can shorten the connecting wire until the two solenoid secondary coils actually become one big coil, then, when combined it is a half-wave coil, and the highest voltage is at the middle point of it. Now it becomes Don Smith's and Tariel Kapanadze's device, like this:
Because the energy is also coming back from the energising side, Kapanadze adds another pick-up coil right underneath the primary energising coil. This arrangement, I think, is very hard to replicate, because it is so very hard to tune, for several reasons:

1. The Secondary wire length is rather short, and the wave speed is very very close to \((\pi/2) \times C\), so the frequency should be very high, at least 5-7MHz I would guess, or perhaps even higher.

2. The pick-up coil and the energising primary coil is too close to the centre point of the half wave secondary coil. Because the centre point is the point of highest voltage, if the input is a little high, there would be arc shock between the secondary to the energising coil and the pick-up coil, at lightning voltage levels, and so even the best isolation is useless. Also, the centre point is very very sensitive, any conductor close to it will add to the total capacitance of the coil and of course that will alter the half-wave resonant frequency. This adds more difficulty to the tuning adjustment. Besides, after all, people don't even know it's a half-wave coil if he doesn't tell us.

3. The coupling coefficient \(K\) is a little high, this will increase the hot transformer effect by inductive coupling, and that will not help at all.

Don Smith did indeed say something useful. He said that we can make the secondary coil a fixed size, and then slide the primary coil inside it. Well based on experimental results, this sliding process is altering the actual effective length of the secondary coil. In general, we should assess coil size by counting the turns from the turn right underneath the primary energising coil, to the turn right underneath the pick-up coil, this section is the actual secondary, and this section should be a half-wave resonate coil, the rest of the coil just sits there doing nothing.

But it's not that simple, the terminals of the secondary coil should connect to the earth or to a large sphere, or a typical Tesla Coil secondary with the same quarter-wave resonant frequency. Otherwise the signal will bounce backwards and forwards in the coil producing a mess, or generating an arc, and this is bad for performance, and this is why a solid ground connection is desirable. And this is the true meaning when Don says "slide the primary coil to do the fine tuning".

So, returning to the Kapanadze device, the energising coil covers a large area of the secondary coil, making the effective length of the secondary coil very much shorter, again, boosting the working frequency of the device even higher. For such a device, it is impossible to tune it without a 20Mhz signal generator, an oscilloscope and complete understanding of how a longitudinal wave behaves. For a start, I don't even know where to connect the oscilloscope probe or which terminal should connect to the ground, I'm so lucky to be able to watch Eric Dollard's old video, and I recommend everybody to watch that video, watch it over and over again, also many other educational videos from Eric. A lot of fundamental stuff about how a longitudinal wave behaves are explained there, it's like a treasure map covered in dust in a quiet corner of an open library.

Ming's video [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1p41KLlOM2E&feature=youtu.be](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1p41KLlOM2E&feature=youtu.be) demonstrates what he is saying here. For the video he uses an input coil, a monitoring coil and a secondary coil, each end of which is earthed using separate earth connections:
Ming also remarks:

For the set-up in the video, the secondary coil is wound using 1mm diameter enamelled copper wire, 365 turns around a 160mm diameter PVC pipe. The total coil length is 39.5cm. The total wire length of the secondary is approximately 182m. The white material is several layers of insulating glue to prevent arcing between adjacent turns when working with high voltage. The primary coil and the pick-up coil are wound with audio cable which is more than 4 square millimetres in cross section. The primary coil has 2 strands, 2 turns. The pick-up coil has 4 strands and only one turn. I use this thick wire, because I am going to use these coils for my high voltage project.

For a low voltage experiment like shown in the video, it would be quite adequate to use ordinary copper wire of 1 square millimetre cross section (swg 18 or AWG 17). If the secondary wire length is reduced, then the resonant frequency will be higher, but the principle is the same.

If only low voltage is going to be used - perhaps just to study the nature of longitudinal waves, then the secondary coil can be made using very thin wire of 0.3 to 0.4mm diameter (swg 30 to swg 27) enamelled copper wire, which will cost much less. I made my coils with thick wire because I intend to continue using high voltages.

It's been a long time, but I've got some more understanding about harnessing radiant energy. I have made two additional videos: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WJUj53geBo](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WJUj53geBo) and [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BdBjKVyKBZA](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BdBjKVyKBZA) In these two videos, I explain the method of converting Tesla's 'cold' electricity to normal 'hot' electricity by storing it in a capacitor. I strongly believe that, the method shown in the second video is exactly what Don is doing with his famous device, which has no pick-up coil, just a two-part secondary.

In the first video, I replace the pick-up coil with an uncoated sheet of copper, to show people that, this is not a transformer, and so, is not based on electromagnetic induction. The pick-up coil is fundamentally, a piece of metal which can be electrified by a longitudinal wave. I can remove the diode and the capacitor, and just let the copper sheet discharge to ground through a spark gap and two ordinary 200-watt incandescent light bulbs connected in series, the light bulbs are pretty bright although not fully lit, but pretty bright in spite of this being a non-resonant situation. They look like this:
The copper sheet is electrified, and it's charge is flowing to ground, and it is this very process which forms the current. So if we consider it as a transformer, and consider the pick-up coil as an inductor, and add a load to this "inductor" to form a closed loop, then we are going in the wrong direction.

Then I re-read about Nick Giannopoulos' device, and I noticed that he said that the light coming from his bulb is blue and white. Following his circuit diagram, I believe that it is like this:

![Image ofNick Giannopoulos' device](image)

I get this kind of light when I attach the light bulb directly to the sheet copper without an earth connection or any other additional wire. Here at this stage, we have no 'hot' electricity. The blue-white light is caused by the high voltage of the metal, to which the bulb is attached. The high voltage is not caused by induction, it is purely static charge on the metal surface, caused by longitudinal wave electrification. If we use Tesla's specially made bulbs as shown in his lectures, we have his single-wire lighting system, and we will have a very bright light suitable for general-purpose lighting instead of this kind of blue-white light. Generally speaking, my bare copper sheet is the equivalent of Nick's pick-up coil plus his step-down transformer, which, of course, is not a transformer at all.

Note: As will be seen in the videos, Ming uses two separate earth connections. One is the earthing wire of his mains electricity and the other is a connection to his cold water pipes.

**A Russian Developer**

A Russian developer has lit a large light bulb with a self-powered Kapandze-style circuit:
ENERGY AMPLIFICATION WITH HIGH VOLTAGE SPARK GAP

ГРОНІПОЕЗД БТГ

ТДКС на 494
Video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5nxKqfkndw&feature=youtu.be shows self-powered bulb (needs an earth connection):
‘Salty Citrus’ Chinese Developer.
A Chinese developer whose forum ID is ‘Salty Citrus’, has replicated Don Smith’s main device very successfully. Using an input of 12V at 1A to 2A (24 watts) he is lighting ten 100-watt light bulbs to a high level of brightness. The Chinese language video relating to this can be seen at:
http://www.energysea.net/forum.php?mod=viewthread&tid=1350&extra=&page=1

Here are some of the frames from that video:
The circuitry used is shown here:
Notes: Transformer T1 drives a board containing 6 IGBT transistors.
All of the high frequency capacitors of 0.1 to 0.6 μF are CBB types.
Subsequently, a forum post by a Mexican man says:

Hello ‘Salty Citrus’,

I love your video!!! I can really appreciate the amount of work you and your group have spent to develop and perfect the Don Smith / Tesla free-energy device. Thank you for pursuing such a noble cause.

I am intrigued by your switching network using the CREE CMF20120. How did you wire the MOSFET’s? You used a UCC3825A Pulse-Width Modulator to clock the signal --> MOSFETS --> Gate Drive Transformers (x3) --> push-pull transistors --> CMF20120? Did you run the CMF20120 in series? Sorry about so many questions, but I am totally impressed by your ingenuity, and completely agree that your solid-state solution has undoubted benefits over Tesla's conventional spark gap.

I would be honoured if you could take the time to answer my questions. I would love to replicate your circuits.

I wish you the best of luck with your endeavours.

Sincerely,

‘Lost_bro’ (half a world away)

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Re: ‘Lost_bro’

Thanks for the compliment. The success does credit to my team. Thanks to my team. Yes, the CMF20120 run in series in this solution. The voltage balancing between each MOSFET is critical as is the balancing between RC and DC voltage created by R.

Welcome to our forum for the exchange of information. China is an hospitable country. If you have any information or ideas, please don't hesitate to share them with us. ‘Half a world away' is not a great distance.

All the best,

Sincerely

‘Salty Citrus’
An earlier entry on the Chinese forum translates as:

Here is an earlier build. It is simple and has no step-down section and so cannot be self-powered:
Each bulb is 100 watts. The first board has a 12-volt input and an adjustable output which can be varied from 500V to 1600V (any higher voltage would damage the four 450V 20 microfarad capacitors). In the video, the variable resistor is used to set the voltage level of the FBT after boost as the voltage step-up circuit can go up as high as 3,000 volts.

The L2 coil is wound in a single direction and has just one tap at the centre. The idea is from Tesla’s Colorado Springs Notes, in which Tesla disclosed the best method for a resonant driver. The frequency used in this circuit is about 230 kHz.

Question: There is nothing to do with quarter-wavelength, but is there anything with the length of the L1 and L2 coils on quarter-wavelength?
Answer: I think that the phase is more important.

Question: Do you need a Phase-Locked Loop circuit with a certain phase difference?
Answer: Basically, I use a fixed frequency, I have tried a Phase-Locked Loop and the effect is the same.

Question: Do you use direct drive with the spark gap only being used to limit voltage?
Answer: You can use a vacuum tube to drive it.

Question: If you drive it directly, then the loading will be very big and the current will increase, whereas if you use a spark gap, then the spark will become smaller and the current will be steady.
Answer: If the load affects the input, then you cannot drive it even with a spark gap. If you trigger with a spark gap, then the load will not increase the input. The spark gap is just a switch.

Question: Is there any direct Lenz relationship between the load and the primary?
Answer: Once the phase has been adjusted, the primary has no adverse effect on the secondary.

Commenting on his circuitry, ‘Salty Citrus’ states:

The diode symbols with a tick indicate a Zener diode (or bidirectional TVS-Transient Voltage Suppressor or “varistor”). For example, in this circuit, they are used to suppress the Grid voltage of the MOSFET, to maintain the gate voltage within the range of +20V to -20V. The above circuit is just a description of the structure of the MOS series method. Specific components will be needed for your own requirements considering the MOSFETs being used in your construction.

The voltage E0 can be adjusted. The source can be made using a TL494 IC operating at 12V, or alternatively, an adjustable, voltage-stabilised inverter can be used. The voltage setting depends on the numbers of MOSFETs which are being used in series and the parameters of Grid voltage and the turns ratio of the isolation transformer. The circuit is arranged so that each MOSFET has its own separate isolation transformer, and all of the primary windings of those transformers are connected in series to form a single current path. The number of turns in the primary of each isolation transformer is exactly the same. To drive an IGBT(or MOSFET), VT6 provides a high-frequency pulse current to drive the Gates of the MOSFETs, so as to achieve consistent switching.
In my circuit, the frequency used is 220 kHz, for this frequency, I use six MOSFETs type CMF2012 (1200V, 37A, Resistance Drain-to-Source of just 80 milliohms). This MOSFET from CREE has excellent performance, but you have to design the drive circuit carefully, 2V to 22V for the Gate voltage will be best. I particularly stress that it is very important that MOSFETs operated in series, require voltage balancing and an accurate drive. Especially important is having synchronized drive signals and the rise and fall time of the drive signal should be as short as possible, so that the switching time difference between the MOSFETs will be short, and that improves the high frequency operation.

**Tesla Coils Back-to-Back**

I have been told of one man who used his common sense and produced an impressive result. He used a Tesla Coil as the driving force, and then used a second Tesla Coil back-to-back with the first one, to step the high voltage back down again. Doing that, he was able to light a series of powerful light bulbs from the “L1” output coils. He also confirmed that doubling the voltage, quadrupled the power output, verifying what Don said. He also found that adding additional coils with bulbs to the output Tesla Coil, did not increase the input power at all, did not cause any of the existing light bulbs to shine any less brightly, and yet lit the additional bulbs. That would appear to be confirmation of Don’s statement that any number of magnetic copies of the original oscillating magnetic field of the first Tesla Coil, can provide a full-power electrical output without requiring any additional input power. I’m no expert, but my understanding of the arrangement is:

As the large diameter coil is exactly one quarter the length of the smaller diameter coil, there is an automatic resonance of both when the applied frequency is just right. As the first narrow coil is identical to the second narrow coil, they are also automatically resonant together. Again, as the large coils which feed the loads are exactly one quarter the wire length of the narrow coils, they also resonate at the common frequency and at that frequency, the input power is at its minimum while the output power is at its maximum. The spike at the top of each of the narrow coils is connected with a wire to channel the generated power from the first Tesla Coil to the second one.

This arrangement may seem too simple to be effective, but with Tesla technology “too simple” just does not apply. This can be seen clearly from the work of Nikanor “Nick” Giannopoulos. Before he ever learned anything about electronics, Nick read and understood Nikola Tesla’s “Colorado Spring Notes” (http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/TeslaCSN.pdf 60Mb) and this helped with his present level of understanding. Interestingly, and perhaps not surprisingly, Nick had difficulty with conventional electronics after becoming familiar with Tesla’s technology.

Nick used a square wave signal generator adjustable from 50 kHz downwards and with a fully adjustable Mark/Space ratio. This was used to drive an oil-filled car ignition coil, which, as he points out is not a Tesla Coil in spite of the frequently held view that it is. Ignition coils only operate at low frequency due to the limitations of their core material. However, John Stone points out that certain coil designs, such as those for the Fiat ‘Punto’ car, are built in such a way that replacing the core with ferrite should be possible, and that would allow high frequency operation.

Anyway, Nick uses a standard car ignition coil at lower frequency and uses it to feed a spark gap like this which is constructed from two chipboard screws:
His circuit is:

Nick has had very impressive results from his circuit, although it is still very much a work in progress with more development and testing still to be done. The 24 watt input of 12V at 2A is producing two very brightly lit 220V light bulbs. This does not tell us very much about the actual output power as bulbs are notorious for lighting brightly at low power levels, especially if the frequency is high. But, a very important point is the quality of the light which is an unusual, blue-white colour, quite unlike the colour produced when connected to the 220V mains supply. This is generally a sign of the power being ‘cold’ electricity. While he has not yet had the opportunity to test it, Nick believes that the circuit as it stands now is quite capable of powering much higher loads, and considering the colour of the light, I would be inclined to agree with him, although anything like that has to be tested and proven before any solid conclusions can be drawn from what is already known about the performance. The circuit performance is much improved if two separate physical earth ground connections are made.
Please don’t fall into the trap of thinking that because the sparks are occurring at less than 5 kHz, that the Tesla coils also operate at that frequency. If you strike a bell which vibrates at 400 Hz, does that mean that you have to hit it 400 times every second in order to hear it? Actually, no, you don’t, and the same thing applies here where the resonant frequency of the Tesla coils is approximately 650 kHz. The primaries are wound on 100 mm diameter PVC pipe sections and 19 turns of 1.02 mm diameter enameled copper wire is used for them (19 swg or #18 AWG). The secondary coils are wound on 70 mm diameter PVC pipe using 0.41 mm diameter enameled copper wire (27 swg or #26 AWG) with a total length of four times the primary winding wire length. As you will see later on in this chapter, resonance in a coil involves a standing wave inside the wire. That standing wave is created by the signal bouncing off the end of the wire and being reflected back. At frequencies other than the resonant frequency, this results in a constantly changing set of many different waves travelling in both directions and at different intensities (what could reasonably be described as a total mess). When the resonant frequency is fed to the coil, then all of that mess disappears and just one waveform remains, and at any point along the wire, that waveform appears to be stationary although, of course, it is not actually stationary, just the effect of the peaks always occurring at exactly the same spot and the troughs occurring at exactly the same spot, making successive waves look exactly the same as the previous one.

This feature has one very practical aspect, namely that if you run the same wire away from the coil turns to connect to whatever the next circuit component happens to be, then the wave inside the wire will not bounce back at the end of the coil turns but will continue on to the end of the wire before bouncing back. So, the connecting wire length has to be included when reckoning the wire length in the turns of the coil. On the other hand, if the wire in the coil turns is terminated at the ends of the coil and wire of a very different diameter is used for connecting to the next component in the circuit, then the signal inside the wire will bounce back from the sudden change in wire diameter and so the connecting wire length will not be part of the wire length in the turns of the coil. This is an important feature if you are aiming for an exact 4:1 wire length ratio (and 4:1 wire weight) between the Tesla Coil windings in order to impose an automatic resonance between the two windings.

It should be noted that PVC (especially non-white PVC) has a very restrictive effect on high frequency coils. At low frequencies, PVC is ok, but it drags down the coil performance as the frequency rises, lowering the “Q” (for “Quality”) factor of the coil. Using acrylic instead of PVC overcomes this. Alternatively, coating the PVC with a high-voltage insulating material such as shellac or one of the proprietary coating agents, will improve matters considerably. The ideal, of course, is to have no former at all and have the coil standing unaided because of its own strength.
The ‘Gegene’ Magnetic Arrangement.
As we have seen from what Don Smith has said, a very effective method of gaining additional power is to make a high frequency magnetic transmitter as that allows several outputs to be taken from the transmitter without increasing the input power in any way. Recently, a clever idea for a simplified version of this has been shared on the web. As far as I am aware, this device was first presented by the Lithuanian ‘FreeEnergyLT’ whose website is at http://freeenergylt.narod2.ru/dynatron/

and the information then replicated and documented by J L Naudin on his website http://jnaudin.free.fr/gegene/indexen.htm and named ‘Gegene’ being short for ‘Great Efficiency Generator’. The clever idea is to use a commercial induction hot-plate as the transmitter. These have recently become available at low cost, this one:

Sold in the UK by Maplin, has power levels adjustable from 300 watts to 2000 watts, and at time of writing, costs only £30 delivered to your address. These devices operate by generating a powerful high frequency oscillating magnetic field which induces eddy currents in any magnetic material placed on the surface of the cooker. That is, cookware which is made of cast iron or steel (not stainless steel which is supposedly non-magnetic). The heating is very rapid and completely uniform across the item of cookware which is very helpful when cooking. The hot plate is controlled by sophisticated electronics which will not switch on unless there is an iron object on the plate and which varies the frequency and current in a way chosen by the designer.

The circuitry produces the magnetic field by pulsing current through a large, flat coil in the centre of the case as can be seen in this photograph of a typical induction plate with the case opened:
The brown coil gets hot, and so there are spacers on it to prevent the cool outer casing from picking up the heat of the coil. There is also a fan which draws air in from underneath the case and blows it across the coil in order to keep the heat down.

In order to use this magnetic transmitter, we need to place a suitable output coil on the plate, and power a load from the energy collected by that coil. This is a fairly recent idea and so there is still a good deal of experimentation going on, testing different coils, and various loads. It is generally agreed that the best load is a non-inductive load with halogen lamps and ordinary filament light bulbs being recommended. Halogen lamps are used in some low-cost commercial heaters, and they are very effective method of radiant heating. In his video at [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LbAhUwHvJCE](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LbAhUwHvJCE), Laurent powers seven separate 400-watt halogen lamps using a small 800-watt maximum plate which has a small 120 mm diameter transmitter coil:

No particular power output is claimed by Laurent, but as you can see, the 2800 watts of halogen lamps are brightly lit while a wattmeter on the input to the plate reads just 758 watts. It seems to be fairly clear that there is a significant power gain with this arrangement. Then, Laurent places an additional coil on top of the first one and shows it lighting a 100-watt filament light bulb very brightly:
It is actually quite difficult to see the brightness of lamps shown in a video as the video camera automatically turns down the brightness of the recording. The important point here is that there is significant power output from a second coil, without there being any increase in the power input to the transmitter coil in the induction plate.

There are many different designs of electronics in commercial induction plates. Most will not start operating until a magnetic object is placed on top of the plate. If that is done, then the object needs to be removed very promptly as it heats up very rapidly. Fortunately, most plate designs keep operating as soon as the induction process is started and so there is no problem with removing the metal cookware (or whatever is used to start the process). Laurent’s very small induction plate does not have that protection circuitry and so starts up as soon as it is switched on.

Jean-Louis Naudin uses a 2000-watt induction plate turned down to its 1000-watt setting. It has a 180 mm diameter pick-up coil. He says that for him, it is essential to have at least 1500-watts of load or else the induction plate will shut down with an error code indicating that no cookware is present.

The coils used are Tesla bi-filar pancake types, typically, attached to a thin sheet of MDF or plywood, say 2 mm thick, with superglue. Laurent’s 120 mm coil has ten turns and Jean-Louis’ 160 mm coil has sixteen turns, needing about 5 metres of twin-core wire, and Laurent’s about 2.5 metres of wire. I suggest that the wire should be rated for mains voltage and have, perhaps 1 sq. mm cross-sectional area of copper wire in each conductor. A Tesla pancake coil is wound like this:

Please remember that this arrangement involves high voltages and so is not suitable for newcomers to electronics. This presentation is strictly for information purposes only and it is not a recommendation that you attempt to implement anything shown here, and if you choose to do so, then the responsibility is yours and yours alone.

An interesting video is here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SJ1MG1Qt7LQ&feature=em-uploademail.

Tariel Kapanadze's Self-Powered Generators
Tariel Kapanadze, like Don Smith, appears to have based his work on that of Nikola Tesla. There has been a video on the web, of one of his devices in operation, but it appears that the video has been removed. However, part of it can be seen here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l3akywcvb9q The video commentary was not in English and so the information gathered from it is not as complete as it might be. However, in spite of that, a number of useful things can be learned from it. Unfortunately, Tariel refuses to share the details of his designs.
The video shows a demonstration being staged in a back garden, I believe, in Turkey. Strong sunshine was casting dense shadows which made video detail less than perfect. Essentially, Tariel demonstrated one of his builds of a Tesla-style free-energy device, powering both itself and a row of five light bulbs.

One of the most encouraging things about this video is that the construction and operation was of the most basic kind, with not the slightest suggestion of expensive laboratory work or anything high-precision. This is most definitely a backyard construction within the scope of any knowledgeable person.

Electrical connections were made by twisting bare wires together:

and where necessary, tightening the twist with a pair of pliers:

This shows clearly that a high-power and very useful free-energy device can be made with the most simple of construction methods - no expensive connectors here, just a zero-cost twisted connection.
The device being displayed is a Tesla Coil powered, earth-connected system of the type already described. You will notice that the thick primary winding is not placed at one end of the central secondary winding but is much closer to the centre of the coil. Remember that Don Smith states that if the primary coil is placed centrally, then the amount of current which the coil can deliver is very large, in spite of the fact that most people think that a Tesla Coil can only produce trivial currents. Notice also that this Tesla Coil appears to be mounted on a cheap kitchen-roll holder. I have seen it said that Tariel makes a new device for each demonstration and takes it apart afterwards, so if that is correct, then it is likely that there is no great effort or expense involved in making one of these systems.

The main operational components are shown here, placed on one small table. There is a lead-acid battery (which is removed later in the demonstration), what appears to be an inverter to produce mains AC voltage from the battery, a high-voltage step-up system housed in a green box for safety reasons, a Tesla Coil, a spark gap mounted on the box and a fan-cooled component, probably a solid-state oscillator system driving the Tesla Coil. Not seen in this picture, is an item contained in a small box which might well be a high-voltage capacitor.

Two earth connections are organised. The first one is an old car radiator buried in the ground:

and the second is a bare wire wrapped around a garden tap's metal pipe and twisted tight as shown above. It is distinctly possible that the circuit is based on this circuit of Tesla's:
Perhaps, the battery powers the inverter which produces mains voltage, which is then stepped up to a high voltage level by the enclosed electronics. This then drives the Tesla Coil, producing both very high voltage and current with the capacitor storing the energy as a reservoir. The spark gap then pulses this energy, driving the primary winding of the isolation transformer which produces a lower voltage at substantial current (depending on the current-handling capacity of the transformer itself) powering the load, which in this case, is a row of light bulbs.

The load is a row of five light bulbs hung from a brush handle placed across the backs of two chairs:

As you can see, this is not exactly high-tech, high-cost construction here, with all of the materials being used for other things afterwards.

Initially, the battery is used to power the inverter and it is demonstrated that the current being drawn from the inverter is substantially less than the power entering the load. In conventional terms, this appears impossible, which is an indication that the conventional terms are out of date and need to be updated to include the observed facts from demonstrations such as this.

As the system is putting out a good deal more power than is required to drive it, might it not be possible to use part of the output power to provide the input power. This is often called "closing the loop" and it is demonstrated in this video as the next step.

First, the circuit is altered so that the input power connection to the inverter is taken from the output. Then the circuit is powered up using the battery as before. The battery is then disconnected and removed altogether, and the people helping with the demonstration pick up all of the active items and hold them up in the air so as to show that there are no hidden wires providing the extra power from some hidden source. The items on the table are not part of the circuit:
There is some additional information on Tarel including videos of some of his more powerful, newer designs at [http://peswiki.com/index.php/Directory:Kapanadze_Free_Energy_Generator#Official_Website](http://peswiki.com/index.php/Directory:Kapanadze_Free_Energy_Generator#Official_Website) although it has to be said that there does not appear to be very much on him or his work available at this time.

In December 2009 an anonymous contributor e-mailed to say that Kapanadze returned to the ex-USSR republic of Georgia and that the video soundtrack is in the Georgian language and after the demonstration, the interview is in Russian. He has kindly translated the parts which relate to the device, as follows:

**Question:** What are you showing us today?
**Answer:** This is a device which draws energy from the environment. It draws 40 watts as it starts up, but then it can power itself and provide an output of 5 kilowatts. We don't know how much energy can be drawn from the environment, but in an earlier test, we drew 200 kilowatts of power.

**Question:** Is it possible to solve the energy problems of Georgia?
**Answer:** We consider that they have already been solved.

**Question:** Please tell us in simple terms, how your device works.
**Answer:** (1) Power is drawn from the battery to get the device running
(2) If we want, we can use part of the output power to drive a charger and charge the battery
(3) When the device is running, we can remove the battery and it then operates self-powered. This particular unit can deliver 5 kilowatts of power which is enough for a family. We can easily make a version which supplies 10 kilowatts. We don't know what the practical power limit is for a unit like this. With this particular device we have here, we do not draw more than 5 kilowatts as we don't want to burn out the components which we used in this build.

**Question:** Does your invention pick up current from mains wires?
**Answer:** The mains has nothing to do with this device. The energy produced comes directly from the environment.

**Question:** What do you call your device and do you dedicate it to anyone?
**Answer:** I would not dream of claiming this device to be my invention, I just found something which works. This is an invention of Nikola Tesla and all the credit is his. Tesla has done so much for mankind but today he is just forgotten. This device is his invention, his work.

**Question:** Why are you so sure that this is a design of Nikola Tesla's?
**Answer:** Because I worked from his invention - his design. I discovered how to get automatic resonance between the primary and secondary windings. The most important thing is to achieve resonance. Melnichenko came close to solving this problem. The government of Georgia refuses to take this invention seriously.

**Question:** You said that resonance must be maintained. Which parts resonate?
Answer: Here (pointing to the green box) and here (pointing to the Tesla Coil mounted on the top of the green box). The resonator is inside the green box and at present, it is secret until patented.

Question: How much would one of these units cost?
Answer: When mass produced, it would cost between 300 and 400 US dollars for a unit which has an output of 5 or 6 kilowatts.

Question: How much did it cost you to build this demonstration device?
Answer: About eight thousand (currency not specified). Parts had to be got in from twenty different places.

Question: Is this your house?
Answer: No. I rent this place because we have sold all that we have to make these devices. And, having done it, the government and many scientists say "We are not interested because a device like that is impossible and can't possibly exist!". I have not been allowed to make a presentation to them, but people who understand the Tesla Coil understand how this device works.

Kapanadze is an architect by profession and has not had any training in either physics or Electrical Engineering. The information on which this design was based was downloaded free from the internet.

One of the most important aspects of this video is the confirmation it gives for the work of Tesla and of Don Smith, in that it shows clearly, yet again, that large amounts of energy can be drawn from the local environment, without the need to burn a fuel. Another video: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gErefbcTz-U

People frequently ask for construction drawings or alternatively, outlets where they can buy one of his devices. Unfortunately, Tariel is not willing to share the details of his designs and so they will probably never be manufactured. Many people have tried to analyse and replicate his design.

The Cold Electricity Coil of ‘UFOpolitics’
A man who uses the forum ID of ‘UFOpolitics’ has been sharing his insights and experiences on various different forums, such as the one dealing directly with the production and use of cold electricity in solid-state circuits: http://www.energeticforum.com/renewable-energy/10529-my-motors-got-me-tap-into-radiant-energy-1.html His insights are unusual and very important. His basic statement is that if a coil is pulsed, using a circuit like this:

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then conventional hot electricity pulses the coil when the transistor is switched ON, but if that current is switched OFF rapidly, then there is an inflow of cold electricity into the coil from the surrounding environment. That inflow of energy can be collected and diverted to power a load through the use of two high-speed diodes which can carry considerable current as the power inflow is substantial. The inflow of energy occurs when the transistor is switched OFF and so it is desirable to have the transistor switched off for most of the time, in other words, a low percentage Duty Cycle for the transistor. There must be a significant load on the cold electricity output. If there is not, then the cold electricity will flow back into the hot electricity section of the circuit and it may damage the transistors. Tom Bearden states that resistors boost cold electricity rather than hindering it's flow, so the load should be a coil, a DC motor with brushes or a fluorescent light bulb.
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It has been observed that the incoming energy tends to flow inwards towards the centre of the coil, so an additional method of collecting this extra energy is to place a second coil inside the main coil, and wound in the same direction as it, like this:
This provides two separate, independent cold electricity power outputs. Diodes are not needed for the inner ‘secondary’ coil. This inner coil is a pick-up coil and is not related in any way to the number of turns in the hot electricity pulsing coil. Instead, this coil collects inflowing cold electricity during the period when the pulsing coil is switched OFF. The hot electricity pulsing coil can be wound directly on top of the extra pick-up coil or the extra coil can be wound separately and placed inside the main coil spool.

Very surprisingly, it is recommended that the powerful high-speed diode used to channel the cold electricity out of the circuit, be followed by a small 1N4148 silicon epitaxial planar high-speed diode (75V 0.45A) as this is said to clean up the cold electricity output even more. It is important that the cold electricity has to encounter the more powerful silicon diodes before reaching the 1N4148 diodes, so the order of the diodes is very important, and should be as shown here:

Alternative diodes for the NTE576 (6A, 35nS, 400V) are the NTE577 (5A, 70nS, 1000V) and the HFA16PB (16A, 19nS, 600V). The main requirement is high-speed operation, voltage rating of at least 400V and current rating of at least 5 amps.

There is one additional thing to be done with this circuit when a DC output is required and that is to apply filtering to the output. First, when the energy has passed through the NTE576 (or equivalent) power diodes, it encounters a high-frequency (low capacity) high quality film capacitor placed across the output in order to siphon off any high-frequency voltage ripple before it is passed through the small 1N4148 diodes and into a smoothing and storage electrolytic capacitor. Storing the cold electricity in the electrolytic capacitor converts it into conventional hot electricity.
While this circuit looks like something which you just switch on and it works, that is not the case as there is an essential start-up procedure where the signal applied to the transistor is started at just a few cycles per second and 50% duty cycle and that input is then adjusted carefully and slowly while monitoring the voltages and currents produced by the circuit. This is a seriously powerful system with the capability of producing a major power output. It is very important that the circuit is not powered up without a suitable load on the cold electricity output. A suitable load is a self-ballasted 230-volt fluorescent light. It must be understood that just flipping the power switch to its ON position is not sufficient to get an inflow of cold electricity. Instead, it is necessary to progress the start-up sequence carefully, and a fluorescent light is particularly helpful for doing this although a neon bulb is also a popular choice of temporary load, because these devices allow the current flow in the load to be assessed visually.

Before switch-on, the input oscillator is set to 50% duty cycle and minimum frequency. Then the frequency is raised very slowly, causing the lamp to start flashing. As the frequency is raised, the current drawn from the battery needs to be monitored as it is the current flowing through the transistor, and the current is kept down by lowering the duty cycle progressively. This process is continued carefully and if successful, the colour of the light produced will initially be purple or green before reaching continuous bright white light. Videos showing the light produced and the fact that it is not dangerous to life or affected by water can be seen at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W1KALMgFscg&list=UUdmFG5BeS0YnD2b5zasXXng&index=1&feature=plcp.

The driving force is a series of powerful magnetic pulses, and implementing the physical circuit to achieve that requires careful construction. The battery driving the circuit is a 36 volt combination of cells. The coil is wound as an air-core construction on a 2-inch (50 mm) diameter spool and the DC resistance is arranged to be about 1.4 or 1.5 ohms. This, in turn, requires a substantial drive from the transistor and so it is normal to connect six powerful output transistors in parallel in order to spread the current flow between them as well as dissipating the heat generated across several transistors bolted to a common heat-sink of generous area.

How the coil is wound is something to consider. The objective is to have a coil of about 1.5 ohm resistance and which has the maximum magnetic effect for the current passed through it. Copper wire has become very expensive and so it would be very costly to wind the coil with vast lengths of thick wire, not to mention the very large size and great weight which would be produced by doing that. The copper wire options in Europe are typically to work with half-kilogram reels of wire. The details of some of these are as follows:
We can see from this that a 500 gram reel of 14 swg wire has a total resistance of just 0.09 ohms and so it would take sixteen reels (weighing 8 kilograms and costing a lot of money) to wind just a one-strand coil using that wire, producing a coil which could carry a current of 9.3 amps. As opposed to that, a single reel of 28 swg could provide 52 separate windings, which when connected in parallel, could carry 15 amps as well as costing and weighing far less. It would be tedious, but not impossible, to wind a 52-strand coil, so a more reasonable number of strands connected in parallel might be used. We are aiming at a DC resistance of about 1.45 ohms in any coil arrangement which we select.

The magnetic field produced by a single strand is generally less than the magnetic field produced by two strands carrying the same total current. So, if we were to pick 22 swg wire, then we could measure out four 133.5 metre lengths, join them at the start, and wind the four strands simultaneously, side-by-side to form a coil with a DC resistance of 1.45 ohms. It is important that the strands are exactly the same length so that they carry exactly the same current and no one strand gets overloaded with current due to it having a lower resistance than the other strands. It should be realised that as the maximum current which the wire can carry is 4.8 amps and the resistance is only 1.45 ohms, the maximum continuous DC voltage which can be sustained by the coil is only 7 volts, and so as a 36-volt battery is being used, we must adjust the frequency and duty cycle very carefully, especially since we are starting at very low frequencies. If the full battery voltage is applied continuously to the coil, then the coil will be destroyed.

Various members of the forum have suggested, built and tested different circuits for feeding a variable-frequency variable-duty-cycle drive signal to the output transistor. However, ‘UFOpolitics’ recommends a simple 555 timer circuit. If you are not familiar with electronic circuits, then read chapter 12 which explains them in some detail, including the 555 timer family of circuits. The point stressed by ‘UFOpolitics’ is that the output taken from pin 3 of the 555 chip passes first through a 100 ohm resistor and then, every transistor gets a separate feed via a two resistor voltage divider pair. The 47K Gate-to-Ground resistor is to ensure that the FET turns off properly. It may be possible to increase the value of these resistors but they should never be less than 47K.

![Diagram of 555 timer circuit](image)

The thick lines in this diagram indicate heavy-duty wiring which can carry high currents without generating any real heat when doing so. It is also recommended that although the FET has an internal diode, an extra external high-speed diode (NTE576 or similar), be connected across each FET in order to boost the switching speed:
A FET has a gate capacitance of about 1 nF. The faster it can be charged / discharged the faster the FET will switch (and stay cool). What determines the speed of charge / discharge for the gate capacitance is the length of wire from driver to gate or gates is inductance (where one metre of wire produces 0.05µH). In addition to that, different lengths of Gate connection wire will create different switching delays and the different inductances can then initiate High Frequency oscillations with repetitive ON/OFF/ON/OFF switching actions. The result might be burned FETS and lack of cold electricity activities.

Another point made by ‘UFOpolitics’ is that the physical layout should have the connecting wires or tracks kept as short as possible and he suggests this layout:

There are two things to note here. Firstly, the 100 ohm resistor coming from pin 3 of the 555 timer IC is positioned centrally between the six FET transistors mounted on the aluminium heat-sink, and that point is carried closer to each FET with a low-resistance conductor to give a good-quality link for the resistors feeding the Gate of each FET. Secondly, the heat-sink itself is also used to provide a low-resistance electrical connection to the coil which the FETs are driving. The connection to the heat-sink is via a nut and bolt clamping a solder tag firmly to a cleaned area of the heat-sink. Each FET is electrically connected to the heat sink through it’s mounting tag which forms it’s heat-sink connection as well as connecting to the Drain of the Transistor. However, if the aluminium heat sink is a black anodised type, then, apart from cleaning between each FET and the heat-sink contact area, it is worth running a thick wire also linking the central FET pins to the output wire connection point.

The transistors used in the prototype, and recommended for replications are the NTE2397. This is not a very common transistor in Europe at this time and so the popular IRF740 might perhaps be used as it appears to have all of the main characteristics of the NTE2397 transistor. ‘UFOpolitics’ suggests the 2SK2837 (500V, 20A, 80A pulsed), or the IRFP460 (500V, 0.27 Ohm, 20A and 80A pulsed).
As the 555 timer has a maximum supply voltage of 15 volts, an LM317N voltage-stabiliser chip is used to create a 12-volt supply from the 36-volt battery (a 24V battery could be used):

The LM317N integrated circuit should be attached to a good heat sink as it is dropping off 24 of the 36 volts powering the circuit, and so, has to dissipate twice the power that the NE555 chip uses:

There are various pulsing circuits which have been used successfully with this system. ‘UFOpolitics’ considers the NE555 chip to be the most straightforward, so perhaps my suggestion for this arrangement might be a suitable choice:

This gives fine control of the frequency and independent adjustment of the Mark/Space ratio or ‘Duty Cycle’ and it needs only three very cheap components other than the controls. If the expensive multi-turn high quality variable resistors are available, then the 4.7K ‘fine-tune’ variable resistor can be omitted as those variable resistors make the adjustments easier to control. The ‘Lin.’ in the diagram stands for ‘Linear’ which means that the resistance varies steadily at a constant rate as the shaft of the variable resistor is rotated.
In the ‘UFOpolitics’ circuit, it is important to turn the frequency down to its minimum value and set the Mark/Space ratio to 50%, before powering the circuit down. Otherwise it would be easy to power the circuit up with a much higher frequency than is advisable and so, causing damage to some of the circuit components.

There are ways to boost the performance over what has already been described. One way is to insert a stainless steel core inside the coil. Stainless steel is supposed to be non-magnetic but in practice, that is not always the case. However, ideally, this steel core is improved by altering its crystalline structure by heating it up and then quenching it by submerging it in cold water.

Another improvement is to isolate the coil better at switch-off through the use of a second transistor. Having a ‘switched-off’ transistor at each end of the coil certainly blocks the flow of hot electricity, but if Tom Bearden is correct, the resistance of the transistors in their OFF state will actually boost the flow of cold electricity as it reacts in the reverse way to how hot electricity reacts. The arrangement is like this:

While this looks like a very simple circuit to implement, that is not the case. The upper transistor is switched ON by the voltage difference between its Gate “G” and its Source “S”. But, the voltage at its Source is not fixed but varies rapidly due to the changing current in the coil, and that does not help when solid and reliable switching of the upper transistor is needed. A P-channel FET could be used instead and that would have its Source connected to the fixed voltage of the Plus of the 36V battery. That would help the switching enormously, but there would still be timing issues between the two transistors switching ON and OFF at exactly the same time. Other circuits have been suggested for doing that type of switching, but in the early stages, ‘UFOpolitics’ recommends that things be kept as simple as possible, so using just one transistor is the best option.

Switching speed is an item of major importance, even to the extent that the reduction in the speed of switching caused by using more than one transistor in parallel has caused the suggestion to be made that it might actually be a better option to use just one FET since these high-performance FETs are capable of carrying the whole of the switching current, and it is mainly to lower the FET operating temperature that multiple FET use is suggested. Every extra FET used in parallel, slows the switching down. However, it should be realised that there is a somewhat greater risk of burning the FET out if just one is used.

The coil dimensions recommended are two-inch (50 mm) diameter and 2-inch length. The wound coil is likely to be about three-inches (75 mm) so making the flange diameter 4-inches (100 mm) is realistic:
The recommended material is fibreglass which has high heat-resisting properties as well as being easy to work, the personal choice of ‘UFOpolitics’ is Polyester Resin with Methyl Ethyl Kethol (MEK) Hardener. A suggested alternative is acrylic, which is not as heat resistant. Acrylic is excellent for high-frequency applications but this circuitry does not operate at high frequencies. Whatever spool material is chosen, it needs to be non-magnetic. When connected in the circuit, the start of the coil winding wire goes to the battery positive.

Here is another coil wound on acrylic tube and with all four diodes connected to the ends of the coil:

It should be understood that cold electricity provides almost unlimited power and it has uses which are not readily understood by many people.

‘UFOpolitics’ suggests that the hot electricity drive circuitry be tested initially using just a resistive load. If everything checks out correctly, then test with a lesser value resistor in series with the coil, and if that checks out satisfactorily, then testing cautiously with the coil on its own.

Cold electricity can charge batteries rapidly and after a series of charge and discharge cycles, batteries become ‘conditioned’ to cold electricity and the experiences of Electrodyne Corp. staff show that large conditioned batteries which are fully discharged, can be recharged in under one minute. A member of the present forum has tried this with the ‘UFOpolitics’ circuit and he reports:

Yesterday a friend and I took 6 identical, old, 12V, 115Ah batteries and made two 36V banks. We set up bank "A" (the better three) to power the device to charge bank "B". Bank A was 37.00v at rest and Bank B was 34.94V.
My lowest frequency was 133Hz (I need to change my cap and add another 100k pot with the one which is controlling the frequency) and the duty cycle was at 13%. We started at 2A draw on the Primary circuit.

As I raised the frequency, the batteries on charge jumped up to 38.4V then dropped evenly to 36.27V and started up again (at about 0.01V every 2 seconds). After two and a half hours, they were up to 39.94V. At this point we stopped the charging and let everything rest for 10 minutes. So far everything seems very normal for this kind of charging, except that the device appears to be very stable and powerful...pushing the batteries right on up continuously. The Primary battery voltage dropped initially to 36.20V and stayed there the whole time, then recovered to 36.98V during the 10 minute rest.

Then we switched battery banks A and B and charged the opposite way for about 20 minutes. We stopped and rested things again, swapped the banks back and started charging bank B again for another 20 minutes and stopped. After letting the batteries rest for a few hours in order to get truer readings, bank A was at 37.07V and bank B was at 38.32V. Both battery banks had gained power. These were not very good batteries, either. One of the bank B batteries was at 10.69V at the start. Another interesting note: The amp draw on the Primary dropped from 2A to 1.5A as the frequency was raised from 133Hz to about 550Hz.

This was with the very first use of cold electricity with these low-grade batteries and a major improvement can be expected after many additional charge/discharge cycles. This completely overcomes the factors which make a battery bank unsuitable for household power. If an entire battery bank can be recharged in just minutes, then it opens the way for serious household power using a battery bank.

Cold electricity can also run motors very powerfully. Forum member 'Netica' found that putting a capacitor across the motor terminals improved the running very substantially, giving impressive performance. His video of this is at http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=player_detailpage&v=7uAYKhrPDPc and the motor, running off an air-core coil with no steel insert. His set-up looks like this:

It is also possible to submerge cold electricity circuits in water without causing any harm:
A video of this is located here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W1KALMgFscg&feature=channel&list=UL including demonstrating the use of very powerful light bulbs. A general running demonstration is here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yVzhKpEqUgc&feature=player_embedded.

Stanley Meyer's Electrical Particle Generator.
Stan, who is famous for his water-splitting and related automotive achievements, actually held about forty patents on a wide range of inventions. Here is one of his patents which circulates magnetic particles in a fluid, and while the fluid does move, none of the other components in the device move and a high level of constructional skills is not called for. This is a highly efficient generator of electricity.

This is a slightly re-worded excerpt from this Stan Meyer patent. Although it does not state it in the patent, Stan appears to make it understood that this system produces a significant power gain – something with Patent Offices find very difficult to accept.

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**ELECTRICAL PARTICLE GENERATOR**

**ABSTRACT**

An electrical particle generator comprising a non-magnetic pipe in a closed loop having a substantial amount of magnetised particles encapsulated inside it. A magnetic accelerator assembly is positioned on the pipe, which has an inductive primary winding and a low-voltage input to the winding. A secondary winding is positioned on the pipe opposite to the primary winding. Upon voltage being applied to the primary winding, the magnetised particles are passed through the magnetic accelerator assembly with increased velocity. These accelerated particles passing through the pipe, induce an electrical voltage/current potential as they pass through the secondary winding. The increased secondary voltage is utilised in an amplifier arrangement.

**BACKGROUND AND PRIOR ART**

The prior art teachings expound the fundamental principle that a magnetic field passing through inductive windings will generate a voltage/current or enhance the voltage across it if the winding is a secondary winding.
It is also taught by the prior art, that a magnetic element in a primary inductive field will be attracted at one end of the coil and repelled at the other end. That is, a moving magnetic element will be accelerated in motion by the attraction and repulsion of the magnetic field of the primary inductive winding.

In the conventional step-up transfer, the voltage across the secondary is a function of the number of turns in the secondary relative to the number of turns in the primary winding. Other factors are the diameter of the wire and whether the core is air or a magnetic material.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The present invention utilises the basic principle of the particle accelerator and the principle of inducing a voltage in a secondary winding by passing a magnetic element through it.

The structure comprises a primary voltage inductive winding having a magnetic core, plus a low-voltage input. There is a secondary winding with a greater number of turns than the turns in the primary winding, plus an output for using the voltage induced in that winding.

The primary winding and core are positioned on one side of an endless, closed-loop, non-magnetic pipe. The secondary windings are positioned on the opposite side of the endless pipe. The pipe is filled with discrete magnetic particles, preferably of a gas, and each particle has a magnetic polarised charge placed on it.

Due to their magnetic polarisation charges, the particles will sustain some motion. As the particles approach the accelerator assembly, which is the primary coil, the magnetic field generated by the coil attracts the particles and accelerates them through the coil. As each particle passes through the coil, the repulsion end of the coil boosts the particle on it’s way. This causes each particle to exit from the coil with an increased velocity.

As the magnetic particles pass through the secondary coil winding, they induce a voltage across the ends of that coil. Due to the larger number of turns, this induced voltage is much higher than the voltage across the primary coil.

The main objective of this invention is to provide an electrical generator which is capable of producing a voltage/current of much greater magnitude than has been possible previously. Another objective is to provide a generator which uses magnetic particles and a magnetic accelerator. Another object is to provide a generator which can control the amplitude of the output. Another objective is to provide a generator which can be used with DC, AC, pulsed or other configurations of waveforms. Another objective is to provide a generator which can be used in either a single-phase or a 3-phase electrical system. Another objective is to provide a generator for developing magnetised particles for use in an electrical particle generator. Another objective is to provide an electrical generator which uses readily available components to construct a simple embodiment of this invention.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

![Diagram](image)

Fig.1 is a simplified illustration of the principles of the invention, shown partially in cross-section and partially pictorially.
Fig. 2 is an electrical schematic illustration of the embodiment shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 is an illustration similar to Fig. 2 but which is adaptable to 3-phase use.

Fig. 4 is a first alternative arrangement of a preferred implementation of the invention.
**Fig. 5** is another alternative arrangement of a preferred embodiment of the invention.

**Fig. 6** is another alternative arrangement of a preferred embodiment of this invention.
Fig.7 is another alternative arrangement of a preferred embodiment of this invention.

Fig.8 is another alternative arrangement of a preferred embodiment of this invention.

Fig.9 is an alternative arrangement for a magnetic drive particle accelerator assembly.
Fig. 10 is an illustration of an alternative method of producing the magnetised particles used in this invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show the invention in its most simplified schematic form:

It comprises a primary coil magnetic accelerator assembly 10, a closed-loop non-magnetic pipe 30, and a secondary winding 20. The magnetic accelerator assembly is comprised of primary windings 12, a magnetic core 14, and voltage taps 16. The primary windings are positioned around end 32 of the closed-loop pipe 30 which is made from non-magnetic tubing.
At the opposite end 34 of the closed-loop pipe 30, are the secondary windings 20. The end terminals 22 of the secondary winding 20, allow the voltage generated in the winding to be used. Contained inside pipe 30, there is a substantial number of magnetic particles 40 as shown in Fig.2. The particles 40 must be light enough to be freely mobile and so may be particles suspended in a fluid medium such as gas, liquid or light-weight movable solid particles. Of these options, the use of a gas is preferred. If solid particles are used as the transporting medium, then it may be desirable to remove all air from inside the pipe in order to reduce the resistance to the flowing particles. Each of the particles 40 is magnetised and the following description refers to one individual particle and not to the mass of particles as a whole.

The voltage applied to terminals 16 of primary winding 12, is a low voltage, and it's magnitude may be used as an input signal control. By varying the input voltage, the accelerator will vary the speed of the circulating particles, which will, in turn, vary the magnitude of the voltage/current output of the secondary winding 20. The output 22 of the secondary transformer winding 20, is a high voltage/current output.

It can be appreciated that the system shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2 where there is just one closed loop, provides a single-phase output in the secondary winding 20. Fig.3 shows a closed-loop arrangement with three parallel non-magnetic tubes 31, 33 and 35, each with it's own output winding 21, 23 and 25. Each of these three windings are a single-phase output, and as their three pipes share a common input junction and a common output junction, these three output windings provide a balanced 3-phase electrical system.

Fig.4 shows an electrical power generator which operates exactly the same as those shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2. Here, the arrangement is for use in an environment where there is a high moisture content. An insulating coating 45, completely covers pipe 30 as well as all of the electrical windings. Fig.4 also illustrates the fact that increasing the number of turns for any given wire diameter increases the voltage/current output of the device. In this physical configuration, both vertical and horizontal directions are used which allows a large-diameter pipe to be used with a substantial number of turns of heavy-gauge high-current wire.
**Fig. 5** shows a coil arrangement **49**, which uses the entire magnetic flux in the closed-loop tubing **47**. This is a co-axial arrangement with the primary winding **43** as a central core.

**Fig. 6** illustrates a concentric spiral configuration of the tubing **50**, with the secondary windings **53** covering it completely.
Fig. 7 shows an arrangement where the particle accelerator 10 is wound over the tubing 30 in much the same way as in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. However, in this arrangement, the tubing 30 is a continuous closed loop arranged in a series-parallel configuration where there are three secondary windings providing three separate outputs while the tubing 30 runs in series through those three windings.

Fig. 8 shows a configuration which is the reverse of that shown in Fig. 7. Here, there are several pick-up coils wound in series and unlike the earlier configurations, the tubing 80 is not continuous. In this arrangement, there is an input manifold 82, and an output manifold 84, and several separate tubes 60a, 60b, 60c, ..... 60n interconnecting those two manifolds. Each of those separate tubes has it's own separate secondary coil 70a, 70b, 70c, ..... 70n wound on it.
The magnetic particle accelerator 10, can be different in design to that shown in Fig.1. Fig.9 shows a mechanical particle accelerator 100. In this arrangement, the magnetic particles 102 are permanently magnetised prior to being encapsulated in the non-magnetic pipe 110. The particles 102 are accelerated by fan blade or pump 104 rotated by mechanical drive assembly 106. The mechanical drive for assembly 106 may be a belt-drive pulley 112, or similar device driven by an electric motor. A sealing bearing 114 keeps the particles 102 inside the pipe 110.

It has been stated that the magnetic particles traversing the secondary coils, generate a voltage/current in them. It must be understood, however, that that the particles are actually traversing the magnetic field of those coils.

Also, the pipe 30 has been described as a non-magnetic pipe. There are certain non-magnetic pipes which would not work with this invention. Pipe 30 must be capable of passing magnetic lines of force.

A significant feature of each of the various embodiments already described, is the generation of the magnetic particles which are encapsulated within the tubing.

Fig.10 shows an apparatus for carrying out the process of vaporising material to produce suitable particles which are then magnetised by being subjected to a magnetic field. The chamber 155 is an evacuated chamber having
electrodes, made from magnetisable metal, 160 and 162. A voltage is applied between terminals 150 and 152, and this drives a current through terminals 154 and 156, to spark-gap electrodes 160 and 162, generating an arc which vaporises the tip material of the electrodes, producing particles 180. These particles rise and enter tube 190, passing through a magnetic field generator 175. This gives each particle a magnetic charge and they continue on their way as magnetically-charged particles 185, passing through port 190 to reach the electrical particle generator described above.

In the simplified embodiment shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2, as well as the other preferred embodiments mentioned, it was indicated that a low voltage was applied to the particle accelerator 10. Upon acceleration, a high voltage/current would be induced in the secondary pick-up coil 20. A most significant advantage of the present invention is that the voltage amplification is not related to the shape of the waveform of the input voltage. Specifically, if the input is DC a DC voltage will be output. An AC input will produce an AC output. A pulsed voltage input will produce a pulsed voltage output and an input voltage of any other configuration will produce an output having that same configuration.

The Work of Russ Gries.
Russ Gries has produced a video presentation and analysis of the above Stan Meyer patent. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OnAmTmxBpAQ.

The very experienced Alex Petty is joining with Russ in working on replicating Stan’s system and Alex’s web site is at www.alexpetty.com. A discussion forum linked to this is at http://open-source-energy.org/forum/ and there is information at http://www.overunity.com/index.php?topic=5805.285 and high-resolution pictures can also be seen in Russ’ video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JOarpi6sDD4. Russ’ own website is at http://rwgresearch.com/ and an additional video of the most recent developmental work being undertaken at: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=adzVQRsS1KY&feature=youtu.be.

There are various important things which are commented on and Russ is to be commended for drawing attention to them. For the moment, please forget about HHO as that is a separate issue. As far as I can see, the patent does not claim that the device is COP>1 but instead that the device is a power transformer which potentially has a greater power output than conventional transformers since there is no Lenz Law reverse magnetic path from the output coil winding to affect the input power.

Having said that, Stan in his video points out ways to boost the power of the device, namely:

1. Increase the strength of the magnetic particles
2. Increase the speed of the magnetic particles
3. Lower the distance between the magnetic particles and the output winding.

The magnetic particles can be produced in various ways, but the most effective appears to be by filling the arcing chamber with argon gas and using iron, nickel or cobalt electrodes. The reason for this is that the electric arc does not only generate minute particles of the electrode material, but it also interacts with the argon, stripping off electrons and causing some of the metal particles to combine with the modified argon gas molecules to form a magnetic gas. That gas will always remain a magnetic gas due to the atomic bonding as it is not just minute particles of metal physically suspended in a gas due to their tiny size.

You will recall from chapter 1, that the very successful ShenHe Wang magnet motor/generator has a magnetic liquid as a key component. Here, Stan is producing a much lighter magnetic gas and the advantage of that lightness is that it can be boosted to very high speeds without any danger. The larger the number of modified argon molecules, the greater the magnetic effect when they pass through a coil of wire. The argon gas can be passed through the arc chamber over and over again so that a very high percentage of the gas is magnetic. Alternatively, if you are sophisticated in the design of the particle generator, you can arrange for the molecules which have become magnetic, to be pulled off into storage by a magnetic field.

Stan talks about pumping the magnetic gas through whatever pipe loop arrangement you decide to use, by a pump, but he promptly moves on to using a magnetic coil to boost the gas forward as the coil has no moving parts and so, no mechanical wear. This is only one reason. The main reason is that with magnetic acceleration, the gas speed can become very high indeed and in his video he talks about the speed of light. However, I personally do not believe that anything remotely like a speed that great could be achieved inside a pipe loop of small diameter. Nevertheless, speeds well in excess of what a mechanical pump can achieve are likely to be produced by magnetic acceleration.
Russ, in his discussion, points out that on most of Stan’s surviving prototypes, the coil which is used for the acceleration is constructed using several apparently separate coils, and he speculates that each coil section is powered sequentially, causing a rippling magnetic field. While that is definitely possible, I don’t see that a style of coil powering would have any advantage as opposed to powering all of the coils continuously. However, if sequential powering is believed to be an advantage, then the ‘Divide-by-N’ circuitry of chapter 12 can be used to provide the sequential powering or any more complex sequence.

Stan then points out that the output voltage can be increased by increasing the number of turns on the output coil and/or having additional output coils. This is easily understood conventional electrics. But, he then goes on to point out that the output will also be increased if the electrons of the modified argon molecules are raised to a high orbital level. This places the electromagnetic electrons (as described in chapter 11) closer to the output coils and presumably also allows the gas to be accelerated to a greater speed by the driving magnetic field.

This power boosting of the gas is achieved using Stan’s “Gas Processor” described in chapter 10. The Gas Processor pumps electromagnetic energy into the gas through the use of banks of Light-Emitting Diodes which produce light of the correct wavelength to add energy to that particular gas.

If you check on the internet for the wavelength of argon, you find conflicting information, with some sites saying that the wavelength is 1090 nanometres (“nm”) and most others saying both 488 nm and 514.5 nm. Most LEDs produce a band of frequencies, so it would be a case of picking LEDs whose band of frequencies include the wanted wavelength.

The Gas Processor itself, consists of a central tube which is polished to a mirror finish on the outside, surrounded by a larger tube which is highly polished on the inside. The LED light is then bounced between these polished surfaces until it is absorbed by the gas which is passed through the gap between the two tubes. This is not easy to illustrate, but it might be shown like this:

![Diagram of Gas Processor](image)

In Stan’s design, he uses six columns of sixteen LEDs, with each column of LEDs spaced out evenly around the outer tube. So, to boost the Magnetic Particle Generator to greater power levels, a Gas Processor is placed in the loop of tubing:
The Gas Processor normally has a coil mounted at each end and it may be convenient to use coils in those positions as accelerator coils. It may also be an advantage to apply a pulsed high-voltage between the inner and outer tubes of the Gas Processor. As it stands, this looks as if it has a high possibility of being a COP>1 electrical device.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.co.uk
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 4: Gravity-Powered Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to follow parts of this chapter if you read Chapter 12 first.

Lawrence Tseung's COP=3.4 Pulsed-Flywheel Generator.
It is generally not realised that excess energy can be obtained from pulsing a flywheel or other gravitational device.

This fact has recently been stressed by Lawrence Tseung who refers to the extra energy obtained in this way as being “Lead-out” energy. This gravitational feature has been part of university Engineering courses for decades, where it has been taught that the loading stress on a bridge caused by a load rolling across the bridge is far less than the stress caused if that same load were suddenly dropped on to the bridge.

This impulse technology has been known for some time and it is demonstrated driving a canoe in the video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aKWPht3fU-o but Lawrence points out the potential for using it as a method for gaining excess energy for practical use. In October 2009, Lawrence and his band of helpers ran public demonstrations of an early prototype electrical pulsing system which produces excess output energy of COP = 3.3, that is, with 3.3 times more output energy than the user has to put into it to make it work:
Lawrence is busy developing this device further as he intends to construct one with a output energy excess of several kilowatts.

Behind this device is Lawrence's "Lead-out" theory and for this he suggests a simple arrangement to demonstrate the principle. He presents the case of a rotor which has two substantial weights contained in two cylinders attached to the rotor:

As the disc rotates, the ball falls down the length of the tube. At one end, the tube has a rigid cap which causes a significant impact when the ball hits it. The other end of the tube is padded and that cushions the impact which causes a net imbalance in the impacts and that maintains the rotation.

There is a prototype implementation on YouTube but the implementation is not adequate and the disc stops rotating after five minutes. The YouTube video slot is located at: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zykButGc22U&feature=related and there are two significant problems with that particular build. Firstly, the tube rotation is too slow to be effective and instead of the weight falling under gravity and accelerating to a good speed before the impact, the weight just rolls gently down a minor slope and does not make a major impact.

Secondly, the weights are far too small for the size of the wheel and there are only two weights providing impacts very widely spaced apart as the wheel rotates only slowly. One man made a ten-foot version and it rotated steadily for ten months after which time his wife insisted that it be taken apart as it was too noisy.

I would suggest some modifications to the wheel as Lawrence is far too busy with developing his COP>1 pulse implementation. Firstly, the movement of each weight should be delayed until the tube is much nearer the vertical. This can be achieved by curving part of the tube like this:

This way, the ball does not start rolling until the main part of the tube is near vertical. This allows a much greater acceleration and impact. The weighted ball should be much larger, say 2" (50 mm) in diameter and made of lead, in order to generate a significant thrust. Also, the cushioned ends of the tubes should be aligned with the pivot of the wheel so that any residual impact does not generate a turning force in the wrong direction. This turning force is only there for a small arc of rotation as the weight will roll inwards as soon as the tube section rises above the horizontal and as the tube then transitions into a circular curve, the movement inwards is gentle. It probably would be better if the tubes were angled slightly more in the clockwise direction, rather than exactly as shown in the diagram.

Secondly, there should be eight tubes on the disc, four on each side and one side staggered by 45 degrees so that there is a driving impact every 45 degrees instead of the 180 degrees of the version shown in the YouTube video. With that arrangement of four times as many impacts, each substantially greater, and no significant reverse impacts, the wheel has a much better chance of successful rotation without needing to be particularly
large. The wheel itself should not be light as it acts as a flywheel and a pulsed flywheel has already been shown to produce excess power. The wheel bearings should be ball races and not the closed variety because those ones are packed with grease and have a serious resistance to rotation. Instead, the open-sided variety of ball bearing should be used as they rotate very freely.

Using straight tubes for illustration, each tube could be like this:

Here, a wood disc is fitted to each end of a piece of plastic tube and held securely in place with screws or bolts which pass through small holes drilled in the plastic pipe and screw into the wooden disc. A piece of thick sponge is glued to the disc at one end and the heavy weight inside the tube is not a tight fit so that it can move very freely inside the tube. Four of these tubes are fitted to each side of each disc used in the device as shown here:

The four tubes attached to the back of the disc are 45 degrees away from the tubes mounted on the front of the disc. Each tube is attached securely in place with straps which pass through the disc and are secured on the far side. The tubes can also be glued in place to further strengthen the attachment. These eight tubes give an unbalanced impact for every 45 degrees of rotation. If two of these discs are attached to a common rotor shaft, then the second disc can be positioned 22.5 degrees around from the first one. That arrangement gives an unbalanced impact for every 22.5 degrees of rotation. If three discs were placed on a common rotor shaft and evenly positioned, then there would be an unbalanced impact every 15 degrees of rotation, which is 24 impacts per rotation. A two-disc arrangement might look like this:
If the rotor spins well, then it would be worth while attaching a series of magnets to the discs, being careful to keep each disc perfectly balanced. One or more air-core coils can then be used to determine if current can be drawn from the device without stopping the rotation. The coils should not have a magnetic core as that would cause a major drag on the rotation whether current was being drawn or not.

Chas Campbell's Flywheel System.
Recently, Mr. Chas Campbell of Australia demonstrated electrical power gain with a flywheel system which he developed:
Let me explain the overall system. A mains motor of 750 watt capacity (1 horsepower) is used to drive a series of belts and pulleys which form a gear-train which produces over twice the rotational speed at the shaft of an electrical generator. The intriguing thing about this system is that greater electrical power can be drawn from the output generator than appears to be drawn from the input drive to the motor. How can that be?

If the flywheel (which is red in the following photographs) is driven smoothly at constant speed, then there is a continuous inwards acceleration of every particle in the flywheel and that produces an energy gain, drawing in power from the immense energy field which surrounds us. That energy increases as the diameter of the flywheel increases. It also increases as the weight of the flywheel increases. It also increases if the flywheel weight is concentrated as far out towards the rim of the flywheel as is possible.

However, Jacob Bitsadze points out that another mechanism comes into play. The effect is caused by the perpetual inward acceleration of the material of the flywheel due to the fact that it rotates in a fixed position. He also points out the importance of the gearing ratio of the shaft on which the flywheel is mounted. The important point is that Chas Campbell’s system is self-powered and can power other equipment.

Now take a look at the construction which Chas has used:

You notice that not only does he have a heavy flywheel of a fair size, but that there are three or four other large diameter discs mounted where they also rotate at the intermediate speeds of rotation. While these discs may well not have been placed there as flywheels, nevertheless, they do act as flywheels, and each one of them will be contributing to the free-energy gain of the system as a whole. A replication video with 750 watts input and 2340 watts output is here: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=98a1lSB2DNw](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=98a1lSB2DNw) and this implementation does not appear to have a heavy flywheel as you can see from this picture, although the largest pulley wheel looks as if it contains considerable weight:
Jacob Byzehr’s Analysis.
In 1998, Jacob lodged a patent application for a design of the type shown by Chas Campbell. Jacob has analysed the operation and he draws attention to a key design factor:

Jacob states that a very important feature for high performance with a system of this kind is the ratio of the diameters of the driving and take-off pulleys on the shaft which contains the flywheel, especially with systems where the flywheel rotates at high speed. The driving pulley needs to be three or four times larger than the power take-off pulley. Using Chas’ 1430 rpm motor and a commonly available 1500 rpm generator, the 12:9 step-up to the shaft of the flywheel gives a satisfactory generator speed while providing a 3.27 ratio between the 9-inch diameter driving pulley and the 2.75” diameter power take-off pulley. If a generator which has been designed for wind-generator use and which has it’s peak output power at just 600 rpm is used, then an even better pulley diameter ratio can be achieved.
The Self-powered Generator of José Luis García del Castillo

In 1998, Spanish patent ES 2,119,690 was granted to José Luis García del Castillo. I suspect that the auxiliary generators shown in the patent are only there to get the patent accepted by the patent examiner, rather than because they are actually needed. If that is correct, then the design is almost the same as Chas Campbell’s design, although built in a more compact form:

As Jacob Byzehr points out, an energy gain is achieved through inertial acceleration caused by having the pulley wheel “A” attached to the flywheel shaft, larger than the pulley wheel “B” attached to the shaft of the generator. As drawn, there is a major difference in those diameters. Here is an attempted translation of the patent:

**Abstract**
The system comprises an electric motor drive (1), a main generator (2), auxiliary generators (3), a battery (4), a charging regulator (5), and a speed regulator (6). The system is intended to generate its own operating power, and provide an extra supply for other purposes.

**Field of the invention**
The present invention refers to a self-contained system of energy regeneration, which in addition has several advantages set out below.

**Background of the invention**
It has been known for many years, how to construct machines which can generate electric current. These are known by the generic name of “electric power generators”, consisting of rotating machine that transforms mechanical power into electrical power as a result of alternative action between a magnetic field and a moving conductor.
However, the various types of generator which make up the current state of the art, require the help of a motor, which transforms mechanical power into electrical energy, and that motor requires an independent power source which must be supplied continuously.

Thus, a system capable of generating its own power supply as well as providing an extra power supply for other purposes, is not known in the current state of the art.

Summary of the invention
The applicant for the present patent has designed an self-contained energy regeneration system, capable of producing its own operating energy in addition to generating a surplus which can be used in electrical networks using voltage converters required for any electrical installation, whether in homes, offices, warehouses etc., with it is possible to reach places where it is difficult to install the power grid, allowing its use as an alternative source of energy other than solar or wind power.

Other applications would be in the automotive field, as a power source for motorcycles, cars, etc. by connecting the system to the propelling motor, and thus achieving the necessary motion of the vehicle.

Overall, the system is comprised of the following basic components:
1. An electric traction motor.
2. A main generator.
3. Various auxiliary generators.
4. A battery or accumulator.
5. A load and output-power controller.
6. A speed controller.

The electric drive motor supplies the necessary electromotive force needed for the system to operate, the generator supplies power to the system, charging the battery and providing direct power to the traction motor when needed, or if the battery is fully charged, then just to power the motor. It can go provide direct mechanical power by using pulleys and belts, gears or any other means.

The auxiliary generators are responsible for supplying backup power and can use propellers or be in the form of a turbine operating by the action of the wind or by gears attached to a flywheel placed in the traction motor.

The function of the battery is to provide the power needed to start the motor and in addition, to supply any extra power that the engine may need during operation. The battery is recharged by the main generator which is driven directly by the motor. The function of the charge controller is to prevent the battery becoming overcharged. The function of the speed controller is to control the speed of the drive motor.

The present invention offers the advantages described above, as well as others which will be understood from the example embodiment of the system described in detail below, to facilitate understanding of the features stated above, and introducing at the same time, various in addition to the present specification. It should be understood that the drawings are only by way of example and they do not limit the scope of the present invention in any respect, being just an example of one form of construction.

Brief description of the drawings
In the drawings:
Fig.1, is a diagram of the system as one example of a practical embodiment of the invention.
Fig. 2 shows an alternative embodiment of this invention.

Description of a preferred embodiment of this invention
As shown in the drawing, the self-contained system of energy regeneration, in accordance with an embodiment of the present patent, comprises an electric traction motor (1), a main generator (2), several auxiliary generators (3), a battery or accumulator (4), a charge controller and power supply (5), and a motor speed controller (6).
The electric drive motor (1) provides the necessary electromotive force for operating the system, and its voltage and power are selected in accordance with whatever size of system you wish to construct.

The main generator (2) supplies power to the system, firstly, to recharge the battery (4), and secondly, direct power to the motor (1) if it requires it. When the battery (4) is fully charged, its charge is maintained by power from the motor, supplied by suitable pulleys or other method of transmission of mechanical power.

The speed of revolution of the generator must be arranged through choice of the gearing between the motor and the generator, so that when the motor is operating at its maximum speed and drawing its maximum current, that the generator is spinning fast enough to supply that current. The main generator (2) will be therefore connected electrically to the battery (4) and mechanically to the motor (1). The auxiliary generators (3), are in the form of a turbine, operating by wind action or by gears attached to a flywheel (7), driven by motor (1), as shown in Fig.2. These auxiliary generators (3) provide reserve power for the system.

The battery (4), must have a capacity which exceeds the maximum power of the motor (1), and its role in the system is to provide the power needed to start the motor (1), and to supply any extra energy which the motor (1), may need during operation. The battery is recharged directly by the main generator (2) which is driven by the motor (1).

The charge controller and power distributor (5) is positioned between the main generator (2), the auxiliary generators (3) and the battery (4). Its job is to regulate the current draw from the battery (4), to prevent excessive current draw. It also distributes any surplus power as a direct feed to the generator (2) and the drive motor (1) when it needs additional current. The auxiliary generators (3) can either provide additional power to the motor (1), or their power output may be used for any other power needs.

The speed regulator (6), is intended to regulate the speed of the motor (1), this adjustment is gradual, and is adjusted to match the intended use of the system.

System applications can be many and diverse, noteworthy among which are uses in the automotive field, where it can be used as a means for propelling cars and other motor vehicles, with the motor (1) connected to a drive wheel which propels the vehicle. In these applications, the auxiliary generators (3), can be fitted with propellers or be turbine-shaped, so that the passing wind provides extra energy to the electrical system. With electric vehicles, only the main generator is connected to a drive wheel.
Other applications for this system are in the field of energy supply, i.e. use in electrical networks. The advantage of using this patented system is that the power supply is practically inexhaustible and clean, and subject only to component wear and tear during operation.

Its operation is as follows:
Battery (4) provides the energy needed to start the motor (1), and allows for the possibility of increased electrical input being needed at certain times during operation of the system. The battery (4) is electrically connected to the motor (1) through the speed controller (6), which is fed from the main generator (2) by the load distribution controller (5). The generator (2), is driven directly by the drive motor (1), and the transmission of motion from one component to another is through gears, belts and pulleys, or any other conventional means.

The auxiliary generators (3) are electrically connected to the charge controller (5), and the battery (4), and their movement by the wind generates their own energy, having turbine blades or propellers, or through being spun by the flywheel (7) which is connected directly to the motor (1). The energy produced by these auxiliary generators (3) may be used for charging other batteries for later use, or used directly to power other electrical equipment or electrical installation networks. Through voltage converters it is possible to convert the voltage produced by the system to a voltage which is suitable for use in other equipment.

**The Wilson Self-Powered DC Generator**
Mr. Wilson of Texas built a self-powered generator system using an old table and some car parts. His construction was shaky, but in spite of that, it powered itself and other equipment. The table which he used was five feet (1.5 m) in diameter and 2-inches (50 mm) thick which means that it will have weighed at least 130 pounds or 60 Kilograms which is a substantial amount, well in excess of that used by Chas Campbell with his AC self-powered system. In this DC construction the system was driven by a standard, unmodified, off-the-shelf DC motor powered by two car batteries wired in parallel to give a larger current capacity. These batteries were kept charged up by two ‘generators’ from pre-1964 American cars (the closest available today are permanent magnet alternators). These generators also powered additional equipment and Mr Wilson pointed out that three or more generators could be run by the system, giving a substantial level of excess electrical power.

The machine has to be described as ‘shaky’ because he chose to convert the table top into a V-pulley belt drive flywheel by driving a series of nails into the edge of the wooden disc, with those nails angled to form a V shaped gap through which he ran a pulley belt. After three days of continuous running, those nails started to come out, causing him to power the system down. This unit was built around 1990, and if anyone decides to attempt a replication, then I suggest that the rim of the wooden disc is grooved to take the belt rather than relying on nails. The arrangement was like this:

There was also a belt-tensioning roller which is not shown in the diagram above which assumes that the flywheel has been grooved to take the drive belt. Schematically, the arrangement was like this:
Here, the additional output can be used directly for powering 12-volt equipment or an inverter can be used to provide mains voltage and frequency. A typical inverter looks like this:

![Inverter Diagram]

The battery power is connected to one end using thick cables to carry the heavy current, and one or more mains sockets are provided at the other end of the case, along with an On/Off switch and power indicators. Inverters come in many sizes and power ratings, generally ranging from 150 watts to 3,000 watts (3 kW). The more expensive ones are specified as “True Sine-Wave Output” but very few present day items of equipment will not run well on the cheaper versions which do not produce a true sine-wave output.

Mr Wilson decided not to patent his design and instead wanted it to be open-source information for anybody to use freely. However, the Jesse McQueen patent shown in chapter 13 looks to be Mr Wilson’s design although the flywheel does not appear to be mentioned there. It should be stressed that the generator output needs to be high and so permanent magnet types are considered to be essential for this application. The specialised motor (and consequently, generator) winding methods of ‘UFOpolitics’ shown in chapter 2, raise efficiencies by a factor of typically 300% or more, and so would raise the output of this system very substantially if they were applied to the motor, or the generators, or both.

John Bedini’s Battery Pulsing System.
The Chas Campbell system is not an isolated case. On page 19 of the book “Free Energy Generation - Circuits and Schematics” John Bedini shows a diagram of a motor/generator which he has had running for three years continuously while keeping its own battery fully charged. At John’s web site [http://www.icehouse.net/john1/index11.html](http://www.icehouse.net/john1/index11.html) about half way down the page, there is a black and white picture of a very large construction version of this motor built by Jim Watson and which had an excess power output of twelve kilowatts. However, in spite of the flywheel in John’s design, it is not used directly to extract energy from gravity although it could readily do that. Instead, the design uses a very tricky method of trying to pulse the acid inside the battery with resonant pulses. That is a dangerous thing to do and if the pulsing is not exactly correct, it can make the battery explode. Strictly speaking, John’s dangerous design should not really be in this chapter on gravitational systems.

John’s design has a motor which spins the flywheel and the flywheel shaft spins an aluminium disc with six permanent magnets embedded in it. The magnets have their South poles facing six helically wound coils of 200 turns each of 0.8 mm diameter wire. The coils are connected in series, so effectively it is a 1200 turn coil which is energised by six magnets simultaneously.

John shows his switching mechanism as a mechanical attachment mounted on, but insulated from the motor shaft. The disc has just one conducting sector of about 100 degrees of arc. This would give equal duration pulses except for the fact that his commutator brushes have adjustable positions allowing the pulse duration to be altered.
Let me stress again that the purpose of this system is not gravitational but instead is an attempt to shock the ions in the battery acid into self-charging through resonant pulses. In my opinion this is a highly dangerous idea and while it can be successful through nearly random adjustment of sliding contact positions, and a tuning capacitor across the generator, I certainly would not advise anyone to try doing that. John issues what he calls “stern warnings” against inexperienced people attempting to do this. It must be mentioned that perfectly safe motor-generators can be built – systems which have significant excess electrical output.

James Hardy’s Self-Powered Water-Jet Generator.
As described in more detail in Chapter 2 and Chapter 8, there is a very simple device based on a high-power water pump. In this system, a small quantity of water is pumped around continuously, in the same general style as an ornamental fountain. The difference here is that a high speed jet of water is produced and directed at a turbine wheel. The turbine wheel can be of any type as indicated in the patent which James has been awarded for this design. In the video at present on the web, the water wheel is of very simple design and yet works well – it is shown here:

Small discs are attached to the wheel at widely spaced intervals around it’s rim. The water jet hits these and applies an impulse to the wheel, driving it around, but also adding extra energy through those impulses.

The waterwheel is coupled to a standard electrical generator via pulleys and V-belts. The system is started using the mains supply and then when it is running at full speed, the electrical supply for the pump is switched over from the mains to the output of it’s own generator. This is exactly the same as Chas Campbell does with his pulsed flywheel and both systems are capable of powering additional standard electrical equipment intended for mains use.

Chas Campbell’s flywheel, John Bedini’s flywheel and this water-jet generator all demonstrate very clearly that environmental energy is readily available for us to use any time we choose to do so. All that is necessary is for us to construct one of these devices.
The Centrifugal Energy Amplification Conversion Unit (“CEACU”) of Donnie Watts.

Donnie Watts has designed a simple generator which is capable of providing enough electrical power to meet the needs of a typical household.

The design is based on well known principles and this engine runs cold and is simple enough for many people to be able to build one. With a rotating cylinder of just 250 mm (10-inch) diameter, a self-powered output of ten horsepower can be achieved and ten horsepower is 7.5 kilowatts, so driving a generator with it would power a household. The output power increases with rotor diameter and with rate of spin and so in order to stop the device accelerating until it destroys itself, an inflow valve to limit the water entering the rotating cylinder is an important control requirement.

What needs to be understood very clearly is that this is an exponential power engine. The output power is proportional to the square of the rotation speed, so double the revolution speed and you quadruple the output power. Also, the output power is proportional to the square of the rotor diameter, so double the diameter and that quadruples the output power. So, if you double the rotor cylinder diameter and you double the rotation speed, the output power goes up by a factor of sixteen. The basic Coefficient Of Performance for the design is four. That means that the output power is always at least four times greater than the input power.

Initially, it is necessary to start the device with a 500-watt water pump, but when the rotation reaches 60 rpm the device no longer needs the water pump although it can be left running if desired. At 60 rpm, the pressure inside the rotor drum reaches the point where the suction caused by the water passing through the rotor jets creates sufficient suction to maintain the operation. But, remember that this is a positive feedback system, with an increase in speed causing an increase in power, an increase in water flow, an increase in speed of rotation, ..... and consequently, the engine will runaway self-powered and if you are not ready for that with a throttle on the rate of water flow into the cylinder, then the engine is perfectly liable to accelerate to the point where internal pressure destroys the engine. In broad outline, the design is like this:

Most generators require to be spun at 3000 rpm or slightly faster. That speed can be achieved by the belt gearing between the output shaft and the generator’s input shaft. A generator of that general type could look like this 5 kilowatt alternator costing £325 in 2018:
However, the output power of this design can be further increased by the inclusion of stainless steel thrust baffles on the inside of the housing. The idea is to have the jets of water strike a fixed surface at right angles to the jet and as close to the jet nozzle as possible:

The curved plate version is theoretically more efficient but the difference is so slight that flat plates are generally used. Let me stress that this device is effectively a fuel-less engine with a substantial output and it can power moving vehicles or run an electrical generator. It can be built in various different configurations.

The 25th September 1989 patent application by Donnie C. Watts describes the operation of the device:

DESCRIPTION AND WORKING DETAILS OF THE CENTRIFUGAL ENERGY AMPLIFICATION AND CONVERSION UNIT
Description of Unit
The unit consists of two circular steel plates one eighth of an inch thick and four feet or larger in diameter, forming the exterior of a wheel. These plates are placed six inches apart on a hollow axle three inches in diameter. Between these two plates are four V-shaped pieces of sheet metal spaced precisely to form six-inch spokes which will direct water from holes in the central axle to the outer rim, while the inside of the V will form air pockets between the spokes. The ends of the V must not be closer than two inches to the outer rim of the wheel. All four V-shaped units must be precisely placed in balance with each other and securely welded to keep the air pockets and the water pockets separated. The outer rim of the wheel is made of a piece of one eighth inch thick sheet metal six inches wide, formed in a perfect circle and welded securely to the edge of the circular plates so that the area inside is completely enclosed. On this outer rim, directly in the centre, are placed between four and fifty water jets about the size of a football needle, slanted sharply to one side to give the wheel a turning motion. (The optimum number of water jets on the outer rim depends on the application, but the volume of water being expelled through the jets must not exceed sixty-six percent of the volume of water which can pass through the openings at the centre axle. The reasons for this are:

1. The water going out of the jets would be going out faster than the water entering the wheel which would result in no pressure near the outer rim, pressure which is essential for the running of the motor.

2. The water entering the wheel must go immediately into a puddle of water. The longer it remains a stream of water instead of a puddle of water, the more energy is wasted.

Because the water being ejected through the exterior jets is always less then the amount of water available to the jets, a pressure build-up will occur near the outer rim. A spring-loaded pressure release jet (not shown) must be built into the exterior rim along with the other jets, but facing in the opposite direction to keep the wheel from over-spinning if the load (generator) is dropped or does not take enough power off to keep the wheel speed constant. There are several other ways to control the speed.

The central axle is designed to have water going into one end of it, and an electrical generator attached to the other end of it. Between the water entry and the generator, very close to the wheel itself, would be very sturdy roller or ball bearings resting on, and attached securely to, a framework which will hold the wheel one foot off the floor. Water is forced into the axle via a high-volume low-power centrifugal force pump, approximately one half horsepower motor, at approximately 20 (US) gallons per minute depending on speed and power requirements. This motor and water pump is primarily to start the wheel and since the power from this is all added to the power output of the big wheel, I prefer to leave the pump running during operation.

The entire unit (depending on application) can be put into a containment shell which can be pressurised or evacuated of air. If the unit is to be operated in an open field, the outer shell can be pressurised and the starting pump removed or turned off once the motor is running by itself. If the unit is to be operated in a garage or near a house, it would be operated at atmospheric pressure or in a vacuum, in which case it is necessary to leave the pump attached and running so that air bubbles do not form near the central axle.

Also, the containment shell must be able to collect about ten inches of fluid in the bottom, waiting to be recycled through the wheel.

Important Notes Regarding this engine:

1. The speed and horsepower curve of a self-energised motor is exactly the opposite of that of a normal motor. A normal motor reaches a power peak and then starts downwards. The power curve starts with a slow upward climb and then accelerates rapidly until the power line curve is almost vertical (just prior to disintegration if speed control is not being used).

The motor will not generate more energy than is put into it before it reaches 60 to 100 rpm, depending on design and size.
2. As speed increases, air bubbles which occur in the working fluid will accumulate in the air pockets. The air pockets serve only to hold the pressure steady and give a gentle persuasive pressure that is multi-directional instead of just centrifugal, resulting in a steady pressure to the jets. It is not just possible or probable that the unit would blow itself apart by its own power (if the pressure were not released at some point or power taken off); it happens to be a fact. Air pressure will accumulate in the air pockets inside the wheel only after the wheel is going 60 rpm or faster.

3. The pressurised air in the outer rim of the wheel is essential because it pushes in all directions at once, while the water pushes in only one direction. In other words, centrifugally forced water is not interested in finding its way through the jets, it is only interested in pressing directly against the outer rim. The water holds the air in place at the same time that the air is forcing the water through the jets, and the water coming down from the axle keeps replacing the expelled water. This is why I keep saying over and over again, “Make it big enough, make it big enough”. Otherwise it would be no more workable than a small dam.

4. In order for this motor to work properly, the water coming down the spokes must not be restricted in any way until it reaches the outer rim. This is why we have six-inch spokes. The water resting against the outer rim cannot be moving about rapidly; we want the water sitting as still as possible under as much pressure as possible.

5. There are two primary factors which must not be altered in the design of this wheel, otherwise it will not work:

   1. The spokes must be very large and free of restrictions, because liquid in general tends to cling to anything it gets near.

   2. The speed of the wheel turning is essential to the centrifugal force required to build up the pressure near the outer rim, and for this reason the jets in the outer rim must be small in diameter and in large numbers so that the concentration is on speed instead of on volume (but not to exceed 66% of the water which can enter at the central axle).

6. Regarding the working fluid: Although it has been referred to here as “water”, the working fluid can be any kind of transmission fluid, oil, hydraulic fluid, etc., keeping in mind that the working fluid must also act as a lubricant for the bearings which are expected to last for ten to twenty years. I recommend regular off-the-shelf transmission fluid, which I have seen used alone in a car engine with lubrication results quite comparable to oil.

The primary functional differences between this motor and damming up a river are: We create our own “gravity” and pre-determine the amount of that gravity by two methods instead of just one. The gravity in a dam can only be increased by building the dam larger; the motor can also increase the working “gravity” by increasing the rpm. This is done by adding more jets, right up to the point where 66% of the incoming water is being ejected. To use more of the available water than this would cause too much turbulence of the water inside the wheel. But keep in mind that there is always plenty of pressure inside the wheel to do the work it is designed for, providing that it is let run at a high enough speed to keep the pressure in the outer rim very high – in exactly the same sense that you don’t try to take off in your car until the engine is going at high enough rpm to handle the load application.
The two drawings above were produced by Donnie Watts and in them 4’ means four feet and 8” means eight inches.
The only difficult part of this design appears to be the Slip Coupling where a stationary water pipe is joined to a rotating water pipe. While we are familiar with rotating lawn sprinklers which rotate using exactly the same principles as this Donnie Watts motor, namely impulse jet action, as shown here:

![Slip Coupling Image]

the key point is that the rate of rotation is low. That is entirely intentional as the manufacturer is considering the way that the various streams of water reach the ground. If you consider the rate of rotation, the fastest sprinkler is likely to be rotating at under 300 rpm which may be very much slower than our motor requirement.

Researching the various couplings on the market, the rate of rotation quoted is typically 400 rpm or less, which may be why Donnie quotes such a large rotor drum size and 3-inch diameter supply pipe (axle). Suitable couplings could be [https://www.alibaba.com/product-detail/50A-npt-male-thread-brass-water_2009800594.html](https://www.alibaba.com/product-detail/50A-npt-male-thread-brass-water_2009800594.html) with a claimed 2000 rpm ability although purchasers state that they leak at speeds over 300 rpm:

![Coupling Image]

Video of interest: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ilStbRJZTu0](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ilStbRJZTu0)

**Building the Donnie Watts Generator**

There are many different ways to construct a Donnie Watts generator. The method shown here is merely a convenient method of construction using 3 mm (1/8 inch) thick mild steel and a welder. The diameter of the rotating drum can be whatever you choose but the output power increases with the square of the diameter, so if you double the diameter the output power becomes four times greater. You start by cutting out two discs, one with a 3-inch diameter central hole and one with a central hole of the size needed for your pulley wheel:
Then you weld on eight rectangles of steel 150 mm (6 inches) wide to the disc with the smaller hole:
These strips are to channel the water (or other fluid such as transmission fluid) as it passes through the drum when the generator is operating. There must be at least two inches (50 mm) clear between these plates and the edge of the disc to allow easy flow of water past the plates.

The 150 mm depth of the plates allows clearance for the second disc to be welded in place to form a drum. Seen from the side, it looks like this:

And then the outer rim of the drum is welded in place:

If you have never built anything in steel, let me assure you that it is not a difficult thing to do, and yes, I have built in steel, starting as a total beginner. However, while mild steel is easy to work and weld, stainless steel is much, much more difficult, so avoid stainless steel. Steel pieces are cut and shaped using an angle grinder like this:

And while the picture shows a handle sticking out of the side of the grinder so that you can use two hands, it is generally more convenient to remove the handle and just hold the grinder in just one hand as it is not heavy. When working steel, wear a pair of "rigger" gloves which are strong, reinforced gloves which will protect your hands from sharp steel edges and always wear eye protection.

If you are going to be drilling steel, then a mains powered drill is needed as battery-powered drills are just not up to the job unless it is just a single hole. When drilling steel it is helpful to have an additional hand grip.
With the drill shown above, the hand grip clamps on to the ring just behind the chuck and can be set at any angle. Steel pieces are joined together by welding. Some welders are quite cheap. Most types can be hired for a day or half a day. It is also possible to shape the pieces and have a local steel fabrication workshop weld them together for you and making a good welded joint takes only a second or two. The really vital thing is never look at a weld being made unless you are wearing a welding visor or welding goggles, as you can damage your eyesight looking at a welding arc without protection.

If you decide to buy a welder, then be sure to get one which will run on your house mains supply, otherwise you have to upgrade your house wiring to carry the higher current. This welder would be suitable, and at the start of 2016 it costs only £60 including tax which is about 82 euros or US $90.

With this “stick welder” the silver clamp on the right is attached to the metal to be welded and a 2.3 mm diameter coated welding rod placed in the black clamp on the left. The stick is then applied to the welding area and the coating on the welding rod becomes a gas cloud, shielding the hot metal from the oxygen in the air. When the weld has cooled down, there may be a layer of oxide on the outside of the joint and so the back of the wire brush is used as a hammer to break up the layer and the wire brush used to scrub the joint clean.

However, the most important item of equipment for anyone doing welding work is a protective helmet. There are many different designs and widely varying costs. Many professional welders choose one of the cheapest types which look like this:
This type has a clear glass screen and a hinged safety filter to allow safe welding. Professionals adjust the hinge tension so that the filter can only just stay in its raised position. The welder then positions the joint pieces in their exactly correct position while looking through the plain glass, and when ready to start the weld he just nods his head which makes the filter drop into place and the weld is started. Never, ever, try welding without proper eye protection.

Welding is easy to learn and it is a brilliant method of construction ... but it has one major problem. When a joint is made the two pieces of steel melt and merge together. This can happen in a tenth of a second. Don’t put your finger on the joint to see if it is still hot, if it is, then you will get a painful burn and that should remind you not to do that again. That heat is the problem, because when steel gets hot it expands, and when it cools down it contracts. That means that if you were to set up a piece of steel at exactly a right angles and weld the pieces together then as the joint cools down it contracts and pulls the joint out of alignment:

Please don’t imagine that you can just push the vertical piece back into position as that isn’t going to happen because the joint is instantly very, very strong. Instead, you use two quick welds of equal size, with the second one being 180 degrees opposite the first one:
Then, as the welds cool down, they pull in opposing directions and while it produces stresses in the metal, the vertical piece stays vertical. Let the welds cool down in their own good time, taking perhaps ten minutes to cool properly. Do not apply water to the welds to speed up the cooling as that actually alters the structure of the steel and you really don’t want to do that.

Metal can be cut quite readily using a cutting blade in your angle grinder but be sure to install the blade so that it rotates in the direction shown on the blade. The blade is likely to look something like this:

![Image of cutting blade]

When cutting or grinding always wear protective goggles to make sure that you don’t get a metal fragment in your eye – eyes are not readily replaceable!! If you do get a small steel fragment in your eye, remember that steel is highly magnetic and so a magnet may help in getting the fragment out with the minimum of damage, however, it is much, much easier to wear goggles and not have the problem in the first place.

The Donnie Watts drum spins on an axle and so needs a bearing on the axle pipe which supports it. The flow of liquid through the drum will be substantial and so Donnie recommends a 75 mm (3 inch) diameter pipe as the axle. That may sound excessive, but the reality is that it is quite difficult to force liquid through a pipe as there is much greater back-pressure than you would expect. So if you can manage a 75 mm pipe, then use one that big.

The next step is to attach the outside strip to complete the basic drum. If you are great at bending 3 mm thick steel then do that but most constructors will find it much easier to weld, say, 32 strips 150 mm tall, around the outside of the drum (that actually makes it easier to attach the nozzles to complete the drum at a later stage. Here, we will assume that the drum is being built by a professional steel fabrication shop which can bend 3 mm thick steel to the required curvature, that is, to the diameter of the drum:
The outer edge of the drum is welded all along its length. The weld needs to be airtight but please understand that due to heat stress, long welds need to be done in short lengths of say, 25 mm in length or less and allowed to cool before the next weld is made. The technique is to make this series of short welds spread out along the length of the long weld and when those welds have cooled down, then they are each extended for another 25 mm. Slow and careful construction is easily the best method.

We now need to attach nozzles through the outer wall of the drum. A hole needs to be drilled through the outer wall for each nozzle. As with all holes drilled through steel, the hole is drilled at right angles to the steel, that is perpendicular. I’m not saying that you can’t drill a hole at an angle, but it is very, very difficult to do without breaking the drill bit and it is very difficult to hold the drill steady enough to get the hole started.

We want to have the jet of liquid leave the nozzle at 25 degrees to the face of the steel. We also want the jet orifice to be 1.5 mm in diameter. So we need to construct jets from steel pipe with that internal diameter, insert them through the outer wall of the drum and weld them in place:

How many jets? I would suggest sixteen, but the number is not critical. The jets of water are more effective if they strike a nearby surface, so we attach a series of baffle plates to the outer housing. How many baffle plates? I would suggest sixteen or thirty two. The diagram drawn by Donnie shows angled top edges, but it is probably easier just to use square plates as there is less cutting and welding if you do. Donnie suggests that the housing plates need to be 300 mm wider than your drum and have 150 mm clear above it and $150 + 200 = 350$ mm clear below it as the bottom of the housing acts as a sump for the liquid which passes through the jets, but he is thinking in terms of a 48-inch diameter drum:
The baffles are welded to the back plate of the drum housing, but be sure that they clear all of the nozzles welded to the drum:

The baffle plates are welded to one of the rectangular housing plates. They can just be tack welded in place once it is established that they are just clear of the nozzles as they rotate:
When the drum is in place it looks like this:
There is no need for additional housing. There is a pump needed to get the system started, and that can be mounted on the outside of the drum housing, as can the generator. The slide valve which controls the amount of liquid allowed into the drum is also mounted on the outside of the drum housing. The supporting axle pipe spins with the drum, driving the alternator generator, providing the required mains voltage AC can also be mounted on the outside of the housing. This overall arrangement produces an device which is much taller than it is wide, so a stability plate is welded to the base in order to provide that missing stability. The overall arrangement could be like this:
While the axle shaft can be made of two parts welded together and welded to the drum, I suggest that it is more practical to weld the incoming three-inch diameter pipe to the drum and then, choosing a bar diameter which matches the size needed for your chosen pulley wheel, that bar is welded to the other side of the drum as shown above. The part of the axle on the right is solid and provides the drive to the generator:

The only item not yet mentioned is the rotating coupling shown above. This coupling needs to be able to rotate at high speed as the power output of this Donny Watts generator is exponential and increases with the square of the speed at which the drum rotates – double the speed of rotation and the output power goes up to be four times greater. This coupling could be like this:

This swivelling connector has an internal ball race and it is claimed that it can operate satisfactorily at 2000 rpm, however customers say that these devices leak at speeds above 300 rpm:
A supplier is:


To get the generator operating requires the pump to be operated and so, either access to mains or alternatively access to a battery and inverter is essential. Once the generator is running, the pump can be powered by the generator. It is stated that when the speed of rotation passes one drum revolution per second, that the liquid passing through the jets causes enough vacuum inside the drum that the pump can be powered down, but it is also a possibility to leave the pump running all of the time.

One of these generators with a drum of just 250 mm (10") can output ten horsepower which is 7.5 kW and that is enough to power a household.

However, people sometimes have difficulty in understanding the pressures involved. The drum which revolves is the only place that there is pressure when the generator is operating. The outer case has only two main functions, namely to support the drum axle and to act as a sump to return the liquid to the pump which feeds the liquid back to the drum to be used again.

That is, the inside of the main housing is at atmospheric pressure and if you were to install baffle plates to catch the liquid passing through the jets, then it could be open at the top of the case. The concern about the rotating pipe joint leaking is not likely to be a problem because it does not occur until a speed of rotation of 300 rpm is reached. However, the Donnie Watts generator becomes self-sustaining well below that speed, and the liquid exiting through the jets starts sucking liquid in through the intake pipe. So, the intakes pipe, including the rotating pipe joint are under reduced pressure and so if the rotating joint does leak it let air leak into the pump rather than letting liquid leak out. The extra air should not be a problem unless it is really excessive as it will pass out through the jets. Just be sure to allow any excess pressure to leak out of the sump housing without letting any liquid escape.

Concerns have been expressed that the pump undergoes unnecessary wear when the generator is running and the pump is not needed. If desired, the pump can have a bypass which is valve controlled like this:
While this does require some additional piping, a valve and two T-junctions for the pipe bypass, it results in a pump which can be switched off when not needed and the new valve used as the drum speed control.

Let me stress again that this is an exponential positive-feedback design which will keep accelerating until the bearings fail or the pressure inside the drum causes some form of rupture which will starve the jets of liquid, or the generator might fail due to excessive speed. While this may seem like irrelevant theory, I assure you that it isn’t. You have this generator running and powering your house and the weather is hot. You have an air-conditioning unit keeping your house cool. It draws a lot of current, but then the thermostat switches it off because your house is cool enough. This is a problem. The current draw from the generator goes down by a major amount. This makes the generator shaft much easier to spin, but the drive power from the Donnie Watts unit is now much higher than is now needed. This is not helpful, and the system is now unbalanced and the drum will speed up, spinning the generator shaft faster than it should. If you are standing there and adjust the control valve accordingly, then everything goes back to normal. But the point is that a generator of this type is fine for a fixed load, but you need to pay attention to what the electrical load is if it changes. You could put a warning alarm sensor on the drum shaft or alternatively build an automatic valve adjustment to make an automatic speed control.

Rick Evans, who is an American developer, has come up with an idea which overcomes the need for a swivelling pipe connection. He proposes rearranging the design slightly so that the rotating 3-inch diameter pipe which is welded to the intake side of the rotating drum just rotates in water as it is enclosed in a small container on the outside of the sump housing which supports the drum. He proposes to leave the pump connected in the circuit at all times, but powered down when the drum gets up to its self-sustaining speed. The arrangement looks like this:
With this arrangement, the valve is still used to control the speed of the drum rotation and if the 3-inch diameter bearing supporting the intake side of the drum happens to leak a bit, then the excess liquid merely spills back into the sump where it came from in the first place. Let me stress that this is just a suggestion at this point in time as this arrangement has not yet been built and tested.

As some people find this generator hard to understand, let me explain it in broad outline. The device is essentially a motor. It is a motor which is a spinning drum inside a support housing which acts as a sump. This is a self-powering motor and the faster it goes, the higher the power level which it generates. As that is a positive feedback system, the motor will keep accelerating and gaining power until it exceeds the strength of the materials use to construct it and so it breaks down.

In order to prevent that happening, an adjustable valve (which is the equivalent to a large tap or fire hydrant valve) is placed in the pipe which feeds the liquid to the spinning drum. That valve acts as a manual speed control for the motor.

In order to produce useful work, this motor design is used to power a separate electricity generator, using two pulley wheels and an AC generator or “alternator”, making the design a Motor/Generator. It is not easy to spin the alternator when it is supplying substantial amounts of electricity to washing machines, tumble dryers, air conditioners, heaters, stoves, TVs etc. and so the alternator acts as a brake, slowing the motor down. That doesn’t matter as the speed control valve can be opened a bit to get the speed back up to what it should be.

It is important to spin the shaft of the alternator at the speed it is designed for. Spin it too slowly and it will produce a voltage which is less than mains voltage and a frequency which is less than that of the mains. Spin it too fast and the generator will produce a voltage which is higher than mains voltage and a frequency which is greater than the mains frequency.

Typical design speeds for spinning the shaft of an alternator range from 1800 rpm (30 times per second) and 3000 rpm (50 times per second). Alternators are designed to produce either 110 volts at 60 cycles per second for American equipment, or 220 volts at 50 cycles per second for everybody else.

This is fine IF the electrical load is constant and the speed valve is adjusted correctly. BUT we have a problem if the electrical load drops suddenly. Because the electrical current draw has dropped, the shaft of the alternator becomes much easier to spin and so it acts as far less of a brake and because the valve setting is unchanged, the motor speeds up. This is not a problem IF there is a human standing beside the generator ready to adjust the valve setting accordingly. Unfortunately, that is not convenient and worse still, many electrical appliances switch themselves on and off on a very regular basis and the basic Donnie Watts design is not able to cope with this.
So, it would be very convenient if we were to make the Donnie Watts motor adjust its own control valve when necessary. Let’s see if we can come up with a simple system for doing that. Commercial valves are generally not suitable for this as they are either fully ON or fully OFF and are not electrically adjustable to give any intermediate setting. Also, they tend to be far too small a diameter to interest us. For a low-cost solution therefore, it appears that we need to build a simple motor speed control which we can use to give automatic speed control of the motor.

At this point in time, the following is just a suggestion as it has not been built and tested in an ordinary working environment:

I suggest that we might control the flow of liquid into the drum by building a control system here:

This boxed in area is something which we build and so we can choose to build it in any way that we like. Suppose we added a hinged plate which could be moved to cover the (rotating) intake pipe which feeds the drum:
The red strip on the right is a support strip which makes sure of the plate position when it moves.

However, we don’t want to block off the pipe completely as that would stop the motor spinning and that would be a nuisance, so we mount the plate so that enough water gets through the pipe to maintain a reasonable rate of rotation at even the lowest setting:

The red support strip is omitted from the above picture as it would obscure the gap which the drawing illustrates. Now, we have to find a mechanism for moving the plate. I suggest a small DC motor with a worm gear on the shaft. This has the advantage that when the motor is not powered, it holds its current position and is not affected by the thing it is driving:

And while it is generally expected that such a motor would drive a rotating shaft it can drive a rack:
And that could be used to rotate the plate in a very precise and secure way:

However, some people are appalled at the idea of submerging a motor in a liquid (quite possibly cooking oil) and so perhaps a different way of moving the plate could be used, one which keeps the motor outside the liquid.

Irrespective of what arrangement is used to move the plate, a control signal is needed. There are various ways of doing this. One of the easiest is to attach a plastic disc to the drive shaft and embed two or more magnets in it. Those magnets can be the input signal to a rev counter or “tachometer” which can measure the speed of the shaft rotation and output a signal which is proportional to that speed. The output shaft rotation will be at 15 or 25 revs per second if the drum pulley wheel diameter is twice that of the alternator drive wheel. The sensor for picking up the output shaft rotation speed could be a Hall-effect sensor:

A much more detailed circuit diagram will be published after testing with a prototype. However, please understand clearly that the Donnie Watts generator is perfectly viable without automated operation. For example, if it is cold outside and you need to heat your living space, then switching on a two kilowatt or
three kilowatt heater and some lights, allows you to set the intake valve correctly so that they operate continuously. Provided that the heater is not thermostat controlled (or if it is, then it’s heat setting is set so high that it will never be reached, or the heater wired to ignore the thermostat) then the electrical load is constant and the Donnie Watts heater setting will always be correct. In passing, a heater which is on continuously raises the temperature of a room to a very considerable degree as the hours and days go by. Doing that is generally too expensive if you have to pay for the electricity, but with the Donnie Watts generator there is no direct charge for the electricity.

When setting up the generator initially, you connect a voltmeter across the output of the generator and then adjust the valve setting so that the generator just reaches the voltage that the manufacturer of the alternator specifies for your particular alternator.

For home builders, it would probably be easier to use a 16-sided shape rather than a circular disc:

Apart from being all straight-side cuts, there is the advantage that the plates which form the circumference of the drum can become drilling points for a system which is more simple than using pipe nozzles:

Jet holes are drilled through a point in the middle of the edging pieces of the sides of the drum

Drill template clamped to one of the two side pieces.
The single drill hole in the middle of the circumference wall of the drum then acts as a jet and using the template to get the drill bit angle the same every time, produces correctly angled water jets.

Some people feel that they would prefer to have some more detailed information, so the following are some very basic details for constructing a generator with a 450 mm (18 inch) diameter drum using straight edges.

To make the first drum side we start with a square piece of 3 mm thick mild steel 470 mm x 470 mm.

![Diagram of a square with diagonals and horizontal and vertical lines](image)

Draw diagonals from the corners to establish where the centre of the square is, then draw vertical and horizontal lines, like this:

![Diagram with central lines and points](image)

Measure 225 mm from the centre point, out along each line and mark each of those points. Then, connect those points to make an even octagon:

![Diagram of an octagon](image)

Next, mark the central point of each of the eight sloping lines and draw a line from the central point through each of these new points:

![Diagram with all lines drawn](image)
Mark 225 mm from the central point out along each of these new lines and then connect these points to form the 450 mm diameter 16-sided drum side:

![Diagram of 16-sided drum side]

Then cut along these outside lines to form the first side of the drum:

![Diagram of cut drum side]

Clamp this side to another piece of 3 mm thick mild steel and mark carefully around it to get the shape and size of the second side of the drum. Cut around this new side and draw some diagonals to establish the centre point.

One of these two drum plates needs to have the 3-inch (75 mm) intake pipe installed as an axle. You could get a local steel fabrication shop to drill the hole for you. Alternatively, you could mark the exact position and size and drill a ring of small holes around the circumference and with a small cutting blade in the angle grinder, cut between the holes and then using a grinding disc in a power drill, smooth out the unevenness between the holes to give a reasonable quality hole accurately positioned. Remember to use goggles for both cutting and smoothing. Another way would be to rent a plasma cutter and air compressor for a morning and use that to cut an exact hole.

Having got the exactly positioned hole in the drum side plate, it needs to be welded in place. For that, these magnetic angles are enormously helpful:

![Magnetic angle clamps]

This is because they are low cost, grip the plate and pipe very strongly and make a perfect 90-degree angle. Using four of these magnetic clamps holds the pipe securely and accurately.
Remember that the moment a weld is made on one side of the drum plate, the other side of the drum plate needs to be welded immediately and both allowed to cool as slowly as possible to avoid heat shrinkage pulling the pipe out of its alignment with the drum plate. Remember that the drum plate will be hot enough to burn you even if the weld only took a split second to make, so take care. In other words, if the pipe is vertical, then almost simultaneous welds need to be made on the top of the drum plate and on the underside of the drum plate. The thicker the steel, the easier it is to weld without problems and so welding the pipe is straightforward. It takes a great deal of skill to weld steel sheet of 1 mm thickness without tearing a hole in the sheet, but thankfully, that is not something which you need to do with this design.

Having tack-welded the pipe carefully and quickly on both sides, using welds only 6 mm or so long, and having waited for those welds to cool down fully, make two additional tack welds at 180 degrees away from the first two, and then two more pairs so as to have a weld every 90 degrees around the pipe. Then the welding all around the pipe is completed welding only very short lengths in opposing pairs and letting the welds to cool before making the next weld.

A cheap workmate like this:

![Workmate](image)

makes a good support for this work and it allows the pipe to be gripped securely while the drum plate is resting horizontally on the bench. If you feel that an open 3-inch (75 mm) diameter pipe is not sufficient to get the liquid into the drum, then make as many openings (drill holes or angle grinder slits) as you consider necessary.

Mild steel 3 mm thick can be supplied in 150 mm wide strips. One of those would reduce the amount of steel cutting needed to complete the drum as it is needed for the internal channels and for the circumference wall of the drum:
As the drum diameter is 450 mm and 150 mm is left around the centre and 50 mm is left at each side, the eight internal walls need to be only \( 225 - 75 - 50 = 100 \text{ mm (4 inches)} \) long, which means that they can be cut from the 150 mm wide strip.

As we want to use the width of the 150 mm strip to make the sixteen circumference strips, measure the exact width of the strip supplied to confirm that it is 150 mm wide. I have never been supplied a strip which was not accurately 150 mm wide, but check carefully to make sure that your strip is exactly 150 mm wide and adjust the measurements slightly if it isn’t. Ideally, the strip is exactly 150 mm wide and so the inner walls need to be 144 mm wide and 150 mm long:

So each strip can be made with a single cut, chopping off a 144 mm long strip of the 150 mm wide strip.

You start by welding these narrower strips as the vertical walls (and be very sure that the shorter plate measurement is the one which is vertical to the side of the drum!):

Use the magnetic clamps to hold each plate vertical when positioning and tack welding it:

Complete the welding of these eight plates, remembering to take it slowly, remembering to always use simultaneously opposing welds and allowing each weld to cool naturally.

The next step is to attach the second side of the drum. The really important thing here is to align the second side exactly and the magnetic angles are helpful here as well. Measure the straight edges which form the circumference to your drum and cut two 150 mm strips to that exact length. Place the first drum side with its welded partitions, horizontally on the workmate and attach one magnetic brace to it, positioning the magnet exactly at the edge of the disc, half way along one straight edge. Do that 90-degrees away with a second magnet. Attach one of your edging strips to each magnet, standing them straight up vertically, then slide the second side on top, aligning a straight edge with a straight edge on the lower drum side. Use additional magnetic braces to attach the upper drum side to each of
the two edging pieces attached to the lower drum side. Make sure that all four magnets are fully touching the drum sides and the edging pieces.

Go around the whole drum, using a setsquare to confirm that the two drum sides match exactly and be very sure that the flat edges match exactly. Remember that once you make the first tack weld on the second drum side, that is it, and you have no realistic chance to change the positioning.

Once you are satisfied that the second drum side is positioned exactly right, make two opposing tack welds on the second (upper) drum side like this:

These welds are made upwards, so be sure you are wearing good strong gloves as getting molten metal on bare skin is not a pleasant experience! Then make two more opposing tack welds like this:

You can then turn the drum over so that all following welding is downwards and you are not liable to get hot metal coming at your hands. There is room to weld inside the drum as the pieces forming the channel walls are only 150 mm long and there is 144 mm of clearance between the drum sides.

These eight short pieces hold the drum sides securely and give the drum major strength. Strictly speaking, the above diagrams should show 16-sided sides rather than circles. We come now to attaching strips to the sides of the drum to form the circumference. Remove the magnets and alignment side strips and turn the drum sideways and clamp it in the workmate so that the drum edge is facing upwards and so is easy to work with.

Take the two edging pieces already cut, and weld them to the drum in opposite positions around the drum:
The welds can be made inside the drum if you wish. Two more circumference pieces are then measured carefully, cut and welded like this:

Then four more like this:

This is where it becomes interesting. The final plates need to be measured very accurately and they will be welded in place like this:

The V-notch between the plates is very important as it is where the nozzle jets will be drilled:
It may be necessary to lower the next circumference plate just opposite the jet exit using a grinding tool so that it does not interfere with the jet of liquid leaving the drum:

So, after all that effort, you now have a strong and secure drum, but it only has the 3-inch diameter inlet pipe attached and we need the axle support bar on the other side of the drum. What diameter should it be? I don’t know, because it needs to have a pulley mounted on it. I would expect it to be about 25 mm (1-inch) in diameter but you need to search suppliers for pulleys and buy two, one for the drum and one to match the drive shaft diameter of your alternator. Obviously, the two pulleys need to work with the same drive belt. Ideally, the drum pulley should be two or thee times the diameter of the alternator pulley. In fact, any ratio up to say, five times would be good as the working output of the alternator will be reached at lower drum revolutions and that would give smoother running if the drum construction is not perfect.

So, we have identified what shaft diameter is needed for the drum output and we have purchased a mild steel bar of that diameter. The centre point of the second drum side is marked. If you have cleverly welded it on the inside of the drum, then mark the diagonals to get the centre point. Check it by clamping the 3-inch pipe bearing in the workmate, placing the drum inlet pipe in it and spinning the drum. The centre point should appear stationary when the drum spins. Holding a felt-tipped pen stationary, mark a small circle by touching the drum close to the centre – say about 30 mm in diameter.

That is where the pulley bar needs to be welded. Use the four magnetic clamps to position the bar in the middle of the circle with the clamps at 90-degree angles to each other. Spin the drum again to make sure that the bar does not appear to move. If it does, then correct the position until the bar seems motionless. Then tack weld between the magnets. Unfortunately, heat destroys magnets and so welding so close to the magnets is liable to destroy them – thankfully, they are cheap to replace.

Now that we have completed the drum, we need to make the support housing which also acts as a sump for the liquid which has passed through the drum. In passing, while the Clem engine used cooking oil as the liquid because the Clem engine generates a good deal of heat, some people suggest using transmission fluid in the Donnie Watts design, primarily so that it lubricates everything which it passes through. However, transmission fluid is very expensive so it seems much more sensible to use cooking oil which is maybe eight times cheaper than transmission fluid.
The container which acts as a sump can just be a rectangular box. It is specified that there should be 75 mm clearance on both side of the drum which is 450 mm + 75 mm + 75 mm = 600 mm wide. The sump is to have an additional 200 mm depth and with the 75 mm at the top and the 450 mm diameter of the drum, makes a front and back panel size of 725 x 600 mm. The sides would need to be about 300 mm wide:

The next step is to construct the baffle plates to catch the jets of liquid coming out of the nozzles of the drum. First, a hole is created in the front panel and the bearing attached. The bearing will be the best 75 mm diameter bearing which will fit your intake pipe and mount securely to the front panel:
With the bearing fitted, place the front panel on the workmate and feed the drum’s intake pipe into the bearing. This gives you a flat, horizontal surface with the drum in its exact position. Clamp the drum in place so that it can’t move. One of the magnet clamps is now used to position, and mark the position of the first baffle. With the drum fixed in place, mark the position of the matching fifteen other baffle plates. Unclamp and remove the drum so that there is a clear unencumbered work area. Using just one magnetic clamp, position each baffle plate and tack weld it in position with a tack weld on the drum side and an immediate matching tack weld on the side away from the drum – remember that we need matching welds to stop the cooling weld pulling the baffle plate away from the vertical.

Next, put the drum back again and give it a spin to make quite sure that the drum clears all of the baffle plates. If you are enthusiastic, you could use 32 baffle plates rather than the sixteen shown. I seriously doubt the spacing specified for the housing. The liquid squirts through the drum “nozzles” and hits the baffle plates. But then, where does it go? It has lost its momentum and will just fall under gravity. Some will fall on to the drum which will hurl it off on to the wall where it will fall down into the sump. Part will fall clear of the drum and will fall down the side of the housing. So, why the gap? 75 mm should be easily enough to allow that to happen no matter what the drum diameter is. Five millimeters of space outside the baffles should actually be quite enough.

The physical size and shape of the pump is not important as it is located outside the sump housing. I have been asked what is the minimum pump size, but I don’t know, the most I can say is that Donnie Watts specified a 500 watt pump for his four-foot diameter drum. Please understand that I have never built or even seen a Donnie Watts generator. I believe that it will work exactly as specified (especially since the very similar Clem Motor worked well) but I can’t guarantee that it will. In passing, if the arrangement where there is a pump bypass pipe and valve, then one pump could be used to start a whole row of Donnie Watts generators by disconnecting the pump from each as soon as it is running properly. Of course, in that case, the pump valve needs to be between the drum and the pump to enclose the sump when the pump is removed.

Purely On and Off valves are not expensive, even in 3-inch diameter:
It appears that this valve is either fully On or fully Off. There are valves which claim to be fully adjustable under electronic control but they have still to be investigated and assessed. So, for the moment, assume that the generator will be run under constant load and just construct the box surrounding the drum intake pipe as 300 x 300 x 150 mm in size and with a removable 300 x 300 mm side sealed with a plastic or rubber gasket.

If you feel that a generator which is restricted to a fixed load output is really not all that useful, then think again. Consider using it to power an Elmer Grimes water supply system. The US patent 2,996,897 (22 Aug 1961) is more than fifty years old and it describes a system which can produce drinking quality pure water. It is effectively an outdoor refrigerator. A series of cone-shaped metal panels are stacked together vertically to save space. Each cone has pipes inside it which pass the cooling fluid through the cones, ensuring that they are always at low temperature. In the same way that a cold drink gets water droplets on the outside of the glass, the cones get water droplets forming on them all the time. A wiper arm like a windsceen wiper on a car then brushes those droplets off, with the wiper arm rotating around the cones continuously, rather than backwards and forwards as a car wiper blade does. This produces a continuous stream of fresh water coming off the cones. Unless there is some good reason why not to, the cones are mounted in a raised position so that gravity can be used to direct the water flow to where it needs to end up. Cones are used as they have a greater surface area than a flat plate of the same diameter would have, and the downward slope of the cone helps the water droplets flow off the cone surfaces. Top view:

![Top view diagram](image1)

Side view:
One of these Grimes systems produces enough water to support a ranch in Texas during a drought, and it could be powered indefinitely by a Donnie Watts generator. Think of the effect one would have on a village which has only access to polluted water (especially if you don’t know the technology of colloidal silver).

As it is probably not necessary to produce drinking water all the time, the generator could power electrical cooking in area where firewood is getting scarce, charge mobile phones, power TVs, power fans, refrigerators, etc.

The inside of the sump housing is an unpressurised and very wet area. We don’t want any oil leaking out through the drive shaft bearing, so providing a steel umbrella would be a good idea:

For this, two triangles of steel are cut and then welded in place so that most oil landing on them will run off without reaching the bearing:
Some people may prefer to use commercially constructed components instead of constructing an adjustable flap for the 3-inch diameter rotating intake pipe to the drum. Well, let's see if we can come up with a different method of low-cost automatic flow control. For the system to be automatic I suggest that we could use electrically operated valves which can then be governed by a control circuit. The vast majority of such low-cost valves are only half-inch diameter made for central heating systems, and they are closed unless fed with power to open them. I would suggest the following valves as being possible:

This three-quarter inch diameter brass valve costs about £8 and at about the same price we have a plastic one-inch diameter valve:
Half inch plastic versions are available for about £4 but my preference is for the brass three-quarter inch diameter version. However, we can get variable control by using a row of these valves to restrict flow. For this, we use a second liquid filled box like this:

![Diagram of valves](image)

This row of say, ten valves allows ten different flow settings when the valves are switched on or off by the control circuit and there is the added advantage that if the control circuit is powered via the alternator output and there is a major problem where the drive belt snaps or there is any other major fault which removes the alternator drag from the output shaft, then all valves will automatically shut down and block the flow due to lack of voltage to keep them open. The arrangement could be like this:

![Diagram of control circuit](image)

The most direct way of determining the speed of the output shaft is to connect a disc to the shaft and use a sensor to detect how often a magnet in the disc passes by. A rev counter circuit then monitors the shaft speed and switches off valves progressively if the shaft starts to rotate too fast.

While the diagram above shows the most secure way to assess the speed of rotation of the generator, for most people it is more convenient to skip as much construction work as possible. So, a way which skips the need for an additional rotor disc and sensor is attractive. For that we can measure the output of the alternator rather than the direct speed of the generator axle.
The alternator is an alternating current generator. If you spin the drive shaft of the alternator at its design speed then mains voltage is produced. If the shaft is spun faster than it is supposed to be, then a higher voltage is produced. If the shaft is spun slower than its design speed, then the output voltage is less than the mains voltage. We can therefore use the voltage of the generator's output to control the switching of the row of valves, and the design then becomes this:

With this arrangement, if the drive belt were to break or the alternator were to develop a serious fault, then the circuit voltage would drop off and as a result, the circuit would no longer supply current to the open valves and they all would close, shutting off the generator which is exactly what is needed.

Now, all that is needed is a simple circuit to control the valves. Please understand clearly that I have never been trained in electronics and so I am only self-taught, so feel completely free to consult an expert to provide you with a better circuit.

The three quarters of an inch brass valve has a 20 mm opening and opens if fed 300 milliamps of current at 12 volts. That is 3.6 watts of power for each valve or just 36 watts for all ten valves. The alternator produces mains voltage so we will drop that down to around 12 volts both for safety sake and to make the circuit components cheaper. To drop the voltage down we use a simple power supply comprising of a 3-amp mains transformer to lower the voltage, a diode bridge to convert the output into pulsing DC and a capacitor to smooth out the pulsing:

As with all circuits, and especially mains circuits, we install a fuse or circuit breaker as the first component, and we insulate all metal components to make sure that we don’t accidentally touch them and get a nasty shock. Once the voltage is down to 12 volts the circuit is no more dangerous than a 12 volt car battery and it is not necessary to insulate everything. The fuse is a 3-amp fuse.
This circuit is deliberately not self-adjusting as we want to use it to detect voltage differences coming in from the alternator which is marked "Mains" in the diagrams. The most important thing is to detect a rise in voltage as that indicates that the generator is starting to rotate too fast and so we want to switch off one or more valves. The circuit for each valve is the same as for all of the others although the adjustment of each circuit is slightly different so that the valves switch off at slightly different voltages.

The switching circuit which we will use is called an “operational amplifier” and thankfully that whole circuit comes ready made in a standard chip. For example, the very cheap LM358 chip has two separate “op-amp” circuits in it:

If we connect an LM358 into the circuit we get this:

If the voltage at pin 3 exceeds the voltage at pin 2 then the output on pin 1 will be high (about 10 volts) otherwise the voltage on pin 1 will be low. We will use the high voltage on pin 1 to switch on one of the valves and we will use a high-power high-gain transistor like the TIP132 to do this:

The TIP132 can handle 100 volts, 8 amps and has a gain of 1000, so if it is passing 330 milliamps through the valve winding, then it will need a base current of 0.3 milliamps. That current flows through the resistor “R” which has about 10 volts across it. Resistance = Volts / Amps or 10 / 0.0003 amps which is 33,333 ohms or 33K. However, we will increase the base current by a factor of 3 and use a 10K resistor:
Now we need to get the LM358 to switch off, causing the voltage on pin 1 to drop low, starving the TIP132 of base current and cutting the power to the coil of the valve. For that, we need the voltage on pin 2 to rise above the voltage on pin 3 and we want that to happen if the power supply voltage rises.

So, if we connect a multi-turn10K preset resistor across the power supply and feed it to pin 2, then we can set it so that the op-amp triggers with a rise in voltage. A resistor of that type looks like this:

And the circuit becomes:

Now the last step is to provide a reference voltage which does not change if the power supply voltage increases. The approved way is to use a zener diode with a resistor in series with it and in theory, the voltage drop across the zener diode is a reliable reference voltage. I have not found that arrangement to work at all well, so I suggest using ordinary diodes such as the 1N5408 instead, like this:

This arrangement gives about 10 milliamps flowing through the diode chain and some 2.75 volts are generated across the diodes. That voltage does not alter appreciably if the power supply voltage increases.
The second op-amp in the LM5408 chip can be used to control the next valve. Pins 4 and 8 are already connected to the power lines, but what was pin 1 is now pin 7, what was pin 2 is now pin 6 and what was pin 3 is now pin 5.

The circuit is set up using a bench power supply. Measure the voltage of the power supply powered by the Donnie Watts alternator and then disconnect it. Connect the bench supply in place of the alternator supply and set the voltage to exactly the same value. All op-amps are connected to the four diode reference voltage point.

Let’s say that we want the valves to drop out at every 5-volt increase of the mains voltage. If it is a 240 volt mains supply, then the transformer drops that down to 12 volts which makes the change 20 times smaller, so the power supply voltage will go up by only 5 / 20 volts which is only one quarter of one volt. So you adjust the bench power supply up by a quarter of a volt and adjust the first variable resistor so that the first valve shuts off. Lowering the bench supply voltage by that quarter of a volt should have the valve clicking open again.

This is repeated with all of the valves so that the second valve drops shut at half a volt higher voltage. The third valve drops closed at three quarters of a volt increase over the original voltage, and so on.

When starting the Donnie Watts generator you need the valves open and so a 12V source has to be applied to the valves. Make sure you do that through a press button switch and not a toggle switch because you could easily forget to switch the toggle switch off after the system gets up to speed.

The Permanent Magnet Pendulum.

At the present time, there is a short video clip on YouTube, showing a pendulum which has been running unaided for two years: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SZjNbjhxgt4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SZjNbjhxgt4) and which uses both gravity and magnetism to keep going. The device is installed in a case with transparent sides:

![Permanent Magnet Pendulum](image)

The pendulum itself looks rather like a sledgehammer due to it's rigid shaft and the additional magnets mounted on the weight. The above picture shows the pendulum at the end of it's swing to the right and the picture below, in it's extreme left hand swing position:
Which indicates the swing covers a fairly short distance. Mounted near the top of the pendulum, there are two pivoted arms which look quite like microphones, due to having large magnets mounted on their innermost ends:

The device operates like this: The pendulum swings to the right and as it does so, it raises a magnet attached to the pendulum shaft by a curved silver arm:
Presumably, the arm is curved to avoid the constructional complications at the pendulum pivot which would be caused by a straight mounting arm attached to the pendulum shaft. The rising magnet attached to the pendulum pushes the magnet end of the rocker arm upwards even though it does not come close to it.

The rocker arm is used to raise and lower a plate which has a magnet mounted in it. The raising and lowering is achieved by having two cords attached to the end of the rocker arm and their other ends attached to the two upper corners of the moving plate:

The plate slides in two slots in the support housing and the plate movement is relatively small:
The tipping up of the lever arm drops the plate down as the pendulum approaches the plate. This introduces a magnetic braking effect where some of the momentum of the pendulum weight is stored in the opposing magnetic fields of the pendulum magnets and the plate magnet. This brakes the pendulum movement and gives it a magnetic push on its opposite swing, sustaining its swinging day after day after day.

This is a clever arrangement and the device on display has been built to a very high standard of construction. It does not appear to have any additional energy take off, but seems quite likely that air-core coils could be used along the swing path to generate electrical power. The arrangement appears so close to John Bedini's pendulum battery charger that it may well be possible to use a pendulum of this type to charge batteries just as John does.

While this looks like a very simple device, it is highly likely that it requires exact adjustment of the length of the lever arms, the magnetic gap sizes in relation to the strength of the magnets, etc. etc. Repeated small adjustments are probably needed to get the device operating smoothly and sustaining the pendulum swing. All in all though, it is a very interesting device.

**Gravitational Effects.**

We are all familiar with the effects of gravity. If you drop something, it falls downwards. Engineers and scientists are usually of the opinion that useful work cannot be performed on a continuous basis from gravity, as, they point out, when a weight falls and converts its “potential energy” into useful work, you then have to put in just as much work to raise the weight up again to its starting point. While this appears to be a sound analysis of the situation, it is not actually true.

Some people claim that a gravity-powered device is impossible because, they say that it would be a “perpetual motion” machine, and they say, perpetual motion is impossible. In actual fact, perpetual motion is not impossible as the argument on it being impossible is based on calculations which assume that the object in question is part of a “closed” system, while in reality, it is most unlikely that any system in the universe is actually a “closed” system, since everything is immersed in a massive sea of energy called the “zero-point energy field”. But that aside, let us examine the actual situation.

Johann Bessler made a fully working gravity wheel in 1712. A 300 pound (136 Kg) wheel which he demonstrated lifting a 70 pound weight through a distance of 80 feet, demonstrating an excess power of 5,600 foot-pounds. Considering the low level of technology at that time, there would appear to be very little scope for that demonstration to be a fake. If it were a fake, then the fake itself would have been a most impressive achievement.

However, Bessler acted in the same way as most inventors, and demanded that somebody would have to pay him a very large amount of money for the secret of how his gravity wheel worked. In common with the present day, there were no takers and Bessler took the details of his design to the grave with him. Not exactly an ideal situation for the rest of us.
However, the main argument against the possibility of a working gravity wheel is the idea that as gravity appears to exert a direct force in the direction of the earth, it therefore cannot be used to perform any useful work, especially since the efficiency of any device will be less than 100%.

While it is certainly agreed that the efficiency of any wheel will be less than 100% as friction will definitely be a factor, it does not necessarily follow that a successful gravity wheel cannot be constructed. Let us apply a little common sense to the problem and see what results.

If we have a see-saw arrangement, where the device is exactly balanced, with the same length of a strong plank on each side of the pivot point, like this:

![Diagram of a balanced see-saw](image1)

It balances because the weight of the plank (\("W\)) to the left of the support point tries to make the plank tip over in a counter-clockwise direction, while exactly the same weight (\("W\)) tries to tip it over in a clockwise direction. Both turning forces are \(d \times W\) and as they match exactly, the plank does not move.

The turning force (\(d \times W\)) is called the “torque”, and if we alter the arrangement by placing unequal weights on the plank, then the beam will tip over in the direction of the heavier side:

![Diagram of an unbalanced see-saw](image2)

With this unequal loading, the beam will tip down on the left hand side, as indicated by the red arrow. This seems like a very simple thing, but it is a very important fact. Let me point out what happens here. As soon as the weight on one side of the pivot is bigger than the weight on the other side (both weights being an equal distance from the pivot point), then the heavy plank starts to move. Why does it move? Because gravity is pushing the weights downwards.

One other point is that the distance from the pivot point is also important. If the added weights “\(m\)” are equal but placed at different distances from the pivot point, then the plank will also tip over:

![Diagram of a see-saw with unequal weights and distance](image3)
This is because the larger lever arm “x” makes the left hand weight “m” have more influence than the identical weight “m” on the right hand side.

Do you feel that these facts are just too simple for anyone to really bother with? Well, they form the basis of devices which can provide real power to do real work, with no need for electronics or batteries.

The following suggestions for practical systems are put forward for you to consider, and if you are interested enough test out. However, if you decide to attempt to build anything shown here, please understand that you do so entirely at your own risk. In simple terms, if you drop a heavy weight on your toe, while other people may well be sympathetic, nobody else is liable or responsible for your injury - you need to be more careful in the future! Let me stress it again, this document is for information purposes only.

The Deflected-Weight Generator of Mikhail Dmitriev.
Mikhail is a Russian experimenter who has worked for many years developing and testing gravity-powered devices. His persistence has paid off and he has been very successful. His work is shown on Sterling Allan's web site http://peswiki.com/index.php/Directory:Mikhail_Dmitriev_Gravity_Wheel where there are videos and photographs of several of his prototypes. It is envisaged that large versions which generate 6 to 12 kilowatts of excess power will become available for purchase in 2011. Each of his various designs is based on the principle of having weights attached to a wheel and arranging for those weights to be offset outwards when falling and offset inwards when rising. Because of the different lever arms involved, that gives a force imbalance which causes the wheel to rotate continuously and if the weights are of a considerable size, then the rotation is powerful and can be used to generate electrical energy.

In order to arrange for the weights to be offset as the wheel goes around, each weight is suspended on a pivoted arm:

For the device to operate as required, that suspension arm needs to be moved to (say) the right when falling and be centred or deflected to the right when rising. Mikhail has chosen to use a small amount of electrical power to make this happen, because the energy provided by gravity in turning the wheel far outweighs the small electrical input needed to make the wheel rotate.

Several mechanisms for making this happen have been tested as you can see from Sterling’s presentation. One method is to push the lever arms to the right with a simple rotating disc which has deflector arms attached to it:
After being given the sideways push, each weight stays off centre until it reaches the bottom of its travel. Please remember that while the weights show here are tiny, a full-size working device will have weights which weight a total of perhaps 130 kilograms and the forces involved are then large. The picture above is a little difficult to make out as the rotating disc is transparent and the support for the rotating arms is also transparent. The horizontal metal arm is there to support the transparent panel on which the ‘arms wheel’ bearing is mounted.

An alternative method is to use a small motor which drives the arms directly as shown here:

Each weight is held rigidly and so when the motor arm presses against it, the lever arm is pushed out sideways without the weight twisting away from the motor arm. These prototype weights are not heavy, but when a working unit is being built they will have considerable weight, so to get a well balanced arrangement, it might be advisable to have weights on both sides of the wheel so that there is no offset axial load placed on the shaft which supports the wheel:

Mikhail’s arrangement works well when it relies on the swinging movement of the weights to keep them off centre during the time when they are falling and you can watch a video of that happening. However, it makes one wonder if it would not be possible to arrange for this movement without the need for a motor, although using a motor is a very clever and sensible method of ensuring rotational power. Perhaps if two stationary deflectors were used, one to keep the weights out to the right when falling and one to keep them out to the right when rising, a viable system might be created. Perhaps something like this:
Admittedly, the deflector pieces would have a smoother shape than drawn here, but the principle is shown in spite of the poor quality of the diagram. Where heavy weights are involved, each could have a roller bearing pressing between the weight and the deflector shield in order to minimise friction as the weight slides past. Alternatively, the deflector shield could be faced with powerful magnets opposing similar magnets attached to the weights which would give a no-contact, very low friction movement.

**Veljko Milkovic's Pendulum/Lever System.**

The concept that it is not possible to have excess power from a purely mechanical device is clearly wrong as has recently been shown by Veljko Milkovic at [http://www.veljkomilkovic.com/OscilacijeEng.html](http://www.veljkomilkovic.com/OscilacijeEng.html) where his two-stage pendulum/lever system shows a COP = 12 output of excess energy. COP stands for “Coefficient Of Performance” which is a quantity calculated by dividing the output power by the input power which the operator has to provide to make the system work. Please note that we are talking about power levels and not efficiency. It is not possible to have a system efficiency greater than 100% and it is almost impossible to achieve that 100% level.

Here is Veljko’s diagram of his very successful lever / pendulum system:

Here, the beam 2 is very much heavier than the pendulum weight 4. But, when the pendulum is set swinging by a slight push, the beam 2 pounds down on anvil 1 with considerable force, certainly much greater force than was needed to make the pendulum swing.

As there is excess energy, there appears to be no reason why it should not be made self-sustaining by feeding back some of the excess energy to maintain the movement. A very simple modification to do this could be:
Here, the main beam \( A \), is exactly balanced when weight \( B \) is hanging motionless in its “at-rest” position. When weight \( B \) is set swinging, it causes beam \( A \) to oscillate, providing much greater power at point \( C \) due to the much greater mass of beam \( A \). If an additional, lightweight beam \( D \) is provided and counterbalanced by weight \( E \), so that it has a very light upward pressure on its movement stop \( F \), then the operation should be self-sustaining.

For this, the positions are adjusted so that when point \( C \) moves to its lowest point, it just nudges beam \( D \) slightly downwards. At this moment in time, weight \( B \) is at its closest to point \( C \) and about to start swinging away to the left again. Beam \( D \) being nudged downwards causes its tip to push weight \( B \) just enough to maintain its swinging. If weight \( B \) has a mass of \( W \) then point \( C \) of beam \( A \) has a downward thrust of \( 12W \) on Veljko’s working model. As the energy required to move beam \( D \) slightly is quite small, the majority of the \( 12W \) thrust remains for doing additional useful work such as operating a pump.

Other Gravity-Powered Designs.
Sterling Allan reports on Bobby Amarasingam’s design which has 12 kilowatts of excess power: http://pesn.com/2010/12/04/9501738_British_gravity_motor_generates_12_kilowatts/

Also reported by Sterling is the Smith-Caggiano gravity/momentum/centrifugal-force generator design. The report is at: http://www.peswiki.com/index.php/Directory:OBM-Global%27s_Angular_Force_Generator

Another of Sterling’s reports is on the Chalkalis Gravity Wheel which can be seen at: http://peswiki.com/index.php/OS:_F._M._Chalkalis_Gravity_Wheel

Buoyancy
While we are aware of buoyancy being used to convert wave power into electricity, we seem to neglect the idea of using the very powerful buoyancy forces (caused by gravity) as a direct tool at locations away from the sea. This is definitely a mistake because serious levels of power can be generated from such a system. One such system is:

The “Hidro” Self-Powered Generator of James Kwok.
This design demonstrates yet again, the practical nature of drawing large quantities of energy from the local environment. Commercial versions are offered in three standard sizes: 50 kilowatt, 250 kilowatt and 1 megawatt and licensing partners are being sought. This generator which James has designed can be seen at the Panacea-bocaf.org web site at http://panacea-bocaf.org/hidrofreeenergysystem.htm and on James’ own web site at http://jameskwok.com/tech/hidro.html both of which have video clips explaining how the design works. The method is based on different pressures at different depths of water, gravity, and on the buoyancy of air-filled containers. The system does not rely on wind, weather, sunlight, fuel of any type, and it can operate all the time, day or night, without causing any kind of pollution or hazard. This particular design calls for a water-filled structure of some height, a source of compressed air and a pulley system, and without wishing to be in any way critical, it seems rather more complicated than it needs to be. If, unlike James, you have not done the mathematics for the system, you would assume that the amount of power generated by a system like this would be less than the amount of power needed to make it operate. However, that is definitely very far from reality as considerable excess power is gained through the natural forces of the local environment which make the system operate. Part of the patent application which James made is shown here:
Fig. 1 is a cross-sectional view of an embodiment of the energy generation system of the present invention. Here, the energy generation system 10 comprises a vessel 11 in the form of a water tank and a shaft 12 which can rotate about its longitudinal axis. The shaft 12 is provided with a helical screw groove 13 and is connected at its lower end to a bearing 16 which allows it to rotate freely about its longitudinal axis.

The upper end of the shaft is connected to a generator 17 which is a flywheel system. The rotational energy of shaft 12 may be transferred to the generator through a ratchet-cog system 20. A buoyant inflatable capsule 14 is provided along with its guiding mechanism 15 which is in the form of a wire or pole to assist in the smooth vertical movement of buoy 14.

There is a first air reservoir 18 located in a lower portion of the vessel 11 and a second air reservoir 19 located in an upper portion of the vessel 11. The first reservoir 18 draws air from the atmosphere, in through air intake port 21. Once the pressure in the first reservoir has reached a predetermined value, a piston 22 is actuated, forcing air through hose 23 into the buoyant capsule 14, which, when inflated, begins to move upwards through water tank 11, as the buoy 14 has become less dense than the fluid 25 (such as fresh water or saltwater) in tank 11. This in turn causes rotation of shaft 12, and activation of the power generator 17, thereby generating power.

When buoy 14 reaches the upper limit of its travel, the air in the buoy may be forced to flow through a second hose 24 and into the second air reservoir 19. When air is removed from the buoy it moves downwards through vessel 11 under gravity and with the assistance of ballast (not shown). The downward movement of buoy 14, causes rotation of the shaft 12, which drives the generator 17, thereby generating power.

Air stored in the second reservoir 19 may be vented to the atmosphere through a vent 26 if the pressure in the second reservoir 19 becomes too high. Alternatively, air may flow from the second reservoir 19 into the first reservoir 18 through a third hose 27 so that less air must be drawn into the first reservoir 18 when buoy 14 reaches the lower limit of its travel and must once again be inflated with air from the first reservoir 18.
The hoses 23, 24 and 27 are provided with non-return valves 28 to ensure that air will flow in only one direction through the system 10. Vessel 11 may be provided with ventilation 29 as required and it may also be provided with access stairs 30 and an access platform 31 so that maintenance may be carried out as required. The system may also be provided with a solar energy collection device 32 to generate at least a portion of the energy required to drive piston 22 and the non-return valves 28. Energy produced by the solar energy collection device 32 may also be used to power a light or beacon 33 to indicate the location of the system 10.

**Fig. 2** shows one arrangement for buoy 14 comprising an inflatable capsule 34. This figure illustrates the shape of the walls of the inflatable capsule 34 when inflated 35 and when deflated 36. Air passes into capsule 34 through hose 23 and exits from the capsule through hose 24.

The buoy 14 also has a sleeve 37 attached to it. This sleeve has projections which engage with the helical groove 13 of shaft 12, thereby causing rotation of the shaft when the buoy moves relative to shaft 12. Sleeve 37 is provided with ballast 38, such as stainless steel weights that assist in the downward movement of the buoy when it is deflated.

Buoy 14 is attached to a guide pole 15 and the buoy has a pair of arms 39 which slide on the guiding pole 15 and assist in the smooth vertical movement of the buoy.
Fig. 3 shows one version of the first air reservoir 18. Air is drawn into reservoir 18 through air intake 21. The reservoir includes a piston 22 associated with a spring 40, the piston 22 being provided with seals 41 to prevent leakage of air.

When pressure, such as hydrostatic pressure, is applied in the direction of arrow 42, the piston moves to the left of the reservoir 18 compressing spring 40 and forcing air out through outlet 43. A motor 44 is provided to reverse the movement of the piston 22. Reservoir 18 may be fixed to the floor of the vessel.

An alternative construction of the first air reservoir 18 is shown in Fig. 4. In this embodiment, reservoir 18 is housed within a vessel 11 containing a fluid 25. Air enters reservoir 18 through air intake 21 and is held in a chamber 46. The reservoir has a piston 22 and the movement of the piston 22 towards the left of the reservoir 18 forces air in the chamber 46 out through air outlet 43.

Piston 22 is driven by motor 47 which rotates the helically-grooved shaft 48. The motor is linked to the shaft by a ratchet and cog mechanism 49, which is provided with a spring loaded seal 50 on the inner surface of vessel 11. An actuator 51, may be used to control the opening and closing of non-return valves 28 as well as the actuation of motor 47.

Fig. 5 illustrates a cross-sectional view of an energy generation system according to one of the embodiments of the present invention:
Fig. 5 shows an embodiment where a pair of buoys 14 are present. Each buoy is associated with its own shaft 12 and may move up and down inside vessel 11 independent of one another.

In Fig. 6, an alternative embodiment of the present invention is illustrated, where the buoy 60 has a connecting method 61 in the form of a cylindrical sleeve through which a guide chain 62 passes. Chain 62 is provided in an endless loop and is located on an upper tracking device 63 and a lower tracking device 64, both of which are pulleys. The upper pulley 63 may be fixed to an upper wall (not shown) of a vessel (not shown) via a bracket 65, while the lower pulley 64 may be fixed to a lower wall (not shown) of a vessel (not shown) via a bracket 66.

The connection mechanism 61 contains ratchets which engage with the links of the chain 62 when buoy 60 moves downwards. Thus, as buoy 60 moves downwards, chain 62 also moves, thereby causing both the upper and lower pulleys to rotate in a clockwise direction. The upper and lower 64 pulleys have a series of indentations 67 corresponding to the shape of the links of the chain 62. In this way, the chain 62 sits in the indentations 67 and grips the tracking device (63, 64), thereby ensuring that the tracking device (63, 64) rotates.

In the embodiment of the invention illustrated in Fig. 6, a work shaft 68 is associated with the upper pulley 63 such that rotation of the upper pulley results in rotation of the work shaft 68. The work shaft 68 is located substantially perpendicular to the direction of travel of the buoy 60. The work shaft drives a generator to produce power.
Fig.9 shows an alternative embodiment of this energy generation system 74. The system is comprised of a vessel 75 having a fluid-filled “wet” compartment 76 and one or more “dry” compartments (in this case, a pair of dry compartments 77, 78) with no liquid in them. These dry compartments may be fabricated from any suitable material, such as, concrete, steel, fibreglass, plastic or any combination of materials.

The system also has a pair of buoys 79 each with a deflatable bladder-like construction. The buoys have guide rails 89 which ensure that the buoys move smoothly up and down inside the vessel 75.

In this embodiment of the invention, air reservoirs 86 are located in the base of the vessel 75. Air enters the reservoirs 86 through inlet 87, while air exiting from the buoy 79 is vented through valves 88. The vented air may either be expelled to the atmosphere or recycled to the reservoirs 86.

Each of the buoys is designed to be connected to one end of a chain or rope 80. A weight 82 is connected to the other end of the chain or rope 80. The chain or rope 80 has a series of pulleys 81 such that when the buoy is inflated and filled with air, the buoyancy is greater than the weight 82 and so the buoy rises in the vessel.

When the buoy 79 is deflated, weight 82 is heavier than the buoyancy and so the buoy sinks in vessel 75. In the embodiment illustrated here, the weights 82 are located in the dry compartments 77, 78. There are several reasons for this, including that, by locating the weights 82 in the dry compartments 77, 78, the velocity of the weights 82 in the downward direction is increased, and therefore an increase in the energy produced by the system 74 is experienced.

The weights 82 are associated with second ropes or chains 83, such that vertical movement of the weights 82 results in the rotation of the second ropes or chains 83 around a pair of sprockets 84. Rotational energy generated by the rotation of the second ropes or chains 83 is transferred to a power generation device 85 (such as a turbine or the like) in order to generate power (e.g. electrical power)

***

In spite of its mechanical complexity, the Hidro design is offered as a commercial generator with tens of kilowatts of excess power, indicating that buoyancy is a significant method of generating power, based on the fact that water is hundreds of times heavier than air. Due to its weight, movement in water is slow but can be very
powerful. The helical groove method of converting the vertical movement of the floats into rotational power is used because of this as it has a very high ratio between shaft turns and movement along the shaft. This can be understood when you consider the fact that a complete revolution of the shaft is caused by the float moving up just one step to the next thread position directly above. The turns ratio for the complete float movement is determined by the angle of the groove cut into the drive shaft.

One other thing which needs to be considered for such a project is the weight of the overall structure when filled with water. The overall weight is liable to be many tons and so the footing underneath the generator needs to be very robust. Also, while compressed air is mentioned, giving the impression of cylinders of compressed air or gas, for continuous operation one would expect an air pump to be used. Whether or not an air pump is used, the diameter of the air hoses needs to be considered. Most people think that a gas can flow along a pipe or tube very easily. That is not the case. If you want to get a feel for the constriction caused by a pipe, then take a one metre length of 6 mm diameter plastic tube and try blowing through it. No significant amount of air will pass through the tube even if you blow very hard. The web site [http://www.engineeringtoolbox.com/natural-gas-pipe-sizing-d_826.html](http://www.engineeringtoolbox.com/natural-gas-pipe-sizing-d_826.html) shows this table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pipe Size (inches)</th>
<th>Pipe Length (feet)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Inside diameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>0.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1/4</td>
<td>1.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 1/2</td>
<td>2.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice the major difference in carrying capacity of any of these pipes with just the change from a 10-foot (3 metre) length to a modest 20-foot (6 Metre) length, and those lengths are the sort of lengths needed for many applications. Also, look at the figures for, say, the 0.5 inch (nominal) diameter pipe. With just a 10-foot length, it would take a full two minutes to pump just one cubic foot of air through it. It follows then, that pipes of considerably larger diameter are needed for a project like the ‘Hidro’.

It is possible to construct a much more simple version of the ‘Hidro’, perhaps like this:
A simple hydraulic, buoyancy-powered generator can be constructed, with two or more horizontal, rotating shafts submerged in water in such a way that they are effectively positioned one above the other. Each shaft has one, and preferably two or more sprocket wheels mounted on it. Each of these sprocket wheels engages with a continuous chain loop which also engages with the sprocket wheel which is positioned vertically above it. These vertical chain loops form a belt-style support for a series of identical buckets. On one side of the vertical belt the buckets have their open face upwards and on the other side the bucket openings are facing downwards. An air pump is positioned directly underneath the set of buckets which have the bucket openings facing downwards. The air pump generates an upward-moving stream of air which collects in the rising buckets, displacing the water filling the bucket. This results in a powerful upward thrust caused by the buoyancy of that bucket, and the thrust causes the bucket to move upwards, rotating both horizontal shafts and bringing another water-filled bucket into position above the air pump. A gearing system transfers the rotation torque thus produced, to a generator which produces electricity for general purpose uses.

This is a generator whose input shaft is rotated through buoyancy caused by air-filled containers submerged in a tank of water or some other suitable heavy liquid. Continuous, powerful rotation of the generator shaft is produced through the use of one or more conventional, commercially available air pumps. An air pump is used to fill a series of containers which are open at one end and which are attached to what is effectively a belt arrangement created by two strong chain-link loops which mesh with sprocket wheels mounted on two shafts,
either, or both of which can be utilised for the extraction of useful power, preferably for driving an electricity generator but not necessarily limited to that function as any powerful torque has many useful applications.

Objectives are to provide a power generation system which is very simple in form and which can be understood, operated and maintained by people with minimal training. Also, a system which uses components which are already readily available, thus avoiding significant manufacturing costs, and one which operates without the need for any kind of complex mechanism or high-precision equipment and which can operate with a wide range of commercially available products.

Fig.1. is a simplified partial schematic cross-sectional view showing the main components of the generator as seen from one end.
Fig. 2 is a cross-sectional conceptual schematic view showing the front view of the generator in its most simple form.
Fig. 3 is a cross-sectional conceptual schematic view showing the front view of the generator where more than one set of buckets is used.
**Fig. 1.** illustrates the overall concept of the generator in its most simple form where lightweight rigid buckets are used to capture the rising air from the air pump. In this Figure, a water tank 1, holds water or other suitable liquid 2. The surface of the liquid 3, is indicated to illustrate the fact that a bucket 10, which is in the process of turning over at the top of its orbital motion, is positioned so that one edge of the bucket is clear of the surface of the water, which allows the air which was trapped inside the bucket to escape into the atmosphere and the water fill the entire bucket causing only a very minor turbulence when doing so. This is a desirable, but not essential feature as the air trapped in any bucket will escape upwards as soon as the bucket starts its downward movement, positioning its open end upwards, although this causes unnecessary turbulence inside the tank. One possible bucket shape is shown in perspective view, but many different bucket shapes may be used, including flexible membrane types or alternatively, hinged-plate types which have very much reduced resistance to moving through the water when in their collapsed state during their downward movement.

The buckets 8, 9 and 10, are attached to two strong chains 30, which mesh with the upper sprocket wheel 6, mounted on the upper axle 4, and the lower sprocket wheel 7, which is mounted on the lower axle 5. Although it is not visible in **Fig. 1**, there are two upper sprocket wheels 6, two lower sprocket wheels 7, and two chain loops 30, although these can be seen in **Fig. 2**.

The tank is supported on a robust plate 14, which itself is supported by a series of pillars 15 which rest on a secure footing 16, providing operating space underneath the tank for the installation and maintenance of the air pumping equipment. As fresh water weighs 1000 Kg per cubic metre, the weight of the operational generator system is substantial and so this must be allowed for when assessing the footing needed to support the tank and it’s contents. While a thin-wall tank is shown in **Fig. 1**, many different forms of tank may be utilised, including earth bank and plastic membrane styles, or resurfaced abandoned well shafts. The tank of **Fig. 1** presumes that the lower axle 5 is taken out through the wall of tank 1, using an arrangement similar to that used for the drive shafts which power the screws of ships and other power vessels. While an arrangement of that type provides a drive shaft which is conveniently close to the ground, the much more simple arrangement shown in **Fig. 2** where the output power is taken off using the very simple chain and sprocket wheel method utilised for the bucket supports (chain 30, and sprocket wheels 6 and 7). In general, the more simple and straightforward any design is, the better it works in practice and the lower any maintenance costs become.

Referring again to **Fig. 1.**, when activated, air pump 11 produces a stream of air 12, which flows rapidly upwards. This stream of air 12, once established, does not have to push against the head of water as immediately above the nozzle of the pump is a rapidly rising column of air, sustained both by the exit velocity from pump 11 and the natural upward movement caused by the relative weights of water and air (as water is several hundred times heavier than air). This column of air would normally flow straight upwards in calm water, but should it be found that turbulence in the water tends to push the rising air away from its vertical path, baffles can be placed around...
the pump and positioned so that the air stream is forced to stay within the same section of water taken up by the rising buckets.

The rising air enters the lowest of the rising buckets and collects in it, forcing the water out of the open bottom of the bucket. If the rising bucket is not completely filled with air before the next bucket moves between it and the air pump, the trapped air will expand as the bucket rises and the water pressure reduces due to the lesser depth. Any one bucket with a substantial amount of air in it will create a very significant upward force due to buoyancy, air being about one thousand times lighter than water.

Each bucket on the rising side adds to that upward force and consequently, the chains 30 need considerable strength. The weight of the buckets on each side of the chain match and so the main advantage of light buckets is to lower the inertial mass of the moving parts. Movement through the water is relatively slow but this is offset by gearing between the output drive shaft and the generator’s input shaft. The power of the system can be increased by adding more buckets in the vertical chain, increasing the water depth accordingly. Other ways of increasing the power include increasing the volume inside each bucket and/or increasing the flow rate produced by the air pump or pumps used. Another simple method is shown in Fig.3 and discussed below. An alternative to air pumps is to use tanks of a compressed, non-polluting gas, possibly air.

The buckets shown in the various Figures are rigid, very simple shapes, possibly made by a plastic moulding process in order to be cheap, strong, lightweight and permanently water-resistant. There are, of course, many possible variations on this including using rigid hinged plates sealed with a strong flexible membrane, allowing the buckets to fold and become streamlined on their downward path, and opening as soon as they turn to start their upward movement. There are many mechanisms which can provide this movement, but it is a matter of opinion as to whether or not the extreme simplicity of rigid buckets is worth sacrificing.

Fig.2 shows a schematic layout of the generator when seen from the side. The same numbers apply to the components already seen in Fig.1. The arrangement seen in Fig.2 is the most simple, basic, single bucket set. The near-side rising buckets 8 obscure the view of the far-side falling buckets 9 and only the lowest part of the falling buckets 9 can be seen in this view. Fig.1 shows buckets which are some two and a half times longer than they are wide, but this, of course, is just one option among literally thousands of possible proportions. The size and shape of buckets is related to the performance and number of air pumps being used for any one set of buckets and that choice depends on what is available locally at a reasonable price. It would not be unusual for two or three air pumps to be used side by side along the length of the bucket 8 although Fig.2 only shows a single pump.

Fig.2 also shows a simple method for power take off where a large diameter sprocket wheel 16 is mounted on the upper axle 4, and driving a much smaller diameter sprocket wheel 18 which is mounted on the drive shaft of the electricity generator 19 which is mounted on plate 20 which is attached securely to the top of tank 1.

Fig.3 shows one of the possible arrangements for increasing the system power without increasing the depth of water used. Here, the axles 4 and 5 extend far enough to allow another set of buckets to drive them, increasing the torque very substantially. While Fig.3 shows one extra set of buckets, there is, of course, no reason why there should not be three or more sets of buckets side by side. It should be noted however, that the partitions shown between the bucket sets are not there just to reduce the water swirling but are needed to support the bearings which are essential for the extended axles, since without those, the diameter of the bars used for the axles would have to increase very markedly to avoid unwanted flexing along their length. While the second set of buckets has been shown aligned exactly with the first set, there is an advantage in offsetting them relative to each other so that the output torque is more even with buckets emptying and filling at different points in the bucket cycle.

Fig.4 shows a method for further simplification, where the air is pumped from above the water surface. It is a matter of concern to most people, that the pressure of the head of water above the air pump is a major obstacle to overcome and will be a continuous opposing force during operation of the generator. If air is being injected from underneath the tank, then initially, that pressure head has to be overcome. However, once the air flow is established, a vertical cigar-shaped area of water vortex is established by the rising air stream. This three-dimensional annular vortex negates the water head in the small area immediately above the air nozzle, and almost sucks the air out of the pump, after the initial introduction of the air has been accomplished.

There is another way of achieving this desirable effect without ever having to pump against the total head of water, and that is to use a mobile air pipe as shown in Fig.4. Initially, the air pump is started and lowered a short distance into the water. The opposing head of water is not large and the water vortex can be established quite easily. The pipe is then lowered very slowly, so as to maintain the vortex at a progressively lower depth, where, in spite of the increased head of water, the pump does not have to overcome that head. When the pipe outlet reaches the operational depth, it is then rotated to bring it under the set of rising buckets. The major advantage of
this arrangement is that the tank is as simple as possible, with no possibility of leaking, and so abandoned wells can be modified to become energy generators. Alternatively, an earth bank can be erected to form an above-ground tank, possibly sealed with a plastic membrane. This method also avoids needing to support the weight of tank and water above a work-area where the air pump or compressed-air cylinders are located and maintained. The creation of the water vortex can be assisted by the addition of a cowl around the pipe exit as shown in this figure, but that is an optional feature.

The Ribero Buoyancy Patent.
While internal combustion engine demonstrate that considerable power can be had from motion which moves backwards and forwards continuously, that sort of action is not very efficient as there is continuous reversal of the oscillating drive components. The floats in the (very successful) 'Hidro' design shown above. A different design is shown in the 2011 patent of Renato Bastos Ribero of Brazil. Here is an excerpt from that patent:

Apparatus and associated methods to generate useable energy

Abstract:
The present disclosure relates to an apparatus and associated methods for generating energy by capturing and taking benefit of the energy generated by any quantity of air surfacing inside water. In exemplary embodiments, the apparatus comprises compressing a lower density gas in a liquid medium, allowing the gas to naturally rise to the surface of the liquid medium and then capturing the energy generated by the surfacing gas.
**Fig. 2** is a perspective upper view of a rotor disc for compressing a gas into a liquid medium. This disclosure is in two stages which, in this case, work together. The first stage consists of the creation of energy with the introduction of air at the bottom part of a water column. Once introduced, the air creates energy when moving towards the surface. The introduction of air into the water is the main point of this first part of the disclosure. A method was created in order to use a very small quantity of energy when doing this.

The teeth on the disc, when rotated in water, water to flow away from the area between the teeth, lowering the pressure there and allowing the easy introduction of air in that area. Without air introduction, water would not move away and the pressure would not be reduced. The purpose of the cone is to spread the incoming air.

The second section of the present disclosure refers to a system with the objective of capturing the air which is inserted at the bottom of a water column or tank, while moving towards the water surface.

As shown in **Fig. 16**, buckets 2030 descend on a continuous chain 2020 which passes around a lower and an upper wheel or pulley. On reaching the lower pulley, the buckets turn around the bottom pulley 2014 and line up...
again on the ascending side of the chain. Immediately after turning around the bottom pulley, each bucket receives the rising airflow.

**Fig. 17** shows the arrangement at the top of the water tank 2010. Buckets 2030 rising due to being filled with air, turn over as they pass around the top pulley 2018, releasing the air inside them and start descending again towards the bottom pulley. The upper axle 2018 has an estimated rotational speed of 120 rpm.

In Fig.17 I (Ribero) am showing the transmission of this energy to an axle at the top of the water column where we have a generator 2050 requiring a rotation of 300 rpm plus an engine connected to another generator with rotation of 600 rpm. This part of Fig.17 is only illustrative to show that we shall generate energy at the primary axle at 120 rpm, or use any kind of transmission to more convenient rotational speeds.

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I think that the words marked in red indicate that although this patent has been granted, the generator has never been built and is only an idea. Personally, I am highly dubious about the mechanisms which are supposed to give reduced water pressure at the air intake, as I don’t think that they would work, or if they do, certainly not for the reasons stated. What he wants to do can certainly be done, but not in the way that he suggests. If the axles are rotating at the 120 rpm which he suggests, then that would allow less than one eighth of a second to fill each bucket and while the notion of reduced water turbulence through the buckets touching each other is attractive, I don’t think that the method described is feasible.

So, while we can be sure that buoyancy methods are perfectly capable of generating serious power, we need a better design than either of the two shown here as the Hidro appears to be very expensive to build.

**The Thirty Kilowatt Motor**

The recent website [http://www.rarenergia.com.br/](http://www.rarenergia.com.br/) shows a gravity-powered motor which is capable of driving a 30-kilowatt electrical generator.

This is certainly not a home-build project and the cost of construction and day-to-day maintenance cost makes this appear to be a very uneconomic project. However, one enormous advantage of the building of these two generators is that they show very clearly that free-energy is available and perfectly viable. The people building these two constructions point out very clearly that these are gravity-powered motors rather than just electrical generators. While these motors can drive electrical generators, it is emphasised that they can also perform any task which needs a motor, such as pumping, drilling, etc. The size of these motors is substantial as can be seen from the following pictures:
The Torque Generator of William F. Skinner

In 1939, William Skinner of Miami in Florida, demonstrated his fifth generation generator powered by spinning weights. His demonstration can still be seen at [http://www.britishpathe.com/video/gravity-power](http://www.britishpathe.com/video/gravity-power) where he shows his design powering a twelve-foot lathe, a drill press and a power hacksaw, all simultaneously. The newsreel commentator states that the output power was “1200% of the input power” which is COP=12 but it is highly likely that he should have said “1200 times” rather than “1200%” because he continues to state that using the design
would allow a one-horsepower (746 watts) input power to power 3,500 homes. If it were COP=12 then each of those 3,500 homes would receive less than 2.6 watts, which is clearly wrong. At the much more likely COP=1200, each household would receive on average, 255 watts, which might be just possible in 1939 when few appliances were electric. Anyway, Skinner’s impressive equipment could be driven by a single cotton thread drive band while powering his whole workshop. It looked like this:

![Image of Skinner's equipment](image)

This design has four nearly vertical shafts, each braced to give additional rigidity. These rotating shafts pass their rotating power to the mechanical output drive belt seen on the left. Each of these rotating shafts has a heavy weight in the form of a thick, short cylinder mounted high up near the top of the shaft and what is probably an even heavier weight in the form of a long narrower cylinder attached near the bottom of the shaft as seen just to the right of the output drive belt. These four identical sets of shafts with their pairs of weights spin two or three times per second and produce the whole of the output power.

As far as I am aware, Skinner never patented his design or disclosed how it worked. However, the operating principle is very simple indeed although it may take you a while to grasp how it works. You can check this out quite easily for yourself if you have access to an old-fashioned chair with four rigid legs like this:

![Image of an old-fashioned chair](image)

Tilt the chair over so that it is balanced on one leg. You will notice that almost no effort is involved in keeping it in that position as all of the weight is supported by the floor through just one of the legs. Now, move the top of the
chair by a very small amount and keep the top of the chair in that position. You will notice two things: first, very little effort was needed to move the top of the chair and second, the chair now swings around and becomes stationary on the same side that the top of the chair was moved.

Notice two other things: the chair swung around because of your moving the top slightly and you did not swing it around, and if the chair is heavy, the amount of energy in the swinging chair is very much greater that the amount of energy which you applied to the top of the chair.

If you were to keep moving the top of the chair in a tiny circle, then the chair will spin around continuously for however long that you choose to wobble the top of the chair. The amount of energy in the swinging chair is very much greater than the energy which you are expending to make the chair spin. So from where is that extra energy coming?

What is happening is that the chair swings round under gravity to reach the lowest possible point for it with the new position of the top of the chair. But, before it can get there, you move the top of the chair further around and so the chair has to swing further in order the reach the lowest point. But before it can get there, you move the top again ….. The chair keeps swinging round and round, pulled by gravity, for as long as you choose to keep moving the top. But, no matter how heavy the chair, very little effort is needed from you to cause the spinning.

Skinner had a mechanism at the top of each vertical drive shaft, and that mechanism kept moving the top of the shaft in a small circle while allowing the shaft to rotate freely at all times. That caused the very heavy weights attached to the shaft to keep spinning around, and he used that power of the heavy spinning weights to power his whole workshop. Moving the top of the shafts required so little power that he used a 93-watt electric motor and to show that he was not even using all the power of that small motor, he used a single cotton thread as a drive band to move the tops of the four power output shafts.

His mechanism looks complicated. This is partly due to the fact that there are four identical power shafts with their weights, mounted in the one compact frame and that makes the device look more complicated than it really is. It is also due to the fact that the system shown in the newsreel is William’s fifth version of the device. It is likely that his earlier, much more simple versions worked well and encouraged him to build even fancier versions.

There are two forums where members of those forums are trying to work out exactly how his final version machine worked and then replicate the design for current day use as it is a neat system for accessing additional usable power. Those forums are at: http://www.overunity.com/14655/1939-gravity-power-multiply-power-by-1200/#.U5y0gXaqmJA and http://www.energeticforum.com/renewable-energy/17195-william-f-skinner-1939-gravity-power.html

It needs to be remembered however, that it is not actually necessary to replicate William’s fifth version, but instead it would be quite enough to use the principle of the spinning chair to produce a simple mechanism where the input power is far less than the output power.

If we consider what is happening, then perhaps we can understand Skinner’s complicated-looking arrangement. We can consider just one of the four axle shafts. The large weight is spinning around in a circle and that motion is then used to power the output shaft. In order to reduce the effort needed to spin the weight, the axle shaft has been made thinner and four bracing rods have been used to brace the shaft in exactly the same way that sailing yacht masts are usually braced with “spreaders” to hold the bracing out from the mast and so give greater overall stiffness. So we can ignore those bracing bars as they have nothing to do with the actual operation of his design, but are merely his choice out of many different construction options.

Remember the spinning chair and consider what has to be done to spin Skinner’s heavy weight. The top of the shaft has to be moved in a small circle. Looking down from the top the situation is like this:
When the system is switched off, the weight attached to the bottom of the shaft comes to rest directly underneath the top of the shaft. When the system is started again, the first move is to shift the top of the axle shaft ninety degrees around. This is the start of the rotary movement and initially, the movement is slow as it takes the heavy weight some time to get moving. To reduce the effort of moving the top of the shaft ninety degrees ahead of the big lower weight, Skinner has added a weight at the top to assist the movement in that direction.

Skinner also took advantage of his very large workshop to use a belt-driven mechanism above the top of the shaft, in order to reduce the effort of moving the top of the axle shaft even further (to the level where it could be driven by a cotton thread). He used four separate identical shafts in his construction for two reasons: first, the overall output power is increased and second, any sideways forces stressing the mounting frame are matched on every side, which is helpful when you have heavy weights on a rotating arm as Skinner did.

As the output shafts appear to be rotating at about 150 rpm, Skinner opted to use a straight mechanical drive. Back in 1939, electrically-driven equipment was not as widespread as it is today, but nowadays we would probably prefer to have an electrical output rather than a mechanical drive although that mechanical drive could be used for driving pumps and other low-speed devices. So, we are faced with introducing some form of gearing which can raise that 150 rpm to the much higher level preferred by most alternators.

While it would be possible to use an ordinary 12-volt motor as a generator and produce a 12-volt electrical output, it is likely to be more convenient to use an off-the-shelf electrical generator, perhaps a very low-friction one like this which has been designed for wind-power operation and which has a 12V or 24V 3-phase output:
The fact that the output is 3-phase can sound a little daunting, but the conversion to DC is quite straightforward:

![Diagram of 3-phase Star or Delta connection with diodes and DC Plus and DC Minus tags.]

The output can be converted to DC with six ordinary diodes or a integrated diode arrangement can be used where there is a connecting tag for each of the three outputs and a separate tag for the DC Plus and for the DC Minus. The currents involved are quite high as 400 watts at 12-volts represents more than 33 amps and the peak output of 500 watts is a current of about 42 amps. For that reason, the 3-phase rectifier blocks are rated at 50 amps which sounds very high until you do the calculations and discover what the current is likely to be. It should also be borne in mind that the DC output wire has to carry that level of current on a continuous basis and so fairly robust wire is needed. If the voltage were 220V then the wire would be carrying more than 9 kilowatts at that current flow, and so the normal 13-amp mains wire is just not sufficient and instead, we need to use thick wire or more than one strand of wire for both the Plus and the Minus connections.

This particular generator is not expensive and can output 400 watts of electricity (33 amps) continuously. As the Skinner type appears to be spinning at 150 Hz, a gearing up of the output speed would allow greater output, so perhaps for a home-builder, the physical arrangement might be like this:
There are, of course, many different forms of construction which might be used, but with each of them, the question is, "how do you make the angled shaft rotate powerfully?". If you can work out the complexities of Skinner's fifth version shown in the newsreel, then that would certainly do the job. However, we would prefer a much more simple design and so we do not necessarily have to copy what Skinner did but instead we can just apply the principle which he demonstrated. One possible arrangement might be to imitate the chair experiment using a strong shaft with a weight attached to one side of it, perhaps like this:

Version “A” uses the weight to stiffen the shaft but doing that raises the centre of gravity of the combined shaft and weight which may not be convenient. Version “B” increases the torque for any given weight by moving the centre of gravity of the weight away from the centreline of the shaft by means of extension arms. As the shaft rotates at a constant rate, the load on the shaft will be essentially constant and there should not be any significant flexing of the shaft although it might bend and remain with that same bend during all of the time when it is spinning if the weight is very high relative to the stiffness of the shaft.
We do have to input some power to rotate the top of the drive shaft, but if we arrange things in any one of the hundreds of viable configurations, then the output power will be massively greater than our input power. An alternative arrangement which allows speed control (and so, output power control) is to take some of the generated output of electricity and use that to power an electrical drive which positions the top of the drive shaft.

There will be many different ways of achieving that movement. One method for doing this might be:

![Diagram of Motor with gearing and speed control](image)

**SEEN FROM UNDERNEATH**

Here, the small electric motor shown in green is geared down and used to move the top of the drive shaft at whatever rate of revolution that we consider to be satisfactory, using a standard DC motor speed controller.

It should be noted that no matter what angle is chosen for the axle shaft, that is always a constant relative to the motor arm moving it round in the circle at the top of the shaft. This means that no roller bearing is needed as there is no relative movement and the shaft will automatically take up that fixed angle. The drive motor arm moving the top of the shaft will probably not be long, as Skinner appeared to be moving the top of his shafts by about 40 mm away from the centreline of the bottom pivot, making only one degree or so for the angle of the shaft on every side of the vertical.

It is, of course, not essential to convert the output power to electricity and instead it could be used in the same way that Skinner did, driving mechanical equipment such as water pumps for irrigation or extracting water from wells, milling operations for processing grain or for operating any form of workshop equipment. It is also not necessary to build the device anywhere near as large as Skinner did, and small versions could be used to power lighting systems, operate fans or cooling systems or for any other minor household requirements.

The power output from the machine can be increased by increasing the weight attached to the output shaft, or by increasing the length of the arm holding the weight, or by tilting the output shaft through a greater angle (which increases the input power needed, but probably not by much), or perhaps by scaling the whole thing up so that it is physically bigger. Skinner’s design uses stiffening bracing on the output shaft, which suggests that the lighter the shaft is, the better the performance. Because of this, a prototype build might use a timber shaft of perhaps, 33 mm square as that is both light and very strong and rigid and it is a good shape for ensuring that there is no slipping of the arm which supports the weights. The top of the shaft is reduced slightly so that it has a circular cross-section. A 300 rpm motor rotates at a maximum of 5 turns per second and so is suitable for rotating the axle shaft. A suitable, low-cost motor of that type, looks like this:
The motor needs to be linked to the shaft in a simple way which ensures that there will be no shaft slippage:

Perhaps cutting a suitable sized hole through a strip of material and using a strip of metal pressed into the flat face of the motor drive shaft (in addition to the hole being a tight push fit) would be adequate for this. A screwed collar or layer of epoxy resin holds the plate firmly to the motor as the plate is positioned below the motor and so gravity tends to pull the plate off the motor shaft at all times.

It would initially be assumed that a ball bearing or roller bearing would be needed in this motor arm, but that is not the case as the axle shaft does not rotate relative to the motor arm and while the axle shaft can be a loose fit in the hole, there is certainly no need for a bearing.

A commercial DC Motor Speed Controller can be used to bring the shaft rotation speed gradually up from a stationary start to the chosen rate of revolution:
Using a commercial module like this means that no electronics knowledge is needed to build a working generator of this type.

There are many options for providing the necessary weight which drives the generator. One possibility is to use a barbell shaft with as many weights as are required, that being a very simple alteration:

One of the hand grips can be cut and used directly as part of the mounting, perhaps like this:

This simple arrangement allows the weight discs to be added and secured in any combination desired. As dumbbells are supplied in pairs, there are four discs of each side which allows a wide range of weight options going up in jumps of just 1 Kg which is very convenient. If the axle shaft has a square cross section, there is no tendency for the lever arm to slide around the shaft.

The following sketches are not to scale, but one form of construction might be:
For this style of construction, four pieces of, perhaps, 70 x 18 mm Planed Square Edge timber are cut to perhaps 1050 mm and two 33 x 33 x 65 mm pieces epoxied and screwed to two of the pieces, 18 mm in from the ends:
Then the four pieces are screwed together while resting on a flat surface:

Then corner bracing triangles of MDF are screwed in place:

Then a 130 x 25 mm thick plank is attached across the width at the centre point and screwed in place:

Next, two lengths of the 18 mm thick timbers about 180 mm long are epoxied and screwed to the centre of the 25 mm thick plank, leaving 70 mm clearance to the end of the plank:
Two timber strips 1350 mm long, are cut and erected vertically, being attached by screws coming upwards through the 25 mm thick plank, and by MDF bracing triangles on one side and across the lower end of the verticals. If a spirit level is used to ensure that the vertical timber is actually vertical, then first, the four corners of the floor frame need to be weighted down to overcome any twisting and the floor frame confirmed to be actually horizontal before attaching the vertical timbers:

Each vertical needs to be braced on both sides with diagonal strip, either metal or timber:
An 18 mm thick timber strip is screwed to the tops of the verticals. This deliberately positions the timber 18 mm off centre as the motor which rotates the top of the axle shaft has to be attached to the middle of this newest timber and that places the motor shaft very close to the central point of the base:

One slight disadvantage is that a packing piece is needed for the triangular MDF bracing pieces which increase the frame rigidity at the top:

At this stage, the construction will look like this:

At this point, the 300 rpm motor with it’s actuator arm and the speed-control box can be fitted. The motor is located centrally, and the control box can be positioned anywhere convenient. The control box is merely a 12-volt battery pack of 1.2V NiMh AA-size batteries connected through a push-to-make press button switch and the commercial DC Motor Speed Controller, to the 300 rpm motor. With this arrangement, the motor can be powered up by pressing the button and adjusting the speed slowly up from stationary, getting the rotor weight moving gradually faster and faster until its best operating speed is reached. When everything is in place, then the rectified output of the alternator is fed into the control box, so that the Start button can be released and the device becomes self-powered from part of the output power. The initial step looks like this:
It should be explained that, with the exception of the 25 mm thick plank, all of this construction is only loaded very lightly as rotating the top of the axle shaft does not take much power or effort at all. Almost all of the rotating weight is located at the bottom of the axle shaft and that weight rests on some form of bearing which rests in the middle of the 25 mm plank.

For a small version of the generator, such as this one, the rotating weight does not need to be all that great and so, the forces generated by the weight and its rotation about the bearing need not be a major thing. However, in spite of the fact that we are only dealing with limited forces which can be handled by simple components, people may be inclined to use a thrust bearing instead of allowing the weight to rest on the shaft of the alternator. A bearing of that kind may look like this:

Here, the base and inner ring do not move while the top outer ring revolves freely and can support a major load while it rotates. If we choose to use one of these, then an arrangement like this could be used:

This combination has a cap (shown in yellow) with a central vertical shaft (yellow) attached to it, tightly encasing the upper ring of the bearing whose lower ring is securely attached to the 25 mm thick plank (grey) perhaps using
epoxy resin (purple). This allows free rotation of the upper ring and vertical shaft while carrying significant loading. The power take-off in the arrangement shown is from the shaft projecting beneath the plank. Generally speaking, the electrical power output increases with increased speed of rotation, so gearing the alternator up so that it rotates much faster than the axle shaft is desirable and this arrangement may be convenient for that. If it is important to have the power take-off above the plank, then a strong bracket can be used to raise the bearing high enough above the plank to accomplish that.

There are two separate forces acting on the bearing. One is always downwards as the bearing supports the rotating weight:

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Then there is the sideways forces caused by the rotation of the (unbalanced) weight:
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This sideways force is normally considered to be a major problem, however, in this instance, the weight is not being whirled around and trying to escape from the shaft in a horizontal direction, but instead, the weight is turning under gravity powered by its own weight, and the forces generated are quite different and in a different direction. Also, the rate of rotation is very small compared to the speeds which we automatically think about when considering an orbiting weight, typically, this rotation only being between 150 and 300 rpm.

As far as the loading on the axle drive motor is concerned, the situation is like this:
This is the position when at rest. The pull on the motor shaft at the top of the axle shaft is $W \times d / h$ where $W$ is the weight at the end of arm $d$. The situation changes immediately the top of the axle shaft is rotated and the weight $W$ starts to swing under the influence of gravity.

I am told that the axle shaft needs to be light. With small weights, a rigid wooden shaft is adequate and it does not flex under the loading. I am assured that the bottom of the axle shaft needs a universal joint and a major version of this generator where the weights are very high, that is certainly true as the shaft will flex if designed to its minimum specification, but under these much less stressed conditions, there will be no flexing of the shaft when it is pulled sideways and as the shaft angle is a constant, I do not believe that any such joint is necessary. However, many people will wish to include one. These bearings come in different forms, and one of them looks like this:

It must be remembered that if a joint like this is fitted, then it will not be in constant motion, that is, the joints will take up one particular position and will maintain that position during the whole of the time that the generator is in operation.

A compromise would be to provide a hinged movement in one plane by pivoting the axle shaft joint just above the thrust bearing:
The electrical connections are quite straightforward:

The 12-volt battery pack of 1.2V AA-size batteries is connected to the motor speed controller when the button of the press-button switch is held down. This powers the motor, and as the axle shaft speeds up progressively, the generator starts producing power which is always fed to the speed controller box. As soon as the generator gets up to speed, the press button switch can be released and the system runs on power produced by the generator. Excess power will be drawn from the generator output, but those links are not shown in the diagram.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.co.uk
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 5: Energy-Tapping Pulsed Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

One very interesting feature of free-energy devices is that although various devices which appear to be completely different and have different apparent applications, the background operation is often the same. It is clear that a sharp positive going DC electric pulse interacts with the surrounding energy field, making large quantities of free-energy available for anyone who has the knowledge of how to gather and use that extra energy.

Let me stress again that “over-unity” is an impossibility. Over-unity suggests that more energy can be taken out of a system than the total energy which goes into the system. This is not possible as you can’t have more than 100% of anything. However, there is another perfectly valid way of looking at the operation of any system, and that is to rate the output of the system relative to the amount of energy that the user has to put in to make it work. This is called the “Coefficient Of Performance” or “COP” for short. A COP = 1 is when all of the energy put in by the user is returned as useful output. A COP > 1 is where more useful energy comes out of the device than the user has to put in. For example, a sailing boat in a good breeze transports people along without the need for the energy of movement to be supplied by the crew. The energy comes from the local environment and while the efficiency is low, the COP is greater than 1. What we are looking for here is not something to tap wind energy, wave energy, sunlight energy, river energy, thermal energy or whatever but instead we want something which can tap the invisible energy field which surrounds us all, namely the “zero-point energy” field or the “ambient background”.

For this, let us look at pulsing circuits used by a wide range of people in a number of apparently quite different devices. An electrical “pulse” is a sudden voltage rise and fall with very sharply rising and falling voltages. However, pulses are seldom generated as isolated events when working with practical devices, so it is probably better to think of a train of pulses, or a “waveform” with very sharp rising and falling edges. These can be called oscillators or signal generators and are so commonplace that we tend not to give them a second thought, but the really important factors for using an oscillator for zero-point energy pick-up is the quality of the signal. Ideally, what is needed can be a perfect square wave with no overshoot, and the voltage level never going below zero volts, or a complex waveform, also with very sharp attack and decay times. These waveforms are a good deal more difficult to generate than you might imagine.

Even in these days of sophisticated solid-state electronic devices, the best method of creating a really sharp voltage pulse is still considered to be a spark gap, especially one which has the spark chopped off suddenly by the use of a strong magnetic field at right angles to the spark gap. For an example of this style of operation, consider the following device.

Frank Prentice’s COP=6 Pulsed Aerial System.
Electrical Engineer Frank Wyatt Prentice of the USA invented what he described as an ‘Electrical Power Accumulator’ with an output power six times greater than the input power (COP = 6). He was granted a patent in 1923 which says:

In the development of my WIRELESS TRAIN CONTROL SYSTEM for railways, covered by my United States Letters Patent Number 843,550, I discovered that with an antenna consisting of one wire of suitable diameter supported on insulators, three to six inches above the ground and extending one half mile, more or less in length, the antenna being grounded at one end through a spark gap, and energised at the other end by a high frequency generator of 500 watts input and having a secondary frequency of 500,000 Hz, would produce in the antenna, an oscillatory frequency the same as that of the earth currents and thus electrical power from the surrounding media was accumulated along the length of the transmission antenna and with a closed oscillatory loop antenna 18 feet in length run parallel with the transmission antenna at a distance of approximately 20 feet, it was possible to obtain by tuning the loop antenna, sufficient power to light to full candle power a series bank of 50 sixty-watt carbon lamps. Lowering or raising the frequency of 500,000 Hz resulted in a diminishing of the amount of power received through the 18 foot antenna.

Likewise, raising the transmission antenna resulted in a proportionate decrease of power picked up on the receiving antennae and at 6 feet above the earth no power whatsoever was obtainable without a change of voltage and frequency.

It is the objective of my generic invention to utilise the power generated by the earth, by the means described here and illustrated in the drawings. The two drawings show simple and preferred forms of
this invention, but I wish it to be understood that no limitation is necessarily made as to the exact and precise circuits, shapes, positions and structural details shown here, and that changes, alterations and modifications may be made when desired within the scope of my invention and as specifically pointed out in the claims.

Referring particularly to Fig. 1, 1 and 2 are alternating current feed wires supplying 110 volts 60 cycles per second to a high-frequency generator. 3 is a switch with poles 4 and 5, while 6 and 7 are the connections to the high-frequency transformer 8, which is used to step-up the frequency to 500 kHz and the voltage to, say, 100 kV. 9 is an inductor, 10 is a spark gap, 11 is a variable capacitor, 12 is the primary winding and 13 the secondary winding of transformer 8. The secondary winding is connected to ground through variable capacitor 16, and wire 17. Wire 14 connects transformer 8 to the main transmission antenna 19 which is supported along its length on insulators 20. Spark gap 21 is positioned between the main transmission antenna 19 and the ground 24, passing through connecting wire 22 and variable capacitor 23. The main transmission antenna 19, can be any desired length.

In Fig. 2, 25 is a closed oscillating loop antenna of any desired length. For greatest efficiency, it is run parallel with the main transmission antenna 19 of Fig. 1. Wire 26 is connected to the secondary winding 27 of a step-down transformer which winding then goes to ground 31 through variable capacitor 29. The primary winding 32 of the step-down transformer has variable capacitor 33 connected across it and it feeds directly into winding(s) 34 of frequency transformer(s) which supply current through winding(s) 35 to a motor "M" or other electrical load(s).

Having described the drawings, I will now describe the operation of my invention. Operate switch 3 to connect the input power. Adjust spark gap 10 and variable capacitor 11 so that 100,000 volts at a frequency of 500,000 cycles per second is delivered to step-up transformer 8 of Fig. 1. Next, adjust spark gap 21 of the transmission antenna 19 so that all (voltage) peaks and nodes are eliminated in the transmission of the 100,000 volts along the antenna by the current surges across spark gap 21. The high-frequency alternating current flowing through spark gap 21 passes through variable capacitor 23 to ground 24 and from there, back through the ground to earthing point 18, through variable capacitor 16 and back to winding 13 of transformer 8. As the 500,000 Hz current is the same as the earth-generated currents and in tune with it, it naturally follows that accumulation of earth currents will amalgamate with those for transformer 8, providing a reservoir of high-frequency currents to be drawn upon by a tuned circuit of that same 500 kHz frequency, such as that shown in Fig. 2, where the antenna 25 is turned to receive a frequency of 500 kHz, which current then passes through transformer 27, any
frequency-adjusting transformer(s), and on to power the load(s) 38.

The return of current through the earth from transmission antenna 19, is preferable to return through a wire as the ground return current picks up more earth currents than a wire does. I also prefer under certain conditions, to use a single antenna wire in place of the closed loop antenna shown in Fig.2. Under certain operational requirements, I have had improved performance by having the transmission antenna elevated and carried on poles many feet above the earth, and with that arrangement it is necessary to use a different voltage and frequency in order to accumulate earth currents.

This system of Frank’s effectively applies very sharply pulsed DC pulses to a long length of wire supported in a horizontal position not far above the ground. The pulses are sharp due to both the spark gap on the primary side of the transformer, along with the spark-gap on the secondary (high voltage) side of the transformer. An input power of 500 watts gives a 3 kW power output from what appears to be an incredibly simple piece of equipment.

Dave Lawton’s Solid-State Circuit.
A solid-state semiconductor circuit which has proved successful in producing pulses like this is shown as part of Dave Lawton’s replication of Stan Meyer’s Water Fuel Cell. Here, an ordinary NE555 timer chip generates a square wave which feeds a carefully chosen Field-Effect Transistor the BUZ350 which drives a water-splitter cell via a combined pair of choke coils at point “A” in the diagram below.

Stan Meyer used a toroidal ferrite ring when he was winding these choke coils while Dave Lawton uses two straight ferrite bars, bridged top and bottom with thick iron strips. Chokes wound on straight ferrite rods have been found to work very well also. The effects are the same in all cases, with the waveform applied to the pipe electrodes being converted into very sharp, very short, high-voltage spikes. These spikes unbalance the local quantum environment causing vast flows of energy, a tiny percentage of which happens to flow into the circuit as additional power. The cell runs cold, and at low input current, quite unlike an ordinary electrolysis cell where the temperature rises noticeably and the input current needed is much higher.
John Bedini's Battery-Charging Circuit.

John Bedini uses this same pulsing of a bi-filar wound coil to produce the same very short, very sharp voltage spikes which unbalance the local energy field, causing major flows of additional energy. The figure shown here is from his US patent 6,545,444.

John has produced and generously shared, many designs, all of which are basically similar and all using a 1:1 ratio bi-filar wound transformer. This one uses a free-running rotor with permanent magnets embedded in its rim, to trigger sharp induced currents in the windings of the coil unit marked “13b” which switches the transistor on, powering winding “13a” which powers the rotor on its way. The pick-up coil “13c” collects additional energy from
the local environment, and in this particular circuit, feeds it into the capacitor. After a few turns of the rotor (dictated by the gear-down ratio to the second rotor), the charge in the capacitor is fed into a second “on-charge” battery.

The rotor is desirable but not essential as the coils marked 1 and 2 can self-oscillate, and there can be any number of windings shown as 3 in the diagram. Winding 3 produces very short, sharp, high-voltage spikes, which is the essential part of the design. If those sharp pulses are fed to a lead-acid battery (instead of to a capacitor as shown above), then an unusual effect is created which triggers a link between the battery and the immediate environment, causing the environment to charge the battery. This is an amazing discovery and because the voltage pulses are high-voltage courtesy of the 1:1 choke coils, the battery bank being charged can have any number of batteries and can be stacked as a 24-volt bank even though the driving battery is only 12 volts. Even more interesting is the fact that charging can continue for more than half an hour after the pulsing circuit is switched off.

It can be tricky to get one of these circuits tuned properly to work at peak performance, but when they are, they can have performances of COP>10. The major snag is that the charging mechanism does not allow a load to be driven from the battery bank while it is being charged. This means that for any continuous use, there has to be two battery banks, one on charge and one being used. A further major problem is that battery banks are just not suitable for serious household use. A washing machine draws up to 2.2 kilowatts and a wash cycle might be an hour long (two hours long if a “whites” wash and a “colours” wash are done one after the other which is not uncommon). During the winter, heating needs to be run at the same time as the washing machine, which could well double the load.

It is recommended that batteries are not loaded much beyond their “C20” rate, that is, one twentieth of their Amp-Hour nominal rating. Say that 85 Amp-Hour deep-cycle leisure batteries are being used, then the recommended draw rate from them is 85 Amps divided by 20, which is 4.25 amps. Let’s push it and say we will risk drawing double that, and make it 8.5 amps. So, how many batteries would we need to supply our washing machine assuming that our inverter was 100% efficient? Well, 2,200 watts on a 12-volts system is 2,200 / 12 = 183 amps, so with each battery contributing 8.5 amps, we would need 183 / 8.5 = 22 large, heavy batteries. We would need twice that number if we were to treat them right, plus twice that again for household heating, say 110 batteries for an anyway realistic system. That sheer size of battery banks is not realistic for your average householder or person living in an apartment. Consequently, it appears that the Bedini pulse-charging systems are not practical for anything other than minor items of equipment.

However, the really important point here is the way that when these short pulses are applied to a lead-acid battery, a link is formed with the environment which causes large amounts of energy to flow into the circuit from outside. This is extra “free-energy”. Interestingly, it is highly likely that if the pulses generated by Dave Lawton’s water-splitter circuit shown above, were fed to a lead-acid battery, then the same battery-charging mechanism is likely to occur. Also, if a Bedini pulse-charging circuit were connected to a water-splitting cell like the Lawton cell, then it is highly probable that it would also drive that cell satisfactorily. Two apparently different applications, two apparently different circuits, but both producing sharp high-voltage pulses which draw extra free-energy from the immediate environment.

The Tesla Switch.

It doesn’t stop there. Nikola Tesla introduced the world to Alternating Current (“AC”) but later on he moved from AC to very short, sharp pulses of Direct Current (“DC”). He found that by adjusting the frequency and duration of these high-voltage pulses, that he could produce a whole range of effects drawn from the environment - heating, cooling, lighting, etc. The important point to note is that the pulses were drawing energy directly from the local environment. Leaving aside the advanced equipment which Tesla was using during those experiments and moving to the simple-looking 4-battery switch, we discover the same background operation of sharp voltage pulses drawing free-energy from the environment.

5 - 5
I seriously doubt that this circuit had anything to do with Tesla, but instead it probably originated with Carlos Benitez. Strictly speaking, this particular version was probably produced by the staff of the Electrodyne Corp. of America. This circuit (shown in "The Manual of Free-Energy Devices and Systems" Vol.1, 1986) was tested by them for a period of three years:

Please understand that the car batteries which they used in their circuit had become “conditioned” during their years of testing and they each had a voltage of 36 volts even though they were manufactured as 12-volt batteries. This circuit is a lot more subtle than it appears. The 1N1183 diodes are an essential part of the operation because those diodes break down when they are supposedly blocking current flow, and instead, they pass through them sharp voltage pulses. Those battery-charging pulses are the reason why the diodes appear to be connected backwards and supposedly blocking current flow to the positive contacts of the batteries.

I suggest that this circuit is abandoned and instead the Benitez method of feeding charging pulses directly to both the batteries and the load be used instead. There has to be battery recharging. If you doubt this, then do the math:

The load is powered by current which flows from two batteries in series (72 volts) into two batteries in parallel (36 volts). The batteries are lead-acid types which have an efficiency of only 50%, that is, they waste half of all of the charging energy fed into them. Let’s work an example: Say the two batteries in series provide 10 amps for a one-second period. Both of those batteries lose 10 amp-seconds of power.

That 10 amps divides equally and 5 amps flows into each of the two batteries for a period of one second. That would be 5 amp-seconds of additional power IF it were not for the 50% efficiency of the battery. So only 2.5 amp-seconds of that power can be recovered from that battery, which in the next second is expected to supply 10 amp-seconds of power.

So, effectively, we have 2.5 amp-seconds of recoverable power received for every 10 amp-seconds of actual power expended. This means that the battery will run down unless some form of battery charging takes place during the operation. Consequently, a battery charging system needs to be part of the “Load”.

Carlos Benitez used switching of only once per hour and he added charging power to both the batteries and the load which was being power by his circuit. He did that like this:
As there were no readily available electronic components back then, Carlos used an induction coil to produce the voltage spikes needed for charging the batteries. The equivalent nowadays is the much cheaper and easier to build "Joule Thief" circuit as described in chapter 6:

Here is a solid-state version of the circuit:
Here, six 2N3055 transistors (or the more convenient version the TIP3055) are switched On and Off by six audio transformers (possibly the Radio Shack #273-1380 transformers). The 8-ohm transformer primary windings are connected in series and driven by a square-wave generator through a large capacitor. This circuit is shown in red in the circuit diagram above. When the square wave is positive, transformers 1, 2 and 3 have their primary windings loaded by a forward-biased diode which limits the voltage across them to a maximum of about 0.7 volts and that keeps their operation short when they switch On. The other three transformers 4, 5 and 6 have the diodes across their primary windings positioned to block a positive voltage and so their transistors remain Off.

When the output voltage of the square-wave generator goes negative, the situation is reversed and transformers 4, 5 and 6 switch on briefly while transformers 1, 2 and 3 remain Off. The diodes across the primary windings are 1N4148 diodes which have a very fast switching time which can be very important for circuits of this type. The other diodes are 1N1183 which are rated at 50 volts and 40 amps.

The Self-powered Free-Energy Generators of Carlos Benitez
The Mexican Civil Engineer Carlos Benitez devised what is essentially the 3-battery switch discussed above. He was working at a time when solid-state electronics was not available and so his design is all the more impressive for that. Here is some of his patent information:

Carlos Benitez Patent GB 17,811 13th May 1915
System for the Generation of Electric Currents
I, Carlos F. Benitez, Civil Engineer, 141 Ocampo Street, Guadalajara, Mexico, do hereby declare the nature of this invention:

The invention relates to a new process for obtaining electric currents under unusually simple, economic and practical conditions. I use synthetically in combination: apparatus for the production of electric currents for charging one or several capacitors whose collectors or inner coatings are connected to one of the terminals of the primary winding of one or several induction coils and the other coatings of those capacitors are alternately grounded through the primary winding of a transformer, or connected through the transformer primary to the above collectors, appropriate means for collecting the currents produced in the secondary windings of these transformers and for applying charging to the above collectors, and an appropriate means for discharging those collectors, and for the application of all or part of its energy to the successive replication of the process already described, in this way, increasing the generation of electrical energy, or maintaining a constant, pre-determined electrical output.

Furthermore, the invention consists of a new combination of parts from which are derived advantages which will be fully understood by the consideration of the two different cases illustrated in the accompanying drawing, in which:

1 is a bank of capacitors.
2 is a rotating commutator to make and break the circuit connections at the appropriate instants.
3 is the primary winding of a transformer or induction coil.
4 is the secondary winding of that transformer or induction coil.
5 is a second bank of capacitors.
6 is an oscillator spark gap.
7 is the primary winding of a second transformer.
8 is the secondary winding of that transformer.
9 is a third bank of capacitors.
70 is the primary winding of a third transformer.
71 is the secondary winding of that transformer.
10 is a fourth transformer.
11 is a series of incandescent lamps.
12 is an electric motor.
(a), (b), (c), (d), (e) and (f) are mercury-vapour converters or cathodic valves, allowing electric current flow only in the direction shown by the arrows.
Or using current day symbols:

The capacitor bank 1, is connected through wire 13 to a source of electric current, providing the initial charge to capacitor bank 1. This initial charge is used to start the system running and can be disconnected at any time by means of switch 14.

Wire 15 connects the inner leaves of capacitor bank 1 with poles 16 and 17 of the commutator 2, and it's pole 18 is connected via wire 19 to one of the terminals of transformer primary winding 3, whose other end is connected through wire 20 to the outer leaves of capacitor bank 1. The secondary winding 4, of this transformer, is connected by wire 21 to the inner plates of capacitor bank 5, and by wire 22, to the outer plates of capacitor bank 5. In the same manner, wires 23 and 24 pass those connections on to the two sides of the primary winding 7 of the second transformer. Wire 23 also contains an oscillator spark gap 6, and wires 21, 22, 25, 26 and 72 contain the one-way cathode valves a, b, c, d, e and f. The secondary winding 8, of this second transformer, connects to the inner plates of capacitor bank 9, whose outer plates are connected to ground through the primary winding 70 of the third transformer. The secondary winding 71, of this third transformer is also connected through wire 72, to the inner plates of capacitor bank 9. Wires 27 and 28 also connect these inner plates to commutator poles 29 and 30, which form a change-over switch through commutator contact 31 which is connected to the inner plates of capacitor bank 1 through wire 32. Switches 33 and 34, allow the connection or disconnection of the primary winding of transformer 10, whose secondary winding supplies current to the incandescent lamps 11 and motor 12. Finally, one of the ends of primary winding 3 is connected through wire 35 to both pole 36 and pole 37 of the commutator 2, and their corresponding commutator contact 38 is connected to ground by wire 39.

As the construction and use of all of these components (with the exception of the commutator) is perfectly understood, it would be pointless to describe them. The commutator 2, is enclosed in a tank 40, whose end walls 41 and 42 support the ends of the contact-mounting bar 43, and the bearings of the rotating shaft 44. The contact bar is made of a non-conducting material to which are immovably attached, the copper contact strip brushes 16, 17 and 18, 36, 37 and 38, and 29, 30 and 31. Secure contact between these brushes and the rotating cylinders mounted on shaft 44 is ensured by the rotating lever arm 47 and its associated weight 48.

The three rotating cylinders mounted on shaft 44, are made of a non-conducting material and have a conducting strip around their circumference. This strip has two conducting spurs running outwards, one to the right and one to the left, positioned 180 degrees apart around the circumference of the cylinder. When shaft 44 is rotated, this causes the central contact (for example, 18) to connect first to one of its associated contacts (say, 17) and then disconnect and connect to the other contact (say, 16) forming a change-over switching mechanism.
The switching strips on the central cylinder are positioned 90 degrees around the circumference when compared to the position of the switching strips on the two outer cylinders which are aligned with each other.

This can be seen in the diagram, where in the shaft position shown, 38 and 36 are connected and 31 and 30 are connected, while 18 is not connected to either 16 or 17.

When shaft 44 is rotated through 90 degrees, 18 will be connected to 17, while 31 and 38 will both be isolated.

When shaft 44 is rotated through an additional 90 degrees, brush 18 will be isolated while brush 38 will be connected to 37 and brush 31 will be connected to 29.

When shaft 44 is rotated through an additional 90 degrees, brush 18 will be connected to brush 16, while brushes 31 and 38 will be isolated.

[Note: if the diagram is correctly proportioned, there will be four positions in each rotation where the three central brushes are not connected to any of the outer brushes, producing the switching sequence Make, Break, Make, Break, Make, Break, Make, Break for each revolution. These breaks in the switching sequence have been shown to have a significant effect when batteries are being charged. This mechanism would be built as solid state switching nowadays.]

Shaft 44 is elongated and projects through the end wall 42, so that a belt drive 45, or other suitable method, may be used to rotate the shaft, driven by motor 12 or possibly by crank handle 46. The tank 40, is filled with oil or any other insulating liquid, in order to prevent sparking between the brushes, which would lower the efficiency of the system.

This system is operated as follows:

With the commutator in the position shown in the drawing, that is, with brush 36 connected to 38 and brush 30 connected to 31, and supposing capacitor bank 1 is connected through wire 13 to a source of electric power (say, a Wimshurst Machine), switch 14 being closed, electric current passes through wire 13 to charge capacitor bank 1, causing a current to flow through wire 20, primary winding 3, wire 35, brush 36, brush 38 and wire 39 to earth. This current flow through primary winding 3 induces an inverse current in secondary winding 4, which flows through wire 21, charging capacitor bank 5 and then a direct induced current flowing through conductor 22, charging capacitor bank 5.

The current flow to both sets of plates in capacitor bank 5, charges it and creates a spark across the spark gap 6, causing a very sharp current pulse through primary winding 7. This in turn, causes a considerable number of high-frequency oscillating current flows in the secondary winding 8 and these pass along wires 25 and 26, and via diodes c and d, thus charging capacitor bank 9 and causing a corresponding set of high-frequency pulses to flow to ground through the primary winding 70. This induces current flow in the secondary winding 71, which flows through diodes e and f, and onwards via wire 72, further boosting the charge on capacitor bank 9.

Therefore, capacitor bank 1 being charged by an external source, capacitor bank 9 will be charged indirectly and successively re-charged several times, resulting in a quantity of electricity considerably greater than that of capacitor bank 1. By this means, the system can be self-powered with no need for the power source used to start it, which means that switch 14 can be opened.

When shaft 44 rotates through 90 degrees, brush 17 connects with brush 18, while brushes 31 and 38 are both disconnected. This causes capacitor bank 1 to be completely discharged through transformer primary 3, causing the already described process by which capacitor bank 9 receives a substantially larger electrical charge. This results in capacitor bank 1 being totally discharged and capacitor bank 9 being highly charged with a great deal of electricity. Consequently, if we now close switch 33 and rotate shaft 44 through another 90 degrees, the following situation results:

1. Brushes 17 and 18 will be disconnected.
2. Brushes 37 and 38 become connected which in turn connects the outer plates of capacitor bank 1 to ground. Brushes 29 and 31 are connected, which then connects the inner plates of capacitor bank 9 to the inner plates of capacitor bank 1.
3. Part of the high charge on capacitor bank 9 will flow as an electric current, through wire 32 and into capacitor bank 1.
4. This current flow from the inner plates of capacitor bank 9 causes an immediate matching negative charge to flow from ground through primary winding 70, to offset the charge imbalance.

5 - 11
5. This induces a current flow in the secondary winding 71, which passes additional electrical power to the outer plates of both capacitor bank 9 and capacitor bank 1, and that further intensifies the current flow through primary winding 70 quite considerably.

6. Further, as capacitor bank 1 has just been newly charged, it drives additional current through primary winding 3, causing new induced currents which will, as before, produce much increased charge on the inner plates of both capacitor bank 5 and capacitor bank 9, as described earlier.

If shaft 44 is rotated through a further 90 degrees, then a connection between brushes 16 and 18 will be made and all other circuits will be opened, causing capacitor bank 1 to be discharged again, thus repeating the entire process described above provided that shaft 44 is rotated continuously.

This system produces a constantly increasing supply of electric current flowing through wire 32, and so, switch 34 can be closed, allowing transformer 10 to provide the electrical power to run motor 12 which maintains shaft 44 in continuous rotation, making the system self-powered with no requirement for any form of outside power supply. Additional transformers inserted in wire 32 can be used to power additional equipment.

Without employing the high-frequency currents described above, similar results may be attained by means of the arrangement shown at the lower right hand side of the following drawing:

Here, primary winding 50 is connected as shown by the dashed lines, with wires 19 and 20 of the former arrangement, and wire 53 connects to both wire 27 and wire 28. This arrangement has primary winding 50 connected through its end 51 to wire 20 and so is permanently connected to the outer plates of capacitor bank 1, and its other end 52 being connected to wire 35 will be intermittently connected to ground. Wire 53 being connected to wires 27 and 28 will intermittently connect together, the inner plates of capacitor bank 54 and the inner plates of capacitor bank 1.
With this arrangement, both ends of the secondary winding 55 are connected through diodes 56 and 57, to wire 53. The outer plates of capacitor bank 54 are permanently connected through primary winding 58 to ground. Both ends of the secondary 59 are connected through diodes 60 and 61, back to wire 53. As a result, if capacitor bank 1 is charged, it drives a current through wire 20 and so, through primary winding 50, and on to ground through wires 35 and 39. This induces current in secondary winding 55 which gets stored in the inner plates of both capacitor bank 54 and capacitor bank 1, as in this moment, the circuit is closed between brushes 29 and 31, and so, wire 53 is connected to wire 32. On receiving these new charges, both capacitor bank 1 and capacitor bank 54 will create new induced electric currents flowing through primary windings 50 and 58. These multiple charging pulses will decrease with time until they are insignificant, at which time, due to the rotation of shaft 44, the connection between brushes 29 and 31 and between brushes 36 and 38 will no longer be maintained, and instead, brushes 18 and 17 will become connected, discharging capacitor bank 1 through primary coil end 50 which is a very strong discharge, charging capacitor bank 54 as wire 53 is now disconnected from wire 32. This, in turn, causes powerful current flow through primary winding 58, further charging capacitor bank 54 which then feeds capacitor bank 1 when shaft 44 rotates further, making the system both self-powered and capable of supplying useful electrical power to other equipment.

It should be clearly understood that the use of mercury-vapour converters or cathodic valve diodes as described, are not in any manner indispensable in the system as those devices can be replaced by a suitable arrangement of capacitors which would receive separately, the direct and inverse currents of the secondaries.

When a bell is struck just once, it vibrates many times, passing those vibrations to the air and so, making the sound which we hear. The bigger the bell, the slower the vibrations and the lower the pitch of the note which we hear. The same thing happens when a sharp voltage pulse is applied to a coil of wire as just one pulse causes many vibrations in the coil. Like the bell, the frequency of the vibrations depends on the structure of the coil and not on how it is pulsed, although, like a bell, a sharp pulse for a coil or a sharp blow for a bell, produces a greater effect.

You will notice here that Carlos uses the resonant ‘ringing’ of an air-core coil to get an energy gain which is then used as positive feedback to further charge a capacitor bank. A single sharp pulse generated by one spark, causes a large number of coil oscillations, each of which contributes output power, producing an energy gain. The ringing frequency is liable to be around 3 MHz. It is also worth noting that with this design, electricity generation can be achieved without any battery and just the manual turning of a Wimshurst electrostatic generator and the initial operation of the commutator shaft 44.

Carlos also produced another design, this time working with batteries (although he tended to think in terms of 60-volt battery banks rather than 12-volt batteries) and his patent includes what we tend to call “the Tesla Switch” nowadays. However, instead of switching it rapidly, Carlos uses a switching time interval of one hour. The lower voltage overcomes the need for the switching contacts to be submerged in oil. The problem with lead-acid batteries is that they are only 50% efficient. In practical terms, you only get out of a charged battery half of the current fed into it when it is being charged. So, if you just switch four batteries and power a load that way, the batteries will definitely discharge. In the case of the Electrodyne Inc. staff, they used fast switching and interconnecting diodes which break down when reverse-biased, passing a sharp voltage spike to the batteries at a rate of perhaps, 400 times per second. Benitez, working before electronic components were readily available, chose to use the standard technology of his day - an induction coil which produces at least 10 pulses per second, and through a step-up transformer winding on the induction coil, feeds power to both the load and the drive battery, using an arrangement like this:
System for the Generation of Electric Currents

I, Carlos F. Benitez, Civil Engineer, 141 Ocampo Street, Guadalajara, Mexico, do hereby declare the nature of this invention:

The invention which forms the object of this Patent of Addition, relates to new improvements in the system for the generation of electric currents, described in the main patent No. 17,811 and in the patent of addition No. 5591, filed 14th April 1915.

The system may be still further simplified and improved by the addition of batteries, which, suitably adjusted in conjunction with system previously described, can be charged and discharged alternately, producing an excess of electrical energy which can be used in any desired manner.

In other words, in this arrangement, I use in combination: two batteries connected in series and two batteries connected in parallel, these pairs being used so that the discharge of one pair is used to charge the other pair, and vice versa.

Another object of this new arrangement is to allow the use of low voltages, small capacity capacitors and additional facilities for starting the system.

The advantages of such an improvement will be better understood by considering the following drawing which illustrates one method of carrying out the invention:
In the diagram, 1, 2, 3 and 4 are batteries which, when charged from some external source, will maintain their charges indefinitely, in the following manner:

With the connections established as shown in the diagram, that is, with batteries 1 & 2 connected in series through switch 5 (switch 6 being open), batteries 3 & 4 are connected in parallel through switch 7 (switch 8 being open). Under these conditions, assuming that the four batteries are similar, having similar voltages, batteries 1 and 2 being in series will have a combined voltage greater than batteries 3 and 4 which are connected in parallel, and so, a load connected between them will have a current flowing from batteries 1 & 2 and into batteries 3 & 4.

In other words, if wire 13 is connected to the positive terminal of the battery 1 & 2 combination, and to the positive poles 10 & 32 of the battery 3 & 4 combination, then an electric current will be established between the two sets of batteries, until their voltages match. Of course, the current provided by batteries 1 & 2 would produce a smaller charge in the batteries 3 & 4, but that current can be increased by any of the methods described in my earlier patents (No. 17,811/14), and by these means it is always possible to alternately charge and discharge the battery pairs from each other, keeping a constant, pre-determined charge, and furthermore, producing an excess of electrical energy which can be used for any chosen purpose.

With these objectives in view, and using as an illustration, the arrangement shown in Figure 1 of the Patent of Addition No. 5591/15, wire 13 connects to capacitor 14. The primary winding 15 of an ordinary induction coil provided with an interrupter, is connected by its ends 16 and 17, to wire 13. The ends 18 and 19 of the secondary winding of that induction coil 15 are connected to connections 20 and 21 of capacitor (or bank of capacitors) 22. Connections 20 and 21 are also connected through spark gap 23, to ends 24 and 25 of the primary winding 26 of a high-frequency transformer. The ends 28 and 29 of the secondary winding 27 of that transformer are connected to ends 16 and 17 of the induction coil 15. Finally, wires 30 are connected across capacitor 14 and they are used to power external loads such as the incandescent lamps shown in the diagram.

This arrangement being made, the electrical energy stored by batteries 1 & 2, passing through terminal 9, wire 13, primary winding 15, terminal 10 of battery 4, pole 31 of switch 7 and terminal 32 of battery 3, will go back through terminal 12 of battery 3 to the battery 1 and 2 combination.
As a consequence of the current passing through primary winding 15, high-voltage current is produced in its secondary winding and collected in capacitor 22, discharging through spark gap 23, generates high-frequency currents in the high-frequency transformer primary and secondary coils 26 and 27. As coil ends 28 and 29 are connected to coil ends 16 and 17, this greatly augments the current flow provided by batteries 1 & 2 and so the storage batteries 3 and 4 now receive adequate charging current to keep them fully charged as well as driving additional loads via wires 30.

Under these conditions, as the voltage in one of the batteries is decreasing while the other is increasing, after some hours, both voltages match and it is then impossible to produce any current flow unless switches 5, 6, 7 and 8 are operated, reversing the functions of the batteries and allowing the process to continue entirely as before with batteries 1 & 2 being connected in parallel and batteries 3 & 4 being connected in series.

When the resistance of the primary winding of transformer 15 is not high, it is possible to simplify the above circuit by obtaining the high-frequency currents directly from induction coil 15, in which case, ends 18 and 19 of the secondary winding are connected directly to ends 16 and 17 of the same coil and the second bank of capacitors 22 and the high-frequency transformer 26/27 can be omitted. Under these conditions, the breaker or interrupter which is part of the induction coil construction, acts as a spark gap, and capacitor 14 discharges in the form of oscillations through the primary winding 15 of the same coil, thus directly increasing the amount of electrical energy furnished by the accumulators.

An essential part of this design which is not indicated clearly in the patent, is that what was common practice a hundred years ago, namely, that the input power connection to point 17 of the primary of the (step-up) transformer 15, is fed through an “interrupter” contact. This connection opens when the coil 16-to-17 is energised, causing the insulated iron wire bundle core of the coil to become magnetised, and attract the pivoted arm of the interrupter, which breaks the current to the coil very sharply, causing high frequency resonant oscillations in both windings of the transformer 15, which generates the excess power which runs the system and its additional loads. In Benitez’s day, door bells used this style of interrupter to produce a hammering action on a metal bell. These were very cheap, very simple and very reliable.

As I understand it then, the voltage difference between the two pairs of batteries, charge capacitor 14 and apply power to the primary winding 16-17 of step-up transformer 15. This causes a current to flow in this winding, making the core attract the pivot arm of the interrupter in the same way that a relay operates. This breaks the current flow very sharply, causing a powerful back-EMF pulse in the primary winding. The primary winding has a resonant frequency, very considerably lowered by the presence of the iron core which itself is a low-frequency
material, and the coil oscillates at its resonant frequency, not for just one cycle but for many cycles. Each of those cycles generates a high voltage in the secondary winding, and every one of those cycles contributes high-voltage power to the system. That power is fed to three outlets. Firstly, it flows back to provide charging power to one of the battery pairs. Secondly, it adds additional power to the capacitor driving its own primary winding. Thirdly, it provides power for the load which is shown as a series of lamps connected in parallel.

That is just for the first interrupter pulse. The broken current through the primary winding causes its core to cease to be an electromagnet and so it ceases to attract the pivot arm of the interrupter and while that seems very quick in human terms, it is very slow compared to the multiple oscillations ringing in the winding. When the pivot arm returns to its starting position, it establishes the current flow through the primary winding once again. However, the charge on the capacitor powering the primary winding has been boosted by those resonant oscillations in the secondary winding and so is more highly charged than when the interrupter contact opened previously. This process continues repeatedly, providing battery charge and power to the load.

According to Carlos, there is a slight overall drain on the battery system and so, after about an hour, the switches are operated, changing the series-connected batteries to become parallel-connected and the parallel-connected batteries to become series-connected. This timing seems odd as switching the batteries over much more frequently only requires batteries with a much lower capacity.

As we are not familiar with induction coils and interrupters now that solid-state electronics is available, we can get constructional and operational information from that period in the book “Wireless Telegraph Construction for Amateurs” by Alfred Powell Morgan, published in 1913, which is available as a free download from here: http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Morgan.pdf.

For example, the interrupter details include:

"Some means of charging the capacitor is necessary. An induction coil is the most practical for the amateur. The induction coil consists of a primary coil of wire wound around a central iron core and surrounded by a secondary coil consisting of many thousands of turns of carefully insulated wire. The primary coil is connected to a source of direct current which also includes an interrupter to “make” and “break” the current in rapid succession. Every “make” of the circuit and consequent magnetisation of the core, induces a momentary inverse current in the secondary winding, and every “break” and corresponding demagnetisation induces a momentary direct current. Normally, the induced currents would be equal, but by means of a capacitor connected across the interrupter, the circuit when “made” requires considerable time for the current and magnetisation of the core to reach a maximum value, while when broken, the demagnetisation and current drop are nearly instantaneous. The value of the induced electromotive force in a circuit, varies with the speed at which the magnetic lines of force cut the circuit, and so, the induced e.m.f. at “break” becomes high enough to leap across a spark gap.

The formulas connected with induction coils depend on conditions which are never met in actual practice and cannot be relied on. To construct a coil of a given size, it is necessary to use dimensions obtained empirically. Therefore, the amateur should stick closely to the lines or hints given here, or which appear in some up to date book on induction coil building.

For a long time, the induction coil was an expensive, inefficient instrument, until wireless telegraphy demanded of it more rigid and efficient design and construction. It was the aim of manufacturers to produce the longest possible spark length with a minimum amount of secondary wire. As a result of this demand, wireless coils are now made with a core of larger diameter and give heavier and thicker sparks. The secondary in this case, is short and uses wire of large cross-sectional area in order to reduce the resistance and minimise the heating.

No one part of an induction coil may be developed to its maximum efficiency without seriously influencing and lowering the efficiency of the other parts. The following suggestions regarding the construction are given so that they may prove to be a useful guide for the amateur coil builder. The parts will be considered in their natural
order of construction.

**Core:** Some experimenters who are not quite familiar with the principles of magnetism, think that if an induction coil were provided with a closed core like that of a transformer, then the efficiency of the coil would be materially increased. But that is not the case because then the magnetisation and demagnetisation of the iron cannot take place rapidly enough in a closed core when an interrupted direct current is used instead of an alternating current.

The core of an induction coil is therefore always straight. For the same reason, it is never solid but instead is always made up of a bundle of soft iron wires in order that rapid changes in magnetism may take place. The wires are always of as high a permeability (magnetic conductance) as possible so as to create a strong magnetic field. Swedish or Russian iron of good quality is the best as its hysteresis losses are small. The smaller the diameter of the wire, the less will be the eddy current losses and consequent heating, but the permeability is also reduced and the core will not be so effective, as the amount of iron is thereby decreased and the oxidised surface increased. No. 22 gauge wire is the best size for the average core.

Wires of a good quality may be purchased already cut to various lengths. To buy them in this form will save a great deal of the labour required when building a core. If the wires are not quite straight, they may be straightened by rolling them, one at a time, between two boards. It is best to re-anneal the wires. To do this, place the wires in an iron pipe and plug the ends of the pipe with clay. Then lay it in a coal fire until the whole mass reaches a red heat. The fire is then allowed to die out gradually, with the pipe and wires remaining in the ashes until cool. When cool, remove them from the pipe and rub each one with emery paper until bright. After this cleaning, the wires are dipped in hot water and then dried. They are then dipped in a good quality varnish and allowed to dry again. The varnish provides a resistance to the flow of eddy currents in the core and reduces those losses very considerably. A strong paper tube having an internal diameter equal to the diameter of the finished core is made by rolling the paper on a form and cementing it with shellac. When it is perfectly dry, the tube is removed and the wires packed tightly inside it. The following table gives the core dimensions for practical coils of different sizes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spark Length</th>
<th>Core Diameter</th>
<th>Core Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5 inch (12 mm)</td>
<td>0.5 inch (12 mm)</td>
<td>6 inches (150 mm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 inch (25 mm)</td>
<td>1 inch (25 mm)</td>
<td>8 inches (200 mm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 inches (50 mm)</td>
<td>1.25 inches (31 mm)</td>
<td>10.5 inches (262 mm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 inches (100 mm)</td>
<td>1.375 inches (34 mm)</td>
<td>12 inches (300 mm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 inches (150 mm)</td>
<td>1.5 inches (38 mm)</td>
<td>14 inches (350 mm)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Primary Winding:** The ratio of the number of primary turns of an induction coil to the number of secondary turns, bears no relation to the ratio of the primary and secondary currents. It has been found in practice, that two layers of wire wound tightly on the core, form the best primary. The primary should always be thoroughly covered with shellac or other insulating varnish. Since there is almost no ventilation in the primary, the wire must be large enough to avoid all heating. A table containing the various sizes of primary wires is given here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spark Length</th>
<th>Wire Gauge</th>
<th>Number of Layers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5 inch (12 mm)</td>
<td>18 (1.219 mm)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 inch (25 mm)</td>
<td>16 (1.63 mm)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 inches (50 mm)</td>
<td>14 (2.03 mm)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 inches (100 mm)</td>
<td>12 (2.64 mm)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 inches (150 mm)</td>
<td>12 (2.64 mm)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In large coils, the inductance of the primary causes a “kick-back” and sparks are liable to pass between the adjacent turns. For this reason, it is always a good idea to use double cotton covered wire and to further thoroughly insulate it by soaking the primary and core in a pan of melted paraffin wax and allowing the wax to harden with them inside it. Afterwards, the pan is slightly warmed to loosen the cake of paraffin and the excess wax removed by scraping with a blunt instrument so as to avoid damaging the wires. Paraffin wax contracts when
it hardens and the proper method for impregnating a porous substance is to allow it to soak and become set in it upon cooling.

A good method of reducing the “kick back” as well as the size of the capacitor connected across the interrupter, is to make the primary with a number of turns of smaller diameter wire wound in parallel, the effect being to produce a conductivity equal to a wire of large diameter and at the same time, make a more compact winding of the primary on the core. This method of winding is very desirable in large coils, as it reduces the cross-section of the primary and allows the secondary to be placed nearer to the core where the magnetic field is the strongest.

The primary winding should cover nearly the whole length of the core, since there is no advantage in carrying the core very far beyond the end of the primary as most of the magnetic lines of force bend at the end of the primary winding and return without passing through the extreme ends of the core.

**Insulating Tube:** The successful operation of an induction coil without breaking down when heavily stressed, depends largely on the insulating tube which separates the primary and the secondary windings. Hard rubber tubes are perhaps the best. A tube may easily be built up of several layers of half inch sheet hard rubber by steaming it so as to soften it, and then wrapping it around a former. The tube should fit tightly on the primary and be about one inch (25 mm) shorter than the core. After the tube is in place, it is poured full of beeswax and rosin in order to fill all interstices and prevent sparks due to the capacitor effect of the windings from jumping from the inside of the tube to the primary.

**Secondary:** A coil used as a radio telegraph transmitter must have wire of a large cross-sectional area in its secondary, so as to produce a heavy disruptive discharge. Number 34 and number 32 gauges are generally used for small coils and number 30 and number 28 gauge for large coils. Silk covered wire is the usual practice, but enamelled wire is coming into use. Cotton covered wire takes up too much space and has poor insulating qualities.

Enamelled wire is insulated with a coating of cellulose acetate, which has a dielectric strength of about twice that of cotton and it takes up much less room than silk covered wire, giving a great saving in space and a greater number of turns may be wound in the secondary without increasing its mean distance from the core.

When winding enamelled wire, it must be taken into consideration that the insulation of enamelled wire is rigid and has no give. Consequently, to allow for expansion, enamelled wire must be wound more loosely than fibre or silk covered wire. The occasional insertion of a layer of paper in the winding gives room for expansion and does not add greatly to the diameter. The length of the secondary is generally not more than half the length of the core.

Coils producing sparks up to 2 inches (50 mm) in length, may be wound in two sections or in layer windings, but the layer winding is not recommended for coils giving sparks over one inch in length. It is best in a coil of this type, to insert an occasional layer of paper. The paper should be well shellacked or paraffined and be a good grade of linen. It should project about one quarter of an inch (6 mm) from the ends of the secondary as shown in this cross-section:

![Fig. 28. Layer Winding for Small Coils.](image)

This insertion of paper increases the insulation and reduces the possibility of sparks jumping from layer to layer when the layers are very long. The secondaries of large coils are made up of “pies” or “pancakes” from one eighth (3 mm) to three eighths of an inch (9 mm) in thickness. The “pies” are separated from each other by a triple thickness of blotting paper which has been thoroughly dried and then soaked in melted paraffin. When each “pie” is completed, it is tested for continuity and rejected if not perfect. They are connected in series.
If connected as shown in example "A", where the inside of one section is connected to the outside of the next section, the maximum voltage which can exist between the adjacent sections in this case is equal to the e.m.f. generated by one “pie” and is equal throughout. Connecting as shown in case “B” where the outside of one coil is connected to the inside of the next one, the voltage ranges from zero at the points where they are connected, to twice the e.m.f. developed by any one section. This is the better method and every second coil is turned around horizontally to allow for the reversed direction of current flow.

After the secondary is assembled, the coil should be submerged in an airtight tank containing melted paraffin wax. The tank is then connected to a vacuum pump and the air pumped out. This causes any air bubbles in the windings to be pumped out. After standing for a while, the vacuum is released and the air pressure then causes the bubble gaps to be filled with paraffin wax.

### SECONDARY DIMENSIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spark Length</th>
<th>Wire Gauge</th>
<th>Amount required</th>
<th>No. of sections</th>
<th>Length (1 inch = 25.4 mm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5 inch (12 mm)</td>
<td>36 (0.193 mm)</td>
<td>0.5 lb (0.227 Kg)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 inch (25 mm)</td>
<td>34 (0.234 mm)</td>
<td>1 lb (0.454 Kg)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 inches (50 mm)</td>
<td>34 (0.234 mm)</td>
<td>2.5 lb (1.134 Kg)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 inches (100 mm)</td>
<td>32 (0.274 mm)</td>
<td>8 lb (3.629 Kg)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.5 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 inches (150 mm)</td>
<td>32 (0.274 mm)</td>
<td>12 lb (5.443 Kg)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10 inches</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that the very experienced Alfred Morgan flatly contradicts the standard theory of symmetrical transformer operation when he states that “the ratio of the number of primary turns of an induction coil to the number of secondary turns, bears no relation to the ratio of the primary and secondary currents”. That is a highly significant statement.

Carlos Benitez added an extension to his patent, saying:

The advantages of such an improvement will be better understood by considering the drawing left with the Provisional Specification and this additional drawing, as they illustrate two different methods of carrying out the invention, but in practice, far better results can be attained by the use of the commutator shown here:
As the resistance offered to the passage of the electric currents by the primary of the transformers is not high, it is possible to simplify the former arrangement, obtaining the high-frequency currents directly from the same induction coil 15, in which case the poles 18, 19, of the secondary of said coil must be respectively connected to the poles 16, 17, of the primary of the same said coil, and the second battery of capacitors 22 and high-frequency transformer 26, 27, can be omitted. Under these conditions, the breaker or interrupter employed in said induction
coils, acts as a spark-gap and capacitor 14 discharges in the form of oscillations through the primary and secondary of the same coil, thus directly increasing the amount of electrical energy furnished by the accumulators.

Each one of the poles of the accumulators forming batteries 1-2 and 3-4 are connected to the poles of commutator 31. This commutator consists of a rotary cylinder 32, provided with the paths 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39 and 40, each properly isolated and positioned on the surface of the cylinder in such a way as to connect alternately in series or in parallel, the different units composing batteries 1-2 and 3-4.

Cylinder 32 has two conductive paths 41, 42, which can be better seen in the cross-sectional view. The cylinder passes through a ring 44, fixed to the same base of the apparatus 31, and it has contacts 45, 46, 47 and 48. Pole 45 of this ring is connected to pole 10 of battery 3-4, and its pole 46 is connected through wire 49 to pole 9 of battery 1-2. Pole 47 is connected through wire 13 to pole 16 of the primary of a transformer, and pole 48 is connected through wire 55 to the back contact stud 50 of an ordinary breaker.

A back wall 51, fixed to the same base of the commutator, is provided with the metallic strips or brushes that can be clearly seen in the figure, in contact with the cylinder 32, and connected respectively to each one of the poles of the accumulators; and finally, the rotative shaft of the cylinder has a handle or pulley 52 for rotating the commutator.

Capacitor 14 of the induction coil is connected as usual by its pole 52 to pole 17 of the primary of the same transformer, and its other pole 53 instead of being connected to the back contact stud 50 of the breaker, as is generally the case, is grounded through wire 54 and pole 56 of the commutator.

Under these conditions, when the circuit is broken by the interruptor, capacitor 14 is charged and immediately afterwards discharges via primary 15 of the transformer, the secondary of the transformer, wire 55, pole 48, path 41 of the commutator, and battery 3-4 which is connected in parallel.

As a consequence of the passage of the electric current produced by this discharge through the primary 15 of the transformer, induced currents are produced in its secondary and one of these currents, the inverse passing through pole 19 is immediately utilised for the charging of the same said battery in parallel. The direct current that is produced when the discharge of capacitor 14 is finished, passing through pole 18 and entering the primary 15 through pole 16, produces a new charge in the same capacitor 14, that again discharges in identical manner, and the same phenomena are reproduced several times in the beats or intervals of breaks and makes produced by the interruptor.

On the other hand, if the pole 56 of the commutator is not grounded, each time that capacitor 14 receives a new charge, the neutral fluid of its outer coating is influenced through its dielectric and an induced electric current is forced to move via wire 54 and pole 56. In other words, this extra energy equally increases the normal output of battery 1-2.

By these means, the current given by the accumulators connected in series, is properly increased by the induced currents produced in the secondary of the induction coil, and by the rapid chargings and dischargings of the capacitor produced in manner described above, and the accumulators connected in parallel thus receiving a proper amount of current, can be fully charged while the first battery is discharging. However, as the first battery is discharging, its voltage is progressively decreasing, and in order to maintain in the circuit, a given current for the charging of the second battery, the resistance of the circuit must be reduced accordingly.

In order to attain this result without touching the wiring, the back contact stud 50 of the breaker can be adjusted in order to secure a proper resistance through the interruptor in accordance with the decreasing voltage, and in this manner it is always possible to maintain a given current in the circuit until the very last limit of energy in the discharging battery is attained.

Better results in every respect can still be obtained by the use of a closed core type of transformer combined with an electrolytic interrupter, since with these interrupters there is practically no lost time in the intervals between breaks and makes, and the resistance of such devices can be easily adjusted at a distance whenever the operator may desire.

Once the limit of energy in the discharging battery is attained, the connections of the accumulators must be reversed, and with this object in view, the commutator shown in the figure can be used, and cylinder 32 must be revolved until paths 37, 38, 39 and 40 come in contact with the brushes connecting the poles of the accumulators, and contacts 45, 47, are connected through path 42. By so doing, the functions of both batteries are at once reversed and accumulators 3-4 being now connected in series, they will discharge through pole 10, via poles 45, 47, wire 13, primary 15, wire 55, pole 48 (now in connection with pole 46 through path 41), wire 49 and pole 9 of
battery 1-2, which is now connected in parallel through paths 39, 40.

In other words, the working conditions can be thus completely reversed by the simple operation of the commutator, and a continuous current can be maintained through wire 55, in which the primary 57 of an ordinary transformer, or any other suitable device, can be inserted in series in order to profit the surplus of the electrical energy thus obtained, without impairing in the least, the running of the mechanism.

Obviously, a mechanism can be made to produce and automated operation of the commutator from time to time, in accordance with the capacity of the accumulators, and so, for a given weight of batteries, greater power can be secured by this process, with smaller capacities, than with larger units since the same 4 volts can be obtained from a 60 Amp-Hour accumulator, as with a 10 Amp-Hour capacity accumulator.

I desire also to explain clearly that the arrangements shown are entirely illustrative. In practice, the accumulators composing each battery can be connected as described or a suitable combination of series-parallel can be arranged in each group, and that the conditions of the several apparatus employed can be varied in accordance with the particular conditions of power that must be satisfied.

Carlos Benitez also produced another very clever design, still using four batteries and a very slow switching rate, although no longer using the series and parallel switching which we think of as the Tesla Switch. In this design, he shows a remarkable high-frequency power-gain system where 400 watts of input power produces 2400 watts of output power (COP=6):

Carlos Benitez Patent GB 121,561 24th December 1918

New Process for the Generation of Electrical Energy

I, Carlos Benitez, Civil Engineer, of 141, Ocampo Street, in Guadalajara, Mexico, do hereby declare the nature of this invention and in what manner the same is to be performed, to be particularly described and ascertained in, and by, the following statement:

This invention relates to a new utilisation of the high frequency currents or electrical oscillations, by means of which, a constant production of electrical energy can be secured, under unusually simple, economic and practical conditions.

Such results are attained by means of the procedure disclosed in present applicant’s English Patent specification No. 14,311, filed on October 9th, 1915, but in order to obtain a better utilisation the high-frequency currents and the automatic operation of the mechanisms employed in such a procedure, I have invented a novel arrangement of parts from which is derived several other advantages that will be here described and set forth.

Two batteries are used, one of which has already been charged. This charged battery discharges through a circuit which utilises the greater part of this power and the remainder drives an oscillating circuit connected to the second battery. This oscillating circuit contains a rectifier which directs the electrical oscillations in such a manner that they are forced to pass constantly through the second battery from the positive to the negative terminal. As the number of oscillations per second in that circuit can be varied at will, the current intensity developed by those oscillations can be regulated so that the second battery is fully charged in the same period of time during which the first battery is discharged. Therefore, it is only a matter of reversing the connections to the two batteries in order to obtain the continuous production of electrical energy.

The invention is illustrated here:
This circuit shows the circuit connections of the arrangement and a perspective view of a commutator. Figure 2 is a lateral view of a part of the same apparatus, and figures 3 and 4 are parts of the same machine, whose location and use will be explained later.

The figure shows two battery banks 1 & 2 and 3 & 4, both of which are connected in series. Their positive poles 23 and 25 are connected to terminals 17 and 20 of the commutator, through the ammeters 22 and 24. The commutator is a cylinder 5, mounted on a rotating shaft 6, which passes through two supports 7 and 8. The cylinder is provided with conductive paths 9, 10, 11 and 12 insulated from the cylinder 5. It also has conductive paths 14 and 15 which can be seen better in Figure 2 and which make contact with brushes 17 & 18 and 19 & 20, properly insulated and fixed to ring 16 which encircles cylinder 5 and is fastened to the base of the apparatus. These brushes connect to the batteries and terminal 17 is connected to the positive pole 23 of battery 1 & 2. Terminal 20 is connected to the positive pole 25 of battery 3 & 4 through ammeter 24. Terminal 18 connects through wire 26 to terminal 27 of a DC motor whose terminal 28 connects through the variable resistor 29 and wire 30 with terminal 31 of the commutator. Finally, terminal 19 is connected through wire 32 to terminals 33 and
of an electrolytic rectifier whose other two rectifiers 35, 36 connect via wire 37, to brush 38 of the commutator.

This apparatus is also provided with terminal 39 which is alternately connected to the negative poles of the batteries through the brushes which can be seen in the figure, in contact with cylinder 5. Under these conditions, the apparatus 40 and 41, which are employed to provide a practical output independent of the running of the "plant", and which are connected to both terminals 31 and 39, will be alternatively in circuit with the discharging battery, and thus, part of the power produced by the battery discharging, is used by this apparatus without impairing the normal running of the whole mechanism, as explained below.

On the other hand, an alternator 42, is coupled to the motor 27-28, which in this manner can be rotated at the speed needed to attain the desired frequency. Both terminals of the alternator are connected through the inductive resistance 43, with the poles 44, 45 of the primary winding of a step-up transformer, whose secondary winding 46, 47, connected to capacitor 48, will finally produce the high-voltage alternating currents needed to charge the capacitor. However, the use of this motor and alternator is not essential in this process as the same results could be attained if the primary 44, 45 of the transformer, were connected through an ordinary interrupter to the discharging battery.

The terminals 49, 50 of capacitor 48 are connected through an arc lamp of the Poulsen type 51, 52, or through an adequate spark-gap with the rectifiers 33, 34, 35 and 36, and with the battery under charge (3 & 4 in this case). Extending into the arc chamber are the poles of a strong electromagnet, the coils of which are in series with the arc, so that their excitation current is the arc current.

Connected in this manner, the strong magnetic field which exists between the poles of the magnets, acts on the arc, and owing to this action, combined with the influence of the voltage developed by the secondary of the transformer 46, 47, it happens that this action and influence being about equal in value, are each of them alternately greater than the other, so that the voltage across the arc automatically rises and falls. Therefore, when the action of the magnetic field is greater than the voltage produced by the secondary winding of the transformer has not enough power to pass across the arc and so the capacitor 48 is charged to a higher voltage. But, an instant later the action decreases in value and the capacitor discharges again across the arc.

On the other hand, owing to the oscillatory nature of the circuit (which is arranged with proper values of capacity, inductance and resistance), the charging and discharging of the capacitor can occur several million times per second if desired, and in this manner, a current of a great number of amperes can be obtained through the oscillating circuit, even with a small amount of electricity stored in the capacitor.

In the same manner, one gallon of water could produce a flow of one thousand gallons per second through a pipe if such a pipe were connected with two different vessels and the gallon of water could be forced through the pipe by a piston which could transfer that gallon of water from one vessel to the other one thousand times per second. Obviously, what can be easily performed with electricity is not so feasible with water.

In other words, the small amount of electrical power taken by the DC motor 27, 28, appears (with a small loss) at the alternator 42, and that power is delivered to the transformer primary 44, 45. Again, the inductive action of this transformer produces at the secondary 46, 47, a similar amount of power (diminished slightly due to the efficiency of the transformer), and finally, the capacitor is charged with a small amount of electricity which is then converted into oscillatory energy. Obviously, if such electric power, instead of being stored by the capacitor, had simply been rectified and used to charge one of the batteries, such power would produce only a very small effect on the battery and the entire discharge of one battery would never cause the complete charge of the second battery.

Contrary to that, if that same power is stored in capacitor 48, and that capacitor is properly connected to an oscillatory circuit in which one of the batteries can be joined, and furthermore, if by means of a rectifier, the high-frequency currents produced in such an oscillatory circuit are forced to pass from the positive to the negative pole through the battery, it is obvious to state that it is always possible to secure by these means, the number of amperes required to charge the battery in the available time. That is to say, with a small number of coulombs stored in capacitor 48, it is possible to produce in the oscillatory circuit, a great number of amperes, if that same small number of coulombs are forced to pass and repass through the circuit, thousands or millions of times per second, just as was explained in the water analogy.

On the other hand, the values of the above named quantities: capacity, resistance, inductance and voltage can be varied within very wide limits, and therefore it is always possible to attain the required conditions in each case, in order to produce a given number of oscillations per second: The capacity of the capacitor can be adjusted to a certain value by increasing or reducing the inter-meshed surface area of its plates. The resistance of the circuit can be adjusted to the required value by varying the length of the arc in the Poulsen lamp, or varying the number of lamps connected in series or parallel in the circuit. The inductance of the circuit can be varied by winding part of the circuit on an insulating frame, in such a manner as to obtain the number of turns required to produce the
desired inductance, and finally, the charging voltage can be regulated by increasing or decreasing the number of turns in the secondary winding of the transformer or by varying the diameter of the wire used in the coil. In order to obtain a better efficiency from alternator 42, it is convenient to use the resonance coil or adjustable inductive resistor 43. By so doing, it is possible to adjust the resistance in order to obtain a state of resonance in the circuit, and in that state, the current produced by the alternator will be in phase with the impressed E.M.F., therefore the effective watts will be a maximum in the primary and secondary circuits.

The variable resistor 29, which is placed in the circuit which connects each battery with motor 27-28, is used to adjust the current of the discharging battery to a fixed value, since it is important to obtain a constant number of revolutions per second of the alternator 42.

The commutator is also provided with voltmeters 56 and 57, and by means of the switches 58 and 59, the circuits connecting both poles of each battery, can be closed and the voltage of the discharging current may be determined when desired. Finally, by means of switch 60 connected across the terminals of the apparatus 40 and 41, the apparatus may be switched off when not required.

It is easy to understand the whole operation of this mechanism. Suppose initially that battery 1-2 has been charged and that cylinder 5 has been rotated to the position shown in the drawing. Battery 1-2 will immediately discharge via battery terminal 23, ammeter 22, wire 21, contacts 17-18, wire 26, motor 27-28, variable resistor 29, wire 30, rotary transformers 40 and 41, (or through any other apparatus which may be used instead of those transformers in order to use part of the current flowing from the battery), pole 39, and commutator path 9-12, through which the whole discharging circuit is closed.

As a result of this discharge from the battery, the electrical power produced will be dissipated in three ways: A first part is wasted in overcoming the internal resistance of the various components in the circuit. A second part is used to power the DC motor 27-28, and the third part powers the apparatus connected to poles 31-39 of the commutator, that is, the useful equipment powered in addition to the running of the system.
It is well known how the mechanical power developed by the rotary motion of motor 27-28 can be converted to electrical energy by alternator 42, and in the same manner, it is well known how such electrical energy of low voltage can be transformed into one of high voltage using a transformer, and it is well known too, how such high voltage electrical energy can be converted into oscillatory energy, and how the alternating currents produced by such oscillations can be rectified in order to produce a direct current. However, all such combinations of apparatus arranged to charge a battery while another similar battery is discharging, was perfectly unknown before this invention, and a short consideration of the calculations involved in determining the different values of capacitance, resistance, inductance and voltage required by the various combined circuits of a small working plant of this kind, may be useful in giving an idea of the procedure which can be followed in general practice.

Suppose that both of the batteries are accumulators with a voltage of 60 volts each and a capacity of 40 Ahr. Under such conditions, if battery 1-2 discharges at the rate of 40 amperes, it will be fully discharged in one hour. [Please note that this is not so and is only being stated here for discussion purposes. A lead-acid battery will be damaged if discharged at a rate greater than the "C20" rate which is the rated Ahr value over a period of 20 hours, and so, a lead-acid battery of 40 Ahr should not be discharged at more than 40 / 20 = 2 amps. Also, batteries are highly non-linear and discharging a 40 Ahr battery at 40 amps will result in a fully discharged battery in a lot less than one hour.] The power developed over that time period will be 60 volts x 40 amps = 2,400 watts.

On the other hand, in order to charge battery 3-4 fully in one hour it is necessary to provide a current of at least 40 amps. Suppose that in order to develop such a current, it is desired to take from the power produced by the discharging battery only a portion, say 40 amps x 10 volts = 400 watts. With this objective in view, the DC motor should be arranged so as to create a current of 40 amps causing a drop of 10 volts on the line.

Suppose that the electrical efficiency of the DC motor is 95%, then the desired 400 watt output will not be attained but instead will be reduced to 400 x 0.95 = 380 watts.

Then, suppose that the electrical efficiency of alternator 42 is 95% then that will reduce the output to just 361 watts. Then, if this 361 watts is passed to the transformer and that transformer has an efficiency of say, 89%, then the resulting energy output will be further reduced to just 321 watts, and that is the amount of power passed to the oscillating circuit in order to obtain the required 40 amps of current.

Now, suppose that the frequency of alternator 42 is 500 Hz. As is well known, with an alternating generator, a high voltage is obtainable twice in each cycle and so there will be 1000 voltage peaks per second. As capacitor 48 discharges at the instant of maximum voltage, it will discharge 1000 times per second. Therefore, the quantity of electrical energy which must be stored in it can be calculated as follows: Suppose that the oscillating circuit has an impedance of 15 ohms. As the required current is 40 amps, the required voltage to develop such current will be 40 amps x 15 ohms = 600 volts. But in order to produce 600 volts from the discharge of the capacitor, it is
necessary to get it charged up to 1200 because the average voltage during discharge is \( V/2 \).

If the energy produced by the transformer secondary is assumed equal to 321 watts and the voltage required for the charge of the capacitor is 1200 volts, then the current delivered by the secondary will be 321 watts / 1200 volts which is 0.267 amps.

On the other hand, as the frequency of the alternator is 1000 peaks per second, then in one thousandth of a second the secondary has to deliver to the capacitor 0.000267 coulombs which is 267 microcoulombs.

Hence, the capacity of capacitor 48 must be adjusted to store that amount of electricity, and its value can be determined by \( Q = K \times V \) where \( K \) is the capacity of the capacitor in microfarads when \( Q \) is given in microcoulombs and \( V \) is the maximum voltage, and so, \( K = 267 / 1200 \) which is 0.222 microfarads.

It is also well known that if you want to produce an oscillatory discharge through a circuit, the capacitance, resistance and inductance of the circuit must be arranged so that the square root of \( 1000 \times L \text{ millihenrys} / K \text{ microfarads} \) is greater than the resistance of the circuit in ohms (\( K \) being the capacitance of the capacitor).

It has been supposed that the resistance of the oscillatory circuit is 15 ohms. Using 20 ohms in the above equation will allow a suitable value of inductance to be calculated, one which will satisfy the required conditions for the production of the oscillatory discharge in the circuit, and so the inductance in millihenrys is 400 \( x \) K / 4000 or 400 \( \times \) 0.222 / 4000 which is 0.0222 millihenries, or equal to 22,200 centimetres of wire.

It is possible to determine the number of oscillations per second which can be achieved in any such circuit, and that is given by \( Hz = 5033000 / \sqrt{L \times K} \) where \( L \) is in centimetres and \( K \) is in microfarads. And so, knowing the inductance and the capacitance we get \( Hz = 5033000 / \sqrt{(22200 \times 0.222)} \) which is 71900 Hz. That represents 72 oscillations in each of the 1000 sparks per second.

The current strength developed by these oscillations can be determined from the formula below which uses the Voltage \( V \) in volts, the resistance of the circuit \( R \) in ohms, the inductance \( L \) in henrys, and the capacitance \( K \) in farads:

\[
\text{Current} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{R \times R + (6.28 \times Hz \times L – 1/(6.28 \times Hz \times K)^2)}}
\]

or in our case:

\[
\text{Current} = \frac{600}{\sqrt{15 \times 15 + (6.28 \times 71900 \times 0.0002222 – (1/(6.28 \times 71900 \times 0.0000222)))^2}}
\]

Which works out as 40 amps, meaning that the impedance of the oscillating circuit is equal to the resistance in ohms of that circuit, since the inductive reactance and the capacitative reactance are so combined that the resultant value of the total reactance is equal to zero, and the only voltage required to produce the current of 40 amps is that needed to overcome the ohmic resistance of the circuit which is 15 ohms. This also means that the E.M.F. is in phase with the current, and therefore, the watts are a maximum.

Hence, there can be no doubt that battery 3-4 will be fully charged during the period when battery 1-2 is discharging, especially since the charging current can be further increased at will, even without taking more power from the discharging battery. In fact, it is easy to increase the number of turns in the transformer secondary 46-47 in order to increase the voltage. Obviously, as the amount of power delivered to the primary 44-45 of this apparatus is always 321 watts, if the voltage is increased, the quantity of electricity which the capacitor 49 receives will be reduced accordingly. Consequently, the value of that capacitor must also be reduced and so the number of oscillations per second will also be increased. Finally, by increasing the voltage, the current intensity is increased proportionately.

Therefore, it is always possible to combine, in the manner described, the values of resistance, inductance, capacitance and voltage in the oscillating circuit, so as to obtain the required current strength to fully charge one of the batteries during the period when the other battery is discharging.

Once this battery charging has been attained, if the plant is to continue in operation, then the batteries need to be swapped over by altering their connections to the circuit. To accomplish this, cylinder 5 is rotated until the conductive paths 11 and 12 come into contact with the brushes which are connected to the negative poles of the batteries, and then, battery 3-4 which is fully charged will be connected with the motor 27-28, and its discharge will now be produced by this path: battery terminal 25, ammeter 24, commutator poles 20 and 18 (now connected together due to the rotation of the cylinder 5 through 90 degrees), wire 26, motor 27-28, variable resistor 29, wire 30, apparatus 40 and 41, and commutator path 11 which closes the circuit to the negative pole of battery 3-4.
In other words, the motor 27-28, apparatus 40 and 41, and alternator 42, will still be operating in exactly the same way as described above, and in the same manner, the high-frequency currents are still developed, producing the same current intensity which is now passing via terminal 50 of capacitor 48, arc-lamp 51-52, diode 34, wire 32, commutator contacts 19-17, wire 21, ammeter 22, and positive terminal 23 of battery 1-2 (which is now connected to contact 38 of the commutator through path 12), wire 37, diode 36, inductor 55, and capacitor terminal 49; also through duplicate path from capacitor terminal 49, diode 33, wire 32, commutator contacts 19-17, wire 21, ammeter 22, positive terminal 23 of battery 1-2, commutator path 12, commutator pole 38, wire 37, diode 35, arc lamp 52-51, and capacitor terminal 50.

It is obvious to state that this same procedure can be repeated indefinitely by the simple altering of the battery connections from time to time in accordance with the battery capacity and the rate of discharge. Only 400 watts is taken from the discharging battery for battery recharging, leaving 40 amps at 50 volts (2000 watts) available for doing continuous useful work.

The patent continues with a description of how a modified clock can be made to move the commutator once every hour. This is a brilliant 2 kilowatt, self-powered, free-energy design. However, operating the design as described would not be realistic. Batteries nowadays have limited operational lives offering, typically, between 400 and 1000 charge/discharge cycles within the C20 discharge current limits. Exceeding the C20 discharge rate will reduce the battery life by a major amount, that amount being determined by the degree of abuse which the battery suffers. If we ignore that factor and say that our batteries will manage 1000 cycles, at the proposed rate of say, one hour discharge and one hour charging time, then battery replacement is liable to be required in just 500 hours of operation. That is, within three weeks of continuous operation.

The essential, rapid switching of this circuit is performed by the spark-gap but in contrast to that, the commutator switching of the batteries does not require high speed operation. It is feasible then, to replace the commutator with simple solid-state switching and swap the batteries over every second or two. That way, the batteries are never discharged and long battery life can be expected.

Bozidar Lisac's Power-Boosting System.
Recently, a patent application has been lodged on what is effectively the Ron Cole one-battery switch and the Tesla Switch. I am including the re-worded patent here. Some experimenters have reported overall battery energy gains with switching speeds of 0.5 Hz or less, which means that in circuits of that type, mechanical switching should give a reasonable switch contact life. This patent has needed a fair degree of attention as the person writing it does not have a full grasp of English and confused the word "load" with the word "charge". Let me say again, that the following patent application is included here primarily for interest sake, rather than being the definitive way of making a circuit of this type.


METHOD AND DEVICE FOR SUPPLYING A LOAD WITH ELECTRIC ENERGY RECOVERY

ABSTRACT
In the invention an electric current circulates from the battery UB, through the electric motor M, and the diode D1 charges the capacitors CA and CB, connected in parallel, which, once charged, are connected in series, giving rise to a difference in voltage in relation to the battery, causing half the charge of the capacitors to be returned to the battery through the diode D2, whilst with a new parallel connection, the capacitors recharge, this charge being equal to that which had been previously transferred from the capacitors to the battery, so that by means of the
cyclic connection of the capacitors in parallel and series the energy is transferred from the battery to the capacitors and from the capacitors to the battery, thus considerably extending the range of the battery and operation of the motor.

OBJECT OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to a method and device enabling the electrical energy with which a charge is supplied to be recovered using a self-rechargeable electricity source in which, which by means of a circuit, the current circulating from an accumulator or battery through a load, e.g. a motor, is fully returned to the same energy level, thereby considerably extending its range.

More specifically, two capacitors that are connected cyclically from parallel to serial and vice versa are charged through a motor during the connections in parallel, whilst in series connection, when its voltage doubles, they return the electricity, recharging the battery. This source represents a closed system which does not require an energy supply from the outside, except to compensate for the losses produced, the range of the battery being limited by the number of charges and discharges that the same technically permits.

BACKGROUND TO THE INVENTION
A load, such as an electric motor, is connected to a battery or accumulator with a certain charge, which will be progressively discharged by it, this discharge being directly proportional to the connection time and to the current circulating through the motor. It is therefore necessary to supply fresh energy from an external source to recharge it. Systems that enable the energy consumed by the load to be reused are not known in the state of the art.

DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION
A first aspect of the invention relates to a method for supplying a load with recovery of electrical energy, which comprises supplying a load with electrical energy deriving from the first electrical energy accumulator, and returning at least a proportion of that electrical energy after it passes through the load to the first accumulator for the purpose of recovering the energy supplied.

The electrical energy, after passing through the load, is recovered by second electrical energy accumulator, from where it is transferred to the first accumulator, giving rise to cyclic transfer of electrical energy between the first and second energy accumulators.

The recovery of energy from the second accumulator and transfer to the first accumulator may be achieved without passing the energy through the load. In another alternative implementation, the energy is recovered from the second accumulator and passed to the first accumulator through the load, in which case the polarity of the load is reversed during the recovery of energy through the load.

The transfer of energy is brought about by cyclically connecting two or more electrical energy accumulators between parallel and serial connections.

A second aspect of the invention relates to a device for supplying a load with recovery of electrical energy, which comprises a first electrical energy accumulator and a second electrical energy accumulator, where the load is connected between the first and second accumulators. The device may be provided in one embodiment with a unidirectional connection device, for example, a diode which is connected in parallel to the load, causing circulation of the electrical energy recovered after passing through the load, and via which the electrical energy is returned to the first accumulator.

The first electrical energy accumulator may be a battery. The second electrical energy accumulator might be two or more capacitors with switching to cyclically connect them between parallel and serial connection configurations.

The invention constitutes a self-rechargeable source of electrical energy which enables the range of a battery to be considerably extended so that the current circulating from the same through a motor charges two capacitors connected in parallel, up to the voltage level of the battery, by means of contacts. These capacitors, once charged, are connected in series, producing double their voltage, and they then return the energy to the battery, thereby extending its range. Once the losses have been compensated for, the duration of the extended range depends on the charging and discharging properties of the capacitors.

The existence of the difference in voltage between the battery and the capacitors connected both in parallel and in series, and which give rise to the displacement of energy from the battery to the capacitors and vice versa, is used to supply the motor connected between the battery and the capacitors, comprising the self-rechargeable source of electrical energy.
When connected in parallel, the capacitors are charged through a motor and a diode, and when connected in series, they are charged through another diode, the voltage of the motor being half that of the battery. On the other hand, if the motor is connected between the battery and the serially-connected capacitors, the latter, which are charged in parallel through a diode and are discharged by means of the motor and the other diode, will supply the motor with a voltage equal to that of the battery, whilst a capacitor connected in series to the winding of the motor guarantees its operation without loss of power.

Instead of the two capacitors, two batteries connected in series and another two connected in parallel may be used, between which batteries a motor is connected, the current circulating in this case from the batteries connected in series through the motor to the batteries connected in parallel. The serially-connected batteries are then connected in parallel, by means of switching contacts, and the other two parallel-connected batteries are then connected in series, reversing the direction of the current, whilst the connections of the motor are inverted by means of the simultaneous switching of other contacts in order to maintain the polarity and direction of rotation of the motor.

In one possible embodiment of the invention, another two capacitors and a transformer with two primary windings, or a motor with two windings are added to the device previously described, each pair of capacitors cyclically switching from parallel to serial connection and vice versa so that during the parallel connection cycles, two of the capacitors are charged through one of the windings up to the voltage level of the battery at the same time that the other two capacitors are connected in series, double their voltage and are discharged by means of a second winding to the battery.

The reduced level of energy losses brought about mainly by the dissipation of heat and in the capacitors, as well as by the charge factor of the batteries, is compensated for from an external source, and because the sum of the current circulating through a winding of the motor or transformer charging two of the capacitors and the current simultaneously circulating from the other two capacitors through the second winding, recharging the battery, plus the current which is supplied from the external source, is equal to zero, because of the work carried out by the motor or the loads which are connected to the alternating voltage induced in the secondary of the transformer, no discharge of the battery takes place.

**DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

In order to supplement the description now being given, and with the aim of contributing to a better understanding of the characteristics of the invention, according to a preferred practical embodiment, a set of drawings is attached as an integral part of this description, in which, for informative and non-restrictive purposes, the following is shown:

Fig. 1 shows a practical circuit in which, by means of switching, two capacitors connected in parallel are charged from a battery through a motor and a diode, and after the contacts are switched, they are connected in series, thereby discharging the battery through another diode.
Fig. 2 shows a practical circuit in which, through switching, the two capacitors are connected in parallel and are charged from a battery through a diode, and after the switching of the contacts they are connected in series, thereby charging the battery through the motor and the other diode.

Fig. 3 shows the connection of the two batteries in series, connected through a motor to another two batteries connected in parallel, and which, by means of contacts, switch alternatively, this giving rise to effects similar to those described in relation to the use of the capacitors.
Fig. 4 shows the electrical diagram corresponding to the connection between the battery and the two pairs of capacitors of a transformer with two primary and one secondary winding, in which an alternating voltage is induced which is rectified, filtered and converted to a sinusoidal voltage.

Fig. 5 shows the electrical diagram of an alternating current motor with two windings connected between the battery and two pairs of capacitors.
Fig. 6 shows the electrical diagram of a direct current motor with two windings connected between the battery and two pairs of capacitors, in which two switch contacts ensure their correct polarisation and direction of rotation.

**PREFERRED EMBODIMENT OF THE INVENTION**

In a preferred embodiment shown in Fig. 1, the load consists of a direct current motor $M$, the battery $UB$, and the second accumulator which consists of a pair of capacitors $CA$ and $CB$. The capacitors $CA$ and $CB$ are connected to each other in parallel by means of two switches $S1$ and $S2$. These capacitors are charged through the motor $M$ and diode $D1$ to a voltage level equal to that of the battery $UB$, the charge being $Q = (CA+CB)UB$, and while these capacitors are being charged, the motor $M$ is rotating.

When both capacitors are fully charged, they are connected in series by the switch contacts $S1$ and $S2$. This produces a voltage which is twice the value of the voltage of the battery $UB$, resulting in the charge which is given by $Q = 2 \times UB \times (CA+CB) / 2$ which is $Q = (CA+CB)UB$, which shows that once charged, the charge $Q$ of both capacitors is identical both in parallel and in series.

Diodes $D1$ and $D2$ ensure that current flow through the motor $M$ is only ever in one direction. Immediately after capacitors $CA$ and $CB$ are connected in series, they return half of their charge through diode $D2$. Switches $S1$
and S2 then connect the capacitors CA and CB in parallel. In this arrangement, they start off with half of the battery voltage. They charge immediately, regaining the battery voltage through the motor M and the diode D1.

By means of repeated cyclic switching of the capacitors CA and CB from parallel to serial connection mode, the current circulating from the battery UB through the motor M to the capacitors, and from these to the battery, recharging it and extending its range, constitutes a self-rechargeable source of electrical energy.

In a second practical embodiment shown in Fig.2, the motor M is connected between the battery UB and the capacitors CA and CB by means of the diode D2. The capacitors are charged directly through the diode D1 and are discharged through the motor M and the diode D2, the values of the charges on the capacitors CA and CB previously described in the example shown in Fig.1 remain unchanged, the difference in this circuit is that the voltage applied to the motor M is the full battery voltage in this case.

The charging rate of the capacitors CA and CB is determined by the intensity of the current flowing through the motor M, to which is connected in parallel, the capacitor CM which guarantees that the operation of the motor is maintained at maximum power. It is possible to substitute a battery, preferably a rapid charge battery, for capacitor CM.

In another embodiment shown in Fig.3, the first and second accumulators consist of pairs of batteries B1, B2 and B3, B4. Therefore, in this embodiment, two pairs of batteries are used instead of the capacitors CA and CB. Batteries B1 and B2 are connected to the switches S1 and S2, and the pair of batteries B3 and B4 are connected to the switches S3 and S4. The switches S1 to S4, connect the pairs of batteries with which they are associated, into series or parallel configurations, depending on the position of the switches.

While the batteries B1 and B2 are connected in parallel, the other two batteries B3 and B4 are connected in series, and the motor M rotates as a result of the difference in voltage between the batteries, as it is connected
between both pairs of batteries. At the same time, the current circulating through the motor from the serial
connected batteries recharges the two parallel-connected batteries. The switches S1 to S4, which connect the
batteries B1 and B2 in series and the batteries B3 and B4 in parallel then switch, thus reversing the direction of
the current flow, and at the same time, the switches S5 and S6 change positions in order to maintain the correct
polarity for the motor and its direction of rotation.

The two capacitors and the batteries may be switched by means of any mechanical, electromechanical, electrical,
electronic or other element that meets the conditions described with the purpose of obtaining a self-rechargeable
electrical energy source. These switching operations may be controlled by any known method, for example, a
programmable electronic circuit.

In the preferred embodiments previously described, the load consists of a direct current motor, but as an expert in
the field may understand, the load may also consist of any type of resistive (?) and/or inductive load.

Another preferred embodiment is shown in Fig.4, where a transformer T with two primary windings L1 and L2 is
connected between the battery UB and the two pairs of capacitors C1 and C2, plus C3 and C4, causing the two
capacitors C1 and C2 to switch their connections from parallel to serial and back again by means of the contacts
S1 and S2, and causing the capacitors C3 and C4 to switch by means of contacts S3 and S4, so that during the
cycles of connection of the capacitors C1 and C2 in parallel, the latter are charged via the winding L1 up to the
voltage level of the battery, whilst at the same time the capacitors C3 and C4 are connected in series and provide
double their voltage, the battery being discharged by means of the winding L2, in which case the charging and
discharging currents to circulate in the same direction. On the other hand, during the cycles of connection in
parallel of the capacitors C3 and C4, which are charged through the winding L2 up to the battery voltage level, the
capacitors C1 and C2 are connected in series to provide double their voltage and are discharged into the battery
through the winding L1. The direction of the charging and discharging current therefore changes, thus inducing in
the secondary winding L3 an alternating voltage whose frequency depends on the speed of switching of the
contacts mentioned, and after being rectified by means of the bridge of diodes P and filtered by the capacitor CP,
the resultant DC voltage is converted to a sinusoidal voltage by means of a circuit K.

The connection in parallel of one pair of capacitors and the connection in series of the other pair take place at the
same time. Therefore the sum of the current circulating from the battery through one of the windings, charging
two of the capacitors, and the current circulating from the other two capacitors through the other winding to the
battery, is approximately zero.

From an external energy source FE the minimum energy losses caused essentially by dissipation of heat and in
the capacitors, as well as by the charging factor of the battery, are compensated for, with the result that the sum

5 - 36
of the current circulating from this source external to the battery and the charging and discharging currents of the capacitors is equal to zero. Therefore the battery is not discharged and its range does not depend on the work developed by the motors or the loads connected to the secondary winding \( L_3 \) of the transformer \( T \), since the greater the power of the loads, the higher the intensity of the charging and discharging currents of the capacitors.

Fig. 5 shows another embodiment in which an alternating current motor \( M \) is connected to two windings \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) so that during the connections in parallel of the capacitors \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \), the latter are charged by means of the winding \( L_1 \) at the same time that the capacitors \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \), connected in series, are discharged by means of the winding \( L_2 \) to the battery \( UB \), the charging and discharging current circulating through the windings in the same direction. The capacitors \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are then connected in series and the capacitors \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \) are connected in parallel. The direction of the charging and discharging current of the capacitors is therefore reversed, thus producing at terminals of the motor an alternating voltage with a frequency that depends on the speed of switching of the contacts. The energy losses caused are compensated for from an external source \( FE \), the sum of the current circulating from this source to the battery and the currents circulating through the two windings during charging and discharging of the capacitors being equal to zero. The battery is therefore not discharged as a result of the work developed by the motor.
Fig.6 shows the connection of a direct current motor $M$ to two windings $L_1$ and $L_2$ between the battery $UB$ and the two pairs of capacitors $C_1$ and $C_2$ plus $C_3$ and $C_4$, so that during the connections in parallel two of the capacitors are charged by means of the winding $L_1$, and during the simultaneous connections in series, the other two capacitors are charged by means of the winding $L_2$ to the battery. Coinciding with the switching of the contacts $S_1, S_2, S_3$ and $S_4$, which connect to each pair of capacitors from parallel to serial and vice versa, the contacts $S_5$ and $S_6$ switch, polarising the windings of the motor so that the charging and discharging currents of the capacitors circulate in the same direction, producing a direct voltage. The sum of the current supplied from the external source $FE$ and the charging and discharging currents of the capacitors is equal to zero, and thus there is no battery discharge.

Lawrence Tseung’s Self-Powered “FLEET” Generator.

The “FLEET” (“Forever Lead-out Existing Energy Transformer”) device is a self-powered electrical generator which has no moving parts and which can be constructed cheaply. It has been developed by a Hong Kong based team of people: Mr Lawrence Tseung, Dr. Raymond Ting, Miss Forever Yuen, Mr Miller Tong and Mr Chung Yi Ching. It is the result of some years of thought, research and testing and it has now reached an advanced stage of testing and demonstration and is nearly ready for commercial production.

Mr Tseung has applied his "Lead-out" theory to the category of low-power circuits known as the "Joule Thief" circuits. These circuits originated with an article by Mr Z. Kaparnik, in the "Ingenuity Unlimited" section of the November 1999 edition of the "Everyday Practical Electronics" magazine.

The initial circuit allowed the very last energy to be drawn from any ordinary dry-cell battery, and used to light a white Light-Emitting Diode ("LED") for use as a small torch. It allows a battery which is considered to be fully discharged, to drive the circuit until the battery voltage drops right down to 0.35 volts. The initial circuit uses a bi-filar coil wound on a ferrite ring or "toroid". Bi-filar means that the coil is wound with two separate strands of wire side by side, so that each adjacent turn is part of the other coil. A coil of that type has unusual magnetic properties. The Joule Thief circuit is like this:

It is important to notice how the coil is wound and how it is connected. It is called a "toroid" because it is wound on a ring. The ring is made of ferrite because that material can operate at high frequencies and the circuit switches On and Off about 50,000 times per second ("50 kHz"). Notice that while the wires are wound side by side, the start of the red wire is connected to the end of the green wire. It is that connection which makes it a "bi-filar" coil instead of just a two-strand coil.

This "Joule Thief" circuit was then adapted by Bill Sherman and used to charge a second battery as well as lighting the Light-Emitting Diode. This was achieved by adding just one more component - a diode. The diode used was a 1N4005 type because that was to hand at the time, but Bill suggests that the circuit would work better with a very fast-acting Schottky-type diode, perhaps a 1N5819G type.

The circuit produced by Bill is:
When driven by a 1.5 single cell battery, this circuit produces about 50 volts with no load and can supply 9.3 milliamps of current when the output is short-circuited. This means that you could charge a 6-volt battery using a 1.5 volt battery.

“Gadgetmall” of the www.overunity.com Joule Thief forum has taken the circuit further and found a very interesting situation. He has modified the circuit and used a super capacitor. This is his circuit:

He has added an additional winding to his one-inch (25 mm) diameter ferrite toroid, and he uses that to power a 1 watt LED. Why he has done this is not immediately clear to me, except possibly, that it shows when the circuit is operating. He runs the circuit driven by a small rechargeable battery, which feeds 13 milliamps into the circuit, for a period of fourteen hours. At the end of that time, the capacitor has gathered enough energy to fully recharge the driving battery in a minute or two, and then power a heater winding of nichrome wire (as used in mains-powered radiant heaters) for four and a half minutes. Alternatively, that amount of extra power could boil a kettle of water. The really interesting thing about this is that the driving battery gets recharged every time and so the circuit is self-sustaining although it is not a powerful circuit.

However, Jeanna has developed the circuit significantly as she shows in her series of videos:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y4IMgDRGpHE
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1tVlcJiuWH4
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=y6pbzhBR-BR8
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tN0ZrV3w4f8
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XzhbsLBwc54
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4Fq7IFCXMw9Q

Her main point is that using the collector of the transistor as the power take-off point of the circuit, is inefficient as that draws a lot of input current without a corresponding increase in output current. She adds a 74-turn secondary
winding on top of her two 11-turn Joule Thief bi-filar windings, and that appears to give a far better power output. She uses the very small AAA size 1.2V battery and further drops the output (because “the light is too blinding”) by putting a resistor in series with the battery and using many LEDs in series. She has recorded the following results:

With no resistor, the output voltage is 58V peaks at 62.5 kHz (open circuit output, with no load at all)
With a 10 ohm resistor, the output voltage is 49V peaks at 68 kHz.
With a 33 ohm resistor, the output voltage is 25V at 125 kHz.

‘LidMotor’ states that Jeanna also produced a Joule Thief circuit which could light a 15-watt straight fluorescent tube for about five hours when being driven by a single AA battery. He states that he was not satisfied with that level of lighting and at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KAakZTR_4LE he shows a version (which he thinks is Jeanna’s design and which Jeanna thinks is his design) driving a 10-watt Compact Fluorescent Light which has had the ballast circuitry removed. The build uses an expensive 3.25 inch (83 mm) outer diameter ferrite toroid, and the lighting from a single AA battery looks like this:

The ferrite ring is wound like this:

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5 - 40
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The main winding is 300 turns of AWG #30 enamelled copper wire with a diameter of 0.255 mm. Please notice the gap between the ends of that winding. That gap is important as high voltage is developed between the two ends of the winding and if the winding were continued all the way round the toroid, then the insulating enamel coating the wire would be liable to burn out due to the very high voltage difference between the first and last turns, causing a short-circuit. The two other windings are with AWG #24 enamelled copper wire which has a diameter of 0.511 mm and those two windings are positioned closely side by side in the middle of the gap between the ends of the 300-turn winding. The circuit is like this:

The optional 25 ohm wire-wound variable resistor wastes power but creates a voltage drop across it, reducing the voltage reaching the circuit and so, dimming the light progressively, all the way down to zero. The base resistor \( R \) has been set at 22 ohms by 'Lidmotor' who says that it really should be 100 ohms but he has lowered it to get brighter lighting. Please note which side of the 3-turn and 13-turn windings are connected in the circuit as the direction of winds is very important for those two windings.

It is not uncommon for people to comment on the faint whistling sound make by a Joule Thief circuit (especially a low-voltage version like this). It is my experience that the sound is caused by the transistor resonating with the frequency of oscillation of the circuit, the TIP3055 being particularly prone to this. I suggest therefore, that bolting on a heat sink (which is most definitely not needed to dissipate heat produced by this circuit) will alter the resonant frequency of the transistor/heat sink combination and so stop the whistling.

Mr Lawrence Tseung has taken the Joule Thief circuit and modified it to become a circuit with a very serious output, moving it into a completely different category.

As a first step towards what the team calls their "Fleet" device, the toroid has been enlarged to a much greater diameter. The coil is now wound on a section of plastic pipe, 170 mm (6.5 inches) in diameter and 45 mm (1.75 inch) deep:

This section of pipe is "bi-filar" wound with two wires side by side as already described for the Joule Thief construction. As before, the start of one wire is connected to the end of the other wire. Then, the winding is given a layer of electrical tape to hold it in place and to provide an easy working surface for a second winding.

The wire used for the winding is the widely available red and black pair of wires, sometimes called "figure of eight" because the cut end of the wires looks like the numeral 8. The wire should be able to carry 2.5 amps. It must be side-by-side wire and not one of the twisted varieties. It looks like this:
The second winding is made in the same way but the connections are slightly different. As before, the end of the first wire is connected to the start of the second wire, but that connection is then insulated and not used in the following circuitry. This just connects the two windings one after the other, known technically as being connected “in series” and is the equivalent of making the winding with just a single strand of wire. The completed coil may look like this:

This particular design is still in it's early stages and so many different coils sizes and constructions are being tested:

The arrangement is for the inner winding of the toroid to be oscillated by the Joule Thief circuit already described. This causes a pulsating magnetic field to envelope the outer winding of the toroid, producing an electrical output which is capable of doing useful work. The really important thing about this arrangement, is the fact that the amount of power coming out of the circuit is very much greater than the amount of power needed to make the circuit operate. The additional power is led out of the local environment and drawn into the circuit, becoming available to do useful work.
The overall circuit then looks like this:

While the outer winding is shown here with thicker wire of a different colour, this is only to make the arrangement easier to understand. In reality, the outer winding is with exactly the same wire as the inner winding, and it will normally go all the way around the toroid. The total amount of wire needed to make the windings is about 70 metres and so it is normal to buy a full 100 metre reel of the twin-core wire, which allows both windings to be made and leaves spare wire for other things.

For those of you who are very technically minded, the output waveform looks like this:

![Output Waveform](image)

and the voltage pulses in this output are occurring about 290,000 times per second.

What has worked better for me is using a bridge of four diodes rather than a single diode:

I have used this circuit, driven by a 1.5 volt battery, to charge 12-volt batteries, but the best results are in the five to six volt range. I have used this circuit to confirm COP>1 by charging one small 12V lead-acid battery with an identical battery, swapping the batteries over and repeating the process several times. The result was that both
batteries gained genuine, usable power. I suspect that the effect would have been much greater if I had charged two or more batteries in parallel. The toroid was an 8-inch diameter, 10 mm by 12 mm offcut from a plastic pipe which happened to be to hand and the wire used was plastic covered 6-amp equipment wire, again, because it was to hand at the time. Winding the toroid and setting up the circuit was done in a single evening.

Overall, this is a very simple, cheap and easily constructed COP>10 device which has the potential of providing large amounts of free, useable, electrical power. With further development, it may well be possible to produce a version which could deliver the power needed by a whole household. It is also likely that these devices will become available for purchase at quite a low cost. All in all, this is a very important device and full credit must go to the development team who have carried the research to this point and who are continuing to refine the design to produce more and more power.

There are various circuits which I have shown which use the well-known "Joule Thief" circuit as part of the design. These devices have worked well for me. However, in 2014, Sucahyo stated that some people found that pulse-charging batteries for a few times, caused those batteries to then have "surface charge" where the battery voltage rose without there being a corresponding genuine charge inside the battery. That is something which I have never experienced myself but that might be because I didn’t discharge and recharge batteries a sufficient number of times for me to experience the effect. Sucahyo uses this circuit:

![Circuit Diagram](image)
That circuit looks rather complicated with two of the transistors connected upside down and protection diodes connected between transistor collector and base. Sucahyo says that he has used this circuit for four years now without experiencing any surface charge effects.

My preferred form of Joule thief uses a bi-filar coil of 0.335 mm diameter wire wound on a paper cylinder formed around a pencil and only 100 mm (4 inches) long, as that produces a very cheap and lightweight circuit. As I understand it, the Joule Thief produces a rapid stream of high voltage spikes of very short duration. Those spikes cause the local environment to feed static energy into both the circuit and the circuit’s load device (typically an LED or a battery).

While I have never experienced surface charge from a Joule Thief circuit, I tested some old Digimax 2850 mAh test batteries which had been sitting unused for more than a year. These did indeed show a surface charge effect when load tested. The first test used one battery to drive the circuit and charged three batteries in series using this circuit:

![Circuit Diagram]

But no matter how long the circuit operated, it would not charge the output battery above 4.0 volts which is 1.33 volts per battery. The load test results were terrible with the voltages at one hourly intervals being 3.93V, 3.89V, 3.84V, 3.82V and 3.79V after only five hours of powering the load. That is ridiculous performance as those batteries managed 22 hours of load powering with the solar panel design.

Perhaps the batteries were damaged. So I overcharged them with a main operated charger, reaching 4.26 volts which is 1.42 volts per battery and the hourly load testing results were 4.21, 4.18, 4.16, 4.15, 4.13, 4.12, 4.10, 4.08, 4.07, 4.07, 4.06, 4.05, 4.03, 4.03, 4.02, 4.01, 4.00 (after 17 hours), 3.99, 3.99, 3.98, 3.97, 3.97, 3.96, 3.96, 3.95 after 25 hours and 3.90 after 33 hours. Clearly, there is nothing wrong with the batteries so the effect must be a factor of the charging.

Feeding static electricity into a capacitor converts it into normal “hot” electricity, but we want a very simple circuit, so the next step was to add in a 100 volt 1 microfarad capacitor which looks like this:

![Capacitor Image]

making the circuit:
With the battery on charge removed, the voltage on the capacitor reaches 22 volts. Charging the same batteries with this circuit reached 4.14 volts and produced load results of 4.09, 4.05, 4.01, 3.98, 3.96, 3.93, 3.90, 3.88, 3.85, 3.83, 3.81 and 3.79 volts after 12 hours which is much better than the 5-hour total previously experienced. However, obviously, something better is needed.

The next step is to use a diode bridge of 1N4148 diodes instead of the single diode, giving this circuit:

Without the charging battery connected, this circuit gives 28 volts on the capacitor and the battery charging is good, giving load testing results of 4.18, 4.16, 4.15, 4.13, 4.11, 4.10, 4.08, 4.08, 4.06, 4.05, 4.04, 4.03, 4.02, 4.00, 3.99, 3.98, 3.97, 3.96, 3.95, 3.95, 3.94, 3.93, 3.93, 3.93, 3.93, and 3.93 volts after powering the load for 24 hours. This seems to be a very satisfactory result for such a minor alteration.

If two 1.2V batteries are used to drive the circuit, without a battery on charge, then the voltage on the capacitor reaches 67 volts, but that is not necessary for charging a 12-volt battery. Although the change is slight, the circuit operation is changed considerably. The capacitor does not discharge instantly and so, for some of the time between the sharp Joule Thief pulses, the capacitor supplies extra charging current to the battery on charge. This does not mean that the battery being charged is charged much faster and you can expect that full charging will take several hours. I have not yet tested it, but I would expect that by using two or more of these circuits simultaneously, should increase the rate of charge;

There is no need to restrict the battery on charge to a nominal 3.6 volts in any of these circuits as a single 1.2 volt drive battery can easily charge a 4.8 volt battery or larger. The value of the capacitor has a considerable effect and I suggest a one microfarad capacitor is a good choice. It has been argued that the two additional diodes on each side of the battery being charged are not necessary, although I have shown them to isolate the two circuits from each other.

**LaserSaber’s Joule Thief Lighting Circuits.**

Another very successful variation on the basic Joule Thief was put into the Public Domain on 4th October 2012. Details are on his web site [www.laserhacker.com](http://www.laserhacker.com). His variation is extremely simple, both in concept and construction:

and in his video: http://solarpower.energygratis.com/2012/10/09/solar-electricity-super-joule-ringer-3-0-real-world-power-made-easy/ he demonstrates it lighting a mains-voltage LED bulb (seen above), a mains filament bulb, a halogen bulb and a compact fluorescent bulb with the ballast still in place, that is, as is sold in shops without any modification. The circuit is:

This “Super Joule Ringer 3.0” circuit is unusual in that the feedback to the base of the 2N3055 transistor is through the load (the bulb). The circuit is a high-frequency DC inverter which could hardly be any more simple, but please be aware that the high-frequency output voltage spikes are not sine wave, nor are they voltage controlled, and so this is not a circuit for driving things like TV sets. The transistor oscillates at high frequency governed by the characteristics of the 72-turn primary winding of the transformer. The output voltage level is a combination of the battery voltage and the turns ratio of the transformer.

To raise the output voltage, the number of turns in the secondary can be increased. The number of turns is not specified, other than to say that the turns are laid close, side-by-side along the whole length of the 8-inch (200 mm) long ferrite rod, using enamelled copper wire of 0.32 mm diameter (28 AWG or 30 swg). Using arithmetic, that would suggest that there are some 600 turns wound directly on to the ferrite rod. The ferrite rod itself has a diameter of 0.625 inches (15.88 mm) which makes it an item which is likely to be difficult to find. However, I strongly suspect that the diameter of the ferrite rod is not at all critical.

Both of the coils are wound on the ferrite rod in the same direction, the secondary being wound first, placing it underneath the primary which is wound with 72 turns of insulated wire of 1.63 mm diameter (14 AWG or 16 swg). No current draw is indicated and it seems likely that it is quite high there being just two helical coils in the drive section. The (110-volt) bulbs demonstrated in his video are:
Please be very careful with lighting. Incandescent bulbs produce lighting which has frequencies in the red part of the spectrum and those are healthy bulbs. Compact Fluorescent bulbs often called “CFL” produce ultra-violet light as well as flicker and you should be four or five feet away from them if you don’t want adverse medical effects from the lighting. Light-Emitting Diodes or “LED” bulbs are highly dangerous in spite of the fact that they give excellent lighting levels for low current draw. They produce none of the beneficial red end of the visible spectrum and instead they have a high output in the blue end of the spectrum. The result is lighting which has long-term damaging effects on the retina of the eye, leading to macular degeneration and eventual blindness. The drug Lutein is essential to combat the effect but LED lights should be avoided is at all possible.

Ed Gray’s Power System.
The power tube presented to the public by Edwin Gray snr. operates by generating a series of very short, very sharp pulses using a spark gap. This device is reputed to have a power output which is one hundred times that of the power input. Ed Gray and his electric pulse motor are very famous, but as far as I am aware, nobody has successfully replicated this claimed performance. Further, an in-depth examination of the background details by Mr Mark McKay have turned up a number of facts which present a very different picture, and while it is perfectly correct to say that spark-gap pulses generate a good waveform for shocking the local zero-point energy field into the sort of imbalance which can provide a massive power inflow into a device or circuit, we need to be careful to get the full facts in this case.

First, let us put the whole thing in its proper perspective. In May 1973, Cal-Tech in the US performed an independent assessment of an engine provided to them by Edwin Gray. They measured the input and the output and certified that the output power was 275 times greater than the input power. This demonstrates clearly that excess power can be drawn into an engine and provide a performance which can power both the engine as well as doing additional useful work.

Having said that, it needs to be made clear that Edwin Gray did not build that small motor, did not understand how it worked, nor did he ever disclose the design in any of the patents which he obtained afterwards. We need to follow the sequence of events and notice when each thing happened. The history is as follows:

In 1957, a Russian immigrant to the USA, one Alexei Popoff, showed Edwin Gray a circuit which he said that he had been shown by Nikola Tesla. Edwin Gray did not understand the circuit and had no idea how to create anything useful based on it. He then joined up with his next-door neighbour Marvin Cole, who held a Masters degree in Mechanical Engineering and who, unlike Gray, was able to understand the circuitry.

In 1958, Ed Gray left the Los Angeles area in a hurry.
From 1958 to 1967 Marvin Cole, working alone, designed and built ever more powerful prototype engines, and it was a small one of these which was tested by Cal-Tech. In this period, Marvin also developed ever more powerful power supplies, which are the really important item in all of this.

In 1967, Ed Gray rejoins Marvin Cole and together from 1967 to 1972 they solicited venture capital and promoted the technology.

Early in 1972, Marvin Cole disappeared and never saw Gray again. It is not clear if he was intimidated, died, or just did not want to be involved in all the publicity and effort needed to turn the prototype engines into a commercial product. No matter what the reason, the result was that Edwin Gray was suddenly disconnected from the brains behind the project, and that left him in a very difficult position. He didn't want to let go of the dream of becoming rich through this spectacular development, and so he tried to continue the development on his own.

As already mentioned, in May of the following year (1973), Gray had a small Marvin Cole motor independently third-party tested at the famous Cal-Tech laboratory in Los Angeles, where a measured input of just 27 watts produced a measured output of 10 horsepower (7460 watts). The objective was to provide solid evidence of a new technology which was capable of changing the world and so would attract investors. To further boost his image and convince potential investors, in that same year of 1973, Edwin staged demonstrations which jumped electromagnets up into the air, showing the strength of the power which drove the Marvin Cole engines.

It is very important to understand that all of Edwin Gray's patents were applied for after the departure of Marvin Cole. These do not disclose the technology tested by Cal-Tech and it must be understood that Edwin was very much afraid of revealing anything important in any of the patents in case some other person would understand the things which were a mystery to him and snatch away the prize of commercial success. Try watching Peter Lindemann’s informative video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dmf10hggUm4 for considerable additional information.

Marvin Cole’s power system produced "cold electricity" which could power lights and other devices. It was frequently demonstrated that the output was not conventional electricity and powered light bulbs which were placed under water and at the same time, it was quite safe for a hand to be put into that same water along with the lit bulb. The glass of the conventional bulbs used in these demonstrations would have shattered when placed under water if they had been powered by conventional "hot electricity" as the sudden change in temperature would have broken the glass. Powered as they were by "cold electricity", they ran cool and so there was no stress on the glass when submerged in water.

Peter Lindemann points out that Ed Gray’s power conversion tube circuit is effectively a copy of Nikola Tesla’s circuit for doing the same thing:

This was disclosed by Tesla in his ‘Philadelphia and St Louis’ lecture in 1893 and shows how loads can be powered when a high voltage source is pulsed by a magnetically-quenched sparks - this creates DC pulses of very short duration.
The diagram above, illustrates the difference between the Magnetic field generated around a conductor fed with a pulse of Direct Current and the Radiant Energy waves created by that pulse. If a sharp current pulse is driven down a vertical wire, it causes two different types of field. The first field is magnetic, where the lines of magnetic force rotate around the wire. These lines are horizontal, and rotate clockwise when viewed from above. The magnetic field remains as long as the current flows down the wire.

The second field is the Radiant Energy wave. This wave will only occur if the current pulse is in one direction, i.e. it will not occur if the wire is fed with alternating current. The wave radiates out horizontally from the vertical wire in every direction in the form of a shock wave. It is a one-off event and does not repeat if the current in the wire is maintained. The Radiant Energy briefly unbalances the zero-point energy field and that causes an energy flow as the field moves back into equilibrium again.

The Radiant energy wave is not restricted to a single plane as shown in the diagram above, which is intended to indicate the difference between the electromagnetic field circling around the wire, and the Radiant Energy field which radiates away from the wire. Both of these fields occur at all points along the full length of the wire as shown here:

Radiant Energy, when converted to electrical power, produces a different kind of electrical power to that produced by batteries and by the mains supply. Power a motor with conventional electricity and it gets hot under load. Power the same motor by Radiant Energy electricity and under load the motor gets cold. Really overload it by stalling it and the motor housing is likely to be covered with frost. That is why this form of electricity is referred to as “cold” electricity.

In his book “Cold War Secrets - HAARP and Beyond”, Gerry Vassilatos quotes research work done in this area by Tesla and others:

**Tesla's Experiments.**

In 1889 Tesla began experimenting with capacitors charged to high voltages and discharged in very short time intervals. These very short pulses produced very sharp shockwaves which he felt across the front of his whole body. He was aware that closing a switch on a high-voltage dynamo often produced a stinging shock. This was believed to be static electricity and it occurred only at switch-on and only for a few milliseconds. However, in those few milliseconds, bluish needles of energy stand out from the electrical cables and they leak to ground, often through the bodies of any people standing nearby, causing immediate death if the installation is large.
While the generators of that time were rated at some thousands of volts, these discharges were millions of volts in intensity. The generator problem was eliminated by the used of highly insulated switches which were provided with a very large ground connection.

While the generators of that time were rated at some thousands of volts, these discharges were millions of volts in intensity. The generator problem was eliminated by the used of highly insulated switches which were provided with a very large ground connection.

Tesla was intrigued by this phenomenon which appeared to match the effect of his capacitor discharges. He calculated that the voltages produced were hundreds of times greater than could be supplied by the capacitor or generator. It was clear that the power supplied was being amplified or augmented in some way, but the question was, from where was the extra energy coming?

Tesla continued to investigate through experiments, taking precautions against the high voltages being produced. He was soon able to produce these shockwaves whenever he wanted to. The shockwaves produced a stinging sensation no matter where he stood in his laboratory, and hands and face were particularly sensitive to the wave. These waves radiated out and penetrated metal, glass and every other kind of material. This was clearly not an electromagnetic wave, so he called the new wave 'Radiant Electricity'.

Tesla searched the literature to find references to this radiant energy but he could not find much. In 1842, Dr. Joseph Henry had observed that steel needles were magnetised by a Leyden Jar spark discharge located on a different floor of the building. The magnetising wave had passed through brick walls, oak doors, heavy stone and iron flooring and tin ceilings to reach the needles located in a vault in the cellar.

In 1872, Elihu Thomson took a large Ruhmkorff Spark Coil, attached one pole of the coil to a cold-water pipe and the other pole to a metal table top. This resulted in a series of massive sparks which electrified the metal door knob of the room and produced the stinging shockwaves which Tesla was investigating. He found that any insulated metal object anywhere in the building would produce long continuous white sparks discharging to ground. This discovery was written up briefly in the Scientific American journal later that year.

Tesla concluded that all of the phenomena which he had observed, implied the presence of “a medium of gaseous structure, that is, one consisting of independent carriers capable of free motion - besides the air, another medium is present”. This invisible medium is capable of carrying waves of energy through all substances, which suggests that, if physical, its basic structure is much smaller than the atoms which make up commonplace materials, allowing the stream of matter to pass freely through all solids. It appears that all of space is filled with this matter.

Thomas Henry Moray demonstrated this energy flow passing through glass and lighting standard electric light bulbs. Harold Aspden performed an experiment known as the “Aspden Effect” which also indicates the presence of this medium. Harold made this discovery when running tests not related to this subject. He started an electric motor which had a rotor mass of 800 grams and recorded the fact that it took an energy input of 300 joules to bring it up to its running speed of 3,250 revolutions per minute when it was driving no load.

The rotor having a mass of 800 grams and spinning at that speed, its kinetic energy together with that of the drive motor is no more than 15 joules, contrasting with the excessive energy of 300 joules needed to get it rotating at that speed. If the motor is left running for five minutes or more, and then switched off, it comes to rest after a few seconds. But, the motor can then be started again (in the same or opposite direction) and brought up to speed with only 30 joules provided that the time lapse between stopping and restarting is no more than a minute or so. If there is a delay of several minutes, then an energy input of 300 joules is needed to get the rotor spinning again.
This is not a transient heating phenomenon. At all times the bearing housings feel cool and any heating in the drive motor would imply an increase of resistance and a build-up of power to a higher steady state condition. The experimental evidence is that there is something unseen, which is put into motion by the machine rotor. That “something” has an effective mass density 20 times that of the rotor, but it is something that can move independently and take several minutes to decay, while the motor comes to rest in a few seconds.

Two machines of different rotor size and composition reveal the phenomenon and tests indicate variations with time of day and compass orientation of the spin axis. One machine, the one incorporating weaker magnets, showed evidence of gaining strength magnetically during the tests which were repeated over a period of several days.

This clearly shows that there is an unseen medium which interacts with everyday objects and actions, and confirms Tesla’s discovery. Tesla continued to experiment and determined that a very short uni-directional pulse is necessary to generate the radiant energy wave. In other words, an alternating voltage does not create the effect, it has to be a DC pulse. The shorter the pulse time and the higher the voltage, the greater the energy wave. He found that using a capacitor and an arc discharge mechanism with a very powerful permanent magnet placed at right angles to the spark, improved the performance of his equipment by a major factor.

Additional experiments showed that the effects were altered by adjusting the duration of the electrical pulse. In each instance, the power of the radiated energy appeared to be constant irrespective of the distance from his apparatus. The energy was in the form of individual longitudinal waves. Objects placed near the equipment became powerfully electrified, retaining their charge for many minutes after the equipment was switched off.

Tesla was using a charging dynamo as a power source and he found that if he moved his magnetic discharger to one side of the dynamo, the radiant wave was positive. If he moved the magnetic discharger towards the other side of the dynamo, the radiant wave became negative in sign. This was clearly a new electrical force which travelled as light-like rays, showing them to be different in nature to the electromagnetic waves of Maxwell.

Investigating the effects of adjusting the duration of the pulses, Tesla found that a pulse train which had individual pulses with durations exceeding 100 microseconds, produced pain and mechanical pressures. At this duration, objects in the field visibly vibrated and were even pushed along by the field. Thin wires subjected to sudden bursts of the radiant field, exploded into vapour. When the pulse duration was reduced to 100 microseconds or below, the painful effect was no longer felt and the waves are harmless.

With a pulse duration of 1 microsecond, strong physiological heat was felt. With even shorter pulse durations, spontaneous illuminations capable of filling rooms with white light, were produced. Even shorter pulses produced cool room penetrating breezes with an accompanying uplift in mood and awareness. These effects have been verified by Eric Dollard who has written about them in some detail.

In 1890, Tesla discovered that if he placed a two-foot long single-turn deep copper helix coil near his magnetic disrupter, the thin-walled coil developed a sheath of white sparks with long silvery white streamers rising from the top of the coil. These discharges appeared to have much higher voltages than the generating circuit. This effect was greatly increased if the coil was placed inside the disrupter wire circle. The discharge seemed to hug the surface of the coil with a strange affinity, and rode up its surface to the open end. The shockwave flowed over the coil at right angles to the windings and produced very long discharges from the top of the coil. With the disrupter charge jumping one inch in its magnetic housing, the coil streamers were more than two feet in length. This effect was generated at the moment when the magnetic field quenched the spark and it was wholly unknown at that time.

This train of very short uni-directional pulses causes a very strange field to expand outwards. This field resembles a stuttering electrostatic field but has a far more powerful effect than would be expected from an electrostatic charge. Tesla was unable to account for the enormous voltage multiplication of his apparatus using any of the electrical formula of his day. He therefore presumed that the effect was entirely due to radiant transformation rules which would have to be determined through experimental measurements. This he proceeded to do.

Tesla had discovered a new induction law where radiant shockwaves actually auto-intensified when encountering segmented objects. The segmentation was the key to releasing the action. Radiant shockwaves encountered a helix and “flashed over” the outer skin, from end to end. This shockwave did not pass through the windings of the coil but treated the surface of the coil as a transmission path. Measurements showed that the voltage increase along the surface of the coil was exactly proportional to the length travelled along the coil, with the voltage increase reaching values of 10,000 volts per inch of coil. The 10,000 volts which he was feeding to his 24 inch coil were being magnified to 240,000 volts at the end of his coil. This was unheard of for simple equipment like that. Tesla also discovered that the voltage increase was mathematically linked to the resistance of the coil winding, with higher resistance windings producing higher voltages.
Tesla then began to refer to his disrupter loop as his special “primary” and to the long helical coil as his special “secondary” but he never intended anyone to equate these terms to those referring to electromagnetic transformers which operate in a completely different way.

There was an attribute which baffled Tesla for a time. His measurements showed that there was no current flowing in the long copper ‘secondary’ coil. Voltage was rising with every inch of the coil, but there was no current flow in the coil itself. Tesla started to refer to his measured results as his “electrostatic induction laws”. He found that each coil had its own optimum pulse duration and that the circuit driving it needed to be ‘tuned’ to the coil by adjusting the length of the pulses to give the best performance.

Tesla then noticed that the results given by his experiments paralleled the equations for dynamic gas movements, so he began wondering if the white flame discharges might not be a gaseous manifestation of electrostatic force. He found that when a metal point was connected to the upper terminal of the ‘secondary’ coil, the streamers were directed very much like water flowing through a pipe. When the stream was directed at distant metal plates, it produced electronic charges which could be measured as current at the receiving site but in transit, no current existed. The current only appeared when the stream was intercepted. Eric Dollard has stated that this intercepted current can reach several hundred or even thousands of amps.

Tesla made another remarkable discovery. He connected a very heavy U-shaped copper bar directly across the primary of his disrupter, forming a dead short-circuit. He then connected several ordinary incandescent filament bulbs between the legs of the U-shaped bar. When the equipment was powered up, the lamps lit with a brilliant cold white light. This is quite impossible with conventional electricity, and it shows clearly that what Tesla was dealing with was something new. This new energy is sometimes called “cold electricity” and Edwin Gray snr. demonstrated how different it is by lighting incandescent-filament bulbs directly from his power tube, submerging them in water and putting his hand in the water. Cold electricity is generally considered to be harmless to humans. Ed Gray’s power tube operates by generating radiant electricity waves by using a spark gap, and collecting the energy using three encasing copper cylinders surrounding the spark gap. The cylinders are drilled with many holes as that enhances the pick-up and the load is driven directly from the current in the cylinders. When lighting bulbs, Ed used an air-cored transformer made of just a few turns of very heavy wire. I, personally, am aware of two people who have independently reproduced Ed’s power tube.

Tesla viewed the streamers coming off his coils as being wasted energy so he tried to suppress them. He tried a conical coil but found that this accentuated the problem. He then tried placing a copper sphere at the top of his coil. This stopped the streamers but electrons were dislodged from the copper sphere, creating really dangerous conditions. This implied that metals generate electron flows when struck by the coil streamers (as had been seen when the streamers had been aimed at remote metal plates and current was generated as a result).

Tesla designed, built and used large globe lamps which required only a single external plate for receiving the radiant energy. No matter how far away these lamps were from the radiant source, they became brilliantly lit, almost to the level of an arc lamp and far, far brighter than any of the conventional Edison filament lamps. By adjusting the voltage and the pulse duration of his apparatus, Tesla could also heat or cool a room.

Tesla’s experiments suggest that a method of extracting free-energy is to use a Tesla coil which has a metal spike instead of the more common metal sphere at the end of the ‘secondary’ coil. If the Tesla coil is fed with sufficiently short uni-directional pulses and the ‘secondary’ coil pointed at a metal plate, then it should be possible to draw off serious levels of power from the metal plate, just as Tesla discovered. This has been confirmed by Don Smith who uses two metal plates separated by a layer of plastic dielectric, forming a capacitor. He states that a well designed Tesla coil is capable of producing currents as high as the voltages and he demonstrates a hand-held 28 watt Tesla Coil played on the first plate producing a substantial continuous spark discharge between the second plate and ground. I estimate that the spark produced would have to be thousands of volts at a significant current, which puts it in the kilowatt range, like most of Don’s other devices. Video: http://www.metacafe.com/watch/2820531/don_smith_free_energy/ Don’s patent is in Chapter 3 and his .pdf document here: http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Smith.pdf in which he explains many of his high-power designs.
Don also points out that the positioning of the primary coil relative to the secondary coil of a Tesla Coil determines the amount of current which can be provided. Contrary to most opinion, it is possible to have Tesla Coil current as high as the voltage. Don always stresses that you have the option of picking the electrical component (as conventional science has done) which leads to "heat death" while the alternative option of selecting the magnetic component makes "the world your oyster". With a magnetic ripple imposed on the zero-point energy field, which Don prefers to call the 'ambient background energy', you can make as many electric conversions as you wish, without depleting the magnetic event in any way. In other words, you can draw off serious amounts of current from capacitor plates positioned at right angles to the magnetic flow, and every additional pair of plates gives you an additional source of major current without any need to increase the magnetic disturbance in any way. With his single metal plate, Tesla mentioned currents of a thousand amps being available. Please remember that a Tesla Coil produces seriously high voltages and is not a toy. Great care is needed around a Tesla Coil so, when it is running, keep well away from it.

Don also states that the collection and transfer of energy requires temporary storage which occurs as the capacitors and coils of a resonant circuit are cycled on and off. The frequency at which the capacitors and coils are pumped, determines the amount of electrical energy that moves onwards. The amount of Energy transferred relates directly to the density of lines of magnetic flux present. The Kinetic Energy formula is helpful in establishing the amount of energy present. This formula points to mass multiplied by the square of the velocity. In the case of electrical energy, intensity of voltage and amperes multiplied by cycles per second, replace velocity. Note that the "acceleration" of the Voltage and the Amperage, increases in a non-linear fashion as the Law of Squares applies, with each unit of increase causing a squaring of the flux lines present. In resonant air-core coil energy transfer, the increase in flux lines present disturbs more electrons than previously and this results in greater output energy than input energy being present and available.

Energy stored, multiplied by the cycles per second, is the energy being pumped by the system. Capacitors and inductors (coils) temporarily store electrons.

Capacitor formula: \[ W = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times Hz \]  
where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules (Joules = Volts x Amps x seconds)
- \( C \) is the capacitance in Farads
- \( V \) is the voltage
- \( Hz \) is the cycles per second

Inductor formula: \[ W = 0.5 \times L \times A^2 \times Hz \]  
where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules
- \( L \) is the inductance in Henrys
- \( A \) is the current in amps
- \( Hz \) is the frequency in cycles per second

Both one Henry and one Farad equal one volt. The higher the frequency, including the squaring of the flux lines, causes a large increase in the amount of energy being produced. This, combined with the use of a resonant energy induction system (all electrons moving in the same direction at the same time), make the move into COP>1 practical.
The damping process of conventional electrical power generation, has all of the available electrons bouncing randomly, mostly cancelling out each other, and so the useful energy available is only a very small percentage of the energy which is present. In a resonant induction system, a very high percentage of the energy present is useful. When resonating, (ohms-impedance-Z) becomes zero and all of the energy present becomes available, without being degraded in any way. Ohms is load or wasted energy and amperes is the rate of that wasting.

Now, apply this information to an air-core coil resonant transformer energy system. L-1 and L-2 coils are now present. L-1 has fewer turns and is several times the diameter of L-2. Input from a 12-volt 'gelcel' high-voltage laser module, produces 8,000 volts with low (wasted energy) amperage into 4 turns of coil L-1. Each turn of L-1 then acquires 2,000 volts of resonant potential. Each turn of L-2 is then exposed to an electric flux of 2,000 volts. Each turn at the bottom end of L-2 acquires 2,000 volts. The flux lines are squared and are additive as the voltage and amperage progress towards the top end of L-2's many turns.

A huge number of flux lines which were not previously present, occur at the top end of L-2. These flux lines excite the electrons nearby in it's earth and air and groundings. This high level of excitement above the ambient, causes a large number of electrons to become available, electrons which previously, were not part of the energy present. At this point, large amounts of excess energy is present. This COP>1 device produces energy at radio frequencies in the megahertz range and this allows it to be small in size and yet produce large amounts of energy. A megawatt sized unit will sit comfortably on a breakfast table. The energy is changed to direct current, and then, to the desired working frequency.

The energy powering these devices is drawn from the surrounding energy field and is not conventional electricity and it does not flow through the wire of the 'secondary' coil, but instead, it runs along the outside of the coil and through space to strike the surface of the metal plate, where it generates conventional electric current. Thomas Henry Moray demonstrated that this energy flowing along the outside of the wire can pass through glass without being affected in any way.

In his 1995 paper Don Smith presents the following diagram:

While Tesla’s experiment used a metal plate, he patented (US 512,340) a coil type which he said is very effective in picking up this radiant energy. This "pancake" coil type goes by the rather impressive name of “bi-filar serial-connected coil”, which, despite it’s impressive name is not difficult to wind using two separate strands of wire as shown here:
If a strong magnetic field is positioned across the spark gap as shown above, it sharpens the cut-off of the spark and enhances the uni-directional character of the pulse of current. It should be remembered that if a very short sharp pulse of uni-directional current such as is produced by a spark jumping across a spark gap as in the arrangement shown above, occurs in a conductor, then a strong wave of radiant energy radiates out in a plane at right angles to the pulse of current.

This radiant energy wave is quite different from the electromagnetic field generated around the wire carrying the pulse of current. In the Tesla coil arrangement shown above, it should be possible to gather additional free energy through one or more co-axial (like layers of an onion) cylindrical coils around the spark gap leads. These coils will work better if they are wound as bi-filar, serially-connected coils. The reason for this is that the self induction of the coils can be zero at any particular frequency because a Tesla pancake (or cylindrical) coil can act as a resonant coil at one particular frequency. This effect is because the capacitance between adjacent turns of the coil is dramatically altered by the raised voltage difference produced by the winding method, and as a result, the combined capacitance of all the turns along with the coils self inductance, gives a result where the coil appears to have just magnetic and resistance characteristics and no self-inductance at all, as pointed out in Tesla's US 512,340 patent.

Tesla was granted US Patent 685,957 “Apparatus for the Utilisation of Radiant Energy” in which he shows various ways of handling the energy collected by the metal plate. It is likely that the pick-up techniques shown in the patent of Hermann Plauston, which is in the Appendix, would also work very effectively with this collected energy. Old patents sometimes mention a “condenser” which is the original term for what is nowadays called a “capacitor”.

After careful consideration and many experiments, Tesla concluded that the radiant rays which he was utilising, radiated out so rapidly that electrons were unable to keep up with them. The rays were being carried via a medium consisting of extremely mobile, almost mass-less particles, very much smaller than electrons and which, because of their size and speed, could pass easily through most materials. In spite of their small size, their extreme speed caused them to have considerable momentum. A fact which is very difficult to come to terms with is that these rays seem to propagate outwards instantly, with no time delay at all, as if transmitted through matter which is wholly incompressible. It is sometimes called “Radiant Energy” or “RE” for short and appears to have no net charge in conventional terms. This is a unique feature of the universe, with unique characteristics, which if utilised, provides a whole host of new applications and capabilities.

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Tesla considered that this newly discovered field acted like a fluid. A hundred and fifteen years later, the cover story of the December 2005 edition of the “Scientific American” journal states that experimental models hint that space-time could be a kind of fluid. It has taken a long time for modern science to start catching up with Tesla. In actual fact, it was Michael Faraday (1781 - 1867) who came up with the idea in the first place.

The Alberto Molina-Martinez Generator.

US patent application US 20020125774 of 6th March 2002, shows a self-powered electrical generator. Like that used by Bob Boyce, this is a toroidal (ring-shaped) frame with several windings on it, as shown in the diagram below. Once it has been powered up with AC mains frequency voltage, it produces so much power that it can supply it’s own input power requirement as well as powering other loads such as light bulbs. This patent application is shown in full in the Appendix.

It is said that the Toroid device built by Stephen Mark and shown in web videos, is a replication of this generator design. The forum at present at http://www.overunity.com/index.php/topic,2535.0.html is dedicated to replicating
Stephen Mark's device and considerable progress has been made. This group is operating on the basis that instead of a metallic toroid core as shown here, that a Mobius-loop toroidal wire core is used. At this point in time, their efforts have not yet produced a circuit which exhibits a COP>1 performance.

You will notice that very many different devices, aimed at doing different things, all operate by generating very sharp DC pulses.

So, a wide range of different devices have the same background technique for making them work. Meyer used the pulsing for water-splitting in a hydroxy gas cell. Bedini uses the pulsing to charge batteries with cold electricity. Tesla used the pulsing to charge batteries, provide heating, cooling and lighting. Boyce uses pulsing to obtain electrolysis at 1,200% of Faraday's stated maximum rate of electrolysis. Gray used the pulsing to capture cold electricity to drive a powerful electric motor. Many different applications all based on using very short, very sharp, high-voltage pulses.

Alfred Hubbard's Self-Powered Generator.

In 1919 at Portage Bay on Lake Union, Seattle, Washington in America, Alfred Hubbard, an acquaintance of Nikola Tesla, demonstrated a self-powered electricity generator design. The generator was about 14 inches (350 mm) tall and 11 inches (280 mm) in diameter. It powered a 35 H.P. electric motor, which pushed an 18-foot boat which contained no batteries, continuously around the bay for several hours. This demonstration was witnessed by thousands and ended because the wiring was beginning to overheat. It was said that the cable used contained seven strands of 0.09-inch (2.286 mm) diameter. Each of those strands would be able to carry 12 amps and so if this is correct, the cable had a current-carrying capacity of about 84 amps. The diameter of the wire including the insulation was said to be 0.34 inches (8.5 mm). The inner core was said to be made of a pipe.
containing 16 iron rods with 43 turns of wire around it, which if correct, would suggest 43 turns in 14 inches or 3 turns per inch, implying a cylindrical coil with the turns side by side, touching each other.

However, a great deal of misleading information, not to mention a good deal of speculation has been spread around concerning the Hubbard design, which Alfred took three years to develop. Several years after the demonstration, when Hubbard was employed by the Radium Company, he said that radium was used in the device, which is something which I personally, find very hard to believe, and strongly suspect that Hubbard was persuaded to say that by his employers who were selling radium at that time.

Hubbard made a sketch of one of his smaller generators which was used for ordinary household electrical appliances and that showed a very simple design which had eight cylindrical primary coils each of which was wound on a solid iron bar and connected in series. These primary coils surrounded a slightly larger secondary coil of some 35 turns wound around a hollow tube filled with metal bars or wires (presumably of soft iron). This smaller device was about six inches (150 mm) tall (maximum wire diameter 4 mm including the insulation) and about five inches (125 mm) in diameter. Each core had only one layer of thick insulated wire and not many turns were used.

I understand that when a patent was applied for, the patent application was seized and a spurious “Of National Security Importance” order slapped on it, acting as an unlawful gag order on Hubbard, prohibiting him from ever developing, using, showing or selling it or anything akin to it. The US Patent Office is a privately owned commercial company, and while they will probably be using the design themselves, they certainly have no intention of ever allowing the public to have access to it as energy freedom is a major step towards complete freedom. Consequently, we know next to nothing about Hubbard’s successful design.

The general arrangement might have been something vaguely like this:

In Joseph Cater’s book “The Awesome Life Force” he attempts to explain the theory of its operation, but it must be clearly understood that what Cater says is just speculation on his part as Hubbard’s actual design was never disclosed publicly.

What Cater says is certainly plausible, and even if it is not Hubbard’s design, it is worth investigating and experimenting with. The mechanism put forward by Cater is based on the well-known and widely accepted graph of the magnetisation of soft iron versus applied levels of magnetic force. This graph is highly non-linear and the central section of the graph rises steeply, indicating that there is a considerable increase in the magnetisation of the iron for relatively little increase in energy input.
Cater stresses that the input waveform should be pulsating DC. The method of applying pulsing DC is then, almost the same as for the Clemente Figuera design shown in chapter 3, with an offset base level of DC current flow which needs to be maintained at all times. Here is the magnetisation graph for soft iron:

Fig. 29 shows a graph of the magnetisation of an iron core plotted against ampere turns per unit length. The term “ampere turns” is the number of turns of the coil per unit length of the coil multiplied by the number of amps of current flowing through the coil.

The steep section of the curve appears to start at around 3.5 Tesla, and so, a constant DC current in the magnetising (Hubbard primary) coil needs to provide that level of magnetisation at all times, and the applied pulsing DC half-sinewave waveform applied on top of that and since the induced EMF in a coil is directly proportional to the rate of change of magnetic flux, it follows that the higher the frequency of this sine wave supply, the better. Using a ramp waveform might well be more effective.

Normal working transformers have ampere-turns which are well below this critical point. The additional EMF induced in the coils by the magnetisation of the iron offsets the natural inductive impedance of the coils. This is why transformers have such a high degree of efficiency. If any material other than iron or special steel were used for the core, the efficiency would drop significantly. Hubbard used part of the output power to provide the input power, and so he only needed to provide input power for less than a second to get the device running. The power supply might well be of this nature:

Here, instead of letting the high frequency rectified sine wave (or ramp generator signal) reach zero volts, and additional DC current supply is maintained, and while the signal generator pulses add to the overall voltage applied to the device, the voltage is never allowed to reach zero.

There is possibly another factor which could contribute to the success of the Hubbard device. At that time, the only insulated wire available had thick and heavy insulation. This means that adjacent turns of wire in the coil were separated by a distance equal to twice the thickness of the insulation. Consequently, the gap resulted in a cancellation of magnetic effects produced by electrons flowing in the wire. Since inertia is dependent on the ability to generate a magnetic field, the inertial properties of the electrons would be almost nullified.

There is an optimum distance between the wires which would produce the maximum effect. It seems likely that the thick insulation on Hubbard’s wire produced this optimum distance. Most of the resultant magnetic field was that which encircled both wires and that would be the weaker part of the field. This means that a relatively low EMF could accelerate a larger number of electrons to a high velocity during a very short period of time. As the electrons leave the coil, inertia returns. This would result in a backup of a high concentration of electrons in the
Since electrostatic repulsion is not affected, electrons would be ejected from the coil at a high velocity despite their increased inertia. This would produce an output of both high voltage and high amperage.

Joseph Cater’s Version of the Hubbard Generator.
Although containing conflicting information, there is what appears to be an implementation of the Hubbard coil system, or perhaps a very closely related device from Joseph H. Cater. As usual, information on it is limited and not particularly clear, so the following is just my attempt to piece together some information from different sources. Much of this information comes from a document which has Geoff Egel’s name on it and although it seems likely that Geoff is quoting some other source, my thanks goes to him for sharing what we have here. The diagrams give the names of various minor websites none of which exist any longer and so these have been removed as they have no useful purpose any longer. Here is an original diagram from this information:

As it seems to me that there are many conflicting details in this information, I am presenting it here in pretty much the same form in which it reached me. You will notice that the composite central coil is now presented as the secondary rather than the primary. It should be stressed that Hubbard never disclosed his design publicly and so this, and similar information elsewhere, has to be considered to be guesswork.

The Generator of André Coutier
Some twelve years after Hubbard’s public demonstration, on 12th January 1933, André Coutier was awarded patent FR739458 which is entitled Self-generating Electrical Generator. This design is so similar to the Hubbard device that it seems very likely that it is the Hubbard device under a different name.

Description
The apparatus is composed of a closed magnetic circuit (Fig.1)
consisting of one soft iron central core coil, surrounded by a number of smaller diameter soft-iron cored coils. While the diagram shows six coils, that is not a fixed number. The smaller diameter coils have the same number of wire turns wound around them and so each of those small coils produces the same current as that which flows in the coil wound around the large inner coil. The cross-sectional core areas of the satellite coils is set to be the same as the cross-sectional area of the central coil core.

The overall design is very simple as shown here:

According to the patent, each of the surrounding coils has an output current equal to that of the central coil. So, if a current of say, 1 amp, is fed to the central coil, then each of the six surrounding coils will have an output current of 1 amp. As the six output coils are wired in parallel, the output current should be 6 amps, giving a COP value of 6 or if you prefer, an electrical efficiency of 600%.

No system is 100% efficient as there are some losses from the wire resistance, the heating of the wire, eddy currents flowing sideways in the iron cores, etc. in each coil. So, the overall efficiency will be less than 600% but the overall energy gain will still be substantial. The voltage remains essentially unchanged but please remember that as the current increases, so must the wire diameter in order to carry that increased current.

Coutier uses three of these coil sets as part of his arrangement and he then takes off a controlled amount from the output to provide the needed input for the system:
The output is alternating current. Coutier chooses to use an isolating transformer in his feedback control which feeds the necessary input current to his oscillator circuit. He also uses a mechanical vibrator as his oscillator as way back in 1933 there were no readily available semiconductors. His overall circuit diagram uses infinity symbols to indicate Alternating Current and it looks like this:
The device consists of a closed magnetic circuit (fig. 1) consisting of one central core of soft iron, in the shape of a cylinder. There are N similar satellite cores, set parallel to the central core and placed in a circle around the central core. The central core is an inductive coil with the number of turns required to achieve saturation of the magnetic circuit with the chosen inductive current. Each of the satellites coils has the same number of turns as there are in the central core coil.

Given the particular provision of the magnetic circuit, each of the satellite coils is an isolated transformer and so the current induced in each of the satellite windings has the same power as the central coil current. Thus, the unit produces a multiplication of electrical energy. As the output energy exceeds the initial input energy, we see immediately the opportunity to use some of the output energy to provide the necessary input energy on a continuous basis.

The device used for the industrial model of the perpetual self-powered electricity generator, established for use in industry, maritime and river navigation, and traction on railways, is shown schematically in Fig.2.

Three multiplier devices (there can be any number of these devices) are combined in series, so that the core e of one circuit is powered by electricity from the combined satellite circuits f, of the previous device. The satellite coils of set 1 feed the central coil of set 2. Similarly, the set 2 satellite circuits feed the central coil of set 3.

Each unit with 6 satellites (there can be any number of satellites) determine the factor of power amplification of each set, and in this case it is 6. With the three coil sets shown, the power amplification is 6 x 6 x 6 = 216 times the input power.

It is easy, using an output power tap and the rheostat h, to provide the energy required as the input current. The coil i is magnetically linked to coil j, as they are mounted on the same core and they form a 1-to-1 ratio transformer. The output of coil j is used to operate a buzzer k whose AC coil output is used to feed the central coil e of the first power multiplier circuit.

The device also includes two batteries l and m - intended to deal with any eventuality. One battery can be charged while the other is available for use if there is an accidental stop of the generator.

Claims

Multiplication of electrical energy carried out by induction of satellite windings, grouped in a circle around an inductive central winding. The sum of the cross-sectional areas of the satellite cores is equal to the cross-sectional area of the central core. Self-generating perpetual electrical energy is achieved by taking energy from the last multiplier and using it to provide the input current.

Floyd Sweet's “VTA” Self-Powered Generator.

Another device in this category of pulsed devices which tap external energy was produced by Floyd (“Sparky”) Sweet. The device was called “Vacuum Triode Amplifier” or “VTA” by Tom Bearden. There is very little practical information available on this device, though there is a video of it in operation on the web, with an input power of just 0.31 milliwatt and a continuous power output of more than 500 watts (112 volts AC at 60 Hz) which is a COP of more than 1,612,000 which is spectacularly impressive.

The device was capable of producing more than 1 kW of output power at 120 Volts, 60 Hz and can be connected so as to be self-powered. The output is energy which resembles electricity in that it powers motors, lamps, etc. but as the power increases through any load there is a temperature drop instead of the expected temperature rise, which is why it is called “cold” electricity.

When it became known that he had produced the device he became the target of serious threats, some of which were delivered face-to-face in broad daylight. It is quite possible that the concern was due to the device tapping zero-point energy, which when done at high currents opens a whole new can of worms. One of the observed
characteristics of the device was that when the current was increased, the measured weight of the apparatus reduced by about a pound. While this is hardly new, it suggests that space/time was being warped. The German scientists at the end of WWII had been experimenting with this (and killing off the unfortunate people who were used to test the system) - if you have considerable perseverance, you can read up on this in Nick Cook's inexpensive book "The Hunt for Zero-Point" ISBN 0099414988.

Floyd found that the weight of his device reduced in proportion to the amount of energy being produced. But he found that if the load was increased enough, a point was suddenly reached where a loud sound like a whirlwind was produced, although there was no movement of the air. The sound was heard by his wife Rose who was in another room of their apartment and by others outside the apartment. Floyd did not increase the load further (which is just as well as he would probably have received a fatal dose of radiation if he had) and did not repeat the test. In my opinion, this is a potentially dangerous device. It should be noted that a highly lethal 20,000 Volts is used to 'condition' the magnets and the principles of operation are not understood at this time. Also, there is insufficient information to hand to provide realistic advice on practical construction details.

On one occasion, Floyd accidentally short-circuited the output wires. There was a bright flash and the wires became covered with frost. It was noted that when the output load was over 1 kW, the magnets and coils powering the device became colder, reaching a temperature of 20 degrees Fahrenheit below room temperature. On one occasion, Floyd received a shock from the apparatus with the current flowing between the thumb and the small finger of one hand. The result was an injury akin to frostbite, causing him considerable pain for at least two weeks.

Observed characteristics of the device include:

1. The output voltage does not change when the output power is increased from 100W to 1 kW.
2. The device needs a continuous load of at least 25W.
3. The output falls in the early hours of the morning but recovers later on without any intervention.
4. A local earthquake can stop the device operating.
5. The device can be started in self-powered mode by briefly applying 9 Volts to the drive coils.
6. The device can be stopped by momentary interruption of the power to the power coils.
7. Conventional instruments operate normally up to an output of 1 kW but stop working above that output level, with their readings showing zero or some other spurious reading.

It appears that Floyd’s device was comprised of one or two large ferrite permanent magnets (grade 8, size 150 mm x 100 mm x 25 mm) with coils wound in three planes mutually at right angles to each other (i.e. in the x, y and z axes). The magnetisation of the ferrite magnets is modified by suddenly applying 20,000 Volts from a bank of capacitors (510 Joules) or more to plates on each side of it while simultaneously driving a 1 Amp 60 Hz (or 50 Hz) alternating current through the energising coil. The alternating current should be at the frequency required for the output. The voltage pulse to the plates should be applied at the instant when the ‘A’ coil voltage reaches a peak. This needs to be initiated electronically.

It is said that the powering of the plates causes the magnetic material to resonate for a period of about fifteen minutes, and that the applied voltage in the energising coil modifies the positioning of the newly formed poles of the magnet so that it will in future, resonate at that frequency and voltage. It is important that the voltage applied to the energising coil in this ‘conditioning’ process be a perfect sinewave. Shock, or outside influence can destroy the ‘conditioning’ but it can be reinstated by repeating the conditioning process. It should be noted that the conditioning process may not be successful at the first attempt but repeating the process on the same magnet is usually successful. Once conditioning is completed, the capacitors are no longer needed. The device then only needs a few milliwatts of 60 Hz applied to the input coil to give up to 1.5 kW at 60 Hz at the output coil. The output coil can then supply the input coil indefinitely.

The conditioning process modifies the magnetisation of the ferrite slab. Before the process the North pole is on one face of the magnet and the South pole on the opposite face. After conditioning, the South pole does not stop at the mid point but extends to the outer edges of the North pole face, extending inwards from the edge by about 6 mm. Also, there is a magnetic ‘bubble’ created in the middle of the North pole face and the position of this ‘bubble’ moves when another magnet is brought near it.

The conditioned slab has three coil windings:

1. The ‘A’ coil is wound first around the outer perimeter, each turn being 150 + 100 + 150 + 100 = 500 mm long (plus a small amount caused by the thickness of the coil former material). It has about 600 turns of 28 AWG (0.3 mm) wire.
2. The ‘B’ coil is wound across the 100 mm faces, so one turn is about 100 + 25 + 100 + 25 = 250 mm (plus a small amount for the former thickness and clearing coil ‘A’). It has between 200 and 500 turns of 20 AWG (1 mm) wire.

3. The ‘C’ coil is wound along the 150 mm face, so one turn is 150 + 25 + 150 + 25 = 350 mm (plus the former thickness, plus clearance for coil ‘A’ and coil ‘B’). It has between 200 and 500 turns of 20 AWG (1 mm) wire and should match the resistance of coil ‘B’ as closely as possible.

Coil ‘A’ is the input coil. Coil ‘B’ is the output coil. Coil ‘C’ is used for the conditioning and for the production of gravitational effects.

At time of writing, information and photographs of the original device can be found on the website: http://www.intalek.com/INDEX/Projects/Research/Construction%20of%20Floyd%20Sweet's%20VTA%20by%20Michael%20Watson.htm where a paper by Michael Watson gives much practical information. For example, he states that an experimental setup which he made, had:

- The ‘A’ coil with a resistance of 70 ohms and an inductance of 63 mH,
- The ‘B’ coil, wound with 23 AWG wire with a resistance of 4.95 ohms and an inductance of 1.735 mH, and
- The ‘C’ coil, also wound with 23 AWG wire, with a resistance of 5.05 ohms and an inductance of 1.78 mH.

Chapter 3 has additional information on the VTA.

Rosemary Ainslie’s COP=17 Heater.

As Kevin Ashton states in his book *How To Fly A Horse*, 16th April 1958 saw the death of the scientist Rosalind Franklin at the age of thirty-seven. Rosalind was a talented X-ray crystallographer working on the problem of how viruses reproduce (essentially, how life works, as her work was understanding the mechanics of life). The following day the World’s Fair opened in Brussels with the main attraction being a scale model of a virus. That model was built by Rosalind as she was dying.

She held a research position at the University of London, and later, an appointment, at Birkbeck College, where she studied the tobacco mosaic virus. For a long time, the only people who knew what she had really accomplished were the three men who had secretly stolen her work: James Watson, Francis Crick, and Maurice Wilkins. Watson and Crick were researchers at Cambridge University. Wilkins had been at King’s College. All three men wanted to be first to answer the question of the age: what is the structure of DNA, the acid that carries the information of life, and how does it work?

Rosalind Franklin was educated at Cambridge University’s Newnham College. Had she been born a few generations earlier, she would not have been admitted to Cambridge. Even when women were admitted, the university believed that women were not equal to men and despite being placed first in the university’s entrance exam for chemistry, Franklin could not be a member of the university or an undergraduate. Women could not earn a degree. The number of women allowed to attend Cambridge was capped at five hundred, to ensure that ninety percent of students were men. Science, while pretending to be dispassionate and rational, has long been an active oppressor of women. Britain’s ‘Royal Society’ of scientists barred women for almost three hundred years, on grounds including the argument that women were not “legal persons”.

This disgraceful attitude was, and still is, widespread. Lise Meitner discovered nuclear fission only to see her collaborator Otto Hahn receive the 1944 Nobel Prize for her work. Things have changed little since then. This is not because women have less aptitude for science than men have. For example, Rosalind Franklin took better pictures of DNA than anyone had taken before, then used a complex mathematical equation called the “Patterson function” to analyse them. The equation, developed by Arthur Lindo Patterson in 1935, is a classic technique in X-ray crystallography. The two main properties of electromagnetic waves are their intensity, or “amplitude,” and...
their length, or "phase". The image created by an X-ray shows amplitude but not phase, which can also be a rich source of information. The Patterson function overcomes this limitation by calculating the phase based on the amplitude. In the 1950s, before computers or even calculators, this work took months. Franklin had to use a slide rule, pieces of paper, and hand calculations to work out the phases for every image, each one of which represented a slice of the three-dimensional crystal molecule which she was analysing. While Rosalind Franklin was concluding this work, without her consent or knowledge, Maurice Wilkins showed her data and pictures to James Watson and Francis Crick. Watson and Crick leapt to the conclusion which Franklin was diligently proving, that the structure of DNA was a double helix. They published it, and shared the Nobel Prize with their secret source, Wilkins. When Rosalind Franklin died, they still did not credit her.

This attitude to women scientists does not appear to have changed much and the reluctance of humans as a whole to accept anything new in science is widespread. Not only science is opposed to women. The very successful book *Fifty Shades of Grey* was published under the name "E L James" as the author Erika Mitchell stated that she wanted her pen name to avoid implying that the author was a woman. Is it a major stretch of imagination that the highly successful *Harry Potter* series of books by Joanne Rowling was published under the name "J K Rowling" which also avoids any indication of gender?

I, personally, was never in any doubt that Rosemary Ainslie would encounter fanatical opposition to her scientific paper, not just because "scientists" (for want of a better word) are unwilling to accept her simple system with vastly more power output than the user's power input, but also because of the (highly offensive) opposition to women scientists.

Rosemary Ainslie has produced a pulsed heater system which has been measured at a performance of COP = 17. This is a recent design and as far as I am aware, has not yet been replicated by other people. Panacea-bocaf.org are working with Rosemary's original developers to produce an independent implementation of the heater. At this point in time, the heater has been built to a prototype testing scale for laboratory examination and measurement and not been produced in the kilowatt range, which, hopefully, will come at a later date.

Panacea have produced a 250-page document describing the research, the testing, the theory, etc. and that can be downloaded free using this link:

As that document contains the details which scientists need to see for serious testing and development, it may be a little technical for some people, so Panacea have produced a simplified description aimed at the average home-build investigator and that can be downloaded free using this link:

In very broad outline, the circuit produces the same very short, very sharp voltage pulses that are the basis for so many "free-energy" devices. The circuit used looks very simple but in spite of that, the way that it operates is not at all simple. The circuit is shown below and to a quick glance, it looks like a standard 555 timer chip circuit, used in many existing applications. However, if the circuit is operated as a 555 pulsing circuit, then the output is not COP>1.

Looking more closely, we notice that the link between the output of the 555 chip on pin 3 and the input gate pin of the Field-Effect Transistor, is unusual as it is not the usual voltage divider between pin 3 and the 0-volts ground line. Instead, the gate is directly coupled to the 555 chip output by a single, low-resistance preset resistor.

Normally, an NE555 chip struggles to reach 50,000 cycles per second and a large number of 555 chips on the market can’t even operate at even that frequency. To get Rosemary's circuit into it's COP>1 operation, the resistor marked "GATE" is adjusted very slowly to find the point at which the circuit becomes unstable, over-rides the normal operation of the 555 chip and starts oscillating at the resonant frequency of the overall circuit, forcing the 555 chip to become a feedback component. The circuit then produces the sharp, short voltages spikes at more than ten times the operating speed of the 555 chip and pulsing the 10-ohm heating element marked "LOAD" at about 500,000 pulses per second.

That rate of operation is clearly well outside the possible performance of an NE555 chip, besides which, the timing elements of the chip should be producing a much lower frequency, as indeed it does before the "GATE" resistor adjustment causes the circuit to break out of its normal design-mode operation and start the high-speed spike generating, resonant performance. The circuit used is shown here:
As Panacea-bocaf are working to test and develop this circuit further, it would be a good idea to download their free documentation on the design and keep an eye on their progress in this field. The two documents give very considerable detail on the work which has already been done, and of course, you can yourself experiment with this circuit and see what results and adjustments you can discover yourself.

Dr Oleg Gritskevitch’s 1.5 Megawatt Self-Powered Generator.  
Dr Oleg V. Gritskevitch of Vladivostok in Russia, the holder of some seventy patents, designed and fully tested an electrical generator along the same lines as Joseph Cater’s device mentioned above. It uses no fuel and has given a DC output of 220 volts at 6,800 amps (1.5 megawatts) for more than two years. As built by Dr Gritskevitch, this is not a home-builder’s ideal project as massive electrical input is needed to get the device started, and his prototype weighs 900 kilograms (nearly 2,000 lbs). Details are given on the very good RexResearch web site: http://www.rexresearch.com/gritskevich/gritskevich.htm but in broad outline, the device is a toroidal pipe some two metres (6'-6") in diameter, coated on the inside with barium titinate and filled with ultra-pure distilled water mixed with ‘heavy water’. Inside the toroid are electromagnetic coils and surrounding it, copper pipes carrying cooling water to keep the temperature down to 50 degrees Centigrade. Also inserted into the toroid at intervals around the circumference are electrical contacts.

The device is started by giving the water a massive high-voltage discharge of some 100,000 volts at 50 mA for three to five minutes. This power input gets the water ionised and circulating. The circulation is maintained by the electromagnetic coils and the power output is around COP=100.

Oleg died without ever getting funding for his design (a typical method of blocking free-energy devices from reaching the market). A more detailed description of the device and it's operation comes direct from Oleg:

This is a description of the construction and operation of Oleg V. Gritskevitch’s hydro-magnetic dynamo, which is an example of a very powerful new energy system. The prototype in Armenia has averaged some 1,500 kilowatts
of power over a period of several years.

Oleg was born on 14 August 1936 and grew up in Vladivostok, Russia. He married and has a son Boris. Gritskevitch was a physicist by education. He worked in the Far-East branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences. Since 1985 he worked independently as an inventor. He has more than 70 patents on inventions ranging from household engineering up to high technologies, which he has been trying to apply in our country although he encountered major difficulties in this. After numerous attempts to obtain the patents, he became convinced that the information had become widely known. Therefore he received the state certificates of know-how (a French way of patenting), for all his inventions.

Introduction

During the 1999 Symposium of the Institute for New Energy, he lectured on his hydro-magnetic dynamo. This paper is his attempt to explain the construction and operation of his dynamo. To protect his secrets from investigators, he, on occasion, provided misleading information. For example, the drawing accompanying the Russian patent mentioned below, shows a cylinder across the toroid to mislead readers. The real dynamo has the toroid alone, without the cylinder. Even its name “hydro-magnetic dynamo” is somewhat deliberately misleading.

Oleg stated that he had some familiarity with the new energy field. Nearly all purported new energy devices are fairly small electrical generators. The dynamo may be the only new electrical generator which most nearly meets all the requirements of an ideal large-scale electrical generator. Oleg claimed that his dynamo really is the single most valuable invention the world has ever known.

Alexander V. Frolov of St. Petersburg recommended Oleg to contact Dr. Patrick Bailey of the Institute for New Energy since Patrick has lots of contacts who could possibly help with patenting his invention of a new source of energy in USA.

Oleg worked on the theory and creation of the electrostatic generator-converter the “Hydro-Magnetic Dynamo” for about 20 years. The first primitive equipment was created when Oleg worked in the Academy of Sciences. During that time, various changes were introduced in the generator and in the theory of how it works. As a result, it is now ready for manufacture, installation, and applications in industry.

Oleg made the first public report on his work in 1991 at a symposium in Volgodonsk city. His report received positive reactions and reviews from the experts in the nuclear industry in USSR. That same year, he was accepted into the International Nuclear Society. During those years he offered development of this technology to different state bodies and private enterprises. But the answer from everybody was “It is a very interesting and important project, but we cannot fund it.

Eventually, Oleg tried to transfer this technology to the USA through the embassy in Moscow. The former ambassador to the USSR, Dr. J. Matlock knows about it. He wanted to meet Oleg, but at that time there were forces opposed to the carrying out of his plans. So he started to look for other possible investors. He was ready to consider any offers of co-operation, joint patenting, sale of technological information, creation of a joint venture, etc. etc. Oleg was awarded some 70 Russian patents covering a wide range of important technical topics.

History

This project was the result of one article in the August 1972 issue of a popular Russian magazine Tehnika Molodiozhi. The article written by A. Kaldamasov was entitled Ball Lightning in a Liquid. The article came to the attention of Michail Razovsky and Oleg in 1974. Oleg’s group of volunteers and enthusiasts was looking for a new source of energy and so this article served as a starting point for the understanding of chemical-physical processes occurring in water. During the period 1976 to 1978 one year was spent in the radiological lab of the Vladivostok city hospital, including Vladilen Bulgakov, radiology physician, and Michail Razovsky, theoretician in the plasma physics field and others, assembling a device, which was supposed to separate water into oxygen and hydrogen more efficiently. During the experiments, instead of the expected results, it produced electricity very efficiently! The input power during the experiment was one 800-watt water pump. The output was 1,400 watts (COP=1.75). This device was assembled using plastic pipes connected with hoses, where the water was circulating in a loop. This then led to the idea of creating the second device as a generator-toroid.

The second generator was assembled in the workshop of the Ocean Research Institute in Vladivostok (Director Academician Viktor Illichov), and in the summer of 1990 it was transported to the testing station of the Ministry of Electronics Industry in Vladivostok. This lab was well equipped with all necessary sets of instruments. At the same time, patent papers were filed in the USSR State Committee of Inventions. In the spring of 1991 the State Commission, led by Yuri Lebedev, chairman of the Innovation Council and Chairman of the Russian Federation
Council of Ministers, arrived in Vladivostok. This commission arrived to the town for two reasons: to recommend a financial request for manufacturing the dynamo; and to classify this energy source as a “Discovery”. (document #14-451).

After the next change in Russian government the financing for the project was terminated. The first article on the dynamo was published in the Russian magazine (Tehnika Molodyozhi 1990, #3, March issue, Page 17, entitled “Innovator’s Ideas”.

Several Armenian physicists, after reading that article, sent Oleg a letter asking to meet with him in Vladivostok for negotiations about the dynamo. They arrived in March 1991 and ran tests on the second generator, which was operational at that time. Oleg flew to Armenia, and work on the third generator started at the end of 1991. It was completed at the end of 1992. It was operating and producing energy until January 1997, when it was destroyed during the war. Some people were also killed and other people moved to the USA. This version of dynamo created an output which averaged 6,800 amperes at 220 volts DC (1.496 megawatts). It’s input power was only approximately 1% of the output power.

Oleg was an invited speaker of the Meeting of the Alternative Energy Institute (Dr. Hal Fox) in Salt Lake City in August 1999. The official announcement about his speech had several mistakes (for example, the name of Armenia was changed to Romania).

**Dynamo Theory**

The Hydro-Magnetic Dynamo is a large-scale, emission-free electrical generator, which does not require external fuelling. The dynamo is capable of powering large transportation vehicles such as buses, trucks, ships, locomotives, and aeroplanes. Doubt remains about making dynamos compact enough to power cars.

While three experimental prototypes have been built with Russian and Armenian expertise and equipment, a fourth demonstration prototype needs to be built with more modern Western engineering expertise and equipment to verify the dynamo’s performance claims and to further explore the dynamo’s potential capabilities.

The claimed performance is as follows:

Dynamos are scaleable from 100 kilowatts to 1,000 megawatts. One 1000-megawatt dynamo is about the size of a two-car garage. For comparison, Hoover Dam’s 17 generators have a total capacity of 2,000 megawatts. A dynamo can reliably run continuously for 25 years or more with little or no maintenance, no external fuel source, and no pollution. If a dynamo’s output is 1,000,000 watts, its total input power is approximately 10,000 watts and so the dynamo’s energy efficiency is about 10,000%.

The source of the dynamo’s huge electrical output is a nuclear reaction, which is not generally known to mainstream science. However, it is known that the dynamo produces alpha particles, which are helium nuclei, made from fused deuterium, an isotope of hydrogen with one proton and one neutron. The electrons missing from the helium nuclei are what seem to provide a copious ‘sink’ of electricity, and that is the secret of the dynamo’s ability to generate an exceptionally large amount of electricity. It is also known that the dynamo uses high-density charge clusters. High-density charge clusters are thought by some theorists, to be the basis of plasma-injected transmutation of elements and the neutralisation of radioactive materials. Unlike hot fusion and fission reactors, the dynamo does not accumulate any radioactive components.

The result of the dynamo’s processes is conversion of electrostatic fields to direct current. It should be noted that a clear understanding of terms like “Coulomb’s conversion” and “liquid Van de Graff generator” is very important.

Schematically, the dynamo is an electrostatic transformer, or in other words an electrostatic voltage multiplier. One version of the dynamo uses lasers to start up. There were three dynamo prototypes built. The first two small experimental prototypes were built in Vladivostok, Russia. The third and last prototype generated electricity continuously, (except when turned off to incorporate improvements), from 1992 to January 1997 in Armenia.

As mentioned above, the Armenian prototype generated a direct current of 6,800 amperes at 220 volts which is about 1.5 megawatts. Minimum power output has been 500,000 watts, and maximum power output has been 2,500,000 watts during winter experiments due to better cooling. The Armenian prototype dynamo’s toroid weighed 900 kilograms and had a diameter of approximately 2 meters. Cooling water is circulated through copper pipes wrapped around the toroid. The heat is expelled from the cooling water with a heat exchanger. The working temperature was typically 36 degrees Centigrade.

After a dynamo is assembled, the water is literally ‘jump-started’ (by discharging a large bank of capacitors) to get it circulating inside the toroid. The starting impulse pressure is as high as 400 atmospheres. The dynamo’s controls are temporarily set to generating a modest amount of electricity sufficient to sustain itself, possibly even...
while being transported from the factory to the place of its future operation. The control circuits are simple as only sensors and a control computer are used. We do not need any technical-maintenance personnel.

For the Armenian prototype dynamo, two 10-Farad capacitor-batteries were used to provide the initial water motion (acceleration and excitation of water). The capacitors were 20 kilograms each, with diameters of 50 centimetres, and were borrowed from Russian military radar stations. Using a total of 20,000 Joules, 100,000 Volts at 0.05 Amperes of current were applied to the Armenian dynamo for 3 to 5 minutes to ionise and polarise the water, which then started the generation of electricity.

The reason for the very high voltage provided by the large Russian radar capacitors, when starting the generator, appears to be to polarise the crystals of barium titanate. One comparison is with the electronic ignition on a gas stove. Once the barium titanate crystals are polarised, the generator is running.

After these capacitors had been used to ‘jump-start’ the Armenian prototype dynamo, a bank of buffer batteries sustained continuous operation when water motion and ionising began. This battery bank contained 8 powerful 12-volt, 150-ampere lead batteries. The Armenian dynamo’s sustaining input power was 14,400 watts. The nominal maximum output power was about 1,500,000 watts. On one occasion, the output current was accidentally increased to 40,000 amperes for almost a minute. Fortunately, the power was reduced to a safe level before the water started to boil. Internal coils (windings) provide the control of water velocity and therefore control dynamo power. The faster the water is moving, the more electricity the dynamo generates. Once the water stops circulating around the toroid, the dynamo must be ‘jump-started’ again to a minimum power level before it can sustain its electricity generation using it’s own output power.

The following is a condensed summary, with some editing and additional commentary, of the “Description” of the dynamo’s Russian patent IPC H 02 K 44/00 “Method of Deriving Electrical Energy and Realisation of Gritskevich’s MHD-Generator”:

The dynamo is a sealed polystyrene toroid filled with ultra-pure distilled water with heavy water (deuterium oxide) added. The movement of water inside the closed loop and the use of the unique properties of water as a polar liquid, cause a release of electrical energy as an outcome of a rupture of the hydrogen bonds. Additional electrical energy is drawn from nuclear reactions and micro-cavity processes. The liquid is ionised, polarised, and moving around the toroid at start-up time by a running magnetic field with the help of stimulating electromagnetic windings.

Electrostatic generator-transformer “Hydro-magnetic dynamo”. (“GT HMD”) works due to the process of amplification and maintenance of a stationary (oscillating in particular) electromagnetic field by hydrodynamic movements of the conductive medium. The stator (i.e. the toroid) is made of materials with a high dielectric permittivity. Liquid rotor is a recombined water (“pure” water with high-molecular compounds), which moves due to the high-voltage discharges and running electromagnetic field.

The main processes in GT HMD are:

- A principle of Van-der-Graff’s electrostatic generator, where the solid insulating tape was changed to the liquid one.
- A perpetual washout of the surface electrons from the spacer layer takes place;
- The Coulomb’s transformations take place;
- A single-turn low-frequency generator works as a coaxial turn with 4 resonance points and energy carrying substance inside it that has very high resonance properties;
- The electrostatic breakdowns of cavitation-vacuum structures in water take place.

The polar liquid (pure water) consists of dipoles only, i.e. strictly oriented charged molecules. During the interaction of ionized pure water with the layer BaTiO$_3$ the electrostatic field of above 10 million volts/cm is formed. During this process the breakdown of physical vacuum takes place.

The electrostatic field, coupled with the action of the BaTiO$_3$ layer (if we apply electrical filed to BaTiO$_3$, then this layer creates the sound vibrations of about 25,000 Hz, this vibration helps to break down the water molecules) and facilitates the further break down of the molecular-atomic structures of water. Also, due to the perpetual electrostatic discharges, the breakdown of the cavitation-vacuum structures occurs and the cold fusion nuclear reaction continues. With this fusion the energy of 500 kJ/mole is liberated in a vacuum and an energy of 6 kJ/mole is liberated in water. Thus, new hydrogen bonds form in vacuum with the energy liberation of about 20 kJ/ mole. Due to this process the acceleration of ionisation of polar liquid takes place. In addition, the constant ‘washing out’ of the incomplete electron bindings from the layer of barium titanate occurs and free electrons form. Due to this process, the polar liquid transforms into an ordered flow of electrons and negative ions, which can be described very simply, as an ionic-electric current.
Work on construction of the experimental generator started in September 1991 in Armenia and came to an end in March 1992. The active working weight of the prototype of dynamo (torus + water) was about 900 Kg. The diameter of the torus was about 2 meters. The torus was made from impact-resistant optic polysterol. This torus consisted of two halves, which were turned on the merry-go-round machine.

The monocrystallic barium titanate $\text{BaTiO}_3$ was sprayed on the internal surface of torus, its dielectric permittivity was 6000. The thickness of the layer was about 1 micron. The water was purified to the specific resistance of 18,000,000 Ohm/cm.

As we mentioned above, to start the dynamo two condenser jars of 10 Farad each were used. The energy of a starting battery constituted 20,000 Joules, the voltage was 100,000 Volts and the current was 0.05 Ampere to provide the initial movement of water (acceleration and disturbance).

The electrodes were made of metal tubes with diameter of about 5 mm. The dynamo is started using these electrodes. A total of 32 of these electrodes were installed evenly spaced around the circumference of the toroid. The toroid’s cooling system formed a closed circuit of copper piping with purified water circulated through it. The copper tubes used in this system were covered with glass insulation. They also were the turns of load winding. The temperature of toroid was maintained not higher than 50 Celsius degrees.

An average output power was 220 volts x 6,800 amperes = 1,490 kilowatts. The current was DC. Periodically the power could be increased to 2,500 Kw when sufficient cooling of the generator could be provided. The additional power was drawn from four resonant windings. This alternating current, after rectification, was used to charge the back-up battery. Thus, the total output power constituted more than 1,500,000 watts. The low-frequency voltage was obtained from the load windings and the direct current was obtained from the stabilisation chamber.

It should be noted that the high-voltage discharges of the 32 electrodes, ionise the partially pre-ionised water further. By means of the stimulation windings, a circulating magnetic field is created which moves the water in one direction inside the toroid. An electromotive force is created by the electromagnetic induction in a separate set of windings. As we already mentioned, during the movement of the water stream, free electrons are created, and an additional energy gets emitted because of the water’s friction against the coating layer on the inside surface of the toroid, because of electrostatic breakdowns of cavity-vacuum structures, and because of the ongoing nuclear reaction.

If the dynamo’s output is 1,000,000 watts, it’s total input power is approximately 10,000 watts. So therefore the dynamo’s energy efficiency is about 10,000%.

In addition to the barium titanate deposited on the teflon-coated inner surface of the polystyrene toroid, the water itself also contains tiny barium titanate crystals which are suspended in the water. Ultrasound at 25,000 cycles per second is propagated through the water to form micro-bubbles on the surfaces of the suspended barium titanate crystals. Again due to the barium titanate’s piezoelectric action, very high electrostatic fields are also developed within the micro-bubbles at the surface of the crystals. The electrons from the nuclear reaction are added to the electrons generated at the toroid’s interior surface. The total amount of mono-crystalline barium titanate in the Armenian dynamo was nearly 1000 grams. Satellites, locomotives, heavy trucks, airplanes, and ships are obvious transportation applications.

**Dynamo Economics**

The dynamo’s production cost is estimated at $500 per kilowatt which is very competitive when compared to nuclear power’s capital costs of $5,000 per kilowatt, windmill capital costs of $4,000 per kilowatt, etc. A well-run nuclear power plant can generate power for 1.5 cents per kilowatt-hour, coal 1.8 cents, natural gas 3.4 cents, and oil 4.1 cents, on average. The dynamo’s operating cost would be approximately 0.1 cent per kilowatt-hour with no external fuel needed and without any pollution being created.

These dynamos could replace all nuclear power plants, solar installations, wood-burning furnaces, hydro-electric generation, etc. A recent IEEE Spectrum article stated that the world’s demand for electricity increases by approximately 500 megawatts every day. To put this in perspective, that is the equivalent of building another Hoover Dam every four days to keep up with the world’s increasing electricity demand. Or, a dynamo manufacturing company would have to build another 500-megawatt dynamo every single day to keep up with world electricity increased demand (in addition to replace all existing generators fuelled by hydro, nuclear, and fossil fuels.)
The text of the patent application mentioned above is not in English although the abstract of the patent number WO 01/15305 A1 has been translated into English:

(57) Abstract: The invention is directed at increasing output, reliability and environmental safety of MHD generators as well as at simplifying the design of said generators. The inventive method for the production of energy comprises the following steps: a polar liquid (8) is circulated in a predetermined direction along a hermetically sealed toroidal channel (1) by means of a travelling magnetic field, and electric power is collected by means of electromagnetic winding. The liquid is ionized at least at the stage of launching, by means of electrodes (4), for example. The internal walls (2) of the channel have a dielectric constant which is higher than the dielectric constant of said liquid.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.co.uk
www.free-energy-info.luks.nl
www.free-energy-devices.com
Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

Chapter 6: Pulse-Charging Battery Systems

It is possible to draw substantial amounts of energy from the local environment and use that energy to charge batteries. Not only that, but when this method of charging is used, the batteries gradually get conditioned to this form of non-conventional energy and their capacity for doing work increases. In addition, about 50% of vehicle batteries abandoned as being incapable of holding their charge any longer, will respond to this type of charging and revive fully. This means that a battery bank can be created at very low cost.

However, while this economic angle is very attractive, using batteries for any significant home application is just not practical. If you set up a new bank account and deposit £1000 in it, and when you come back to check on it some days later, you discover that there is only £500 in it. You ask the bank to check this error and they inform you that there is no error, all banks only return half of what is deposited in any account. What would you think of that? But, that is exactly what a lead-acid battery does for you – it only returns half of the current which you feed into it when charging it. In other words, you waste half of the power which you feed into a car battery. NiCad and the more popular NiMh batteries return two thirds of what is fed into them. Capacitors and banks of super-capacitors are 100% efficient and lose nothing as unlike batteries, they are not a chemical process.

It is recommended that batteries are not discharged more rapidly than a twenty hour period. This means that a battery rated at a capacity of 80 Amp-hours (80 AHr) should not be required to supply a current of more than 4 amps. If you exceed that discharge rate, then the number of times that the battery can be charged and discharged is cut back severely – something which you do not realise at the time, but discover later when the battery needs to be replaced as it no longer holds a charge. This is a devastating restriction which pushes battery operation into the non-practical category, except for very minor loads like lights, TVs, DVD recorders and similar equipment with minimal power requirements.

The main costs of running a home are those of heating/cooling the premises and operating equipment like a washing machine. These items have a minimum load capacity of just over 2 kW. It makes no difference to the power requirement if you use a 12-volt, 24-volt or 48-volt battery bank. No matter which arrangement is chosen, the number of batteries needed to provide any given power requirement is the same. The higher voltage banks can have smaller diameter wiring as the current is lower, but the power requirement remains the same.

So, to provide a 2 kW load with power, requires a total current from 12-volt batteries of 2000 / 12 = 167 amps. Using 80 AHr batteries this is 42 batteries. Unfortunately, the charging circuits described below, will not normally charge a battery which is powering a load. This means that for a requirement like heating, which is a day and night requirement, there needs to be two of these battery banks, which takes us to 84 batteries. This is only for a minimal 2 kW loading, which means that if this is being used for heating, it is not possible to operate the washing machine unless the heating is turned off. So, allowing for some extra loading like this, the battery count reaches, perhaps, 126. Ignoring the cost, and assuming that you can find some way to get over the acid problem, the sheer physical volume of this number of batteries is just not realistic for domestic installation and use. In passing, you would also need two inverters with a 2500 watt capability.

The recent charging system shown by ‘UFOpolitics’ in chapter 3, provides a very good and simple charging method which uses cold electricity. This can overcome the previous constraints imposed by using batteries, probably both with regards to current draw and with regards to recharging time. The Electrodyne Corp. staff who experimented extensively with the Tesla Switch circuitry, found that when a battery was fully conditioned to use cold electricity, that a battery could be disconnected, discharged independently to it’s full capacity, and then re-charged completely in under one minute. That style of operation completely overcomes the objections to using battery banks to power household equipment of any power, but it takes a long time to achieve as conditioning is a slow process.

Battery banks are used to power standard inverters which can look like this:
The battery connects at the back, using very thick wires, and one or more mains sockets on the front provide a power supply similar to the mains, matching it in both voltage and frequency. There is one variety of inverter called a “True Sine-Wave” inverter and costing much more than the ordinary non-sinewave inverters. Most equipment works well on the ordinary variety. It is usually the power available from the battery bank which is the limiting factor, combined with the long time taken to recharge the battery bank after use.

John Bedini’s Battery-Charging System.
John Bedini has designed a whole series of pulse-generator circuits, all based on the 1:1 multi-strand choke coil component disclosed in his patent US 6,545,444.

Roger Andrews’ Switching System.
The very neat switching arrangement used by John is shown in detail in the earlier patent US 3,783,550 issued in 1974 where the same magnet-triggered boosting electromagnet pulse is used to power a whole series of movements. One of these is two magnetic spinning tops made to spin in a shallow dish:

When the tops spin fast, they rise up the sloping base of the dish and spin near the outer edge. When they slow down they move back towards the centre of the dish and that triggers the battery/transistor/electromagnet built into the base of the dish. The pulse from the electromagnet boosts the spin of the top, sending it back up the
slope. This is a very neat arrangement as the transistor is off most of the time and yet the two tops keep spinning.

Another of Roger’s systems is shown here:

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It operates in almost the same way, with a magnetic wheel rolling backwards and forwards along a curved track. At the lowest point, the electromagnet is triggered by the induced voltage in some of the turns of the coil, powering the transistor and boosting the magnetic roller on its way.

Another Andrews device is the pendulum where the passing magnet of the pendulum triggers a boosting pulse from the solenoid, keeping the pendulum swinging. John Bedini has also used this mechanism for a pulsed battery charging system and Veljko Milkovic has demonstrated that substantial mechanical power can be extracted from a lever which is powered by a pendulum.

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Andrews also shows a switching arrangement for a motor. This design is essentially the same as used by John Bedini in many of his pulsing systems:

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Here, as the rotor magnet passes the curved electromagnet in the base, it switches on the two transistors which
produce a pulse which keeps the rotor spinning and the tiny generator turning. Andrews produced this for amusement as the rotor appears to spin on its own without any drive power.

As with the Andrews system, the Bedini rotor is started spinning by hand. As a magnet passes the triple-wound "tri-filar" coil, it induces a voltage in all three coil windings. The magnet on the rotor is effectively contributing energy to the circuit as it passes the coil. One winding feeds a current to the base of the transistor via the resistor ‘R’. This switches the transistor hard on, driving a strong current pulse from the battery through the second coil winding, creating a ‘North’ pole at the top of the coil, boosting the rotor on its way. As only a changing magnetic field generate a voltage in a coil winding, the steady transistor current through coil two is unable to sustain the transistor base current through coil one and the transistor switches off again.

The cutting of the current through the coil causes the voltage across the coils to overshoot by a major amount, moving outside the battery rail by a serious voltage. The diode protects the transistor by preventing the base voltage being taken below -0.7 volts. The third coil, shown on the left, picks up all of these pulses and rectifies them via a bridge of 1000V rated diodes. The resulting pulsing DC current is passed to the capacitor, which is one from a disposable camera, as these are built for high voltages and very rapid discharges. The voltage on the capacitor builds up rapidly and after several pulses, the stored energy in it is discharged into the "Charging" battery via the mechanical switch contacts. The drive band to the wheel with the cam on it, provides a mechanical gearing down so that there are several charging pulses between successive closings of the contacts. The three coil windings are placed on the spool at the same time and comprise 450 turns of the three wires (mark the starting ends before winding the coil).

The operation of this device is a little unusual. The rotor is started off by hand and it progressively gains speed until its maximum rate is reached. The amount of energy passed to the coil windings by each magnet on the rotor stays the same, but the faster the rotor moves, the shorter the interval of time in which the energy is transferred. The energy input per second, received from the permanent magnets, increases with the increased speed.

If the rotation is fast enough, the operation changes. Up to now, the current taken from the ‘Driving’ battery has been increasing with the increasing speed, but now the driving current starts to drop although the speed continues to increase. The reason for this is that the increased speed has caused the permanent magnet to move past the coil before the coil is pulsed. This means that the coil pulse no longer has just to push against the ‘North’ pole of the magnet, but in addition it attracts the ‘South’ pole of the next magnet on the rotor, which keeps the rotor going and increases the magnetic effect of the coil pulse. John states that the mechanical efficiency of these devices is always below 100% efficient, but having said that, it is possible to get results of COP = 11. Many people who build these devices never manage to get COP>1.

It is important that a standard mains powered battery charger is never used to charge these batteries. It is clear that the ‘cold electricity’ produced by a properly tuned Bedini device is substantially different to normal electricity although they can both perform the same tasks when powering electrical equipment. When starting to charge a lead-acid battery with radiant energy for the first time, it is recommended that the battery is first discharged to at least 1.7 volts per cell, which is about 10 volts for a 12 volts battery.

It is important to use the transistors specified in any of John’s diagrams, rather than transistors which are listed as equivalents. Many of the designs utilise the badly named “negative resistance” characteristics of transistors. These semiconductors do not exhibit any form of negative resistance, but instead, show reduced positive resistance with increasing current, over part of their operating range.

It has been said that the use of “Litz” wire can increase the output of this device by anything up to 300%. Litz wire is the technique of taking three or more strands of wire and twisting them together. This is done with the wires stretched out side by side, by taking a length of say, three feet, and rotating the mid point of the bundle of wires for several turns in one direction. This produces clockwise twists for half the length and counter-clockwise twists for the remainder of the length. Done over a long length of wire, the wires are twisted repeatedly clockwise - counter clockwise - clockwise - counter clockwise - ... along their whole length. The ends of the wires are then cleared of their insulation and soldered together to make a three-strand cable, and the cable is then used to wind the coils. This style of winding modifies the magnetic and electrical properties of the windings. It has been said that taking three long strands of wire and just twisting them together in one direction to make a long twisted three-strand cable is nearly as effective as using Litz wire. The websites www.mwswire.com/litzmain.htm and www.litz-wire.com are suppliers of ready made Litz wire.

A website which shows pictures of John’s devices is: www.rexresearch.com/bedini/images.htm

CAUTION: Care must be taken when working with batteries, especially lead-acid batteries. A charged battery contains a large amount of energy and short-circuiting the terminals will cause a very large current flow which may start a fire. When being charged, some batteries give off hydrogen gas which when mixed with air is highly dangerous and which could explode if ignited by a spark. Batteries can explode and/or catch fire if grossly
overcharged or charged with an excessively large current, so there could be danger from flying pieces of the casing and possibly acid being thrown around. Even an apparently clean lead-acid battery can have caustic traces on the case, so you should be sure to wash your hands thoroughly after handling a battery. Batteries with lead terminals tend to shed small fragments of lead when clips are put on them. Lead is toxic, so please be sure to wash your hands after handling any part of a lead-acid battery. Remember too that some batteries can develop slight leaks so please protect against any leakage. If you decide to perform any experiments using batteries, that you do so entirely at your own risk and on your own responsibility. This set of documents is presented for information purposes only and you are not encouraged to do anything other than read the information.

Also, if you get one of John’s pulse motors tuned correctly, it will accelerate to perhaps 10,000 rpm. This is great for picking up energy but if ceramic magnets are used, the speed can cause them to disintegrate and fly in all directions. People have had magnet fragments embedded in their ceiling. It would be wise to build a housing enclosing the rotor and magnets so that if the magnets disintegrate, all of the fragments are contained safely.

Ronald Knight’s Professional Advice on Battery Safety.

Ronald Knight has many years of professional experience in handling batteries and in pulse-charging them. He comments on battery safety as follows:

I have not heard of anyone having a catastrophic failure of a battery case in all the energy groups to which I belong and most of them use batteries in the various systems which I study. However, that does not mean that it cannot happen. The most common reason for catastrophic failure in the case of a lead-acid battery, is arcing causing failure in the grids which are assembled together inside the battery to make up the cells of the battery. Any internal arcing will cause a rapid build up of pressure from expanding Hydrogen gas, resulting in a catastrophic failure of the battery case.

I am a former maintenance engineer for U.S. Batteries, so I can say with confidence, that when you receive a new battery from at least that manufacturer, you receive a battery which has undergone the best test available to insure the manufacturer that he is not selling junk which will be sent back to him. It is a relatively easy test, and as it takes place during the initial charge, there is no wasted time nor is there one battery that escapes the pass-or-fail test. The battery is charged with the absolute maximum current which it can take. If the battery does not blow up due to internal arcing during the initial charge it is highly likely that it will not blow up under the regular use for which it was designed. However, all bets are off with used batteries that have gone beyond their expected life.

I have witnessed several catastrophic failures of battery cases daily at work. I have been standing right next to batteries (within 12 inches) when they explode (it is like a .45 ACP pistol round going off) and have only been startled and had to change my under shorts and Tyvek jump-suit, and wash off my rubber boots. I have been in the charge room with several hundred batteries at a time positioned very closely together and have seen batteries explode almost every working day and I have never seen two side by side blow, nor have I ever seen one fire or any flash damage to the case or surrounding area as a result. I have never even seen a flash but what I have seen tells me it is wise to always wear eye protection when charging.

I have my new gel cells in a heavy plastic zip-lock bags partly unzipped when in the house and in a marine battery box outside in the garage, that is just in the remote chance of catastrophic failure or the more likely event of acid on the outside of the battery case.

Vented batteries are always a risk of spillage which is their most common hazard, they should always be in a plastic lined cardboard or plastic box with sides taller than the battery and no holes in it. You would be surprised at how far away I have found acid around a vented lead acid battery under charge.

Have an emergency plan, keep a box of baking soda and a water source around to neutralise and flush the acid in case of spillage. It is best to have plastic under and around wherever your lead-acid batteries are located.

Ronald Knight gets about fifteen times more power from his Bedini-charged batteries than is drawn from the driving side of the circuit. He stresses that this does not happen immediately, as the batteries being charged have to be “conditioned” by repeated cycles of charging and discharging. When this is done, the capacity of the batteries being charged increases. Interestingly, the rate of current draw on the driving side of the circuit is not increased if the battery bank being charged is increased in capacity. This is because the power which charges the batteries flows from the environment and not from the driving battery. The driving battery just produces the high-voltage spikes which trigger the energy flow from the environment, and as a consequence of that the battery bank being charged can be a higher voltage than the 12-volt driving battery, and there can be any number of batteries in the charging bank.
Ron Pugh’s Battery Charger.
John Bedini’s designs have been experimented with and developed by a number of enthusiasts. This in no way detracts from fact that the whole system and concepts come from John and I should like to express my sincere thanks to John for his most generous sharing of his systems. Thanks is also due to Ron Pugh who has kindly agreed for the details of one of his Bedini generators to be presented here. Let me stress again, that if you decide to build and use one of these devices, you do so entirely at your own risk and no responsibility for your actions rests with John Bedini, Ron Pugh or anyone else. Let me stress again that this document is provided for information purposes only and is not a recommendation or encouragement for you to build a similar device.

Ron’s device is much more powerful than the average system, having fifteen coil windings and it performs most impressively. Here is a picture of it rotating at high speed:

This is not a toy. It draws significant current and produces substantial charging rates. This is how Ron chose to build his device. The rotor is constructed from aluminium discs which were to hand but he would have chosen aluminium for the rotor if starting from scratch as his experience indicates that it is a very suitable material for the rotor. The rotor has six magnets inserted in it. These are evenly spaced 60 degrees apart with the North poles all facing outwards.

The magnets are normal ceramic types about 22 mm wide, 47 mm long and 10 mm high. Ron uses two of these in each of his six rotor slots. He bought several spare ones and then graded all of them in order of their magnetic strength, which varies a bit from magnet to magnet. Ron did this grading using a gauss meter. An alternative method would have been to use a paper clip about 30 mm in size and measure the distance at which one end of the clip just starts to rise up off the table as the magnet is moved towards it.
Having graded the magnets in order of strength, Ron then took the best twelve and paired them off, placing the weakest and strongest together, the second weakest and the second strongest, and so on. This produced six pairs which have fairly closely matching magnetic strengths. The pairs of magnets were then glued in place in the rotor using super glue:

It is not desirable to recess the magnets though it is possible to place a restraining layer around the circumference of the rotor as the clearance between the magnet faces and the coils is about a quarter of an inch (6 mm) when adjusted for optimum performance. The North poles of the magnets face outwards as shown in the diagram above. If desired, the attachment of the magnets can be strengthened by the addition of blank side plates to the rotor which allows the magnet gluing to be implemented on five of the six faces of the magnet pairs:
The magnets embedded in the outer edge of the rotor are acted on by wound "coils" which act as 1:1 transformers, electromagnets, and pickup coils. There are three of these "coils", each being about 3 inches long and wound with five strands of #19 AWG (20 SWG) wire. The coil formers were made from plastic pipe of 7/8 inch (22 mm) outer diameter which Ron drilled out to an inner diameter of 3/4 inch (19 mm) which gives a wall thickness of 1/16 inch (1.5 mm). The end pieces for the coil formers were made from 1/8 inch (3 mm) PVC which was fixed to the plastic tube using plumbers PVC glue. The coil winding was with the five wires twisted around each other. This was done by clamping the ends of the five wires together at each end to form one 120 foot long bundle.

The bundle of wires was then stretched out and kept clear of the ground by passing it through openings in a set of patio chairs. A battery-powered drill was attached to one end and operated until the wires were loosely twisted together. This tends to twist the ends of the wires together to a greater extent near the end of the bundle rather than the middle. So the procedure was repeated, twisting the other end of the bundle. It is worth remarking in passing, that the drill turns in the same direction at each end in order to keep the twists all in the same direction. The twisted bundle of wires is collected on a large-diameter reel and then used to wind one of the "coils".

The coils are wound with the end plates attached and drilled ready to screw to their 1/4 inch (6 mm) PVC bases, which are bolted to the 3/4 inch (18 mm) MDF supporting structure. To help the winding to remain completely even, a piece of paper is placed over each layer of the winding:
The three coils produced in this way were then attached to the main surface of the device. There could just as easily have been six coils. The positioning is made so as to create an adjustable gap of about 1/4 inch (6 mm) between the coils and the rotor magnets in order to find the optimum position for magnetic interaction. The magnetic effects are magnified by the core material of the coils. This is made from lengths of oxyacetylene welding wire which is copper coated. The wire is cut to size and coated with clear shellac to prevent energy loss through eddy currents circulating inside the core.

The coils are positioned at equal intervals around the rotor and so are 120 degrees apart. The end pieces of the coil formers are bolted to a 1/4 inch (6 mm) PVC base plate which has slotted mounting holes which allow the magnetic gap to be adjusted as shown here:
The three coils have a total of fifteen identical windings. One winding is used to sense when a rotor magnet reaches the coils during its rotation. This will, of course happen six times for each revolution of the rotor as there are six magnets in the rotor. When the trigger winding is activated by the magnet, the electronics powers up all of the remaining fourteen coils with a very sharp, pulse which has a very short rise time and a very short fall time. The sharpness and brevity of this pulse is a critical factor in drawing excess energy in from the environment and will be explained in greater detail later on. The electronic circuitry is mounted on three aluminium heat sinks, each about 100 mm square. Two of these have five BD243C NPN transistors bolted to them and the third one has four BD243C transistors mounted on it.

The metal mounting plate of the BD243 transistors acts as its heat sink, which is why they are all bolted to the large aluminium plate. BD243C transistors look like this:

The circuit has been built on the aluminium panels so that the transistors can be bolted directly on to it, and provided with insulating strips mounted on top of it to avoid short circuits to the other components. Standard strip connector blocks have been used to inter-connect the boards which look like this:
The circuit used with this device is simple but as there are so many components involved, the diagram is split into parts to fit on the page. These diagrams are usually drawn with a common charging wire going to the top of the battery which is being charged. However, it needs to be understood that drawing it that way is just for convenience and better performance is achieved if each charging circuit has its own separate wire going to the charging battery as shown in Section 1 here:
While this looks like a fairly large and complicated circuit, it actually is not. You will notice that there are fourteen identical circuit sections. Each of these is quite simple:

This is a very simple transistor circuit. When the trigger line goes positive (driven by the magnet passing the coil) the transistor is switched on hard, powering the coil which is then effectively connected across the driving battery. The trigger pulse is quite short, so the transistor switches off almost immediately. This is the point at which the circuit operation gets subtle. The coil characteristics are such that this sharp powering pulse and sudden cut-off cause the voltage across the coil to rise very rapidly, dragging the voltage on the collector of the transistor up to several hundred volts. Fortunately, this effect is energy drawn from the environment which is quite unlike conventional electricity, and thankfully, a good deal less damaging to the transistor. This rise in voltage, effectively “turns over” the set of three 1N4007 diodes which then conducts strongly, feeding this excess free-energy into the charging battery. Ron uses three diodes in parallel as they have a better current-carrying capacity and thermal characteristics than a single diode. This is a common practice and any number of diodes can be placed in parallel, with sometimes as many as ten being used.

The only other part of the circuit is the section which generates the trigger signal:
When a magnet passes the coil containing the trigger winding, it generates a voltage in the winding. The intensity of the trigger signal is controlled by passing it through an ordinary vehicle 6 watt, 12 volt bulb and then further limiting the current by making it pass through a resistor. To allow some manual control of the level of the trigger signal, the resistor is divided into a fixed resistor and a variable resistor (which many people like to call a “pot”). This variable resistor and the adjustment of the gap between the coils and the rotor are the only adjustments of the device. The bulb has more than one function. When the tuning is correct, the bulb will glow dimly which is a very useful indication of the operation. The trigger circuit then feeds each of the transistor bases via their 470 ohm resistors.

John Bedini aims for an even more powerful implementation, wiring his circuit with AWG #18 (19 SWG) heavy-duty copper wire and using MJL21194 transistors and 1N5408 diodes. He increases the trigger drive by dropping the variable resistor and reducing fixed resistor to just 22 ohms. The MJL21194 transistor has the same pin connections as the BD243C transistor. This is the starting section of John’s circuit:

There are various ways of constructing this circuit. Ron shows two different methods. The first is shown above and uses paxolin strips (printed-circuit board material) above the aluminium heat sink to mount the components. Another method which is easy to see, uses thick copper wires held clear of the aluminium, to provide a clean and secure mounting for the components as shown here:
It is important to realise that the collector of a BD243C transistor is internally connected to the heat-sink plate used for the physical mounting of the transistor. As the circuit does not have the collectors of these transistors connected together electrically, they cannot just be bolted to a single heat-sink plate. The above picture might give the wrong impression as it does not show clearly that the metal bolts fastening the transistors in place do not go directly into the aluminium plate, but instead, they fasten into plastic tee-nuts.

An alternative, frequently used by the builders of high-powered electronic circuits, is to use mica washers between the transistor and the common heat sink plate, and use plastic fastening bolts or metal bolts with a plastic insulating collar between the fastening and the plate. Mica has the very useful property of conducting heat very well but not conducting electricity. Mica “washers” shaped to the transistor package are available from the suppliers of the transistors. In this instance, it seems clear that heat dissipation is not a problem in this circuit, which in a way is to be expected as the energy being drawn from the environment is frequently called “cold” electricity as it cools components down with increasing current as opposed to heating them up as conventional electricity does.

This particular circuit board is mounted at the rear of the unit:
Although the circuit diagram shows a twelve volt drive supply, which is a very common supply voltage, Ron sometimes powers his device with a mains operated Power Supply Unit which shows a power input of a pretty trivial 43 watts. It should be noted that this device operates by pulling in extra power from the environment. That drawing in of power gets disrupted if any attempt is made to loop that environmental power back on itself or driving the unit directly from another battery charged by the unit itself. It may be just possible to power the unit successfully from a previously charged battery if an inverted is used to convert the power to AC and then a step-down transformer and regulated power rectification circuit is used. As the power input is so very low, off-grid operation should be easily possible with a battery and a solar panel.

It is not possible to operate a load off the battery under charge during the charging process as this disrupts the energy flow. Some of these circuits recommend that a separate 4 foot long earthing rod be used to earth the negative side of the driving battery, but to date, Ron has not experimented with this. In passing, it is good practice to enclose any lead-acid battery in a battery box. Marine chandlers can supply these as they are used extensively in boating activities.

When cutting the wire lengths for coating and pushing into the coil formers, Ron uses a jig to ensure that all of the lengths are identical. This arrangement is shown here:
The distance between the shears and the metal angle clamped to the workbench makes each cut length of wire exactly the required size while the plastic container collects the cut pieces ready for coating with clear shellac or clear polyurethane varnish before use in the coil cores.

Experience is particularly important when operating a device of this kind. The 100 ohm variable resistor should be a wire-wound type as it has to carry significant current. Initially the variable resistor is set to its minimum value and the power applied. This causes the rotor to start moving. As the rate of spin increases, the variable resistor is gradually increased and a maximum speed will be found with the variable resistor around the middle of its range, i.e. about 50 ohm resistance. Increasing the resistance further causes the speed to reduce.

The next step is to turn the variable resistor to its minimum resistance position again. This causes the rotor to leave its previous maximum speed (about 1,700 rpm) and increase the speed again. As the speed starts increasing again, the variable resistor is once again gradually turned, increasing its resistance. This raises the rotor speed to about 3,800 rpm when the variable resistor reaches mid point again. This is probably fast enough for all practical purposes, and at this speed, even the slightest imbalance of the rotor shows up quite markedly. To go any faster than this requires an exceptionally high standard of constructional accuracy. Please remember that the rotor has a large amount of energy stored in it at this speed and so is potentially very dangerous. If the rotor breaks or a magnet comes off it, that stored energy will produce a highly dangerous projectile. That is why it is advisable, although not shown in the above photographs, to construct an enclosure for the rotor. That could be a U-shaped channel between the coils. The channel would then catch and restrain any fragments should anything break loose.

If you were to measure the current during this adjustment process, it would be seen to reduce as the rotor speeds up. This looks as if the efficiency of the device is rising. That may be so, but it is not necessarily a good thing in this case where the objective is to produce radiant energy charging of the battery bank. John Bedini has shown that serious charging takes place when the current draw of the device is 3 to 5+ amps at maximum rotor speed and not a miserly 50 mA draw, which can be achieved but which will not produce good charging. The power can
be increased by raising the input voltage to 24 volts or even higher - John Bedini operates at 48 volts rather than 12 volts.

The device can be further tuned by stopping it and adjusting the gap between the coils and the rotor and then repeating the start-up procedure. The optimum adjustment is where the final rotor speed is the highest.

The above text is intended to give a practical introduction to one of John Bedini's inventions. It seems appropriate that some attempt at an explanation of what is happening, should be advanced at this point. In the most informative book "Energy From The Vacuum - Concepts and Principles" by Tom Bearden an explanation of this type of system is put forward. While the description appears to be aimed mainly at John's motor system which ran continuously for three years, powering a load and recharging its own battery, the description would appear to apply to this system as well. I will attempt to summarise it here:

Conventional electrical theory does not go far enough when dealing with lead/acid batteries in electronic circuits. Lead/acid batteries are extremely non-linear devices and there is a wide range of manufacturing methods which make it difficult to present a comprehensive statement covering every type in detail. However, contrary to popular belief, there are actually at least three separate currents flowing in a battery-operated circuit:

1. Ion current flowing in the electrolyte between the plates inside the battery. This current does not leave the battery and enter the external electronic circuit.
2. Electron current flowing from the plates out into the external circuit.
3. Current flow from the environment which passes along the external circuitry and into the battery.

The exact chemical processes inside the battery are quite complex and involve additional currents which are not relevant here. The current flow from the environment follows the electron flow around the external circuit and on into the battery. This is "cold" electricity which is quite different to conventional electricity and it can be very much larger than the standard electrical current described in conventional textbooks. A battery has unlimited capacity for this kind of energy and when it has a substantial "cold" electricity charge, it can soak up the conventional energy from a standard battery charger for a week or more, without raising the battery voltage at all.

An important point to understand is that the ions in the lead plates of the battery have much greater inertia than electrons do (several hundred thousand times in fact). Consequently, if an electron and an ion are both suddenly given an identical push, the electron will achieve rapid movement much more quickly than the ion will. It is assumed that the external electron current is in phase with the ion current in the plates of the battery, but this need not be so. John Bedini deliberately exploits the difference of momentum by applying a very sharply rising potential to the plates of the battery.

In the first instant, this causes electrons to pile up on the plates while they are waiting for the much heavier ions to get moving. This pile up of electrons pushes the voltage on the terminal of the battery to rise to as much as 100 volts. This in turn, causes the energy to flow back out into the circuit as well as into the battery, giving simultaneously, both circuit power and serious levels of battery charging. This over potential also causes much increased power flow from the environment into the circuit, giving augmented power both for driving the external circuit and for increasing the rate of battery charge. The battery half of the circuit is now 180 degrees out of phase with the circuit-powering half of the circuit.

It is important to understand that the circuit-driving energy and the battery-charging energy do not come from the sharp pulses applied to the battery. Instead, the additional energy flows in from the environment, triggered by the pulses generated by the Bedini circuit. In other words, the Bedini pulses act as a tap on the external energy source and are not themselves the source of the extra power.

If the Bedini circuit is adjusted correctly, the pulse is cut off very sharply just before the tapped energy inflow is about to end. This has a further enhancing effect due to the Lenz law reaction which causes an induced voltage surge which can take the over-voltage potential to as much as 400 volts. This has a further effect on the local environment, drawing in an even higher level of additional power and extending the period of time during which that extra power flows into both the circuit and the battery. This is why the exact adjustment of a Bedini pulsing system is so important.

**Ossie Callanan’s Free-Energy System**

In 2007, Ossie Callanan published a document showing how and why he was getting COP>1 battery charging. Ron Pugh’s system kindly shared in detail above, with careful tuning and running on 24 volt input and 24 volt
output operates at COP>10 which is likely to be due to Ron’s skill in building and adjusting, both of which are very good indeed, coupled with the use of many transistors working in parallel and tripled charging diodes to improve their performance. The John Bedini SSG pulse-charging system is very easy to construct and works very well, even with many sulphated batteries which have been discarded as useless. However, most people will not get COP>1 performance from their own SSG build. Ossie explains why this is in the following section which is his Copyright. He says:

I believe I may have this radiant energy system worked out to the point where anyone can build it and when you build all of it, it can provide you with free and continuous energy. There are two sides to the circuit and just having either side is no good, you must have both. One side is the pulse-charger side, and the other is the battery and accumulator-converter side. At present, I am charging batteries at a performance level between COP=2 and COP=10 and battery swapping is not a problem.

First we need to focus on the charger side of the system. Basically, you must build a charger which produces large amounts of radiant energy in the form of radiant pulses. Radiant energy pulses are Back-EMF pulses provided that they have very fast rising edges and falling edges and occur at high frequencies. They are not transistor transients or switching transients! A spark-gap produces classical radiant energy pulses. They are chaotic events but they are radiant energy events nevertheless. Switching a coil on very rapidly using a transistor will produce one radiant energy pulse from the coil’s Back-EMF, but one pulse on its own is no good. You need thousands or better still, millions of those pulses for them to be of any practical use.

John Bedini’s Simplified School Girl motor (the “SSG”) only produces a very small amount of radiant energy when you have the base of the transistor tuned so that you get the longest self oscillating pulse train per magnet pass. It is not very efficient as the base-clamping diode wastes this energy, passing it back through the base resistor-bulb circuit but that circuit is necessary so that you can synchronise the operation and provide a driving force to the passing magnet. Without the base-clamping diode, you get an oscillator and the motor won’t turn - catch 22. But still, even when tuned with the base-clamping diode in place, the self-oscillating pulse train is usually at most 3 to 6 pulses which is not very much and so, not much radiant energy is produced. For all those people trying to tune the motor for only one pulse per magnet pass, they are wasting their time and only building a pulse motor and not an efficient radiant energy generator.

The SSG is not a very powerful or good radiant energy generator and apart from being educational, it is really a waste of time unless someone can explain to you how to tune it to get the greatest possible amount of radiant energy from it with a long pulse train, and then tell you what to do with that radiant energy. John Bedini’s method of using a bulb in the base-feed circuit is to keep the motor tuned to a particular number of pulses in the pulse train per magnet pass or for the longest pulse train as the motor increases speed, also, the battery’s impedance changes the speed as well. The two-strand coil where one coil is used just as the transistor trigger, along with the wasted energy in the base circuit, add to the overall inefficiency and make construction more difficult.

In saying that about the SSG I would like to show you now a very simple and basic pulse oscillator or motor driver circuit that you can build with off the shelf parts, one which will produce very large amounts of radiant energy when adjusted correctly. Here is that circuit:

![Basic Radiant Pulse Oscillator / Motor-Driver Circuit](image)

Do not be fooled by appearances - this is as close to a controlled spark gap circuit as you are going to get and it is extremely efficient in the production of radiant energy! But most importantly, you must place and adjust the reed switch appropriately and properly!!! Take a look at this picture:
As you can see, the trick is to place the reed switch so that it runs along the length of the solenoid coil and so is located in the coil's magnetic field. This couples the coil's magnetic field to the reed switch as well as the magnetic field of the passing rotor magnet. This provides a magnetic feedback and turns the reed switch into an oscillator. So when the magnet passes the reed oscillates with the coil's field and causes very many pulses, typically 20 to 50 pulses per magnet pass. Amazingly, unlike the clamping diodes in the SSG, this is not wasteful. This reed switch oscillation actually reduces the input current. Instead of the reed remaining closed for the whole of the pulse duration, it switches on and off and so, less input power is drawn from the driving battery. I run the motor so that when the coil is energised, the magnet is attracted to the coil. Here is a trace across the charging battery:

The trace above is from a motor that is only drawing 50 milliamps but is charging the battery many times faster than if it were drawing 300 milliamps with a single pulse per magnet pass! But there is more. Take a look at the following picture:
Using a very small and weak magnet, you can now control and adjust the reed switch. This allows you to adjust the switching so that the circuit oscillates continuously but still powers the passing rotor magnet. Below, is the trace across the charging battery and the battery is charging very rapidly although you are still paying for this as the input current will increase but nevertheless, you are really producing a vast amount of radiant energy for what is effectively, very little input current! Also, when you do this, the coils HISS very loudly! Yes, the coils HISS, not with a tone or frequency but with a hissing NOISE.

My prototype motor uses four of these circuit's, positioned 90 degrees apart around the rotor, and all connected in parallel. You can use just one reed switch to switch all four transistors and coils but it is more load and the reed switch does not hold up for very long. In fact, either way, if you use small reed switches, they will get worn and start to stick. I have bought larger reed switches but I am also working on an electronic switching version of this, although that is easier said than done. I have worked on this for a few months now so I have tried very many things and have not managed to match it with electronic switching yet. Limiting the current passing through the reed switch does not necessary increase the length of its operational life, besides which, doing that produces less radiant energy.

Now having shown you all this, we are only half way to a complete radiant energy system which will provide continuous free energy. The above circuit and motor, even though they do provide large amounts of radiant energy, will still only give you a COP equal to, or close to 1 when regularly swapping over between the source
battery and the charging battery. For battery swapping to work, you MUST have the second and equally important side to the system. The second side of the system is the radiant energy accumulator-converter.

Before I describe the radiant-energy accumulator-converter, I want to highlight how important it is to build and experiment with the circuit described above. Only after adjusting and watching the input current and how the charging battery charges can you truly see how these radiant energy pulses are affecting the charging battery. In terms of why it works or how it provides so much radiant energy you have to understand that if the reed switch stays closed, which will happen when they get worn and start to stick, with the 9 millihenry crossover choke solenoid coil (bought off the shelf) which I use, the transistor is turned fully on and at virtually it's lowest resistance and so the current draw is about 6 to 8 AMPS for a single coil circuit!!! It seems this is a key requirement for generating these radiant energy pulses with a transistor. You have to switch the transistor fully on at maximum current for the coil and input voltage. This is another thing the SSG does not do well. But yet, in this circuit, when the reed switch is adjusted correctly, you can get the input down to just a few milliamps if you want!

OK, now to the radiant accumulator-converter. The requirement for this appears to be because the charging battery is not very efficient at absorbing all of the radiant energy pulses. John Bedini had related this as being due to impedance matching but I am not sure of this at this stage, but impedance may be a factor. Because the charging battery does not absorb much of the radiant energy by itself, you MUST have an accumulator-converter to absorb and convert the radiant energy for the charging battery to use. Ok, that said, what is a radiant energy accumulator-converter?

A Radiant Energy Accumulator-Converter ("REAC") is nothing more than a dipole! But the larger the dipole the better! The dipole can be a battery but that is silly when we are already charging a battery. Well in that case, it is a special battery. It is a battery that is mostly composed of potential but little current. The higher the potential the better the accumulation/conversion but some current is still required to be able to pass the energy back and charge the charging battery.

There are a number of traditional dipole's that fit what is needed. There is a simple long and raised wire antenna and ground, but this will not provide enough back current to charge our battery. There is an earth-battery setup, but unless you want to put in the effort and amount of materials to raise the voltage and still have some required current this needs a lot of work and materials. Finally, I found the best compromise to be "old, dead, sulphated lead acid batteries". At this stage of my research the condition of the battery does not really matter as long as it is "dead" and sulphated. As long as they are old and dead so that they can barely light up a 12V 100ma bulb, then they will do just fine. Gee I am glad I never threw away my old dead batteries that kept piling up.

If you go down to a battery recycler or junk yard, you can buy pallet loads of old and dead Uninterruptible Power Supply ("UPS") batteries for very little cost. When I say pallet load, I mean pallet load. The bigger the bank of these you get the better. Connect them both in series and parallel so that if they where good, you would get anywhere from 48-120 volts. When connecting in parallel make sure that each 12 volt segment has an approximately even capacity in Amp-Hours. You can put this bank under your house or table or even bury them in the ground. It is no problem as you will never have to do anything to them again (as long as they are sealed). They will NOT keep running down. They are already run down. All you need them for is to use their potential as a dipole and their hidden capacity. The very small amount of current they will provide for the size of the bank due to the crystalline resistance of the sulphation is all that is needed to provide the free energy that the will convert the radiant energy pulses and feed it back into your good battery which is being charged. I believe that these sulphate crystals may indeed be the main component that is doing the radiant energy conversion for us. Now for how to connect up your 'REAC'. See the following diagram:
Using my good 33 Amp-Hour UPS batteries, I can charge them up from 10 volts to 14 volts in about 6 hours with the radiant energy reed motor running 4 coils drawing only 600 mA. I can then swap the source battery with the
charging battery and keep doing this until I have both batteries charged in about 24 hours. I have done this very many times and the charging rate appears to be improving over time.

But one thing I want to make clear. If you think that I am somehow just using the stored energy in the REAC bank, if I do not use my reed motor, then the charging battery will not charge. If I try replacing the reed motor with a regular battery charger, the battery will take as long to charge as a normal battery charger would to charge it. When using the reed motor, the REAC is converting most of the radiant energy and providing the energy back to the charging battery. There you have it, a fully working radiant free energy system. Enjoy! -- Ossie Callanan

The Self-Charging Battery Charger.
One major disadvantage of some of these battery pulse-chargers is the fact that it is thought that it is not possible to self-power the device nor to boost the running battery during the battery charging process. There is one variation of the pulse-charger which does actually boost the driving motor as it runs, and one particular implementation of this is shown here:
The rotor weighs about five pounds (2 Kg) and is very heavy for its size, because it is constructed from flooring laminate, and has a thickness of 1.875 inches (48 mm) to match the width of the magnets. There are ten magnets size 1.875" x 0.875" x 0.25" (48 mm x 22 mm x 6 mm) which are assembled in pairs, to produce the most evenly matched magnetic sets possible. That is, the strongest is put together with the weakest, the second most strong with the second weakest, and so on to produce the five sets, each half an inch (12 mm) thick. These pairs are embedded in the rotor at equal 72° centres around the edge of the rotor.

The battery pulsing produced by this circuit is the same as shown in John Bedini’s patent already mentioned. As the rotor turns, the trigger winding energises the 2N3055 transistor which then drives a strong pulse through the winding shown in red in the diagram above. The voltage spike which occurs when the drive current is suddenly cut off, is fed to the battery being charged. This happens five times during a single revolution of the rotor.

The clever variation introduced here, is to position a pick-up coil opposite the driving/charging coil. As there are five magnets, the drive/charging coil is not in use when a magnet is passing the pick-up coil. The driving circuit is not actually active at this instant, so the micro switch is used to disconnect the circuit completely from the driving battery and connect the pick-up coil to the driving battery. This feeds a charging pulse to the driving battery via the bridge of 1N4007 high-voltage diodes. This is only done once per revolution, and the physical position of the micro switch is adjusted to get the timing exactly right.

This arrangement produces a circuit which in addition to pulsing the battery bank under charge, but also returns current to the driving battery.

Another variation on this theme is shown on YouTube where an experimenter who calls himself “Daftman” has this video explaining the circuit he uses in his Bedini-style battery-charging motor: [http://uk.youtube.com/watch?v=JJillOTsmrM&feature=channel](http://uk.youtube.com/watch?v=JJillOTsmrM&feature=channel) and his video of his motor running can be seen at: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S96MjW-isXM](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S96MjW-isXM) and his motor has been running for months in a self-powered mode.

The Relay Coil Battery Charger.

One experimenter on the Energetic Forum has posted a video of his adaptation of the Bedini circuit at [http://uk.youtube.com/watch?v=4P1zr58MVfI](http://uk.youtube.com/watch?v=4P1zr58MVfI). He has found that adding a 6-volt relay coil into the feed to the base of the transistor has halved the power used and yet keeps the rotor at about the same rate of rotation. The circuit is shown here:
The build used has three electromagnet coils placed around a horizontal rotor:

The Modified Fan Battery Charger.
Other more simple methods of getting this radiant energy charging of batteries are also available. One simple method is to skip most of the mechanical construction and use a slightly adapted synchronous fan. This method is shown by “Imhotep” in his instructional video which is located at http://uk.youtube.com/watch?v=eDS9qk-Nw4M&feature=related. The original idea comes from John Bedini and the fan idea from Dr Peter Lindemann.

The most common choice for the fan is a computer cooling fan - the larger the better. These fans usually have four windings connected like this:

To use these windings as both drive and pick-up coils, the fan is opened up by lifting the label covering the hub of the fan, removing the plastic clip holding the fan blades on the spindle and opening the casing to expose the coils. The wire post with two wires going to it then has one wire removed and a fourth post improvised by drilling a small hole and inserting a short length of wire from a resistor. The fourth wire end is then soldered to it to give this arrangement:
This produces two separate coil chains: 1 to 2 and 4 to 3. One can then be used as the drive coil and the other as the power pick-up coil which passes the very short high voltage pulses to the battery which is being charged.

When opened up, the fan looks like this:

And the circuit arrangement is:

The fan is started by hand and then continues to spin, working as a fan as well as charging a battery. The current draw from the driving battery is very low and yet the radiant energy charging of the other battery (or battery bank) is not low. Please remember that batteries which are to be used with this radiant energy, need to be charged and discharged many times before they become adapted to working with this new energy. When that has been accomplished, the battery capacity is much greater than specified on the label of the battery and the recharging time also becomes much shorter. The circuit is adjusted with the variable resistor, which changes the transistor drive current, which in turn, alters the speed of the fan. It should be stressed that this device and the relay charger shown below, are simple demonstration devices with small coils and to get serious charging, you need to use a large-coil battery pulsing systems with a bank of lead-acid batteries being charged.

This circuit is a clever implementation of John Bedini’s Simple Schoolgirl (“SSG”) design. As it can be a little confusing to know which of the four wires coming out of the modified fan to use, let me explain how they operate. You now have two pairs of series-connected coils inside the fan. An ohm-meter (or battery and bulb) will let you see which of the four wires are the two ends of each of those coils. The coils are symmetrical and so it does not matter which coil feeds the base of the transistor and which coil is driven by the collector of the transistor. It does
not matter either, which way round the coil feeding the base of the transistor is connected but it does matter very much, which way round the drive coil is connected. Connecting it the wrong way round will not cause any harm but the fan will not operate because instead of the coil repelling the rotor magnets and pushing them on their way, it will attract them and oppose the rotation. So, if the fan does not spin when you give it a push, swap the drive leads over and it should work perfectly.

The neon bulb protects the transistor but it also give a good indication of how well the battery being charged is being fed. Adjust the variable resistor to get the minimum current draw from the drive battery while still having the neon lit well and that should give a good performance.

A very neat build of an 80 mm computer fan conversion to a pulse charger built by Brian Heath is shown here:

This unit runs with a PP3 9V battery as the drive battery, and charges a PP3 9V rechargeable battery when it is running. Both batteries are enclosed in the box in this very neat construction.

The Automotive Relay Battery Charger.
An even more simple charging method is also shown by “Imhotep” in another of his instructional videos at http://d1190995.domaincentral.com.au/page6.html. Here he adapts an ordinary 40 amp car relay, converting it from having a “normally open” contact, to operating with a “normally closed” contact. It is not necessary for you to do this as automotive relays with “normally closed” contacts are readily available and are not expensive.

The relay is then wired up so that it powers itself through its own contacts. This causes a current to flow through the relay coil winding, operating the contact and opening it. This cuts off the current through the relay’s own coil, causing the contacts to close again and the process starts all over again.

The repeated opening and closing of the relay contacts happens at the resonant frequency of the relay and this produces a buzzing noise. Actually, buzzers were originally made this way and they were used in much the same way as a doorbell would be used today.

The circuit used is shown here:

As you can see, this very simple circuit uses only two components: one relay and one diode. The key feature is the fact that when the relay contacts open and current stops flowing through the relay coil, a very high voltage spike is generated across the relay coil. In transistor circuits which drive a relay, you will see a diode wired across the relay coil in order to short-circuit this high voltage at switch-off and stop the transistor getting destroyed by the
excessively high voltage. In this circuit, no protection is needed for the relay. Any number of batteries can be charged at the same time.

An ordinary 40 amp automotive relay like this:

An ordinary 40 amp automotive relay like this:

[Image of a relay]

can have a “changeover” contact, which means that it has a “normally closed” contact and so can be used directly without any need to open or modify the relay itself.

In this circuit, however, that reverse voltage is being used in a very productive way. These voltage spikes are very sharp, very short and have a very fast voltage rise. This is exactly what is needed to trigger an inflow of radiant energy from the local environment, into the battery. This battery charging current is not coming from the driving battery but is coming from the environment. The small current from the driving battery is just operating the relay as a buzzer.

One user of this circuit commented that he was using a non-automotive relay with a greater number of turns in the coil, and he found that both of the batteries were getting charged at the same time, but of course, the drive battery was gaining charge at a slower rate. This will have been because the current draw with the more efficient relay was less that the rate of charging and so, even the drive battery gained power.

Please remember that at this time, we have no instrument which can directly measure the flow of radiant energy into the charging battery. The only reliable way of assessing the inflow is to see how long it takes to discharge the charged battery through a known load.

My experience with using relays for battery charging indicates that you get a better result if 24 volts is used to drive the circuit and as vehicle relays don’t have that much of a coil winding, there is a considerable improvement if a large coil is connected across the relay coil or coils as shown here:

When using one of these relay charging systems you will find that quite a lot of noise is generated. This can be reduced quite easily with a little padding and it does have the advantage of indicating that the charging system is running correctly.
The ‘Alexkor’ Solid-State Battery Charger Circuits.
The “Alexkor” battery-charging system is very effective, cheap and easy to build. It is a version of the system described in Fig. 22B on page 7 of the [http://www.totallyamped.net/adams/](http://www.totallyamped.net/adams/) web page:

![Diagram of Alexkor's battery charger circuit](image)

While this description has been around for years, it is part of a discussion on the principles of the operation of EMF magnetic fields and pulsing in coils. ‘Alexkor’ has developed a practical circuit which he says works very well. It can be constructed as a single unit as shown here:

![Diagram of Alexkor's practical circuit](image)

Here, the coil is wound with 200 turns of 0.7 mm enamelled copper wire and the actual construction is compact:

![Image of Alexkor's battery charger](image)

And to get an idea of the performance, Alex uses a capacitor to see the size of the voltage spikes produced by the circuit:
If building a circuit with a soldering iron and one of the commercial versions of prototyping board with copper strips is too difficult, then the circuit can be set up using a plug-in board like this:

The battery marked “1” provides power to run the circuit and the battery marked “2” gets charged. The resistors are all quarter watt. The enamelled copper 22 swg wire has a diameter of 0.711 mm and the coil can easily be wound on a cardboard tube. With a 30 mm (1.25 inch) diameter tube about 20 metres of wire would be needed and that weighs about 70 grams. I would like the output diode to be a UF5408 diode as the “UF” stands for “Ultra Fast”, but the wire leads are too thick to plug into a board like this and so the 1N5408 can be used, it is rated at 1000 volts and 3 amps.

This is the first step in the process as the same circuit can be used to drive many coils of this type. The resistor feeding the base of the transistor is about 500 ohms for the prototype, but using a 390 ohm resistor in series with a variable resistor of say, 1K, would allow a good standard resistor value to be selected for each transistor/coil pair:
As can be seen from the photographs, Alex uses preset resistors to adjust the settings to their optimum values. The simplicity of this circuit makes it very attractive as a construction project and using more than one coil should make for impressive performance figures. Alex says that the best results are achieved with just the one (1000V 10A) diode and not a diode bridge, which is borne out by the teaching comments on the above web site. Multiple transistor chargers like the one above, work best when there is a separate wire from each coil to the battery being charged.

Further development by Alex shows better performance when using the IRF510 FET instead of the BD243C transistor. He also has found it very effective charging four separate batteries and he has revived an old NiCad drill battery using this circuit:

It is possible to use various different transistors with these circuits. As some people have difficulty in working out a suitable physical construction for a circuit, here is a suggestion for a possible layout using an MJ11016 high-power high-gain transistor on stripboard.
Alexkor's Self-Charging Circuit.
This is a particularly simple circuit which allows a 12V, 8 amp-hour battery charge a 48V, 12 amp-hour battery with radiant energy, in 20 hours using twelve times less current than a conventional charger would. The circuit can charge lithium, NiCad or lead-acid batteries. The circuit used is:

The coil is wound on a hollow former, using two separate strands of wire of 0.5 mm diameter, giving a resistance of just 2 ohms. The strands of wire are placed side by side in a single layer like this:
A possible physical layout using a small standard electrical connector strip might be:

If the coil is wound on say, a 1.25-inch or 32 mm diameter plastic pipe, then the outside pipe diameter is 36 mm due to the wall thickness of the plastic pipe, and each turn takes about 118 mm, so around 24 metres of wire will be needed for the 200 turns (100 turns of two wires lying side by side). If 13 metres (14 yards) of wire is measured off the spool and the wire folded back on itself in a sharp U-turn, then the coil can be wound tightly and neatly with close side-by-side turns. A small hole drilled at the end of the pipe allows the folded wire to be secured with two turns through the hole, and the 200 turns will take up a length of about 100 mm (4-inches) and the two loose ends secured using another small hole drilled in the pipe. The starting ends are cut apart and the ends of each coil determined using a continuity test.

Lead-acid batteries such as the type used in cars, have a fairly limited life if charged with an ordinary mains powered charger. However, this pulsing circuit charges the batteries in a much better way which gives each battery a very long life and if used daily, after a time each battery holds more power than when it left the factory.

You will notice that the circuit does not use a solar panel nor does it have any kind of mains connection. It operates day and night and can charge four batteries, one of which can be used to power the next charging session. That leaves three fully charged batteries which can be used to power ordinary mains equipment through a standard DC-to-AC mains inverter, which might look like this:
The batteries powering the inverter would be connected in parallel and most household equipment could be powered by the inverter:

An even more advanced circuit from Alex has even higher performance by using a high-speed transistor and a very fast-action diode, and a neon is not needed to protect the transistor:

The fast UF5408 diode used in this circuit is available, at the present time, on www.ebay.co.uk in packs of 20 for £3.84 inclusive of postage.

The transistor drive to the battery bank can be replicated for additional drive and an additional ten transistors could be used like this:
The 2700 pF capacitor is recommended for each additional transistor, but it is not an essential item and the circuit will operate ok with just the one on the bi-filar coil drive section.

A recent circuit design from Alexkor uses the tiniest of inputs; just 1.5 volts at a current which can be adjusted down from 4 milliamps to just 1 milliamp. This tiny circuit can charge a 12-volt battery, although admittedly, the charging rate is not very high as it takes ten hours per Amp-Hour to charge the battery. However, it is spectacular to get a input of just 1.5 milliwatts to charge a 12V battery. The circuit has very few components:

Coils: 0.5 to 1.0mm diameter solid copper
wire length: 1 to 2 metres bi-filar wound

Variable resistor adjusted for minimum current 1 to 4 mA
Output is 40V spikes
The coil is tiny, bi-filar wound on ferrite or with an air-core. In the circuit diagram, the dots on the coil windings indicate the start of the two side-by-side windings. This makes it clear that the start of one winding is connected to the end of the other winding as well as to the positive side of the 1.5V battery. The variable resistor could be omitted and various fixed resistors tried until the 1 milliamp current level is reached. It should be emphasised that there is just one earthing point and it is a real connect-to-the-ground type of connection. Simple arithmetic will show you that if there is a charging current flowing into the battery to charge it, then even with an imagined 100% efficiency of the battery, the battery charge is many times greater than the draw from the battery driving the circuit. The circuit runs at a frequency between 200 MHz and 300 MHz.

Alex uses a commercial “choke” from [http://it.farnell.com/murata/pla10an1522r0r2b/choke-common-mode-2x1-5mh-2-0a/dp/9528423?whydiditmatch=rel_3&matchedProduct=3532290](http://it.farnell.com/murata/pla10an1522r0r2b/choke-common-mode-2x1-5mh-2-0a/dp/9528423?whydiditmatch=rel_3&matchedProduct=3532290) as shown here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>PLA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Execution</td>
<td>with a single rail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated current, a</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated voltage, V</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winding inductance, mH</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active resistance, Ohm</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hull length, mm</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jes Ascanius of Denmark has replicated this circuit and he makes these comments: The 10K variable resistor and the additional 1K resistor need to be 250 mW types as larger wattages cause a greater current draw. Also, the quality of the earth connection is important as his very efficient earth produces 60-volt pulses from the circuit (70-volts at night) and just by touching the earth connection can boost those pulses right up to 92-volts and so further experimentation may produce some other interesting effects.

Alexkor's most advanced circuit to date is the one shown here:
This circuit uses the PLA inductor shown above. The initial reaction of somebody familiar with electronic circuits might well be “this is impossible as the battery being charged is ‘floating’ as it is not connected to either side of the driving battery”. While that is true, the circuit works very well indeed and a battery bank of ten 1.2V Ni-Mh batteries rated at 1100 mAh capacity which had been charged and discharged ten times before, is now charged by this circuit in just half an hour.

The input voltage can be anything from 12V to 36V without the need to change any of the circuit components. The choice of transistor is important and the STW12NK90Z is a very high-performance, high-voltage transistor (available at the present time from [www.mouser.com](http://www.mouser.com)), and while it is not cheap, I would strongly recommend its use if you decide to replicate this circuit. The SF28 diodes are also special components, rated at 600 volts and 2 amps, these are high-speed diodes, not to be replaced with any diode which happens to be available.

The coil is most unusual in that it is just four turns of very thick copper wire, 3 mm to 4 mm in diameter, although aluminium wire can also be used. This power cable is wound on to a spool of 100 mm to 130 mm (4-inch to 5-inch) diameter. The tiny 5 nF capacitor needs to be rated at a very high 2000 volts. The real Earth connection at point “A” gives a 20% to 30% improvement in performance but if the circuit has to be portable, then it will work with the lower level of performance if the earth connection is omitted and point “A” is connected to the 0V line of the input battery.

While the coils shown above are air-core to allow high frequency operation, coils, most other coils are generally much more efficient with some form of magnetic core, such as iron-dust or ferrite. While it is not likely to be able to operate at frequencies as high as 35 KHz, a very good material for coil cores is the metal of masonry anchors or "sleeve anchors" which look like this:

![Image of metal anchors](image1.jpg)

This metal is immune to rusting, easy to work and loses all magnetism as soon as the magnetic field is removed. You can confirm this for yourself by placing a permanent magnet on one end of the bolt or the tube and using the other end to pick up a steel screw. As soon as the permanent magnet is removed, the screw falls off as the metal does not retain any of the magnetism from the permanent magnet. These anchors are cheap and readily available from builder’s supplies outlets, including those on the internet. It is unlikely that this material could operate at more than 1,000 Hz and the circuit above gains a lot of its performance from the high speed, fast switching and very short "On" time duty cycle.
If you use the bolt section of one of these anchors, the conical bump at the end of the shaft will have a delaying effect on the build-up and release of the magnetic field and so it might be advisable to either file it down gently by hand, or to cut off the conical section. There will always be eddy current losses in any solid metal core, but that does not stop them being very effective in operation. As with everything else, testing an actual device is the key to good performance and sound knowledge.

Sucahyo’s Charging Circuit

In 2014, Sucahyo stated that some people found that pulse-charging batteries for a few times, caused those batteries to have “surface” charge where the voltage rose to normal without there being any corresponding genuine charge behind that voltage rise. This is not an effect which I have encountered, but perhaps I didn’t charge a battery enough times to reach the problem. Anyhow, Sucahyo has published a circuit which he has used on batteries repeatedly for four years without encountering a surface-charge effect. Pulse charging uses “cold” electricity and “cold” electricity can be converted to “hot” electricity by feeding it into a capacitor. Here is Sucahyo’s circuit:

Notice that the 1N4007 diodes protecting the TIP41C transistors are connected to the transistor base and not its emitter as is more common. The coils being used are just simple single-filar CCW-wound coils with a DC resistance of about 1 ohm. Each coil is wound around a ferrite toroid:
You will notice in the circuit, that the TIP42C transistors which are PNP type, are connected in a way which would be considered to be “wrong”. This method of connection is perfectly deliberate and it works well, drawing only a quarter of the current which would be drawn if they were connected the “right” way round and yet maintaining the same level of output charging current. As with any charger, it is not a good idea to overcharge the battery. The circuit (which Sucahyo calls “Stingo”) can charge a 1000 milliamp-hour AA battery in 15 minutes, a 12V 7 Amp-Hour battery in 5 hours and a 12V 70 Amp-Hour battery in 15 hours. There is additional information and discussion at http://www.thetruthdenied.com/news/2014/03/12/radiant-a-suppressed-fast-battery-charger/.

Howerd Halay’s Battery Charging Techniques

Howerd Halay of the UK stresses the major difference between “conditioned” batteries and all batteries which have not been conditioned. He says: to condition a battery or capacitor, it needs to be repeatedly charged with ‘cold’ electricity and discharged again. Cold electricity is either high frequency AC electricity or alternatively DC at high voltage. With cold electricity, the electricity flows outside the wires (Steinmetz) and so, Current does not equal Voltage divided by Resistance as Ohm’s Law suggests. Instead, Current equals Voltage x Resistance x a Constant “C” which has to be determined by experimentation. It is also possible to get cold electricity from pulsed DC, provided that the DC voltage is over 80 volts. If using that technique, then the sharper and faster the pulses, the better.

When you first pulse an AC or DC capacitor, it behaves normally. After approximately 12 hours of continuous pulsing a change occurs in the behaviour of the capacitor. In the case of the water capacitor, it develops a nano coating on one side only. When measured with a resistance meter it shows no resistance at all. One can say that one side becomes quasi superconducting. In the case of an ordinary capacitor, there is no reason to believe that it behaves differently. The capacitor also charges much faster than before and when the power source is switched off it continues charging! Yes you read that correctly. In my case it fires pulses for up to 3 minutes after the power is switched off, which is why they are dangerous. The firing decays exponentially although I haven't yet tabulated it scientifically – I’ll leave that to other people to do.

The result of this is that you can have two identical capacitors side by side. One behaves as if it is plugged into a charger, while the other capacitor behaves normally. All capacitors self-charge to a certain extent but “conditioned” capacitors are in a league of their own! I have tested a neon on a conditioned capacitor through two earth rods 10 feet apart. I gave up looking at the lit neon after half an hour!

I use a very low-powered high-voltage source with a power output of only 1.2 watts as I like to play safe with these things. With a low power source, I have charged batteries using pulses of up to 800 volts without the batteries showing any ill effects. Also, using one-wire electricity is safer as that transmits mostly voltage and so minimum current is fed. So, to condition a battery or a capacitor using cold electricity, you can use a circuit like this:
Here, the size of the voltage pulses fed to the battery or capacitor to be conditioned, is controlled by the strike voltage of the neon. The ordinary NE2 type neon lamps strike around 90V and so the 2N6509G SCR will feed pulses of about that voltage to the battery or capacitor. If two neons are connected in series and used instead of the single neon shown above, then the voltage pulses will be around 180V. This type of circuit appears to work better if several capacitors are used in series as shown here, as they seem to charge up faster and discharge faster as well. You have to leave the device running for a day to get the full benefit. I regularly charge a 1.6 Kw car battery bank, and after switching off, the battery bank voltage goes up!!

I have also tried 5 seconds of ON time and two minutes of OFF time, and the capacitors continue firing pulses. However the rate of firing is much less when the power is off than when the power is on. If you fail to use the capacitors for a while - in my case it was three weeks or so - you have to start the conditioning process all over again. In my case conditioning them again was harder and seemed to take days rather than hours. The capacitors are COLD. The wires leading up to them and out of them are COLD, but if you get a shock from them, then that shock is HOT!!

Because this charging process uses cold electricity, non-rechargeable batteries can be charged this way. In my case two out of three batteries recover their charge OK, and curiously they charge to a much higher voltage than their rated value. The battery can be replaced with a capacitor. Obviously, any battery or capacitor which is to be conditioned, needs to have be able to be charged with a voltage of not more than 70 volts per neon, so for example, a 96V battery bank would need two neons in series across the SCR of the charging circuit. This circuit will keep on charging the battery for up to three minutes after the input power is switched off. An even more powerful version of the circuit boosts the cold electricity power by using a choke. The neons will light much more strongly. The neons should pulse or you've got a short-circuit. In other words, if the neon(s) is lit continuously, it is a bad sign.

You can use a variable resistor in series with the input power to vary the pulse rate. Negative radiant energy is delivered which produces cold electricity and conditions all capacitors in the output section of the circuit.
Be very careful with this circuit as it can kill you. This circuit is only for experienced experimenters. Capacitors will take about a day to get conditioned. This circuit is good for bringing dead car batteries back to life. When a battery is conditioned and the charging circuit input power is switched off, the battery will continue charging! Once they are conditioned, you can charge 4 car batteries in parallel using just a 6 watt 12 volt power supply, or a solar panel. However, this description must not under any circumstances be considered to be a recommendation that you should actually build this circuit as this presentation is for information purposes only.

The question has been asked, “why use five capacitors in series when any one of them can easily handle the voltage being used?” That is a good question as the answer is not at all obvious. The answer is because of the way that capacitors charge up. The voltage across a capacitor which is being charged, increases in a very non-linear way and it is generally illustrated like this:

![Graph showing voltage over time with capacitors charging up](image)

The red lines show the average rate of charge and the steeper the line, the faster the rate of charge. The greater the charging voltage relative to the size of the capacitor, the steeper the start of the line is. Howerd uses this fact to his advantage by using just the first ten percent of the curve. This is done by connecting several high-voltage capacitors in series as shown in his circuit diagram. The combined set of capacitors charge up very fast indeed and before they reach 10% of their capacity the neon fires and the capacitor charge is driven into the battery (or capacitor) which is being conditioned. The intensity of that current is determined by the size of the capacitors in the chain, the larger the capacitors the more intense the pulse into the battery and as you can see, Howerd has chosen 2.2 microfarad capacitors of the plastic film type:

![Image of a 2.2 microfarad capacitor](image)

The ‘UFOpolitics’ Motor

In chapter 2, there is a section on how an experimenter alters the wiring inside DC motors. This alteration has a major effect, boosting the output power by a major amount as well as providing an additional generated electrical output. One person who followed his instructions and rewound a tiny 3-volt 3-pole motor, then tried running that motor on a discharged 6-volt battery. The motor ran, slowly at first and then picked up speed. That seemed impossible as the motor draws 300 milliamps when running and the battery was just not capable of providing that current. However, impossible or not, the motor ran and not only did it run but it started recharging the battery driving it. This suggests that this is a self-sustaining system which provides output power and yet never needs to have the battery recharged.

The way that this happens is that what we think of as “electricity” is actually a more complex thing called “electromagnetism”. We think of electricity and magnetism as being two different things, while in fact, they are two different aspects of the single entity electromagnetism. The electric component always has an efficiency of less than 100% which the magnetic component always has an efficiency which is greater than 100% - something which we usually don’t notice as we tend to ignore the magnetic component.
In the case of this tiny 3-volt motor, it draws its running ‘hot electricity’ current from the battery. That causes rotating magnetic fields inside the motor and these generate ‘cold electricity’ which flows back along the supply wires and charges the battery.

The 3-Kilowatt Earth Battery

This battery does not need charging as such. Earth batteries are well known. They are pairs of electrodes buried in the ground. Electricity can be drawn from them, but they are generally of little interest as the power levels are not great. However, in his patent of 1893, Michael Emme, a Frenchman living in America determined how to get very serious levels of power from an earth battery of his design. In this particular unit which he describes in his US 495,582 patent, he gets 56 amps at just under 54 volts, which is three kilowatts or 4 HP. At that early date, there was generally, not much need for electricity, but Michael states that by selecting the number and connection method of the individual components, any desired voltage and/or current supply can be had. This, of course, is a simple system which involves no electronics.

Disclaimer: This document is for information purposes only and must not be considered to be a recommendation or an encouragement for you to actually construct an earth battery of this kind. If you choose to do so in spite of this warning, then all responsibility for the results is entirely yours. Please bear in mind that some forms of construction utilise strong acids and careless handling of strong acid can result in skin and other damage. Protective clothing should be used when handling acids and an alkali should be ready for immediate use if careless handling causes splashes.

Summarising his patent, Michael says:

My invention relates to chemical generators of electricity where a prepared body of earth is the support and excitation medium for the electrodes or elements. Any number of elements can be assembled in the same piece of ground and connected in a chain or series of chains in order to produce the desired voltage and/or amperage.

I find that several straight chains of elements can function separately provided that the gap between the chains is much greater than the gap between the elements which form the chain. Being quite separate, those chains can be connected in series to increase the voltage, or in parallel to increase the available current.

It is necessary to prepare the soil in the ground in the immediate area around the electrodes which form each element in the chain.

Fig. 1 shows five elements connected in a chain. This view is from above with the rectangles indicating holes in the ground where each hole contains seven separate pairs of electrodes.

Fig. 2 and Fig. 3
Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 show how individual electrodes are inserted into the prepared soil "C" which is surrounded by untreated ground "B". Electrode "D" is made of iron and "E" is made of carbon.

Fig. 4 shows how wedge-shaped electrodes can be used as an alternative construction. The advantage is that it is easier to pull a tapering electrode out of the ground.

Fig. 5 shows the internal current flow circuits which operate when a chain of elements is used. The arrows indicate the direction of current flow.

Fig. 6 shows a convenient method for periodically moistening the prepared soil areas.

Soil of any type can be adapted for use with an electrical generator of this kind by saturating the soil immediately surrounding each pair of electrodes with a suitable solution which is rich in oxygen, chlorine, bromine, iodine or fluorine, or with a solution of a salt of an alkali.
For the electrodes, I prefer to use soft iron for the positive electrode and hard pressed coke carbon for the negative electrode. The positive electrode is preferably a U-shaped bar of iron which has a circular cross-section. The two limbs of the U straddle the rod of carbon. Cast iron can be used but it gives a lower voltage, presumably due to the carbon and other impurities in it.

Magnesium gives excellent results, producing 2.25 volts per electrode pair where carbon is the negative electrode.

In implementing my invention, I level a piece of ground of sufficient area to contain the generating chain or chains. For instance, for three hundred positive elements each twenty inches (500 mm) long and two inches (50 mm) in diameter, bent as shown in Fig.3, the length of the piece of ground should be about 107 feet (32 metres) and 3 feet (1 metre) wide. I dig 43 holes at a distance of 30 inches (735 mm) apart (centre to centre) in a line. Each hole is 10 inches (250 mm) wide and 30 inches (750 mm) long and deep enough to contain the seven pairs of electrodes.

The loose soil dug from the holes is mixed with the chosen salt or acid in order to make the generator active. For instance, if the ground is a vegetable mould, then commercial concentrated nitric acid should be added in sufficient quantity to saturate the soil, and manganese peroxide or pyrolusite should be mixed with the mass. If the soil has a sandy character, then hydrochloric acid or sodium carbonate ("washing soda") or potash can be used. If the soil is a clay, then hydrochloric or sulphuric acid and sodium chloride may be used, the salt being dissolved in water and poured into the hole before the acid is mingled with the soil. The bottom of the hole is moistened with water and the prepared soil mixed with water to the consistency of a thick paste is then placed in the hole, surrounding the electrodes. The 43 groups of electrodes when wired in series as shown in Fig.1, will yield 53.85 volts and 56 amps, developing a total of 3015 watts.

By increasing the number of cells, the capacity of the generator may be correspondingly increased to any desired power output. The prepared body of soil should be periodically moistened, preferably with the acid with which it was treated when first prepared for action. In a generator intended for continuous use, I prefer to provide a reservoir as shown as "A" in Fig.6, and run a pipe made of a material which is not attacked by the acid, along the chain of elements, with a nozzle over each element so that they all can be moistened very easily. Any accumulation of oxides or other products of the reaction between the prepared soil and the electrodes may be removed by raising the positive electrode and then forcing it back into place again. The carbon electrode can be cleansed by simply turning it without lifting it from its place.
I find that the period of use of the generator during which no addition of salt or acid is needed, increases with the period of use. For example, during the first day of use, the acid or salt should be added after 10 hours of use, after which it will yield 26 hours of service, and then after another moistening it will operate for 48 hours, and so on, progressively increasing in duration between being moistened. This generator operates very consistently and reliably.

* * * *

Nowadays, we find mains voltage alternating current to be the most convenient to use. For a system like this, we would be inclined to use an ordinary inverter which runs on twelve volts or twenty-four volts. However, it needs to be remembered that the working input current is high and so, the wire used to carry that current needs to be thick. At 12V, each kilowatt is a current of at least 84 amps. At 24V that current is 42 amps (the inverter itself is more expensive as fewer are bought). Considerable household usage can be had from a 1500 watt inverter.

The soft iron / carbon construction described by Michael Emme produces 54V from 43 sets of electrodes, indicating around 1.25V per set at high current draw. It seems reasonably likely that ten or eleven sets of electrodes would give around 12V at high current and three of those chains connected in parallel should be able to power a 1500 watt 12V inverter continuously at extremely low running cost.

A Battery Charger for Just One Battery

Johan Booysen of South Africa used electrolyser circuitry developed by Bob Boyce of America, to charge a battery. The important thing is that there was only one battery involved as the battery being charged actually powered the charging circuit. The battery involved was a 12-volt 18 Amp-Hour lead-acid battery which therefore has an efficiency of only 50%, which means that the battery has to receive twice as much current compared to the current which it can return afterwards. Johan used the battery to power a toy car which his young daughter played with. He charged that battery overnight so that she could use it the next day to drive around.

While the maximum speed of the car is only two or three miles per hour, the important point is that real, genuine energy is being put into the battery every night, energy which powers the toy car each day. A device of that kind, which can charge a battery without sunlight, without the need for wind and without the need for fuel, has major applications for people living in remote areas where there is no mains power and never will be as it is not economic to run power lines there. The question is: can such a device be made which is reliable and safe to use?

**DISCLAIMER:** the following information is NOT for beginners but is solely intended for people who are experienced in electronics and who are aware of the dangers involved. Please understand clearly that I am NOT recommending that you should build anything based on the following information.

First, please understand that you live in a dangerous place. You are surrounded and immersed in a sea of major energy which flows through you at all times. A lightning bolt is millions of volts with a current of ten thousand amps or more. That is a massive amount of power and I’m told that around the world, there are between 100 and 200 of those lightning strikes every second. The energy field would not even notice power flows like that even though to us they appear to be massive amounts of power.

We do not notice the energy field because we have been inside it for all of our lives. It is said, and I’m inclined to believe it although I don’t know how to prove it, that it is not possible to create or destroy energy, and the most that we can do is convert it from one form into another (and when we do that, we generally manage to make the energy flow do useful work for us). One way to affect the energy field is to create a very short, very sharp, high...
voltage spike. That disturbs the surrounding energy field enough to make small ripples in it and we can sometimes gather those ripples and use some of them to do electrical work for us.

Another known way to access this enormous energy field is to create a rotating magnetic field, but you need to be very, very, careful if you try doing that as you are messing around with an energy field of incredible power. You probably have heard of the famous equation $E = mc^2$ and while most people think that it came from Albert Einstein, the reality is that it was produced years earlier by Oliver Heaviside and Einstein merely publicised it. What the equation says is that energy and matter are interchangeable and that a tiny speck of matter can be created from a very large amount of energy. Oliver Heaviside also calculated that the energy field which I have been trying to describe, fills every part of the universe, and that energy is so great that the amount inside one cubic centimetre is sufficient to create all of the visible matter which we can see in the whole of the universe. You don't mess around with that energy field unless you know what you are doing, and even if you do know what you are doing, you still need to be very careful. Please understand that the electrical energy with which we are familiar, is a transverse wave while the universe is filled with longitudinal wave energy and those two forms are completely different, so the electrical effects which are familiar to you do not apply to the energy which charges Johan's battery.

Bob Boyce is an unusually clever and perceptive man. He experimented with rotating magnetic fields and was hit by lightning as a result. I cannot stress too much, that rotating magnetic fields are very dangerous indeed. Ideally, you want to avoid a rotating magnetic field. Bob developed a very effective and safe toroidal power supply for his high-performance HHO electrolyser. That power supply is an open system which provides more power to the load than is drawn from the battery and it looks like this:

![Electrical diagram]

Which for a low-voltage system (not needing high voltage for 100 electrolyser cells in series) would presumably be:
Here, the steady-state DC voltage from the battery has added to it, the waveform generated by the electronics board pulsing the toroid. Regarding toroids, Bob says that he does not consider ferrite or laminated iron to be suitable toroids because it is just not safe to use them in circuitry of this kind unless at very low frequency which means low efficiency. In these systems, there has to be a trade off between control and power and an controlled runaway is highly dangerous. Remember here, that this system is tapping into the energy source which powers the whole universe continuously and what comes out of Bob’s toroid is mainly that same longitudinal wave energy. In passing, almost all, and quite possibly all free-energy devices including solar panels, water wheels, wave-power devices, biomass, etc. are powered by this literally universal energy field of longitudinal waves.

Looking at this in more detail, Bob’s toroid is a 6.5 inch (165 millimetre) diameter iron powder toroid sold by MicroMetals in America, and it is wound initially with the secondary winding which goes all of the way around the toroid:

![Diagram of toroid with secondary winding](image)

The wire used must be single strand solid copper wire, coated with silver and covered with teflon plastic insulation. Different toroids operate in different ways and so would need experimentation using different wire types and number of turns in the windings. This secondary winding has to be wound with perfect accuracy giving exactly even spaces between turns around the outer edge of the toroid and it is then taped over with ordinary electrical tape (do NOT use fibreglass winding tape and do not use multi-strand wire as either of those will prevent the circuit from working properly).

Three primary windings are now wound on top of the tape which is covering the secondary winding (note that the primary winding wire starts over the top of the toroid and is wound from left to right):
Again, it is essential that the wire used is solid, single-core copper with silver coating and teflon covering. The completed toroid is bound with tape and screened by being placed inside an earthed metal box. The drive signals for the toroid are like this:

A similar system with a divide-by-two to produce each of the lower frequencies has been tried and it was found that it did not work as well as having three separate oscillators which are near the harmonic frequencies but not an exact harmonic, as that produces a complex series of repeated heterodyning of the signals and the resulting overall waveform is much richer than would be expected. So, if you attempt to replicate the waveform using an Arduino or other PIC microprocessor board, it might be advisable to set the lower frequencies at an odd number of clock ticks so that a complex waveform is produced. It is actually cheaper and more convenient to use discrete components: 555 timer chips with multi-turn preset resistors so that adjustment can be made without stopping a test run. The highest frequency is the key frequency and the two lower frequencies are helpful but of lesser importance. When tuning the circuit, the highest frequency is adjusted to give the best output. Then the gating for that frequency is adjusted to find the lowest input current which still gives that level of output. Then that same procedure is repeated for the second and then the lowest frequency modules.
You will notice here that each primary winding on the toroid is fed with its own separate signal and there is no suggestion whatsoever that the three windings are driven sequentially to form one of those very dangerous rotating magnetic fields. Although the above diagram may look slightly advanced, it is actually, very simple in broad outline. The circuits might be like this:

I am not very happy with the above circuit. We are working from a single voltage supply of a nominal 12-volts and the circuit has a signal generation section which operates at low-current, and a high current drive section for the toroid coil. The resistor and capacitor marked “B” are to provide power decoupling for the low current section with the PCP116 opto isolator separating the two sections of the circuit. However, that is not a very good solution as the current pulses along the power supply wire will definitely create high speed voltage fluctuations in that wire. There are a number of solutions. One might be to add in a small choke at point “A”, and/or provide a second supply wire connecting at point “A”:

All choke windings should be kept well away from the toroid windings to avoid inductive coupling, and they should be outside the screening box containing the toroid. No matter what arrangement is found to be suitable, three of these circuits are needed in order to drive the three separate windings on the toroid. The only difference in the second and third circuits is the frequency capacitor:
Please remember that it is Bob Boyce’s technology which is tapping into this extra power of the ambient background energy which surrounds and flows through us. Also, understand that what comes out of the toroid is not just conventional ‘transverse wave’ energy, but instead, it is mainly longitudinal wave energy which we cannot measure directly. Bob points out that if your load is capable of absorbing longitudinal currents, such as water or to a somewhat lesser degree, a light bulb, then this longitudinal wave power will run it. If the input energy is correctly configured, then that causes modulated longitudinal wave energy to flow out of the toroidal transformer wires because that input energy modulates the local longitudinal wave energy field. When the toroid is wound and driven for peak efficiency, the unit behaves as a Tesla magnifying transmitter and a Tesla radiant energy receiver, all in a single package. There is an energy gain in the process, which is why Tesla called it a ‘magnifying’ transmitter. This energy gain is produced by the small energy source which we provide, modulating the very much larger energy source which is the longitudinal wave dominant energy source of the entire universe, and then we capture and use this modulated energy to do useful work.

The output of the toroid is a combination of conventional transverse wave energy and non-conventional longitudinal wave energy. It is the characteristics of the load which determines how much energy will be harvested from the longitudinal wave energy component of the output. Water only absorbs longitudinal wave energy if that energy is modulated at the correct frequency. Light bulbs and some motors can run directly on (“cold electricity”) longitudinal wave current, but they do so at reduced efficiency. Many modern appliances and items of electronic equipment would need to have the longitudinal wave energy converted to transverse wave energy in order to be able to operate on this energy.

For the HHO gas production, the electronics and the toroid itself have been designed to produce dissociation of water in a relatively safe manner and that is why Bob insists that HHO experimenters stick with a pulsed field mode of operation. It is much lower in gain than a rotational field system would be and because of that lower gain it is much less inclined to go into a runaway condition where the output energy increases the longitudinal energy gain to the point where the system overloads and goes into avalanche runaway. By using water as the load, any increase in output energy is absorbed by the water and so it is a self-stabilising process. Even if an avalanche occurs in an HHO gas system, the low power density of the pulsed mode allows the water to absorb the power surge and that just causes more water to convert into gas. This means that in order to be safe, input energy must exercise full control over the tendency to self-feedback and a load **MUST** always be present when the device is running.

Water is preferred because it does not burn out, it just dissociates. We tune the primary frequency to be one which works well with water. It is a frequency which allows the water to absorb the longitudinal component best. That is why using just pulsing DC does not give the same effect. DC does not contain the longitudinal wave energy to which the water is responding in a resonance drive system. Unfortunately, the best frequency for longitudinal energy absorption by water is affected by many factors, so we must strive to keep the system in tune for the best absorption of that energy. The other two frequencies enhance this energy collection process without greatly increasing the associated risks.

Bob knows that this entire power technology sounds hocus pocus to those educated in traditional transverse wave energy behaviour, but longitudinal wave energy is very real and can be used to our advantage. Many
inventions and devices have been built that can tap into this unseen and unmeasured energy. The average water for fuel experimenter has no clue as to how dangerous this energy side of the technology can be, hence the amount of work which Bob expended in trying to make a relatively safe pulsed version which the average experimenter can use safely. Otherwise, experimenters are likely to kill themselves when trying to apply a very dangerous technology to a very simple application, all in the effort to generate more HHO gas on demand. Bob is not the only one to do this. Meyer, Puharich, and others, have managed to tap into this energy is a safe and controllable fashion.

When Johan tries to charge a lead-acid battery, there is no electrolyser filled with water to absorb an avalanche runaway. The only available water is in the acid contents of the battery and it is that which will dissociate into HHO gas inside the battery. That HHO gas mix is in the exact proportions for explosion back into water again. What has not been stressed is that the HHO gas produced is highly charged electrically and will detonate if the gas pressure exceeds about fifteen pounds per square inch. While any mention of an explosion is scary, the reality does not match up to what most people imagine. Earlier in this chapter, Ronald Knight who is an experienced battery tester (using only transverse wave energy), explains the situation clearly:

I have not heard of anyone having a catastrophic failure of a battery case in all the energy groups to which I belong and most of them use batteries in the various systems which I study. However, that does not mean that it cannot happen. The most common reason for catastrophic failure in the case of a lead-acid battery, is arcing causing failure in the grids which are assembled together inside the battery to make up the cells of the battery. Any internal arcing will cause a rapid build up of pressure from expanding Hydrogen gas, resulting in a catastrophic failure of the battery case. During the manufacturer’s testing, the battery is charged with the maximum current which it can take. If the battery does not blow up due to internal arcing during the initial charge it is highly likely that it will not blow up under the regular use for which it was designed. However, all bets are off with used batteries that have gone beyond their expected life. I have witnessed several catastrophic failures of battery cases daily at work. I have been standing right beside batteries when they exploded and I have only been startled by it.

I would suggest that when testing new, unorthodox circuitry such as this, that the battery is placed in a robust box which has vents covered with baffles so that gas can escape freely but any acid or fragments of case are kept inside the box. Personally, I have never had a battery explode, nor have I ever seen an exploded battery.

I understand that Johan connects the circuit output back to the battery in this way:

![Battery Diagram]

The choke shown in red in the diagram is about 18 turns on a small toroid which seems okay, but the two other coils appear to be just six or seven loops in the connecting leads, not wound side by side on a magnetic former, but just left as if shortening the cable length.
Consequently, it is distinctly possible that those two chokes have been omitted as the inductance of those loops must be very low indeed. The point of a choke is that it will pass DC while blocking sharp (transverse wave) voltage spikes. If those two chokes are as ineffective as they look, then the circuit would be:

![Diagram of the circuit](Image)

While the photograph above appears to show a fuse placed in the output wire before the choke, I am doubtful about doing that. The speed of longitudinal energy is so great that a fuse is most unlikely to operate fast enough to be any use. Also, longitudinal ("cold") energy has the reverse effect to what is expected with transverse wave ("ordinary") energy. Any fuse has a resistance and is supposed to blow when it burns out through raised heat caused by excessive current flowing through it. Transverse energy would cool the fuse rather than heat it. However, a fuse might well have an enhancing effect on the whole charging process because while a resistance impedes the flow of transverse wave energy it actually boosts the energy flow of longitudinal energy, drawing in additional power from our surrounding energy field. In a runaway power surge, the fuse would not be helpful but when running normally, it might well be. Let me stress here that this is only my untested opinion and, unlike Bob Boyce, I am certainly not an expert in this technology.

Let me stress again that this is **NOT** a recommendation for you to attempt to build or use something of this nature in spite of the fact that it has worked well for Johan. We need to remember that Johan was using a more advanced version of Bob's electronic circuitry, one whose details have not been released. Because of that, it may be necessary to place a diode between the circuit output and the battery Plus terminal. This information is only a suggestion for experimentation which might just possibly be carried out by experienced electronics experts.
A Fast-Charge Joule Thief Variation

This somewhat unusual arrangement for a battery charger comes from Rene who has posted a video about it at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lvKa4zneaRQ saying that it charges batteries very quickly.

The technique is to use a mains power supply unit of twenty volts to operate the circuit in conventional mains charging mode but instead of connecting the mains supply to the minus of the battery being charged, a simple Joule Thief circuit is inserted in that line. This means that the Joule Thief circuit operates on the voltage difference between the mains supply and the charging battery’s present voltage. As the battery charges up, the Joule Thief working voltage drops. Rene says that the diode across the mains unit is needed but he doesn’t know why. While this is an interesting circuit, let me just express a few opinions, on it, and let me stress that these are only opinions as I have not built and used this circuit.

Charging batteries from the back-EMF voltage swings produced by coils when their current is cut off, generally requires the negative of the battery being charged to be connected to the positive of the battery which is powering the circuit. This is not an essential feature of those circuits, but it is done because if you don’t, then current will flow directly from the powering battery into the charging battery. However, in this case, that is exactly what the designer wants to happen and so there is no obvious reason why there should not be a common negative line. That means that an ordinary 14V mains battery charging unit can be used and the Joule Thief can operate with a fixed voltage level. Unless Rene’s design gains charging power by having the Joule Thief circuit in series with the charged battery, I would suggest that the circuit might work better like this:

That arrangement gives the mains charging as before and constant voltage supply to the Joule Thief circuit which adds charging pulses to the mains DC supply to the battery being charged.

Charging circuits from Charles Seiler

In August 2009 Charles Seiler published some battery charging pulse circuits which are interesting. The first is based on Alexander Meissner’s 1913 circuit which looks like this:
This is a slightly unusual circuit which is compact and efficient. The 10K fixed resistor drops the voltage across the 10K variable resistor to about 6V to make the tuning easier. The variable resistor is adjusted so that the transistor is just about to switch on, and then the additional drive from the capacitor/coil pair makes the transistor switch on rapidly.

Charles has altered this circuit by replacing the frequency control capacitor “C” with the internal capacitance of the battery being charged, making the charging rate proportional to the state of the battery being charged:

When set correctly, this circuit runs cool without any need for a heat sink on the transistor. The size of the capacitor is not critical and can be adjusted for the best performance. The coils are wound with equal lengths of wire and wound with the wires side by side, either air-core or with an insulated welding wire core like this:
Charles states that the low coil resistance is helpful for charging lead-acid batteries as they have a very low internal resistance of about ten ohms. The coils are wound with 200 to 400 turns but in spite of that, the current drawn by the circuit is small.

The circuit can oscillate at 500 kHz but the rate of oscillation is affected by the state of the battery being charged and will typically be only 100 Hz to 2,000 Hz with a fully discharged battery. The pulse rate depends on the charge level of the battery as the battery is part of the timing mechanism of the circuit. One very important point is that the circuit has no protection against over-voltage and the 3055 transistor is only rated up to 60V, so if the circuit is switched on without the charging battery being connected, then the transistor will definitely be destroyed.

Another circuit suggested is the one shown below. This is a very unusual circuit:

In this circuit, the four (or more) coils are wound as one unit with all four wires laid down side by side. The additional base diodes are there to protect the transistors and the base resistors are adjusted to give a realistic current flow into the circuit which keeps the transistors cool when the circuit is running.

Personally, I have always found pulse charging circuits to be temperamental and subject to a wide range of performance without any circuit change (that, of course, may be due to my poor constructional skills). However, if any charging circuit charges the battery faster than the current draw, then battery self-charging is possible. For that, a circuit like this can be used:
With an arrangement like that it is very encouraging to see the battery voltage rising and rising. The choke is only needed to block the charging voltage spikes from reaching the oscillator circuit. However, the oscillator circuit has to be COP>1 for this to work, but many of the circuits in this ebook have that characteristic. I have found the secondary winding of a 12V 300 mA mains transformer to be an effective choke.

The Joule Thief as a simple Battery Charger

The idea is to charge almost fully discharged batteries using only those almost fully discharged batteries to do the charging. This project uses one of the most simple and robust circuits ever produced and that is the "Joule Thief" circuit. This most impressive circuit was shared by its designer Z. Kaparnick in the "Ingenuity Unlimited" section of the November 1999 edition of the "Everyday Practical Electronics" magazine. The circuit is very, very simple, being just one transistor, one resistor and a coil. The circuit originally was used to light a Light Emitting Diode ("LED"), but it can be used for much more than that. This is the circuit:

The original coil was made of two strands of wire wound side-by-side around a small ferrite ring or "toroid". The circuit automatically oscillates, generating a much higher voltage at the collector of the transistor, and while the battery voltage is not nearly enough to make the LED light up, the circuit lights it quite easily.

It is not necessary to wind the coil on a ferrite ring as a paper cylinder is perfectly adequate. The circuit was then adapted by Bill Sherman and used to charge a second battery as well as lighting the Light-Emitting Diode like this:
I have used this type of circuit without the LED, to charge a rechargeable battery from 0.6 volts to 1.34 volts in just one hour, so it is certainly effective as a battery charger. The circuit is like this:

![Diagram of circuit without LED]

However, the circuit has a minor weakness in that if the drive battery has a voltage greater than the charging battery voltage plus the voltage drop across the diode, then the driving battery will feed current directly to the charging battery through the red winding shown above and on through the diode. That can be overcome by putting the batteries in series like John Bedini did. The current which flows into the battery being charged also flows into the drive battery:

![Diagram of circuit with batteries in series]

The coil can be wound quite easily. A pencil makes a good former for a coil, so cut a strip of paper 100 millimetres wide and wrap it around the pencil to form a paper cylinder several layers thick and 100 millimetres wide and seal it with Selotape:
Make sure that when you pull the paper cylinder together with the Selotape, that you don’t stick the paper to the pencil as we will want to slide the completed cylinder off the pencil after we wind the coil on it. The coil can now be wound on the paper cylinder, and for this, it is convenient to use two fifty gram reels of enamelled copper wire. The wire which I used is 0.375 millimetres in diameter. There are many different ways to wind a coil. The method I use is to leave at least 100mm of spare wire at the beginning so that the coil can be connected when wound, then make three or four turns like this:

Then hold those turns in place with Selotape before winding the rest of the coil. Finally, the right hand end of the coil is secured with Selotape and then both ends are covered with electrical tape as Selotape deteriorates with time. While this coil has been wound with only one layer, if you want, an extra single covering of paper can be used to cover the first layer and a second layer wound on top of it before being taped and slid off the pencil.

While the diagrams above show the strands of wire in two colours, the reality is that both wires will be the same colour and so you end up with a coil which has two identical looking wires coming out of each end. You make the wires at each end more than the length of the coil so that you have enough connecting wire to make the final connections. Use a multimeter (or battery and LED) to identify a wire at each end which connects all the way through the coil and then connect one end of that wire to the other wire at the other end. That makes the central tap of the coil “B”:

The coil needs to be checked carefully before use. Ideally, the joint is soldered and if the enamelled copper wire used is the “solderable” type (which is the most common type) then the soldering iron heat will burn the enamel away after a few seconds, making a good joint on what used to be fully enamelled wires. A resistance test needs to be carried out to check the quality of the coil. First, check the DC resistance between points “A” and “B”. The result should be less than 2 ohms. Then check the resistance between points “B” and “C” and that should be an exactly matching resistance value. Finally, check the resistance between points “A” and “C” and that value should be twice the “A” to “B” resistance but seldom seems to be.

The simple circuit as shown can charge four AA batteries in series when the circuit is driven by just one AA battery. I have used a 1N4148 diode which is a silicon diode with a voltage drop across it of 0.65 or 0.7 volts and it has worked well. However, a germanium diode with its much lower 0.25 to 0.3 voltage drop is generally recommended, perhaps a 1N34A diode. It is also suggested that using two or three diodes in parallel is helpful.

A complimentary or alternative method of raising the efficiency of the circuit is to add an additional bifilar winding to the coil, making Lawrence Tseung’s “FLEET” circuit as discussed in chapter 5:
With this arrangement, the second winding is also made with two wires side by side and then the end of the first wire is permanently connected to the start of the second wire, leaving just one wire exiting from each end of the new winding. Current drawn from this new winding does not affect the current draw from the drive battery which is running the Joule Thief circuit.

If you have an oscilloscope, then the circuit can be tuned for optimum performance by placing a small capacitor across the resistor “R” and finding what value of capacitor produces the highest rate of pulsing with your particular components. The capacitor is not essential and I have never used one but values such as 2700 pF are sometimes shown. I have used this “FLEET” circuit to charge two 12-volt lead-acid batteries, using one to drive the circuit which charged the second battery. Then, swapping the batteries around and repeating the process a couple of times. After that, the batteries were left for an hour to allow the chemical processes to stop, and then the voltages were measured. The result was that both batteries gained significant, real, usable power during the process. As the only power applied to the circuit came from the batteries, that is a significant result. Also, as lead-acid batteries are only 50% efficient and lose half of the charging current which you feed into them, the circuit had to be producing an energy gain with more than twice the output power compared to the input power.

However, keeping things simple and concentrating on the Joule Thief circuit, if we represent a slightly improved version of the circuit which uses three charging diodes connected in parallel, like this:

Then we can feed it from a useful load rather than a battery. For example, if we decide to produce lighting using the 12-volt 24-LED arrays:
Then we might choose to use a commercial DC-to-DC converter like this one:

![Image of a DC-to-DC converter](image)

Like this:

![Image of the Joule Thief circuit](image)

This circuit works really well. The current fed to the DC-to-DC step-up converter is controlled by the voltage at point “A” and the overall resistance of the Joule Thief circuit. As shown, it draws about 70 milliamps and lights one or two of the LED arrays brightly for six hours when powered by one set of four of the Digimax 2850 mAhR AA-size batteries.

During that six hour period, all of the 70 milliamps of current is fed into the Joule Thief circuit and that allows it to charge a second set of batteries. Six hours is the length of time that I personally have lighting on at night. That means that in addition to the six hours of charging already achieved, there remains a further eighteen hours during which the circuit could be used to continue battery charging.
While the circuit shows a switch short-circuiting the converter to extinguish the light, there is actually no need to use such a high current during the remainder of the day, and so a two-pole switch can be used to disconnect the light and drop the current level to 20 milliamps by short-circuiting one of the diodes which reduces the voltage across the Joule Thief like this:

The circuit as shown so far has two sets of four batteries. It would be nice to swap between them every few minutes. Batteries which are providing power to a load don’t charge nearly as well as unloaded batteries being charged. However, the mechanism which switches between the two sets of batteries needs to have extremely low current draw in order not to waste current. One possibility for that would be to use a 5-volt latching relay like this:

This is the electronic version of a mechanical two-pole switch. A brief pulse of current between pins 1 and 16 locks the switch in one position and later, a pulse of current between pins 2 and 15 locks it in the other position. The current drain on the circuit would be almost zero.

While standard NE555 integrated circuits can operate with a supply voltage down to 4.5 volts (and in practice, most will operate well at much lower supply voltages), there are several much more expensive 555 ICs which are designed to work at much lower supply voltages. One of these is the TLC555 which has a supply voltage range from just 2 volts right up to 15 volts, which is a very impressive range. Another version is ILC555N with a voltage range of 2 to 18 volts. Combining one of those chips with a latching relay produces a very simple circuit as the 555 timer circuit is exceptionally simple:
The capacitor used has to be high quality with very low leakage in order to get this waveform which is
On for exactly the same length of time as it is Off. This is important if we want the two battery packs to
receive the same length of time powering the load as the time they receive being recharged.

A weakness of the 555 chip timer from our point of view is that it has only one output while we need two
outputs, one falling when the other rises. That can be arranged by adding a transistor and a couple of
resistors like this:

With this circuit, when pin 3 of the 555 chip goes low, the capacitor connecting it to pin 2 of the relay
pulls that pin 2 voltage low and causes the relay to change state as the relay pin 15 is connected to
+5V, causing a current surge through the coil as the capacitor charges. A few moments later, when the
capacitor has charged up, the current drops away to zero. Five minutes later pin 3 goes high again and
that switches the transistor on causing its collector voltage to drop rapidly to near zero. That pulls pin 1
of the relay down low causing it to change state before the capacitor has a chance to charge up.

This is fine if the capacitors shown in blue are poor quality and their charge bleeds away in a period of
five minutes. Nowadays, even cheap capacitors are generally much too good quality to allow that to
happen and so we need to connect a resistor across the capacitor to create that drop in charge. But
that additional resistor is connected continuously and so it needs to be of a high enough value not to
waste any significant current – perhaps 18K would be a reasonable choice. An 18K resistor with five
volts across it draws only 0.278 of a milliamp of current.

Joule Thief circuits do not need anything like as much as 70 milliamps of input current if they are to
charge a battery pack well. Consequently, we can use two or three Joule Thief circuits, all powered by
the current flowing through the lighting LEDs. If the circuit is to be used by somebody who does not
understand how it works, then it might be worth adding a battery voltage sensing circuit which switches
off the charging system when the batteries are fully charged as the system may be left unused for
several days if the owner is away from home.
The timer shown here ideally should have a perfectly matched On / Off ratio and an output which falls to zero at the start of both the On and the Off periods. The capacitor is any large capacitor as it just prevents a brief loss of lighting during the transition from one battery to the other.

The current fed to the DC-DC converter controls the level of lighting provided. The current level is set by the number of diodes in series below point “A” in the circuit diagram. Adding an extra diode increases the current draw substantially. The diodes used are the very cheap 1N4148 type although one 1N34 germanium diode could be used if more accurate voltage control is needed. The light output is improved in quality by adding one or more extra LED arrays wired in parallel as the current is shared equally between all of the LED arrays and each becomes less dazzling as the light output is from a greater lit area. An additional advantage is that each LED runs at a much lower temperature and that improves reliability and lifespan.

Here is a physical layout for a three Joule Thief design, using a 125 x 35 mm piece of stripboard, that is a piece which has fourteen copper strips each strip having forty-nine holes. Why that odd size? Because a piece that size was available as an offcut when the prototype was being built. The prototype layout is like this:
The red dots in the suggested physical layout indicate places where the copper strip on the underside of the board are broken.

There are various circuits which I have shown which use the well-known "Joule Thief" circuit as part of the design. These devices have worked well for me. However, in 2014, Sucahyo stated that some people found that pulse-charging batteries for a few times, caused those batteries to then have “surface charge” where the battery voltage rose without there being a corresponding genuine charge inside the battery. That is something which I have never experienced myself but that might be because I didn’t discharge and recharge batteries a sufficient number of times for me to experience the effect. Sucahyo uses this circuit:
which looks rather complicated with two of the transistors connected upside down and protection diodes connected between transistor collector and base. Sucahyo says that he has used this circuit for four years now without experiencing any surface charge effects.

My preferred form of Joule thief uses a bi-filar coil of 0.335 mm diameter wire wound on a paper cylinder formed around a pencil and only 100 mm (4 inches) long, as that produces a very cheap and lightweight circuit. As I understand it, the Joule Thief produces a rapid stream of high voltage spikes of very short duration. Those spikes cause the local environment to feed static energy into both the circuit and the circuit’s load device (typically an LED or a battery).

While I have never experienced surface charge from a Joule Thief circuit, I tested some old Digimax 2850 mAh test batteries which had been sitting unused for more than a year. These did indeed show a surface charge effect when load tested. The first test used one battery to drive the circuit and charged three batteries in series using this circuit:

But no matter how long the circuit operated, it would not charge the output battery above 4.0 volts which is 1.33 volts per battery. The load test results were terrible with the voltages at one hourly intervals being 3.93V, 3.89V, 3.84V, 3.82V and 3.79V after only five hours of powering the load. That is
ridiculous performance as those batteries managed 22 hours of load powering with the solar panel design.

Perhaps the batteries were damaged. So I overcharged them with a main operated charger, reaching 4.26 volts which is 1.42 volts per battery and the hourly load testing results were 4.21, 4.18, 4.16, 4.15, 4.13, 4.12, 4.10, 4.08, 4.07, 4.06, 4.05, 4.03, 4.02, 4.01, 4.00 (after 17 hours), 3.99, 3.99, 3.98, 3.97, 3.97, 3.96, 3.96, 3.95 after 25 hours and 3.90 after 33 hours. Clearly, there is nothing wrong with the batteries so the effect must be a factor of the charging.

Feeding static electricity into a capacitor converts it into normal “hot” electricity, but we want a very simple circuit, so the next step was to add in a 100 volt 1 microfarad capacitor which looks like this:

![Capacitor Diagram]

making the circuit:

With the battery on charge removed, the voltage on the capacitor reaches 22 volts. Charging the same batteries with this circuit reached 4.14 volts and produced load results of 4.09, 4.05, 4.01, 3.98, 3.96, 3.93, 3.90, 3.88, 3.85, 3.83, 3.81 and 3.79 volts after 12 hours which is much better than the 5-hour total previously experienced. However, obviously, something better is needed.

The next step is to use a diode bridge of 1N4148 diodes instead of the single diode, giving this circuit:

![Diode Bridge Circuit]

Without the charging battery connected, this circuit gives 28 volts on the capacitor and the battery charging is good, giving load testing results of 4.18, 4.16, 4.15, 4.13, 4.11, 4.10, 4.08, 4.08, 4.06, 4.05, 4.03, 4.02, 4.01, 4.00, 3.99, 3.98, 3.97, 3.96, 3.95, 3.94, 3.93, 3.92, 3.91, 3.90 after 25 hours and 3.89 after 33 hours.
4.04, 4.03, 4.02, 4.00, 3.99, 3.98, 3.97, 3.96, 3.95, 3.94, 3.94, 3.93, 3.93, and 3.93 volts after powering the load for 24 hours. This seems to be a very satisfactory result for such a minor alteration.

If two 1.2V batteries are used to drive the circuit, without a battery on charge, then the voltage on the capacitor reaches 67 volts, but that is not necessary for charging a 12-volt battery. Although the change is slight, the circuit operation is changed considerably. The capacitor does not discharge instantly and so, for some of the time between the sharp Joule Thief pulses, the capacitor supplies extra charging current to the battery on charge. This does not mean that the battery being charged is charged much faster and you can expect that full charging will take several hours. I have not yet tested it, but I would expect that by using two or more of these circuits simultaneously, should increase the rate of charge;

There is no need to restrict the battery on charge to a nominal 3.6 volts in any of these circuits as a single 1.2 volt drive battery can easily charge a 4.8 volt battery or larger. The value of the capacitor has a considerable effect and I suggest a one microfarad capacitor is a good choice. It has been argued that the two additional diodes on each side of the battery being charged are not necessary, although I have shown them to isolate the two circuits from each other.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.co.uk
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 7: Aerial Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

It is generally thought that aerials are not capable of gathering much power. The popular conception is that the only power available is low level radio waves from distant radio transmitters, and while it is certainly true that radio waves can be picked up with an aerial, the real sources of power are not radio transmitters.

For example, we will be looking at information from Hermann Plauson and he considered any aerial system of his which did not produce more than an excess power of 100 kilowatts, as a “small” system (admittedly, with many aerials). Thomas Henry Moray demonstrated his system to audiences repeatedly, pulling in power levels of up to 50 kilowatts from a single sort aerial. These power levels are not produced by radio station signals.

Nikola Tesla’s Aerial System.
Nikola Tesla produced an aerial device which is worth mentioning. It was patented on May 21st 1901 as an “Apparatus for the Utilisation of Radiant Energy”, US Patent number 685,957.

The device appears simple but Tesla states that the capacitor needs to be “of considerable electrostatic capacity” and he recommends using the best quality mica to construct it as described in his 1897 patent No. 577,671. The circuit draws power via an insulated, shiny metal plate. The insulation could be spray-on plastic. The larger the plate, the greater the energy pick-up. The higher the plate is elevated, the greater the pick-up.

This system of Tesla’s picks up energy day and night. The capacitor gets charged up and a vibrating switch repeatedly discharges the capacitor into the step-down transformer. The transformer lowers the voltage and raises the current available and the output is then used to power the electrical load.
It seems probable that this device operates primarily from static electricity, which some people believe is a manifestation of the zero-point energy field. Tesla’s equipment might well operate when fed by a motor-driven Wimshurst machine instead of a large aerial plate. Details of home-built Wimshurst equipment are available in the book ‘Homemade Lightning’ by R.A. Ford, ISBN 0-07-021528-6.

However, it should be understood that Tesla described two different forms of energy pick-up. The first is static electricity, picked up from very slight interaction of the pick-up plate with the zero-point energy field flowing through it, and the other being pick-up of dynamic radiant energy events, typically from lightning strikes. At a casual glance, the average person would not consider lightning as being a viable source of energy, but this is not the case as there are about two hundred lightning strikes per second - mainly in the tropics - and what is generally not understood is that they are radiant energy events and their effects are felt instantly everywhere on earth as transmissions through the zero-point energy field are instantaneous at any distance. To clarify the situation a little more, here are two of Tesla's patents, one on pick-up of the static field which Tesla remarks appears to be unlimited in voltage, and one patent on pick-up of dynamic energy.

This is a slightly re-worded copy of this patent, as some words have changed their meaning since this patent was issued. If you wish to see the original, then http://www.freepatentsonline.com will allow you to download a copy without any charge.

Patent US 685,957 5th November 1901 Inventor: Nikola Tesla

APPARATUS FOR THE UTILISATION OF RADIANT ENERGY

To all whom it may concern:
Be it known that I, Nikola Tesla, a citizen of the United States, residing at the borough of Manhattan, in the city, county and State of New York, have invented certain new and useful improvements in Apparatus for the Utilisation of Radiant Energy, of which the following is a specification, reference being had to the drawings accompanying and forming a part of the same.

It is well known that certain radiations - such as those of ultra-violet light, cathodic, Roentgen rays, or the like - possess the property of charging and discharging conductors of electricity, the discharge being particularly noticeable when the conductor upon which the rays impinge is negatively electrified. These radiations are generally considered to be ether vibrations of extremely small wave lengths, and in explanation of the phenomena noted, it has been assumed by some authorities that they ionise, or render conducting, the atmosphere through which they are propagated. However, my own experiments and observations lead me to conclusions more in accord with the theory heretofore advanced by me that sources of such radiant energy throw off with great velocity, minute particles of matter which are strongly electrified, and therefore capable of charging an electrical conductor, or, even if not so, may at any rate discharge an electrified conductor, either by bodily carrying off its charge or otherwise.

My present application is based upon a discovery which I have made that when rays or radiations of the above kind are permitted to fall upon an insulated conducting-body connected to one of the terminals of a capacitor, while the other terminal of the capacitor is made to receive or carry away electricity, a current flows into the capacitor so long as the insulated body is exposed to the rays, and under the conditions specified below, an indefinite accumulation of electrical energy in the capacitor takes place. After a suitable time interval during which the rays are allowed to act, this energy may manifest itself in a powerful discharge, which may be used for the operation or control of mechanical or electrical devices, or rendered useful in many other ways.

In applying my discovery, I provide a capacitor, preferably of considerable electrostatic capacity, and connect one of its terminals to an insulated metal plate or other conducting-body exposed to the rays or streams of radiant matter. It is very important, particularly in view of the fact that electrical energy is generally supplied to the capacitor at a very slow rate, to construct the capacitor with the greatest care. I prefer to use the best quality of mica as the dielectric, taking every possible precaution in insulating the armatures, so that the instrument may withstand great electrical pressures without leaking and may leave no perceptible electrification when discharging instantaneously. In practice, I have found that the best results are obtained with capacitors treated in the manner described in Patent 577,671 granted to me on 23rd February 1897. Obviously, the above precautions should be the more rigorously observed the slower the rate of charging and the smaller the time interval during which the energy is allowed to accumulate in the capacitor. The insulated plate or conducting-body should present to the rays or streams of matter, as large a surface as is practical, I having ascertained that the amount of energy conveyed to it per unit of time is, under otherwise identical conditions, proportional to the area exposed, or nearly so. Furthermore, the surface should be clean and preferably highly polished or amalgamated. The second terminal or armature of the capacitor may be connected to one of the poles of a battery or other source of
electricity, or to any conducting body or object whatever of such properties or so conditioned that by its means, electricity of the required sign will be supplied to the terminal. A simple way of supplying positive or negative electricity to the terminal is to connect it to an insulated conductor supported at some height in the atmosphere, or to a grounded conductor, the former, as is well known, furnishing positive, and the latter negative electricity. As the rays or supposed streams of matter generally convey a positive charge to the first terminal of the capacitor mentioned above. I usually connect the second terminal of the capacitor to the ground, this being the most convenient way of obtaining negative electricity, dispensing with the necessity of providing an artificial source. In order to use the energy collected in the capacitor for any useful purpose, I also connect to the capacitor terminals, a circuit containing an instrument or apparatus which it is desired to operate, and another instrument or device for alternately closing and opening the circuit. This latter device can be any form of circuit-controller with fixed or moveable parts or electrodes, which may be actuated either by the stored energy or by independent means.

My discovery will be more fully understood from the following description and drawings, where Fig.1 is a diagram showing the general arrangement of the apparatus as usually employed.

![Fig.1](image1)

Fig.2 is a similar diagram, illustrating in more detail, typical forms of the devices or elements used in practice.

![Fig.2](image2)

Fig.3 and Fig.4 are diagrams of modified arrangements suitable for special purposes.

![Fig.3](image3)
**Fig. 1** shows the simplest form, in which $C$ is the capacitor, $P$ the insulated plate or conducting-body which is exposed to the rays, and $P'$ another plate or conductor which is grounded, all being connected in series as shown. The terminals $T$ and $T'$ of the capacitor $C$ are also connected to a circuit which contains a device $R$ which is to be operated, and a circuit-controlling device $d$ as described above.

The apparatus being arranged as shown, it will be found that when the radiation of the sun, or any other source capable of producing the effects described above, fall on plate $P$, there will be an accumulation of energy in capacitor $C$. I believe that this phenomenon is best explained as follows: The sun, as well as other sources of radiant energy, throws off minute particles of positively electrified matter, which striking plate $P$, create an electrical charge on it. The opposite terminal of the capacitor being connected to the ground, which can be considered to be a vast reservoir of negative electricity, a feeble current flows continuously into the capacitor, and since these supposed particles are of an inconceivably small radius or curvature, and consequently, charged to a very high voltage, this charging of the capacitor may continue as I have actually observed, almost indefinitely, even to the point of rupturing the dielectric. If the device $d$ be of such character that it will operate to close the circuit in which it is included when the capacitor voltage has reached a certain level, then the accumulated charge will pass through the circuit, operating the receiver $R$.

In illustration of this effect, **Fig. 2** shows the same general arrangement as in **Fig. 1**, and the device $d$ is shown composed of two very thin conducting plates $t$ and $t'$ which are free to move and placed very close to each other. The freedom of movement can be either through the flexibility of the plates or through the character of their support. To improve their action they should be enclosed in a housing which can have the air removed from it.
The plates t and t' are connected in series in a working circuit which includes a suitable receiver, which in this example is shown as an electromagnet M, a moveable armature a, a spring b, and a ratchet wheel w, provided with a spring-pawl r, which is pivoted to armature a as illustrated. When the radiation falls on plate P, a current flows into the capacitor until its voltage causes the plates t and t' to be attracted together, closing the circuit and energising the magnet M, causing it to draw down the armature a and cause a partial rotation of the ratchet wheel w. When the current flow stops, the armature is retracted by the spring b, without, however, moving the wheel w. With the stoppage of the current, the plates t and t' cease to be attracted and separate, thus restoring the circuit to its original condition.

Fig. 3 shows a modified form of apparatus used in connection with an artificial source of radiant energy, which in this case may be an arc emitting copious ultra-violet rays. A suitable reflector may be provided for concentrating and directing the radiation. A magnet R and circuit-controller d are arranged as in the previous figures, but in this case, instead of performing the whole of the work, the magnet performs the task of alternately opening and closing a local circuit, containing a source of current B and a receiving or translating device D. The controller d may, if desired, consist of two fixed electrodes separated by a minute air gap or weak dielectric film which breaks down more or less suddenly when a definite voltage difference is reached at the terminals of the capacitor, and returns to its original state when the discharge occurs.

Still another modification is shown in Fig. 4, in which S, the source of radiant energy is a special form of Roentgen tube devised by me, having only one terminal k, generally of aluminium, in the form of half a sphere, with a plain polished surface on the front side, from which the streams are thrown off. It may be excited by attaching it to one of the terminals of any generator with sufficiently high electromotive force; but whatever apparatus is used, it is important that the tube has the air inside it removed to a high degree, otherwise it might prove to be entirely ineffective. The working, or discharge circuit connected to the terminals T and T' of the capacitor, includes, in this case, the primary winding p of a transformer, and a circuit-controller comprised of a fixed terminal or brush t and a moveable terminal t' in the shape of a wheel, with conducting and insulating segments, which may be rotated at an arbitrary speed by any suitable means. In inductive relation to the primary winding p, is a secondary winding s, usually of a much greater number of turns, to the ends of which is connected a receiver R. The terminals of the capacitor being connected as shown, one to an insulated plate P and the other to a grounded plate P'. When the tube S is excited, rays or streams of matter are emitted from it and these convey a positive charge to the plate P and capacitor terminal T, while the capacitor terminal T' is continuously receiving negative electricity from plate P'. As already explained, this results in an accumulation of electrical energy in the capacitor, and this continues as long as the circuit including the primary winding p is interrupted. Whenever the circuit is closed by the rotation of the terminal t', the stored energy is discharged through the primary winding p, giving rise to induced currents in the secondary winding s, which operates the receiver R.
It is clear from what has been stated above, that if the terminal $T'$ is connected to a plate supplying positive instead of negative electricity, then the rays should convey negative electricity to plate $P$. The source $S$ may be any form of Roentgen or Leonard tube, but it is obvious from the theory of action that in order to be very effective, the impulses exciting it should be wholly, or mainly of one sign. If ordinary symmetrical alternating currents are employed, then provision should be made for allowing the rays to fall on plate $P$ only during those periods when they can produce the desired result. Obviously, if the source radiation is stopped or intercepted, or the intensity varied in any manner such as periodically interrupting or rhythmically varying the current exciting the source, there will be corresponding changes in the action upon the receiver $R$ and thus signals may be transmitted and many other useful effects produced. Further, it will be understood that any form of circuit-closer which will respond, or be set in operation when a predetermined amount of energy is stored in the capacitor, may be used instead of the device already described in connection with Fig.2.

The second patent requires the equipment to be tuned to one quarter of the wavelength of the energy pulses being collected. This patent shows a transmission method as well as a receiving method, but our main concern here is the receiving section shown on the right of the diagram as that can receive naturally occurring energy pulses in the environment and so provides free usable energy.

As it may be a little difficult to visualise the coil arrangement in this patent as many people are familiar with the "Tesla Coil" arrangement where a few turns of thick wire or copper tubing are used as a winding placed around an ordinary cylindrical coil, much like, this illustration from Tesla's patent US 568,178:

In this case it should be understood that Tesla is speaking about his flat "pancake" coil design and not the well-known Tesla Coil configuration.

**Patent US 649,621**  
**15th May 1900**  
**Inventor: Nikola Tesla**

**APPARATUS FOR THE TRANSMISSION OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY**

*To all whom it may concern:*

Be it known that I, Nikola Tesla, a citizen of the Unites States, residing at the borough of Manhattan, in the city, county and State of New York, have invented certain new and useful improvements in Apparatus for the Transmission of Electrical Energy, of which the following is a specification, reference being had to the drawing accompanying and forming a part of the same.
This application is a division of an application filed by me on 2nd September 1897, US 650,343 entitled "Systems of Transmission of Electrical Energy" and is based on new and useful features and combinations of apparatus shown and described in that patent application.

This invention comprises a transmitting coil or conductor in which electrical currents or oscillations are produced and which is arranged to cause these currents or oscillations to be propagated by conduction through the natural medium from one location to a remote location, and a receiving coil or conductor adapted to be excited by the oscillations or currents propagated by the transmitter.

This apparatus is shown in the accompanying diagram where A is a coil, generally of many turns and of a very large diameter, wound in spiral form, either around a magnetic core or not as may be desired. C is a second coil formed by a conductor of much larger size and smaller length, wound around and in proximity to coil A.

The apparatus at one point is used as a transmitter, the coil A in this case forming a high-voltage secondary of a transformer, and the coil C the primary which operates at a much lower voltage. The source of current for the primary winding is marked G. One terminal of the secondary winding A is at the centre of the spiral coil, and from this terminal the current is led by a conductor B to a terminal D, preferably of large surface, formed or maintained by such means as a balloon at an elevation suitable for the purpose of transmission. The other terminal of the secondary winding A is connected to earth, and if desired, to the primary winding also in order that the primary winding may also be at substantially the same voltage as the adjacent portions of the secondary winding, thus ensuring safety.

At the receiving station, a transformer of similar construction is used, but in this case the coil A' constitutes the primary winding and the shorter coil C' is the secondary winding. In this receiving circuit, lamps L, motors M, or other devices for using this current, are connected. The elevated terminal D' connects with the centre of the coil A' and the other terminal is connected to earth and preferably, also, to the coil C' again for safety reasons as mentioned above.
The length of the thin wire coil in each transformer should be approximately one quarter of the wave length of the
electric disturbance in the circuit, this estimate being based on the velocity of propagation of the disturbance
through the coil itself and the circuit with which it is designed to be used. By way of illustration, if the rate at which
the current flows through the circuit containing the coil is 185,000 miles per second, then a frequency of 925 Hz
would maintain 925 stationary nodes in a circuit 185,000 miles long and each wave would be 200 miles in length.

For such a low frequency, which would only be resorted to when it is indispensable for the operation of ordinary
motors, I would use a secondary winding wound from a wire 50 miles in length. By adjusting the length of wire in
the secondary winding, the points of highest voltage are made to coincide with the elevated terminals D and D'.
and it should be understood that whatever wire length is chosen, this length requirement should be complied with
in order to get the best possible results.

It will be readily understood that when these relationships exist, the best conditions for resonance between the
transmitting and receiving circuits are attained and owing to the fact that the points of highest voltage in the coils
A and A' are coincident with the elevated terminals, the maximum current flow will take place in the two coils and
this implies that the capacitance and inductance in each of the circuits have the values which produce the most
perfect synchronism with the oscillations.

When the source of current G is in operation and produces rapidly pulsating or oscillating currents in the circuit of
coil C, corresponding induced currents of very much higher voltage are generated in the secondary coil A, and
since the voltage in that coil gradually increases with the number of turns towards the centre, and the voltage
difference between adjacent turns is comparatively small, a very high voltage is generated, which would not be
possible with ordinary coils.

As the main objective is to produce a current with excessively high voltage, this objective is facilitated by using a
current in the primary winding which has a very considerable frequency, but that frequency is in a large measure,
arbitrary, because if the voltage is sufficiently high and the terminals of the coils be kept at the proper height
where the atmosphere is rarefied, the stratum of air will serve as a conducting medium with even less resistance
then through an ordinary conductor.

As to the elevation of terminals D and D', it is obvious that this is a matter which will be determined by a number
of things, such as the amount and the quality of the work to be performed, the condition of the atmosphere and
the character of the surrounding countryside. Thus, if there are high mountains in the vicinity, then the terminals
should be at a greater height, and generally, they should be at an altitude much greater than that of the highest
objects near them. Since, by the means described, practically any voltage which is desired may be produced, the
currents through the air strata may be very small, thus reducing the loss in the air.

The apparatus at the receiving station responds to the currents propagated by the transmitter in a manner which
will be well understood from the description above. The primary circuit of the receiver - that is, the thin wire coil A'
is excited by the currents propagated by conduction through the intervening natural medium between it and the
transmitter, and these currents induce in the secondary coil C', other currents which are used to operate the
devices connected to that circuit.

Obviously, the receiving coils, transformers, or other apparatus may be moveable - as for instance, when they are
carryed by a vessel floating in the air or by a ship at sea. In the former case, the connection of one terminal of the
receiving apparatus to the ground might not be permanent, but might be intermittently or inductively established.

It should be noted that Tesla's suggestion of using the conductive envelope of a specially constructed balloon as
a good method of increasing the active area of the elevated receiving plate, is one that was taken up by Hermann
Plauson when he was building power stations operating on naturally occurring energy.

Jes Ascanius' Version of Nikola Tesla's Aerial System.
This sort of information may seem confusing and maybe a little too technical for you, so let me tell you about the
practical and useful applications used by Jes Ascanius, a Danish developer, to whom thanks is due for sharing his
design. Initially, he set up a system to charge his mobile phone battery overnight from an aerial. Then he went
on to produce a full-size Tesla Aerial System as described at the start of this chapter. Let's start with the very
simple system and progress from that to the more powerful arrangements.

The initial circuit uses one strand of solid wire which rises vertically to a 700 mm diameter drum where there are
some twenty turns. The arrangement is like this:
The aerial wire is several metres long, and in the prototype, was supported by (and insulated from) the eaves of a house. The aerial should be vertical or near vertical and a proper earth connection provided by driving a metal rod into the ground or connecting a wire to a metal plate and burying the plate in the ground as a good electrical connection is needed here. The earth connection used here is a 12 mm copper pipe 3 metres long, driven into the ground and the ground around it saturated with water:

The wire used to connect with the earthing rod is very important and should not be less than 8 swg copper wire, that is, 4 mm diameter and 13 sq. mm. cross-sectional area. As with all free-energy devices, the exact constructional details are vital.

The diodes used are germanium 1N34 or 1N34a which are particularly suited to this application. Ceramic disc types are recommended for the 200 nF capacitors. The prototype build looked like this:
Now, consider this circuit as described, to be one modular building block which can lead to unlimited power from an aerial. I will represent the circuit shown above as a rectangle, showing the above circuit as:

While it is possible to use more than one module with the aerial to get more power, the Danish developer then switched to the full-blown Tesla arrangement by attaching a 600 x 800 x 2 mm aluminium plate inside the sloping roof of his house:

The plate being suspended using nylon cord to prevent it touching the roof or anything else:
The plate is positioned between 3 and 3.5 metres (10 to 12 feet) above the ground and the attachment to the plate is also heavy-duty 8 swg cable:

The cable is connected to the aluminium plate using a brass bolt and nuts which the builder thinks may be significant, quite apart from avoiding any galvanitic connection to the circuit. The cable is then run vertically downwards to the circuit. For this arrangement a second earthing point is also used. This is a galvanised iron pipe 3 metres long, driven vertically into the ground which is saturated with water. The second earth is 2 metres away from the first earth and there is no known significance in the use of an iron pipe as it was used because it was to hand at the time.

This arrangement provides serious power, enough to cause injury to, or kill a careless human. With two modules, it will light an LED very brightly, driving it to 2.6 volts. If the LED is removed, then the voltage climbs to about twenty volts and is easily sufficient to charge a 12V battery or battery bank although that takes time. With twenty modules a 12V battery can be charged over night. It is estimated that with two hundred modules, the power would be sufficient to power a household although that has not yet been done. It should be borne in mind that each module is easy and cheap to make, so arranging for a stack of them where additional modules can be added at a later date for more power, is an ideal arrangement. The circuit is like this:

This circuit looks completely mad as the aerial input to the circuit appears to be directly short-circuited by the second earth connection. In spite of this, the circuit works very well when connected this way. Additional modules can be added without any known limit. Increased power can be had by either raising the aluminium plate higher above the ground, to say, 10 metres (33 feet), or by adding one or more additional aerial plates. As you
have a good aerial connected through to a very good earth, there has to be the possibility of the equipment being hit by lightning, and so it is recommended that a protective spark-gap is installed between the aerial and the earth, close to the circuit, so that if high-voltage is suddenly applied to the aerial, the spark gap will fire and shunt the excess power through to the earth. Alternatively, possibly a better solution is to install a standard lightning rod system a few metres away from the aerial and a metre or two higher up, so that it forms a more attractive point for a lightning strike.

Further experimentation has shown that altering the connection point for the aerial has a significant effect on the results. If the connection is made at the mid point between the aerial plate and the earth connection, it produces a greater output:

With this arrangement a single module produces around 30 volts while the original method of connecting near the earth was giving about 26 volts with two modules. Jes Ascanius has carried out further experimentation and he states that diodes with response times under 30 milliseconds produce a greater output and he recommends the use of BYV27 diodes which have a 200-volt 25nS rating as he gets three times the output from them. He also recommends using them in Joule Thief circuits.

Dragan Kljajic has been experimenting with this circuit and has started by building many of these modules on a printed circuit board like this:
Using two of these boards, Dragan is pulling 96 watts continuously from his aerial plate. He intends to extend this arrangement much further, but is being hindered at present by a local civil war.

Here is a forum: [http://www.energeticforum.com/renewable-energy/10947-jes-ascanius-radiant-collector.html](http://www.energeticforum.com/renewable-energy/10947-jes-ascanius-radiant-collector.html) where some builders of this system share comments. One comment is that there is an increased risk of a lightning strike where you have an earthed aerial, and so it is advisable not to place the aerial plate inside a house, but perhaps suspended between two trees. Also, using a car spark plug connected across the module set can protect against lightning strikes damaging the circuitry.

As a result of queries, Jes stresses the following points:

1. The plate **must** be high off the ground.
2. The plate **must** be polished and insulated.
3. The wire **must** be single-strand solid wire.
4. There **must not** be any part of the wire above the circuit, which is not insulated.

He further comments: you can use aluminium foil and cling film to make many collector plates 0.4 m x 5 m and connect them close together to feed the aerial wire. Remember, no uninsulated wire anywhere. Any queries should be asked on the forum shown above.

A modification of this circuit of Jes Ascanius’ by a developer who prefers to remain anonymous, doubles the output of each module by adding a mirror image of the circuit like this:

![Diagram of modified circuit](attachment:modified_circuit.png)

As can be seen, the addition is of four diodes and two capacitors. Presumably, using BYV27 diodes rather than 1N34 diodes would create a further enhanced output.

**Thomas Henry Moray's Aerial System.**

In this field, Thomas Henry Moray is outstanding. By 1936 he had developed a piece of apparatus which was capable of putting out high power with no human-generated input power at all.
Moray’s equipment is said to have contained a germanium diode which he built himself in the days before solid-state devices became readily available. The equipment was examined and tested many times. On dozens of occasions, he demonstrated the equipment driving a bank of twenty 150W bulbs, plus a 600W heater, plus a 575W iron (a total of 4.175 kW). The power picked up by this device needed only small diameter wires and had characteristics different from conventional electricity. One demonstration which was repeated many times, was to show that the output power circuit could be broken and a sheet of ordinary glass placed between the severed ends of the wire, without disrupting the supply. This type of power is called “Cold electricity” because thin wires carrying major power loads, do not overheat. This form of energy is said to flow in waves which surround the wires of a circuit and not actually through the wires at all. Unlike conventional electricity, it does not use electrons for transmission and that is why it can continue through a sheet of glass which would stop conventional electricity dead in its tracks.

On one occasion, Moray took his equipment away from all urban areas to a place chosen at random by a critic. He then set up the equipment and demonstrated the power output, well away from any man-generated electrical induction. He disconnected the aerial and showed that the power output stopped immediately. He connected the aerial again to generate the output as before. He then disconnected the earth connection which stopped the output again. When the earth wire was connected again, the output power returned. He found that the power output level fell somewhat at night. The aerial used in his demonstrations was reported to be like this:

![Diagram of aerial setup](image)

From which it can be seen that even a relatively short aerial wire suspended not far from the ground, is capable of collecting substantial amounts of usable electrical power. The earth used in the remote demonstrations was a length of gas pipe which was hammered into the ground. It was noted that as each hammer blow drove the pipe deeper into the earth, the light bulbs (which formed the electrical load) shone more brightly, indicating that the quality of the earth connection is very important when serious power is being drawn from an aerial.
Thomas developed various versions of the device, the latest of which did not need the aerial or earth connections, weighed 60 pounds and had an output of 50 kilowatts. This device was tested in both an aeroplane and a submarine, thus showing the device to be fully self-contained and portable. It was also tested in locations which were fully shielded from electromagnetic radiation.

With his later devices, Moray leaves the area of aeria ls and moves into the same category as Barbosa and Leal, those two Brazilian men extracting 192 kilowatts of power directly from the ground. If you read Moray’s book “The Sea of Energy in which the Earth Floats” (http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/P26.pdf) you will discover that Moray moved past the scientific thinking of his day, stating that the Earth is being bombarded with cosmic energy particles which cause atoms to change from matter into energy, enter the aether and there revert to matter again. This process is governed by frequency. Moray developed energy diodes which act like electrical diodes on the energy flow of the aether. He used a chain of these ‘tubes’. Each tube was tuned to one of the harmonics of the oscillating frequency of the aether. Each tube produced lower frequency waves and the following tube is tuned to those waves and is driven by a resonant harmonic of the aether oscillations, thus producing a device with no need of any power input from the user. Also, the aerial was replaced by a small, internal copper plate. So in true aerial mode – four kilowatts. In earth-only mode – 50 kilowatts. Moray’s ideas are supported by the work and books by Gustav Le Bon (http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/The_Evolution_of_Matter.pdf and http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/The_Evolution_of_Forces.pdf).

Moray was shot and wounded in an assassination attempt in his laboratory. This caused him to change the glass in his car to bullet-proof glass. He was threatened many times. His demonstration equipment was smashed with a hammer. When threats were made against his family, he stopped rebuilding his equipment and appeared to have turned his attentions to other things, producing a device for ‘therapeutic’ medical treatment.

In his book “The Energy Machine of T. Henry Moray”, Moray B. King provides more information on this system. He states that Moray was refused a patent on the grounds that the examiner couldn’t see how the device could output so much power when the valve cathodes were not heated. Moray was granted US Patent 2,460,707 on 1st February 1949 for an Electrotherapeutic Apparatus, in which he included the specification for the three valves used in his power device, apparently because he wanted them to be covered by a patent. As far as can be seen, the valve shown here is an oscillator tube. Moray claimed that this tube had the very high capacitance of 1 Farad when running at its resonant frequency. Moray liked to use powdered quartz as a dielectric in the capacitors which he made, and he had a habit of mixing in radium salts and uranium ores with the quartz. These materials may well be important in producing ionisation in these tubes and that ionisation may well be important in tapping the energy field.
The tube shown above has a six-layer capacitor formed from two U-shaped circular metal rings with the space between them filled with a dielectric material. The plates are shown in red and blue, while the dielectric is shown in green. Inside the capacitor, there is a separate ring of dielectric material (possibly made from a different material) and an inside ring of corrugated metal to form an ion brush-discharge electrode. The capacitor and electrode connections are taken to pins in the base of the tube.

Quartz is suggested for the material of the outer covering of the tube and the wire element numbered 79 in the diagram is said to be a heating element intended to be powered by a low-voltage current source. However, as Moray had an earlier patent application refused on the grounds that there was no heating element in his tubes, it is distinctly possible that the heating element shown here is spurious, and drawn solely to avoid rejection by the examiners. In his patent, Moray refers to the capacitor in this tube as a "sparking" capacitor, so he may have been driving it with excessively high voltages which caused repeated breakdown of the capacitor material.
The tube of Fig.16 above, uses a different technique where an X-ray tube is used to bombard a corrugated electrode through a screen containing an X-ray window. It is thought that a brief burst of X-rays was used to trigger very short, sharp bursts of ions between the anode and cathode of the tube and these pick up extra energy with every burst.

An alternative version of this tube is shown in Fig.18 below. Here the construction is rather similar but instead of an X-ray window, a lens and reflector are used to cause the ionisation of the switching channel between the anode and cathode. In both tubes, the corrugated electrode supports a corona build-up just prior to the short X-ray switching pulse, and it is thought that the ions contribute to the intensity of the resulting pulses which emerge from the tube. Very short uni-directional pulses are capable of causing conditions under which additional energy can be picked up. From where does this extra energy come? In 1873, James Clerk Maxwell published his “Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism” and in it he pointed out that the vacuum contains a considerable amount of energy (Vol. 2, p. 472 and 473). John Archibald Wheeler of Princeton University, a leading physicist who worked on the US atomic bomb project, has calculated the flux density of the vacuum. Applying Einstein’s $E=mc^2$ formula indicates that there is enough energy in every 1 cc of “empty” space, to create all of the matter in the visible universe which can be seen with our most powerful telescopes. That amount of energy is so great as to be beyond imagining. This energy field is referred to as “Universal Energy”, “Cosmic Energy” or “Zero Point Energy”. At this time, we do not have any instrument which responds directly to this energy and so it is almost impossible to measure.

The existence of this energy field is now widely accepted by mainstream science and it is borne out by the situation found at quantum levels. It is generally thought that this energy is chaotic in form and for useful energy to be drawn from it, it needs to be restructured into a coherent form. It appears that uni-directional electromagnetic pulses of one millisecond or less, can be used to cause the necessary restructuring as they generate an outward coherent wave of radiant energy, from which energy can be extracted for use in most electrical devices, if a suitable receptor system is used. Tom Bearden states that at the quantum level, the seething energy of this field appears continuously as positive and negative charges. As these are evenly distributed, the net charge at any point is always zero. If a “dipole” (two opposite charges near each other) is created anywhere, then it polarises the energy field disrupting the previously even distribution of charges and causing massive streams of energy to radiate outwards from the dipole.

A voltage pulse acts as a dipole, provided the voltage rise is fast enough, and that is what causes a wave of radiant energy fanning out from the location of the voltage pulse. Batteries and magnets create continuous dipoles and so cause the local quantum energy field to send out continuous streams of massive power which can be utilised if (and only if) you know how to do it. The search for mechanisms to capture and use even a tiny fraction of these energy streams is what the “free-energy” field of research is all about. Some people say that there is no such thing as “free-energy” because you have to pay for the device which captures it. That is like taking a bus trip to a car dealership where they are giving away new cars, and saying that your new car was not a “free” car because you had to pay a bus fare to reach the car dealership.
Moray King suggests that the circuit used by Thomas Henry Moray was as follows:

![Diagram of circuit](image)

There can be little doubt that Thomas Henry Moray built several versions of his apparatus, each of which produced output power well in excess of any input power needed. It seems highly likely that most of them used no input power whatsoever, and if there were any others, they will have been powered by a tiny fraction of the output power. If mild radioactive material was used as described, then the output power could in no way be attributed to that source alone, since the output power was thousands of time greater than any power available from the radioactive materials.

It is perhaps time to explain a little more about voltage, power and current. We have been raised with the notion that it is necessary to “burn” a fuel to get power, that batteries “run down” when used and that you have to keep turning the shaft of an electrical generator to be able to draw current from it. These things are not actually true. The relatively recent field of Quantum Mechanics shows that if a charge, such as an electron has, is positioned in what is supposed to be “empty” space, it is not alone. The “empty” space is actually seething with energy, to the extent that “virtual” particles are popping into existence for a fraction of a second and then disappearing again. They are called “virtual” because they exist for such a short time.

Because of the negative charge of the electron, the particles appearing and disappearing around it will all be positive in charge. The electron has “polarised” the space around itself because it has a charge. The instant that a positive “virtual” particle appears, there are two charges near each other - minus on the electron and plus on the particle. When you have two opposite charges near each other, they form a “dipole”. Dipoles form a gateway through which energy from the environment flows continuously. An instant later, the particle disappears, but it’s place is immediately taken by another virtual particle. The result is a continuous stream of energy flowing out from the dipole.
Batteries with their positive and negative terminals are electrical dipoles, so too are generators when the input shaft is spun. Permanent magnets with their North and South poles are magnetic dipoles. Both of these have continuous streams of energy flowing through them. So, why then do batteries run down and lose their charge? The reason is that we power circuits using a closed loop. The energy flowing out of one terminal flows into the opposite terminal and instantly destroys the dipole. A new dipole has to be created every split second if the circuit is to deliver power, and it is that self-destructive method of use which causes the battery to discharge or which needs the generator shaft to be rotated continuously.

If a different operating technique is used, where the dipole is not continuously destroyed, then devices which can provide a continuous stream of energy drawn from our natural environment can be constructed. This is not magic, just the next step in conventional science and engineering. Thomas Henry Moray managed it, initially with an aerial and earth like a crystal set to provide the dipole, his device was able to draw many kilowatts of power from the environment. No fuel was needed, the energy is already there surrounding us all, all of the time. As far as I am aware, nobody has managed to replicate Moray's device (which was the reason for it being violently suppressed) but knowing that it existed and was repeatedly demonstrated to work perfectly well, is useful in that it shows that it is possible to tap the massive zero-point energy field with a practical, home-constructed device.

Here is a collection of additional items of information gathered from several different sources:

Moray started his experiments with 'the taking of electricity from the ground', as he described it, during the summer of 1909. By autumn 1910 he had sufficient power to operate a small electrical device, and demonstrated his idea to two friends. The early stages of this demonstration consisted of operating a miniature arc light. It soon became clear to him that the energy was not static and that the static of the universe would be of no assistance to him in obtaining the power for which he was searching.

During the Christmas Holidays of 1911, he began to realise fully, that the energy with which he was working, was of an oscillating nature. He also realised that the energy was not coming out of the earth, but instead, was coming to the earth from some outside source. These electrical oscillations in the form of waves were not simple oscillations, but were surging like the waves of the sea, coming continually to the earth but more in the daytime than at night, but always arriving as vibrations from the reservoir of colossal energy out there in space. By this time Moray was able to gather enough power to light a 16-candlepower carbon lamp to about a half of it's capacity, but he did not manage to gain any further improvement until the spring of 1925.

In 1912 Moray was called to go on a mission for the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, and under a visitor's visa was allowed to enter Sweden during the Exhibition of 1912 in Stockholm. In his notebook, dated November 1, 1913, he included a note saying that he had obtained material from a railroad car at Abisco, Sweden the previous summer, also some more material from the side of a hill. He made electric tests of these materials, taking them home to try each as a detector for his energy machine. Tests indicated that this soft, white stone-like substance might make a good "valve-like detector". This "valve-like detector" is what led him to do research into semi-conductive materials, and from this soft white stone he developed his first valve and the valve which was used in some of his early Radiant Energy devices (silver wire touching a stone can act as a rectifier).

Moray demonstrated that energy was available by its actions on a resistive load, such as a flat-iron or a space heater, and by lighting bulbs. A resistive device acts as a load which is directly proportional to the amount of energy delivered to it. In heating a heater, or lighting a bulb, the number of watts produced can be calculated as equal to the number of watts provided to the device. This energy is fed into a load to give either heat, light, or power. A motor can be operated but it must be designed to run on a high frequency power supply. The Radiant Energy device used an antenna and a ground connected to his solid state Radiant Energy circuit.
The diagram shown above is reproduced from a rough sketch drawn from memory after seeing Moray's circuit diagram. The person who drew it does not understand how the circuit works, so please treat this diagram as being just an overall suggestion as to what Moray's circuit might have been like. It is actually much more likely that it was a cascade of pairs of tank circuits containing Moray's valve, each pair being one series tank circuit followed by one parallel tank circuit, the oscillating frequency dropping with each tank pair and the output power rising with each tank pair. Moray's circuit was started oscillating by stroking the U-shaped coil with a permanent magnet for a few seconds, and when the circuit started operating, then switch 'S' was closed, effectively removing the U-shaped coil from the circuit.

Moray was able to demonstrate that none of the output energy came from within his device. Internally the device was electrically dead when it had not been connected and tuned to the antenna. When his device was set up, he could connect it to an antenna and ground, and by priming it first and then tuning it as he primed it, the device would draw in electrical energy. This high frequency electrical energy produced up to 250,000 volts and it powered a brighter light than witnesses had ever seen before. Heavy loads could be connected to the device without dimming the lights already connected to it. This device worked many miles from any known source of electrical energy such as power transmission lines or radio signals. The device produced up to 50,000 watts of power and worked for long periods of time.

Moray initially assumed that this energy was electromagnetic in nature however, he never claimed that it was. He assumed at first that this energy came from the earth but later he believed it was flowing in from the universe. Finally he began to believe that it was present throughout all space, intermolecular space as well as terrestrial and celestial space. He did not necessarily understand how his detectors operated, only that if he built the device very carefully according to his calculations it would work. He was able to demonstrate the existence of an energy that today, though it has not been identified or proven, has been theorised by many researchers.

The largest instrument was about 6 inches high, circular in shape and about 8 inches in diameter. We went out on the roof of the chicken coop carrying the device on a small drafting board, erected an antenna upon the roof of the coop, the antenna being about 100 feet from the house. We pulled the main line switches in the house before going out upon the roof. Mr Judd had Moray move the drafting board from place to place and he also examined the inside of the coop for hidden equipment. The machine was then assembled in his presence and the device was started. Mr Judd timed me to see how long it would take to bring the light operating. I was able to light the CGE lamp to its full brightness and to heat an old-style Hotpoint electric flat iron to sizzling point, which required 655 watts. Mr Judd asked for the antenna to be disconnected. When this was done, the light went out. The aerial was connected again and the light reappeared. We drove a new grounding rod at a spot selected by Mr Judd, made a connection to the new grounding point and the light burned dim, but came brighter and brighter as the new grounding rod was driven deeper and deeper into the ground.

If the ground or antenna is left disconnected for too long a time, the device becomes electrically dead and must be retuned in order to regain the energy flow. Dr Eyring found no fault with the demonstration and the worst that he could say about it was that it might be induction, but that if Moray would take the device out in the mountains away from all power lines, a distance of three or four miles, and it then operated, he would then acknowledge that it could not be induction and that his theory was wrong.
At last they decided to go up Emigration Canyon, as there are no power lines in that canyon. All three gentlemen were very well satisfied and pleased with what they saw. The antenna wire was put up without any aid or instructions whatever from Mr Moray, except that he suggested that the wire be stretched tighter to prevent so much sag at the centre. This was done and the wire then appeared to clear the ground by about 7 or 8 feet at its lowest point. The ground pipe was of half-inch water pipe consisting of two sections. The lower section was pointed at the end to make its driving into the creek bed easy. It was about 6 feet long and after being driven down about 5 feet the second section, which was about 4 feet long, was screwed on with a wrench and the pipe driven further down until it struck a hard object, so about 7 feet of pipe was in the ground.

The antenna wire was insulated from the poles with two glass insulators about 6 inches long and having holes in both ends. A piece of wire about 2 feet long connected each insulator with the pole. The lead-in wire was fastened to the antenna wire at a point about 10 or 15 feet from the east pole. I helped Mr Moray solder the connection. I paced the distance between the two antenna poles and estimated it to be 87 feet. Mr Moray's equipment, apart from the antenna and ground wires, consisted of a brown box about the size of a butter box, another slightly smaller unpainted box, a fibre board box about 6" x 4" x 4", which Mr Moray referred to as containing the tubes, and a metal baseboard about 14" x 4" x 1" containing what appeared to be a magnet at one end, a switch near the middle and a receptacle for an electric light bulb at the other end. There were also several posts for connecting wires on the baseboard.

When all of the wires were connected and everything was ready, Mr Moray began tuning in. Before tuning, he placed the key on the post: he said it would be in contact while the light burnt, but no light appeared. The tuning consisted of stroking the end of a magnet across two metal projections protruding from what I referred to above as being 'a magnet'. After tuning for slightly more than 10 minutes the key was put on the operating post and the light appeared immediately. Mr Moray put the key on the operating post two or three times before during the tuning operation but no light appeared. We allowed the light to burn for 15 minutes. In my opinion, the brilliancy of the light coming from the 100-watt bulb, was about 75% as bright as a 100-watt bulb connected to an ordinary house socket. It was an steady light, without fluctuations of any kind.

While the light was burning Mr Moray disconnected the antenna lead-in wire from the apparatus and the light went out. He connected it again and the light appeared. He also disconnected the ground wire and the light went out. He then connected it and the light appeared again.

In another demonstration, Mr Moray opened the device and let everyone see everything except one small part that he placed his hand over and hid in his fist. This part he cut off and put in his vest pocket. Everything else, people were allowed to examine to their hearts' content. "If that part is able to make such power itself, then it's some device and worth selling. Such a battery would be worthwhile", were some of the remarks made.

On several occasions Dr Moray would disconnect the antenna wire momentarily, but not long enough to lose the light. In disconnecting and connecting the antenna wire a flash of electricity could always be seen at the posts for connecting wires on the baseboard.

Dr Moray then took a magnet, which was a very broad, short limbed U, and began to stroke one pole of it on the poles in the taped body. Mr Jensen placed his fingers on the binding posts several times, and at last received a rather vigorous shock. Mr Moray then threw the switch and the bulbs lit up. As a further proof that the conversion of the energy was due to the mechanism in the box, Dr Moray hit the table on which the trunk was standing, a moderate blow with a hammer whereupon the light flickered and went off, due to the detector being shaken out of adjustment. The boxes, in which the mechanism had been housed during the test, were opened and the contents examined. There were capacitors, the detector, a transformer, and two tubes in them but nothing else. Nothing that in the least resembled a battery.

It is to be noted that after a total run of 158 hours the device supplied 635 watts; inasmuch as a horsepower is but 746 watts this equals 0.878 of a horsepower or slightly more than 7/8 horsepower. This alone is sufficient to dispose of any suggestion of a battery.
A report from 1929 says: It is now more than 2 years since I first became acquainted with Dr T. H. Moray and the work he is carrying on, and in that time he has demonstrated inventive ability of an exceptional order. Perhaps the most wonderful of his inventions is a device whereby he is able to draw electric power from an antenna. This energy is not derived by induction from power lines, as has been suggested by some, nor is it derived from radio stations, as has been demonstrated by taking the apparatus more than 26 miles from the nearest power line and over a hundred miles from the nearest radio station and showing that it operates just as well as anywhere else.

This device was subjected to an endurance test in which it was operated continuously for a week, and at the end of that time a 100-watt lamp was lighted simultaneously with the heating of a 575 watt standard Hotpoint flat iron, making a total of 675 watts; it is very evident that no batteries could sustain such a drain as this.

He has also invented a very sensitive sound detector whereby it is possible to hear conversations carried on in an ordinary tone of voice at a distance of several blocks. He has also worked out numerous radio hook-ups which eliminate many of the parts now considered necessary for good reception, yet there is no diminution in quality or volume; in fact, there is a notable elimination of interference from static when some of these are used. He has devised a means by which he is able to measure with some degree of accuracy the energy evolved during mental activity; that is, he gets definite, variable deflections of the needle of a sensitive galvanometer which appeared to be related to the vigour of mental activity. There are a great many other equally remarkable things which he has done, such as reducing old rubber from truck tires to the state of a viscous fluid which is readily vulcanisable without the addition of smoke sheet as is necessary with other processes; also a high frequency therapeutic device, and numerous other devices which show great ingenuity.

The 6 lamps are set up in parallel and a small diameter wire is used as the current enters the tube prior to and connecting with the step-down transformer, this takes the very high voltage to the transformer. This voltage will jump across a spark gap of at least six inches. The operating frequency is so high that I have no instrument in my laboratory that is able to measure the amperage or the voltage at this frequency. (Signed, Murray O. Hayes, PhD.).

Dr Milton Marshall was attempting to identify the material that Moray called his "Swedish Stone". Moray described the radio detector which he had developed. He compared it to what was commonly known as the crystal of a crystal set. However, his detector was superior since it could drive a loudspeaker without the use of a battery. He used the most easily demonstrated device, the germanium diode, that worked on the same principle to illustrate how he thought the Radiant Energy Detector worked (Moray originally built the radio simply for the purpose of showing how he was able to pick up radio signals with a solid-state device, producing sufficiently strong signals which could drive a loudspeaker, which was something unheard of in that day. His circuit did not have batteries, and it was very similar to the old crystal-set circuitry.

The device was housed in a wooden box something like 12" by 18", with an antenna and a ground going into it. Wires leading out of the box led to a bank of some forty 100-watt light bulbs and to an electric iron. Moray touched a switch at the top of the box with a hand electrostatic plate and the globes all lit up brilliantly. We all noted that the bulbs burned cold except each had a hot spot about the size of a dime on the top slightly off centre. I also recall that I could turn the lights on and off by approaching and retreating to and from the device, either with my whole body or my hand. If my memory is clear, the machine had to be tuned with a dial to be placed in this condition. (Chester M. Todd, 1971)

In 1938, after examining the transformer of the device, Mr E. G. Jensen stated that he considered that the amount of current which he had seen taken from the device was positive proof that the current developed by or in the machine was different to any in use at that time. This was because the transformer would have burned out if it had been carrying normal current, but the transformer showed no signs of even ever having been warm. He was informed by Dr Hayes that the transformer had been in use under the same loading conditions during many demonstrations in the past.

The "Number 1" capacitor consisted of two small sheets of aluminium of about 30 gauge, separated by and making contact with a piece of one-quarter inch thick plate glass. The plate glass was larger than the aluminium sheets and overlapped them.

The "Number 2" capacitor was a commercial unit manufactured by Igred Condenser & Mfg. Co. and had a capacity of 0.025 mfd.

They were used as shown here:
With the 60 watt lamp and the two capacitors attached to the antenna and the antenna and ground attached to the box containing the Radiant Energy equipment as shown in the sketch, the 100-watt lamp on the secondary or output side was lighted. Unscrewing the 60-watt lamp from its socket caused the 100-watt amp to go out, but it immediately lighted when the 60-watt lamp was screwed into its socket again. The 60-watt lamp did not light. Shorting the antenna and ground by placing a wire across them, caused the 100-watt lamp to go out. Similar shorting with the hands also caused the 100-watt lamp to go out. No electricity could be felt when shorting with the hands. If either the ground or the antenna wires were disconnected from the box, the 100-watt lamp would go out. Neither of the capacitors or the 60-watt lamp on the primary side of the box were necessary but were simply put there to show that the high frequency power will jump or pass through them.

Moray's patent application on this device was filed in 1931 and rejected on a number of grounds. Firstly, "Because no means was provided for causing the cathode to emit an appreciable number of electrons, the current produced in the cathode by the antenna will not heat the cathode to a temperature at which an appreciable number of electrons per second are emitted". In other words, according to Thomas E. Robinson, Commissioner of Patents, a solid state device, such as a transistor, cannot possibly work. Secondly, because "No natural source of electric wave energy is known to the Examiner and proof of the existence of such a source is required". In other words, it was not enough for Moray to demonstrate the effect of the energy source; he also had to identify it, which he could not do. None of the original patent applications that Henry made are any longer available at the US Patent Office. Although their file jackets are there, the contents and applications themselves are gone.

In 1942, Moray attempted to rebuild a Radiant Energy device, using the remaining bit of what was known as the "Swedish Stone". This material, which was the heart of his original RE detector, he had never managed to duplicate, and the shortage of this material limited the amount of power which he could draw. Consequently, in the large unit, he developed a second detector that forced him into extensive research involving nuclear materials and radioactive reactions. He became deeply involved in the study of synthetic radioactivity as described by Gustave LeBon in his book "The Evolution of Matter". The years slipped by and Moray spent most of his time working on what he called the "counter-balance" to eliminate the need for an aerial antenna.

Moray said:
Enough energy is coming to the earth to light over 1,693,600 100-watt lamps for every human being on the earth today. No fuel of any kind need be taken as this energy can be picked-up directly by ocean liners, railroads, airplanes, automobiles, or any form of transportation. Heat, light and power can be made available for use in all kinds of buildings and for all kinds of machinery. An example would be to pump water onto the desert lands, the power source being only a fraction of the weight of any steam plant or any kind of engine in use today and all this at a fraction of the current cost.

The total energy involved in "cosmic" radiations is very large. The mechanism of its generation involves a basic relationship with the total structure and action of the universe. Today it is believed that cosmic radiation consists primarily of protons and some heavier nuclei. At times this cosmic energy packs a wallop of around 100 quadrillion volts. Coming continuously with slight variations in time, the radiations have a uniformly directional isotropy. The earth is, therefore, surrounded in an atmosphere of radiation with cosmic rays coming continually to the earth from all directions, although there may be a slight deflection of the weaker rays by the earth's magnetic field. There is every indication that our sun is not the source of any appreciable amount of this radiation. The origin, therefore, is from the universe as a whole. The total energy of cosmic radiation is more than the entire luminous output of all the stars and nebulae of the universe combined. Unlimited power is being delivered to everyone's doorstep.

The Moray Radiant Energy discovery, using radiations from the cosmos as its power source, gives the greatest amount of energy per pound of equipment of any system known to man. Electrical power through an electric
motor or an electric jet far exceeds any form of energy in any engine in the delivery of power. There is no dead
centre of lost motion in an electric motor nor loss of push in an electric jet. Also, the starting torque is much
higher in the electrically powered engine than in the combustion engine.

Harnessing cosmic energy is the most practical method yet discovered by man. Furthermore, it is possible to
utilise this vast source of energy from the universe without a prime mover at any point on the earth --- on the
ground, in the air, on the water, under the water, or even underground. If one considers that an electrical
generator is not in the true sense a generator - as electricity is not made by the generator - but is merely an
electrical pump, the Moray Radiant Energy device may then be referred to as a cosmic ray pump: that is, a high
speed electron oscillator serving as a detector of cosmic radiations which causes a pumping action or surging
within its circuitry.

To account for the propagation of heat and light - two of the forms of Radiant Energy - man has postulated the
existence of a medium filling all space. But, the transference of the energy of radiant heat and light is not the only
evidence in favour of the existence of such a medium. Electric, magnetic, and electromagnetic phenomena and
gravitation itself point in the same direction.

Attractions and repulsion take place between electrified bodies, magnets, and circuits conveying electric currents.
Large masses may be set in motion in this manner, acquiring kinetic energy. If an electric current is started in any
circuit, corresponding induced currents spring up in all very closely neighbouring conductors. To originate a
current in any conductor requires the expenditure of energy. How, then, is the energy propagated from the circuit
to the conductors? If we believe in the continuity of the propagation of energy - that is, is we believe that when it
disappears at one place and reappears at another it must have passed through the intervening space and,
therefore, have existed there somehow in the meantime - we are forced to postulate a vehicle for its conveyance
form place to place.

When a particle is electrified, what one must first observe is that a certain amount of energy has been spent; work
has been done. The result is an electrified state of the particle. The process of electrifying a conductor is,
therefore, the storing of energy in some way in or around the conductor in some medium. The work is spent in
altering the state of the medium, and when the particle is discharged, the medium returns to its original state, and
the store of energy is disengaged. Similarly, a supply of energy is required to maintain an electric current, and the
phenomenon arising from the current are manifestations of the presence of this energy in the medium around the
circuit. It used to be that an electrified particle or body was supposed to have something called "electricity"
residing upon it which caused electrical phenomena. An electric current was regarded as a flow of electricity
travelling along a wire (for example), and the energy which appeared at any part of a circuit (if considered at all)
was supposed to have been conveyed along the wire by the current. But, the existence of induction and
electromagnetic interactions between bodies situated at a distance from each other leads one to look upon the
medium around the conductors as playing a very important part in the development of these electrical
phenomena. In fact, it is the storehouse of the energy.

It is upon this basis that Maxwell founded his theory of electricity and magnetism, and determined the distribution
of the energy in the various parts of an electric field in terms of electric and magnetic forces. The medium around
an electrified body is charged with energy and not of an imaginary electric fluid distributed over the electrified
body or conductor. When we speak of the charge of an electrified conductor we are referring to the charge of
energy in the medium around it, and when we talk of the electric flow or current in the circuit we are referring to
the only flow we know of, namely, the flow of energy through the electric field within the wire.

The work in producing the electrification of a conductor is spent on the medium and stored there, probably as
energy of motion. To denote this we shall say that the medium around the conductor is polarised, this word being
employed to denote that its state or some of its properties have been altered in some manner and to a certain
extent depending on the intensity of the charge. If the charge is negative the polarisation is in the opposite sense,
the two being related, perhaps, like right-handed and left-handed twists or rotations.

Now consider the case of a body charged alternately, positively and negatively in rapid succession. The positive
charge means a positive polarisation of the medium, which begins at the conductor and travels out through space.
When the body is discharged the medium is once more set free and resumes its former condition. The negative
charge now induces a modification of the medium or polarisation in the opposite sense. The result of alternate
charges of opposite sign is that the medium at any point becomes polarised alternately in opposite directions,
while waves of opposite polarisations are propagated through space, each carrying energy derived from the
source or agent supplying the electrification. Here, then, we have a periodic disturbance of some kind occurring at
each point, accompanied by waves of energy travelling outwards from the conductor.

The phenomenon of interference leads to the conclusion that light is the result of periodic disturbances or
vibrations of the medium, but as to the nature of these vibrations, as to the exact nature of the periodic changes or
what it is that changes them, we possess no knowledge. We know that alternating electric charges are
accompanied by corresponding changes of state or vibrations of the medium, and if the charge is varied periodically and with sufficient rapidity, we have a vibration at each point analogous to, perhaps identical with, that which occurs in the propagation of light - a combination of wave and particle properties. This then is the electromagnetic theory of the luminous vibration.

In the older elastic-solid theory, the light vibrations were supposed to be actual oscillations of the elements or molecules of the medium about their positions of rest, such as takes place when waves of transverse disturbance are propagated through an elastic solid. Such limitation is unwarranted to some extent, but one cannot afford to entirely disregard the particle theory of light either. A combination of the theories has merit. We know that the change, disturbance, vibration, polarisation, or whatever we wish to term it, is periodic and transverse to the direction of propagation. The electromagnetic theory teaches us nothing further as to its nature, but rather asserts that whatever the charge may be, it is the same in kind as that which occurs in the medium when the charge of an electrified body is altered or reversed. It reduces light and heat waves to the same category as waves of electrical polarisation. The only quality of the later required to constitute the former is sufficient rapidity of alteration. These speculations were given the strongest confirmation by experiments of Prof. Hertz many years ago.

When a resilient substance is subjected to strain and then set free, one of two things may happen. The substance may slowly recover from the strain and gradually attain its natural state, or the elastic recoil may carry it past its position of equilibrium and cause it to execute a series of oscillations. Something of the same sort may also occur when an electrified capacitor is discharged. In ordinary language, there may be a continuous flow of electricity in one direction until the discharge is completed, or an oscillating discharge may occur. That is, the first flow may be succeeded by a backrush, as if the first discharge had overrun itself and something like recoil had set in. The capacitor thus becomes more or less charged again in the opposite sense, and a second discharge occurs, accompanied by a second backrush, the oscillation going on until all the energy is either completely radiated or used up in heating the conductors or performing other work.

When capacitors are filled with energy captured by the Moray Radiant Energy device and then discharged through a circuit of proper impedance, reactance and inductance, thereby synchronising the oscillation of the device with those of the universe, electrical inertia is set up. In the reversal of the current, the capacitors are charged, discharged and recharged slowly until the energy stored in them is radiated in kinetic energy through the device, and this energy can be kept alive indefinitely by establishing resonance with the oscillations of the universe.

Considering oscillations from a mechanical, electrical and mathematical point of view, we find that electrical resistance is the same as mechanical friction and current is comparable to mechanical velocity. Inertia and inductance may then be considered analogous terms. In mechanics the greater the inertia of a body, the longer it will stay in motion. In the Radiant Energy device's resistance-inductance-capacity (REC or RLC) circuit, the greater the electrical inductance, the longer the current continues to flow once it is established by synchronisation with cosmic surges.

Expressed mathematically, the equations are the same for electrical or mechanical phenomena. Which means, that \( R < \sqrt{\frac{4L}{C}} \), where \( R \) is the resistance in ohms, \( L \) is the inductance in henries, and \( C \) is the capacitance in farads. When this is true, an oscillatory discharge will occur and a very powerful inductance inertia will assert itself. For low values of \( R \), the frequency of the oscillations can be shown by \( f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{CL}{R}} \). The rapidity of the oscillations is governed by the capacitance and inductance.

In the vibrational forces of the universe, we find the key to the source of all energy. How we can utilise this energy for modern industry without being limited to mechanical prime movers is the question. And, the answer may be an energy generator, balanced so as to oscillate in synchronisation with the oscillations of the universe.

Dr Ross Gunn, a civilian scientist for the US Navy, stated years ago that the earth is a huge generator, generating over 200 million amperes of electric current continuously. For example, the aurora borealis is considered to be a very large definite electrical phenomenon produced by the passage of electric charges through the rarefied gases of the higher atmosphere. The earth has since been shown, by Dr Gunn and others, to have a negative charge amounting to 400,000 coulombs. Yet, six feet above the ground the air is charged with more than +200 volts with respect to the ground.

It is known that air conducts electricity away from charged objects. This being true, how does the earth maintain its charge since it is a charged object exposed to the surrounding atmosphere? If the air conducts electricity, the earth's charge must be constantly passing into the atmosphere. And it has been calculated that the earth has a continuous discharge into the atmosphere of 1,800 amperes. At this rate, the earth should lose 90% of its charge into the air in one hour, yet the earth's charge does not diminish. From where does the earth's energy come?

The conversion of matter to energy in the stars is accepted, and, reasoning from what occurs in radioactive disintegration during which energy waves are radiated, one may conclude that energy waves of very high
frequency are sent out from the stars (one of which is our sun). Now, of course, the conversion of energy into matter must equally be accepted.

It has been found that ionisation, which could be the medium for the flow of energy, increases with increasing altitude, instead of decreasing as would be expected. Since the source of energy is the universe, the generation of energy by rotary action and by all prime movers is an effect and not a cause. Oscillatory energy action, be it in a Leyden jar, another man-made capacitor, or in what we may call natural capacitors, always behaves the same. The oscillations will continue until they have reach their cycle of height and then there will be a backrush returning to where the oscillations originated. Every oscillation, whether large or small, is completed during the same interval of time. These oscillations all prove the same great fact, that they are governed by the same cycle of time, completed during the same interval of time. Waves of energy have a regular beat note, coming and going as the waves of the sea, but in a very definite mathematical order - coming to the earth from every direction with a definite rhythm.

Energy has a definite elastic or resilient rigidity and density, which is subject to displacement and strain. When strain is removed, the medium will spring back to its old position and beyond, surging back and forth, and will continue to oscillate until the original pressure is used up. If the internal impedance is too great, there will be no oscillations, but it will merely slide back in a dead beat to its unrestrained state.

By cutting down resistance to a minimum and synchronising the resilient ionic actions of the Moray device with the wave actions of the universe, periods of oscillation can be made to come quicker and quicker until inertia asserts itself, thus lengthening out the time of final recovery. This is done by carrying the recoil beyond the natural oscillations and prolonging the vibrations by capturing the in oscillatory action. When the recovery becomes distinctly oscillatory, a harmonic pattern is initiated and the oscillations continue, resonance thereby being established with the universe.

In the universe we see the same laws being obeyed as in our laboratories. As one traces down to the almost infinitesimal constituents of the atom, one finds that matter does not exist at all as the realistic substance which we have supposed it to be. There at the very foundation, it consists of nothing more than energy charges emitted at various wavelengths or frequencies. It is becoming more and more certain that the apparent complexity of nature is due to our lack of knowledge. And, as the picture unfolds, it promises a marvellous simplicity.

One of the most marvellous relationships that has ever been revealed in the entire science of physics is that between light and electricity and the existence of electronics in atoms of matter. Knowing what we do at the present time with regard to the structure of atoms, this relationship is not quite so surprising. However, considering the total absence of this knowledge about a half century ago, the discovery that light, and radiation in general, are vibratory phenomena was revolutionary.

Speaking of radiation, "Radiant" here means proceeding from a centre in straight lines in every direction. Energy is internal and inherent. "Energy" is defined as a condition of matter, by virtue of which, any definite portion may affect changes in any other definite portion. This was written in 1892, and discoveries since confirm it. Energy then is a state of matter, or rather, the result of a particular state or condition in which matter may be when any observed phase of energy appears.

In addition to possessing kinetic energy, the atom is capable of absorbing energy internally. This internal energy is associated with the configuration of the particles of which the atom is composed. Under ordinary conditions an atom is in what is known as a state of equilibrium, in which there is neither a giving off, nor an absorbing of energy. But, the internal energy of the atom can be altered. When the internal energy of the atom exceeds that of its normal state it is said to be excited. Excitations may be caused in several ways, e.g., the collision of an atom with rapidly moving positive or negative particles or the breaking of lines of force in an electromagnetic generator. Kinetic energy is released when excitation causes a particle to give up some or all of its kinetic energy to the atom during collisions. This is taking place in the universe all the time.

The electric motor and generator would never have been discovered if a dielectric (insulator) had not been discovered. If one discovers a dielectric valve for the energy of the universe, one has the answer to harnessing the energy of the universe! A limiting case of excitation is ionisation, wherein energy is absorbed by the atom sufficiently to allow a loosely bound electron to leave the atom, against the electrostatic forces which tend to hold it within the atom. An atom which has given up one or more electrons is said to be ionised. It is possible that ionisation, i.e., excitation, may take place in successive steps through absorption of quanta energy. The return of an ionised atom to a state of lower energy is associated with electromagnetic radiation. Also, from the process of ionisation, electrical energy may become associated with the vibrational forces of the universe coming into the earth as cosmic radiation. The higher the frequency, the greater the ionisation or excitation, a form of energy which is kinetic in nature. There are tremendous energies coming to the earth from outer space. These energies are only different manifestations of the energies we see in operation all around us. In most cases we are not even aware of their existence. They penetrate everything including our own bodies. Every one of us is alive by virtue
of these energies. Every part and particle of the universe is alive with them. The generators that now furnish our
electric power do not create or originate any power or electricity; they merely direct, pump, the existing energy or
electricity.

As in musical notes of high and low "C", the vibrational rates (frequencies) are different, but all "C" notes are
essentially the same (harmonically related). This is the foundation upon which much of my investigation of
vibratory phenomena is based.

It has been agreed that all forms of matter are vibrating at a particular rate or frequency. And, so it is with the
various forms of energy - heat and light, magnetism and electricity. These are but forms of vibratory motion
connected with and being generated from the same source, the universe. Matter vibrates at a particular rate,
according to its character, and may be transmitted into other substance by lowering or raising its rate of
frequency. If the frequency is raised high enough, the molecules will separate and the atoms become free.
Raising the frequency still higher, the atoms resolve themselves into their original components. Matter then
becomes a form of energy. Frequencies may be developed which will balance the force of gravity to a point of
neutralisation. One can then go beyond the force of gravitation. Understanding the principles of vibration is truly
understanding energy.

In gamma rays, we find potentials which are equivalent to as much as 1,000,000 volts, yet their wave lengths are
not the shortest known. In octaves still higher there are rays which are known as "cosmic rays". Who can draw a
definite line and say how much higher other octaves exist than those known as the cosmic rays? Our starting
point from the discovery of these different waves was electrical conductivity of the air, and it has been found that
this conductivity is just as strong by night as by day. Radiations emitted by the sun can scarcely be the sole
cause of this energy. All space is saturated with vibration, energies, which are no doubt electrical in character.
The relation of matter to energy and energy to matter then becomes the potential of the universe - one continuous
series of oscillations.

Atoms maintain an equilibrium by oscillations, rotations, attractions and repulsions, but this does not interfere with
a transformation of equilibrium, which, when the transformations of equilibrium are rapid enough, become energy,
i.e., matter is turning into energy and energy into matter.

There can be no generation of electrical current and no kinetic energy if there is no disturbance of equilibrium, i.e.,
change of potential or change of energy levels. When one thinks of the oxygen and nitrogen molecules of the air
all about us moving with the speed of bullets and striking us and everything else at this speed, one can form some
idea of the agitation taking place here and in the universe.

The oscillations from outer space are emitting electromagnetic waves of many wavelengths and frequencies. The
Moray device is so constructed that the frequency is very much lower on the secondary side than on the primary
side, and almost complete resonance is established. I am convinced that the energies from the universe are
active radiations produced by the evolution of matter into energy and energy into matter.

Dr Anderson's cloud chamber at the California Institute of Technology, in which the positron was discovered, has
furnished much information about cosmic ray energies. He found that some positrons are born of cosmic rays
smashing into matter. The cosmic ray energies deduced from the tracks left in the Anderson cloud chamber
range from 100 volts to 3,000,000,000 volts. The Lemaître-Vallarts theory, together with Dr Johnson's asymmetry
measurements, give definite values for the energy of half of the cosmic radiation, and shows it continuously
distributed between 5 billion and 50 billion volts.

The figure of 100 billion volts is a result of Dr W. Kolhorster's measurement of penetrating radiation in the depths
of the Strassfurt salt mines. He found that the minimum energy of these rays had a penetration which was greater
than ever before demonstrated. Dr Axel Corlin of Sweden's Lund Observatory found radiation that still had energy
after passing through somewhat greater depths and, therefore, the voltage figures can be made even higher.
Energies of 100 billion volts or more are indicated by the great bursts set off by cosmic ray collisions, called the
stosse, which have been observed particularly in Germany. The Moray RE devices have worked equally well in
deep mines, under water or high in the mountains and in an airplane.

It is about 100 years since science began to consider light, heat, magnetism, galvanism, and electricity as natural
forces. In the early part of the 19th century school books termed these things "imponderable substances". The
corpuscle theory of light was taught, the sun was supposed to provide an endless supply of those corpuscles.
After the corpuscle theory faded, scientists turned to the wave theory, but even that was based on a crude
concept of movement of the ultimate principles or atoms, of matter. The electron theory has superseded the
earlier ones now, and while the electron theory explains the observed and theoretical "facts" better than the
previous concepts did, could it be that, as the greater light of knowledge leads us on, the electron theory in turn
will fall short of providing "absolute" knowledge? The Einstein Theory may stand in need of revision or
amendment; or, in time, it may join the theories of corpuscles and waves on the back shelf.
A specific case, in which the electric field performs the double function of molecular excitation and the creation of intermolecular and atomic ions, is being given by the system used by the inventor. It is a system utilising the principles of the wire corona with a concentric cylinder at different pressures. The system is modified in conformity to the concept that chemical reactions must take place when the oppositely charged molecular ions from an appropriate activated catalyst are accelerated against one another in the wire corona. It consists of a cylinder made of a suitable catalyst from which positive ions are emitted. The reactants (gases) streaming through the chamber parallel to the length of the wire attain the polarity of the negative molecular ions by the high electric field close to the wire. As these negative molecular ions are accelerated at the right angles to the wire in the direction of the electric field toward the positively charged catalyst cylinder, they are met by an avalanche of onrushing atomic ions from the catalyst. A certain amount of reaction takes place in that instant, \(10^{-8}\) seconds. However, some of the negative molecular ions outside the mean free path of the positive atomic ions are free to rush headlong toward the positive cylindrical field where they are neutralised, and instantly given a positive charge by the avalanche of out-rushing positive ions. These positive molecular ions are accelerated back into the field and collide against the negative molecular ions coming from the direction of the negative electrode corona. This melee continues until the reaction has come to a point where the individual participants are either all gone or the mixture is outside of the electric field: backrush oscillations.

The Moray apparatus combined with other equipment, consists of a combination of specially constructed tubes which we will refer to as valves, "pressure transmitters", interceptors and oscillators. The valves are not rectifiers in the sense that they operate as radio valves in changing Alternating Current or High Frequency oscillations into Direct Current. They have an actual valve action in stopping the "flow" of energy which may be thought of as oscillatory action similar to the waves of the sea, without rectification, from returning to the outer circuit, much as a retaining wall could stop the waves of the sea from returning. The other modalities and "tubes" of the device are equally unique in their performance. Although no new laws of energy are being advanced or claimed as having been discovered, the application in the method of utilisation of the energy throughout space is unique in that "generation" is accomplished by oscillatory utilisation rather than by the conventional prime mover. These detector tubes have a synchronised pull with the specially developed oscillators of high faradic capacity and provide a means through which oscillating energy may pass to specially constructed valve oscillators whose relation to the first stage valve is such as to permit oscillations to come in from but not return to the outer circuit with an automatic variable relation to the oscillations from the universe, and capable of setting up within their circuits initial oscillations which coincide with the oscillations of the universe.

Special provision is provided to stop RE tubes from becoming blocked in their dissipation of the charges created by the oscillations that continually accumulate based on the oscillatory capacity backrush effect common to capacitors and are herein applied in vacuum tubes. This action of these devices has the effect of enlarging and prolonging the time of charge and discharge of the capacitors and the capacity energy in the circuit to an appreciable interval in perfect harmony with the natural energy wave through the interceptor's valves and oscillators in the circuit which set up in the circuit electrical pulsations corresponding to the energy waves captured by the interceptor and again kept from returning to the second outer circuit by "multi-walled" valves. The final tubes act as energy pressure transmitters with a means to prevent "shunting" condensation by a special form of "getter". This stops condensation accumulating at the base of the tubes which would block their ionic action. 

One must "split" the energy discharge band into lines of variation (call this what you will), lines of energy or lines of light beyond the "light rays". The oscillations, therefore, do not become simple oscillations but through the action of the universe set up an energy flow which might be referred to as the assertion of inertia. When inertia sets in, the action will continue because of the oscillations of the cosmos, otherwise one would have a complete dissipation of energy and no oscillations. The oscillation will vibrate during the same period of time regardless of the potential, but the rate of vibration of the device depends on the "capacity" of its modalities, i.e., condensers, etc.

Put together in pure energy resonance, certain energy responding apparatus which synchronise with the resonance of certain vibrations in the universe, and what do you have? Useable energy from the universe. This energy may come to the planets as oscillations similar to the oscillations and tides of the sea. The Radiant Energy tubes receive this energy in surges which may last only a few microseconds by the pressure and current in those surges are so strong that sufficient energy is delivered to the equipment in resonance to be useable in multiples of flashes and in a magnitude which competes with the light of day. Remember resonance and pressure can do a lot to amplify energy. Also remember that the vibrations going out from the sources in the universe must also return to their sources. Nothing is lost. There is only a lowering of potential like water flowing over a water wheel.

The Radiant Energy tubes present no new laws of physics. They simply expand the application of known laws, thereby obtaining results not at first thought possible. This is the history of science. Radiant Energy tubes possess greater ability to obtain "saturation" and thus charge the accompanying capacitors at a more steady rate.
When a certain voltage is reached, ionisation occurs in the gases of the discharged tube and causes the capacitors of the valve circuit to discharge into other capacitors of the valve circuit, to discharge into other capacitors of the oscillators and the other modalities of the circuit.

When ionisation in the preceding tubes is no longer possible because of the reduced voltage, the process starts all over again. The first valve passes vibrations of energy into an oscillatory circuit; ionisation sets in, a discharge occurs, and energy passes through another valve into other oscillators. The process is repeated from the first stage on to the second stage, on to the third and so on, much like a bucket brigade. That is why I asked years ago, "Cannot a steady flow of water be obtained from the waves of the sea or energy from the vibrations of the cosmos?"

When a vibration of any kind strikes a boundary between two media of different vibratory impedances at an angle of less than 90 degrees, a transformation of the vibratory rate may be changed into another vibratory rate. The Radiant Energy device therefore will continue to capture energy by resonance, or call it what you will, as long as the "keep alive" vibration of the cosmos continues to oscillate the various stages of the valves and oscillators in the circuit. Simple, is it not? Just a case of the trapping of energy which is everywhere present in the primary circuit and causing it to oscillate through the secondary circuits through a blocked circuit of no return.

Our experiments have proved that there is an energy which exists in the universe which, by proper development of equipment, can be made available for commercial use.

Such an energy transformer or converter has been built. It has been operated, at full load continuously with no expenditure of fuels of any type, without a mechanical prime mover, kept alive by the oscillations of the energies from the cosmos; an energy converter, or transformer, which would be capable of converting the high frequency, high level energy of the cosmic radiation into current of usable frequency and voltage.

Basically the theory of operation is as follows:

Oscillations are started in the first stage or circuit of the device by exciting it with an external energy source.

The circuit is "tuned" until the oscillations are sustained by harmonic coupling to the cosmic wave frequencies.

The reinforcing action of the harmonic coupling increases the amplitude of the oscillations until the peak pulses "spill" over into the next stage through a special detector or valve which prevents the return or feedback of energy from succeeding circuits.

These "pulses" drive this stage, which oscillates at a lower frequency and is again reinforced by harmonic coupling with the ever present cosmic waves.

The second stage drives a third stage, and additional stages are coupled until a suitable power level at a usable frequency and voltage is obtained by means of special transformers.

The specific information on Moray’s system is very limited, especially since his patent application has been removed. The diagram above and the diagram below have been reproduced from what is alleged to be the notes from which the patent application was composed. These notes are not very clear both in wording and in the quality of reproduction, however, the diagrams shown here are an attempt to show clearly anything which is reasonably certain in those diagrams.
This is supposed to be the construction information on the Moray Valve which was capable of being set to either rectify a signal or to amplify a signal. The casing is a metal cup which also forms one of the contacts for the valve. Inside the cup there are four pellets attached to the side. The outer two pellets are made of bismuth and are fused directly on to the metal case. The two inner pellets are attached to the case with tin instead of solder. Judging from the drawing, it looks as if the metal arm contacting the pellets can only connect with the inner two pellets. The arm presses sharply against the pellets in the same way that the “cat’s whisker” diodes of the time were touched with a silver wire to make a point contact and produce rectification.

If it is correct that the rotatable arm only contacts one of the two inner pellets, then the reason for those outer bismuth pellets must be as an indirect part of the valve. So, this section of the case is an arrangement of the metal of the case, tin, bismuth and five junctions between different materials, not counting the contact arm. One of the two inner pellets is made of purified germanium with the addition of very small amounts of a doping material. Iron Sulphide (FeS), Molybdenum Sulphide (MoS), Bismuth, Uranium and Silver have been mentioned as possible doping agents. Another material mentioned is Lead which has had its structure altered by the process described in Moray’s patent US 2,460,707. The pellets are said to be produced under high pressure.

From this it can be seen that we do not have anything remotely like the full information on Moray’s system. However, there are a number of important things which we can learn from this. Firstly, using just a good earthing connection and an aerial of just ninety feet (30 m) or so in length suspended only some eight feet off the ground, it is possible to draw significant current from the environment. The photograph shows 35 light bulbs being lit by Moray and that is a substantial amount of power. It is unlikely that we will be able to reproduce Moray’s exact method of extracting power, but it is highly unlikely that his method is the only possible way of achieving efficient power extraction. So, if we experiment with the components and materials to hand today, it is distinctly possible that we could extract major amounts of power from a relatively small aerial wire positioned at quite a convenient height above the ground, and a good quality earth.


Hermann Plauson's Aerial Systems.
Hermann Plauson was granted US Patent 1,540,998 in June 1925. The patent is similar in style to Tesla’s pick-up system and it illustrates the principle with a system which is very much like Paul Baumann’s “Testatica” device hidden away in a Swiss religious commune. The patent is very detailed with 37 drawings showing different arrangements, and a more simply worded version is shown in full in the Appendix. In fact, the patent reads more like a tutorial rather than a patent.

A system of this type should most definitely be taken seriously: Hermann considers one of his systems with an output of 100 kilowatts as being a “small” system. However, it needs to be understood that each of Hermann’s aerials, unlike those of Thomas Henry Moray, contributed less than one kilowatt each, and when Hermann speaks of a 100 kilowatt installation, he is referring to an array of more than one hundred separate aerials.

Hermann illustrates several different methods of energy capture and several methods of increasing the effectiveness of the captured energy. While an installation to capture a continuous supply of 100+ kilowatts is unrealistic for an individual, requiring many tall aerials, there is the distinct possibility of making a scaled-down version which is capable of providing serious levels of free power. Reading his patent through carefully is definitely to be recommended.
Herman starts by illustrating how working electricity can be taken from a Wimshurst machine. The Wimshurst output voltage is very high and the current capacity is very low and most people would dismiss it out of hand as being totally inadequate for any kind of practical work. However, Hermann boosts the power level by feeding the output into a step-down transformer which lowers the output voltage to a convenient level and raises the available current in proportion to the reduction in voltage. This is the same technique patented by Nikola Tesla. The apparatus which Herman illustrates is shown here:

His patent says: “By suitably selecting the ratio between the number of turns in the primary and secondary windings, with regard to a correct application of the coefficients of resonance (capacitance, inductance and resistance) the high voltage of the primary circuit may be suitably converted into a low voltage high current output”. It should be remembered that a spark produces a very sharply rising voltage pulse and that unbalances the local quantum energy field, as described earlier, producing very large energy flows as the local environment returns to its balanced steady-state. The spark, which is produced by relatively low power, is used as a trigger for vastly larger energy flows, which feed the step-down transformer, producing serious current at reasonable voltage, capable of doing useful work, without the requirement for any input power from the user.

You will notice how simple this circuit is. Three capacitors “a1”, “b1” and “c1” in a chain, form a single high-voltage capacitor. The blobs shown connected across these capacitors are emergency discharge spark gaps put there to deal with unusual events like the aerial being hit by a lightning strike. This circuit is very much like the Wimshurst machine circuit which Hermann uses as an illustration of the principle of operation of these kinds of circuits. In this circuit, he shows a special motor marked “M” which is driven by the circuit and he also shows output terminals which can have other equipment connected across them.

When the oscillatory discharges in the primary circuit become weaker or cease entirely, the capacitors are charged again by the static electricity until the accumulated charge again breaks down across the spark gap. All this is repeated as long as electricity is produced by the static machine through the application of mechanical energy to it. Herman states that without the spark gap arrangement across the three capacitors connected
between the aerial and the earth, “it is impossible to collect and render available large quantities of electrical energy.”

In addition to the use of spark gaps in parallel, a second measure of security is also necessary for taking the current from this circuit. This is the introduction of protective electromagnets or choking coils in the aerial circuit as shown by $S$ in the diagram below. A single “electromagnet” having a core of the thinnest possible separate laminations is connected with the aerial. In the case of high voltages in the aerial network or at places where there are frequent thunderstorms, several such toroidal-wound coils may be connected in series.

In the case of large units, several such magnets can be employed in parallel or in series parallel. The windings of these electromagnets may be simply connected in series with the aerials. In this case, the windings should be made up from several thin parallel wires, which together, make up the necessary cross-sectional area of wire. The winding may be made of primary and secondary windings in the form of a transformer. The primary winding will then be connected in series with the aerial network, and the secondary winding more or less short-circuited through a regulating resistor or an induction coil. In the latter case it is possible to regulate, to a certain extent, the effect of these choking coils.

Fig. 5 shows an arrangement for producing large currents which can be used directly, without motors, to provide heating and lighting. The main difference here is that the spark gap consists of a star-shaped disc 7 which can rotate on its own axis and is rotated by a motor opposite similarly fitted electrodes 7a. When separate points of the stars face one another, discharges take place, thus forming an oscillation circuit with capacitors 5 and 6 and inductor 9. A motor may also be connected directly to the ends of inductor 9.

The patent continues by showing many ways to increase the power of the aerial system and many ways of applying the output to practical electrical devices. It contains 37 diagrams, a wealth of practical information, and a copy of it is in the Appendix.

The “Alexkor” Aerial System.

‘Alexkor’ who provided some of the charging circuits shown in chapter 6, also uses an aerial system for charging batteries in the 1.5V to 6V range. It is a simple system which uses an aerial of the type used by Thomas Henry Moray, that is, the bulk of the aerial is horizontal:
The suggestion is that the aerial is suspended between the eaves of a house and a nearby tree, but I don’t know anybody who would be able to do that. The longer the aerial or the greater the number of aerials connected, the greater the charging power available. The aerial wire should be not less than 0.5 mm in diameter and it needs to be insulated from its supports – plastic cord can be used for that.

The circuit used is:

A more powerful version of the circuit is:
Here, there are three sets of diodes placed between the aerial and the earth. Let me stress again that the earth connection is a thick copper wire connected to a long rod or pipe driven into the ground or a large metal plate buried in dampened ground.

As the circuit operates, the three sets of diodes with their isolation capacitors, build up an increasing voltage on capacitor “C1”. The voltage at point “B” will also increase and be about twelve volts less than the voltage on capacitor “C1”. Eventually, that voltage will rise high enough to cause a discharge through the tiny neon tube and that current pulse flows through the Gate connection “G” of the thyristor, switching it on. Once switched on, the thyristor stays on until capacitor “C1” has been discharged, after which, the thyristor switches off and the process starts all over again. The amount of power in these pulses is considerable and the thyristor gets quite warm when the circuit is running. The BT151-800R thyristor can handle as much as 800 volts and pass 7.5 amps of current continuously.

An important point to note is that the power available from this circuit increases with additional aerials. With two aerials connected, the power is doubled and with three aerials the power is tripled. That is, each additional aerial provides as much power as the first aerial did and there does not appear to be any limit to the number of aerials which can be connected.

The TREC

There is a powerful aerial system which has been developed by Lawrence Rayburn of Canada. Initially, Lawrence intended to market kits to make it easy for people to replicate his aerial design which was providing him with ten kilowatts of power. However, Lawrence shelved that idea as he decided that the risk to users was just too high. He was also concerned that the aerial/earth combination might attract lightning strikes, causing considerable local damage. So, it is VERY important that you understand that this is a dangerous and potentially LETHAL aerial system which is quite capable of killing you if you are careless. If you are not already experienced in working with high-voltage/high-current devices, then this is NOT something for you to experiment with, and anyone who does fool around with this design does so wholly at his own risk as this material is presented “for information purposes only” and there is no recommendation whatsoever that you should actually construct one of these aerial systems.
The technique used is quite different from the other aerial systems mentioned earlier in this chapter. Here, the objective is to create a tuned, resonant cavity reaching up to the ionosphere where there is a massive amount of excess energy supplied by the sun.

The tuning mechanism consists of two spirals of 3/4-inch (20 mm) copper pipe wound so that they cover a four foot (1220 mm) diameter area. These spirals are covered above and below with a sheet of Lexan plastic. The diameter of the copper pipe is important and smaller diameter should not be used even though it would be much easier to bend into shape. Actually, bending the large-diameter copper pipe is unlikely to be an easy task. Presumably, a pipe-bending machine would be used and a conical spiral produced and then the cone flattened to form the flat spiral. The spiral has even spaces between the turns, at all points along it's length.

The two spirals are mounted, one vertically above the other with thirty feet (9145 mm) between them and the lower spiral being one foot (305 mm) above the ground. This means that this aerial system is only suited to people who can erect a structure of this height without inconveniencing neighbours or contravening local planning regulations.

The tuneable cavity is created by connecting the innermost ends of the two spirals together using 4 AWG wire which has a 5.19 mm diameter copper core. The outer end of the lower spiral is then connected to a large ground plate buried two feet (600 mm) below the surface of the ground, with four separate strands of the 4 AWG wire.

An adjustable spark gap is used. It can be positioned in the vertical wire between the two spirals, or in the middle of an extra 4 AWG wire run vertically between the outer ends of the two spirals. The power take-off is from the middle of the central vertical wire.
The cavity is tuned by sliding coils inside each other. This arrangement not only tunes the cavity but it also steps down the very high aerial voltage and raises the available current at the same time. This is where the danger comes in. The intermediate parts of this step-down tuning arrangement can have voltages of 600 volts at high current, and those voltages can easily kill you, which is why this is NOT a system for beginners and why Lawrence did not go ahead with selling kits for this aerial system.

The aerial output is fed into a final step-down transformer and a 50 Hz (cycles per second) or 60Hz signal from a signal generator is used to modulate the incoming power and allow it to be used with normal mains equipment which may need that frequency of AC. Resistive heaters and lights don’t need AC or care about the frequency of any AC which they are fed.

The tuning of the system is very sharp and whatever is being used as the load affects the tuning. The wire used for the tuning array is insulated, single solid-core copper wire. 4 AWG has a core diameter of 5.19 mm, 8 AWG has a core diameter of 3.26 mm, 10 AWG has a core diameter of 2.59 mm and 16 AWG has a core diameter of 1.29 mm. Page 1 of the Appendix shows other characteristics for these wires. These heavy wires are an essential part of this design.

You will notice that two separate earth connections are needed for this aerial system. The second earth connection should be a long copper rod driven deep into the ground and some distance away from the buried plate earth. For the separation of two earth connections, ten metres (eleven yards) is generally considered to be a reasonable distance between them. The main earth is a 4-foot x 4-foot plate buried exactly under the lower spiral and the connection runs to the centre of that plate.

It is suggested that the spark-gap be constructed using copper-clad carbon welding rods, mounted in a nylon housing which allows the gap to be adjusted with a nylon screw. Remember that this is not a connection which you can disconnect from the power supply when making connections or adjustments. Also, on one occasion when a 500-watt light bulb was connected across the spark gap, it burned out instantly with a bright flash of light. This system is not a toy so thick rubber gloves and rubber footwear should be used.

The 4 AWG copper wires can be connected to the copper rods forming the spark electrodes, using copper pipe clamps. A tapered nylon rod could be used to adjust the spark gap screw while keeping well away from the copper. The spark gap should start at a one-inch (25 mm) gap and adjusted to no less than a half-inch gap. The spark gap and it’s adjusting gear should be enclosed in a weather-proofing container and it has been suggested that it could be and advantage to fill that container with helium gas.

Please remember that coils, such as those in the tuning section of this system, have capacitance as well as inductance. The coil insulation is a dielectric and you standing on the ground form a good earth connection, so please don’t imagine that you can’t get a serious shock from handling an insulated coil carrying high-voltage high-frequency AC current, and in one implementation after modulation in the mixer at 60 hertz the pre-output transformer was measured at 3496 volts!

If you are not experienced in working with high-voltage circuitry, and still decide to try building and using this circuit, then please put your affairs in order and pre-pay your funeral expenses before you start building. (That statement is not intended to be humorous).

It is said that if the upper spiral is positioned at a height of just four feet (1200 mm) then the output is much lower and suited to charging a battery bank. As far as I am aware, this system has not been replicated and so there has been no practical feedback on building or using it.
Chapter 8: Fuel-less Engines

We have been raised with the idea that it is necessary to burn a fuel to produce power which we can use. We are sold coal, coke, timber, paraffin/kerosene, petrol/gasoline, diesel, propane, etc. for us to burn in order to "get" energy. While it is perfectly true that burning these things will indeed result in energy in a form which we find convenient to use in heating, cooling, powering engines, etc. what is carefully avoided is the fact that it is not at all necessary to burn a fuel in order to run the things which we want to power. This 'inconvenient' fact has been concealed and denied for more than fifty years now (very surprisingly, by the people who want to sell us these fuels to burn – do you perhaps think that they may have some motive for this, other than our best interests about which they are no doubt, very concerned?).

This chapter is about 'fuel-less' motors. Strictly speaking, they are not self-powered but as they don't burn a fuel of any kind, in everyday language they can be described as 'self-powered'. In the same way that a solar panel in sunlight uses no fuel and yet puts out electrical power, these motors draw energy from the environment and provide us with mechanical power. In actual fact, power is never “used up” but just converted from one form into another. In the case of our trusty solar panel, some 17% of the radiation from the sun (mainly ultraviolet) is converted into electrical power and 83% goes in heating and other losses, but as we don’t have to supply the sunlight, and the solar panel pours out the electricity which we want without us having to do anything to make it happen, we really don’t care very much about its extremely low efficiency. As far as we are concerned, the electricity flowing from the panel is “free-energy”.

It is really amazing that we have been persuaded that we must burn a fuel in order to get power. Take the case of a heavy-displacement sailing yacht. The skipper can voyage using his inboard diesel engine:

This matches perfectly with the thinking that you need to burn a fuel in order to get power as the yacht is moving along, pushed by the engine which is powered by burning diesel fuel. But, what if the skipper decides to switch the engine off and set the sails?:

8 - 1
Now, the same boat, weighing exactly the same with the same crew, is now continuing the voyage at the same speed, but no fuel is being burnt. The really interesting thing is that while we know this perfectly well, and we are aware that people have sailed right around the world in boats which do not have engines, it does not seem to occur to us that this shows conclusively that it is not necessary to burn a fuel to power some item of equipment or form of transport.

In the case of our yacht, the energy comes from the sun which heats the atmosphere unevenly, causing winds to blow and the yachtsman uses the sails to make those winds power his boat through the water. So, a sailing boat is actually powered by the sun although we don’t usually think about it that way.

There are many hydro-electric “power stations” where electricity is ‘generated’ by machines driven by water pressure. In actual fact, no power is ‘generated’ at all, but instead, the potential energy of the body of water is converted into electricity by having the water fall and spin the shaft of a machine. So, how did the water get up there in the first place? Well, it came from rain. And how did the rain get up there? It rose up there due to evaporation caused by the heat of the sun. So, the bottom line again is that hydro-electric ‘power’ stations are powered by the sun.

Windmills are also powered by the sun. But, and here is the really interesting thing, if I state that it is perfectly possible for a compressed-air engine to produce mechanical power without burning any fuel, then there is an immediate and strong reaction where people will say “Impossible – that is perpetual motion!!” They imply that perpetual motion is impossible but never supply any rational evidence to support that implication. Why then are people so opposed to the idea of perpetual motion? Presumably, because perpetual motion shows clearly that a fuel does not have to be burned to ‘produce’ power and that would not be good for people who sell fuels, and so, we are all told from an early age that perpetual motion is “impossible”.

Well, that does not matter here as we are going to look at compressed-air engines which run off the heat of the sun. That is, they are heat-pumps which are a well accepted engineering fact and they work on wholly accepted standard scientific principles. An ordinary refrigerator outputs three or four times as much heat power as the electrical power driving it, and it could be twice that efficient if it were used properly. This is a Coefficient Of Performance (COP) of 3 or 4, which is supposed to be “impossible” but unfortunately, all refrigerators work like this and you can’t exactly say that refrigerators don’t exist, just because their performance does not appear to fit in with some theories.

Actually, there is no magic involved here as the extra energy is being drawn from the heat content of the air in the immediate locality. The refrigerator is not operating in isolation and there is a heat exchange with the air surrounding it. This outside energy causes the COP>1 performance. In passing, all COP>1 devices
operate by drawing energy in from an external source (usually the zero-point energy field) and none of them actually break the ‘rules’ of science. But, enough of that.

The people who don’t want self-powered engines used in the world today, pin their hopes on a continued ignorance of Engineering facts relating to heat pumps. A self-sustaining compressed-air engine is actually running off power from the sun just as sailboats, windmills and hydro-electric power stations do. Sorry folks, no magic here, just bog-standard Engineering. Admittedly, very few people know or realise the implications of this standard Engineering:

1. All work done in compressing air into a storage tank is converted into heat and then lost to the atmosphere, so the energy in the compressed air inside the tank is the same as that produced by atmospheric heating of that air, but as more of it is now in the tank, there is additional potential for work to be done. This extra energy was fed into the air by atmospheric heating before the air was compressed.

   The First Law of Thermodynamics states that where heat is converted into mechanical energy, or mechanical energy is converted into heat, the quantity of heat is exactly equivalent to the amount of mechanical energy. We then have the intriguing situation where all of the mechanical energy put into compressing air into a storage tank is lost as heat, and yet, the tank contents now has a higher potential for doing work. This information comes from Engineering textbooks.

2. If the expanded cold air leaving the engine is used to cool the intake air of the compressor, then there will be an added gain when it warms up inside the cylinder, pulling heat in from the local environment.

3. If the heat of compression is transferred to the air container feeding the engine and not given time to dissipate, then there is a further power gain for the engine.

4. If compressed air is allowed to expand rapidly, there is a marked drop in temperature. The Leroy Rogers engine design, shown later in this chapter, uses this fact to create air-conditioning for a car driven by a compressed-air engine.

OK then, in broad outline, the energy available from a tank of compressed air comes directly from the heat contained in the atmosphere, in spite of the fact that we always imagine that the energy in the tank was put there by our energetic pumping.

Let’s check this out by taking a look at some of the engines which use these principle to provide fuel-less operation, starting with the design of Bob Neal. The full patent for Bob’s design is included in the Appendix.

**Bob Neal’s Compressed Air Engine.**

Bob Neal’s design is a compressed-air operated engine and compressor where the operation of the engine keeps re-supplying the compressed air tank:

![Perspective view of the engine](image_url)
is a vertical transverse cross-section view through the compressor part of the engine. In his patent, Bob has avoided any direct mention of the fact that his engine design is fuel-less. That sort of statement is not popular with Patent Examiners even if it is perfectly true.

**Scott Robertson’s Compressor System.**
Bob Neal’s system could do with some further explanation, so here is an idea from Scott Robertson whose web site is [http://www.aircaraccess.com/index.htm](http://www.aircaraccess.com/index.htm), for a possible working compressor system using a leaf-blower:

While this looks rather complicated, in reality it really isn’t. Let’s take the different sections in order:
First, you have an ordinary air engine, supplied with compressed air from a pressure tank. This engine exhausts its (cold, expanded) air to the atmosphere. The engine powers two compressors which between them keep the tank full of compressed air.

The first compressor is a simple ‘leaf-blower’ type which produces a large volume of low-pressure air. The big question is “how do you get this large volume of low-pressure air into a tank which has high-pressure compressed air inside it?”. Well this seemingly impossible task is performed by the second compressor aided by a cunning, ultra-simple design:

Here, low-pressure air is fed into the low-pressure area marked in pink. Separating it from the high-pressure area is a metal plug marked in green. Set into this plug is a ring of five one-way air valves marked in red. These one-way valves let the low-pressure air into the high-pressure area because of a high-speed jet of air produced by the ‘jet-drive compressor’. At first glance, this seems impossible, but it is actually just an application of a standard Engineering technique. The high-speed air jet is directed through a specially shaped nozzle, creating a local low-pressure zone around the jet:
The low-pressure air at point “A” flows through the ring of five one-way valves into the disc-shaped low pressure area “B” and is blasted into the high-pressure area “C” by the high-power air jet ripping through the doughnut-shaped ring marked in yellow. The high-speed air jet causes the low pressure ring “B” by its rapid movement which creates a vortex due to the shape and positioning of the doughnut-shaped ring marked in yellow. This clever arrangement allows large volumes of low-pressure air to be drawn into a tank which contains high-pressure air.

You will also note that the two-stage compressor which generates this high-speed jet of air, has its working area actually inside the tank. This means that the heat of compression is used to heat the air inside the tank and raise its pressure, enhancing the operation further. It should be borne in mind that the new air entering the system has been heated by the sun and contains the energy which powers the system.

**Tesla's Motionless One-way Valve**

As it is not widely publicised, many people have never heard of Nikola Tesla’s patent 1,329,559 of 1916 which describes a very clever physical shape which has easy passage of a fluid in one direction but very difficult flow in the opposite direction. This is the shape:

This arrangement is very clever as flow from right to left is free while flow from left to right results in a collision for every loop in the flow path. That is like this:
As a result of this, the larger the number of loops, the greater the flow resistance. With the eleven loops shown in the patent, the resistance to flow is more than 200 times from left to right. There are many different applications for such a fluid diode.

**The Retro-fit Compressed Air Vehicle System of Leroy Rogers.**

The Rogers motor shown here makes no claims to spectacular operation, but in spite of that, Leroy did admit in an interview that this motor does indeed have a greater output than the applied input, provided that the motor is not left just ticking over. This motor is like the US patent 3,744,252 “Closed Motive Power System Utilising Compressed Fluids” by Eber Van Valkinburg shown below. However, the Rogers patent shown here has the distinct advantage that it uses off-the-shelf motors and readily available hardware and there is nothing really exotic or difficult about the Rogers engine that a person couldn’t get from a valve supplier or get a metal fabrication company to construct.

However, while Leroy did state that his design was self-sustaining when going over 30 miles per hour, a key design feature is his very high performance compressor unit which he later patented as shown below. Present day vehicle engines are under-g geared and run at fairly low revs. These same engines operate much more efficiently at higher revs, if they are given different gearing. With the Rogers motor, the air contained in the high-pressure tank is sufficient to drive the pistons up and down. Air can be pumped back into the high-pressure tank by a compressor which has a much higher gearing and much lower capacity per piston stroke. The expanded air exiting from the engine is at much lower temperature than the surrounding air and if it captured in a buffer tank and used as the input of the compressor, then recharging the air tank is more efficient, provided that the tank absorbs heat from the surrounding environment, raising it’s temperature inside the tank and so giving an extra boost to the tank pressure, over and above the compression provided by the compressor.

One really nice feature of Leroy’s design is that he envisages it as being an adaption of an ordinary vehicle engine and he provides a considerable amount of practical detail as to how the adaption can be carried out.

Using a RotoVerter (as described in Chapter 2) to drive a compressor would lower the power requirements of the compressor drive to the extent that a motor adaption of this kind should be self-sustaining. The RotoVerter provides a major energy gain in its own right and is particularly suited to driving mechanical loads such as the compressor and it particularly ‘likes’ constant-load applications such as a compressor.

The adapted engine shown in the patent is like this:
This patent shows how the practical details of running an engine on compressed air can be dealt with. What it does not show is background details of the actual energy flows and the effects of compressing air and then letting it expand. These things are not normally encountered in our daily lives and so we do not have an immediate intuitive feel for how systems like these will operate. Take the effects of expansion. While it is quite well known that letting a compressed gas expand causes cooling, the practical effect is seldom realised.

Leroy’s compressor patent is shown here:

United States Patent 4,693,669  Supercharger for automobile engines
Inventor: Rogers Sr., Leroy K. (Rte. 13, P.O. Box 815-DD, Briarcliff Rd., Fort Myers, FL, 33908)
Publication Date: 15th September 1987

Abstract:
A supercharger for delivering supercharged air to an engine, comprising a shrouded axial compressor, a radial compressor which is located downstream of the axial compressor and a housing. The housing is comprised of four sections, including a section which is a highly converging, ‘frustoconical’ transition duct which favourably directs the discharge of the axial compressor to the inlet of the radial compressor and a hollow, highly convergent, exhaust cone section immediately downstream of the radial compressor which converges into the exhaust port of the supercharger. An annular flow deflector is provided for directing the discharge of the radial compressor into the exhaust cone.

Description:
Superchargers impart additional pressure to the air or the air/fuel mixture of an engine so that the cylinders receive a greater weight per unit volume of air or air/fuel mixture than would otherwise be supplied. As a result, the volumetric efficiency and power output of the engine are improved.
According to prior practices, superchargers generally comprise a single air-blower which forces air or an air/fuel mixture into the cylinders of an engine. Typically, the air-blower is driven by a gear train which is connected to the crankshaft of the engine with a gear ratio of about 6 to 1. These prior types of superchargers have been used extensively in racing engines and radial aircraft engines. However, by reason of their high operating speeds and their gear trains, these superchargers have been considered too complicated, too heavy and too costly for use with mass production engines such as are found in cars and trucks.

Recently, some car manufacturers have been offering turbocharged engines which expand to exhaust gases of the engine through a turbine to drive a centrifugal compressor. Although turbochargers are advantageous in that the turbine can deliver large amounts of power to the compressor, their extreme operating speeds require special bearings, lubrication and maintenance. In addition, turbochargers require special ducting, such as by-pass arrangements, which only add to their cost and maintenance requirements. Consequently, turbochargers are only offered as expensive options in cars.

Further, there is current interest in a new type of car engine which operates from tanks of compressed gas to effect reciprocation of its pistons. An example of such an engine can be found in the U.S. Pat. No. 4,292,804 issued to the same inventor of the present invention. In the referenced patent, at least a portion of the partially expanded exhaust gas from the cylinders is directed to a compressor where it is recompressed and then returned to the storage tanks from whence it originally came. It would be desirable that at least some, if not all of the aforementioned recompression of the exhaust gas could be achieved with a belt-driven, rotary supercharger that is easily manufactured and maintained, yet is capable of providing ample recompression.

**Objects of the Invention:**
Accordingly, an object of the present invention is to provide a supercharger suitable for improving the performance of engines of cars, helicopters or the like, which supercharger is inexpensive to produce and easy to maintain.

It is another object of the present invention to provide a supercharger which provides sufficient boost without resort to extreme operating speeds and accordingly avoids the costly complications associated with high speed operation.

It is yet another object of the present invention to provide a relatively compact and lightweight supercharger which is inexpensive to manufacture and maintain.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a belt-driven supercharger having a design which provides supercharging compression at relatively low operating speeds.

It is still another object of the present invention to provide a supercharger which can be quite readily disassembled and reassembled for purposes of low cost maintenance and repair.

Still another object of the present invention is to provide a supercharger which can be constructed from mass producible parts to thereby reduce the cost of its manufacture.

It is still another object of the present invention to provide a belt-driven supercharger which provides supercharging compression without resort to a larger number of compressor stages.

Yet another object of the present invention is to provide a rotary supercharger for a gas operated engine, which supercharger is easily manufactured and maintained, yet capable of providing ample recompression of the recirculating drive fluid.
Summary of the Invention:
These and other objects are achieved by the present invention which provides a supercharger comprising a housing having an inlet and an outlet, a shrouded axial compressor and a radial compressor rotatably mounted within the housing, a highly convergent shallow, frustoconical transition duct for favourably directing the discharge of the axial compressor to the inlet of the radial compressor.

In accordance with a further aspect of the invention, the above-described supercharger further comprises an exhaust cone at a location downstream of the radial compressor and a flow deflector for directing the discharge of the radial compressor to the exhaust cone.

In the preferred embodiment, the housing itself comprises four sections: a cylindrical front housing section which defines an axially directed inlet; a second, cylindrical ducting section enclosing the axial compressor; a rear housing section defining the transition duct as well as the inlet and casing for the radial compressor; and the exhaust cone section which defines at its terminus the outlet of the housing. For driving the compressor shaft, a double-tracked pulley wheel is secured to the forward end of the common shaft, which pulley wheel is adapted to receive one or more drive belts from the crank-shaft wheel of the engine. A lateral opening in the front housing section accommodates the connection with the drive belts.

With the disclosed arrangement, compression can be achieved for supercharging purposes without resort to a large number of compressor stages or high operating speeds. Additionally, the design of the disclosed supercharger avoids the need for guide vanes between the axial compressor and the radial compressor. The exhaust cone section also favourably avoids the build-up of back pressure against the radial compressor. The design is also very simple and therefore inexpensive to manufacture and maintain.

Other objects, advantages and novel features of the present invention will become apparent from the following detailed description of the invention when considered in conjunction with the accompanying drawing.

Brief description of the Drawings:
A preferred embodiment of the present invention is described in greater detail with reference to the accompanying drawing wherein like elements bear like reference numerals, and where:
Fig. 1 is a cross-sectional side view of a supercharger constructed in accordance with the preferred embodiment of the present invention;

Fig. 2 is a side view of the supercharger of Fig. 1;
Fig. 3 is a frontal view of the impeller of the supercharger of Fig. 1;

Fig. 4 is a cross-sectional view taken along line 4--4 of Fig. 1;
Fig. 5 is a cross-sectional view taken along line 5--5 in Fig. 1;

Fig. 6 is a cross-sectional view taken along line 6--6 in Fig. 1;
Fig. 7 is a perspective view of a segment of the impeller of the supercharger of Fig. 1; and

Fig. 8 is a partial side view of the supercharger of Fig. 1 with an adaptor.

Detailed Description of the Preferred Embodiment:
Referring to Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, a supercharger 10 is provided for supplying supercharged air to a car engine or the like, so that the engine receives a greater weight per unit volume of air or a fuel/air mixture than would be otherwise supplied. In accordance with a preferred embodiment of the present invention, the supercharger 10 comprises a housing 12 having an axially directed inlet 14 for receiving ambient air and an axially directed outlet 16 for delivering supercharged air to the intake of the car engine. Rotatably mounted within the housing 12 is a shaft 18 on which are secured an axial compressor 24 and a radial compressor 26, which is positioned downstream of the axial compressor. A pulley wheel 28 is secured to a forward end 30 of the shaft for receiving drive belts 31, which drive belts connect the shaft 18 to a pulley wheel on the crankshaft of the engine (not shown). The drive belts 31 deliver torque to the shaft 18 as required for driving the compressors 24 and 26 of the supercharger 10.

Housing 12 is constructed from four sections which are preferably bolted together at flanged connections in an end-to-end relationship. These sections include a front housing section 32, an axial compressor duct section 34, a rear housing section 36 and an exhaust cone section 38. The shaft 18 extends along the longitudinal axis of the housing 12.
The front housing section 32 is a hollow cylinder which extends forward of a front bearing support 40. The front housing section 32 encloses the forward end 30 of the shaft 18 and the associated pulley wheel 28. At its forward end, the front housing section 32 defines the inlet 14 for receiving air from an external source (not shown).

Referring particularly to Fig.2, the front housing section 32 includes a lateral opening 44 on one side in order to accommodate the connection of the drive belts 31 to the pulley wheel 28. The front housing section 32 also includes a forward flange 46 for accommodating the connection of air filters, carburettors, air scoops or the like upstream of the supercharger 10 according to the particular engine layout.

It is to be understood that in the usual engine layout, the supercharger 10 receives air or a fuel/air mixture from an external source through its inlet 14, compresses the air or fuel/air mixture and then delivers it to the intake of the engine.

Referring again to Fig.1, the pulley wheel 28 is interference-fitted upon the forward end 30 of shaft 18 and a key 134 is used to lock the pulley wheel 28 in place. The pulley wheel 28 is preferably a double-track design which is suitable for the attachment of twin drive belts, although a single-belt type pulley wheel would be adequate. The pulley wheel 28 is preferably sized so that the ratio of its diameter with respect to the diameter of the drive wheel of the engine's crankshaft provides an effective gearing ratio in the range of approximately two and one-half to four and one-half. Thus at idle, when the car engine is running at approximately 700 rpm, the supercharger 10 is running at approximately 2,400 rpm, and at cruise, when the engine is running around 2,500 rpm, the supercharger 10 is preferably turning over in the range of 6,000 to 8,000 rpm. It is to be noted that although the diameter of the pulley wheel 28 may be substantially reduced in order to achieve a desired gearing ratio, the double-track wheel 28 presents a sufficient sum total of surface area to avoid slippage of the belts 31.

The next adjacent section of housing 12 is the axial compressor duct 34 which is a short cylinder coaxially disposed about the axial compressor 24. Preferably, the axial compressor duct 34 is constructed from cast aluminium, with the interior surfaces 48 machined to assure uniform clearance between the duct 34 and shroud 50 of the axial compressor 24. As with other sections of the housing 12, the axial compressor duct 34 is provided with flanges 52 and 54 for effecting connection to the adjacent housing sections. The axial compressor duct 34 guides air delivered from the front housing section 32 towards the axial compressor 24.
Referring now to Fig.1 and Fig.4, a front bearing support 40 is placed between the front housing section 32 and the axial compressor duct 34. The front bearing support 40 includes an outer annulus 56 and three radial arms 58. Between these arms are defined passages 60 for allowing air to pass through the bearing support 40. The outer annulus 54 is secured by bolts connecting a rear flange 64 of the front housing section 32 and the flange 52 of the axial compressor duct 34. By this arrangement, the front bearing support 40 is rigidly secured to the housing 12 so that loads and shocks to the shaft 18 can be transferred through the front bearing support 40 to the housing 12.

In the preferred embodiment, the outer annulus 56 of the bearing support 40 extends into the region of the inlet 14 of the front housing section 32 in such a way that it’s inner rim 68 coincides with the inner rim 70 of the shroud 50 of the axial compressor 24. In this way, the outer annulus 56 contributes to the guiding of the flow of air toward the axial compressor 24.

An outer raceway 74 of the front roller bearing assembly 76 is secured between the front bearing support 40 and a bearing retainer plate 78, which is secured by the removable bolts 80. In this preferred embodiment, the front bearing assembly 76 is of the sealed, high speed type. A suitable commercially available bearing assembly is marketed under the reference: model Fafnir 405KDD. Preferably, a lower raceway 82 of the front bearing assembly 76 is secured to the shaft 18 with an interference fit. A spacer 84 is provided on one side of the lower raceway 82, which spacer 84 also abuts a hub 86 of the axial compressor 24 in order to position the axial compressor 24 at a predetermined distance downstream of the bearing support 40. Similarly, a spacer 88 is provided on the other side of the lower raceway 84, and it abuts the pulley wheel 28 so as to space apart the pulley wheel 28 from the front bearing support 40 to ensure that there is sufficient clearance between them.

It should be appreciated that the bearing retainer plate 78 allows ready access to the front bearing assembly 76 for purposes of maintenance or repair. To service the front bearing assembly 76, a nut 90 and lock-washer 92 on the forward end 30 of the shaft 18 are loosened and removed together with the pulley wheel 28 and the spacer 88. Then bolts 42 and the bearing retainer plate 76 are removed, leaving the whole bearing assembly 76 exposed for servicing and/or removal.

The rear housing section 36 is connected by bolts to the downstream end of the axial compressor duct 34. Preferably, the rear housing section 36 is constructed from a single section of cast aluminum and includes external longitudinal ribs 94 for enhancing the structural rigidity of the rear housing section 34. The walls of the rear housing section 36 define three elements of the supercharger 10: a highly conical transition duct 96 which favourably directs the output of the axial compressor to an inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26; the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26, itself; and a casing 100 for the radial compressor 26.

The transition duct 96 is a hollow, frustoconical portion having a half-apex angle (from the generatrix to the axis of symmetry) of approximately 35°. The angle is selected such that the inlet to the radial compressor 26 is as close as possible to the outlet of the axial compressor, without causing undue back-pressure. In the preferred embodiment, the transition duct 96 begins a short distance downstream of the axial compressor 24 and ends at the beginning of the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26. The highly conical shape of the
transition duct 96 is believed to roll-in the higher volume of air being discharged from the more radially outward portions of the axial compressor 24. This rolling-in action is believed to promote a favourable flow regime at the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26 so that there is no need for inlet guide vanes for the radial compressor 26. It is also believed that the highly conical shape of the transition duct 96 affects upstream flow conditions at the axial compressor 24 in such a way that its performance is improved. It has also been found that there is no need for a stator (or exit guide vane) for the axial compressor 24.

In essence, it is believed that the transition duct 96 performs the functions of the exit vanes of axial compressors and inlet guide vanes of radial compressors, but without the pressure losses commonly associated with them. Avoiding these pressure losses and the expected improvement in the performance of the axial compressor, allows the supercharger 10 to impart a higher overall pressure ratio than would otherwise be achieved without the transition duct 96. As a result, adequate compression is achieved at moderate operating speeds without resort to a bank of several axial compressors. It should be understood however, that when connecting the supercharger 10 to a relatively slowly reciprocating diesel or a very large engine, it may be desirable to include two or more axial compressors in order to boost the supercharger's overall pressure ratio. In such cases, the present invention would then include the placement of a transition duct downstream of at least the last axial compressor.

At the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26, the walls of the rear housing 36 are cylindrical and coaxially positioned around shaft 18. It should be noted that in the preferred embodiment, the surface transition 102 from the transition duct 96 to the inlet 98 is rounded-off.

The casing portion 100 of the rear housing section 36 closely follows the contour defined by blade edges 104 of the radial compressor 26 in a close, substantially sealing manner as is well known in the art of radial compressors. The casing portion 100 of the rear housing section 78 channels air between the rotating blades of the radial compressor 26 so that the blades can impart work to the passing air. The casing portion 100 also defines a discharge outlet 106 for the radial compressor 26.

Just beyond the discharge outlet 106 of the radial compressor 26, the interior surfaces of the rear housing section 36 begin to curve immediately inwardly to provide a transition into the next adjacent section of the housing 12, the exhaust cone 38. In this fashion, the interior surfaces at the rear-most portion of rear housing section 36 and those of the forward portion of the exhaust cone 92 define internally a flow deflector 108. In the preferred embodiment, the flow deflector 108 is closely and concentrically positioned around outlet 106 of the radial compressor 26 so that the air being discharged from the radial compressor 26 does not have the opportunity to diffuse significantly prior to its arrival at the annular flow deflector 108. The annular flow deflector 108 directs the output of the radial compressor 26 into the exhaust cone 38 by providing a smooth surface transition from the interior of rear housing section 36 to the interior of the exhaust cone 38.

The exhaust cone 38 is a highly convergent, hollow, conical section placed immediately downstream of the radial compressor 26 for receiving the output of the radial compressor 26 from the annular flow deflector 108. In the preferred embodiment, the exhaust cone 38 is a single section of cast aluminium which is joined to the downstream end of the rear housing section 36 at a flanged joint 110. Preferably, the exhaust cone 92 converges according to a half-apex angle of approximately 35° and defines the exhaust port 16 at its terminus. A threaded section 112 at the exhaust port 16 allows the attachment of the appropriate external ducting (not shown) leading to the intake of the engine.

During operation of the supercharger 10, the space enclosed by the exhaust cone 92 prevents the build up of an elevated back pressure which might otherwise arise and detract from the operation and efficiency of the radial compressor 26. The enclosed space of the exhaust cone 92 is also of sufficient volume to absorb pulses and to average out unsteady flow conditions so to promote a smooth and continuous output from the supercharger 10.
Referring now to Fig.1 and Fig.6, the exhaust cone 38 includes a rear bearing support 114 which comprises members 116 which extend radially inwardly from the outer walls of the exhaust cone 38. At a radial inward location close to the shaft 18, the members 116 converge to form a cupped annulus which serves as a housing 118 for the rear bearing assembly 120. The housing 118 is open towards the rear face of the radial compressor 24 to facilitate disassembly of the supercharger 10. The rear bearing assembly 120 is the same type and size as the front bearing assembly 76. The inner race 122 of the bearing assembly 120 is set in place on the shaft 18 by spacers 124 and 126 in conjunction with a nut 128 and washer 130 on the rearward end 132 of the shaft 18. In this preferred embodiment, the members 116 are formed to be integral with the walls of the exhaust cone 38.

Referring to Fig.1 and Fig.5, upon rotation, the axial compressor 24 draws air through the inlet 14 and imparts an initial amount compression to the air as it forces the air into the transition duct 96 of the rear housing section 36. In the preferred embodiment, the axial compressor 24 comprises a hub 86, the shroud 50 and a series of ten (10) equally spaced, radial blades 136. Ideally, each blade 136 increases in cord from a root 138 to a tip 140 and includes a trailing edge 142 and a leading edge 144, where these edges are both
slightly curved. The blades gradually increase in pitch from approximately 12° at the root 138 to approximately 36° at the tips 140. However, the particular values of pitch and other geometrical aspects of the blades 136 might be varied in accordance with different operating speeds or other parameters as would be apparent to one skilled in the pertinent art and familiar with this disclosure.

The axial compressor 24 is preferably constructed from a single, cast aluminium section with the faces 143 and 145 of the hub 86 being machined for purposes of achieving accurate, axial positioning of the axial compressor 24 on the shaft 18 relative to the housing 12. The faces 146 and 148 of the shroud 72 are also machined flat. Additionally, the outer periphery 150 of the shroud is machined to assure uniform clearance between the shroud and the adjacent interior surfaces 48 of the axial compressor duct 34. Preferably, the axial compressor 24 is secured to the shaft 18 by an interference-fit on to a stepped portion 152 of the shaft 18. The spacers 84 and 154 axially position the axial compressor 24 relative to the front bearing support 40 and the radial compressor 26, respectively.

Dynamic balance test machines of the conventional type may be used to test the balance of the axial compressor 24 prior to its installation. If an imbalance is detected, material can be removed at the outer periphery 150 of the shroud 50 so as to achieve proper balance.

Referring now to Fig.1, Fig.3, and Fig.7, the radial compressor 26 is constructed from a single section of cast aluminium and includes a hub 156 and curved blades 158. Interposed between each pair of blades 158 are a second set of blades 160 which terminate short of the intake 162 of the radial compressor 26 so that the intake 162 is not crowded by both sets of blades. Accordingly, the radial compressor 26 features both a large total number of blades and an intake of relatively small diameter, and these features enhance the performance of the compressor 26. In the region of the intake 162, the blades 158 present leading edges 164 and undergo a twist into the direction of rotation so as to prevent a favourable angle of attack at the intake 162.

Preferably, the radial compressor 26 is positioned upon the stepped section 128 of the shaft 18 with an interference-fit and locked against rotational slippage by a key 166. The spacer 124 assures clearance between the rear face of the radial compressor 26 and the rear bearing assembly 120.

The shaft 18 is constructed from a hardened steel and is threaded at both ends 30 and 132 to receive nuts 90 and 128, respectively. In addition to the central stepped portion 152, which receives the compressors 24 and 26, the shaft 18 also features stepped portions 170 and 172 for receiving the front and rear bearing assemblies 76 and 120, respectively. The stepped arrangement of the shaft 18 facilitates assembly and disassembly in that the stepped portion 152 of the greatest diameter is centrally located on the shaft 18 and all the stepped portions are greater than the diameter of the threading at ends 30 and 132.

Please note that the bearing supports 40 and 114 are in a fixed position relative to the housing 12 and that the compressors 24 and 26 are held in position between the bearing supports 22 and 40 by spacers 84, 124 and 154, which have predetermined lengths. Consequently, the placement of the compressors 24 and 26 relative to the longitudinal axis of the housing 12 is fixed by the spacers and not by the axial location of the shaft 18 relative to the housing 12. Please also note that the stepped portions 152, 170 and 172 of the shaft 18 are each provided with extra lengths so that the respective components (the bearing assemblies and compressors) can each be situated over a relatively wide range of locations in the respective stepped
portions. Thus, the shaft 18 need not be positioned accurately along the longitudinal axis of the housing 12 in order to achieve proper assembly of the supercharger 10. For instance, if nuts 90 and 128 had been tightened differently than they appear in Fig.1, then shaft 18 might have been displaced slightly in the axial direction from where it is shown in Fig.1. However, the relative positioning of the various components on the shaft 18, i.e., the pulley wheel 28, the compressors 24 and 26 and the bearing assemblies 76 and 120, would have remained the same relative to themselves and the housing 12. This feature eases the process of manufacture and accordingly, reduces costs. It also reduces the amount of labour required for reassembly after repair.

In operation, the supercharger 10 is suitably connected at it's outlet 16 to an intake of a car engine, with the drive belts 31 from the crankshaft of the engine being attached to the pulley wheel 28 of the supercharger 10. Then, as the engine is operated, torque is transferred by the drive belts 31 to the pulley wheel 28 for driving the compressors 24 and 26. Upon rotation, the axial compressor 24 draws air through the inlet 14, imparts an initial amount of compression to the air and discharges it into the transition duct 96 with a swirl. By reason of it's design, the axial compressor 24 is believed to move a greater volume of air in the region of its blade tips 140 than at it's more radially inward locations. Accordingly, there is a greater of mass of air situated at the outer annular region behind the axial compressor 24 than at the inner annular region. As the discharge from the axial compressor 24 is caused to leave the axial compressor duct 34, the highly convergent, transition duct 96 is believed to cause the outer annulus of air which is discharged from the axial compressor 24 to roll-in. This action is believed to have two favourable results. First, the roll-in action causes a flow regime to be established at the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26 such that the need for a guide vane is wholly avoided. Secondly, and of equal importance, the rolling-in action, in conjunction with the large volume of space enclosed by the transition duct 96, is believed to affect the performance of the axial compressor 24 favourably, so that a higher pressure ratio is obtained from it.

Since the overall pressure ratio of the supercharger 10 is the product of the pressure ratios of the two compressors, it can be seen that the increase in performance of the axial compressor 24 results in a corresponding improvement in overall performance of the supercharger. It should also be noted that the deletion of inlet guide vanes for the radial compressor 26 and of exit vanes for the axial compressor 24 greatly simplifies the design of the rear housing section 36 and therefore provides savings in costs of manufacture. It also avoids the pressure losses associated with such guide vanes, which are often quite significant.

Upon leaving the transition duct 96, the pre-swirled flow of air enters the inlet 98 of the radial compressor 26 and then into the compressor 26 itself. In passing through the radial compressor 26, the air is turned and whirled such that the airflow is centrifugally discharged with a substantial radial velocity component, whereupon the resultant flow is abruptly turned by the annular flow deflector 108 and caused to enter the exhaust cone 38. As previously explained, the large volume of space enclosed by the exhaust cone 38 induces flow conditions behind the radial compressor 26 such that elevated back pressures are avoided, pressures which might otherwise impair the performance of the radial compressor 26. Pulses in the output of the radial compressor 26 are also moderated. The air is then delivered in a compressed state to the exhaust port 16 of the exhaust cone 38. The supercharged air then flows down the appropriate intake system of the engine until it reaches the cylinder or cylinders of the engine.
With respect to the application of the supercharger \textbf{10} to air-tank powered engines, such as disclosed in U.S. Pat. No. 4,292,804, the supercharger \textbf{10} functions in the same manner as described above, but is connected to the engine differently. In the air tank powered engine, at least one of the exhaust manifolds of the engines delivers partially expanded air to a line connected to the inlet \textbf{14} of the supercharger \textbf{10}. Referring to Fig.8, in most of such applications, this line will be of a smaller diameter than the housing \textbf{12} at the inlet \textbf{14} of the supercharger, such that an adaptor \textbf{173} is needed. The adaptor \textbf{173} comprises an annular plate \textbf{174} having a threaded aperture \textbf{176} sized to receive a mating, threaded end \textbf{178} of the line \textbf{180}. The plate \textbf{174} is secured to the flange \textbf{36} of the front housing section \textbf{32} by a plurality of bolts. Because the air coming from the line \textbf{180} is usually less than the full capacity of the supercharger, additional air is introduced through the lateral opening \textbf{44} along the side of the front housing section \textbf{32}. In this application, the opening \textbf{44} thus serves as an air intake port as well as a means for accommodating the drive belts \textbf{31} and must therefore be sized upon the additional criteria that it not be so large as to upset the flow of the incoming air in the line \textbf{180}. Upon the passage of the air through the supercharger, the air is directed through the exhaust port \textbf{16} and into a suitable line connected to it, which line may lead directly to the engine or to the storage tanks of the engine. If directed to the tanks, this recompressed air is used to supplement the required recharging of the storage tanks.

It is to be appreciated that savings in the cost of manufacturing the supercharger \textbf{10} are achieved by reason that the housing \textbf{12}, the bearing supports \textbf{40} and \textbf{114}, the axial compressor \textbf{24} and the radial compressor \textbf{26} are all constructed from cast aluminium parts and require only a minimum amount of machining. Moreover, the roller bearing assemblies \textbf{76} and \textbf{120} are commercially available components, and the supercharger \textbf{10} is easily assembled. These aspects further reduce the cost of manufacture and render the disclosed supercharger inexpensive to maintain and overhaul. More importantly, the supercharger \textbf{10}, despite its simple design, provides supercharging at relatively low operating speeds. With it’s lower operating speeds, the service life of the supercharger \textbf{10} is extended and the risk of it suffering mechanical failure is reduced. The need for special bearing designs and lubrication is also avoided. Accordingly, the supercharger \textbf{10} is highly suitable for mass production and for use in cars, trucks, helicopters or the like.

\textbf{Eber Van Valkinburg’s Engine.}

Eber presents a custom engine based on these principles. His engine uses both compressed air and compressed oil to manipulate pressures within the system and provide an engine which is self-powered. In the Appendix is a slightly re-worded copy of the Eber Van Valkinburg patent, which remarks that “stored energy in a compressed elastic fluid is utilised in a controlled manner to pressurise an inelastic fluid and to maintain such pressurisation. The pressurised inelastic fluid is throttled to the impeller of a prime mover. Only a portion of the output energy from the prime mover is utilised to circulate the inelastic fluid so as to maintain a nearly constant volumetric balance in the system”.

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Richard Clem’s Motor.
What is not generally realised is that a hurricane develops excess energy due to its swirling circular movement. The generation of this extra power was observed and documented by Viktor Schauberger of Austria, who also used his observations to great effect. I think that what Schauberger says makes some people uncomfortable as they seem to think that anything “unorthodox” has to be weird and too peculiar to be mentioned. This is rather strange as all that is involved here is a simple observation of how our environment actually works. A hurricane is wider at the top than at the bottom and this concentrates power at the base of the swirling mass of air. This tapered rotation is called a “vortex” which is just a simple name to describe the shape, but any mention of “vortex power” (the power at the base of this rotation) seems to make many people uncomfortable which is most peculiar.

Leaving that aside, the question is “can we use this energy gain from the environment for our own purposes?” The answer may well be “Yes”. Perhaps this principle is utilised by Richard Clem. In 1992, Richard Clem of Texas, demonstrated a self-powered engine of an unusual type. This engine, which he had been developing for twenty years or more, weighs about 200 pounds (90 kilos) and generated a measured 350 horsepower continuously over the full period of a nine-day self-powered test. Although this engine which runs from 1,800 to 2,300 rpm is especially suited to powering an electrical generator, Richard did install one in a car, and estimated that it would run for 150,000 miles without any need for attention and without any kind of fuel. Richard said that his prototype car had reached a speed of 105 mph. Just after receiving funding to produce his engine, Richard died suddenly and unexpectedly at about 48 years of age, the death certificate having “heart attack” written on it as the cause of death. Remarkably convenient timing for the oil companies who would have lost major amounts of money through reduced fuel sales if Richard’s motor had gone into production.

The motor is unusual in that it is a rotary turbine style design which runs at a temperature of 300°F (140°C) and because of that high temperature, uses cooking oil as its operational fluid, rather than water as the oil.
has a much higher boiling point. To a quick glance, this looks like an impossible device as it appears to be a purely mechanical engine, which will definitely have an operating efficiency which is less than 100%.

In broad outline, the oil is pumped through a pipe and into the narrow end of the cone-shaped rotor. The engine is started by being rotated by an external starter motor until it reaches the speed at which it generates enough power to be sustain its own operation. The rapid spinning of the cone, causes the oil to run along spiral grooves cut in the inner face of the cone and exit through angled nozzles placed at the large end of the cone:

The operating pressure produced by the pump is 300 to 500 psi. Richard did not attempt to patent his engine as US Patent 3,697,190 "Truncated Conical Drag Pump" granted in 1972 as a liquid-asphalt pump is so close in detail that Richard felt that there was insufficient difference for him to be granted a patent:
There appears to be considerable scope for anyone who wishes to build or manufacture this engine and it is capable of acting as a heater as well as device for producing mechanical power. This suggests that water purification could be an additional “extra” option for this engine.

Prof. Alfred Evert of Germany has produced an analysis of the operation of the Clem Engine and turbines in this general category. His website http://evert.de/indefte.htm has a good deal of information on the subject.

Josef Papp's Inert Gas Engine Conversion.

The Hungarian, Josef Papp, invented an unusual engine system which genuinely appears to be very nearly “fuel-less”. His design modifies an existing vehicle engine to operate on a fixed amount of gas. That is to say, the engine has no air intake and no exhaust and consequently, no inlet or exhaust valves. The engine cylinders contain a mixture of gases which have an Atomic Number below 19, specifically, 36% helium, 26% neon, 17% argon, 13% krypton, and 8% xenon by volume. The control system causes the contained gas to expand to drive the pistons down the cylinders and then contract to suck the pistons back up the cylinders. This effectively converts the engine into a one-stroke version where there are two power strokes per revolution from every cylinder.

A small amount of radioactive material is used in the engine, and I have seen it suggested that the engine should be screened to protect the user from radiation. I’m not sure that this is correct, but if it is, then it suggests that a matter to energy conversion is indeed taking place. It seems most unlikely that the minor amount of radioactive material in the engine itself could cause any significant radiation. The patent describes the material as “low-level” which suggests to me, material no more dangerous that the luminous paint that used to be used on the hands of clocks and watches.

Suitable engines must have an even number of cylinders as they operate in pairs. Josef’s first prototype was a four-cylinder, 90 horsepower Volvo engine. He removed the intake and exhaust components and replaced the engine head with his own design. During a thirty-five minute test in a closed room, the engine generated a constant 300 horsepower output at 4,000 rpm. The electrical power needed to run the engine was produced by the standard engine alternator, which was also able to charge the car battery at the same time. Interestingly, an engine of this type, quite apart from having zero pollution emissions (other than heat), is quite capable of operating under water.

Josef, a draftsman and ex-pilot, emigrated from Hungary to Canada in 1957 where he lived until his death in April 1989. There is solid evidence that Josef built an engine of over 100 horsepower (75 kilowatts) that was “fuelled” by a mixture of inert (or “noble”) gases. With no exhaust or cooling system, it had huge torque even at low rpm (776 foot-pounds at only 726 rpm in one certified test). Dozens of engineers, scientists, investors and a Federal judge with an engineering background saw the engine working in closed rooms for hours. This would not have been possible if the engine had been using fossil fuel. There was absolutely no exhaust and no visible provision for any exhaust. The engine ran cool at about 60°C (140°F) on its surface, as witnessed by several reliable observers. All these people became convinced of the engine’s performance. They all failed to discover a hoax. Ongoing research in the United States (totally independent of Papp) has proved conclusively that inert gases, electrically triggered in various ways, can indeed explode with fantastic violence and energy release, melting metal parts and pushing pistons with large pressure pulses. Some of the people performing this work, or who have evaluated it, are experienced plasma physicists. Contemporary laboratory work has established that inert gases can be made to explode.

In a demonstration on 27th October 1968 in the Californian desert, Cecil Baumgartner, representing the top management of the TRW aerospace corporation and others witnessed the detonation of one of the engine cylinders. In full public view, just a few cubic centimetres of the inert gas mixture was injected into the cylinder using a hypodermic needle. When the gas was electrically triggered, the thick steel walls of the cylinder were burst open in a dramatic way. William White, Edmund Karig, and James Green, observers from the Naval Underseas Warfare Laboratory had earlier sealed the chamber so that Papp or others could not insert explosives as part of a hoax. In 1983, an independent certification test was carried out on one of the Papp engines. Joseph Papp was issued three United States patents for his process and engines:

US 3,680,431 on 1st August 1972 "Method and Means for Generating Explosive Forces" in which he states the general nature of the inert gas mixture necessary to produce explosive release of energy. He also suggests several of the triggering sources that may be involved. It appears that Papp is not offering full disclosure here, but there is no doubt that others who have examined this patent and followed its outline have already been able to obtain explosive detonations in inert gases.
US 3,670,494 on 20th June 1972 "Method and Means of Converting Atomic Energy into Utilisable Kinetic Energy" and

US 4,428,193 on 31st January 1984 "Inert Gas Fuel, Fuel Preparation Apparatus and System for Extracting Useful Work from the Fuel". This patent shown here, is very detailed and provides information on building and operating engines of this type. It also gives considerable detail on apparatus for producing the optimum mixture of the necessary gasses.

At the time of writing, a web-based video of one of the Papp prototype engines running on a test bed, can be found at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N4li_z4Jps0 although it must be said that a good deal of the footage is of very poor quality, having been taken many years ago. The video is particularly interesting in that some of the demonstrations include instances where a transparent cylinder is used to show the energy explosion. Frame-by-frame operation on the original video shows energy being developed outside the cylinder as well as inside the cylinder, which does seem to suggest that the zero-point energy field is involved. I have recently been contacted by one man who attended some of the engine demonstrations run by Papp and he vouches for the fact that the engine performed exactly as described.

Papp’s Patent US 4,428,193 is shown in full in the Appendix.

Josef never managed to get his engine design into commercial production before his death, primarily due to the opposition of vested interests. However, his design principles have been picked up and advanced by John Rohner and Haik Biglari.

The “Plasmic Transition Process” is the subject of various patents pending by PlasmERG Inc. of Iowa. John Rohner founded this company in 2008 to be the means to disseminate, develop and license this technology to other motor manufacturers for their own use. This process originally called the "Papp Engine" did run in 1982 and was then lost until John, and his partner Haik Biglari rediscovered it and applied modern science to the system to explain the process and filed their patents, presently pending. The original process was based on information originally patented by the late Joseph Papp, whose patents have now expired. John Rohner, a well known new-product design engineer, was originally contacted in 1979 by his brother Robert, with a schematic for the controller which Papp had designed. Unfortunately, John was busy with several other projects so he turned it over to his brother Tom.

PlasmERG has designed two motors for Own-Equipment-Manufacturers to use. One is an opposed, 2-cylinder, 120 cubic inch engine which produces some 300 horsepower. The second is a 6-cylinder 360 cubic inch engine which can produce around 1,500 horsepower. These motors are being co-developed with a sister company in Canada. John Rohner has personally provided the total investment for this development. As the company moves toward manufacturing, they are seeking investment partners by trading stock for investment. Their first commercial manufacturing plant will cost about 10 million dollars.

An alternative strategy is to create licenses for existing car and truck motor manufacturers until they can fund their own production. The current plan is to provide 500 to 1,000 test sites in underdeveloped nations for water pumping and power generation as "humanitarian" test sites. This should allow the time needed to get production understood and patents completed.
The expected run time of a motor from a single inert gas charge is over 3 months of continuous operation and gas re-charge should cost less than US $50. John stresses that the PlasmERG motor is not, (just as the original Papp engine was not), a "Pulsed Plasma motor". Plasma is not retained and "pulsed" as some people have supposed. What actually happens is that the plasma is recreated with each power stroke and then returns to a steady state gas on each return stroke, from which the name “Plasmic Transition” is derived.

The initial power and creation of plasma for expansion, is produced by a fusion event with a side-effect of a limited "chaotic" fission event causing a “plasmic transition” which is contained in a sealed 2-cycle rotating crankshaft motor.

There are two parallels to Plasmic Transition and power production of this motor. The first is natural lightning, which uses an almost identically similar Plasmic Transition process; and the second is steam which provides the same torque over rotational speed event characteristics. There is nothing in the ordinary internal combustion motor's operation that is comparable to either of these processes. The most crucial part of PlasmERG's motor operation is the Electronic Control System (ECS), comprising the following elements:

Programmable micro computers;
Radio frequency power generator;
HV spark coil initiation driver;
Various electromagnetic coil voltage switches providing base (resting) or variable (engine speed) voltages for all cylinder or reaction chamber electromagnetic coils;
On-controller DC to 12 volt DC converter;
Engine speed DC voltage (accelerator) to programmed variable voltage DC converter;
Inter controller communications port;
Instrument support for user panel and action port which receives commands from the user comprising by not limited to things like Run, Start, Throttle position, Hold speed, Brake application, Brake hard, various motor inputs and fuel container information.

The PlasmaERG’s website is at [http://plasmerg.com/](http://plasmerg.com/) but it needs Internet Explorer to display properly as it has major display problems when Firefox is used.

Robert Britt’s Inert Gas Motor.
Robert Britt designed a very similar engine to that of Josef Papp, and he was also awarded a US patent for an engine operating on inert gasses. William Lyne remarks that this engine design may be replicated using a Chevy “Monza” 6-cylinder engine or a VolksWagen 4-cylinder engine. The heads are removed and the new heads cast using the “pot metal” used for “pseudo chrome” automotive trim. That alloy contains aluminium, tin, zinc and possibly antimony and is particularly suitable as the insides of the cavities can be polished to the high reflectivity specified in the patents.

A full copy of Robert Britt’s patent US 3,977,191 is in the Appendix.

Heinrich Klostermann’s Air Plasma Motor.
Both Josef Papp and Robert Britt specified inert gas for operation, but Heinrich Klostermann points out that ordinary air is quite sufficient. His video is at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=INSAXbZfhbE at this time. His patent is:

US Patent 7,076,950 18th July 2006 Inventor: Heinrich Klostermann

Internal Explosion Engine and Generator Using Non-combustible Gases

Abstract:
An internal explosion engine and generator having an explosion chamber, a movable member forming one wall of the chamber, a charge of non-combustible gas sealed inside the chamber, means for repeatedly igniting the gas in an explosive manner to drive the movable member from a position of minimum volume to a position of maximum volume, means for returning the movable member from the position of maximum volume to the position of minimum volume, and means coupled to the movable member for providing electrical energy in response to explosion of the gas. In one disclosed embodiment, the movable member is a piston connected to a crankshaft, and it is returned to the position of minimum volume by a flywheel on the crankshaft. In another embodiment, two pistons are connected back-to-back in a hermetically sealed chamber to prevent loss of the explosive gas. In one embodiment, the electrical energy is produced by a generator connected to the crankshaft, and in the other it is produced by a coil positioned near a magnet which moves with the pistons.

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</thead>
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Other References:
Description:

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Field of Invention
This invention pertains generally to engines and generators and, more particularly, to an internal explosion engine and generator using non-combustible gases.

2. Related Art
An internal explosion engine is generally similar in principle to an internal combustion engine except that it uses non-combustible gases such as air, oxygen, nitrogen or inert gas instead of the combustible gases which are used in internal combustion engines. Prior to operation, the gas for operating an internal explosion engine is placed in the explosion chamber of the engine, and the chamber is sealed. During operation, the gas in the explosion chamber is repeatedly compressed, ionised, explosively expanded and contracted to move a piston or rotor or other movable device to convert kinetic energy to mechanical or electrical energy. Once the gas has been loaded into the explosion chamber, the engine can operate for extended periods of time without additional fuel. There is no need for fuel intake on each cycle of operation, as in an internal combustion engine, and there is no exhaust. Examples of internal explosion engines of the prior art are found in U.S. Pat. Nos. 3,670,494 and 4,428,193.

OBJECTS AND SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
It is, in general, an object of the invention to provide a new and improved internal explosion engine and generator. Another object of the invention is to provide an internal explosion engine and generator of the above character which overcomes the limitations and disadvantages of the engines and generators which heretofore have been provided. These and other objects are achieved in accordance with the invention by providing an internal explosion engine and generator which has an explosion chamber, a movable member forming one wall of the chamber, a charge of non-explosive gas sealed inside the chamber, means for repeatedly igniting the gas in an explosive manner to drive the movable member from a position of minimum volume to a position of maximum volume, means for returning the movable member from the position of maximum volume to the position of minimum volume, and means coupled to the movable member for providing electrical energy in response to explosion of the gas. In one disclosed embodiment, the movable member is a piston connected to a crankshaft, and it is returned to the position of minimum volume by a flywheel on the crankshaft. In another, two pistons are connected back-to-back in a hermetically sealed chamber to prevent loss of the explosive gas. In one embodiment, the electrical energy is produced by a generator connected to the crankshaft, and in the other it is produced by a coil positioned near a magnet which moves with the pistons.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig. 1 is a top plan view of one embodiment of an internal explosion engine and generator incorporating the invention.

Fig. 2 is a cross-sectional view, taken along line 2—2 in Fig.1.
Fig. 3 is a cross-sectional view, taken along line 3—3 in Fig. 2.

Fig. 4 is a circuit diagram of the embodiment of Fig. 1.
Fig. 5 is a centreline sectional view of another embodiment of an internal explosion engine and generator incorporating the invention.

Fig. 6A and Fig. 6B are cross-sectional views, taken along lines 6A—6A and 6B—6B in Fig. 5.
Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 are enlarged centreline sectional views of valve and plug assemblies for the gas loading port in the embodiments of Fig. 1 and Fig. 5.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

As illustrated in Fig. 1 to Fig. 3, the engine 11 includes a piston 12 in a cylinder 13, with rings 14 providing a seal between the piston and the inner wall of the cylinder. The upper or outer end of the cylinder is sealed by an end plate or head 16, and an explosion chamber 17 is formed between the cylinder head and the piston. An inlet port 18 is formed in the cylinder head for introducing a charge of gas into the explosion chamber,
and the admission of gas through the port is controlled by a valve assembly 19. The piston is connected to a crankshaft 21 by a connecting rod 22, and the crankshaft includes a counterweight or flywheel 23. In operation, the piston is driven in a downward direction by the explosion of the gas in the chamber and returned to the firing position by energy stored in the flywheel. The lower end of cylinder 13 is closed by a crankcase housing 24. The crankshaft is connected to the shaft 26 of a generator 27 located outside the crankcase housing by a coupling 28. As discussed more fully hereinafter, the generator can also be driven as a motor for use in starting the engine.

In the embodiment illustrated, valve assembly 19 is a one-way check valve which allows gas to pass into but not out of the explosion chamber through inlet port 18. The valve assembly is shown in greater detail in Fig.7, and includes a body or bushing 31 with an axial bore or passageway 32. The inner end of the valve body is threaded into the port, and a cap 33 is threaded on to the enlarged outer end of the body. The cap includes a passageway 34, with communication between that passageway and passageway 32 being controlled by a ball 36 which is received in a seat 37 on the inner side of the cap. The ball is urged toward a closed position against the seat by a spring 38 which is constrained between the ball and a shoulder 39 at the inner end of the valve body. A gasket 41 provides a seal between the outer portion of the body and the head.

Electrodes are mounted in the head for igniting the gas in the chamber. A high frequency electrode 43 is positioned axially of the chamber and connected to a radio frequency generator 44 for ionising the gas to form a plasma. Electrodes 46–49 are spaced around electrode 43, with electrode 46 being connected to the secondary winding 50 of a spark coil 51 and electrodes 47–49 being connected to a capacitor 52. A contact pin 53 projects from the face of the piston in alignment with electrode 43.

Piston 12 and end plate or head 16 are made from a ferro-magnetic material such as Grade-416 stainless steel, and cylinder 13 is made of a non-ferrous material such Grade-303 stainless steel. A coil 54 is placed around the outer portion of the cylinder and coupled magnetically with the piston to form a reluctance generator.

Means is provided for detecting when the piston is in its top dead centre (TDC) or minimum volume position. This means includes a magnet 56 which is mounted on the counterweight or flywheel portion 23 of crankshaft 21 and a Hall-effect switch 57 which is mounted in a stationary position in the crankcase and actuated by the magnet when it comes into proximity to the switch.

Power for operating generator 27 as a motor to start the engine is provided by batteries 59 which, in the embodiment illustrated, are mounted inside the housing of a controller for the generator 61. The batteries are connected to the motor by a normally-open starting switch 62.

The batteries also provide power for the Radio Frequency generator 44 and for the electrodes 46–49 which ignite the gas in the chamber, with the energisation of those electrodes being controlled by a relay 63.
application of power to the Radio Frequency generator is controlled by an On/Off switch 64, and energisation of relay coil 65 is controlled by the On/Off switch and by the Hall-effect switch 57 which is connected between the on/off switch and the relay coil.

The relay has a first set of contacts 66 which switch capacitor 52 between the power source and the electrodes 47–49, and a second set of contacts 67 which connect the primary winding 68 of spark coil 51 to the power source. The batteries are charged with the current produced in coil 54 by the reluctance generator. That coil is connected to the input of a power rectifier 69, and the output of the rectifier is connected to the batteries.

Prior to operation, a charge of air is introduced into explosion chamber through check valve 19 and inlet port 18. To start the engine, on/off switch 64 is closed, thereby energising the Radio Frequency generator 44 and the primary winding of spark coil 51 and applying charging current to capacitor 52, and starter switch 62 is closed to energise generator 27 as a starting motor. The gas in the chamber is ionised by the RF power applied to electrode 43 to form a plasma.

As the piston makes its upward stroke, the air is compressed and heated, and toward top dead centre, the air is ionised by the. Radio Frequency power applied to electrode 43 to form a plasma. When the piston is at or near top dead centre, the Hall-effect switch 57 closes, energising relay coil 65. When the relay coil is energised, contacts 66 apply the charge which has built up on capacitor 52 to electrodes 47–49, and contacts 67 open to interrupt the current in the primary winding of spark coil 51, producing a high voltage discharge between spark electrode 46 and the contact pin 53 on the piston.

The spark from electrode 46 and the current from electrodes 47–49 flowing through the ionised air ignite the air, causing it to explode and produce a lightning-like pressure wave, with ultraviolet light, ozone and heat. That pressure wave drives the piston in a downward direction, turning crankshaft 21 and generator 27, storing mechanical energy in the flywheel and producing electrical energy from the generator.

After the piston reaches its maximum volume or bottom dead centre (BDC) position the mechanical energy stored in the flywheel causes the crankshaft to continue rotating, thereby driving the piston back toward top dead centre. The same charge of air is ignited over and over again for an extended period of time, and to the extent that any of the air is lost past the piston rings, it is automatically replenished by air entering the chamber through the check valve. Thus, with the piston on its down stroke, if the pressure in the chamber drops below the level set by spring 38, ball 36 moves away from its seat, allowing air to enter the chamber through the inlet port. During the upstroke, the pressure in the chamber holds the ball tightly against the seat, sealing the air in the chamber.

Fig. 5
The embodiment of Fig.5 includes a free piston engine 71 which has a pair of explosion chambers 72, 73 at opposite ends of a cylinder 74. This engine differs from the embodiment of Fig.1 in that it has no crankshaft. However, the power producing mechanism is the same, and like reference numerals designate corresponding elements in the two embodiments. The outer ends of the cylinder are closed by end plates or heads 16, and the volumes of the two chambers vary in an opposite or complementary manner as a double ended piston assembly 76 is driven back and forth within the cylinder.

The piston assembly includes a pair of pistons 12 which are connected together in back-to-back fashion by a sleeve 77, with rings 14 providing a seal between the pistons and the cylinder. The pistons have central contact pins 53, and each of the explosion chambers has an inlet port 18 and electrodes 43, 46–49 for ionising and igniting the gas.

As in the embodiment of Fig.1, piston 12 and end plates 16 are made of a ferro-magnetic material, and cylinder 74 is made of a non-ferrous material such as non-ferrous stainless steel or nickel plated aluminium. Sleeve 77 is made of a non-ferrous material such as aluminium. Coils 54 are placed about the outer portions of the cylinder and coupled magnetically with the pistons to form reluctance generators.

Sleeve 77 carries magnets 56 which actuate Hall-effect switches 57 mounted outside cylinder 74 to determine when the pistons are at or near their top dead centre (TDC) positions. A grounding contact 78 carried by sleeve 77 makes sliding contact with the wall of the cylinder to maintain the pistons and contact pins 53 at ground potential.

The piston assembly also includes a relatively large permanent magnet 81 which is carried by sleeve 77 midway between the pistons. A ferro-magnetic core structure 82 provides flux coupling between magnet 81 and stator coils 83, 84 which are located outside the cylinder.

The core structure includes a pair of generally C-shaped cores 86, 87, each of which has pair of relatively short inner arms 86a, 87a which abut against the upper and lower surfaces of cylinder 74 and an outer arm 86b, 87b which is spaced laterally from the cylinder. The ends of the inner arms which abut against the cylinder have a concave curvature which matches the convex curvature of the outer wall of the cylinder, and coils 83, 84 are wound about outer arms of the cores. The cores are formed in two sections, with a split 88 across the outer arms to facilitate assembly.

Steel laminations 89 are embedded in the cylinder wall in contact with the short arms of the cores to complete the magnetic circuit. The laminations are hermetically sealed into the cylinder wall, and in one presently preferred embodiment they are stacks of silicon steel laminations with a thickness of 0.005 inch and a layer of nickel plating less than 0.001 inch thick sealing the stacks.

The stator coils can be used both as the windings of a motor for starting the engine and thereafter as the windings of a generator in which an electric current is produced as the piston assembly oscillates back and forth within the cylinder.

Since the cylinder is hermetically sealed, any gas leaking past the rings of the pistons will remain within the engine, rather than being lost to the outside environment as in the embodiment of Fig.1. In addition to air, suitable gases for use in the embodiment of Fig.5 include inert gases, oxygen, and mixtures of such gases.

With the gas hermetically sealed within the engine, it is not necessary to replenish the gas as often as it would be if the engine were not sealed, and inlet port 18 can be closed with the plug assembly 91 of Fig.8 rather than the valve assembly 19 of Fig.7, if desired. Alternatively, a source of gas can be connected to the
inlet port via valve assembly 19 for automatic replenishment of the gas in the chambers as in the embodiment of Fig.1.

Plug assembly 91 includes a body or bushing 92 with a hollow interior 93 which is filled with a rubber insert 94. The inner end of the valve body is threaded into the port, and a cap 96 is threaded on to the enlarged outer end of the body to retain the insert in the plug. A gasket 97 provides a seal between the enlarged portion of the plug body and the end plate or head 16.

Operation and use of the embodiment of Fig.5 is similar to that described above in connection with the embodiment of Fig.1. A charge of the explosive gas is introduced into the explosion chambers through the inlet ports, and stator windings 83, 84 are energised to drive magnet 81 and the remainder of the piston assembly back and forth within the cylinder. As each of the pistons approaches its top dead centre position, the gas in the explosion chamber is compressed, then ionised and ignited so that it explodes and drives the piston assembly back toward the other end of the cylinder. As the magnet carried by the piston assembly moves back and forth within the gap in the core structure, the alternating flux it produces is coupled to coils 83, 84 to produce the output current in the generator windings.

The invention has a number of important features and advantages. It can use explosive fuel mixtures such as air, inert gases and other non-combustible gases which can be rapidly expanded and contracted multiple times to convert kinetic energy into electrical and/or mechanical power. The engine can have one or more explosion chambers with a piston forming a movable wall for changing the volume of each.

The operating gas is preloaded into the chambers, the inlet ports are sealed, and the engine can be operated with the same gas load over long periods of time and multiple explosive expansions and contractions at various frequencies, e.g. 30–60 cycles per second or more, without adding gas to the chambers.

In one disclosed embodiment, the loss of gas due to leakage is prevented by enclosing the engine in a hermetically sealed enclosure. In another, a check valve in the inlet port allows the gas in the chambers to be automatically replenished when the pressure in the chambers drops below a predetermined level. The hermetic sealing is particularly important and desirable if the engine is operated in environments such as outer space or underwater where replenishment gases may not be readily available.

The invention permits a wide range of design flexibility and can provide compact power supplies ranging in capacity from a few kilowatts to multiple megawatts, and it can be used in a wide variety of applications.

It is apparent from the foregoing that a new and improved internal explosion engine and generator has been provided. While only certain presently preferred embodiments have been described in detail, as will be apparent to those familiar with the art, certain changes and modifications can be made without departing from the scope of the invention.

Patrick Kelly

http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/
Chapter 9: Passive Systems

The Devices of Hans Coler.
A German naval captain called Hans Coler invented a COP>1 generator in 1925. He called this device the ‘Stromerzeuger’ and for a few watts from a dry battery it provided 6 kW continuously. He was refused development support because it was “a perpetual motion machine”.

Hans also invented a passive device which he called the 'Magnetstromapparat'. His unit required very careful and slow adjustment to get it operating but when it started it continued on test in a locked room for three months of continuous operation. Nobody, including Hans, seems any too sure how this device works but it is presented here in case you wish to research it further. It comprises six bar magnets wound as shown here. Some are wound in a clockwise direction when looking at the North pole and these are called “Right” those wound in an anticlockwise direction are called “Left”:

These six magnets are arranged in a hexagon and wired as shown here:
And the schematic diagram is:

One extremely interesting feature of this passive device is that it has been witnessed producing 450 mV for several hours; it was capable of developing up to 12 Volts. The witnesses were quite sure that it was not picking up radio or mains input. So, what was it picking up? With magnets as the key component, it seems clear that it is the zero-point energy field which is being accessed, but clearly, the access represents a vanishingly small percentage of the actual power available.

To operate the device, the switch is left in the open position, the magnets are moved slightly apart and the sliding coil set into various positions with a wait of several minutes between adjustments. The magnets are then separated still further and the coils moved again. This process is repeated until at a critical separation of the magnets, a voltage is developed. The switch is now closed and the process continued more slowly. The voltage then builds up to a maximum which is then maintained indefinitely. The position of the apparatus in the room and the orientation of the device had no effect on the output.

The magnets were selected to be as nearly equal in strength as possible and the resistance of the magnet and coil were checked after winding to make sure they were as nearly equal as possible (about 0.33 ohms).

A very neat construction of the Coler ‘Magnetstromapparat’ by an unknown German experimenter is shown below - I’m afraid without permission as I have no idea who he is or how to contact him to ask his permission. The quality of workmanship is impressive and the result is a very professional looking device. Notice the sliding coil arrangement at the bottom left with one coil being positioned closely inside another and held in place where the experimenter chooses.

Recently, a construction video has come on offer at [http://www.kohlermagnet.com/](http://www.kohlermagnet.com/) and it shows step by step, one method of implementing this design. The website design screams ‘con artist’ and the final tuning is shown is such an apparently simple and quick way that it suggests that it could well be faked (by AAA batteries embedded in the underside of the very thick base board and wired in underneath), but the construction instructions make this a video which is worth watching. Scaling up the output from one tiny bulb to kilowatts of power is by no means the simple matter implied in the video, and I personally doubt that a passive device of this type could ever produce kilowatts of output power – at twelve volts you are looking at 165 amps of current requiring copper wire with a diameter of more than 7 mm to carry it.
One thing which is quite certain, and that is the fact that at this point in time, our technical know-how has not yet encompassed the zero-point energy field properly. It is by no means obvious how the Hans Coler device operates, and if we understood the technology properly, we would be able to say with certainty, exactly how and why it operates, and ways to improve it would be obvious. As it is, all we can do is look at it and wonder, possibly try a few experiments, but the bottom line is that we do not yet understand it. This is the normal situation in the early days of any new field of technology.

It is also quite usual for pioneers in any new field to encounter a good deal of opposition, mistrust, and generally disheartening treatment from other people. That is certainly the case for Thomas Trawoeger from Austria, who has progressed well in the passive energy field. He has suffered repeated web-based attacks with his display material being destroyed and web sites being made inoperable.

So, what makes some people so afraid of Thomas? The answer is that he is experimenting with shapes. That doesn’t sound too terrible does it? Well, it certainly bothers some people, which suggests that he must be on the verge of uncovering a mechanism for drawing serious amounts of power from the zero-point energy field.
Thomas is by no means the first person to examine this area, but he is one of the first to consider drawing serious amounts of electrical energy from the local environment using shape and an appropriate detector. Obviously, this is the same area that Hans Coler was investigating, and it appears that Thomas has managed to tap a continuous 8 watts of electrical energy using a wholly passive device.

As we are not all that familiar with this type of technology, we tend to dismiss it as being a "crackpot" area, not worthy of investigation by serious scientists. It is actually, very far from being that in reality, and it just indicates our serious lack of technical understanding if we dismiss it out of hand. Two hundred years ago, the idea of a television set would definitely have been considered a "crackpot" pipe dream, far, far away from reality. Today, any schoolchild would be horrified at the thought of a TV set being considered "crackpot". So, what has changed? Only our level of technology, nothing else. In another two hundred years time, when the zero-point energy field is fully understood, people will look back with a smile at the thought of people like us who didn’t know how to draw any amount of energy, freely from the environment, and they will laugh at the thought of burning a fossil fuel to produce energy from a chemical reaction. That, of course, does not help us at all in this time of our ignorance, and we still have to deal with the sort of people who thought that the horse-drawn cart would never be superseded.

The scientific method has been established for a long time now. Essentially, observations are made, experiments are performed and a theory is produced which fits all of the known facts. If additional facts are discovered, then the theory needs to be modified or replaced by another which includes all of the new facts. Established scientists find it difficult to adhere to the scientific principle. They are afraid of losing their reputation, their job or their funding and so are reluctant to investigate any new facts which indicate that some of their best-loved theories need to be revised. Fortunately, not being in the business, we can take new facts on board without any problem. In the light of what certain shapes do, this is just as well.

Let us see if we can put this in perspective. Consider an intelligent, well-educated person living several hundred years ago. If you were to tell that person that there were invisible forces passing through the walls of his house and even through him, he would certainly rate you as a bona fide member of the 'lunatic fringe'. However, if you then took several compasses into his house and demonstrated that they all pointed in the same direction, he might start to wonder.

Now, just to really establish your membership of the 'lunatic fringe' you tell him that one day there will be invisible rays passing through the walls of all buildings and that these rays will allow you to watch things happening on the other side of the world. Finally, to complete the job, you tell him that there is a substance called uranium, and if he were to carry a piece around in his pocket, it would kill him by destroying his body with invisible rays.

Today, school children are aware of magnetic lines of force, television and X-rays. Further, as the scientific theory has caught up, these children are not considered part of the 'lunatic fringe' but this knowledge is expected of them as a matter of course. The only thing which has changed is our understanding of the observed universe.

At the present time, we are faced with a number of observations which do not fit in with the scientific theories of some of the current educational establishments. If we consider these things seriously, we run the risk of being considered part of the 'lunatic fringe' until such time as scientific theory catches up with us again. So be it, it is better to examine the facts than to pretend that they don’t exist.

Present theory has worked well enough up to now, but we need to take on board the fact that since it does not cover all of the facts, it needs to be extended or modified. So, what observed facts are causing a problem? Well:

1. It has been found that some pairs of particles are linked together no matter how far apart they are physically. If you observe the state of one of the pair, the state of the other changes instantly. This happens far, far faster than the speed of light and that does not fit neatly into present theory.

2. If a substance is cooled down to Absolute Zero temperature, it should be completely motionless, but that is not the case as movement can be observed. This movement is caused by external energy flowing into the frozen material. That energy, observed at Absolute Zero temperature is called 'Zero-Point Energy'. So where does that fit into the theory?

3. There are several devices which are self-powered and which are capable of powering external loads. These things appear to act in defiance to the Law of Conservation of Energy.
4. The Aspden Effect (described below) indicates that current theory does not cover all of the facts.

5. It is now known and fully accepted by science that more than 80% of our universe is composed of matter and energy which we cannot see.

6. Even though our Sun is losing some five tons of mass per second, it radiates more energy than can be accounted for by the fusion of the amount of matter which would cause this loss of mass.

These things indicate that there is something in our universe which is not properly covered by current theory. The present theory thinks of space as being a volume which contains no matter, other than perhaps, a tiny amount of inter-stellar dust. And while space can be traversed by radio waves and many other types of radiation, it is essentially empty.

This concept is definitely not correct. All of the odd observed facts suddenly fit in if we understand that there is an additional field which streams through all of space and passes unnoticed through all matter. This field is composed of particles so tiny that they make an electron appear enormous. What is sure, is that this stream of matter contains virtually unlimited energy.

It is the energy seen at Absolute Zero as it is continually streaming in from outside the cold area. It flows to us from every direction and the sun being a major source of it, augments the flow we receive during the daytime. This accounts for the variations seen by T. Henry Moray during the night when the energy he was picking up decreased somewhat.

This matter stream acts like a very dense gas except for the fact that effects in it have effectively zero propagation time. This accounts for the widely separated particles having what appears to be simultaneous reactions to a stimulus. Einstein’s idea of the speed of light being an absolute maximum is definitely wrong, as has been demonstrated in the laboratory.

In the early stages of investigating a new field, it can be quite difficult to work out how to approach it, especially if the field is entirely invisible and can’t be felt. The same situation was encountered in the early days of magnetism as lines of magnetic force are not visible and cannot be felt. However, when it was observed that iron was affected by magnetism, a mechanism was discovered for displaying where the invisible lines are located, by the use of iron filings. Interestingly, the presence of an iron filing alters the lines of magnetic force in the area as the lines “have a preference for” flowing through the iron. Also, the iron filings used in school demonstrations do not show the actual lines of magnetic force correctly as they themselves become tiny magnets which alter the lines of force which they are supposed to be showing.

We are still in the early stages of investigating the Zero-Point Energy field, so we have to consider anything which has an effect on this invisible field. One observed effect was found by Harold Aspden and has become known as the ‘Aspden Effect’. Harold was running tests not related to this subject. He started an electric motor which had a rotor mass of 800 grams and recorded the fact that it took an energy input of 300 joules to bring it up to its running speed of 3,250 revolutions per minute when it was driving no load.

The rotor having a mass of 800 grams and spinning at that speed, its kinetic energy together with that of the drive motor is no more than 15 joules, contrasting with the excessive energy of 300 joules needed to get it rotating at that speed. If the motor is left running for five minutes or more, and then switched off, it comes to rest after a few seconds. But, the motor can then be started again (in the same or opposite direction) and brought up to speed with only 30 joules provided that the time lapse between stopping and restarting is no more than a minute or so. If there is a delay of several minutes, then an energy input of 300 joules is needed to get the rotor spinning again.

This is not a transient heating phenomenon. At all times the bearing housings feel cool and any heating in the drive motor would imply an increase of resistance and a build-up of power to a higher steady state condition. The experimental evidence is that there is something unseen, which is put into motion by the machine rotor. That “something” has an effective mass density 20 times that of the rotor, but it is something that can move independently and its movement can take several minutes to decay, while in contrast, the motor comes to rest in a few seconds.

Two machines of different rotor size and composition reveal the phenomenon and tests indicate variations with time of day and compass orientation of the spin axis. One machine, the one incorporating weaker magnets, showed evidence of gaining magnetic strength during the tests which were repeated over a period of several days.

9 - 5
Nikola Tesla found that uni-directional electric pulses of very short duration (less than one millisecond) cause shockwaves in this medium. These Radiant Energy waves passed through all materials and if they strike any metal object, they generate electrical currents between the metal and ground. Tesla used these waves to light glass globes which had just one metal plate. These lights do not have to be near the source of the Radiant Energy waves. He discovered many other features of these ‘longitudinal’ waves but one which is of particular interest is that when using his famous Tesla Coil, the waves produced visible streamers which showed what they were doing. What they were doing was running up the outside of the long inner wire coil, not through the wire, mark you, but along the outside of the coil, and when they reached the end of the coil, they continued on out into the air. Interestingly, Tesla believed that this flow of energy “preferred to run along the corrugations of the outside of the coil”. That is to say, somewhat like magnetic lines showing a preference for running through iron, this energy field shows a preference for flowing along certain physical shapes.

Thomas Henry Moray developed equipment which could tap up to fifty kilowatts of power from this field. There are two very interesting facts about Moray’s demonstrations: Firstly, the valves which he used to interact with the field, had a corrugated cylindrical inner electrode - an interesting shape considering Tesla’s opinion on the corrugated outer surface of his coil. Secondly, Moray frequently demonstrated publicly that the power obtained by his equipment could flow uninterrupted through sheet glass while powering light bulbs. Quite apart from demonstrating that the power was definitely not conventional electricity, it is very interesting to note that this power can flow freely through materials. I venture to suggest that Moray’s power was not flowing through the wires of his apparatus but rather it was flowing along the outside of the wires, or perhaps more accurately, flowing along near the wires.

Edwin Gray snr. managed to draw large amounts of power from a special tube designed by Marvin Cole. The tube contained a spark gap (like that used by Tesla) and those sparks produced Radiant Energy waves in the Zero-Point Energy field. He managed to collect energy from these waves, very interestingly, by using perforated (or mesh) cylinders of copper surrounding the spark gap. His 80 horsepower electric motor (and/or other equipment such as light bulbs) was powered entirely from energy drawn from the copper cylinders while all of the electrical energy taken from the driving battery was used solely to generate the sparks.

It is very interesting to note that Tesla, Moray and Gray all indicate that corrugated or rough-surface cylinders seem to direct the flow of this energy. Dr Harold Aspden also indicates that once the field is set in motion in any locality, it tends to continue flowing for some time after the influence which is directing it is removed.

Please remember that we are starting to examine a new field of science, and while we know a very limited amount about it at this point in time, at a later date, every schoolchild will be completely familiar with it and find it hard to believe that we knew so little about it, at the start of the twenty-first century. So, at this time, we are trying to understand how energy can be extracted from this newly discovered field. The indications are that the physical shape of some objects can channel this energy.

If you think about it, you suddenly realise that we are already familiar with shape being important in focusing energy. Take the case of a magnifying glass. When the sun is high in the sky, if a magnifying glass is placed in just the right position and turned in just the right direction, then it can start a fire. If the principles behind what is being done are not understood, then the procedure sounds like witchcraft:

1. Make a specially shaped object with curved faces, out of a transparent material
2. Discover the ‘focal-length’ of the object
3. Wait until Noon
4. Place some kindling on the ground
5. Position the object so that it looks directly at the sun
6. The kindling will catch light without you even having to touch it.
Sounds like something out of a book on magic, doesn’t it? Well, you need to know all about that if you want to pass any basic physics examination, and it comes in under the title of “Optics”. Please notice that the shape of the lens is vital: it must have a convex face on both sides. Also, the positioning is vital, the lens must be exactly its focal length away from the kindling material: a little too near or a little too far away and it just does not work. Magic? Well it may seem like it, but no, it is just scientific understanding of the nature of radiation from the sun.

Take the case of a satellite dish. This familiar object needs to be an exact shape to work well. It also needs to be made of a material which reflects high-frequency radio waves. Make one out of wood and it will look just the same but it will not work as the TV transmission will pass straight through the wood and not be reflected on to the pick-up sensor connected to the television set.

However, obvious and all as this is, it still did not cut any ice with the patent office in Czechoslovakia on the 4th November 1949. A radio engineer called Karel Drbal turned up with a patent application for a cardboard pyramid shape which kept razor blades sharp and was promptly told to get lost. The patent authorities demanded that he have a theory to show how the device worked. Karel was not particularly put out, and spent years investigating before he determined a theoretical basis for the device. He returned to the patent office, much to the disbelief of the Chief Patent Officer. He was granted his patent, not because his theory was compelling, but because the Chief Patent Officer took a pyramid home and tested it with his own razor blades. When his practical tests confirmed that the pyramid did exactly what Karel claimed, he was granted Patent No. 91304, “Method of Maintaining Razor Blades and the Shape of Straight Razors” and here is a translation:

**Republic of Czechoslovakia**
**Office For Patents And Inventions**
**Published August, 1959**
**Patent File Number 91304**

The right to use this invention is the property of the State according to Section 3, Paragraph G, Number 34/1957
Karel Drbal, Prague
Method of Maintaining Razor Blades and the Shape of Straight Razors.

Submitted 4 November, 1949(P2399-49)
Patent valid from 1 April, 1952

The invention relates to the method of maintaining of razor blades and straight razors sharp without an auxiliary source of energy. To sharpen the blades therefore, no mechanical, thermal, chemical or electrical (from an artificial source) means are being used. There are various mechanical sharpening devices being used up to now, to sharpen used razor blades. The blade is sharpened by crude application of sharpening material, which always results in certain new wear of the blade during the sharpening process. Furthermore, it is known that the influence of an artificial magnetic field improves the sharpening of razor blades and straight razors, if their blades are laid in the direction of the magnetic lines.

According to this invention, the blade is placed in the earth’s magnetic field under a hollow pyramid made of dielectric material such as hard paper, paraffin paper, hard cardboard, or some plastic. The pyramid has an opening in its base through which the blade is inserted. This opening can be square, circular, or oval. The most suitable pyramid is a four sided one with a square base, where one side is conveniently equal to the height of the pyramid, multiplied by $\pi / 2$. (which is $\pi$ or 3.14 / 2). For example, for the height of 10 cm, the side of 15.7 cm is chosen. The razor blade of a straight razor is placed on the support made also of dielectric material, same as the pyramid, or other such as cork, wood, or ceramics, paraffin, paper, etc. Its
height is chosen between 1/5 and 1/3 of the height of the pyramid, this support rests also on a plane made of dielectric material. The size of this support should be chosen as to leave the sharp edges free. Its height could vary from the limits stated above. Although it is not absolute necessary, it is recommended that the blade be placed on the support with its sharp edges facing West or East respectively, leaving its side edges as well as its longitudinal axis oriented in the North / South direction. In other words to increase the effectiveness of the device it is recommended lie in essence in the direction of the magnetic lines of the horizontal component of the earth's magnetism. This position improves the performance of the device, it is not however essential for the application of the principle of this invention. After the blade is properly positioned, it is covered by the pyramid placed in such a way that it’s side walls face North, South, East, and West, while its edges point towards North-West, South-West, South-East, and North-East.

It is beneficial to leave a new blade in the pyramid one to two weeks before using it. It is essential to place it there immediately after the first shave, and not the old, dull one. But it is possible to use an old one, if it is properly resharpened. The blade placed using the method above is left unobstructed until the next shave. The west edge should always face West. It improves the sharpening effect.

Example: When this device was used, 1778 shaves were obtained using 16 razor blades, which is 111 shaves per blade on the average. The brand used was "Dukat Zlato" made in Czechoslovakia. The lowest count was 51, the highest was 200. It is considered very easy to achieve up to 50 shaves on the average. (for a medium hard hair).

The following shows how the invention could save both valuable material and money. One of the razor blades mentioned above, weighs 0.51 grams. We will consider 50 shaves on average when placed in the pyramid against 5 shaves when it is not. It is obvious that the number of shaves, degree of wear, and the ability to regenerate the dull edge depends on the quality of the material, quality of sharpening process, and hardness. ....given that the numbers are averages and could be in fact much better. In the course of the year one therefore uses 73 razor blades without the aid of the pyramid while only eight razor blades while using the pyramid. The resulting annual saving would be 65 razor blades or 33.15 grams of steel per person.

Only the pyramid shape has been used for this invention, but this invention is not limited to this shape, as it can cover other geometric shapes made of dielectric material that was used in accordance with the invention. And that this shape also causes regeneration of sharp edges of shaving blades by lowering of stresses and reducing the number of defects in the grids of crystal units, in other words recovering and renewing the mechanical and physical properties of the blade.

This is interesting, as it confirms by independent test that a pyramid shape produces an effect, even if it is not possible to say with absolute certainty what exactly the effect is and how exactly the pyramid shape manipulates that energy.

Thomas Trawoeger has produced a video of a pyramid which he constructed. The video commentary is in German and it shows a computer fan being operated when connected to his pyramid which looks like this:

Sceptics will immediately say that as there are wires connected to the device, that the power for the fan is being fed through those wires, even though they appear to be connected to monitoring equipment. This is possible, but in my opinion, it is not actually the case. The pick-up used is shown here:
It should be remembered that these pictures are quite old and all inventors keep working on their inventions in an effort to improve their operation and to investigate the effects caused by alterations. At the close of 2007 the design has progressed considerably and now features a number of most unusual things ranging from construction to orientation. The [http://www.overunity.com/index.php/topic,695.300.html](http://www.overunity.com/index.php/topic,695.300.html) forum is working on replicating this design thanks to the generosity of Thomas Trawoeger who speaks German and the exceptional work of Stefan Hartmann who has produced an English translation and who hosts the web site.

The following is an attempt to present the basic information from that forum in a clear and concise manner, but I recommend that you visit and contribute to the forum if you decide to experiment with this design.

The frame of the pyramid is not the same shape as the well-known Egyptian pyramids and has a sloping face some 5% longer than those in Egypt. The materials used in constructing the pyramid are very important. The frame is made of 20 mm x 20 mm x 2 mm square-section steel tube. While the exact size of the pyramid is not critical, the exact proportions are critical. The base must be exactly square, with each side of the base being exactly the same length, 1 metre in this case. The sloping sides are exactly the same length as the base pieces being 1 metre long also. Eight one-metre lengths of steel section will therefore be needed for building the frame.

The sides of the pyramid need to be covered with a rigid sheet and here again, the material used is critical, with only gypsum/paper boards (plasterboard with no foil) being satisfactory - other materials just don’t work. If no sides are added, then the pyramid is very difficult to adjust to get proper operation. When the frame has been constructed, its is positioned in a most unusual way being forty-five degrees away from the conventional positioning of a pyramid. This sets this pyramid so that one pair of corners face North - South, and the frame should be connected to a good electrical ground as shown here:
The pick-up is constructed from 12 mm outside diameter copper pipe and fittings and is hard soldered together. It has an overall size of 120 mm x 100 mm hard soldered together as shown here:

This frame of copper piping is not assembled as shown straight off as there is a requirement for a long graphite rod, 2 to 3 mm in diameter, to be positioned vertically inside each vertical leg of this frame and that can’t be done after assembly. So the bottom section is assembled as one piece, and the top section is assembled separately with the graphite rods sticking down out of the T-sections, held in place by their wires and insulating plugs. The graphite rods can be bought from art materials supply shops.
The very fine filter-grade quartz sand filling for the tubes is inserted and the graphite rods carefully positioned so that they do not touch the side walls of the vertical copper tubes, and the two parts joined by hard soldering.
The left hand side hole in the copper pipe is used to inject a 5% salt / water solution, using a hypodermic syringe, until the water starts to come out of the hole at the right hand side. The right hand side hole is 5 mm lower down than the one on the left.

Next, the wires are bent around to produce a 9-turn coil with a 25 mm diameter, around the vertical copper pipes. The windings are in opposite directions on the opposite sides of the frame:

Next, a ten-plate capacitor is made from copper sheets 1 mm thick. As copper is very expensive, the copper plates can be produced from spare lengths of copper pipe, cut along the axis and flattened careful to produce a smooth, unmarked surface 70 mm x 35 mm in size. The plates are stacked and accurately aligned, and a hole is drilled 1 mm off-centre. Then each alternate plate is turned around to produce two sets of plates bolted together with a 6 mm diameter plastic bolt, 1 mm thick plastic washers and a plastic nut. A plastic threaded rod and a plastic nut can be used instead of a plastic bolt. Because the hole is not quite central, the plates stick out at each end, giving clearance for attaching the plates together with the copper wire coming out of the copper pipe framework:

**Capacitor Construction**

![Diagram of the capacitor construction](image)
The capacitor is positioned inside the copper pipe frame and held in place by the strength of the 2.5 mm thick copper wire coil around the vertical pipes in the frame:

The pick-up sensor is now attached to the pyramid frame. Using a non-conductive cord, it is suspended by the top lug and its orientation controlled using the lower two lugs. The positioning in the pyramid is unusual, being North-East to South-West, as is shown here:

Next, a second capacitor is constructed from 1 mm thick copper sheet. Again, sections of copper pipe can be used after being cut along their long axis and carefully opened out and flattened. This capacitor is just two plates 140 mm x 25 mm spaced 1 mm apart (one inch = 25.4 mm).
A voltmeter can be used to check the exact alignment of the pyramid. There is a video (with a commentary in German, at http://www.secret.tv/player_popup.php?id=1307723&movieid=1308850 showing an earlier version of this pyramid set-up driving an electrical fan taken from a computer). If this device interests you, then you should join the enthusiast research and development forum mentioned earlier.

In June 2011, Thomas issued instruction videos which show how to construct, use and troubleshoot his newer design of pyramid. These videos are in English and they are very detailed and instructive. One person has split those two very long videos and placed them on YouTube as a series of thirteen smaller videos. In them, he states that the salt water in the design above is actually counter-productive and should not be used.

I will not attempt to show the construction details described in those videos as the information is very extensive, but a few comments may be appropriate here. Thomas refers to a ‘wheel’ but unless I am mistaken, he means a solid plastic rod of circular cross-section. The coil wire which he uses is 1.5 mm diameter copper wire with plastic insulation. With an inner coil of 104 turns, that can produce 1.5 amps at 14 volts, which is 21 watts, and with no input power being provided by the user, that is a COP of infinity. However, if I understand what he is saying, he positions his pyramids North-South (unlike the design above) and more importantly, at a particularly good point on what he calls a ‘water-line’ which I take to be a ley line located by a dowser. That may be due to the fact that he lives in a village in Austria which is a long way from the Equator, which, according to Joseph Cater’s analysis of pyramids, reduces their effectiveness.

In this new design, Thomas uses 20 watts of power from a Citizen’s Band radio transmitter, boosted by an amplifier, and applied to his detector tube while he fills it very slowly with fine-grain, high-quality quartz sand. This signal orientates most of the quarts grains and probably replicates most of Thomas Henry Moray’s detector which allowed such high power extraction from a simple aerial. In this design of Thomas’ no earth wire is needed for operation. An earth wire is provided, but this is for the protection of the user and is not part of the energy gathering system. Thomas agrees with Joseph Cater, that the energy being tapped flows out of the top of the pyramid.
Thomas' website which is in German is [http://www.comshop.tv/](http://www.comshop.tv/)

Thomas picks a fairly small size of pyramid for his demonstration tutorial. It is made using eight pieces of steel channel, each piece being exactly one meter long. He welds these together but remarks that bolting them together is perfectly all right provided that each piece makes good electrical contact with the pieces which it touches as the whole frame acts as a single component in his design.

Thomas also talks about ‘welding’ the inner copper pipe to one end cap, but what he means is ‘soldering’ the joint as he spreads resin on the join, heats it with a gas torch and then runs plumber’s solder around the join.

Thomas’ video series was removed from the web but has been replaced here:

Part 1: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QmngHEhu3wl](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QmngHEhu3wl)
Part 2: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gNnUtHlw8qBY](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gNnUtHlw8qBY)
Part 3: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EBrcFiO20GY](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EBrcFiO20GY)
Part 4: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nTeehORmh0s](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nTeehORmh0s)
Part 5: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qs1O3YKkMl4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qs1O3YKkMl4)
Part 6: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hiY4TJiRRRs](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hiY4TJiRRRs)
Part 7: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5MEp08P_vJs](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5MEp08P_vJs)
Part 8: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PwJK81eW_0k](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PwJK81eW_0k)
Part 9: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ohxzjmhv3W0](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ohxzjmhv3W0)
Part 10: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u0LQRJbi240](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u0LQRJbi240)
Part 11: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2MFRRHuv5S8](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2MFRRHuv5S8)
Part 12: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WkVd3vLlQCU](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WkVd3vLlQCU)
Part 13: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QLqUwM-PTok](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QLqUwM-PTok)

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**Antoine Bovis’ Discoveries.**

Confirmation of the dehydrating effect of a pyramid was provided by the Frenchman Antoine Bovis who went on holiday to Egypt in the 1930s and visited the Great Pyramid which was constructed exactly in the North-South direction (almost certainly not by accident) and built to an accuracy of 0.01% or better. He discovered that a number of small animals had wandered into the pyramid, got lost and starved to death. The really interesting point was that all of these animals had been mummmified through dehydration and none of the bodies had rotted away. When he returned home, he built a model pyramid with base edges three feet long.
He found that his pyramid duplicated the dehydration effect. He, and others who followed him, investigated the effect of pyramids. They found:

1. The best shape is that which matches the dimensions of the Great Pyramid, whose faces slope at an angle of 51 degrees, 51 minutes and 10 seconds. Pyramids with other slopes will work, but not quite as well. If you would like to make one yourself and test the effects, then each of the four sides can be cut from stiff cardboard to these proportions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{If the base length is to be 20 units, then the height at the mid point of the base will be 16.18 units.} \\
\text{If the base length is to be 25 units (mm, cm, inches, or whatever), then the height should be 20.22 units.} \\
\text{If the total base width is to be 30 units, then the height at it's mid point should be 24.27 units.} \\
\text{If the total base width is to be 35 units, then the height should be 28.32 units, and so on.} \\
\text{The right-angled triangles formed have a height of 1.618 (the "golden ratio") times the base width.}
\end{align*}
\]

Just cut out four of the triangles and tape the edges together. It would be a good idea to add a square base piece (or triangular gussets) to ensure that the base is exactly square and not skewed.

Thomas Trawoeger states that the exact angle is not particularly important and his latest designs have angles of about sixty degrees.

2. There is no need for the pyramid faces to be solid, provided that there are four base sides and four sloping edges. Having solid sloping faces gives a slight improvement and Thomas considers that at least three of the sloping faces should have panels, the material type being important.

If building a framework pyramid, then the dimensions for the four base pieces and the four sloping edges would be:
- Base: 20, length of the sloping edges: 19
- Base: 25, length of the sloping edges: 23.76
- Base: 30, length of the sloping edges: 28.52
- Base: 35, length of the sloping edges: 33.27 and so on.

3. The best material from which to construct the pyramid is copper, but as it tends to be rather expensive, almost any other material can be used: plastic piping, timber laths, steel alloy pipes, wire, etc. Giving the pyramid a sheet-copper cap which runs down about 5% of the face length, giving a short solid face on the open framework also gives a slight improvement. Les Brown states that the best material is sheet iron plated with gold, though that sounds very expensive.

So, what can a pyramid do? Well, nothing, actually, except for directing and possibly concentrating and focusing the Zero-Point Energy field. Perhaps the question should be ‘what effects are caused by using a pyramid?’.

Well, as seen above, Flavio Thomas Trawoeger has managed to get a continuous electrical output via a pyramid for a period of at least thirty days. I understand that he uses a magnet just as an on-off switch, but having a magnet as part of the pick-up makes a lot of sense as the magnetic dipole of any magnet has a distinct effect on the zero-point energy field. The low-tech investigators have noted that an effect caused by a pyramid may be repeated for maybe nine times in a row, and then inexplicably, one day it will not work. They surmise that the effect may be caused by magnetic variations due to solar flares or the like. They may well be right in this as they are not using a magnet but just simple cardboard, or more frequently, simple
frame pyramids. This area is wide open to investigation with very low-tech apparatus and passive electronic components.

What has been found repeatedly:

**James Brock’s Experiments.**

1. Living things placed under a pyramid shape are boosted in health and growth. You can test this easily for yourself by taking two identical plants or animals and keeping one under a pyramid and one outside the pyramid. An example of this is given on the website: [http://www.motherearthnews.com/Sustainable-Farming/1977-11-01/Raising-Rabbits.aspx](http://www.motherearthnews.com/Sustainable-Farming/1977-11-01/Raising-Rabbits.aspx) where James Brock of Texas reports on tests he has run on a group of rabbits. It would be incredibly easy to fake this kind of information, so you need to make up your own mind on the validity, and ideally, run some simple tests of your own. James states that he built a pyramid-shaped hutch with 4-foot long sloping edges out of timber, and a rectangular hutch:

![Pyramid-shaped hutch vs. rectangular hutch](image)

Each of the hutches had a transparent door. He then borrowed eight rabbits aged about 20 days old, taken from two different litters and placed them in matched groups of four in each hutch, and fed them equally, weighing them every four days.

By the end of the experiment, 57 days later, the rabbits which had been housed in the pyramid hutch weighed an average of 46.5 ounces, compared to an average of 34.5 ounces for those in the rectangular hutch. That is, the rabbits in the pyramid hutch were nearly 35% heavier and side by side they looked like this:
James presents the results like this:
James invites you to run this test for yourself to verify that this does indeed occur. It should be noted that as the test ran over a period of 57 days, any days lost through magnetic variation would not have been detected by him.

2. Pyramid users also state that they find the following effects on a consistent basis (provided that the pyramid is kept away from strong electromagnetic fields, so do not put a pyramid on top of a TV set or a refrigerator):

(a) Fruit is preserved. When a purchase of fresh fruit or vegetables is made, if they are placed under a pyramid for about an hour and then stored as they normally would, it is said that they stay fresh for at least twice as long as normal and the flavour is enhanced. It is believed that unhelpful micro-organisms are killed by the pyramid. If the fruit and vegetables are kept indefinitely under the pyramid they eventually dry up instead of rotting.

(b) Food quality is enhanced. If frozen meat, fish or fowl is thawed out under a pyramid, the quality of the meat is said to be noticeably improved.

(c) Coffee quality is improved. If a cup of coffee is left under a pyramid for about twenty minutes, it is said to gain a much more mellow flavour. Leaving ground coffee or a jar of instant coffee under a pyramid overnight is also said to change it so the coffee made from it is of a much higher quality.

(d) A glass of wine placed under a pyramid for twenty minutes is said to undergo a distinct change with great improvement seen in both the taste and the aroma. Other alcoholic drinks are also said to be improved by this process.

(e) A twenty to thirty minute treatment of fruit juices is said to reduce the acidic “bite” of the drink, and in many cases, alter the colour of the juice.

(f) Any item pickled in vinegar, such as olives and pickles, gain a greatly enhanced natural flavour and are greatly mellowed by the process.

(g) The rapid growth of mould on Cheddar cheese can be overcome by the cheese being kept under a pyramid at normal room temperature. It is recommended that the cheese be wrapped in plastic to reduce the rate at which it dries out.

(h) Rice and wheat can be kept in open jars under a (twelve-inch open frame wire) pyramid for at least four months without any form of deterioration or infestation by insects or flies - which are repelled by the energy inside the pyramid. A test was run outdoors with a six-foot base pyramid with food placed in the centre to attract ants. It was found that ants heading for the food followed a curved path out of the pyramid without ever reaching the food.

(i) Water left under a pyramid is altered. Cut flowers placed in it tend to last 30% longer than normal while growing plants watered with it grow more strongly and are hardier. The water appears to hold the
energy indefinitely, a glassful takes twenty minutes, a quart (two pints) takes one hour and larger amounts should be left over night. Animals given the choice of pyramid water or untreated water almost always choose the treated water.

3. In the 1940s, Verne Cameron of America discovered that the beneficial pyramid energy could be transmitted. He placed a pyramid at each end of a row of plants, connected a wire to the apex of each pyramid and ran the wire underneath the plants. He placed a clump of steel wool on the wire under each plant. The pyramids were, aligned North--South and he found that even better results were obtained if the row of plants was also aligned in a North--South direction.

4. There are reports of instances where dogs suffering from old age, lameness and hair loss have been cured and rejuvenated in about six weeks by the use of a pyramid.

I suggest that the Great Pyramid in Egypt was most definitely not built as a burial place but that the chamber inside it was used to treat people with large amounts of the energy picked up by the shape of the pyramid. It is also likely that the pyramid was used as a communications device, but that is outside the scope of this document.

The really important thing is that there is clearly an energy field (perhaps the ZPE field) which flows continuously, is very beneficial to life and which can be tapped to produce unlimited motive power without the need for any kind of input from us. Just like the early discovery days of radio waves, TV signals, X-rays, Gamma rays, etc. we are in the discovery days of the Zero-Point Energy field. You, personally, have as much chance of being successful in harnessing this energy as any large research laboratory with unlimited financial resources. Remember that Flavio Thomas can drive an electrical fan using equipment which costs next to nothing. A cone shape with the same face slope as a pyramid is also an effective shape, and no matter how you position it, it always has a face pointing North--South. May I also remark that it might be worth experimenting with the “pancake” coil (called a bi-filar series-connected coil) patented by Tesla because he found that it was particularly effective in picking up Zero-Point Energy:

![Image of a 'pancake' coil](image.png)

**The Pyramids of Les Brown.**

Les Brown experimented extensively with pyramids and related devices. It should be stressed at this point that while various facts have been observed, the action caused by a pyramid is not fully understood at this time and no "laws" have yet been deduced. We have to work here on the basis of "this is what was done, and these are the results". Because of this, the following extract from the work of the late Les Brown is reproduced here and you must decide for yourself if what he says is true and whether or not it might be worth your while trying out some of what he says:

In conducting pyramid experiments you should look daily for signs of change and note them meticulously, and above all be patient. Don't plant a seed one day and expect to have a plant six feet high the next. A plant takes just as long to develop inside a pyramid as it does outside, but in time you will see the tremendous difference in size. Also, don't keep moving plants around inside your pyramid during an experiment; leave pots stationary so you can see what the results are.
Here, you will see how to make your own pyramids for experimentation; they can be constructed entirely from inexpensive materials equally as well as from costly ones. Cardboard, wire, plywood or anything rigid enough to retain the pyramid shape will suffice. The pyramid does not necessarily have to be solid; in many experiments just the outline shape is sufficient, provided that it is jointed at all corners and at the apex.

An "energiser" array of small pyramids can be made from cardboard and positioned at the corners of a large pyramid to enhance its operation. An array might have 5 rows of four little pyramids or perhaps twelve rows of six pyramids. Individual small pyramids can be made from cardboard and then assembled on a base to form the array. The following template could be used for this, just ensure that the base is square:

A pyramid energizer has multiple uses. The one shown above consists of 72 small cardboard pyramids and a top plate of cardboard covered with foil. By placing the top plate on top of the pyramids and orienting the entire energizer to magnetic north, you can use the energy generated for such purposes as mummification, energizing water, or as a beneficial surface on which to place growing plants for outstanding growth.

Remember that with all types of pyramids, positioning is all-important. One of the sloping sides must at all times be facing towards magnetic North - not a corner but the flat face of the pyramid must face magnetic North. Use a compass to determine the direction of magnetic north which will be nearly in line with the Pole.
star, (but not quite). In this respect, a pyramid is like a radio. For maximum performance you must tune it in properly, pointing it right at the transmitter. Similarly, several pyramids with one face towards magnetic North and stacked on top of each other will produce increased energy, cell activity and growth.

Using pyramids, I sincerely believe that I can grow 36 times more and better plants in a given area than any farmer or market gardener can in the same area, using conventional methods.

All kinds of shapes contain energy, the very nature of the shape itself determines the degree of energy which it contains, that is, the shape determines how receptive it will be to energy flows. By shapes I refer mainly to cubes, spheres, triangles, pyramids and the like. Each shape has potential, but they all have different limits and we should seek the one which offers the most potential. Of all shapes, the pyramid gives us the best performance because it receives the greatest amount of energy. It must be four-sided, of specific measurements and correct angles, and it must have the correct compass orientation. There are dangers in using a pyramid blindly without knowledge of its functions and its great potential. When all four sides are put together you must have a pyramid which is leaning in at 51 degrees, 51 minutes, 14 seconds.

The energy inside the pyramid is said to come down through the peak and continues coming in until it reaches a certain intensity, or the limits of safety, at which point the pyramid releases all the energy and begins collecting it again. The pyramid is said to release 80% of its energy through the peak and the other 20% via the four base corners. Only a pyramid performs this way, and even then the maximum performance is obtained only by a perfect pyramid. So, when you start to build one, aim at perfection. The nearer you can get to a perfect pyramid, the more you will benefit.

You can grow bumper crops with the use of a pyramid. Anything growing beside an iron fence will be bigger and better than one nowhere near metal. The reason is that the iron fence picks up static or magnetic energy and feeds it to the plant. I remember my mother and grandmother placing large nails in the soil of their potted house plants because plants thus treated always grew bigger and better. They had no idea why. In fact, if you asked them, the standard answer was that, as the nail rusted, the plant fed on it. This reasoning is fallible, however, because for one thing, plants can only absorb minerals in liquid form and for another, the rust would kill some plants. Rather, the nails picked up the magnetic energy and boosted the house plants' growth. When a plant receives an extra dose of energy to that already floating free in the atmosphere, that dose acts as a stimulant and causes better growth. What really happens is that the living cells are increased in size, and naturally when each cell is larger, since there are still the same number of cells, the final plant is a lot larger than normal.

If you grow a plant in a pyramid, it absorbs energy at a much higher intensity than that produced by the nails in the plant pots, and so the end result is enormous growth. When this is applied to vegetables and fruits, the plants, as well as their products, are immensely oversized. My own experiments have convinced me that this energy creates a special reaction in living cells of plants, resulting in larger blooms, leaves and fruits on whatever plants are propagated within the pyramid.

The normal life cycle of lettuce, for instance, from seed to maturity, is six to eight weeks. Grown under a pyramid the life cycle is still the same, but the plant is considerably larger. If one allows the vine type of tomato to mature to six or seven trusses under a pyramid while simultaneously allowing an identical plant to do the same outside the pyramid, giving both plants precisely the same feeding and watering, a startling difference in yield occurs. I should mention that if you put your outside plant too near the pyramid, it will reach for, and receive, some of the pyramid's energy, so keep it well away to get a fair test. The outside tomatoes would weigh out at approximately 10 to 14 pounds per plant, whereas the plant grown in the pyramid would produce between 50 and 60 pounds of tomatoes. Not every type of plant grown under a pyramid will produce this increase; this is the average that I have come to expect from tomatoes.

A few more averages I have obtained repeatedly were: lettuce two to three times larger than average; beans 25 inches long by 1.25 inches wide; cabbage - when controls were three pounds each, the pyramid-grown plants were 12 to 13 pounds per head; radishes that normally would be the size of a quarter were four inches in diameter; controlled cucumbers that averaged 14 inches in length and weighed up to one pound normally, were 21 inches long and weighed up to four pounds when grown in the pyramid and the pyramid also warms your whole house and cleanses the air which you breathe.

Energised air in the pyramid also appears to repel small insects; though, there is no need for pesticides to be used within its glass walls. Pest-free plants grow to maturity inside, with none of the setbacks plants subject to normal attack from pests suffer in the garden outside. This also means that pyramid-grown vegetables need no washing upon harvesting. The mere appearance of such plants is more appetising than that of

9 - 22
those grown normally. Greens are more vivid, and many leaves have a sheen which is noticeably absent from plants in kitchen gardens. Artificial fertilisers will never be used in my pyramid. Since many fertilisers apparently are becoming short in supply themselves, the ability to grow plants without their use is a double blessing for all mankind. I will use natural farmyard manures, the best way to regain the succulent taste and nutrition which are missing from plants grown with chemical fertilisers.

An egg broken out of its shell and left within the confines of the pyramid will gradually congeal and become like plastic, as the interior energy works on its cells - harmlessly. The cells do not die nor induce putrefaction. After a period of even weeks or months these congealed eggs can be reconstituted in water to the point where they can be eaten with complete safety, and they taste even more delicious than eggs produced in the usual way.

One peculiar phenomenon which I have observed under my large pyramid is the formation of dew on the plants inside it. This happens early in the morning. During all my years of experience with greenhouses, I never noticed dew forming on any plants in conventional greenhouses. This dew gently dissipates as the sun grows stronger, exactly as it would outside. Also, after a recent thunderstorm, my pyramid cucumbers grew two to two and a half inches in a matter of a few hours.

I built a pyramid purely for research purposes. For large-scale production, one which is much greater in size would be needed. When building the prototype, I encountered and overcame, virtually all the problems one can expect to meet in a construction of this type. Building a pyramid is nothing like building a house, and while a slight difference in measurements can be overcome when building a house, it is not possible to make a mistake in a pyramid and just carry on building. The particular piece containing the error must be pulled out and replaced correctly, as any mistake is transferred all the way around the pyramid.

My test pyramid is 30 feet high along a perpendicular line from ground to peak. The sides from base corner to peak measure 44 feet 4.5 inches, with a baseline of 46 feet 10.5 inches. It contains two additional floors above the ground level, and the sum of the areas of these two floors equals or is greater than that of the ground floor. Thus, the two additional floors virtually double the growing area. My first floor is 12 feet above the ground, and there is a reason for this. I calculated that when the sun was at its highest point the first floor would have to be positioned at 12-feet high so as to allow the sun to shine on to the back north edge of the ground floor. The 12-foot height was perfect, its achievement resulting from a mixture of good judgement and a bit of luck. However, I would not need to build a growing level at this height again because there are as many plants that grow well in shade as there are those that prefer growing in the sun. In future, my floors will all be eight feet apart, and I will put my sun-loving plants in the southern half and my shade-loving ones in the back northern half.

By placing the floors at eight-foot intervals there is much more growing area available than there is in placing the first floor at a 12-foot height. In addition, choosing this lower height allows the upper floors to decrease more slowly in size than they would if placed farther apart. Obviously, as the peak of the pyramid is approached, the floors decrease in area. One of the benefits obtained with these extra floors is that since heat rises, there are higher temperatures on each floor nearer the top of the pyramid. This allows a wide range of crops to be grown.

To illustrate the temperature difference, if the ground floor were 75°F, then the second floor would reach a temperature of 90°F, and the third floor would be around 105°F to 115°F, each floor having higher humidity. This means that anything from cool to tropical crops can be grown within one pyramid. The ground floor is perfect for such crops as radishes, lettuce, carrots, beets, tomatoes, etc., while the second floor is ideal for cucumbers, squash, peppers, and plants which like it hotter and more humid than the first floor. The top floor can be used for lemons, oranges, figs and especially, orchids.

The pyramid draws in its own water on the ground floor; I have never had to water that level being built directly on the ground. It never draws too much or too little water, always just the right amount for growth. Naturally, I have to pump water to the upper floors, but because the first floor provides its own water supply, at least half of my pyramid is watered for nothing automatically. I grow right in the ground the pyramid stands on, but upstairs I have placed wooden planting troughs all around the floors, leaving room to walk, and I grow plants in these. It is a major job getting the soil to the upper floors initially, but it is only a one-time task. The troughs are 16 inches deep and 14 inches wide, and contain a bottom. There is a run all around the edge of each of the upper floors and another inside, leaving enough room to work, with a gap on each side allowing passage from one run to the other.
Space in the pyramid is used to the utmost. At the perimeter of the low areas, I plant the kind of plants that need little headroom, and then plant bigger crops toward the middle. This is a matter of common sense, but using vine type tomatoes and stringing them up, one can work between the rows better, and if the lower leaves are removed, there is sufficient space to grow lettuce, cabbage or any low-lying crop in between the tomato plants. The trusses may be left on the tomatoes; they will not shade the low-lying plants. To ensure a steady supply of food, it is wise to plant only a few plants of each variety at intervals, which means that in the beginning it will take several weeks to reap a full harvest, but subsequently there will be a continuous yield.

By planting in such a manner, the grower will reap about six full crops each year. This method applies only to an enclosed pyramid, which would also require heating in the winter. The means of heating is up to the individual. Personally, I use a wood stove because I have my own wood supply. However, a wood and oil combination is best because it allows one to be away for a couple of days when necessary. If the wood fire gets low, then the oil burner takes over.

As for growing potentials of the floors of the pyramid, I have found that the second floor is the best place for germinating new seeds. I find that I can get germination in three days on that floor, whereas it usually takes five days otherwise. Thus far I have described the pyramid from the growing aspect only to the point of showing you how and where to grow crops, but let's take a look at a few statistics on production. Your garden, for instance, will only give one crop a year, but the pyramid through the means I suggest will give you six crops per year. Now let's compare two pieces of ground, both the same size, one with a pyramid on it. Say the garden is 50 feet square and the pyramid is 50 feet square. The upper floors inside the pyramid give you approximately 2,500 square feet of growing area upstairs to go along with your ground floor area of 2,500 square feet, and you are getting six crops per floor as opposed to one, or twice times six, the equivalent of 12 times your garden yield. Nor is that all of the advantage. Recall my discussion of the increase in size of the plant cells; this itself gives an average of three times the size of a normal crop. Multiplying the 12 times by the size of the crop, you are 36 times better off than with a single garden.

In addition to food growth, the pyramid also has application in food preservation. I have read statistics stating that 40 percent of all food grown in my home country of Canada is lost to putrefaction, whether at the place of storage, in transport, in wholesale and retail, or finally in the home. Regardless of how this spoilage occurs, this state of affairs can be remedied. The energy of the pyramid which grows plants so amazingly well, can also be used for the purpose of mummification of food, which can be dehydrated and kept in storage for an indefinite period without losing any of its taste or nutritional properties. There are absolutely no ill effects on any food stored in a pyramid. In fact, in many instances it is far better when reconstituted than it was in the first place. It has the water taken out of it; but it also repels bacteria and as a result, nothing will rot in a pyramid. For instance, I cannot make a compost heap inside my pyramid; I have to do it outside; otherwise the ingredients in the compost all remain in good shape and will not break down. For further proof, the grain grown in Manitoba today is a direct descendant of the grain found in the Great Pyramid, grain that had been there for centuries and had kept perfectly.

Earlier I mentioned mummifying eggs. I conducted an experiment in mummifying an egg, using a pyramid energizer instead of a single wire pyramid. The energizer consisted of a small batch of one-inch-high pyramids, 20 in all, positioned in a group. Using such a grid of pyramids provides quicker results than using just one pyramid. I broke an egg into a dish, placed the dish on top of the energizer and observed what happened in the ensuing days. In about six hours I noticed the lower perimeter of the yolk turning a pale yellow, and this continued through each day, the pale colour gradually moving up to the top of the yolk. In the meantime, the white was becoming less fluid, thickening, so to speak. In two weeks the whole egg was just like glass; the yolk was hard and the white was now in crystal form. At no time would flies or any insect approach it, even though it was open to them. Flies were as prevalent as usually, but they would not go near the egg. There was never any smell present from start to finish.

I left the egg in this state for about three months and showed it to many of my visitors, but then it was time to reconstitute it and try it for taste. I added some water (an egg loses about 30 grams of water in such a period) and left it 24 hours. I then boiled some water with the intention of poaching the egg. When the water was ready, I tipped the egg in, and immediately the albumen turned snowy white and the yolk a perfectly natural yellow colour. Had I dropped the egg before reconstituting it, it would have shattered, but now it was simmering away, looking just like a fresh egg. After cooking the egg I put it on a plate, salted and peppered it, then cut the yolk through with my knife, and it flooded across my plate. I admit I was not in too big a hurry to eat it, but if I was going to prove something, I had to taste it. I smelled the egg, and it was no different from normal, so I ate it. I can honestly say it was one of the nicest eggs I have ever tasted; it seemed to have more flavour than usual.
I do not know of any food that cannot be treated in such a manner. I have tried preserving every food I can think of, and it all keeps indefinitely, with no refrigeration necessary.

Since publicity was first given to my large, wooden pyramid some three years ago, I have been inundated with letters, phone calls and personal visits. People from all walks of life and many different places in North America and Europe and indeed a few from further afield - Australia, Africa and the East Indies - all have expressed an interest and have given me kind encouragement. Many of these letters, calls and visits have had as their objective the gathering of practical information on the building of pyramids and the problems likely to be encountered.

My pyramid is made from rough sawn timber, cut on and near my own property and milled by a neighbour. But it is not necessary for pyramids to be made of wood. They can be made of any rigid material which will support permanent glazing: cardboard, strong wire, sheet steel or metal, angle irons, logs - anything which will not curve and that can be precisely measured and fitted.

Nor do pyramids have to be solid for many uses; open-sided shapes will do, so long as all corners are joined and the angles are correct. My present pyramid is made of timber and covered with heavy-gauge plastic sheet. Future ones will be sheathed in fibreglass, acrylic or glass. They will be closed pyramids solely because I propose to grow food during the depths of Canada's frigid winters.

My pyramid frame is built mainly of wood measuring two inches by four inches and two inches by eight inches rough sawn (not planed all over). Pyramids can be built to any scale as long as the proportions are correct.

There is a video of Les Brown on the web at this time. It shows him describing some of his experiences with pyramids. It is at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P7VN6B2GjVI and in it, Les describes an experiment which he carried out on his very large agricultural pyramid. First, he constructed a helical coil using co-axial cable which he sketches this way:

The coil was then placed on a 1/4" (6 mm) thick sheet of plywood and the end of the wire in the centre of the
coil was inserted through the plywood and the central conductor pushed into the ground. The other end of
the wire was bent up to act as an aerial, and the board itself was stapled through with two inch long wire
staples driven into the ground and acting as further grounding for the coil, as he sketched here:

Les then climbed up a ladder and fastened another coil under the apex of the pyramid. This coil he wound
out of multi-stranded copper wire. The wound it in the shape of an inverted cone with the wire going in a
counter-clockwise direction and he spread the top strands out like an aerial array. He drew it this way:

He then decided to connect the two coils together using a strand of natural wool, so he tied it to the bottom
of the coil at the apex. He climbed down the ladder and standing on the ground, he took hold of the piece of
wool and was thrown several feet away by the energy flowing through the wool. This frightened him so
much that he took the pieces apart and never investigated that type of arrangement ever again. He believes
that it was because he was grounded when he grasped the wool, that there was such an energy flow
through him. If you decide to try this with a smaller pyramid, then I suggest that you connect the wool to the
lower coil first, making the earth connection that way, before tying it to the upper coil. However, let me
stress again that we just don’t know what is happening in and around the pyramid, so any experiments which
you choose to carry out are entirely your responsibility and at your own risk. Although a good deal of
practical information is given here, it must not be construed as being a recommendation that you make or
use any of the devices described in this document as the presentation is for information purposes only.

Les Brown mentions other uses for the devices which he has developed. He says: My wife, who suffered
from migraine headaches, had a severe attack for a week; and during that time she took an abundant supply
of pills, which proved to be of no benefit. She placed a pyramid on her head in the early hours of the night,
and in about 20 minutes had been relieved of all pain. She said nothing of this to me, but two weeks later
suffered another headache. Instead of suffering for a lengthy period, she used the pyramid again, and
without the use of pills the headache vanished again in about the same length of time. She told me about
this second episode. About a week later she suffered an ordinary headache and repeated the performance,
with the same result. She now has gone three years with no headaches at all. Around this time, I had been
working all day in the hot sun, and the back of my neck became quite painful. I tried placing a small
pyramid on the back of my neck while I sat still for a while. It produced the same relieving results for me. I
believe it increases blood circulation to the affected part.

After about ten minutes I could feel the pain being drawn out upwards. At the same time my head felt cold
on top, not cold to the touch, but simply felt cold to me. I mentioned this to my wife, and she said she had
had the same sensations of coldness but was waiting for me to remark about them first. I am not suggesting
that this treatment will do the same for everyone, but merely mentioning that it worked for us.
The elderly mother of a friend of mine, her hands badly crippled with arthritis, was persuaded to place her hand on an energiser. A wire pyramid was put over both hand and energiser for one hour. She continued this treatment for a few days, experiencing a diminution of pain and a loosening of her fingers each time. Before she returned to her home in England she actually sat and played the organ. She played haltingly and rustily, it is true, but she had been unable to play at all for several years prior to using the pyramid. Significantly, her hands returned to their crippled state shortly after she returned to England as her pyramid was stolen at London Airport.

We also find that when we are feeling low and depressed, my wife and I sit for an hour or so, each with a small pyramid on our head, facing North, our depression lifts and we feel quite rejuvenated. My wife and I regularly drink pyramid-treated water. If we are feeling low we have a snifter of pyramid water and in a short time we feel a marked lift. On the other hand, if we find ourselves in what used to be described as a choleric state and sit with the pyramid on our head - but facing south -our irritability rapidly leaves and is replaced by a state of calm.

A prominent acquaintance of mine who does not wish to be named, always drives with a pyramid under his car seat. He claims he feels less "bushed" after a long drive than he did before using a pyramid. Many investigators have found that by putting a pyramid or an energiser over, or under, their beds, they experience better and more refreshing sleep, some of them claiming they need far less sleep than they required before using a pyramid for this purpose.

The real keynote when trying these pyramid experiments is persistence. As with many other experiences, pyramids do not always "work" the first time you apply one to a situation, and a person must "stay with it" and make subtle corrections until the desired results are obtained. Putting energized water into a vase containing tulips caused them to last for about three and a half weeks. Not only did they last this phenomenal length of time, but they grew about nine inches during that period! I have never before seen flowers grow after having been cut.

Many people claim that insect stings stop itching after the application of energised water; this has been our own experience. On one occasion I had a nasty cut on my hand. Immediately after washing it with pyramid water, the pain stopped and when it was fully healed, I had no scar. The cut also healed much more quickly than is "normal" for me.

Please be aware that the energy channelled by pyramids and the Joe Cell described below is very powerful and more than capable of running a vehicle without the use of any kind of visible fuel. Dealing with this power is not an established science and we are just blundering around the edges of a science which has not been properly investigated, so at this time it is a case of discovering what tests have been carried out and analysing the results to see if there is a solid pattern leading to repeatable tests which can be performed by anyone.

We are at about the same place as the Wright brothers were in 1903 just after their successful powered flight at Kitty Hawk. They took their "Flyer" back to Dayton, Ohio and discovered that it wouldn't fly. The problem was not immediately obvious to them. Being down at sea level and in an uncomfortably high wind, was essential for their device to be able to get off the ground, but understanding why and how to overcome the problem was not immediate as the theory of practical heavier-than-air flight was not established at that time. The same situation applies today to pyramid power.

**Joseph Cater's Pyramid Analysis.**

There has been a good deal of disagreement between people in different locations, on how effective or otherwise, a pyramid is in day to day use. A very astute scientist by the name of Joseph H. Cater explains that this is due to the pyramid being powered primarily by energy flowing from the Sun, and so, people who live near the Equator will find a pyramid much more effective than people living in high latitudes.

Mr Cater explains exactly how a pyramid operates, but to understand his explanation fully, you will probably need to read the extract from one of his books, which is included in Chapter 15., to discover what “soft particles” are, where they come from and what effect they have on everything around us.

Mr Cater says that the energies concentrated inside a pyramid have been shown to be extremely beneficial to humans. Soft particle bombardments from outer space and especially from the Sun, concentrate inside the pyramid. Some, passing through the surface of the pyramid are slowed down to such an extent that the
Earth’s gravitational field, repelling the negative charges, tends to keep them inside until collisions with other particles drives them out.

Most of the particles collected by the pyramid, concentrate along the edges as would be expected, since electricity on any charged body tends to do much the same thing, with concentrations at points and along edges. In fact, pyramid frames have been found to be nearly as effective as the closed pyramid, if, and only if, there is a continuity in the framework and no breaks in any of the joining parts.

The soft electrons collected on a pyramid frame or closed pyramid, soon reach saturation point and continued bombardment causes the excess to drop down inside the pyramid. This, coupled with the gravity-repelling forces, causes a high concentration inside the pyramid. The proportions of the pyramid are apparently a factor in it’s performance. If the sides are too steep, many of the soft electrons will move along the edges into the ground outside instead of being forced inside the pyramid. If the sides are not steep enough, not many particles will be collected as they strike the material at nearly a right angle which causes only a small reduction in velocity. If they strike at a sharper angle, there is a greater tendency for them to be retained by the material.

If two side of the base are aligned with magnetic North, it is allegedly more effective. Pyramids can be rendered more potent by lining the interiors of a non-metallic enclosed pyramid, with metal foil such as aluminium or copper. The foil allows a greater quantity of soft electrons to accumulate around the non-metallic outer portion because the soft particles do not pass through the metallic substance as easily, causing a back-up of soft particles. During the process, the foil absorbs large quantities of soft particles before many of them can enter the pyramid. pyramids also radiate soft electrons upwards from the peak.

Many of the soft particles which are stopped briefly on the outside of the pyramid, are repelled upwards by the Earth’s gravitational field, and as well, by soft electrons attached to the pyramid. This produces a funnelling effect which ejects soft electrons from the apex of the pyramid. The Earth’s gravity accelerates soft particles at a far greater rate than it does ordinary matter as soft particles are associated with ethers which are much closer to those of the gravity-inducing particles than is the case for ordinary matter. After
the pyramid becomes saturated, a greater quantity of soft particles than ever, will concentrate inside. The foil will continue to radiate a high concentration of soft particles during the night when the number of particles bombarding the pyramid is considerably reduced.

It is found that pyramids work better during the summer than at any other time of the year. They are also more effective in the lower latitudes because most of the energy concentrated by the pyramid comes from the Sun. There are conflicting opinions as to the effectiveness of pyramids because of this as there is little understanding of the principles involved. For example, those who experiment with pyramids in Canada may claim that they don’t work while those in Southern California will contradict them. A pyramid does not increase the flow of soft particles through the area covered by the pyramid as the same concentration flows outside the area. What a pyramid does, is impede the general flow of soft particles and produce a back-up of particles inside and below the pyramid, and consequently, a higher concentration of soft electrons in these regions. The material used in a pyramid is of great importance. This was demonstrated when a wealthy man in the Midwest built a pyramid-shaped house five stories high, which was then covered with gold-plated iron. The phenomena produced were completely unprecedented. For example, ground water was forced to the surface and flooded the first floor. This was because the soft particle concentration inside and below the pyramid was so great that ground water was impregnated with such an abnormal concentration of negative charges that it was repelled upwards by the Earth’s gravity.

Gold atoms have extremely high positive electrostatic field effects, more so than any other atom. This is why gold is the most malleable of all substances. This means that soft electrons will have a greater affinity for gold than for any other metal. As a result, abnormally high concentrations of soft electrons will concentrate around gold. This effect is greatly enhanced when gold is in contact with iron. These dissimilar metals produce an EMF which in turn, causes a flow of electricity or eddy currents resulting in the iron being magnetised. The magnetic field produced, captures additional soft electrons. A higher concentration of soft electrons is created by this combination then could be produced by a similar thickness of gold foil alone. It follows that by far the most effective material that could be used for pyramids is gold-plated sheet iron (galvanised iron should not be used).

With everything else being the same, the greater the size of a pyramid, the better the performance. The reason for this is that the thicker the layer of concentrated soft electrons through which the incoming soft particles must pass, the more they are slowed down when passing. This results in a greater back-up of soft electrons and an increase in the concentration inside the pyramid. Another reason is that a large pyramid has a greater ratio of volume to surface area. Soft electrons are continuously leaking away from the surface of the pyramid, the larger the pyramid, the lower the percentage of soft electrons which is lost. Consequently, very small pyramids are ineffective.

The Devices of Pier Luigi Ighina.

Pier Luigi Ighina was a remarkable Italian scientist who died in 2004 at the age of 95. He was a colleague of Guglielmo Marconi who was well-known for his work in the early days of radio. Pier, in common with many famous scientists, had an enquiring mind, major intelligence and a very high level of patience and persistence. He too, discovered the energy flows which affect life on this planet and he had his theories and descriptions for what he observed. From his very wide range of inventions and fields of interest, just two will be mentioned here in this chapter as they relate directly to the energy flows channelled by pyramids and Joe Cells, and whether we call this energy flow ‘orgone’, ‘soft electrons’, ‘OD’, ‘ethers’, ‘ambient background’ or whatever, the effects are the same. Pier describes (very briefly) two important devices which have a direct effect on our health and well-being, and on our local environment generally. The first of these passive devices, he has named “ERIM”.

He describes this device as a small apparatus which concentrates and develops what he calls “the Magnetic Rhythm Solar Earth Energy, which regenerates cells and returns them to their normal functioning”. While I have not seen any specific constructional details for this device we do have a general description and several photographs which show three or four different constructions. On the surface, the device appears to be very simple and straightforward and the photographs give the impression that the construction does not have to be exact in order for it to function correctly. However, it needs to be remembered that these energy flows are directly influenced by the user and just because Pier has had spectacular results with his constructions, some of the performance may well be caused by Pier himself. Having said that, there appears to be very little to be lost by attempting a replication and quite possibly, a major amount to be
gained if the replication is successful. The following four photographs show three different constructions of
the device which looks like this:

Photographs 1 and 2 show two different views of one build. The nine spiral coils have seven turns and the
narrow end is a flat turn. The gap between the yellow and blue spirals is quite large, appearing to be just
under the depth of two turns of the spirals. The base is the same shape and the mounting bolt is not
painted, the colour suggesting that it might be a brass bolt. The size of the mounting ring can be estimated
from the man in photograph 2 and I would put it at 250 mm (10”) as Pier was Italian and so probably used
metric units of measurement. I doubt that the dimensions are critical and the spirals appear to be about 100
mm (4”) tall with the widest turn being about 45 mm (1.75”). We are not told what metal was used for any of
the construction, but as the second of Pier’s devices to be described here specifies aluminium, it can’t be
ruled out here, although the metal does look like painted steel.

Both aluminium and copper are generally considered to be non-magnetic because a magnet does not
normally attach itself to either of those metals. But, this is highly misleading as both have a major effect
when placed in a magnetic field, and the energy flow being channelled by this device of Pier’s is itself affected by magnetic fields, so the use of aluminium is likely to be highly significant. However, that being said, we have no direct information on what is used in this “ERIM” device.

You will notice in photographs 1 and 2, that the lugs on the arms of the bars across the circular mounting are quite short, causing their bolts to be widely spaced, which in turn, causes the outer blue and yellow spirals to be widely separated. Those lugs are longer in the build shown in photograph 3, moving the bolts closer together and bringing the blue and yellow spirals closer together. In photograph 3 the long mounting bolt at the bottom of the ring appears to be thicker and it is painted blue. The spirals have the smallest turn flat across the length of the spiral.

Photograph 4 shows a third build of the device, with an even thicker supporting bolt painted blue, wider spacing between the blue and yellow spirals and this time, the smallest turn of the spiral turned up axially and filed to a point. It appears that the device is assembled and then painted afterwards although the spirals may be dipped beforehand. Photograph 4 shows how the spirals are secured under the head of a bolt which is screwed into a threaded hole in the circular frame. Photograph 3 seems to suggest that constructional accuracy is not critical with the side spirals not aligned correctly (unless the lower spirals are supposed to point slightly inwards which seems unlikely, especially since the top spiral of photograph 3 is not truly vertical and does not align with the other two yellow spirals.

Photograph 4 seems to suggest that the green spirals can be slightly more compact than the others although they have exactly the same number of turns. Every spiral is wound the same way so when viewed from above, the upper spirals move in an counter-clockwise direction as they rise and the lower spirals move in a clockwise direction as they get lower. It might be that the colouring of the components might just be for referencing them, but I do not think that this is so. In the following device, Pier stresses the different colours and considering that different colours radiate different frequencies of light, there may well be significance in the colours. Piers describes the operation in this way:

The properties of the device are determined by it’s shape. The three yellow spirals pointing upwards concentrate Solar Energy while the three blue spirals pointing downwards, concentrate Earth’s bio energy which is the negative reflection from the Earth of the Solar Energy. When these two meet, they produce a wave on the green spirals called the Sun-Earth Magnetic Rhythm (which is the rhythm of everything which exists on Earth - both animate and inanimate). This wave enhances that essential basic rhythm for everything within it’s operating radius, normalising and balancing cells and cleansing the energy of a room.

Ideally, the device should be placed in the bedroom so that it can act during the night, but it can also be effective almost anywhere. It should be positioned about 10-20 cm away from walls. At the beginning, to accelerate the process of cellular balancing, you can place your hands about 10-15 cm from each side of the device, with your palms turned towards the green spirals and at the same level as they are. The time required will depend upon individual sensitivity.

If you have hot water central heating, you can place the device about 10 cm from the boiler with the green spirals parallel to it; the circulating water will carry information throughout the system and cleanse rooms within a few days. To energise water and return it to it’s original, natural state, place a bottle of water at each side of the device, about 10-15 cm from the green spirals. It can also energise foodstuffs such as fruits, vegetables and meats by placing them level with, and about 10-15 cm in front of the green spirals, using a non-metallic support, if necessary. Flowers placed close by, will keep fresher longer, or will blossom sooner than normal.

The second passive device designed by Pier is what he calls his “Elios” device. It is constructed from a long small-diameter coil of aluminium wire which is snaked backwards and forwards through a circular wooden frame supported on three short wooden legs. The wooden frame is painted as shown here:
The aluminium wire coil is fed through the frame using plastic tubular beads. It is not clear if the beads pass the whole way through the frame with the upper bead meeting the lower bead in the centre of the frame, or if the beads are completely external to the wood, or perhaps partially embedded in the wood.

Pier says that the Elios device concentrates the maximum energy output in the cavity. The device is able to destroy every type of toxic pollution, including nuclear radiation. Food exposed to its action changes completely because every chemical added to the food gets dissolved by balancing its own Rhythm (vibration) by a multi-wave signal comprising a full octave of colours. Every type of matter receives a certain type of enhancement from it. For example, our body and all types of biological entities are healed, and growth is boosted by it.

This signal is a stationary type phenomenon of rotating particles which come from the Sun and other stars. These particles strike the Earth, store energy, and return to their sources in a reflected state which is the opposite phenomenon of discharge. Everything which was born or which is growing, changes when inside this column of light-like particles. This phenomenon is called “Solar-Terrestrial Rhythm” and it is the power supply of the Planet, continuously causing balancing and growth. Everything on the planet is continuously bathed in this stream of rotating particles.

Every type of matter has its own basic Rhythm plus the Solar-Terrestrial Rhythm. This rhythm is unique and it represents the state of tension of the specific matter. The matter grows and evolves because of this incoming energy. If you modify the energy with various types of pollution, radiation, or other types of...
destructive phenomena, you destroy the normal work of Nature. This device concentrates this phenomenon in its immediate local area and as a result, it improves the Health and Life Energy of that local environment.

The Elios device is only a passive resonator, tuned by its shape to resonate with a harmonic of the cosmic event signal. It consists of a ring of painted wood with seven holes positioned in a heptagon shape in its perimeter. This ring is supported on three legs evenly spaced around the circle. On every hole there is a piece of a coloured plastic tube, each one having a different colour and positioned in a particular order.

The sinusoidal conductor is made of aluminium wire, wound clockwise, and inserted through every hole in a serpentine movement, leaving one end facing upwards and the other end facing downwards, parallel to each other. The signal coming from the sky, moves in a clockwise direction. The two ends of the aluminium wire coil finish in adjacent holes. One end points towards the sky and the other end points towards the ground.

The device should be located on open ground and not on concrete which generates an out-of-phase component of the earth signal which destroys the good rhythm. The phenomenon occurs in the cavity especially, and around the perimeter of the ring. To increase the amplitude of the signal you can put glass bottles filled with water, one inside the cavity and six around the outside in a hexagon shape. Wait some days and observe the environment. Everything changes! There is an explosion of life! Everything which I have described happens, depending only on the length of elapsed time and the amplitude of the signal. The device needs sunlight for its best operation. Take it away from every artificial electrical and magnetic field because this is only a passive resonator and a strong EMF can distort its signal.

Do not try nuclear cleansing with Elios until it is highly charged. The device is a passive resonator and it needs to build up a charge before bringing any isotopes near it. When dealing with isotopes, always use water containers but do not contact the substance with the apparatus as you can destroy the ambient rhythm by doing that, and cause very big trouble in the area. This device has a powerful resonant effect on the surrounding land, influencing the environment up to a kilometre in every direction.

The Joe Cell.
The device called the "Joe Cell" used to be one of the most difficult devices for any experimenter to get operating properly but new design data has changed all that. It is a passive device for concentrating energy
drawn from the local environment and it takes great perseverance and patience to use one to power a vehicle. Here is some practical information on the Joe Cell.

In 1992 in Australia, Graham Coe, Peter Stevens and Joe Nobel developed previously patented units which are now known by the generic name of the “Joe Cell”. Peter introduced Joe to Graham and they rehashed the patented cells which Graham knew about, using materials from the Local Dairy Production Facility NORCO. A two hour long video showing the Joe Cell was produced by Peter and Joe and the unit shown operating in the video was attached to Peter’s Mitsubishi Van. Joe had his equipment stolen and his dog killed, so he decided to keep a low profile, moving out into the wilds and not generating much publicity, in spite of fronting the two hour video recording. A search on the Joe Cell will locate many videos on the subject. This document is an attempt to provide detailed information on a recent Cell built by Bill Williams in the USA and the subsequent constructional advice which has arisen from his experiences.

First, you need to understand that, at this point in time, building and using a Joe Cell of any variety, is as much an art as a science. It might best be explained by saying that creating building plans for it is rather like producing plans for painting a copy of the famous Mona Lisa painting. The instructions for the painting might be:

1. Buy a canvas, if one is not available, then here is how to make one.
2. Buy some oil-based paints, if none are available, then here is how you make them.
3. Buy an artists brush, palette and charcoal, if none are available then this is how you make them.
4. Here is how you paint the picture.

Even given the most complete and detailed instructions, many people, including myself, are unlikely to produce a top-quality copy of the Mona Lisa. It is not that the instructions are lacking in any way, it is the skill and ability of the person attempting the task which are not up to the job. It used to be that not everybody who built a Joe Cell had instant success. However, recent advances have changed all that, but let us run through the earlier constructional information as a lead-in to the current technology.

A Joe Cell is capable of powering a vehicle engine without needing to use conventional fossil fuel. So, what does the engine run on? I suggest that it runs on a newly discovered energy field not yet understood by mainstream science. In another couple of hundred years time, it will be a routine subject which every child in school will be expected to understand, but today it looks like the ‘witchcraft’ of the magnifying glass starting a fire.

It is not unusual for newcomers to the subject to get confused by the Cell itself. The Cell consists of a metal container with tubes inside it. The container has what looks like ordinary water in it and it sometimes has a DC voltage applied across it. This causes many people to immediately jump to the false conclusion that it is an electrolyser. It isn't. The Joe Cell does not convert water to hydrogen and oxygen gasses to be burnt in the engine. The water in a Joe Cell does not get used up no matter how far the vehicle travels. It is possible to run a car on the gasses produced by electrolysis of water, but the Joe Cell has absolutely nothing whatsoever to do with electrolysis. The Joe Cell acts as a concentrator for a new energy field, in the same way that a magnifying glass acts as a concentrator for sunlight, and both have to be done just right for them to work.

At the present time, there are at least fifteen people who have built Joe Cells and managed to power vehicles using them. Several of these people use their Joe Cell-powered vehicles on a daily basis. Most of these are in Australia. The first Cell-powered vehicle was driven some 2,000 kilometres across Australia.

Disclaimer: The remainder of this document contains considerable specific detail on the design and construction of a Joe Cell. This presentation is for information purposes only and must not be construed as a recommendation that you actual physically construct a device of this nature. The author stresses that he is in no way liable for any damage, loss or injury caused by your future actions. It should also be borne in mind that any alteration to an automotive vehicle, such as changing the fuel on which it runs to hydroxy gas, natural gas, Joe Cell energy, or anything else, might void the vehicle insurance unless the insurer is informed beforehand and agrees to continue insurance cover on the modified vehicle.

In broad outline, a Joe Cell is a 316L-grade stainless steel container, with a central cylindrical electrode, surrounded by a series of progressively larger stainless steel cylinders, and filled with specially treated water. This arrangement of steel shells and treated water acts as a focusing mechanism for the energy field used to power the vehicle.
The Cell itself is made up with the battery negative taken to the central electrode. The connection to this stainless steel electrode is made at the bottom with the electrical connection passing through the base of the cell container. This obviously needs careful construction to prevent any leakage of the conditioned water or the energy focused by the Cell.

Surrounding the central electrode are two or three cylinders made of either solid or mesh stainless steel. These cylinders are not connected electrically and are held in position by insulating material which needs to be selected carefully as the insulation is not just electrical insulation but is also energy-field insulation. The outside stainless steel cylinder forms the container for the cell:

The picture above shows the general construction of a cell of this type although, unlike the description below, this one does not have the lip which is used for attaching the lid. It is included here just as a general illustration of how the cylinders are positioned relative to each other.

The following information on constructing a Joe Cell, is broken down into the following sections:

1. The Materials needed for construction.
2. Constructing the Cell
3. Getting the Cell working
4. Installing the Cell in the vehicle
5. Getting the vehicle running
6. Suppliers
7. Workarounds
The Materials needed for Construction.

Various vehicles can be powered by a Joe Cell. If you have not built and used a Joe Cell before, then it is worth using the easiest type to convert. The most suitable is an older type vehicle with no computer control of the combustion, a carburettor and a water-cooled engine. If the engine block is aluminium rather than steel then that is also a slight additional advantage.

The Cell is built from stainless steel pipes. The lower the magnetism of the finished unit the better, so 316L grade stainless steel is preferred. However, there is no need to become obsessed with this as most varieties of stainless steel can be persuaded to operate. The length of the tubing is not critical, but about 8 inches (200 mm) is a reasonable choice for the overall length of the inner tubes. The outer pipe which forms the casing, needs to be about 10 inches in length so that there is clearance above and below the inner pipes.

The innermost pipe diameter is 2 inches (50 mm) and the others can be 3 inch, 4 inch, and 5 inches in diameter as that creates a gap of just under half an inch between the pipes, which is a suitable spacing. The wall thickness of the pipes is not critical but it needs to be a practical size with 1 mm being the minimum thickness with the most common thickness being 1/16 inch (1.6 mm or 0.0625 inch). It is important that the walls of the outermost cylinder are completely rigid, so using a greater thickness for that cylinder is an advantage.

Some stainless steel plate is needed for the ends of the outer cylinder. Ideally, the top and base should not overhang the sides but that is difficult to achieve if the cell is to be airtight, so the end pieces will need to be slightly larger than the outer tube and 1/8 inch (3 mm) thick sheet is suggested. The base size is 5 inch square, or possibly slightly larger to facilitate cutting a circular shape out of it. The lid and lip blanks will need to be 6 inch squares, or again, slightly larger to facilitate cutting circles out of them.

The plinth component at the base of the 2-inch inside tube needs to be cut from a piece of stainless steel. If the option of machining the whole plinth as a single piece is chosen, then the piece of 316L stainless steel needed to do this will be substantial, perhaps a section of solid bar 2.25 inches (57 mm) in diameter and some 3 inches (75 mm) long. If the easier and cheaper option of using a standard half-inch (12 mm) 316L stainless steel bolt (if one is available) is selected, then a piece of 316L stainless steel some 2.25 inches (57 mm), or slightly larger, 2 inch (50 mm) thick will be needed. The exact details of this will need to be discussed with the person who will undertake the machining as practical issues come into play, and the optimum size will depend to a certain extent on the lathe being used. If a screw thread is being machined on the spigot of the plinth, then the thread should match the locally available nuts, unless nuts are also being made up.

Some additional steel will be needed for constructing a mounting bracket inside the engine compartment, also, some double-laminated hessian sacking (“burlap”) and about 36 inches (1 m) of half-inch (12 mm) wooden dowel to use in the mounting bracket.

Some Ultra-High Molecular Weight Polyethylene material as found in kitchen chopping boards will be needed to insulate between the engine mounting and the cell and between the inside tube’s plinth and the base plate.

A length of aluminium tubing typically three quarters of an inch (20 mm) in diameter will be needed for connecting the Cell to the engine, and a short length of strong, clear plastic pipe for the actual final connection to the engine, needed to prevent an electrical short-circuit between the Cell and the engine. This plastic pipe needs to be a tight push-fit as clamping clips are not used. A stainless steel compression fitting to fit the pipe is needed to make the seal between it and the lid of the Cell. It is very important that this fitting is stainless steel as other materials such as brass will prevent the cell from operating. The wrong material for this fitting has been the reason for many Cells not operating. Neither brass nor any other material (other than stainless steel) should not be used anywhere in the construction, whether it be for nuts, bolts, fittings, metal connections, or anything else.

Ideally, natural rubber with no additives or colouring, failing that “Buna-n” (nitrile rubber) o-ring, or teflon, is needed for inter-cylinder bracing and some sheet to make the circular lid gasket. Also some white marine-grade Sikaflex 291 bedding compound. Natural rubber with no colouring or additives is the best insulator and should be used if at all possible. After extended use, Bill has found that teflon spacers work better than the rubber and so has switched to teflon.
Seven or eight stainless steel cones will be needed for the water-conditioning process. These are usually manufactured for machines which separate cream from milk and it is possible to buy them via eBay from time to time. If none are available, then it is perfectly possible to construct them yourself.

There will also be minor items like a few bolts, lengths of electrical wire and the like. To summarise this then:

**Stainless steel pipes in 316L grade steel:**
- 5-inch (125 mm) diameter 10 inches (250 mm) long, one off
- 4-inch (100 mm) diameter 8 inches (200 mm) long, one off
- 3-inch (75 mm) diameter 8 inches (200 mm) long, one off
- 2-inch (50 mm) diameter 8 inches (200 mm) long, one off

**Stainless steel plate in 316L grade steel:**
- 5.25 inch (133 mm) square 1/8 inch (3 mm) thick, one off
- 6.25 inch (157 mm) square 1/8 inch (3 mm) thick, two off
- 3 inch (75 mm) strip, 16 gauge thick, two feet (600 mm) long
- One plinth blank as described above, size depending on the lathe and style of construction.

**Stainless steel bolts:**
- 1/4 inch (6 mm) diameter, 3/4 inch (18 mm) long, twelve off with matching nuts
- One 1/2 inch (12 mm) diameter, 2.25 inch (57 mm) long with two nuts and three washers

**Aluminium tubing 3/4 inch (20 mm) in diameter, 3 feet (1 m) long**

**Plastic tubing to form a tight fit on the aluminium tubing and some 4 inches (100 mm) long**

**One stainless steel compression fitting to seal the pipe-to-lid connection**

**Natural rubber with no additives, (or “Buna-n” insulation if natural rubber just cannot be got):**
- O-ring tubing, 3 feet (1 m) long
- Sheet, 6 inch (150 mm) square, one off

**Miscellaneous:**
- White Sikaflex 291 bedding compound (available from ships chandlers), one off
- Double-laminated hessian sacking (“burlap”) 1 foot (300 mm) wide, 6 feet (2 m) long
- Wood (ramin) dowel three quarter inch (18 mm) diameter, 36 inches (1 m) long
- UHMWP plastic food-chopping board, one off
- Sundry connecting wire and ordinary engine compartment mounting bolts, and the like
- Stainless steel cones and canister as discussed below

Don’t polish the tubes and never, ever use sandpaper or wet-and-dry paper on any of these components as the result is scored surfaces and each score reduces the effectiveness of the Cell.

**Constructing the Cell**

The Joe Cell looks like a very simple steel construction which could easily be made by any amateur. While it can be constructed by an amateur, it is not a simple construction as it is important to keep any acquired magnetic properties to a minimum. Consequently, it is suggested that an angle grinder is not used for any of the metalwork, and hand tools used for cutting and shaping. Also, if the cutting tool has previously been used to cut anything other than stainless steel it should not be used, or at the very least, thoroughly cleaned before use as contamination of your Cell components through particles of another material is critical and can prevent the Cell from working.

It should be stressed again that the materials used in the construction of a Cell are absolutely critical if success is to be assured. If you have an experienced friend who has made many Cells work, then you can experiment with different materials, but if this is your first Cell and you are working on your own, then use the exact materials shown here and don’t end up with a Cell which doesn’t work.

Bill Williams started building a 5 cylinder cell comprising 1”, 2”, 3”, 4” and outer tube 5” but Peter Stevens later advised him to remove the 1” centre tube and go with only two neutrals being the 3” and 4” tubes as the 1-inch diameter is too small for optimum energy pick-up.
Please accept my apologies if the following suggestions for construction seem too basic and simple. The reason for this is that this document will be read by people whose first language is not English and who will find it much easier if plenty of detail is provided.

The first step is to construct the base plate, used to form the bottom of the container. Cut the largest diameter pipe to a 10-inch (250 mm) length. (If you have difficulty in marking the cutting line, try wrapping a piece of paper around it, keeping the paper flat against the tube and making sure that the straight edge of the paper aligns exactly along the overlap, then mark along the edge of the paper). Place the pipe on one of the end blanks and mark the blank around the bottom of the pipe. Cut the blank to form a circular plate which sits flush with the bottom of the tube:

The next step is to mount the innermost 2-inch (50 mm) diameter pipe rigidly to the base plate. Cut the pipe to an 8-inch (200 mm) length. The pipe mounting needs to be exactly in the centre of the plate and exactly at right angles to it. This is probably where the most accurate work needs to be done. To complicate matters, the mounting needs to be connected electrically outside the base, be fully insulated from the base plate, and make a completely watertight fit with the base plate. For that reason, the arrangement looks a little complicated. Start by drilling a three quarter inch (18 mm) hole in the centre of the base plate. Construct and fit two insulating washers so that a half-inch stainless steel bolt will fit through the base plate while being securely insulated from it. The washers are made from Ultra-High Molecular Weight Polyethylene (plastic food-chopping boards are usually made from this material):

The washers which fit into the hole in the base plate need to be slightly less than half the thickness of the plate so that they do not actually touch when clamped tightly against the base plate, as shown in the lower
part of the diagram. Cut another washer, using the full thickness of the plastic sheet. This will act as a spacer.

Next, the plinth for the central 2-inch diameter cylinder needs to be made. This is the only complicated component in the construction. It is possible to make this component yourself. The local university or technical college will often be willing to allow you to use their lathe and their staff will usually do the job for you or help you to do it yourself. Failing that, your local metal fabrication shop will certainly be able to do it for you. If all else fails and this equipment is just not available, then the ‘workarounds’ section below shows how to fabricate an alternative version which does not need a lathe.

A large piece of 316L stainless steel needs to be machined to produce the plinth shown below. The actual 2-inch diameter central cylinder needs to be a tight push-fit on the top of this component. To facilitate assembly, the central boss is given a slight chamfer which helps alignment when the tube is forced down on top of it. Peter Stevens recommends that tack welds (in stainless steel using a TIG welder) are used to connect the plinth to the outside of the cylinder. Three evenly-spaced vent holes are drilled in the plinth to allow the liquid inside the Cell circulate freely inside the central cylinder.

An alternative method of construction which does not call for such a large amount of machining is to machine the plinth to take a standard stainless steel bolt as shown here:
When assembled, the arrangement should look like this:
This arrangement looks more complicated than it really is. It is necessary to have a construction like this as we want to mount the innermost tube securely in a central vertical position, with the battery negative connected to the cylinder, by a connection which is fully insulated from the base plate and which forms a fully watertight seal with the base plate, and to raise the central cylinder about one inch (25 mm) above the base plate.

However, as the plastic washers would be affected by the heat when the base plate is joined to the outermost pipe, when all of the components shown have been prepared, they are taken apart so that the base plate can be fuse-welded to the outside tube. Unless you have the equipment for this, get your local steel fabrication workshop to do it for you. Be sure that you explain that it is not to be TIG welded, but fuse-welded and that the joint has to be fully watertight. At the same time, get them to fuse-weld a half-inch wide lip flush with the top edge of the tube. You cut this piece as a 6-inch (150 mm) circle with a 5-inch (125 mm) circular cut-out in the centre of it. When it is welded, it should look like this:

![Diagram showing the welding process and component connections.](image)
Cut a six-inch (150 mm) diameter lid out of 1/8 inch (3 mm) stainless steel. Cut a matching ring gasket of natural rubber (Buna-n material if natural rubber can’t be obtained), place it on top of the flange with the lid on top of it and clamp the lid firmly down on the flange. Drill a hole to take a 1/4 inch (6 mm) stainless steel bolt, through the lid and the middle of the flange. Insert a bolt and tighten its nut to further clamp the lid in place. An alternative to this for the more experienced metalworker, is to drill a hole slightly smaller than the bolt, and when all holes have been drilled, remove the lid, enlarge the lid holes to allow free passage of the bolts, and cut a thread inside the flange holes which matches the thread on the bolts to be used. This gives a very neat, nut-free result, but it calls for a greater skill level and more tools.

If using nuts and bolts, drill a similar hole 180 degrees away and fasten a bolt through it. Repeat the process for the 90 degree and 270 degree points. This gives a lid which is held in place at its quarter points. You can now complete the job with either four more evenly-spaced bolts or eight more evenly-spaced bolts. The complete bolting for the twelve-bolt choice will look something like this when the cell is installed:

The lid can be finished off by drilling its centre to take the fitting for the aluminium pipe which will feed the output from the cell to the engine. This fitting, in common with every other fitting must be made of stainless steel. Video at http://youtu.be/-7075bVmDQo.

The next step is to assemble the neutral pipes. Cut them to 8-inch (200 mm) lengths. These pipes are held in place by the natural rubber insulators. This material comes in an o-ring strip which is like a hosepipe with a large wall-thickness. The gap between the pipes will be approximately half an inch (12 mm), so cut each piece of pipe to a length which makes it a very tight fit in that gap. Cut six spacers, locate the 3-inch diameter pipe exactly over the inner pipe and push three of them between the pipes, about a quarter of an inch from each end and evenly spaced 120 degrees apart around the circumference of the pipes. The hole through the centre of the insulating strip points towards the centre of the cell and the ends of the insulator pieces press against the cylinder walls. These pieces are not placed lengthwise:

Place similar insulators at the other end of the two-inch pipe, directly above the ones already in place. If you look down the length of the tubes, then only three of the six insulators should be seen if they are correctly
aligned. The spacers will be more effective if the ends are given a thin layer of the Sikaflex 291 bedding compound before the ends get compressed against the cylinder walls.

Do the same for the four-inch pipe, pushing tightly squeezed natural rubber insulators strips between the three-inch and four-inch pipes. Place them directly outside the insulators between the two-inch and three-inch pipes so that when viewed from the end, it looks as if the rubber forms a single strip running through the middle pipe:

Spark off each of the cylinders in the inner assembly. This is done by connecting a 12V battery negative to the inside surface (only) at the bottom of the tube and with a wire from the battery positive, sparking the outside surface of the cylinder at the top of the tube. Give each four sparks in rapid succession.

If you are using a bolt rather than a machined spigot, insert the stainless steel bolt and washer through the bottom of the base to the central pipe. Wedge the bolt in place by inserting a piece of the dowel, or some similar material into the centre of the 2-inch pipe and tape it temporarily in place. Alternatively, force the innermost cylinder tightly over the machined plinth. Turn the inner pipe assembly upside down and place the full-depth UMWP plastic washer on the threaded shaft. Apply a thin layer of white Sikaflex 291 bonding compound to the face of one of the shaped UMWP washers and place it on the threaded shaft with the bonding compound facing upwards.

Carefully clean the surface of the base plate of the outer casing around the central hole, both inside and outside. Under no circumstances use sandpaper or wet-and-dry paper, here or anywhere else, as these abrade and score the surface of the steel and have a major negative effect on the operation of the Cell. Carefully lower the 5-inch outer casing on to the assembly so that the threaded shaft goes through the central hole and the shaped washer fits tightly into the hole in the base of the outer housing. Apply a thin layer of the bonding compound to the face of the second shaped washer, place it over the shaft of the bolt and press it firmly into place to completely seal the hole in the base plate. Add a stainless steel washer and bolt and tighten the bolt to lock the assembly together. If using a bolt, a long-reach box spanner may be needed inside the central pipe for tightening the locking bolt. If one is not available, use a longer bolt through the washers, screw a second nut up on to the shank of the bolt, file two flats on the end of the bolt, clamp them in a vice to hold the bolt securely and tighten the locking nut. When the spare nut is unscrewed, it pushes any damaged fragments of the bolt thread back into place.

Finish the assembly by adding three further rubber insulators between the top of the 4-inch tube and the outer 5-inch casing. Use a thin layer of Sikaflex 291 bonding compound on the cut faces of the insulators as this improves the insulation. Line the new insulators up with the insulators already in place and make them a tight fit. These extra insulators support the end of the tube assembly and reduce the stress on the plinth fitting at the base of the central tube when the unit is subjected to knocks and vibration when the vehicle is in motion.
The construction of the basic unit is now complete, with the exception of the lid fitting for the aluminium pipe which feeds the engine. The construction so far has been straightforward engineering with little complication, but the remaining steps in getting the Cell powering a vehicle are not conventional engineering. If you do not feel confident about this construction, then advice and help can be got from the experienced members at the Yahoo Group http://groups.yahoo.com/group/joecellfreeenergydevice/ or alternatively, the companion Group http://groups.yahoo.com/group/JoesCell2 both of which are very active.

**Getting the Cell working**

The Cell is not just the container and the inner tubes. A major active ingredient of the “Cell” is the liquid placed inside the container. To a casual glance, the liquid appears to be water and loosely speaking it is water. However, water is one of the least understood substances on the planet. It can have many different molecular configurations which give it widely different characteristics. For example, in one configuration, it will actually burn, but this “burning” is nothing like the burning experienced in an ordinary log fire. The water flame is not hot and it is quite possible to hold your hand just over the flame without feeling any heat from it.

We do not want to “burn” the liquid in the Cell. The “conditioned water”, for want of a better description, is not consumed when a Cell powers an engine. Instead, the engine is powered by external energy flowing into it. Here, the Cell acts like a lens, concentrating the external energy and focusing it to flow along the aluminium pipe to the engine. This action is not unlike the way in which a magnifying glass gathers and concentrates the sun's energy into a small area to raise the temperature there. The “conditioned water” in the cell, along with the materials and shapes in the Cell, cause the gathering and concentration of this external energy and channel it into the engine.

At this point in time, nobody knows for sure, what the energy is. Earlier, I called it the Zero-Point Energy field, but I have no direct evidence for that, some people call this energy “orgone”. Nobody knows exactly how this energy makes the engine run. Engines powered by this energy sound pretty much the same as when they are running on fossil fuels but they run a lot colder and it is usually necessary to advance the timing of the spark. These engines can tick over at a much lower rate than normal and they have much greater power than when running on fossil fuels. Bill Williams in America found that when he fitted a Joe Cell to his Ford pickup, the performance suddenly became like a Formula One racing car and very gentle use of the throttle was needed. He says:

“Over the summer, I used the truck to haul firewood for this winter's wood supply. I added 5 gallons of fuel to bring the fuel level to the half tank mark. I ran the truck with the cell which I installed a month earlier. Basically, I tried to forget about the cell being installed in the truck. The Ignition timing was set at about 25 degrees before TDC with no vacuum connect to the distributor. The fuel line was still connected so "shandy"
mode was being used. The surprising thing is that the truck did not use any fuel during the two and a half months of driving in the woods. In fact, when I parked the truck at the end of the wooding season, I physically sounded the fuel tank (it is a 'behind the seat' tank). It was still showing the half full mark. I pulled the cell for the winter and have it sitting on the bench waiting for spring to arrive for it to be installed again. I don't even pretend to understand this technology, but I keep hoping that someone will come up with a viable explanation of how the cell works.

Anyway, how do we get "conditioned water"? It can be generated inside the Cell, but as the conditioning process usually generates an unwanted residue on top of the water and on the bottom of the Cell, there is an advantage to do the conditioning in a separate container. If water conditioning is done in the Cell, then when the residue is removed, the Cell does not have the correct amount of water and needs to be topped up. That has to be done with non-conditioned water which promptly puts the Cell back to square one. So, use a separate conditioning vat which contains considerably more water than the Cell needs. In the documentary video produced by Peter and Joe, the conditioning procedure is described in some detail.

Joe explains that he conditions the water by suspending an electrode array in the water and applying 12 volts DC to it. Using the water found local to Joe, the current is initially about 10 amps and if left overnight the current drops to anywhere between 2 amps and 4 amps. This indicates that his local water contains a large amount of dissolved material since completely pure water will carry almost no current when 12 volts DC is placed across it. It is almost impossible to get pure water as so many things dissolve in it. Raindrops falling through the atmosphere pass through various gasses and some of these dissolve in the droplets. If the pollution in the atmosphere is particularly bad, then the rain can become acidic and this "acid rain" can rot the trees and vegetation on which it falls. Water on and in the ground, picks up chemical elements from nearly everything with which it comes in contact, so water, any water, needs treatment to reach its "conditioned" state.

Joe’s conditioning electrode array is made up from truncated stainless steel cones, positioned vertically above one another. Joe describes it as being made up from seven cones (not strictly true) with the central cone connected to the battery positive and the top and bottom cones connected to the battery negative. That leaves two unconnected cones positioned between the positive and each of the two outer negative cones. His array looks like this:

What Joe does not mention, but what can be seen in the video, is that there is an eighth cone cut-down and tack-welded in an inverted position underneath the bottom cone:
The inverted cone section appears to project underneath the rim of the bottom cone by an amount of about one inch (25 mm), or perhaps slightly less:

The electrical straps connecting to the cones are insulated to prevent contact with either the other cones or the inside of the metal drum which Joe uses to hold the water being ‘conditioned’. He says that if this array is suspended in a tank of water (his happens to be a vertical metal cylinder - a significant shape) and provided with 12 volt DC electrical power for a few minutes, then the water becomes ‘charged’ as he expresses it. Although the water is supposedly clean, Joe gets gas bubbles coming off the surface of the water. These will explode if lit, so it is very important that this process is carried out in the open air and there is no possibility of the gas ponding on a ceiling.

Joe states that the cleaner the water the better the result. Also, the longer the array is immersed and powered up, the better the result. It is likely that the shape of his powered array is causing the energy field to flow through his water in a concentrated fashion. The water absorbs this energy, and the effect increases with the length of time it is being conditioned, until a maximum level is reached. The objective is to achieve unusually pure water in one of its least usual molecular configurations. The overall procedure is as follows:

1. A vertical stainless steel cylinder, with an open top, is obtained and filled with water. Joe uses a steel beer keg but he selects the keg very carefully indeed from a very large choice of kegs, and then cuts the top off it. There is no need to have such a large container, or cones as large as the ones which Joe uses.

2. The array of cones is suspended vertically in the middle of the water and 12 volts applied to it. The Cell is most definitely not any form of electrolyser and should never be confused with one. An electrolyser
operates by breaking water down into hydrogen and oxygen gasses which are then used for combustion inside an engine, and it requires rapid and continuous replacement of the water which gets used up as the engine runs. The Joe Cell never operates in that way, instead it channels outside energy through to the engine and the water inside a Joe Cell is never used up by the engine running. However, in this conditioning process, some hydrogen and oxygen are produced as a side effect of the purification process. Consequently, the conditioning should be carried on out of doors to prevent any hydrogen ponding on the ceiling and forming an explosive mixture there. The more impure the water, the higher the current which flows and the greater the unwanted electrolysis of some of the water.

3. The procedure for applying the 12V supply to the conditioner electrodes is unusual. First, connect the negative supply, and only the negative supply. After 2 to 20 minutes, make the positive connection for just 2 or 3 minutes. A residue of impurities will form from this process. Some, being lighter than water, rise to the surface and form a layer there. Some being heavier than water, sink to the bottom. The surface residue is removed and the process repeated until a surface layer no longer forms. This may take 24 hours. The clean water from the middle section of the container is used to fill the Cell.

Many people are of the opinion that a current of about one amp should flow through the conditioning vat in the early stages of the process. If the current is much less than this, then it may take a considerable length of time to get the processing completed - possibly one or two weeks if the water needs a good deal of work done on it. The process can be speeded up by using higher voltage, 24 volts or 36 volts by adding extra batteries or using an electronics bench power supply. The water can also be pre-processed by placing it in a glass jar in an orgone accumulator for a day or two, but that process is outside the scope of this description.

As the impurities get ejected from the water by this process, the electrolysis element gets stifled progressively and as a consequence, the current drops. As completely pure, molecularly-reconfigured water is the goal, no additives of any kind are normally added to the water used to fill the Cell. However, if citric acid is used to clean the cylinders before assembly, there is no harm in allowing them to be assembled in the Cell with traces of the acid on them.

The Cell is filled to just under the level of the top of the inside tube array. This is very important as we need to have separate cylinders of water divided by the steel cylinders. If the water level is over the top of the cylinders, then the whole charging arrangement is destroyed. Further water conditioning inside the Cell may be needed as the cylinders also need to be conditioned. This is done with an easily removable cover replacing the lid of the Cell. The Cell should be kept covered while it undergoes its further conditioning and the lid only lifted briefly to examine the bubbles (unless a glass lid is used). The positive connection to the cell is made to the outside of the 5-inch cylinder and at the top of the cylinder. A length of copper wire tightened around the top of the cylinder is a convenient way to make the connection to the outside (and only the outside) of the cell. Place the cell on a wooden workbench or failing that, on a sheet of high-density plastic such as a chopping board. Connect the negative wire and wait two minutes before connecting the positive wire.

The Cell is ready for use, when it continues to produce surface bubbles for hours after the 12 volt DC power supply is removed from the Cell. The bubbles produced are not part of the energy-focusing process and are themselves unimportant, but they act as an indicator of the outside energy flowing through the Cell. When the Cell is running correctly, the flow of outside energy is sufficient to keep the water in its conditioned state without the need for any external electrical supply. It also maintains its own energy flow through the Cell. There is no point in proceeding any further until the Cell has reached its self-sustaining condition. If it is not happening for you, check out the information in the “workarounds” section below and if that does not get your Cell operational, ask for advice and assistance through the Yahoo groups mentioned above.

Some people concern themselves with the pH of the water. The pH really is not important as the cell will take up the correct pH as conditioning proceeds. A cell of the type described in this document, will have water which is very slightly acid with a pH of about 6.5, but it is not important to know this or to measure it. Do not put litmus paper in the cell water as that will contaminate the cell. Just rely on the action of the bubbles to determine how the cell conditioning is progressing.

Installing the Cell in the Vehicle

When the Cell has reached its self-sustaining condition, it can be mounted in the vehicle. The first step is to insulate the Cell from the engine components. This insulation is not just electrical insulation which is easily accomplished, but it is a case of introducing sufficient separation between the Cell and the engine to stop the
concentrated (invisible) energy leaking away instead of being fed to the engine through the aluminium tube. So, wrap the Cell walls in three layers of double-laminated hessian sacking ("burlap"), pulling it tightly around the 5-inch diameter outer tube. Tie (a minimum of) three wooden dowels along the length of the Cell and bend the mounting bracket around the dowels. The purpose of this is solely to ensure that there is at least a three quarter inch air gap between the walls of the Cell and everything else, including the mounting bracket:

The mounting details depend on the layout of the engine compartment. The really essential requirement is that the aluminium pipe running to the engine must be kept at least 4 inches (100 mm) away from the engine electrics, radiator, water hoses and air-conditioning components.

The last four inches or so, of the tube going to the engine cannot be aluminium as that would cause an electrical short-circuit between the (occasional) positive outer connection to the outside of the Cell and the engine itself which is connected to the battery negative. To avoid this, the final section of the pipe is made using a short length of clear plastic piping, forming a tight push-fit on the outside of the aluminium tube and on the connection to the intake of the engine’s carburettor. There should be a 3/4 inch (18 mm) gap between the end of the aluminium pipe and the nearest metal part of the carburettor. If it is just not possible to get an airtight fit on the intake to the carburettor and a hosepipe clamp has to be used, be sure that the fitting is non-magnetic stainless steel. If such a fitting cannot be found, then improvise one yourself, using only 316L grade stainless steel.
In the installation shown above, you will notice that the aluminium tube has been run well clear of the engine components. A vacuum gauge has been added but this is not necessary. For the early stages of installation, the aluminium pipe runs to the vacuum port of the carburettor but stops about 3/4 inch (20 mm) short of it, inside the plastic tubing. This method of connection is advisable for the initial setting up of the vehicle modification. At a later date, when the engine has been running with the Cell and is attuned to it, the Cell operates better if the pipe is connected to one of the bolt heads on the engine block, again using the plastic tube and a gap between the aluminium tube and the bolt head. Some people feel that a safety pressure-release valve with a safe venting arrangement should be used if the pipe feeding the engine, terminates on a bolt head. If it is still available, the http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DexBoYfDoNw video shows Bill Williams operating his Joe Cell.

**Getting the Vehicle Running and Driving Techniques**

The Joe Cell is not a ‘turnkey’ system. In other words, just building a Cell and installing it in the vehicle is not nearly enough to get the vehicle running without the use of a fossil fuel. Some adjustments need to be made to the timing and the engine has to become ‘acclimatised’ to the energy.

Mount the Cell in the engine compartment and connect the Cell to the battery negative. After two or three minutes, take a lead from the battery plus and touch it briefly to the lid of the Cell. This should produce a spark. Repeat this until four sparks have been produced. This ‘flashing’ process aligns the Cell electrically and directs the energy to flow in the direction of the metal which has been ‘flashed’.

**The next procedure is dangerous and should only be carried out with the greatest of care.** The engine crankshaft also needs to be ‘flashed’ four times. This is carried out with the engine running and so can be hazardous - take extreme care not to get caught up in the moving parts. Connect the lead from the battery positive to the shaft of a long-handled screwdriver and keep your hands well clear. The procedure is to get a helper to start the engine, then arc the current to the exposed pulley on the crankshaft (where timing adjustments are made). There should be a total of four sparks to the crankshaft in a period of about one second.

Next, for three or four seconds, flash along the length of the aluminium pipe. This encourages the energy to flow along the pipe, reinforcing the natural attraction between aluminium and this energy. Remove the wire coming from the battery positive as the Cell operates with only the negative side of the battery connected (remember that this is NOT electrolysis and the cell just directs the unseen energy into the engine).

Mark the present position of the distributor cap. Loosen the bolt holding it in place and rotate it to advance the timing by 10 degrees. Disconnect the fuel to the carburettor (do not use an electrically operated valve for this). The engine will continue to run on the fuel left in the carburettor and the engine will start to cough. Turn the distributor cap a further 20 degrees (that is now a total of 30 degrees from its original position) and have your helper use the starter motor to assist the engine to keep turning.

Rotate the distributor cap to further advance the spark until the engine starts to run smoothly. There will be a gasping sound and the engine will slow nearly to a stop, then it will pick up again and then slow down. The action is wave-like, something like breathing. Fine-tune the timing to get the smoothest running and then fasten the distributor cap in place. Do not touch the Cell, but leave it undisturbed. You are now ready to drive away in a vehicle which is not using any fossil fuel.

The procedure described here may not end successfully as just described. Some cars are more difficult to get operating on a Cell than others. Experience helps enormously when getting the vehicle started for the first time. Joe mentions in the video that it has taken him a couple of days of sustained effort to get a particular car going for the first time, which is quite something considering that he has years of experience and has got many vehicles and Cells operational.

When the vehicle has been run and is operating correctly on the Cell, it is time to make the final adjustment to the set-up. For this, the pipe connection to the vacuum inlet of the carburettor is moved from there to terminate on a bolt head on the engine block. The Cell works best when completely sealed off from the air in the engine compartment and as no gas is actually being moved from the Cell to the engine, there is no need for any kind of connection to the carburettor. If the engine is a V-type, then the bolt head chosen should be one in the valley of the V, otherwise, any convenient bolt head on the head of the engine block will be satisfactory. Don’t forget that the connecting pipe must still be kept well clear of the engine’s electrical leads and other fittings as described earlier. Also, the 3/4 inch (18 mm) gap between the end of the aluminium pipe and the top of the bolt head must be maintained inside the clear plastic tube, and the pipe fitting should
remain airtight. A slight timing adjustment may be necessary with the new connection in order to get the very best running.

The energy which powers the engine has a tendency to run along magnetic fields. Driving under high voltage overhead power lines can position the vehicle in an area where the energy level is not sufficient to maintain the energy flow through the Cell. If the energy flow through the Cell is disrupted, then it is likely to stop functioning. If this were to happen, then the Cell would have to be set up again in the same way as for a newly built Cell which has never been used before. This can be avoided by attaching an AA ("penlight") dry cell battery across the Cell with the battery plus going to the lid of the Cell. A battery of this type has such a high internal resistance and so little current capacity that no significant electrolysis will take place on the very pure conditioned water in the Cell. But the battery will have the effect of maintaining the integrity of the Cell if it is temporarily moved away from its source of power.

**Suppliers**

Sheets of nitrile rubber NB70 ("Buna-n"): http://www.holbourne.co.uk  
Nylon rod: http://www.holbourne.co.uk  
Stainless steel tubing: http://www.stabarn.co.uk  
A4 Bolts (316 S31 stainless): http://www.a2a4.co.uk

**Workarounds**

If it is not possible to get pipes of the desired diameters, then they can be made up by rolling stainless steel sheet and using a TIG welder with completely inert gas, to tack weld at each end and in the middle of each cylinder. Don’t weld along the full length of the join unless it is the 5-inch outer casing.

If it is found to be particularly difficult to make the four circular cuts in 1/8 inch (3 mm) steel using hand tools, then I would suggest using a plasma cutter. Make a template to guide the cutting head and clamp it securely in place. You can hire the cutter and compressor quite cheaply as you will only need them for a very short time. If they are not given to you as a pair and you have to select each from a range, take the smallest cutter and a twin-cylinder compressor rated at nearly double the input quoted for the cutter. This is because the cutter is rated by the volume of compressed air, and the compressors are rated by the volume of their uncompressed air intake as that sounds more impressive.

If no lathe is available for machining the base plinth for the central cylinder, then take a piece of 16-gauge stainless steel sheet and cut the plinth out of it as shown below. Bend the projecting tags upwards by holding each tag in the end of the jaws of a vise and tapping the body section square, with a flat-faced hammer and if you consider it necessary, tack-weld the top of the tags to the outside of the central cylinder to give rigidity to the mounting. Extreme heat such as is generated by welding or cutting tends to create permanent magnetism in any ferrous metal being heated, so avoid high temperature operations such as welding wherever possible. If a tight push-fit can be obtained with the base of the 2-inch cylinder, then I suggest that the optional spot welds are omitted.
If tack-welded cylinders have to be used, then it is usually best to line all of the seams up as the seam area does not work as well as the remainder of the tube, so if the seams are all aligned, then there is only one small line in the Cell which is not operating at its optimum value.

Cylinders are best aligned in the same direction. This sounds odd as they are physically symmetrical. However, these cylinders will be used to channel an energy field and each cylinder has a direction along which the energy flows best. To find this, stand all of the tubes upright in a tight group on a table. Leave them for a minute and then place your hand on top of the whole set. If any tube feels hotter than the others, then it is out of energy alignment with the rest and should be inverted. Repeat this test until no tube feels hotter than the rest.

An alternative way to do this test is to use a pair of L-rods. These can be made from two short lengths of rigid black polythene tubing often found in garden centres for use in garden irrigation. This tubing has 1/8 inch internal diameter and so takes 1/8” brass welding rod very nicely. The welding rods should be bent with a radius as shown here:

The curved bend in the brass welding rod helps to prevent the rod fouling the top of the plastic tube handle and it allows free rotation of the brass rod. It is essential that the rod can move completely freely in the handle. If two of these are made up, they can be used to check the cylinders before they are assembled for insertion into the Cell. Place a tube standing vertically on a table well away from all other objects (especially magnetic and electrical items). Hold an L-rod handle in each hand so that the rods are parallel in front of you. The rods must be exactly horizontal so as to avoid any tendency for them to turn under the influence of gravity. Approach the cylinder. The rods should either move towards each other or away from each other as the cylinder is approached.

Repeat this procedure at least three times for each cylinder so as to be sure that a reliable result is being obtained. Invert any cylinder if necessary, so that every cylinder causes the rods to move in the same direction. Then assemble the Cell, maintaining that alignment of the cylinders during the assembly.

If you are having difficulty in getting the Cell operational, then try striking and sparking the cylinders again. This is done as follows:
1. Take a 12V lead-acid battery and position it so that it's negative terminal is pointing towards East and it's positive terminal is pointing towards West (i.e. at right angles to the Earth's magnetic field).
2. Attach a lead from the battery negative to the outside of the base of the tube.
3. Lay the tube on a table and strike it with a hammer along its length. If the tube has a seam, then strike the tube along the length of the seam.
4. Connect a lead to the positive terminal of the battery and spark the inside of the top of the tube. It is essential to spark each tube if they have been polished. It is better not to polish any of the tubes.
5. Repeat this procedure for each tube.

9 - 51
If you consider it necessary to clean the cylinders, then, considering the lengths you went to remove all of the things dissolved in the water, be sure to avoid using any kind of chemical or solvent. You can electro-clean them by using the following procedure:

Starting with the largest cylinder;

1. Put the battery positive on the inside of the top of the cylinder, and the negative on the outside at the bottom, and leave them in place for one minute.

2. Put the negative on the inside of the top of the cylinder, and the positive on the outside at the bottom, and leave them in place for one minute.

3. Repeat step 1: Put the battery positive on the inside of the top of the cylinder, and the negative on the outside at the bottom, and leave them in place for one minute.

Do this for all cylinders, working inwards.

It has been suggested that an improved method of conditioning water to fill the Cell can be achieved if pulsed DC is used instead of straight DC from a battery. This has not been proven but there is a reasonable amount of information to suggest that this is likely. The following, most unusual circuit, has been suggested, but it must be stressed that it is untried and anybody who is unfamiliar with working with electronics should not attempt to construct or use this circuit without the assistance of a person who is experienced in building and using mains equipment.

This is a most unusual circuit. A 12V step-down mains transformer provides 12V AC which is taken through a limiting resistor and a zener diode which would not normally be connected as shown. The really odd thing is that the circuit which contains the secondary of the transformer appears not to be connected. The expected output from this very odd circuit is pulsing DC of odd waveform, all of which is positive relative to the ground connection, which is a literal, physical connection to an earthing rod driven into the ground.

Notes:

Engines running while powered by a Joe Cell act in a somewhat different manner. They can idle at a very low number of revs per minute, the power available on acceleration is much greater than normal and they appear to be able to rev very much higher than ever before without any difficulty or harm.

The type of Cell described in this document was built by Bill Williams in the USA with the help and assistance of Peter Stevens of Australia. Bill describes his first driving experience with his 1975 F 250, 360 cu. in. (5.9 litre) Ford pickup:

Well, all I can say is "who needs an Indy car when you can drive an old FORD" – WOW!!!! The first five miles after leaving home were wild. I had to be extremely careful on how I pressed the accelerator. I gingerly crept up to 45 mph and that was with moving the pedal maybe half and inch. The throttle response was very crisp or touchy. With about a 1/8" of movement the next thing I new I was close to 80 mph. If I lifted off ever so slightly on the throttle, it felt like I was putting the brakes on and the speed would drop down to 30 mph or so. "Very erratic". If I barely even touched or bumped the pedal it felt like I had pushed a nitrous oxide booster button. WOW !!!
As stated earlier, the first 5 miles were wild and things started to change. The engine started to buck or surge with very large rpm changes and literally threw me against my seat belt. It got so bad I just took my foot completely off the pedal and rode the brakes to stop the truck. The truck left skid marks on the pavement every time the engine surged in rpm. Well anyway, I manage to get it stopped and shut it off with the ignition key - thank GOD!

I retarded the timing, turned the gasoline back on, crossed my fingers and hit the ignition key, and the engine took right off, revving to maybe 4,000 rpm and then gradually decreased to 700 rpm. I took a deep breath and put it into drive and the truck responded close to normal again. I made it into work a little late, but late is better than never the way I see it. After working during the day at the job and thinking what I could do to stop this erratic rpm oscillation, I decided to disable the cell and drive home on gas. WOW!!!

Peter Stevens states that the main reason for the erratic behaviour of the Cell was due to outside air leaking into the Cell, and he stresses that Cells need to be completely airtight. It is also clear that the timing was not set in the correct position. All properly built Cells give enhanced engine power.

**Water Conditioning:**

Note: With the Cell design shown later, no water conditioning is needed. Please be aware that water quality and purity varies enormously from place to place. One experienced cell builder says: I use water taken from the start of rivers. Further down the river, the water will have encountered influences which are not helpful. My favourite water catchment area well is outside Melbourne, Australia, where there are no roads, power lines, dams, pipes or any man made intrusions, the water flows how and where it wants to in natural, twisty downhill paths it has created, the whole area is green all year round and you can feel the vitality and Nature at work.

This water has a pH of 6.5. That means it is slightly acidic, and perfect for Joe Cells. I bring this water home making sure that I protect it from excessive sloshing and the heat of the sunlight whilst in the car. At home, I store it in 20 litre Pyrex bottles. Do not store it in plastic containers even if the container is marked "suitable for water". Earthenware or wood containers would also be very suitable.

I make an electrolyte solution by dissolving 500 grams of food-grade phosphoric acid and 100 grams of sodium perborate, in three litres of de-ionised water or distilled water. Just a few drops of this solution will provide a current of 1 amp at 12 volts in the conditioning vat. An alternative is to use a 90% acetic acid solution which has no stabiliser in it.

When conditioning the water in the cell, you will need a lid, or some way of sealing of the cell from air. A lid loosely sitting on top of your test jar is sufficient. The seeding and breeding process is hampered by having too great an area of the top of the cell being exposed to air. All lids are not the same as regards to being a obstruction to orgone. If the lid does not seem to be working, place a layer of aluminium foil underneath the lid and use the foil and lid as one unit.

The aim is to modify the conductivity of the water by the addition of acid, so as to get a suitable current flow. If we used de-ionised water with a pH of 7.0, we would have a very low current flow for our electrolysis, and would have to add something to increase the conductivity of the water if we wanted observable results in a short period of time. As we lower the pH, the current flow and electrolysis process will increase together with a heat increase.

We are trying to achieve electrolysis action with the minimum heat generation. As the propagation of orgone is reasonably slow, there is not much to be achieved with excessive current. Slow and steady does it. For the patient experimenter or one that is using neat water, i.e. water without electrolyte, excellent results are achieved with currents as low as 50 milliamps.

The procedure is:

1. Place your cell on a wooden work bench or on a sheet of plastic type material or, as a last resort, on a newspaper. We are trying to insulate the cell from metal paths that may impede the seeding process. Keep the cell well away from electrical sources such as a television set, refrigerator, electric cooker, etc.

2. With a multimeter, measure the resistance between the innermost and the outermost cylinders of your cell. It should be in the high Megohm range. If not, the insulators are conductive or there is a short-circuit. Check for a short-circuit and if there is none, remove the insulators and reassemble the set,
checking the resistance between the innermost and outermost cylinders as each cylinder is added. The resistance between every pair of cylinders should be very high.

3. When all is okay in the above step, fill the cell using a funnel containing a paper coffee filter. Fill it only to a level just under the top of the cylinders and no more. The effect that we want to create is a set of water cells separated by metal cylinders. These are your alternate organic and inorganic chambers. Of course, the submerged section of you chambers are flooded, but with this simple cell, the top will be doing all the work. This is why the cylinders should be completely horizontal and true at the top, otherwise the meniscus formed by the water would not work and the water would flow from compartment to compartment. This level is only critical during the seeding process, as we require maximum orgone capture to seed the cell. Naturally, with a charged cell, the water is sloshing all over the place whilst you are driving the car.

4. Turn on the power supply, and if it is adjustable, set it to 12 volts. Connect the negative end of your power source to one end of your meter that is set up to read a minimum of 2 amps and connect the other end of the meter to the bottom of the central cylinder. Wait for two minutes and then connect the positive end of your power source to the top of the outer cylinder. What you have done is set up the meter to read any current flow into your cell from the power source.

At this stage, if your water is close to a pH of 7, as previously discussed, the current flow will be zero, or in the low milliamp region. If the current flow is amps, then you are doing something wrong! It is impossible to pass a huge current through ordinary pure water when using 12 volts. Think about it. To draw even 1 amp at 12 volts, the resistance of the water would have to be 12 ohms! No way! You are doing something wrong. Correct the problem and then move on.

5. Presuming that the current is only milliamps, you now want to introduce electrolyte to increase the current flow through the water. The aim is to get a current flow of about one amp. To do this, drip a small amount of your chosen electrolyte into the cell water whilst stirring and watching the current measurement. Use a glass, Perspex or wooden dowel rod as the stirrer - do not use your handy paint-stirring screw driver! Throw away the stirrer when finished as it will have absorbed some of the cell contents. Do plenty of gentle stirring of the water as you add the electrolyte, otherwise you will add too much electrolyte. Stop adding electrolyte when the meter indicates 1 amp. Your water level may rise as a consequence of the addition of electrolyte. Remove some water from your cell. I use a pipette, so as not to disturb the cell. Remove enough water to again just expose the top of the cylinders. At this stage, disconnect your meter and power source and have a bit of a clean up as the next stages are guided by observation.

The charging process is separated into three distinct stages which are called Stages 1, 2 and 3. These stages have both some obvious differences and some subtle ones. For the rest of the charging process, you will be only connecting your power source to the cell for a maximum of 5 minutes at a time. As orgone lags electricity by about 30 seconds, you will know the state of the cell in less than a minute. Do not be tempted to leave the power connected to the cell for long periods! Yes, I know that you are in a hurry and more is better, but in this case you only generate heat, steam, waste power and overheat the cell. You can pick the failures by seeing their cells running non-stop for days with 20 or more amps turning the water to steam, etching the cylinders and ending up with a barrel full of scum. What else would you expect? After all, electrolysis is time and current related. If you have had the misfortune of having your cell left on for a long period with high current, you have probably destroyed your cylinders. You cannot retrieve the situation so throw the cell away and start again! I bet you don't do it next time!

**Danger:** Do not charge any cell that is totally sealed! The cell will explode, with all the resulting consequences. An airtight seal is not required! At no stage do I prescribe any form of airtight container.

**Stage 1:** This stage is plain old electrolysis. Due to passing direct current through a liquid which contains ions, chemical changes will occur. In our case, you will see small bubbles and a cloud of activity that is greater nearest the outside of the innermost negative cylinder. The important observation points are that the activity is greatest nearest the central cylinder and gets progressively less as we move outward via the different chambers formed by the rest of the cylinders. Also, within a short period of turning the power off, all activity stops, the water becomes clear and the bubbles disappear.

Every fool and his dog can reach Stage 1. The secret for progressing further is to restrain your impatience and not increasing the electrolyte concentration to raise the current (and/or leaving the cell on for days on end). Be patient, leave the cell on for no longer than 5 minutes, turn the power source off, remove the leads to the cell, and put the top on the test cell, or partially block off the exit of the car cell. It does not have to be
Stage 2: You will now notice on your initial powering up of the cell, that the bubbles are getting larger and the white cloud of tiny bubbles in the water are much smaller or more transparent. Also in Stage 1, you had the action occurring mainly near the central cylinder. Now the bubbles form in a regular fashion irrespective of their location in the cell. More importantly, on turning the power off from the cell, the bubbles do not go away immediately but stay there for minutes rather than seconds as in Stage 1. Also, the top of the water assumes a glazed look and the meniscus is higher due to a change in the surface tension of the water. At this stage you may have some brownish material amongst your bubbles. Don’t panic - it is only the impurities being removed from the cell. I find that if I wipe the top surface of the water with a paper towel, the bubbles and the deposit will adhere to the paper and can be removed easily. Top up the cell with water from your charging vat, if required, after the cleaning, so that again, the top edges of the cylinders are just showing. No more electrolyte is added! In cleaning the top of the cell as described, it has been observed that some people react unfavourably with the cell. If so, keep that person away, or if it is you, try changing your hand i.e. use your right hand instead of your left or vice versa. If the presence of your hand seems to collapse the surface bubbles, I would suggest you get a friend to do the work for you.

Summary of Stage 2: The result is very similar to Stage 1, but now we have a more even bubble distribution and an increase of surface tension and a longer presence of the bubbles when the power is turned off. There will be no scum in the bottom of the cell and the water will be crystal clear. At this stage the orgone has seeded the cell, but as yet, it is not “breeding”, that is, the orgone concentration is not yet great enough to attract additional orgone flow to itself. With the right cell, water and operator, it is possible to go straight to Stage 3 on the first turn on of a new cell.

Stage 3: Not many people get to this stage, or what is worse, get here incorrectly. If you get here following the above steps, your water is still crystal clear with no deposits in the sump. If you get here by brute force, you will have stripped appreciable amounts of material from the cylinders and this material will now be deposited on the insulators and suspended in the water as tiny particles which never settle out, and finally, the material will form a deposit at the bottom of the cell. The low resistance insulators and the metallic particles in the water will create a cell which leaks orgone and consequently it will cause endless mysterious car stoppages or refusals of the car to start.

Right, the miracle of Nature is now breeding in your cell. Upon turning your power on to the cell, within 30 seconds copious beautiful white bubbles will rise from all the surface area of the cell. Before these bubbles cover the water surface, you will notice a slowly rotating and pulsing front in all cylinders, that is synchronised and has a regular rhythm of about 2 pulses per second and a clockwise rotation speed of about 1 revolution every 2 seconds. These effects are very hard to observe for a first time viewer who does not know what to look for. I find it easier to watch these effects with the aid of a fluorescent light, as the 100 cycles per second pulsations of the light “strobe” the water surface and help the observation.

The bubbles may overflow the container and show great surface tension. One of the definite proofs that the cell is breeding is that, on turning the power source off and coming back the next day, most of the bubbles will still be on top of the water as opposed to Stage 1 or Stage 2 where they disappear in minutes. There is no way that you can mistake this stage. The bubbles are larger and pure white, the surface tension is greater, the bubbles are pulsating and most importantly the surface tension remains days after the power has been removed.

I do not recommend any additional tests or measurements. But for those who are incapable of leaving things be, they may measure the voltage across the cell after it has been left standing with the power off for at least 24 hours. A Stage 3 cell will have a residual voltage, or more correctly, a self-generated voltage of around 1 volt. A Stage 1 cell measured under similar conditions will read 0.1 to 0.2 volts. Remember, that unless you know what you are doing, these voltage measurements can be very misleading due to probe materials and battery effects that can easily mask your true measurement. As the cell reaches the maximum density of orgone that it can hold, the result of the breeding process is the conversion of this excess orgone into the formation of electricity. As such, electrical measurement with the correct instruments is a very valuable method in the verification of the efficiency of the cell. If you are conversant with the work of William Reich, you may care to make an orgone meter and thus remove all guesswork. This meter is fully described on some web sites.
I do not recommend any form of bubble exploding. As noted earlier, noise and vibration are orgone-negative. Therefore, these explosions applied during the delicate seeding period will kill your cell. Apart from a dead cell, the chance of fire igniting other gasses in the workshop and injuries to the ears etc. makes this exercise highly unnecessary. I must admit that I too fell for the "go on, ignite it!" feeling. I had a cell that had been at Stage 3 for seven months. It was my favourite test cell. My hands and matches fought my brain and they won. There was a huge "ear-pulling, implosion/ explosion", and yes, I killed the cell. It went back to Stage 2 for four days. I will not do it again.

As all water we are using so far has been electrolysed, this water is not suitable for use in non-stainless steel or glass containers due to reaction with the container and the resultant corrosion, but if you have to, or want to, you can use juvenile water with no electrolyte added and still charge it to Stage 3. As the ion count is much lower, the water is not as conductive, i.e. you cannot get as much current flow with 12 Volts as you would if you electrolysed the water. However, if you obtain a power supply of approximately 60 to 100 Volts at about 1 Amp, you will be able to charge "plain old ordinary water". The down side is the additional waiting, in some cases, over 3 weeks, and the cost of the fairly expensive power supply. The advantage is that you will be able to pour it into the radiator of a car with no increase in corrosion as compared to water containing acids.

Do not at any stage short circuit, i.e. join any of the cell cylinders to each other electrically with your charging leads, wedding ring, etc. If you do, the cell will "die"! Your only option, if this occurs, is to connect the cell to your power source and see if you are still running at Stage 3. If the cell does not revert to running in Stage 3 mode within 1 minute, your only option is to completely dismantle the cell and re-clean and re-charge. Huh???, you are kidding us, right?? No, I am serious, that is your only option! So do not do it, do not short out your cell! You will have similar, but not as severe problems if you reverse your leads to the cell.

When the cell is running at Stage 3, you can tip the charged water out of the cell into a glass container and clean, adjust or maintain your now empty cell. Try to keep all cylinders in the same relation that they were in before you dismantled the cell, i.e. keep all cylinders the same way round and in the same radial alignment. This is mainly relevant when dismantling cells over 6 months old as the metal parts develop a working relationship that can be weakened or destroyed by careless re-assembly.

When finished, pour the charged water back and you are back in business. Of course you can pour this charged water into other cells, or use it as you see fit, but, remember, do not leave it out of the cell for periods longer than 1 hour at a time as the breeding has now stopped and you are slowly losing charge.

**Troubleshooting**

It is usually quite difficult to get an engine running from a Joe Cell. Many people find it difficult to get their Cell breeding ("at Stage 3"). The following suggestions from various experienced people who have succeeded are as follows:

1. The metal construction of the Cell needs to be of stainless steel and nothing else. Using copper or brass, even for something as simple as the connector between the Cell and the aluminium tube running to the engine is sufficient to cause serious problems as the energy is not directed to the engine and just leaks away sideways.

2. The water is best charged in a separate vat which has a larger capacity than the Cell itself. That way, when the Cell is being conditioned and scum removed from the surface of the water, the cell can be topped up with charged water from the vat. If, instead, ordinary, uncharged water is used, then the whole process is liable to be put right back to square one.

3. Be very sure that the mounting in the engine compartment is electrically insulated from the engine and chassis and be sure that there is serious clearance between the Cell and everything else. Also, the aluminium pipe running to the engine must be kept at least four inches (100 mm) clear of the main engine components. Otherwise, the energy which should be running the engine, will leak away sideways and not reach the engine.

4. It can take up to a month to get a steel engine acclimatised to a Cell. Run the engine as a "shandy" where fossil fuel is still used but the Joe Cell is also attached. This usually gives greatly improved mpg, but more importantly, it is getting the engine metal and cooling water ‘charged’ up ready for use with the Joe Cell alone. Once per week, try advancing the timing and see how far it can be advanced before the
engine starts to ping. When the timing gets to a 20 or 30 degree advance, then it is time to try running
on the Joe Cell alone.

5. Finally, having conditioned the Cell, the water, the engine and the coolant, if there is still difficulty, then it is
probably worth conditioning yourself. Both the idea and the procedure sound like they have come from
Harry Potter’s classes in Hogwarts School of Witchcraft and Wizardry. However, there is a serious
scientific basis behind the method. Use of the Bedini battery-pulsing devices shows that lead/acid
batteries act as a dipole for Radiant Energy. Also, the energy flow which powers the Cell appears to
move from West to East. Bearing those two facts in mind, makes the following rather bizarre procedure
seem slightly less peculiar:

(a) Get a car battery and position it so that it’s terminals line up East/West with the negative terminal towards
the East and the positive terminal towards the West (along the main energy flow line)

(b) Stand on the North side of the battery, facing South.

(c) Wet the fingers of your right hand and place them on the battery’s negative terminal (which is on your left
hand side).

(d) Keep your fingers on the terminal for two minutes.

(e) Wet the fingers of your left hand. Place your left arm under your right arm and place the fingers of your
left hand on the positive terminal of the battery. Do not allow your arms to touch each other.

(f) Keep the fingers of your left hand on the positive terminal for three minutes.

(g) Remove your left fingers from the positive terminal, but keep the fingers of your right hand on the
negative terminal for another 30 seconds.

This procedure is said to align your body with the energy flow and make it much easier for you to get a Cell
to “Stage 3” or to get a vehicle engine running. In passing, some people who suffer continuing painful
medical conditions state that they have got considerable pain relief from this procedure.

Recent Joe Cell Developments.
One of the greatest problems with using a Joe Cell has been to get it operational. The reason for this has
probably been due to the lack of understanding of the background theory of operation. This lack is being
addressed at this time and a more advanced understanding of the device is being developed. These design
dimensions cause ordinary tap water to go immediately to the fully functional “Stage 3” and remain in that
state indefinitely, the only way of stopping the Cell is to physically take it apart.

While it is still rather early to draw hard and fast conclusions, a number of results indicate that there are
three separate, unrelated dimensions which are of major importance in constructing a properly “tuned” Joe
Cell. It needs to be stressed that these measurements are very precise and construction needs to be very
accurate indeed, with one sixteenth of an inch making a major difference.

The dimensions are specified to this degree of accuracy as they represent the tuning of the Cell to the
frequency of the energy which is being focussed by the Cell. The fact that there are three separate
dimensions, suggests to me that there are probably three components of the energy field, or possibly, three
separate energy fields.

These three dimensions have been assigned names and are as follows:

Golden dimension: 1.89745" (48.195 mm)
Blue dimension: 3.458" (87.833 mm)
Diamagnetic dimension: 0.515625" (13.097 mm)

It is suggested that a Joe Cell should be constructed with cylinder heights which are a multiple of either the
‘Golden’ or ‘Blue’ length. Also, the water height inside the container should be below the tops of the inner
cylinders and be a multiple of the basic length chosen for construction. The inner cylinders should be
positioned the ‘Diamagnetic’ dimension above the base of the Cell. They should also be constructed from
stainless steel of thickness 0.06445” (1.637 mm, which is very close to 1/16") and there should be a
horizontal “Diamagnetic” gap between all of the vertical surfaces.
The inner cylinders should be constructed from stainless steel sheet which is tack welded at the top and bottom of the seam, and all of the seams should be exactly aligned. The lid should be conical and sloped at an angle of 57°, with its inner surface matching the inner surface of the housing and the inner surface of the outlet pipe. The outer casing should not have any dome-headed fasteners used in its construction. The length of the outlet pipe should be made of aluminium and should be 15.1796" (385 mm) for 'Golden' height cylinders or 20.748" (527 mm) for 'Blue' height cylinders. That is 8H for Golden and 6H for Blue and should there be a need for a longer pipe, then those lengths should be doubled or tripled as the single dimensions no longer apply (this being a fractal effect). At this point in time, these are only suggestions as the science has not yet been firmly established. One possible arrangement is shown here.

A suggested Joe Cell design is shown below. This diagram shows a cross-section through a Joe Cell with four inner concentric stainless steel tubes. These tubes are positioned 0.515625 inches (13.097 mm) above the bottom of the Cell and the gap between each of the tubes (including the outer casing) is exactly that same 'Diamagnetic' resonant distance.
It should be clearly understood that a Joe Cell has the effect of concentrating one or more energy fields of the local environment. At this point in time we know very little about the exact structure of the local environment, the fields involved and the effects of concentrating these fields. Please be aware that a Joe Cell which is properly constructed, has a definite mental/emotional effect on people near it. If the dimensions are not correct, then that effect can be negative and cause headaches, but if the dimensions are correct and the construction accurate, then the effect on nearby humans is beneficial.

"Golden" Values for $H$
- 1.89745" (48.495 mm)
- 3.7949" (96.391 mm)
- 5.69235" (144.586 mm)
- 7.5898" (192.781 mm)
- 9.48725" (240.796 mm)
- 11.3847" (289.171 mm)
- 13.28215" (337.667 mm)
- 15.1796" (385.562 mm)
- 30.3592" (770.124 mm)

"Blue" Values for $H$
- 3.450" (87.933 mm)
- 6.916" (175.666 mm)
- 10.374" (263.500 mm)
- 13.832" (351.333 mm)
- 17.290" (439.166 mm)
- 20.748" (527 mm)
- 41.496" (1054 mm)

Outlet pipe

Conical lid with 57° slope

Tube thickness 0.06445" (1.637 mm)

Teflon spacer

0.515625" (13.097 mm)

0.25"

9 - 59
It should be pointed out that Joe Cells will be constructed with the materials which are readily to hand and not necessarily those with the optimum dimensions. If picking stainless steel sheet which is not the suggested optimum thickness, then a thinner, rather than a thicker sheet should be chosen. In case the method of calculating the diameters and circumferences of the inner cylinders is not already clear, this is how it is done:

For the purposes of this example, and not because these figures have any particular significance, let’s say that the steel sheet is 0.06" thick and the outer cylinder happens to be 4.95" in diameter and it is 0.085" thick. People wanting to work in metric units can adjust the numbers accordingly where 1" = 25.4 mm.

Then, the inner diameter of the outside cylinder will be its outer diameter of 4.95", less the wall thickness of that cylinder (0.08") on each side which works out to be 4.79".

As we want there to be a gap of 0.516" (in practical terms as we will not be able to work to an accuracy greater than that), then the outside diameter of the largest of the inner cylinders will be twice that amount smaller, which is 3.758":

And, since the material of the inner cylinder is 0.06" thick, then the inner diameter of that cylinder will be 0.12" less as that thickness occurs at both sides of the cylinder, which works out to be 3.838":

The length of stainless steel needed to form that cylinder will be the circumference of the outer diameter of 3.758" which will be 3.758" x 3.1415926535 = 11.806 inches.

The dimensions of the other inner cylinders are worked out in exactly the same way, bearing in mind that every steel thickness is 0.06". The results for three inner cylinders would then be:
**Comments from an expert in July 2012:**

That information is really ancient history and it was Dave’s best guess at optimising a cell at that time. Later testing left us disappointed with the ‘Blue’ lengths, however the ‘Golden’ lengths make a very nice cell, but not one which is particularly good with an internal combustion engine but one which is better as a learning tool, or for use in healing.

We are into an entirely different approach now, one which entails introducing specific vibrations into the cell. An optimum implementation involves cutting each tube to a specific length so as to make it self-exciting, but that’s not necessary because the frequencies can be introduced just using a caliper, or a precise length of metal touched against the tubes in a sequence. Since this approach was totally different from traditional Joe Cell work, we set up a discussion group specifically for it: http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/vibrational_combustion_technology/

The nice thing about this approach is that it’s ultra stable. Once the vibration is set up the only way to stop it is to take the cell apart. This construction method totally eliminates the human influence factor problem! In fact, a cell can affect the engine even without there being water in the cell. Another nice thing about it is the mathematical design process is implemented in a couple of spreadsheets. My thinking at this time, is that we now need to incorporate specific engine parameters into the design to tune the cell to a particular engine.

We have been a bit sidetracked lately and have been working a lot on the healing aspects of Torsion fields: http://groups.yahoo.com/group/awaken_to_vibration/ but I hope to get back into engine testing soon.

**Advances in 2011.** In an effort to develop a device to emulate the function of a Joe cell without it’s inherent stability issues, Dave Lowrance came up with the idea of a set of 3 concentrically-wound torsion field coils. In early testing it has become apparent that a field is being generated, as demonstrated by their effect on two test engines, even with no power being applied to the coils.

This is the very early stage of the investigation so this initial design is being released with the hope that others will wind and test similar coils and report their results to the appropriate groups, so that we can learn more about them through further experimenting on a variety of different engines.

The initial set of coils were wound on 7/8” (22 mm) diameter stainless steel tubing which happened to be to hand. The use of stainless steel is not significant and two successful replications have used half-inch (12 mm) PVC plastic pipe, as using a non-ferrous material is the main requirement.

The wire diameter has an effect and while 20 gauge (0.812 mm diameter) enamelled copper wire was used for the coils shown here, coils wound with 12 gauge (2.05 mm diameter) copper wire work much better and it is now thought that the weight of copper in the winding is important.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diameter</th>
<th>Circumference</th>
<th>Diameter</th>
<th>Circumference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.95”</td>
<td></td>
<td>125.7 mm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.758”</td>
<td>11.806”</td>
<td>95.5 mm</td>
<td>299.9 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.606”</td>
<td>8.187”</td>
<td>66.2 mm</td>
<td>208.0 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.454”</td>
<td>4.566”</td>
<td>36.9 mm</td>
<td>116.0 mm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9 - 61
For the first layer, a length of 311 cm is used and wound on the former in a clockwise direction. The ends of the wire are secured with tape, leaving three or four centimetres of wire exposed at each end of the coil, for connection purposes. This is the first layer wound and secured:

The wire for the second layer is cut to a length of 396 centimetres. This second coil layer will be longer than the first layer, so before winding it, it’s necessary to build up the area at both ends of the first layer with tape:

This is so that the second layer of wire will have the same diameter along it’s entire length. It is probably a good idea to completely cover the first layer of wire with tape to ensure good electrical insulation.

The second wire layer is also wound in a clockwise direction:

The wire for the third layer is cut to a length of 313 centimetres. Since it will be covering less length along the former, there is no need to build up the ends of the earlier layers. So, simply cover the second winding with tape, and then wind on the third layer, but this time, the coil is wound in a counter-clockwise direction and then the entire coil is covered in tape to protect it.
To be sure that the second and third layers are centred over the earlier layers, it is a good idea to locate the centre of the wire and start winding from the middle outwards in both directions:

![Diagram showing winding process]

It has been found that one end of the centre winding is similar to the centre tube of the Joe cell, and the opposite end of the outer winding functions like the canister of a Joe cell. In theory, this can be tested by connecting a small capacitor between these two points, and checking for a low DC voltage using a digital voltmeter. Like a Joe cell, polarity is really the important issue to test for, since we do want the positive polarity end to transfer the energy, and the negative polarity end to be connected to engine ground. If the polarity is wrong, simply use the opposite ends of both coils.

In the testing the negative end was connected to chassis ground, and the positive end to a Hull-effect type oil probe already installed in each test vehicle. The oil probe is Robert Hull's contribution to this technology. He found that if you apply a torsion field to the oil, it will charge up an engine in a way similar to a Joe cell, but more consistently than a Joe cell would. There are two basic types of Hull-effect probe - the simplest is just a wire inserted down the dipstick tube. However, the preferred method is to remove the oil-pressure sensor and insert a T-fitting, then slide an insulated stainless steel rod into the high-pressure oil at that point. By using an oil probe, one can eliminate the aluminium transfer tube in favour of a length of wire.

The experimenter who wound the 20-gauge coils then wound a larger diameter set using 12-gauge wire on a 1.5-inch (38 mm) diameter former. He fitted these over the original set and connected just two wires, one end of the innermost of the six coils and the opposite end of the outermost coil. This gave about a 25% reduction in the fuel used by an old Honda Accord car with an Electronic Fuel Injection system.

Fuel-less operation has not yet been achieved, but that could just be a matter of getting the engine set up properly. Some of the issues we need to deal with are things like antifreeze, which destroys the dielectric properties of water, and inhibits it from charging up. This has never been discussed, but it is one of the key things which limited the ability of people to succeed with their cells. Oil is a similar issue. Some oils, particularly the ones with all the additives and detergents, simply won't charge up.

There still needs to be a lot of testing done. For instance, with this setup it might be better to connect one end of each coil to ground. Or possibly the coils would do better if the windings were all connected in series. This is all uncharted territory! Dave's original concept was to use a set of these coils to replace each tube of a Joe cell.

The engine from an old Pinto car is also being used as a test bed. Attempts were made to run it completely fuel-less. It would kick repeatedly, but just wasn’t quite there. It would only kick at a very specific timing setting - somewhere between 50-60 degrees before Top Dead Centre. The Pinto has antifreeze and with just water it's more likely to run fuel-less. But that should be a last-resort option, since most people do need antifreeze.

Devices such as the Joe cell tend to work really well on engines which have a carburettor because the spark timing can be adjusted quite easily. They work well on older EFI engines (probably those prior to OBD2) but they can be a real problem on the newer EFI models as they are liable to cause a fuel injection error state to be reached almost immediately. The newer ECUs control everything so tightly that they are almost impossible to work with (which was probably a design objective of the ECU design).

The Pinto engine had not been started for over six months. No T-field devices were connected to the engine during this period, so we can assume that there was little or no residual charge on the engine. The cooling system had only water in it. The crankcase was filled with NAPA brand 30-weight oil. We fiddled with the
engine to get it started. At that time the car had a little motorcycle carburettor on it, rather than the stock carburettor and the timing was set quite a bit advanced.

After just a few minutes of idling we realised that the engine was getting extremely hot with the exhaust manifold glowing red. So we shut it down. Being the optimist that I am, we went ahead and connected the coils at this time.

The next morning I took a little compass and found that it didn’t point to North anywhere within about 2 feet of the car body - a very good sign! So we went ahead and started it up, and carefully monitored the head temperature with an infra-red thermometer. The temperature rose slowly to about 170 degrees F which is a little below normal. After verifying that the temperature held steady at that value, I tested with the compass again, and now it was messed up out to about 10 feet from the body. So the field strength had jumped up about 500% after starting the engine.

We then played with the carburettor and timing to get the smoothest operation at the lowest RPM at which it would idle smoothly. The RPM appeared to be well below a normal idle RPM., and when I went back and checked the timing, it was very close to 60 degrees before Top Dead Centre. At this point everything was looking so good that we tried a few attempts at fuel-less operation, but the engine died each time.

Due to pressure of other work, the car was ignored for a couple of months. When I finally got back to doing a little further testing, I found it surprisingly easy to get it started again. I didn't have to reset the timing to get it running. It actually started up with little effort, which was amazing, since the timing was still way advanced. It should be nearly impossible to start an engine with the timing set like that. The spark is just occurring at the wrong time in the cycle so it should try to push the pistons in the wrong direction.

Anyway, it was starting to get cold here, so I decided to install some antifreeze, and that just set everything way back. It reduced the field strength by over 80%.

Since then Dave has come up with a coil-set designed to charge up antifreeze, but I was disappointed when I tried it. It did better with the antifreeze than the original set did, but we came to the conclusion that the antifreeze destroys water’s diamagnetic properties to the point that the mixture is just hard to charge up. Working on this problem is the reason why I didn't release the coil info sooner. I kept hoping that we might solve this problem as well, but we didn't. However, this just might not be as big a problem as I thought, because I've heard that well-charged water just might have a significantly lower freezing point. This has not been tested yet to verify it.

An interesting side issue is the fact that the water which I drained out when adding antifreeze, showed no sign of rust. It was perfectly clear. Under normal circumstances, with no additives in the cooling system, this water should have been a horrible orange mess. It wasn't, and that has to be because of the field on the engine.

The Pinto is not roadworthy, so I have no way of knowing what kind of fuel consumption is possible with this setup or what power it might be capable of producing. At this time, I just use it to test different devices, and to try for fuel-less operation. However, if I was to achieve a consistent, repeatable fuel-less operation, it could become roadworthy very quickly, so I could do some actual road testing.

The Italian B.A.C. Coil.

In July 2016 I was informed about the Italian BAC coil which I had not heard of before. It's function is very much like that of the Joe Cell coil described above, but it is much more simple. The video shown at http://translate.google.com/translate?hl=es&sl=it&tl=es&u=http%3a%2f%2fecocreando.weebly.com%2ffunzioni-bobina-bac.html&sandbox=1 describes its construction and uses. This is not a coil which I have tested and so all that I can do is to pass on the information. The coil is a bi-filar coil which is closed off to form a single, continuous loop but it is wound in a clockwise direction which is not the usual direction:
The claims made for this coil are quite remarkable and as the coil is so very simple that they are easily checked. The number of turns in the coil is a critical factor, depending on the application. The coil is wound using two wires of 1 mm. diameter copper wire and connected together as shown in the illustration. The coil is said to improve the quality of a wide range of things:

1. Water quality can be improved very substantially as follows:
   a. Water with mild limestone hardness can be improved with one 15-turn coil on the water pipe.
   b. Water with severe limestone hardness can be improved with one 13-turn coil.
   c. For industrial use in a severe hardness area: two separate 13-turn coils on the water pipe.
   Water treated with any of these procedures makes much healthier drinking water

2. Fuel treatment results in improved mpg results:
   a. Petrol: two separate 13-turn coils on the fuel pipe.
   b. Diesel: one 13-turn coil plus one 7-turn coil on the fuel pipe.
   c. LPG: one 13-turn coil plus one 28-turn coil on the fuel pipe.
   Up to 25% fuel reduction can be expected.

3. Natural gas:
   a. one 13-turn coil on the gas pipe OR one 28-turn coil if the 13-turn coil is not effective.
   Up to 25% gas reduction can be expected.

4. On High-voltage cables such as spark-plug leads:
   a. One 13-turn coil on the high-voltage lead.
   A further 15% mpg improvement may result from improved fuel burn.

The web page shown here: http://translate.google.com/translate?hl=es&sl=it&tl=en&u=http%3A%2F%2Fecocreando.weebly.com%2Ffunzioni-bobina-bac.html&sandbox=1 mentions these and many other applications, including medical applications. These coils are generally wound using “figure of eight” wire, but there is no reason why two separate strands of single core stranded wire should not be used provided that the two wires are wound side by side as shown in the car fuel line winding below where a green/yellow wire and a white wire are used separately.

**Electrets Constructed from Co-axial Cable.**

There is a device which is not widely known. It is called an "electret" and I have to confess that my knowledge of them is almost zero. Essentially, an electret is a passive device which pours out electrical energy. I do not know where that electrical energy comes from. The Wikipedia encyclopaedia has some
highly technical information on the subject remarking that "tunnel ionisation" is a process in which the electrons in an atom can pass through the atom's potential (voltage) barrier and escape from the atom. In an intense electric field, the potential barrier of an atom is distorted drastically and so the length of the barrier through which electrons have to pass, decreases and electrons can escape quite easily. The atoms spoken of here, might be those of a dielectric which could form an electret.

One method which has been used in the past to make an electret, has been to alter the structure of certain types of wax. A more convenient method is to use a reel of standard co-axial cable which is the sort of cable used to connect television aerials to television receivers:

An electret of that type can produce 10,000 volts at 10 milliamps. The current flow of 10 milliamps sounds trivial and of no consequence, but that is not actually the case as the power of 10 milliamps at 10,000 volts is 100 watts, so imagine a 100 watt light bulb brightly lit and not needing any power input at all to make it shine. That is actually, quite impressive.

PLEASE NOTE THAT 10,000 VOLTS WILL KILL YOU AND INVESTIGATING A DEVICE OF THIS TYPE IS NOT FOR PEOPLE WHO ARE NOT ALREADY FAMILIAR WITH WORKING SAFELY WITH VERY HIGH VOLTAGES. MEASUREMENTS MUST ONLY BE MADE WITH HIGH-VOLTAGE EQUIPMENT. LET ME STRESS AGAIN THAT I AM NOT ENCOURAGING YOU TO MAKE OR EXPERIMENT WITH ANY FORM OF HIGH VOLTAGE DEVICE AND THAT THIS INFORMATION IS FOR YOUR INTEREST ONLY.

The arrangement with a single reel of cable is:

Unfortunately, life being what it is, it has been found that when you try stepping that voltage output down to a more convenient level, there are liable to be losses which can lower the output power to just 50 watts. That sounds disappointing until you put it in perspective. This is a device which has the same output as a 50 watt solar panel in full sunlight, mounted at the optimum angle and positioned near the equator. But, note that the electret costs far less, produces that full output at any latitude and at night, while the solar panel is restricted by cloud cover, distance from the equator, needs an expensive mounting system, ideally should rotate to track the position of the sun, and only works when there is a high light level. So, the electret's fifty watts of continuous power is not an insignificant thing when you compare it to the other options available. These electrets can be stacked in parallel and an output in the kilowatts range is possible.

Let me stress that I personally have not yet made or used a co-axial cable electret, and so the information here comes from an experimenter who has done this. Also, while the information here is intended to help anyone who wishes to experiment along these lines, the fact that it is here must not be interpreted as my encouraging you personally to try to make or use an electret of this or any other type. If you choose to do that, then you do so entirely at your own risk and nobody other than yourself is liable should any mishap occur.
The following procedure has been used to convert a full reel of 1/4", type RG6/U 75-ohms, 18-AWG co-axial cable into an electret:

1. Make sure that neither end of the cable has the screen touching the central core.
2. Make an electrical connections to both the screen and the core at both ends of the cable.
3. Place the whole of the spool of cable inside an oven.
4. Heat the oven (a genuine oven and not a microwave) slowly to 350°F (180°C).
5. Maintain the heat until the inner plastic insulation is so soft that it can be permanently indented. This plastic must not get too soft and reach the flowing stage, nor must it get burnt or develop holes which allow arcing - if that happens, then the reel of cable is a throwaway. The objective here is to get the plastic to lose it's polarisation memory.
6. When the inner plastic sleeve has reached this level of softness, apply a steady DC voltage of about 10,000 volts to the connections already made to one end of the cable (to the screen and to the core). Although any voltage from 12V to 20,000V can be used, a 10 mA current draw can be expected when using 10,000V. Maintain this applied voltage at the high temperature for about ten minutes.
7. Turn off the heat and let the oven cool down gradually at its own rate to the 25°C to 30°C region, keeping the high voltage attached to one end of the cable.
8. Disconnect the DC voltage.
9. Connect the cable screen to the central core at both ends of the cable.
10. Leave the cable at room temperature for five to seven days. During this time, the polarisation of the plastic is reorganising. After this time, the electret is ready for use as a power source.

Dan Davidson's Research
Dan Davidson has produced a book entitled "Shape Power". In it he points out that nine wooden chopsticks pushed into a Styrofoam ball produces both an electrostatic field and a magnetic field. This is due to the effect of converging straight lines and it is impressive that these non-magnetic components can produce a magnetic field.

Dan examines the effects of various shapes. The twelve pointed tesseract has an effect on orgone:
A twelve pointed tesseract is a shape where every point is connected to every other point. A circle draws in power and concentrates it at the centre of the circle. Strange as it seems, the orgone energy flow which surrounds us can be affected merely by drawing shapes on paper and the order of making the lines also has a major effect as can be seen in the following diagram which is a shape connected with healing:

A very powerful shape is the vortex. In this arrangement, a circular ring surrounds, but does not touch the wires which form the vortex shape:
This shape forms a powerful jet of concentrated orgone energy projecting out from the central opening and extending for five or six feet (1.5m to 1.8 m) from the shape. The effect can be increased if extra, smaller vortex shapes are placed over the larger, main vortex shape.

Dan also comments on the effect of different materials. He remarks that William Reich stated that while orgone energy passes through everything, the speed of penetration is different for different materials. Reich found that organic materials such as cotton, wool, wood, and silk readily transmit orgone energy. Metals such as iron and aluminium, on the other hand, will first absorb orgone and then repel it. Within each category (i.e., organic and metal) there were varying degrees of conductivity and absorption.

Dan confirms the effects of a pyramid and he states that while the magnetic orientation of a pyramid (typically North-South and East-West for the four sides of the base) is important, that the dimensions of the great pyramid of Giza are not at all essential and many different side slopes work well. He confirms Joseph Cater’s analysis that the energy flow is concentrated at the five pyramid tips. Dan also says that a very effective way of using a pyramid is to use it to energise a glass of water for an hour or so, as orgone energy is highly attracted to water and drinking that water is beneficial. Using a set of small pyramids in a grid forms a base for supporting the glass of water. Dan also states that it is important to have an opening in every side of a pyramid shape. It is definitely worth reading Dan Davidson’s book “Shape Power”.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
http://www.free-energy-info.com
Chapter 10: Automotive Systems

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to understand this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

There are two or three main objectives for people who create automotive devices – increasing the mpg performance and reducing the harmful emissions are the top two priorities, while running the vehicle on water alone is the aim of a few people.

The first two objectives are readily achievable, but running a vehicle on water alone is not going to happen for almost everybody. This idea is peddled by con artists who sell worthless “plans”, claiming that these will run a vehicle on water for anybody who wants to construct these simple devices. This is just not true. You are welcome to download the "HydroStar" and "HydroGen" plans free from http://www.free-energy-info.com/P61.pdf and http://www.free-energy-info.com/P62.pdf. However, most experienced people looking at these plans are convinced that they could not possibly produce enough hydrogen/oxygen gas mix to run an engine. While I have never heard of anyone, anywhere, ever getting an engine to run on these plans, the present day science of water is so inadequate, that I am not in a position to be certain that they could not work, and so I am just highly doubtful as to them being viable devices.

Just before getting on to explain the construction details of practical systems, let me put the running of an engine on water alone in its proper context. The internal combustion engine which you own has an efficiency less than 50%. This means that at least half of the energy available from the fuel which you use is wasted and does not produce any useful mechanical output power. In many cases, that percentage can be as high as 90% wasted, but let’s be generous and assume that your particular engine is especially good and manages 50% efficiency.

The main way of running an engine with water as the only fuel, involves splitting water into hydrogen and oxygen and then burning those gases to power the engine. To be self-sustaining, the splitting of the water has to be done by the electrics of the vehicle and that means that the efficiency of the water splitting has to be more than 200% efficient. That just doesn’t happen with simple systems, so please forget the notion of building some device in your garage with a couple of hours work and waving goodbye to filling stations forever – it ain’t going to happen.

Just to set the record straight, it is possible to appear to run a car on water alone, but the difficulty level is about the same as building a rocket capable of going into orbit, something well beyond the capabilities of most people, including me. This document does tell you how it can be done, but please understand that it calls for exceptional skills, very considerable expenditure and a great deal of patience, so for the time being, please forget about it.

What can be done quite readily and at low cost, is to construct a device which will raise the efficiency of your engine. This is done by feeding a hydrogen/oxygen gas mix (called “HHO” gas) into your engine along with the air which is drawn in to make the engine run. A device of this type is called a “booster” as it boosts the fuel burn, extracting a greater percentage of the fuel’s available energy. An important side effect of this improvement in the burn quality of the fuel is the fact that unburnt fuel no longer gets pushed out of the exhaust as harmful emissions.

Another effect is that the engine has greater pulling power and runs smoother. Inside your engine, carbon deposits will have built up from previous un-boosted running and these deposits get burnt away when you use a booster and that internal cleaning extends the engine life.

Some people worry about the fact that burning HHO gas produces water and they imagine this water causing rusting inside the engine. What they don’t realise is that the ordinary fuel used in the engine is a “hydrocarbon” which is a compound of hydrogen and carbon and that fuel actually splits up to form hydrogen which the engine burns. Actually, it is the carbon part of the hydrocarbon fuel which is the problem, producing Carbon Dioxide, Carbon Monoxide, and physical carbon deposits inside the engine. A normal fuel burn produces water anyway, but you don’t get rusting inside the engine as the temperature there is so high that any water is in the form of steam or vapour which dry out completely when the engine is switched off. Adding a small amount of HHO gas has no adverse effects at all.

This document describes different types of booster. Let me stress that each engine is different and it depends on how inefficient the engine is to begin with, what sort of mpg improvement is likely to be produced by a booster. Just to make sure that you understand what is involved, a booster is a simple container which holds a set of plates submerged in water which probably has an additive to make the water conduct electrical current better. A pipe from the top of the container feeds the gas into the air filter of the vehicle, via one or two simple safety devices. Adding this gas causes a major improvement in the quality of the fuel burn inside the engine and cuts harmful emission to near zero.
As a consequence of this, it is possible to reduce the amount of fossil fuel being sent to the engine, which is not something which should be done if HHO gas is not being added, as the engine is liable to overheat and some valve damage could occur. It is a completely different matter if HHO gas is being added. However, all recent engine designs have an Electronic Control Unit (“ECU”) which controls the amount of fuel being sent to the engine. The ECU accepts input signals from an “oxygen sensor” placed in the exhaust stream, and often a second sensor after the catalytic converter to make sure that the catalytic converter has not failed.

Unfortunately, the much improved exhaust caused by the better fuel burn caused by the HHO gas, causes the ECU to think that the engine fuel-air mix must be too low, and so it pumps in more fuel in an effort to compensate. Ideally, this can be dealt with by adding a circuit board which adjusts the signal coming from the oxygen sensor so that it is correct for the improved fuel burn. Details of how to do this are in a companion document.

So, to recap, the only practical device which you can build yourself and use to improve automotive performance is a ‘booster’. Using a booster improves the efficiency of the fuel burn inside your engine and that results in more power, better torque, smoother running and vastly improved exhaust emissions. If the ECU is not adjusted or its input signal not controlled, the mpg figures may actually get slightly lower due to unwanted excess fuel being pumped into the engine. If a control circuit is used to correct this ECU error, then mpg gains will be produced.

So, what mpg gains can be expected? The worst I have ever heard of was 8% which is very rare. The lowest likely gain is 20%. Typical gains are in the 25% to 35% bracket. Not particularly unusual is 35% to 60%, while gains up to 100% and over have been achieved but they are rare. A realistic expectation would be a 33% gain.

This chapter is divided up into the following sections:

1. Simple DC boosters, using a 12-volt electrical input.
2. Advanced DC boosters using much higher DC voltages.
3. Water-splitters which use pulsed electrical signals to change water into “HHO” gas.
4. Running engines without fossil fuels.
5. Other useful devices.

One thing which needs to be understood:

Caution: A booster is not a toy. If you make and use one of these, you do so entirely at your own risk. Neither the designer of the booster, the author of this document or the provider of the internet display are in any way liable should you suffer any loss or damage through your own actions. While it is believed to be entirely safe to make and use a properly built booster, provided that the safety instructions shown in this document are followed, it is stressed that the responsibility for doing this is yours and yours alone.

Simple DC Boosters.

It is important that you understand the basic principles of electrolysis if you are to be successful in building and operating a booster, or alternatively, buying and operating a booster. A “DC booster” operates on “Direct Current” which is the sort of electrical power delivered by a car battery.

The method is very simple in basic outline. Two metal plates are placed in water and an electric current is passed between the plates. This causes the water to break down into a mixture of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas (The two components used in the Space Shuttle). The greater the flow of current, the larger the volume of gas which will be produced. The arrangement is like this:

Remembering that the result of doing this is to produce fuel for the Space Shuttle, you should avoid doing this indoors and letting the gas produced by the process collect on the ceiling. There are many videos on the web where people act in a dangerous manner and perform electrolysis indoors using a container which is open at the top as shown above. Please, please don't do that as it is highly dangerous - it is not a party popper which pushes
the Space Shuttle into space! If you were to collect a cupful of HHO gas and light it, the resulting ignition would probably damage your hearing permanently, so don't do it under any circumstances. Just like the fact that a very useful chain saw is a dangerous device which needs to be treated with respect, so too, please understand that the very useful HHO gas mix contains a lot of energy and so needs to be treated with respect.

This style of electrolysis of water was investigated by the very talented and meticulous experimenter Michael Faraday. He presented his results in a very technical and scientific format which are not understood by most ordinary people. But in simple terms, he tells us that the amount of HHO gas produced is proportional to the current flowing through the water, so to increase the rate of gas production, you need to increase the current flow. Also, he found that the optimum voltage between the two "electrode" plates is 1.24 volts.

This sounds a bit technical, but it is a highly useful piece of information. In the arrangement shown above, twelve volts is being connected across two plates in water. Faraday tells us that only 1.24 volts of that twelve volts will go to make HHO gas and the remaining 10.76 volts will act as an electric kettle and just heat the water, eventually producing steam. As we want to make HHO gas and not steam, this is bad news for us. What it does tell us is that if you choose to do it that way, then only 10% of the power taken by the booster actually makes HHO gas and a massive 90% is wasted as heat.

We really don't want a low electrical efficiency like that. One way around the problem is to use two cells like this:

![Diagram](image1)

This arrangement uses our 1.24 volts twice while the twelve volts stays unchanged and so the electrical efficiency goes up to 20% and the heat loss drops to 80%. That is quite an improvement but even more important is the fact that twice as much HHO gas is now produced, so we have doubled the electrical efficiency and doubled the gas output, giving a result which is four times better than before.

We could go one step further and use three cells like this:

![Diagram](image2)

This time we are using three of our 1.24 volt sections and this gives us an electrical efficiency of 30% and three times the amount of gas, making the system nine times more effective.

This is definitely going in the right direction, so how far can we take it when using a twelve volt battery? When we use the construction materials which years of testing has shown to be particularly effective, there is a small voltage drop across the metal plates, which means that the very best voltage for each cell is about 2 volts and so with a twelve volt battery, six cells is about the best combination, and that gives us an electrical efficiency of 62% and six times as much gas, which is 37 times better than using a single cell, and the wasted electrical power drops down from 90% to 38%, which is about as good as we can get.
Of course, it would not be practical to have six boxes each as large as a car battery as we would never manage to fit them into most vehicles. Perhaps we could just put all the plates inside a single box. Unfortunately, if we do that, a good deal of the electric current would flow around the plates and not make much gas at all. A top view of this arrangement is shown here:

![Top view of a single box arrangement](image1)

This is a disaster for us as now we will not get your six times the gas production or our massively reduced heating. Thankfully, there is a very simple fix for this problem, and that is to divide the box up into six watertight compartments using thin partitions like this:

![Top and side views of separated compartments](image2)

This gives us back our high efficiency by blocking the current flow past the plates and forcing the current to flow through the plates, producing gas between every pair of plates.

In passing, if this booster were to be powered by the electrics of a vehicle, then the voltage although called "twelve volts" will actually be almost fourteen volts when the engine is running so that the "twelve volt" battery will get charged. This would allow us to use seven cells inside our electrolyser, rather than the six cells shown above and that would give us seven times the gas volume that a single pair of plates would give. Some people prefer six cells, and others, seven cells - the choice is up to the person constructing the unit.

We have been discussing the methods of increasing the gas production and reducing the wasted energy, but please don't assume that the objective is to make large volumes of HHO gas. It has been found that with many vehicle engines, very good performance gains can be had with a HHO gas production rate of less than 1 litre per minute ("lpm"). Flow rates of as little as 0.5 to 0.7 lpm are frequently very effective. Remember, the HHO gas from a booster is being used as an igniter for the regular fuel used by the engine and not as an additional fuel.

The big advantage of an efficient booster design is that you can produce the wanted volume of gas using a much lower current, and so, a lesser extra load on the engine. Admittedly, there is not much additional engine load needed by a booster, but we should reduce the extra amount by intelligent design.

In the discussion above, the battery has been shown connected directly across the booster or "electrolyser". This should **never** be done as there is no protection against a short-circuit caused by a loose wire or whatever. There should be a fuse or a circuit-breaker as the first thing connected to the battery. Circuit breakers are available from any electrician's supply outlet as they are used in the "fuse box" in homes, to provide protection for each lighting
circuit and each power socket circuit. They are not expensive as they are manufactured in very large volumes. They are also available on eBay. The circuit breaker is wired like this:

![Circuit Breaker Diagram]

a common design (rated at 32 amps) looks like this:

![Common Design Diagram]

Some would-be constructors feel that some aspects of the construction are too difficult for them. Here are some suggestions which might make construction more straightforward.

Constructing a seven-cell housing is not difficult. Pieces are cut out for two sides, one base, one lid and six absolutely identical partitions. These partitions must be exactly the same so that there is no tendency for leaks to develop. If you decide to use the bent-plate system of electrodes shown on the next few pages, then drill the bolt holes in the partitions before assembling them:

![Partition Diagram]

The bottom piece is the same length as the sides, and it is the width of the partitions plus twice the thickness of the material being used to build the housing. If acrylic plastic is being used for the construction, then the supplier can also provide an “adhesive” which effectively “welds” the pieces together making the different pieces appear to have been made from a single piece. The case would be assembled like this:
Here, the partitions are fixed in place one at a time, and finally, the second side is attached and will mate exactly as the partitions and ends are all exactly the same width. A simple construction for the lid is to glue and screw a strip all the way around the top of the unit and have the lid overlap the sides as shown here:

A gasket, perhaps of flexible PVC, placed between the sides and the lid would assist in making a good seal when the lid is bolted down. The gas outlet pipe is located in the centre of the lid which is a position which is not affected if the unit is tilted when the vehicle is on a steep hill.

Years of testing have shown that a really good choice of material for the electrode plates is 316-L grade stainless steel. However, it is very difficult to connect those plates electrically inside the cells as you need to use stainless steel wire to make the connections and bolted connections are really not suitable. That leaves welding the wires to the plates and welding stainless steel is not something which a beginner can do properly as it is much more difficult than welding mild steel. There is a good alternative, and that is to arrange the plate material so that no wire connections are needed:

While this six-cell design may look a little complicated to a quick glance, it is really a very simple construction. Each of the plates used in the central cells is just this shape:
The plate shapes shown above are arranged so that there is access to the bolts from above and they can be reached by a spanner and held steady while the other nut is being tightened.

Unless you are skilled in bending plates, I suggest that you use stainless steel mesh for the plates. It works very well, can be readily cut using tin snips or any similar tool and it can be bent into shape by the home constructor using simple tools - a vice, a piece of angle iron, a small piece of mild steel sheet, a hammer, etc.

You will find a skip outside any metal fabrication shop where scrap pieces are tossed for recycling. There will be off-cuts of various sizes of angle iron and all sorts of other small sections of sheet and strip. They are in the skip mainly to get rid of them as the fabrication business gets paid almost nothing for them. You can use some of these pieces to shape your booster plates, and if you feel bad about costing the business about a penny, then by all means put them back in the skip afterwards.

If you clamp your plate between two angle irons in a vice, then careful, repeated gently tapping with a hammer close to the bend location, will produce a very clean and neat bend in the plate:

The bent sheet can then be clamped between two steel strips and a sharp U-shaped bend produced by tapping with a hammer, again, along the line of the required bend:

The thickness of the steel bar on the inside of the bend has to be the exact width of the required gap between the finished plate faces. This is not particularly difficult to arrange as 3 mm, 3.5 mm, 4 mm, 5 mm and 6 mm are common thicknesses used in steel fabrication, and they can be combined to give almost any required gap.
There are many varieties of stainless steel mesh. The style and thickness are not at all critical but you need to choose a type which is reasonably stiff and which will hold its shape well after it is bent. This style might be a good choice:

Your local steel supplier probably has some types on hand and can let you see how flexible a particular variety is. The shape shown above is for a "three plate per cell" design where there are two active plate faces. Ideally, you want two to four square inches of plate area per amp of current flowing through the cell, because that gives very long electrode life and minimum heating due to the plates.

This style of construction is reasonably easy to assemble as the two bolts which pass through the partitions and which hold the plates rigidly in place, can be accessed from above, two spanners being used to lock them tight. Lock nuts are optional. If you feel that your particular mesh might be a little too flexible or if you think that the bolts might eventually loosen, then you can attach two, or more, separator insulating pieces - plastic washers, plastic bolts, cable ties or whatever to one of the plate faces.

These will hold the plates apart even if they were to become loose. They also help to maintain the gap between the plates. This gap has to be a compromise because the closer the plates are together, the better the gas production but the more difficult it is for the bubbles to break away from the plates and float to the surface and if they don’t do that, then they block off some of the plate area and prevent further gas production from that part of the plate as the electrolyte no longer touches the plate there. A popular choice of gap is 1/8 inch which is 3 mm as that is a good compromise spacing. Circular spacers would look like this:

If the current is low enough, an even more simple shape which has just a single pair of active plate surfaces per cell, can be used as shown here:
Any of these designs can be 6-cell or 7-cell and the plates can be constructed without outside help. You will notice that the electrical connections at each end of the booster are submerged to make sure that a loose connection can't cause a spark and ignite the HHO gas in the top of the housing. There should be a gasket washer on the inside to prevent any leakage of the electrolyte past the clamping bolt.

If you want to use three active plate pairs in each cell, then the plate shape could be like this:

The electrolyte is a mix of water and an additive to allows more current to flow through the liquid. Most of the substances which people think of to use to make an electrolyte are most unsuitable, producing dangerous gasses, damaging the surfaces of the plates and giving uneven electrolysis and currents which are difficult to control. These include salt, battery acid and baking soda and I strongly recommend that you do not use any of these.

What is needed is a substance which does not get used up during electrolysis and which does not damage the plates even after years of use. There are two very suitable substances for this: sodium hydroxide, also called "lye" or "caustic soda". In the USA, this is available in Lowes stores, being sold as "Roebic 'Heavy Duty' Crystal Drain Opener". The chemical formula for it is NaOH.

One other substance which is even better is potassium hydroxide or "caustic potash" (chemical formula KOH) which can be got from soap-making supply shops found on the web. Both NaOH and KOH are very caustic materials and they need to be handled with considerable care.

Bob Boyce of the USA is one of the most experienced people in the construction and use of boosters of different designs. He has kindly shared the following information on how to stay safe when mixing and using these chemicals. He says:
These materials are highly caustic and so they need to be handled carefully and kept away from contact with skin, and even more importantly, eyes. If any splashes come in contact with you, it is very important indeed that the affected area be rinsed off immediately with large amounts of running water and if necessary, the use of vinegar which is acidic and so will neutralise the caustic liquid.

When making up a solution, you add small amounts of the hydroxide to distilled water held in a container. The container must not be glass as most glass is not high enough quality to be a suitable material in which to mix the electrolyte. The hydroxide itself should always be stored in a sturdy, air-tight container which is clearly labelled "DANGER! - Potassium (or Sodium) Hydroxide". Keep the container in a safe place, where it can't be reached by children, pets or people who won't take any notice of the label. If your supply of hydroxide is delivered in a strong plastic bag, then once you open the bag, you should transfer all of its contents to sturdy, air-tight, plastic storage containers, which you can open and close without any risk of spilling the contents. Hardware stores sell large plastic buckets with air tight lids that can be used for this purpose.

When working with dry hydroxide flakes or granules, wear safety goggles, rubber gloves, a long sleeved shirt, socks and long trousers. Also, don't wear your favourite clothes when handling hydroxide solution as it is not the best thing to get on clothes. It is also no harm to wear a face mask which covers your mouth and nose. If you are mixing solid hydroxide with water, always add the hydroxide to the water, and not the other way round, and use a plastic container for the mixing, preferably one which has twice the capacity of the finished mixture. The mixing should be done in a well-ventilated area which is not draughty as air currents can blow the dry hydroxide around.

When mixing the electrolyte, never use warm water. The water should be cool because the chemical reaction between the water and the hydroxide generates a good deal of heat. If possible, place the mixing container in a larger container filled with cold water, as that will help to keep the temperature down, and if your mixture should "boil over" it will contain the spillage. Add only a small amount of hydroxide at a time, stirring continuously, and if you stop stirring for any reason, put the lids back on all containers.

If, in spite of all precautions, you get some hydroxide solution on your skin, wash it off with plenty of cold running water and apply some vinegar to the skin. Vinegar is acidic, and will help balance out the alkalinity of the hydroxide. You can use lemon juice if you don’t have vinegar to hand - but it is always a good idea to have a bottle of vinegar handy.

The concentration of the electrolyte is a very important factor. Generally speaking, the more concentrated the electrolyte, the greater the current and the larger the volume of HHO gas produced. However, there are three major factors to consider:

1. The resistance to current flow through the metal electrode plates.
2. The resistance to current flow between the metal plates and the electrolyte.
3. The resistance to current flow through the electrolyte itself.

1. In a good electrolyser design like those shown above, the design itself is about as good as a DC booster can get, but understanding each of these areas of power loss is important for the best possible performance. We were taught in school that metals conduct electricity, but what was probably not mentioned was the fact that some metals such as stainless steel are quite poor conductors of electricity and that is why electrical cables are made with copper wires and not steel wires. This is how the current flow occurs with our electrolyser plates:

![Image of electrolyser plates]

The fact that we have folds and bends in our plates has no significant effect on the current flow. Resistance to current flow through the metal electrode plates is something which can’t be overcome easily and economically,
and so has to be accepted as an overhead. Generally speaking, the heating from this source is low and not a matter of major concern, but we provide a large amount of plate area to reduce this component of power loss as much as is practical.

2. Resistance to flow between the electrode and the electrolyte is an entirely different matter, and major improvements can be made in this area. After extensive testing, Bob Boyce discovered that a very considerable improvement can be made if a catalytic layer is developed on the active plate surface. Details of how this can be done are given later in the companion "D9.pdf" document as part of the description of Bob’s electrolyser.

3. Resistance to flow through the electrolyte itself can be minimised by using the best catalyst at its optimum concentration. When using sodium hydroxide, the optimum concentration is 20% by weight. As 1 cc of water weighs one gram, one litre of water weighs one kilogram. But, if 20% (200 grams) of this kilogram is to be made up of sodium hydroxide, then the remaining water can only weigh 800 grams and so will be only 800 cc in volume. So, to make up a 20% "by weight" mix of sodium hydroxide and distilled water, the 200 grams of sodium hydroxide are added (very slowly and carefully, as explained above by Bob) to just 800 cc of cool distilled water and the volume of electrolyte produced will be about 800 cc.

When potassium hydroxide is being used, the optimum concentration is 28% by weight and so, 280 grams of potassium hydroxide are added (very slowly and carefully, as explained above by Bob) to just 720 cc of cold distilled water. Both of these electrolytes have a freezing point well below that of water and this can be a very useful feature for people who live in places which have very cold winters.

Another factor which affects current flow through the electrolyte is the distance which the current has to flow through the electrolyte - the greater the distance, the greater the resistance. Reducing the gap between the plates to a minimum improves the efficiency. However, practical factors come into play here as bubbles need sufficient space to escape between the plates, and a good working compromise is a spacing of 3 mm. which is one eighth of an inch.

However, there is a problem with using the optimum concentration of electrolyte and that is the current flow caused by the greatly improved electrolyte is likely to be far more than we want. To deal with this we can use an electronic circuit called a "Pulse-Width Modulator" (or "PWM") circuit. These are often sold as "DC Motor Speed Controllers" and if you buy one, then pick one which can handle 30 amps of current.

A PWM circuit operates in a very simple way. It switches the current to the electrolyser On and Off many times every second. The current is controlled by how long (in any one second) the current is On, compared to how long it is Off. For example, if the On time is twice as long as the Off time (66%), then the average current flow will be much greater than if the On time were only half as long as the Off time (33%).
When using a PWM controller, it is normal to place its control knob on or near the dashboard and to mount a simple low-cost ammeter beside it so that the driver can raise or lower the current flow as is considered necessary. The arrangement is like this:

![Diagram of PWM controller setup](image)

There is a more sophisticated circuit controller called a "Constant-current Circuit" and that allows you to select the current you want and the circuit then holds the current at your set value at all times. However, this type of circuit is not readily available for sale although some outlets are preparing to offer them.

Some of the most simple boosters don't use a PWM circuit because they control the current flow through the booster by making the concentration of the electrolyte very low so that the resistance to current flow through the electrolyte chokes off the current and holds it down to the desired level. This, of course, is far less efficient and the resistance in the electrolyte causes heating, which in turn, is an operational problem which needs careful handling by the user. The advantage is that the system appears to be more simple.

**Feeding HHO Gas to an Engine.**

When using a booster of any design you need to realise that HHO gas is highly energetic. If it wasn't, it would not be able to do its job of improving the explosions inside your engine. HHO gas needs to be treated with respect and caution. It is important to make sure that it goes into the engine and nowhere else. It is also important that it gets ignited inside the engine and nowhere else.

To make these things happen, a number of common-sense steps need to be taken. Firstly, the booster must not make HHO gas when the engine is not running. The best way to arrange this is to switch off the current going to the booster when the engine is not running. It is not sufficient to just have a manually-operated On/Off switch as it is almost certain that switching off will be forgotten one day. Instead, the electrical supply to the booster is routed through the ignition switch of the vehicle. That way, when the engine is turned off and the ignition key removed, it is certain that the booster is turned off as well.

So as not to put too much current load on the ignition switch, and to allow for the possibility of the ignition switch being on when the engine is not running, instead of wiring the booster directly to the switch, it is better to wire a standard automotive relay across the oil pressure unit and let the relay carry the booster current. The oil pressure drops when the engine stops running, and so this will also power down the booster.

An extra safety feature is to allow for the (very unlikely) possibility of an electrical short-circuit occurring in the booster or its wiring. This is done by putting a fuse or contact-breaker between the battery and the new circuitry as shown in this diagram:

![Diagram of safety feature](image)

If you choose to use a contact-breaker, then a light-emitting diode ("LED") with a current limiting resistor of say, 680 ohms in series with it, can be wired directly across the contacts of the circuit breaker. The LED can be mounted on the dashboard. As the contacts are normally closed, they short-circuit the LED and so no light shows. If the circuit-breaker is tripped, then the LED will light up to show that the circuit-breaker has operated. The current through the LED is so low that the electrolyser is effectively switched off when the contact breaker opens. This is not a necessary feature, merely an optional extra:
A good source for general components needed in building boosters is The Hydrogen Garage in the USA, website: http://stores.homestead.com/hydrogengarage/StoreFront.bok. A very important safety item for any booster is the “bubbler” which is just a simple container with some water in it. The bubbler has the gas coming in at the bottom and bubbling up through the water. The gas collects above the water surface and is then drawn into the engine through an outlet pipe above the water surface. To prevent water being drawn into the booster when it is off for any length of time and the pressure inside it reduces, a one-way valve is placed in the pipe between the booster and the bubbler.

If the engine happens to backfire, then the bubbler blocks the flame from passing back through the pipe and igniting the gas being produced in the booster. A bubbler is a very simple, very cheap and very sensible thing to install. It also removes any traces of electrolyte fumes from the gas before it is drawn into the engine. In practice, it is a very good idea to have two bubblers, one close to the booster and one close to the engine. The second bubbler makes sure that every last trace of electrolyte fumes are washed out of the HHO gas before it enters the engine.

There are various ways to make a good bubbler. In general, you are aimed at having a five-inch (125 mm) depth of water through which the HHO gas must pass before it leaves the bubbler. It is recommended that a bubbler is built inside a strong container such as this one:

These strong containers are generally sold as water filters. They can be adapted to become bubblers without any major work being done on them. At this point, we need to consider the mechanism for moving the HHO gas out of the booster and into the engine.

It is generally a good idea to position the gas take-off pipe in the centre of the lid so that if the booster gets tilted due to the vehicle operating on a sloped surface, then the surface level of the liquid remains unchanged underneath the gas pipe. A common mistake is to use a gas pipe which has a small diameter. If you take a length of plastic pipe of a quarter inch diameter (6 mm) and try blowing through it, you will be surprised at how difficult it is to blow through. There is no need to give your booster that problem, so I suggest that you select a gas pipe of half an inch (12 mm) or so. If in doubt as to how suitable a pipe is, then try blowing through a sample length of it. If you can blow through it without the slightest difficulty, then it is good enough for your booster.
One other thing is how to deal with splashes and the spray from bubbles bursting at the surface of the electrolyte. You want some device which will prevent any spray or splashes caused by the vehicle going over a very rough road, from entering the gas pipe and being drawn out of the booster along with the HHO gas.

Various methods have been used and it is very much a matter of personal choice as to how you decide to deal with the issue. One method is to use a piece of suitable material across the end of the pipe. This is generally called anti-slosh material because of the job which it does. The material needs to let the gas pass freely through it but prevent any liquid getting through it. Plastic pot-scrubbers as a possible material as they have an interlocking mesh of small flat strands. The gas can flow around and through the many strands, but splashes which go in a straight line will hit the strands and drip back into the booster again. Another possible device is one or more baffles which will catch the liquid but let the gas pass freely by:

The HHO gas produced by a DC booster of this type contains about 30% monatomic hydrogen, which means that 30% of the hydrogen is in the form of single atoms of hydrogen and not combined hydrogen pairs of atoms. The monatomic form is about four times more energetic than the combined form and so it takes up a greater volume inside the booster housing.

If the booster is left turned off for a long period of time, then these single hydrogen atoms will eventually bump into each other and combine to form the less energetic diatomic form of the gas. As this takes up less space inside the booster, the pressure inside the booster drops and this has been known to suck water out of the bubbler back into the booster. We don't want this to happen as it dilutes our carefully measured electrolyte concentration and it can make the bubbler ineffective due to lack of water.
To deal with this, a one-way valve is put between the booster and the bubbler, positioned so that it does not allow flow back into the booster. In very cold climates, a 28% by weight potassium hydroxide electrolyte will not freeze until -40°C, it is more difficult to stop the bubblers freezing. While it is possible to have equipment which unplugs and can be taken indoors overnight, an alternative is to use alcohol or paraffin (kerosene) instead of water and they generally do not freeze and their fumes are not harmful to an engine.

The bubbler design is not difficult. Ideally, you want a very large number of small bubbles to be formed and float upwards through the water. This is because it gives the best connection between the gas and the water and so can do a really good job of washing any traces of hydroxide vapour out of the HHO gas before it gets fed to the engine. Small bubbles are also better separated from each other and so there is no real chance of a flame passing through the water where large bubbles might merge together and form a column of gas as they rise to the surface.

In this good bubbler design, the pipe which feeds the HHO gas into the bubbler is bent into an L-shape. The end of the pipe is blocked off, and many small holes are drilled in the horizontal section of the pipe. Only a few holes are seen in this diagram, but there will be a large number in the actual construction. Like the booster itself, the gas outlet pipe needs to be protected from splashes of water caused by the vehicle going over a bump. It is very important to make sure that water is not drawn into the engine along with the gas, so anti-slosh material or one or more baffles are used to prevent this happening. So the overall protection for the gas flow is:
Where the first bubbler is close to the booster and the second one is placed close to the engine. Once in a while, the water from the first bubbler can be used to top up the water inside the booster so that any traces of hydroxide which may have reached the bubbler are returned to the booster, keeping its electrolyte concentration exactly right and making sure that the water in the bubbler is always fresh.

There is one final item which is an optional extra. Some people like to add a gas-pressure switch. If, for any reason, the pressure starts to rise - say that the outlet pipe became blocked - then the pressure switch would disconnect the electrical supply and stop the pressure rising any further:

One decision which has to be made is the rate of HHO gas production which is the best for you. Most people seem to think that the larger the volume of HHO gas the better. That is not necessarily true because a very effective use of the gas is to make it act as an igniter for the engine's normal fuel and very satisfactory results have been achieved with HHO gas flow rates in the range of 0.4 to 0.7 litres per minute. You control the rate of gas production by controlling the current, either by the concentration of the electrolyte or by adjusting the current flow using an electronic circuit.

Each litre of water produces about 1,750 litres of HHO gas, so you can estimate the length of time the booster can operate on one litre of water. If, for example, your booster is producing 0.7 litres of gas per minute. Then, it will produce 1,750 litres in 1,750 / 0.7 minutes and that is 2,500 minutes or 41 hours 40 minutes. As the booster only operates when you are driving, you are looking at 41 hours of driving time and if you drive about two hours per day, it would take three weeks to use one litre of water. The internal dimensions of your booster allow you to calculate how far the electrolyte level will drop if one litre of water is taken out of it.

Generally speaking, it is normally considered that topping up the booster with water by hand every so often, is a perfectly good method of operation. The booster design described above has a good electrolyte capacity in each cell and so topping up with water should not be a major task. As tap water and well water have a good deal of dissolved solids in them, when the water is taken away by electrolysis, these solids drop out of solution and fall to the bottom of the housing, and/or coat the plates with an layer of unwanted material. For this reason, life is so much easier if distilled water is used for making electrolyte and for topping up the booster after use.

It is possible to have an automatic water supply for your booster even though that is probably over-kill for such a simple device. If you decide to do that, then you need a water supply nozzle for each of your six or seven cells. It is not necessary for the electrolyte level to be exactly the same in each cell, but you would normally have them at roughly the same height. Your automated water supply could be like this:
A point which might not be immediately obvious is that because the gas pressure inside the booster is probably about 5 pounds per square inch ("psi"), once the water pump stops pumping, it is possible for the gas pressure to push out the remaining water in the inlet pipes and escape through the body of the pump. To prevent this, an ordinary one-way valve is put in the water supply pipe to prevent flow back towards the pump.

Up to now, the HHO gas feed to the engine has just been indicated in a vague way in spite of the connection point being important. With most engines, the HHO gas should be fed into the air filter where it mixes well and is fully dispersed inside the air being drawn into the engine. You sometimes see diagrams which show the connection point being close to the engine intake manifold. This is not a good idea because the lowered pressure there causes reduced pressure inside the booster which in turn produces more unwanted hot water vapour, so stick with feeding the gas into the air filter. If there is a supercharger on the engine, then feed the HHO gas into the low-pressure side of the supercharger.

The "Smack’s" Booster.
The style of booster described above has the advantages of high electrical efficiency, easy construction, very few specialist parts and a large electrolyte volume per cell. There are many other very successful booster designs which have very different forms of construction. One of these is the "Smack's Booster" where electrical cover plates are clamped together and placed inside a length of plastic pipe:
The advantages of this design are the very simple construction, compact size, reasonable performance and the fact that you can buy one ready-made if you want to. You can download a copy of the construction details free from [http://www.free-energy-info.com/Smack.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/Smack.pdf). The electrical efficiency of this design is lowered a bit because only a single body of electrolyte is used and so current can bypass the plates. The overall performance is a respectable 1.3 lpm for 20 amps, though you may wish to lower the current and settle for about half that rate of HHO gas production. The construction of a 5 lpm version is at [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cqjn3mup1So](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cqjn3mup1So).

**The “Hotsabi” Booster.**

Another design which is very easy to build is the "HotSabi" booster, which is a single threaded rod inside a length of plastic pipe with a stainless steel inner lining. It has the lowest possible electrical efficiency, being just a single cell with the full vehicle voltage connected directly across it, but in spite of that, it's performance in actual on the road use has been remarkable, with a reported 50% improvement on a 5 litre capacity engine. This excellent performance is probably due to the design having a steam trap which removes the hot water vapour produced by the excessive heating caused by having only a single cell with so much voltage across it (remember, 90% of the power supplied to this booster design goes in heating the electrolyte).

As the designer of this booster has freely shared his design, the free construction plans can be downloaded from [http://www.free-energy-devices.com/Hotsabi.pdf](http://www.free-energy-devices.com/Hotsabi.pdf).

**Controlling the Oxygen Sensor**

When an mpg. improving device such as an electrolyser is fitted to a vehicle, the result does not always produce better mpg. figures. Older vehicles which are fitted with a carburettor will see an immediate improvement. This is not the case for more recent vehicles which come with computer control of the fuel sent to the engine.

When an electrolyser is attached to the engine, it causes the fuel burn inside the cylinders to be greatly improved, with a corresponding improvement in engine performance. Unfortunately, the fuel computer is expecting the same amount of unburnt oxygen to come out of the engine, and when it doesn’t detect it, the computer increases the fuel flow rate into the engine in an attempt to get back to it’s normal, inefficient method of running. That action
cancels the mpg improvement produced by the electrolyser unless something is done to adjust the operation of the computer.

In the most simple terms, most vehicles which have an Electronic Control Unit (“ECU”) to control the fuel flow into the engine, are fitted with one of two types of exhaust sensor. The majority have a “narrowband” sensor while the remainder have a “wideband” sensor. The ideal mix of air to fuel is considered to be 14.7 to 1. A narrowband sensor only responds to mixtures from about 14.2 to 1 through 14.9 to 1. The sensor operates by comparing the amount of oxygen in the exhaust gas to the amount of oxygen in the air outside the vehicle and it generates an output voltage which moves rapidly between 0.2 volts where the mixture is too lean, and 0.8 volts when it passes below the 14.7 to 1 air/fuel mix point where the mixture is too rich (as indicated by the graph shown below). The ECU increases the fuel feed when the signal level is 0.2 volts and decreases it when the signal voltage is 0.8 volts. This causes the signal voltage to switch regularly from high to low and back to high again as the computer attempts to match the amount of “too lean” time to the amount of “too rich” time.

A simple control circuit board can be added to alter the sensor signal and nudge the fuel computer into producing slightly better air/fuel mixes. Unfortunately, there is a severe downside to doing this. If, for any reason, the fuel mix is set too high for an extended period, then the excess fuel being burnt in the catalytic converter can raise the temperature there high enough to melt the internal components of the converter. On the other hand, if the circuit board is switched to a mix which is too lean, then the engine temperature can be pushed high enough to damage the valves, which is an expensive mistake.

Over-lean running can occur at different speeds and loads. Joe Hanson recommends that if any device for making the mix leaner is fitted to the vehicle, then the following procedure should be carried out. Buy a “type K” thermocouple with a 3-inch stainless steel threaded shank, custom built by ThermX Southwest of San Diego. This temperature sensor can measure temperatures up to 1,800 degrees Fahrenheit (980 degrees Centigrade). Mount the thermocouple on the exhaust pipe by drilling and tapping the pipe close to the exhaust manifold, just next to the flange gasket. Take a cable from the thermocouple into the driver’s area and use a multimeter to show the temperature.

Drive the vehicle long enough to reach normal running temperature and then drive at full speed on a highway. Note the temperature reading at this speed. When a leaner mix is used, make sure that the temperature reading under exactly the same conditions does not exceed 180 degrees Fahrenheit (100 degrees Centigrade) above the pre-modification temperature.

David Andruczyk recommends an alternative method of avoiding engine damage through over-lean fuel/air mixtures, namely, replacing the narrowband oxygen sensor with a wideband sensor and controller. A wideband oxygen sensor reads a very wide range of Air/Fuel ratios, from about 9 to 1 through 28 to 1. A normal car engine can run from about 10 to 1 (very rich) to about 17.5 to 1 (pretty lean). Maximum engine power is developed at a mix ratio of about 12.5 to 1. Complete fuel combustion takes place with a mix of about 14.7 to 1, while the mix which gives minimum exhaust emissions is slightly leaner than that.
Unlike narrowband sensors, wideband sensors need their own controller in order to function. There are many of these units being offered for sale for retro-fitting to existing vehicles which have just narrowband oxygen sensor systems. David’s personal recommendation is the Innovate Motorsports LC-1 which is small, and uses the very reasonably priced LSU-4 sensor. This wideband controller can be programmed. Most controllers have the ability to output two signals, the wideband signal suitable for running to a gauge or new ECU, plus a synthesised narrowband signal which can feed an existing ECU. The trick is to install a wideband sensor, with the LC-1 controller and then reprogram it to shift the narrowband output to achieve a leaner mix as shown here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Air/Fuel Mix</th>
<th>Wideband Output</th>
<th>Original Narrowband Output</th>
<th>Shifted Narrowband Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 to 1</td>
<td>9 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 to 1</td>
<td>10 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 1</td>
<td>11 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 to 1</td>
<td>12 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 1</td>
<td>13 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 to 1</td>
<td>14 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6 to 1</td>
<td>14.6 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.8 to 1</td>
<td>14.8 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to 1</td>
<td>15 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.5 to 1</td>
<td>15.5 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 1</td>
<td>16 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 1</td>
<td>18 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This system allows you to set the narrowband “toggle point” very precisely on an exact chosen air/fuel ratio. This is something which it is nearly impossible to do accurately with a circuit board which just shifts a narrowband oxygen signal as you just do not know what the air/fuel ratio really is with a narrowband sensor.

However, for anyone who wants to try adding a circuit board to alter a narrowband sensor signal to produce a leaner mix on a vehicle, the following description may be of help. It is possible to buy a ready-made circuit board, although using a completely different operating technique, from the very reputable Eagle Research, via their website: [http://www.eagle-research.com/products/pfuels.html](http://www.eagle-research.com/products/pfuels.html) where the relevant item is shown like this:

**EFIE DEVICE**

We now sell completely assembled EFIE device. All you have to do is hook it up and drive!

The EFIE connects directly to your oxygen sensor and is compatible with ALL oxygen sensors.

The EFIE allows you to retain all your power and performance while taking advantage of increased mileage.

No matter what fuel saver device or method you use on your fuel injected vehicle, you'll need the EFIE to unleash the full potential of the fuel saver.

The EFIE alone can save 5% - 10% on your fuel bill, simply by 'leaning' your fuel mixture. We do not consider it as a fuel saver on its own. It is designed as an ASSIST for fuel savers.

Vehicles with more than one oxygen sensor need an EFIE on each oxygen sensor.

**Note:** Your actual mileage gains will depend on the capability of the fuel saver(s) you apply to your vehicle.

SKU ERI-78-0020
This unit generates a small voltage, using a 555 timer chip as an oscillator, rectifying the output to give a small adjustable voltage which is then added to whatever voltage is being generated by the oxygen sensor. This voltage is adjusted at installation time and is then left permanently at that setting. Eagle Research also offer for sale, a booklet which shows you how to build this unit from scratch if you would prefer to do that.

If you wish to use a circuit board with a narrowband oxygen sensor, then please be aware that there are several versions of this type of sensor. The version is indicated by the number of connecting wires:

Those with 1 wire, where the wire carries the signal and the case is ground (zero volts)
Those with 2 wires, where one wire carries the signal and the other wire is ground.
Those with 3 wires, where 2 (typically slightly thicker) wires are for a sensor heater, and 1 for the signal while the case is ground.
Those with 4 wires (the most common on current model cars), where there are 2 (slightly heavier) for the sensor heater, 1 for the signal, and 1 for the signal ground.
(Sensors with 5 wires are normally wideband devices.)

Look in the engine compartment and locate the oxygen sensor. If you have difficulty in finding it, get a copy of the Clymer or Haynes Maintenance Manual for your vehicle as that will show you the position. We need to identify the sensor wire which carries the control signal to the fuel control computer. To do this, make sure that the car is switched off, then

For 3 and 4 wire sensors:
- Disconnect the oxygen sensor wiring harness,
- Set a multimeter to a DC voltage measurement range of at least 15 volts,
- Turn on the ignition and probe the socket looking for the two wires that provide 12 volts.
- These are the heater wires, so make a note of which they are,
- Shut the ignition off, and reconnect the oxygen sensor.

The two remaining wires can now be treated the same as the wires from a 2-wire sensor, one will carry the sensor signal and one will be the signal ground (for a single wire sensor, the signal ground will be the engine block). Jesper Ingerslev points out that the Ford Mustang built since 1996 has 2 oxygen sensors per catalytic converter, one before the converter and one after. Some other vehicles also have this arrangement. With a vehicle of this type, the circuit board described here should be attached to the sensor closest to the engine.

Find a convenient place along the wires. Don’t cut these wires, you will cut the sensor wire here at a later time, but not now. Instead, strip back a small amount of the insulation on each wire. Be careful to avoid the wires short-circuiting to each other or to the body of the vehicle. Connect the DC voltmeter to the wires (the non-heater wires). Start the engine and watch the meter readings. When the engine is warmed up, if the oxygen sensor is performing as it should (i.e. no engine check lights on), the voltage on the meter should begin toggling between a low value near zero volts and a high value of about 1 volt. If the meter reading is going negative, then reverse the meter leads. The black multimeter lead is connected to the signal ‘ground’ (zero volts) and the red lead will be connected to the wire which carries the signal from the sensor. Connect a piece of insulated wire to the stripped point of the sensor wire and take the wire to the input of your mixture controller circuit board. Connect a second insulated wire between the signal ‘ground’ wire, or in the case of a 1-wire sensor, the engine block, and the circuit board zero-volts line. Insulate all of the stripped cables to prevent any possibility of a short-circuit:

![Diagram of wire connections](image)

**Step 1:** Remove a small piece of insulation and join the new cable to the original wire without cutting the original wire.  

10 - 21
More specific detail:

However, the situation is by no means a simple one which allows a single simple adaption which will work on every vehicle for many years. Les Pearson has been investigating this situation in depth for three years along with a friend who is an Electronics Engineer. Having built and tested EFIEs, the oxygen sensor circuit shown below, several versions of MAP controllers, coolant/air temperature hacks, professional systems, etc. and discovered that many vehicle ECUs ("Electronic Control Units") learnt to adapt to the new conditions and return to the highly inefficient excess fuel injection condition. This return to the original fuel injection is different for each design of ECU and there are many different designs.

Les says: "To understand the solution, first you have to understand the dilemma with all the other ECU control tricks. The EFIEs, MAP adjusters, temp hacks etc. do get good results for a short time, and then the performance deteriorates again. Why should this be? It is because the ECU learns to deal with the new situation with them in place. This is because the ECU knows that the feedback from most of its controls, and sensors are not linear, nor should they be. All of the electronics, and adjustment methods used by the Hydrogen On Demand people are linear, and that is not an adequate way to deal with the problem.

For example, we may add a couple of hundred millivolts to the oxygen ("lambda") sensor signal in order to return an unduly rich signal to the ECU, and so make it respond with a lower level of fuel injection. This makes the ECU think that the Air/Fuel Ratio is say, 15:1 or 20:1. Now the mass air maps are all wrong, we need to show less air so that the ECU adds less fuel in order to match the fuel trims. We now need to adjust the ignition timing to take advantage of this combustion change. The problem is that all the EFIEs, MAP/MAF adjusters, and attempts at changing timing by manipulating air temp are a static fixed offset, producing just a single change.

An Air/Fuel Ratio of 20:1 is not appropriate under moderate or heavy acceleration when you don't, and usually can't, add enough hydroxy gas to allow for these conditions. A set 15% to 20% leaner setting across the entire fuel map is not appropriate at all loads, and engine speeds. Adding 50 to 75 degrees F to the air temp is not appropriate when the outside air is already at 110 degrees F. The ECU knows this and makes appropriate changes to it's long-term settings, and so it cancels out the changes which our electronic additions have made.

While it may be OK for an experimenter, and mechanic with all the tools at his disposal to play with these techniques, and retune his engines every week or so in order to get great mileage, it is not realistic to expect the average person to do this. The cost in equipment alone, would undermine any fuel savings. Also, most people don't even change their oil at appropriate intervals.

This was my train of thought says Les. As I pondered a solution, and began searching, my search was for a control solution which could firstly, alter the air-flow readings, lambda readings, and ignition timing and secondly, respond to changes in engine speed and engine load. To my surprise I found several products already on the market which are capable of doing this, and which have been available for quite some time. People in the engine-tuning industry have been using them for years. They are custom programmable, piggy-back chips. Several companies make them, and while most do not advertise O2 ("lambda") sensor control, many are quite capable of altering it.

We became a distributor for one brand which seemed to be the best fit for our purposes, and we began testing. The results are perfect. We started with an 2002 Saturn SL. The average mpg for this car started at 26 mpg (highway and city combined). We installed the chip, tested several tuning methods, and found the one which worked best. The car now averages 44-46 mpg. This is not special 'grandma driving' to try and coax a few extra miles per gallon. This is a courier vehicle for a local printer, and it is driven daily like it was stolen. We have all the same benefits of increased torque (pulling power), better throttle response, etc. The car has been driven around for three months now with our programmed chip installed, and it achieves the mid-40s in mpg all of the time. there are no code changes needed, no start-up problems, no driving problems of any kind whatsoever. If
you weren't told, you would never know that hydroxy gas was being added, except for the fact that you can go over 500 miles on a single tank of fuel.

The only problem is that this is definitely not a do-it-yourself solution. You need a laptop computer with proprietary software to tune the chip, and the scanning, and diagnostic equipment to know when you have it tuned correctly. However, I have thought of a do-it-yourself solution. It still requires you to buy a few electronic kits, and you need a lot of know-how, but we are circumventing a highly sophisticated control architecture, so anyone who thinks it will be easy, is delusional. The main item is a Digital Fuel Adjuster or "DFA" kit from JayCar electronics based in Australia. Their website is [http://www.jaycar.com](http://www.jaycar.com). The adjuster kit number is KC5385, and you have to have the hand controller to program it, that kit number is KC5386. The adjuster doesn't have an enclosure supplied, but the controller does. You need one controller and two adjusters. The controller can be reused to program multiple adjusters. Once you have the kits, it will take several days of soldering to build them, and it is definitely not a beginner's first-time project.

After the two adjusters and the controller have been built, the first one is wired in to the MAP/MAF sensor signal as shown in the instructions guide. Next the second DFA is used on the oxygen sensor signal. If there are two oxygen sensors, then the DFA is wired through the common ground for the upstream sensors ONLY. This places the voltage offsets in tandem, which makes it unnecessary to use two DFAs (or EFIEs for that matter) for "lambda" control. Now control has been established over fuel maps, and a "lambda" control which is responsive to engine load has been achieved. I believe that these kits also come with an option to make them responsive to rpm.

For ignition timing, the temperature offsets will probably still be necessary, but now you have a fuel control which if tuned properly, the ECU will not learn its way around. I have found that the maps for "lambda" control are very simple. Tune for the leanest Air/Fuel Ratio appropriate at very low loads, and richen up a bit in increments as the load increases. As you get close to full throttle, but before you switch to open-loop operation, your lambda offset should be zero (the stock setting). To tune the air-flow or fuel maps, watch the OBD II scan gauge, and decrease the MAP signal so that your short term fuel trim ("STFT" on a scanner) is no greater than about ± 7% at each load interval. Drive for about 20 minutes, and check that your long term fuel trim ("LTFT") never goes beyond the "7s" either. Now the ECU cannot "see" your changes because the fuel map, and lambda readings "agree" at every load range.

The Jaycar kits are as sophisticated as the chip sets, but they are about 20% of the cost, if you want to put the time and effort into them. The adjuster itself simply adds to, or subtracts from, whatever voltage runs across them, and it can be set to change that offset value in correspondence to whatever voltage value is present at the signal input pin. You would of course put your TPS signal to the signal input pin. The device itself is very versatile, and could be used for many different applications. If you wanted to use one to control a Pulse-Width Modulator attached to a cell, then that would be possible and it would provide a variable gas rate that responds to changes in engine load. I hope you can put this to good use, and feel free to spread the word around. Perhaps you know someone who could build a similar device or give us a schematic to build one, after looking at a JayCar kit. The only drawback to the kits is that rpm sampling gets a little complex, and while I don't think it is absolutely necessary, it would be beneficial. Although the kits have only 125 data points between the "closed", and "fully open" throttle settings, and do not interpolate between data points, they seem to work very well. The professional chip sets have 96,000 data points between CT ("Closed Throttle"), and WOT ("Wide-Open Throttle"), and they do logically interpolate between set data points. The professional chip sets run about $650 USD programmed, and installed.

I think that the "more is better" hydroxy gas idea that a lot of people are stuck in, is seriously flawed. There is definitely a point of diminishing returns. I tune most systems to deliver about 1 lpm. The lower the amperage you can do this at, of course the better. I have found that not only does it take more amperage to produce higher volumes at a less effective rate of return, but it does not add much to the efficiency of the "boosting". With the cells which I build I get 1 lpm of hydroxy gas at about 8 to 10 amps. I'm using direct DC with a 5-cell, 6 plate array, similar to a "Smack's Booster", but with better plate isolation in the bath. We've spent thousands developing fancier, and slightly more efficient cells. We've used PWMs to get better production, and be able to attenuate gas production with duty cycle. We had a really, really advanced system. Then I applied Occam's razor to it. We can make enough gas to support ultra-lean combustion above fairly low load conditions - so what good is it to be able to decrease when you barely make enough already? The PWM does help, and is relatively inexpensive so we kept that component if the customer wants, but we don't change the duty cycle.

The 6 plate "Smacks" style cell works fine. It is small, easy to build, and is efficient enough for the production we need. Engine control was the biggest issue. I can get great mileage with just a little hydroxy gas, if I can control what fuel table the ECU looks at every load range, and rpm. The problem with EFIEs, and MAP/MAF adjusters is that they tell the computer to look at inappropriate fuel tables at higher load ranges. The ECU picks up on that, adjusts it's long-term fuel trims, and goes back to an unmodified state. If I can make the ECU look at very lean tables at cruise, and then more or less unmodified tables at higher loads it never "sees" the trick. Since we only
make enough hydroxy gas to affect low loads anyway, that is all I need to be concerned with. You could think of it as an ultra-lean cruise mode: when you aren't at low cruise you aren't changing anything. When you are cruising you are running at a very lean Air-Fuel Ratio. So far, it works great.

The super fancy system that used a PWM with a duty-cycle controlled by our chip, and made up to 3 lpm at 20amps would have cost over USD $2500 just for the parts, and equipment to cover production cost, and turn a profit, and it only gained us about 10% efficiency. The system we are working on now should be less than USD $1500 as a ‘turn-key’ system. Our little Saturn just came back at 88mpg on a carefully driven run with this system. It typically gets high 40s to mid 50s in mpg under normal driving conditions.

I have tried adding just 0.6 lpm or so, and letting the ECU trim out to compensate. This has given me mixed results. Sometimes I can get 25% to 30% reduction in consumption, and sometimes it makes no difference at all. It has a lot to do with the ECU's programming, and the driver’s habits. I don't really know why it doesn't work all the time theoretically it should. The hydroxy gas makes the petrol more volatile so you should be getting more energy per gram of fuel. That should correlate to higher exhaust gas temperatures, and the ECU should see that and take away some fuel, but sometimes it does just the opposite. The ECU sees a lean condition due to increased Exhaust Gas Temperature at the manifold, and lower temperature at the catalytic converter, and so it richens up the air-fuel mix.

Another possible option that I have not explored would be an EFIE designed to change it's output to a set voltage controlled by the vehicle's throttle position sensor. The challenge here is that it is not a linear change. The steps between load sites would not be equal. They would need to be able to be manually set for what the application needed. The DFAs allow you to do this, and can add voltage just like an EFIE. You can use one DFA for MAP/MAF control, and one for oxygen sensor control. So even with a modified EFIE you would need a DFA or something similar to provide non-linear MAP/MAF control. You can contact Les at lespearson(at)hotmail(dot)com.

Construction:
If you wish to build an oxygen sensor controller circuit, then here is a suggestion as to how you might do it. This description assumes very little knowledge on the part of the reader, so I offer my apologies to those of you who are already expert in these matters. There are many different ways to design and construct any electronic circuit and each electronics expert will have his own preferred way. In my opinion, the way shown here is the easiest for a newcomer to understand and build with the minimum of tools and materials.

This circuit can be constructed on a printed circuit board or it can be built on a simple single-sided stripboard as shown here:

Stripboard (often called “Veroboard”), has copper strips attached to one side of the board. The copper strips can be broken where it is convenient for building the circuit. Component leads are cut to length, cleaned, inserted from the side of the board which does not have the copper strips, and the leads attached to the copper strips using a solder joint. Soldering is not a difficult skill to learn and the method is described later in this document.

When all of the components have been attached to the stripboard and the circuit tested, then the board is mounted in a small plastic case as shown here:
Insulating posts can be made from a short pieces of plastic rod with a hole drilled through its length. The mounting bolt can self-tap into a hole drilled in the case, if the hole is slightly smaller than the diameter of the bolt threads. Alternatively, the holes can be drilled slightly larger and the bolt heads located outside the case with nuts used to hold the board in place. This style of mounting holds the circuit board securely in place and gives some clearance between the board and the case.

You will need building equipment, namely, a soldering iron, a 12 volt power supply such as a battery pack and an accurate digital volt meter for this project. If the 12 volt supply is a main-powered unit, then it needs to be a well-filtered, voltage-stabilised unit. Lastly, you will need a variable voltage source that can go from 0 to 1 volt to imitate the output from the vehicle’s oxygen sensor when testing the completed circuit board. This is simple enough to make, using a resistor and a variable resistor.

A series of components will be needed for the circuit itself. These can be bought from a number of different suppliers and the ordering details are shown later in this document. Shown above is a resistor. The value of the resistor is indicated by a set of three colour bands at one end of the body. The reason for doing this rather than just writing the value on the resistor, is that when the resistor is soldered in place, its value can be read from any
angle and from any side. The component list shows the colour bands for each of the resistors used in this circuit. If you want more information on basic electronics, then read the Electronics Tutorial which can be found at http://www.free-energy-info.com/Chapter12.pdf

Other components which you will be using, look like this:

The MPSA14 and the BC327 devices are transistors. They each have a “Collector”, a “Base” and an “Emitter” wire coming out of them. Please notice that the two packages are not identical, and take care that the right wire is placed in the correct hole in the stripboard before soldering it in place.

The 1N4007 diode has a ring marked at one end of the body. The ring indicates the flat bar across the symbol as shown on the circuit diagram, and in that way it identifies which way round the diode is placed on the stripboard.

The Light-Emitting Diode (the “LED”) will be familiar to most people as it is used so extensively in equipment of all types.

The toggle switch has six contacts - three on each side. The centre contact is connected to one of the two outer contacts on its side, which one, depends on the position of the switch lever.

The two capacitors (which are called “condensers” in very old literature) look quite different from each other. The electrolytic capacitor has it’s + wire marked on the body of the capacitor, while the ceramic has such a small value that it does not matter which way round it is connected.

The main component of the circuit, is an integrated circuit or “chip”. This is a tiny package containing a whole electronic circuit inside it (resistors, capacitors, diodes, whatever, ...). Integrated circuit chips generally look like this:

A very common version of this package has two rows of seven pins each and it goes by the grandiose name of “Dual In Line” which just means that there are two rows of pins, each row having the pins in a straight line. In our particular circuit, the chip has eighteen pins, in two rows of nine.

Now to the circuit itself. If you find it hard to follow, then take a look at the electronics tutorial on the web site as it shows the circuit diagram symbol for each component and explains how each device works.
The circuit contains three capacitors, eight resistors, two diodes, one LED, one IC chip, two transistors, one toggle switch and two types of component not yet described, namely: two preset resistors and one rotary switch.

The preset resistor is very small and is adjusted using a flat bladed screwdriver. It is used for making an adjustable setting which is then left unchanged for a long time. The Rotary switch has a central contact which is connected to a row of outer contacts in turn when the shaft is rotated from position to position. The switch shaft is made of plastic and so can easily be cut to the length needed to make a neat installation, and the knob is locked in place by tightening its grub screw against the flat face of the shaft, although some knobs are designed just to push tightly on to the shaft. There is a wide range of knob styles which can be used with this switch, so the choice of knob is dictated by personal taste.

This is the circuit diagram:

Electronic circuits are normally “read” from left to right, so we will look at this circuit that way. The first components are the 100 microfarad, 35 volt electrolytic capacitor with the tiny 100 nF capacitor across it. These are put there to help iron out any variations in the voltage supply. The BZX85C zener diode is a 24-volt type and it protects the integrated circuit from voltage spikes coming along the +12-volt line from other equipment in the
vehicle, preventing the circuit from being fed more than 24 volts for even a fraction of a second as that would damage the integrated circuit.

The next item is the On/Off dashboard switch. When switched to its Off position as shown here:

![On/Off switch diagram]

the connection from the oxygen sensor is passed straight through to the vehicle’s fuel computer, bypassing the circuit board completely. This switch allows the whole circuit to be switched Off should you want to do this for any reason.

In it’s On position, as shown in the circuit diagram, the varying voltage signal coming from the oxygen sensor is passed into the circuit, and the output voltage from the circuit is passed back to the fuel computer, instead of the original sensor voltage. This allows the circuit to manipulate the voltage sent to the fuel computer.

The next set of components (four resistors, one ceramic capacitor and one preset resistor) shown here:

![Component diagram]

are needed to feed the incoming sensor voltage to the Integrated Circuit chip, and make the chip operate in the way that we want, (the chip manufacturer allows more than one way for the chip to work). You can just ignore these components for now, just understand why they are there.

The Integrated Circuit chip has ten outputs, coming out through Pins 1 and 10 through 18 inclusive:

![Output diagram]

If the input voltage coming from the oxygen sensor is low, then all of these ten outputs will have low voltages on them. When the input voltage rises a little, the voltage on Pin 10 suddenly rises to a high value, while the other output pins still have low voltages.

If the input voltage rises a little higher, then suddenly the voltage on Pin 11 rises to a high value. At this point, both Pin 10 and Pin 11 have high voltage on them and the other eight output pins remain at low voltage.
If the input voltage rises a little higher again, then suddenly the voltage on Pin 12 rises to a high value. At this point, Pin 10, Pin 11 and Pin 12 all have high voltage on them and the other seven output pins remain at low voltage.

The same thing happens to each of the ten output pins, with the voltage on Pin 1 being the last to get a high voltage on it. The circuit is arranged so that Pin 10 provides the output signal for the richest air/fuel mixture for the vehicle, and the mix gets progressively leaner as the output on Pins 11, 12, ... etc. are selected to be fed to the fuel computer.

As there is the possibility of engine damage if the fuel mix is too lean, only six of the outputs are taken on into the circuit. However, if the engine is being fed hydroxy gas from an electrolyzer to improve both the miles per gallon performance and reduce emissions to zero, then it is likely that the engine will run cooler than before and engine damage is most unlikely to occur. It is quite safe to leave the remaining output pins of the Integrated Circuit chip unconnected. However, if this unit is to be used with the Nitrogen Hydroxide cell described in the D18.pdf document, then it is quite safe to connect Pins 16, 17, 18 and 1 and set the rotary switch to ten positions.

The output pin to be used by the remainder of the circuit is selected by the rotary switch mounted on the dashboard:

A standard single-pole rotary wafer switch has twelve positions but the switch operation can be restricted to any lesser number of positions by placing the end-stop lug of the switch just after the last switch position required. This lug comes as standard, fits around the switch shaft like a washer, and is held in place when the locking nut is tightened on the shaft to hold the switch in place. The lug projects down into the switch mechanism and forms an end-stop to prevent the switch shaft being turned any further. With six switch positions, the circuit provides five levels of leaner air/fuel mix which can be selected. This should be more than adequate for all practical purposes.

The next section of the circuit is the BC327 transistor amplifier stage which provides the output current for the fuel computer:

Here, the switch “SW1” connects to one of the output pins of the Integrated Circuit. When the voltage on that pin goes low, it causes a current to flow through the transistor Base/Emitter junction, limited by the 2.7K (2,700 ohm) resistor. This current causes the transistor to switch hard On, which in turn alters the voltage on its Collector from
near 0 volts to near +12 volts. The 2.7K resistor is only there to limit the current through the transistor and to avoid excessive loading on the output pin of the IC.

The transistor now feeds current to the LED via the two 1N4007 diodes and the 1K (1,000 ohm) resistor. This causes the Light Emitting Diode to light brightly. The 1K resistor is there to limit the amount of current flowing through this section of the circuit.

Part of the voltage across the LED is fed back to the fuel computer:

By moving the slider contact on the preset resistor “VR2”, any output voltage can be fed to the fuel computer. This voltage can be anything from the whole of the voltage across the LED, down to almost zero volts. We will use VR2 to adjust the output voltage when we are setting the circuit up for use. In this circuit, VR2 is acting as a “voltage divider” and it is there to allow adjustment of the output voltage going from the circuit to the fuel computer.

The final section of the circuit is the MPSA14 transistor and its associated components:

This circuit is a timer. When the circuit is first powered up (by the vehicle’s ignition key being turned), the 470 microfarad capacitor “C1” is fully discharged (if it isn’t, then the oxygen sensor will already be hot). As it is discharged and one side is connected to the +12 volt line, then the other side (point “A”) looks as if it is also at +12 volts. This provides a tiny current to the Base/Emitter junction of the MPSA14 transistor, through the high resistance 470K (470,000 ohm) resistor. The MPSA14 transistor has a very high gain and so this tiny current causes it to switch hard on, short-circuiting the LED and preventing any voltage developing across the LED.

As time passes, the tiny current flowing through the MPSA14 transistor, along with the tiny current through the 3.9M (3,900,000 ohm) resistor “R1”, cause a voltage to build up on capacitor “C1”. This in turn, forces the voltage at point “A” lower and lower. Eventually, the voltage at point “A” gets so low that the MPSA14 transistor gets starved of current and it switches off, allowing the LED to light and the circuit to start supplying an output voltage to the fuel computer. The purpose of the section of the circuit is to shut off the output to the fuel computer until the oxygen sensor has reached it’s working temperature of 600 degrees Fahrenheit. It may be necessary to tailor this delay to your vehicle by altering the value of either “R1” or “C1”. Increasing either or both will lengthen the delay while reducing the value of either or both, will shorten the delay.

We want the time delay to occur if the engine is off for some time, but not to occur if the engine is switched off only briefly. For this to happen, it is suggested that a diode is placed across the timing resistor. This will have no effect when the circuit is powered up, but it will discharge the capacitor when the circuit is powered down. We can slow down the rate of discharge by putting a high-value resistor in series with the discharge diode and that would make the circuit:

**Circuit Operation:**
Now that we have looked at each part of the circuit separately, let us look again at the way that the circuit operates. The main component is the LM3914 integrated circuit. This device is designed to light a row of Light
Emitting Diodes ("LEDs"). The number of LEDs lit is proportional to the input voltage reaching it through it's Pin 5. In this circuit, the integrated circuit is used to provide a reduced voltage to be fed to the fuel computer, rather than to light a row of LEDs. When the operating switch is set in it's ON position, the sensor voltage is fed to Pin 5 through a 1 megohm resistor.

The sensitivity of this circuit is adjusted, so that when 500 millivolts (0.5 volts) is applied to Pin 5, the output on Pin 10 is just triggered. This is done by adjusting the 10K linear preset resistor "VR1" while placing a test voltage of 500 millivolts on Pin 5. This LM3914 Integrated Circuit is normally switched so that it samples the sensor voltage. The LM3914 chip provides ten separate output voltage levels, and the circuit is arranged so that any one of these can be selected by the rotary switch "SW1". These output voltages range from 50 millivolts on Pin 1 to 500 millivolts on Pin 10, with each output position having a 50 millivolt greater output than it's neighbouring pin. This allows a wide range of control over the sensor feed passed to the fuel computer.

The input resistor/capacitor circuit provides filtering of the sensor signal. Because this circuit draws very little current, it is easily knocked out of correct operation through it's input line picking up stray electrical pulses produced by the engine, particularly the vehicle's ignition circuit. When the exhaust sensor heats up, the signal becomes cleaner and then the circuit starts operating correctly. The circuit includes a delay so that after start up, the output is held low for a few minutes to simulate a cold sensor. The sensor must be operating correctly before we send signals to the computer. The most common problem, if we don't have this delay, is that the output will be high simply from the noise on the signal line. The computer will think the sensor is working, because it is high, and will cut back the fuel to make the signal go low. If that were to happen, we would end up with an over-lean fuel input to the engine, producing very poor acceleration.

The front panel LED is not just to show that the device is operating, but forms a simple voltage regulator for the output signal to the computer. When the engine is warmed up and running normally, the LED is lit when the output is high, and not lit when the output is low, so this LED should be flashing on and off.

The earth connection for the oxygen sensor is the exhaust system, which is firmly bolted to the engine. The computer earth is the vehicle body. A difference of just 0.5 volts can make a large difference to the mixture. If the engine is not securely earthed to the vehicle body, then a voltage difference can exist between the two, and in this situation a voltage difference of just 0.5 volts would normally go unnoticed. We can’t afford to have that sort of voltage difference when trying to control the mixture accurately, so some investigation and adjustment is needed.

To do this, start the engine, switch the headlights on to high beam, then measure the voltage between the engine and the body. Use a digital volt meter. Any more than 50 millivolts (0.05 volts) means that there is a bad earth connection which need cleaning and tightening. Modern cars usually have more than one connection so look around. If you have trouble achieving a really good connection, then earth your circuit board directly on the engine rather than connecting it to a point on the bodywork of the vehicle. The most important item is to have a good quality signal voltage coming from the sensor, since the operating range consists of quite low voltages. The components and tools needed for building this circuit are shown later, but for now, consider the setting up and testing of the unit so as to understand better what is needed.

Adjusting on the Bench:
When the circuit has been constructed to the testing stage, that is, with all components in place except for the timing capacitor “C1”, and before the power is turned on, plug the Integrated Circuit chip into its socket mounted on the board. Be very careful doing this as the chip can be destroyed by static electricity picked up by your body. Professionals wear an electrical earth wrist strap when handling these devices, so it would be a good idea to touch a good earth point such as a metal-pipe cold water system just before handling the chip.

It is vital that you install the IC chip, the correct way round or it may be damaged. The circuit board layout shows which way round it goes. The chip has a semi-circular indentation at one end to show which end is which, so be careful that the indentation is positioned as shown on the board layout in the section which shows how the board is built. Some manufacturers use a dot rather than a semi-circular indentation to mark the end of the chip which has Pin 1 in it.
Make up the test voltage device. We need something to give us an adjustable voltage in the range 0 to 1 volt. A very easy way to get this is to use a 10K resistor and a 1K variable resistor (called a “potentiometer” by some people) and connect them across the 12 volt battery, as shown here:

This gives us a voltage in the correct range when the shaft of the variable resistor is turned. Power up the circuit board by switching the 12 volt battery through to the board. Adjust the test-voltage source to 500 millivolts (0.5 volts) and apply it to the board’s input (where the sensor connection will be made when it is installed in the vehicle). Set the switch to the “Richest” position, that is, with the switch connected to Pin 10 of the chip.

Now, using a flat-blade screwdriver, adjust the sensitivity control preset resistor “VR1” so that the output LED is just lit. Leave the preset resistor in that position and adjust the test voltage lower and higher to test that the LED turns on and off in response to the varying voltage at the input to the circuit. The LED should come on at 0.5 volts, and go off just below 0.5 volts. The other outputs, which can be selected by the rotary switch “SW1”, will be about 50 millivolts lower for each position of the switch away from its “Richest” setting on Pin 10.

Now, with the output high and the LED lit, use a flat-bladed screwdriver to adjust the preset resistor “VR2” to set the output voltage being sent to the computer to about 1.0 volts. When this has been set, lower the input voltage so that the LED goes out. The output voltage should now be at zero volts. If this is what happens, then it shows that the circuit is operating correctly.

If this board is not in place, the sensor will cause the fuel computer to make the fuel mixture richer so as to maintain a 500 millivolt voltage from the sensor. With the circuit in place and set to its “Richest” setting, exactly the same thing happens. However, if the rotary switch is moved to its next position, the fuel computer will maintain the fuel feed to maintain a 450 millivolt output, which is a leaner fuel-to-air mixture. One step further around and the fuel computer will make the mix even leaner to maintain a 400 millivolt output from the circuit board, which the fuel computer thinks is coming from the exhaust oxygen sensor.

If your circuit board does not operate as described, then power it down and examine the circuit board again, looking for places where the solder connections are not perfect. There may be somewhere where the solder is bridging between two of the copper strips, or there may be a joint which looks as if it is not a good quality joint. If you find one, don’t solder anywhere near the IC chip as the heat might damage the chip. If necessary, earth yourself again, remove the chip and put it back into the anti-static packaging it came in, before repairing the board. If the components are all correctly positioned, the copper tracks broken at all the right places and all solder joints looking good and well made but the board still is not working correctly, then it is likely that the IC chip is defective and needs to be replaced.

Next, install the delay capacitor “C1”. Set the test voltage above 500 millivolts and turn the power on again. It should take about three minutes for the LED to come on. If you want to shorten this delay, then change the timing resistor “R1” for a resistor of a lower value. To lengthen the delay, replace the timing capacitor “C1” with a capacitor of larger value. If you find that the oxygen sensor heats up quickly, then you can reduce the length of the delay. Having too long a delay is not ideal, since the computer will be adding extra fuel to make the mixture richer.

It is suggested that the rotary switch should be set to have only six switch positions (by moving it’s end-stop lug washer), so initially, connect the IC chip output pins 10 through 15 to the switch. You can choose to connect the wires to the switch so that the mixture gets richer when you turn the knob clockwise, or if you prefer, you can wire it in the reverse order so that the mixture gets richer when you turn the knob counterclockwise.

**Testing in the Car:**
You can now test the device in the vehicle but don’t install it yet. Look in the engine compartment and locate the oxygen sensor. If you have difficulty in finding it, get a copy of the Clymer or Haynes Maintenance Manual for
your vehicle as that will show you the position. If your vehicle has two sensors, then select the one nearest to the engine. If your sensor has five wires running to it, then it is a “wideband” sensor which measures both the oxygen content and the amount of unburnt fuel, and unfortunately, the type of circuit described here will not control it.

Start the vehicle and allow the oxygen sensor to warm up for a couple of minutes. Remember that there is a delay built in to the circuit, so after a few minutes you should see the LED start to flash. Rev the engine and the LED will stay on. When you release the throttle, the LED will go out for a while. A flashing LED is what you want to see. The rate of flashing will be somewhere between 1 and 10 times per second, most likely around 2 per second. Confirm that the LED goes out when you switch off the circuit board On/Off switch mounted on the dashboard.

Now comes the exciting bit, cutting the oxygen sensor wire and inserting the controller. Turn the engine off and cut the wire in a convenient place. Use crimp connectors on the wire ends. Use a matching pair on the wire which you just cut, in case you need to reconnect it, as shown here:

When set up like this, the male connector furthest on the left could be plugged into the female connector furthest on the right and the circuit board removed. Be sure to insulate the sensor and fuel computer plug/socket connections to make quite sure that neither of them can short-circuit to any part of the body. There is no need to insulate the earth connection as it is already connected to the body of the vehicle. Although not shown in the diagram, you could also put a male and female crimp connector pair on the earth cable. If your sensor has only one wire coming from it, then you best earth connection is to a solder-tag connector placed under a bolt on the engine. If you do that, be sure to clean all grease, dirt, rust, etc. off the underside of the bolt head and the area around the bolt hole. Push a paper towel into the bolt hole before doing this to make sure that no unwanted material ends up in the bolt hole and use wet-and-dry paper to really clean the surfaces. The objective here is to make sure that there is a very good electrical connection with shiny metal faces clamped firmly together.

Installing the Controller:
Now, install the circuit board in the vehicle. For the 12 volt supply, find a connection which is switched on and off by the vehicle’s ignition switch. Don’t drive the car yet, do this test in the driveway. With the front panel switch in it’s “Off” position, start the car and check that it runs normally. Set the front panel rotary switch to the Richest position (connected to the IC’s Pin 10) and switch the circuit board toggle switch to it’s “On” position. The car is now running with a modified oxygen sensor signal although the mixture is still the same. The vehicle performance should be completely normal. Drive the vehicle with this setting for a while to prove that the system is working reliably before changing to any of the lower settings. When you are satisfied that everything is in order, try the next leanest setting on the rotary switch and see how it runs.

It is important that there should be no hesitation in the engine performance and no knocking or “pinking” as that is an indication that the mix is too lean and the engine is liable to overheat. This circuit is intended for use with an electrolyzer, so your electrolyzer should be set up and working for these tests. The electrolyzer will tend to make the engine run cooler and offset any tendency towards overheating.

Building the Circuit Board:
Although the above information has been presented as if the board has already been built, the actual construction details have been left until now, so that you will already have an understanding of what the circuit is intended to do and how it is used.

It is likely that you will know somebody (neighbour, friend, relative,...) who has the necessary equipment and skills. If so, borrow the equipment, or better still, recruit the person to help with the construction. It is very likely that anybody owning the equipment would be very interested in your project and more than willing to help out.
However, the rest of this document will be written on the assumption that you cannot find anybody to help and have had to buy all of the necessary equipment. This project is not difficult to build, so you will almost certainly be successful straight off.

The tools which you will need, are:

1. A soldering iron with a fine conical tapering tip (probably 15 watts power rating)
2. Some “Multicore” resin solder. This is special solder for electronics construction work and is quite different from plumber’s solder which is not suitable for this job.
3. A pair of long-nosed pliers (for holding component wires when soldering them in place)
4. Something for cutting and cleaning wires and stripping off insulation coverings. I personally prefer a pair of “nail” scissors for this job. Others prefer a pair of wire cutters and some sandpaper. You get whatever you feel would be the best tool for doing these tasks.
5. A 1/8 inch (3 mm) drill bit (for making bolt holes in the stripboard and for breaking the copper strips where needed) and a 3/8 inch (9 mm) drill and bit for mounting the switches on the plastic box.
6. A coping-saw or similar small saw for cutting the rotary switch shaft to the optimum length.
7. A small screwdriver (for tightening knob grubscrews).
8. A crimping tool and some crimp connectors.
9. A multimeter (preferably a digital one) with a DC voltage measuring range of 0 to 15 volts or so.
10. (Optional) a magnifying glass of x4 or higher magnification (for very close examination of the soldering)

Soldering:

Many electronic components can be damaged by the high temperatures they are subjected to when being soldered in place. I personally prefer to use a pair of long-nosed pliers to grip the component leads on the upper side of the board while making the solder joint on the underside of the board. The heat running up the component lead then gets diverted into the large volume of metal in the pair of pliers and the component is protected from excessive heat. On the same principle, I always use an Integrated Circuit socket when soldering a circuit board, that way, the heat has dissipated fully before the IC is plugged into the socket. It also has the advantage that the IC can be replaced without any difficulty should it become damaged.

If you are using CMOS integrated circuits in any construction, you need to avoid static electricity. Very high levels of voltage build up on your clothes through brushing against objects. This voltage is in the thousands of volts range. It can supply so little current that it does not bother you and you probably do not notice it. CMOS devices operate on such low amounts of current that they can very easily be damaged by your static electricity. Computer hardware professionals wear an earthing lead strapped to their wrists when handling CMOS circuitry. There is no need for you to go that far. CMOS devices are supplied with their leads embedded in a conducting material. Leave them in the material until you are ready to plug them into the circuit and then only hold the plastic body of the case and do not touch any of the pins. Once in place in the circuit, the circuit components will prevent the build up of static charges on the chip.

Soldering is an easily-acquired skill. Multi-cored solder is used for electronic circuit soldering. This solder wire has flux resin contained within it and when melted on a metal surface, the flux removes the oxide layer on the metal, allowing a proper electrical and mechanical joint to be made. Consequently, it is important that the solder is placed on the joint area and the soldering iron placed on it when it is already in position. If this is done, the flux can clean the joint area and the joint will be good. If the solder is placed on the soldering iron and then the iron moved to the joint, the flux will have burnt away before the joint area is reached and the resulting joint will not be good.

A good solder joint will have a smooth shiny surface and pulling any wire going into the joint will have no effect as the wire is now solidly incorporated into the joint. Making a good solder joint takes about half a second and certainly not more than one second. You want to remove the soldering iron from the joint before an excessive amount of heat is run into the joint. It is recommended that a good mechanical joint be made before soldering when connecting a wire to some form of terminal (this is often not possible).

The technique which I use, is to stand the solder up on the workbench and bend the end so that it is sloping downwards towards me. The lead of the component to be soldered is placed in the hole in the stripboard and gripped just above the board with long-nosed pliers. The board is turned upside down and the left thumb used to clamp the board against the pliers. The board and pliers are then moved underneath the solder and positioned so that the solder lies on the copper strip, touching the component lead. The right hand is now used to place the soldering iron briefly on the solder. This melts the solder on the joint, allowing the flux to clean the area and producing a good joint. After the joint is made, the board is still held with the pliers until the joint has cooled down.
Nowadays, the holes in the stripboard are only 1/10 inch (2.5 mm) apart and so the gaps between adjacent copper strips is very small indeed. If you solder carefully, there should be no problem. However, I would recommend that when the circuit board is completed, that you use a magnifying glass to examine the strip side of the board to make quite sure that everything is perfectly ok and that solder does not bridge between the copper strips anywhere. Before powering up the circuit, double-check that all of the breaks in the copper strips have been made correctly. Here is a possible layout for the components on the stripboard:

![Circuit Diagram]

If this board is turned over horizontally, the underside will look like this:

![Underside of the Board]
This shows where the breaks in the copper strips need to be made using a 1/8 inch (3 mm) drill bit.

To construct this circuit, cut a piece of stripboard which has 18 strips, each with 32 holes. That is a board size of about two inches (50 mm) by just over three inches (85 mm). Mount the components on the board, working from one end as the installation is easier if you have a clear board to work across. If you are right-handed, then start at the left hand side of the board and work towards the right, installing all components as you go. If you are left-handed, then mount the components starting with the right hand side of the board and working towards the left hand side.

Having said that, it is probably easier if you put all of the wire jumpers in place as the first step. The best wire for this is solid core wire of the type used in telephone wiring, as it is easy to cut, easy to remove the insulation and it lies flat on the board, clear of all of the other holes. So, start with the wire jumpers and then install the electronic components working across the board.

The jumper wires lie flat on the board, and like the other components, have about 2 mm of clean wire projecting through the copper strip before the solder joint is made.

The wires coming off the board should be of the type which have several thin wires inside the insulation, as these are more flexible and withstand the vibration of a vehicle in motion, better than solid core wire. If you have just one reel of wire, then be sure to label the far end of each piece mounted on the board, the moment you have soldered it in place. These labels will help avoid errors when mounting in the case, if you do not have different coloured wires.

The completed circuit board can be mounted in a small plastic box of the type which has a lid held in place by screws. It may be convenient to screw or bolt the case to the underside of the dashboard and then screw the lid in place, covering the mounting screws:
The components in this circuit are not critical and any near-match alternatives can be used. In the event that the MPSA14 Darlington-pair transistor is not available, then two general-purpose high-gain silicon transistors like the BC109 or 2N2222A can be substituted. Just connect them like this:

![Diagram of transistor connection](image)

The emitter of the first transistor is connected to base of the second and the two collectors are connected together. If the transistors have metal cases, then make sure the emitter/base connection cannot touch either case as the cases are often connected internally to the collectors. If each transistor has a gain of only 200, then the pair will have a combined gain of 40,000 times. That means that the base current need only be 40,000 times less than the collector current of the second transistor.

The BC327 transistor can be replaced by almost any other silicon PNP transistor in this circuit as the gain does not need to be great and the power rating is very small. The following is a list of the main electronic components needed for the construction of this circuit as described here. There are several suppliers who are able to supply all of these components and the most suitable depends on where you are located. If there is any difficulty, try an internet search, and if that fails, ask for help in one or more of the Yahoo enthusiast groups such as ‘watercar’, ‘hydroxy’ or any of the electronics Groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Qty.</th>
<th>US Supplier</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black plastic box with lid, size about 4” x 3” x 2”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-1803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stripboard: 18 strips, 32 holes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>0302PB16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double Pole Double Throw toggle switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>275-636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuseholder, panel mounting, 1.25”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse, 2 amp slow-blow 1.25”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-1262 ?? (3 A)</td>
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<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>17ROT1-12</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>274-424</td>
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<td>LED, any colour, 5 mm diameter</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-041</td>
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<tr>
<td>IC socket, 18 pin DIL</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miniature preset resistor, 10K linear</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM3914 LED bar driver Integrated Circuit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>LM3914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC327 PNP transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>2N2905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPSA14 Darlington pair transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>MPSA14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N4007 Diode or equivalent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-1103 (2 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BZX85C zener diode, 24 volt version</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>1N5359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470 microfarad, 35 volt (or higher) axial lead aluminium foil electrolytic capacitor</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>272-1018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 microfarad, 35 volt (or higher) axial lead aluminium foil electrolytic capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>272-1016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 nF (0.1 microfarad) ceramic disc capacitor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>272-135 (2 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 megohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Blue)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1365 (5 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 megohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Green)</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1356 (5 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Yellow,Purple,Yellow)</td>
<td>1 or 1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>use two 1M in parallel or 271-1133 (5 pack 1/2 watt)</td>
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<tr>
<td>10K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Orange)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1335 (5 pack)</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1328 (5 pack) [use 3.3K]</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1321 (5 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 ohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Brown)</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1311 (5 pack)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecting wire: stranded and solid core</td>
<td></td>
<td>Local supplier</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Connecting wire: stranded and solid core

Local supplier
And for a UK supplier:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Qty</th>
<th>European Supplier</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black plastic box with lid, size about 4” x 3” x 2”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>400-555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stripboard: 18 strips, 32 holes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>335-010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double Pole Double Throw toggle switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>218-028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuseholder, panel mounting 31 mm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>187-115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse, 2 amp 31 mm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>190-220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotary wafer switch, 12-way single pole</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>210-012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knob for the rotary switch</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>060-22X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LED, any colour, 5 mm diameter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>711-540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC socket, 18 pin DIL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>110-180</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miniature preset resistor, 10K linear</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>998-310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM3914 LED bar driver Integrated Circuit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>LM3914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC327 PNP transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>BC327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPSA14 Darlington pair transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>MPSA13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N4007 Diode or equivalent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>1N4007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BZX85C zener diode, 24 volt version</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>726-240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470 microfarad, 35 volt (or higher) axial lead aluminium foil electrolytic capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>810-104</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 microfarad, 35 volt (or higher) axial lead aluminium foil electrolytic capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>810-096</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 nF (0.1 microfarad) ceramic disc capacitor</td>
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<td>10 megohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Blue)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-610</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-510</td>
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<td>470K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Yellow,Purple,Yellow)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Orange)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Red,Purple,Red)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-227</td>
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<tr>
<td>1K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Red)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 ohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Brown)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>906-110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reel of multi-strand connecting wire 6 amp Red</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>054-112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reel of multi-strand connecting wire 6 amp Blue</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>054-116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reel of solid core (or local phone wire)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>055-111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ESR  http://www.esr.co.uk  Tel: 01912 514 363

While the components listed above are the parts needed to construct the electronics board, the following items may be needed in addition when testing and installing the board in a vehicle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rubber or plastic grommets</td>
<td>To protect wires from rubbing against the edges of the holes in the box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crimp “bullet” connectors</td>
<td>Male and female, one pair for each sensor wire cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mounting bolts, nuts and spacers</td>
<td>To hold the circuit board securely, clear of the box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double-sided adhesive tape</td>
<td>For mounting the box on the dash. Alternatively, hardware items for this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse-box connector</td>
<td>For connecting to the fuse box to give an ignition-switched 12V supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K resistor and 1K Linear variable resistor</td>
<td>For bench testing with voltages of up to 1 volt, if these components are not already to hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimeter</td>
<td>For general checking of voltages, continuity, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I should like to express my sincere thanks to the various members of the ‘watercar’ Group who provided the technical information and patient support which made this document possible.

**An alternative:** As the signal coming from the oxygen sensor to the vehicle’s ECU fuel computer needs to be raised slightly to allow for the much cleaner exhaust produced when a booster is being used, an alternative solution has been suggested and tested. The idea is to add a small, adjustable voltage to the signal already
coming from the oxygen sensor. This voltage can be from a single ‘dry-cell’ battery and adjusted with a variable resistor:

The circuit shown here allows a voltage anywhere from zero to 0.5 volts to be added to the oxygen sensor signal. This must not be done unless a booster is running. Using it without a booster is liable to lead to engine overheating and possible valve damage. This, of course, applies to the previous oxygen sensor signal adjusting circuit as well.

Please Note: This document has been prepared for information purposes only and must not be construed as an encouragement to build any new device nor to adapt any existing device. If you undertake any kind of construction work, then you do so entirely at your own risk. You, and only you, are responsible for your own actions. This document must not be seen as an endorsement of this kind of adaptation nor as providing any kind of guarantee that an adaptation of this kind would work for you personally. This document merely describes what has been achieved by other people and you must not consider it as being a foolproof blueprint for replication by anyone else.

The “Zach West” Electrolyser.
Zach West of the USA has produced a motorcycle electrolyser. Zach’s 250 cc motorcycle can run on the output of his electrolyser and Zach estimates the output as being 17 litres per minute of HHO gas, which seems to me to be far too high for the current flow. This is not a COP>1 system as the output from the electrical system of the motorcycle is very limited, and so the battery will slowly run down as time goes by. However, Zach’s design of electrolyser is interesting, both for it’s simplicity and it’s high rate of gas output. The increased gas volume which would be produced if this design were adapted for, and driven by, a 12-volt input could be very useful, especially if combined with David Quirey’s system which allows the resulting modified gas to operate in unmodified engines, as shown later on in this chapter.

The method which Zach uses is somewhat unusual as he manages to bleed off and discard most of the oxygen produced. This means that the remaining gas is mainly hydrogen which is far less reactive than HHO which is already in the perfect proportions for combination back into water and so is highly reactive. Instead, the resulting gas can be compressed reasonably well, and Zach compresses it to 30 psi (pounds per square inch) in a storage container. This helps with acceleration from stationary at traffic lights.

Zach uses a simple, modular style of construction where a series of coiled electrode pairs are each placed inside an individual length of plastic pipe. This is a design which is neither difficult nor particularly expensive to build. In overall broad outline, Zach’s electrolyser is fed water from a water tank to keep it topped up. The electrolyser box contains several pairs of electrodes which split the water into hydrogen and oxygen when fed with pulsed electrical current generated by the electronics, which is powered by the electrical system of the motorcycle. The gas produced by the electrolyser is fed to a dual-purpose bubbler, which prevents any accidental igniting of the gases from travelling back to the electrolyser and in addition, removes most of the oxygen from the gas by acting as a gas “separator”. The arrangement is like this:
The hydrogen gas output from the electrolyser is not fed directly to the engine but instead it goes to a pressure tank which is allowed to build up to thirty pounds per square inch before the engine is started. The majority of the oxygen produced by the electrolysis is vented away through a 30 psi one-way valve which is included to keep the pressure inside the bubbler (and the electrolyser) at the 30 psi level. That pressure is excessive for a high-performance electrolyser which produces HHO which is highly charged electrically and so will ignite spontaneously when compressed, due to its own electrical charge. In this simple DC electrolyser, the HHO gas is mixed with quite an amount of water vapour which dilutes it and allows some compression.

The water supply system operates by having an air-tight supply tank positioned at a higher level than the electrolyser. A small diameter (1/4" or 6 mm) plastic tube coming from the supply tank feeds through the top of the electrolyser and straight down, terminating at exactly the electrolyte surface level wanted in each of the electrolyser tubes. When the electrolysis lowers the electrolyte level below the bottom of the pipe, bubbles of gas pass up the tube allowing some water to flow from the tank to raise the electrolyte surface level back to its design position. This is a very neat passive system needing no moving parts, electrical supply or electronics but yet one which accurately controls the electrolyte level. One essential point to understand is that the water tank needs to be rigid so that it will not flex and the filler cap needs to be air-tight to prevent the entire water supply discharging into the electrolyser. Another point to remember when topping up the water tank is that the tank contains a mix of air and HHO gas above the water surface and not just plain air, and that gas mix is at 30 psi pressure.

Now, to cover the design in more detail. This 6-volt electrolyser contains eight pairs of electrodes. These electrode pairs are coiled around in “Swiss-roll” style and inserted into a length of 2 inch (50 mm) diameter plastic pipe, ten inches (250 mm) tall. The electrodes are each made from a 10 inch (250 mm) by 5 inch (125 mm) of 316L-grade stainless steel shimstock which is easy to cut and work. Shimstock is available from a local steel supplier or metal fabrication company and is just a sheet of very thin metal.

Each electrode is cleaned carefully, and wearing rubber gloves, cross-scored using coarse sandpaper in order to produce a very large number of microscopic mountain peaks on the surface of the metal. This increases the surface area and provides a surface which makes it easier for gas bubbles to break away and rise to the surface. The electrodes are rinsed off with clean water and then coiled round, using spacers to maintain the necessary inter-plate gap, to form the required shape which is then inserted into a length of plastic pipe as shown here:
As the springy metal pushes outwards in an attempt to straighten up again, spacers are used to keep the electrodes evenly separated along their whole length by inserting 1/8” thick vertical spacer strips. The connections to the plates are made by drilling a hole in the corner of the plate and inserting the wire several times through the hole, twisting it back around itself and making a wire-to-wire solder joint on both sides of the steel. The joint is then insulated with silicone or any other suitable material. It is, of course, essential that the joint does not short-circuit to the other electrode even though that electrode is very close by.

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CONNECTING TO THE PLATES

It is always difficult to make a good electrical connection to stainless steel plates if space is restricted as it is here. In this instance, the electrical wire is wrapped tightly through a drilled hole and then soldered and insulated. The soldering is only on the wire as solder will not attach to stainless steel.
An unusual feature of this design is that each of the electrode pairs is effectively a separate electrolyser in its own right as it is capped top and bottom, and effectively physically isolated from the other electrodes. The water feed comes through the top cap which has a hole drilled in it to allow the gas to escape. The electrical wires (#12 AWG or swg 14) are fed through the base and sealed against leakage of electrolyte. Each of these units has some electrolyte stored above it, so there is no chance of any part of the electrode surface not being able to generate gas. There is also a large amount of freeboard to contain splashes and sloshing without any being able to escape from the container. The end caps are standard PVC caps available from the supplier of the PVC piping, as is the PVC glue used to seal them to the pipe.

Eight of these electrodes are placed in a simple electrolyser case and connected together in pairs as shown here:

Pairs of pipe-enclosed electrode spirals are then connected in a chain inside the electrolyser as shown here:

Many years of experimentation and testing have shown that 316L-grade stainless steel is the most suitable material for electrodes, but surprisingly, stainless steel is not highly electrically conductive as you would expect. Each electrode causes a voltage drop of nearly half a volt, and so careful surface preparation, cleansing and conditioning are needed to get top performance from the electrodes. This process is described in detail by the very experienced Bob Boyce who says:

The preparation of the plates is one of the most important steps in producing an electrolyser which works well. This is a long task, but it is vital that it is not skimped or hurried in any way. Surprisingly, brand new shiny stainless steel is not particularly suitable for use in an electrolyser and it needs to receive careful treatment and preparation before it will produce the expected level of gas output.
The first step is to treat both surfaces of every plate to encourage gas bubbles to break away from the surface of the plate. This could be done by grit blasting, but if that method is chosen, great care must be taken that the grit used does not contaminate the plates. Stainless steel is not cheap and if you get grit blasting wrong, then the plates will be useless as far as electrolysis is concerned. A safe method is to score the plate surface with coarse sandpaper. This is done in two different directions to produce a cross-hatch pattern. This produces microscopic sharp peaks and valleys on the surface of the plate and those sharp points and ridges are ideal for helping bubbles to form and break free of the plate.

When doing hand sanding the sandpaper is drawn across the plates in one direction only and not backwards and forwards, as the backwards stroke always destroys the perfectly good ridges created on the forward stroke. Also, you only need two strokes in one direction before turning the plate through ninety degrees and completing the sanding of that face of the plate with just two more strokes (again, with no backstroke).

Always wear rubber gloves when handling the plates to avoid getting finger marks on the plates. Wearing these gloves is very important as the plates must be kept as clean and as grease-free as possible, ready for the next stages of their preparation. Any particles created by the sanding process should now be washed off the plates. This can be done with clean tap water (not city water though, due to all the chlorine and other chemicals added), but only use distilled water for the final rinse.

While Potassium hydroxide (KOH) and Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) are the very best electrolytes, they need to be treated with care. The handling for each is the same:

Always store it in a sturdy air-tight container which is clearly labelled "DANGER! - Potassium Hydroxide". Keep the container in a safe place, where it can’t be reached by children, pets or people who won’t take any notice of the label. If your supply of KOH is delivered in a strong plastic bag, then once you open the bag, you should transfer all its contents to sturdy, air-tight, plastic storage containers, which you can open and close without risking spilling the contents. Hardware stores sell large plastic buckets with air tight lids that can be used for this purpose.

When working with dry KOH flakes or granules, wear safety goggles, rubber gloves, a long sleeved shirt, socks and long trousers. Also, don’t wear your favourite clothes when handling KOH solution as it is not the best thing to get on clothes. It is also no harm to wear a face mask which covers your mouth and nose. If you are mixing solid KOH with water, always add the KOH to the water, and not the other way round, and use a plastic container for the mixing, preferably one which has double the capacity of the finished mixture. The mixing should be done in a well-ventilated area which is not draughty as air currents can blow the dry KOH around.

When mixing the electrolyte, never use warm water. The water should be cool because the chemical reaction between the water and the KOH generates a good deal of heat. If possible, place the mixing container in a larger container filled with cold water, as that will help to keep the temperature down, and if your mixture should “boil over” it will contain the spillage. Add only a small amount of KOH at a time, stirring continuously, and if you stop stirring for any reason, put the lids back on all containers.

If, in spite of all precautions, you get some KOH solution on your skin, wash it off with plenty of running cold water and apply some vinegar to the skin. Vinegar is acidic, and will help balance out the alkalinity of the KOH. You can
use lemon juice if you don't have vinegar to hand - but it is always recommended to keep a bottle of vinegar handy.

Plate cleansing is always done with NaOH. Prepare a 5% to 10% (by weight) NaOH solution and let it cool down. A 5% solution 'by weight' is 50 grams of NaOH in 950 cc of water. A 10% solution 'by weight' is 100 grams of NaOH in 900 cc of water. As mentioned before, never handle the plates with your bare hands, but always use clean rubber gloves.

A voltage is now applied across the whole set of plates by attaching the leads to the outermost two plates. This voltage should be at least 2 volts per cell, but it should not exceed 2.5 volts per cell. Maintain this voltage across the set of plates for several hours at a time. The current is likely to be 4 amps or more. As this process continues, the boiling action will loosen particles from the pores and surfaces of the metal. This process produces HHO gas, so it is very important that the gas is not allowed to collect anywhere indoors (such as on ceilings).

After several hours, disconnect the electrical supply and pour the electrolyte solution into a container. Rinse out the cells thoroughly with distilled water. Filter the dilute NaOH solution through paper towels or coffee filters to remove the particles. Pour the dilute solution back into the cells and repeat this cleaning process. You may have to repeat the electrolysis and rinsing process many times before the plates stop putting out particles into the solution. If you wish, you can use a new NaOH solution each time you cleanse, but please understand that you can go through a lot of solution just in this cleaning stage if you choose to do it that way. When cleansing is finished (typically 3 days of cleansing), do a final rinse with clean distilled water. It is very important that during cleansing, during conditioning and during use, that the polarity of the electrical power is always the same. In other words, don't swap the battery connections over as that destroys all the preparation work and requires the cleansing and conditioning processes to be carried out all over again.

Using the same concentration of solution as in cleansing, fill the cells with dilute solution. Apply about 2 volts per cell and allow the unit to run. Remember that very good ventilation is essential during this process. As water is consumed, the levels will drop. Once the cells stabilise, monitor the current draw. If the current draw is fairly stable, continue with this conditioning phase continuously for two to three days, adding just enough distilled water to replace what is consumed. If the solution changes colour or develops a layer of crud on the surface of the electrolyte, then the electrodes need more cleansing stages. After two to three days of run time, pour out the dilute KOH solution and rinse out the cells thoroughly with distilled water.

The construction which Zach has used is very sensible, utilising readily available, low-cost PVC piping. The spiral electrodes are inside 2” diameter pipe and Zach says that the bubbler is also 2” diameter PVC pipe. I seriously doubt that a two-inch diameter bubbler could handle a flow as high as 17 lpm which is a substantial amount. Also, you want the bubbles in the bubbler to be small in order that the gas comes into good contact with the water. Consequently, using more than one bubbler where the diagram shows just one, would be sensible.

At this time, Zach only uses one bubbler, but a second one is highly desirable, located between the storage tank and the engine and positioned as close to the engine as possible. This extra bubbler does two things, most importantly, it prevents the gas in the storage tank being ignited by a backfire caused by a valve sticking slightly open and secondly, it removes every last trace of potassium hydroxide fumes from the gas, protecting the life of the engine. This is a big gain for such a simple addition.

The gas storage tank is also made from PVC pipe, this time, 4 inch (100 mm) diameter, 14 inches (350 mm) long with standard end caps fixed in place with PVC glue as shown below. This is a compact and effective arrangement well suited for use on a motorcycle. The majority of this extra equipment can be mounted in bike panniers, which is a neat arrangement.
The electric drive to the electrolyser is from a Pulse Width Modulator ("DC Motor speed controller") which was bought from the Hydrogen Garage as Zach is in America. That particular PWM board is no longer available, so especially for those people in Europe the choice might be rmcybernetics.com, although there are many suppliers and the module should not be expensive.

As this unit was rated at just 15 Amps maximum, Zach added another 15 Amp rated FET transistor in parallel to the output stage to raise the current capacity to 30 Amps. A fuse protects against accidental short circuits and a relay is used to control when the electrolyser is to be producing gas. The connecting wire is #12 AWG (swg 14) which has a maximum continuous current capacity of just under ten amps, so although the current peaks may be twenty amps, the average current is much lower than that.

Two electromagnets outside the bubbler, positioned 2.5 inches (65 mm) above the base, are connected as part of the electrical supply to the electrolyser, and these cause most of the oxygen and hydrogen bubbles to separate and exit the bubbler through different pipes. There is a divider across the bubbler to assist in keeping the gases from mixing again above the water surface. The bubbler also washes most of the potassium hydroxide fumes out of the gas as the bubbles rise to the surface, protecting the engine as these fumes have a very destructive effect on engines.

The objective with any HHO system is to have the minimum amount of gas between the bubbler and the engine in order to block the ignition of the gas in the unlikely event of a backfire. In this system, the gas storage tank contains a very large amount of gas, though admittedly it is not full HHO gas thanks to the electromagnet separation system, but nevertheless, it would be most advisable to have a second bubbler between the gas storage tank and the engine, positioned as close to the engine as possible. HHO gas produces a very high-speed
shock-wave when it is ignited so the bubbler needs to be of strong construction to withstand this. No pop-off bubbler cap or blow-out device acts fast enough to contain a HHO shock-wave, so make the bubbler housing strong enough to withstand the pressure wave.

Zach’s electrolyser arrangement is like this:

It must be realised that the water tank, electrolyser, bubbler/separator and hydrogen holding tank, all operate at thirty pounds per square inch. This means that each of these containers must be robust enough to withstand that pressure quite easily. It also means that the 30 psi one-way check valve on the oxygen venting pipe is an essential part of the design as well as being a safety feature. As a bubble of gas from the electrolyser escapes into the water tank every time a drop of water feeds to the electrolyser, the contents of the water tank above the water surface becomes a stronger and stronger mix of air and HHO. Consequently, it soon becomes an energetic mixture. It is common for static electricity to build up on a tank of this nature, so it will be very important to earth both the tank and it’s cap before removing the cap to top up the tank with more water.

The electrolyser has a potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution in it. The electrolysis process produces a mixture of hydrogen, oxygen, dissolved gases (air) and potassium hydroxide fumes. When the system is being used, the water in the bubbler washes out most of the potassium hydroxide fumes, and in doing so, it gradually becomes a dilute electrolyte itself. Potassium hydroxide is a true catalyst and while it promotes the electrolysis process, it does not get used up during electrolysis. The only loss is to the bubbler. Standard practice is to pour the contents of the bubbler into the electrolyser from time to time, filling the bubbler again with fresh water. Potassium hydroxide has been found to be the most effective catalyst for electrolysis but it has a very bad effect on the engine if it is allowed to enter it. The first bubbler is very effective in removing the potassium hydroxide fumes, but many people prefer to take the scrubbing process a step further by placing a second bubbler in the line, in this instance, between the hydrogen pressure tank and the engine. With two bubblers, absolutely no potassium hydroxide fumes reach the engine.

When running with HHO gas as the only fuel, it is essential to adjust the timing of the spark so that it occurs after Top Dead Centre. The timing on this bike is now set at 8 degrees after TDC. However, if David Quirey’s style of bubbling the HHO through a liquid such as acetone, then no timing alterations would be needed.

This electrolyser is designed to run off the nominal six volts of a motorcycle electrics (about 7.3 volts with the engine running), but increasing the number of tubes, each containing electrode coils, would convert the design to a 12V system and then the electrolyser housing would probably be like this:
It is possible that seven sets of three or four spirals wired in parallel would be used for larger engines with their 13.8 volt electric systems. Zach uses the very simple method of allowing excess gas to be vented via the oxygen valve if gas production exceeds the requirements of the engine. When operating on a twelve volt system it might be more convenient to use a standard pressure switch which opens an electrical connection when the gas pressure rises above the value for that switch:

The pressure switch just mounts on one of the end caps of the pressure tank and the switch electrical connection is placed between the relay and the electrolyser. If the gas pressure reaches it’s maximum value of 30 psi. then the switch opens, stopping electrolysis until the pressure drops again:
Caution: This electrolyser is not a toy. If you make and use one of these, you do so entirely at your own risk. Neither the designer of the electrolyser, the author of this document or the provider of the internet display are in any way liable should you suffer any loss or damage through your own actions. While it is believed to be entirely safe to make and use an electrolyser of this design, provided that the safety instructions shown below are followed, it is stressed that the responsibility is yours and yours alone.

An electrolyser should not be considered as an isolated device. You need to remember that both electrical and gas safety devices are an essential part of any such installation. The electrical safety devices are a circuit-breaker (as used by any electrician when wiring a house) to protect against accidental short-circuits, and a relay to make sure that the booster does not operate when the engine is not running:

However, the system designed by Zach West is almost certainly not self-sustaining and if that is correct, then the battery powering the electrolyser will need to be charged between trips. That does not have to be the situation as high-efficiency electrolysers are available. First, the Shigeta Hasebe spiral plate electrolyser (shown on page 719 of the Appendix) has produced 7 lpm of HHO gas mix for an input of just 84 watts and while that 84 watts is an inconvenient 2.8V at 30 amps, it should be possible to raise the voltage and lower the current without losing too much of the performance. In my opinion, the electrics of a motorcycle should be able to output 84 watts and so the motorcycle could become self-powered.

Motorcycles can definitely become self-powered as can be seen from the electric motorcycle system of Teruo Kawai’s COP>3 design shown in chapter 2. Teruo went to America and was in a meeting aimed at getting his design manufactured and sold in America when the meeting was interrupted and Teruo intimidated into abandoning his venture.

You must also remember that Steve Ryan of New Zealand demonstrated running his motorcycle on treated water. I suspect that the treated water was water which had been infused by charged water clusters as described by Suratt and Gourley later in this chapter. Their electrolyser has an efficiency of 0.00028 kilowatt-hour or less to generate one litre of gas. Those inconvenient units mean that to produce 1 lpm needs 16.8 watts or 7 lpm needs 118 watts. If cold water mist is added to the air entering the motorcycle engine, then it seems likely that a good deal less than 7 lpm would be needed. If you have a good enough tank which is made of a material capable of containing the very small molecules of this gas, then the gas can be compressed to 1000 psi and that should allow a motorcycle to run for some time on the gas cylinder.

The “DuPlex” Booster designed by Bill Williams.
A fully-submerged design from Bill Williams in the USA is another different style of booster:
The construction details for this booster design, can be downloaded free from the web using the link: http://www.free-energy-devices.com/DuPlex.pdf

There are many other designs, including those with concentric pipes, each having its own advantages and disadvantages, some being commercially available as ready-made devices, and there are links to these boosters on the web sites mentioned above and a general booster forum at http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/watercar/ and another at http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/HHO/ where people will answer any queries.

One problem with the use of boosters is that if the HHO gas volume is higher than it needs to be, the vehicle’s Electronic Control Unit (“ECU”) is liable to detect the improved fuel burn and start pumping in excess fuel to offset the improved conditions. How to deal with this situation is covered in the free document which can be downloaded from http://www.free-energy-devices.com/D17.pdf

The “Hogg” Electrolyser from Selwyn Harris.
An interesting design is the Hogg electrolyser as described by Selwyn Harris of Australia. The Hogg cell has two stainless steel mesh electrodes coiled around each other. This gives a large electrode surface area in a very compact container. In this version of the design there are six identical cells which feed into a large bubbler. For clarity, only two of the six electrolyser cells are shown here:
The items marked with a blue dot form just one of three identical sets. That is, three filters feed out from the bottom of the bubbler, the flow through them being caused by three separate pumps and the two electrolyser cells marked “1” and “2” along with their associated pipes and four one-way valves, are replicated to give electrolysis cells “3” to “6” which are not shown in this diagram. Those three identical sets are connected to the central bubbler, spaced around it evenly at 120-degree positions horizontally as shown in rough outline here:

The water is circulated through the set of cells using three small pumps and there are two water collectors built on to the bottom of the bubbler. Also, as the ‘electrolyte’ used is rainwater, and each electrolysis cell is completely full of electrolyte as this is an ‘electrolyte circulation’ style of electrolyser.

Each of the three pumps has it’s own filter to trap any particles coming from the cells as experience has shown that the water can contain a considerable amount of material. The filters are standard irrigation in-line filters made from transparent plastic filled for three quarters of their length with fine plastic sponge material.

A key feature of the cell design is the use of two powerful neodymium magnets per cell. These act directly on the water and that causes a major increase in the gas production rate. The magnets have their North poles facing towards each other.

The two mesh electrodes are made from stainless steel wire of 0.32 mm diameter and woven to give 2 mm holes between the wires and a 0.65 mm overall sheet thickness. These dimensions are important as other mesh sizes and styles do not give so good a performance. The electrodes are wider at one end to form a connection tab which allows easy electrical connection to each electrode and they are then wired in parallel so that each cell gets 12 volts across it as shown here:

The two mesh electrodes are cut like this:
The mesh material looks like this:
The six electrolyser cells and the single large bubbler are constructed using standard plastic plumbing materials:
The connecting pipes are a clear plastic, heat-tolerant type of 12 mm (0.5") diameter. The bubbler is also constructed from plastic pipe fittings:

As some people have difficulty in visualising the way in which the electrodes are combined, this simplified concept sketch may be helpful:

The two electrodes are kept separated by the use of small diameter fibre washers held in place between them at strategic places using super glue. The mesh itself is then treated by being immersed in citric acid in order to make it work well with rainwater.

There are three of these pairs of electrolyser cells, each pair being connected to the upper collector reservoir. The water being pumped out of each cell is passed through one of the three filters before entering the collector reservoir which feeds the small pump which keeps the water circulating which in turn keeps removing any particles which have got into the rainwater.
When used with rainwater from a barrel, this electrolyser is said to draw just 1.4 amps per cell, giving a total input of about 115 watts when run on a 12-volt electrical supply. While rainwater is supposedly pure, the reality is that it seldom is and its ability to carry a current varies dramatically from place to place and even more widely from country to country. If you decide to build this electrolyser and find that you do not get anything like 1.4 amps flowing through any one cell, then you may well have to add a small amount of electrolyte to the water in order to get the current flowing. That is, assuming that you want a current flow of 1.4 amps per cell on 12 volts. The output of this electrolyser is said to be capable of running a small electrical generator but that has not been confirmed at this time.

AVA Magnetic Levitation's Electrolyser

Adam of AVA Magnetics shows a very nicely constructed electrolyser based on an entirely different style of electrode. His video is at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Iz8wuUXWuGU and his cell looks like this:

![AVA Magnetic Levitation's Electrolyser](image)

Initially built using stainless steel pipe, the electrical resistance of the long coil proved to be a problem, so Adam overcame the problem by inserting copper pipe inside the stainless steel pipe. Copper carries electrical current very well, while stainless steel has quite a high resistance to current flow, which many people find very strange, having been taught in school that all metals conduct electricity. In a coil like this, electric current has to pass through a considerable length of stainless steel in order to reach the lower turns, and that resistance to current flow is greater than the situation with an electrolyser which uses stainless steel sheets. The copper tube down the inside of the steel pipe makes a major difference because the current flows easily through the copper and then at every point along the tube, the current only needs to flow sideways through a thin layer of stainless steel in order to perform the electrolysis.

The photograph above looks like a very neatly wound coil with twelve turns in it. That is not the case. It is two separate coils with turns 1, 3, 5, etc. being in one coil and turns 2, 4, 6, etc. being in the other coil. That arrangement means that each turn in the coil has a turn with the opposite voltage beside it and the electrolysis takes place between adjacent turns in the coil. The ends of each coil are sealed off carefully to prevent corrosion of the copper pipe by the electrolyte being used. Unfortunately, most of the surface area of the circular pipe electrode is not close to its neighbouring coil surface and that increased distance reduces the rate of gas production for those areas. I suspect that Adam is using a fairly dilute electrolyte in order to keep the heating effect under control and so, better performance may result when using full-strength electrolyte. However, the
HHO production at around 16 amps looks impressive as shown here just before the whole container is obscured by the HHO bubbles coming off the coils:

At full power, the cell draws 18 amps when powered through a Pulse-Width Modulator manufactured by the "HHO Powercell" company using a battery of around 12.5 volts. That 225 watts produces a gas output rate which needs to be measured. In my opinion, the gas output pipe needs to be much larger with an inner diameter of perhaps 15 millimetres as a small pipe hinders the escaping gas. If you don’t believe that, then try blowing through a length of 6 millimetre diameter plastic pipe and see how hard that is to do.

Nevertheless, this is a simple, basic electrolyser with just two electrodes, although, possibly because the Pulse-Width Modulator is feeding it a good quality square wave signal, the small bubble size suggests that there is an efficiency gain which makes it perform better than would be expected. A single cell like this will find it hard to escape from the basic fact that 1.24 volts is all that is used in water electrolysis and even with the voltage drop across stainless steel you really do not want more than 2-volts between the plates. In other words, only 2-volts of the battery’s 12-volts can actually make gas and so, the vast majority of that 225 watts goes to make heat and not gas. The situation for 1, 2 or 3 single cells is like this:

It is probable that HHO production at 225 watts would be doubled if two of these cells are connected in series, that is, connected in a chain. The performance would probably be tripled at that same 18 amps of current, if three of these cells are connected in series across the voltage source. If that is done, then ideally, each cell needs to be inside its own separate container. Adam suggests that the coil produces a magnetic field which boosts the production of HHO, and considering the effect of the magnets in the Shigeta Hasebe cell, he may well be right.
The arrangement with three cells connected in series and powered through a frequency-adjustable Pulse-Width Modulator would be like this, although the gas outlet pipes need to be connected together with short pipe connections as those pipes will be filled with energetic HHO when in use:

As always, the battery connects to a circuit breaker “CB” or fuse before anything else is connected. The Pulse-Width Modulator “PWM” is effectively like Dave Lawton’s most simple circuit with adjustable frequency, adjustable Mark-Space Ratio (or “Duty Cycle” as it is sometimes called), and a high output current capability. The electrical connections to the cells are done as shown in the diagram and the cells are all positioned the same way round as that allows testing with the cells leads swapped over to see if that makes a difference when the best frequency and Duty Cycle have been found. Please remember that a bubbler is essential on the gas output pipe and the depth of water in any bubbler should be at least five inches which is 125 millimetres.

No measurement of the rate of HHO flow has been made. This can be measured with a cheap gas flow meter from a medical equipment supplier or a result which is easily good enough for our purposes can be determined by using a two litre or other suitable container of known capacity, filling it with water and bubbling the HHO output into the container as shown here:

The result using this method is got by timing how long it takes for the bottle to be filled with the HHO gas mixture, and from that, working out how many litres are being produced per minute. For example, if it takes one minute to fill a 2-litre bottle, then the flow rate is 2-litres per minute. If it takes two minutes to fill, then the gas output rate is 1-litre per minute. If it takes 2-minutes and 30-seconds to fill, then the rate is 0.8 litres per minute. The result will be altered slightly by the atmospheric pressure which changes from hour to hour, but we only need a rough estimate, especially if we are just comparing performance after some small change to the method of electrolysis.

The https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YfG6kyifg30 video shows methods of winding pipes into helical coils as used here and the plastic spacers needed, but the man posting, ‘ANNMANN’, has a fully equipped workshop and constructional skills not available to most experimenters. Unfortunately, he does not seem to aware of the fact that electrodes need to be very close together for the best HHO production. He has tried using marine cable (used for mast stays) instead of pipe and that is, of course, very much easier to use when making spiral
electrodes, but it is probable that four spacers would be needed rather than just the two used with pipe spirals. There is also, no scope for using copper inside the hawser. Selwyn Harris of Australia, who is a very experienced HHO user, states that it is very difficult to wind stainless steel pipe into an accurate spiral. He wonders if winding the spirals using copper pipe which is very much easier to bend than stainless steel, and then electroplating the spiral with chromium, might not be a better and more practical way of producing good working spiral electrodes.

For me, with my serious lack of accurate constructional skills, another much easier method of construction occurs to me. First, the arrangement of two spirals is not really effective for electrolysis as shown here:

The rate of electrolysis is directly proportional to the area of the electrodes. It is also highly affected by the separation of the electrodes. With the wires or pipes shown on the left, only a small percentage of the surface area is spaced at the best distance which your construction allows (marked by the red arrows). The two plate electrodes shown on the right have their entire surface area at the optimum spacing. So, if we are going to use pipes or wires, then we want to increase the most active surface area, and in fact, increase the electrode area overall. Working with steel is much more difficult than working with plastic, especially since most of us do not have the tools, workspace and skills to help us succeed, using marine-grade stainless steel cable is a very appealing option. This material is shown at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=11Qn4CGiZp4 and looks like this:
It is available from ship’s chanderies world wide and is constructed from stainless steel wires. If we use this, then we have to accept the fact that it’s electrical resistance will be high, but the big advantage is that we only have to make the plastic spacers.

This brings us to the problem of increasing the surface area and decreasing the gaps between the wires. While ANNANN has excellent video presentations, please do not be misled by the excessively large gaps which he had between his wires. The largest gap that we want is 3 millimetres, and ideally, we would like 2 millimetre gaps. So, for this I suggest that a plastic plate is drilled like this:

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For this, the hole size matches your cable diameter, say, 6 mm, and the gaps between the holes are 2 millimetres if you are confident, and 2.5 or 3 millimetres if you are not confident of your skill in drilling plastic. This plate will be used to wind four nested spirals. As the cable is flexible, we need to use two additional spacer strips like this:
These are to make sure that the desired gap is maintained along all of the cable length, by threading the cable through these as each turn is made. That way, the cable is supported every quarter turn, maintaining the gap size all the way around every turn.

Although only one type of cable is used, colours are used in the following diagrams merely to make it easier to see where the turns in each winding start and finish. All windings start at the bottom and end at the top. The first winding uses the innermost holes:

This winding is made with two separate lengths of cable, one shown in green and one shown in red. The lower end of the red cable terminates just this side of the plastic sheet. The lower end of the green cable terminates just beyond the other side of the plastic sheet. Unlike the diagram, the cable is NOT cut off short as shown but is left long so that it can be connected outside the plastic cell container.

We now double the electrode surface area by winding a second pair of coils just outside the first one. The arrangement looks like this:
This second layer is wound in exactly the same way as the previous one. The outer cable turns are not exactly above the spiral turns underneath, but they are very close to being directly above. When we connect the cables electrically, we arrange for the cables surrounding any cable to be the opposite polarity, so that the electrolysis is maximised.

The next step is to wind the third layer:

And then the fourth layer is wound using the remaining holes:
Connected electrically as shown, every cable in the first and fourth layers is surrounded on three side with cables of opposing polarity. The cables in layers two and three have every turn surrounded on all four sides by cables of the opposing polarity. So, this arrangement has overcome the need for difficult pipe bending, has increased the electrode area considerably and has achieved a reasonable gap between the electrodes and has improved the area of best electrolysis by 87%. We now improve matters considerably by using three of these cells in series in order to use the applied power more efficiently.

There is, of course, no reason why there should not be more than three of these cells in series and I would expect five to be the likely maximum due to excessive voltage drop across the stainless steel cable. There is also no reason why there should not be five or more spiral layers in each cell and each additional layer raises the overall efficiency of that set of spirals.

However, while it seems very probable that this construction would yield a good performance, please remember that this is only a suggestion and at time of writing, it has not been built and tested. When first testing the unit, the Pulse-Width Modulator is set to give a low to medium current flow through the cells. Then the frequency control is used to get the maximum gas output without altering the current setting. If the current drops at the point of peak gas production during this test, that is not a problem. With multi-layer spirals of this type, a gas outlet pipe of 20 millimetres would be recommended. Also, the gas outlet should have a baffle plate across it to prevent tiny droplets of electrolyte escaping with the gas, as shown elsewhere in this chapter. That should be done even if the electrolyser is to be used in a stationary location such as feeding a generator. Electrical connections to the ends of the spiral wires can be made with large screw connectors not unlike the ordinary hardware store type but intended for much larger wires. These are also available through ship's chandlers as boats often use high-current twelve volt wiring of large diameter.

**Advanced DC Boosters.**

All of the practical construction details on electrical safety, gas safety, engine connections, type of water, safe mixing of electrolyte, etc. already discussed, apply to all kinds of electrolyzers and boosters of every design. So, please understand that these are universal features which need to be understood when using any design of booster.

It is possible to produce large volumes of HHO gas from a DC booster, enough gas to run a small motor directly on it. For this, we need to pay attention to the efficiency factors already covered in this document. The person
who is outstanding in this field is Bob Boyce of the USA who has kindly shared his experience and expertise freely with people who want to use serious electrolyser.

Bob's attention to detail when constructing high-performance electrolyser has resulted in efficiencies which are more than double those of the very famous Michael Faraday whom most scientists consider to be the final word on electrolysis.

**Bob Boyce's High-Efficiency Electrolyser.**

We are now moving from the "casual" style of booster to the "serious" style of electrolyser. In this category, you will find that the units built are not cheap, weight a considerable amount, require considerable skill to make and usually are quite large physically. I will mention two designs here. First, the very well-known design from Bob Boyce. For this electrolyser, Bob makes solid stainless steel electrode plates act as cell partitions as well as being electrodes. This is a clever technique but it takes a very high level of construction accuracy to make a box with slots in the side and base, so that the stainless steel plates can be slid into the box and when there, form a watertight seal between the cells, preventing electrical current bypassing the places by flowing around them.

The number of cells in the electrolyser depends on the electrical DC voltage supply which is produced from the electrics of the vehicle. This higher voltage is created by using a standard off-the-shelf "inverter" which produces high-voltage alternating current ("AC") meant to be the equivalent of the local electricity mains supply. In the USA, the voltage produced is in the 110 to 120 volt region, elsewhere, it is in the 220 to 230 volt region.

If you are not familiar with electrical jargon, then check out chapter 12 which explains it step by step. The AC output from whatever inverter you buy, is changed back into DC by using a component called a "diode bridge" and a reservoir device called a capacitor. When this is done, the resulting DC voltage is 41% greater than the quoted AC voltage, so a 110-volt inverter will produce about 155 volts and a 220-volt inverter about 310 volts. As you want about 2 volts per cell, the number of cells would be about 80 or 150 depending on which inverter is used. This large number of stainless steel plates each sized at six-inches (150 mm) square, creates a substantial weight which then is increased by the weight of the case, and the electrolyte. The overall arrangement (without the capacitor) is like this:

![Diagram of electrolyser](image)

A very high-precision box for this style of electrolyser can be made using the design of the late Ed Holdgate of Florida if you are a skilled fabricator:

![High-precision electrolyser box](image)
The gas production rate is so high that the gas outlet pipe has to have holes drilled along the top in order to try to exclude spray and moisture from the massive rate of bubbles bursting at the surface of the electrolyte. The high efficiency of Bob's electrolyzers is due to his meticulous preparation and construction methods. You will notice that Bob recommends the use of a particle filter with a 1-micron mesh, between the engine and the HHO system. Apart from ensuring that everything entering the engine is very clean, the particle filter with a mesh of that small size, also acts as a flashback-preventer as flame can't pass through it.

Firstly, the stainless steel plates are cross-scored with sandpaper to create a specially shaped plate surface which helps high-speed bubble release. Secondly, the plates are put through a rigorous "cleansing" process where they are subjected to repeated periods of electrolysis followed by rinsing particles off the plates and filtering the electrolyte solution. When no further particles break free from the plates, they are then put through a "conditioning" process which develops a catalytic layer on the plate surfaces.

This processing and the various construction details are provided in the following free download document, thanks to Bob's generosity in sharing his experience with us: http://www.free-energy-info.com/D9.pdf and there is a forum for Bob's design: http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/WorkingWatercar/ where questions are answered. Here are the main details:

Bob Boyce is a most experienced and knowledgeable series-cell designer, and sincere thanks are due to him for sharing his design freely with everybody and for his continuous help, advice and support of the builders of electrolyzers. Bob achieves a massively increased gas production rate by using an electrolyser with a large number of cells in it. Bob’s electrolyser is easily the most effective available at this time. It uses one hundred cells (101 plates) and applies a sophisticated pulsing waveform which raises the operational efficiency far above that envisioned by the science textbooks available today. Units with just 60 cells are inclined more to brute-force DC electrolysis, tending to mask the gains produced by pulsing. As there is a voltage drop across each stainless steel electrode plate, it is usual to allow about 2 volts across each cell for DC operation. However, Bob finds that for high-efficiency pulsing, the optimum voltage for each cell with 316L-grade stainless-steel electrode plates is about 1.5 volts. This means that a voltage of about 1.5 x 100 = 150 volts is needed to power it to its maximum pulsed output.

To get this higher voltage, Bob uses a 110 Volt inverter. An inverter is a common, commercially available electronic circuit which usually has a 12 Volt DC input and generates a 110 Volt AC output. These are readily available for purchase as they are used to run (US) mains equipment from car batteries. The output from the inverter is converted from Alternating Current to pulsing Direct Current by passing the output through four diodes in what is called a ‘Diode Bridge’. These are readily available at very low cost from electronic component suppliers.

Obviously, it would not be practical to use a hundred self-contained cells daisy-chained together to act as the series-connected electrolyser cell. There would not be enough physical space in the engine compartment for that, so a different style of cell construction is needed. The view looking down on several separate electrolyser cells could be represented something like this:

Here the plus side of each cell is connected to the minus side of the next cell to provide a set of six interconnected cells acting in series. The current flowing through the electrolyser goes through each cell in turn and so each cell receives exactly the same current as the other cells. This is the same sort of arrangement as using six self-
contained cells in a daisy-chain. To reduce the physical size of the unit, it is possible to construct the electrolyser as shown here:

![Diagram of electrolyser cells in a daisy-chain arrangement](image)

In this arrangement, the individual cells have just one positive plate and one negative plate. The plates slot into the sides and bottom of the housing so that the electrolyte is trapped between the plates and an air gap is formed between the plus plate of one cell and the minus plate of the next cell.

These air gaps are wasted space. They contribute nothing to the operation of the electrolyser. Each consists of a metal plate, a gap and a wire connection to the next metal plate. From an electrical point of view, the two metal plates at the opposite ends of these gaps, being connected by a wire link, are effectively the same plate (it is just a very thick, hollow plate). These air gaps might as well be eliminated which would save one metal plate and one wire link per cell. This can be difficult to visualise, but it produces an arrangement as shown here:

![Diagram of electrolyser cells without air gaps](image)

The only air gaps remaining are at the ends of the electrolyser. The plates in the middle are notionally touching each other. The positive plates are marked in red and the negative plates are shown in blue. In reality, there is only one metal plate between each cell and the next cell - the red and blue marking is only a notional device to try to make it easier to see that the diagram actually shows six separate cells in a single housing. They are separate cells because the metal electrode plates extend into the base and sides of the housing, thus isolating the six bodies of electrolyte from each other. It is very important that the different bodies of electrolyte are fully isolated from each other; otherwise the electrolyser will not act as a series-connected unit and most of the current will skip past the middle plates and just run from the first plate to the last plate around the sides of the other plates. So, the plates need to be a fairly tight push-fit in grooves cut in the sides and base of the housing. The electrolyte level must always be below the top of the plates as shown here:

![Diagram of electrolyser cells with correct electrolyte level](image)

An electrolyser with a hundred cells, built in this style will have 101 metal plates and 100 separate bodies of electrolyte. In spite of these large numbers, the size of the overall unit does not have to be excessive. The spacing between the plates is set to, say, 3 mm (1/8 inch) and the plate thickness might be 16 gauge (1/16 inch), so the width of a 100-cell electrolyser is about 20 inches. In actual practice, the gaps at the end of the electrolyser may also contain electrolyte although that electrolyte takes no part in the electrolysis process.

The size of the plates may be determined by the space available in the engine compartment. If there is a large amount of spare space, then the plate size may be selected by allowing from two to four square inches of area on both sides of each plate, per amp of current. Each side of every plate is in a different electrolysis cell so a 6-inch
by 6-inch plate will have 36 square inches on each face and so would carry between 36 / 4 = 9 to 18 amps of current. The choice of current is made by the builder of the electrolyser and it will be influenced by the size and cost of the inverter chosen to drive the electrolyser and the allowable current draw from the battery. This is for straight DC electrolysis where the battery is connected directly across the electrolyser. Using Bob’s triple-oscillator electronics pulser card, the electrolyte level has to be kept down to about three inches from the top of the six inch plate because the gas production rate is so high that there has to be substantial freeboard to stop the electrolyte being splashed all over the place.

Bob usually uses a 6” x 6” plate size. It is essential that every item which contains HHO gas is located outside the passenger compartment of any vehicle. Under no circumstances should the electrolyser or bubbler be located in the passenger area of the vehicle as the ignition sound generated is so great that permanent hearing damage would be a serious possibility.

For straight DC operation of an electrolyser of this type, the circuitry is very straightforward. The inverter should be mounted securely, preferably in the stream of air drawn in to cool the radiator. Using a diode “bridge” of four diodes converts the stepped up AC output of the inverter back into pulsing DC and produces the electrical arrangement shown here:

![Electrolyser Circuit Diagram]

As mains voltage is quoted as an average figure (“root-mean-square”) it has a peak voltage of 41% more than that. This means that the pulsing DC has a voltage peak of just over 150 volts for the nominal 110 volt AC output from the inverter. The bubblers and the particle filter remove all traces of electrolyte fumes from the gas as well as protecting against any accidental igniting of the gas caused by the engine misfiring.

The very famous Michael Faraday who was an exceptionally gifted experimenter, placed two electrodes in water and determined how much gas was produced per amp of current. Using an electrolyte and recent technology when running on DC, Bob Boyce would not consider an electrolyser properly constructed, cleansed and conditioned until it was producing more than double Faraday’s gas production rate. A typical working electrolyser made by Bob would have about 216% of Faraday’s result. People taught in universities and unaware of current technology, use Faraday’s result in calculations and those calculations indicate that it would take more energy to produce HHO gas than could be produced by then burning the hydrogen produced. Their calculations are wrong. The energy in freshly made HHO gas is typically four times more energetic than hydrogen is and so those calculations are too low by a factor of more than eight times. Also, the majority of energy from burning HHO comes from “charged water clusters” (see chapter 10) and not from the hydrogen, and most of these good people doing the calculations have never even heard of charged water clusters, and so, they accept the “can’t be done” verdict without thinking about it.

**Pulsed Operation**

If you have already read chapter 10, you will know that the next step forward in raising HHO production is to apply a suitable pulsed waveform to the electrolyser terminals rather than just a straight DC voltage. Doing this with the design of Bob Boyce raises the cell efficiency to around ten times the result produced by Michael Faraday. Bob Boyce’s highly efficient pulsed electrolysis system has been very generously shared freely by Bob so that anyone who wishes may construct one for their own use without the payment of a licence fee or royalties. Just before presenting the details, it should be stressed that in order to get Bob’s performance of up to 1,000% of the Faraday (supposed) maximum gas output, each step needs to be carried out carefully exactly as described. Much of the following text is quoted from Bob’s forum posts and so should be considered as his copyright, not to be reproduced without his permission.
Your Responsibility:
If you decide to construct an electrolyser of this, or any other design, you do so wholly on your own responsibility, and nobody is in any way liable for any loss or damage, whether direct or indirect, resulting from your actions. In other words, you are wholly responsible for what you choose to do. I say again, this document must not be construed as an encouragement for you to construct this or any other electrolyser.

Bob's electrolyser splits water into a mixture of gases, mainly hydrogen and oxygen. That gas mixture, which will be referred to as “HHO” is highly reactive and must be treated with respect and caution. A fairly small volume of HHO gas ignited in air is quite liable to cause permanent hearing loss or impairment due to the shock waves caused by the ignition. If HHO gas is ignited inside a sealed container, then the resulting implosion is liable to shatter the container. Bob uses two bubblers and a one-way valve to protect against this occurrence, and details of these are given in this document.

To make the water inside the electrolyser carry the necessary current, potassium hydroxide (KOH) is added to distilled water. This is the best electrolyte for an electrolyser of this type. Potassium hydroxide is also known as “caustic potash” and it is highly caustic. Consequently, it needs to be handled carefully and kept away from contact with skin, and even more importantly, eyes. If any splashes come in contact with you, it is very important indeed that the affected area be immediately rinsed off with large amounts of running water and if necessary, the use of vinegar which is acidic.

This electrolyser design uses a toroidal transformer to interface the electronics to the electrolyser cells. It is vital that this transformer be used very carefully. Under no circumstances may this transformer be powered up by the electronics when connected to anything other than the filled electrolyser cells as they act as a safety buffer. When driven by Bob's electronics, this transformer draws additional energy from the environment. While this is very useful for electrolysis, there are sometimes unpredictable energy surges which can generate as much as 10,000 amps of current. If one of these should occur when the transformer is not connected to the electrolyser which is able to soak up this excess, the resulting electrical conditions can be very serious. If you are lucky, it will just burn out expensive components. If you are not lucky, it can cause a lightning strike which is liable to hit you. For that reason, it is absolutely essential that the toroid transformer is never powered up with the secondary winding connected to anything other than the filled electrolyser.

Patenting:
It should be clearly understood that Bob Boyce, has released this information into the public domain and it has been displayed publicly since early in 2006. It is not possible for any part of this information to be made part of any patent application anywhere in the world. This prior public disclosure of the information prevents it being patented. It is Bob's intention that this information be freely available to people world-wide. It should also be emphasised that all of the quotations of Bob's words which is a very extensive part of this document, remain the copyright of Bob and may not be reproduced for display or sale without his prior written permission.

The Objective:
This is a “HHO-On-Demand” (“HOD”) system. It is very difficult indeed to generate HHO gas fast enough to power an internal combustion engined vehicle under all road conditions. Moving from standstill to rapid acceleration causes such a massive sudden requirement for additional volumes of HHO gas, that it is difficult to provide that volume instantly.

A better solution is to use an electric engine for the vehicle. This can be an electric vehicle which was designed from scratch as such, or it can be a standard vehicle which has been adapted for electric engine use. These electric vehicles are usually limited in how far they can travel, but a good solution to this is to use an electrical generator to charge the batteries, both when the vehicle is in use and when it is parked. This electrolyser can be used to run such a generator on water as shown in chapter 10. With this arrangement, there are no CO₂ emissions and the vehicle is very environmentally friendly. The batteries provide the necessary sudden acceleration demands and the generator recharges the batteries during normal driving.

Overview:
Bob's pulsed system has the following components:

1. An electrical connection to the vehicle’s electrical system (with safety features built in).
2. An "inverter" which raises the electrolyser voltage to about 160 volts.
3. Bob’s specially designed circuit board which generates a complicated water-splitting waveform.
4. Bob’s specially designed toroidal transformer which links Bob’s circuit board to the electrolyser.
6. A dual-protection system for linking the electrolyser safely to the internal combustion engine.

None of these items is particularly difficult to achieve, but each needs to be done carefully and exactly as described, paying particular attention to the detailed instructions.

**Building the Case:**

The case needs to have very accurate slots cut in it. If you do not have a milling machine, then you might consider getting a fabrication shop to mill the slots for you. The case has two ends, two sides, one base and one lid. Of these, the two sides and the base need 101 accurate grooves cut in them. The grooves are there to hold the electrode plates securely in position, and have to be cut extremely accurately. The groove width is set at 0.0003" less than the actual, measured plate thickness. This prevents any electrical flow around the plates.

Many people ask about moulding the slotted sides but this is physically impossible to do to the accuracy needed and the cell performance depends on plate spacing to very high accuracy and slot width to even higher accuracy. This is not a backyard construction quality job and there are very, very few people with both the equipment and skill to complete the construction to this degree of accuracy.

The base and two sides of the cell could have grooves cut in them to take the plates. This is not a good idea for various reasons, including the fact that the steel plates expand when they warm up and are liable to crack the acrylic case unless the slots are cut deeper than normal. Also, it is difficult to cut very accurate slots in acrylic due to the heat of the cutting blade causing the acrylic to deform in the immediate area. Grooved acrylic is very much weaker and breaks easily due to the planes of weakness introduced into the material.

Using Ultra High Molecular Weight Poly Ethylene or High Density Poly Ethylene (food chopping-board material) strips is a much better technique as that material does not have the same cutting heat problem and it can also take the plate expansion much better, so it is the construction method of choice. It is also a cheaper material.

The grooves which are cut for the plates should be three thousandths of an inch wider than the thickness of the plates. A good plate thickness is 16 gauge sheet which is one sixteenth of an inch thick or 0.0625 inch (1.5875 mm), so the recommended groove width for that is 0.0655 inches which is not a convenient fraction being about four and one fifth sixty-fourths of an inch. The grooves are 1/8" (3 mm) deep.
The supplier of the acrylic sheet needed for making the case, will be able to supply "glue" specifically designed for joining acrylic sheets together. This glue actually welds the plates together so that the sheets become one continuous piece of acrylic along the joint. Start by mating the sides and the base. Insert two or three plates into the slots to be quite sure that the alignment is spot-on during the joining process. Line the ends up during jointing to be sure that the sides are completely square when being joined to the base.

Concerns have been expressed about the strength of the acrylic casing under severe road conditions. So it has been suggested that the acrylic components be constructed from sheet which is 3/4" to 1" thick (18 mm to 25 mm) and the corners reinforced with angle iron secured with bolts tapped into the acrylic as shown below.
Here is a photograph of a 101-plate housing built by the late Ed Holdgate who worked to a very high standard of accuracy:

This housing looks very simple and straightforward, but this is highly misleading and the materials are very expensive, so any error is costly. The construction accuracy needed is very high indeed with many opportunities for a total and expensive disaster. Ed Holdgate has built several custom fixtures to ease the construction, but construction is still very difficult even with these specialist fittings and his years of experience. "Sikaflex 291" or "Marine Goop" marine bedding compound can be used to seal between the two slotted sides and the slotted base, and between the slotted sides and the two end inserts, in order to prevent any leakage between the acrylic and any of these inserts.

The accuracy required for the slots to hold the stainless steel plates is 0.0003" and the plates are tapered with a belt sander on both sides along all four edges so that when they are forced into the slots they will not cut into the sides of the slots. This produces excellent leakage characteristics, but don’t lose sight of the very high accuracy of the slot cutting needed for this. The edges of the slotted inserts receive a bead of Sikaflex marine bedding compound attaching them to the acrylic box and the compound is allowed to cure before construction is continued.

The end plates with the stainless steel straps welded to them are used to connect the electrical supply to the plates, keeping any connection which could possible work loose and cause a spark, completely outside the housing. Even though the straps are welded and there is no likelihood of them coming loose, the welds are still kept below the surface of the electrolyte.
Getting and Preparing the Plates:

A set of 101 plates is needed for the electrolyser. The material used when making the plates is very important. It should be 16-gauge 316L-grade stainless steel as it contains a blend of nickel and molybdenum in the correct proportions to make it a very good catalyst for the pulsing technique. You can try your local steel stockists to see if they can supply it and what their charges would be. One satisfactory stainless steel supplier which Bob has used is Intertrade Steel Corp., 5115 Mt. Vernon Rd SE, Cedar Rapids, IA 52406. Do not buy from eBay as you have no real comeback if the plates supplied are dished due to having been flame cut.

It is very important indeed that when asking for a quote that you make sure that the supplier is aware of the accuracy you require. The plates need to be flat to a tolerance of +/- 0.001 inch after cutting and this is the most important factor. That level of accuracy excludes any kind of flame cutting as it produces inevitable heat distortion. With shearing, expect +/- 0.015 inch on the cuts and +/- 0.001 inch on flatness. Laser cutting produces much higher accuracy and you can expect as good as +/- 0.005 inch on cuts and there is no spec needed for flatness since laser cutting does not distort the edges like shearing does.

The plates are square: 6 inches by 6 inches, but that does not represent 36 square inches of active surface area as some plate area is inside the grooves and some of each plate is above the surface of the electrolyte. Another point to remember is that 101 steel plates this size weigh a considerable amount and the completed electrolyser with electrolyte in it will weigh even more. It is essential therefore to have a case which is strongly built from strong materials, and if a mounting bracket is to be used, then that bracket needs to be very robust and well secured in place.

The preparation of the plates is one of the most important steps in producing an electrolyser which works well. This is a long task, but it is vital that it is not skimped or hurried in any way. Surprisingly, brand new shiny stainless steel is not particularly suitable for use in an electrolyser and it needs to receive careful treatment and preparation before it will produce the expected level of gas output.

The first step is to treat both surfaces of every plate to encourage gas bubbles to break away from the surface of the plate. This could be done by grit blasting, but if that method is chosen, great care must be taken that the grit used does not contaminate the plates. Stainless steel plates are not cheap and if you get grit blasting wrong, then the plates will be useless as far as electrolysis is concerned. A safe method which Bob much prefers is to score the plate surface with coarse sandpaper. This is done in two different directions to produce a cross-hatch pattern. This produces microscopic sharp peaks and valleys on the surface of the plate and those sharp points and ridges are ideal for helping bubbles to form and break free of the plate.

Bob Boyce uses a specially widened 48-inch belt sander which is good for preparing the plates using 60 or 80 grit. However, most people don’t have this equipment and do the sanding by hand. Bob stresses that when doing hand sanding the sandpaper is drawn across the plates in one direction only and not backwards and forwards, as the backwards stroke always destroys the perfectly good ridges created on the forward stroke. Also, you only need two strokes in one direction before turning the plate through ninety degrees and completing the sanding of that face of the plate with just two more strokes (again, with no backstroke). Most people want to sand the plates far too much and if overdone to a major degree, that can reduce the plate thickness and cause electrolyte leakage through the slots around the plates. So, to say it again, to sand one face of a plate, use just two strokes...
in one direction, turn the plate through ninety degrees and finish that face with just two more strokes, both in the same direction.

Always wear rubber gloves when handling the plates to avoid getting finger marks on the plates. Wearing these gloves is very important as the plates must be kept as clean and as grease-free as possible, ready for the next stages of their preparation.

Any particles created by the sanding process should now be washed off the plates. This can be done with clean tap water (not city water though, due to all the chlorine and other chemicals added), but only use distilled water for the final rinse.

A point which is often missed by people constructing electrolyzers is the fact that electrolysis is not just an electrical process, but it is also a magnetic process. It is important for maximum operating efficiency that the plates are aligned magnetically. In theory, stainless steel is not magnetic, but much of the stainless steel actually supplied to builders is slightly magnetic. When the plates arrive from the supplier each plate may have random magnetic characteristics. The easiest way to deal with this situation is to try to give the plates a mild magnetic orientation. This can be done quite simply by wrapping a few turns of wire around the stack of plates and passing some brief pulses of DC current through the wire.

Obviously, the plates need to be kept in the same direction when being slotted into the case. The next step in the preparation process is to make up a weak solution of potassium hydroxide. This is done by adding small amounts of the potassium hydroxide to water held in a container. The container must not be glass as that is not a suitable material in which to mix the electrolyte.

Potassium hydroxide, also called KOH or "Caustic Potash", which can be bought from various suppliers such as:
http://www.essentialdepot.com/servlet/the-13/2-lbs-Potassium-Hydroxide/Detail
or
http://www.nuscentscandle.com/ While Potassium hydroxide (KOH) and Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) are the very best electrolytes, they need to be treated with care. The handling for each is the same:

Always store it in a sturdy air-tight container which is clearly labelled "DANGER! - Potassium Hydroxide". Keep the container in a safe place, where it can't be reached by children, pets or people who won't take any notice of the label. If your supply of KOH is delivered in a strong plastic bag, then once you open the bag, you should transfer all its contents to sturdy, air-tight, plastic storage containers, which you can open and close without risking spilling the contents. Hardware stores sell large plastic buckets with air tight lids that can be used for this purpose.

When working with dry KOH flakes or granules, wear safety goggles, rubber gloves, a long sleeved shirt, socks and long trousers. Also, don't wear your favourite clothes when handling KOH solution as it is not the best thing to get on clothes. It is also no harm to wear a face mask which covers your mouth and nose. If you are mixing solid KOH with water, always add the KOH to the water, and not the other way round, and use a plastic container for the mixing, preferably one which has double the capacity of the finished mixture. The mixing should be done in a well-ventilated area which is not draughty as air currents can blow the dry KOH around.

When mixing the electrolyte, never use warm water. The water should be cool because the chemical reaction between the water and the KOH generates a good deal of heat. If possible, place the mixing container in a larger container filled with cold water, as that will help to keep the temperature down, and if your mixture should "boil
over" it will contain the spillage. Add only a small amount of KOH at a time, stirring continuously, and if you stop stirring for any reason, put the lids back on all containers.

If, in spite of all precautions, you get some KOH solution on your skin, wash it off with plenty of running cold water and apply some vinegar to the skin. Vinegar is acidic, and will help balance out the alkalinity of the KOH. You can use lemon juice if you don't have vinegar to hand - but it is always recommended to keep a bottle of vinegar handy.

**Plate Cleansing:**
Plate cleansing is always done with NaOH. Prepare a 5% to 10% (by weight) NaOH solution and let it cool down. A 5% solution 'by weight' is 50 grams of NaOH in 950 cc of water. A 10% solution ‘by weight’ is 100 grams of NaOH in 900 cc of water. As mentioned before, never handle the plates with your bare hands, but always use clean rubber gloves. Put the sanded and rinsed plates into the slots in the electrolyser case, keeping them all the same way round so that they remain magnetically matched. Fill the electrolyser with the NaOH solution until the plates are just covered.

A voltage is now applied across the whole set of plates by attaching the leads to the outermost two plates. This voltage should be at least 2 volts per cell, but it should not exceed 2.5 volts per cell. Maintain this voltage across the set of plates for several hours at a time. The current is likely to be 4 amps or more. As this process continues, the boiling action will loosen particles from the pores and surfaces of the metal. This process produces HHO gas, so it is very important that the gas is not allowed to collect anywhere indoors (such as on ceilings).

After several hours, disconnect the electrical supply and pour the electrolyte solution into a container. Rinse out the cells thoroughly with distilled water. Filter the dilute NaOH solution through paper towels or coffee filters to remove the particles. Pour the dilute solution back into the electrolyser and repeat this cleaning process. You may have to repeat the electrolysis and rinsing process many times before the plates stop putting out particles into the solution. If you wish, you can use a new NaOH solution each time you cleanse, but please realise that you can go through a lot of solution just in this cleaning stage if you choose to do it that way. When cleansing is finished (typically 3 days of cleansing), do a final rinse with clean distilled water. It is very important that during cleansing, during conditioning and during use, that the polarity of the electrical power is always the same. In other words, don’t swap the battery connections over as that destroys all the preparation work and requires the cleansing and conditioning processes to be carried out all over again.

**Plate Conditioning:**
Using the same concentration of solution as in cleansing, fill the electrolyser with dilute solution up to 1/2" below the tops of the plates. Do not overfill the cells. Apply about 2 volts per cell and allow the unit to run. Remember that very good ventilation is essential during this process. The cells may overflow, but this is ok for now. As water is consumed, the levels will drop. Once the cells stabilise with the liquid level at the plate tops or just below, monitor the current draw. If the current draw is fairly stable, continue with this conditioning phase continuously for two to three days, adding just enough distilled water to replace what is consumed. If the solution changes colour or develops a layer of crud on the surface of the electrolyte, then the cell stack needs more cleansing stages. Do not allow the cells to overflow and overflow at this point. After two to three days of run time, pour out the dilute KOH solution and rinse out the electrolyser thoroughly with distilled water.

**Cell Operation:**
Mix up a nearly full-strength solution of potassium hydroxide (280 grams of KOH added to 720 cc of water) as it is 20% more effective in use than is sodium hydroxide. The filling of the electrolyser depends on whether straight DC electrolysis is to be used, or resonant electrolysis is to be used.

For straight DC electrolysis, fill the electrolyser to about one inch below the tops of the plates. The DC voltage applied to the electrolyser will be about 2 volts per cell or a little less, so this 100-cell electrolyser will have 180 to 200 volts applied to it. This voltage will be generated with an inverter.

For resonant operation, fill the electrolyser to only half the plate height because the HHO gas production is so rapid that room has to be left for the gas leaving the plates. With resonant operation, about 1.5 volts per cell is used.

**Troubleshooting:**
1. Abnormally low current is caused by improper plate preparation or severe contamination. Take the plates out of the electrolyser and start over again from plate preparation.
2. Abnormally high current is caused by high leakages between cells. This will require re-building or re-sealing of the electrolyser case.

3. If current starts higher then drops off, this means that the plates are contaminated. Take the plates out of the electrolyser and start over again from plate preparation.

**Building the Electronics:**
Resonant operation of the electrolyser requires the use of a DC pulsing system. Bob has designed an advanced system for this, consisting of a sophisticated electronics board and a finely-tuned toroidal transformer which interfaces and matches the electronics to the electrolyser. These are available in kit form from The Hydrogen Garage in America: [http://hydrogengarage.com/home.html](http://hydrogengarage.com/home.html) and these electronics boards produce three separate frequencies which are combined together to give a rich and complex output waveform further modified by the toroidal transformer:

In Bob’s electrolyser build, those frequencies were about 42.8 KHz, 21.4 KHz and 10.7 KHz but please don’t get the wrong impression here, there is no single exact frequency or set of frequencies which should be used. The size and shape of your cell, the electrodes spacings, electrolyte density, electrolyte temperature and operational pressure are all factors which affect the tuning of the electronics. With Bob’s large marine-duty cells with square twelve-inch plates, he found the base resonance point using his original, modified inverter, to be at least 100 Hz lower than that of the prototypes with smaller plate sizes. The triple-oscillator board can be tuned with an oscilloscope but if one is not available, then the preset resistors are set to their mid-point and then the 42,800 Hz frequency is adjusted very slowly to find the point of maximum gas output. This is a very precise point and it is essential to use high-quality preset resistors which vary their resistance very accurately. The aim is to adjust the frequency by as little as 1 Hz at a time. When the optimum point is found, then the procedure is repeated with the 21,400 Hz frequency generator, and finally the 10,700 Hz frequency adjustment. Last of all, the Mark/Space ratio presets are adjusted to give the lowest pulse width which does not reduce the rate of gas generation.

When he tried separate flooded cells connected in series, he was not able to get anything more than a marginal rise in performance over a broader range. He felt that this was due to each cell in the set having a slightly different resonant point which did not match very well with the other cells. Bob had to go to the series plate design with accurate spacing and tight tolerance on slots and plates in order to get the resonant responses to line up on all cells. Also, he found that some choices of electrolyte would not produce resonance at any frequency, though he is not sure why. Some worked well while others worked marginally, so Bob stuck with what worked the best for him - sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and potassium hydroxide (KOH).
It needs to be stressed here, that every electrolyser build is slightly different from all others, even though they may have been meant to be exactly the same. There will be small differences between the plates in one electrolyser and the plates in other electrolyser. The electrolyte concentration will be slightly different, the plate preparation will be slightly different and the overall magnetic characteristics will be unique to each actual build. For that reason, the tuning of the completed electronics board and the construction of the best possible transformer to match the electronics to the electrolyser, is always different for each electrolyser built.

The completed third-generation Boyce board looks like this:

![Completed Boyce board](image)

It is not too difficult to assemble this board as the printed circuit board can be purchased ready-made and a complete set of components can be ordered using the ordering system set up in the WorkingWatercar forum.

![Printed circuit board](image)

You should notice here, that the whole of the aluminium case is being used as a “heat-sink” to dissipate the heat generated in the FET driver transistors. These transistors are all bolted to the case and each has it’s own rectangle of mica “washer” between the transistor and the case. These pieces of mica pass heat very readily to the case, while at the same time, isolating the transistors electrically so that they will not interfere with each other. Notice too, the plastic support columns at each corner of the printed circuit board. These are used to mount the printed circuit board securely, while holding it away from the metal case and so preventing any possibility of the connections on the underside of the board being short-circuited by the case itself.
In some of the builds of the electronics board, it has been found that it is sometimes difficult to get the highest frequency oscillator operating correctly at around 42.8 KHz due to some NE556 chips being out of specification. Even though they should be the same, chips from different manufacturers, and even the same branded chip from different suppliers, can have slightly different actual specifications. On both the PWM3E and PWM3F boards, C4 has now been changed from 0.1 microfarad back to 0.047 microfarad to accommodate the corrected specs of the newer Texas Instruments NE556N chip (the one marked with MALAYSIA on top). The earlier versions of the NE556N chip had required a change to 0.1 microfarad to correct for specifications that were sub-standard. Depending on which chip you actually use in the “U1 - U3” board positions, you may have to adjust the value of C1, C3, and C4 to compensate for variations from the original 556 chip specification, or adjust some of the other timing component tolerances. The TAIWAN and other marked Texas Instruments chips will still work ok in the “U2” and “U3” locations, but there has been a big issue sourcing chips that will reach 43 kHz in the “U1” location. The MALAYSIA chips tested so far have been satisfactory.

**Setting up the completed board:**

**Jumper J1:** If this is short-circuited it disables all three Pulse-Width Modulators, for oscillator outputs only.  
**Jumper J2:** If this is short-circuited it connects the MOSFET Gate Supply TB3 to +DC for a single supply.  
**Jumper J3:** If this is short-circuited it connects the MOSFET Source to -DC for a common ground.  
**Jumper J4:** If this is short-circuited it enables the input of the Auxiliary TTL Inputs 1, 2 and 3. This is a convenient test point for measuring the outputs of each of the three signal generator stages.  
To enable the auxiliary inputs, the on-board generators must be disabled with SW1 switches 1, 2 and 3 as shown here:  

**Switch SW1:**  
switching 1 on disables the Pulse-Width Modulation of oscillator 1  
switching 2 on disables the Pulse-Width Modulation of oscillator 2  
switching 3 on disables the Pulse-Width Modulation of oscillator 3  
switching 4 on disables the Pulse-Width Modulation of all three oscillators
This board has been superseded
Terminal Block TB1: is the DC Power Input & MOSFET Source Ground

Terminal Block TB2: is the MOSFET Drain/PWM Outputs & MOSFET Gate Supply Input

This board has been superseded

In more detail:

J1 is for the connection of an optional external control or safety shutdown device, such as a pressure or temperature limit switch. J1 is shorted to shut down waveform generation. For normal operation, J1 is left open.

J2 and J3 are for optional voltage modification support. For normal operation, both J2 and J3 are shorted with 2 position jumper shorting blocks.

J4 is for the connection of optional auxiliary inputs. For normal operation, nothing is connected to J4. J4 can also be used to connect an oscilloscope to view the Pulse-Width Modulator generator waveforms of channels 1, 2, and 3.

SW1 is for disabling PWM generator channels 1, 2, and 3 via switches 1, 2, and 3. Switch 4 is a master disable that turns off all 3 channels. For normal operation, all 4 switches are switched OFF.
Terminal Block TB1 has 4 connections as follows;

1. DC Input + is connected to the 13.8 V DC power supply positive connection via a 2-amp fuse or circuit breaker.

2. DC Input - is connected to the 13.8 V DC power supply negative connection. If a shorting plug is installed at J3, this wire is optional.

3. and 4. Ground is connected to the 13.8 V DC power supply negative connection via heavy gauge wire. There are two wire connection terminals available so that two equal length wires may be used to reduce wire resistance losses.

Terminal Block TB2 has 4 connections which are connected as follows:

Gate + is not normally connected when a shorting plug is installed at jumper J2.

Output 1 is connected to the “cold” side of primary 1 of the toroidal transformer.

Output 2 is connected to the “cold” side of primary 2 of the toroidal transformer.

Output 3 is connected to the “cold” side of primary 3 of the toroidal transformer.

The “hot” sides of primaries 1, 2, and 3 are brought together, and connected to the 13.8 V DC power supply positive connection via heavy-gauge wire and a 60-amp fuse or DC circuit-breaker.

Note: These fuses are for short circuit protection, and are not an indication of system power consumption.

Testing the completed board:
Do NOT connect the PWM3F outputs to a powered transformer until after the unit tests show it to be fully functional. You may pull the 60-amp fuse out, or trip the DC circuit-breaker, while testing and tuning.

Power up the PWM3F board and check the indicator LEDs for proper operation:

LED 1 - the Channel 1 output - should be lit in normal operation, off if disabled.
LED 2 - the Channel 2 output - should be lit in normal operation, off if disabled.
LED 3 - the Channel 3 output - should be lit in normal operation, off if disabled.

LED 4 - the PWM channel 1 disable - should be off in normal operation, on if disabled.
LED 5 - the PWM channel 2 disable - should be off in normal operation, on if disabled.
LED 6 - the PWM channel 3 disable - should be off in normal operation, on if disabled.

LED 7 - the 12 volt supply - should be lit in normal operation, off when powered down.
LED 8 - the 8 volt supply - should be lit when the power is connected and off when powered down.

If all indicators check out, then start the tuning procedure. If everything checks out ok except the output indicators, then try tuning first then test again. Failures may indicate component or soldering problems.

Tuning the board:
Adjust all 3 of the “DC” marked (Duty Cycle) potentiometers (R25, R27, R29) fully clockwise, for minimum pulse width.

Connect a frequency counter or oscilloscope to Jumper J4 pin 1 (Aux Input 3) and adjust the channel 3 “Hz” marked potentiometer (R28) for a reading of 10.7 KHz.

Connect a frequency counter or oscilloscope to Jumper J4 pin 2 (Aux Input 2) and adjust the channel 2 “Hz” marked potentiometer (R26) for a reading of 21.4 KHz.

Connect a frequency counter or oscilloscope to Jumper J4 pin 3 (Aux Input 1) and adjust the channel 1 “Hz” marked potentiometer (R24) for a reading of 42.8 KHz.

Note: If channel 1 shuts down while tuning towards 42.8 KHz, replace U1 with a different brand of NE556 type timer chip. Many of these chips, like those marked as made in Taiwan, do not fully meet the NE555 spec and will shut down with the output turned on solid. If this occurs while loaded, the output FET for that channel may be
quickly destroyed. The Texas Instruments 556 chips marked as made in Malaysia have typically been tested to work ok at up to 45 KHz.

Once the board has been tuned as described above, verify output at the Terminal Block TB2 Outputs with an oscilloscope. Without a transformer connected, the indicator LEDs only lightly load the FETs, but enough to verify operation during testing. If all checks out ok up to this point, you should be ready to connect the transformer primaries and apply power.

Note: If you experience heating issues with any of the Metal Oxide Varistors M1, M2, and M3, they may be safely removed and left out, or replaced with slightly higher voltage MOVs. There have been some Metal Oxide Varistors that work properly, and some that do not. It seems to be a batch related issue.

Bob also says: The most common mistake that I see made is that when tuning for the common narrow (approx 2.5 uS) pulse width on all channels, most tend to tune for narrow POSITIVE going pulses at the FET outputs. That is totally inverse to proper pulse polarity for the PWM3 series boards. These boards use N channel FETs, so the proper pulses are narrow NEGATIVE going pulses. FET off condition results in a positive state on each of the outputs, proper FET switching pulls that positive state to ground as very narrow pulses.

The result of tuning inverse can be extreme overheat of the 556 chips, extreme overheat of the 8V regulator, and excessive primaries current in the toroid. This can overheat the toroid, burn traces on the board, and/or destroy the FETs, etc.

If the channel goes into frequency division when adjusting pulse width, then you have gone too far in your adjustment. These boards are not using the typical dual 555 (556) PWM coupling because that limits pulse width adjustment to 10% - 90%. This application requires much less than 10% pulse width.

Please remember that J1, J2, and J3, are only used to pull the FETs high through the indicator LEDs during preliminary adjustment. During operation, those jumpers must be removed to prevent interference to primaries operation.

**Winding the Transformer:**

The transformer in Bob’s system is a very important component. It is an inductor, a transformer, and a source of energy-form conversion, all rolled into one. The transformer has been successfully duplicated and used by others, driven with Bob’s triple-oscillator board, to achieve a resonant drive to the cells which results in a performance which is well beyond the maximum stated by Faraday.

The reason there are no step-by-step instructions for constructing the transformer is because it must be wound to match the load/impedance of the cells it will be driving. There is no “one-transformer-fits-all” solution for this. Bob uses a powdered iron core of 6.5” diameter for units up to 100 cells. The larger the diameter, the greater the power. Ferrite is fine for lower frequencies, but for this application, a powdered iron toroid core is essential. The MicroMetals core, part number “T650-52” is a suitable core and is available from [http://www.micrometals.com/pcparts/torcore7.html](http://www.micrometals.com/pcparts/torcore7.html) and can be purchased in small quantities via their “samples requests”, which can be submitted at [http://www.micrometals.com/samples_index.html](http://www.micrometals.com/samples_index.html)

![The Micrometals T650-52 Toroidal Core](image)

The primary of the transformer is 3-phase, while the secondary is single-phase. As most current flows along the outside of wires rather than through the middle of the wire, the choice and size of the wire chosen to wind the transformer is most important. Bob uses solid teflon-covered silver-plated copper wire. It is very important that
this wire is solid core and **not stranded** as stranded wire does not work here (due to the generation of inter-strand, phase-differential induced eddy currents). At this time, a supplier of this wire is [http://www.apexjr.com](http://www.apexjr.com).

Before any winding is done, the toroid is given a layer of tape. And the materials to be used are collected together, namely, the tape, the wire, the beeswax and the heat gun:

Of paramount importance with the toroid is that unlike traditional transformer design, the secondary is wound first, and the windings must be evenly spaced where they fan out from the center of the core. This means even though they are tightly packed right up against one another at the center hole, they must not be wound so that they bunch up and gap open around the periphery. Mistakes here will cause field errors that will lower the overall efficiency.

As you can see here, Bob uses short lengths of plastic strimmer cable as spacers for the outside of the toroid, though the picture above has been taken to show what a partially prepared secondary winding looks like when its windings are being moved into very accurate positions.
You will notice that Bob has wrapped the toroid in tape before starting the secondary winding:

Bob also uses a jar to assist in applying beeswax to the accurately positioned turns of the toroidal transformer:

When the windings are completed, correctly spaced and encased in beeswax, each layer is finished off with a layer of tape. Bob says: "I use a single wrap of PVC electrical tape stretched very tightly over the secondary winding. But be aware, that the tension in the tape has a tendency to make it unwrap. A layer of the yellow 1P802 winding tape secures the electrical tape and holds it firmly in place, bridging the triangular gaps between adjacent turns. Big warning here !!!! DO NOT USE FIBERGLASS WINDING TAPE !!!! A big box of 3M winding tape was ordered by accident so I tried it to see if it would work. It not only suppressed the acousto-resonance response of the entire wound toroidal core, but for some strange reason it also caused the electrostatic pulse response of the secondary to reverse polarity and reducing the signal amplitude to a mere 10% of what it was !!!! It totally negated the benefit of the teflon insulation. I had to unwrap it and rewrap it with the yellow 1P802 winding tape. We had to return a whole box of this 3M winding tape and order more of the "right stuff" in bulk from
Lodestone Pacific. So be warned, the 3M fibreglass winding tape will totally ruin the behaviour of the toroidal windings. So, to recap, the toroid is wrapped in tape, the secondary wound extending the entire way around the toroid, the windings carefully spaced out so that the gaps around the outer edge of the toroid are exactly equal, the winding encased in beeswax, and then the beeswax covered with a thick layer of tape:

For the great majority of systems, the secondary winding is a tightly wound, single layer, full-fill wrap of 16 gauge, single-core, silver-plated, teflon-insulated copper wire. There will be about 133 turns in this winding, though it can vary from 127 to 147 turns due to manufacturing tolerances in the insulation. This will need a wire length of about 100 feet, and the whole of the toroid is covered by this ‘secondary’ winding. Count the exact number of turns in your actual winding and make a note of it. This secondary winding is held in place with melted beeswax, and when that has hardened, the winding is then wrapped tightly with a good quality tape. This makes a good base for the primary windings which will be wound on top of the tape layer.

Please note that every winding starts by passing over the toroid, proceeds in a counter-clockwise direction, and finishes by passing under the toroid. Every winding is created in this way and the quality of workmanship is very important indeed when making these windings. Each winding needs to be tight and positioned exactly with turns touching each other in the centre of the toroid and positioned on the outer edge with exactly equal spaces between each turn. Your construction work has to be better than that of a commercial supplier and needs to
reach the quality demanded by the military, which would cost thousands of dollars for each toroid if it were to be made up for you by professionals.

The three primaries need to be wound on top of the tape wrapping which covers the secondary winding. These three windings are spaced out equally around the toroid, that is, at 120 degree centres and the leads of the secondary winding exit through the gap between two of the primary windings and **not** in the middle of a secondary winding. The primary windings are held in place with beeswax, and then tightly taped. The primaries may need more than a single layer, and they are wound with the same direction of winds as the secondary, and the same care for even winding spacing as the secondary needed. Tape the entire core well with tightly-stretched PVC electrical tape after winding, to ensure that the primary windings do not move and then add an outer layer of winding tape. Bob uses the 1P802YE type on 3 inch rolls, both the 1 inch and 2 inch widths from: http://www.lodestonepacific.com/distrib/pdfs/tape/1p802.pdf

This is where the generic information ends. The exact details of the primary windings must be determined from the operational characteristics of the cells. This means that you must build, cleanse and condition your cells prior to making the operational measurements. This is done as follows: After full plate cleansing as described earlier, condition the plates until the cell stack reaches at least 150% but ideally 200% or more of Faraday's maximum power efficiency (2.34 Watt-Hours per Litre per Hour). Then, allow the cell stack to cool to room temperature. The cell stack is then powered up with a variable-voltage power supply and the voltage adjusted until the cell current is exactly 2 amps. Write down the voltage needed to give this 2 amp current flow, and do it promptly before the cell starts to warm up again.

The objective here is to have the complex waveform generated by the electronics, produce voltages of about 25% of this measured voltage, so divide your measured voltage by four. The output from the electronics board is about 12.5 volts, so divide again by 12.5 to get the turns-ratio for the toroidal transformer. This is normally in the range of 3.0 to 3.5 and that means that the secondary winding needs to have that times as many turns in it as each primary winding does.

For example, (and **example** only) say your measured voltage happens to be 155 volts. Then the turns ratio would be 155 divided by 4 which is 38.75, and then divide that by 12.5 which gives 3.1 which is the turns ratio. If your secondary winding has, say, 134 turns in it, then the number of turns in each of the three primary windings would be 134 / 3.1 which is 43.23 turns. Round this upwards to give 44 turns.

If the number of turns which you use is off by one turn, then the tuning of the electronics board can compensate for it. If the number of primary turns is off by two turns, then it is possible that you might just be able to compensate for the error by tuning the board, but it is unlikely that you will. If the number of turns is three or more away from the optimum number calculated, then the impedance of the primary windings will be too far out for the board to tune it.

Normally, the diameter of the wire used in the primaries will be greater than that of the secondary because it will be driven by a much lower voltage and so will need a much higher current, but that is not the case here. Now that you have cleansed and conditioned the plates in your electrolyser, power up your inverter with your vehicle engine running at 2000 rpm or so, and measure the DC current taken by the inverter. This is the level of current which the primary windings have to carry, so the wire size can be selected from this measurement. Each primary winding is pulsed, so it is not carrying current all of the time, also, the final primary current is the sum of the three pulsing signals, so a reduction can be allowed for that. While the wire diameter for the primary windings of each toroidal transformer need to be calculated separately, a common diameter turns out to be AWG #20 (21 SWG). The wire length for the primaries will be greater per turn as the turns are now being made over the secondary winding. Forty-eight turns of #20 wire are likely to require at least thirty-five feet and that is for each of the three windings, assuming that all turns can be laid flat side-by-side. If it is necessary to make each a two-layer winding, then the wire length will increase further.

If you would like a 360 degree template for marking the positions of the primary windings, then there is one available at http://www.thegsresources.com/files/degree_wheel.pdf
Power Limits:
At the present time, the largest available iron-powder toroid commercially available is the Micrometals 6.5" unit. This sets the upper power limit for a Bob Boyce design electrolyser at 32 square inches of plate area. Bob's present design uses six inch square plates, but the electrolyte level is maintained at just three inches and some area is effectively lost where the plates enter the walls and base of the housing. This 101-plate unit, when built with precision and conditioned and tuned correctly, can generate 50 lpm continuously and short bursts of up to 100 lpm. That is about one litre per minute of HHO gas per cell. This should be sufficient to run an internal combustion engine with a one litre engine capacity, but engines vary so much, that there can be no rule of thumb for the gas production rate needed for a given engine size.

The optimum operating voltage for his 101-plate electrolyser has been established by Bob as being 1.5 volts per cell. However, the power limitation of the 6.5 inch toroid does not prevent the voltage being raised. So, if we opt for using a 220 volt inverter rather than the 110 volt one already described, then the number of cells can be doubled. This extends the case from about twenty inches in length to around forty inches. This might be suitable for use with vehicles up to two litre engine capacity and the unit can be located on the flatbed of a truck or the boot (trunk) of a car or beside a generator if it is being used to power an electrical generator. Electrical generator engines are usually incredibly inefficient with an overall efficiency of as little as 10% when the generator is considered. Consequently, running a generator on HHO gas alone is by no means as easy as it looks on the surface. If an electrolyser is installed in a vehicle, it is very important that no pipe carrying HHO gas is routed through any passenger area and a bubbler positioned close to the engine. The number one priority must always be safety.

Increased gas output can be got by increasing the width of the plates while maintaining the plate area covered by the electrolyte. One possibility is to make the plates nine inches wide and keeping the electrolyte at a four-inch depth, giving thirty-six square inches of plate area. The plate size would then be 9" x 6" or any other height up to 9" x 9".

The reason why a Boyce electrolyser can give 1,200% of the maximum possible gas output determined by Michael Faraday, is that this unit pulls in large amounts of additional power from the environment. So, the vehicle electrics is used primarily to power the pulsed toroidal circuitry which taps this energy, and the conversion of water to HHO gas is performed primarily by energy drawn from the environment.

Plate surface preparation is very important and is described in detail. However, the way that the plates operate when used for straight DC electrolysis is quite different from the way that they operate when being used in high-efficiency pulsed-mode:
With straight DC-electrolysis, the bubbles of HHO gas form on the face of the plates and break away, helped by the thousands of microscopic, sharp-peaked mountains created on the face of every plate by the two-direction scoring with sandpaper. With the pulsed technique, the HHO bubbles form in the electrolyte itself, between the plates and give the visual impression of the electrolyte boiling.

It should be realised that with the large gas volumes produced with the 101-plate and 201-plate electrolysers, that a considerable pipe diameter is needed to carry the gas, and even more importantly, the two bubblers used need to be a considerable size. It is important that the bubbles streaming up through the water in the bubbler do not form a continuous column of HHO gas as that could carry a flame straight through the bubbler and defeat the protection which it normally provides. A good technique to combat this and improve the scrubbing of electrolyte fumes out of the gas, is to put a large number of small holes in the sides of the pipe carrying the gas down into the water in the bubbler. This creates a large number of smaller bubbles and is much more effective.

**Connecting the Electrics:**

Bob has specified that the primary windings are connected between the board outputs and the positive supply for the board like this:

It is important to include heavy-duty chokes (coils) in both sides of the high voltage power supply and in the 13.8 volt positive lead coming from the vehicle electrics. The recommended choke cores are the MicroMetals T157-45 and these are wound with 15 turns of AWG #16 (SWG 18) enamelled copper wire, through it is perfectly ok to wind these chokes on laminated iron pieces taken from an old mains power transformer frame. The fifteen turns of wire produce a choke of 29.5 microhenrys.

If all is well and the 20-amp contact-breaker (or fuse) is not tripped, the electrical power passes through to the gas-pressure switch mounted on the electrolyser. If the gas production rate is greater than the engine requirement and as a result, the gas pressure inside the electrolyser gets above 5 psi. then the gas pressure switch disconnects the electrical supply which in turn, cuts off the generation of more gas until the pressure inside
the electrolyser drops again as the engine uses the gas. If all is well, the gas-pressure switch will be closed and the electrical power is then passed to the relay’s switch contacts. The relay is wired in such a way that the relay will be powered up if, and only if, the engine is running. If all is well and the relay contacts are closed, then the power is passed through to both the inverter and the electronics board. The inverter output is 110 volts AC so it is passed through a diode bridge which converts it to pulsing DC with a peak value of about 155 volts. This voltage and the output of the electronics board toroidal transformer are passed to the electrolyser to break down the water and generate HHO gas. The wire connecting the vehicle negative to the electronics board should be very heavy duty as it is carrying a large current.

There is a lot of power stored in a charged battery. It is important therefore, to protect against short-circuits in any new wiring being added to a vehicle, if this electrolyser is to be used with a vehicle. The best overall protection is to have a circuit-breaker or fuse connected in the new wiring immediately after the battery. If any unexpected load occurs anywhere in the new circuitry, then the circuit will be disconnected immediately.

It is also important that the electrolyser is only connected and operating when the engine is running. While the gas-pressure switch should accomplish this, it is no harm to have additional protection in the form of a standard automotive relay in the power supply line as shown in the diagram above. This relay coil can be connected across the electric fuel pump, or alternatively wired so that it is powered up by the ignition switch being turned on.

**Positioning the Electronics**

The descriptions and diagrams have been presented with the objective of helping you understand in broad outline, what Bob Boyce’s electrolyser is and very roughly speaking, how it operates. There are practical details which you should discuss in the WorkingWatercar forum as there experienced people there who will help builders get the details right.

It should be realised that the strong, rapidly pulsing currents generated by the electronics, cause very powerful magnetic fields. These magnetic fields can disrupt the operation of the circuitry. These fields flow around inside the toroid core and this creates an area of very reduced magnetic activity in the space in the centre of the toroid. For that reason, it would be ideal if the circuit board were placed in that area with the toroid surrounding it. However, the electronics board size does not allow this at the present time, so instead, Bob places the toroid inside a custom, circular housing, something like a biscuit tin made of aluminium which operates as a “Faraday Cage” to protect against the magnetic fields produced:
Supplying the Water

The potassium hydroxide is not used up when the electrolyser is operated. A small amount leaves the electrolyser in the form of vapour but this is washed out of the gas in the first bubbler. Two bubblers are used, the first is located beside the electrolyser and connected to it via a one-way valve. The second bubbler is located close to the engine. From time to time, the water in the bubblers is poured back into the electrolyser and that prevents the loss of any potassium hydroxide. Not only does this conserve the potassium hydroxide, but it also protects the engine as potassium hydroxide has a very bad effect inside the engine itself.

The overall water system is like this in broad outline, omitting the electrical safety devices:

A probe inside the electrolyser senses when the average level of the electrolyte has dropped and powers up the water pump to inject more water into the electrolyser. The rate of gas production is so high with the pulsed system that the electrolyte level is place at about half the plate height. That is some three inches below the tops of the plates. Because of this violent action, the water-level sensor needs to be operated from the electrolyte outside the plates where the surface of the electrolyte does not move so violently.

A serious issue with an electrolyser of this type is dealing with water loss. As the plates have to be spaced closely together and the since the electrolyte between the cells is effectively isolated from the electrolyte in the other cells, driving a mile down the road is liable to lower the water level by half an inch (say, one centimetre). It is essential to keep replacing the water which is used.

Two things have to be dealt with:

1. Sensing when the electrolyte level has fallen, and
2. Creating some device for getting extra water into each cell

Simple electronics provides the answer to sensing the level of the electrolyte, and a windscreen-washer water pump can be used to inject the additional water.

A sensor for the water in the cells can be on just one cell. If the water level of any one cell falls below the level in the other cells, then the gas produced in that cell will be slightly less than the other cells, so it will lose less water until the water levels match again. Also, Bob recommends cutting the slots which hold the plates, 3 thousandths of an inch (0.003 inch or 0.075 mm) larger than the actual thickness of the metal plates. This effectively blocks electrical leakage between adjacent cells but does allow a very gradual migration of water between the cells to help maintain an even water surface across the cell.

The water-level sensor can be just one stiff stainless steel wire run down each side of any cell. These wires should be insulated to make sure that They do not short-circuit to either (or both) of the plates on each side of them. They should be set so that their tips are at the intended surface level of the electrolyte.

If the electrolyte level drops below the tip of the wire sensors, then the resistance between the wires will fall, indicating that more water is needed. This can switch the water pump on, which will raise the water level until the electrolyte level reaches the tip of the wire again. A possible circuit for doing this is shown here:
When the level of the electrolyte falls, the sensor wires come clear of the liquid and the voltage at point ‘A’ rises. Provided that this situation remains for a second or two, capacitor C2 charges up and the voltage on the base of transistor Tr1 rises, causing it to switch on. Transistors Tr1 and Tr2 are wired as a Schmitt trigger, so transistor Tr2 changes state rapidly, raising the voltage at its collector, and causing transistor Tr3 to power the relay on. The relay contacts switch the water pump on, which raises the level of the electrolyte until it reaches the sensor wires again. This flips the circuit back into its standby state, powering down the water pump. Resistor R1 feeds capacitor C1 to reduce the effects of variations of voltage reaching the sensor circuit. The components shown here are not critical and there must be at least twenty alternative designs for this circuit.

A possible physical layout for this circuit is shown here:

The build is based on using the standard 10-strip, 39-hole strip-board. For convenience in drawing, the holes are represented as the points where the lines cross in the diagram shown here:

The horizontal lines represent the copper strips and the intersections with the vertical lines represents the matrix of holes. Many different layouts could be used for this circuit, so the following diagram is only a suggestion:
Components:

R1 100 ohms   C1 1000 microfarad 35 volt or higher
R2 1,000 ohms  C2 330 microfarad 16 volt or higher
R3 10,000 ohms
R4 1,800 ohms  D1 1N4001 or similar 100 volt or higher 1 amp
R5 18,000 ohms
R6 18,000 ohms  Tr1 to Tr3  2N2222 or 2N2222A or similar
R7 3,900 ohms  40V, 800 mA, 500 mW, gain 100 - 300
To combat splashing of the electrolyte, a layer of aquarium matting is placed over the tops of the plates. In the diagram above, only a few of the 101 plates are shown, in order to keep the drawing narrow enough to fit on the page. The plates at each end have a stainless steel strap welded to them in order to allow for simple and robust electrical connections to be made through the case.

The water supply is arranged to feed equal amounts of water to each cell. The design for this supply pipe has recently been improved by Ed Holdgate and Tom Thayer. The new design has a water-supply pipe with very accurately cut slots in it. The lengths of the slots are directly related to how far along the pipe they are positioned. The objective is to have the same amount of water coming out of each slot even though the water pressure drops the further along the pipe the slot is located.

That water supply pipe is then housed in an outer pipe which has a hole drilled in it exactly above each of the bodies of electrolyte trapped between the plates (a 3/16" spacing):

This water supply pipe arrangement works well in practice and it looks surprisingly like the gas take-off pipe which has a series of holes drilled along the top of it:

Connecting to the Engine:
The Bob Boyce HHO gas system produces such a very high gas output that one inch (25 mm) pipes are needed to carry the gas from the electrolyser to the engine. Because of the speed of the pressure wave caused if HHO gas ignites, no pop-off or shatter-disc system has sufficient time to operate. In addition, Bob’s system produces the top grade of HHO gas and as that has the highest energy level possible, it ignites spontaneously at a pressure
of just 15 psi. To deal with this situation, and the very high rate of gas flow which has to be handled, two very robust bubblers and one particle filter need to be used on the output of the electrolyser as shown here:

![Diagram of bubblers and filter](image)

For those people living in America, Bob recommends the use of this bubbler:

![Bubbler](image)

This is a bubbler constructed from "Whole Household Prefiltration" units supplied by Home Depot, which unfortunately, may cost more than US $100 each.
These units come with a domed cap which needs to be drilled out with a large number of 1/16" holes like this:

Drill out bottom of pipe cap 1/16" holes. (LOTS OF THEM)

DO NOT USE "FLAT BOTTOMED" PIPE CAP!

An important point with this unit is that the flow through the bubbler is in the opposite direction to the arrows moulded on the outside of the unit:
Also, the pressure at which it operates needs to be dropped from normal household water pressure to the 0.5 psi gas pressure needed for use as a bubbler. This is achieved by replacing the ball valve inside the unit with a much weaker version available from the KBI company, reference code KC1000 and costing about US $10. If you get one, be sure to specify a 0.5 psi pressure version as they have more than one type.

It is important that the end cap be a domed variety as shown above. This is necessary as it prevents bubbles joining together before streaming upwards through the water.

The particle filter housing is a French-made unit sold by Home Depot under the name of “SmartWater” and reference number GXWH04F and it costs under US $20. As the filter supplied with the unit is not fine enough, so a 1-micron filter needs to be bought from Ace Hardware to replace the standard 4-micron filter supplied with the filter housing. This 1-micron adapted filter also acts as a back-flash preventer:
**Practical Issues**

No matter which variety of electrolyser cell is used, it is essential to put a bubbler between it and the engine intake. This is to prevent any accidental ignition of the gas reaching the electrolysis cell. Also, no electrolyser should be operated or tested indoors. This is because the gas is lighter than air so any leak of gas will cause the gas to collect on the ceiling where it can ignite if triggered by the slightest spark (such as is generated when a light switch is turned on or off). Hydrogen gas escapes very easily indeed as its atoms are very, very small and can get through any tiny crack and even directly through many apparently solid materials. Testing electrolyzers should be done outdoors or at the very least, in very well-ventilated locations. Using at least one bubbler is an absolutely vital safety measure. A typical bubbler looks like this:

Bubbler construction is very simple indeed. It can be any size or shape provided that the outlet of the entry tube has at least five inches (125 mm) of water above it. Plastic is a common choice for the material and fittings are easy to find. It is very important that good sealed joints are made where all pipes and wires enter any container which has HHO gas in it. This, of course, includes the bubbler. Bob Boyce’s 101-plate units produce up to 100 lpm of gas, so these need large diameter gas piping to carry that substantial volume and the bubblers need to be big as well. It is also a good idea to drill additional holes in the entry pipe from half way down below the surface of the water, in order to create a larger number of smaller bubbles.

The anti-slosh filling or a baffle plate in the cap is to prevent the water in the bubbler from splashing up into the exit pipe and being drawn into the engine. Various materials have been used for the filling including stainless steel wool and plastic pot scourers. The material needs to prevent, or at least minimise, any water passing through it, while at the same time allowing the gas to flow freely through it.

Let me stress again, that this document does NOT recommend that you actually build any of the items of equipment discussed here. The ‘HHO’ gas produced by electrolysis of water is extremely dangerous, ignites instantly and cannot be stored safely, so this document is strictly for information purposes only.

However, to understand the process more fully, the following details would need to be considered carefully if somebody decided to actually build one of these high-voltage series-cell devices.

There is a considerable difference between a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases (‘HHO’) and petroleum (gasoline) vapour. While they both can serve as fuel for an internal combustion engine, they have considerable differences. One major difference is that HHO gas burns very much faster than petrol vapour. That would not be a problem if the engine was originally designed to burn HHO gas. However, most existing engines are arranged to operate on fossil fuels.

If using HHO gas to improve the burn quality and improve the mpg of a vehicle, no timing adjustments are normally necessary. However, all recent cars in the USA are fitted with an Electronic Mixture Controller and if
nothing is done about that, a decrease in mpg may actually occur as the Controller may start pumping more fuel into the engine when it sees a change in the quality of the exhaust. Good information on how to deal with this problem can be found at the web site http://better-mileage.com/memberadx.html which includes details of how to deal with the Controller or in the previous document in this Appendix.

If an engine is run without any fossil fuel at all, then timing adjustments need to be made. Hydrocarbon fuels have large molecules which do not burn fast enough to be efficient inside the cylinder of an engine. What happens is that for the first fraction of a second after the spark plug fires, the molecules inside the cylinder split up into much smaller particles, and then these smaller particles burn so fast that it can be described as an explosion:

Because of the delay needed for the conversion of the hydrocarbon molecules to smaller particles, the spark is arranged to occur before the Top Dead Centre point. While the molecules are splitting up, the piston passes its highest point and the crankshaft is some degrees past Top Dead Centre before the driving pressure is placed on the head of the piston. This driving force then reinforces the clockwise rotation of the crankshaft shown in the diagram above and the motor runs smoothly.

That will not happen if a HHO gas/air mix is substituted for the petrol vapour. HHO gas has very small molecule sizes which do not need any kind of breaking down and which burn instantly. The result is as shown here:
Here, the explosion is almost instantaneous and the explosion attempts to force the piston *downwards*. Unfortunately, the crankshaft is trying to drive the piston *upwards* past the Top Dead Centre (‘TDC’) point, so the explosion will not help the engine run. Instead, the explosion will stop the crankshaft rotating, overload the crankshaft and connecting rod and produce excessive pressure on the wall of the cylinder.

We do **not** want that to happen. The solution is to delay the spark until the piston has reached the position in its rotation where we want the explosion to take place - that is, in exactly the same place as it did when using petrol as a fuel.

In the example above, the spark would be retarded (delayed) from 8 degrees before TDC to 10 degrees after TDC, or 18 degrees overall. The spark is *retarded* because it needs to occur later in the rotation of the crankshaft. The amount of retardation may vary from engine to engine, but with HHO gas, the spark must never occur before TDC and it is preferable that the crankshaft has rotated some degrees past TDC so that most of the push from the piston goes to turn the crankshaft and as little as possible in compressing the crankshaft.

**Diesel Engines**

Diesel engines do not have spark plugs and so there is no timing alterations needed with them. Any booster volume of HHO gas up to 80% of the cylinder contents can be added into the air entering a diesel engine and it automatically helps the mpg performance. If a really large volume of HHO gas is available, then the diesel engine is set to tick over on diesel and HHO gas is then added to rev the engine up and provide the power. The amount of HHO gas should not exceed four times the amount of diesel as engine overheating will occur if it does.

Roy McAlister has been running internal combustion engines on hydrogen and many mixtures of hydrogen and other fuels for forty years now. He advises anybody interested in implementing a system like this, to start with a single-cylinder engine of five horsepower or less. That way, the techniques are easily learnt and experience is gained in tuning a simple engine running on the new fuel. So, let us assume that we are going to convert a small generator engine. How do we go about it?

First, we obtain our supply of the new fuel. In this case, let us assume that we will produce HHO gas using a multi-cell high-voltage series electrolyser as described earlier. This unit has an electrical cut-off operated by a pressure switch which operates at say, five pounds per square inch. Assuming that the electrolyser is capable of producing a sufficient volume of gas, this is roughly equivalent to a hydrogen bottle with its pressure regulators.

In broad outline, the gas supply would look like this:
The physical connection to the engine is via a 6 mm (1/4 inch) stainless steel pipe, fitted with a standard knob-operated needle valve. The carburettor is removed altogether to allow maximum airflow into the engine, (or failing this, the throttle valve of the carburettor is opened wide and secured in that position). The stainless steel gas pipe has its diameter reduced further by the use of a nozzle with an internal diameter of 1 mm or so (1/16 inch or less), about the size of a hypodermic needle used by a vet. HHO gas has very small molecules and will flow very freely through tiny openings. The nozzle tip is pushed close to the intake valve and the gas feed pipe is secured in place to ensure no movement:

When the engine is about to be started, the needle valve can be hand-adjusted to give a suitable level of gas flow to maintain tick-over, but before that can happen, the timing of the spark needs to be adjusted.

There are two main ways to adjust the timing. The first is mechanical, where an adjustment is made to the mechanism which triggers the spark. Some small engines may well not have a convenient way to adjust the timing by as much as is needed for this application. The second way is to delay the spark by an adjustable electronic circuit (for instance, an NE555 monostable driving a FET). This can either be built or bought ready made. One supplier which offers a dashboard-mounted manually controlled ready-built ignition delay unit is http://www.msdignition.com/1timingcontrols.htm and there are others.

**Waste spark.**

As already discussed in chapter 10, there is one other very important consideration with small engines and that is the way in which the spark is generated. With a four-stroke engine, the crankshaft rotates twice for every power stroke. The spark plug only needs to fire every second time the piston approaches its highest position in the cylinder. This is not particularly convenient for engine manufacturers, so some simplify matters by generating a spark on every revolution. The extra spark is not needed, contributes nothing to the operation of the engine and so is called the “waste spark”. The waste spark does not matter for an engine running on fossil fuel vapour, but it does matter very much if the fuel is switched to HHO gas.

As has been shown in the earlier diagrams, it is necessary to retard (delay) the spark by some eighteen degrees or so when using HHO gas, due to its very much faster ignition rate. Delaying the HHO fuel ignition point until
after Top Dead Centre sorts out the situation in an entirely satisfactory manner for the Power Stroke of the engine. However, if the engine generates a spurious ‘waste spark’ that waste spark does cause a serious problem.

In the case of the fossil fuel, any waste spark will occur towards the end of the Exhaust Stroke and it will have no real effect (apart from wasting electrical power). In the case of the HHO fuel, the engine has completed the Exhaust Stroke, the outlet valve has closed, the intake valve has opened and the gas is being drawn through the open inlet valve into the cylinder in the Intake Stroke. At that instant, there is an open passage from the spark plug, through the cylinder, through the open intake valve, to the gas supply pipe and through it to the bubbler between the electrolyser and the engine. If a waste spark takes place, it will ignite the gas:

The gas ignition is highly likely if there is a waste spark in an engine using HHO fuel and (the necessary) retarded ignition. Trying to eliminate the unwanted spark by using a ‘divide-by-two’ electronic counter circuit is not likely to be successful unless there is some mechanically certain way of triggering the counter circuit at start-up. The best way of overcoming a waste spark, if the engine has one, is to use a 2:1 gearing arrangement on the output shaft of the motor and using the slower shaft to trigger the spark. Multi-cylinder engines do not usually have a waste spark. It is also possible to operate a contact from either the camshaft or directly from one of the valve stems. It has also been suggested that using a pressure-operated switch on the exhaust system would be effective, and another suggestion is to delay the opening time of the intake valve until after waste spark has occurred, though this may create a good deal more engine noise.

Once some experience has been gained in operating a single cylinder engine on HHO gas, the move to a full-sized engine is not very difficult. Each cylinder of the large engine is pretty much the same as the small engine. Instead of running a small tube down the carburettor intake of each cylinder, it is more convenient and economic to use the existing intake manifold, leave the throttle wide open and run the HHO gas pipe into the manifold. A flexible stainless steel pipe section should be used to absorb the vibration of the engine relative to the electrolyser. Roy McAlister suggests using a knob-operated needle valve to set the idling speed to about 1,000 rpm and placing a throttle-operated lever valve in parallel with it for applying more power to the engine:

It is not immediately clear to me why this arrangement is recommended as the knob-operated needle valve use to set the idling rate appears to be redundant. There appears to be no particular reason why a screw adjustment could not be used on the lever valve linked to the accelerator pedal of the vehicle. If that were done, then the throttle screw could be used to set the idle rate and the screw locked in position. That way, the needle valve and two Y-connectors could be dispensed with. The only possible reason which suggests itself is that there is slightly less physical construction needed for the recommended way shown here:
One supplier of flexible tubing suitable for this sort of work is http://www.titeflexcommercial.com but there will be many others.

**Engine Size Limits**

A 101-plate Boyce electrolyser accurately built, properly cleansed and conditioned, produces about 50 litres per minute of HHO gas continuously, when tuned properly and can sustain short bursts of 100 lpm. It is really not possible to say how much HHO gas is needed to operate any particular engine as the energy requirement varies so much from engine to engine even though they may have the same engine capacity. However, very rough ball-park figures, it would not be unusual for a 2 litre capacity engine to run satisfactorily on 100 lpm of HHO gas. Please remember that when flow rates like 100 lpm or more are being dealt with, that it is essential to use a large-diameter pipe (say, one-inch diameter) from the electrolyser onwards. Also, the bubblers need to be physically larger. It is essential to avoid any possibility of large HHO gas bubbles forming a continuous path through the water in the bubbler as that would allow a flame-front to pass directly through the water in the bubbler which is exactly what the bubbler is there to prevent, so don’t skimp on the size of the bubblers, especially as they will only be half-filled when the gas flow rate is very high. Bob Boyce explains the present limits on gas production as follows:

The impedance of the “MicroMetals T650” toroidal core reaches a maximum at 36 square inches per plate, it is possible to use one long 201-plate electrolyser, powered with double the voltage. The problem is that we can’t increase the current density as it would increase the toroid temperature which would cause the permeability to decrease. However, we can increase the voltage without worrying about increasing the toroid temperature, so going to 240 volts AC is not a problem.

A 201-plate electrolyser could achieve 200 lpm which would be able to power a 3 to 4 litre engine. Ideally, an electrolyser of that type would have a microprocessor controller circuit board, as that should generate faster pulse transition speeds than the present circuit board. An electrolyser of that type would need a revised case design to take stainless steel plates which are 9 inches wide and 6 inches tall. The electrolyte level would then be set to a 4 inch depth, giving the same 36 square inches of active plate area.

An 8 inch toroid with a 101-plate unit could fuel an engine of up to 4 litres capacity. A 10 inch toroid driving a 101-plate unit could fuel a 5 litre engine. In these cases, the plate areas would be larger than 6” x 6” because with a larger toroid, the current can be increased without overheating the toroid and lowering it’s permeability.

The information from Micrometals is that their hydraulic press can make toroids up to 8 inches in diameter, but the success rate diminishes as the diameter increases. As it is, the success rate for making the 6.5 inch diameter is their best economical rate. For larger diameters, the cost of the increased failure rate is passed on to the buyers.

There is word of a small private Canadian outfit that is working with 5 gallon pails of mining tailings to extract high-permeability materials which can be used to make larger toroids. They crush the tailings into fine powder with a huge milling stone, then pass the powder under a magnet to collect the magnetic material. They do this several times and then mix the remaining material with a binder to form a toroid.
Every company in the toroid making industry has their own proprietary formula for making toroids. This particular Canadian company's 6.5 inch toroid matches the Micrometals T650 pretty well. If there is enough interest, they can quote a quantity rate for a larger toroid.

**Stationary Applications**

Some people wish to try home applications with an electrolyser of this type, and they ask about powering the unit directly from the mains, rather than from the electrical system of a vehicle. This is a practical proposition and it has the advantage that size and weight are no longer of any great importance. The circuit would alter very slightly for this application as shown here:

Here, instead of an inverter to create 110 volts AC, a car battery charger or mains Power Supply Unit is needed to provide the same voltage that the vehicle electrics would have provided. It would probably be worth putting a large value capacitor across the output of the car battery charger to help smooth out the voltage ripple which it will produce. Don’t forget that it needs to be able to supply considerable current and so it will be rated as a “heavy-duty” battery charger. If a 200-cell unit is to be used, then a 1:2 mains step-up transformer will also be needed to raise the mains voltage to 220 volts.

In countries which have a 220 volt mains supply, then a 2:1 step-down mains transformer would be needed for a 100-cell unit but not for a 200-cell unit. The circuit would then be:
Bob Boyce’s Experiences:
Bob had an electronics business down in south Florida where he owned and sponsored a small boat-race team through his business, starting in 1988. He had a machine shop behind his business, where he did engine work. He worked on engines for other racers and a local minisub research outfit which was building surface-running drone type boats for the DEA. He delved into hydrogen research and started building small electrolyzers using distilled water mixed with an electrolyte. He then resonated the plates to improve the efficiency of the units. He discovered that with the right frequencies, He was able to generate ‘monatomic’ Hydrogen and Oxygen rather than the more common ‘diatomic’ versions of these gasses. When the ‘monatomic’ gasses are burnt, they produce about four times the energy output produced by burning the more common diatomic version of these gasses.

About 4% of diatomic Hydrogen in air is needed to produce the same power as petrol, while slightly less than 1% of monatomic Hydrogen in air is needed for the same power. The only drawback is that when stored at pressure, monatomic hydrogen reverts to its more common diatomic form. To avoid this, the gas must be produced on-demand and used right away. Bob used modified Liquid Petroleum carburettors on the boat engines to let them run directly on the gas produced by his electrolyzers. Bob also converted an old Chrysler car with a slant six-cylinder engine to run on the hydrogen set-up and tested it in his workshop. He replaced the factory ignition with a high energy dual coil system and added an optical pickup to the crankshaft at the oil pump drive tang to allow external ignition timing adjustment. He used Bosch Platinum series spark plugs.

Bob never published anything about what he was working on, and he always stated that his boats were running on hydrogen fuel, which was allowed. Many years later that he found that he had stumbled on was already discovered and known as "Browns Gas", and there were companies selling the equipment and plans to make it.

Bob’s electrolyser is fairly simple to make but it requires a lot of plates made of 316 stainless steel able to withstand the more exotic electrolytes which are more efficient, a plastic box to contain the plates, 1/8” spacers to keep the rows of plates apart, the electrolyte, and an adjustable-frequency modified pseudo-sinewave inverter for the drive electronics. A total of 101 plates 6 inches square are used to give a large surface area. These have their surfaces scoured with coarse sandpaper in an "X" pattern to give a fine crosshatch grain which added fine sharp points to the surfaces.

This is found to improve the efficiency of the electrolysis. The box has two threaded ports, a small one for injecting replacement distilled water, and a larger one for extracting the HHO gas. Under the top cover is a piece of plastic matting to prevent sloshing. It is very important to keep the electrolyte level below the tops of the plates to prevent current bypassing any cells and creating excessive water vapour.

Bob places a 5 Pounds per Square Inch cut-off switch in a tee on the water injection port that shut the drive electronics down when the pressure in the unit hit 5 PSI. This allows the unit to be able to supply on demand without building up too much pressure in low-demand situations. He builds a bubbler from a large home cartridge type water-filter housing to prevent any backfire from travelling back up the gas feed pipe to the electrolyser. Without some sort of bubbler there is the risk of the electrolyser igniting if a flame front from the engine flows back to it.

The copper mesh screens designed for welding gasses will not work as hydrogen has a much higher flame propagation speed which passes straight through the copper mesh. The bubbler should be placed close to the engine so as to limit the amount of recombination of the gasses from monatomic to diatomic varieties. The HHO gas should be fed to the vapour portion of a Liquid Petroleum Gas carburettor system. The carburettor will have to be modified for hydrogen use (different mixture rate than propane) and adjusted for best performance with the system running.

Bob found that the best electrolytes to use were Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH) and Potassium Hydroxide (KOH). While Sodium Hydroxide works well and is much easier to get (‘Red Devil’ lye found in most department stores) than the slightly more efficient Potassium Hydroxide. Whatever is used, be very careful what construction materials are used. Make absolutely sure that they are compatible with the chosen electrolyte (Plexiglas acrylic sheet was what Bob used). Never use glass containers for mixing or storing Potassium Hydroxide.

Bob never had the chance to drive the test Chrysler on the road with this system. Instead, he placed the rear end up on jack-stands and ran the engine under no-load conditions in drive just to test and tune the system and get an idea of how well the engine held up on the hydrogen fuel. The vehicle was run for a metered recorded distance of one thousand miles in this set-up with the hydrolysis being fully powered by the alternator of the vehicle. With the vehicle running at idle, the drive electronics consumed approximately 4 to 4.3 Amps @ 13.8 V DC. With the rear wheels off of the ground, and the engine running with the vehicle speedometer registering 60 mph, the drive electronics drew approximately 10.9 to 11.6 Amps @ 13.8 V DC.
The unit does not use "normal brute force" electrolysis when operating in high efficiency mode. It relies mainly on a chemical reaction that takes place between the electrolyte used and the metal plates, which is maintained by electrical energy applied and stimulated into higher efficiency by the application of multiple harmonic resonances which help to "tickle" the molecules apart. Multiple cells in series are used to lower the voltage per cell and limit the current flow in order to reduce the production of water vapour. It relies on the large surface area of the total number of cells to get the required volume of fuel vapour output.

In the first prototype of this design, Bob used a custom built controller/driver which allowed a lot of adjustment so that performance could be tested using different frequencies, voltages, and waveforms individually. The result was a pattern of 3 interwoven square waves rich in harmonics that produced optimum efficiency. When Bob had the basics figured out he realised that he could just replace the custom controller/driver unit with a modified inverter (much easier than building a unit from scratch). He experimented using a 300 watt pseudo-sine wave inverter that had been modified so the base frequency could be adjusted between 700 and 800 Hz. The stepped sine wave output was fed through a bridge rectifier which turned each stepped sine wave into two positive stepped half waves. Each of these half waves had 8 steps, so a single cycle was turned into 16 steps. The resulting output, while not consisting of intermixed square waves, was still rich in harmonics, and it was much easier to adjust to the point of resonance than trying to tune 3 separate frequencies. Please note that these inverters are no longer available for purchase and that Bob's triple oscillator board design is far superior, giving more than double the output produced by the old inverter and is definitely the board to use with Bob's electrolyser.

The frequency range can change depending on the number of steps in the pseudo-sine wave of the inverter you choose since not all inverters are created equal. The desired effect is caused by the multiple harmonic resonances in the inverter output at higher frequencies. You will know when you hit resonance by the dramatic increase in gas output. The frequency does vary a bit depending on what electrolyte is used, the concentration of the electrolyte solution, the temperature of the electrolyte, water purity, etc.

Bear in mind that Bob's electrolyser tank was large enough to hold 61 plates of 316 grade stainless steel which were 6" X 6" each, spaced 1/8" apart, to create 60 cells in series, with the 130 V DC power from the inverter, through the bridge rectifier, applied to the end plates only. That gave 4,320 square inches of surface area, plenty of surface area to produce enough fuel for a vehicle engine. The best electrolyte for efficiency was Potassium Hydroxide, and the electrolyte level must be kept below the tops of the plates to prevent any current from bypassing the plates and creating excess water vapour through heating. Distilled water was used to prevent contamination of the electrolyte which would result in reduced performance and efficiency.

The unit had 316 grade stainless steel wires welded to the tops of the end plates. The other ends of the wires were welded to 316-grade stainless steel bolts which passed through holes in the ends of the container, with rubber o-ring gaskets inside and out, located above the liquid level.

There was a PVC spray bar attached on the inside of the chamber to the water injection port with tiny holes drilled along its length on the underside to supply replacement water evenly to the cells when the water pump was switched on. A backflow-prevention valve on top of the tee was used to keep the gas from flowing back into the water lines. There was a mat of interwoven plastic fibres (air conditioner filter material) cut and fitted on top of the plates to help prevent sloshing. Do not use fibreglass mat, which could cause a severe reaction with some electrolytes, like Potassium Hydroxide.

It is very important to understand that unless an engine is originally designed for, or later modified for, running on vapour fuel such as Liquid Petroleum Gas (natural gas), that water mist injection be added. Unless the engine has the proper valves for vapour fuel, the stock valves will not survive for extended run times on vapour fuel of any kind without additional cooling of some sort. This is an issue of valve design by the vehicle manufacturers, not something detrimental because of HHO gas combustion. The manufacturers want to prevent their cars from being adapted to high mileage operation without adverse effects, so they designed the valves to fail if not cooled by excess raw fossil fuel.

**Pulsed Water-Splitters.**

There is a much more efficient way of converting water into a HHO gas mix. Unlike the electrolysis devices already described, this method does not need an electrolyte. Pioneered by Stanley Meyer, pulse trains are used to stress water molecules until they break apart, forming the required gas mix. Henry Puharich also developed a very successful system with a somewhat different design. Neither of these gentlemen shared sufficient practical information for us to replicate their designs as a routine process, so we are in a position today where we are searching for the exact details of the methods which they used.
Dave Lawton’s Replication of Stan Meyer’s “Water Fuel Cell”.
The first significant replication of which I am aware, came from Dave Lawton of Wales. By using very considerable tenacity, he discovered the practical details of how to replicate one of Stan Meyer's early designs which is called by the rather confusing name of the "Water Fuel Cell". Dave's work was copied and experimented with by Ravi Raju of India who had considerable success and who posted videos of his results on the web. More recently, Dr Scott Cramton of the USA has adapted the design construction slightly and achieved very satisfactory rates of electrical efficiency, producing some 6 lpm of HHO gas for just 3 amps of current at 12 volts.

The video of Dave Lawton's replication of Stanley Meyer’s demonstration electrolyser (not Stan's production system) seen at http://www.free-energy-info.com/WFCrep.wmv has caused several people to ask for more details. The electrolysis shown in that video was driven by an alternator, solely because Dave wanted to try each thing that Stan Meyer had done. Dave’s alternator and the motor used to drive it are shown here:

The technique of DC pulsing requires the use of electronics, so the following descriptions contain a considerable amount of circuitry. If you are not already familiar with such circuits, then you would be well advised to read through Chapter 12 which explains this type of circuitry from scratch.

The field coil of Dave's alternator is switched on and off by a Field-Effect Transistor (a “FET”) which is pulsed by a dual 555 timer circuit. This produces a composite waveform which produces an impressive rate of electrolysis. The tubes in this replication are made of 316L grade stainless steel, five inches long although Stan's tubes were about sixteen inches long. The outer tubes are 1 inch in diameter and the inner tubes 3/4 inch in diameter. As the wall thickness is 1/16 inch, the gap between them is between 1 mm and 2 mm. The inner pipes are held in place at each end by four rubber strips about one quarter of an inch long.

The container is made from two standard 4 inch diameter plastic drain down-pipe coupler fittings connected to each end of a piece of acrylic tube with PVC solvent cement. The acrylic tube was supplied already cut to size by Wake Plastics, 59 Twickenham Road, Isleworth, Middlesex TW7 6AR Telephone 0208-560-0928. The seamless stainless steel tubing was supplied by: http://www.metalsontheweb.co.uk/asp/home.asp

It is not necessary to use an alternator - Dave just did this as he was copying each thing that Stan Meyer did. The circuit without the alternator produces gas at about the same rate and obviously draws less current as there is no drive motor to be powered. A video of the non-alternator operation can be downloaded using this link: http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/WFCrep2.wmv.

Dave’s electrolyser has an acrylic tube section to allow the electrolysis to be watched, as shown here:
The electrolysis takes place between each of the inner and outer tubes. The picture above shows the bubbles just starting to leave the tubes after the power is switched on. The picture below shows the situation a few seconds later when the whole of the area above the tubes is so full of bubbles that it becomes completely opaque:

The mounting rings for the tubes can be made from any suitable plastic, such as that used for ordinary food-chopping boards, and are shaped like this:

And the 316L grade stainless steel, seamless tubes are held like this:
Here is the assembly ready to receive the inner tubes (wedged into place by small pieces of rubber):

The electrical connections to the pipes are via stainless steel wire running between stainless steel bolts tapped into the pipes and stainless steel bolts running through the base of the unit:
The bolts tapped into the inner tubes should be on the inside. The bolts going through the base of the unit should be tapped in to give a tight fit and they should be sealed with Sikaflex 291 or marine GOOP bedding agent which should be allowed to cure completely before the unit is filled for use. An improvement in performance is produced if the non-active surfaces of the pipes are insulated with any suitable material. That is, the outsides of the outer tubes and the insides of the inner tubes, and if possible, the cut ends of the pipes.

**Stan Meyer’s Style of Construction.**

While Dave’s style of construction is simple and straightforward, recently, a copy of one of Stan Meyer’s actual construction drawings has surfaced. The image quality of this copy is so low that much of the text can’t be read, so the replication presented here may not be exact or might be missing some useful item of information. Stan’s construction is unusual. First, a piece of plastic is shaped as shown here:

![Diagram of Stan Meyer's construction](image)

The size of this disc is matched exactly to the piece of clear acrylic used for the body of the housing. The drawing does not make it clear how this disc is attached to the acrylic tube, whether it is a tight push fit, glued in place or held in position with bolts which are not shown. The implication is that a ring of six bolts are driven through the top and tapped into the acrylic tube, as these are shown on one of the plan views, though not on the cross-section. It would also be reasonable to assume that a similar ring of six bolts is also used to hold the base securely in position. There is a groove cut in the plastic base to take an O-ring seal which will be compressed tightly when the disc is in place. There are either two or three threaded stud recesses plus two through holes to carry the electric current connections. The pipe support arrangement is unusual:
A ring of nine evenly-spaced inner pipes are positioned around the edge of a steel disc which is slightly smaller than the inside dimension of the acrylic tube. The pipes appear to be a tight push-fit in holes drilled very accurately through the disc. These holes need to be exactly at right-angles to the face of the disc in order for the pipes to be exactly aligned with the acrylic tube – definitely a drill-press job. The disc is mounted on a central threaded rod which projects through the plastic base disc, and a plastic spacer is used to hold the disc clear of the studs positioned at ninety degrees apart around the outer edge of the base disc.

The mounting for the outer tubes is also most unusual. A piece of steel plate is cut with nine projecting arms at evenly-spaced positions around a circular washer shape as shown here:

This piece has four holes drilled in it to match the stud positions of the plastic base piece. The number of studs is not specified and while I have shown four, the plate resonance might be helped if there were just three. The size is arranged so that when the arms are bent upwards at right-angles, they fit exactly against the inner face of the acrylic tube.
These arms get two bends in them in order to kink them inwards to form mounts for the outer tubes. The degree of accuracy needed here is considerable as it appears that there are no spacers used between the inner and outer tubes. This means that the very small gap of 1.5 mm or so has to be maintained by the accuracy of these mounts for the outer tubes.

It should be noted that the inner tubes are much longer than the outer tubes and that the outer tubes have a tuning slot cut in them. All of the inner tubes are mechanically connected together through their steel mounting disc and all of the outer tubes are connected together through the ring-shaped steel disc and its kinked arm mounts. It is intended that both of these assemblies should resonate at the same frequency, and they are tuned to do just that. Because the inner tubes have a smaller diameter, they will resonate at a higher frequency than a larger diameter pipe of the same length. For that reason, they are made longer to lower their natural resonant frequency. In addition to that, the slots cut in the outer tubes are a tuning method which raises their resonant pitch. These slots will be adjusted until every pipe resonates at the same frequency.

Looking initially at the mechanical design, suggests that the assembly is impossible to assemble, and while that is almost true, as it will have to be constructed as it is assembled and it appears that the inner and outer pipe assembly can’t be taken apart after assembly. This is the way they are put together:

![Diagram of cell construction](image)

The ring support for the outer pipes is not bolted securely to the plastic base but instead it is spaced slightly above it and mounted on just the stud points. This ring is underneath the slightly smaller diameter disc which holds the inner pipes. This makes it impossible for the two components to be slid together or apart, due to the length of the pipes. This suggests that either the inner pipes are pushed into place after assembly (which is highly unlikely as they will have been assembled before for tuning) or that the outer pipes are welded to their supports during the assembly process (which is much more likely).

One of the “studs” is carried right through the plastic base in order that it can become the positive connection of the electrical supply, fed to the outer pipes. The central threaded rod is also carried all the way through the plastic base and is used to support the steel plate holding the inner pipes as well as providing the negative electrical connection, often referred to as the electrical “ground”.

Another plastic disc is machined to form a conical lid for the acrylic tube, having a groove to hold an O-ring seal and the water inlet for refilling and the gas output tube. The drawing mentions the fact that if tap water is used, then the impurities in it will collect in the bottom of the electrolyser when the water is removed by being converted to HHO gas. This means that the cell would have to be rinsed out from time to time. It also draws attention to the fact that the gasses dissolved in the tap water will also come out during use and will be mixed with the HHO gas output.

When these various components are put together, the overall cell construction is shown like this:
This cross-sectional view may be slightly misleading as it suggests that each of the nine outer pipes has its own separate bracket and this is probably not the case as they are connected together electrically through the steel ring-shaped disc and should vibrate as a single unit. It is tempting to use separate brackets as that would allow the assembly to be taken apart quite easily, but the electrical contacts of such a system would be much inferior and so it is not to be recommended.

Because of the way that all of the inner pipes are connected together and all of the outer pipes are connected together electrically, this form of construction is not suited to the three-phase alternator drive shown below, where the nine pipes would have to be connected in separate sets of three. Instead, the solid-state circuit is used, which is very effective and which does not have the size, weight, noise and increased current of the alternator arrangement.

If accuracy of construction is a problem, then it might be possible to give the outer pipes a deliberate slope so that they press against the inner pipes at the top, and then use one short spacer to force them apart and give the desired spacing. It seems clear that Stan worked to such a degree of constructional accuracy that his pipes were perfectly aligned all along their lengths.

Dave Lawton points out that the connection point of the brackets for the outer pipes is highly critical as they need to be at a resonating node of the pipes. The connection point is therefore at 22.4% of the length of the pipe from the bottom of the pipe. Presumably, if a slot is cut in the top of the pipe, then the resonant pipe length will be measured to the bottom of the slot and the connection point set at 22.4% of that length.

Dave Lawton’s 3-Phase Circuit.
Dave Lawton’s pipe arrangement can be driven either via an alternator or by an electronic circuit. A suitable circuit for the alternator arrangement is:
In this rather unusual circuit, the rotor winding of an alternator is pulsed via an oscillator circuit which has variable frequency and variable Mark/Space ratio and which can be gated on and off to produce the output waveform shown below the alternator in the circuit diagram. The oscillator circuit has a degree of supply de-coupling by the 100 ohm resistor feeding the 100 microfarad capacitor. This is to reduce voltage ripple coming along the +12 volt supply line, caused by the current pulses through the rotor winding. The output arrangement feeding the pipe electrodes of the electrolyser is copied directly from Stan Meyer’s circuit diagram.

It is not recommended that you use an alternator should you decide to build a copy of your own. But if you decide to use one and the alternator does not have the windings taken to the outside of the casing, it is necessary to open the alternator, remove the internal regulator and diodes and pull out three leads from the ends of the stator windings. If you have an alternator which has the windings already accessible from the outside, then the stator winding connections are likely to be as shown here:
The motor driving Dave’s alternator draws about two amps of current which roughly doubles the power input to the circuit. There is no need for the size, weight, noise, mechanical wear and current draw of using a motor and alternator as pretty much the same performance can be produced by the solid-state circuit with no moving parts.

Both circuits have been assessed as operating at anything from 300% to 900% of Faraday’s “maximum electrical efficiency”, it should be stressed that the inductors used in this circuit, form a very important role in altering and amplifying the voltage waveform applied to the cell. Dave uses two “bi-filar wound” inductors, each wound with 100 turns of 22 SWG (21 AWG) enamelled copper wire on a 9 mm (3/8”) diameter ferrite rod. The length of the ferrite rod is not at all critical, and a ferrite toroid could be used as an alternative, though that is more difficult to wind. These bi-filar coils are wound at the same time using two lengths of wire side by side. The solid-state circuit is shown here:

**Dave Lawton's Single-Phase Circuit:**
Circuit operation:

The main part of the circuit is made up of two standard 555 chip timers. These are wired to give an output waveform which switches very rapidly between a high voltage and a low voltage. The ideal waveform shape coming from this circuit is described as a "square wave" output. In this particular version of the circuit, the rate at which the circuit flips between high and low voltage (called the "frequency") can be adjusted by the user turning a knob. Also, the length of the ON time to the OFF time (called the "Mark/Space Ratio") is also adjustable.
This is the section of the circuit which does this:

![Circuit Diagram]

The 100 ohm resistor and the 100 microfarad capacitor are there to iron out any ripples in the voltage supply to the circuit, caused by fierce pulses in the power drive to the electrolysis cell. The capacitor acts as a reservoir of electricity and the resistor prevents that reservoir being suddenly drained if the power supply line is suddenly, and very briefly, pulled down to a low voltage. Between them, they keep the voltage at point “A” at a steady level, allowing the 555 chip to operate smoothly.

The very small capacitor “B” is wired up physically very close to the chip. It is there to short-circuit any stray, very short, very sharp voltage pulses picked up by the wiring to the chip. It is there to help the chip to operate exactly as it is designed to do, and is not really a functional part of the circuit. So, for understanding how the circuit works, we can ignore them and see the circuit like this:

![Simplified Circuit Diagram]

This circuit generates output pulses of the type shown in green with the voltage going high, (the “Mark”) and low (the “Space”). The 47K variable resistor (which some people insist on calling a “pot”) allows the length of the Mark and the Space to be adjusted from the 50 - 50 shown, to say, 90 - 10 or any ratio through to 10 - 90. It should be mentioned that the “47K” is not at all critical and these are quite likely to be sold as “50K” devices. Most low cost components have a plus or minus 10% rating which means that a 50K resistor will be anything from 45K to 55K in actual value.

The two “1N4148” diodes are there to make sure that when the Mark/Space 47K variable resistor is adjusted, that it does not alter the frequency of the output waveform in any way. The remaining two components: the 10K variable resistor and the 47 microfarad capacitor, both marked in blue, control the number of pulses produced per
second. The larger the capacitor, the fewer the pulses per second. The lower the value of the variable resistor, the larger the number of pulses per second.

The circuit can have additional frequency tuning ranges, if the capacitor value is altered by switching in a different capacitor. So the circuit can be made more versatile by the addition of one switch and, say, two alternative capacitors, as shown here:

The capacitors shown here are unusually large because this particular circuit is intended to run relatively slowly. In the almost identical section of the circuit which follows this one, the capacitors are very much smaller which causes the switching rate to be very much higher. Experience has shown that a few people have had overheating in this circuit when it is switched out of action, so the On/Off switch has been expanded to be a two-pole changeover switch and the second pole used to switch out the timing elements of the 555 chip. The complete version of this section of the circuit is then:

which just has one additional switch to allow the output to be stopped and the 12-volt supply line to be fed instead. The reason for this is that this part of the circuit is used to switch On and Off an identical circuit. This is called “gating” and is explained in Chapter 12 which is an electronics tutorial.

The second part of the circuit is intended to run at much higher speeds, so it uses much smaller capacitors:
So, putting them together, and allowing the first circuit to switch the second one On and Off, we get:

The final section of the circuit is the power drive for the electrolyser cell. This is a very simple circuit. Firstly, the output of the second 555 chip is lowered by a basic voltage-divider pair of resistors, and fed to the Gate of the output transistor which while it can run on the 12 volts which the pulse-generation circuit needs, Dave does prefer to run on 24 volts as that generates a greater gas flow:
Here, the 555 chip output voltage is lowered by 220 / 820 or about 27%. When the voltage rises, it causes the BUZ350 transistor to switch on, short-circuiting between its Drain and Source connections and applying the whole of the 12-volt supply voltage across the load, which in our application, is the electrolyser cell:

The transistor drives the electrolysis electrodes as shown above, applying very sharp, very short pulses to them. What is very important are the wire coils which are placed on each side of the electrode set. These coils are linked magnetically because they are wound together on a high-frequency ferrite rod core and although a coil is such a simple thing, these coils have a profound effect on how the circuit operates. Firstly, they convert the 555 chip pulse into a very sharp, very short, high-voltage pulse which can be as high as 1,200 volts. This pulse affects the local environment, causing extra energy to flow into the circuit. The coils now perform a second role by blocking that additional energy from short-circuiting through the battery, and causing it to flow through the electrolysis cell, splitting the water into a mix of hydrogen and oxygen, both gases being high-energy, highly charged atomic versions of those gases. This gives the mix some 400% the power of hydrogen being burned in air.

When the transistor switches off, the coils try to pull the transistor Drain connection up to a voltage well above the +12-volt battery line. To prevent this, a 1N4007 diode is connected across the cell and its coils. The diode is connected so that no current flows through it until the transistor Drain gets dragged above the +12-volt line, but when that happens, the diode effectively gets turned over and as soon as 0.7 volts is placed across it, it starts to conduct heavily and collapses the positive-going voltage swing, protecting the transistor. You can easily tell that it is the environmental “cold” electricity which is doing the electrolysis as the cell stays cold even though it is putting out large volumes of gas. If the electrolysis were being done by conventional electricity, the cell temperature would rise during the electrolysis. A John Bedini pulser circuit can be used very effectively with a cell of this type and it adjusts automatically to the resonant frequency as the cell is part of the frequency-determining circuit.

The BUZ350 MOSFET has a current rating of 22 amps so it will run cool in this application. However, it is worth mounting it on an aluminium plate which will act as both the mounting and a heat sink but it should be realised that this circuit is a bench-testing circuit with a maximum current output of about 2 amps and it is not a Pulse-Width Modulation circuit for a high-current DC electrolyser. The current draw in this arrangement is particularly interesting. With just one tube in place, the current draw is about one amp. When a second tube is added, the current increases by less than an amp. When the third is added, the total current is under two amps. The fourth and fifth tubes add about 100 milliamps each and the sixth tube causes almost no increase in current at all. This suggests that the efficiency could be raised further by adding a large number of additional tubes, but this is actually not the case as the cell arrangement is important. Stan Meyer ran his VolksWagen car for four years on
the output from four of these cells with 16-inch (400 mm) electrodes, and Stan would have made a single larger cell had that been feasible.

Although the current is not particularly high, a five or six amp circuit-breaker, or fuse, should be placed between the power supply and the circuit, to protect against accidental short-circuits. If a unit like this is to be mounted in a vehicle, then it is essential that the power supply is arranged so that the electrolyser is disconnected if the engine is switched off. Passing the electrical power through a relay which is powered via the ignition switch is a good solution for this. It is also vital that at least one bubbler is placed between the electrolyser and the engine, to give some protection if the gas should get ignited by an engine malfunction.

Although printed circuit boards have now been produced for this circuit and ready-made units are available commercially, you can build your own using stripboard if you want to. A possible one-off prototype style component layout for is shown here:

![Diagram of the circuit](image)

- = Track cut on underside of the board
The underside of the strip-board (when turned over horizontally) is shown here:
Although using a ferrite ring is probably the best possible option, the bi-filar coil can be wound on any straight ferrite rod of any diameter and length. You just tape the ends of two strands of wire to one end of the rod and then rotate the rod in your hands, guiding the strands into a neat side-by-side cylindrical winding as shown here:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 ohm resistors 0.25 watt</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bands: Brown, Black, Brown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220 ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bands: Red, Red, Brown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>820 ohm resistor 0.25 watt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bands: Gray, Red, Brown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 μF 16V capacitor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Electrolytic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47μF 16V capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electrolytic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 μF 16V capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electrolytic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 μF 16 V capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electrolytic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220 nF capacitor (0.22 mF)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ceramic or polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 nF capacitor (0.1 mF)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ceramic or polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 nF capacitor (0.01 mF)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ceramic or polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N4148 diodes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1N4007 diode</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>FET protection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NE555 timer chip</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUZ350 MOSFET</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Or any 200V 20A n-channel MOSFET</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47K variable resistors</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Standard carbon track</td>
<td>Could be screw track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K variable resistors</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Standard carbon track</td>
<td>Could be screw track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-pole, 3-way switches</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Wafer type</td>
<td>Frequency range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-pole changeover switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Toggle type, possibly sub-miniature</td>
<td>Any style will do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-pole 1-throw switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Toggle type rated at 10 amps</td>
<td>Overall ON / OFF switch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse holder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Enclosed type or a 6A circuit breaker</td>
<td>Short-circuit protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veroboard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 strips, 40 holes, 0.1 inch matrix</td>
<td>Parallel copper strips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-pin DIL IC sockets</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Black plastic, high or low profile</td>
<td>Protects the 555 ICs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wire terminals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ideally two red and two black</td>
<td>Power lead connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic box</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Injection moulded with screw-down lid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mounting nuts, bolts and pillars</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hardware for 8 insulated pillar mounts</td>
<td>For board and heatsink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluminium sheet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>About 4 inch x 2 inch</td>
<td>MOSFET heatsink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber or plastic feet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Any small adhesive feet</td>
<td>Underside of case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knobs for variable resistors etc.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1/4 inch shaft, large diameter</td>
<td>Marked skirt variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ammeter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Optional item, 0 to 5A or similar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferrite rod 1-inch long or longer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>For construction of the inductors</td>
<td>bi-filar wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 SWG (21 AWG) wire</td>
<td>1 reel</td>
<td>Enamelled copper wire, 2 oz. reel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundry connecting wire</td>
<td>4 m</td>
<td>Various sizes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dave, who built this replication, suggests various improvements. Firstly, Stan Meyer used a larger number of tubes of greater length. Both of those two factors should increase the gas production considerably. Secondly, careful examination of video of Stan’s demonstrations shows that the outer tubes which he used had a rectangular slot cut in the top of each tube:
Some organ pipes are fine-tuned by cutting slots like this in the top of the pipe, to raise it's pitch, which is it's frequency of vibration. As they have a smaller diameter, the inner pipes in the Meyer cell will resonate at a higher frequency than the outer pipes. It therefore seems probable that the slots cut by Stan are to raise the resonant frequency of the larger pipes, to match the resonant frequency of the inner pipes. If you want to do that, hanging the inner tube up on a piece of thread and tapping it, will produce a sound at the resonant pitch of the pipe. Cutting a slot in one outer pipe, suspending it on a piece of thread and tapping it, will allow the pitch of the two pipes to be compared. When one outer pipe has been matched to your satisfaction, then a slot of exactly the same dimensions will bring the other outer pipes to the same resonant pitch. It has not been proved, but it has been suggested that only the part of the outer pipe which is below the slot, actually contributes to the resonant frequency of the pipe. That is the part marked as “H” in the diagram above. It is also suggested that the pipes will resonate at the same frequency if the area of the inside face of the outer pipe ("H" x the inner circumference) exactly matches the area of the outer surface of the inner pipe. It should be remembered that as all of the pipe pairs will be resonated with a single signal, that each pipe pair needs to resonate at the same frequency as all the other pipe pairs.

It is said that Stan ran his VolksWagen car for four years, using just the gas from four of these units which had pipe pairs 16-inches long. A very important part of the cell build is the conditioning of the electrode tubes, using tap water. Ravi in India suggests that this is done as follows:

1. Do not use any resistance on the negative side of the power supply when conditioning the pipes.
2. Start at 0.5 Amps on the signal generator and after 25 minutes, switch off for 30 minutes
3. Then apply 1.0 Amps for 20 minutes and then stop for 30 minutes.
4. Then apply 1.5 Amps for 15 minutes and then stop for 20 minutes.
5. Then apply 2.0 Amps for 10 minutes and afterwards stop for 20 minutes.
6. Go to 2.5 Amps for 5 minutes and stop for 15 minutes.
7. Go to 3.0 Amps for 120 to 150 seconds. You need to check if the cell is getting hot...if it is you need to reduce the time.

After the seven steps above, let the cell stand for at least an hour before you start all over again.

You will see hardly any gas generation in the early stages of this conditioning process, but a lot of brown muck will be generated. Initially, change the water after every cycle, but do not touch the tubes with bare hands. If the ends of the tubes need to have muck cleaned off them, then use a brush but do not touch the electrodes!! If the brown muck is left in the water during the next cycle, it causes the water to heat up and you need to avoid this.

Over a period of time, there is a reduction in the amount of the brown stuff produced and at some point, the pipes won’t make any brown stuff at all. You will be getting very good gas generation by now. A whitish powdery coat of chromium oxide dielectric will have developed on the surfaces of the electrodes. Never touch the pipes with bare hands once this helpful coating has developed.

Important: Do the conditioning in a well-ventilated area, or alternatively, close the top of the cell and vent the gas out into the open. During this process, the cell is left on for quite some time, so even a very low rate of gas production can accumulate a serious amount of gas which would be a hazard if left to collect indoors.

Further Developments

When producing HHO gas from water, it is not possible to exceed the Faraday maximum unless additional energy is being drawn in from the surrounding environment. As this cell runs cold and has substantial gas output, there is every indication that when it is running, it is drawing in this extra energy.

This idea is supported by the fact that one of the key methods of tapping this extra energy is by producing a train of very sharply rising and sharply falling electrical pulses. This is exactly the objective of Dave’s circuit, so it would not be too surprising if that effect were happening.

The additional energy being accessed is sometimes referred to as “cold” electricity, which has very different characteristics to normal conventional electricity. Where normal electrical losses cause local heating as a by-product, “cold” electricity has exactly the opposite effect, and where a normal electrical loss would take place, an extra inflow of useful “cold” energy enters the circuit from outside. This flow causes the temperature of the circuitry to drop, instead of increase, which is why it is called “cold” electricity.

This remarkable occurrence has the most unusual effect of actually reducing the amount of conventional power needed to drive the circuit, if the output load is increased. So, increasing the load powered by the circuit causes additional energy to flow in from the environment, powering the extra load and as well, helping to drive the original circuit. This seems very strange, but then, “cold” electricity operates in an entirely different way to our familiar
conventional electricity, and it has its own set of unfamiliar rules, which are generally the reverse of what we are used to.

To test his cell system further, Dave connected an extra load across the electrodes of his cell. As the inductors connected each side of the cell generate very high-value, sharp voltage spikes, Dave connected two large value capacitors (83,000 microfarad, 50-volt) across the cell as well. The load was a 10-watt light bulb which shines brightly, and interestingly, the current draw of the circuit goes down rather than up, in spite of the extra output power. The gas production rate appears undiminished.

This is the alteration to that part of the circuit which was used:

It has also been suggested that if a BUZ350 can't be obtained, then it would be advisable to protect the output FET against damage caused by accidental short-circuiting of wires, etc., by connecting what is effectively a 150-volt, 10 watt zener diode across it as shown in the above diagram. While this is not necessary for the correct operation of the circuit, it is helpful in cases where accidents occur during repeated testing and modification of the cell components.

Dr Scott Cramton’s Cell Construction.
Dr. Cramton and his team of Laesa Research and Development scientists have been investigating and advancing this technology and they have reached an output of six litres per minute for an electrical input of 12 watts (1 amp at 12 volts). In addition, Dr. Cramton’s cell has stable frequency operation and is being run on local
well water. The objective is to reduce the amount of diesel fuel needed to run a large capacity standard electrical generator.

The style of design is similar to Stan Meyer’s original physical construction although the dimensions are slightly different. The cell body is transparent acrylic tube with end caps top and bottom. Inside the tube are nine pairs of pipes, electrically connected as three sets of three interspersed pipe pairs. These are driven by a three-phase pulsed supply based on a replication of Stan Meyer’s original cell. It consists of a Delco Remy alternator driven by a 1.5 horsepower 220 volt AC motor. This arrangement is, as was Stan Meyer’s, for demonstration purposes. In a working application, the alternator is driven by the engine being supplied with the HHO gas. The 120 degree phase separation is the critical component for maintaining the resonant frequency. It should be noted that the alternator must maintain a rate of 3,600 rpm while under load.

It needs to be stressed that Dr. Cramton’s cell is very close in construction principles to Dave Lawton’s cell and the quality of construction is very important indeed. The first and foremost point which can be easily missed is the absolutely essential tuning of all of the pipes to a single, common frequency. This is the equivalent of tuning a musical instrument and without that tuning, the essential resonant operation of the cell will not be achieved and the cell performance will not be anything like the results which Dr. Cramton and his team are getting.

Dr. Cramton is using 316L-grade stainless steel pipes 18 inches (450 mm) long. The outer pipes are 0.75 inches in diameter and the inner pipes 0.5 inches in diameter. This gives an inter-pipe gap of 1.2 mm. The first step is to get the pipes resonating together. First, the frequency of an inner pipe is measured. For this, a free internet frequency-analyzer program was downloaded and used with the audio card of a PC to give a measured display of the resonant frequency of each pipe. The download location is

The method for doing this is very important and considerable care is needed for this. The quarter-inch stainless steel bolt is pressed into the inner pipe where it forms a tight push-fit. It is very important that the head of each nut is pressed in exactly the same distance as this alters the resonant frequency of the inner pipe. The steel connecting strip is then bent into its Z shape and securely clamped to the bolt with a stainless steel nut. The assembly of pipe, steel strip, nut and bolt is then hung up on a thread and tapped gently with a piece of wood and its resonant frequency measured with the frequency analyzer program. The frequency is fed into the program using a microphone. All of the inner pipes are tuned to exactly the same frequency by a very slight alteration of the insertion length of the bolt head for any pipe with a resonant frequency which is slightly off the frequency of the other pipes in the set of nine inner pipes.

Next, the outer tubes are slotted to raise their resonant frequency to match that of the inner pipes. Their frequency is also measured by hanging them up and tapping them gently with a piece of wood. If the frequency needs additional raising, then the tube length is reduced by a quarter of an inch (6 mm) and the testing continued as before. Adjusting the width and length of the slot is the best method for adjusting the resonant frequency of the tube. A small file can be used to increase the slot dimensions. This procedure is time consuming and tedious but it is well worth the effort. The average finished length of the outer pipes is 17.5 inches (445 mm) and the slot dimensions 0.75 inch long and 0.5 inch wide (19 mm x 13 mm).

When setting the resonant frequency of the outer pipes, it is important to have the clips in place. These "hosepipe", "jubilee" or "Terry" clips are used to make electrical connections to the outer pipes as shown in the diagrams and they do have an effect on the resonance of the pipes, so fit them before any tuning is done. The pipe arrangement is shown here:
The outer pipes are drilled and tapped to take either a 6/32” nylon bolt available from Ace hardware stores in the USA, or alternatively, drilled and tapped to take a 4 mm nylon bolt. Three of these bolt holes are evenly spaced around the circumference of each end of all of the outer pipes.

These nylon bolts are used to adjust and hold the inner pipe gently in the exact centre of the outer pipe. It is very important that these bolts are not over tightened as that would hinder the vibrations of the inner pipe. The bolts are adjusted so that a feeler gauge shows that there is exactly the same 1.2 mm gap all round, both top and bottom. The weight of the inner pipe is carried by a 3/4 inch (18 mm) wide strip of stainless steel bent into a Z-shape, and none of the weight is carried by the nylon bolts. Dr Cramton describes this Z-shaped steel strip as a...
“spring” and stresses its importance in constructing a set of resonating pipe pairs. The arrangement is shown here:

The supporting springy strip of steel is shown in blue in the above diagram as it also forms the electrical connection for the inner tubes. The outer tubes are held securely in position by two plastic discs which form a tight push-fit inside the 6” (150 mm) diameter acrylic tube which forms the body of the cell. The cell is sealed off with plastic caps (ideally, the upper one being screw threaded for easy maintenance) and the electrical connections are carried through the lower cap using 1/4” (6 mm) x 20 stainless steel bolts. The bolts are sealed using washers and rubber O-rings on both sides of the cap.

For clarity, the diagram above shows only the electrical connections for the inner pipes. The electrical connections for the outer pipes are shown in the following diagram. The connections are made at both the top and the bottom of each outer pipe by attaching a stainless steel hose clamp with a stainless steel bolt attached to each clamp. The wiring is then carried across inside the cell so that all six connection points (three at the top plus three at the bottom) for each set of three pipes are carried out through the base of the cell with just one bolt, again, sealed with washers and rubber O-rings. The nine pipe pairs are electrically connected in three sets of three, and each set is fed with a separate phase of a 3-phase waveform. This sets up an interaction through the water and produces a complex pulsing waveform with each set of pipes interacting with the other two sets. The sets are arranged so that the individual pipes of each set are interspersed with the pipes of the other two sets, making the sets overlap each other as shown in the next diagram. For clarity, the diagram does not show the electrical connections for the inner pipes and it omits the pipes of the other two groups of three, the water-level sensor, the gas take off pipe and the gas-pressure sensor.

At this time, Dr. Cramton is driving the pipe arrays with the circuit shown below. It uses an AC sinewave generated by a pulsed alternator. The current fed to the motor driving the alternator accounts for about 24 watts of power while the current drive to the alternator winding is just 12 watts. It should be realised that the alternator can easily drive many cells, probably without any increase in power required. Dr. Cramton is investigating methods of producing the same waveform without the need for an alternator and while that would be useful, it should be realised that a gas output of six litres per minute for a power input of only 36 watts is a very significant result. Others have shown that it is possible to power a 5.5 kilowatt electrical generator on HHO gas alone with a flow rate of this sort of magnitude, and obviously, the 36 watts can very easily be provided from that 5.5 kilowatt output.

It is absolutely essential that the pipe pairs are “conditioned” as there will be very little gas production until the white conditioning layer is built up on the active surfaces of the pipes. As has already been described, one
method is by powering the cell up for a few minutes, and then letting it rest unused for a time before repeating the process. Dr. Cramton emphasises that at least a hundred hours of conditioning will be needed before the gas output volume starts to rise, and it will be three months before the white conditioning layer reaches its full thickness and the gas production rate increases dramatically.

Dr. Cramton stresses that it is the mechanical construction which will make the difference in the gas production rate. The inner and outer pipes must be tuned to a common frequency. It is vital that the pipe pairs must be conditioned, which can be done through repeated use over a period of time. A very important alternative to this long conditioning process is coating the whole of the pipe surfaces with the insulating material "Super Corona Dope" (http://www.mgchemicals.com/products/4226.html) as this gives immediate conditioning of the pipes. When a complete set of tuned tubes has been achieved, then the electronics must be built and tuned to the resonant frequency of the tube sets. Voltage builds up on the pipes from the repeated pulsing of the low voltage circuit and the action of the bi-filar wound coils each side of each pipe set and allowed by the insulation of the pipes. With Super Corona Dope this voltage has been measured at 1,480 volts but with the insulating layer from a local water supply, that voltage is around 1,340 volts.

It should be understood that the bi-filar wound coil (that is, wound with two strands of wire side by side) generates very sharply rising, very short voltage spikes, typically in excess of 1,000 volts in spite of the electrical supply being less than fourteen volts. The coils used by Dr. Cramton are wound on ferrite rods, 300 mm (11.8") long and 10 mm (3/8") in diameter. As only 100 mm long rods were available, these were constructed by placing three inside a plastic tube. The coil winding is of enamelled copper wire and to allow sufficient current carrying capacity, that wire needs to be 22 swg (21 AWG) or a larger diameter, that is, with a lower gauge number such as 20 swg. These coils are wound to give an inductance of 6.3 mH on each of the two windings.

The circuit below is the one being used at this time. You will notice that an additional pole has been added to the Gating On/Off switch so that the timing components are switched out when the gating signal is turned off. This gives added protection for the Gating 555 chip in the circuit, preventing overheating when it is running but not being used. The frequency used with Dr. Cramton's cell is 4.73 kHz although this is not the optimum frequency for the cell. The alternator imposes a certain limitation on the highest possible frequency, but the frequency used...
has been shown to be the most effective and is a harmonic of the optimum frequency. This is a bit like pushing a child on a swing and only pushing every third or fourth swing, which works quite well.
Dr. Cramton says: “I would like people to know that the scientific community is working on these projects and this technology is now a fact of science and not conjecture”.

Dr Cramton has performed repeated performance tests on a 40 kilowatt diesel generator and the results were highly consistent, coming in within 1% each time on ten successive tests. Here is his graph of the results of this preliminary work:

The gains at full 40 kW load are about 35%, representing a reduction of 1.4 gallons of diesel per hour. As the generator is part of the equipment of a major power supplier, it is likely that the number of generators will be manipulated in relation to the demand and so the continuous overall gain is likely to be about 33% even with such a low HHO input as 6 lpm. The investigation and development is continuing.

**Bob Boyce’s High-Gain Toroidal System.**

Bob Boyce has recently released a different method for water-splitting using his flat-plate electrolyser-style construction and pulsed with just twelve volts as in the above water-splitter designs. Bob’s circuit is:

Here, the electronics board produces three separate, tuneable, very sharp square waveforms as described in the D9.pdf document mentioned earlier. These three waveforms are integrated into a single complex waveform when each is fed into a separate high-precision, high-specification winding on an iron-dust toroidal transformer core. This signal is stepped up to a higher voltage in the secondary coil of the transformer and then applied to the electrode plates via a choke coil on each side of the unit in exactly the same way as in the previous designs.
**Resonance.**

Water-splitters only operate properly if are held on their resonant frequency. Stan Meyer has a patent on his electronics system which would locate, lock on to and maintain the electronic pulsing at the resonant frequency of his cell. Unfortunately, Stan's patent just gives broad outlines for the methods used.

The John Bedini battery-charging pulse circuits have been very successfully applied to water-splitter cells. Here, the cell itself is part of the frequency control of the oscillator circuit and the arrangement might look like this:

![Circuit Diagram 1](image1.png)

This idea is advocated on a YouTube video put up by a user whose ID is "TheGuru2You" where this arrangement is suggested:

![Circuit Diagram 2](image2.png)

TheGuru2You states that he has built this circuit using a capacitor instead of the water-splitter and he says that he can confirm that it is self-powering, something which conventional science says is impossible (unless perhaps, if the circuit is picking up radiated power through the wiring of the circuit). Once a twelve volt supply is connected briefly to input terminals, the transistor switches on powering the transformer which feeds repeating pulses to the base of the transistor, sustaining the oscillations even when the twelve volt supply is removed. The rate of oscillation is governed by the resonant frequency of the water-splitter unit. Consequently, as the resonant frequency of the cell alters because bubbles form, the pressure changes, the temperature changes, or whatever, the circuit automatically tracks and maintains that optimum frequency.
Dave Lawton's Auto-Tune Circuit.

This circuit has been used very successfully by a number of people. One experimenter had the circuit built by a friend as he is not very confident with building electronic circuits. The construction looks like this:

Capacitors are tantalum 35V. Resistors are carbon film 5% 0.33W. Variable resistors are presets (RadioSparcs 154-2072 and 154-2094).

Dave Lawton uses a different method as he has designed and built a Phase-Lock Loop ("PLL") circuit which does the same thing that Stan Meyer's automatic circuit did. This is Dave's circuit:
The two air-core coils are wound separately rather than bi-filar wound, and some experimentation with different types will be undertaken to see the effect on overall gas production. This circuit is shown in the following video, driving a 2.6 inch long pair of electrodes with a 2 mm gap between them, sitting in a test cell. The electrodes have seams and are made of an unknown quality of stainless steel and can be seen at the top of the photograph above. The video: http://youtu.be/XMizRAYdGwA shows considerable gas production with almost no current draw and the cell staying completely cool.

Running Electrical Generators on Water Alone.
After many decades of being lied to, most people believe that it is necessary to burn a fuel (typically, a ‘fossil fuel’ such as petrol or diesel) in order to make an engine run. ‘Scientific experts’ demonstrate their ignorance by proclaiming that their calculations show that there is just not enough energy in hydrogen released through electrolysis, to provide enough power to run an engine which can provide sufficient electrical energy to perform the electrolysis in the first place.

Their calculations are completely wrong as they are based on a major level of ignorance of the real facts:

1. Ignoring HHO altogether, engines can run extremely well on environmental energy channelled through a Joe Cell as shown in chapter 9, and when doing that, no fuel at all is consumed.

2. They are not aware that properly made HHO has typically four times the energy content of hydrogen gas.

3. They are not aware that a properly built electrolyser running on DC has more than double the efficiency that Faraday considered to be the maximum possible production rate of HHO for any given current flow.

4. They are not aware that resonant pulsed electrolysis has several times the water-to-HHO conversion efficiency that straight DC can produce, resulting in more than ten times the Faraday ‘maximum’ conversion rate.

5. They are not aware that the majority of the energy produced by HHO being converted back into water does not come from the hydrogen but instead comes from charged water clusters. It is likely that they have never even heard of charged water clusters.

6. They are probably not aware that introducing cold water mist to the air entering an internal combustion engine, makes that engine operate as an internal combustion steam engine as the mist gets converted into flash-steam, raising the pressure inside the cylinder and boosting the engine efficiency very considerably.
Because of these things, the calculations of the ‘scientific experts’ produce completely wrong results due to lack of knowledge and the flawed assumptions on which the calculations are based.

Interestingly, quite apart from the fact that generators running on water as the only visible fuel, have been powering off-grid locations 24 x 7 for many years now, and ignoring that little detail, check out this newspaper comment:

**US Navy will turn seawater into fuel**

THE US Navy claims it has found a way to turn seawater into fuel, having spent decades conducting scientific experiments.

If true, the development could see military ships developing their own fuel and staying operational 100% of the time. Navy scientists say they have already used the new fuel to fly a model aircraft.

Calling it “a huge milestone”, Vice Admiral Philip Cullom pointed out that “in the Navy, we have some pretty unusual kinds of challenges.”

One of these is the need at present to refuel from an oil tanker. But “developing a game-changing technology like seawater-to-fuel reinvents a lot of the way we can do business when you think about logistics, readiness,” said Cullom.

The US Navy has 289 vessels and most rely on oil-based fuel, apart from some aircraft carriers and 72 submarines that use nuclear power.

The breakthrough came after scientists found a way to extract carbon dioxide and hydrogen gas from seawater. The gasses are then turned into fuel with the help of catalytic converters.

“We are in challenging times where we have to think in new ways to look at how we create energy, how we value energy and how we consume it,” said Cullom.

“We need to challenge the assumptions that of the last six decades of constant access to cheap, unlimited amounts of fuel.”

This is a very interesting comment from Vice Admiral Cullom. Firstly, he confirms that the Navy’s massive engines can be powered by gas produced by electrolysis. Second, he implies very strongly that refuelling with oil-based consumables is no longer needed, and that means that the electrolysis is well in excess of 100% efficient, making those massive engines self-powered. Third, it seems reasonable to presume that if those massive engines can be self-powered through electrolysis, that the very much smaller engines in cars could also be run on electrolysis, even if the same method of electrolysis were not used. Anyway, we have to deal with the tiny, very inefficient motors which are used in generators which normally use petrol as the fuel:

In the UK, three men managed to run a generator on water alone, using just simple things which are within the scope of the average handyman in his workshop. They bought a standard petrol-driven electrical generator off eBay and managed to run it without using any petrol. They used a HHO gas flow which they measured at just 3 lpm and they test loaded the 5.5 kilowatt generator with 4 kilowatts of equipment. Afterwards they abandoned the generator and moved on to a much bigger engine as their plans are to sell electricity to the local power company. Their representative said: the equipment was put together by my associate, who supplied the water/electrolyte (not a standard electrolyte, 0.4% by volume). It was a 5 kW petrol generator (about 300cc). We attached a Chevrolet alternator which constantly charges a 12-volt 55 Amp-Hour battery, which in turn powers six HHO tubes, each of which draws 6 watts, for a total of 30 watts. The outputs of these electrolyzers are connected in series and they feed the gas into a low-pressure butane gas “camping” tank which has an 18 psi pressure release valve. This tank feeds the air intake of the generator which is adjustable with a choke. We loaded the 30-amp
socket of the generator with various drills, heaters etc. working, for more than four hours. The maximum load which we tried was 4 kilowatts, being a bar heater, a kettle and two drills. The electrolyser tubes are heavy-duty plastic (rated for 80 psi pressure). Inside are 4 tubes of stainless steel (3 positive and 1 negative). Each tube created 1 litre of gas every two minutes which is a total of 3 litres per minute. They eventually become warm to the touch, but they do not get hot.

**Running an Electrical Generator without Fossil Fuel**

![Generator](image)

**In Broad Outline**

In order to achieve this objective, very much like Stan Meyer, we need to feed the engine three things:

1. Air - this is fed in as normal through the existing air filter.
2. HHO gas - how to make this has already been explained in considerable detail.
3. A mist of very small water droplets, sometimes called "cold water fog”.

Also, we need to make two adjustments to the engine:

1. The spark timing needs to be retarded by about eleven degrees.
2. If there is a "waste” spark, then that needs to be eliminated.

To summarise then, a good deal of work needs to be done to achieve this effect:

1. An electrolyser needs to be built or bought, although the required gas production rate is not particularly high.
2. A generator of cold water fog needs to be made or bought.
3. Pipes need to be installed to carry these two items into the engine.
4. The engine timing needs to be retarded.
5. Any waste spark needs to be suppressed.
6. Water tanks are needed for the cold water fog and to keep the electrolyser topped up.
7. Ideally, some form of automatic water refill for these water tanks should be provided so that the generator can run for long periods unattended.

If we omit the electrical safety equipment which has already been explained in detail, and omit the HHO gas safety equipment which has already been explained in detail, and skip the automated water supply details and the starting battery, then, a generalised sketch of the overall arrangement looks like this:
Here, they have opted to feed the HHO gas into the air system after the air filter (a thing which we normally avoid as it is not helpful for the HHO gas production efficiency, but the first step is to reproduce their successful method exactly before seeing if it can be improved further). Also fed into this same area is the cold water fog which is comprised of a very large number of very tiny droplets. The air enters this area as normal, through the existing air filter. This gives us the three necessary components for running the generator engine without using any fossil fuel.

Creating the cold water fog

There are three different ways to generate the spray of very fine water droplets which are a key feature of the success of this way of running the engine. One way is to use a Venturi tube, which, while it sounds like an impressive device, is actually very simple in construction:

It is just a pipe which tapers to a point and which has a very small nozzle. As the engine draws in the air/HHO mix on it's intake stroke, the mixture rushes past the nozzle of the Venturi tube. This creates an area of lower pressure outside the nozzle and causes water to exit through the nozzle in a spray of very fine droplets. Some perfume spray bottles use this method as it is both cheap and effective.

An alternative method of making the cold water fog is to use one or more "pond foggers". These are small ultrasonic devices which are maintained at the optimum operating depth in the water by a float. They produce large amounts of cold water fog which can be fed into the engine like this:
A third method is to use a small carburettor of the type used with model aircraft. This does the same job as a regular engine carburettor, feeding a spray of tiny water droplets into the engine air intake. The physical arrangement of this option depends on the construction of the air filter of the generator being modified. You will notice that the people in the UK who did this, used a small gas tank with an eighteen pounds per square inch pressure release valve. This is not possible with the highest quality of HHO gas as it cannot be compressed that much. However, with a lower grade of HHO which has some water vapour mixed in with it, it is possible to have a gas reservoir with that sort of pressure in it. In this case, except possibly for starting, their gas production rate is probably not high enough to allow much raised pressure inside the tank. Obviously, the gas-pressure switch on the electrolyser and the one on the gas storage tank will have similar operational pressures.

Some Safety Features
Up to this point, the electrolyser has been shown in bare outline. In practice, it is essential that some safety features are incorporated as shown here:

These safety devices should be familiar to you by now as they have already been explained earlier in this document.

The Reason for Changing the Timing
The fuels used with most internal combustion engines are either petrol (gasoline) or diesel. If you are not interested in chemistry, then you are probably not aware of the structure of these fuels. These fuels are called "hydrocarbons" because they are composed of hydrogen and carbon. Carbon has four bonds and so a carbon atom can link to four other atoms to form a molecule. Petrol is a long chain molecule with anything from seven to nine carbon atoms in a chain:
Diesel has the same structure but with eleven to eighteen carbon atoms in a chain. In a petrol engine, a fine spray of petrol is fed into each cylinder during the intake stroke. Ideally, the fuel should be in vapour form but this is not popular with the oil companies because doing that can give vehicle performances in the 100 to 300 mpg range and that would cut the profits from oil sales.

The petrol in the cylinder is compressed during the compression stroke and that reduces its volume and raises its temperature substantially. The air/fuel mix is then hit with a powerful spark and that provides enough energy to start a chemical reaction between the fuel and the air. Because the hydrocarbon chain is such a large molecule, it takes a moment for that chain to break up before the individual atoms combine with the oxygen in the air. The main engine power is produced by the hydrogen atoms combining with oxygen, as that reaction produces a large amount of heat. The carbon atoms are not particularly helpful, forming carbon deposits inside the engine, not to mention some carbon monoxide (CO) and some carbon dioxide (CO₂) as well.

The key factor here is the slight delay between the spark and the combustion of the fuel. The combustion needs to happen a few degrees after Top Dead Centre when the piston is about to start its downward movement in the power stroke. Because of the delay caused by the hydrocarbon chain breaking down, the spark occurs a few degrees before Top Dead Centre:

![Diagram of petrol engine combustion stages]

If you were to replace the petrol vapour with HHO gas, then there would be a major problem. This is because HHO gas has very small molecule sizes which do not need any kind of breaking down and which burn instantly. The result would be an explosion which occurs far too soon and which opposes the movement of the rising piston as shown here:
The forces imposed on the piston's connecting rod would be so high that it would be quite liable to break and cause additional engine damage.

In the case of our electrical generator, we will not be feeding it a mix of air and HHO gas, but instead, a mix of air, HHO gas and cold water fog. This delays the combustion of the HHO gas by a small amount, but it is still important to have the spark occur after Top Dead Centre, so the ignition of the generator needs to be retarded by eleven degrees.

Engine design varies considerably in ways which are not obvious to a quick glance at the engine. The timing of the valves is a big factor here. In the smallest and cheapest engines, the engine design is simplified by not having the spark timing taken off the cam-shaft. Instead, production costs are cut by taking the spark timing off the output shaft. This produces a spark on every revolution of the engine. But, if it is a four-stroke engine, the spark should only occur on the power stroke which is every second revolution of the output shaft. If the fuel is petrol, then this does not matter as the extra spark will occur near the end of the exhaust stroke when only burnt gasses are present in the cylinder.

Some people are concerned when they think of HHO gas burning and producing water inside the engine. They think of hydrogen embrittlement and rusting. However, because of the nature of the hydrocarbon fuel already being used, the engine runs primarily on hydrogen anyway and it always has produced water. The water is in the form of very hot vapour or steam and the engine heat dries it out when the engine is stopped. Hydrogen embrittlement does not occur as a result of using a HHO gas booster.

Anyway, if we were to delay the spark until after Top Dead Centre as we must, then the situation is quite different as the waste spark will also be delayed by the same amount. With most engines, at this point in time the exhaust valve will have closed and the intake valve opened. Our very flammable gas mix will be being fed into the engine on it's intake stroke. This means that our gas supply system is openly connected to the cylinder through the open intake valve, and so, the waste spark would ignite our gas supply system (as far as the bubbler which would smother the flashback). The situation is shown here:
we definitely do not want that to happen, so it is very important that we suppress that additional "waste" spark. So, this leaves us with two engine adjustments: timing delay and waste spark elimination. There are various ways in which these can be done and as each engine design is different, it is difficult to cover every possibility. However, there is a technique which can be used with many engines and which deals with both issues at the same time.

Most engines of this type are four-stroke engines with intake and exhaust valves, perhaps something like this:

The intake valve (shown on the right in this illustration) is pushed down by a cam shaft, compressing the spring and opening the inlet port. The exact arrangement will be different from one engine design to the next. What is fixed is the movement of the valve itself and that movement only takes place every second revolution. There are various ways of using those movement to eliminate the waste spark and retard the timing. If a switch were mounted so that it opens when the intake valve opens and closes when the intake valve closes, then the switch closure shows when the piston starts upwards on its compression stroke and a simple electronic circuit can then give an adjustable delay before firing the coil which produces the spark. This, of course, involves disconnecting the original electrical circuit so that no waste spark is generated. The current flowing through the switch contacts can be arranged to be so low that there will be no sparking at the contacts when the circuit is broken again. The switch positioning might be like this:
An alternative is to attach a strong permanent magnet to the rocker arm, using epoxy resin, and then position a solid state "Hall-effect" sensor so that it triggers the delay before the spark is generated.

If the engine did not have a waste spark, then in theory, the timing mechanism of the engine could be used to retard the spark. However, in practice, the timing mechanism is almost never capable of retarding the spark to the position that is needed for running without fossil fuel, and so, some kind of delay circuit will be needed anyway.

The sort of delay circuit needed is called a "monostable" as it has only one stable state. A basic circuit of that type is:

![Monostable Multivibrator Diagram](image)

If you are not at all familiar with electronic circuits, then take a look at the beginner's electronics tutorial found in the Chapter12.pdf document on the [http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk](http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk) website as that explains how circuitry works and how to build any simple circuit from scratch. We can use two of these circuits, the first to give the adjustable delay and the second to give a brief pulse to the ignition circuit to generate the spark:

![Delay and Pulse Circuit Diagram](image)
Making the HHO gas

When the generator is running, we have a ready supply of electrical energy, coming from a piece of equipment which has been specifically designed to supply large quantities of electricity for any required application. We are not dealing with the spare capacity of some low-grade alternator in a car, but we have substantial electrical power available.

Having said that, the electrolysers described at the start of this document are efficient and it is unlikely that an excessive amount of power would be needed when using one of those designs. Another convenient factor is that this is a stationary application, so the size and weight of the electrolyser is not at all important, and this gives us further flexibility in our choices of dimensions.

As this is an application where it is highly likely that the electrolyser will be operated for long periods unattended, an automated water supply system should be provided. The main details of such a system have already been covered, but what has not yet been dealt with is the switching for the water pump. The water pump itself can be an ordinary windscreen-washer pump, and we need some form of switch which operates on the electrolyte level inside the electrolyser. It is sufficient to sense the level in just one of the cells inside the electrolyser as the water usage will be pretty much the same in every cell. If you make the electrolyser in a suitable size or shape, then a simple off-the-shelf miniature float switch can be used. If you prefer, an electronic level sensor can be operated, using two bolts through the side of the electrolyser as the level sensor. A suitable circuit for this simple switching task could be:

When the electrolyte level inside the electrolyser is in contact with the upper bolt head, the circuit is switched off and the water pump is powered down. The electrolyte has a low resistance to current flow, and so it connects the 4.7K resistor through to the base of the BC109 Darlington pair (as described in Chapter 12). This keeps the two transistors switched fully on, which keeps the 8.2K resistor connection well below the 0.7 volts needed to switch the ZTX6533 transistor on. If you are concerned about the ZTX6533 transistor being partially on, then resistor "R" could be added, although the prototype did not need one. The value would be about 2K. When the electrolyte level falls below the upper bolt head, the first two transistors switch off, and the ZTX6533 transistor is then powered fully on by the 4.7K resistor and the 8.2K resistor in series, providing the 150 mA needed for the relay to be switched fully on. The circuit draws about 5 mA in its standby state. The numbers on the relay symbol correspond to the numbers on a typical automotive 12 volt relay. Using two BC109 transistors as the front end allows this circuit to be used with tap water if you wish. However, the water-level control for the water supply to the pond fogger or Venturi tube misting device does not need any form of fancy mechanism. The standard ball-cock valve mechanism which is used with toilets is quite adequate, especially if a floating pond fogger is being used as it maintains its own optimum depth below the surface and so the overall depth is not in any way critical provided, of course, there is sufficient depth for the fogger to float correctly.

Starting:

When left for any length of time, the gas pressure inside the electrolyser will drop because the nature of the HHO gas alters. This means that there will not be sufficient HHO gas available to start the engine and no more gas will be generated until the engine drives the generator. So, to deal with this situation, a lead-acid car battery is included so that it can be switched in to replace the generator for a brief period before the engine is started. That inclusion gives this overall arrangement:
This arrangement is perfectly capable of running a standard generator without the use of any fossil fuel. It should be noted that while no fossil fuel needs to be bought to run this generator system, the electrical output is far from free and is actually quite expensive as there is the purchase cost of the generator, the electrolyser and the minor additional equipment. Also, generators have a definite working life and so will need to be refurbished or replaced.

It might also be remarked that if a generator of this type is going to be used in an urban environment, then the addition of sound-reducing baffles and housing would be very desirable. At this point in time I am aware of nine different electric generators which have been adapted to run on water. At least four of these are from different manufacturers. The method of altering the timing and dealing with the waste spark is different from one adaption to the next. One user has altered the spark timing of his generator to after Top Dead Centre by rotating the timing disc to a position not envisaged by the manufacturer. The timing disc is held in place by a locking ("key") bar which fits into a channel cut in the shaft of the engine, matching it to a similar channel cut in the disc. The alteration was achieved by cutting a new channel in the shaft, allowing the timing disc to be positioned further around the shaft, producing the required timing delay. This arrangement also makes the waste spark ineffective and so it can be ignored. While this method requires the cutting of a slot, it does away with the need for any electronics and it is a very simple solution.

If you feel that the construction of a suitable electrolyser would be a problem or that the amount of electric current needed to operate it would be excessive, let me show you the actual figures involved:

Michael Faraday was an exceptional and highly respected researcher who investigated the electric current needed to convert water into hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by electrolysis. His results are accepted by pretty much every scientist everywhere. While he expressed the results of his work in terms which would be meaningless to the average person, his result is that an electrical input of 2.34 watts produces one litre of HHO gas in one hour.

In practical terms, that means that a current of 0.195 amps at 12 volts will produce 1 litre of HHO gas in one hour. In passing, only a nearly discharged lead-acid battery would have a voltage of 12 volts as the fully charged state is 12.85 volts and a vehicle alternator produces about 14 volts in order to charge the battery.

It is easier then, to compare the gas output of electrolyser directly to the figures produced by Faraday as shown here, based on a gas output of 15 litres per minute which is 900 litres per hour:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gas Output (lph)</th>
<th>Power Required (watts)</th>
<th>Efficiency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faraday</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>2,106</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyce</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>211%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyce</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>1,170%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramton</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2,340%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Much of this is not very important as it has been demonstrated that a gas production rate of around 3 lpm (180 lph) is sufficient to run a generator which produces 5,500 watts. Let us assume that the measured figure is 100% wrong and that it takes 360 lph of HHO gas, plus cold water fog, plus air, to run the generator, then:

Faraday would need 843 watts
Boyce would need 400 watts without pulsing
Boyce would need 72 watts with pulsing
Cramton would need 36 watts

None of these figures are important for running a generator because with an electrolyser efficiency of only 50% Faraday still leaves a massive generator excess of nearly 4 kilowatts on a 5.5 kilowatt generator. The gain is in running a generator as an internal combustion steam engine and not in the great efficiency of the electrolyser. It is distinctly possible that the pessimistic figures shown above are twice what is actually needed, but who cares? - the facts speak for themselves, with several people scattered around the world, already running generators on water. Many different generator designs have been adapted, typically, by modifying the flywheel, filling in the keyway and cutting another one to give a spark 2 degrees after TDC. Experience has shown that the 6.6 kVA Honda V-twin petrol motor generator and the Vanguard V-twin work very well long-term when adapted to run on water only.

Wear and Tear Issues
A man who lives in Alaska is very experienced in the use of renewable energy sources and unconventional fuel systems. His experiences are likely to be helpful for anyone who intends to use an electrical generator, whether running on water or on a fossil fuel. He recalls the experiences of a friend:

He decided to live off-the-grid because it was going to cost him $20,000 to get connected to the grid and as his house was not that large, he decided to go the alternative route. We designed a system which would use a 4 kW inverter and have an 8 kW Briggs & Stratton generator with a 13 kW surge capacity, for back up. The system has 6 solar panels and a 24 volt battery bank with 400 amp capacity. Having long summer days here in Alaska, the solar panels have more than enough capacity for charging the battery bank on sunny days. However, but when the day is overcast or when it is winter when there are only six hours of sunlight, the battery bank does not get charged fully. At these times, the generator is used to top up the battery bank.

American generators normally have either two or four 120-volt outputs each rated at 15 amps, plus one 240-volt output rated at 33 amps. If one of the two 120-volt outputs is used to charge the battery bank, then you get left with just the other 120-volt output for any other power needs during the time when the battery bank is being charged. This is not a satisfactory arrangement as operating with one field at maximum power and the other one lightly loaded or unused, causes a field imbalance in the generator, engine crank imbalance and ring or regulator failure within six months. It also causes noisy running and excessive fuel consumption.

Run in this way, providing a 60-amp charge rate, the generator ran hard and loud for two to two and a half hours per day, and running it was costing $350 per month for gasoline. The generator failed after four months.

In order to balance the loading on the replacement generator, a 15 kVA step-down transformer costing less than $1000 was purchased so that the 240-volt output could be used to drive 120-volt equipment. A transformer to be used for this needs to have a power-handling capacity which is greater than the surge capacity of the generator. A major advantage is that the generator current is halved for any given level of equipment current drawn because the equipment is running at only half of the generator voltage.

Using this transformer made a massive difference, giving a balanced output and providing a 90-amp charging rate for the battery bank as well as having ample power to run other household equipment when the battery bank was being charged. The result was a charge time of just one hour twenty minutes per day, with the generator running quietly and smoothly. The fuel consumption also dropped to just $70 per month which is just one fifth of what it was, covering the cost of the transformer in under four months. This generator has been running now for two years without any problems at all.
Selwyn Harris of Australia has kindly agreed to share detailed information on how he performs the conversion of a standard electrical generator to enable it to run on water alone. The generator which he uses as an example for this tutorial is a GX4000i generator:

The supplier is AGR Machinery which is an Australian company on eBay which buys up stock from collapsed companies and resells the equipment. The supplier says: GX4000i portable type generators have smoother output power, comparable to public utility sources. Ideal for powering medium loads such as:

- Power tools - Both Single & 3 Phase
- Game consoles, Digital Cameras
- Laptops, Camcorders
- Lighting and Microwave Ovens
- Drills, Grinders
- Resistive Load Kitchen Appliances (i.e. Coffee Maker, Toaster)
- Emergency Home Back up power where 240v power is required

Also, these units are significantly quieter than others due to refined engine technology

**Features:**

- Commercial Grade Engine: 196 cc 4-stroke, 7 horsepower, overhead camshaft, T.D.I. ignition
- Maximum output 4.0 kVA at 240 or 415V AC (Rated output: 2.7 kilowatts)
- Quality Heavy-Duty Construction
- AVR (Auto Voltage Regulator)
- Three 240V and one 415V Protected Outlets
- 100% Pure Copper Core
- Gearless direct drive
- Robust Square frame Design
- Easy – Recoil Start
- Oil capacity: 0.7 litres
• Powder Coated Finish
• Light and Compact for easy manoeuvrability (38.5 Kg)
• Noise level: 69 dB

The first step of the conversion is to remove the fuel tank which is held in place with four bolts:

This allows access to the carburettor which is then removed as it will not be used:

The next step is to construct a pressure-release valve mechanism which will protect the equipment from damage in the unlikely event of a major, sudden rise in pressure caused by the unwanted ignition of the HHO gas mix used to power the generator. For this, parts are purchased from the local hardware store. The brass fittings are a 12mm barrel, a 12mm female T-fitting and a 12mm to 9mm hose reducer as shown here:
The PVC plastic fittings are a ½” to 1-1/4” reducer and a 1-1/4” End Cap, along with the roller ball from an old-fashioned mouse and a relatively weak compression spring to hold the ball in place during normal operation where the gas pressure is low:

These components are then assembled to produce the pressure-release valve:

The inside of the flash-arrestor looks like this:
The ball is held in place by the spring allowing the HHO to flow past it, but if a sudden increase in pressure should occur, then the ball is forced upwards, opening a path to the many holes drilled in the plastic fittings:

When the gas pressure drops again, the spring pushes the roller ball down to seal off the pressure-release holes.

However, Selwyn adds an additional spring-loaded valve to the arrangement. This one is there in case the electrolyser fails to produce a sufficient volume of gas in the event of a sudden increase in demand. This valve is marked as a "vacuum-relief" valve although, strictly speaking, it deals with reduced pressure rather than an actual vacuum. The arrangement is shown below. Please take note of the fact that Selwyn uses the Hogg style of electrolyser and that design has a bubbler built into it, so if you are using some other design of electrolyser, please be very sure to use at least one bubbler between the electrolyser and the engine, in spite of the fact that there is very little chance of the engine mis-firing and igniting the HHO gas in the electrolyser. For an engine of this size, an electrolyser which produces 4.5 or 5 lpm of HHO should be adequate.

The addition of cold water mist through a Venturi tube as shown, both lowers the engine temperature and increases the engine power as the mist converts instantly to flash-steam when the HHO gas ignites, raising the pressure inside the cylinder and boosting the power output.
Next, a piece of ¼" (6 mm) thick aluminium plate is cut and shaped to the size of the carburettor gasket which is not a symmetrical item. This is done by tracing the gasket and transferring it on to the aluminium plate, drilling the holes and then cutting out the outline shape. The edges are then filed to create a nice fit on the engine port.
The pipes, backing plate, pressure-relief, vacuum-relief, gaskets, nuts and bolts are then assembled as shown above. Most of the pressure-relief valve components shown in the photograph have been painted, which happens to conceal the different materials being used.

At this point an electrolyser of any design which can produce at least 4.5 litres of HHO gas mix per minute is connected to the intake. The electrolyser most often used by Selwyn is the Hogg design disclosed by him earlier in this chapter.
The manual Pull-start and the generator cover are now removed. It is only necessary to remove four of the bolts to take the cover off:

This is the engine with the starter pull and the blower cover removed. At “A” you can see the magnetic pulse type Transistor Discharge Ignition pick-up in its original position, bolted in place at 8 degrees before Top Dead Centre. This needs to be removed and an aluminium plate inserted to allow the TDI to be mounted in its new position. Because of the new fuel, it is necessary to retard the ignition system. This can be done in one of two ways, neither of which is particularly easy, so you may need the help of an engineering shop. The easiest way is to modify the installed ignition to Top Dead Centre. This is Selwyn's aluminium TDI adaptor plate which he made from 2mm thick aluminium sheet:

In this picture, the outline of the fuel intake port is obscured due to it having been temporarily blocked off during the construction. The tools required for constructing these components are a drill press and a jig saw fitted with a metal blade. Selwyn used this timing alteration method on his own smaller generator which has run trouble-free
for a year. The objective is to delay the ignition spark from 8 degrees before Top Dead Centre to either Top Dead Centre or to 1 degree after TDC. This allows for a good spark on the compression stroke and when the waste spark occurs, the inlet valve has not yet opened and so there is no HHO is in the ignition area. That is to say, the exhaust valve has just closed and the inlet valve has not yet opened. This results in a good compression stroke for the HHO and does not try to send the piston backwards due to premature ignition of the gas mix. The above picture shows the aluminium plate mounted and ready to accept the pick-up. This plate needs to have air holes drilled in it in order to allow cooling air to flow over the engine fins behind it.

The TDI adaptor plate looks like this:

And as shown below, the support plate is drilled with the ventilation holes. In this photograph the adaptor plate is just resting on the support plate. Later, when the TDC timing position is established, the adaptor plate will be bolted to it using the three holes top and bottom on the white plate. This locks the timing to that setting and the timing is never changed. In 2010, when adapting a previous generator, an experienced mechanic was asked to establish the TDI plate position and he charged sixty Australian dollars for doing that.

Finally, the covers and the Starter handle need to be bolted back in place.

Instead of paying somebody else to set the new spark timing, it is perfectly possible to do that yourself. One effective method is as follows:
1. Mark the casing of the engine in a convenient location as shown in yellow in this photograph:

2. Remove the spark plug and insert a long screwdriver until the top of the piston is felt. Manually rotate the engine (clockwise for this generator as can be seen from the curved fan pieces on the flywheel) until the screwdriver is no longer pushed upwards. It may take more than one rotation to find this point accurately. When that point is found, mark the flywheel directly in line with the casing mark which you just made. This marking needs to be very accurate.

3. Continue rotating the flywheel very slowly until the screwdriver starts to go down again and mark that point on the flywheel. Again, this marking needs to be very accurate.

4. Measure the distance along the flywheel between the two flywheel marks which you have just made and then make a larger mark on the flywheel exactly half way between your two marks. If accurately done, this new point is where the flywheel is when the piston is exactly at Top Dead Centre, which is where we want the spark to occur. This marking on Selwyn’s flywheel is like this:
5. Next comes a bit of arithmetic. The diameter of the flywheel is 180 mm which means that it’s circumference is $3.14159 \times 180 = 565.5$ mm and as there are 360 degrees in each rotation of the flywheel, then the outside edge of the flywheel will move 1.57 mm for each of those degrees.

The engine specification states that the spark timing is 8 degrees before Top Dead Centre and we want the spark to occur exactly at TDC, which means that we want $8 \times 1.57 = 12.5$ mm of the flywheel circumference to have passed by before the spark occurs.

6. To achieve this delay in the spark timing, the TDI needs to be moved 12.5 mm in the direction which the flywheel rotates. You will notice that for this major timing change, the TDI adjustment is very small, only half an inch.

7. When the TDI adjustment has been made, the timing can be checked using an automotive timing light connected to the spark plug lead. The engine can be spun using an electric drill. As the flywheel is spinning fast and the flash of light from the timing light is very short, it makes the flywheel mark appear to be stationary in spite of the fact that it is passing by very rapidly. If the TDI adjustment is correct, then the central mark made on the flywheel will appear to be stationary and exactly aligned with the mark made on the casing.

This is exactly what happened when Selwyn’s motor had its timing adjusted, but the important factor is to have the spark close to the Top Dead Centre point to make sure that the inlet valve is fully closed before the spark occurs. Two degrees after Top Dead Centre is a popular point for the spark with many of the existing generator conversions which I have been told about, possibly to reduced the loading on the piston’s connecting rod. Here is a photograph of Selwyn’s latest generator conversion having its new spark timing checked out:
8. Most small petrol engines have the spark timing set between 8 degrees and 10 degrees before Top Dead Centre. If it so happens that you do not know what the timing of your particular generator is, then complete the flywheel marking procedure of step 4 above, but make three additional marks on each side of the TDC mark. Space those marks 1.5 mm apart as they will then make a scale which shows each degree from 3 degrees before TDC to 3 degrees after TDC. When the timing light is used, it then shows exactly where the spark occurs and if the engine had an original spark timing which was not 8 degrees before TDC, then the scale shows immediately how much further the TDI needs to be moved to set the spark exactly where you want it to occur.

**The Cold Water Mist.**

Getting the fine droplets of water into the engine can be done two different ways. The first way is to use a Venturi tube which generates a fine spray of droplets when air moves rapidly past a small water-filled hole. You may not have noticed, but this method has been used extensively in perfume sprays and it is very effective. Selwyn describes how he constructs a Venturi tube:

A short length of 1/4" (5 or 6 mm) diameter copper tubing is used. This is generally available as central heating supplies and if there is any difficulty in finding some, then your local garage can probably direct you to a supplier (if they don’t just give you a short length from their own supply).
The copper pipe is then heated with a plumber’s gas torch and bent very slowly and carefully to the shape shown above. Some people find it helpful to insert a length of suitable flexible material into the pipe before starting the bending – something like the coiled steel spring material used to support net curtains – as that helps to keep the copper pipe from kinking when being bent.

Next, the end of the copper pipe which will form the nozzle, is filled with silver solder and the end filed flat. Then, a small hole is drilled through that silver solder plug. The smallest possible drill bit should be used for this, although the hole may need to be drilled out to a slightly larger diameter, depending on what the engine requires (which is found by successive trials):

This Venturi tube is to be inserted into the last brass fitting before the engine, so a 1/4" hole is drilled through the brass and then the drill is removed very slowly at a slight angle, the angle of drag being down the axis length of the brass fitting. The copper Venturi tube is then inserted through the hole and positioned so that the Venturi hole is aligned up exactly with the centreline of the brass fitting and positioned exactly in the middle of the cross-section of the brass fitting and then soldered in place:
The method which Selwyn uses to block off the end of the copper tube with silver solder is to seal the far end of the tube with tape and fill the tube with fine-grained sand like this:

And then the tube is heated with the gas torch flame and the solder run into the top part of the tube. When the solder has cooled, the tape is removed and the sand removed by tapping the tube. When the hole has been drilled through the solder, air is blown through it to dislodge any remaining sand, and then water is forced through the hole. As the tube is short, any remaining sand can be removed with a pipe-cleaner or any similar slender cleaning device. The installed Venturi tube can be seen here:

The second way to introduce cold water mist into the airstream entering the engine is to use a commercial “pond fogger” which can be bought at pet supplies outlets. These have to be powered electrically and housed in their own water container. Some of the more advanced versions float on the surface of the water so that the fog-generating section is always submerged to the ideal operational depth below the surface of the water.

The generator should run well with 5 lpm of HHO gas plus cold water mist. Any design of electrolyser can be used. However, when used with rainwater, the Hogg electrolyser will draw about 1.4 amps per cell, giving a total input of about 115 watts when run on a 12-volt electrical supply. While rainwater is supposedly pure, the reality is that it seldom is and it’s ability to carry a current varies dramatically from place to place and even more widely from country to country. However, regarding the water, Selwyn says:

The water I use is treated in a special way to make sure that the electrolyser runs at the lowest temperature and amperage possible. For this, using rain water is a must and the rain water coming off a steel roof is the best.
The water is then treated by inserting a double coil of stainless steel wire into a volume of about 5 litres of water. A supply of 12-volts DC is applied to the coils, and the resulting current allowed to run through the coils for about 5 hours. This results in hot and very dirty water. The water is then filtered using a 0.5 micron filter making the water ready for use in the electrolyser. If more water is needed, say 30 litres, then leave the coils running for at least 24 hours.

I use an old 35 litre beer keg and prepare 30 litres at a time. A major reason for doing this is to remove all the solids suspended in the water so that they will not clog up the stainless steel mesh inside the electrolyser.

After the construction of the Hogg electrolyser is completed, then the stainless steel mesh electrodes need to be treated and cleaned. For this I use distilled water and fill the electrolyser enough to cover all the plates, and then add 1 packet of citric acid for each 3 litres of water used to fill the electrolyser. I got the citric acid from www.hho-research.com.au which is an Australia-only supplier and each packet has about 22 grams of citric acid in it:

The pumps are then run for about an hour after which the Hogg tubes are washed out completely with distilled water and then allowed to dry completely. This removes any residue from the stainless steel mesh electrodes, making the gas production rate much greater.

I use an ordinary car battery to generate the HHO gas needed to start the generator running, after which, a standard battery charger powered by the generator output is used to keep the starting battery topped up.

**Please Note:** This document has been prepared for information purposes only and must not be construed as an encouragement to build any new device nor to adapt any existing device. If you undertake any kind of construction work, then you do so entirely at your own risk. You, and only you, are responsible for your own actions. This document must not be seen as an endorsement of this kind of generator adaption nor as providing any kind of guarantee that an adaption of this kind would work for you personally. This document merely describes what has been achieved by other people and you must not consider it as being a foolproof blueprint for replication by anyone else.

There are YouTube videos which show generators being operated on what appears to be just HHO gas alone and while the operation does not appear to be anywhere close to full power, the addition of cold water mist would probably make a major difference to the performance, but it does demonstrate that a generator can certainly be run without using any fossil fuel. The spark circuit in the first video appears to be powered by a small mains unit, but as the generator is lighting a powerful lamp, that electrical input could almost certainly be met by the output from the generator when it is running.

**Running an Unmodified Generator on HHO**

The reason for the modification of standard generators as shown above is due to the fact that the HHO gas mix produced by an electrolyser, ignites about a thousand times faster than a hydrocarbon fuel, and because of that, the spark which ignites the fuel needs to be delayed. That mechanical adaption of the generator can be avoided if the HHO gas mix is modified so that it ignites more slowly. This can, and has been done.

David Quirey of New Zealand has been operating an unmodified generator and a welding torch on the HHO output from his 6 lpm own-design of electrolyser, for many years now. Henry Paine's US Letters Patent No. 308,276 dated 18th November 1884, states that HHO gas can be converted into a more convenient gas which is much easier to handle, by the simple process of bubbling it through a suitable liquid such as turpentine or linseed oil. Although unaware of Henry Paine's patent, David discovered the technique independently and he has extended the technology further so that the gas ignition speed can be set manually.
One important point which David stresses is that it is essential that the HHO coming from the electrolyser is passed through an ordinary bubbler containing water, before it passes through the second bubbler containing the modifying liquid. David finds that the lighter liquid, acetone, works better than the liquids suggested by Henry Paine although white spirit, carbon tetrafluoride, aviation fuel, hexane or even petrol can be used and any of them will slow the flame speed right down to that of butane. If the flame is being used for a specialist task such as jewellery making or glass blowing, then there may be an advantage in using one particular modifying liquid. Please note that the bubbler holding the acetone needs to be made of stainless steel as acetone can dissolve some plastics.

David has further modified the characteristics of the output gas by adding in a percentage of the unmodified HHO gas. Although it is actually, subtle and sophisticated, David’s overall system is easy to understand. The ratio of the two gasses is adjusted by the settings of the two control valves as shown here:

Adjusting the ratio of modified HHO to unmodified HHO allows a high degree of control over the characteristics of the resulting gas mix. Added to that, David has developed an electronic control system which oversees and manages the gas flow rate according to the user’s needs at any given moment. The result is a system which allows water and electricity to be the means of supplying a gas which can be used as a safe, general purpose fuel. If it is used to run a generator, then the system appears to become self-powered if part of the generator output is used to drive the electrolyser. It should be possible to substitute the modified gas mix for propane or butane and so operate a wide range of existing equipment for heating, cooking and/or lighting.

David runs a 4 horsepower Honda generator using this system:

The generator runs very well for David, however, I suspect that if cold water mist were introduced into the incoming air, then the power output would be increased due to the mist turning into flash-steam and providing
greater pressure on the piston during it's power stroke. Alternatively, it might be possible to match the present performance with a lesser gas flow rate, possibly powering a much larger generator if that were a requirement.

It needs to be understood that David uses electronics which manages and controls the gas flow volume, suiting it to whatever the needs are at any given moment. Consequently, it is probable that the six litres per minute which David’s electrolyser can produce, is not actually used for most of the time. David also does welding, brazing and cutting with the same modified electrolyser gas mix which can provide adjustable flame heat and a flame length of anything up to two feet in length:

It is a good idea to use a proven design with full control electronics. David can help here with detailed step by step construction plans and instructional videos.
You can contact David at dahq@clear.net.nz for information on what is available to help you at the present time.

When using the system for welding, David uses the mains to power the electrolyser, the arrangement being like this:

The flashback arrestors are a sand-filled design and so are mounted vertically. The gas production rate is knob controlled using this circuit:
The first part of David Quirey’s circuit acts very much like a dimmer light switch. The 230-volt AC mains is fed through an On/Off switch and then an ordinary mains fuse. The current flow through the circuit is blocked by the BT139 triac until it receives a pulse from the db3 diac (which is a component specifically designed to feed pulses to a triac).

As the voltage builds up on the 68 nanofarad capacitor it eventually reaches the point at which it triggers the triac, which then switches on and remains on until the mains voltage drops down to zero again. The 500K variable resistor sets the rate at which the capacitor charges up, and so it controls the length of time that the triac is on in any given second (and so, the level of power fed onwards to the rest of the circuit). This happens on both the positive-going half of the AC waveform and the negative-going half of the mains sinewave voltage supply. Both the diac and the triac operate with AC and trigger either 100 or 120 times per second depending on the frequency at which the local mains runs.

The current flow is then passed to a bridge rectifier in order to convert the AC into pulsing DC and the capacitor C1 which is 400-volt rated, smoothes the resulting DC. David’s cell has a large number of plates and so, operates off the 300 volts produced by this system. The ammeter between the diode bridge and the cell indicates the current flow and so, the amount of gas being produced at any given moment.

The flashback arrestors are constructed as shown here:

Sincere thanks are due to David Quirey for freely sharing his design and experiences, and for his willingness to provide direct additional support and further details should they be needed.

**Stan Meyer’s Water Injection System.**

While the above simple adaption will work for an electrical generator which is stationary and which is designed to provide large amounts of electrical power, some of which can be used for producing HHO gas from water, it is much more difficult to run a large capacity petrol/gasoline engine continuously with just water as the "fuel".
For larger engines aimed at producing mechanical output, we need a more powerful system, such as that developed by Stan Meyer of America. Although many years have passed since the sudden, highly suspicious death of Stan Meyer, as far as I am aware, his design has not been replicated, mainly because people do not understand the information which he left behind. However, recently, a man whose forum ID is "H2Opower" has helped explain what Stan meant, and much of the following description is down to his sharing his understanding publicly and freely.

Stan's Canadian patent 2,067,735 has an arrangement where the injector schematic shows the injection into the engine of three separate components:

One component is described as ionised gas and ambient air is mentioned. The second component is part of the exhaust gas which is hot water vapour fed through a limiting valve, referred to as "inert gas". The third injection component is a very fine spray of water droplets or cold water "mist". This three-component mixture is passed between high voltage electrodes and if the mix does not ignite spontaneously, then it is ignited with a spark.

One version of Stan's recommended injectors for an existing engine are shown like this:

This is a cross-section which only shows two of the three gas inputs flowing through this injector/spark plug. Each gas input has it's own feed passage which leads out between the central electrode and the circular outer electrode, and each feeder tube has it's own one-way valve to prevent the power stroke from forcing the incoming fuel back up it's feed tube.

This is only one of the ways that Stan shows that it can be done. Here is his diagram for a two cylinder engine fuel input, although it applies equally as well to any number of cylinders:
Let me stress that this is just an explanatory diagram and you do not have the intake and exhaust valves open when the spark plugs fire. Also, the pistons do not go up and down together but their movement is staggered to give a less uneven drive to the crankshaft. The point to note here is that the fuel intake is through standard valves and ordinary spark plugs are shown. However, this diagram for US Patent 5,293,857 is based on the use of an electrolyser and Stan found a way to avoid the need for an electrolyser.

For this, Stan's "Gas Processor" is a really key device in spite of it being what appears to be a fairly simple construction. It operates by pumping light energy into the fuel components. This may not sound like a big deal but it most definitely is, in fact, it is the heart of Stan's system. In addition to the extra energy, the fuel components are also stressed by high-voltage pulsed DC applied in such a way that it tends to pull the molecules apart as they flow past into the engine.

The Gas Processor is constructed from two highly reflective metal cylinders, 96 Light-Emitting Diodes ("LEDs") and a carefully adjusted high-voltage pulsed DC source. The reflecting tubes are used to make the light bounce backwards and forwards indefinitely until it is absorbed by the passing molecules. The choice of LEDs is very important as the wavelength of the light needs to be matched to the resonant frequencies of the fuel components passing by. Laser LEDs can be used but they need to be angled slightly in order for them to bounce and completely fill a section of the Gas Processor gas passage.

The operation is simple in concept. Six banks of sixteen LEDs are installed in the outer cylinder which has a polished inner surface. To see the effect of each LED, consider just one LED on it's own:

The LED light shines on to the inner tube which has a highly polished outer surface. In the diagram above, the light is shown in red, and the uppermost LEDs of the six columns of LEDs can be seen. The light is then reflected back to the outer cylinder again:
The reflected light is shown here in yellow although it is identical in wavelength to the section shown in red. This reflected light is again reflected by the outer tube and that repeats over and over again until the whole of the area between the two tubes is completely filled with the light. This will happen with just one LED, and that light will continue to be reflected backwards and forwards indefinitely if it does not collide with a gas molecule. That is the effect of just one LED, but there are six LEDs at that level, each producing light of the same frequency and reinforcing the power of each of the other five LEDs, producing a very powerful overall band of light.

The same thing happens in the vertical plane with the light bouncing all the way down the tubes, and as the LEDs at different levels generate different wavelengths, there is a powerful interaction between the different frequency waves, producing intermediate frequencies by a process with the technical name of "heterodyning":

In this diagram it has not been possible to show the way in which the reflected light from each LED interacts with the light from all of the other LEDs, but there is a complete intermixing of the beams. The LEDs are shown with greatly exaggerated size and spacing in order to give a reasonably understandable diagram.

The diagram above, barely indicates the level of light intensity inside the Gas Processor, and that is from only six of the ninety six LEDs actually installed. It is a little difficult to visualise this device, but the gas (of whatever type) flows up through a circular doughnut-shaped space between two pipes and is hammered by a very high level of light energy of the appropriate frequency. "H2Opower" believes that the optimum LED frequencies are as shown here:
and while, not surprisingly, I have not been able to find an LED supplier for these exact frequencies, most LEDs emit a band of frequencies rather than just a single frequency, so the working LEDs need to include the frequencies shown here.

The operation of the Gas Processor is further enhanced by applying a pulsed high-voltage between the inner and outer metal cylinders. This voltage stresses the molecules of the gas flowing between the two cylinders and because it is pulsed, it applies a tugging action on the molecules, tending to pull them apart:

As with all high-power free-energy systems, having the device operate in resonance is very important. If it is still available, the excellent video: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kQdcwDCBoNY](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kQdcwDCBoNY) shows what resonant circuit operation is all about. Briefly, the frequency of the driving waveform passing through winding "A" in the diagram above, is adjusted until almost no current flows through that winding. This is the same as tuning a radio to a particular radio station - in both cases, the signal at that frequency finds it almost impossible to drive any current through the winding. This would make you suspect that almost no current would flow in the output winding, but that is not the case because that current flows into the secondary winding from the local environment (after all, here is no electrical connection between the two windings, so common sense tells you that the electrons flowing in winding "A" do not flow out of the other winding). This resonant operation gives you a major energy gain courtesy of the local environment.

The objective of the Gas Processor is to modify whatever gas is flowing through it, air, water vapour, HHO, or whatever, to one of it's highly charged, highly energetic states. The high voltage applied to the metal cylinders of the Gas Processor does not flow through the gas between the cylinders. Instead, it provides a very high electrostatic Plus charge on the outer cylinder and a very high Minus charge on the inner cylinder, and these two opposing charges pull the charged parts of each molecule towards themselves. The positively charged gas ions get pulled towards the Negative inner cylinder and the negatively charged gas ions get pulled towards the Positive outer cylinder. Stan uses this technique on the incoming air when he uses an electrolyser to power an engine:
However, Stan's preference is to use air, water mist and some of the exhaust gas from the previous power stroke to power his engines. This is an effective method as "H2Opower" states that he has blown part of a car engine clean through the bonnet of the car, and that indicates that there is plenty of power available from those three components (although, ideally, you want to get the timing right and not over-stress the engine!).

One thing that "H2Opower" points out is that the injectors supplied for converting any car to run on alternative fuels such as natural gas, can be adapted to be the equivalent of Stan's specialised injectors, if a pair of high-voltage electrodes are added to each injector and fed from a pulsed circuit such as Stan's "Voltage Intensifier Circuit". The arrangement would then be like this:

A 220-page "Technical Brief" from Stan Meyer at [http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/MeyerData.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/MeyerData.pdf) can be downloaded free, although it may well provide you with more information than you ever wanted to know about the subject.

**Peter Lindemann's Lawnmower Running on Water Alone.**

Peter Lindemann has shown that a much simplified version of Stan's injection system can operate small engines directly on water alone. Let me suggest that it is not the water which causes the explosion, but instead, that the high-power spark causes disassociation of some of the water vapour, producing hydrogen and oxygen which then ignite, turning the remainder of the water vapour into flash-steam, making the engine operate as an internal combustion steam engine. The [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p3NE8P0sPS8](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p3NE8P0sPS8) video shows a lawnmower engine operating on a spark which occurs ten or eleven degrees before Top Dead Centre.
Developed in conjunction with the EnergeticForum, the technique is based on the Aaron/Gotoluc style of operation with the circuitry shown in this video: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vOhNtRhJ5Rw although the “DirectHits” spark-booster shown at http://www.pulstar.com/directhits.cfm might well make the circuitry easier. Obviously, using this technology to operate a standard electric generator would be a major objective, especially since there appears to be little need to adjust the existing spark timing much.

**Peter Lowrie’s High-Current Electrolyser System.**

Peter Lowrie of New Zealand developed an electrolysis system for use with internal combustion engines. Like the previous systems, Peter feeds a spray of fine water droplets into the engine, using a carburettor, supplied by a water tank. He also feeds in some exhaust gas and heated HHO gas, which is a technique which is almost identical to Stan Meyer’s method.

Peter also produces a very large volume of HHO gas with a most unusual method. He uses a delta-wound, GEC marine alternator (though he says that the alternator from a truck would do). He modifies the alternator by removing the diodes inside it and leading each of the three phase-windings out to his electronics. He uses each of the three phase-windings to power one electrolysis cell. He applies only 2 volts or so, to the DC winding of the alternator, which is about the minimum which allows the alternator to work.

The DC current supplied is less than one amp while the pulsed current to the electrolysis cells is much higher. When a snap-on ammeter surrounds the wires to the cells, a current of at least 800 amps is displayed. A point of particular interest is the inductor (coil) placed between the electrolysis cells and the windings of the alternator. Peter describes this as a choke out of a 3-phase industrial power supply. It is comprised of a laminated steel core with a sheet of copper wound around it. This is remarkably like the arrangement used by Stan Meyer and already described earlier in this document.

Peter has run a 1,600 cc car engine at 5,500 rpm with the gas output from his cells. He believes that his method of cascading the gas output from the cells through each other, produces a more active form of HHO gas. He also uses a heat-exchanger which allows the exhaust to pre-heat the HHO gas before it is passed to the engine (a method also used by Stan Meyer for running a car on water alone). Peter also uses impulse-operated valves to control the flow of gas to the engine as shown here:
The Use of Water in Engines.

I can fully understand someone having difficulty with accepting the idea that water can be used as part of the fuel inside an internal combustion engine. However, there is an old saying that "fact is stranger than fiction" and that certainly appears to apply in this case. First, it is essential to accept the fact that it can be an important component inside the engine, as this has been demonstrated by several different people who do not know each other and who live in different countries around the world. Second, having accepted that fact, the next step is to ask what exactly happens with the water.

I have come across an interesting document dated May 2009. I have been unable to trace its origin in order to ask permission to reproduce it here, so if you know how to contact the author, then please let me know. This is a report on an actual experimental tests on an internal combustion engine:

Ambient heat into work conversion.

Water-steam car, simple concept: simple Otto engine running from water mist using standard off-the-shelf ultrasonic humidifier (4 stroke diesel engine will work as well...could even perform better).

http://home.howstuffworks.com/humidifier4.htm

Replication log: Ultrasonic humidifier 0.25 litter water vaporisation per hour was set to 1/3 of its power. Use the water humidifier at air intake. Remove carburettor (or injection stuff if any) and filter for first. The way from duster to the engines air intake should be as short as possible to avoid the micro water droplets created by the humidifier collecting on the inside of the tube which feeds the water mist to the engine air intake. The engine used was a 1-cylinder 200 cc
electrical generator. The engine ran very slowly at first. In the case of a 4-stroke Otto engine, it is possible to speed it up using a propane cartridge. The engine then tends to "lock" into a higher rpm band, where the propane can be cut off permanently. The air going into the engine has a temperature of 22°C, while on average the air temperature leaving the engine was -16°C (a 38°C drop).

This is amazing – but this concept really does work!

You can make the car engine idle using this method. The water may need to be a bit warm. Ignition is not needed but it does facilitate the engine running. You may need to “turn the key” several times (based on this replication test). In the case of a diesel engine, you may need to replace the injectors with some kind of spark plug like on an A.E.R.O.P.S engine or use Firestorm plugs or any other stuff which is able to give the water an additional blast via plasma discharge, to increase performance further. You can make a gasoline generator work with water steam, also a lawn mower, etc.

Now – when it idles you have gone ‘over the edge’ so you need to add some more power, possible options are: adding hydrogen or HHO, preheating the water (possibly with solar energy), adding some fuel or spirit, powerful ignition or maybe some magnetic polarisation. This concept is now public and you can experiment with it on your own. Follow safety precautions and use common sense.

Do not expect high rpm results on the very first test run. Its a very basic concept which shows just one kind of transformation of environment heat into pressure and usable work. Also, do not pre-heat the engine before using it. The engine must not be hot!

A bit of physical background:

During the first stroke of a 4-stroke Otto engine, the piston moves down and sucks ambient air into the cylinder. During the second stroke, the piston moves up and compresses this air to a pressure of 25 bar (atmospheres). According to the “ideal gas law”:

\[ p \times V = n \times R(m) \times T \]

the temperature rises due to compression above its initial ambient temperature. The compression ratio of the engine will boost the temperature, typically up to 450°C to 500°C. This second stroke of an Otto engine NEEDS ENERGY FOR COMPRESSION! Now consider what will happen to microscopic water droplets contained in the air inside the cylinder. If the water converts instantly to flash-steam, then its volume increases dramatically, boosting the pressure inside the cylinder and powering the piston during its power stroke and storing energy in the flywheel.

Please note, that the water mist isn’t water vapour...it’s not a gas! It is still a liquid! The important DIFFERENCE becomes evident during the compression stroke! As the piston starts to move upwards to compress air which contains the water droplets, pressure AND HEAT, as described before, start to rise. BUT the compression itself is NOT able to raise the water temperature directly, as the water is still a LIQUID and therefore the temperature of the water isn’t affected from higher pressure! So initially, only the air temperature rises due to compression. But tiny water droplets are present inside the cylinder, and as the air temperature gets greater and greater than the temperature of the water droplets, heat starts to flow from the air into the water droplets, heating them up! But as long the water temperature does not reach its boiling point, the droplets will not expand due to this rise in temperature and they will simply keep the same volume.

So the water droplets acting as a heat-absorber during the compression stroke! Lower heat implies lower pressure, and lower pressure during the compression stroke implies ENERGY SAVING DURING THE COMPRESSION STROKE!

Please have a look at the following graph (no losses are included in the calculation):
The graph shows the pressure within a 4-stroke engine cylinder in respect of time, starting from the beginning of the compression stroke (second one), ending with the end of the power stroke (third one). The work that is needed for the compression stroke is represented by the integral of the graph, from the very left to the yellow marker. The work which is done by the piston during the power stroke is represented by the integral of the graph from the yellow marker to the very right of the graph (20,000 at the time scale).

Let's assume that engine is an ideal one (loss-less). The red graph line represents the pressure within engine cylinder, if no water is present, and no ignition occurs. The graph is symmetrical to the Top Dead Centre (the yellow marker in the middle), so we put in energy at compression and we get the same amount back during the 3 stroke (power stroke). No loss, no gain. We get plus and minus zero.

The blue graph line shows what happens, if microscopic water droplets are present. The pressure does not rise as much as in case without water droplets, because the water works as a heat absorber during the compression stroke, and this lowers the pressure as well. The shape of the graph changes, so that symmetry of the compression and power strokes isn't there any longer, resulting in a gain of energy.

Factors which affect this process include the water droplet diameters, droplet distribution, the engine's rpm which controls the length of time, the ambient air temperature, the engine's compression ratio and even the water hardness and it's physical properties. It is certainly not a simple case where you can say "more water, means higher revs giving more power". For example, if the water droplets are too large, then there will be too little conversion to steam and insufficient power will be produced. Alternatively, if there are too few water droplets, then there may be no effect at all or the conversion to steam may take place too early to provide useful power.

The theory given here is a very simplified one, but should suffice for the first steps towards a better technology and a better understanding of the concepts of "energy from the environment".

It is tempting to conclude that the power gained from water droplets inside an engine cylinder are caused by the water turning into flash-steam and nothing else. However, that is probably not the case, nor is it the case that energy placed in the water by the sun heating it is extracted (which does happen) and that is the only additional source of energy.

In the scientific paper entitled "Possibility of Liberating Solar Energy via Water Arc Explosions" by George Hathaway and Peter Graneau, they discovered that when they produced an electric arc discharge in cold water fog: "The principal discovery made in the past two years was that it is a collection of fog droplets in the water which explodes and not the liquid water itself. The term 'fog' is meant to include not only the tiny droplets which float in air but also larger droplets which fall in the atmosphere and would be more correctly described as 'mist'.

10 - 169
The sole explanation of the explosions so far put forward contends that the intermolecular bonding energy in fog is less than 540 cal/g, the latent heat of bulk water. The bonding energy difference is then liberated in a quantum jump when the fog is formed in micro-seconds. Summing up their experiments, they conclude that "virtually all the kinetic energy developed by the explosion must be internal water energy".

In the earlier scientific paper "The Anomalous Strength of Cold Fog Explosions Caused by High-Current Water Arcs" by N. Graneau, he comments: "The unusual strength of explosions caused by a pulsed current flowing through water plasma was first noticed in 1907 by Trowbridge in his early high-voltage laboratory at Harvard University. When he passed as arc through a spray of water, the resulting explosion was louder than in ordinary laboratory air. During the Second World War, Früngel measured the strength of water arc explosions and published his results in 1948. He concluded that they were not caused by heat and steam and freely admitted that he was unable to explain the phenomenon. In 1969, the US Bureau of Mines issued a long report on their investigation into using water arc explosions for rock fragmentation. In one experiment, the investigators at the Twin City Mining Research Centre noticed that the energy output was apparently 156% of the input. This result was reported but treated as an experimental error".

The bottom line appears to be that using cold water mist droplets in an internal combustion engine has a minimum of the following energy additions:

1. Reduction of the energy required during the compression stroke due to the water droplets absorbing some of the heat generated by the compression and so reducing the increase in air volume during the compression.
2. On ignition, the very rapid conversion of the droplets to steam, caused by their massive surface area, produces a very rapid rise in pressure inside the cylinder.
3. The internal energy of the water caused by absorbing energy from the sun before entry into the engine may well be contributed to the power generation process.
4. Surprisingly, it has been shown that under these conditions, at the moment of explosion, the water itself contributes energy, and this process is one which most people are at a loss to explain, in spite of observing and measuring it happening.

The conclusion has to be that it appears possible that an internal combustion engine could be made to operate using cold water mist as the fuel, if a sufficiently powerful ignition plasma spark is provided using something like one of Robert Krupa's "FireStorm" spark plugs described below. Alternatively, with a lesser spark from an ordinary spark plug and the addition of quite a modest amount of a gas mix of hydrogen and oxygen from the electrolysis of water, the same effect can be produced. Consequently, although it appears so unlikely to a quick glance, that an internal combustion engine could be run on a mix of HHO gas, air and cold water mist, the reality is that the process is actually based on sound scientific principles and readily understood processes.

There is at the present time, a video of a car that runs effectively on just water, using aluminium plates: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g_2tinf6y_k.

5. Other Useful Devices
The Panacea series on improving engine running is highly recommended. You can view that information here: http://www.panacea-bocaf.org/fuelsaving-pollutionreduction.htm

Ted Ewert’s “Vortex” Air-Feed System.
Ted Ewert has developed and tested a very effective and simple device which can improve the running of some vehicles. This device works best with four-cylinder vehicles because the pulsed air intake of vehicles with fewer cylinders, enhances the beneficial effect.

This is a silent, simple and cheap device which enhances the airflow into the engine. This can have a dramatic effect on the performance of the engine. For example, Ted has an old Datsun 310 which has been sitting unused for years. Petrol ("gasoline") loses it’s lighter fractions in six months or so and that makes it far less volatile and more difficult to burn. Ted’s Datsun has gasoline in the tank which is five years old and the car will not run on that fuel with it’s normal air intake. However, when Ted put one of his turbines on it, it starts immediately and runs fine with that old fuel. That particular vortex turbine has been dubbed "The Respirator". The Datsun has a carburettor which shows that this turbine works well with carburettors.
The “Respirator”

This simple device is a vortex tube made from a short piece of PVC pipe which has been slotted and shaped. It fits between the air filter and throttle body, or carburettor, and causes the incoming air to spin at a relatively high rate, creating a vortex. Angular velocity is crucial in the formation of a strong vortex and the air entering the Respirator from the air filter, arrives at right angles to the turbine slots, giving an immediate and powerful spin inside the tubing.

Ted says: “Most people think of a spinning air mass as having no particularly unusual properties. This is not correct. A spinning air mass has some very unique and useful properties. Standard aerodynamics, and linear Newtonian physics are unable to explain the properties of a flow of air spinning at high speed. In fact, when compared to a static flow of air within a pipe, a vortex behaves in almost completely the opposite way.

All spinning objects, whether they are solid, liquid or gaseous, contain two opposing forces: centrifugal and centripetal. Centrifugal is the expanding force travelling away from the centre axis, and centripetal is the contracting force pulling in towards the centre. This concept of dual forces is key to understanding a vortex. “Modern” physics has decided that the centrifugal force doesn’t exist and now refers to it as a ‘false’ or ‘phantom’ force. This illustrates how detached from the real world academia has become and why it has stagnated.

The combination of these two forces, acting together in a vortex, create some unique conditions. One of these conditions is a laminar configuration. Co-axial laminations form throughout the vortex, creating numerous layers of air spinning virtually independently of each other. These layers are separated by zones of extremely low, virtually zero, friction and this allows them to spin at different rates.

As the vortex spins faster, the two opposing forces become stronger. This further laminates the flow as well as compressing the layers. The low-friction zones allow the compressed central air mass an unimpeded pathway for its axial flow through the pipe. This is the reverse of the flow conditions for a straight, non-coherent air mass which has a tendency to develop friction and resistance, due to turbulence, in direct proportion to its velocity through a pipe.

Spin rate determines the degree of air compression and the linear flow rate of the mass. The faster that the vortex spins, the more it does just what we want, which is to create a dense, compressed and fast-moving flow. This is why we take the flow of air from the air box and use its speed and direction (90 degrees) to initiate the spin in our tube. This is by far the simplest and most efficient way to get the air spinning fast. The properties of a vortex are increased in step with the angular velocity. Just as a top wobbles and falls when spun slowly, so a vortex will not exhibit any strong properties until spun really fast.

As you may know, an important part of supplying air to an engine is the ability to supply a lot of air in a short burst.
This turbine creates a spinning air mass which is uniquely able to supply this air due to its virtually frictionless laminar composition and pressure built up through compression. The vortex provides compressed, dense air to the cylinder, which takes significantly less energy to draw in due to it's stored inertial energy, and it's ability to move freely in the direction of it's axis of rotation.

Between engine cycles, when air is not needed, the vortex continues to spin and build up additional pressure. This spinning air mass acts like a flywheel and stores energy which is put to use on the next intake stroke. A static air flow has no such stored energy and has to be accelerated by the engine intake stroke every time air is needed, thereby wasting energy. This flywheel property is key to understanding why the vortex works as well as it does. Unless the vortex is pulsed, or modulated, no extra energy can be developed.

In a multi-cylinder car the flow of air becomes so steady that no effect is produced with just the turbine because there is no pulsing in the airflow into the engine. The rapidly rotating air within the turbine acts as a flywheel. When it is pulsed by the cylinder on the intake stroke, force is applied to the vortex as air is sucked down the pipe and into the cylinder. As soon as the intake valve closes, the pulse ends, the air stops its linear movement, but increases it's angular spin velocity. This is where the extra power is generated. While the intake valve is closed, the vortex continues to draw more air into the pipe, where it is accelerated and compressed, until the intake valve opens again.

Power cannot be accessed until the pulse ceases. In a steady flow this never happens. Force has to be alternately applied and relaxed. To help visualise this imagine a coil spring attached to a shaft. When a sharp pulse is applied to the shaft, the spring expands. Only when the pulse ceases, and the spring starts to contract does the power get translated into movement. This also applies to a flywheel. You can also see with the coiled spring that the pulse must be timed to coincide with the resonant frequency of the spring for the highest efficiency. Random pulses, or pulses that are badly timed, will not have nearly the effect that correctly timed pulses have.

The air turbine doesn't rely as much on resonance as it does on large, well spaced pulses. This is because the power of the pulse is huge in comparison to the inertia of the air. Resonance is essential for anything that has a fair amount of mass - solids or liquids. In the case of a multi-cylinder engine, the pulses become less distinct the greater the number of cylinders. A six-cylinder vehicle barely sees any gain from the turbine, and an eight-cylinder little to none. With this type of engine the vortex needs to be modulated to gain energy.

This enhancement can be done through manipulating the shape of the intake tube. A round tube gives no gain but if the tube is "egg shaped" it produces an alternate centripetal / centrifugal pulse which imparts extra energy to the vortex. The vortex gains energy with each rotation it makes through an elliptical, or egg shaped tube.

I put a slice of a smaller diameter pipe along the inner top of my tube. This small addition accomplished a noticeable increase in performance for the unit in my car. A curve in the pipe will also act like an ellipse since the rotation is compressed on the inside of the curve and expanded around the outside. Another interesting thing with the turbine is that it works much better when the engine gets hot. I notice a large increase in power in my bike as soon as the engine gets hot. This is because the heat adds energy to the vortex, just like a hurricane travelling across warm water. The heat added by the intake tube adds velocity and compression to the vortex as it spins waiting for the intake valve to open".
The vortex is created by cutting angled slots into a piece of PVC piping as shown here:

The air enters through each of six tapered slots cut parallel to the axis of the pipe. These give the air an initial spin inside the pipe and the pulsating intake of the engine, combined with the oval shape of the PVC exit T-piece, accelerates the air into a serious vortex which improves the intake to the engine, raising it’s efficiency and giving more engine power.
Ted created the egg-shaped part of the final PVC T-piece by adding an extra cut section of PVC pipe to a standard T-piece as shown here:

The turbine which Ted put on his bike works outstandingly well. The torque curve is extended well below its former efficiency range. It is possible to substantially enrich the fuel / air ratio and still maintain the same mpg results as before. When the turbine is removed, both the mpg and the engine performance go way down. The turbine adds more air to the engine. To take full advantage of the possible increase in performance, the mixture should be enriched.

Ted also put one in his 1995 Toyota Corolla car which has an 1800 cc 4 cylinder engine and a 5 speed gearbox and he is getting over 40 mpg on the open road and the low 30s around town. Originally, those figures were 34 on the open road and 27 around town. The performance has also increased very noticeably. Another nice feature is the lack of knocking and pinging under load. Performance in the mountains at high altitude is also significantly improved.

Ted has spent only a couple of months testing and evaluating this device on his cars and bike. A problem with this device is that it cannot be run directly through a carburettor, as it can with a fuel injection system. A carburettor works with a venturi which develops a low pressure zone in the throat with respect to the float bowl pressure. A vortex has no respect for a venturi and creates its own pressure gradient which screws up the fuel metering. Ted has somewhat solved this issue by diffusing the vortex just before it enters the carburettor. Pressure and velocity are built up before the carb then sent through a diffuser.

There is still plenty of research to do with this device. And there will be many improvements and beneficial modifications still to be made to it. Ted remarks that he does not have access to any engine test facilities and that makes it difficult for him to assess accurately the results of any design variations which he may make. Ted is hoping that someone will take his design and improve it further. There is great potential in this little piece of plastic pipe.
Ted has fitted a different style of his turbine to his Toyota as shown here. The turbine section is marked “PMT” which stands for “Poor Man’s Turbo”, though obviously, you don’t need to be poor to benefit from a turbine system like this which has no moving parts:

Cam-Timing Issues in America.
A deceptively simple way of improving mpg performance has been discussed recently in the watercar forums, and that is the adjustment of the cam settings on American cars made since 1971. This sounds most unlikely, but it is a proven fact. For example, a 2004 Jeep Wrangler 2.4 litre received a 10 degree advancement on both cams, and that gave a 70% improvement on the mpg, much more engine power and an exhaust which runs much cooler.

Over the years, one man experienced a 50% to 100% improvement in mpg over a range of personally owned cars and trucks, and the emissions were improved by nearly 90%. It is not suggested that everybody should make a cam adjustment, just to be aware that an adjustment of that nature can have a dramatic effect.

Another example: “Advancing the cam timing will make the engine run cooler. I have been messing with cam timing for about 25 years. I had a 1985 Ford Ranger with a 2.8 litre engine - it was a dog. The same engine used in the 1970 Mercury Capri had lots of power. The Ranger was a dog because the cam timing was set almost 10 degrees retarded. I gave it an 8 degree advance and the Ford Ranger came to life and hauled ass. Also, aftermarket ratio-rocker arms help a lot on late model cars. I changed the cam timing on my 1998 Chevy truck by 10
degrees. With it’s 350 cubic inch engine and ratio rocker arms installed, it gained almost 90 horsepower and brought the power band lower giving more torque because the rocker makes the cam have higher lift and longer duration on the cam which makes it breath better.”

Comment from a man with 25 years experience in this field: “Cam timing is when the valves open and close in relation to the crank shaft and piston movement. The number 1 piston is set at true Top Dead Centre. At this point the degree wheel is set to the front of the engine against the front pulley at the zero degrees mark and you install a pointer mounted to the engine block pointing at the zero mark on the wheel. When the crank is turned to about the 108 to 112 degree mark, the intake valve is fully opened. That is where most engines are set nowadays. This what I call retarded cam timing. The engine seems to run well but doesn’t really seem to have much low and mid-range pulling power. When racing, you would retard a cam for high RPMs, they also could breath and had no restriction in the exhaust. The power may come in at, lets say, 3000 - 6500 RPM and advancing a cam for more torque and power, that same cam may produce power at 1000 - 4000 RPM and after all, who drives over 4000 rpm on the road?”

Another comment: “Our jeep has twin overhead cams. Advancing them does not make them stay open longer, they just open and close sooner. My reason for advancing both cams was, if I only advance the intake cam, the intake would open earlier causing more overlap if the exhaust wasn't advanced. Normally the intake valve closes after Bottom Dead Centre. Just by looking at the piston, sometimes it’s almost one quarter of the way up on the compressing stroke before the intake closes. By advancing the cams, the intake closes closer to BDC. This produces higher compression. Years ago, when I did this to some of the V8s, I would switch to adjustable rocker arms and a solid lifter cam. I was able to adjust the overlap by backing off on the rockers. On an engine with one cam, advancing the cam will adjust both the intake and the exhaust. Rule of thumb is: lets say most engines are retarded by 4 degrees or more, you really don’t want to advance the cams more than 4 degrees advanced. I sometimes push this as far as 6 degrees advanced for improved mpg. That is a total difference of 10 degrees from 4 degrees retarded to 6 degrees advanced. This works well with low compression engines. I also don’t see a need to go to a higher compression ratio. Think about it: if you had a compression ratio of 12 to 1 and the intake closes a quarter of the way up the compression stroke, how much is compression will there be, compared to a 8 to 1 compression ratio where the full stroke compresses the mixture? If you had a engine that made it easy to get to the cam or cams by just removing a dust cover, like on our Jeep 4-cylinder, I would say to install adjustable timing gears. Then you could just remove the cover and play with the cam timing until you came up with the best power and mileage

Robert Krupa’s “FireStorm” Spark Plug.
The “FireStorm” plug was developed by Robert Krupa and it is an innocuous looking spark plug which can be used to replace a standard spark plug in an ordinary production engine:

![Robert Krupa's FireStorm Spark Plug](image)

However, this plug is far from ordinary. The central electrode has been changed from a cylindrical post to a hemispherical dome, surrounded by four arched electrodes, each of which being positioned at a constant distance from the hemisphere. This allows a much greater spark area and results in very much improved performance.

The fuel/air mixture can be made leaner without any harmful side effects. If this is done using standard plugs, then the engine will run at a much higher temperature which can damage the engine. But when using FireStorm plugs, a leaner fuel/air mix actually results in the engine running at a lower temperature. Robert has measured this effect and found that under identical running conditions, the engine exhaust was 100°F cooler when using FireStorm plugs. A mixture ratio of 24:1 is used rather than the current 14.7:1 mix and polluting emissions are very much reduced by the use of this plug design. Mixtures of up to 40:1 can be used with this plug.

Robert has been awarded two patents for this plug design: US 5,936,332 on 10th August 1999 and US 6,060,822 on 9th May 2000. These show variations of the basic dual arch electrodes, two of which are shown here:
It was hoped that these plugs would go into production early in 2008 but there is no word of manufacturing starting. Robert gave Bosch of Germany a set of FireStorm plugs to test. After ten weeks of testing, their response was “This is unbelievable - we have never seen anything like this in all the time we have been building sparkplugs”. When standard spark plugs fire for a long time, the spark gap increases and the spark is weakened. Bosch ran an eight-week endurance test on the FireStorm plugs and found that there was zero gap growth. They concluded that FireStorm plugs would never wear out (which may well be why they are not yet in production - after all, who wants to manufacture something which never wears out?).

Robert’s first FireStorm plug was made in 1996 and he has encountered strong opposition to their introduction and manufacture ever since. This plug will not be popular with the oil companies as less fuel is burnt. This is probably a fallacy because, human nature being what it is, people are likely to keep spending the same amount on fuel and just drive more. For the same reason, the plug will not be popular with governments who tax fuel. The companies who make spark plugs will not like it as it does not wear out like standard plugs do. It uses less fuel and cuts harmful emissions dramatically, so it will be popular with motorists and environmentalists, if Robert can get it into production.

Plasma Ignition.

If any form of construction work with a vehicle is beyond your abilities, then the plasma ignition system offered through the [http://www.bluephoenixignition.com/products.htm](http://www.bluephoenixignition.com/products.htm) web site may be of interest to you. The company offers a system which can be used with any cheap non-resistor spark plugs and they claim a 40% improvement in mpg performance.

The video at [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gYCr4p5QDEA](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gYCr4p5QDEA) explains the details of the system and claims that the resulting plasma from the plugs is so powerful that it can ignite cold water mist. Also, because of the very much improved fuel burn, the engine timing can be adjusted closer to the Top Dead Centre position, increasing the engine efficiency further. The very cheap spark plugs are liable to need replacing after five thousand miles or so, but that is hardly a serious overhead. The system can be used with 6-cylinder vehicles, 4-cylinder vehicles and electrical generators with one or two cylinders, and with outboard engines.
Roger Maynard's Water Vapour Injection System.
Fifty years ago car engines were not nearly as powerful as they are now. In those days it was quite common for a driver to remark that his car ran smoother and more powerfully on wet days. This was not imagination as water vapour drawn into the engine along with the air, turned to steam at the moment of ignition, and expanding provided additional thrust to the pistons while lowering the running temperature slightly.

This fact was utilised in World War II when units which were effective standard bubblers used with HHO boosters were added to the vehicles. Roger Maynard has built and used these units extensively since 1978, and my thanks goes to him for providing this information and illustrations.

The unit is attached to the air intake of the vehicle, between the air filter and the engine. A small diameter plastic pipe is lead from there to a glass or plastic container holding water. In the above picture Roger is using a glass Mason jar with a screw-on metal lid which has a seal. Sometimes called a preserving jar, these jars are very convenient.

The air feed into the jar is by a length of the same plastic piping and terminated with a standard air-stone or “soap-stone” as used in a home aquarium, as this causes a large number of separate bubbles. It is good practice to glue the plastic fittings to the lid of the jar, but this can make the jar too airtight and if that happens it may be necessary to remove the rubber seal which is around the neck of the jar.
A glass jar has the advantage of not being affected by the heat produced by the engine. This is a very simple unit and it uses ordinary water which is not exactly a hazardous substance. The effect of using it is far greater than would be imagined. On Roger’s 4-cylinder KIA car, the mpg rose from 320 miles per tank full of fuel to 380 miles around town (18%) and 420 miles on the open road (31%) which is a very marked improvement. On his 6-cylinder Tacoma shows an 8% increase around town and a 12% increase on the open road. The water is topped up every 1200 miles or so.

However, some engines are suited to the air-stone and some are not. Smaller engines may work much better if a stainless steel screw is used instead of the air-stone:

Just to clarify the operation of the device:

The container has a plastic elbow connection in the lid through which the outside air is drawn into the container. The air flows down through a plastic tube to either an air-stone from a pet shop, or a loose bolt in the end of the plastic tube. The air-stone has many small holes in it and these break the incoming air up into many streams of small bubbles.

There is a second elbow in the lid and the air, which is now very damp, is drawn out through it by the reduced pressure in the normal air intake of the engine. The lower pressure there is caused by the intake strokes of the engine and the air going to the engine now comes from two sources – the normal path through the air filter, and the new path through the bubbler. Most of the air flows through the air filter as normal, but there is now a small percentage which flows through the water, adding cold moisture to the airflow.

Some people feel that this couldn’t possibly make any difference, but experience has shown that the addition of this extra stream of damp air can and usually does have a beneficial effect, improving the mpg, making the engine run a little cooler and generally improving the operation of the engine. It is a very simple low-tech device which does not cost much, so if you feel inclined, then try it out and see what effect it has on your vehicle, after all, if it does not provide a useful improvement, then you can easily remove it.
“Fuelsavers” Streamlining Fins.
A similar system used to be on offer from the website http://www.fuelsaver.com.au/ where they offered small aluminium fins which mount on top of the trailing edge of the bodywork of a vehicle. The devices are reckoned to save some 10% to 12% on fuel consumption, they can be home-made, nine per vehicle is the recommended number. The device and mounting look like this:

![A "Fuelsaver" and the mounting method](image)

Robert Patterson’s “Ram Implosion Wing” Streamlining System.
The next device may not be a “free-energy” device as such, but if not, it is very close to being such. It is a structure, which when mounted on top of a motor vehicle, improves the airflow to such an extent that the fuel consumption is said to be reduced by a major factor. The device was invented by Robert Patterson and is said to create a vortex which not only decreases wind resistance but may also create a forward propulsion force.

It is claimed that the effect created by one of these wings reduces the amount of dust stirred up when driving along a dirt road and if there is a paper bag sitting in the middle of the road, it is left unmoved when the vehicle passes over it at high speed. About a dozen people are testing this device at the present time. The biggest effect is at speeds of 60 mph or more. One researcher states that he installed the wing on the roof of his Lincoln Town car using a roof rack which allowed the wing to hang over the rear window by some six inches. He states that his fuel consumption has improved from 17 mpg to 56 mpg.

Positioning of the wing, texturing of the wing surface, and the speed of the vehicle appear to be important factors in gaining an improvement. There is a research group and the website is: http://www.pureenergysystems.com/news/2005/03/08/6900067_RamWingUpdate/

High-mpg Carburettors.
The very poor mpg figures produced by most US vehicles is a quite deliberate arrangement forced on drivers by the oil companies. In 1997, an engineer working at a US Ford company plant witnessed a 351 CID V8 started at about 4:30 pm. with a 1 litre bottle of fuel as an exactly measured amount. The next morning when he went to the factory floor, that engine was still running and had only consumed about one third of the one litre bottle. On asking about the fuel consumption, he was shown a display that read, “248.92 mpg”. He was shocked and said, “This must be a mistake” but the engineer said that it was true. He then asked when they would have it ready to be put in a new Ford, he was told that he would not see it in his lifetime. This is company policy and has nothing to do with engineering which is easily capable of this level of performance. That 249 miles per US gallon is 298 miles per European gallon since the European gallon is 20% bigger than the US gallon.
There have been more than 200 patents granted for high-mpg carburetors. These designs all give between 100 and 250 mpg on a US gallon of fuel. Not a single one of these designs has made it to the marketplace due to the fanatical opposition of the oil companies. Last year, the Shell oil company posted typical earnings for the year, which showed that they had made US $3,000,000 profit per hour for every hour of every day of the entire year. Did you enjoy contributing to that profit every time you bought fuel to burn?

Nearly all of these high-mpg carburettor designs convert the fuel to vapour form before it enters the engine. There is no magic about this performance, just good engineering practice. It will probably come as a great surprise to you that the oil companies now put additives into the gasoline sold in the USA. They have 103 varieties of additives and I expect that they will explain that these are used to reduce evaporation in summer (as if they care about that !) and combat freezing in the winter. An “unfortunate” side effect of these additives is that they clog up any carburettor which converts the fuel to vapour form. Instead of 200 mpg, it is now quite common for US vehicles to have a 15 mpg performance and that effectively increases the cost per mile by more than ten times.

I am confident that it would be possible to design a high-mpg carburettor which deals with the additive sludge left over when the fuel is converted to vapour. In passing, the present situation gives added encouragement to stop burning oil-based products and switch to electric, compressed air, or water-powered vehicles. That is a perfectly viable option technically, but it would create frantic opposition from the oil companies and most governments which raise massive revenues from taxing oil products. The energy problem is not technical, it is financial and political.

Bob Boyce in America was handed a 3.5 year jail term for “running a vehicle on an unapproved fuel”. Bob was testing a car engine on HHO in his workshop behind his house and not on the road. Bob beat the charge in court. Since then, Bob has been told by the US Military that it is ok for him to build and use HHO boosters but he must not run a car on water alone. Guess who gives the US Military orders. Guess who does not care about the American people. A book on building your own high-mpg carburettor written by Larry D. Wagner can be downloaded from http://www.free-energy-info.com/Wagner.pdf but please be aware that thirty years has elapsed since it was written and gasoline in the USA is liable to be contaminated by additives which were not used thirty years ago and so, some variations may be needed. Wagner remarks that Pogue said that the new additives prevented him getting the same high mpg figures that he used to get.

In the Appendix, you will find eight out of the many high-mpg carburettor patents. The most famous of these are the three patents by Charles Pogue:

www.free-energy-info.com/PatCarb1.pdf
www.free-energy-info.com/PatCarb2.pdf
www.free-energy-info.com/PatCarb3.pdf

It would never have occurred to me that a carburettor could be used for anything other than feeding an engine, but a very experienced and practical man who lives in Alaska has used them for other things. He says:
I started out in 1976 when the first oil crunch came along and the Pogue system seemed to make the most sense at the time. We were looking to get a system started for making alcohol fuel and we were looking to develop a continuous-batch alcohol plant. This can produce feed for animals, fertilizer for the farms and fuel for vehicles or houses. It was based around growing barley and as barley is not good animal feed when grown, it needs to be cracked in some form and it was learned that this was a suitable method which had been used throughout Europe in ancient times. Two years later, the state passed a law banning alcohol fuel production. However, some of us wound up making heaters to use the alcohol produced in this way and those heaters were very efficient and they helped a lot of people, so something good did come of it anyway.

It was about this time that I met a man who had done research on the Pogue carburettor for the Sun oil company in 1928. He was very knowledgeable and helpful and in his 80's at the time. He agreed that going to alcohol, would be a better idea as it would solve many of the problems which had been engineered into gasoline fuels.

If you look at present day engines, they are as far as possible from what is needed for using this method. High compression engines will fire from heat generated under compression before top dead centre and will knock the top out of the pistons as it is an explosion rather than a burn. So, low compression engines are preferred, and firing at least 10 degrees after top dead centre. A long-stroke engine is best and some added flywheel weight increases the engine power. The incoming air needs to be pre-heated to reduce the amount of heat drawn from the combustion by the nitrogen in the air. It is the nitrogen heat content that suppresses the burn of any open fuel.

The GEET system is very similar to what we did with a few exceptions. We heated a small amount of fuel using an electric element, converting the fuel to vapour, pressurising it using the exhaust which made controlling the amount of vapour much easier. All the rest is basic GEET or Pogue.

There are many devices which I have made over the years, including the Pogue carburettor which can get very good energy efficiency from burning fuels. It is used by many industries from smelting furnaces to trains for transporting goods but it is not used by car manufacturers.

I like to study industry, because they use what works in the real world, even if they refuse to share the knowledge with others. Our group built a few metal smelters for cleaning aluminium and casting ingots. They use waste oil and roar like mad, smelting 50 lb engines in 15 minutes or less, burning less than a pint (half a litre) of oil to do it.

Allen Caggiano

If you think that this is exaggeration, take the case of Allen Caggiano whose high-mileage carburettor patent and constructional details are at www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Caggiano.pdf.

Allen is an inventive and stubborn man not readily blackmailed or browbeaten. In 1978 he produced the design for his first high-mileage carburettor, assembled the prototype and installed it in a 1973 Dodge Coronet station wagon. This gave spectacular results of 111 miles per gallon. Unfortunately, it failed after a short time. In 1979, he installed the second generation device on a 318 cubic inch (5.2 litre) Dodge V-8 engine and called it the “FIVS Gen II” standing for “Fuel Implosion Vaporisation System Generation 2”. This second prototype proved very reliable and produced results as remarkable as the first, getting as much as 113 miles per US gallon (European gallons are 20% larger than US gallons so 113 miles per US gallon is 135 miles per European gallon).

The installation of the ‘FIVS Gen II’ required modifications to the carburettor and the removal of the catalytic converter. This was prohibited by EPA regulations. It was therefore a violation of Federal Law. Al ignored the
On the third day of his new campaign, as Al got into the station wagon he noticed a car pulling up behind him. He got out to greet two men in suits flashing FBI credentials. While he spoke to one, the other slipped away, climbed in to his station wagon, and drove it off. Astonished, he turned to watch his vehicle going down the street. Then he heard the FBI car pulling out behind him. Al just stood there watching the two vehicles disappear around the corner. An old friend, his attorney, later called the FBI office. The FBI denied any knowledge of the incident. Angry and frustrated, but undaunted, Al said good-bye to the Dodge Coronet, and found another similar Dodge station wagon and set to work installing another FIVS system. He painted this one yellow, too, with bold black lettering.

Not long after the first car was stolen, he received an interesting offer from a California based corporation. This corporation wanted to purchase exclusive rights to his FIVS Gen II. Al asked his attorney to check it out. The corporation turned out to be a subsidiary of several other corporations, all of which were owned by an oil company. This arrangement is typical of the way contemporary monopolies are structured. Al had been doing some reading about other inventors in the past and other fuel saving devices that had never seen the light of day and he was determined that he would never allow the oil companies get control of his device.

After he refused the offer, two different FBI agents came calling. He was careful not to leave keys in his unattended vehicle this time. They informed him that he was violating Federal laws and should cease and desist. Defiant and excited that he might soon make his case in court, he told his wife, Deb, not to worry. A couple of weeks after the second FBI visit, unmarked brown paper envelopes began arriving, containing 8” x 10” photographs of the children and Deb. A child on the playground at school. A child getting off the school bus. Deb in the supermarket, and so on. She was terrified and the marriage broke up.

The FBI was behaving like the Mafia. He wrote on the side of his Dodge: “The Big Boys Are Trying To Make Me And This Car Disappear! HELP ME!”. One of his oldest friends, his attorney, who was like a brother, refused to have anything else to do with him: “Wake up!” his attorney said, and then abruptly hung up the phone.

The Feds weren’t going to give him his day in court to defend his FIVS. They had stolen his first prototype vehicle and they knew it worked as claimed. He had refused to relinquish his control, so they were going to send him to prison, but not for violating federal emissions regulations. On the face of it, the Environmental Protection Agency appears to be imposing regulations on the auto makers and the oil companies in the public interest of protecting the quality of the air we breath, and the quality of the air we breath is improved over what it used to be. But in fact, these special interests often write the legislation themselves. The regulations then create a profitable new area of business which allows the special interests to increase their control over the market. The public interest is best served by creative innovation in a free market. Al was learning Politics 101 the hard way. In the business of vehicles and oil, there IS no free market. In a monopoly-controlled market, there are anti-competitive regulations, dirty tricks, and active suppression. The Big Boys protected their turf and took control of or destroyed any potential competition in the hallowed tradition of John D. Rockefeller Snr. and the Robber Barons of the past.

That wasn’t hard to understand. But he was unprepared for the sophisticated tactics of today’s faceless Robber Barons.

The Chief of Police for Brockton, planted stolen cocaine in Al’s home during a drug raid that ultimately put Al in prison in 1986, for 15 years on a cocaine trafficking conviction, in spite of the fact that Al didn’t use drugs, nor associate with those who did. He fought back. In prison, he fashioned a key in the prison shop and then turned himself in on the same day. This police officer friend was able to uncover evidence of the chief’s corruption. Two days later, the Chief was arrested for stealing cocaine from the evidence locker, most of which he had taken home to feed his addicted wife. He went to prison himself, which led to the reversal of over 300 drug convictions that had been decided during his tenure. The Massachusetts Supreme Court of Appeals overturned Al’s conviction. For a moment, he thought he’d beaten the Big Boys and was a free man again.

But then the Federal Prosecutor stepped in and indicted him on new charges relating to the seizure of two shot guns during the phoney drug bust. A spurious interpretation of the US Code was applied. Al was sentenced to a total of 30 years in Allenwood Federal Prison, without parole.

Al’s time in Allenwood was not wasted in self-pity or bitterness towards the Big Boys or the corrupted system that put him there. He was popular in Allenwood right away because of his role in exposing the dirty cop that overturned so many drug convictions. He developed a good relationship with the warden of facilities. As a licensed HVAC contractor, Al was able to fix the prison heating and cooling system that had never worked...
properly, saving the government a large amount of money. Honeywell Corporation trained him in the use of computers so that he could operate and maintain the system. The prison had an excellent machine shop which allowed him to continue working with his FIVS devices. He designed small FIVS for the prison lawn mowers and produced numerous FIVS GEN II’s, with the collaboration of the warden of facilities, that were secretly distributed outside.

Al made many useful contacts, one of whom helped him secure US Patent 5,782,225, awarded July 21, 1998, for the FIVS Gen II. He designed a new FIVS, the “Gen III”, which did not violate any Federal regulations, and he put together a plan to manufacture and distribute the Gen III. And then one day he was out, free for real in 1997. Sentenced to 30 years without parole, he was suddenly released after ten years with five years parole. The Federal appeals court had finally ruled that his possession of two shotguns was legal and that it had no jurisdiction over the matter in the first place. Several years later, because he was curious, he asked a police officer friend to do a background check on him. No record of his conviction and incarceration in Allenwood was found. The stain of systemic corruption had been discretely removed.

He didn’t look back and went to work to develop a prototype Gen III device, applied for his new patent, and implement the strategy he had dreamed up in prison. He was no longer politically naive, no longer the blindly patriotic American he’d once been. He did not believe it would be possible to build the Gen III in the home of the brave and the land of the free, so he made arrangements to manufacture parts in the Ukraine, a former satellite of the defunct Soviet Union. He would then assemble the devices in Mexico. He had developed a global perspective in Allenwood. His network of supporters and investors was now called: “FIVS Gen III International” and he set up a website which was generating 70,000 hits a month from all over the world. He also offered the complete blue prints for manufacturing the earlier FIVS Gen II as a free download from his site so that anyone who wanted to could build their own. He thought this might distract the Feds and tie up their manpower as he implemented the Gen III strategy.

By 2002, the delivery date for the first beta testing group was set. The parts were shipped from the Ukraine to Mexico where they were assembled. It was necessary for Al to travel South of the border to oversee the operation. He made the punishing drive from Massachusetts to Mexico several times in his FIVS equipped Pontiac Catalina and it functioned flawlessly, delivering more than 70 mpg with its 400 cubic inch engine. His friends warned him not to drive alone, but he made the last trip by himself and on the return leg of the journey, he noticed an 18-wheel truck following him. The intentions of this truck were soon obvious when it overtook him and forced him off the road. Al anticipated the manoeuvre, however, and was able keep control of the Pontiac. He breathed a sigh of relief and continued on, believing he’d outwitted them once again. He made it all the way to Massachusetts and was nearly home again before the truck found him a second time and caught him unawares. The Pontiac rolled over several times, but landed upright. The driver’s side door was crushed and the roof caved in, but the car still ran and Al was able to drive it home without further incident in spite of his injuries. He had to be cut out of the car with a torch. He had several broken ribs and a punctured lung and was immediately rushed to hospital.

The Gen III’s for the first group of licensees were shipped from Mexico on time, however, by means of several different shippers. Some devices for US licensees were shipped via United Parcel Service. A total of 137 units were shipped around the world. Only those that went UPS in the continental US and Canada, a total of 44 units, did not arrive at their destinations. Every shipped item has a tracking number, of course, and when Al inquired about the missing 44 units and provided the tracking numbers he’d been given, he was informed the numbers he had did not exist.

The attempt to turn him into road kill was not completely unexpected, but Al was shaken just the same. He maintained his bravado, however, while friends and sympathisers reacted more predictably. When the intent of the suppression escalated from malicious to deadly, most began to slip quietly away and it was ‘High Noon’ again. Another complicating and aggravating factor was the appearance of a discussion group at the Yahoo website called “Get 113 to 138 mpg NOT”. Yahoo Group was established by an individual calling himself “David Rodale”. He was not a Gen III licensee. He (or she) was a freelance public servant dedicated to helping those called “Get 113 to 138 mpg NOT”. This Yahoo Group was established by an individual calling himself “David Rodale”. He was not a Gen III licensee. He (or she) was a freelance public servant dedicated to helping those who had been ripped off by the promoter of impossibilities, the unscrupulous scoundrel, Allen Caggiano.

He provided advice and counsel to those disappointed licensees who had not received their Gen III devices. He assured them that they could find justice in the courts. Al spent much time and energy fighting back against this defamation.

Al was fully recovered from his “accident” by this time and had repaired the Pontiac. He was feeling every day of his 59 years, but he soldiered on with a grim determination towards whatever final confrontation awaited him. When a careful, bloodless voice on the phone proposed a compromise one day, he felt ready to bargain. His website was experiencing growing traffic. The voice told him that if he would just remove the Gen III from his site he would be left alone. It felt like a small victory, but he didn’t relish the idea of backing down. If Gary Cooper had received such an offer in High Noon, he would have taken it.
He knew a bargain with the devil could never work in his favour, but he had to catch his breath, so he played along and removed the Gen III from his web site. It was a strategic retreat. If they would leave him alone, the beta testing of units already out there could go forward. The program was smaller than he had originally intended, but it was a start and if he could relax and gather his data, then he might ultimately win the game. However, a careful examination of the FIVS in his Pontiac one afternoon made his heart jump into his throat. He found a tiny hairline crack in the aluminium/titanium alloy canister. This Gen III unit had many thousands of miles on it. It presaged a potential disaster and he immediately notified all the licensees of the problem and recalled the units. He worked feverishly and discovered that he didn’t have to redesign the canister. A simple alteration appeared to be the solution.

Al was then told that he required immediate surgical treatment. After the fact, this prognosis was shown to be false. While the surgery was underway, Al suffered a stroke. His heart stopped and he was technically dead on the operating table. In addition, the surgeon had damaged nerves in his spinal column. It was not his time to go, however, and he revivified, but then lay in a coma for 30 days. When he finally came around in his hospital room, feeling more dead than alive, he was astonished to discover that he could not move his legs. It is possible, that Al’s medical experience was not accidental.

On the local TV noon news on a sunny day in the spring of 2003 he watched a dramatic live report of a SWAT team in action. They were closing in around a familiar looking building. He thought to himself: “Hey! That’s looks like my condo! Hey! That IS my condo!”. He watched the police seizing his yellow Pontiac in the parking lot as the Channel 7 reporter explained that Chelmsford, Massachusetts, resident, Allen Caggiano, had defrauded investors in a fuel saver scam and then fled the country. He didn’t see how that could be true since he was in the Intensive Care ward of the local hospital, not 20 miles away.

Meanwhile “David Rodale” at Yahoo Group “Get 113to138mpgNOT” had found 20 disappointed Gen III licensees and was patienting building consensus for legal action at the state level in Massachusetts. It wasn’t easy to turn disappointment into outrage and a desire for revenge. In spite of the resources available to the Big Boys, they hadn’t been able to otherwise identify most of the testing program licensees. Al returned home to his condo to find his Pontiac with the repaired Gen III’s in the trunk gone from its parking space. His premises had been ransacked, his computer hard drives removed. With his mind foggy from pain killers, Al tried to concentrate on getting used to a wheelchair. Nurses from the Visiting Nurses Association were with him around the clock. Gradually he stopped using the pain killers. He began to notice sensation returning to his legs.

Even as he felt himself improving, his diabetic condition inexplicably worsened. Twice he was rushed to the hospital in a comatose state. The third time this happened, a nurse checked his pill box and discovered insulin pills that should not have been there. He was now taking insulin through injection, but the old insulin pills were still in the medicine cabinet and had been put in his pill box with his other medications. The result was insulin shock. The nurse, Michele, who had done this, not once, but three times, did not again appear for her shift. Al tried to reach her to ask for an apology for her mistakes, but she had vanished. The Visiting Nurses Association denied having any record of her employment.

“David Rodale” was having success convincing the disappointed licensees to file suit, and with the newly acquired information about the FIVS Gen III International operations taken during the SWAT assault, a postal inspector launched a preliminary inquiry into the feasibility of action at the federal level for mail fraud. Rodale was confident that the threat to society posed by Allen Caggiano was now neutralised. He announced to the Yahoo Group members that he’d done his best and there was nothing more to do. He would leave the Yahoo Group in place for a while, but he planned to take it down in a couple of months. He was sorry that so many people had been taken in, and he hoped they’d be less gullible in the future. He was glad he could help.

That summer, the judge dismissed the charges against Al in the Massachusetts court. His lawyer petitioned for the return of his property, the Pontiac the local police had seized a year earlier. He was told it had been taken to Washington, DC, and was being examined to determine if it violated any Federal regulations. A grand jury in DC was convened to investigate the Federal charges of mail fraud, but it failed to return an indictment. The licensees who had paid their money and signed their licensing agreements had agreed to assume the risks of a testing program and most of them did understand that part of the risk involved the historical efforts of the oil/auto cartel to suppress new technology that could affect their profitability or control over the markets which they ruthlessly dominate.

Through his attorney, Al received an offer for exclusive rights to the Gen III. The amount of money involved beggars belief, and suffice it to say that Al again refused, as he had done in the early 80’s when an offer was made for the Gen II device. The Big Boys have never attempted to prosecute him for the violation of Federal Emission Control regulations. He is clearly guilty on this score so far as the Gen II is concerned. To do so would result in the exposure of the fraud they are perpetratong on the public. Their technology is obsolete. As Al has pointed out on his website, they do not want a reduction in the demand for oil. This would mean a reduction in oil company profits. If the consumer used half or less of the oil now being used, government tax revenues would be
reduced accordingly. If the Gen III were to become available the public interest in fuel economy and clean air would be served and Allen Caggiano would become rich beyond wild imaginings, but the oil/energy cartel and its partner in government would suffer. Therefore, the Big Boys will continue to do all that they can to stop Al and his FIVS and to keep the public ignorant of any technology they do not themselves control. If they don’t control it, and if you don’t buy it from them, then it doesn’t work, or it’s a fraud.

The “FIVS Gen III International” enterprise has been successfully suppressed. Al’s fight to manufacture and distribute his invention and enjoy the great wealth it would have given him is over. The Big Boys have broken his bank, and his health. The struggle has nearly destroyed him. The money would have been nice, but it never was the money that kept him going. He is now donating his work of a life time to the American people. The Big Boys can harass, intimidate, and attempt to kill one man and his American Dream, but can they do the same to many thousands of Americans and others around the world? Al now gives away his “FIVS Gen III” plans free.

Al will allow his patent application for the Gen III to expire. He can no longer afford the large investment required for a patent here and in other countries. His main concern now is to prevent the FIVS from being patented by anyone and to keep the device “open source”, so to speak, so that it cannot come under the control of the Big Boys and will remain freely available to the public. Though Al will not profit from his invention through licensing fees or royalties, there is considerable satisfaction for him in knowing that the Big Boys have not and will not ultimately win this game and destroy the work of a lifetime.


Fuel Vapouriser Bubbler.
There is one technique originally from www.alternativefuelsnow.com and reproduced here by kind permission, which appears to be effective in spite of the additives. The method is very much like the technique used by Roger Maynard for adding moisture to the incoming air as described above. The difference is that instead of using water in the container, petrol is used. Improved performance of up to 60% has been achieved and experiments are continuing. The general arrangement is like this:
You will notice that the fuel level inside the container is kept fairly low in order to allow considerable space to contain the bubbles, allowing them to pop and not be drawn into the air tube which feed the engine.

**Vortex Fuel Reforming.**
This is a very important technology which has been around for more than a hundred years. The objective is to increase mpg not just by the vaporisation of the fuel but also by "cracking" the water / fuel mixture into smaller molecules before being fed into the engine. This is more advanced than the fuel ‘conversion-to-vapour’ technique of the high-mpg carburettors. To get a better understanding of this, you can try a Google search for "fuel reformer" or "steam reforming" which will provide additional information which may help you to understand the basic principles.

The fuel-reforming method can be highly effective and its effectiveness has been proven beyond all doubt with designs from Cal-Tech, Philips Petroleum, Nissan Motors, NASA, universities and other very serious contributors. Some years ago Cal-Tech spent millions proving that on board fuel reformers would give us all better fuel economy and cleaner air. They did long-term testing on buses and cars to provide proof. They teamed up with the very large auto-parts supplier Arvin Meritor to put them in production vehicles. Then "One Equity Partners" bought out Arvin Meritor's division that did all the final work to get fuel reformers in all our vehicles. They created a new company, EMCON Technologies, and that company dropped the fuel reformer from their product line, not because it did not work but because it did work.

There are various techniques for achieving this process. One which is easy to understand is shown here:

Here, the standard exhaust pipe is given a kink to move it clear of its normal run in order to allow an extra straight pipe of smaller diameter to be positioned inside it so that the hot exhaust gases are used to heat the incoming fuel
flow. This is a useful energy gain as it uses some of the waste heat, raising the overall efficiency of the engine very considerably.

This extra fuel-flow pipe has a solid magnetised ferromagnetic metal rod mounted inside it, blocking off most of the pipe area. This change in available flow area causes the fuel flow inside the pipe to speed up, and as well as that, it causes the flow to spiral around the rod in a vortex flow:

![Flow direction diagram]

However, the magnetism of the solid rod, causes a most unusual effect and instead of the helical gas flow being as shown above, a highly uneven flow pattern is created. This causes the fuel flow to bunch up in the centre of the tube, generating a hot spot which creates quite unexpected results:

![Flow pattern diagram]

The really incredible result of this peculiar effect is that the fuel mix exiting from the tube, contains chemical components which did not enter the tube - impossible according to present day physics. This goes to demonstrate once again, that we really don’t yet understand the world in which we live.

The fuel mix for use in this system is best provided by two tiny carburettors, one feeding a fine mist of water droplets and the other a fine mist of fuel droplets. These are fed directly into the intake of the fuel reformatter tube. These carburettors are of the miniature type used for radio control model aircraft and their venturi intakes are blanked off with a plate with a small hole in it. Air is not fed into the reforming tube – after all, this is a fuel reforming system. The air is mixed in with the reformatted fuel after it exits from the reformatter, as shown below. Some of the hot exhaust gas is fed into both of the carburettors in order to help prepare the mixture for the reformattting process. The blanking plates on the carburettors are there in order to reduce the amount of the exhaust gas being drawn in with the fuel:

![Fuel mix diagram]

The use of carburettors is important since using a bubbler as suggested in the free plans on the internet, creates problems as the lighter fractions of the fuel get taken first which is exactly what we don’t want to happen. The
Carburettors have the massive advantage that they feed all fractions of the fuel together and so the remaining fuel is always in the correct proportions.

The ratio of water to fuel (typically gasoline or diesel) can be adjusted over a very wide range, with some people using 90% water. Actually, there have been claims of running on 100% water, using multiple reactors in parallel with energy being drawn either from transmutation of elements or perhaps spin interactions with the local environment. Jean Chambrin's patent gives details of running only on water.

There are several forums where members are researching and using various designs of fuel reformers, with the GEET designs being popular. The http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/VortexHeatExchanger/ forum is one such research forum and one of the files there lists 214 different patents for these devices. There are several different types of reformer. Another forum is http://alternativefuelsnow.com/vehicles/geetsystem. Also, check out http://www.teslatech.info/ttstore/articles/geet/geet.htm.

Almost any hydrocarbon fuel can be used - vegetable oil, old motor oil, etc. the normal fuels are the most popular. A forum member named 'bryishere' says in a YouTube video comment: "Everyone should really try this. It WORKS. I have spent a lot of time on this device. It's very simple. Just follow the plans and experiment as much as you can. Currently I am using 90% water and 10% crude oil/waste oil on a 1-ton, 1969 Chevy truck ....... Get out in your shop !!!!!"

These devices are often used on stationary generators. These devices have been popular in France for some years now. Jean Chambrin found that the gases needed to swirl inside his reactor in the same direction that the crank was turning.

There is a massive 175 Mb file called 'FuelReformerTechnology.zip' which you can search for and download from the internet if you are very enthusiastic. That file contains the contents of more than 220 patents and applications. These patents are also listed in the ‘Files’ section of the Yahoo VortexHeatExchanger forum mentioned above.

In February 2015, Paul Pantone said: “The GEET Fuel Processor (GFP) is an on-board compact plasma fuel refinery that renders just about any liquid into usable and highly volatile fuel by cultivating electro-magnetic and other energy fields. And, YES! We believe it is healthy for you and your engine too! The GFP-retrofitted engine requires only a fraction of the fuel, as the non-GFP-retrofitted engine, to pull the same load for the same duration of time. The exhaust from GFP-retrofitted engines reduces pollution, and in some cases has added oxygen to the environment. The GFP works with any equipment that uses fuel. For information about GEET classes, Contact paul.pantone (at)yahoo (dot) com or visit www.geetinternational.com"

The Weird Nature of Water and Advanced Electrolysis.
This chapter has been dealing with systems for enhancing vehicle operation with the use of water, so it seems appropriate to finish it with a brief note on water itself. To a casual glance, it appears that we know all about water. It's composition is H2O and when it breaks down, we get two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom - right? Well maybe, and maybe not.

The longer you spend looking at systems which use water, the more you get to realise that water is by no means as simple as you might initially think. There is a much maligned branch of alternative medicine called “Homeopathy” which is based on giving patients very dilute water-based solutions various chemicals. Sceptical investigators have run professional-quality tests intended to show that homeopathy is fraudulent and has no medical benefits whatsoever. Unfortunately, the tests did not work out the way that the investigators wanted. The tests showed that there actually was some benefit from the treatments being examined, and unfortunately, because a placebo control group was being used, the placebo effect was definitely not the cause of the effects recorded during the trials.

Determined not to just accept the results which went against their expectations, the testers started testing ever more dilute samples on the patients. They eventually got down to the level where there no longer remained a single atom of the chemical in the liquid being fed to the patients, but to their consternation, the medical effect remained. They tried water which had never had the chemical in it, and there was no medical effect. They returned to the apparently “pure” and definitely chemical-free water and the medical effect was seen again, in spite of the fact that there was not even one atom of the chemical remaining in the water.

This showed clearly that the water was different after having had the chemical in it, even when no chemical remained. They were forced into the opinion that water has “memory”. That, of course, is a conclusion based on the facts which are hard to explain. You may wish to deduce something else from those facts, and that is entirely up to you - just be aware of the facts.
Studies carried out by Mr Masaru Emoto here: http://www.vidaplena.net/Videos_VP/Videos_A-B/Agua.htm have shown that the thoughts of ordinary members of the public can alter the structure of water without there being any actual physical contact with the water, and many other very important effects. If the water receives positive thoughts and is then frozen, the resulting crystal structure will be like this:

![Positive Thoughts Crystal Structure](image1)

While on the other hand, if negative thoughts are aimed at the water, whether just by looking at it and thinking, or by writing those thoughts down on paper, the resulting crystal shape is quite different when the water is frozen, as shown here:

![Negative Thoughts Crystal Structure](image2)

It is not all that startling if you consider that the quantum mechanics researchers have been saying for a long time that experiments can be affected by the observer. People who build Joe Cells which operate through environmental energy focused by specially treated and structured pure water, record the fact that certain people can affect a Joe Cell in a negative way from a distance of fifty yards (or metres) away.

Personally, I am quite sure that we do not understand the fundamental nature of our environment and that we have very little idea of how we as individuals impact on our surroundings.

There is an extremely honest and reputable researcher called George Wiseman who operates through his company Eagle-Research (http://www.eagle-research.com/). George is very experienced in producing “Brown’s Gas” and he publishes excellent instruction books on the subject. The really interesting thing is that Brown’s Gas is produced from water and that gas has the most remarkable properties which are not readily explained by our present day “conventional” science. When Brown’s Gas is used as the gas to power a cutting torch (like an oxy-acetylene torch) the resulting flame is nearly colourless and can be waved across a bare hand without any ill effects - the hand is not burnt. But when applied to a fire brick which is intended to resist high temperatures, it burns a neat hole through it. It will vaporise a tungsten rod which normally takes 6,000°C to do that, which indicates that the flame temperature depends on what it touches (!).

It can also weld aluminium to aluminium without the need for an inert gas. It will weld aluminium to brass and it can weld a steel rod to an ordinary building brick. It can fuse glass to a building brick. This is not “normal” for a chemical combustion reaction, showing that Brown’s Gas is not a “normal” chemical substance. As Brown’s Gas comes from water, does that perhaps suggest that water is not a “normal” chemical substance? I will leave you to make up your own mind about that, perhaps helped by the following, most enlightening presentation by Moray B. King.

**A Presentation by Moray B. King**

Moray King has produced a substantial document covering many aspects of free-energy with
special emphasis on the more unusual systems and some of the difficult-to-explain things which people have discovered. As Moray's presentation has 166 pages containing many pointers to video clips and specialist web sites, this is just a brief summary of his pdf document which can be seen in full here: http://www.free-energy-info.com/MorayKing.pdf and which has the uncommon feature of an icon at the top left hand corner of each page, and if you click on that icon, then additional comments can be seen. He starts with:

Steve Ryan, a man living in Auckland, New Zealand, who was shown running a motorcycle on modified water, shown on a cynical TV video presentation at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=POJQKg9CRJe where the complete ignorance of the presenters is demonstrated yet again. Steve has disappeared from public view for a very long time now. However, Moray raises the most relevant question: “How can water store enough energy to make it appear to be a fuel?” The first step in answering this question is to realise that causing cavitation (tiny stress bubbles) in the water inside an electrolyser, produces excess energy, and so, circulating the water inside an electrolyser while causing cavitation in the water is a major step forward, and one which seems to indicate that the majority of the energy in HHO gas does not actually come from the hydrogen. Instead, zero-point energy gets trapped in the water when the turbulence caused by the circulation, charges the water electrostatically, raising its energy content as it circulates repeatedly through the electrolyser.

Mark LeClair, the founder of the NanoSpire Corporation (https://nanospireinc.com/), discovered a microscopic crystalline form of water which has an extraordinary energy density. This crystalline form of water is similar to the microscopic plasmoids discovered by Ken Shoulders and the larger plasmoids discovered by Adamenko’s team at the proton-21 laboratory in the Ukraine. When a plasmoid strikes any element, the result is transmutation of that element. The excessive energy and most unusual properties of Brown’s Gas come from charged water gas clusters which are stored in a stable ring-form of the microscopic water crystals. This feature completely by-passes the standard electrolysis of water as examined by the great Michael Faraday where more energy is needed to split water than can be regained when the resulting gas mixture is burned. This is an entirely different process as explained at http://peswiki.com/index.php/Video:Water_as_Fuel_%28via_ZPE%29 in considerable detail on Sterling Allan’s PESWiki web site, and it shows why water can indeed act as a fuel. If you search for “water fuel” on YouTube, more than 41,000 videos can be found, most of which are demonstrating electrolysers, which shows that there is a growing awareness of the potential of water as a fuel. There are many commercial electrolysers available.

Brown’s Gas (HHO) has most unusual properties as demonstrated by Denny Klein’s use of it in a welding torch as seen here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6Rb_rDkwGnU and Denny has also run his car with water appearing to be the only fuel – the power comes from the zero-point energy field but that energy is transported by the water. Surprisingly, nearly everyone who is working with, or experimenting on the gas produced by electrolysis, believes that the resulting energy comes from the hydrogen in the gas mix, while the reality is that this is not actually the case. Brown’s Gas has a cool flame of just 130 degrees Fahrenheit (water boils at 212 degrees Fahrenheit), and yet that same flame can vaporise tungsten which requires more than 10,000 degrees Fahrenheit and burning Hydrogen will never, ever, reach that temperature. Brown’s Gas can also dramatically reduce radioactivity in radioactive materials and burning hydrogen can’t do that. Also, when Brown’s Gas is analysed in a high-tech laboratory, very little hydrogen is found and instead there are gaseous water clusters with excess electrons.

These charged water gas clusters have the same strange energetic effects that the plasma-charged have and that appears to be a microscopic form of ball lightning, studied extensively by Ken Shoulders who named them “Exotic Vacuum Objects” or ‘EVO’ when he became convinced that their excess energy was being drawn in from the zero-point energy field of ‘the vacuum’. These water gas clusters have a self-organised grouping of matter, plasma and zero-point energy. The typical grouping caused by this turbulent plasma is a vortex ring called a plasmoid (which has often been proposed as a model for ball lightning):

In a plasmoid, the electrons and ions spiral around the vortex ring and the force-free vortex creates a natural
stability which sustains the plasmoid shape. These charge clusters can be produced quite easily as shown by Ken Shoulders in his US Patent 5,018,180 of 1991 where he shows that an abrupt electric discharge from a capacitor through a sharp pointed electrode on to a dielectric surface creates a charge cluster which travels on the surface of the dielectric to the anode. It appears to be a micron-sized form of ball lightning and it can punch a hole through the ‘witness’ plate, leaving a crater made by a high-energy event. The patent is well written and describes many possible applications of his discovery.

The Exotic Vacuum Object formed by this process is believed to contain 100,000,000,000 electrons plus some 100,000 ions, giving it a charge-to-mass ratio similar to an electron and a really interesting fact is that it contains more energy than the energy which was stored in the capacitor which created it. These charge clusters adhere to dielectrics and they can remain for a long time. Many of them can clump together into a formation like a necklace. They can create holes through high melting-point ceramics such as aluminium oxide. Ken believes that the creation of these holes in ceramics is caused by the disruption of the electrons in the ceramic and so the hole ‘melted’ through the ceramic is not actually produced by heat. He has performed experiments which demonstrate the transmutation of one element into another and others which show radioactive materials being converted into benign elements.

Water gas clusters have the same characteristics as Ken’s Exotic Vacuum Objects and they cause the most unexpected effects of using Brown’s Gas where the cool flame (266 degrees F) does not boil water (which needs 212 degrees F to boil) http://www.watertorch.com/, and yet, that same flame can vapourise Tungsten which requires 10,031 degrees F, mind you, the Brown’s Gas flame does not vapourise Tungsten by heating it above 10,000 degrees Fahrenheit but instead, does it by disrupting the bonding of the molecules in the metal. Here are some comparisons:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tungsten</th>
<th>Melt</th>
<th>6192 F</th>
<th>3422 C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vaporise</td>
<td>10031 F</td>
<td>5555 C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browns Gas</td>
<td>265 F</td>
<td>130 C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Torches</th>
<th>Melt</th>
<th>5972 F</th>
<th>3300 C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acetylene</td>
<td>7232 F</td>
<td>4000 C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen arc</td>
<td>8477 F</td>
<td>4525 C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dicyanacetylene</td>
<td>9009 F</td>
<td>4967 C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This heating can’t possibly come from burning hydrogen. Some tests produce interesting results. For example, fill a balloon with the gas produced by electrolysis and leave the balloon sealed for some time. The tiny hydrogen atoms and molecules can, and do, escape through the material of the balloon, causing it to fall to the ground. But, the contents remaining in the balloon still produces a burning flame when pushed out through a small tube and lit. A similar experiment is to fill a paper bag with the gas. Seal the bag and leave it for twelve hours to allow the hydrogen to escape. What remains in the bag is a gas which is heavier than air and which can be ignited.

George Wiseman (http://www.eagle-research.com/) is a leading Brown’s Gas researcher who has found that brown’s Gas burns downwards in an imploding ring. In 2008, Chris Eckman measured the characteristics of Brown’s Gas at Idaho State University. The measurements showed that there was very little hydrogen (monatomic or diatomic) present. Instead, the gas was found to be a form of water with excess electrons, effectively, a gas which was neither water vapour nor steam. When ignited, the flame temperature was found to be 266 F. or 130 C. (Extraordinary Technology, vol 2(6), pp 15-25, 2008).

When using his acrylic electrolyzers, George Wiseman has made an observation which he says is never mentioned in any textbook describing electrolysis:
Between the electrolysis electrode plates which have a wide spacing of more than 10 mm, three sets of bubbles are produced. Hydrogen is produced on the negative electrode plate. Oxygen is produced on the positive electrode plate. But, in the middle of the gap between those electrode plates a third set of bubbles are generated. Many researchers believe that these additional bubbles form the most energetic component of the gas – the charged water gas clusters. Bob Boyce has made a similar observation, noting that when electrolysis first starts, there are two jets which start from the plates and collide in between the plates where the middle bubbles are formed.

Ted Stuart and Rob Gourley (http://www.wateriontechnologies.com/) have not only made the same observation, but have developed a process and applied for a patent where they intentionally produce and harvest just the middle set of bubbles:
Suartt and Gourley realised that the dominant electrolyser gas was not Hydrogen, and claiming that they are the first to discover this, named the gas after themselves as “SG Gas”. Their extraction process involves widely separated electrode plates and a method of extracting the gas bubbles produced in the middle region between those two plates and excluding the hydrogen and the oxygen produced. They have investigated the properties of water infused with the gas and claim that it has health benefits. They state that Rhodes Gas and Brown’s Gas are both “dirty cocktails” which include H₂ or O₂.

The anomalies of Brown’s Gas are similar to those of plasma charge clusters (Ken Shoulders’ EVOs). It adheres to matter and is electrically polarised. It gives an electric shock if it implodes to form water again. The isolated gas tends to implode instead of explode in piston experiments. However, if air is added to the mixture, the air is heated and that can cause overall expansion. In a welding torch it has a cool flame but it can vapourise tungsten. The flame cuts cleanly through solid, high melting-point materials including wood and ceramics, can weld dissimilar metals together and can even weld steel to clay brick. The claims of neutralising radioactive materials as well as the transmutation of elements are extraordinary. Todd Knudston comments on these properties at [http://www.amasci.com/freenrg/HHO.html](http://www.amasci.com/freenrg/HHO.html). At the 2011 Tesla Conference, Vernon Roth announced that he has observed element transmutation in his electrolysis cell. Details of this are given on Sterling Allan’s web page at [http://peswiki.com/index.php/OS:Vernon_Roth%27s_Alchemical_Hydrogen](http://peswiki.com/index.php/OS:Vernon_Roth%27s_Alchemical_Hydrogen).

Mark LeClair can explain how water cavitation creates microscopic craters in metallic surfaces, carves trenches in high melting-point ceramics, transmutes elements, and produces excess energy. Cavitation bubbles have been studied and they have been shown to produce unexpected excess energy. Sonoluminescence occurs when water mixed with an inert gas such as argon or xenon, is excited by ultrasonic waves. A blue light is emitted as each bubble collapses suddenly and symmetrically. If that blue light were produced by a heating effect, then the bluish spectrum would indicate temperatures of over 10,000 degrees Kelvin, which caused many scientists to suggest that it might be used for hot fusion. Nobel laureate, Julian Schwinger, suggested instead that the light is caused by the zero-point energy. Here, the abrupt scalar compression of the bubble walls activates a Zero-Point Energy coherence, emitting the blue light at a far lower temperature ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sonoluminescence](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sonoluminescence)). Mark LeClair has four patents on controlled cavitation (typically for the precision cutting of materials): US 6,932,914, US 6,960,307, US 7,297,288 and US 7,517,430.
Cavitation bubbles form in the low-pressure region behind any rapidly moving surface in water. Ship's screws are notorious for making cavitation bubbles and being damaged by them:

**Cavitation Erosion**

However, the most useful application of cavitation is inside an electrolyser. Archie Blue raised the effectiveness of his electrolyser by blowing air upwards through the electrolyte. The technique can be applied to many different electrolyser designs. The electrode plates should have a rough clean surface with a tiny inter-plate gap of less than one millimetre. A gap that small allows the electrolysis gas to cause cavitation. The electrical stimulation can use pulsed DC waveforms but with minimal current and electrolyte (remember that we are not trying to make hydrogen). Circulating the water rapidly can charge it electrostatically and possibly even enough to allow the removal of the external DC pulsing. There are many ways to produce cavitation in water: make electrolysis gas in narrow gaps, blow air through the electrolyser, create a Venturi vacuum, vibrate the water by mechanical, acoustical or ultrasonic means, oscillate an electric field via a toroidal coil or via pulsed waveforms. Here, charged or polarised clusters or bubbles will oscillate with the field causing turbulence and cavitation.

When a cavitation bubble collapses near a hole or irregularity, it forms a torus and all of the energy of the collapsing bubble gets concentrated into a re-entrant jet. The extreme pressure in the jet creates a new solid-state of water, a water crystal with a plasma bow shock wave which draws in Zero-Point Energy. If they collide, water crystals can form small rings, trapping the energy in a meta-stable torus form. This is the seed of the charge water gas cluster. When ignited, the ring breaks to re-launch the LeClair effect water crystal or alternatively, becomes a plasmoid Exotic Vacuum Object, either of which have excess energy.

Rapidly circulating water through an electrolyser causes numeric energetic effects. It charges the water by electrostatic rubbing, it causes turbulence and cavitation as it flows through the tight rough gaps, it can vibrate the plates producing reed cavitation and best of all, cycling the water repeatedly through the electrolyser integrates it's energy content, producing an ever increasing energy level. With water which is sufficiently charged, spraying it as a mist into the carburettor of an engine can give the illusion that water is a fuel.

This is just a brief summary of part of the contents of Moray King's presentation pdf document which you can read in full here: [http://www.free-energy-info.com/MorayKing.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/MorayKing.pdf). An interesting, seemingly directly related video is: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i-T7tCMUDXU&feature=youtu.be](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i-T7tCMUDXU&feature=youtu.be). Considering what Moray King has described, we need to consider more carefully the patented electrolyser designs of Charles Garrett and Archie Blue. First, however, having discovered and considered charged water clusters we need to consider the patent application of 2010 from Ted and Rob:

**Ted Suratt and Robinson Gourley**

Ted Suratt and Robinson Gourley have developed a new gas and have done very wide ranging and extensive testing with some of those tests extending over a period of two years. They describe a gas derived from water which they call SG gas (presumably from Suratt/Gourley) and that gas has remarkable properties, being capable of dissolving in liquids such as water and various fuels. It can also soak into and enhance solids such as wood chips. It can be used as a fuel but when burnt it only reaches a temperature less than 300 degrees Fahrenheit but has remarkable properties including the melting of metals with far higher melting points. That challenges present day concepts of what “melting” actually means. The gas can be compressed to 1000 pounds per square inch an it maintains its properties long term even when compressed. Very, very little power is needed to produce the gas, so their work looks like a step forwards towards a new technology. In my opinion, the infused water
produced by this process is likely to be what was used by Steve Ryan of New Zealand when he demonstrated running his motorcycle on “treated” water. Here is most of their patent:

**Method for Making a Gas from an Aqueous Fluid, Product of the Method, and Apparatus Therefor**

**Abstract:**
A method for producing a purified, stable, compressible gas from an aqueous fluid. The gas is suitable for a variety of uses and may also be infused into water which itself is useful for a variety of purposes.

**Description:**

**TECHNICAL FIELD**
This invention relates to the generation of a purified, stable gas from an aqueous fluid, in which the gas may be stored under pressure and uses for the gas. Electrolysis of water is known to produce hydrogen gas (H₂) at the cathode and oxygen gas (O₂) at the anode. Due to the high heat of the chambers, water vapour also resulted from this process. If the hydrogen gas and oxygen gas were not effectively separated, such methods result in an impure gaseous mix which could not be effectively compressed or stored under pressure for industrial applications in a single container, and is deemed explosive and dangerous. Thus, it remained desirable to develop a method by which a useful, stable, purified, compressible single gas could be formed from water or an aqueous fluid.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

![Fig. 1](image)

Fig. 1 illustrates a schematic of a preferred reaction chamber for the invention.
Fig. 2 illustrates the inventor's conception of the nature of the gas as formed from the process disclosed here.

Fig. 3 illustrates the inventor's conception of the nature of the gas as formed from the process disclosed here.
Fig. 4 illustrates graphs showing the absorption of Vitamin C by cells treated with SG Gas-infused Water and control. Fig. 4A shows the effect on basolateral cells and Fig. 4B on apical cells.
Fig. 5 illustrates properties of SG Gas-infused water.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION
A method for generating a gas having desirable properties is herein disclosed. In addition, methods for purifying the gas is disclosed. The applicants refer to this gas as “SG Gas”.

As the first step of the method, an aqueous fluid is provided to a reaction zone. While various aqueous fluids, such as distilled water, tap water, or water taken from a river, stream, lake or the like may be used to generate electrical current at satisfactory levels, it is preferred to use an electrolyte solution for the aqueous fluid of standardised composition so that the conditions of the method can be better standardised for maximum yield of the gas.

The aqueous fluid is provided to a reaction zone which is preferably closed off so as to allow the reaction to occur under pressure. An alkali salt dissolved in distilled water is preferred as an electrolyte. Preferred alkali salts are potassium hydroxide, lithium hydroxide and sodium hydroxide. The specific gravity of the alkali salt in the solution is above 1.0. Most preferably, potassium hydroxide is employed at a specific gravity from at least above 1.0 up to about 1.2. If another electrolyte is chosen a mole ratio must be calculated for that substance so that the maximum mole ratio represented by the specific gravity of 1.2 provided for potassium hydroxide will not be exceeded.

These specific gravity values are as determined by a refractometer which provides readings that are temperature compensated. Most preferably, the electrolyte employed is potassium hydroxide (in powder form) dissolved in distilled water at a concentration sufficient to form a solution having up to 1.2 specific gravity. A suitable refractometer is the Westover Model RHA-100, portable refractometer.

Aqueous fluid is contained in a receptacle which can be made out of a variety of materials including sheet steel, stainless steel, CV-PVC and epoxy resin fibreglass. The apparatus and internal devices need to be heat resistant and waterproof. The reaction zone is comprised of the aqueous fluid.

The aqueous fluid is placed in a reaction zone in the method of the invention. Overall, the method employs creation of a magnetic field in the aqueous fluid and the periodic collapse of the magnetic field under conditions...
which do not provoke electrolysis of the aqueous fluid. Under these conditions, a single gas is generated and collected. This gas has desirable properties and is useful for various applications. In a first step of the method, a magnetic field is applied to the reaction zone. Preferably, the magnetic field is applied by providing a source of electric power to the reaction zone. An electric current in the reaction zone provides a magnetic field.

In a preferred embodiment, two metallic end plates having an inside surface and an outside surface, and having the capacity to conduct an electrical current are used in the reaction zone in an opposing configuration. The inside of each end plate is partially submerged in the electrolyte solution. The metallic plates are preferably comprised of nickel alloy or stainless steel, but any metal can be used so long as such metal has the capacity to conduct an electric current and is preferably resistant to erosion by alkali solutions.

One of the metallic plates serves as a cathode and the other as an anode. The cathode and anode should be separated by a sufficient distance so that a magnetic field forms when current is applied to the reaction zone. The distance between the plates must be greater than one inch (25 mm) in the method of the invention and is preferably eight to sixteen inches (200 to 400 mm) apart. This distance is independent of the volume of the aqueous fluid employed or size of the reaction zone.

There is a relationship between the concentration of electrolyte solution and the amperage which will exist in the aqueous fluid upon application of current. The higher the specific gravity, the greater the amperage which will result. This will also affect the strength of the magnetic field, and increase the temperature of the solution.

Electrolysis (used industrially to produce hydrogen gas via the reaction $2\text{H}_2\text{O}(l)\rightarrow 2\text{H}_2(g)+\text{O}_2(g)$) which is not desired in the method of the invention, could occur if the current is too high. The current may be too high if the specific gravity of the electrolyte exceeds the equivalent of 1.2 for potassium hydroxide.

In order for the magnetic field to be applied to the reaction zone, a power source (e.g., 110 volts DC) is applied respectively to the anode and to the cathode. An appropriate power source that may be used in the method of the invention is 110 volt alternating current which has been converted to direct current using a rectifying process (e.g., a diode bridge). Any standard power or voltage source may be used as long as it is direct current. When an electric current is applied to the reaction zone, a magnetic field is created in the reaction zone, which periodically collapses and causes the conversion of the water in the aqueous fluid into gas. Cyclic pulsation will be present in current even after alternating current is converted to direct current (for example a 120 Hz pulsation from household current) unless a smoothing circuit has been incorporated. This resulting cyclic pulsation is employable in the invention to periodically collapse the magnetic field, however using an auxiliary pulsing unit is preferable so that better regulation of pulsing may be employed. Any means for causing the electric current provided to the reaction zone to pulse at a frequency of 15 to 20 kilohertz decreases the wattage needed to create gas by approximately a factor of 10. The amount of energy needed to generate one litre of gas is 0.0028 kilowatt-hour and with a pulsing device associated with the reaction zone, the amount drops to 0.00028 kilowatt-hour or less to generate one litre of gas.

As the pulsing occurs, the stationary magnetic field alternatively collapses and is reinstated. It has been found that a reaction occurs in the electrolyte solution between the two end plates upon collapse of the magnetic field, which results in a release of a generated gas. Some of the same gas will be pulled toward the individual plates and released as part of the generated gas.

In a pilot plant apparatus for determining optimal conditions, a clear Plexiglas receptacle can be used for the reaction zone, so that one can visibly monitor the reaction with ultraviolet light and observe the generation of gas. This pilot plant preferably provides adjustment for the cathode and anode so that they can be moved to optimise the reaction for a given aqueous fluid composition and changes in pulsing duration and frequency.

Gas is generated not only at the electrodes but also appears as bubbles in the body of water between the electrodes. It has been found that use of minimal electric currents between two electrodes results from the electrodes being spread a sufficient distance apart of at least one inch (2.5 cm) and preferably eight to sixteen inches apart, thereby creating the aforesaid magnetic field enveloping the reaction chamber. A pure gas is produced in the body of aqueous fluid between the electrodes, without the production of a high levels of heat that would cause the water to vaporise (212° F). Rather, the reaction zone remains at a temperature not exceeding 120° F. dependent on ambient temperature. Normally, there is a 30° F temperature rise above ambient temperature assuming room temperature 90° F. The collection chambers contain no increase in oxygen gas, no increase in hydrogen gas, and no noticeable water vapour. Thus, costs are lowered, production speed increases, and the resulting gas is uniform in its properties. Also important, the resulting homogeneous gas can be pumped into a stainless steel cylinder and has been found to be stable and not explosive under pressures of over 1000 lbs per square inch.
The important functionalities in the process are the imposition of a magnetic field on the aqueous fluid and the ability to periodically collapse the magnetic field to generate the desired gas, under conditions short of those that will induce electrolysis. Other means which provide for these functionalities can be used. For example, in an alternative embodiment, wires could be inserted instead of plates in the reaction zone and when current passes from one wire through the aqueous fluid to the other wire, a magnetic field would be produced. In another exemplary alternative, a wire coil outside the reaction zone could be used to which a source of DC power can be supplied to create a primary magnetic field in the reaction zone. A wire coil placed in the middle of the solution can serve as a secondary magnetic field and when powered in the opposite direction of the current flow in pulses would collapse the primary field and create the necessary reaction to form the gas. Such a coil would be similar in concept to an car ignition coil.

When water is converted into gas, the natural conversion from liquid to gas creates an increase in volume and thus an increase in pressure within the reaction zone. While standard atmospheric pressure is about 14.7 psi at sea level, the pressure in the closed reaction zone is maintained between 30 and 100 psi by using a check valve at the outlet of the reaction chamber to control it, since maximum gas production occurs in this pressure range.

Now referring to Fig.1, a schematic of a reaction chamber is illustrated. Cathode (1) and anode (2) are in opposing configuration, preferably more than one inch apart and most preferably eight to sixteen inches apart. In the process of the invention, a current is passed through an aqueous fluid (3) and the current flow through the electrolyte creates a magnetic field. The electricity is pulsed, which collapses the magnetic field with each pulse of electricity. This produces the gas at a very efficient rate in the area of the solution between the electrodes, as denoted by 4 in Fig.1. The gas produced may be collected from the reaction zone through gas outlet (5) and subjected to further purification as described later.

The generated gas is then preferably exposed to a second magnetic field by providing a second reaction zone comprised of rare earth magnets. The strength of the rare earth magnets should be greater than fifty Gauss. Gas flows through a chamber exposed to rare earth magnets for purification. Rare earth magnets, dense metal magnets typically made from a composite of neodymium, iron and boron with or without a nickel coating or plating, are attached to the exterior of the chamber. Since SG Gas is paramagnetic and water vapour is diamagnetic the magnetic chamber strengthens the molecular bond of the gas and repels the water vapour back into the solution.

The purified SG Gas may be used immediately or compressed and stored in a gas storage tank. Purified SG Gas may be allowed to flow out of the second reaction zone directly to a torch attachment, to a compressor for storage in a pressurised vessel, or gas outflow valve for infusion into water or other substances.

In a method for making a compressible, stable gas with desirable properties, SG Gas is made according to the method of the invention. SG Gas can then be safely compressed and stored. SG Gas can be compressed above 1,000 psi. and can be stored in a pressurised vessel.

In an exemplary procedure for compression, SG Gas is discharged from the apparatus into a hose with a compressor attached. We use a Whirlwind Compressor, Model 2200-2 HPE, manufactured by High Pressure Eng. Co., Inc. A canister with pressure gauges is used to fill the chamber with SG Gas, using a hose to transport the SG Gas from the apparatus and compressor into the canister. We use an empty oxygen tank that has been vacuumed to remove any residual oxygen and water. The empty and vacuumed oxygen tank with pressure valve has a manufacturer name of White Martins, ABRE with dimensions of 23" (585 mm) diameter and 19" (480 mm) height. SG Gas is placed under pressure in the compression chamber up to and beyond 1,000 psi. for storage.

SG Gas remains stable and under pressure for one month and longer. To test its stability, wood chips were placed in a stainless steel tank and the tank filled with SG Gas. The wood chips absorbed SG Gas and additional SG Gas was used to refill the chamber and maintain a 30 psi pressure. Once the wood chips were saturated with
SG Gas, the tank was decompressed and pressure reduced to 0 psi. For a period of over 30 days, no pressure was generated assuming that no out gassing of SG Gas occurred. The wood chips displayed different burn properties after 60 days when compared to wood chips which had not been treated. The treated wood chips with absorbed SG Gas burned more efficiently when compared to that of ordinary wood chips thereby demonstrating the stability of the SG Gas bond with the treated wood chips.

**Analytical Testing and Observations of SG Gas:**

*Maximum Pressure*: SG Gas imploded when pressures exceeded 1,600 psi.

*Safe Pressurisation*: SG Gas remains safe and stable at pressures around 1,000 psi for over 30 days.

SG Gas should remain stable under pressure indefinitely, at least for a sufficient period of time to allow said gas to be utilised at any time from 30 to 60 days after generation.

The purified SG Gas was tested and exhibited properties of a pure, homogeneous gas that was found to be compressible as stated above, safe, also able to oxidise any non-oxidised substrate which its flame contacts and it is also able to reduce any completely oxidised substrate which its flame contacts. The following characteristics were observed:

*Ultra-violet Light Test*: Exhibits a blue grey colour appearance compared to untreated distilled water which exhibits no colour, when exposed to an ultra-violet light, manufactured by Zelco Industries Model 10015.

*Balloon*: The gas is lighter than air and so causes balloons filled with it to rise.

*Cooling*: The Balloon Filled with Purified Gas: A balloon remains inflated at or below −10° F.

*Ignition*: Purified SG Gas produced according to the above method was tested for ignition properties. When lit with an ignition source such as a spark, it implodes. The temperature of the flame produced upon ignition was estimated to be about 270° F using an infrared temperature device (Raynger ST2L infrared thermometer). However, when materials are exposed to the flame, it creates a chemical reaction with the material and base metals will rise rapidly to melting temperature, releasing heat and converting the gas back into water (H2O).

Purified SG Gas was discharged from the reaction zone through a hose with a torch attached. A flash-back arrestor is recommended on the gas output of the apparatus. The gas may be exposed to an ignition source (e.g., spark or electrical arc) thus combustion of the gas occurs. The heat of the resulting flame on the subject torch has a temperature of approximately 270° F.

When an air/propane torch is burning, a small amount of SG Gas is introduced into the air mixing chamber of a lit propane torch, a single uniform flame cone becomes visible demonstrating a more efficient conversion of hydrocarbon and more heat from combustion of hydrocarbon, meaning it has a use as a fuel extender. One use is injection of SG Gas into an air intake of a combustion engine thereby reducing harmful exhaust emissions and increasing fuel efficiency. A by-product of this process is the creation of water during the combustion cycle that generates steam. The steam causes an increase in the torque generated by the engine resulting in greater power output. Depending upon the type of fuel, SG Gas extends fuel efficiency by a factor between 2 and 10.

When ignited purified gas contacts another substance, melting occurs within a short period of time, usually less than one minute. The results of some examples of substances exposed to ignited purified SG Gas are shown here:
Instead of melting a substrate, the ignited purified gas may be applied to a substrate with a view toward capturing the generated heat as a useful product. The heat generated can be transferred to a substance such as air or water, thereby producing hot air or steam that can then be used industrially, such as for example to drive a turbine or piston-type engine for production of mechanical energy. In a preferred method, the flame of the SG gas can be applied to a substrate in conduit form having an inside surface and an outside surface. A substance such as forced air or water can flow through the conduit adjacent to the inside surface of the conduit. The flame of the SG gas can be applied to the outside surface of the conduit which causes the heat-generating reaction to occur. The heat is then transferred to the substance flowing through the conduit, preventing melting of the surface but creating a useful heated fluid that can be used in further applications. An exemplary conduit is a metal tube or pipe, such as copper tubing. It has been further determined that SG Gas can be infused into other substances, rendering a useful product.

Candles: SG Gas infused into melted paraffin wax and poured into a mould with a wick will create candles that burn with lower carbon emission as observed using a Pace 400 Four Gas Analyser.

Fluids: The gas had an affinity for water and other liquids including fuels but bubbles from those liquids after they reach their saturation point. One novel use of the gas is infusing it back into water to create ionised or polarised water. The resulting gas-infused water creates smaller water clusters that are believed to permit faster cellular absorption and hydration.

In an exemplary method for infusing SG Gas into water, SG Gas is discharged from the reaction zone into a hose with a ceramic diffuser attached. For treating large volumes of water, a ceramic block diffuser may be used. The diffusers are used to reduce the size of the SG Gas bubbles to improve efficiency of water absorption. SG Gas may also be stored under pressure, and then infused into water.

It is preferred to infuse water that has gone through a distillation process prior to infusion of SG Gas into treated water with less than 1 ppm Total Dissolved Solids. One may use an absorption graph to determine the time required for achieving the desired absorption of SG Gas into water. The typical rate of 30% absorption is approximately one hour to treat 100 gallons of water. A higher saturation of SG Gas up to 100% of total absorption occurs with more infusion of SG Gas into water over time. The actual time and percentage of absorption of SG Gas are affected by the purity of water, volume of water, size of gas bubbles, temperature and other factors.

The resulting ionised or polarised water (“SG Gas-infused Water”) clings longer to a magnet when compared to regular water. Absorption over time or saturation graphs to monitor changes in the water properties infused with SG Gas including capacitance levels may be prepared.
Fig. 5 shows a typical absorption over time graph for infusion of SG Gas into water. Subsequently, one may measure capacitance levels in the treated water over a time period exceeding 30 days to demonstrate that the gas is stable in water.

Other measurements:
*Total Dissolved Solids* (TDS) dropped from a start of 0.33 ppm in untreated distilled water to a finish of 0.17 ppm after infusion of SG Gas into distilled water for a period of approximately 11 minutes. A Fluke 189 True RMS Multimeter was used to measure drop in capacitance.

*Storage of SG Gas in Water*: The resulting polarised water with SG Gas treatment remains stable and can be stored for 2 years or more. The actual maximum storage time has yet to be observed but in theory, SG Gas should remain permanently stable in the water.

*Absorption*: During infusion of SG Gas into purified water, we used a Fluke 189 True RMS Multimeter to measure drop in capacitance. The absorption over time graph is plotted to monitor the drop in capacitance. The first capacitance drop during initial infusion of SG Gas into a gallon of purified water occurs within the first three minutes of infusion. After that time, the capacitance gradually drops until the point of maximum saturation of SG Gas is typically reached between 8 and 20 minutes depending on variables including initial purity of water, size of gas bubbles, and volume of water to be treated. The resulting treated or infused water is referred to “SG Gas-infused Water”.

*Other Parameters Monitored*: During infusion of SG Gas into purified water, a drop in the Total Dissolved Solids concentration, conductivity and resistivity can be measured. An appropriate measuring device is a Control Company Traceable™ #4063CC meter.

*pH Test*: Lab tests show that distilled water had a pH of 6.8 and when infused with SG Gas had a pH change to 7.6.

*Ice Cubes*: SG Gas remains in SG Gas-infused Water or polarised water until freezing occurs when the SG Gas forms a gas bubble within the ice cube itself, sometimes producing capillary tubes on the surface of the ice cubes, where the SG Gas escapes.

*Ultraviolet Light Exposure*: SG Gas-infused Water was tested for the effects of ultraviolet light exposure. A clear spray bottle containing SG Gas-infused Water or polarised water placed in the Florida sun for over two years remained clear in appearance and without algae growth which had been observed in water not infused with SG Gas under similar conditions.

*Magnets*: A drop of SG Gas-infused Water clings to the surface of a magnet longer when compared to that of untreated water.

Many uses have been found for SG Gas-infused Water and some of these uses are listed here:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Advantages of SG Gas Infused water</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drinking water for human and animal consumption</td>
<td>Efficient cellular absorption and removal of toxins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water for food and manufacture of supplements</td>
<td>Pure form of water that improves product quality, shelf life, nutrient benefits, absorption and taste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water for cleaning and enhancing the effectiveness of cleansers</td>
<td>Reduced need for emulsifiers and surfactants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water for plants and crops, including hydroponics, floral arrangements and golf course turf</td>
<td>Greater size of plants, improved plant quality, longer viability and reduced scale build up in hydroponic water containers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertiliser solution for application on plants and crops</td>
<td>Higher yield and more vigorous growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water for aquariums and fish farming</td>
<td>Greater size of fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water systems including long-term water storage, municipal supplies and home treatment systems</td>
<td>Less algae growth resulting from antibacterial properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steam, air heating and air conditioning systems</td>
<td>Less algae or mould growth for cleaner air circulation systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigeration systems</td>
<td>Less mould accumulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial scrubbers</td>
<td>Less algae growth and scale build-up maintains scrubbing efficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial products and processes including oil, gas and tar sand extraction</td>
<td>Reduces or eliminates the need to use petroleum based solvents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceutical and medicine manufacturing</td>
<td>Efficient carrier of medicines and the removal of by-products from medicines and solvent carriers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skin treatment products</td>
<td>Hydration of skin cells, improved absorption of moisturisers, and reduction of pigment changes due to sun damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wound treatment products</td>
<td>Faster healing and pain relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humidifiers used for respiratory relief</td>
<td>Improved breathing with less snoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye relief products</td>
<td>Relief and hydration for irritated eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental care products</td>
<td>Removal or inhibiting plaque and stains on teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosmetics and beauty supplies</td>
<td>Reduced need for chemical binders and more resistant to build up of contamination in cosmetics and improved hair growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water features including swimming pools, spas, hot tubs, waterfalls, fountains and water amusement parks</td>
<td>Cleaner water with less or no chlorine or chemical additives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Use in Process of Tar Sands Extraction:** Conventional water with petroleum solvents used in the separation of tar from sand was replaced with SG Gas-infused Water. SG Gas-infused Water was heated (no petroleum solvent added) with a sample of tar sands in a pan to approximately 160° F. Tar was observed separating from the sand, providing a cleaner and more efficient process with reduced by-products and emissions released from the tar extraction.

**Use for Improved Cleaning:** For laundry, one may add a quantity (half a US gallon in a standard washing machine tub of 12 US gallons for medium load and 16 US gallons for large load) of SG Gas-infused Water to the soap cycle of a top-loading washing machine and the remaining water (approximately 0.7 of a US gallon) is added to the rinse cycle. The polarised characteristic and smaller molecular size of SG Gas-infused Water enable the detergent and water solution to penetrate the cloth fabric more thoroughly and remove the dirt and grime. The addition of SG Gas-infused Water to the rinse assists in the complete removal of the soap residue which may contain residual dirt from the fabric. This process results in cleaner and stain-free laundry with less body oil and bacteria build-up. Laundry without these SG Gas-infused Water additives display less brilliant whites and retain a pungent odour caused by residual bacteria living in the fabric of the washed clothes.

**Reduced Use of Emulsifiers and Surfactants:** One may dilute cleaning solutions with SG Gas-infused Water for effective cleaning of surfaces to remove grime, oil and grease and the removal of bacteria. SG Gas-infused Water is a natural disinfectant without harsh chemical additives. Typically, one uses at least 1 part of cleaning solution with 20 parts of SG Gas-infused Water to maintain cleaning properties.
Biological Properties

Transport, Delivery and Absorption of Nutrients: In a controlled experiment, a standard drug metabolism test in vitro was conducted over a period of 21 days. This comparative test was performed on cell membrane permeability for Vitamin C solution (L-ascorbic acid) using
(1) Hank's Buffered Saline Solution (HBSS) and
(2) SG Gas-infused Water.
Caco-2 cells were used and permeability of the apical side (similar to intestine surface) and basolateral side (similar to underneath intestinal surface) for the separate solutions were determined. Vitamin C quantitation was conducted on HPLC (HP1100 equipped with PDA detector) and Zorbax C18 reverse phase column (4.6 × 250 mm, 5 micro) at 30 C. Test results demonstrated Vitamin C permeability of SG Gas-infused Water was about 4 times higher than the control counterpart. (Hu, 2008).

Plant Growth: In a controlled greenhouse setting, four groups of ivy plants were watered using
(1) 100% well water,
(2) mix of 1 part of SG Gas-infused Water to 2 parts of well water,
(3) mix of 2 parts of SG Gas-infused Water to 1 part of well water, and
(4) 100% SG Gas-infused Water.
The ivy plants were harvested and dehydrated to allow measurement of dry plant mass. The fourth group of 100% SG Gas-infused Water had over 16 percent increase in mass when compared to that the first group of well water. (Reiser, 2006).

Fish Growth: Two home aquariums were used to hold two respective groups of goldfish. For a period of 30 days, SG Gas was bubbled into one aquarium and air into the second. It was observed that the goldfish in the former aquarium aerated by SG Gas grew at least 15 percent more and the aquarium tank remained cleaner with less algae growth.

Wound Treatment and Healing: The polarization Of the SG Gas-infused Water provides natural anti-bacterial and non-toxic anti-infective properties that promote healing of superficial and multi-layer wounds and a reduction in pain perception. A fifty-year old woman burned herself by accidentally spilling scalding-hot coffee on to her hand. Upon seeking medical attention, a physician advised the patient that she might have to undergo abridement or dead skin removal and possible skin graft surgery. The patient washed the affected area with SG Gas-infused, purified water and applied a medicinal ointment. The wound was wrapped with a sterile gauze and the gauze was moistened with SG Gas-infused water to keep the wound hydrated. The patient reported an immediate and continuous lessening of pain with the application of the SG Gas-infused Water. Over a period of ten days with repeating the treatment steps of changing the moistened sterile gauze on at least a daily basis, the site of the wound developed new skin with minimal evidence of scarring. After the treatment regime the upper skin layer appeared to be healed, blisters appeared on the surface of the skin. The treatment with SG Gas-infused Water was started again and the blisters and the remaining layers of skin healed. The patient experienced healing and avoided debridement of dead skin, and skin grafts.

Skin Treatment: Topical applications twice a day on each side of a male volunteer’s face in vicinity of his eyes were made. Two types of topical solutions were prepared with 1% magnesium ascorbyl phosphate (MAP), one using SG Gas-infused Water and the other using tap water. After 21 days, the volunteer observed on the side where SG Gas-infused Water solution was applied, a slight reduction in the depth of fine lines around the eye and a lighting of darker skin pigment when compared to that of the other area where the tap water solution was applied. (Puleo of Otima Specialty Chemical, 2008).

Eye Relief: SG Gas-infused Water may be sprayed into the eyes for immediate relief and lessening of redness that is comparable to use of commercial eye drops. This natural treatment without any chemical additives, assists in hydrating eyes and removing irritants such as dust and pollen.

Dental Care: A 50:50 solution of commercial mouth wash was mixed with SG Gas-infused Water and a capful of this solution was used twice a day after brushing teeth. Less plaque build-up and stains were noted by professional dental hygienists as compared to previous observations six months earlier when this solution had not been used.

Molecular Structure Based on Gas Properties
From observing the properties of SG Gas, the inventors believe that the process disclosed here results in a product not achieved by previously reported processes for the electrolysis of water into gas.

Given the low energy reaction that created the gas and the use of no catalysts, it is believed unlikely that any O-H bonds of water could possibly be broken in the process used. It is known that breaking O-H bonds requires two faradays per mole and the process of the invention only employs 2.8 watt hours per litre, which is about a maximum of 1.6 faradays per mole. Further, the SG Gas resulting from the process disclosed herein is flammable...
but the flame temperature of the gas is only about 270° F (132.2° C), as compared to diatomic hydrogen gas which is highly combustible and autoignites at 560° C. A hydrogen/oxygen torch flame is reportedly 3200° C (5792° F) However, the SG Gas flame melts metals easily, which indicates that it is likely that an oxygen is active. The gas flame also reduces ceramics, which indicates that the hydrogen is in an ionised state.

SG Gas has an affinity for water and other liquids including fuels but it bubbles from the liquids after they reach a saturation point. One use of SG gas is infusing it back into water to create ionised or polarised water.

SG Gas is always a gas at room temperature while normal water vapour requires energy to evaporate in great quantities. When combusted, the gas always returns to liquid water. When placed in a balloon, the gas initially floats the balloon but it seeps from the balloon rather quickly indicating that the gas has a small molecular structure.

One theory consistent with the properties observed is that no bonds of H\(_2\)O are broken when the process of the invention is used, but that the combination of the electric and magnetic forces restructure the water molecule. Gauss' Law that states there are no monopoles in magnetism, only dipoles. It is well known that liquid water forms hydrogen bonds with other water molecules in order to remain in a liquid solution.

Applying Gauss' Law to hydrogen, it has polar properties which open up a new configuration, one in which a hydrogen can be bound to another hydrogen and an oxygen. Upon exposure to an electric current, the electronegative strength of the oxygen atom is weakened, allowing a hydrogen atom to dislodge and magnetically bond to the other hydrogen atom that is strengthened by the magnetic field. Hence, the electric and magnetic forces made possible a shift of a hydrogen molecule from H-O-H to O-H-H creating a diatomic hydrogen molecule that is single bonded to atomic oxygen. As the exposed oxygen is a reactive site on the gas molecule an appropriate name is "HHOhydrogen". This structure predicts that the oxygen is now active and can oxidise metals. It predicts that in the unburned gaseous state, the increased negative charge causes greater spacing among the gas molecules causing stability, a lower boiling point, a lower freezing point, and a higher vapour pressure.

The inventors have conceived of a new isomer of water - it contains the same atoms, only in a different configuration and thus exhibits different properties from normal water vapour. The gas does not cluster to create liquid water at regular atmospheric temperatures and pressures as does the molecules of normal water vapour. The gas exists in a higher energy state, burns by itself at a low temperature, and melts any substrates when exposed to the gas flame. The gas flame has a uniform blue colour appearance without yellow sparks indicative of water (H\(_2\)O) vapour or red sparks indicative of either H\(_2\) or O\(_2\) gas contamination. Hence, we call the resulting gas (SG Gas) an ionised gas or a plasma gas.

Now referring to Fig.2 and Fig.3, atoms shown are shown in their polar orientation for better understanding N meaning North Pole and S meaning South Pole. This dictates the orbital spin or magnetic flux. Fig.2 illustrates water prior to undergoing the process of the invention while Fig.3 illustrates the process and the believed effect on the aqueous fluid used.

While the magnetic field orients the atoms within the water molecule, the collapsing field induces a charge in the opposite direction and that dislodges the opposing hydrogen bond and allows it to bond to the other hydrogen atom in the ortho position as depicted in Fig.3. Ortho-hydrogen is more reactive than para-hydrogen and produces much more energy.
This reaction changes water from a liquid cluster to an ionised gas or plasma gas that will, when ignited, and the flame applied to a solid substrate, melt nearly any substance. Further, when the gas is infused into a water cluster it will bond to the water molecules and create a much smaller cluster of a different shape and properties allowing it to penetrate cells and hydrate animals and plants at a substantially faster rate.

It must be clear that due to the process used herein, electrolysis does not take place. “Electrolysis” is defined as a “method of separating chemically bonded elements and compounds by passing an electric current through them”. Electrolysis does not take place and no splitting of the water molecular bonds occurs, as is demonstrated by the fact that no increase in hydrogen or oxygen gas can be measured in the reaction zone. This is a key differentiator from the processes that have resulted in a gas being produced by electrolysis of water. The gases produced by electrolysis exhibit far different properties from SG Gas. Gases produced by electrolysis are explosive, cannot be pressurised and on ignition are heat-producing gases.

SG Gas is an ionised gas with the ability to oxidise or reduce any substance. On a non-oxidised substrate, such as steel, the active oxygen within the molecule will chemically bond to the steel bringing it immediately to its melting temperature and releasing hydrogen, which bonds with atmospheric oxygen to produce heat. On an oxidised substrate, such as ceramic, the hydrogen reduces the substrate by chemically bonding with the oxygen present within the substrate, melting the material and releasing atomic oxygen, which then bonds with the material. This double reaction is responsible for producing much more heat than an ordinary oxidation reduction reaction.

These reactions are proven on rusty steel and concrete. When ordinary gas, such as: methane, ethane, propane, butane, or acetylene are applied to rusty steel popping and spitting of material occurs due to the explosive reaction of the ferrous oxide being separated from the non-oxidized metal due to their different expansion rates. With SG Gas, this does not occur, since oxidation and reduction are occurring at the same time and the expansion rates are equal. On concrete when heat from an ordinary gas is applied, the portion the flame touches will expand and break loose from the rest of the concrete with an explosive force and spit pieces of hot concrete outward and leave holes in the concrete surface. Again, this does not occur with SG Gas because it is being reduced to a liquid form before the pressure of uneven expansion occurs.

Simply stated SG Gas is an ionised gas capable of oxidising or reducing almost any material without the adverse reactions created by heat-producing flames. Heat is the by-product of friction, in chemistry two atoms colliding together in a reaction known as oxidation and reduction cause this friction. A gas, referred to as a fuel, is usually a hydrocarbon that is easily oxidised, however, the carbon is what is being oxidised and the oxygen is being reduced meaning this is where friction occurs and these are the items being heated. Heat given off by these substances is refractive heat and the substances being heated are absorbing heat or, better stated, are being bombarded by fast moving hot gases. SG Gas may change the definition of melting point due to the lack of heat producing flames.

The Charles Garrett Electrolyser.
Charles Garrett was granted US Patent 2,006,676 on 2nd July 1935 in which he shows some impressive details. Firstly, he generated an extra electrical input by fitting a second (6 volt) alternator to his car. While the drawing shows the applied voltage swapping over in polarity, this was not done rapidly, just occasionally to even up any deterioration of the electrodes.

He maintained the water level in the electrolysis chamber with a neat carburettor-style float and pin valve arrangement. He improved the electrolysis by introducing a perforated tube below the electrode plates which allows the engine to suck air up past the plates. This cools the electrolyte (water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid) introduces water vapour to the gas mix and dislodges any bubbles on the plates, without the need for any extra mechanical device. Considering that he did this seventy-five years ago, it is an impressive piece of work. Please note that while only five electrode plates are shown in the diagram, in reality it is probable that many such plates were used since the gas volume is directly proportional to the plate area.
One point which should be noted is that the cars of that time had very much smaller capacity engines and so they will have needed far less HHO gas mixture in order to run adequately.

The Archie Blue Electrolyser.
More than fifty years after Charles Garrett was granted his patent, another one was granted to Archie Blue. The equipment described in the two patents operates in more or less the same way. Archie's equipment is very simple to construct and uses straight electrolysis with no attempt at pulsing the electrical supply. Like Charles Garrett, Archie Blue claimed to have run a car on water alone, using his electrolyser design, which is shown here:
With this unit, air is sucked out of the exit pipe by the vehicle engine, while being pumped into the electrolyser by an air pump. The air flows down through the central pipe and is forced up through the non-aligned holes in the electrode plates, causing turbulence and probably, the formation of water-gas crystals. The air bubbles also stir the electrolyte into vigorous motion, dislodging the hydrogen and oxygen bubbles which form on the plates as a result of the electrolysis current flow through the electrolyte.

It is said that six of these electrolysis units are sufficient to run a car using just water as the fuel. It has been stated that electrolysis of water is optimum at 1.5 Volts, so it might be more efficient to connect the units in series where each unit receives 2 Volts rather than in parallel where each unit receives 12 Volts (unless, of course, the heating caused by connecting them in parallel is a factor in the very high efficiency of Archie Blue’s system):

The air connection is the same for either method of wiring the cells. If wired in series, the voltage drop across each cell may not be the same although they were constructed in an identical fashion.
Please bear in mind that should you modify a vehicle to run on hydrogen, either as an additive or as a replacement for petrol, you need to clear it with your insurance company before using it on a public road, otherwise, you will be driving without insurance since any alteration to the vehicle automatically invalidates the insurance if the insurer is not notified and agrees the change. You may, of course, modify any stationary engine or any vehicle which you only run on private property. In the USA, the oil companies have influenced the local courts to such a degree that in some States, it is an offence to "run a vehicle on a non-approved fuel".

In passing, you may be interested to hear that I have been told that the Prohibition era in America had nothing at all to do with people drinking alcohol. The reality was that in the early days, Henry Ford was going to have his Model-T car running fuel-less by using a Nikola Tesla designed magneto system and an electric engine, but he was pressured into using an internal combustion engine to burn the gasoline which was an unwanted component of the local oil industry. This caused a problem for people on long journeys as there were very few gasoline filling stations at that time. To overcome the problem, the early cars were set up so that they could run on either gasoline or on alcohol produced by some 50,000 farmers scattered around the country. When the oil industry discovered how profitable it was selling gasoline, they opened many gasoline filling stations. They then wanted to exclude the farmers and have all of the profits for themselves and so Prohibition was introduced, not to stop people drinking alcohol (although that was the pretext), but in reality, to shut down the 50,000 alcohol stills which were their competition. When the stills were gone, then Prohibition was dropped as it had achieved it's goal of a vehicle fuel monopoly.

The Electrolyser System of Paul Zigouras

In his document, Moray King draws attention to the HHO cell design of the American, Paul Zigouras who became very well known in the year 2011 due to his cell design which is perfectly capable of running a 320 horsepower marine engine. Paul, at age thirty, had a history of rebuilding marine engines and then selling them. He then was involved in helping a friend who had entered a competition for the car with the highest mpg performance. Paul found that by adding HHO to the air entering the car engine, that they could get 70 mpg on the flat when driving carefully. Their target was 100 mpg, and so they were disappointed by being 30 mpg short of their target.

Paul decided to work on the HHO angle to see what could be achieved and enlisted the help of a friend and sometime freelance employee who was expert in electronics as Paul was not familiar with electronics. Probably without understanding the underlying causes, they managed to utilise several operating principles – cavitation, charged water gas clusters, resonance, mechanical vibration and a 'splitting the positive' style power supply. The overall result was spectacular, culminating in a small cell, into which water could literally be hosed and only gas came out of the other end.

Paul never revealed the exact circuit design and it is reported that he sold the rights to the design for US $6,000,000. The purchasers then contacted the eBay buyer of the latest version of Paul's circuit board and paid $20,000 to buy it back. The eBay buyer was happy with the deal as he had paid just $1,100 for it and so made a profit of $18,900 on the deal. At this time of writing (2013) some eighteen months have gone by and it seems quite clear that the present owners of Paul's circuit design have no intention whatsoever, of sharing or manufacturing the design and so it has been effectively shelved, never to be seen again. They were not interested in the cell, but just the electronics board.

However, a number of things are known about the design, probably sufficient to allow a similar design to be produced. These items are as follows:

Paul made units in two sizes. The smaller version had between 20 and 30 plates each being 2-inches (50 mm) wide and 8-inches (200 mm) long, material 316L-grade or 318L-grade stainless steel one sixteenth of an inch thick (1.6 mm), stacked with a gap of just 0.635 mm between them. This small version could blast 2.5 (US) gallons of water per minute into gas, which is about 17,500 litres of gas per minute. The water was hosed in at one end, and no water reached the far end, which is quite spectacular performance.

The larger cell had 36 plates 3-inches (75 mm) wide and 10-inches (254 mm) long, also 316L or 318L-grade stainless steel 1.6 mm thick and with a gap of 0.635 mm between the plates. That size of cell could convert water to gas at the rate of 5 (US) gallons per minute (35,000 litres of gas per minute)

The techniques used with these cells is nothing at all like any of the various other electrolyser designs discussed in this chapter. This is because the cell operation is nothing like conventional electrolysis or even like DC pulse driven water splitting as used in the Stan Meyer "Water Fuel Cell"

Firstly the plates are grit-blasted with 60-grade silicon carbide at an angle of 45 degrees to the face of the plate, making sharp-edged craters in the surface of the plate. When water is forced through the very narrow gap
between these plates, these craters on both sides of that very narrow water flow causes turbulence and
cavitation. Cavitation produces tiny bubbles in the water and in the book “Ultrasonics Methods and Applications”
by Jack Blitz, it is stated that each cavitation bubble has a positive charge on one side and a corresponding
negative charge on the opposite side. As the bubbles are very small, those charges are not far apart and it would
not seem to be unrealistic to suggest that those charges cause electrolysis of the water on a very tiny scale. But,
as there is a very large number of these bubbles, the overall effect might not be insignificant. The violent
cavitation almost certainly produces charged water gas clusters, so what comes out of the end of the cell will be
HHO gas, charged water gas clusters, plus whatever gases which were dissolved in the water and possibly water
vapour.

The plates were shaped like this:

![Diagram of plate shapes]

The edge facing the incoming water is sharpened to a knife edge, and the projection to take a push-on electrical
spade connector has it’s outer edge slightly sharpened to make it easier to push the connector on to the plate and
make a good electrical connection to the plate. Due to the very small gap between the plates, every second plate
is turned over to give some clearance between the connectors. This places all of the positive connections on one
side and all of the negative connections on the opposite side.

When being used to run a car, the HHO cell is placed inside the standard, rectangular, plastic air box which
connects the air filter to the manifold air intake. This causes the incoming air to mix well with the HHO and other
gases produced by the cell, before the mixture enters the engine.

The electronic circuit (valued at $6,000,000) has an ordinary automotive power supply of around 14 volts. This is
supplied by a standard MSD 200-amp high performance alternator driven by the engine. The initial current draw
for the larger (35,000 lpm) cell is 190 amps, but when the cell gets going, that current draw drops to a constant 10
amps, and the gas production rate is not related to the current draw. This process is not any kind of conventional
electrolysis and has nothing at all to do with Faraday’s excellent lab work. The Coefficient of Performance is said
to be between 5 and 10 although how that figure could be derived is by no means at all clear.

The circuit is said to produce a very clean square wave with very sharply rising and falling edges to the waveform.
The frequency of the wave is in the 40 kHz to 44 kHz region and 30 separate transistors are used to drive the
plates – presumably, one transistor per plate for the 30-plate version of the smaller cell. The waveform does not
drop to zero volts, but instead, has a voltage offset of +1 volt. That is, the voltage oscillates between +1 volt and
+14 volts and so there is always a voltage applied to the plates. As the circuit has never been disclosed, it is quite
possible that the voltage is boosted well above the +14 volt level, however, that seems unlikely if 190 amps is the
starting current. It is stated that at 44 kHz, the current needed is only one eighth of what would be expected for
the HHO flow rate.

In a vehicle, the gas flow rate is controlled by improvising a linkage between the throttle and the valve which
controls the rate of water flow into the cell. Not surprisingly, if the water inflow rate is cut down, the gas
production rate has to fall also as there just isn’t any water remaining to be converted into gas. Each litre of water
produces around 1,860 litres of HHO gas, and so if the cell output is 17,500 lpm, then the water inflow rate would
be about 9.4 litres per minute or 157 ccs per second. However, it seems unlikely that when mixed with air, as
much as 17,500 litres of HHO would be needed per minute. It is remarked that using hot water just under boiling
point, is an advantage, although why that should be is not specified.

The cell buzzes quite loudly when operating. This is definitely not caused by a 40 kHz frequency signal as human
hearing only goes up to 20 kHz at most. It might be a lower harmonic (20 kHz, 10 kHz, 5 kHz,….) or it might be
caused by mechanical forces generated by the water flow. If tap water is being used, then dissolved solids will be
left behind when the water becomes gas. This residue can be washed out of the cell by turning the water on and
keeping the electrical power off as that washes the plates.
With this amount of information on the cell and electronics design, it could well be possible to replicate the cell and run vehicle engines from it. However, please be aware that Bob Boyce in America was handed a 3.5 year jail term for “running a vehicle on an unapproved fuel”. He beat that charge, but it should be clearly understood that an action like that is wholly unlawful and is part of the scam which attempts to force all vehicle users to burn oil.

Also in America, Bill Williams was running his Ford pick-up truck with a Joe Cell connected as a booster in “shandy” mode. He found that his truck used no fuel at all even though it was perfectly capable of drawing fuel in from the fuel tank. Bill destroyed his cell and does not talk about it due to intimidation from armed thugs. Details of his design along with more advanced Joe Cell designs are in chapter 9.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
Chapter 11: Other Devices and Theories

Nikola Tesla's Ionised-Air Electrical Generator.
Tesla also designed a device for picking up energy from the air. As far as I am aware, it was never patented and I have never seen a specification of its output. Perhaps it was one of Tesla's failures but personally, I doubt that. It might make a very interesting experiment so see what level of output can be achieved using it. The construction is shown here:

It is essentially, a rectangular cylinder which contains two spherical electrodes like a Wimshurst machine. The cylinder is positioned vertically, so that when the electrodes are powered up with high voltage to create spark discharges, the air inside the cylinder is heated which causes it to rise up the cylinder. The heated air is ionised, so a magnetic field generated by a surrounding electromagnet, causes the charged ions to move to opposite sides of the cylinder. Electrode plates positioned inside the cylinder, provide an electrical path for the excess positive and negative charges to flow together through the load - lighting, heating or motor circuits typically.

On the surface, this system would appear to be less than 100% efficient, in that the amount of power applied to the device to make it operate should be less that the amount of power drawn from it to drive useful loads. I am not sure that this is necessarily so. Firstly, the air already contains charged ions before this device starts to generate more. These naturally occurring ions gain in number when a thunderstorm is likely, even to the extent of giving many people a headache by their presence. These naturally occurring ions will be picked up by this device and without any input power needed to create them, they are capable of providing output power.

Also, the whole earth is immersed in the zero-point energy field. This is seething energy at the quantum level whose effects can be seen even at 'absolute zero'. This field is made of small random effects which
makes it hard to obtain useful energy directly from it. The field needs to be structured before energy can be drawn from it. One way to do this is to align the field with an event which causes coherent waves of energy to radiate outwards as a ‘radiant energy’ wave - something like the ripples caused on the surface of a pond when a large stone is dropped vertically into the water. The ripple ‘waves’ move outwards from the ‘event’ until they reach the bank of the pond. If there was a generator attached to a float in the pond, it would be possible to pick up some energy from the ripples. The same can be done with ‘radiant energy’ waves if you can create them and know how to pick up energy from them.

Radiant energy waves can be formed by very short sharp uni-directional electrical pulses. Pulses less than one hundredth of a second are suitable for this. One way of creating pulses of that type is using a spark gap. In Tesla’s device shown above, sparks are generated continuously. These sparks will generate radiant energy waves radiating out at right angles to the spark. Without a doubt, the vertical cylinder will have a mass of radiant energy shooting up it when it is being operated. This is in addition to the air ions which are being picked up. The only question is whether or not the electrode plate arrangement shown is capable of picking up any of this excess energy. Considering the metallic pickup device used by Edwin Gray to capture radiant energy as described below, it seems highly likely that some of that additional energy is, in fact, picked up and used to power the loads.

It should be noted that Tesla’s device shown above, will generate UV radiation in the same way as any MIG or stick welder does, so care should be exercised to avoid looking at the arc or allowing the UV to shine on your skin, even if the skin is covered by clothing. You can get serious sunburn through thin clothing if it is subjected to strong UV radiation. Also, radio interference is likely to be generated by the arc, so screening should be provided during any tests. **WARNING:** Tesla accidentally discovered that electric spark discharges in air, ignite and burn atmospheric oxygen and nitrogen, producing 12,000,000 volt waves. The oxygen and nitrogen, both below atomic number 19 are thereby transmuted into alpha and beta charges (stripped helium nuclei with +2 charge each, and electrons with -1 charges each) by the powerful radiation produced, having a voltage potential of 12 Mev. This is almost three times the Mev level of gamma radiation emitted by radium, it may well be the reason why Tesla did not publicise the device shown above, and should you decide to experiment with it, please be aware of the potential hazard of this radiation.

A variation on the above device of Tesla’s is given in the book “Physical Chemistry” by E. A. Moelwyn-Hughes, Pergamon Press, Oxford 1965, page 224. Rutherford and Geiger determined the fact that radium puts out alpha particles at the rate of 34,000,000,000 per second, each having two units of positive charge at 4.5 million electron-volts. This is a staggering amount of energy which ionises the air inside the housing and produces enough power to be capable of replacing the entire Four Corners power complex indefinitely.

![Diagram of Tesla's device](image)

The variation of Tesla’s device shown above, supports the lead container with its gram of radium on a strap across the bottom of the housing. The radiation ionises the air and the magnetic field separates the charges and directs them to opposite sides of the housing, to be collected and used via the electrode plates. There
does not appear to be any reason why strong permanent magnets should not be used instead of the DC electromagnet shown.

The Permanent Magnet Drive/Generator.
John R.R. Searle of Britain is stated to be a con artist by his co-workers. “His” electrical generation system based on two rings of magnets being spun relative to one another did not actually originate with Searle, but in spite of that, just as Oliver Heaviside’s \( E = mc^2 \) is believed by many to originate with Einstein, Searle’s name will always be associated with the following design. Here, the magnet orientations oppose each other to produce a magnetic splatter field.

The outer magnets in the diagram above are referred to as “rollers”. When three rings of rollers are placed one inside the other, then the outer ring rotates of its own accord, without any external power being applied. If pick-up coils are placed around the outside, then electrical current is generated with a COP of infinity. The method of imprinting the necessary magnetic pattern on both the rollers and the stators is a difficult and expensive process.

Dr. Terry Moore has recently built a replication model of this technology and his model video is available at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bb3N1epMG7A. This device also demonstrates a gravitic effect and John has built what would loosely be described as a “flying disc” using this technology. If high voltage is applied to the device when it is rotating, then a surrounding corona develops and strong upward electrogravitic forces are generated.

Dave Lawton’s Gravity-Wave Detector.
It has been reported that Nikola Tesla made a device which allowed him to hear sounds at great distances. I have never seen any details of the circuitry used by Tesla. However, Dave Lawton has produced such a device, and he reports that he could hear conversations taking place four and a half miles away from him. Interestingly, the sounds from that distance were also travelling through a solid stone wall some three feet thick. The circuit for this device is described in this document.

In my opinion, the device is not picking up audio signals in the manner of a conventional microphone where air pressure waves vibrate a transducer, creating an electrical signal which is then amplified. The interesting thing is that it is distinctly possible that some other mechanism is coming into play here. This opinion is supported by the fact that Dave’s circuit is an upgraded version of a monopole gravity-wave detector. Dave used this device to record the “sound” of the Shumaker-Levy comet colliding with Jupiter.

The circuit shown here is quite conventional electronically speaking, comprising of two 741 operational amplifiers connected as a two-stage amplifier. The unusual feature is where a small amount of white noise is being fed into the microphone input:
The white noise is generated by the 5-volt zener diode. The level of this white noise component is controlled by the 1.5 megohm variable resistor plus the 10K fixed limiting resistor. While the range of these two components is 10K to 1.501 Meg, the working setting is normally very high and so only a very small amount of white noise is fed into the input of the first 741 op. amp. to modify the microphone input.

The adjustment of this injection of white noise is the main control of this most unusual circuit, and it has been found that when the setting is just right, the circuit has the feel of a public address system just about to go unstable from positive feedback. The unit build looks like this:

The theory of operation was put forward by Gregory Hodowanec in the April 1986 issue of the Radio-Electronics Magazine, where he puts forward the theory that the source of noise in electronic devices is caused by gravitational waves and he suggests that there are monopole gravity waves. This does not oppose the gravity waves predicted by Einstein. Gregory views these monopole gravity waves as being much stronger than those suggested by Einstein, and consequently, much easier to detect.
He also suggests that monopole gravity waves have been seen for many years and have been described as “low frequency noise” signals or “flicker noise”. These signals have also been called Microwave Background Radiation, supposedly caused by the “Big-Bang” though this cause is disputed by some.

Gregory views our universe as a finite, spherical, closed system, i.e. a black body. Monopole gravity waves propagate in Planck time so their effects appear everywhere almost simultaneously. Gravity wave energy can be imparted to ordinary objects. So it is suggested that the fact that a fully discharged electrolytic capacitor can develop a charge when disconnected from all circuitry, is down to the interaction of the capacitor with monopole gravity waves.

Gregory suggests the following circuit for examining monopole gravity waves:

```
470pF  1M3
   3 2   1K  DC Output
220nF  471 4V
  3 4 7
  6 Audio Output
  Gnd.
```

Details of this and the theory can be found at [www.rexresearch.com/hodorhys/remag86/remag86.htm](http://www.rexresearch.com/hodorhys/remag86/remag86.htm). Dave has taken that circuit and extended it substantially to give added gain plus a controlled feed of white noise, without relying on the characteristics of a capacitor, capacitors being notoriously variable in precise characteristics.

The unit is operated by turning the gain up until the circuit just reaches self-oscillation, and then backing the gain off very slightly. The white noise source is then adjusted until the unit is producing a somewhat echoing quality to the sound. The result is a device which has unusual characteristics. The circuitry is so simple and cheap, that you can easily try it out for yourself.

**Butch Lafonte’s Motor/Generator.**

Butch has designed an intriguing Motor / Generator system based on the balancing of magnetic and electrical forces. This clever design operates according to the following statements made by Butch:

1. If a magnet is moved away from an iron-cored coil, it generates a voltage:
The voltage generated for any given magnet and speed of movement, is directly proportional to the number of turns of wire which make up the coil.

2. If a magnet is moved away from an air-cored coil, it also generates a voltage. However, the big difference is that the voltage is of the opposite polarity. In other words, the plus and minus connections are swapped over:

Again, the voltage generated for any given magnet and speed of movement, is directly proportional to the number of turns of wire which make up the coil.

So, if these two arrangements are joined together, they produce a system where the voltages cancel each other exactly, provided that the number of turns in each coil are adjusted to produce exactly the same voltages. The mechanical attraction and repulsion forces also balance, so the circuit can be arranged to have no net effect when the rotor is rotated:

It follows then, that this motor arrangement could be introduced into an existing circuit without affecting the operation of that circuit. The arrangement would look like this:
Here, there is no net electrical or magnetic drag on the rotor as the magnets move away from the coils. The battery supplies current to the load in the normal way and rotor arrangement has no effect on the operation of the circuit.

However, when the rotor reaches 100° or so, past the coils, the On/Off switch can be opened. This leaves the rotor in an unbalanced condition, with there being an attraction between one magnet and the iron core of one coil. There is no matching repulsion between the other magnet and the air core of the other coil. This produces a rotational force on the rotor shaft, keeping it spinning and providing useful mechanical power which can be used to generate additional power. This extra mechanical power is effectively free, as the original circuit is not affected by the inclusion of the rotor system.

From a practical point of view, to give high rotational speed and long reliable life, the On/Off switch would need to be an FET transistor with electronic timing related to the rotor position.

There is no need for the rotor to have only two magnets. It would be more efficient if it had four:

Or better still, eight:
And if you are going to have eight, there is no need to have the V-shaped cut-outs which just create turbulence when spinning, so make the rotor circular:

And the stator supporting the coils matches the rotor:
Ferrite is a better material for the cores of the coils. The stators go each side of the rotors and the hole in the middle of the stators is to give clearance for the shaft on which the rotors are mounted:

A system of this type needs accurate timing which is solely related to the rate of rotation. This is best arranged by the use of a bistable multivibrator as described in the Electronics Tutorial of Chapter 12. You will notice the two Timing Coils shown at the right hand side of the diagram above. These are used to toggle the bistable On and Off and they are adjustable in position so that both the On and the Off can be set very precisely. The output of the bistable is set to switch an FET transistor On and Off to give circuit switching which is not affected by either the switching rate or the number of times the switch is operated.

The Rotor / Stator combination can be wired to act as either a driving Motor or an electrical Generator. The difference is the addition of one diode:
With this arrangement, for each rotor, all four pairs of Cored coils are wired in parallel across each other, and all four Air-cored coils are wired in parallel across each other. To improve the clarity, the above diagram shows only one of the four pairs, but in reality, there will be four wires coming into the left hand side of each of the screw terminals.

In the case of the Generator arrangement, you have the option to connect each of the four pairs in parallel as in the Motor arrangement or to connect them in series. Connected in parallel, the coils can sustain a greater current draw, while if connected in series, they provide a higher voltage. The voltage could be further increased by increasing the number of turns on each coil.

Joseph Newman is a man who impresses me. He performs experiments, reports the results and then bases theoretical conclusions on the results of his own experiments. This is the true scientific method.
Joseph has been granted a patent and he has written a book. I would recommend that you buy a copy of his book and help support his work by doing that, but unfortunately, as I understand it, the printing plates for the book were destroyed in a fire and printed copies of his book are effectively unobtainable. You can download a .pdf version from the [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/) web site but please be aware that the overall file size is 100 Mb and so the download will take quite some time. A background download can be had from [http://www.mediafire.com/view/?oe5obw6offqf5s3](http://www.mediafire.com/view/?oe5obw6offqf5s3) or the alternative [http://www.filefactory.com/file/b4g6b3d/Newman.pdf](http://www.filefactory.com/file/b4g6b3d/Newman.pdf) link while the link to Joseph’s own web site is [http://www.josephnewman.com/](http://www.josephnewman.com/).

In very brief outline, Joseph has built a motor which can access free energy. He has a theory about where the excess energy is coming from and how it is acquired by his designs. He has also built a large stationary motor to demonstrate his theory and he has built a motor into a car. The car engine runs on very minor battery power. Joseph’s patent is included in the Appendix.

With the kind permission of the Joseph Newman organisation, I am going to attempt to introduce you to the important scientific conclusions reached by Joseph and the Energy Machine which he designed and which is based on those conclusions. Joseph has a keen enquiring mind and thinks things through for himself rather than blindly accepting everything he is told. This description contains illustrations and wording taken from parts of Joseph’s book published in 1984, and I should like to express my thanks for being given permission to use this material.

Joseph Newman’s motors all consist of a very powerful permanent magnet which rotates or oscillates in or near a coil with a very large number of turns of copper wire. The coil is energised by a battery pack, and the magnetic field produced by the coil provides the force needed to move the permanent magnet. A mechanical switching device or “commutator” reverses the direction of current flow through the coil every half cycle, and in some models, it also cuts off the current input between the current reversals.

The main difference between Joseph’s designs and previous motors is one of scale as Joseph uses very large coils and very large ceramic magnets weighing up to 700 pounds. His smaller motors use powerful rare earth magnets and the coils are wound with 100,000 turns of copper wire. This creates a very high coil resistance and the battery pack voltages are correspondingly high, being in the hundreds to thousands of volts range.

The torque or turning power applied to the magnet in these motors is proportional to the magnet strength, the number of turns in the coil and the current flowing in the coil. In Joseph’s motors, very large torques can be developed by very small currents. In one demonstration, a motor running on 3,000 volts at 0.8 milliamps has such power that it is not possible to stop the motor by holding its two-inch (50 mm) diameter shaft, though the current can be raised by trying to stop it, to 3 milliamps, or nine watts of power.

Joseph’s motors are different in other ways. If fluorescent tubes are connected across the motor coil, they light up due to the coil’s collapsing magnetic field each time the current direction is switched. These fluorescent tubes are used to protect the mechanical switch from arcing damage. The additional power produced in these tubes is at a very high frequency of 10 to 20 MHz. This radio-frequency current has been accurately measured and it exceeds the battery input current by a factor of five to ten times in the different motors. The measured current and voltage were in phase, indicating a real power output.

To understand the thinking behind these motors, we need to follow Joseph’s experiments and the deductions which he made from those experimental results. Joseph considered, and thought carefully about statements made by the two scientific giants James Clerk Maxwell and Michael Faraday, and this led him to valuable
Insights:

It appears that Maxwell and Faraday were the only people who considered that “lines” of magnetic force are actual physical entities and not just a method of representing notional forces and those “lines of force” are actually streams of matter in motion.

Maxwell says: “In speaking of the Energy of the field, however, I wish to be understood literally. All energy is the same as mechanical energy, whether it exists in the form of motion or in that of elasticity, or in any other form. The energy in electromagnetic phenomena is mechanical energy.”

Joseph then considered Michael Faraday’s Electrical Generator and the implications of the way in which it operated:

![Figure 1](image1.png)

Here, a loop of wire is moved downwards from level “A” to level “B”. This movement causes an electrical current to flow leftwards along the wire as shown by the red arrows. Joseph’s question was “why does it go in that direction every time the wire is moved in that way?”

![Figure 2](image2.png)

If the wire is moved upwards through the same magnetic field, then the current flowing in the wire moves in the opposite direction. Why? How does the current “know” which way to go?

![Figure 3](image3.png)

If you turn the magnetic field round by reversing the position of the magnetic fields and then move the wire loop in the same way as before, the current flows in the opposite direction. How does the current “know” which way to flow, or which way round the magnets are turned as it does not touch them?
The next interesting point is that if the wire loop is moved up and down between the magnets, but turned to be parallel to the flux flowing between the poles, then no current flows in the wire, no matter how quickly the wire is moved up and down.

Another point is that if the wire loop is moved slowly up through the magnetic flux, the electric current which flows as a result of that slow movement, moves at the speed of light, flowing from “A” towards “B”.

Now, if the wire loop is disconnected and turned over, the part which was at “A” now moved to “B”, and the same movement of the wire carried out - the current flow is in exactly the same direction although its path along the wire is reversed (because the wire has been reversed). This shows that the direction of current flow is not affected by the wire itself.

According to conventional teachings, this electric current flow was not a result of the magnetic field as the magnetic lines of force were supposed to be imaginary, consisting of Potential Energy and no Kinetic Energy. It became clear to Joseph that this conventional teaching was wrong. Instead, it seemed clear that the magnetic field consists of particles which have mechanical characteristics, and those particles must be moving at the speed of light within the magnetic field.

A key question seemed to be: “how does the current ‘know’ which direction to flow?” as the direction was always consistent. After careful consideration, it occurred to Joseph that the answer was provided by the
actions of a gyroscope:

![Figure 11-A1](image)

Here, if the axle of the spinning flywheel, or gyroscope, is pressed downwards it moves off in the direction shown by the red arrows. However, if the axle is pressed upwards:

![Figure 11-B1](image)

then the axle moves in the opposite direction as shown by the red arrows. This effect is, of course, reversed if the direction of rotation of the gyroscope is reversed (as it will be if viewed from the other side, in the same way as the current flow direction in the wire is reversed if the magnetic poles are swapped over).

Now, if the gyroscope axle is moved up and down equally on both sides, there is no resulting sideways force:

![Figure 11-E1](image)

The action of the gyroscope axle matched the current flow in the wire in every respect, so it became clear to Joseph that the particles flowing between the poles of the magnet were spinning as well as moving at the speed of light. This gyroscopic mechanical motion of the particles accounts for all of the characteristics of the current flow in a wire which is being moved through a magnetic field. This is a major insight on the part of Joseph.

May I remark that these particles are not coming from the magnet itself, but are flowing in from the zero-point energy field, that flow being caused by the broken symmetry of the zero-point energy field generated by the dipole effect of the poles of the magnet. That is why energy can (appear to) be drawn from magnets for years on end.
Joseph then went on to consider the physical aspects of permanent magnets. There were two very significant facts which had to be considered. The first of these is that different materials have markedly different magnetic characteristics:

A bar of soft iron does become a permanent magnet when pulsed briefly with a strong magnetic field, but if exactly the same level of magnetic pulsing is applied to a similar bar of an alloy of iron, nickel and cobalt, a permanent magnet is also produced, but the magnetic field of the alloy is very much stronger than that of the soft iron bar. This shows that the molecular structure of the bar has a major effect on the resulting magnet.

In passing, please be aware that the more powerful magnets available nowadays are so strong that they can easily injure you. If you pick up a magnet and inadvertently get close to a second one, the loose magnet will jump some inches and try to connect to the one in your hand, crushing your fingers in the process and proving very hard indeed to shift in order to deal with the injury. I have also seen it alleged that US ‘AlNiCo’ (Aluminium / Nickel / Cobalt alloy) magnets are deliberately doped with K40 isotope which renders them useless fairly quickly. The source of this information is highly dubious, but the extra sales advantages to the magnet manufacturers would be significant. Also, the advantages for the people wanting to suppress the creation of free-energy magnet motors would be major as many talented US inventors are likely to think that their successful magnet motors were failures because the magnets appeared to be “drained of power” by being used in their design, when in fact, the design is perfectly good. So I will leave you to make up your own mind about the matter and remark that Bill Muller found that his powerful Chinese-manufactured magnets were in perfect condition after eleven years of use.

Another point which Joseph considered was the fact that when successive magnetic pulses are applied to a ferromagnetic metal bar, the resulting magnetic field strength reaches a definite maximum value, and further pulsing has no further beneficial effect:
This is considered to be the magnetic pulse aligning atoms in the metal. Eventually, all of the atoms are aligned and so no further effect can be produced by further pulsing. This alignment can be destroyed if the metal bar is heated to a sufficiently high temperature, forcing the atoms into such an energetic state that the alignment is lost.

It should perhaps, be stressed here, that the magnet itself does not have any power, in spite of seeming to have. Tom Bearden explains this clearly by pointing out that what happens is that the opposite poles of the magnet created a “dipole” which unbalances the random ‘quantum foam’ nature of the local environment (the zero-point energy field) and that causes continuous energy flows from the environment. The “magnet” power is coming from the environment and not from the magnet itself.

If you find this hard to believe and think that you are just getting back the electromagnetic energy which you pumped into the metal when creating the magnet in the first place, then apply simple arithmetic. Assume that you get back exactly 100% of the original power and calculate how long that amount of power would allow the magnet support its own weight against gravity, when attached to a vertical metal surface. Then ask yourself how come the magnet can do it for years and years on end. Point proved conclusively?

Joseph concluded that the attraction of “unlike” magnetic poles and the repulsion of “like” poles is caused by the gyroscopic spin direction of the actual physical streams of the “lines of force”, which he has shown that both of the scientific giants, Maxwell and Faraday were convinced were actual physical entities. The intuitive genius Nikola Tesla described the zero-point energy field as having the physical characteristics of a gas, capable of having motion, exerting pressure, and yet having particle size so small that it can flow through any physical material. Joseph has concluded that this field flow has a specific spin direction as it flows, certainly for flows caused by the magnetic dipole of a magnet. It should be remembered that the scientific teaching of present day educational institutions is at least fifty years out of date. We have the most unusual situation where the scientific literature of a hundred years ago is actually of better quality than that of today which does not describe the actual world at all well. Currently, misconception is alive and very well.

For example, Maxwell produced equations describing how the world works. Admittedly, these equations are very difficult for people to understand. H. A. Lorentz simplified these equations and his results are mistakenly described as Maxwell’s which they most certainly are not. Tom Bearden illustrates it this way; consider a sailing boat being driven along by the force of the wind against the sails:
Maxwell says that there is a vast swathe of wind blowing across the ocean, capable of powering a long row of a thousand sailing boats side by side. This is the actual physical case. Lorentz has ‘simplified’ things by saying “we will consider one boat and only one boat. As the rest of the wind does not touch any part of the boat we can ignore it”. While that is true for that one boat, what science teaching now says is that the wind can only power a single boat. This is not the actual case, as the environmental wind is not limited to powering just one boat (sailing regattas would not be much fun if that were the case!). This, of course, is just an illustration. Maxwell’s equations cover energy and power for the whole universe, and deal with all cases. Lorentz has taken a sub-set of the conditions described by Maxwell's equations, just the group which apply to “closed systems” – just one boat on the ocean. Science has latched on to this and now confidently states that everything is a “closed” system, when in fact, as the zero-point energy field flows through everything, everywhere at all times, and is capable of supplying unlimited additional energy anywhere at any time, there is probably not a single instance of a “closed” system anywhere in the world.

Joseph Newman, and all other serious inventors, have to fight against this “conventional” science teaching, which is now so entrenched that it has become the equivalent of religious dogma, and ‘scientists’ are unwilling to consider valid observations which do not fit in with the very limited Lorentz concept of the environment. They say “perpetual motion is impossible” which means that Newton was wrong when he said that a moving body will keep on moving indefinitely unless some force acts on it to stop it.

You can see then, that when Joseph performs tests and then bases his conclusions on the results of those tests, that he is applying the true scientific method, and people who say that his verified results are impossible because Lorentz says so, are not being scientifically honest. No honest person can ignore genuine scientific observations.

Joseph’s deduction that magnetic lines of force are formed of actual physical particles spinning in gyroscopic motion as they move along their magnetic path at the speed of light, was not something which was obvious to scientists, in spite of the fact that both Maxwell and Faraday had both explicitly described these lines of force as being ‘kinetic magnetic energy’:

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As a wire passes in front of and across the end of a bar magnet, the current flows in one direction, pauses, and then flows in the opposite direction. This occurs due to the gyroscopic flow direction of the particles. For instance, on one side of the South end of the magnet, the lines of force spin “up” while on the other side of that same South end, they spin “down”. A spinning gyroscope will move at right angles to the force acting on it, so as the gyroscopically spinning particles encounter the particles of the wire, they move “up” or “down”
the wire at right angles to the direction in which they first encounter the wire. Please note that it is the gyroscopic spin direction of the particles which determines magnetic ‘attraction’ or ‘repulsion’ and not the direction of flow of those particles along their line of force:

It should also be realised that although we draw ‘lines’ of force around a magnetic device, the reality is that these are really shells of force and the magnetic flow is really like water flowing in a river. While we may draw arrows to indicate direction and strength of currents in a diagram of the river, the reality is, of course, that there is water flowing at all points in the river and not just along the lines which we decide to draw. The same applies to the magnetic flow around a magnet, it exists like a solid mass flowing through and around the magnet. You don’t see it or feel it because the particles are so small.

Now to the details of how to construct a device to take advantage of this magnetic movement and output more power than is required to make it operate. Let me remind you again that we are talking here of a Coefficient of Performance (COP) which is greater than 1 in a system which has an overall power efficiency of less than 100%. This is, of course, due to the additional energy flowing in from the zero-point energy field. Joseph visualises the apparent energy gain as being conversion of a small amount of matter into its energy form \( E = mC^2 \), and while this is probably correct, it will be particles of the zero-point energy field which are being converted into their energy form and not particles from the metal of the magnet. It must be remembered that the particles of the zero-point energy field keep swapping over from energy to physical form all the time anyway. Energy is never “used up” but merely converted from one form to another and the zero-point energy field contains such a staggering amount of energy that all of the visible matter in the whole of the universe could be created from the energy in a single cc of the zero-point energy field. So, if a few sub-sub-sub-microscopic particles of the zero-point energy field switch into their energy form to produce what looks like excess power to us, that is an item so trivial to the field that it is not even worth mentioning – less than the effect of taking one grain of sand off a beach one hundred miles long. The conventional conception of the way things are is so far away from reality that it is ridiculous, (and that is even without saying anything about the effect that the time axis dimension has on the energy balance and flow of energy).

But back to Joseph’s design. Firstly, he points out that it is generally agreed (courtesy of Gustav Kirchhoff) that in the situation shown here:

In any given instant of time, the amount of current flowing into the system ("X") is exactly matched by the amount of current flowing out of the system ("X"). But, if measuring equipment is attached across the coil at the moment of switch-off, an additional amount of current ("X") flows out of the coil. This is generally agreed,
and it suggests that a quantity of current “X” flows into the coil and yet a quantity of “2X” flows out of it (COP=2).

Joseph examines this situation in practical detail as follows:

Consider an air-cored coil with an interior diameter of 10 feet, a height of 8.32 feet and would with 1,000 feet of 40-gauge copper wire. That length of wire has a resistance of 1,049 ohms and weighs 0.02993 pounds. If 100 volts DC is connected across it, then a current of about 95 milliamps will flow, which is a power input of 9.5 watts. With just 31.8 turns, it will produce a weak magnetic field of 0.012 Gauss, with a mere 0.000014 Joules of energy stored in it. With a tiny inductance of just 0.003 Henries, if the current is stopped and the ends of the coil shorted together, only an insignificant current would flow.

Now, repeat the experiment, but this time, use 5-gauge copper wire. As it has a resistance of 0.3133 ohms per 1,000 foot length. To equal the same resistance and match the previous current flow, a massive length of 3,348,000 feet needs to be used. This length of wire will weigh 335,469.6 pounds which is 16.77 tons. The 10-foot interior diameter coil, 8.32 feet tall, wound with this wire will have about 90,000 turns. If 100 volts DC is now connected across the coil, the same 95 milliamp current will flow with an input power of 9.5 watts, the same as before. But due to the massively larger coil, it has a magnetic field of 23.7 Gauss, which is 1,905 times larger than the previous coil, and with 116 Joules of energy stored in the magnetic field. This is a phenomenal 8,000,000 times more energy than in the 40-gauge coil of the previous example. A phenomenally larger current flow would now occur if the current input was stopped and the coil shorted out, as that would generate an inductance of 25,700 Henries which is more than eight million times the inductance of the previous coil:
Joseph then built a smaller version of his design, as shown here:

![Diagram of a magnetic field with labels for drum and coil.]

this prototype used 5-gauge insulated copper wire weighing 4,200 pounds and 300 pounds of 30-gauge copper wire wound over the 5-gauge winding, and a massive 4-foot long, 20-inch diameter permanent...
magnet of some 600 pounds in weight. The coil was wound with an inner diameter of 4-feet and a height of about 3-feet, wound on a fibreglass tube. The overall weight was about 5,000 pounds.

Everybody who was it was asked: “Based on your expertise, how much power would be necessary to simply operate this device mechanically?” Answers ranged from 200 watts to 1,000 watts. On learning that it had an air-cored coil, other skilled individuals stated that in their expert opinion, the unit would be highly inefficient since it contained no iron core. However, from the design information already presented here, it can be shown that the actual necessary power input is less than 1.5 watts providing a power output far in excess of 100%.

Dr. Roger Hastings, Principle Physicist at Sperry Univac Corporation and former Associate Professor of Physics at North Dakota State University, tested this prototype and showed that it had an 800% efficiency — that is a Coefficient of Performance of 8.0 which is impressive. In addition, Dr Hastings estimated that with a 1.5 watt power input, the back emf exceeded 80,000 watts. In operation, the 600-pound, hand-made magnet rotates at just 200 rpm.

Joseph’s patent which is in the Appendix, indicates four different ways of implementing his design principles. It is very clear that Joseph has proved his point by producing and constructing a device which Oliver Lorentz considered to be impossible, thanks to his throwing out the free-energy sections of Maxwell’s equations. Joseph Newman has clearly earned our respect.

You can see J L Naudin’s builds and tests of small models at http://jnaudin.free.fr/html/qm11bp.htm.

**Daniel Cook’s Motionless Generator.**

In 1871, Daniel Cook obtained US Patent 119,825 for “An Improvement In Induction Coils”. The highly-respected Dr Harold Aspden considered this to be a very serious piece of equipment, operating as paired cross-linked capacitors, and his opinion carries very considerable weight. It is a very simple device which could be interesting to test, especially as it does not involve any electronics or complicated construction.

Howard Halay who is an experienced free-energy developer, says “what Cook is saying is this: ‘Electricity will always flow from a high voltage to a low voltage’. Cook uses the principle of a spike collapsing back-EMF in such a way that the current constantly flows in the same direction. In this process it constantly overcomes the initial current which is of opposite polarity. It constantly increases in voltage until the limit of the components is reached. In order to start it, you can use another coil superimposed on top which induces the “start” current, or alternatively, you can use a magnet to generate this starting current. The device then goes into “runaway” mode so you have to use sufficient insulation and sufficient diameter wire to prevent fire. He then uses an ingenious device to prevent runaway in the form of a powerful rheostat. The rheostat is then shorted to draw power out of the system. The rheostat prevents the device from shutting down. Cook states that you need sufficient length of wire for the device to work. He recommends using 2000 feet of wire. He also uses a long and thick iron core. This will have the effect of limiting the frequency to manageable levels and it will also limit the high voltage to a realistic value. I believe that this is Thomas Henry Moray's secret and that the long wires which Moray used, were deliberate misdirection. (Moray used an electromagnet to induce his starting current). I also believe that this is also Steven Mark's secret. A further point which I have discovered in conjunction with experiments made by ‘Grumage’ is that all of these devices need static electricity to operate. This explains why Moray's device sometimes would not start (i.e. damp weather). These OU devices are in fact static electricity vortex or suction devices. Also Bedini's devices work less well at night (when static electricity intensity is reduced by lack of sunlight - hence creating morning dew). Examining the Daniel Cook patent, draws attention to the use of obsolete terms which can be found in the 1842 book “Manual of Magnetism” by Daniel Davis Junior (http://www.free-energy-info.com/Davis.pdf).

The Cook patent does use some terms which may not be familiar to many people as they are terms which were common 170 years ago but are not commonly used today. Daniel Davis uses these terms, which makes them easier to understand. For example, he envisages that each coil will have a screw connector called a “cup” at each end of the wire and so, instead of referring to the “ends” of a coil, he refers to the “cups” of that coil. Davis also performs some experiments which may help us to understand how Daniel Cook’s motionless generator works. Some of the experiments performed are familiar and some are not. He starts by constructing wet-cell batteries using copper and zinc electrodes with a copper sulphate solution between them. He observes that with two or more connected in series, that the electrical effect is greater:
This is normal and what we would expect when connecting batteries together in series. He also determines that the power which such a battery can provide, increases as the wetted surface area increases:

This is not surprising, but this effect can produce an unexpected effect. The methods of detection of electrical effects used by Davis include a galvanometer (which is effectively, a voltmeter) and the intensity of an electrical shock felt by a human being holding the ends of an induction coil. For this, Davis winds a pancake coil from flat, insulated metallic ribbon, and places it in various positions near a large helically wound coil which has a large number of turns:

When the switch “S” is closed, the coils act as an air-core transformer and the rapidly changing current flow in coil “A” induces a voltage in coil “B”. That induced voltage is high as coil “B” has many turns and a substantial shock can be felt when the ends of that coil are held as shown above.

Davis then found that placing several thin metal sheet between the coils had little effect but if a 2.5 mm thick iron plate is used, then there is little or no induced voltage in coil “B”. Interestingly, if a radial slot is cut in that plate, then it has little or no effect on the induced voltage and strong shocks are again felt. The induced voltage is very short in duration when the switch is closed as the current flowing through coil “A” reaches a steady state very rapidly and so there is no longer a varying magnetic field. An interesting effect is seen if the switch is left closed and one of the battery plates is raised, reducing it’s wetted surface area. An induced voltage is produced in coil “B” for the entire duration of the plate movement, producing a much longer overall effect. The galvanometer shows that the voltage across coil “A” is effectively unchanged and yet the induced voltage continues. Presumably, this is from the resistance of coil “A” being so low that the current flow through it is limited by the battery’s ability to supply current, and so, raising one plate reduces the current through the coil without changing the supply voltage, and the reducing current flow in the coil produces a reducing magnetic field and a long period of output from coil “B”.

Davis then experiments with cascading coils to see if the much higher induced voltage can produce an even greater effect in an additional coil, and finds that it does:
Davis makes the following observations about the direction of current flow for induced voltages in a chain of coils which are widely spread apart to avoid magnetic interaction. That is to say, the direction of current flow is not caused by magnetic induction, but instead, solely by back-EMF. For this, he uses a plus sign “+” to indicate current flow in one direction, and a minus sign “-” to indicate current flow in the opposite direction. He cascades seven coils like this:

The flow directions are then:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coil</th>
<th>At switch On</th>
<th>At switch Off</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The patent drawings give an impression of a small, compact device. That is not the case as the smallest size indicated by Daniel Cook is a bundle of iron wires 600 mm (2 feet) in length and 50 mm (2 inches) in diameter, wound with coils which have at least 150 metres (500 feet) of wire in each coil, and ideally, twice that length of wire. When completed, this is a large and heavy device and it is likely that miniature versions will not work. Cook says:

My invention relates to the combination of two or more, simple or compound, helical coils with iron cores or magnets, in such a manner as to produce a constant electric current without the aid of a battery.

Fig.1 represents the different parts of a compound helical coil and iron core.
In carrying out my invention, I do not confine myself to any particular mode of coil construction or to any particular size of wire, observing only that the quantity of wire in the various coils must be sufficient to produce the required result; also, the material used to insulate the wires must be suitable for producing the required result. However, I generally prefer to use the same size of wire in the construction of both simple and compound coils.

When constructing simple coils, to produce the required voltage and current, it is desirable to use a long iron core as shown as A in Fig. 1. This iron core may be two, three or even six feet in length, and two, three or more inches in diameter. The coil should be wound from good quality copper wire, insulated with silk or shellac. The iron core A may be a solid bar or a bundle of separate iron wires, the latter giving better results and providing more current for any given wire diameter. While the wire may be fine or coarse, I prefer to use No. 16 (1.23 mm diameter) or even thicker wire, as the power output is in proportion to the length and diameter of the wire.

When using compound coils, it is preferable in some cases to use a small wire, say, No. 30 (0.255 mm diameter) or even less, for the primary coil, and No. 16 or even larger for the secondary coil. With this combination, the initial secondary current of the primary coil being very small in comparison to the terminal secondary current of the secondary coil, offers little resistance to the terminal secondary, hence a quicker action is obtained. Alternatively, the primary coil may be of uninsulated wire coiled into a solid helix, being insulated only between the coils, in which case there is little or no opposing initial secondary current.

Helically wound coils alone with large quantities of wire will produce similar results. A ribbon spiral may be substituted for the secondary coil C, say, of three, six, twelve or twenty-four inches in width and of any convenient length, but always of sufficient length to raise its output current to the level necessary to sustain itself through its action on the primary coil B. In the use of compound coils, it is important that the secondary
coil should be wound in the same direction as the primary coil, and the primary and secondary coils be cross-connected as shown in Fig. 2. The action will then be as follows:

The secondary current of the secondary coil C, will circulate through the opposite primary coil B, while at the same instant, a secondary current from the primary coil B will be generated and circulate through the opposite secondary coil C, both currents flowing in the same direction in the opposite coils B and C, producing a combined magnetic action on the iron core A in the centre. The opposing initial secondary currents of the two coils B and C being overpowered, do not show in the main circuit D of the device, there being eight distinct currents developed in the action of one entire circuit of the two pairs of coils, two terminal and two initial secondary currents to each pair of coils, the four initial secondaries constantly opposing the circulation of the four terminal secondary currents, but the initial secondaries being of much lower voltage and current than those of the terminal secondary, are overcome, leaving a sufficient surplus terminal power to overcome the resistance of the primary wire and charge the bar A to the degree needed to reproduce itself in the opposite secondary coil. By this means, a constant current is kept flowing in all of the coils.

These coils may be constructed using 500 feet to 1,000 feet or more for each of the primary and secondary coils. The longer, and better insulated the wire, the greater is the power obtained from the device. The larger the wire diameter, the greater the current obtained.

If only single coils are to be used, it is preferable to have a wire length of 1,000 feet or more in each coil. The action is the same as with the compound coils, but only four currents are produced: two initial and two terminal currents, the latter flowing constantly in the same direction - in effect, there being only one current in the same direction.

The action in the coils may be started by using a permanent magnet, an electromagnet or by pulsing an extra coil wound around the outside of one of the coils of the device. If the load circuit is broken for any reason, the current stops immediately. It is then necessary to perform the start-up procedure again to get the device restarted. This can be overcome by permanently connecting a resistor across the terminal of the load so that if the load circuit is broken, the device can continue under very much reduced current until the load is restored. By this means, the device becomes the direct equivalent of a battery.

A rheostat D may be introduced into the main circuit to limit the current and prevent the overheating of the coils through the drawing of excessive amounts of current. The iron cores may also be used for producing electromagnetic motion when the device is operating.

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In 1870 there was nothing much in the way of electronic components available to Daniel who did exceptionally well to produce his self-powered design. With its size of 0.6 to 1.8 metres in length and the substantial weight of the iron cores, it does not lend itself to mobile applications. With present day components, Daniel’s system can be reproduced in a much more compact and lighter form. I don’t know who originated it, but I recently came across the “Rene-Rator” circuit which shows the Daniel Cook design using toroids (presumably ferrite) instead of the long iron cores wound with coils, and diodes used to control the feedback.

It is clear that the power output of such an arrangement will be limited by the capacity of the toroids to carry magnetic flows and so I might suggest that the ‘Nanoperm’ nanotechnology high performance toroids such as the [http://www.magnetec.us/shop/details.php?id=73&kategorie=5&main_kat=&start=50&nr] toroid from Magnetec GmbH might improve performance. However, please understand clearly that I have not built this circuit and while I believe that it would work well, experimentation will be needed in order to find the best working arrangements. The circuit is shown like this:
You will notice that the direction of the coil windings is not specified and so it is left up to you to arrange the magnets and input windings so that they oppose each other.

It seems certain that the circuit will oscillate at its resonant frequency and that frequency will be high. As Daniel found it necessary to control the current with a rheostat, it might be advisable to place controls on the circuit to prevent runaway from the positive feedback used in the circuit. A circuit breaker placed between the two toroids could impose a safety limit on current and protect the insulation of the wiring. A Metal Oxide Varistor placed across one of the input coils could be used to limit the voltage generated if that is found to be necessary.

I would expect a good deal of experimentation to be needed to find a good working circuit, and so I asked my friend Edmund Cook who is experienced in the use of simulation software, to assess the circuit and its operation so that there could be some assessment of what factors have the greatest effect. The magnet strength relative to the quality and size of the toroid has to be important because if the magnet puts the toroid into saturation, that would probably not be helpful in power production, but that, of course, is merely my uninformed opinion and test results are the only way to optimise the circuit.

Having examined the circuit, Edmund states that the arrangement should be different and he has produced the following diagram:

![Diagram of Rene-Rator](image)
Edmund says: Each output coils’ half wave (shown in red), is the opposing input coil’s actuating pulse, which opposes the permanent magnet’s magnetic field influence on the toroid core. Note how this cyclic blocking and augmentation creates a natural resonance between the coils as the ebb and flow of current is regenerated and sustained by the permanent magnets. Particularly noteworthy are the self-enhancing characteristics developed by unifying the directions of the windings and the polarity placements of the magnets and both the Outputs’ and Inputs’ subsequent collapsing fields’ counter-EMF. I find the structure of this circuit to be fascinating, especially when considering how the directions of the windings and the subsequent collapsing fields can be used directly to influence, and therefore, accentuate the overall field strength of each coil. The directions of all the windings are of critical importance for not only the fields on each toroid and the intended function of the diode, BUT also for the proper interactions between the two, intensely interlaced Output Coils. The original drawing was dysfunctional on numerous details.

This circuit has two outputs and no external inputs and so it needs to be started by applying an AC signal to one of the two magnet coil pairs.

As already mentioned, I personally, would prefer there to be protection in the circuit against over voltage or the current rising to an unacceptably high level which would cause overheating of the wire and possible damage to the insulation of the wire. While a fuse is shown in the following diagram, I would prefer a circuit breaker. The Metal Oxide Varistor is chosen for whatever voltage you intend to run the circuit at, and the diodes need to be able to handle more current than the wire can manage. I would suggest that fast acting diodes are used. These measures should not affect the operation of the circuit and it is likely that many people would consider them to be unnecessary. However, if you wish to include them, then I would suggest the following circuit arrangement:
If you build this circuit and get it going, then please let me know about it with details of the coils, toroids and magnets used so that your success can help other replicators.

**Michael Eskeli’s “No Work” Generator.**

One of the greatest expenses for many families is the cost of heating or cooling a home. Any device which can help with this task is definitely welcome. Michael Eskeli has produced several most interesting designs which may have been overlooked due to lack of emphasis of what they do.

Normally, a central heating system uses an expensive method of heating a liquid, typically oil, which is then pumped through radiators around the building by a low energy pump. The vast majority of the cost is in heating, typically, a furnace and very little is spent on moving the heated liquid through the radiators. In this design from Michael, the cost of the heating is zero, and all that is left is a low-power (quarter to half horsepower) input, needed for spinning a rotor against the friction of its bearings and stuffing box.

As this seems impossible, a little very technical explanation is given here. This information has come from the web site of Scott Robertson at [http://www.aircaraccess.com](http://www.aircaraccess.com/) with his kind permission. In broad outline, the device comprises of a disc-shaped housing with a closely-fitting rotor spinning inside it. A gas under pressure and a liquid under pressure are both fed into the device and they intermingle in a pulsating sequence which alternately compresses and releases the pressure on both fluids. This heats both fluids very effectively, and most interestingly, without the use of any user-supplied heating power and without the
use of any heating fuel. This next paragraph is for Engineers, so if you don’t understand it, then just ignore it, as the important thing is to understand what the device does, rather than exactly how it does it.

The Heat-Pump Work Cycle: The example diagram above shows the sequence of events caused by the rotation of the disc inside the device housing. This “Pressure / Enthalpy” or “Pressure / Internal-Energy” diagram shows the pressures and temperatures during a single pressure cycle of the device. Using nitrogen as the gas, the cycle starts at point “1” which has a pressure of 150 psi and a temperature of sixty degrees F. A pressure wave now hits the mix of nitrogen and the liquid. This pressure wave moves us to point “2” where the pressure has been boosted to 540 psi which raises the temperature to 280 degrees F.

Moving to point “3” is where the wanted heat is passed throughout the gas a the liquid (performing the heating task which is the whole object of the exercise), even though the pressure is maintained, so at point “3” there is a pressure of 540 psi and a temperature of 138 degrees F. Next, comes a major drop in pressure, taking us to point “4” pulling the temperature down to below freezing: 250 psi at just 4 degrees F. At point “5” the pressure is dropped further to 150 psi, still at 4 degrees F. Point “6” takes us to 250 psi at 60 degrees F from where the cycle takes us back to point “1”, and the sequence starts all over again.

The compression takes place on leg 1 to 2 and leg 5 to 6. The actual amounts are 53.2 and 13.5 respectively, giving a Compression Total of 66.7 B/lb.

The expansion takes place on leg 3 to 4, leg 4 to 5, and leg 6 to 1. The actual amounts are 31.6, 16.6 and 18.7 respectively, giving an Expansion Total of 67.0 B/lb.

As these two are virtually identical, the overall result of a complete cycle is effectively work-free.

This work cycle can be readily performed by the Centrifuge-Type Heat Pump. This is a unit which has only one moving part, the rotor, the working fluid, such as nitrogen, is sealed in with the rotor and circulates in passages in the rotor. The circulation of the working fluid inside the rotor is accomplished by density control alone, in accordance with the work-cycle shown above, and there is no work input to the working fluid from the rotor shaft. Thus the work input for the heat transfer is nil, and a work-free heat pump results.

In the diagram shown below, an axial cross-section and an end view with sections removed, shows a typical heat pump rotor suitable for use with the work-cycle discussed above.

In the diagram, 10 is the heated-fluid heat exchanger, 11 is the heat-supply heat exchanger in two parts, and 12 are the vanes in passages which return the working fluid from the periphery to the centre of the disc. The work cycle process is of the non-flow type for the working fluid in this rotor, and this provides higher performance that that in the example shown above.
The fluid to be heated is usually a liquid, such as water, which enters and leaves the rotor via the rotor shaft. Similarly, the heat-supply fluid circulating through heat exchanger 11, is a liquid which enters and leaves via rotor shaft passages.

The work-free heat pump obviously has many uses. One such use is in heating all types of buildings and homes, resulting in cost-free heating, since no fuel is needed, and the power usage is nearly nil. In the heat pump shown above, power is needed to drive the rotor against friction which may require a quarter to half horsepower motor.

Another use is in power generation, resulting in cost-free power since the unit uses no fuel, the energy source being either ambient air, or water from some natural source. (Attached turbine generates the power; part of this is used to overcome the heat pump friction loss and the remainder is available for generation of electricity). Further uses are in portable power and transportation vehicles, etc.

The apparatus and methods and work cycles are patented. For basic heat pump, see US Patent 3,926,010 and Canadian Patent 984,827. Here is one of Michael’s many patents:

**US Patent 3,650,636**  
**21st March 1972**  
**Inventor: Michael Eskeli**

**ABSTRACT**

Method and apparatus for a compressor for compressing air, gases and vapours isothermally using a liquid stream to compress the gas; the liquid issuing from an impeller intermittently, with the gas being entrained between these liquid pulses and compressed by the liquid; the liquid having high kinetic energy when leaving the impeller and in slowing the kinetic energy is converted to pressure for both the liquid and entrained gas. Also, this compressor may be used advantageously to compress vapours, wherein the liquid is the same fluid as the gas, in which case condensation of the gas to the liquid occurs, and work of compression is reduced.

**US Patent References:**

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<th>Date</th>
<th>Inventor</th>
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BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates generally to devices for compressing gases, air and vapours, in which a liquid is in intimate contact with the gas or vapour to be compressed.

DESCRIPTION OF PRIOR ART
There are numerous devices and machines available for compressing a gas or a vapour. In some of these machines a liquid is rotated inside an eccentric casing, so that the machine rotor will cause the liquid to pulsate and the space between the rotor blades is increased or decreased, and this variation compresses the gas. These machines are called liquid piston type machines. Another device is the jet ejector compressor, where a stream of liquid or gas is used to entrain the gas or vapour to be compressed, and the kinetic energy of the stream is converted in a diverging nozzle to a pressure.

The main disadvantage of the liquid piston type machine is its poor efficiency, since the liquid is rotated in the machine and requires relatively large power input for compressing the gas. In the ejector compressor, the velocity of the liquid stream is limited and it entrains poorly of any gas; therefore the efficiency of the device is very poor. The available kinetic energy in the liquid stream is high, but due to poor entrainment of the gas by the liquid, results for the device are poor.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

**Fig.1** is an end view of the compressor casing, showing the exterior.

**Fig.2** is a side view and a section of the casing and the impeller of the compressor.
Fig. 3 is a side view and a section of the impeller, and

Fig. 4 is an end view of the impeller, showing the fluid passages.

DESCRIPTION OF PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS

It is an object of this invention to provide a method and a device for compressing gases or vapours essentially isothermally in which the kinetic energy contained by a liquid stream is used to compress said gas to a higher pressure where the liquid in slowing in speed will increase its pressure and increase the pressure of the gas being entrained in it. Also, it is an object of this invention to provide a method and a device in which the gas may be partially or fully be condensed in the liquid stream thereby lowering the work of compression; this occurring when the gas or vapour being compressed is the same fluid as the liquid; that is, the gas being compressed is the vapour phase of the fluid, and the liquid being used for as the motive fluid is the liquid phase of the fluid.
Referring to Fig. 1, there is shown an end view of the compressor, where 10 is the compressor casing, 11 is the liquid inlet, 12 is the gas or vapour inlet, and 13 is the outlet.

In Fig. 2, a side view of the compressor is shown. The impeller 22 is rotated by shaft 28, supported by bearings and sealed by packing 23 and stuffing box 24. Alternately a mechanical seal could be used. The liquid that is used as the motive fluid enters through opening 11, passes through the impeller 22 and leaves the impeller at a high velocity and entering the throat section 21 and from there the diffuser section 29 in the casing 10. After leaving the diffuser at a higher pressure, and at a lower velocity, the gas and liquid mixture is collected in annular space 30, and from there passes out through opening 13. The liquid entrains gas from annular space 31, and the gas enters the annular space from outside through opening 12.
In Fig.3, the impeller 22 is shown in more detail, where 38 is the fluid passage, and 36 is the opening for the drive shaft.

In Fig.4, the impeller is shown, with 22 being the impeller and 38 being the fluid passage.

In operation, the compressor functions in a manner similar to a jet ejector compressor. A motive fluid is accelerated in a passage in the impeller to a high velocity; this corresponds to the motive fluid nozzle in a jet ejector. However, the fluid stream issuing from the impeller, when it rotates, is not continuous as seen by the compressor casing, since in this particular instance, the impeller has four fluid passages, with solid material between them. Therefore, the flow from impeller, as seen by the compressor casing, is pulsating, with empty spaces between the high speed liquid; these empty spaces being filled by the gas from the annular spaces, item 31, Fig.2, and the gas being rapidly moved with the liquid to the outer annular space 30, and from there to discharge. This pulsating action improves the entrainment of the gas by the liquid, and more fully utilises the kinetic energy available in the liquid stream.

The sizing of the fluid passages and the calculations related to them, are fully described in thermodynamics literature for jet ejectors and for steam injectors. The space of the passage 38 in Fig.3, would be either converging for liquids that do not vaporise when leaving the passage; or the passage could be diverging at its outlet for fluids which will vaporise either partially or fully when leaving the passage. Of the non-vaporising liquids, water would be an example, and of the partially vaporising types, butane would be an example, both at atmospheric temperatures, and at low pressures. As illustrated in Figs. 2-4, passageways 38 comprise a converging section nearest the centre of the impeller but are at least non-converging at the discharge section. Preferably, the at least non-converging section is a diverging section for better taking advantage of the energy available in the motive fluid to achieve higher exit velocities.

The fluid passages shown in Fig.4, item 38, can be radial as illustrated, or be forward or backward curved, depending on the fluid used. Also, the throat section 21, of Fig.2, may have vanes of proper shape to prevent circular motion of the fluid after it leaves the impeller. Vanes of this type are commonly used in
turbines and pumps and so are not described here. There are four fluid passages shown in Fig.4, but this number will be determined when calculations are made for the size of the passages, and the frequency of pulses of liquid required to maintain suitable pressure and volume relationships inside the compressor; also, the rotational speed of the impeller would enter into these calculations.

Normally, the amount of liquid is large when compared to the amount of gas or vapour. Therefore, when compressing a gas, the heat of compression from the gas is transferred to the liquid, resulting in a temperature increase of the liquid, as well as of the gas. This temperature increase is much less than it would be for the gas alone, resulting in nearly isothermal compression, and therefore reduced work of compression, as compared to isentropic compression which is often used in rotary compressors. Also, if a liquid that will expand in the impeller is used, with an expanding fluid passage, the temperature of the motive fluid is lowered, and the fluid velocity greatly increased, resulting in much better efficiency for the compressor; this is similar to the function of converging-diverging diverging nozzles in jet ejectors.

The operation of the compressor may be inferred from the above descriptive matter. A liquid source is connected to the impeller inlet Fig.1, 11 and a gas or vapour source is connected to the gas inlet Fig.1, 12. Discharge from the compressor is from Fig.1, 13. A suitable power source, such as an electric motor, is connected to shaft Fig.2, 28, causing the shaft to rotate. The liquid is accelerated by the action of the impeller, and as it passes through the annular space Fig.2, 31 in a pulsating flow, it entrains the gas and carries it to annular space 30, from where it discharges.

Materials of construction for the compressor would be similar to those used to make pumps for pumping liquids. Cast iron, steel, bronze, brass, stainless steel and various plastics could be used.

Cold Fusion.
Cold fusion was initially accepted with great excitement. It then appeared to be discredited, primarily as a matter of fear of losing the funding for the decades old "hot" fusion research. At the present time, there are some two hundred labs. which have confirmed the findings and so there is no doubt as to the reality of the system. In essence, it is said that nuclear fusion can take place at room temperature, under certain conditions. However, a commercial working device is now reaching the market with details at Sterling Allan’s website: http://peswiki.com/index.php/Directory:Andrea_A._Rossi_Cold_Fusion_Generator.

If you want the background details of cold fusion history, then there are several web sites which follow the progress in this field, including “Cold Fusion Times” at http://world.std.com/~mica/cft.html where considerable detail is available. However, although a cold fusion generator is unlikely to be something which you can knock together in your back yard, the process is edging steadily towards general use. In 2012, the Rossi “Ecat” cold fusion generator is expected to launch. The web site http://ecat.com/ is already taking orders and the home unit producing 10 kilowatts, is expected to sell for US $500 and have an annual running cost of just $20.

In August 2015 Rossi gained a full patent for his commercial design. At that point in time Rossi had a one megawatt generator operating perfectly and continuously for a whole year. Here is his patent:


FLUID HEATER

ABSTRACT
An apparatus for heating fluid including a tank for holding fluid to be heated, and a fuel wafer in contact with the fluid. The fuel wafer includes a fuel mixture, reagents and a catalyst, and an electrical resistor or other heat source in thermal communication with the fuel mixture and the catalyst.

Description:

BACKGROUND
Many heat transfer systems use hot fluids as a heat transfer medium. Such systems include a heat generator, a heat transfer medium in thermal communication with the energy source, and a pump to move
the heated medium to wherever the heat is needed. Because of its high heat capacity and its abundance, a common heat transfer fluid is water, both in its liquid and gas phase.

A variety of heat generators are in common use. For instance, in nuclear power plants, nuclear fission provides energy for heating water. There also exist solar water heaters that use solar energy. However, most heat transfer sources rely on an exothermal chemical reaction, and in particular, on combustion of some fuel.

**SUMMARY**

In one aspect, the invention features an apparatus for heating fluid, the apparatus including a tank for holding fluid to be heated, and a fuel wafer in fluid communication with the fluid, the fuel wafer including a fuel mixture including reagents and a catalyst, and a heat source, for example an electrical resistor, in thermal communication with the fuel mixture and the catalyst.

Among the embodiments are those in which the fuel mixture includes lithium and lithium aluminium hydride, those in which the catalyst includes a group 10 element, such as nickel in powdered form, or in any combination thereof.

In other embodiments, the catalyst in powdered form, has been treated to enhance its porosity. For example, the catalyst can be nickel powder that has been treated to enhance its porosity.

In those embodiments that include an electrical resistor, the apparatus can also include an electrical energy source, such as a voltage source or current source in electrical communication with the resistor.

Among the other embodiments are those in which the fuel wafer includes a multi-layer structure having a layer of the fuel mixture in thermal communication with a layer containing the electrical resistor.

In yet other embodiments, the fuel wafer includes a central heating insert and a pair of fuel inserts positioned on both sides of the heating insert.

A variety of tanks can be used. For example, in some embodiments, the tank includes a recess for receiving the fuel wafer. Among these are embodiments in which the tank also includes a door for sealing the recess.

In yet other embodiments the tank includes a radiation shield.

Also included among the embodiments are those that further include a controller in communication with the voltage source. Among these are controllers which vary the voltage in response to the temperature of the fluid which is being heated.

In another embodiment, the invention features an apparatus for containing and heating a fluid, the apparatus also has means for holding a fuel mixture containing a catalyst and a reagent, and means for initiating a reaction sequence mediated by the catalyst to cause an exothermic reaction.

Another aspect of the invention is a composition of matter for generating heat, the composition including a mixture of porosity-enhanced nickel powder, lithium powder, and lithium aluminium powder, and a heat source in thermal communication with the mixture for initiating a nickel catalysed exothermic reaction.

Another implementation of the invention has a method of heating a fluid, the method including placing a mixture of nickel powder, lithium powder, and lithium aluminium hydride in thermal communication with the fluid; and heating the mixture, thereby initiating an exothermic reaction in the mixture.

These and other features of the invention will be apparent from the following detailed description and the accompanying figures, in which:

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE FIGURES**
Fig. 1 shows a heat transfer system having a heat source;

Fig. 2 is a cut-away view of the heat source in Fig. 1;

Fig. 3 is a cross-section of the wafer for use in the heat source of Fig. 2;
Fig. 4 shows an exemplary resistor in the central layer of the wafer shown in Fig. 3.

Fig. 5 shows the heat source of Fig. 1 operating with a conventional furnace.

Fig. 6 shows plural heat sources connected in series, like those in Fig. 2.

Fig. 7 shows plural heat sources connected in parallel, like those in Fig. 2.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Referring to Fig.1, a heat transfer system 10 includes a pipe 12 for transporting a heated fluid in a closed loop between a heat source 14 and a thermal load 16. In most cases, for example where there is hydraulic resistance to be overcome, a pump 18 propels the heated fluid. However, in some cases, such as where the heated fluid is steam, the fluid's own pressure is sufficient to propel the fluid. A typical thermal load 16 includes radiators such as those commonly used for heating interior spaces.

As shown in Fig.2, the heat source 14 is a tank 20 having a composite shield made of lead, an inlet 22 and an outlet 24, both of which are connected to pipe 12. The interior of the tank 20 contains fluid to be heated. In many cases, the fluid is water. However, other fluids can be used. In addition, the fluid need not be a liquid fluid but can also be a gas, such as air.

Tank 20 has a door 26 which leads to a receptacle 28 protruding into the tank. Radiating fins 30 protrude from walls of the receptacle 28 into tank 20. To maximise heat transfer, the receptacle 28 and the fins 30
are typically made of a material having high thermal conductivity, such as metal. A suitable metal is one not subject to corrosion, such as stainless steel.

Receptacle 28 holds a multi-layer wafer 32 for generating heat. A voltage source 33 is connected to the wafer 32, and a controller 35 for controlling the voltage source 33 in response to the temperature of the fluid in tank 12 as determined by a sensor 37.

As shown in Fig. 3, the multilayer fuel wafer 32 has a heating section 34 sandwiched between two fuel sections 36 and 38. The heating section 34 has a central layer 40 which is made of an insulating material, such as mica, and that supports a resistor 42.

Fig. 4 shows a typical central layer 40 having holes 44 through which a resistive wire 42 has been wound. This resistive wire 42 is connected to the voltage source 33. First and second insulating layers 46 and 48, made of a material such as mica layers, encase the central layer 40 to provide electrical insulation from the adjacent fuel sections 36 and 38.

Each of the fuel sections 36 and 38 feature a pair of thermally conductive layers 50 and 52, such as steel layers. Sandwiched between each pair of conductive layers 50, 52 is a fuel layer 54 which contains a fuel mixture having nickel, lithium, and lithium aluminium hydride LiAlH$_4$ ("LAH"), all in powdered form. Preferably, the nickel has been treated to increase its porosity, for example by heating the nickel powder to times and temperatures selected to superheat any water present in micro-cavities that are inherently in each particle of nickel powder. The resulting steam pressure causes explosions that create larger cavities, as well as additional smaller nickel particles.

The entire set of layers is welded together on all sides to form a sealed unit. The size of the wafer 32 is not important to its function. However, the wafer 32 is easier to handle if it is of the order of half an inch thick and 12 inches on each side (12 x 300 x 300 mm). The steel layers 50 and 52 are typically 1 mm thick, and the mica layers 40 and 48, which are covered by a protective polymer coating, are of the order of 0.1 mm thick. However, other thicknesses can also be used.
When operating, a voltage is applied by the voltage source 33 to heat resistor 42. Heat from resistor 42 is then transferred by conduction to the fuel layers 54, where it initiates a sequence of reactions, the last of which is reversible. These reactions, which are catalysed by the presence of the nickel powder, are:

$$3\text{LiAlH}_4 \rightarrow \text{Li}_3\text{AlH}_6 + 2\text{Al} + 3\text{H}_2$$
$$2\text{Li}_3\text{AlH}_6 \rightarrow 6\text{LiH} + 2\text{Al} + 3\text{H}_2$$
$$2\text{LiH} + 2\text{Al} \rightarrow 2\text{LiAl} + \text{H}_2$$

Once the reaction sequence is initiated, the voltage source 33 can be turned off, as the reaction sequence is self-sustaining. However, the reaction rate may not be constant. Hence, it may be desirable to turn on the voltage source 33 at certain times to reinvigorate the reaction. To determine whether or not the voltage source 33 should be turned on, the temperature sensor 37 provides a signal to the controller 35, which then determines whether or not to apply a voltage in response to the temperature signal. It has been found that after the reaction has generated approximately 6 kilowatt hours of energy, it is desirable to apply approximately 1 kilowatt hour of electrical energy to reinvigorate the reaction sequence.

Eventually, the efficiency of the wafer 32 will decrease to the point where it is uneconomical to continually reinvigorate the reaction sequence. At this point, the wafer 32 can simply be replaced. Typically, wafer 32 will sustain approximately 180 days of continuous operation before replacement becomes desirable.

The powder in the fuel mixture consists largely of spherical particles having diameters in the nanometre to micrometer range, for example between 1 nanometre and 100 micrometers. Variations in the ratio of reactants and catalyst tend to govern reaction rate and are not critical. However, it has been found that a suitable mixture would include a starting mixture of 50% nickel, 20% lithium, and 30% LAH. Within this mixture, nickel acts as a catalyst for the reaction, and is not itself a reagent. While nickel is particularly useful because of its relative abundance, its function can also be carried out by other elements in column 10 of the periodic table, such as platinum or palladium.

Fig. 5 to Fig. 7 show a variety of ways to connect the heat source 14 in Fig. 1. In Fig. 5, the heat source 14 is placed downstream of a conventional furnace 56. In this case, the controller 35 is optionally connected to control the conventional furnace. As a result, the conventional furnace 56 will remain off unless the output temperature of the heat source 14 falls below some threshold, at which point the furnace 56 will start. In this configuration, the conventional furnace 56 functions as a back-up unit.

In Fig. 6, first and second heat sources 58 and 60 like those described in Fig. 1 to Fig. 4 are connected in series. This configuration provides a higher output temperature than can be provided with only a single heat source 58 by itself. Additional heat sources can be added in series to further increase the temperature.

In Fig. 7, first and second heat sources 62 and 64 like those described in Fig. 1 to Fig. 4 are connected in parallel. In this configuration, the output volume can be made greater than that which could be provided by a single heat transfer unit by itself. Additional heat transfer units can be added in parallel to further increase output volume.

William Hyde’s 10 Kilowatt, COP=10, Electrostatic Power Generator.

This is best described by his patent, a slightly re-worded version being shown here:

This patent describes a device which can be a little difficult to visualise and so some colour shading of parts has been used to help matters. Essentially, it is two circular rotors spinning inside a section of plastic pipe. These rotors generate electrostatic energy which people have mistakenly been led to believe is not a source of significant power. This design by William Hyde has an electrical output which is some ten times greater than the mechanical input power required. A Coefficient Of Performance = 10 result like this, has to be significant, especially since the device is of fairly simple construction.

**Electrostatic energy field power generating system**

**Patent US 4,897,592**

30th January 1990

Inventor: William W. Hyde
Abstract:
Externally charged electrodes of an electrostatic generator induce charges of opposite polarity on segments of a pair of confronting stators by means of electric fields within which a pair of rotors are confined during rotation to vary the charge binding field linkages between confronting rotors and stators by a shielding action of the rotors in a plane perpendicular to the field flux. A high electric potential difference induced between the stators resulting from such rotation of the rotors, is transformed by an output circuit into a reduced DC voltage applied to a load with a correspondingly increase current conducted through it.

US Patent References:

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<th>Date</th>
<th>Inventor</th>
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Description:
This invention relates to the generation of electrical power by conversion of energy from an electrostatic field. The conversion of energy from a static electric field into useful electrical energy by means of an electrostatic generator is already well known in the art as exemplified by the disclosures in U.S. Pat. Nos. 2,522,106, 3,013,201, 4,127,804, 4,151,409 and 4,595,852. Generally, the energy conversion process associated with such prior art electrostatic generators involves the input of mechanical energy to separate charges so that a considerable portion of the output is derived from the conversion of mechanical energy.

It is therefore an important object of the present invention to provide an electrostatic generator in which electrical power is derived from the energy of static electric fields with a minimised input of mechanical power.

Summary:
In accordance with the present invention, static electric fields are established between electrodes externally maintained at charge levels of opposite polarity and a pair of internal stator discs having segmental surfaces that are dielectrically spaced to confine thereon charges induced by the electric fields. A pair of rotor discs are rotated within continuous electric fields in planes perpendicular to the field flux to locationally vary the charge linkage established by the electric fields between the electrodes and stator discs. Such changes in charge linkage are effected by rotation of electrically conductive segments of the rotor angularly spaced from each other to partially shield the stator discs from the electric fields. The segments of each rotor disc have charged faces confronting the electrodes in its field to shield the stator disc over a total face area that is one-half the total area of the confronting segment surfaces on the stator disc to which the induced charges are confined. Charges on the rotors and stators are equalised by electrical interconnections established through the rotor shafts. The stator discs are electrically interconnected with an electrical load through an output circuit transforming a high potential between the stator discs into a reduced dc voltage to conduct a correspondingly multiplied current through the load.

Brief Description of the Drawings:
These and other objects and features of the present invention will become apparent from the following description taken in conjunction with the preferred embodiments thereof with reference to the accompanying drawings in which like parts or elements are denoted by the same reference numbers throughout all of the different views shown in the drawings and where:
Fig. 1 is a simplified electrical circuit diagram corresponding to the energy conversion system of the present invention.

Fig. 2 is a side section view of an electrostatic generator embodying the system of Fig. 1 in accordance with one embodiment of the invention.
Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 are partial section views taken substantially through planes indicated by section lines 3--3 and 4--4 in Fig. 2.

Fig. 5A and Fig. 5B are schematic partial laid out top views of the electrostatic generator of Figs. 2-4, under static and dynamic charge distribution conditions, respectively.
Fig. 6 is an electrical circuit diagram of the output circuit of the generator shown in Fig. 2, in accordance with one embodiment.

**Detailed Description of the Preferred Embodiment:**

Referring now to the drawings in detail, Fig. 1 diagrammatically depicts the energy conversion system of the present invention generally referred to by reference numeral 10. As shown in Fig. 1, the system includes a pair of electrostatic fields 12 and 14 established by electrostatic charges of opposite polarity applied to electrode plates 16 and 18 from some external energy source. Thus, the electrostatic field 12 is established between electrode 16 and a stator disc 20 while the electrostatic field 14 is established between electrode 18 and a stator disc 22. In accordance with the present invention, electrostatic charge linkages established by the flux of the fields between the electrodes and stators are periodically varied by displacement within the...
continuous energy fields 12 and 14 in response to rotation of rotors 24 and 26 aligned with planes perpendicular to their common rotational axis and the field flux, as will be described.

The rotors are mechanically interconnected with an electric motor 28, as diagrammatically illustrated in Fig.1, which rotates them around their common axis. Electrical energy may be extracted from the electric fields 12 and 14 during rotation of the rotors 24 and 26 (by motor 28) through an output circuit generally referred to by the reference number 30. The output circuit 30 as shown in a simplified fashion in Fig.1, includes two pairs of current-conducting diodes 32A, 32B and 34A, 34B. The diodes of each pair are connected with opposite polarity and each pair is connected in parallel to one of the stators 20 and 22. The diodes of each pair are also electrically connected across an electrical load represented by resistors 36A and 36B with capacitor networks 38A and 38B interconnected between each pair of diodes by means of which the voltage potential between the stators 20 and 22 is reduced in favour of an increased current through the electrical load.

Referring now to Figs 2, 3 and 4 in particular, a physical embodiment of the energy conversion system shown in Fig.1 is shown. The electrodes 16 and 18 are in the form of circular plates or discs made of an electrically conductive metal having external surfaces 40 and 42 adapted to be charged from the external source as already mentioned. The internal surface 44 of electrode 18 is thereby adapted to maintain a positive charge opposite in polarity to the negative charge of the electrode 16 which is maintained in a stable ion form within a dielectric surface portion 46 of the electrode 16. The energy conversion system may be enclosed within an outer housing 48 to which the electrodes 16 and 18 are secured.

With continued reference to Fig.2, the stators 20 and 22 mounted by housing 48 in axially fixed spaced relation to the electrodes 16 and 18 are provided with bearings 50 and 52 supporting the powered rotor shaft driving the shaft assembly which has electrically conductive shaft sections 54 and 56 to which the rotors 24 and 26 are respectively connected. In the embodiment illustrated in Fig.2, the drive motor 28 is mechanically interconnected with the shaft sections 54 and 56 through an electrically nonconductive shaft section 58 of the power shaft assembly for the simultaneous rotation of both rotors 24 and 26 at the same speed and in the same direction about their common rotational axis perpendicular to the parallel spaced planes with which the electrode and stator discs are aligned. The electrically conductive shaft sections 54 and 56 are respectively keyed or secured in any suitable fashion to hub portions 60 and 62 of the rotors and are provided with flange portions 64 and 66 forming electrical wipers in contact with confronting surfaces of the stators 20 and 22, which are inductively charged by the static electric fields 12 and 14 to equal levels of opposite polarity.
As more clearly seen in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, the rotor 24 has several angularly spaced, field linkage controlling segments 68 projecting radially outwards from the hub portion 60. Each rotor segment 68 is made of an electrically conductive metal having a face 70 on one axial side confronting the adjacent electrode 16. The faces 70 confronting the electrode 16 are charged positively by the electric field 12 extending between the dielectric surface portion 46 of electrode 16 and the stator disc 20. While the electric field 12 projects through the spaces 72 between the rotor segments 68, the rotor segments 68 themselves shield portions of the stator disc 20 from the electric field.

The rotor 26 is similarly formed with rotor segments 74 angularly spaced from each other by spaces 76 through which the electric field 14 extends between the positively charged surface 44 of electrode 18 and the stator 22. The rotor segments 74 of rotor 26 as shown in Fig. 2, are provided with dielectric surface portions 78 confronting the internally charged surface 44 of electrode 18. While the rotor segments 74 are negatively charged by the electric field 14 within the surface portions 78, they also shield portions of the stator disc 22 from the electric field as in the case of the rotor segments 68 already described. The internal dielectric surface portion 46 of electrode 16 and dielectric surface portions 78 of rotor 26 act as a stabiliser to prevent eddy currents and leakage of negative charge. Further, in view of the electrical connections established between the rotors and the stator discs, the charge on each stator is equalised with that of the charge on its associated rotor.

As shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 4, the stator disc 20 includes several segments 82 to which charges are confined, closely spaced from each other by dielectric spacers 80. The segments 82 are electrically interconnected with the rotor segments 68 through rotor shaft section 54. Similarly, the segments 84 of the stator 22 are electrically interconnected with the rotor segments 74 through rotor shaft section 56. The stator segments 82 and 84 are therefore also made of electrically conductive metal. Each of the segments 82 of stator 20 is electrically interconnected through the output circuit 30 with each of the segments 84 of the stator. The stator discs being fixedly mounted within the housing 48, centrally mount the bearings 50 and 52 through which the electrically nonconductive motor shaft section 58 is journaled as shown in the embodiment of the invention illustrated in Fig. 2. Further, the total area of the charged segment surfaces on each of the stator discs is greater than the total area of the faces 70 or 78 on the segments of each associated rotor disc 24 or 26. According to one embodiment, the total charged stator surface area is twice that of the rotor face area.
According to the embodiment of the invention illustrated in Fig. 6, the output circuit 30 includes the two oppositely poled capacitive circuit networks 38A and 38B connected across each aligned pair of stator segments 82 and 84 on the stators 20 and 22 by means of the oppositely poled diodes 32A and 34A. Each of these capacitive circuit networks includes a capacitor 86, the opposite sides of which are connected by oppositely poled diodes 88 and 90 to positive and negative load terminals 92 and 94 across which a suitable electrical voltage is established for operating an electrical load. The diode 88 is connected to the junction 102 between diode 104 and one side of capacitor 106. The diode 88 is also connected to the junction between one side of capacitor 100 and the diode 32A. The diode 90, on the other hand, is interconnected with the junction 96 between diode 108 and capacitor 100. Also, diode 90 is connected to the junction between the other side of capacitor 106 and the diode 34A. The foregoing circuit arrangement of capacitive network 38A is the same as that of network 38B by means of which aligned pairs of the stator segments 82 and 84 have the electrical potentials between them transformed into a lower voltage across the load terminals 92 and 94 to conduct a higher load current.
Fig. 5A illustrates the distribution of charges established in the electric fields 12 and 14 between the electrodes and stators under static conditions in which each of the rotor segments 68 and 74 are positioned in alignment with one of the stator segments 82 and 84 to thereby shield alternate stator segments from the electric fields. The charges established by the electric fields are therefore confined to the faces of alternate stator segments confronting the electrodes and are equalised with the charges established on and confined to the shielding faces of the rotor segments confronting the electrodes by virtue of the electrical interconnection between the rotors and stators as already mentioned. As depicted in Fig. 5B, when the rotors are rotated, the charge linkages established by the electric fields between the electrodes and alternate stator segments 82 or 84 are interrupted by the moving rotor segments 68 or 74 so that previously shielded stator segments become exposed to the fields to re-establish field energy linkages with the associated electrodes. Such action causes electrical potentials to be established between the stator segments 82 and 84.

It will be apparent from the foregoing description that the electrostatic energy fields 12 and 14 of opposite polarity are established maintained between the externally charged electrodes 16 and 18 and the internally charged stators 20 and 22 under static conditions as depicted in Fig. 5A. During rotation, the rotors 24 and 26 continuously positioned within the energy fields 12 and 14, exert forces in directions perpendicular to the field flux representing the energy linkages between electrodes and stators to cause interruptions and reestablishment of energy linkages with portions of different stator segments as depicted in Fig. 5B. Such energy linkage locational changes and the charge binding and unbinding actions between electrodes and stators creates an electrical potential and current to flow between stators through the output circuit 30. Thus, the output circuit when loaded extracts energy from the electric fields 12 and 14 as a result of the field linkage charge binding and unbinding actions induced by rotation of the rotors. The stator segments 82 and 84 shielded from the electric fields by the moving rotor segments 68 and 74 as depicted in Fig. 5B, have electric potentials of polarity opposite to those of the external electrodes 16 and 18 because of the field linkage charge unbinding action. Previously shielded stator segments being exposed to the electric fields by the moving rotor segments, have the same electric potential polarity as those of the external electrodes because of field linkage binding action. Since the forces exerted on the respective rotors by the electric fields 12 and 14 of opposite polarity act on the common rotor shaft assembly perpendicular to these fields, such forces cancel each other. The energy input to the system may therefore be substantially limited to mechanical bearing losses and windage during conversion of electrostatic field energy to electrical energy as well as electrical resistance losses and other electrical losses encountered in the output circuit 30.

Based upon the foregoing operational characteristics, rotation of the rotors in accordance with the present
invention does not perform any substantial work against the external electric fields 12 and 14 since there is no net change in capacitance thereby enabling the system to convert energy with a reduced input of mechanical energy and high efficiency, as evidenced by minimal loss of charge on the electrodes. It was therefore found that working embodiments of the present invention require less than ten percent of the electrical output energy for the mechanical input. Further, according to one prototype model of the invention, a relatively high output voltage of 300,000 volts was obtained across the stators. By reason of such high voltage, an output circuit 30 having a voltage reducing and current multiplying attribute as already described, was selected so as to render the system suitable for many practical applications.

The Suppression of Knowledge.
Early in October 2011, Sir Christopher Woodhead, former Chief Inspector of Schools in England, stated that children should leave school at age 14 and become apprentices. While I personally have a high opinion of apprenticeships for certain professions, this appears to me to be a direct attempt to lower the education levels of the UK population even further than it already is now, where many sales staff are unable to perform even the most basic arithmetic as part of their jobs.

The basis for how we live our lives and understand the things around us, society, personal relationships, family values and the like, is rooted in what we are told by “the authorities”. Unfortunately, much of what you have been told is just not true. You have been lied to about science, astronomy, the environment, global warming, government, taxation, war, energy, inventions, education, terrorism, health, finance and the media, to name just a few topics which spring to mind.

Science: There has been, and still is, systematic, deliberate, and frequently brutal suppression of scientific fact. We are being told that you have to “burn a fuel” in order to produce power which is then “consumed” when we use it to power our lives. This is a deliberate lie. We are told “scientific” things which are sheer fantasy and designed to keep the truth from us. The objective is to keep the people of this planet ignorant, weak, and subject to the people who know the real facts, and to remove all possible wealth from the ordinary person.

The Environment: We are told that we need to run our lives by burning “fossil fuels” which are limited in quantity and so there is “an energy crisis”. While some oil may be produced by the decay of organisms and vegetation laid down in earlier eras, oil wells which were pumped supposedly dry are actually filling up again with oil created in the Earth and which does not come from decaying vegetation and organisms. Nor is there the slightest need to burn oil for power, or have central power stations and fragile wires running all over the countryside. Those things are wanted by the powerful elite in order to control ordinary people and to part them from their money.

Global Warming: We are told that man’s burning of fossil fuels is causing global warming through the production of Carbon Dioxide. This is the most ridiculous rubbish possible. Carbon dioxide is a natural gas, essential for plant growth, which in turn is essential for our survival. Carbon dioxide levels have long since reached the level where any increase has almost no further effect on warming. The percentage produced by man is trivial, as the vast majority comes out of volcanoes, the next largest amount is produced by animals and insects, and man’s contribution is minor. Global warming and global cooling are natural events which were taking place long before man was around in any significant numbers and certainly, centuries before the burning of fossil fuels started. The contribution from all of the cars in all of the world is only about 1.7% of man’s minor contribution and the fussing about “carbon footprint” is only a con which is being used to extract more money from the ordinary person.

David Archibald in this document http://www.davidarchibald.info/papers/Climate_Outlook_to_2030.pdf, published the graph shown here in 2006:
This graph clearly shows that even a big increase in the present carbon dioxide level has almost no impact on atmospheric temperature. It has also been calculated that an increase to 620 ppm would give a temperature increase of only 0.16°C. The graph shown above, together with its calculations should have ended any further discussion about reducing carbon dioxide emissions. However, this has most definitely not been the case.

For financial reasons, a decision has apparently been taken to keep up the pressure on carbon dioxide reductions, resulting in senseless investments on new technology for capture and storing carbon dioxide, “beautiful” windmills absolutely everywhere and the mandatory use of bio fuel (which has a negative impact on food production). Don’t forget about all the revenue which ‘governments’ are getting from “climate taxes”.

All these taxes and the massive spending of taxpayers money, really threatens the economic foundations of the whole of the western world, but worse still are the consequences of the commitment to bio fuel. This mad strategy has caused a near doubling of the cost of cooking oil and essential foods such as rice, because farmland is now being used for the production of bio fuel. These increases are hitting poor countries the worst as the people can no longer afford to pay for basic necessities.

If the intention of the IPPC and the world’s politicians is to starve people to death, then they are definitely on the right track through their continued insistence on the supposedly harmful effects of carbon dioxide. In reality, the greenhouse gas which has the most effect is actually water vapour which accounts for about 98% of all warming. I wonder how the politicians are going to prevent water vapour from getting into our atmosphere!

In his video “An Inconvenient Truth” Al Gore points out the close correlation between the fluctuations of global temperatures and the levels of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. He point out strong rises and falls in the average global temperature (nearly all of which are before mankind started burning oil) and the related strong rises and falls of carbon dioxide concentration in the air. What he is very careful to avoid mentioning is that the changes in carbon dioxide concentration, lag behind the global temperature changes by some 600 years. The carbon dioxide concentrations are a result of the global warming and not the cause of it.

This is further emphasised by the speech given by Prof. Ian Plimer to the British parliament. That speech can be seen at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iEPW_P7GV8&feature=youtu.be and is reproduced here:
I’m a geologist. And the one thing that we miss out on in looking at climate change is the past. Climates have always changed. Climate changes in the past have been greater and faster than anything we experience in our lifetime, and sea levels have always changed, not by the modest couple of millimetres that people are having connections about. We have had in the past, sea level changes of ‘only’ 1500 metres – that’s a sea level change!! And if we look back in the history of time, the atmosphere once had a very large amount of carbon dioxide in it. It has now got less than 0.04%. Where did that carbon dioxide go to? It went into chalk, limestone, shells and life, and we’ve been sequestering carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere for only 10,500,000,000 years. This planet has been de-gassing carbon dioxide since it first formed.

Carbon dioxide is a natural gas. It has dominated the atmosphere for an extraordinarily long period of time, and we now are at a dangerously low level. If we halved the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, we would have no terrestrial plants. Carbon dioxide is plant food. It is not a pollutant. To use words like pollution with carbon dioxide is misleading and deceptive. But the past gives us a wonderful story. In the past we have had six major ice ages. We are currently in an ice age. It started 34,000,000 years ago, when South America had the good sense to pull away from Antarctica and there is a circum-polar current set up which isolated Antarctica and we start to get the Antarctic ice sheet. We have had periods of glaciation and Interglacials. We are currently in Interglacial, and during that 34,000,000 years we have refrigerated the Earth. But for less than 20% of time we have had ice on planet Earth. The rest of the time it has been warmer and wetter and there has been more carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. And what did life do? It thrived.

Six of the six great ice ages were initiated when the carbon dioxide content of the atmosphere was higher than now – in fact, up to a thousand times higher than now. So we have from the geological evidence, absolutely no evidence that carbon dioxide has driven climate. For some odd reason, the major driver of climate is that great ball of heat in the sky which we call “the Sun”. You heard it here first – it is really quite unusual!!

Every now and again, continents start to move, and they move with very rapid rates. They move about ten inches every year. And at one time a continent can be over a pole and at another time it can be at the Equator. Those moving continents change the major heat balance on the Earth and that’s the ocean currents. The oceans carry far more heat than the atmosphere does. Every now and then, because of major geological processes we get a great bulge on the ocean floor, of new volcanic rock. That changes ocean currents. Every year we have 10,000 cubic kilometres of seawater which goes through new volcanic rock on the ocean floor. That exchanges heat. The reaction between seawater and the rocks stops the oceans becoming acid. When we run out of rocks, the oceans will become acid – but don’t wait up, it will be a long time.

We see 1500 volcanoes on Earth. We only measure twenty of them, and very few of those measurements are really accurate, but they tell us that a little carbon dioxide leaks out of those volcanoes. But what we don’t hear is that there are at least 3,470,000 volcanoes on the sea floor which leak out huge amounts of carbon dioxide. We have pools of liquid carbon dioxide on the sea floor. So, early first carbon dioxide – where did it go and where did it erupt? Where did it come from? It came from rocks. What did it do to the planet? We did not fry and die. We didn’t have runaway greenhouse.

Now that’s just geology – that’s not important (!) Let’s look at more modern times. In more modern times we have drill cores which have gone through the ice sheets. Snow, when it falls, catches and traps some air. That air is trapped in the ice. We can later extract it from the drill core and measure the amount of carbon dioxide in the air, and we can see with our cycles of glaciation and Interglacials, that when we finish an inter-
glacial event, that we release carbon dioxide some 800 years later. So, what is that telling us? It is telling us
that temperature is driving carbon dioxide and not that carbon dioxide is driving temperature. Oh yes – but
that is only hundreds of thousands of years ago – forget that.

Well, let’s go to more modern times. We have been measuring temperatures accurately since 1850 and the
accuracy is plus or minus 1-degree Celsius for those ancient measurements. We’re being told that this 0.7-
degree Celsius rise is going to create a disaster!! I’ve only got to move a single step away and I’ve had a
0.7-degree Celsius rise. Where do you people go for your summer holidays? You go to a warm climate.
We are creatures from the rift valley – we like warm climates. If someone from Helsinki moves to Singapore,
there is an average temperature rise of 22-degrees Celsius. Singaporeans don’t drop dead in the streets
from the temperature. So, we are creatures of warm climate. We have been measuring temperatures and
we have seen a slight warming from 1860 to 1890. Then a slight cooling to 1910 and then a warming until
1940, so that is to say that the North West Passage was open. Then a cooling until 1977, and now warming
until the end of the century, and now we are in a period of cooling. So, we have had these cycles of warming
and cooling. Strangely, these cycles are actually related to changes in heat balance in the oceans.

So, we have these 60-year cycles over a long warming event. We are in a period of global warming. It has
been warming since the minimum 330 years ago. Those were the times when you had the ice layers on the
Thames. These are the times when the Dutch masters painted hoar frosts and bitterly cold conditions. That
was the time when the Sun was a bit inactive and we had no sunspot activity. So, we are in a long period of
warming and one of the questions that I ask in this book ("Heaven and Earth: Global Warming: the Missing
Science" by Prof. Plimer) is ‘which part of the last 330 years of warming is due to human activity and which
part is natural?’ These are questions which kids should ask their school teachers and they are deliberately
unanswerable questions, because I am of the view that many children are being fed environmental
propaganda in the schools and are not being given the critical and analytical facilities to be able to dissect
an argument.

So, we are in a period of warming – what’s the worry? It’s quite normal. And let’s just look at history. The
one thing which the climate industry (which it is) ignores, is history. In Roman times it was warm. It was
considerably warmer than now. We know that, they kept good records. They grew olives up the Rhine river
as far as Borne. They had wine grapes in Yorkshire. We know from their clothing that it was warm (possibly
they were going to an orgy but I think that more likely it was warm) and that warming suddenly stopped in
535 AD, and we entered the Dark Ages. In 535 AD we had Krakatoa which filled the atmosphere with
aerosols. And it wasn’t a big volcano – only 30 cubic kilometres of aerosols go into the atmosphere. We
had bigger ones in Yellowstone and they had even bigger ones in New Zealand where 10,000 cubic
kilometres of aerosols have gone into the atmosphere (and we pray for another one as that’s the only way
that we’ll beat them at rugby – wipe them out). We had two volcanoes, one in Rahall and one in Krakatoa in
Indonesia in 535-536 AD leading to the Dark Ages. It was cool. What happened? Crops failed. We
starved. We had civil unrest. We had cannibalism. We broke out of that into the Mediaeval Warming. The
first to feel it were the Vikings as the seas became calmer. They could get further fishing. They actually got
to Newfoundland which they called ‘Vinland’. In Greenland, grapes and barley were growing. The grapes
were deep as there was no permafrost. It was a wonderful benign climate, five degrees warmer than now.
Eric the Red was saying ‘Come to Greenland, it’s a wonderful climate’ and it was. And then we went through
23 years of low solar activity and in 23 years we went from the Mediaeval Warming into the Little Ice Age,
and that, as I said, ended 330 years ago.

So, what do you think would happen after a Little Ice Age – do you think that it would get colder or that it
would get warmer? The only reason that the arguments of Science have got any traction in society is that
they have been related to the last 30-years or 40-years of temperature measurements. I see with great
interest that the Met Office is telling us that this is the hottest year on record. They might be on a different
calendar to me, but I didn’t think that this year is finished yet. And this time last year I was in London as I
was the year before, and it was miserable – it was cold, it was very cold. So, those sort of predictions made
just before a big climate conference, one has to be very sceptical of. In Science, scepticism is not a
pejorative word. In Science there is no consensus. In Science there are constant battles. A good example:
we all ‘knew’ that we got ulcers from an acid stomach and stress, and we took pills and rubbed our bellies
and hoped the ulcers would go away. But two scientists who were not following the mainstream, who were
not following the consensus, were arguing that this was due to a bacteria. And no one listened. Ultimately,
one of them took the bacteria, developed ulcers, took the antidote, and for that they got a Nobel Prize. You
do not get a Nobel Prize for following a consensus or saying that the science is settled. I believe that we
have had an enormous corruption of Science and the Scientific Method. I believe that the monies which are
floating around for Climate Research (which is a current fad and fashion), are quite perverse. I believe that
we are putting Science backwards, and come the next inevitable pandemic, we may not have the weapons
to handle it – we might go waving herbs and chanting, rather than creating an antidote. So, this, for me, this
Climate Industry has made a huge attack on the Scientific Method. It has been an attack on my Science and history, and things are fortunately changing.

I finish with one last point: You’ve got your Climate Change Act, we’ve just got a Carbon Tax in Australia. Nineteen bills went through Parliament, and our Carbon Tax is to lower carbon dioxide emissions from our employment-generating industries in Australia. And it’s wonderful – we’ve led the world in suicide (!) and our Carbon Tax is to knock down our emissions by 5%. Now you can do the sums and the sums are very simple. The IPCC says that 3% of annual emissions are from humans. Why is it that that 3% drives climate change and not the other 97% is beyond me, but that’s another matter. Australia put out 1.5% of the world’s CO₂ emissions. You can do the calculations and by Australia knocking back their emissions by 5%, we will by the year 2050, have lowered global temperatures by 0.00007 degrees Celsius. So I do hope that you enjoy our sacrifice in giving you a warmer climate here in England !!

**Government and Taxation:** It appears that the sole purpose of government is to enrich the people in power at the expense of the ordinary person. People in a democracy are supposed to be “free” but this is a gross illusion. If you were working all week in a company and at the end of the week you were paid £1,000 cash. When you start going home, an armed gang of thugs threatens you and steals £800 of your £1,000 and that happens every week without fail. So, what do you think of that arrangement? Good or bad? That is what government does for you at this time. But, you say, “we live in a democracy, so we can fire the politicians”. That is the equivalent of having three exits from your workplace and each exit has a different gang of thugs ready to rob you. Yes, indeed, you have choice. You can choose which exit to use and therefore, which particular gang of thugs robs you.

You think that is overstating the case? I have seen it calculated that 80% of everything you earn is taken away from you in “taxes” and there is justification for that figure when you consider what contributes to the cost of everything you do. You pay taxes. Can you remember being asked if you would be willing to pay tax?

Oh, but you say, we need taxes in order to pay for public services, health, education, transport, etc. Yes we do, but how much of your money actually goes on that. In the UK there is a large annual “car tax” which was introduced with the excuse that it was needed to finance the building and repair of roads. I understand that at least 85% of that money is not spent on the roads. There is a massive tax on vehicle fuel and I have seen the figure of 85% mentioned. If that is the case, fuel should only be one sixth of the price charged and that extra cost finds it’s way into almost everything else, food, clothes, electrical goods, all manufactured items, heating, electricity supply, gas supply, etc. etc. In addition, there are major taxes on alcohol, tobacco, service industries, travel, and everything else that ‘politicians’ can think up. So you’re a free person living in a free democracy? Who are you kidding? Do you actually have “sucker” stamped on your forehead? For further information, visit [http://www.yourstrawman.com](http://www.yourstrawman.com) where the facts are laid out clearly.

Take the case of America. The objective of the Civil War was to make money for the unscrupulous. A really major fraud was perpetrated on the American people at that time. They believed (and most still do) that the United States is the government of the American nation. That is not the case. “The United States of America” is actually a commercial conglomerate of private corporations, corporations with names like “The State of Arizona”, or, “The State of Texas”. Federal taxes are imposed on the American people, but that goes directly into the private finances of these companies and not a single dollar of it goes to benefit any ordinary American citizen. There is much more detail on this in Chapter 15.

**War:** The general public is held subject to what passes for ‘government’ through fear and ignorance. The government announces that some country needs to be attacked and invaded in order to “free” the people and establish democracy. So, generally without any realistic reason, that country is attacked and invaded, much of the civilian population killed, massive property damage inflicted, and great distress and hardship caused for many people. This is organised by the politicians. Do they themselves take part in the fighting? No. Who benefits from the war? Answer: the arms manufacturers, and companies such as Halliburton which are paid taxation money to rebuild what the local army has just spent time destroying. The country attacked is likely to have it’s assets stolen and then be saddled with a massive fake debt so that it can be forced to pay incredible amounts of “interest” for decades afterwards. The lucky country has been attacked, damaged, citizens killed, infrastructure destroyed, assets stolen and then robbed for years afterwards by the people who caused that devastation. You did say that you live in “a free democracy”, didn’t you?

**Energy:** The energy companies are very keen to sell you fuel for you to burn to “get” energy to run your vehicles, home appliances, heating, etc. They are also very keen that you should not discover that you are surrounded by energy which can be used for all those things without paying the local energy company anything. Most people imagine that the electrical power which flows out of the wall socket in your home (and
for which you have to pay a good deal), comes along the wires from the generator station which burns fossil fuel to drive the generators. That is not the case, as not a single electron of the current you use actually comes from the power station but instead is collected locally from free environmental energy. If you knew how to do it, then you would have no need for the power company, power lines across the country, power stations or oil drilling and shipment around the world. Cars don’t need fuel to run but that information is heavily suppressed and you are lied to when you are told that you need to burn a fuel to power your life.

**Inventions:** When they discover that there is such a thing as free-energy, most people think that what is needed is a scientific breakthrough in order to develop the technology needed to let everyone have free energy. The reality is quite the reverse as the technology has been discovered and implemented literally thousands of times. You are being lied to when you are told that free-energy is “impossible”. I am reliably informed that in America alone, more than 40,000 free-energy patents have been confiscated by the (private company called the) Patent Office. Inventors are then silenced by a gag order under the absurd excuse that the invention is “of National Security importance”. Inventors who don’t try to patent their inventions are intimidated, some are murdered, some are attacked and their reputation smeared, some are illegally put in mental institutions, some are framed and all suffer massive financial opposition if they try to start manufacturing a product for sale – not even Cal-Tech managed to get past that financial block. I personally know several researchers who have been unlawfully intimidated.

**Education:** There is a massive program of “dumbing-down” education combined with the deliberate teaching of things which are known to be completely wrong. After only a few decades of this, many adults can’t perform basic arithmetic or construct simple sentences in their native tongue. Science and Engineering are neglected and most people don’t understand how things work. Most schools no longer allow schoolchildren to perform experiments in chemistry or physics, usually with the excuse that it is ‘too dangerous’. University students are told that there is no such thing as perpetual motion, which is as laughable as saying that water isn’t wet. Newton actually said that gravity is a push and not a pulling force as indicated by the mis-translation of his Latin original text. This incorrect notion of gravity is still taught in spite of the fact that many governments have had electrogravitic drive vehicles since the early 1960s, driven by electromagnetic waves just below the frequency of infrared, disproving what is supposed to be Newton’s theory, in a most resounding fashion. Any academic who steps out of line and admits that students are being taught rubbish, is immediately attacked with every possible means to discredit, ridicule and isolate him. The objective in all of this is to manoeuvre the general public into a weak position where they are ignorant, uneducated, fed false information and distracted with things of no importance. The ultimate aim is the slavery of the masses without them even realising that they are being enslaved.

**Terrorism:** The main way to make people give up their rights and do whatever you want is through fear. The book “1984” (dated that way because it was written in 1948) explains how this is done. Fictitious enemies are invented in order to frighten people and stop them complaining when vast amounts of their money is given to vested interests under the guise of being steps to protect them from this imagined danger. The “cold war” was completely fake with both sides using it as an excuse. The invasion of smaller countries is never, ever, for the reason given publicly, but is always for financial gain by the people in power and their commercial colleagues. The reasons given for these invasions are so ridiculous that it never ceases to amaze me that the public actually accept and believe these wild stories. One of the strands of this continuous deception waged against the public is fake “terrorism”, frequently bolstered up by “false flag” attacks to discredit the perfectly innocent people who are supposed to have made those attacks. Any real terrorist attacks are normally a response to atrocities committed against the supposed “terrorists”. The commercial companies which pass for governments, are the biggest terrorists around.

**Health:** The pharmaceuticals industry is one of the biggest money-making operations on the planet. It may come as a shock to you, but they don’t want to cure people. Instead, they want people to go on buying expensive medication at heavily inflated prices. Long term health treatments are their ideal situation as that provides them with a continuous revenue stream. Several people have come up with very effective cures for cancer and other serious illnesses, and those people have received the same unjustifiable, outrageous treatment as do the inventors of free-energy devices. The pharmaceuticals industry is well aware of the highly beneficial effects of colloidal silver, but they will never produce any as they can’t patent it and charge highly inflated prices for it. Consequently, they are not interested as their only objective is to make money, and it is definitely not to cure people.

**Bob Beck’s Electronic Pulser.**
The late Bob Beck emphasised this in his video lecture which may still be available at: [http://video.google.com/videoplay?docid=-3383948315844437935&ei=XdqBsruck5_sqAPr28irBq&gq=Suppressed+Medical+Discovery%3A+Dr.+Robe t+C.+Beck+%28+Cancer%2CAIDS%2Canything+viral%29#](http://video.google.com/videoplay?docid=-3383948315844437935&ei=XdqBsruck5_sqAPr28irBq&gq=Suppressed+Medical+Discovery%3A+Dr.+Robert+C.+Beck+%28+Cancer%2CAIDS%2Canything+viral%29#)
Here is an excerpt from that lecture:

For the last five years I have spent my own money (no government or university funding) in investigating a thing which has proven to be the most remarkable thing for all diseases that I have ever heard of personally, and I have been in this field for about forty years.

I have a stack of IRB Studies – PCR laboratory reports from major hospitals around the United States, and until these are peer-reviewed published, I am not supposed to show them to anyone who is not a medical doctor because of patient confidentiality.

Now, how many of you have read that there is no cure for AIDS? That is an absolute lie. There has been a perfectly workable, 95% accurate cure for HIV and cancer and herpes and hepatitis and Epstein-Barr and about a dozen other incurable diseases, which was invented on March 11th 1990 at the Albert Einstein College of Medicine in New York City by Drs Kelly and Wymans.

And what happened to this breakthrough which is far more important than penicillin, antibiotics, anything you can name? - it has been suppressed. And why has this information been withheld from you – information which you can easily prove for yourself (don’t take my word here for anything: check it out)? I found recently that the Mafia owns about 51% of major pharmaceutical houses as well as working the other side of the track with the illegal drugs from South and Central America and China.

The medical cartels in this country (USA) will charge you from $50,000 to $200,000 if you have terminal cancer and this is for surgery and chemotherapy and radiation and hospital care.

Consider a packet of Wrigley’s Spearmint chewing gum. That packet of chewing gum cost me a nickel (5 cents or $0.05) when I was a young man and I paid $1.32 for that packet at the Chicago Airport recently - $1.00 for the gum plus $0.32 for taxes and handling. The price of that package of chewing gum is every penny (cent) that it takes to cure [and I’m not supposed to use this word as only a doctor may use the word ‘cure’] most of the known diseases in America today. And why haven’t you heard about this? – because General Electric, Westinghouse, and the other companies have billions of dollars tied up in X-rays, CAT scanners and MRIs which are leased to health organisations, and for $1.32 you can cure yourself without doctors, without pharmaceuticals, without medicines, certainly without surgery, certainly without chemotherapy, without any drugs, without any herbs, any homeopathy remedies – you can do it for yourself and it has been done.

People keep asking “why haven’t I heard about this, why are there no hospital studies?”. There are hundreds of them. Here is one test result: At this date, the eleventh of August 1998 this patient had only about 3,063 particles of HIV in his blood. But now, as this test develops, the PCR on the third of November 1998, (several months later), the count was less than 1 in a hundred, which means that the test result was zero as far as this test was concerned. We have a stack of these reports a foot and a half (45 cm) deep, where every one of these full-blown AIDS patients, every one even though some of them were on life-support systems or needed attendants to lift them from the bed, these people are symptom-free now. Every single one of them is back at work. Not one of them has the symptoms of AIDS. So, if you read in your newspaper ‘the proceeds of the baseball game this Saturday will be donated to a search for a cure for AIDS’ that is an absolute lie.

There is, and has been, a cure for AIDS – all AIDS – a cure for about 95% of cancer, a 100% cure for Epstein-Barr, hepatitis, lupus, about a 50% cure for herpes, and I’ve been funding these out of my own pocket. I have absolutely nothing whatsoever for sale. God has been exceedingly good to me – I think that I am going about my Father’s business here, and I am paying for it myself and I am giving to the world.

There is a free paper available entitled “Take Back Your Power” (a web download link for this is http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Beck.pdf) you do not need doctors, nurses, chiropractors, herbs, pharmaceuticals, surgery. Only if you are going along with the politically-correct solutions do you need these things that your neighbours have been depending on for all these many generations. There was paper entitled “Blood Electrification and Immune System Restoration with Microcurrents – A Proven, Startling, Rapid, Inexpensive and Safe Discovery for Positive, Controllable Remissions”. Now we found that this information has been suppressed. The doctors who discovered this, and let me tell you about the discovery: In 1990, they put a couple of small platinum wires into a Petrie dish that contained highly infected human blood, and the infection there was a very, very strong dose of HIV which was supposedly the cause of AIDS. They found that when they had electrified this blood, the HIV could no longer attach to any receptor sites in the blood. That means that the healthy cells could not be infected by the HIV. The only mention of this
incredible discovery was in Science News March 30th 1991, page 207, ‘Shock ing Treatment Proposed for AIDS’ and it tells about how these two doctors had given a paper on this process saying, ‘the experiments described on March 14th at Washington DC at the first International Symposium on Combination Therapies, showed that the shocked viruses lost the ability to make an enzyme crucial for their reproduction and could no longer cause the white cells to clump together – the true key signs of viral infection.

The only papers which I was able to find that got into the American press were Science News and article in Longevity News ‘Electrocuting the AIDS Virus’. But what happened in the Longevity article (which was December 1992, page 14), was that Dr Colley said ‘it will be 15 years before this process is ready for human experimentation’.

We have been doing it, sub-rosa, with patient consent, for over five years here, and we have the test results to prove it. When I was lecturing to a room of about 800 people, an 80-year old man came up and said ‘Bob, I was sent home today, my cancer had metastasised all through my system. I was told to go home and make my will, as I had at the most, about two or three weeks to live. I went home and I made my will and I saw your article in some magazine and I did it. I am now free of all cancer. My biopsies are clean, my CAT scans are clean. I went back to work, and being an attorney, I had to work sixteen hours per day to catch up on all the work I had missed while I was in intensive care. Now I’m jogging three miles per day’ (and there were tears running down his face).

We have had women who have had lupus for about ten years, barely able to make it from the couch in front of the television to the bedroom. They are back at the malls now, spending their money, walking around and able to hold jobs full-time. Do any of you know Linda Wright? She brought in a clean blood test one day and said ‘my doctor had to send this to two different labs – he’s never seen a person with clean blood after that person has had lupus’.

We have dozens of these people, and not one of these people went to the doctor for the cure, except for the people who are on this Institutional Review Board study at a hospital in Huntington Beach and Newport Beach, California. Now, the point is, in my humble opinion, and we can put anything against this because we know that it is true at this time, when I first started this I thought ‘this is kind of interesting’. I have looked into five hundred things that never worked, the Rife Machine never worked, Holderclarke’s Machine does not work, many, many, many of these devices work only marginally, and I felt ‘I’m about to be taken in again’. I have built Mucalsky multiple-wave oscillators as you know. I have built almost every electro-medical device since I’ve been in California (since World War Two began), and these things worked at best, marginally. But the thing which you can build for yourself, there is nothing that you have to buy. The circuit diagram and all of the instructions for building this, are in the paper. This is the one which I designed in 1991 to make an experimental study with, and you can get a kit from an electronics store. I get not one nickel from the tens of thousands of dollars worth of these kits which they have sold.
There is a parts list on page 4 that tells you what is needed. Even if you don’t know what a resistor is, or a capacitor is, put the list on the counter at Radio Shack and tell them to give you what is on the list. The retail price ready-made is around $150. If you build it yourself it will cost $15 to $20 and this machine will not only make colloids, which is the most powerful medicine known to man, (which is why the FDA has stamped it out recently).

SOTA Instruments Inc. Canada (1-800-224-0242) builds these devices because the owner read the article in PACE magazine and his wife had chronic fatigue syndrome and Epstein-Barr so badly that she was non-functional. She is now up and around and is totally well today because my husband built this little box for about $15. The box straps on the arm with the electrodes positioned on the radial and ulna arteries and puts a very small electrification into the body which removes all parasites, viruses, fungus, microbes, pathogens – everything in the blood which does not belong there and was not there the day that you were born, eventually (after two or three weeks) being neutralised and discarded by your body, dead or alive by the spleen, the kidneys and the liver. This is darned exciting but when the hospitals tried to patent this, US Patent 5,188,738 presented to Dr Colley on February 23rd 1993, describes the process, as do fourteen other patents from Harvard MIT, page 1 column 1 says 'because of this problem (the fact that there is no known antibiotic or vaccine for any of these incurable diseases) the present invention has been devised to attenuate any bacteria, virus (including the AIDS HIV virus), parasites and fungus contained in blood contributed by a donor, these being rendered ineffective for infecting a normally healthy human cell'. Before these claims were accepted by the patent examiners, they had to provide the examiners with massive proof.
Now there has been a cure, a known cure and it costs $1.32 per patient so there is no money in this if they are trying to sell you combination therapies for $20,000 to $60,000 per year.

I strongly recommend that you get the paper as it contains the exact electrode locations which have been found to work the best and get the maximum current into the blood. It is almost as if God the Creator had locked the back door approach to the problems and with an adversary like the Holy Spirit which is within – the Bible says ‘look within, not without’. And this time, the adversary is within. The ‘aliens’ in your blood are the things which are holding down your lifespan to seventy or eighty years. Many, many generations ago, according to the sacred texts, they lived to be several hundred years old, Solomon, David, Methuselah, etc.

So, we have raided about a dozen different medical textbooks including Grey’s Anatomy, and we’ve published the exact spots where you can access the lymph tissue where these germs are going to be hibernating. After you clear yourself and get a clean bill of health, after three to five years you will re-infect yourself when many of these viruses which are latent, start germinating. And with this information, and these circuit diagrams and these instructions, we have literally given you back to yourself.

We are going to show you all of this before I leave here. This is not my opinion any more, we have enough proof that it is a statement of fact and we can bank on it. If you are too lazy, too stupid, too electronically impaired or too frightened to build your own, there are forty known companies (and probably a hundred that I know nothing about) that are building these things full-time and they are getting the most remarkable reports back. I do meet these people, and NO, I do not get a nickel from any single one of these companies, and all of this information is in your paper.

Now what else do we have to watch for here. Nobody has ever to this day died of AIDS. Did you know that? They have died of the opportunistic infections, pneumonia, Parkinson’s sarcoma, etc. that can attack you when your immune system can’t handle the load, in fact it is called ‘AIDS’. They have died of the opportunistic infections, pneumonia, Carcinon’s sarcoma, etc. etc. that can attack your body when your immune system can’t handle the load, in fact it is called ‘AIDS’.

So, once you start on this cocktail therapy, you are stuck with it for life, as long as you live, and as you know from the International AIDS Conference in Japan last year, they found that none of these AZTs etc. prolonged the life of one single AIDS patient by even one day. Their’s is simply a promise, they are engineered to get your money while they give you hope. I was beaten up and bloodied; I was hit over the head and had blood running down my face, by ‘AIDS Act Up’ David Buller it was that was running this crusade in New York city in February. He called the New Yorker Hotel and said that they would burn down the head and bloodied me, and I didn’t chase him down the street because my knees aren’t very good as I don’t have any cartilage in them.

But when’s the last time that you saw me Ivan – about three years, four years ago? Do you notice anything that’s different? I lost 130 pounds – I weighed 290 and I have pictures of me to prove it. My hair on top was thinner than some of my old good buddies here. As soon as I got rid of the adversaries – the aliens in my blood, my immune system took over and I got rid of the half a pound or so of parasites which every man, women and child in America (if he’s more than four days old) is carrying. A new-born baby, after four hours has breathed enough air to become infected. If you live in America, there are 140 known indigenous parasites. If you live in Africa or the tropics, there are 500 identified and known parasites and probably half as many again that are unknown. When we get these parasites out of my body by wearing this device on my wrist, an amazing thing happened. I began losing weight like crazy. I thought ‘my God, have I got stomach cancer or am I wasting away with something?’ No, I was in better shape than I was before I started.
This is a theory: about 30% of the parasites which live in human beings, and these can range from fourteen feet (4.27 m) long if they are a tape-worm down to microscopic size (which is why they have to use microscopes to do the stool analysis if you go in for a check), these parasites were setting my appetite. If you will think about this for a minute, it is not what you eat or how much you eat that has anything whatsoever to do with your weight. It is how much of what you eat you store as fat because the parasites have changed the P51, the leptin and about five or six known neuro-transmitters in the hypothalamus to feed them tomorrow. Many of these parasites have co-existed with mammals – apes, elephants .... for twenty million years and the anthropologists will tell you that they find them whenever they find a carcass frozen in the ice floes, these things have had parasites for as long as ever man has been on the planet. These parasites have learned to use you as a meal and not kill you because then they are going to die themselves, like ebola which runs it’s course in a couple of weeks. Many of these viruses do that, but these parasites almost kill you and use you for a meal in the same way that we send cattle to a feed lot before we take them to market. And when these parasites vanished from my body, and this is provable by dark-field microscopy, phase-contrast microscopy, any doctor who does this analysis can prove it, you don’t have to take my word for it, I lost all of that weight and before this time I had offered $10,000 cash currency ‘under the table’ to anyone who could get this weight off of me.

I had tried dozens of diet plans. I had tried these canned-meal Jenny Craig type adventures. I had been injected with pregnant mare’s urine. I know that some of you have been through the same things. I had taken legal amphetamines to control my appetite ... I had tried everything until I had nearly killed myself. And until I found the true cause of what I believe is about 30% of the people who are overweight, and this was certainly me, I was terribly embarrassed to find the airline stewardess running down the aisle with a seat-belt extender because the seat-belt wouldn’t fit around me. I couldn’t sit in the booth in a restaurant because I’d have to sit on a chair, etc. etc.

The lady at the back of the room, Jane had inoperable cancer when I met her. She said “I’m going along with blood-cleansing here, and not the chemotherapy and radiation which the doctor had said that if I do not have I will surely die”. And her daughter Cathy was outraged because her mother didn’t do all of this chemotherapy and have her hair drop out ... Now she is totally well. Her last several physicals – biopsies and CAT scans – have shown not one speck of cancer anywhere in her body. Neither have dozens and dozens of ‘terminal’ cancer patients.

Now, why does this work for cancer? We started out working with viral and microbe and parasitic diseases. When oncologists in the East began reporting many, many, many cancer cures, we had to have a telephone conference between about for or five of us. Now what’s really happening here? I don’t believe it until I see the medical proof. So I guess you know that about three months ago Explorer magazine published an article entitled ‘Total Cancer Remissions through Blood Electrification combined with Silver Colloid’. And this article of two pages is reprinted in it’s entirety in the paper which you should be taking home with you.

Social Security does not want you to live if you get to be 65. I’m now way past that. I don’t act like it, but I am way past that, I’m in my seventies. The Director of Social Security – I will not mention his name because he picks me up at the airport when I’m in Washington and drives me where I’m going – I’ve stayed in his house – says ‘Bob, we want anyone who reaches 65 to be stored like cord-wood in an old-age home and given mind-control drugs like valium and let him die because Social Security is bankrupt now, it won’t be bankrupt in five years time as it is bankrupt now. And if you restore perfect health to these people with a device that will fit in your shirt pocket, the job market will not absorb the people getting out of college today. Even if McDonalds has a smart cash register, they can’t add or subtract, they can hardly write a paragraph and you want to get these experienced people back in the jobs market?’ I said ‘hell yes!’ I was 65 nearly ten years ago.

Another problem: this steps on the toes of all the vested interests. They are expecting to make hundreds of thousands of dollars off of you: Health Management organisations, insurance companies, hospitals, .... If you own a boat that thing is written into the budget of the boat builder down there in San Pedro. These medical people expect to see you come in there some day and spend a lot of money, but if you do this for yourself, you will get well. There are seventeen of us who I know of, and I know sixteen of them personally, who this day have immortal blood. Now this is a rather dramatic claim, so let me tell you what it means. Toward the end of last year, there was a dark-field microscopist ‘Mike’, you know his name, he is world famous, he’s the fellow who trains doctors all over the world how to use this type of technology for diagnostic work. He invited a chap in who had been on one of these devices for about six months, and he said ‘Let’s look at your blood’, so he pricked his finger, put that drop of blood in a microscope slide and looked at it. And he said ‘you don’t have any background clutter in your blood’. Of course, they couldn’t see viruses as this was a light microscope with a magnification of about three thousand times, back-illuminated. He said...
‘just a minute – I must have done something wrong’, so he stuck another finger, then he went to the earlobe and made a slide and said ‘what have you been doing? anyone who has ever come to me, man, woman or child, in the last thirteen years, you can see the parasites, many of the germs, microbes and bacteria swimming around in the blood but you don’t have any at all. The patient said that he had been on the blood cleaner so Dr Mike said ‘give me some of those, I’ve got to test them on some of my patients – I don’t believe you’. He did, and they worked.

Now, in Colorado, blood is considered ‘toxic waste’ or hazardous waste. It must be picked up and disposed of by incineration by registered toxic waste disposal people. Dr Mike had thrown these three or four slides in a box underneath his laboratory table. He looked down at this box about twenty-seven days afterwards and checked the slides again under the microscope. That blood was still alive. The half-life of human blood on an unsealed microscope slide is between two and a half to four days maximum. Twenty-seven days had gone by and the red cells were swimming in the plasma exactly the same as the minute he had drawn that blood. It had not crenated (serrated around the edge) – a fibrin reaction had not set in although it had evaporated around the edges. Now let’s get to the point. One month after that, that is some fifty-one days later, those slides had not yet been picked up for disposal, so Mike checked them again. The blood had ‘circled the wagons’: there was about a half a millimetre spot in the middle where the cells had not evaporated and were still alive.

The people in his practice who had been tested upon with the blood cleansers have now got immortal blood. Now, what does this mean? If ‘the adversary is within’ he might not be a man with a red tail and horns out there somewhere with the number 666. Just as the Holy Spirit dwells within this temple, so might the adversary, at least the aliens which have been involved with us over many, many moons are in there and you can see them if you go to a dark-field microscopist, if you get rid of those, who knows what is going to happen? What happened to me. I was so fat that I was in a wheelchair and I had been given up for dead. The doctors who came to see me, friends of mine who were Medical Doctors who hadn’t made a house call in Beverley Hills in thirty years, were coming down to my apartment saying ‘Bob, you’d better dispose of whatever you’ve got – you’ll never walk again. I was given so many tests. I brought Dr. Alexander Everett from Washington, paid his way, put him up in the Red Lion hotel. He worked on me until he said ‘Bob, I’ll have to go back now, there is nothing that anyone can do for you’. And I was in a wheelchair, but I’m sure as hell not dead! Everything is working well again.

My blood pressure when I started this averaged 219 over 190 and was borderline diabetic with blood sugar 425 to 475. Today my blood pressure is 130 to 140 over 70 to 75 and after just three weeks my blood sugar had dropped to 150, which at that time was considered normal.

So I’m here to share this information with you. I have nothing for sale. There are people who are selling things, I’m not one of them. Part of that is because I believe that God’s work should be given freely. I expect to get my reward somewhere else if I don’t come back to this planet of painful endeavour. I have a lot of theories about this and also the Food and Drugs Administration has come to my door with drawn guns at three o’clock in the morning. I have been beaten up by the people supporting the pharmaceutical houses who don’t want a $1.32 cure for AIDS.

Bob also speaks of his use of colloidal silver, (a document on which can be downloaded using the download link http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Silver.pdf) although Bob’s method of production looks more simple. He says:

This is a glass of water which I got out of the kitchen. I’ve taken a single 9-volt battery and put a little “grain of wheat” bulb (6 to 12 volt 55 milliamp) in series with the battery and these two silver wires. There is no known germ, bacteria or microbe which can survive what I am about to do right now. I’m going to put these two silver wires into this glass of water, about half an inch (12 mm) apart, and leave them there for about three minutes. That is all it takes. This is tap water and you can make this silver colloid for about one tenth of a cent per gallon and that is the most powerful medicine known to man. After three minutes Bob stirs the colloid with a plastic knife and demonstrates how a laser beam reflects off the microscopic particles of silver suspended in the water and then drinks the water. Bob drinks two or three glasses of colloid each day. The colloid prevents you from contract secondary infections during the first three weeks while you are getting well with the blood electrification process.
Finance: Money only has value when backed by something of worth. The largest purchase that most people make is buying a property. This is often done by taking out a mortgage with a financial institution such as a bank or a Building Society. For this, most people sign a mortgage agreement with the bank, agreeing to pay back the mortgage amount plus a large amount of interest, generally over a period of many years. If you default on the repayments, typically after many years of payments, the bank takes your property and sells it in order to gain as much money as they can. What you are not told is that the mortgage agreement is a contract and no contract is valid unless something of worth is offered by both parties and full disclosure of all circumstances is made. The bank does not offer anything of value as it just invents the money, creating it out of thin air and without any backing of something of worth. The bank regulations actually forbids the bank from lending out money deposited by it’s members, so a bank cannot legally enter into any such mortgage agreement backed by the funds deposited with it. Further, no contract is valid unless there is a “wet ink” signature by both parties and a wet ink signature can only be made by a human. A bank cannot make a wet ink signature, nor can some other individual sign a contract on behalf of somebody else, so, no mortgage agreement is actually valid in law. Also, the bank being aware of this and not making it clear to you the mortgagee, is in breach of the “full disclosure” requirement of a contract, which is enough to invalidate the contract anyway. Therefore, if a bank tries to take your property for lack of payments, they are acting unlawfully and are not entitled to do so. They usually get away with it, because most people are not aware of the real facts involved.

The Media: You are expected to believe that the media is an honest and unbiased source of information. The reality is that all of the main media outlets are owned by just a few, very rich individuals, and their objective is not to provide unbiased reporting. It appears that they have three main objectives.

First, they want to make money and objective and truthful reporting does not necessarily help towards that goal. You will never, ever, find honest reporting of anything to do with free-energy or any other positive thing which individuals can do for themselves. For example, if a “report” is made on say, an HHO booster to improve mpg and reduce harmful emissions dramatically, it will be arranged that the supposed results show that these thing are not worthwhile. Contrast that with the reality that Dr Scott Cramton can use HHO gas from the electrolysis of water, to reduce the fuel requirement of any diesel engine by at least 60%. No matter how you try, no major news outlet will every report the honest facts as that could damage the excessive revenue stream of the oil companies.

Second, they want to generate as much fear and worry as possible because doing that over an extended period, causes the average person to be more amenable to having their freedoms taken away from them. It facilitates the introduction of surveillance on everybody, identity papers (birth certificate, driving licence, passport, social security number, voting register, National Census record, etc. – very much in the Nazi occupation style), going to war with countries which have never harmed you, considering people to be dishonourable just on the basis of their nationality, and the like. Try counting the items reported in the daily news which are negative – murders, attacks, dishonesty, deaths through accidents, deaths through natural disasters, kidnappings, piracy, violence, environmental damage, etc. and compare that number to the count of positive things reported on – happy events, acts of kindness, successful ventures, etc. and see what ration you get, day after day, after day. This is not just sales being boosted because people love to read about disaster. Instead, it is a deliberate, long-term policy of psychological warfare against ordinary people.

Third, they deliberately divert the attention of people away from anything of real importance by promoting and encouraging excessive interest in things of no importance. There is a deliberate dumbing-down of almost all TV programs in the UK, the promotion of excessively violent video games, the promotion of trivia such as celebrities and their activities, dieting, gossip, fashion, and other irrelevant topics. They want you to
give all of your attention to these things and not notice what is actually going on all around you.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 12: Basic Electronics

Introduction
This document is not an in-depth presentation of the subject of electronics. Instead, it is intended to give you sufficient (empirical) knowledge of the subject to be able to understand, design and build simple circuits such as the control circuits used with the ‘Free Energy’ devices described in the later parts of this eBook.

Disclaimer
This material is provided for information purposes only. Should you decide to attempt construction of some device based on information presented here and injure yourself or any other person, I am not liable in any way. To clarify this; should you construct something in a heavy box and drop it on your toe, I am not liable for any injury you may sustain (you should learn to be more careful). If you attempt to construct some electronic circuit and burn yourself with the soldering iron, I am not liable. Also, I strongly recommend that unless you are expert in electronics, you do not construct any device using, or producing more than 30 Volts - high voltage circuits are extremely dangerous and should be avoided until you gain experience or can obtain the help and supervision of a person experienced in constructing high voltage circuits.

Voltage.
Voltage is the key to understanding electronics. Without voltage, nothing happens in electronics. What is it? Nobody knows. We know how to generate it. We know what it does. We know how to measure it, but nobody knows what it actually is.

It is also called “Electro Motive Force” or “EMF” which is no help whatsoever in knowing what it is. That, is roughly equivalent to saying “the thing that pushes is the thing that pushes” - very true but absolutely no help whatsoever. OK, having admitted that we really don't know what it is, we can start to say the things we do know about it:

A new battery has a voltage between its terminals. This voltage is said to cause a current to flow through any complete electrical circuit placed across it. The current flowing through the circuit can cause various things to happen such as creating light, creating sound, creating heat, creating magnetism, creating movement, creating sparks, etc., etc.

By using the current caused by a voltage, a device called a ‘Voltmeter’ can indicate how big the voltage is. The bigger the voltage, the bigger the current and the bigger the display on the voltmeter. The voltmeter can have a numerical display where you read the voltage directly from the display, or it can be an ‘analogue’ voltmeter where the voltage is shown by the position of a needle on a scale. The size of the voltage is stated in ‘Volts’ which is a unit of measurement named after the man Volta who introduced voltage to the world (it was always there, we just did not know about it).

Voltages add up if they are connected the same way round, i.e. with the + terminals all facing the same way:

The physical size of the battery usually determines the length of time it can supply any given current - the bigger the battery, the longer it can provide any given current. A battery is constructed from a number of ‘cells’. The number of cells in the battery controls the voltage of the battery. For example, an ‘AA’ size battery (what used to be called a ‘penlight’ battery) has a single ‘cell’ and so produces 1.5 Volts when new. The very much larger and heavier ‘D’ battery also has just one cell and so it also produces 1.5 Volts when new. The difference (apart from the higher cost of the ‘D’ cell) is that the larger cell can provide a much higher current if both batteries are discharged over the same period of time.
There are several different types of battery construction. A rechargeable NiCad battery has a single cell but its construction method means that it produces about 1.35 Volts when fully charged. In passing, NiCad batteries have a ‘memory’ characteristic which means that if they are recharged before they are fully discharged, then the next time they are discharged they run out of power at the voltage level it had when the last charging was started. Consequently, it is a good idea to fully discharge a NiCad battery before charging it again.

Car and motorcycle batteries are described as Lead/Acid batteries. This type of construction is not very convenient being large, heavy and potentially corrosive. The big advantages are the ability to provide very high currents and giving 2.0 Volts per cell. These batteries are normally produced as 6 Volt or 12 Volt units. The Amp-Hours for lead/acid car batteries is usually quoted for a 20 hour discharge period, so a fully charged, new, 20 AHR battery can provide 1 Amp for 20 hours of continuous use. That battery loaded to give 5 Amps, will not provide that current for 4 hours but might only last 2 hours, or perhaps a little better. The manufacturers literature should give an indication of the performance, but if it is important, run your own test to see how the battery actually works in practice.

“Mains units” are known in the electronics world as “Power Supply Units” or “PSUs” for short. These convert the mains voltage (220 Volts in UK, 110 Volts in USA) to some convenient low voltage; 12 Volts, 9 Volts, 6 Volts, or whatever is needed. A mains unit can provide several different voltages simultaneously.

**Resistance.**
Being familiar with Voltage and Resistance is the key to understanding electronic circuitry. Resistance is a measure of how difficult it is for current to flow through something. Some materials such as glass, ceramics, wood and most plastics do not easily carry a current and so are considered to be ‘insulators’. That is why you will see power lines hung from their pylons by a series of ceramic discs. Current flows easily through metals, especially along the surface of the metal, so cables are made from metal wires surrounded by a layer of plastic insulation. The higher grade cables have wire cores made up of many small-diameter strands as this increases the surface area of the metal for any given cross-sectional area of the metal core (it also makes the cable more flexible, and generally, more expensive).

There is a very important, third group of materials, silicon and germanium in particular, which fall between conductors and insulators. Not surprisingly, these are called ‘semi-conductors’ and the amount of current they can carry depends on the electrical conditions in which they are placed. Much, much more about this later on.

While a metal wire carries current very well, it is not perfect at the job and so has some ‘resistance’ to current flowing through it. The thicker the wire, the lower the resistance. The shorter the wire, the lower the resistance. The first researchers used this characteristic to control the way circuits operated. Sometimes, as higher resistances were needed, the researcher used to need long lengths of wire which would get tangled up. To control the wire, a board with nails along each side was used and the wire wound backwards and forwards across the board like this:

![Resistor symbols](image)

When drawing a circuit diagram, the researcher would sketch the wire on the board giving a zig-zag line which is still used today to represent a ‘resistor’ although different methods of construction are now used. An alternative symbol for a resistor is a plain rectangle as shown above.

If a resistor is connected across a battery, a circuit is formed and a current flows around the circuit. The current cannot be seen but that does not mean that it is not there. Current is measured in ‘Amps’ and the instrument used to display it is an ‘ammeter’. If we place an ammeter in the circuit, it will show the current flowing around the circuit. In passing, the ammeter itself, has a small resistance and so putting it in the circuit does reduce the current flow around the circuit very slightly. Also shown is a bulb. If the current flowing around the circuit is sufficiently high and the bulb chosen correctly, then the bulb will light up, showing that current is flowing, while the ammeter will indicate exactly how much current is flowing.
Shown on the right, is the way that this circuit would be shown by an electronics expert (the ‘Resistor’, ‘Ammeter’ and ‘Lamp’ labels would almost certainly not be shown). There are several different styles of drawing circuit diagrams, but they are the same in the basic essentials. One important common feature is that unless there is some very unusual and powerful reason not to do so, every standard style circuit diagram will have the positive voltage line horizontally at the top of the diagram and the negative as a horizontal line at the bottom. These are often referred to as the positive and negative ‘rails’. Where possible, the circuit is drawn so that its operation takes place from left to right, i.e. the first action taken by the circuit is on the left and the last action is placed on the right.

Resistors are manufactured in several sizes and varieties. They come in ‘fixed’ and ‘variable’ versions. The most commonly used are the ‘fixed’ carbon ‘E12’ range. This is a range of values which has 12 resistor values which repeat: 10, 12, 15, 18, 22, 27, 33, 39, 47, 56, 68, 82 and then: 100, 120, 150, 180, 220, 270, 330, 390, 470, 560, 680, 820 and then: 1000, 1200, 1500, 1800, 2200, 2700, 3300, 3900, 4700, 5600, 6800, 8200, etc. etc. Nowadays, circuits often carry very little power and so the resistors can, and are, made in very small physical sizes. The higher the resistance value of a resistor, the less current will flow through it when a voltage is placed across it. As it can be difficult to see printing on small resistors clustered together on a circuit board and surrounded by other larger components, the resistor values are not written on the resistors, instead, the resistors are colour-coded. The unit of measurement for resistors is the ‘ohm’ which has a very small size. Most resistors which you encounter will be in the range 100 ohms to 1,000,000 ohms. The higher the resistance of any resistor, the smaller the current which will flow through it.

The colour code used on resistors is:

0 Black
1 Brown
2 Red
3 Orange
4 Yellow
5 Green
6 Blue
7 Purple (Violet if your colour vision is very good)
8 Grey
9 White

Each resistor has typically, three colour bands to indicate its value. The first two bands are the numbers and the third band is the number of noughts:

- Green: 5
- Blue: 6
- Red: 2 noughts
- Value: 5,600 ohms or 5.6K or 5K6

- Yellow: 4
- Purple: 7
- Green: 5 noughts
- Value: 4,700,000 ohms or 4.7M or 4M7

The colour bands are read from left to right and the first band is close to one end of the body of the resistor. There is often a fourth band which indicates the manufacturing tolerance: you can ignore that band.
Examples:

Red, Red, Red: 2 2 00 ohms or 2K2
Yellow, Purple, Orange: 4 7 000 ohms or 47K
Brown, Black, Brown: 1 0 0 ohms or 100R
Orange, Orange, Orange: 3 3 000 ohms or 33K
Brown, Green, Red: 1 5 00 ohms or 1K5
Brown, Green, Black: 1 5 no noughts, or 15 ohms
Blue, Grey, Orange: 6 8 000 ohms or 68K
Brown, Green, Green: 1 5 00000 ohms or 1,500,000 ohms or 1M5
Yellow, Purple, Brown: 4 7 0 ohms

As there are only 12 standard resistor values per decade, there are only 12 sets of the first two colour bands:
10: Brown/Black,
12: Brown/Red,
15: Brown/Green,
18: Brown/Grey
22: Red/Red,
27: Red/Purple
33: Orange/Orange,
39: Orange/White
47: Yellow/Purple
56: Green/Blue
68: Blue/Grey
82: Grey/Red
The details above give you all the basic information on resistor colour codes but there are a few additional refinements. There is an extra colour band further down the body of the resistor as shown here:

This extra band is used to indicate the manufacturing tolerance of the construction of the resistor. Resistor values are never exact and this rarely has any significant effect on their use in circuits. If some circuit needs very accurate resistor values in it, then buy several resistors of the same nominal value and use an ohm-meter to measure that actual value of each particular resistor and if none are perfect, then use two or more resistors to give the exact value wanted.

The tolerance band has the following codes:

Silver is ± 10% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9K and 11K)
Gold ± 5% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.5K and 10.5K)
Red ± 2% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.8K and 10.2K)
Brown ± 1% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.9K and 10.1K)
Green ± 0.5% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.95K and 10.05K)
Blue ± 0.25% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.975K and 10.025K)
Purple ± 0.1% (i.e. a 10K resistor of this type should be between 9.99K and 10.01K)

This type of resistor in the 10% and 5% ranges are the most common as they are the cheapest to buy and so tend to be the most popular. Recently, however, two additions to the coding have been introduced in order to allow for very high specification resistors which the average constructor may never come across. Each of these additions involves one additional colour band. The first additional colour band allows an extra digit in the resistor value, and looks like this:
As before, the colour coding is exactly the same, with the fourth colour band specifying the number of zeros after the digits indicated by the colour bands in front of it. So, in the example shown above, the first band being Red indicates a "2". The second colour band being Purple indicates a "7". The third colour band being Green indicates a "5" and the fourth colour band being Red indicates "2 zeros", so putting those together it produces the value of 27,500 ohms, which can also be written as 27.5 K or more briefly as 27K5.

Another example of this is:

The fourth colour band coding has also been extended to include two other colours:
Gold: meaning "no zeros and divided by 10" so if the band in the example above had been gold, then the value would be 56.4 ohms.
Silver: meaning "no zeros and divided by 100" and if the example band had been silver then the value would have been 5.64 ohms.

So, for example, if the resistor had a fourth colour band which was silver, then the value would be:

Finally, for very high-quality applications (typically military applications), there can be a sixth colour band positioned outside the tolerance band, and that final colour band states how much the resistance value can be expected to alter with changes in temperature. This is not something which is likely to be of any interest to you, but the codes for that final colour band are:

Brown: 0.01% of the resistor value for each degree Centigrade change in temperature.
Red: 0.005% of the resistor value for each degree Centigrade change in temperature.
Yellow: 0.0025% of the resistor value for each degree Centigrade change in temperature.
Orange: 0.0015% of the resistor value for each degree Centigrade change in temperature.

To put this in context, the worst of these represents a change of 1% in the resistor value when moving from the temperature of ice to the temperature of boiling water. Is this something which you really care about? I don't.

Leaving the details of identifying individual resistors, we now come to the interesting part: what happens when there are several resistors in a circuit. The important thing is to keep track of the voltages generated within the circuit. These define the currents flowing, the power used and the way in which the circuit will respond to external events. Take this circuit:
What is the voltage at point ‘A’? If you feel like saying “Who cares?” then the answer is “you” if you want to understand how circuits work, because the voltage at point ‘A’ is vital. For the moment, ignore the effect of the voltmeter used to measure the voltage.

If R1 has the same resistance as R2, then the voltage at ‘A’ is half the battery voltage, i.e. 4.5 Volts. Half the battery voltage is dropped across R1 and half across R2. It does not matter what the actual resistance of R1 or R2 is, as long as they have exactly the same resistance. The higher the resistance, the less current flows, the longer the battery lasts and the more difficult it is to measure the voltage accurately.

There is no need to do any calculations to determine the voltage at point “A” as it is the ratio of the resistor values which determines the voltage. If you really want to, you can calculate the voltage although it is not necessary. The method for doing this will be shown you shortly. For example, if R1 and R2 each have a value of 50 ohms, then the current flowing through them will be 9 volts / 100 ohms = 0.09 Amps (or 90 milliamps). The voltage drop across R1 will be 50 ohms = Volts / 0.09 amps or Volts = 4.5 volts. Exactly the same calculation shows that the voltage across R2 is exactly 4.5 volts as well. However, the point to be stressed here is that it is the ratio of R1 to R2 which controls the voltage at point “A”.

If R1 has half as much resistance as R2, then half as much voltage is dropped across it as is dropped across R2, i.e. 3 Volts is dropped across R1, giving point ‘A’ a voltage of 6 Volts and that is what the voltmeter will show. Again, it does not matter what the actual value of R1 is in ohms, so long as R2 has exactly twice the resistance (shown by a higher number on the resistor).

If R1 has twice as much resistance as R2, then twice as much voltage is dropped across it as is dropped across R2, i.e. 6 Volts is dropped across R1, giving point ‘A’ a voltage of 3 Volts. Here are some examples with different resistors:

The same division of the supply voltage can be produced by positioning the slider of a variable resistor at different points by rotating the shaft of the device:
This determination of the voltage levels is the key factor to understanding electronic circuitry. The voltage levels control what currents flow and how every circuit will perform, so it is essential to understand what is happening. Stick with this section until you understand it, and if necessary, ask questions about what you find difficult.

First, please understand that a good battery is an unlimited source of voltage and that voltage does not get "used up" when a resistor or whatever is connected across it:

There can be some difficulty in understanding the "0-volt" connection in a circuit. All this means is that it is the return line for current flowing from the battery. Most conventional circuits are connected to both sides of the battery and that allows a current to flow around a closed "circuit" from one terminal of the battery to the other terminal.

It is normal practice to draw a circuit diagram so that the Plus terminal of the battery is at the top and the minus terminal is at the bottom. Many circuit diagrams show the negative line at the bottom connected to the ground or an "earth" connection, which is literally a metal rod driven into the ground to make a good electrical connection to the ground. This is done because the Earth is literally a vast reservoir of negative electricity. However, in reality, most circuits are not connected directly to the Earth in any way. The standard circuit diagram can be visualised as being like a graph of voltage, the higher up the diagram, the higher the voltage.

Anyway, when there is a circuit connected across the battery, the negative or "0V" line just indicates the return path to the battery for the current flow:
This principle applies immediately to the following circuit:

Here we encounter two new components. The first is ‘VR1’ which is a variable resistor. This device is a resistor which has a slider which can be moved from one end of the resistor to the other. In the circuit above, the variable resistor is connected across the 9 Volt battery so the top of the resistor is at +9 Volts (relative to the battery Minus terminal) and the bottom is at 0 Volts. The voltage on the slider can be adjusted from 0 Volts to 9 Volts by moving it along the resistor by turning the shaft of the component (which normally has a knob attached to it).

The second new device is ‘TR1’ a transistor. This semiconductor has three connections: a Collector, a Base and an Emitter. If the voltage on the base is below 0.7 volts, then the transistor is said to be “OFF” and in that state it has a very high resistance between the collector and the emitter, much higher than the resistance of resistor “R2”. The voltage dividing mechanism just discussed means that the voltage at the collector will therefore, be very near to 9 Volts - caused by the ratio of the transistor’s Collector/Emitter resistance compared to the resistor “R2”.

If the voltage on the base of the transistor is raised to 0.7 volts by moving the slider of the variable resistor slowly upwards, then this will feed a small current to the base which then flows out through the emitter, switching the transistor ON causing the resistance between the collector and the emitter to drop instantly to a very low value, much, much lower than the resistance of resistor ‘R2’. This means that the voltage at the collector will be very close to 0 Volts. The transistor can therefore be switched on and off just by rotating the shaft of the variable resistor:
If a bulb is used instead of R2, then it will light when the transistor switches on. If a relay or opto-isolator is used, then a second circuit can be operated:

If a buzzer is substituted for R2, then an audible warning will be sounded when the transistor switches on. If a light-dependent resistor is substituted for VR1, then the transistor will switch on when the light level increases or decreases, depending on how the sensor is connected. If a thermistor is used instead of VR1, then the transistor can be switched on by a rise or fall in temperature. The same goes for sound, wind speed, water speed, vibration level, etc. etc. - more of this later.

We need to examine the resistor circuit in more detail:

We need to be able to calculate what current is flowing around the circuit. If the circuit contains only resistors, then this can be done using “Ohms Law” which states that “Resistance equals Voltage divided by Current” or, if you prefer:

Ohm’s Law (resistive Circuits only).

“Ohms = Volts / Amps” which indicates the units of measurement.

In the circuit above, if the voltage is 9 Volts and the resistor is 100 ohms, then by using Ohm’s Law we can calculate the current flowing around the circuit as 100 Ohms = 9 Volts / Amps, or Amps = 9 / 100 which equals 0.09 Amps. To avoid decimal places, the unit of 1 milliamp is used. There are 1000 milliamps in 1 Amp. The
current just calculated would commonly be expressed as 90 milliamps which is written as 90 mA.

In the circuit above, if the voltage is 9 Volts and the resistor is 330 ohms, then by using Ohm’s Law we can calculate the current flowing around the circuit as $330 = 9 / \text{Amps}$. Multiplying both sides of the equation by “Amps” gives: 
Amps x 330 ohms = 9 volts. Dividing both sides of the equation by 330 gives: 
Amps = 9 volts / 330 ohms which works out as 0.027 Amps, written as 27 mA.

Using Ohm’s Law we can calculate what resistor to use to give any required current flow. If the voltage is 12 Volts and the required current is 250 mA then as Ohms = Volts / Amps, the resistor needed is given by: Ohms = 12 / 0.25 Amps which equals 48 ohms. The closest standard resistor is 47 ohms (Yellow / Purple / Black).

The final thing to do is to check the wattage of the resistor to make sure that the resistor will not burn out when connected in the proposed circuit. The power calculation is given by: 
Watts = Volts x Amps. In the last example, this gives Watts = 12 x 0.25, which is 3 Watts. This is much larger than most resistors used in circuitry nowadays.

Taking the earlier example, Watts = Volts x Amps, so Watts = 9 x 0.027 which gives 0.234 Watts. Again, to avoid decimals, a unit of 1 milliwatt is used, where 1000 milliwatts = 1 Watt. So instead of writing 0.234 Watts, it is common to write it as 234 mW.

This method of working out voltages, resistances and wattages applies to any circuit, no matter how awkward they may appear. For example, take the following circuit containing five resistors: 

As the current flowing through resistor ‘R1’ has then to pass through resistor ‘R2’, they are said to be ‘in series’ and their resistances are added together when calculating current flows. In the example above, both R1 and R2 are 1K resistors, so together they have a resistance to current flow of 2K (that is, 2,000 ohms).

If two, or more, resistors are connected across each other as shown on the right hand side of the diagram above, they are said to be ‘in parallel’ and their resistances combine differently. If you want to work out the equation above, for yourself, then choose a voltage across Rt, use Ohm’s Law to work out the current through Ra and the current through Rb. Add the currents together (as they are both being drawn from the voltage source) and use Ohm’s Law again to work out the value of Rt to confirm that the $1/Rt = 1/Ra + 1/Rb + \ldots$ equation is correct.

In the example above, R4 is 1K5 (1,500 ohms) and R5 is 2K2 (2,200 ohms) so their combined resistance is given by $1/Rt = 1/1500 + 1/2200$ or Rt = 892 ohms (using a simple calculator). Apply a common-sense check to this result: If they had been two 1500 ohm resistors then the combined value would have been 750 ohms. If they had been two 2200 ohm resistors then the combined value would have been 1100 ohms. Our answer must therefore lie between 750 and 1100 ohms. If you came up with an answer of, say, 1620 ohms, then you know straight off that it is wrong and the arithmetic needs to be done again.

So, how about the voltages at points ‘A’ and ‘B’ in the circuit? As R1 and R2 are equal in value, they will have equal voltage drops across them for any given current. So the voltage at point ‘A’ will be half the battery voltage, i.e. 6 Volts.

Now, point ‘B’. Resistors R4 and R5 act the same as a single resistor of 892 ohms, so we can just imagine two resistors in series: R3 at 470 ohms and R4+R5 at 892 ohms. Common-sense rough check: as R3 is only about half the resistance of R4+R5, it will have about half as much voltage drop across it as the voltage drop across R4+R5, i.e. about 4 Volts across R3 and about 8 Volts across R4+R5, so the voltage at point ‘B’ should work out at about 8 Volts.
We can use Ohm’s Law to calculate the current flowing through point ‘B’:

\[ \text{Ohms} = \frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{Amps}}, \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Amps} = \frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{Ohms}} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Volts} = \text{Ohms} \times \text{Amps} \]

\[(470 + 892) = 12 / \text{Amps}, \text{ so} \]

\[\text{Amps} = 12 / (470 + 892)\]

\[\text{Amps} = 12 / 1362 \quad \text{or} \]

\[\text{Amps} = 0.00881 \text{ Amps (8.81 milliamps)}.\]

Now that we know the current passing through (R4+R5) we can calculate the exact voltage across them:

\[\text{Resistance} = \frac{\text{Volts}}{\text{Amps}} \text{ so} \]

\[892 = \frac{\text{Volts}}{0.00881} \text{ or} \]

\[\text{Volts} = 892 \times 0.00881\]

\[\text{Volts} = 7.859 \text{ Volts}.\]

As our common-sense estimate was 8 Volts, we can accept 7.86 Volts as being the accurate voltage at point ‘B’.

**The Potentiometer.**

Just before we leave the subject of resistors and move on to more interesting subjects, we come across the term ‘potentiometer’. This term is often shortened to ‘pot’ and many people use it to describe a variable resistor. I only mention this so that you can understand what they are talking about. A variable resistor is not a potentiometer and really should not be called one. You can skip the rest of this part as it is not at all important, but here is what a potentiometer is:

A fancy name for voltage is ‘potential’, so a circuit powered by a 12 Volt battery can be described as having a ‘potential’ of zero volts at the negative side of the battery and a ‘potential’ of plus twelve volts at the positive side of the battery. Ordinary folks like me would just say ‘voltage’ instead of ‘potential’.

When a voltmeter is used to measure the voltage at any point in a circuit, it alters the circuit by drawing a small amount of current from the circuit. The voltmeter usually has a high internal resistance and so the current is very small, but even though it is a small current, it does alter the circuit. Consequently, the measurement made is not quite correct. Scientists, in years gone by, overcame the problem with a very neat solution - they measured the voltage without taking any current from the circuit - neat huh? They also did it with a very simple arrangement:

They used a sensitive meter to measure the current. This meter is built so that the needle is in a central position if no current is flowing. With a positive current flowing, the needle deflects to the right. With a negative current flowing, the needle moves to the left. They then connected a variable resistor ‘VR1’ across the same battery which was powering the circuit. The top end of VR1 is at +12 Volts (they called that ‘a potential of +12 Volts’) and the bottom end of VR1 is at zero volts or ‘a potential of zero volts’.

By moving the slider of VR1, any voltage or ‘potential’ from zero volts to +12 Volts could be selected. To measure the voltage at point ‘A’ without drawing any current from the circuit, they would connect the meter as shown and adjust the variable resistor until the meter reading was exactly zero.
Since the meter reading is zero, the current flowing through it is also zero and the current taken from the circuit is zero. As no current is being taken from the circuit, the measurement is not affecting the circuit in any way - very clever. The voltage on the slider of VR1 exactly matches the voltage at point 'A', so with a calibrated scale on the variable resistor, the voltage can be read off.

The slick piece of equipment made up from the battery, the variable resistor and the meter was used to measure the ‘potential’ (voltage) at any point and so was called a ‘potentiometer’. So, please humour me by calling a variable resistor a ‘variable resistor’ and not a ‘potentiometer’. As I said before, this is not at all important, and if you want to, you can call a variable resistor a ‘heffalump’ so long as you know how it works.

**Understanding what circuit diagrams mean.**

Many people look at a circuit diagram and have no idea what it means, so let’s see if we can make the mystery go away. Take this circuit for example:

![Circuit Diagram]

This circuit has three components plus some wire. The symbol “B” represents a battery, or more strictly speaking, a battery made up of a number of cells. Batteries come in many different shapes and sizes. Here are some of them:

![Battery Images]

The symbol “R” represents a resistor as described above, and the “LED” is a Light-Emitting Diode which probably looks like this:

![LED Image]

The longer lead is the Plus. Many LEDs need more than 1.5 volts to light up, and while it is very easy to think of a single AA-size battery as being 1.5 volts, the very common AA-size NiMh batteries are only 1.2 volts. So, let us set up the circuit using a 9V battery and a 330 ohm resistor (Orange, Orange, Brown) to limit the current flowing through the LED. The circuit is:

![Circuit Diagram]

And this indicates that the Plus of the battery gets connected to the resistor. This can be done using some wire, or the resistor can be connected directly to the battery:
Then the LED gets connected to the other end of the resistor:

And finally, the other side of the LED is connected to the Minus of the battery:

If the LED is connected the wrong way round, it will not damage anything but the LED will not light up. Poor quality connections can be made by twisting wires together. Better quality connections can be made using screw connectors:

The spacing of the connectors on the strip varies with the power rating of the connectors and there are four or five sizes commonly available, and so it is sometimes necessary to cut the strip and use individual connectors at times. Another option is to use a plug-in board although they are far from perfect. They used to be very good but then integrated circuits came along with their tiny pin spacing and the boards adapted to them by making the holes and the spacing between the holes small enough to suit the integrated circuits. Now, it is no longer possible to plug in quite ordinary components such as the fast UF5408 diode as the diode wires are too large to plug into the tiny holes:
The most effective method of connection is to solder the components together and that is not particularly difficult to do. Veroboard (stripboard) is convenient and there are several other board styles which can be used. When I was very young and almost no components were available, I used drawing pins and soldered components to them, killing the excessive heat using a wet cloth which is very effective in dropping temperature very rapidly. However, no matter what method of connection is used, you just follow along the connecting lines in any diagram to see what components are connected together.

Semiconductors.
This section deals with discrete semiconductors. A later section deals with ‘Integrated Circuits’ which are large-scale semiconductor devices.

ORP12 Light-dependent resistor. This device has a high resistance in the dark and a low resistance in bright light. It can be placed in a circuit to create a switch which operates with an increase in light level or a decrease in light level:

In this version, the voltage at point ‘A’ controls the circuit. In darkness, the ORP12 has a resistance ten times greater than that of R1 which is 12,000 ohms. Consequently, the voltage at point ‘A’ will be high. As the light level increases, the resistance of the ORP12 falls, dragging the voltage at point ‘A’ downwards. As the variable resistor ‘VR1’ is connected from point ‘A’ to the ground rail (the -ve of the battery), its slider can be moved to select any voltage between 0 Volts and the voltage of ‘A’. A slider point can be chosen to make the transistor switch off in daylight and on at night. To make the circuit trigger when the light level increases, just swap the positions of R1 and the ORP12.

The transistor shown is a BC109 although most transistors will work in this circuit. The BC109 is a cheap, silicon, NPN transistor. It can handle 100mA and 30V and can switch on and off more than a million times per second. It has three connections: the Collector, marked ‘c’ in the diagram, the Base, marked ‘b’ in the diagram and the Emitter, marked ‘e’ in the diagram.

As mentioned before, it has a very high resistance between the collector and the emitter when no current flows into the base. If a small current is fed into the base, the collector/emitter resistance drops to a very low value. The collector current divided by the base current is called the ‘gain’ of the transistor and is often called ‘hfe’. A transistor such as a BC109 or a BC108 has a gain of about 200, though this varies from actual transistor to actual
transistor. A gain of 200 means that a current of 200mA passing through the collector requires a current of 1mA through the base to sustain it. Specific information on the characteristics and connections of semiconductors of all kinds can be obtained free from the excellent website www.alldatasheet.com which provides .pdf information files.

The BC109 transistor shown above is an NPN type. This is indicated by the arrow of the symbol pointing outwards. You can also tell by the collector pointing to the positive rail. There are similar silicon transistors constructed as PNP devices. These have the arrow in the transistor symbol pointing inwards and their collectors get connected, directly or indirectly, to the negative rail. This family of transistors are the earliest transistor designs and are called 'bi-polar' transistors.

These silicon transistors are so efficiently constructed that they can be connected directly together to give greatly increased gain. This arrangement is called a 'Darlington pair'. If each transistor has a gain of 200, then the pair give a gain of 200 x 200 = 40,000. This has the effect that a very, very small current can be used to power a load. The following diagram shows a Darlington pair used in a water-level detector. This type of alarm could be very useful if you are asleep on a boat which starts taking on water.

Here, (when the circuit is switched on), transistor TR1 has so little leakage current that TR2 is starved of base current and is hard off, giving it a high resistance across its collector/emitter junction. This starves the buzzer of voltage and keeps it powered off. The sensor is just two probes fixed in place above the acceptable water level. If the water level rises, the probes get connected via the water. Pure water has a high electrical resistance but this circuit will still work with pure water.

The odds are that in a practical situation, the water will not be particularly clean. The resistor R1 is included to limit the base current of TR1 should the sensor probes be short-circuited. Silicon bi-polar transistors have a base/emitter voltage of about 0.7V when fully switched on. The Darlington pair will have about 1.4V between the base of TR1 and the emitter of TR2, so if the sensor probes are short-circuited together, resistor R1 will have 6 - 1.4 = 4.6V across it. Ohms Law gives us the current through it as \( I = \frac{V}{R} \) or \( I = \frac{4.6}{47,000} \) amps. This works out at 0.098mA which with a transistor gain of 40,000 would allow up to 3.9A through the buzzer. As the buzzer takes only 30mA or so, it limits the current passing through it, and TR2 can be considered to be switched hard on with the whole battery voltage across it.

NPN transistors are more common than PNP types but there is almost no practical difference between them. Here is the previous circuit using PNP transistors:

Not a lot of difference. Most of the circuit diagrams shown here use NPN types but not only are these not critical, but there are several ways to design any particular circuit. In general, the semiconductors shown in any circuit are seldom critical. If you can determine the characteristics of any semiconductor shown, any reasonably similar
device can generally be substituted, especially if you have a general understanding of how the circuit works. Either of the two previous circuits can operate as a rain detector. A suitable sensor can easily be made from a piece of strip board with alternate strips connected together to form an interlacing grid:

![Rain Sensor](image)

Here, if a raindrop bridges between any two adjacent strips, the circuit will trigger and sound a warning.

The transistors in the circuit above are connected with their emitter(s) connected to the ground rail (the lower battery line shown in any circuit is considered to be “ground” unless it is specifically shown elsewhere). This connection method is called ‘common emitter’. The following circuit uses the transistor connected in ‘emitter follower’ mode. This is where the emitter is left to follow the base voltage - it is always 0.7V below it unless the base itself is driven below 0.7V:

![Light-operated switch](image)

This is almost the same as the light-operated circuit shown earlier. In this variation, the transistors are wired so that they work as an ‘emitter-follower’ which follows the voltage at point ‘A’ which rises as the light level drops and the resistance of the ORP12 increases. This causes the voltage across the relay to increase until the relay operates and closes its contacts. A relay is a voltage-operated mechanical switch which will be described in more detail later on.

The disadvantage of the above circuit is that as the light level decreases, the current through the relay increases and it may be a significant amount of current for some considerable time. If it was intended to power the unit with a battery then the battery life would be far shorter than it need be. What we would like, is a circuit which switched rapidly from the Off state to the On state even though the triggering input varied only slowly. There are several ways to achieve this, one of them being to modify the circuit to become a ‘Schmitt Trigger’:
Here, an additional transistor (‘TR2’) has changed the circuit operation significantly, with transistor TR3 switching fully on and fully off, rapidly. This results in the current through the relay being very low until the circuit triggers.

The circuit operates as follows. When the voltage at the base of TR1 is high enough, TR1 switches on, which causes the resistance between its collector and emitter to be so low that we can treat it as a short circuit (which is a nearly-zero resistance connection). This effectively connects the 10K and 1K8 resistors in series across the battery. The voltage at their connecting point (both the collector and emitter of TR1) will then be about 1.8 Volts. The two 18K resistors are in series across that voltage so the voltage at their junction will be half that; 0.9 Volts.

This puts the Base of TR2 at about 0.9 Volts and its emitter at 1.8 Volts. The base of TR2 is therefore not 0.7 Volts above its emitter, so no base/emitter current will flow in TR2, which means that TR2 is switched hard off. This means that the TR2 collector/emitter resistance will be very high. The voltage at the base of TR3 is controlled by the 1K8 resistor, the TR2 collector/emitter resistance (very high) and the 3K9 resistor. This pushes the base voltage of TR3 up to near the full battery voltage and as it is wired as an emitter-follower, its emitter voltage will be about 0.7 Volts below that. This means that the relay will have most of the battery voltage across it and so will switch hard on.

Some practical points: The current flowing into the base of TR3 comes via the 3K9 resistor. A 3K9 resistor needs 3.9 Volts across it for every 1 mA which flows through it. If the relay needs 150 mA to operate and TR3 has a gain of 300, then TR3 will need a base current of 0.5 mA to provide 150 mA of current through its collector/emitter junction. If 0.5 mA flows through the 3K9 resistor, there will be a voltage drop across it of some 2 Volts. The TR3 base/emitter voltage will be a further 0.7 Volts, so the voltage across the relay will be about 12.0 - 2.0 - 0.7 = 9.3 Volts, so you need to be sure that the relay will work reliably at 9 Volts.

If you used a Darlington pair of transistors, each with a gain of 300, instead of TR3, then their combined base/emitter voltage drop would be 1.4 Volts, but they would only need a base current of 150 mA / (300 x 300) = 1/600 mA. That current would only drop 0.007 Volts across the 3K9 resistor, so the relay would receive 10.6 Volts.

So, how do you work out the gain of any particular transistor? The main working tool for electronics is a multimeter. This is a digital or analogue meter which can measure a wide range of things: voltage, current, resistance, ... The more expensive the meter, generally, the greater the number of ranges provided. The more expensive meters offer transistor testing. Personally, I prefer the older, passive multimeters. These are looked down on because they draw current from the circuit to which they are attached, but, because they do, they give reliable readings all the time. The more modern battery-operated digital multimeters will happily give incorrect readings as their battery runs down. I wasted two whole days, testing rechargeable batteries which appeared to be giving impossible performances. Eventually, I discovered that it was a failing multimeter battery which was causing false multimeter readings.

Transistor Testers.

For the moment, let us assume that no commercial transistor tester is to hand and we will build our own (or at least, discover how to build our own). The gain of a transistor is defined as the collector/emitter current divided by the base/emitter current. For example, if 1mA is flowing through the collector and 0.01mA is flowing into the base to sustain that collector flow, then the transistor has a gain of 100 times at 1mA. The transistor gain may vary when it is carrying different current loads. For the circuits we have been looking at so far, 1mA is a reasonable current at which to measure the transistor gain. So let’s build a circuit to measure the gain:
With the circuit shown here, the variable resistor is adjusted until a collector current of 1mA is shown on the millimetre and the gain of the transistor is then read off the scale on the variable resistor knob. The circuit is built into a small box containing the battery and with a socket into which the transistor can be plugged. The question then is, what values should be chosen for the resistor R1 and the variable resistor VR1?

Well, we might choose that the minimum gain to be displayed is 10. This would correspond to where the variable resistor slider is taken all the way up to point 'A' in the circuit diagram, effectively taking the variable resistor out of the circuit. If the transistor gain is 10 and the collector current is 1mA, then the base current will be 0.1mA. This current has to flow through the resistor R1 and it has a voltage of (9.0 - 0.7) Volts across it as the base/emitter voltage is 0.7 Volts when the transistor is on. Ohms Law gives us Ohms = Volts / Amps, which for the resistor R1 means Ohms = 8.3 / 0.0001 or 83,000 ohms, or 83K.

Rule of thumb: 1K provides 1mA if it has 1V across it, so 10K will give 0.1mA if it has 1 Volt across it. With 8.3 Volts across it, it needs to be 8.3 times larger to hold the current down to the required 0.1mA so the resistor should be 83K in size.

As 83K is not a standard size, we need to use two or more standard resistors to give that resistance. Nearest standard size below 83K is 82K, so we can used one 82K resistor and one 1K resistor in series to give the required 83K.

Suppose that we say that we would like to have 500 as the highest gain shown on our tester, then when VR1 is at its maximum value, it and R1 should provide 1/500 of the collector current of 1mA, i.e. 0.002mA or 0.000002 Amps. From Ohms Law again we get VR1 + R1 = 4,150,000 ohms or 4M15. Unfortunately, the largest value variable resistor available is 2M2 so the circuit as it stands, will not be able to cope.

Suppose we were to just use a 2M2 variable resistor for VR1, what transistor gain range could we display? Well Ohms Law ... lets us calculate the base current with 8.3 Volts across (83,000 + 2,200,000) ohms and from that the maximum transistor gain which would be 277.77 (at 1mA). You would buy a ‘linear’ standard carbon track variable resistor so that the change in resistance is steady as the shaft is rotated. The scale which you would make up would be in even steps and it would run from 10 at the minimum setting, to 278 at the highest setting.

But that is not what we wanted. We wanted to measure up to 500. But they don’t make variable resistors big enough, so what can we do? Well, if we wanted, we could lower the battery voltage, which in turn would lower the resistor values. As a 9V battery is very convenient for this kind of circuit, lets not go down that route. We could add extra circuitry to drop the 9V battery voltage down to a lower value. The most simple solution is to add an extra resistor and switch to give two ranges. If we switched in an extra 2M2 resistor above VR1 then the circuit would measure transistor gains from 278 to just over 500 and all we would need to do would be to add a second scale for the VR1 pointer knob to move over. We could, provide extra ranges which overlap and which have more convenient scales to mark. The design is up to you.
The design covered above is not the only way to measure the transistor gain. A second way, which accepts that it is not so accurate, picks a set base current and measures the collector current as a guide to the gain. In this simple method, one or more resistor values are chosen to give gain ranges, and the milliammeter used to read the corresponding gain:

Here, resistor R1 might be chosen to give a collector current of 1mA (which is a full-scale deflection on the meter) when the transistor gain is 100. Resistor R2 might be picked to give a full-scale deflection for a gain of 200, R3 for a gain of 400, R4 for a gain of 600, and so on. Generally speaking, it is not essential to know the exact gain but any reasonable approximation to it is sufficient. You are normally selecting a transistor where you need a gain of 180, so it is not important if the transistor you pick has a gain of 210 or 215 - you are only avoiding transistors with gains below 180.

How do you work out the values of the resistors R1 to R4? Well, you probably won’t expect this, but you use Ohms Law. Voltage drop is 8.3 Volts and the base current is given by the full-scale deflection’s 1mA divided by the transistor gain for each range, i.e. 1/100 mA for R1, 1/200 mA for R2,... 1/600 mA for R4,...

Emitter Followers
The transistor circuits show so far are known by the technical term “Common Emitter” because the emitters are generally connected to the ‘Negative rail’ or battery minus line. This method of use is very popular because when the transistor is switched on, all of the supply voltage is supplied to the load. Another common and very useful method is known as the ‘Emitter-Follower’ circuit where the load is connected to the negative rail instead of the emitter of the transistor. With this arrangement, the voltage at the emitter remains at 0.7 volts below the voltage of the transistor base and ‘follows’ that voltage no matter how it changes. Generally speaking, the transistor is being used to amplify the current which could be drawn from the point in the circuit where the transistor base is connected.

The circuit arrangement is like this:
If the battery is genuinely 12-volts, then the slider of the variable resistor VR1 can be moved from a voltage of zero volts to a voltage of +12 volts, or any desired value between those two values. That means that the voltage on the base of transistor TR1 can be any of those values. If the voltage on the transistor base is 0.7 volts or higher, then the transistor will conduct current and the voltage across the load will increase until the emitter is 0.7 volts below the base voltage. This means that the voltage across the load can be adjusted to any value from 0 volts to +11.3 volts. This circuit is known as an “Emitter-Follower” circuit.

The actual values encountered in ‘real life’ are that a battery marked as 12-volts is very seldom actually at that voltage and a common value is 12.8 volts. I have called the Base-to-Emitter voltage 0.7 volts but in reality, it may be anything from 0.6 volts to 0.75 volts. A common use for this type of circuit is to pass a constant voltage to a circuit, using a zener diode. The circuit is like this:

This circuit is supposed to have a fixed voltage at point “A” as the zener diode Z1 is supposed to produce a fixed voltage. That can work reasonably well if the battery voltage is fixed, but if the battery voltage alters either upwards or downwards, the voltage at “A” drifts, which means that the voltage across the load also alters. You will sometimes see this in constant-current circuits.

**Constant-Current circuits**

The generally recommended way to arrange a constant current flow through some load or other is to use an integrated circuit designed for the job. The arrangement is generally like this:

Here, the resistor R1 controls how much current will flow in the circuit and the resistor R2 needs to be ten times higher in value than R1. One snag is that the LM334Z drops about 4-volts when stabilising the current through the load. That is a lot of voltage sacrificed. An alternative arrangement is:
With this circuit, two ordinary diodes such as the 1N4007, are used to give a steady voltage due to the current flowing through them, supplied by resistor R1. Each diode has a voltage drop across it roughly equal to the voltage drop across the Base/Emitter junction of the transistor TR1. That means that the resistor \( R_2 \) will have about the same voltage across it as one of the diodes. It is my experience that the voltage drop across the diodes is not affected much if the battery voltage changes as time goes by. The value of the resistor \( R_2 \) is chosen to give the desired current flow through the load. The voltage drop across the transistor Collector/Emitter connections adjusts automatically to keep the current through the load at the constant required value.

**Substitute Transistors**

A recent question was how to find a substitute transistor for the T13009 transistor in this chapter 21 circuit, as there seemed to be no local supplier for it, and would a 2N2222 transistor do as a substitute?

That is a very reasonable question. So to answer it, we look at the circuit and we see that the Collector of the transistor is going to be pulled upwards until it exceeds the voltage of the battery chain. There are five 12-volt batteries in a chain going upwards from the transistor Emitter and while those batteries have “12 Volts” written on them, they can charge up to nearly 14 volts each. That means that the transistor collector may be dragged up to a voltage of \( 5 \times 14 = 70 \) volts or more if the batteries are going to be charged. So, common sense says that any successful substitute transistor will have to have a voltage rating of at least 70 volts.

If we want to find out the characteristics of a transistor or diode, we can go to the [http://www.alldatasheet.com/](http://www.alldatasheet.com/) web site, although just Googling the transistor name often gets the needed information very quickly. Anyway, on the web site, the top of the page has an entry section like this:
And if you type in T13009 as the part name:

And if you type in T13009 as the part name:

[Part Name] match [T13009]

and click on the Search button, then it comes up with this:

**T13009 Datasheet, PDF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shortcut</th>
<th>T13009(1) recommended result.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Match, Like</td>
<td>ST13009(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So you click on the blue ST13009 link and it then comes up with a slightly confusing advertisement display which offers information on some totally unrelated component. However, if you scroll down the page a little you reach a link to the datasheet for the transistor:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electronic Manufacturer</th>
<th>Part no</th>
<th>Datasheet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STMicroelectronics</td>
<td>ST13009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you then click on the PDF symbol, you get another screen offering the actual link to the pdf file:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part No.</th>
<th>ST13009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Download</td>
<td>ST13009 Click to view</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clicking on the link actually provides you with the datasheet which you can store locally to save ever having to go through all that lot again.

**ST13009**

High voltage fast-switching
NPN power transistor

**Features**

- Low spread of dynamic parameters
- High voltage capability
- Minimum lot-to-lot spread for reliable operation
- Very high switching speed

**Applications**

- Switch mode power supplies
This is not an FET transistor and so our main interest is in the voltage it can withstand, the continuous current which it can carry, the peak current it can manage when fed sudden pulses, how much power overall it can handle, what DC-current gain (that is amplification) you can expect from it and how fast it can operate.

That sounds a lot but it really is quite simple. However, there is a manufacturing spread on transistors and most other electronic components, and so we are looking for just a ball-park number for these things. That is, you can have five identical-looking transistors in your hand but it is most unlikely that any two of them will actually be identical. However, let's look at this data sheet and see what we find out:

First, the maximum voltage that the transistor can withstand with the base unconnected is 400 volts which is a good deal more that is likely to be reached in our circuit.

Next, the current. The continuous current is stated to be 12 amps and 24 amps if in pulses. That is likely to be more than the circuit needs, as a sustained output of 40 watts from a 12-volt connection is a current of under 4-amps.

Next, the wattage is stated as being 100 watts (a heat sink is definitely needed for that – imagine holding a lit 100 watt light bulb in your hand and think how comfortable that would be). However, in our circuit, the transistor will be off for most of the time and so, wattage is not likely to be a problem.

Next, the switching speed, which is likely to be important in this circuit. The data sheet suggests that about 60 nanoseconds is likely for any T13009 transistor.

And finally, the DC current gain will probably be between 15 and 39 at a current of 5 amps. It is likely to be much better than that at lower currents.

Some people have difficulty visualising how a bipolar transistor works, so let me explain it in a bit more detail. When current is flowing through a bipolar transistor, then the base voltage of that transistor is pretty much fixed. It is a bit like having a large lake with a long horizontal dam wall holding the water in the lake. When the lake water level is below that of the dam, then no water flows over the dam. If the lake level rises, then water spills over the dam. The amount of that water flow is VERY much affected by the depth of water over the dam with even a small increase in depth causing a massive increase in water flow. The same goes for the transistor base and that is why the base current flow is limited by a resistor. Without a resistor, the current flow would very quickly become many amps and burn the transistor out through sheer heating of the base/emitter junction.

The base current flow is like the setting of a valve between the collector and the emitter. If the transistor gain is 200, then 1 mA flowing into the base allows 200 mA to flow between the collector and the emitter, unless there is a load between the collector and the battery – a load which chokes off that current flow, and that is the normal case. For example, if 0.5 mA flows into the base, then a maximum of 100 mA can pass between the collector and emitter. The gain of any transistor depends on the amount of current flowing through the transistor and it varies so much that the only way to specify it properly is to draw a graph of it. Because of that, printed gain figures are given for just one or two currents. Generally, the lower the current, the higher the actual gain, so if a gain is given as 20 at 1 amp and you are only intending to have 100 mA flowing through it, then you can expect a gain much higher than 20. The voltage on the base of a single transistor which is conducting will always be 0.7 volts (or something very close to that depending on how that particular transistor was actually manufactured). That 0.7 volts stays fixed even if the current flowing into the base increases from 0.1 milliamps to 100 milliamps. So back to our T13009 transistor.

Okay, we now know a bit about the T13009 transistor, and the question asked about the 2N2222 transistor, so we look it up on the All Data Sheet web site and we find that the maximum voltage is 40-volts. That rules it out of our circuit where the voltage goes to at least 70-volts and a 2N2222 transistor would die instantly. We then look at the current and see that it has a maximum of 0.8 of an amp which means that it is really not in the ball-park for this circuit.

We know that the TIP3055 (originally packaged as the 2N3055) is very popular with free-energy builders, so we look it up and find out that it can handle voltages up to 60 volts, 90 watts of power and 15 amps of current. While it is a powerful transistor, it looks as if its voltage rating is too low for this circuit.

So, what do we do now? One way is to ask an electronics expert to suggest a suitable alternative. Another way is to look up the transistors offered by your local supplier, which for me is www.esr.co.uk which leads to this table which is one of many and which has far more entries:
We want an NPN transistor and so the MJ11016 looks possible with a 100 volt capacity, 30 amp current and 200 watt dissipation. It is a Darlington pair in a single case and so will switch on around 1.4 volts as opposed to 0.7 volts on the base, but that should not make any difference in our circuit. With a gain of 1000 a simple carbon variable resistor could be used to control the base current. There are many other transistors to choose from.

Another way to find a suitable transistor might be to go on eBay and search on “transistor” and see what transistors are popular and how much they cost. An alternative might be to try the circuit with a FET transistor such as the IRF740 which is high voltage, very powerful and not expensive. However, FET transistors trigger on voltage and draw almost no current through their “grid” connection which is the equivalent to a bipolar “base” connection and so some experimentation with the circuit may be needed.

It might also be worthwhile looking to see what transistors were chosen by Alexkor in his 5-battery circuits in chapter 6. If we do that we find the MJE13009 which has an identical specification and so is almost certainly the same as a T13009 transistor and the MJE version is readily available on eBay. Another of his transistors is the 2SC3552 transistor with 500V capability and 150 watt capacity and described as “fast acting”.

### The Diode

One component which has been shown but not described is the diode or ‘rectifier’. This is a device which has a very high resistance to current flowing in one direction and a very low resistance to current flowing in the opposite direction. The base/emitter junction of a transistor is effectively a diode and, at a push, can be used as such. A proper diode is cheap to buy and has far greater voltage and current handling capacities than the base/emitter junction of a transistor.

Diodes are mainly made from one of two materials: germanium and silicon. Germanium diodes are used with very small alternating currents such as radio signals coming from an aerial. This is because a germanium diode needs only 0.2 Volts or so to carry a current while silicon needs 0.6 to 0.7 Volts (same as a silicon transistor base/emitter junction). Germanium diodes (and transistors) are very sensitive to temperature change and so are normally restricted to low power circuits. One very neat application for a silicon diode is as an ‘un-interruptible power supply’ where mains failure is caught instantly:

In this circuit, the mains voltage drives the Power Supply Unit which generates 12 Volts at point ‘A’. This provides current to the Load. The diode has +12 Volts at ‘A’ and +12 Volts at point ‘B’ so there is no voltage drop across it and it will not carry current in either direction. This means that the battery is effectively isolated when the mains is
functioning. If the Power Supply Unit output were to rise above its design level of +12 Volts, then the diode would block it from feeding current into the battery.

If the mains fails, the Power Supply Unit ("PSU") output will fall to zero. If the battery and diode were not there, the voltage at point ‘A’ would fall to zero, which would power-down the Load and possibly cause serious problems. For example, if the load were your computer, a mains failure could cause you to lose important data. With a battery back-up of this type, you would have time to save your data and shut your computer down before the battery ran out.

The circuit operates in a very simple fashion. As soon as the voltage at point ‘A’ drops to 0.7 Volts below the +12 Volts at point ‘B”, the diode starts feeding current from the battery to the Load. This happens in less than a millionth of a second, so the Load does not lose current. It would be worth adding a warning light and/or a buzzer to show that the mains has failed.

Diodes are also supplied packaged as a diode bridge, with four diodes enclosed inside. Usually intended for power supply rectification, they are not particularly fast-acting diodes, but are cheap and can carry a good deal of current. A common size is with the diodes rated at 1000 volts and able to carry 35 amps. Although there are many package types, a very common package looks like this:

![Diode Bridge Image]

The alternating signal is connected between two opposite corners and the pulsating DC is taken off from the other two terminals. The symbols shown above are normally marked on the flat face which is not seen in this picture. The package has a hole in the centre so that the metal case can be bolted to a heat-sink in order to keep the device reasonably cool when carrying large currents. The connections inside the package are like this:

![Diode Bridge Connections]

It is possible to connect the bridge in a different way and use it as a higher voltage double diode arrangement as shown here:
By skipping the alternating current ability and connecting to just the Plus and the Minus terminals, the package provides two pairs if diodes in connected in series. This gives twice the voltage handling in both current paths and the rated current handling capacity in both of those two paths which are now connected across each other, which doubles the current handling capacity. The diagram shows how three ordinary, cheap 1000V 35 amp bridges can be connected to give one 70 amp 6000V composite diode. You could, if you wish, raise the specification of a 1000V 35A diode bridge to 2000V 70A by using four of them like this:

Diodes are specified by their voltage handling capacity and their current-carrying capacity and the speed at which they can switch on and off. For power supplies where the frequency is very low, any diode will do, but there are circuits where the switching is needed hundreds of thousand times per second and so the diode specification sheets need to be checked to see what frequency can be handled by any particular diode. Those data sheets can be downloaded free from [http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr/](http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr/).

One other thing which needs to be checked for some circuits is the voltage needed to get the diode to switch on. Two common materials used when making diodes are silicon and germanium. Germanium types have a low forward voltage of around 0.2 volts typically which silicon has about a 0.6 volt threshold generally. These voltage figures vary enormously as the current through the diode increases. Circuits which use very low voltages need germanium diodes such as the 1N34.

Light-Emitting Diodes.

There is a widely used variation of the diode which is extremely useful, and that is the Light Emitting Diode or ‘LED’. This is a diode which emits light when carrying current. They are available in red, green, blue, yellow or white light versions. Some versions can display more than one colour of light if current is fed through their different electrical connections.

LEDs give a low light level at a current of about 8 or 10 mA and a bright light for currents of 20 to 30 mA. If they are being used with a 12 Volt system, then a series resistor of 1K to 330 ohms is necessary. LEDs are robust
devices, immune to shock and vibration. They come in various diameters and the larger sizes are very much more visible than the tiny ones.

**Thyristors (“SCR”s) and Triacs.**

Another version of the diode is the Silicon Controlled Rectifier or ‘Thyristor’. This device carries no current until its gate receives an input current. This is just like the operation of a transistor but the SCR once switched on, stays on even though the gate signal is removed. It stays on until the current through the SCR is forced to zero, usually by the voltage across it being removed. SCRs are often used with alternating voltages (described below) and this causes the SCR to switch off if the gate input is removed. SCRs only operate on positive voltages so they miss half of the power available from alternating power supplies. A more advanced version of the SCR is the ‘Triac’ which operates in the same way as an SCR but handles both positive and negative voltages.

**Opto-Isolators.**

Another very useful variation on the LED is the Opto-Isolator. This device is a fully enclosed LED and light-sensitive transistor. When the LED is powered up, it switches the transistor on. The big advantage of this device is that the LED can be in a low voltage, low power sensing circuit, while the transistor can be in a completely separate, high voltage, high power circuit. The opto-isolator isolates the two circuits completely from each other. It is a very useful, and very popular, low-cost device.

**Alternating Current.**

A battery provides a constant voltage. This is called a Direct Current or ‘DC’ source of power. When a circuit is connected to a battery, the positive rail is always positive and the negative rail is always negative.

If you connect a battery to a circuit through a double-pole changeover switch as shown here:

```
+12V
-12V

Square Wave Voltage
```

When the changeover switch is operated, the battery is effectively turned over or inverted. This circuit is called an ‘inverter’ because it repeatedly inverts the supply voltage. If the switch is operated on a regular, rapid basis, the graph of the output voltage is as shown on the right. This is a ‘square wave’ voltage and is used extensively in electronic equipment. It is called alternating current or ‘AC’ for short. SCRs and Triacs can be used conveniently with supply voltages of this type. Mains voltage is also AC but is rather different:

```
+340V
-340V

Mains Voltage 240V AC
```

Mains voltage varies continuously in the form of a sine wave. In Britain, the mains voltage is described as ‘240 Volts AC’ and it cycles up and down 50 times per second, i.e. 50 positive peaks and 50 negative peaks in one
second. It would be reasonable to assume that each voltage peak would be 240 Volts but this is not the case. Even though the supply is described as 240 Volts, it peaks at the square root of 2 times greater than that, i.e. 339.4 Volts. The actual supply voltage is not particularly accurate, so any device intended for mains use should be rated to 360 Volts. In America, the supply voltage is 110 Volts AC and it cycles 60 times per second, peaking at plus and minus 155 Volts. Later on, you will see how one or more diodes can be used to convert AC to DC in a unit which is sold as a ‘mains adapter’ intended to allow battery operated equipment be operated from the local mains supply.

**Coils (“Inductors”) and Solenoids.**

If you take a cardboard tube, any size, any length, and wind a length of wire around it, you create a very interesting device. It goes by the name of a ‘coil’ or an ‘inductor’ or a ‘solenoid’.

![Coil Diagram](image)

This is a very interesting device with many uses. It forms the heart of a radio receiver, it used to be the main component of telephone exchanges, and most electric motors use several of them. The reason for this is if a current is passed through the wire, the coil acts in exactly the same way as a bar magnet:

![Coil Diagram](image)
The main difference being that when the current is interrupted, the coil stops acting like a magnet, and that can be very useful indeed. If an iron rod is placed inside the coil and the current switched on, the rod gets pushed to one side. Many doorbells use this mechanism to produce a two-note chime. A ‘relay’ uses this method to close an electrical switch and many circuits use this to switch heavy loads (a thyristor can also be used for this and it has no moving parts).

A coil of wire has one of the most peculiar features of almost any electronic component. When the current through it is altered in any way, the coil opposes the change. Remember the circuit for a light-operated switch using a relay?

You will notice that the relay (which is mainly a coil of wire), has a diode across it. Neither the relay nor the diode were mentioned in any great detail at that time as they were not that relevant to the circuit being described. The diode is connected so that no current flows through it from the battery positive to the ‘ground’ line (the battery negative). On the surface, it looks as if it has no use in this circuit. In fact, it is a very important component which protects transistor TR3 from damage.

The relay coil carries current when transistor TR3 is on. The emitter of transistor TR3 is up at about +10 Volts. When TR3 switches off, it does so rapidly, pushing the relay connection from +10 Volts to 0 Volts. The relay coil reacts in a most peculiar way when this happens, and instead of the current through the relay coil just stopping, the voltage on the end of the coil connected to the emitter of TR3 keeps moving downwards. If there is no diode across the relay, the emitter voltage is forced to briefly overshoot the negative line of the circuit and gets dragged down many volts below the battery negative line. The collector of TR3 is wired to +12 Volts, so if the emitter gets dragged down to, say, -30 Volts, TR3 gets 42 Volts placed across it. If the transistor can only handle, say, 30 Volts, then it will be damaged by the 42 Volt peak.

The way in which coils operate is weird. But, knowing what is going to happen at the moment of switch-off, we deal with it by putting a diode across the coil of the relay. At switch-on, and when the relay is powered, the diode has no effect, displaying a very high resistance to current flow. At switch-off, when the relay voltage starts to plummet below the battery line, the diode effectively gets turned over into its conducting mode. When the voltage reaches 0.7 Volts below the battery negative line, the diode starts conducting and pins the voltage to that level until the voltage spike generated by the relay coil has dissipated. The more the coil tries to drag the voltage down, the harder the diode conducts, stifling the downward plunge. This restricts the voltage across transistor TR3 to 0.7 Volts more than the battery voltage and so protects it.

Solenoid coils can be very useful. Here is a design for a powerful electric motor patented by the American, Ben Teal, in June 1978 (US patent number 4,093,880). This is a very simple design which you can build for yourself if you want. Ben’s original motor was built from wood and almost any convenient material can be used. This is the top view:
And this is the side view:

Ben has used eight solenoids to imitate the way that a car engine works. There is a crankshaft and connecting rods, as in any car engine. The connecting rods are connected to a slip-ring on the crankshaft and the solenoids are given a pulse of current at the appropriate moment to pull the crankshaft round. The crankshaft receives four pulls on every revolution. In the arrangement shown here, two solenoids pull at the same moment.

In the side view above, each layer has four solenoids and you can extend the crankshaft to have as many layers of four solenoids as you wish. The engine power increases with every layer added. Two layers should be quite adequate as it is a powerful motor with just two layers.

An interesting point is that as a solenoid pulse is terminated, its pull is briefly changed to a push due to the weird nature of coils. If the timing of the pulses is just right on this motor, that brief push can be used to increase the power of the motor instead of opposing the motor rotation. This feature is also used in the Adams motor described in the ‘Free-Energy’ section of this document.
The strength of the magnetic field produced by the solenoid is affected by the number of turns in the coil, the current flowing through the coil and the nature of what is inside the coil ‘former’ (the tube on which the coil is wound). In passing, there are several fancy ways of winding coils which can also have an effect, but here we will only talk about coils where the turns are wound side by side at right angles to the former.

1. Every turn wound on the coil, increases the magnetic field. The thicker the wire used, the greater the current which will flow in the coil for any voltage placed across the coil. Unfortunately, the thicker the wire, the more space each turn takes up, so the choice of wire is somewhat of a compromise.

2. The power supplied to the coil depends on the voltage placed across it. Watts = Volts x Amps so the greater the Volts, the greater the power supplied. But we also know from Ohm’s Law that Ohms = Volts / Amps which can also be written as Ohms x Amps = Volts. The Ohms in this instance is fixed by the wire chosen and the number of turns, so if we double the Voltage then we double the current.

For example: Suppose the coil resistance is 1 ohm, the Voltage 1 Volt and the Current 1 Amp. Then the power in Watts is Volts x Amps or 1 x 1 which is 1 Watt.

Now, double the voltage to 2 Volts. The coil resistance is still 1 ohm so the Current is now 2 Amps. The power in Watts is Volts x Amps or 2 x 2 which is 4 Watts. Doubling the voltage has quadrupled the power.

If the voltage is increased to 3 Volts. The coil resistance is still 1 ohm so the Current is now 3 Amps. The power in Watts is Volts x Amps or 3 x 3 which is 9 Watts. The power is Ohms x Amps squared, or Watts = Ohms x Amps x Amps. From this we see that the voltage applied to any coil or solenoid is critical to the power developed by the coil.

3. What the coil is wound on is also of considerable importance. If the coil is wound on a rod of soft iron covered with a layer of paper, then the magnetic effect is increased dramatically. If the rod ends are tapered like a flat screwdriver or filed down to a sharp point, then the magnetic lines of force cluster together when they leave the iron and the magnetic effect is increased further.

If the soft iron core is solid, some energy is lost by currents flowing round in the iron. These currents can be minimised by using thin slivers of metal (called ‘laminations’) which are insulated from each other. You see this most often in the construction of transformers, where you have two coils wound on a single core. As it is convenient for mass production, transformers are usually wound as two separate coils which are then placed on a figure-of-eight laminated core.

However, while all that information is a useful, gentle introduction to what an inductor is, it does not convey the most important feature of a coil, which is that every coil stores energy when it is connected to a power source and it returns almost all of that energy when disconnected from the power source. The return of the stored energy happens in a very short period of time and that feature can produce powerful systems if you have the expertise to capture and use that power.

For example, it is not unusual for a simple 12-volt system to generate a rapid series of 400-volt pulses which can be used to recondition and charge car batteries. There are many examples of this in chapter 6.

Paul Babcock (www.paulmariobabcock.com) destroyed more than a thousand transistors when developing his magnetic motor system as the return of coil energy is so fast that it produces high current flows, and if the capacitor into which the current return is being fed is of a low capacity, voltages higher than the supply voltage are produced. For the last hundred years or so, this sort of information has been suppressed, so take what is said in standard textbooks as being a mixture of half truths and downright lies.

As ‘Kone’ has demonstrated, if you short-circuit a powered coil, it causes multiple magnetic pulses as the power in the coil oscillates backwards and forwards through the closed circuit containing the coil:
Magnetism is a field which has not been taught or generally researched for many decades. It is not a simple subject. The magnetic strength produced by any coil increases as the number of turns in the coil increases (if the current flowing through the coil remains the same). That means that a coil with many turns can produce a higher magnetic field at a lower current than a high-current coil with few turns. However, other coil characteristics are also altered. The power loss due to the resistance of the wire in the coil increases with increased turns as they need a longer length of wire. That power loss results in the coil heating up when in use. The speed with which the magnetic field develops and decays is slower for a coil with many turns. Surprisingly, because of this, the best coil for many jobs ends up having relatively few turns.

**Transformers.**
Transformers are used to alter the voltage of any alternating current power source. If the alteration increases the output voltage, then the transformer is called a ‘step-up’ transformer. If the output voltage is lower than the input voltage then it is called a ‘step-down’ transformer. If the voltages are the same, it is called an ‘isolation’ transformer. A common construction looks like this:

The Coil bobbin sits on the section of the laminations marked ‘A’ above. The coil is wound on its bobbin former, first one winding and then the second winding. The bobbin is then placed on the central part of the ‘E’ shaped laminations and then completely surrounded by the laminations when the crossbar is placed on the top. The mounting strap is used to hold the two sets of laminations together and provide mounting lugs for attaching the transformer to a chassis. There are typically, twenty laminations in each set and every lamination is insulated from the adjoining laminations.

If you want to change the voltage of a battery supply, it is possible to build an electronic circuit to generate an alternating voltage and then use a transformer to change that alternating voltage to whatever voltage you want. The most common form of this, is for generating mains voltage from a 12 Volt car battery, so that mains equipment can be run in remote locations, such as boats, caravans, etc. These circuits are called ‘inverters’ and they are very popular pieces of equipment. The voltage in the secondary coil of any transformer is determined by the ratio of the turns in the primary and secondary windings.

For example; if there is a 10 Volt alternating voltage available and you have a transformer which has 100 turns in the primary coil and 1000 turns in the secondary coil. If you connect the 10 Volts across the primary, there will be 100 Volts generated across the secondary coil.
Instead, if you connect the 10 Volts across the secondary coil, a voltage of 1 Volts will be generated across the primary winding. This is because there is a 10:1 ratio between the two windings. The Law of Conservation of Energy applies to transformers as it does to everything else. The power input to the primary winding will be the same as the power in the secondary winding minus the losses. The losses, in this case, will be a temperature rise of the whole transformer. If the current passed through the transformer is well below its rated capacity, then the losses will be small. The important point is that 10 Volts at 1 Amp into the primary winding will generate 100 Volts in the secondary, but at somewhat less than 0.1 Amps: Power Input is 10 Watts and Power Output is almost 10 Watts. The voltage has been raised to 100 Volts but the potential current draw has been reduced from 1 Amp to 0.1 Amps (100 mA).

In practice, the thickness of the wire used in the windings is very important. If the voltage to be placed across the winding is high, then the wire diameter will be small. Coil windings have fairly low resistances but this is not critical in circuits as coils operate in a peculiar way. Coils have AC ‘impedance’ in addition to their DC ‘resistance’. While Direct Current (from a battery, say) can flow quite easily through a coil with low resistance, Alternating Current may have a hard job getting through the coil due to its high ‘impedance’. Sometimes, coils are used to choke off any AC ripple (interference) coming along a DC power cable. When a coil is used for this purpose it is called a ‘choke’. Each coil has its own resonant frequency and at that frequency it is very difficult for AC to get through the coil. Crystal set radios work on that principle:

![Crystal Set Radio Diagram](image)

Here, the aerial picks up every radio station broadcasting in the area. These are all at different frequencies and they all head down the aerial wire, looking for the easiest path to the earth connection. Most of them run through the coil with no problem whatsoever. If the resonant frequency of the coil matches the frequency of one of the radio stations, then that radio signal (and only that signal) finds it very hard to get through the coil and looks for an easier path to earth. The next easiest path is through the diode and the headphones, so the signal goes that way. The diode blocks part of the signal which generates the sound of the radio broadcast in the headphones.

This system works very well indeed if there is a good radio signal. A germanium diode is used as the radio signal voltage is very small and a germanium diode operates on 0.2 Volts while a silicon diode needs 0.7 Volts to operate. That difference is significant at these very low voltages. The resonant frequency of the coil depends on the number of turns in the coil. In this design, the coil has a slider which allows the number of turns to be altered and so, different radio stations to be tuned in.

**Rectification and Power Supplies.**

We now have the question of how do we turn an alternating voltage into a constant ‘direct’ voltage. The crystal radio set operates by chopping off half of the alternating radio signal. If we were to do this to the output from a mains transformer with an output of say, 12 Volts AC, the result is not very satisfactory:
Here, we have the situation shown in the upper diagram. The output consists of isolated pulses at 50 per second. You will notice that there is no output power for half of the time. The negative part of the waveform is blocked by the high resistance of the diode while the positive part of the waveform is allowed through by the low resistance of the ‘forward-biased’ diode. It should be remembered that the diode drops 0.7 Volts when conducting so the output of the half-wave rectified transformer will be 0.7 Volts lower than the transformer’s actual output voltage.

If four diodes are used instead of one, they can be arranged as shown in the lower diagram. This arrangement of diodes is called a ‘bridge’. Here the positive part of the waveform flows through the upper blue diode, the load ‘L’ and on through the lower blue diode. The negative part flows through the left hand red diode, the load and then the right hand red diode. This gives a much better output waveform with twice the power available. The output voltage will be 1.4 Volts less than the transformer output voltage as there are two silicon diodes in the supply chain.

The output from even the full-wave rectifier is still unsatisfactory as there is a voltage drop to zero volts 100 times per second. Only a few devices operate well with a power supply like that, an incandescent bulb as used in a car can use this output, but then, it could use the original AC supply without any rectification. We need to improve the output by using a reservoir device to supply current during those moments when the voltage drops to zero. The device we need is a Capacitor which used to be called a ‘condenser’. The circuit of a mains unit using a capacitor is shown here:
This produces a much better result as the capacitor stores some of the peak energy and gives it out when the voltage drops. If the load on the unit is light with not very much current taken from it, the output voltage is quite good. However, if the current drain is increased, the output voltage gets dragged down 100 times per second. This voltage variation is called ‘ripple’ and if the unit is supplying an audio system or a radio, the ripple may well be heard as an annoying hum. The larger the capacitor for any given current draw, the smaller the ripple.

To improve the situation, it is normal to insert an electronic control circuit to oppose the ripple:

This circuit uses one new component, a new variety of diode called a ‘Zener’ diode. This device has an almost constant voltage drop across it when its current-blocking direction breaks down. The diode is designed to operate in this state to provide a reference voltage. The circuit merely uses a tiny current from the top of the zener diode to drive the Darlington pair emitter-follower transistors used to provide the output current.

With this circuit, when the output current is increased, the resistance of the transistor pair automatically reduces to provide more current without varying the output voltage. The 1K resistor is included to give the transistors a completed circuit if no external equipment is connected across the output terminals. The zener diode is chosen to give 1.4 Volts more than the required output voltage as the two transistors drop 1.4 Volts when conducting.

You should note that the output transistor is dropping 6 Volts at the full supply current. Watts = Volts x Amps so the power dissipated by the transistor may be quite high. It may well be necessary to mount the transistor on an aluminium plate called a ‘heat sink’ to keep it from overheating. Some power transistors, such as the 2N3055, do
not have the case isolated from the active parts of the transistor. It is good practice to use a mica gasket between the transistor and the heat-sink as it conducts then heat without making an electrical connection to the metal heat-sink.

A capacitor, being an electrical reservoir, can be used as part of a timer circuit. If the current flow into it is restricted by passing it through a resistor. The length of time between starting the flow on an empty capacitor, and the voltage across the capacitor reaching some chosen level, will be constant for a high-quality capacitor.

As the voltage increase tails off, it becomes more difficult to measure the difference accurately, so if the capacitor is to be used for generating a time interval, it is normal to use the early part of the graph area where the line is fairly straight and rising fast.

**The Voltage Doubler.**

It is possible to increase the output voltage of a transformer although this does reduce its ability to supply current at that voltage. The way that this is done is to feed the positive cycles into one storage capacitor and the negative cycles into a second reservoir capacitor. This may sound a little complicated, but in reality, it isn't. A circuit for doing this is shown here:

With this circuit, the transformer output is some voltage, say "V" volts of AC current. This output waveform is fed to capacitor "C1" through diode "D1" which lops off the negative part of the cycle. This produces a series of positive half-cycles which charge up capacitor "C1" with a positive voltage of "V".

The other half of the output is fed to capacitor "C2" through diode "D2" which cuts off the positive part of the cycle, causing capacitor "C2" to develop a voltage of -V across it. As the two capacitors are in series and not placed across each other, their voltages add up and produce twice the transformer output voltage.

A word of warning here. The transformer is producing an AC waveform and these are marked with the average voltage of the waveform, which is usually a sine wave. The peak voltage of a sinewave is 41% greater than this, so if your transformer has an AC output of 10 volts, then the peaks fed to the capacitors will be about 14.1 volts. If there is no current draw from the capacitors (that is, with the load switched off), then each capacitor will charge to this 14.1 volts and the overall output voltage will be 28.2 volts and not the 20 volts which you might expect. You need to understand that as this is only a half-wave supply, there will be considerable ripple on the output voltage if the current draw is high.

Using one additional smoothing capacitor and paying attention to the voltage ratings of the capacitors, the 28 volts supply circuit might be like this:
Multivibrators: The Bistable.

The number of electronic circuits which can be built with basic components such as resistors, capacitors, transistors, coils, etc. is limited only by your imagination and needs. Here is a circuit where two transistors operate as a pair:

This circuit has two stable states and so it is called a “bi” “stable” or “bistable” circuit. It is important to understand the operation of this simple and useful circuit.

If press-button switch ‘A’ is pressed, it short-circuits the base/emitter junction of transistor TR1. This prevents any current flowing in the base/emitter junction and so switches TR1 hard off. This makes the voltage at point ‘C’ rise as high as it can. This leaves transistor TR2 powered by R1 and R2 which have 11.3 Volts across them and switches TR2 hard on.

This pulls point ‘D’ down to about 0.1 Volts. This happens in less than a millionth of a second. When the press-button switch ‘A’ is released, transistor TR1 does not switch on again because its base current flows through resistor R3 which is connected to point ‘D’ which is far, far below the 0.7 Volts needed to make TR1 start conducting.

The result is that when press-button ‘A’ is pressed, transistor TR2 switches on and stays on even when press-button ‘A’ is released. This switches transistor TR3 off and starves the Load of current. This is the first ‘stable state’.

The same thing happens when press-button ‘B’ is pressed. This forces transistor TR2 into its ‘off’ state, raising point ‘D’ to a high voltage, switching transistor TR3 hard on, powering the Load and holding transistor TR1 hard off. This is the second of the two ‘stable states’.

In effect, this circuit ‘remembers’ which press-button was pressed last, so millions of these circuits are used in computers as Random Access Memory (‘RAM’). The voltage at point ‘C’ is the inverse of the voltage at point ‘D’, so if ‘D’ goes high then ‘C’ goes low and if ‘D’ goes low, then ‘C’ goes high. In passing, the output at ‘D’ is often called ‘Q’ and the output at ‘C’ is called ‘Q-bar’ which is shown as the letter Q with a horizontal line drawn above it. This is shown on the next circuit diagram.

A minor variation of this circuit allows a load to be energised when the circuit is powered up:
When powered down, the capacitor ‘C1’ in this circuit is fully discharged through resistor ‘R6’. When the 12 Volts supply is connected to the circuit, capacitor C1 does not charge instantly and so holds the base of TR2 down below 0.7 Volts for much longer than it takes for transistor TR1 to switch on (which, in turn, holds TR2 hard off). Mind you, if it is not necessary to have the Load held powered on indefinitely, then an even more simple circuit can do this:

Here, when the switch is closed, both sides of the capacitor C1 are at +12 Volts and this causes the 1K8 resistor to conduct heavily, driving the transistor and powering the load. The capacitor charges rapidly through the transistor and reaches the point at which it can no longer keep the transistor switched on. When the battery is switched off, the 1M resistor discharges the capacitor, ready for the next time the battery is connected.

**the Monostable Multivibrator.**

The monostable has one stable state and one unstable state. It can be flipped out of its stable state but it will ‘flop’ back into its stable state. For that reason, it is also known as a ‘flip-flop’ circuit. It is similar to a bistable circuit, but one of the cross-link resistors has been replaced by a capacitor which can pass current like a resistor, but only for a limited amount of time, after which, the capacitor becomes fully charged and the current flow stops, causing the ‘flop’ back to the stable state once more.

In this circuit, the ‘R’ resistor and the ‘C’ capacitor values determine how long the monostable will be in its unstable state. The circuit operates like this:

1. In the stable state, transistor TR1 is off. Its collector voltage is high, pushing the left hand side of capacitor ‘C’ to near +12 Volts. As the right hand side of capacitor ‘C’ is connected to the base of TR2 which is at 0.7 Volts, the capacitor gets charged to about 11.3 Volts.
2. The press-button switch is operated briefly. This feeds current through its 10K resistor to the base of transistor TR1, switching it hard on. This drops the collector voltage of TR1 to near 0 Volts, taking the left hand side of the capacitor with it.

3. As the voltage across a capacitor can't change instantly, the right hand side of the capacitor drives the base of transistor TR2 down below 0.7 Volts, causing TR2 to switch off.

4. The circuit can't hold TR2 in its 'off' state for ever. The resistor 'R' feeds current into the capacitor, forcing the voltage at the base of TR2 steadily upwards until the voltage reaches 0.7 Volts and transistor TR2 switches on again, forcing TR1 off again (provided that the press-button switch has been released). This is the stable state again. If the press-button switch is held on, then both transistors will be on and the output voltage will still be low. Another output pulse will not be generated until the press-button is let up and pressed again.

This circuit could be used to switch a microwave oven on for any chosen number of seconds, create a delay on your home-built burglar alarm, to give you time to switch it off after walking through your front door, operate a solenoid valve to feed a pre-determined quantity of beverage into a bottle on a production line, or whatever...

**The Astable Multivibrator.**

The astable circuit is the monostable with a second capacitor added so that neither state is stable. This results in the circuit flopping backwards and forwards continuously:

The rate of switching is controlled by the R1/C1 and R2/C2 combinations. The load's ON time to its OFF time is called the 'mark-space' ratio, where the ON period is the 'mark' and the OFF period is the 'space'. If you choose to use electrolytic capacitors which have their own polarity, then the +ve end of each capacitor is connected to the transistor collector.

While it is good to understand how these multivibrator circuits operate and can be built, nowadays there are pre-built circuits encased in a single package which you are much more likely to choose to use. These are called Integrated Circuits or 'ICs' for short. We will be discussing these shortly. Before we do, notice that in the circuit above, transistor TR3 has been changed to a new variety called a Field Effect Transistor ('FET'). This type of transistor is newer than the 'bipolar' transistors shown in the earlier circuits. FETs come in two varieties: 'n-channel' which are like NPN transistors and 'p-channel' which are like PNP transistors.

FETs are more difficult to make but have now reached a level of cost and reliability which makes them very useful indeed. They require almost no base current (called 'gate' current with this type of transistor) which means that they have almost no effect on any circuit to which they are attached. Also, many of them can handle large currents and boast major power handling capabilities. Because of this, it is usual to see them packaged with a metal plate mounting, ready to be bolted to an aluminium heat-sink plate to help dissipate the heat generated by the large amount of power flowing through them. The 'RFP50N06' shown above can handle up to 50 Volts and carry up to 60 Amps, which is serious power handling.

**Inverters and Truth Tables.**

Consider the following circuit:
If neither of the press-button switches are operated, the transistor has no base/emitter current flow and so it is off. This places the collector voltage at 'C' near the positive rail (+5 Volts).

If press-button switch ‘A’ is operated, the base voltage tries to rise to half of the battery voltage but doesn’t make it because the transistor base pins it down to 0.7 Volts. This feeds base current to the transistor, switching it hard on and causing the output at ‘C’ to drop to nearly 0 Volts.

If press-button switch ‘B’ is operated (don’t do this when switch ‘A’ is closed or you will get a very high ‘short-circuit’ current flowing directly through the two switches) it has no effect on the output voltage which will stay high.

If we re-draw the circuit like this:

We can see that if the voltage at the input ‘A’ is taken high, then the output voltage at ‘C’ will be low. If the voltage at the input ‘A’ is taken low, then the output voltage at ‘C’ will be high. A circuit which does this is called an ‘Inverter’ because it ‘inverts’ (or ‘turns upside down’) the input voltage.

We can summarise this operation in a table. Personally, I would call the table an ‘Input/Output’ table, but for no obvious reason, the standard name is a ‘Truth’ table. The purpose of this table is to list all of the possible inputs and show the corresponding output for each input.

Another standard, is to substitute ‘1’ for ‘High Voltage’ and ‘0’ for ‘Low Voltage’. You will notice that many items of electrical and electronic equipment have these symbols on the ON / OFF switch. In computer circuitry (hah! you didn’t notice that we had moved to computer circuits, did you?), the ‘0’ represents any voltage below 0.5 Volts and the ‘1’ represents any voltage above 3.5 Volts. Many, if not most, computers operate their logic circuits on 5 Volts. This Inverter circuit is a ‘logic’ circuit.

A criticism of the above circuit is that its input resistance or ‘impedance’ is not particularly high, and its output impedance is not particularly low. We would like our logic circuits to be able to operate the inputs of eight other logic circuits. The jargon for this is that our circuit should have a ‘fan-out’ of eight.

Let’s go for a simple modification which will improve the situation:
Here, the input impedance has been increased by a factor of 100 by using a Darlington pair of transistors which need far less base current, and so can have a much higher input resistor.

Unfortunately, the output impedance is still rather high when the transistors are in their OFF state as any current taken from the positive line has to flow through the 1K8 (1800 ohm) resistor. But we need this resistor for when the transistors are in their ON state. We really need to change the 1K8 resistor for some device which has a high resistance at some times and a low resistance at other times. You probably have not heard of these devices, but they are called ‘transistors’.

There are several ways to do this. We might choose to use PNP transistors (we normally use NPN types) and connect these in place of the 1K8 resistor. Perhaps we might use a circuit like this:

This circuit is starting to look complicated and I don’t like complicated circuits. It is not as bad as it looks. The NPN transistors at the bottom are almost the same as the previous circuit. The only difference is that the collector load is now two 100 ohm resistors plus the resistance of the two transistors. If the PNP transistors are OFF when the NPN transistors are ON, then the circuit loading on the NPN transistors will be negligible and the whole of the NPN transistors output will be available for driving external circuits through the lower 100 ohm resistor (a large ‘fan-out’ for the ‘0’ logic state). To make sure that the PNP transistors are hard off before the NPN transistors start to switch on, the resistor ‘R1’ needs to be selected carefully.

The PNP transistors are an exact mirror image of the NPN side, so resistor R2 needs to be selected carefully to ensure that the NPN transistors are switched hard OFF before the PNP transistors start to switch ON.

You need not concern yourself unduly with that circuit, because you will almost certainly use an Integrated Circuit rather than building your own circuit from ‘discrete’ components. An Integrated Circuit containing six complete inverters is the 7414 which is shown above. This comes in a small black case with two rows of 7 pins which make it look a bit like a caterpillar. Because there are two row of pins, the packaging is called “Dual In-Line” or “DIL” for short.

Now, consider the following circuit:
This circuit operates the same way as the Inverter circuit, except that it has two inputs (‘A’ and ‘B’). The output voltage at ‘C’ will be low if either, ‘A’ OR ‘B’ or both, of the inputs is high. The only time that the output is high, is when both Input ‘A’ and Input ‘B’ are low. Consequently, the circuit is called an “OR” gate. Strictly speaking, because the output voltage goes Down when the input voltage goes Up, it is called a “Not OR” gate, which gets shortened to a “NOR” gate. In this context, the word “not” means “inverted”. If you fed the output ‘C’ into an inverter circuit, the resulting circuit would be a genuine “OR” gate. The digital circuit symbols for an AND gate, a NAND gate, an OR gate and a NOR gate are:

**Gating.**

These common chips are usually supplied with 2, 4 or 8 inputs. So, why is it called a “Gate” - isn’t it just a double inverter? Well, yes, it is a double inverter, but a double inverter acts as a gate which can pass or block an electronic signal. Consider this circuit:

Here, transistors ‘TR1’ and ‘TR2’ are connected to form an astable (multivibrator). The astable runs freely, producing the square wave voltage pattern shown in red. Transistor ‘TR3’ passes this voltage signal on. TR3 inverts the square wave, but this has no practical effect, the output being the same frequency square wave as the signal taken from the collector of TR2.

If the press-button switch at point ‘A’ is operated, a current is fed to the base of TR3 which holds it hard on. The voltage at point ‘C’ drops to zero and stays there. The square wave signal coming from the collector of TR2 is blocked and does not reach the output point ‘C’. It is as if a physical ‘gate’ has been closed, blocking the signal from reaching point ‘C’. As long as the voltage at point ‘A’ is low, the gate is open. If the voltage at point ‘A’ goes high, the gate is closed and the output is blocked.

There is no need for a manual switch at point ‘A’. Any electronic switching circuit will do:
Here, a slow-running astable is substituted for the manual switch. When the output voltage of ‘Astable 2’ goes high, it switches the gate transistor ‘TR3’, holding it hard on and blocking the square-wave signal from ‘Astable 1’. When the output voltage of ‘Astable 2’ goes low, it frees transistor ‘TR3’ and it then passes the ‘Astable 1’ signal through again. The resulting gated waveform is shown in red at point ‘C’ and it is bursts of signal, controlled by the running rate of ‘Astable 2’. This is the sort of waveform which Stan Meyer found very effective in splitting water into Hydrogen and Oxygen (see Chapter 10).

This circuit could also be drawn as:

The small circle on the output side of logic devices is to show that they are inverting circuits, in other words, when the input goes up, the output goes down. The two logic devices we have encountered so far have had this circle: the Inverter and the NAND gate.

If you wish, you can use a NAND gate chip which has the circuitry also built as a Schmitt trigger, which as you will recall, has a fast-switching output even with a slowly moving input. With a chip like that, you can get three different functions from the one device:
If the two inputs of a NAND gate are connected together, then the output will always be the opposite of the input, i.e. the gate acts as an inverter. This arrangement also works as a Schmitt Trigger due to the way the NAND gate circuitry is built. There are several packages built with this type of circuitry, the one shown here is the "74132" chip which contains four "dual-input" NAND gates. Gates can have almost any number of inputs but it is rare to need more than two in any given circuit. Another chip with identical pin connections is the 4011 chip (which is not a Schmitt circuit). This 'quad dual-input' NAND gate package uses a construction method called "CMOS" which is very easily damaged by static electricity until actually connected into a circuit. CMOS chips can use a wide range of voltages and take very little current. They are cheap and very popular.

The number of devices built into an Integrated Circuit is usually limited by the number of pins in the package and one pin is needed for one connection to the outside world. Packages are made with 6 pins (typically for opto-isolators), 8 pins (many general circuits), 14 pins (many general circuits, mostly computer logic circuits), 16 pins (ditto, but not as common) and then a jump to large numbers of pins for Large Scale devices such as microprocessors, memory chips, etc. The standard IC package is small:

Prototype circuits are often built on 'strip board' which is a stiff board with strips of copper running along one face, and punched with a matrix of holes. The strips are used to make the electrical connections and are broken where necessary. This strip board is usually called "Veroboard":

Nowadays, the strip board holes are spaced 2.5 mm (1/10") apart which means that the gaps between the copper strips is very small indeed. I personally, find it quite difficult to make good solder joints on the strips without the solder bridging between two adjacent strips. Probably, a smaller soldering iron is needed. I need to use an 8x magnifying glass to be sure that no solder bridging remains in place before a new circuit is powered up for the first
time. Small fingers and good eyesight are a decided advantage for circuit board construction. The narrow spacing of the holes is so that the standard IC DIL package will fit directly on the board.

Circuits built using computer circuitry, can experience problems with mechanical switches. An ordinary light switch turns the light on and off. You switch it on and the light comes on. You switch it off and the light goes off. The reason it works so well is that the light bulb takes maybe, a tenth of a second to come on. Computer circuits can switch on and off 100,000 times in that tenth of a second, so some circuits will not work reliably with a mechanical switch. This is because the switch contact bounces when it closes. It may bounce once, twice or several times depending on how the switch is operated. If the switch is being used as an input to a counting circuit, the circuit may count 1, 2 or several switch inputs for one operation of the switch. It is normal to “de-bounce” any mechanical switch. This could be done using a couple of NAND gates connected like this:

The NAND Latch.

Here, the mechanical switch is buffered by a ‘latch’. When the ‘Set’ switch is operated, the output goes low. The unconnected input of gate ‘1’ acts as if it has a High voltage on it (due to the way the NAND gate circuit was built). The other input is held low by the output of gate ‘2’. This pushes the output of gate ‘1’ high, which in turn, holds the output of gate ‘2’ low. This is the first stable state.

When the ‘Set’ switch is operated, the output of gate ‘2’ is driven high. Now, both inputs of gate ‘1’ are high which causes its output to go low. This in turn, drives one input of gate ‘2’ low, which holds the output of gate ‘2’ high. This is the second stable state.

To summarise: pressing the ‘Set’ switch any number of times, causes the output to go low, once and only once. The output will stay low until the ‘Reset’ switch is operated once, twice or any number of times, at which point the output will go high and stay there.

This circuit uses just half of one cheap NAND gate chip to create a bistable multivibrator which is physically very small and light.

Gate Circuits.
NAND Gates can be used as the heart of many electronic circuits apart from the logic circuits for which the package was designed. Here is a NAND gate version of the rain alarm described earlier. The ‘4011B’ chip is a CMOS device which has a very high input impedance and can operate at convenient battery voltages (3 to 15 Volts):
This circuit is comprised of a rain sensor, two astable multivibrators and a power-driver feeding a loudspeaker:

1. The rain sensor is a wired-up strip board or similar grid of interlaced conductors, forming a voltage-divider across the battery rails.

2. The output voltage from this, at point ‘A’ in the circuit diagram, is normally low as the strip board is open-circuit when dry. This holds the first NAND gate locked in the OFF state, preventing the first astable from oscillating. This first astable is colour-coded blue in the diagram. Its frequency (the pitch of the note it produces) is governed by the values of the 47K resistor and the 1 microfarad capacitor. Reducing the value of either of these will raise the frequency (note pitch). If rain falls on the sensor, the voltage at point ‘A’ goes high letting the astable run freely. If the voltage at ‘A’ does not rise sufficiently when it rains, increase the value of the 1M resistor.

3. The output of the first astable is a low voltage when the sensor is dry. It is taken from point ‘B’ and passed to the gating input of the second astable, holding it in its OFF state. The speed of the second astable is controlled by the value of the 470K resistor and the 0.001 microfarad capacitor. Reducing the value of either of these will raise the pitch of the note produced by the astable. The rate at which this astable operates is very much higher than the first astable.

When it rains, the voltage at point ‘A’ rises, letting the first astable oscillate. As it does so, it turns the second astable on and off in a steady rhythmic pattern. This feeds repeated bursts of high speed oscillations from the second astable to point ‘C’ in the diagram.

4. The Darlington-pair emitter-follower transistors cause the voltage at point ‘D’ to follow the voltage pattern at point ‘C’ (but 1.4 Volts lower voltage due to the 0.7 Volts base/emitter voltage drop for each transistor). The high gain of the two transistors ensures that the output of the second oscillator is not loaded unduly. These power-driver transistors place the output voltage across an eighty ohm loudspeaker, padded with a resistor to raise the overall resistance of the combination. The voltage pattern produced is shown at point ‘D’ and is an attention-grabbing sound.

So, why does this circuit oscillate?:

The circuit will not oscillate if the gating input is low, so assume it to be high. Take the moment when the output of gate 2 is low. For this to happen, the inputs of gate 2 have to be high. As the output of gate 1 is wired directly to the inputs of gate 2, it must be high, and for that to be true, at least one of its inputs must be low. This situation is
shown on the right.

There is now a full voltage drop between point 'A' and point 'B'. The 47K resistor and the capacitor are in series across this voltage drop, so the capacitor starts to charge up, progressively raising the voltage at point 'C'. The lower the value of the resistor, the faster the voltage rises. The larger the value of the capacitor, the slower the voltage rises.

When the voltage at point 'C' rises sufficiently, the 100K resistor raises the input voltage of gate 1 far enough to cause it to change state. This creates the following situation:

![Diagram of circuit](image)

Now, the voltage across 'A' to 'B' is reversed and the voltage at point 'C' starts to fall, its rate governed by the size of the 47K resistor and the 1 microfarad capacitor. When the voltage at point 'C' falls low enough, it takes the input of gate 1 low enough (via the 100K resistor) to cause gate 1 to switch state again. This takes the circuit to the initial state discussed. This is why the circuit oscillates continuously until the gating input of gate 1 is taken low to block the oscillation.

Now, here is a NAND gate circuit for a sequential on/off switch:

![Diagram of NAND gate circuit](image)

This circuit turns the Light Emitting Diode on and off repeatedly with each operation of the press-button switch. When the on/off switch is closed, capacitor 'C1' holds the voltage at point 'A' low. This drives the output of gate 1 high, which moves the inputs of gate 2 high via the 100K resistor 'R1'. This drives the voltage at point 'B' low, turning the transistor off, which makes the LED stay in its off state. The low voltage at point 'B' is fed back via the 100K resistor 'R2' to point 'A', keeping it low. This is the first stable state.

As the output of gate 1 is high, capacitor 'C2' charges up to that voltage via the 2M2 resistor. If the press-button switch is operated briefly, the high voltage of 'C2' raises the voltage of point 'A', causing gate 1 to change state, and consequently, gate 2 to change state also. Again, the high voltage at point 'B' is fed back to point 'A' via the 100K resistor 'R2', keeping it high, maintaining the situation. This is the second stable state. In this state, point 'B' has a high voltage and this feeds the base of the transistor via the 4.7K resistor, turning it on and lighting the LED.

In this second state, the output of gate 1 is low, so capacitor 'C2' discharges rapidly to a low voltage. If the press-button switch is operated again, the low voltage of 'C2' drives point 'A' low again, causing the circuit to revert to its original stable state.

We could, if we wished, modify the circuit so that it would operate for three or four minutes after switch-on but then stop operating until the circuit was turned off and on again. This is accomplished by gating one of the gates instead of just using both as inverters. If we gated the second gate, then the LED would be left permanently on,
so we will modify the first gate circuit:

This circuit operates exactly the same way as the previous circuit if, and only if, the voltage at point ‘C’ is high. With the voltage at point ‘C’ high, gate 1 is free to react to the voltage at point ‘A’ as before. If the voltage at point ‘C’ is low, it locks the output of gate 1 at the high level, forcing the output of gate 2 to the low level and holding the LED off.

When the circuit is first powered up, the new 100 microfarad capacitor ‘C3’ is fully discharged, which pulls the voltage at point ‘C’ to nearly +9 Volts. This allows gate 1 to operate freely, and the LED can be toggled on and off as before. As time passes, the charge on capacitor ‘C3’ builds up, fed by the 2M2 resistor. This causes the voltage at point ‘C’ to fall steadily. The rate of fall is governed by the size of the capacitor and the size of the resistor. The larger the resistor, the slower the fall. The larger the capacitor, the slower the fall. The values shown are about as large as are practical, due to the current ‘leakage’ of ‘C3’.

After three or four minutes, the voltage at point ‘C’ gets driven low enough to operate gate 1 and prevent further operation of the circuit. This type of circuit could be part of a competitive game where the contestants have a limited time to complete some task.

The NAND Gate as an Amplifier.
Gates can also be used as amplifiers although they are not intended to be used that way and there are far better integrated circuits from which to build amplifiers. The following circuit shows how this can be done:

This circuit operates when there is a sudden change in light level. The previous light-level switching circuit was designed to trigger at some particular level of increasing or decreasing level of lighting. This is a shadow-detecting circuit which could be used to detect somebody walking past a light in a corridor or some similar situation.

The voltage level at point ‘A’ takes up some value depending on the light level. We are not particularly interested
in this voltage level since it is blocked from the following circuitry by capacitor ‘C1’. Point ‘B’ does not get a voltage pulse unless there is a sudden change of voltage at point ‘A’, i.e. there is a sudden change in light level reaching the light-dependent resistor ORP12.

The first gate amplifies this pulse by some fifty times. The gate is effectively abused, and forced to operate as an amplifier by the 10M resistor connecting its output to its input. At switch-on, the output of gate 1 tries to go low. As its voltage drops, it starts to take its own inputs down via the resistor. Pushing the voltage on the inputs down, starts to raise the output voltage, which starts to raise the input voltage, which starts to lower the output voltage, which ...... The result is that both the inputs and the output take up some intermediate voltage (which the chip designers did not intend). This intermediate voltage level is easily upset by an external pulse such as that produced by the ORP12 through capacitor ‘C1’. When this pulse arrives, an amplified version of the pulse causes a voltage fluctuation at the output of gate 1.

This voltage change is passed through the diode and variable resistor to the input of gate 2. Gates 2 and 3 are wired together as a makeshift Schmitt trigger in that the output voltage at point ‘D’ is fed back to point ‘C’ via a high value resistor. This helps to make their change of state more rapid and decisive. These two gates are used to pass a full change of state to the output stage transistor. The variable resistor is adjusted so that gate 2 is just about to change state and is easily triggered by the pulse from amplifier gate 1. The output is shown as an LED but it can be anything you choose. It could be a relay used to switch on some electrical device, a solenoid used to open a door, a counter to keep track of the number of people using a passageway, etc. etc. Please note that an operational amplifier chip (which will be described later) is a far better choice of IC for a circuit of this type. A gate amplifier is shown here only to show another way that a gate can be utilised.

The NE555 Timer Chip.
There is an exceptionally useful chip designated by the number 555. This chip is designed to be used in oscillator and timer circuits. Its use is so widespread that the chip price is very low for its capability. It can operate with voltages from 5 Volts to 18 Volts and its output can handle 200 mA. It takes 1 mA when its output is low and 10 mA when its output is high. It comes in an 8-pin Dual-In-Line package and there is a 14-pin package version which contains two separate 555 circuits. The pin connections are:

This device can operate as a monostable or astable multivibrator, a Schmitt trigger or an inverting buffer (low current input, high current output).

Here it is wired as a Schmitt trigger, and for variation, it is shown triggering a triac which will then stay on until the circuit is powered down (an SCR could be used just as well with this DC circuit):
And here, a monostable:

![Monostable multivibrator circuit diagram]

And here are two astables, the second of which has fixed, equal mark/space ratio and the first a high output voltage time determined by $R_a + R_b$ and a low voltage output time determined by $R_b$ (2:1 in this case):

![Astable multivibrators circuit diagrams]

Frequency = $\frac{0.72}{C \times R}$
### Astable Frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capacitor Value</th>
<th>100 Hz</th>
<th>470 Hz</th>
<th>1K Hz</th>
<th>4.7K Hz</th>
<th>10K Hz</th>
<th>47K Hz</th>
<th>100K Hz</th>
<th>470K Hz</th>
<th>1M Hz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1 µF</td>
<td>72,000 Hz</td>
<td>15,319 Hz</td>
<td>7,200 Hz</td>
<td>1,532 Hz</td>
<td>720 Hz</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>72 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>7.2 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.47 µF</td>
<td>15,319 Hz</td>
<td>3,259 Hz</td>
<td>1,532 Hz</td>
<td>326 Hz</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>33 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 µF</td>
<td>7,200 Hz</td>
<td>1,532 Hz</td>
<td>720 Hz</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>72 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>7.2 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 µF</td>
<td>3,272 Hz</td>
<td>696 Hz</td>
<td>327 Hz</td>
<td>70 Hz</td>
<td>33 Hz</td>
<td>7 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7 µF</td>
<td>1,532 Hz</td>
<td>326 Hz</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>33 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 µF</td>
<td>720 Hz</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>72 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>7.2 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 µF</td>
<td>327 Hz</td>
<td>70 Hz</td>
<td>33 Hz</td>
<td>7 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>30 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 µF</td>
<td>153 Hz</td>
<td>33 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>30 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 µF</td>
<td>72 Hz</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>7.2 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
<td>139 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220 µF</td>
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<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>30 Hz</td>
<td>139 Hz</td>
<td>307 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470 µF</td>
<td>15 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
<td>307 Hz</td>
<td>614 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000 µF</td>
<td>7.2 Hz</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
<td>139 Hz</td>
<td>614 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,200 µF</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>3 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>30 Hz</td>
<td>139 Hz</td>
<td>307 Hz</td>
<td>614 Hz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,700 µF</td>
<td>1.5 Hz</td>
<td>3.3 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>30 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
<td>307 Hz</td>
<td>614 Hz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000 µF</td>
<td>1.4 Hz</td>
<td>6.7 Hz</td>
<td>14 Hz</td>
<td>65 Hz</td>
<td>139 Hz</td>
<td>614 Hz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Note:
The high leakage of large value electrolytic capacitors prevents them being used with high value resistors in timing circuits. Instead, use a smaller capacitor and follow the timing circuit with a “divide-by-N” chip to give accurately timed long periods. Not all 555 chips have a manufacturing quality sufficient for them to operate reliably above 20,000 Hz, so for the higher frequencies the chip needs to be selected after testing its actual performance.

We can also wire the 555 to give a variable mark/space ratio while holding the frequency of the oscillation fixed:

![555 timer circuit diagram](image)

The output waveform changes drastically as the variable resistor is adjusted, but the frequency (or pitch of the note) of the output is supposed to stay unaltered. However, many builders report that this circuit does not do what it is supposed to do and that adjusting the Mark/Space ratio does indeed alter the frequency.

However, my South African developer friend has produced a circuit which does indeed to the job properly and this...
is his arrangement:

The diode marked in red must be a 1N4148 diode. The waveform produced is a clean rectangle no matter what Mark/Space ratio is selected.

Two of the NE555 circuits can be bought in a single 14-pin DIL package which is designated ‘NE556’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>555 8-pin</th>
<th>555 No.1</th>
<th>555 No.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are many additional circuit types which can be created with the 555 chip. If you wish to explore the possibilities, I suggest that you download the free pdf “50 555 Projects” from the web site: http://www.talkingelectronics.com/projects/50%20-%20555%20Circuits/50%20-%20555%20Circuits.html.

The 555 chip can also produce a sine wave output:
Or, if you wish, a bi-stable multivibrator:

All right, suppose that we want to design and build a circuit to do the same as Bob Beck’s pulser circuit mentioned in chapter 11. The requirements are to produce a square wave output pulsing four times per second using a 27 volt power supply, the circuit being powered by three small PP3 size batteries. An obvious choice for the circuit seems to be a 555 timer chip which is small, robust and cheap and a suitable circuit would appear to be:

This leaves us with choosing a value for the capacitor and the resistor. We need to pay attention to the fact that the circuit will be running on 27 volts and while the capacitor will not charge up to anything like that voltage, we still will pick one which will survive 27V. Looking on the local eBay shows that a pack of ten capacitors of 1 microfarad rated at 50V can be bought for just £1 including postage, so take that as the value for “C”. Looking at the 555 table of frequencies above shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capacitance</th>
<th>100 Hz</th>
<th>470 Hz</th>
<th>1K Hz</th>
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<td>153</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Which indicates that to get the circuit switching four times per second (4 Hz) the resistor “R” will need to be somewhere between 100K and 470K. With my capacitor, 120K is about right.

While the switching frequency does not have to be exact, let’s aim at getting it correct. Most reasonably priced components have a tolerance of around 10% so we need to select our resistor/capacitor combination for the exact values of the actual components which we will use. For this, it is worth building the circuit on a solder-less ‘breadboard’, so looking on eBay again we find that a suitable small plug-in board can be bought and delivered for £3. It looks like this:

These type of boards allow ICs to be plugged in spanning the central divide, leaving up to five extra connections on every pin. Short lengths of solid-core wire can be used to connect between any two socket holes. This will allow us to plug in one of our capacitors and find what resistor (or what two resistors) make the circuit switch forty times in ten seconds.

However, if we go to http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr/ and download the data pdf for the NE555 chip, we find that the maximum 555 chip voltage is quite limited:

This means that the chip is liable to burn out instantly if it is fed more than 16 volts. As we need to run our circuit on 27V this is a problem. As the 27V is being provided by three separate batteries, we could supply the 555 chip from just one of the batteries and run it on 9V which would be ok from the point of view of the chip as the table above shows that it can operate correctly with a supply voltage as low as 4.5 volts. The disadvantage of that arrangement is that one of the batteries will run down more quickly than the others and it would be nice to avoid that.

The table also shows that the current draw just to keep the 555 running can be anything from 6 to 15 milliamps. That is not a large current but the PP3 batteries have been chosen for their small size, allowing the whole circuit to be strapped to a person’s wrist. A quick search on the internet shows that cheap PP3 batteries have a capacity of 400 milliamp-hours and the very expensive alkaline types 565 milliamp-hours. These ratings are the “C20” values, based on the battery being discharged at a constant current over a period of twenty hours, which would be ten days of use if Bob Beck’s two hours per day protocol is followed.

This means that the ‘cheap’ batteries should not be discharged at more than one twentieth of their 400 mAHr rating, which is 20 mA. The expensive alkaline batteries should be able to be discharged at 28 mA for twenty hours.

Our current draw is made up of two parts. The first part is supplying the circuit with the current which it needs to run. The second part is the current flowing through the body of the user. This second part is limited by the 820 ohm resistor in the output line which limits that part of the current to a maximum of 33 milliamps (Ohm’s Law: Amps = Volts /Resistance). This neglects the body resistance and assumes that the output control variable resistor is set to minimum resistance, which is unlikely.

Checking these values shows that the 555 chip is liable to draw as much current as the circuit supplies through the output electrodes. However, let’s go ahead with the circuit, after all, we might decide to use rechargeable PP3 batteries which would overcome the need to buy new batteries every few days.

The first essential requirement is to provide the 555 chip with a voltage of, say, 10 volts when it is running in the completed circuit. That could be done with one of the voltage-stabiliser integrated circuits:
That is not a particularly expensive option, but those chips draw a current in order to provide the voltage stabilisation and an absolutely steady voltage is not needed by the 555 chip. Alternatively, we could use a resistor and a 10V zener diode:

But that method does waste some current flowing through the zener in order to provide the wanted voltage. The most simple method is to use a resistor and a capacitor:

Considerable care is needed when selecting the resistor value “$R$”. If the value is too low, then the voltage passed to the 555 chip will be too high and the chip will burn out. When selecting the resistor “$R$”, start with a higher value than expected and then substitute slightly lower value resistors while monitoring the voltage across the capacitor to make sure that it stays low enough. The resistor value can be assessed using Ohm’s Law. Assuming a current of about 6 mA, the voltage drop across the resistor being $(27 - 10) = 17$ volts, then a resistor of about 2.83K (as Ohms = Volts / Amps) which suggests that starting with a 4.7K resistor is likely to be ok, and then picking each lower standard resistor in turn until a satisfactory voltage across the capacitor is reached.

The capacitor could be 12V or 15V rated, but if one rated at a higher voltage is used, then if it is accidentally connected across the full 27V it will not be harmed in any way. The larger the capacitance, the better, say 220 microfarads which can be got for a few pence on eBay. If you want to play safe, you could connect a 12V zener diode across the capacitor. It will not draw any current under normal working conditions, but if anything should cause the voltage on the capacitor to rise, then it will fire up and hold the voltage down to a safe 12V level. I would be inclined to see the zener as being unnecessary, but the choice is always yours.

So what resistor power rating is needed? Well, if the resistor turns out to be a 2.7K and the capacitor voltage ends up as 9.5 volts, then the average voltage across the resistor is 17.5V which makes the current through it 6.48 mA and as Watts = Volts x Amps, the power rating needs to be 113 milliwatts, so the typical quarter-watt (250 mW) resistor should be perfectly ok. If two (nearly equal value) resistors in parallel are used to get some intermediate value of “$R$” then that increases the overall resistor wattage.

The output of the 555 timer is on pin 3 and it can easily supply 200 mA which is far, far more current than we would ever need for this circuit. We can feed the 555 square-wave output to the 27V electrodes using a transistor:
As the transistor is made of silicon, the switch-on voltage is when the base voltage is about 0.7 volts above the emitter voltage. That means that when the transistor is switched on, the top of resistor "R1" will be at around 10 volts and the bottom of "R1" will be at about 0.7 volts, which means that the voltage across "R1" will be (10 – 0.7) = 9.3 Volts. When that voltage is present across "R1" we want it to feed sufficient current to the transistor to switch it on fully. The transistor supplies a 100K resistor (which will carry 0.27 mA when 27 volts is across it) and the electrodes which will have a minimum resistance of 820 ohms across them (causing a current of 33 mA through them). So, the transistor might have to supply about 33 mA maximum. The BC109C transistor has a minimum gain of 200 so the current flowing into the base needs to be 33 / 200 = 0.165 mA and the resistor which will carry that current when it has 9.3 volts across it is 56.3K. A somewhat smaller resistor will suit.

A commonsense check that the resistor calculation is correct is:
A 1K resistor carries 1 mA per volt and so will carry 9.3 mA with 9.3 volts across it.
A 10K resistor will carry one tenth of that amount, or 0.93 mA with 9.3 volts across it.
A 100K resistor will carry one tenth of that again, or 0.093 mA with 9.3 volts across it.
This indicates that for a current of 0.165 mA which is about twice the 100K current, a resistor of about half of 100K should be about the right value, so 56.3K looks correct.

Considering that the gain of 200 is the minimum and three or four times that is typical, we could perhaps choose to use a 47K resistor for "R1"

As the electrode current is likely to be considerably less than 33 mA and as the BC109C gain is likely to be very high, it could be quite difficult to get the transistor to switch off as it can operate on very tiny amounts of input current. To get it to switch on and off cleanly when the 555 output voltage is say, about 5 volts, (at which point the NE555 voltage will be changing very rapidly), "R2" is included. With it in place, the output voltage of the NE555 is divided between "R1" and "R2" in the ratio of their resistances. The situation we want is:

When The transistor is not switched on, it draws almost no current and so looks like a very high value resistor to the circuit. This allows the "R1" and "R2" resistors to act as a voltage-divider pair. This causes the voltage at point “A” to be determined by the ratio of “R1" to "R2" and the transistor can be ignored provided that the voltage at point “A” is below 0.7 volts. If the voltage at that point rises to 0.7 volts then the situation changes dramatically and Ohm’s Law no longer holds as the transistor is not a passive resistor but instead, is an active semi-conductor device. If the voltage at point “A” tries to rise further it can’t because the transistor base clamps it solidly there by appearing to be an ever lower resistor between the base and the emitter of the transistor. So for higher input voltages, resistor "R2" might as well not be there for all the difference it makes.

So, what value do we need for “R2” in order for the voltage at point “A” to be 0.7V when pin 3 of the NE555 reaches 5V? Well, that part of the circuit is acting in a resistive fashion and so Ohm’s Law can be used. The resistor “R1” is 47K and has 4.3 volts across it, which means that the current through it must be 0.915 mA. That means that "R2" has 0.7V across it and 0.915 mA flowing through it which means that it has a value of 7.65K. A standard 8.2K or 6.8K resistor could be used as there is nothing dramatically important about the 5V switching point. If you were fussed about getting exactly 7.65K (and you shouldn’t be), then you can get that value by combining two standard resistors, either in series or in parallel.
A common sense method of working out the value of “R2” is to use the fact that as the same current flows through them (no matter what that current happens to be), then the ratio of the voltage will be the same as the ratio of the resistors. That is: $0.7V / 4.3V = \frac{R2}{47K}$ or “R2” = 47K x 0.7 / 4.3 which is 7.65K.

We have now reached the point where we can determine the resistor value needed to provide a reasonable voltage for the NE555 timer chip, the circuit being:

The “Rx” value is going to be fairly close to 270K so you can use that value when testing to find a suitable value for “R” (2.2K in my case). The capacitor across the NE555 chip should be as large a capacitance as is convenient, bearing in mind that the entire circuit, batteries, etc. is to fit into a small case to be strapped to a wrist. One way that the components could be positioned on the plug-board is:

Remember that when trying various resistors for “R” you need to start high at about 4.7K and the resulting voltage on the capacitor shows the voltage drop across your first resistor choice and so, the actual current being drawn by your particular NE555 chip. That calculated current will allow you to calculate the resistor value needed to give 10 volts or so, allowing your next resistor to be tested to be almost exact in value.

For checking the frequency produced by the circuit, any ordinary LED can be used as a temporary measure. It can be connected across the 100K ‘load’ resistor between the transistor collector and the +27V positive supply line. A current-limiting resistor is essential to stop the LED burning out instantly. If we allow a current of 5 mA to flow through the LED then since the current-limiting resistor has some 26.3 volts across it, then it’s value will be about 5.4K (1K would give 26 mA, 2K would give 13 mA, 3K would give 9 mA, 4K would give 6.5 mA) and so a 4.7K resistor works well. This LED and resistor are shown in the layout above. Please remember that if your BC109C transistor has a metal case, then that case is normally connected internally to the collector and so, care must be taken that the case does not short-circuit to anything else.

If it is considered important to maximise battery life by reducing the current draw to a minimum, then perhaps using an astable circuit might be a good choice. In common with most electronic circuits, there are many different
ways to design a suitable circuit to do the required job. The BC109C transistor can handle the 27V and so we might aim at a current draw for the circuit of just 3 mA. If 2 mA were to flow through the astable transistors when they are switched on, then with 27V across them, the resistors would be 13.5K which is not a standard value. We might select 12K to give a 2.25 mA current, or 15K to give 1.8 mA. Either should be satisfactory. The circuit might then be:

As the voltage swing feeding the output transistor has now risen from 10V to 27V the voltage-divider resistors can now increase in value by 2.7 times, giving around 127K and 22.1K for these resistors. However, the situation is not the same as for the NE555 chip which can supply at least 200 mA at the voltage-high output level. Instead, the transistor becomes such a high resistance that it can be ignored, but the 12K remains in the path which supplies the base current for the output transistor and it will in fact, add to the upper resistor of the voltage-divider pair. So while a 100K resistor is shown, it is effectively 112K due to that extra 12K resistor between it and the +27V supply line. The astable transistors will be switching fast at the point where the output transistor changes state, so the output square wave should be good quality. The BC109C transistor can switch on and off a hundred million times per second, so it’s performance in this circuit should be very good. A test breadboard layout might be:

We now need to choose the timing components. For an even 50% duty cycle where each transistor is ON for half the time and OFF for half the time, the two timing capacitors can be the same size and then the two timing resistors will have the same value, in my case, 330K but it depends on the actual capacitors used.

Bob Beck’s design calls for the LED display to be running when the unit is switched on and then be disconnected when the electrodes are plugged into a 3.5 mm socket mounted on the case containing the circuit. The switched socket looks like this:
When the plug is not inserted into the socket, pin 1 connects to pin 2 and pin 3 is not connected to anything. When the plug is inserted, then pin 1 is isolated, pin 2 is connected to plug pin 4 and pin 3 is connected to plug pin 5.

The Beck circuit is connected to the output socket like this:

This arrangement will give a 27V 4Hz square wave output through the jack socket. But, Bob Beck’s original circuit did not do that. Instead, it was like this:

Here, a relay operates two change-over switch contacts which are used to reverse the battery bank contacts four times per second. That is different from just producing a positive-going square wave voltage between the two output terminals. If you were to consider a resistor connected across the output socket, then with the relay switching, the direction of the current reverses four times per second, but with the square wave, while it starts and stops four times per second, the direction of the current is always the same and there is no reversal of direction.

As Bob wanted to avoid using a relay which clicks four times per second all the way through the two-hour treatment described in chapter 11 and in the “Take Back Your Power” pdf on the [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/) web site, he redesigned the circuit using the very impressive LM358/A integrated circuit:

This chip draws only half of one milliamp, has two very high-gain operational amplifiers and can operate with a wide range of supply voltages. It is also inexpensive.

Bob displays the circuit as:
Bob states that the first section acts as a 4Hz square-wave signal generator, the frequency being controlled by the 2.4M resistor “R1” and the 100nF capacitor “C1”. The data sheet for the LM358 states that the output voltage swing is between zero volts and 1.5V less than the supply voltage “Vcc” (which is +27V in this case). That implies that, as would be expected, the pin 1 output voltage from the first stage will switch sharply from 0V to +25.5V and sharply back again, four times per second.

It is difficult to follow the circuit as it is drawn, so it might be a little easier to follow when drawn like this:

The output from the first amplifier inside the LM358 package is on pin 1 and it can supply a large amount of current (if a large current is ever needed). That output goes straight to one of the jack socket connections. It also goes the pin 6 input of the second amplifier inside the chip and that causes the high-power output of that amplifier on pin 7 to be the opposite of the pin 1 voltage. When pin 1 goes high to +25.5 volts, then pin 7 goes low, to about zero volts. That output is also fed to the other jack socket connection, placing 25.5 volts across the electrodes when they are plugged in to the jack socket.

When the oscillator circuitry connected to the first amplifier causes the voltage on pin 1 to go low, then the output on pin 7 inverts it and so it goes to +25.5 volts. You will notice that while the overall voltage of 25.5 volts is applied again to the jack socket, the polarity is now reversed, achieving what the relay circuit does (although 1.5 volts is lost in the process). This is a neat solution.

Bob uses a two-colour LED to confirm that the circuit is working correctly before the electrodes are plugged in. He chooses to do it this way:
The two 18V zener diodes drop off 18.7 of the 25.5 volts as one will be forward biased dropping 0.7 volts and the other reversed biased, dropping off 18 volts. That leaves a 7V drop for the LED, which is a bit excessive, so Bob says that he uses a capacitor to limit the current. As there is already an 820 ohm resistor in the LED current path through the socket, the capacitor is not needed. The variable resistor need to be set to its minimum resistance by rotating its shaft fully clockwise so that it does not affect the LED brightness as the zeners also show when the battery voltage has dropped as there will no longer be sufficient voltage to light the LED brightly, indicating that the batteries need to be replaced (or recharged if they are rechargeable batteries). When testing the circuit, an alternative to the two zeners is to use a 4.7K resistor and if a bi-colour LED is not to hand, then two ordinary LEDs can be used back to back like this:

With this arrangement, the two LEDs flash alternately. In any circuit, a capacitor with a higher voltage rating can always be used if the capacitance values are the same. The Beck external circuit is completed through the body of the user, so there is just one electrode connected to each side of the output jack socket. A possible plug-board layout is:

820: grey, red, brown
4K7: yellow, purple, red
220K: red, red, yellow
100K: brown, black, yellow
150K: brown, green, yellow
220K: red, red, yellow
2M2: red, red, green
The 4.7K resistor and LEDs are only on the board for testing purposes and when the circuit is built in permanent form, then the LED chain connects to pin 1 of the jack socket so that the LEDs are disconnected during the two hours of daily treatment recommended when using the device.

One stripboard layout using the standard 9-strip 25-hole board and incorporating the two 18V zener diodes for voltage sensing is:

When using a Beck device, it is very important to pay attention to the precautions which Bob sets out. These are in his “Take Back Your Power” pdf document: [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Beck.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Beck.pdf) which includes the following, which, while it refers to treatment to deal with HIV, presumably applies to all treatments with his device:

**EXPANDED INSTRUCTIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAL / THEORETICAL HIV BLOOD NEUTRALIZATION**

**HYPOTHETICAL PROTOCOLS FOR EXPERIMENTAL SESSIONS**


**PRECAUTIONS:** Do NOT use wrist to wrist current flow with subjects who have cardiac pacemakers. Any applied electrical signals may interfere with 'demand' type heart pacers and cause malfunction. Single wrist locations should be acceptable. Do NOT use on pregnant women, while driving or using hazardous machinery.

Users MUST avoid ingesting anything containing medicinal herbs, foreign or domestic, or potentially toxic medication. nicotine, alcohol, recreational drugs. laxatives, tonics. and certain vitamins etc., for one week before starting because blood electrification can cause electroporation which makes cell membranes pervious to small quantities of normally harmless-chemicals in plasma. The effect is the same as extreme overdosing which might be lethal. See *Electroporation: a General Phenomenon for Manipulating Cells and Tissues*; J.C. Weaver, *Journal of Cellular Biochemistry* 51:426-435 (1993). Effects can mimic increasing dosages many fold. Both the magnetic pulsar and blood purifier cause electroporation.

Do NOT place electrode pads over skin lesions, abrasions, new scars, cuts, eruptions, or sunburn. Do NOT advance output amplitude to uncomfortable levels. All subjects will vary. Do NOT fall asleep while using. The magnetic pulsar should be safe to use anywhere on body or head.

Avoid ingesting alcohol 24 hours before using. Drink an 8 oz. glass of distilled water 15 minutes before and immediately following each session end drink at least four additional glasses daily for flushing during 'neutralization' and for one week thereafter. This is imperative. Ignoring this can cause systemic damage from unflushed toxic wastes. When absolutely essential drugs must be ingested, do so a few minutes after electrification then wait 24 hours before next session.

If subject feels sluggish, faint, dizzy, headache, light-headed or giddy, nauseous. bloated or has flu-like symptoms or rashes after exposures, reduce pulsing per session and/or shorten applications of electrification. Drink more water-preferably ozonized -to speed waste oxidation and disposal. Use extreme caution when treating patients with impaired kidney or liver function. Start slowly at first like about 20 minutes per day to reduce detoxification problems.
To avoid shock liability, use batteries only. Do NOT use any line-connected power supply, transformer, charger, battery eliminator, etc. with blood clearing device. However line supplies are OK with well-insulated magnetic pulse generators (strobe lights).

**Health professionals:** Avoid nicotine addicts, vegans, and other unconsciously motivated death-wishers and their covert agendas of 'defeat the healer'. Tobacco, the most addictive (42 times more addictive than heroin) and deadly substance of abuse known, disrupts normal cardiovascular function. True vegetarian diets are missing essential amino acids absolutely necessary for the successful rebuilding of AIDS-ravaged tissues. Secondary gains (sympathy / martyrdom, work avoidance, free benefits, financial assistance, etc.) play large roles with many AIDS patients. "Recovery guilt" as friends are dying has even precipitated suicide attempts masked as 'accidents'. Avoid such entanglements, since many have unconscious death wishes.

**SUPERIOR ELECTRODES:** Excellent, convenient and vastly superior electrodes, reusable indefinitely can be made by butt-soldering lead wires to ends of 1" long by 3/32" dia. blanks cut from type 316 stainless steel rods available from welding supply stores (Cameron Welding Supply. 11061 Dale Ave., Stanton, CA 90680). Use 'Stay Clean' flux before soldering (zinc chloride/hydrochloric acid). Shrink-insulate TWO tight layers of tubing over soldered joints to prevent flexing/breaking and lead/copper ions from migrating. Wrap three or four turns of 100% cotton flannel around rods. Spiral-wrap with strong thread starting from wire side to end, tightly pinch cloth over the rod’s end so as to leave no metal exposed by wrapping 6 or 7 turns of thread TIGHTLY just off end of rod, then spiral wrap back to start and tie tightly with four knots then cut off excess cloth at end close to pinch-wraps. Treat end windings and knots with clear fingernail polish or Fray Check® (fabric & sewing supply stores) to prevent ravelling. Soak in a strong solution of sea salt (not table salt) containing a little wetting agent like Kodak Photo Flow, ethylene glycol, or 409 kitchen cleaner. Add a few drops of household bleach, silver colloid, etc., for disinfectant. Store solution for reuse. Tape soaking-wet electrodes tightly over pulse sites with paper masking or Transpore™ tape or with 1 inch wide stretch elastic bands with tabs of Velcro® at ends to fasten. Electrodes should closely conform precisely along blood vessels, not skewing ever so slightly over adjacent flesh. This insures better electrical conductivity paths to circulating blood and insures very low internal impedance. (~2000W). Rinse and blot-dry electrodes and skin after each use. NEVER allow bare metal to touch skin as this will cause burns manifested as small red craters that heal slowly. The objective is to get maximum current into blood vessels, not leak it over to adjacent tissue. Therefore never use any electrode wider that about 1/8 inch (3 mm).

**ELECTRODE PLACEMENTS:** Locate maximum pulse position (NOT to be confused with acupuncture, reflexology, Chapman, etc. points) on feet or wrists by feeling for maximum pulse on inside of ankle about 1 inch below and to rear of ankle bone, then test along top centre of instep. Place electrode on whichever pulse site on that foot that feels strongest. Scrub skin over chosen sites with mild soap and water or alcohol swab. Wipe dry. Position the electrodes lengthwise along each left and right wrists blood vessel. Note: with subjects having perfectly healthy hearts and not wearing pacers, it is convenient to use left wrist to right wrist exactly over ulnar arterial pulse paths instead of on feet. Recent (Dec. 1995) research suggests that placing both electrodes over different arteries on the same wrist works very well (see pg. 7), avoids any current through heart, and is much more convenient and just as effective. An 8" long, 1" wide elastic stretch-band with two 1.5" lengths of 3/4" wide Velcro® sewn to ends of opposite sides makes an excellent wrist band for holding electrodes snugly in place. With electrode cable unplugged, turn switch ON and advance amplitude control to maximum. Push momentary SW. 2 'Test' switch and see that the red and green light emitting diodes flash alternately. This verifies that polarity is reversing about 4 times per second (frequency is NOT critical) and that batteries are still good. When LED's don't light replace all three 9V batteries. Zener diodes will extinguish the LEDs when the three 9V battery’s initial 27V drops below 18V after extended use. Never use any electrode larger than 1.125" (28 mm) long by 1/8" wide to avoid wasting current through surrounding tissue. Confine exactly over blood vessels only. Apply drops of salt water to each electrode’s cotton cover ~every 20 minutes to combat evaporation and insure optimum current flow. Later devices are solid-state, use only three batteries and no relays, and are much smaller.

Now rotate amplitude control to minimum (counter-clockwise) and plug In electrode cable. Subject now advances dial slowly until he feels a “thumping” and tingling. Turn as high as tolerable but don’t advance amplitude to where it is ever uncomfortable. Adjust voltage periodically as he adapts or acclimates to current level after several minutes. If subject perspires, skin resistance may decrease because of moisture, so setting to a lower voltage for comfort is indicated. Otherwise it is normal to feel progressively less sensation with time. You may notice little or no sensation at full amplitude immediately, but feeling will begin building up to maximum after several minutes at which time amplitude must be decreased. Typical adapted electrode-to-electrode impedance is on the order of 2000W. Typical comfortable input (to skin) is about 3 mA, and maximum tolerable input (full amplitude) is about 7 mA but this 'reserve' margin although harmless is unnecessary and can be uncomfortable. Current flowing through blood is very much lower than this external input because of series resistance through skin, tissue and blood vessel walls, but 50 to 100 µA through blood is essential.

Apply blood neutralizer for about 2 hours daily for ~2 months. Use judgment here. The limiting factor is
detoxification. Carefully monitor subject's reactions (discomfort, catarrh, skin eruptions, weeping exudates, rashes, boils, carbuncles, coated tongue, etc.). With very heavy infections, go slower so as not to overload body's toxic disposal capability. With circulation-impaired diabetics, etc., you may wish to extend session times. Again, have subject drink lots of water. Recent changes in theoretical protocol being currently tested suggest following up the three weeks of treatments with a 24 hours per day (around the clock) continuous electrification of blood for two days to deal a knockout blow to the remaining HIV's 1.2 day life cycle. (A. Perelson; Los Alamos Biophysics Group, Mar. 16, 1996 “Science” Journal.) Remember to remoisten electrodes regularly. If you absolutely must ingest prescription drugs, do so immediately after turning off instrument and allow 24 hours before next treatment to let concentrations in blood plasma decay to lower levels.

Remember, if subjects ever feel sleepy, sluggish, listless, nauseous, faint, bloated, or headachy, or have flu-like reactions they may be neglecting sufficient water intake for flushing toxins. We interpret this as detoxification plus endorphin release due to electrification. Let them rest and stabilize for about 45 minutes before driving if indicated. If this detoxing becomes oppressive, treat every second day. Treating at least 21 times should ‘fractionate’ both juvenile and maturing HIV to overlap maximum neutralization sensitivity windows and interrupt ‘budding’ occurring during HIV cells' development cycles. Treatments are claimed to safely neutralize many other viruses, fungi, bacteria, parasites, and microbes in blood. See patents US 5,091,152  US 5,139,684 US 5,188,738 US 5,328,451 and others as well as numerous valid medical studies which are presently little known or suppressed. Also, ingesting a few oz. of about 5 parts per million of silver colloid solution daily can give subjects a 'second intact immune system' and minimise or eliminate opportunistic infections during recovery phase. This miracle substance is pre-1938 technology, and unlike ozone is considered immune from FDA harassment. Silver colloid can easily be made at home electrolytically in minutes and in any desired quantities and parts per million strength for under 14 cents per gallon plus cost of water. It is ridiculous to purchase it for high prices. Colloid has no side effects, and is known to rapidly eliminate or prevent hundreds of diseases. Silver colloids won't produce drug resistant strains as will all other known antibiotics. No reasonable amount can overdose or injure users either topically, by ingestion, or medical professional injection.

The 741 Operational Amplifier.
An important and very useful group of Integrated Circuits is the “Operational Amplifier” or “op-amp” group. These devices have a very high gain, an ‘inverting’ input and a ‘non-inverting’ input. There are many op-amps but we will look at just one popular type called the “741” which has an ‘open-loop’ gain of 100,000 times. All operational amplifiers work in the same way in theory. The way they operate in a circuit is controlled by the external components attached to them. They can operate as inverting amplifier, a non-inverting amplifier (i.e. a ‘buffer’), a comparator, an astable multivibrator, and various other things. The symbol and connections for a 741 op-amp are:

![741 Operational Amplifier Diagram](image)

We can connect the 741 chip to act as an amplifier with any set gain level that we choose:
Here, the gain is set by the ratio of the 220K resistor to the 22K resistor. This circuit has a gain of 10 times, so the input signal at point 'B' will generate an output signal at point 'C' which is ten times larger, provided that the output signal does not approach the battery voltage. If it does, then clipping will occur with the top and the bottom of the output waveform chopped off at about a volt away from the battery voltage levels, approximately 1 Volt and +11 Volts in this example.

Operational amplifiers are generally designed to operate from a dual power supply. In the above example, the supply would be created by using two 6 Volts batteries instead of one 12 Volt battery. To avoid the inconvenience of this, a mid-point voltage is generated at point ‘A’ by using two equal resistors in series across the battery. This gives a central voltage of +6 Volts which is fed to the IC.

This circuit can be used in many applications. Here is a circuit for a meter to measure sound intensity:

![ Circuit Diagram for Sound Intensity Meter ]

This circuit is two copies of the previous circuit. Each 741 chip has a reference voltage of half the supply voltage created by a voltage-divider pair of 1K resistors. This voltage is fed to pin 3 of the chip, which is the non-inverting input.

At point ‘A’, a microphone or small loudspeaker is used to generate a signal voltage when sound reaches it. This voltage is fed to the 741 op-amp via a 1 microfarad blocking capacitor. This passes the audio signal through while blocking the +4.5 Volts DC on pin 3. The first 741 has a gain of 22, set by the 10K and 220K resistors (220/10 = 22).

Point ‘B’ then receives an audio signal 22 times larger than the signal produced by the microphone. This signal is still quite small, so the second 741 boosts it further. The gain of the second 741 is variable and depends on the resistance set on the 1M variable resistor. If the variable resistor is set to zero ohms, then the gain of the second 741 will be controlled by the 4K7 resistor at point ‘C’ alone and so will be 1 (4.7/4.7 = 1). If the variable resistor is set to its maximum value, then the gain of the second 741 will be some 214 (1,004,700/4,700 = 213.8).

The two op-amps together have a combined gain which ranges from 22 to 4702. The amplified audio signal arrives at point ‘D’ and it can be adjusted to a respectable value. This alternating voltage is now rectified via the diodes at point ‘E’ and it builds up a DC voltage across the 47 microfarad capacitor there. This voltage is displayed on a voltmeter. The result is that the voltmeter shows a reading directly proportional to the sound level reaching the microphone.

The 741 can be wired as a buffer. This is the equivalent of an emitter-follower circuit when using transistors. The set up for the 741 is:
Difficult circuit - huh! Are you sure you can afford all the extra components? This circuit utilises the full gain of the 741 chip. The output follows the input waveform exactly. The input requires almost no current, so the circuit is described as having a 'high input impedance'. The output can drive a serious load such as a relay, so the circuit is described as having a 'low output impedance'.

The 741 chip can be wired to act as a comparator. This is the circuit:

Are you sure you are up to such a difficult circuit? Bit complicated - huh! This is the basic operational form for an operational amplifier.

If the voltage at point ‘A’ is higher than the voltage at point ‘B’ then the output goes as low as it can go, say 1 or 2 volts.

If the voltage at point ‘A’ is lower than the voltage at point ‘B’ then the output goes as high as it can go, say 10 volts or so.

Having seen how transistor circuits work, you should be able to understand why the 741 chip circuitry (which is a transistor circuit inside the 741 package) needs some voltage inside the supply rails to provide an efficient high-current output drive.

Here is a 741 version of the light-operated switch:
This circuit is set up as evening falls. We want the relay to have minimum voltage across it in daylight, so the voltage at point ‘A’ needs to be higher than the voltage at point ‘B’. As the 1K variable resistor is across the supply voltage, its slider can be set to any voltage between 0 Volts and +12 Volts. To make this easy to do, we choose a ‘linear’ variable resistor as the logarithmic variety would be hard to adjust in this application. With the ‘linear’ version, each 1 degree of rotation of the resistor shaft causes the same change in resistance, anywhere along the range. This is not the case for the logarithmic variety.

Anyhow, we adjust the variable resistor downwards until the relay voltage drops to a minimum. When the light level has fallen to the level at which we wish the circuit to trigger, we adjust the variable resistor to make the relay click on. The 741 chip has a very rapid output voltage swing when the input voltages swap over, so the relay switching will be decisive. The switching can be made even more positive by adding a resistor between the output and point ‘B’. This acts like a Schmitt trigger when switching occurs by providing some additional positive feedback, lifting the voltage at point ‘B’.

If you wish the circuit to trigger on a rising light level, just swap the positions of the 10K resistor and the ORP12 light-dependent resistor. The same circuit will operate as a temperature sensing circuit by substituting a ‘thermistor’ (which is a temperature-dependent resistor) for the ORP12.

If we would like the circuit to act as a burglar alarm, we could use the same circuit like this:

The circuit is still controlled by the voltage at point ‘A’. Under normal circumstances, this voltage will be near +6 Volts (produced by the two 10K resistors and the 100K resistor). The upper switch marked ‘NC’ for ‘Normally Closed’, represents a chain of, say, magnetic switches attached to doors and windows. If any of these are opened, then the voltage at point ‘A’ will be dictated by the lower 10K resistor in series with the 100K resistor. This will cause the voltage at ‘A’ to fall instantly to a low value, triggering the circuit.

The ‘NO’ switch (‘Normally Open’) represents one or more pressure-operated switches under carpets or rugs and/or switches which get brushed when doors are swung open, etc. These switches are wired in parallel across each other and if any of them is closed for even a millionth of a second, the voltage at point ‘A’ will be pulled down by the 1K resistor and the circuit will be triggered.

The circuit can be latched on in any one of a variety of ways. One relay contact can be used to hold the relay on or hold the voltage at ‘A’ low. A transistor can be wired across the relay to hold the circuit on, etc. etc. If this is done, the circuit will remain in its triggered state until the supply voltage is interrupted. You might prefer to use a 555 chip to limit the length of time the alarm sounds to three minutes or so.

The SCR and Triac.

An alternative to using a relay or semiconductor latch is to use a Silicon Controlled Rectifier usually referred to as an ‘SCR’ or ‘Thyristor’. This device is normally “off” with a very high resistance to current flow. If it is switched on by applying a voltage to its Gate connection, it stays continuously on until some external device stops current flowing through it. The following circuit shows how it operates:
When the voltage is first applied to the circuit by closing switch S2, the SCR is in its OFF state so no current is supplied to the load. If the press-button switch S1 is pressed, a current is fed into the Gate of the SCR, turning it ON. When switch S1 is allowed to open, the SCR remains in its ON state and it will stay that way until the current through it is cut off. Opening switch S2 cuts off the current to the load and the SCR returns to its OFF state. A very valid question would be: “Why have an SCR at all and just turn the load on and off with switch S2?”. The answer is that switch S1 might be the under-carpet pressure pad of a burglar-alarm and it might be operated some hours after switch S2 was closed to activate the alarm system. Stepping off the pressure pad does not stop the alarm sounding.

While this sort of DC latching action is useful, it is more common for an SCR to be used in an AC circuit. For example, take the circuit shown here:

The 120 volt AC supply coming in from the right hand side, is converted to positive-going sine-wave pulses by the diode bridge. This pulsing voltage is applied to the Load/SCR path. If the voltage at pin 3 of the 555 chip is low, then the SCR will remain OFF and no current will be fed to the load device. If the voltage on pin 3 goes high and the voltage applied to the Load/SCR chain is high, then the SCR will be switched ON, powering the load until the pulsing voltage drops to its zero level again some 1/120 of a second later.

The 555 chip is connected to form a monostable multivibrator and the timing components (the 120K resistor and the 10nF capacitor) cause it to output a 1 millisecond pulse which is long enough to trigger the SCR into its ON state, but short enough to have finished before the mains pulse reaches its zero-voltage level again. The 555 chip is triggered by the rising mains voltage being passed to its pin 2 through the voltage-divider 100K and 120K pair of resistors, and that synchronises it with the AC waveform. Pin 4 of the 555 chip can be used to switch the load power on and off.

In the circuit shown above, the diode bridge is needed to convert the incoming AC waveform to pulsing DC as shown in red in the diagram, as the SCR can only handle current flowing in one direction. The AC load equipment works just as well with the pulsing DC as with a full blown AC waveform. A better semiconductor construction is the 'Triac' which acts like two SCR devices back-to-back in a single package. It is shown like this in circuit diagrams:
There are three connections to the device: Main Terminal 1, Main Terminal 2 and the Gate. When switch ‘S’ shown in the diagram is closed, the triac conducts on both positive and negative voltages applied to its MT1 and MT2 terminals. When the switch is open, the device does not conduct at all.

If the external circuit containing switch ‘S’ is placed inside the device as a permanently closed circuit, then the device becomes a 'Diac' which can be used to trigger a Triac and give a very neat circuit for controlling the power to an item of AC mains equipment as shown here:

Here, the variable resistor/capacitor pair controls the point on the AC waveform that the Triac is triggered and so controls how much of each sinewave cycle is passed to the mains equipment, and so it controls the average power passed to the equipment. A very common use for a circuit of this type is the ‘dimmer-switch’ used with household lighting.

To return now to the 741 chip. The 741 can also be used as an astable multivibrator. The circuit is:

The rate of oscillation of this circuit is governed by the Resistor marked ‘R’ in the diagram and the capacitor marked ‘C’. The larger the resistor, the lower the rate of oscillation, the larger the capacitor, the lower the rate of oscillation.

When the output goes high, capacitor ‘C’ charges up until the voltage on it exceeds the mid-rail voltage on pin 3, at which time the 741 output goes low. The capacitor now discharges through resistor ‘R’ until the voltage on it drops below the voltage on pin 3, at which time the output goes high again. The 10K resistor connecting the output to pin 3 provides some positive feedback which makes the 741 act quite like a Schmitt trigger, sharpening up the switching.

The same arrangement of resistor and capacitor applied to a Schmitt inverter or Schmitt NAND gate causes exactly the same oscillation:
If you would like to see additional ways of using 741 and 555 chips, I can recommend the excellent book “Elementary Electronics” by Mel Sladdin and Alan Johnson ISBN 0 340 51373 X.

A Hex Inverter Signal Generator.
Here is a very well tested and highly thought of, low-cost oscillator circuit, using a 74HC14 Schmitt inverter chip (or the 40106B higher voltage CMOS chip). It allows fine tuning control of the frequency and the pulse width produced. Three of the inverters are connected together to give a more powerful output current drive:

The 4022 Divide-by-Eight Chip.
One very useful CMOS integrated circuit is the ‘4022’ chip which is a 16-pin ‘divide by 8’ chip with built-in decoding. The connections are:
If pin 14 is provided with the output from some variety of astable multivibrator, on the first pulse, this chip sets the “0” output on pin 2 to High while the other outputs are Low. On the next pulse, the “0” output goes Low and the “1” output on pin 1 goes High. On the next pulse, output “1” goes Low and the “2” output on pin 3, goes High. And so on until on the eighth pulse, output “7” on pin 10 goes Low and output “0” goes high again.

The chip can also divide by lower numbers:

For ‘Divide by 7’ operation, connect pin 10 to pin 15 (this resets the output to ‘0’)
For ‘Divide by 6’ operation, connect pin 5 to pin 15
For ‘Divide by 5’ operation, connect pin 4 to pin 15
For ‘Divide by 4’ operation, connect pin 11 to pin 15
For ‘Divide by 3’ operation, connect pin 7 to pin 15
For ‘Divide by 2’ operation, connect pin 3 to pin 15

If you want a ‘Divide by 1’ circuit, I suggest you cut down on the amount of alcohol you drink.

Here is an illustration of a ‘Divide by 4’ setup:

There are a number of things to notice in the above diagram. Firstly, the practical arrangements for circuitry have not been stressed before. If the circuitry has a pulsing circuit drawing heavy current, as shown by the thick red arrows, then it should be physically connected to the battery and any low-current circuitry should be further away from the battery. The supply from the battery should have a fuse or circuit breaker and a switch in the line before anything else is connected, so that if any component develops a fault and goes short-circuit, the fuse will blow and prevent any significant problems.

Secondly, it is a good idea to provide the other circuitry with a smoothed power supply as shown by the blue components in the diagram. This minimises the effect if the battery voltage gets pulled down by the pulsing of the
high-current circuitry. The diode (silicon, 1 Amp, 50 V) stops the heavy current circuit drawing current from the large smoothing capacitor. The 100 ohm resistor limits the current into the large capacitor on switch-on and provides a little more smoothing. This circuitry is called “de-coupling” as it de-couples the low current circuitry from the high current circuitry.

Thirdly, notice capacitor “C1” which is wired physically as close to the power supply pins of the integrated circuit as is possible. If a spike is superimposed on the battery supply, then this capacitor soaks it up and prevents it damaging or triggering the integrated circuit. A spike could be caused by a very strong magnetic pulse nearby as that can induce an extra voltage in the battery wires.

The lower part of the diagram shows the output voltages produced as the clock pulses reach pin 14 of the chip. The positive-going part of the clock signal triggers the change in state of the outputs. If necessary, a positive-going pulse on the reset pin, pin 15, causes output “0” to go high and the other outputs to go low.

The 4017 Divide-by-Ten Chip.

Now, to take this output sequencing a little further. For example, the Charles Flynn magnet motor shown in Chapter 1 needs coils to be powered up, one after the other and only one should be on at any one time. This calls for a circuit which has a large number of outputs. The CD4022BC chip gives up to eight outputs one after the other. The CD4017B chip gives up to ten outputs one after the other but there is no need to be limited by these numbers as more than one chip can be used. If you find this section difficult to understand, then just skip past to the next section as it is not important for you to understand these larger circuits.

The pin connections for the divide-by-ten CD4017B chip is shown here:

![CD4017B Pin Connections]

While this shows outputs 1 to 10, the manufacturers and some people who draw circuits, prefer to label the outputs as “0 to 9” which correspond to digital displays. In our style of operation, it is easier to think of the ten outputs as being from 1 to 10.

You will notice that there are two pin labels which we have not come across before, namely, the “Carry-out” pin and the “Clock Enable” pin. These allow us to use several of these chips in a row to give a much larger “divide-by” number. The “Clock Enable” pin can be used to block the clock input. The operation is like this:
In this example, the sequence is started by the Reset pin being given a high voltage as shown by the green shading. This pushes the output pin 1 to a high voltage and all of the other outputs to a low voltage and holds those voltages as long as the reset voltage is high.

When the Reset voltage drops, the next rising edge of the clock pulse (marked “1” in the diagram) causes the output 1 to go low and output 2 to go high. Each of the successive clock pulses “2” to “9” moves the high voltage steadily along the outputs until output pin 10 is high.

The next clock pulse rising edge (marked “10” in the diagram) starts the sequence again with output 10 going low and output 1 going high again. If nothing changes, then that sequence of output voltage changes will continue indefinitely.

However, in the diagram above, the Clock Enable pin voltage is driven high on clock pulse “11”. Output 2 has just gone high and would have gone low when the rising edge of clock pulse “12” occurred, but in this case, the Clock Enable feature blocks the clock pulse and prevents it reaching the rest of the circuitry. This causes the output 2 voltage to stay high as long as the Clock Enable remains high. In this example, the Clock Enable voltage stays high for just one clock pulse, causing the output 2 voltage to be high for twice its usual length, and then the sequence continues as before.

**A Divide-by-Twenty-five Circuit.**

Here is one way to get a large “divide-by” number. This example is divide-by-25 because there is only one ‘intermediate stage’ but there can be any number and each additional one adds another eight outputs to the total:
At startup, output 10 of the first stage (which is physical pin 11 of the chip) is at a low voltage. This holds the Clock Enable (pin 13) low, allowing the clock pulses to enter the first stage. Because the output 10 voltage is low, one input to the first AND gate is held low, preventing it from letting the clock pulse flow through it, i.e. the "gate" is closed to through traffic.

The first stage chip then operates as normal, producing outputs 1 to 9 in order as you would expect. The next clock pulse sets the first stage output 10 high, allowing the clock pulses through the first AND gate and holding the Clock Enable (pin 13) high, which in turn locks the output 10 high, dropping the first stage chip out of the operation.

As the output 1 of the first stage is connected to the Reset (pin 15) of the second chip, it will have been cleared and it’s output 1 set high, which in turn Resets the third chip and closes the second AND gate. So, when the first pulse gets through to the second chip, it pushes it from state 1 to state 2 where the output 2 goes high. For that reason, output 1 of the second chip is not one of the outputs which can be used by whatever following circuitry you choose to connect to this system. Consequently, only eight of the ten outputs of the second chip are available as counter outputs. That is, outputs 1 and 10 are taken up in passing the switching sequence between the various chips in the chain.

The same applies to all following chips in the chain, each extra chip adding up to eight extra sequential outputs. On the final stage chip, if you connect the red Reset wire (which goes back to fire up the first chip again) to output 9 instead of output 10 of the final chip, then you get a divide-by-24 result.

If the Reset is taken from output 8 of the final chip, then you get a divide-by-23 result, and so on. Using this method, you can have a divide-by-circuit for any number you want. These chips are very popular and so their cost is low, making the entire circuit cheap to make. The pin connections for the AND gates is shown here:

---

**The PIC Revolution.**

Over the years, there have been advances in the way that circuitry can be put together, prototypes built and tested. Initially, "valves" or "vacuum tubes" were used and circuits required a good deal of electrical power in order to operate. Mechanical vibrators or "reeds" were used to generate the switching needed to convert DC into AC. Then the transistor became widely available and the transistor replaced the mechanical vibrator reed, the circuit being called an "astable multivibrator" and comprising of two transistors wired back to back (as described in chapter 12). Then came the digital integrated circuit with it’s "NOR gates" which could also be wired back to back to make a multivibrator. This was done so often that a special integrated circuit called the "555 chip" was designed to do the job all on its own. That chip has been a tremendous success and is now found in all sorts of different circuits, being very easy to use, very robust and very cheap. Surprisingly, the dominant position of the "555" chip is being challenged by a completely different type of chip, one which is essentially, a computer on a
single chip, and which is called a "PIC controller".

This new type of chip is not expensive, is easy to use, and can be changed to perform a different task in just a few seconds. It can perform timing tasks. It can act as a multivibrator. It can act as a "Divide-by-N" chip. It is a very impressive chip which is very useful. The reason that I mention it here is because it is at the heart of the fastest working Tesla Switch research forum around (the "energetic forum" group). The chip is something you need to know about as it will certainly take over more and more circuit applications in the coming years.

There is a whole family of these processor chips, but I will select just one for this description, and that will be the one being used by the "energetic forum" members, and I have to thank Jeff Wilson for his help in describing this circuitry, the programming and the methods which he uses.

First, however, some information on this new design of chip and the methods used with it. The one used by Jeff is called the "PICAXE-18X" and it looks like the chip shown here. From which you can see, it looks just like any other chip, although with eighteen pins. The powerful performance comes from the way that it operates. You are probably familiar with the "555" chip and understand that it operates by changing the voltage on just one of its pins (pin 3) the output pin, from a low voltage to a high voltage. The PIC chip can do that as well, but even better still, it has more than one output pin and it can alter the voltage on any of those pins to either a high or a low voltage and it can do that in any order and with any timing that you choose. This makes it a very versatile chip indeed and one which is very well suited to be the central controller for a Tesla Switch test environment.

The chip is used by wiring it into a circuit in the same sort of way that a 555 chip would be used, except that the PIC has its own internal timing clock and can operate in intervals of one thousandth of a second, that is, one millisecond.

The top eight pins are for making the chip work. The next two are for providing the chip with electrical power. The bottom eight pins are separate outputs, any one of which can operate switches, timers, etc., just as the output from a 555 chip can. Having been named by computer people, instead of the eight output pins being numbered from 1 to 8 as any rational person would do, they have numbered them from 0 to 7.

The voltage on those output pins will be either High or Low. PIC switching can be used with a wide range of different free-energy designs. The PIC chip is generally supplied with a socket, a connecting cable and a program for feeding instructions into the chip. The feed is generally from an ordinary PC. The programming instructions are very simple and anyone can learn how to use them in just a few minutes.

So let's look at a circuit which has been used by Jeff when he tests prototype circuitry. The first part of the circuit is for connecting the standard PC socket to the PIC chip and it looks like this:

```
PICAXE-18X

ADC 2 / Input 2     1 18  Input 1 / ADC 1
Serial Out          2 17  Input 0 / ADC 0 / Infrain
Serial In           3 16  Input 7 / keyboard data
Reset               4 15  Input 6 / keyboard clock
0V                  5 14  +V
Output 0            6 13  Output 7
i2c sda / Output 1  7 12  Output 6
Output 2            8 11  Output 5
pwm 3 / Output 3   9 10  Output 4 / i2c scl
```

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A standard 9-pin computer socket has its pin 2 connected to the PIC's pin 2, pin 3 connected to the PIC's pin 3 via a 10K / 22K voltage divider resistor pair (which lowers the incoming signal voltage), and pin 5 is connected to the PIC's pin 5. That is all that's needed to feed information into the PIC chip.

The chip is supplied from a 12-volt battery but as it needs a 5-volt supply, the 100 / 150 ohm (2 watt) resistor pair is used to drop the 12 volts down to about 7 volts and then the 5.1-volt zener diode clamps the voltage at 5.1 volts, which is just what the chip needs. The tiny 10 nF (0.01 microfarad) capacitor is there to trap any voltage spikes should any be picked up from some outside influence. Finally, the press-button switch used to short between pins 4 and 5 is used to wipe out the program inside the PIC, ready for a new program to be loaded.

The actual programming is not difficult and the feed into the chip is handled by the program supplied with the chip and which is run on your home computer. Let's take an example. Suppose we want the output on pin 10 to act as a clock signal. The people who made the chip expect that pin to be called "Output 4" in the program. Please don't ask me why it isn't called "10" in the program as I have no answer for you other than "it takes all sorts of people to make a world".

All right, suppose we want to produce an output signal like a 555 chip running at 50 Hz. We choose one of our output pins, say, the physical pin 10, that being the bottom right hand pin on the chip. As you can see from the pin diagram of the chip shown above, pin 10 is called "Output 4" in a set of commands, or just "4" to save typing. The program might be:

```
Main:
  high 4
  pause 10
  low 4
  pause 10
  goto Main
```

Wow - really difficult stuff!! Only a genius could manage to program! Well, we'll see if we can struggle along with this "difficult" stuff.

The "Main:" at the start is a "label" which can be jumped to and that is done by the "goto Main" command which sends the chip back to repeat the commands in the loop indefinitely (or until the chip is powered down).

The second line "high 4" tells the chip to put the maximum possible voltage on the "Output 4" which is the physical pin 10 of the chip. The chip does this immediately, with no time delay.

If we want the output to give a 50 Hz output signal, then the voltage on our chosen output pin will have to go high, pause, go low, pause and go high again, 50 times each second. As there are 1,000 milliseconds in one second, and the chip's clock runs with 1 millisecond ticks, then we need our complete cycle of "up, pause, down, pause" to happen 50 times in those 1,000 clock ticks. That is, once every 20 ticks, so each delay will be 10 clock ticks long.

The third line "pause 10" tells the chip to sit on it's hands and do nothing for the next 10 ticks of it's internal clock (which ticks 1,000 times per second).

The fourth line "low 4" tells the chip to lower the output voltage on it's "Output 4" (pin 10 in real life) to it's minimum value.

The fifth line "pause 10" tells the chip to wait for 10 milliseconds before doing anything else.
The last line "goto Main" tells the computer to go back to the label "Main:" and continue with whatever instructions follow that label. This puts the chip into an 'infinite loop' which will make it generate that output waveform continuously. The output will look like this:

![Waveform Diagram]

This gives an even waveform, that is, one with a Mark/Space ratio of 50:50 or a Duty Cycle of 50%. If we want the same rate of pulsing but a Duty Cycle of just 25% then the program would be:

```
Main:
  high 4
  pause 5
  low 4
  pause 15
  goto Main
```

which produces this waveform:

![Waveform Diagram]

If you wanted "Output 7" (physical pin 13) to do the reverse of this at the same time - that is, when Output 4 goes high we want Output 7 to go low, and vice versa, then, for a 20% Duty Cycle the program would be:

```
Main:
  high 4
  low 7
  pause 4
  low 4
  high 7
  pause 16
  goto Main
```

These output voltages are then used in exactly the same way as the output voltages on pin 3 of a 555 chip, or any of the outputs of NAND gates, Hall-effect sensor chips, Schmitt triggers, or whatever. If the device to be powered requires very little current, then the easiest method is to connect the load directly to the output pin.

If, as is most often the case, the device to be powered needs a large current to make it work, then the output voltage is used to power a transistor, perhaps like this:
Here, the resistor "R1" limits the current fed into the base of the transistor when pin 10 goes high, but allowing enough current for the transistor to switch on fully, powering the load. The resistor "R" makes sure that the transistor switches off fully when the output on pin 10 goes low. The circuit as shown restricts the load to some piece of equipment which can operate on just five volts, so an alternative circuit could be:

This allows whatever voltage the load needs to be applied to the load, while the PIC chip remains running on its normal 5-volt supply. However, the equipment to be powered may not be able to have a common zero voltage connection with the PIC. To deal with this, an optical isolation chip can be used like this:

Here a high output voltage on pin 10 of the PIC chip lights up the LED inside the opto-isolator chip, causing a major drop in the resistance between the other two pins. This causes a current controlled by the resistor "R" to be fed into the base of the transistor, switching it on and powering the load.

Recently, a very popular programmable chip has been introduced. It is called the “Arduino” and it is fast and versatile and very popular with experimenters. There is an extensive set of English-language Video tutorials on the Arduino chip, the first in the series by Jeremy Blum is [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fCxzA9_kg6s](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fCxzA9_kg6s). The board looks like this:
Capacitors.
We have avoided mentioning capacitors in any detail as it has not been necessary for understanding the circuitry covered so far. Capacitors come in many sizes, types and makes. Their size is stated in ‘Farads’ but as the Farad is a very large unit, you are unlikely to encounter a capacitor marked in anything larger than a microfarad, which is a millionth of a Farad. The symbol for a microfarad is μF where ‘μ’ is the letter of the Greek alphabet. This is a pain for normal text production as Greek letters do not occur in your average font. Some circuit diagrams give up on ‘μ’ and just write it as uF which looks like μF slightly mis-printed where the descender of the μ has not printed.

Anyway, very large capacitors which you may encounter range from 5,000 microfarads to maybe as much as 20,000 microfarads. Large capacitors range from 10 microfarads to 5000 microfarads. Medium sized capacitors run from 0.1 microfarad to about 5 microfarads and small capacitors are those below 0.1 microfarad.

1000 nanofarads (‘nF’) = 1 microfarad.
1000 picofarads (‘pF’) = 1 nanofarad

So:

0.01 microfarad can be written as 10nF
0.1 microfarad can be written as 100nF
0.1nF can be written as 100pF

Capacitors larger than 1 microfarad tend to be ‘polarised’. In other words, the capacitor has a ‘+’ connector and a ‘–’ connector, and it does matter which way round you connect it. The larger capacitors have a voltage rating and this should not be exceeded as the capacitor can be damaged and possibly even totally destroyed. Capacitors can be added together, but surprisingly, they add in the reverse way to resistors:

Example 1

Example 2
If two capacitors are wired in series, as shown in Example 1 above, the overall capacity is reduced while the voltage rating increases. The reduction in capacitance is given by:

\[ \frac{1}{C_t} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_3} + \ldots \]

In Example 1, then, \( \frac{1}{\text{total capacitance}} = \frac{1}{100} + \frac{1}{100} \), or \( \frac{1}{C_t} = \frac{2}{100} \), or \( \frac{1}{C_t} = \frac{1}{50} \), so the overall capacitance reduces from 100 microfarads to 50 microfarads. The advantage in wiring the capacitors like this is that the voltage rating has now increased to 32V (16V across each of the capacitors).

In Example 2, the overall capacitance has reduced to a third of 100 microfarads but the voltage rating has tripled.

In Example 3, the capacitors are wired in parallel. The voltage rating is unchanged but the overall capacitance is now the sum of the three capacitors, namely 300 microfarads.

There is no need for the capacitors to have similar values, there are merely shown that way in the examples to make the arithmetic easier and not distract you from the ways in which the capacitors interact together.

Occasionally, a circuit needs a large capacitor which is not polarised. This can be provided by placing two polarised capacitors back-to-back like this:

When the capacitors are connected this way, it does not matter which end of the pair is connected to the positive side of the circuit and which to the negative side.

Large capacitors usually have their capacitance and voltage printed on the outside of the capacitor, but small capacitors are usually far too tiny for that to be an option. So, a code very much like that used for resistors is used for small capacitors. The code is a 2-digit code for capacitors up to 100 picofarads and for higher values it is a 3-digit code where the first two digits are the numerical value of the capacitor in picofarads and the third digit is the number of zeros following the two digits. One thousand picofarads (pF) is one nanofarad (nF) and one thousand nanofarads is one microfarad. These are some common values:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 pF</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.2 nF</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 pF</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.7 nF</td>
<td>472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 pF</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10 nF</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 pF</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>22 nF</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220 pF</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>47 nF</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470 pF</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>100 nF</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 nF</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>220 nF</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The time has come for a serious warning: High voltages are very, very dangerous. Do not become so familiar with them that you treat them casually. **High voltages can kill you.** Capacitors are capable of building up high voltages and some good makes can hold the charge for several days.

In particular, do **not** try to make adjustments to, or take parts from, the inside of a TV set. A black and white TV set uses 18,000 Volts on the magnetic coils used to create the moving picture on the tube. A capacitor inside the set may well have that voltage on it three days after the set was last used. Don’t fool around inside a TV set, it could kill you quick, or if you are really unlucky, it could injure you for life. A colour TV set uses 27,000 Volts to operate the coils inside it and that will fry you in jiffy time if you touch it.

Also, please don’t think that you are safe if you don’t quite touch it; 27,000 volts can jump across a gap to your hand. If you try to discharge a TV capacitor using a metal screwdriver with a wooden handle, please ensure that you medical insurance is up to date before you do it. You can receive a hefty shock through the screwdriver handle.

Voltages up to 24 Volts should be quite safe. **However,** some circuits will generate very high voltages even though the battery driving the circuit is low voltage. A standard off-the-shelf inverter circuit produces 240 Volts AC from a 12 Volt battery. Just because the battery is only 12 Volts does **not** mean that the circuit is not dangerous. Circuits which have inductors in them can produce high voltages, especially if they contain large capacitors. The voltage which produces the spark in your car engine is very high and it comes from the 12-volt car battery. You know enough about this by now, so **pay attention!**

**The more advanced stuff:**

You do not need to bother with this section if you are just starting out with some basic switching circuits of the type already described in this tutorial, so please feel free to skip this section and move on to the “Prototype Construction” section which you will find immediately useful.

This section is a lightweight introduction to Alternating Current circuits and pulsed DC circuits. Let me stress again that I am mainly self-taught and so this is just a general introduction based on my present understanding.

**AC Power Factors.**

Alternating Current, generally called “AC” is called that because the voltage of this type of power supply is not a constant value. A car battery, for instance, is DC and has a fairly constant voltage usually about 12.8 volts when in its fully charged state. If you connect a voltmeter across a car battery and watch it, the voltage reading will not change. Minute after minute it says exactly the same because it is a DC source.

If you connect an AC voltmeter across an AC power supply, it too will give a steady reading, but it is telling a lie. The voltage is changing all the time in spite of that steady meter reading. What the meter is doing is **assuming** that the AC waveform is a sine wave like this:

![Sine Wave](image)

and based on that assumption, it displays a voltage reading which is called the “Root Mean Square” or “RMS” value. The main difficulty with a sine wave is that the voltage is below zero volts for exactly the same length of time as it is above zero volts, so if you average it, the result is zero volts, which is not a satisfactory result because you can get a shock from it and so it can’t be zero volts, no matter what the arithmetical average is.

To get over this problem, the voltage is measured thousands of times per second and the results squared (that is, the value is multiplied by itself) and then those values are averaged. This has the advantage that when the voltage is say, minus 10 volts and you square it, the answer is plus 100 volts. In fact, all of the answers will be positive, which means that you can add them together, average them and get a sensible result. However, you end up with a value which is far too high because you squared every measurement, and so you need to take the square root of that average (or “mean”) value, and that is where the fancy sounding “Root Mean Square” name comes from – you are taking the (square) root of the (average or) mean value of the squared measurements.

With a sine wave like this, the voltage peaks are 41.4% higher than the RMS value which everyone talks about. This means that if you feed 100 volts AC through a rectifier bridge of four diodes and feed it into a capacitor the
capacitor voltage will **not** be 100 volts DC but instead it will be 141.4 volts DC and you need to remember that when choosing the voltage rating of the capacitor. In that instance I would suggest a capacitor which is made to operate with voltages up to 200 volts.

You probably already knew all of that, but it may not have occurred to you that if you use a standard AC voltmeter on a waveform which is **not** a sine wave, that the reading on the meter is most unlikely to be correct or anywhere near correct. So, please don’t merrily connect an AC voltmeter across a circuit which is producing sharp voltage spikes like, for instance, one of John Bedini’s battery pulsing circuits, and think that the meter reading means anything (other than meaning that you don’t understand what you are doing).

You will, hopefully, have learned that power in watts is determined by multiplying the current in amps by the voltage in volts. For example, 10 amps of current flowing out of a 12 volt power supply, represents 120 watts of power. Unfortunately, that only holds true for circuits which are operating on DC, or AC circuits which have only resistors in them. The situation changes for AC circuits which have non-resistive components in them.

The circuits of this type which you are likely to come across are circuits which have coils in them, and you need to think about what you are doing when you deal with these types of circuit. For example, consider this circuit:

![Diagram of AC circuit with transformer and coils]

This is the output section of a prototype which you have just built. The input to the prototype is DC and measures at 12 volts, 2amps (which is 24 watts). Your AC voltmeter on the output reads 15 volts and your AC ammeter reads 2.5 amps and you are delighted because 15 x 2.5 = 37.5 which looks much bigger than the 24 watts of input power. But, just before you go rushing off to announce on YouTube that you have made a prototype with COP = 1.56 or 156% efficient, you need to consider the real facts.

This is an AC circuit and unless your prototype is producing a perfect sine wave, then the AC voltmeter reading will be meaningless. It is just possible that your AC ammeter is one of the few types that can accurately measure the current no matter what sort of waveform is fed to it, but it is distinctly possible that it will be a digital meter which assesses current by measuring the AC voltage across a resistor in series with the output, and if that is the case, it will probably be assuming a sine wave. The odds are that both readings are wrong, but let’s take the case where we have great meters which are reading the values perfectly correctly. Then the output will be 37.5 watts, won’t it? Well, actually, no it won’t. The reason for this is that the circuit is feeding the transformer winding which is a coil and coils don’t work like that.

The problem is that, unlike a resistor, when you apply a voltage across a coil the coil starts absorbing energy and feeding it into the magnetic field around the coil, so there is a delay before the current reaches it’s maximum value. With DC, this generally doesn’t matter very much, but with AC where the voltage is changing continuously, it matters a great deal. The situation can be as shown in this graph of both voltage and current:

![Graph showing voltage and current for an AC circuit]

At first, this does not look like any great problem, but it has a very significant effect on the actual power in watts. To get the 37.5 watts output which we were talking about earlier, we multiplied the average voltage level by the average current level. But these two values do not occur at the same time and that has a major effect.

As this can be a little difficult to see, let’s take the peak values rather than the averages as they are easier to see. Let’s say that in our example graph that the voltage peak is 10 volts and the current peak is 3 amps. If this were
DC we would multiply them together and say that the power was 30 watts. But with AC, this does not work due to the timing difference:

When the voltage is peaking, the current is nowhere near its peak value of 3 amps:

As a result of this, instead of getting our expected peak power at the top of the voltage peak, the actual power in watts is very much lower – less than half of what we were expecting. Not so good, but it gets worse when you look at the situation more closely. Take a look at what the voltage is when the current crosses the zero line, that is, when the current is zero. The output power is zero when the current is zero but this occurs when the voltage is at a very high value:

The same goes for when the voltage is zero. When the voltage is zero, then the power is also zero, and you will notice that this occurs when the current is at a high value:

The power is not the average current multiplied by the average voltage if there is a coil involved in the circuit – it will be less than that by an amount known as the “power factor” and I’ll leave you to work out why it is called that.

So, how do you determine what the power is? It is done by sampling the voltage and current many times per second and averaging those combined results:
Both the voltage and the current are sampled at the times indicated by the vertical red lines and those figures are used to calculate the actual power level. In this example, only a few samplings are shown, but in practice, a very large number of samples will be taken. The piece of equipment which does this is known as a wattmeter as it measures watts of power. The sampling can be done by windings inside the instrument, resulting in an instrument which can be damaged by overloading without the needle being anywhere near full deflection, or it can be done by digital sampling and mathematical integration. Most digital sampling versions of these meters only operate at high frequencies, typically over 400,000 cycles per second. Both varieties of wattmeter can handle any waveform and not just sine waves.

The power company supplying your home measures the current and assumes that the full voltage is present all of the time that the current is being drawn. If you are powering a powerful electric motor from the mains, then this current lag will cost you money as the power company does not take it into account. It is possible to correct the situation by connecting one or more suitable capacitors across the motor to minimise the power loss.

With a coil (fancy name “inductor” symbol “L”), AC operation is very different to DC operation. The coil has a DC resistance which can be measured with the ohms range of a multimeter, but that resistance does not apply when AC is being used as the AC current flow is not determined by the DC resistance of the coil alone. Because of this, a second term has to be used for the current-controlling factor of the coil, and the term chosen is “impedance”. The wire in any coil has a resistance and that opposes current flow through the coil irrespective of whether the voltage applied to the coil is DC or AC. The capacitance between the neighbouring turns of wire in a coil, introduces a feature of the coil which “impedes” AC current flow through the coil and the amount of that impedance depends on the frequency of the AC voltage being applied to the coil.

The impedance of a coil depends on it’s size, shape, method of winding, number of turns and core material. If the core is made up of iron or steel, (usually thin layers of iron which are insulated from each other), then it can only handle low frequencies. You can forget about trying to pass 10,000 cycles per second (“Hz”) through the coil as the core just can’t change it’s magnetisation fast enough to cope with that frequency. A core of that type is ok for the very low 50 Hz or 60 Hz frequencies used for mains power, which are kept that low so that electric motors can use it directly.

For higher frequencies, ferrite can be used for a core and that is why some portable radios use ferrite-rod aerials, which are a bar of ferrite with a coil wound on it. For higher frequencies (or higher efficiencies) iron dust encapsulated in epoxy resin is used. An alternative is to not use any core material and that is referred to as an air-core coil. These are not limited in frequency by the core but they have a very much lower inductance for any given number of turns. The efficiency of the coil is called it’s “Q” (for “Quality”) and the higher the Q factor, the better. The resistance of the wire lowers the Q factor.

A coil has inductance, and resistance caused by the wire, and capacitance caused by the turns being near each other. However, having said that, the inductance is normally so much bigger than the other two components that we tend to ignore the other two. Something which may not be immediately obvious is that the impedance to AC current flow through the coil depends on how fast the voltage is changing. If the AC voltage applied to a coil completes one cycle every ten seconds, then the impedance will be much lower than if the voltage cycles a million times per second.

If you had to guess, you would think that the impedance would increase steadily as the AC frequency increased. In other words, a straight-line graph type of change. That is not the case. Due to a feature called resonance, there is one particular frequency at which the impedance of the coil increases massively. This is used in the tuning method for AM radio receivers. In the very early days when electronic components were hard to come by, variable coils were sometimes used for tuning. We still have variable coils today, generally for handling large currents rather than radio signals, and we call them “rheostats” and some look like this:
These have a coil of wire wound around a hollow former and a slider can be pushed along a bar, connecting the slider to different winds in the coil depending on its position along the supporting bar. The coil connections are then to the slider and to one end of the coil. The position of the slider effectively changes the number of turns of wire in the part of the coil which is in the circuit. Changing the number of turns in the coil, changes the resonant frequency of that coil. AC current finds it very, very hard to get through a coil which has the same resonant frequency as the AC current frequency. Because of this, it can be used as a radio signal tuner:

![Circuit Diagram]

If the coil’s resonant frequency is changed to match that of a local radio station by sliding the contact along the coil, then that particular AC signal frequency from the radio transmitter finds it almost impossible to get through the coil and so it (and only it) diverts through the diode and headphones as it flows from the aerial wire to the earth wire and the radio station is heard in the headphones. If there are other radio signals coming down the aerial wire, then, because they are not at the resonant frequency of the coil, they flow freely through the coil and don’t go through the headphones.

This system was soon changed when variable capacitors became available as they are cheaper and more compact. So, instead of using a variable coil for tuning the radio signal, a variable capacitor connected across the tuning coil did the same job:

![Circuit Diagram]

Resonance.
While the circuit diagram above is marked “Tuning capacitor” that is actually quite misleading. Yes, you tune the radio receiver by adjusting the setting of the variable capacitor, but, what the capacitor is doing is altering the resonant frequency of the coil/capacitor combination and it is the resonant frequency of that combination which is doing exactly the same job as the variable coil did on its own.

This draws attention to two very important facts concerning coil/capacitor combinations. When a capacitor is placed across a coil “in parallel” as shown in this radio receiver circuit, then the combination has a very high impedance (resistance to AC current flow) at the resonant frequency. But if the capacitor is placed “in series” with the coil, then there is nearly zero impedance at the resonant frequency of the combination:

![Impedance Diagram]

This may seem like something which practical people would not bother with, after all, who really cares? However, it is a very practical point indeed. In Chapter 3, some of the very high-power devices produced by Don Smith are described. Typically, he uses an off-the-shelf neon-tube driver module as an easy way to provide a high-voltage, high-frequency AC current source, typically, 6,000 volts at 30,000 Hz. He then feeds that power into a Tesla Coil which is itself, a power amplifier. The arrangement is like this:
People who try to replicate Don’s designs tend to say “I get great sparks at the spark gap until I connect the L1 coil and then the sparks stop. This circuit can never work because the resistance of the coil is too low”.

If the resonant frequency of the L1 coil does not match the frequency being produced by the neon-tube driver circuit, then the low impedance of the L1 coil will definitely pull the voltage of the neon-tube driver down to a very low value. But if the L1 coil has the same resonant frequency as the driver circuit, then the L1 coil (or the L1 coil/capacitor combination shown on the right, will have a very high resistance to current flow through it and it will work well with the driver circuit. So, no sparks, means that the coil tuning is off. It is the same as tuning a radio receiver, get the tuning wrong and you don’t hear the radio station.

Choosing components which are not specified.
Some people find it difficult to select a suitable component where the exact component is not specified or where an alternative has to be selected, so perhaps a few general pointers might be helpful. The reason why component values are omitted may well be because a very wide range of alternative values can be used and if one particular is specified, the newcomers to electronics feel that they have to use that one value or the circuit will not work, (which is almost never the case). For example, I have been asked if a capacitor rated at 25V could be used instead of the same value capacitor rated at 16V shown in the circuit, to which the answer is ‘yes, most definitely’. The lower voltage rating is adequate and the component cheaper to buy, but if one of a higher voltage rating is available, then it can be used.

With capacitors, you need to consider the physical size and wire connections, the capacitance, the voltage rating, and the leakage. The cost and size of a capacitor is directly related to it's voltage rating, and once the voltage rating exceeds that normally used, the price shoots up rapidly as the sales volume reduces rapidly, which in turn, discourages further sales. This sometimes causes circuit builders to connect chains of cheaper capacitors together to make a smaller-capacity high-voltage capacitor. In the case of Tesla Coil builders, they then may connect several of these chains in parallel to boost the capacitance.

If the voltage rating is exceeded (usually by a very large amount), the capacitor will be damaged and become either a short-circuit, or more likely, an open circuit. Either way, it will never work as a capacitor again. In a household circuit, where the capacitor is being used as part of the power supply to the circuit, the voltage rating does not need to be much higher than the supply voltage, with say, 16V being used for a 12V circuit. You could use a capacitor rated at 25V, 40V, 63V, 100V or 400V and it would work perfectly well, but it will be much larger and have cost much more. But, if you have one sitting around and not being used, there is no reason why you should not use it rather than paying to buy another one.

If the capacitor is being used in a timing circuit where a high-value resistor is feeding current to it, then the leakage current of the capacitor becomes very important. Electrolytic capacitors are seldom suitable for such an application as they have a small, unpredictable leakage current which will vary with the age of the capacitor. For accurate timing with a capacitor, ceramic, polypropylene, mylar or tantalum should be used.

The voltage rating for an electrolytic capacitor is for DC, so if you use it for limiting current in an AC power supply, that is, where the current flows through the capacitor rather than the capacitor being placed across the supply and is acting to combat ripple, then great care is needed. The capacitor will heat up due to the power flowing through it, and it is possible for an electrolytic capacitor used in that way to rupture or ‘explode’ due to the electrolyte boiling. Instead, you need to use the very much more expensive oil-filled can capacitors (as shown near the end of chapter 10). That style of usage is unusual for home constructors.

With bi-polar transistors, you need to use commonsense. Suppose a 555 timer chip is required to power a transistor which controls a relay:
For the moment, we will ignore the fact that the 555 could drive the relay directly without the need for a transistor. Let’s say that the relay draws a current of 30 mA when connected to a 12V supply. Therefore, the transistor needs to be able to handle a current of 30 mA. Any small switching transistor such as the BC109 or 2N2222 can easily handle that current. The transistor also needs to be able to handle 12 volts. If in doubt, look up the characteristics of your choice of transistor at [http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr/](http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr/) by entering the transistor name ‘BC109’ or whatever in the entry box at the top of the screen and clicking on the button to the right of it. Eventually, it will let you download a pdf document specifying the transistor, and that will show you the voltages which the transistor can handle. Both of the above transistors can handle far more than 12V.

The next question is, ‘can the transistor switch fast enough to work in this circuit?’ and the data sheet will show that they can switch on and off a million times per second. As the relay can only switch on and off a few times per second, the transistor can easily operate fast enough to handle the switching.

Next, we need to know what size of resistor would be suitable. The data sheet will also show the DC current gain of the transistor. This is usually marked as “hfe” and for these transistors is likely to be a minimum of, say, 200. This means that the current flowing into the base of the transistor needs to be one two-hundredth of the relay’s 30 mA which is 0.15 mA. The resistor will have about +11 volts at pin 3 of the 555 timer and around +0.7 volts at the base of the transistor when it is switched fully on. That means that the resistor will have about 10.3 volts across it when the relay is switched on:

\[ R = \frac{10.3}{0.00015} = 68K \]

So, any resistor between 68K and perhaps 15K should work well.

The diode is there to protect the transistor from excessive voltage caused by the coil of the relay. When a coil is switched off suddenly, it generates a reverse voltage which can be hundreds of volts, pulling the collector of the transistor far above the +12V power supply line. When that starts to happen, it effectively reverses the diode direction, allowing it to conduct and short-circuit that big voltage spike:

So, what size of resistor will have 0.15 mA flowing through it when there is a 10.3-volt drop across it? We know that a 1K resistor passes 1mA per volt and so would pass 10.3 mA with 10.3 volts across it. That is far more than we need. A 10K resistor would pass 1.03 mA which is still far too much but certainly could be used. As it is a resistor, we can use Ohm’s Law: \( R = \frac{V}{A} \) (Ohms equals Volts over Amps), or \( R = 10.3 / 0.00015 \) which is 68K. So, any resistor between 68K and perhaps 15K should work well.

The diode is there to protect the transistor from excessive voltage caused by the coil of the relay. When a coil is switched off suddenly, it generates a reverse voltage which can be hundreds of volts, pulling the collector of the transistor far above the +12V power supply line. When that starts to happen, it effectively reverses the diode direction, allowing it to conduct and short-circuit that big voltage spike:
Due to the short-circuiting, the voltage can’t get any higher and the current through the diode is not large, so most diodes such as the popular and cheap 1N4001 or 1N4007 types can be used.

When a transistor is connected like that and switched on, it is effectively a short-circuit between its collector and emitter, and that places the full 12 volts across the relay, powering it very solidly. This connection method is called a “common-emitter” circuit because all of the transistors used have their emitters all wired in common to the 0V line. An alternative arrangement is the “emitter-follower” circuit:

With this circuit arrangement, the emitter of the transistor “follows” the voltage on pin 3 of the 555 timer. It is always a constant voltage below it, typically about 0.7 volts. The output of the 555 timer has a maximum of about 0.7V below the supply voltage, and so it’s maximum value is about 11.3V in this circuit. The transistor drops that by a further 0.7V, which means that the relay only gets about 10.6V across it instead of the full 12V of the supply, which means that it should be a 10-volt relay rather than a 12-volts relay.

Those are the easy cases because the 555 timer can supply at least 200 mA through its output pin, while keeping the output voltage steady. That is not the case with simple transistor circuits. Take a situation like this:

For audio work - microphone pre-amplifiers and the like – the rule of thumb is that the current flowing through the first transistor should be at least ten times the current required by the base of the second transistor in order not to drag down and distort the audio waveform.
Relay switching is not so critical but the same general principle applies and attention needs to be paid to the collector resistor of the preceding transistor. For example, if the current flowing through the preceding transistor is small, say, 0.5 mA and the output transistor needs 1.5 mA flowing into its base, then there can be a problem. In this circuit, for example:

![Circuit Diagram]

Here, the voltage at point "A" goes high because the first transistor switches off and so becomes the same as a resistor of 1Meg or more. Normally, that resistance is so much greater than the 27K of its resistor, that the voltage at point "A" would be nearly +12V, but if you were to connect the resistor "R" of just 1K in value, then the situation is changed completely. The base of "Tr" can't rise above 0.7V. The first transistor can be ignored due to its very high resistance. That leaves a voltage-divider pair of resistors, the 27K and the 1K, with 11.3 volts across them, stopping the voltage at point "A" from rising above 1.13V instead of the original 12V and transistor "Tr" will only get 0.43 mA instead of the 1.5 mA which was wanted. The transistor "Tr" has effectively a 28K resistor feeding it current from the +12V rail.

One solution would be to raise the current through the first transistor by using a resistor a good deal smaller than the present 27K. Another option is to lower the input current requirement of transistor "Tr" by making it a Darlington pair or by using a transistor with a much higher gain.

**Constructing Prototypes.**
The main options for building a prototype circuit are:

1. A (plug-in) breadboard
2. Electrical screw connector strips.
3. Stripboard
4. A printed circuit board.

1. The typical breadboard unit consists of a matrix of clip holes wired in strips, into which component leads can be pushed to make a circuit. In my opinion, they are best avoided as it takes quite some effort to implement any significant circuit using them, some components do not fit well in the sockets which are small enough to take DIL IC packages, and when you do get a circuit working well on the breadboard, there is no guarantee that it will work well when you attempt to move it to a permanent soldered board:

![Breadboard Diagram]

While a plastic board of this type looks as if it should be quick and easy to use, I have never found it to be so ever since the boards were scaled down in size to take the closely-spaced pins of integrated circuits ("chips"). It is generally difficult to lay the components out in the same pattern as the circuit diagram, and if they are not, then it becomes slow to follow the circuit through on the breadboard layout.
2. The local hardware shop has cheap screw connectors which can be very effective. These come in several sizes and the smaller ones are very convenient for constructing transistor circuitry. They look like this:

Circuits can be assembled very easily, using these connectors and an example might be one of the John Bedini battery pulsing circuits which might have a layout like this:

I have built this circuit using this style of construction and it was very successful indeed, being very quick and easy to construct and it proved to be very tough and effective over a long period of use. The plastic strip has a hole between each connector strip and that allows you to bolt the strip to a base board on which you mount other components, in this case, the pulsing coil and the rotor with the magnets attached. Each connection block can take two or three wires. The wires need to have the insulation removed and the wires scraped clean and shiny if they are not already in that state. If more than one multi-strand wire is being put into one side of a connector, then it is usually best to twist the wires together before tightening the clamping screw. If you want, you can give the twisted wires a thin coat of solder, but this has to be done neatly to avoid producing a joint which is too large to fit into the connector. One connector can be cut out of the strip quite easily, using a pair of scissors or a craft knife. Single connectors can join two wires very effectively without the need to solder them.

While the wire trigger switch is shown as a thin line in the diagram above, it is suggested that it is more convenient to use wires of identical diameter, and if it is not clear which is the beginning and end of a single wire, then, an ohmmeter may be used to identify the ends. It is suggested that the cables are stretched out in a long length and then twisted together using an electric drill. I have found that doing that is not very good because the cable near the drill is twisted much more strongly than the rest of the wire. Also, it needs a considerable distance outside to lay out a sufficient length of wire. If you really want to twist the wires together (it is not immediately obvious why you would want to do that), then use two coils of wire and twist them together for a short length by turning the reels over as a pair, then wind the twisted length on to a third spool or temporary holder. This method does not need for you to set long cables (which tangle and catch on things very easily) and it gives uniformly twisted wires which can be prepared when sitting in a small workspace. The coil of 850 turns is wound like this:
The first strand of the coil starts at point “C” at the base of the coil and finishes at point “A” at the top of the coil. This is the coil which drives the motor with point “A” connected to the Plus of the drive battery. The second strand starts at point “D” at the base of the coil and finishes at point “B” with point “B” connected to the transistor’s base resistor. This arrangement generates a magnetic North field at the top of the coil and that pushes against the rotor’s permanent magnet’s North pole which is the one facing the coil. With the implementation which I used to charge a car battery, the wheel rotation was gentle, giving perhaps 200 to 300 pulses per minute to the battery. The speed of the wheel reduced as the battery charge increased and so a glance at the wheel showed the charge state of the battery. It is recommended that the coil core be made up from lengths of 1.5 millimetre diameter copper coated welding rod, but as copper is highly conductive electrically, I prefer to coat each rod with enamel paint to block sideways eddy currents which waste power.

3. Stripboard, usually called ‘Veroboard’ even if it is not made by Vero, is a quick and satisfactory method, although you have to make very tiny solder joints. Please be aware that the fumes from the burning resin when soldering are most definitely not good for your health and should be avoided by making sure that the ventilation is adequate.

4. A printed circuit board is feasible for a one-off prototype and making one will increase your production skills, so it is also a reasonable option if you have the etching and drilling equipment to hand. Buying all of the necessary equipment if you do not have any, can cost a fair amount, but the skills gained are significant and the finished boards looks very professional.

There are several other methods of construction, and many varieties of construction board and stripboard. Simple stripboard will be used in the following descriptions, although the method does apply to many different styles of construction.

The first step is to produce a layout for the components on the board. When designing the layout provision should be made for drilling holes to allow the completed board to be bolted to its case using bolts and insulating pillars to keep the soldered joints clear of all other surfaces.

The circuit diagram of the circuit to be built is the starting point. You might wish to draw a light grid of lines to represent the matrix of holes in the strip board. This helps to visualise the run of the copper strips and the sketch can be made to show the exact number of holes available on the piece of strip board to be used. The strip board looks like this:

So you might wish to produce a layout sketch re-usable drawing like this:
where the horizontal strips are numbered and the vertical lines of holes are also numbered. In this sketch, where the lines cross, represents a hole in the board. The sketch of a possible physical layout can then be prepared and it might look like this when seen from the top although the copper strips on the underside of the board are shown in the sketch:

![Diagram](image.png)

It is very important when producing a sketch like this, that the copper strips making up the circuit are not accidentally used to connect components further along the board, without breaking the copper strip between the two sections of the board. It helps to mark a copy of the circuit diagram when you are sketching a possible physical layout on the strip board. It might be done like this:

![Diagram](image.png)

Here, the components just below the diode are ringed to show that they have been marked on the layout sketch and, if necessary, the copper strip broken to isolate the components. A component worth mentioning in passing, is the capacitor marked with red in the circuit diagram. This is a decoupling capacitor, fed from the 12V battery via a resistor and a diode (a diode is not normally used in this part of the circuit).
The decoupling is to provide the 555 chip and drivers with a supply which is reasonably isolated from the heavy current-draw circuit not shown in this small section of the circuit diagram. The pulsating heavy current draw of the rest of the circuit is capable of pulling the battery voltage down slightly many times per second. This creates a voltage ripple on the positive supply line from the battery and to smother the ripple, the resistor and diode are used to feed a large reservoir capacitor which smooths out the ripple.

The circuit itself is not beyond criticism. Transistor ‘TR2’ and its associated components are redundant since pin 3 of the 555 chip already supplies the required signal (and with higher drive capacity) so the second output line should be taken directly from pin 3 of the 555 chip. This snippet of circuit is only shown here as an example of marking up a circuit diagram when making a components layout sketch.

As the layout sketch is produced, the circuit diagram should be marked off with a highlighting pen to make sure that every part of the circuit diagram has been successfully copied to the sketch. In the example below, not all of the highlighted strip is shown, since it runs off the small section of the board being shown here:

Many electronic components can be damaged by the high temperatures they are subjected to when being soldered in place. I personally prefer to use a pair of long-nosed pliers to grip the component leads on the upper side of the board while making the solder joint on the underside of the board. The heat running up the component lead then gets diverted into the large volume of metal in the pair of pliers and the component is protected from excessive heat. On the same principle, I always use a DIL socket when soldering a circuit board, that way, the heat has dissipated fully before the IC is plugged into the socket. It also has the advantage that the IC can be replaced without any difficulty should it become damaged.

If you are using CMOS integrated circuits in any construction, you need to avoid static electricity. Very high levels of voltage build up on your clothes through brushing against objects. This voltage is in the thousands of volts range. It can supply so little current that it does not bother you and you probably do not notice it. CMOS devices operate on such low amounts of current that they can very easily be damaged by your static electricity. Computer hardware professionals wear an earthing lead strapped to their wrists when handling CMOS circuitry. There is no need for you to go that far. CMOS devices are supplied with their leads embedded in a conducting material. Leave them in the material until you are ready to plug them into the circuit and then only hold the plastic body of the case and do not touch any of the pins. Once in place in the circuit, the circuit components will prevent the build up of static charges on the chip.

Soldering is an easily-acquired skill. Multi-cored solder is used for electronic circuit soldering. This solder wire has flux resin contained within it and when melted on a metal surface, the flux removes the oxide layer on the metal, allowing a proper electrical joint to be made. Consequently, it is important that the solder is placed on the joint area and the soldering iron placed on it when it is already in position. If this is done, the flux can clean the joint area and the joint will be good. If the solder is placed on the soldering iron and then the iron moved to the joint, the flux will have burnt away before the joint area is reached and the resulting joint will not be good.

A good solder joint will have a smooth shiny surface and pulling any wire going into the joint will have no effect as the wire is now solidly incorporated into the joint. Making a good solder joint takes about half a second and certainly not more than one second. You want to remove the soldering iron from the joint before an excessive

= Copper strip break
amount of heat is run into the joint. It is recommended that a good mechanical joint be made before soldering when connecting a wire to some form of terminal (this is often not possible).

The technique which I use is to stand the solder up on the workbench and bend the end so that it is sloping downwards towards me. The lead of the component to be soldered is placed in the hole in the strip board and gripped just above the board with long-nosed pliers. The board is turned upside down and the left thumb used to clamp the board against the pliers. The board and pliers are then moved underneath the solder and positioned so that the solder lies on the copper strip, touching the component lead. The right hand is now used to place the soldering iron briefly on the solder. This melts the solder on the joint, allowing the flux to clean the area and producing a good joint. After the joint is made, the board is still held with the pliers until the joint has cooled down.

Test Equipment.
When developing new circuitry, it may be convenient to try different values of resistor in some position in the circuit (the resistor value may be dependent on the gain of a transistor or the actual resistance of an ORP12, or some such other situation). For this, it is very convenient to have a resistor-substitution box which allows you to select any standard resistor at the turn of a switch.

These are not readily available on the market. In years gone by, it was possible to buy custom wafer switches, where the number of wafers could be built up to whatever switch size was required, but these do not seem to be available any more. A slightly less convenient method of construction is to use four of these, selected by a second wafer switch:

In the above diagram, all of the resistors in one range (100 ohms to 820 ohms, 1K to 8K2, 10K to 82K or 100K to 820K) are wired to a single 12-way switch. The output wires then have any of these standard resistors across them, depending on the setting of the switch. A second switch can then be used to select several of these groups, while still using the same output wires. When boxed, it might look like this:
It can also be useful to have a versatile signal generator. You can easily construct your own with variable frequency, variable mark/space ratio and optional variable gating. If you do, you might as well make it with a low output impedance so that it can drive devices under test directly rather than having to provide additional buffering. It might look like this:

The really essential item of equipment is a multimeter. These come in many shapes, sizes and varieties and the cost varies enormously. The reliability also varies a great deal. The most reliable and the cheapest is the analogue type which does not use a battery (other than for the occasional measurement of resistance). Although these types are looked down upon nowadays, they are 100% reliable:

The meter shown above is rated at 2,000 ohms per volt, so connecting it to a circuit to make a measurement on the 10V range is the same as connecting a 20K resistor to the circuit. The big brother of this style of equipment is about five times larger and has 30,000 ohms per volt performance, so connecting it on a 10V range is the same as connecting a 300K resistor to the circuit being measured. This one is battery driven, so if you get one of these, may I suggest that you check its accuracy on a regular basis:
The really excellent non-battery (ex-professional) Avo meter multimeters are still available through eBay at affordable prices. These have 30,000 ohms per volt performance and are robust and accurate, having been built to very high standards.

A multimeter uses a 1.5V battery to measure resistance. Ohm's Law is used as the working principle and the operation is:

![Multimeter diagram](image)

The meter shown in the diagram has a small resistance of its own. This has a small variable resistor added to it. This variable resistor will have a small knob mounted on the face of the multimeter, or it will be a thumbwheel knob projecting slightly from the right hand side of the multimeter case. The 1.5V battery will be positioned inside the multimeter case as is the 1K resistor. To use the resistance ranges, the multimeter probes are touched firmly together to form a short-circuit and the variable resistor adjusted so that the meter points to zero.

For the purpose of this discussion, let us assume that the internal resistance of the meter, when correctly adjusted, is exactly 1K. If the resistor under test is exactly 1K in value, then the current through the meter will be halved and the meter will show a needle deflection half way across the scale. If the resistor under test is 2K, then the current will be one third and the scale marking will be at the 1/3 position from the left. If the resistor is 4K, then there will be one fifth (1K + 4K = 5K) of the full-scale current and the 4K mark will be 20% from the left hand side of the scale.

Two things to notice: firstly, the scale has to read from right to left which can take some getting used to, and secondly, the scale is not linear, with the markings getting closer and closer together and consequently, more difficult to mark and read, the higher the value of the resistor being measured. The bunching up of the scale markings is why the more expensive multimeters tend to have more than one range.

A mains-operated oscilloscope is an excellent piece of equipment to own but they are expensive when new. It is possible to pick one up at a reasonable price second-hand via eBay. An oscilloscope is by no means an essential item of equipment. One of its most useful features is the ability to measure the frequency, and display the shape of a waveform. Most waveforms are of known shape so the frequency is the major unknown. The following meter is not expensive and it displays the frequency of a signal on a digital readout:
So, when you are deciding what multimeter to buy, consider the following points:

1. How reliable is it? If you are opting for a battery driven unit, what happens to the accuracy if the battery starts to run down. Does it display a warning that the battery needs to be replaced? Mains-operated digital multimeters are brilliant but are a problem if you want to make measurements away from the mains.

2. What DC voltage ranges does it have? If you are intending to work mainly with 12V circuits, it is inconvenient for the ranges to be 9V and 30V as successive ranges. Digital meters do not have this problem but the question then is, how accurate are they going to be in day to day use?

3. Transistor testing options you can ignore - you are better off making your own dedicated unit to check transistors if you think you will ever need to do this - you probably won't.

4. Measuring current can be very useful so see what ranges are offered.

5. Measuring capacitance is very useful, especially since many capacitors are not well marked to indicate their value.

6. Measuring the frequency of a waveform could be a significant bonus but the question is; are you every likely to need it?

7. Measuring resistance is very useful. Every meter has it. There is no need to be over fancy on measurement ranges as you usually only need to know the approximate answer - is it a 1K resistor or a 10K resistor?

Look around and see what is available, how much it costs and what appeals to you. It might not be a bad idea to buy a really cheap multimeter and use it for a while to see if it has any shortcomings which are a nuisance, and if so, what improvements you personally want from a more expensive meter.

**The ‘Bench’ Power Supply.**

It might be worth getting a fancy bench power supply which allows you to set any voltage you want and which displays the current being drawn by your development circuit:
However, there is no need to spend money on a fancy unit when you can build an excellent unit of your own with voltage stabilisation, adjustable output, metered current, etc. etc. Personally, if developing a circuit to be used with a battery, I believe you are better off powering the development from a battery, that way the characteristics of the battery are included in any tests which you carry out.

If you wish, you can construct a very convenient development test bed power supply system. This has the advantage that you can make it in the most convenient style for your own use. You can also make the protection ultra-sensitive and build in additional circuitry such as transistor tester and resistor substitution box to produce an integrated test bed. You could perhaps use a circuit like this:

![Circuit diagram](image)

Here, the power is supplied by a pack of re-chargeable Ni-Cad batteries or possibly, a mains unit with voltage stabilisation. As in all actual circuits, the next thing in the circuit is always an on/off switch so that the power source can be disconnected immediately should any problem arise. Next, as always, comes a fuse or circuit breaker, so that should the problem be serious, it can disconnect the circuit faster than you can react. If you wish, you can build your own super-accurate adjustable circuit breaker to use in this position.

The two transistors and three resistors form an adjustable, stabilised output. The FET transistor has a high output power handling capacity and a very low input power requirement and so is good for controlling the output voltage.
Resistor ‘VR1’ is padded with the 4K7 resistor solely to reduce the voltage across the variable resistor. VR1 is adjusted to control the output voltage. If the current draw is increased and the output voltage is pulled down slightly, then the voltage on the base of the BC109 transistor is reduced. This starts to turn the transistor off, raising the voltage at point ‘A’, which in turn, raises the output voltage, opposing the variation caused by the load.

The output is monitored, firstly by a large milliammeter to show the current draw and secondly, on the output side of the milliammeter, a voltmeter. This allows very close monitoring of the power supplied to the prototype, especially if the milliammeter is placed alongside the prototype. You can build this circuit into a wide flat box which provides a working surface beside the milliammeter.

At point ‘B’ in the above diagram, a method for altering the current range of the milliammeter by placing a ‘shunt’ resistor across it. When the switch is closed, some current flows through the resistor and some through the milliammeter. This resistor has a very low value, so you are better off making it yourself. Let’s say we wish to double the range of the meter. Solder the switch across the meter and for the resistor use a length of enamelled copper wire wound around a small former. Put a load on the output so that the meter shows a full-scale deflection. Close the switch. If the current displayed is exactly half of what it was, if not, switch off, remove some wire to lower the reading or add some wire to raise the reading and repeat the test until exactly half the current is displayed. The lower the value of the shunt resistor, the more current flows through it and the less through the meter, which then gives a lower reading.

Please note: it is very important to have a fuse or circuit breaker in the power being delivered to your test circuit. Any error in building the prototype can cause a major current to be drawn from the supply and this can be dangerous. Remember, you can’t see the current. Even if you have a meter on the current being delivered, you may not notice the high reading. The first sign of trouble may be smoke! You can easily fry the circuit you are building if you do not have a safety cut-off, so use a fuse or other device which limits the current to twice what you are expecting the circuit to draw.

So, after all that, what equipment do you really need? You need a small soldering iron and multicore solder, a pair of long-nosed pliers and a multimeter. One other thing is some tool to cut wires and remove the insulation prior to soldering. Personal preferences vary. Some people prefer one of the many custom tools, some people use a knife, I personally use a pair of straight nail scissors. You pick whatever you are comfortable with.

Not exactly a vast array of essential equipment. The other items mentioned are not by any means essential so I suggest that you start by keeping things simple and use a minimum of gear.

If you are not familiar with electronics, I suggest that you get a copy of the Maplin catalogue, either from one of their shops or via the [http://www.maplin.co.uk](http://www.maplin.co.uk) web site. Go through it carefully as it will show you what components are available, how much they cost and often, how they are used. The specifications of almost any semiconductor can be found free at [http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr](http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr) in the form of an Adobe Acrobat document.

Finally, because it is not important, all of the circuitry shown so far has indicated current flowing from the + of a battery to the - terminal. The discovery of voltage was made by Volta but he had no way of knowing which way the current was flowing, so he guessed. He had a 50 - 50 chance of getting it right but he was not lucky and got it wrong. Electrical current is actually a flow of electrons, and these flow from the battery minus to the battery plus. So, who cares? Almost nobody, as it has no practical effect on any of the circuitry. Some useful websites:

http://www.esr.co.uk for components
http://www.maplin.co.uk for components
http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr for semiconductor specifications
http://www.cricklewoodelectronics.com for components
http://www.greenweld.co.uk for components

The Oscilloscope.

If you do decide that you are going to research new equipment, design and possibly invent new devices, then an oscilloscope is useful. Let me stress again that this is not an essential item of equipment and most certainly is not needed until you are quite familiar with constructing prototypes. It is quite easy to misread the settings of an oscilloscope and the methods of operation take some getting used to. The low-cost book “How to Use Oscilloscopes and Other Test Equipment” by R.A. Penfold, ISBN 0 85934 212 3 might well be helpful when starting to use a ‘scope.

It is possible to get an oscilloscope at reasonable cost by buying second-hand through eBay. The best scopes are ‘dual trace’ which means that they can display the input waveform and the output waveform on screen at the same time. This is a very useful feature, but because it is, the scope which have that facility sell at higher prices.

http://www.esr.co.uk for components
http://www.maplin.co.uk for components
http://www.alldatasheet.co.kr for semiconductor specifications
http://www.cricklewoodelectronics.com for components
http://www.greenweld.co.uk for components
The higher the frequency which the scope can handle, the more useful it is, but again, the higher the selling price. Not all scopes are supplied with (the essential) ‘test probes’, so it might be necessary to buy them separately if the seller wants to keep his. Getting the manual for the scope is also a decided plus. A low cost scope might look like this:

Measuring Magnetic Field Strength.
People who experiment with permanent magnets, can make use of an instrument which displays the strength of a magnetic field. Professionally made devices to do this tend to be well outside the purchasing power of the average experimenter who will already have spent money on materials for his prototypes. Here is a design for a simple and cheap circuit, powered by four AA dry cell batteries, and utilising a Hall-effect semiconductor as the sensor:

This design uses an OP77GP operational amplifier chip to boost the output signal from the A1302 chip which is a Hall-effect device. The gain of the DC-connected operational amplifier is set by the ratio of the 1K and 1M fixed resistors shown shaded in the circuit diagram, giving a gain of 1,000.

The circuit operation is simple. The six-volt battery charges the 10 microfarad capacitor which helps iron out any supply line fluctuations caused by varying current draw by the circuit. The 10K variable resistor is used to set the
output meter display to zero when the Hall-effect device is not near any magnet. The 1K variable resistor is there
to make fine tuning adjustments easier.

When the A1302 chip encounters a magnetic field, the voltage on its output pin 3 changes. This change is
magnified a thousand times by the OP77GP amplifier. It's output on pin 6 is connected to one side of the display
meter and the other side of the meter is connected to point "A". The voltage on point "A" is about half the battery
voltage. It would be exactly half the voltage if the two 4.7K resistors were exactly the same value. This is rather
unlikely as there is a manufacturing tolerance, typically around 10% of the nominal value of the resistor. The
exact value of the voltage on point "A" is matched by the OP77GP tuning and so the meter reads zero until a
magnetic field is encountered. When that happens, the meter deflection is directly proportional to the strength of
the magnetic field.

The Weird Stuff.
You don’t need to know the following information, so please feel free to skip it and move on to something else.

The presentation shown above is based on the conventional view of electronics and electrical power as taught in
schools and colleges. This information and concepts works well for designing and building circuits, but that does
not mean that it is wholly correct. Unfortunately, the world is not as simple as is generally made out.

For example, it is said that current is a flow of electrons passing through the wires of a circuit at the speed of light.
While it is true that some electrons do actually flow through the metal of the wires, the small percentage of
electrons which actually do that, do it quite slowly as they have to negotiate their way through the lattice of the
molecules of metal making up the body of the wires.

In spite of this, when the On/Off switch of a circuit is flipped on, the circuit powers up immediately, no matter how
long the wires are. The reason for this is that electrical current flows along the wires at very high speed indeed,
but it flows rapidly along the outside of the wires, not rapidly through the wires. One thousandth of a second
after switching on a circuit, the electrons flowing through the wires have hardly got started, while the current
flowing along the outside of the wires has gone all around the circuit and back:

The above sketch does not show the proportions correctly, as the current flow spiralling along the outside of the
wire should be hundreds of thousands of times longer than shown, which is not practical in a diagram.

The actual path taken by current flow makes the surface of the wire of particular importance, and the insulation
material is also of great importance. In years gone by, wire manufacturers used to anneal (cool down) copper
wires in air. This created a layer of cupric oxide on the outer surface of copper wires, and that layer gave the wire
different characteristics than copper wire has today. William Barbat in his patent application claims that the cupric
oxide layer can be utilised in making devices with greater power output than the power input from the user.

Unfortunately, the world is not quite as simple as that, as power flowing in a circuit has at least two components.
The electrical current which we measure with ammeters is as described above and is sometimes referred to as
"hot" electricity as when it flows through components, it tends to heat them up. But there is another component
referred to as "cold" electricity, so named because it tends to cool components down when it flows through them.
For example, if the output wires of Floyd Sweet's VTA device were short circuited together, frost would form on
the device due to the heavy flow of "cold" electricity, and getting a "shock" from it could give you frostbite instead
of a burn.

"Cold" electricity is not something new, it has always been there as it is just one aspect of "electricity". It has not
been investigated much by conventional science because none of the instruments used to measure "hot"
electricity, react to "cold" electricity at all. (Actually, "hot" electricity, "cold" electricity and magnetism are all
features of a single entity which should really be called "electromagnetism").

Now the spooky bit: "cold" electricity does not flow along or through the wire at all. Instead, it flows in the space
around the wire, possibly riding on the magnetic field caused by the "hot" current. Thomas Henry Moray is
famous for building a device which captured "cold" electricity and produced a massive power output capable of
powering a whole host of ordinary electrical pieces of equipment. In his many public demonstrations before he
was intimidated into silence and his equipment smashed, he invited members of the audience to bring a piece of
ordinary glass with them. Then, when his circuit was powering a row of lights, he would cut one of the wires and
insert the piece of glass between the cut ends of the wires. This had no noticeable effect on his circuit, with the power flowing happily through the glass and on through his circuit, powering the lights just as before. That does not happen with “hot” electricity, but as the “cold” electricity is not flowing through or along the surface of the wire, a break in the wire is not a major obstacle to it.

We still do not know very much about “cold” electricity. Edwin Gray snr. demonstrated light bulbs powered by “cold” electricity being submerged in water. Not only did the bulbs continue to operate unaffected by the water, but Edwin often put his hand in the water along with the lit bulb, suffering no ill effects from doing so. Neither of those two effects are possible with conventional electricity, so please don’t try them to check it out.

Another interesting item is the water-powered car system produced by an American man Nathren Armour. His system, (among other things) involves feeding extra electrical power to the spark plugs. One thing which has always puzzled him is that the engine will not run with just one wire going to the spark plug cap. He has to have a second wire running from his extra power supply to the body of the plug where it screws into the engine block. Take that wire away and the engine stops. Put it back again and the engine runs. But according to conventional electrics, that wire cannot possibly be needed, because the engine block is grounded and the power supply output is grounded, so in theory, there is no voltage difference between the ends of the wire, therefore no current can flow along the wire, hence the wire is not needed and has no function. Well, that is true for “hot” electricity, but it seems possible that the Nathren Armour system is using “cold” electricity as well as “hot” electricity and the “cold” electricity needs the extra wire as a flow guide to the spark plug.

Enough about that for now. Let’s go one step further into the “weirdness” of the actual world. If, three hundred years ago, you had described X-rays, gamma rays, nuclear energy and TV signals to the average well-educated person, you would have run a considerable risk of being locked up as being mad. If you do it today, your listener would probably just be bored as he already knows all this and accepts it as a matter of fact (which it is). Please bear that in mind when you read the following information. If it seems strange and far-fetched, that is only because conventional science today is lagging badly behind and still teaching things which have been conclusively proven to be wrong decades ago.

If you lived in a desert and every day a company drove in with a lorry-load of sand and sold it to you for a large amount of money, what would you think about that? Not a very good deal for you, is it? What’s that you say, you would never do that? But you already do, because you don’t realise that the sand is all around you ready for the taking at next to no cost at all. Several people have tried to publicise the fact, but the sand company has immediately silenced them by one means or another. The company does not want to lose the business of selling you the sand and definitely doesn’t want you to start picking it up for yourself for free.

Well... to be perfectly fair, it is not actually sand, it is energy, and it is all around us, free for the taking. Sound a bit like X-rays did three hundred years ago? Doesn’t mean that it is not true. It is perfectly true. The design of all computers made today is based on the equations of Quantum Mechanics, and while those equations are not yet perfect, they are easily good enough for practical purposes. The snag is that the world seen at the level of the quantum is not much like the world we think that we see around us and which we think that we understand fully. Examining the world at the quantum level shows that we live in a seething mass of incredible energy. Einstein is famous for stating that Mass equals a very large amount of Energy, a fact that is shown clearly when an atomic bomb is detonated. Put in different words, a small amount of matter is the equivalent of a very large amount of energy. Actually, Energy and Matter are two different aspects of a single thing (which could reasonably be called “Mass-Energy”).

At the quantum level, it can be seen that particles of matter pop into existence and drop out again into energy on a continuous basis, everywhere in the whole of the universe. The whole universe is seething with energy. That energy doesn’t bother us any more than water bothers a fish, as we evolved in this sea of energy and we just don’t notice it. It doesn’t harm us, but if we wanted, and knew how, we could use as much of that energy as we wanted for ever and ever. The amount of that energy is unbelievable. It has been calculated that one cubic centimetre anywhere in the universe contains enough energy to create all of the matter we can see in the whole of the universe. Think how many cubic centimetres there are in the Earth ... the Solar System ... our Galaxy ... If every person on Earth were to run their vehicles, power their homes, fly their planes, etc. etc. for the next million years, it would not make the slightest dent in the energy contained in one cubic millimetre of the universe. This is not a theory, it is a fact. (Would you like to buy a big pile of sand? - I’ve got a load just over here...). This big energy field has gone under different names over the years. A popular name at the present time is the “Zero-Point Energy Field” and it is responsible for everything that happens in the universe. It powers life itself. It balances out in equilibrium everywhere, which is one reason which makes it hard to realise that it is all around us.

Tom Bearden is an American man with very considerable abilities and considerable in-depth knowledge of how the world actually operates. His statements are generally based on laboratory-proven criteria backed up by his high level of mathematical skills which give him an additional grasp of things. He explains how electricity actually works in circuits, and it is nothing like the system taught in schools and colleges. We think that when we attach a
battery to an electrical circuit, the battery forces a current through the wires of the circuit. Sorry Chief - it is actually nothing like that at all. The power in the circuit comes directly from the Zero-Point Energy Field and has very little to do with the battery at all. We tend to think of “using up” power, but that is just not possible. Energy cannot be destroyed or “used up” the most you can do to it is to change it from one form to another. It will perform “work” (power equipment, generate heat, generate cold...) when it changes from one form to another, but if you reverse the process and convert it back to it’s original form, it will perform another lot of “work” during the conversion and end up back in exactly the same state as it started out from, in spite of having performed two lots of “work” during the operation.

A battery does not provide energy to power a circuit. Instead, what happens is that the chemical action inside the battery causes negative charges to gather at the “minus” terminal of the battery and positive charges to gather together at the “plus” terminal of the battery. These two close-together “poles” of the battery are called a “dipole” (two opposite poles near each other) and they have an effect on the Zero-Point Energy Field which is everywhere. The “Plus” pole of the battery causes a massive cluster of Zero-Point Energy Field negative charges to cluster around it. In the same way, the “Minus” pole of the battery causes a massive gathering of ZPE (“Zero-Point Energy”) positive charges to gather around it. Not only do these charges gather around the poles of the battery, but an imbalance in the energy field is created and the ZPE charges continue to arrive at the poles and they radiate out in every direction in a continuous stream of incredible energy.

So, there is your shiny new battery sitting there, not connected to anything and yet it causes massive energy streams to radiate out from its terminals in every direction. We don’t notice it, because the energy flows freely through us and we can’t feel it and none of our conventional instruments, such as voltmeters, ammeters, oscilloscopes, etc. react to it at all.

The situation changes immediately if we connect a circuit to the battery. The circuit provides a flow path for the ZPE energy to flow along, and a significant amount of energy flows near the wires of the circuit, actually powering the circuit for a split second until it reaches the battery “pole” at the far end of the circuit. When it gets there it promptly wipes out the pole, destroying it completely. The ZPE field calms down and the energy flow ceases. But our trusty battery immediately does it all again, using it’s chemical energy to create the “dipole” once more, and the imbalance of the ZPE field starts again. It is because the battery has to use it’s chemical energy all the time, creating and re-creating, and re-creating it’s “dipole” that it runs down and eventually ceases to be able to create the dipole any more - result: no more power in the circuit.

Sorry to spoil the illusion, but the battery never did power the circuit itself, it merely acted as channelling device for the Zero-Point Energy Field. In passing, Direct Current (“DC”) is actually not a continuous current at all, but instead it is a stream of DC pulses at an incredibly high frequency - way higher than we can measure at present. The speed of the pulses is so great that it looks continuous to us, a bit like the individual still pictures which are the frames of a movie, appear to be a moving image to us if they are played one after the other at a rate of 25 per second - it looks like continuous movement to us, but in reality, it is a rapid series of still pictures.

The way that a battery “dipole” works on the Zero-Point Energy Field is rather like the way that a magnifying glass acts on sunlight. The rays of the sun get concentrated into a point, focused by the lens. You can start a fire with the lens, and it would be easy to think that the lens started the fire, when in actual fact, it is the rays of the sun that started the fire and the lens just influenced a local area of the large “field” of sunlight, raising the temperature at just one point.

While we tend to think of a “dipole” being generated by a battery, the same effect is also created by a magnet, whether an electromagnet or a permanent magnet - remember that electricity and magnetism are two faces of the same entity. It is possible, but not easy, to capture the energy streaming out from the interference with the ZPE field caused by the poles of a magnet. For example, Hans Coler managed to do this with a completely passive device which, when set up correctly, could produce electrical power, hour after hour from apparently “nothing” (well, actually, the ZPE field). Roy Meyers also did it with his patented array of magnets and zinc plates - completely passive, with no moving parts at all, no battery and no circuitry.

Patrick Kelly

www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/
www.free-energy-info.com
Chapter 13: Doubtful Devices

This chapter covers a number of devices which either are unlikely to work, or which have too little practical information available to assist replication attempts. This selection, is of course, a matter of opinion.

Paul Baumann’s “Thestatika” Machine.
This device is a perfect example of a free-energy device as it powers itself and provides kilowatts of excess mains electrical power. It is in this section, not because its operation is "doubtful" in any way, but because the design has never been fully disclosed. It was developed by the late Paul Baumann who was part of a Swiss commune which is not willing to explain its operation. This “Thestatika” or “Testatika” machine works beautifully and has a very high quality of workmanship. It has two electrostatic discs which are initially rotated by hand and which then continue to rotate driven by the power produced by the device.

There are various ideas as to how the device operates. The Swiss commune no longer shows this device to people as they have the theory that "mankind" is not ready to have, or use free-energy. They have always refused to show what is inside the large cylinders mounted on each side of the device. D. A. Kelly’s 1991 document provides some very perceptive comments on this device. He says:

The "Swiss M-L Converter" is a fully symmetrical, influence-type energy converter which is essentially based on the Wimshurst electrostatic generator with its twin counter-rotating discs where metallic foil sectors generate and carry small charges of electricity to be stored in matched capacitors. In Wimshurst units, diagonal neutralising brushes on each opposite disc distribute the correct charges to the sectors as they revolve, but in the M-L converter this is carried out by a crystal diode which has a higher efficiency.

Two brushes collect the accumulating charges and conduct them to the storage capacitor located at the top of this device. The device has two horseshoe magnets with matched coils and a hollow cylindrical magnet as part of the diode function, and two Leyden jars which apparently serve as the final capacitor function for the converter. The use of top grade components such as gold-plated contacts, control electrodes and dual capacitor stages, insure much higher conversion efficiencies than those available with a Wimshurst machine. The details of the operating prototype are:

1. Efficiency: The unit is started by hand and no other input power is required.
2. Constant power output: 300 volts at 10 amps = 3 kilowatts.
3. Dimensions: 43.31" (1100 mm) wide, 23.62" (600 mm) tall, 17.72" (450 mm) deep.
4. Weight: 44 lbs (20 Kg).
5. Operating speed: 60 rpm. (low speed - one revolution per second).

The twin discs are made of acrylic (plastic) and the metallic segments are steel, which causes the Searle Effect with electromagnetic conversion made at the rim of the discs through passive electromagnets. This is an ideal converter since both high voltage AC and moderate AC amperage can be generated simultaneously via two separate electrical circuits from the discs. The conventional conductive brushes pick off the high voltage AC while the rim electromagnet coils produce useful amperage. When permanent horseshoe magnets with coils are used, then the output power is enhanced to a considerable extent as shown by the above output specifications.

The self-propulsion after hand-starting the discs is achieved through the adoption of the Poggendorff principle (a German scientist of the 1870s) in which slanted conductive brushes produce self-rotation in electrostatic motors (not generators).

The special crystal diode module probably provides the dual functions of frequency regulation and capacitance amplifier - to the two Leyden jars - as part of the electrical resonance circuit, since it is connected with the horseshoe magnet coils.

This device is comprised of three separate electrical circuits:
1. The high voltage AC output from the twin electrostatic discs.
2. A moderate AC amperage circuit provided by the dual horseshoe magnet coils (Searle Effect) as the plus and minus discs pass by them. (Pulsed DC output at 50 Hz).
3. A resonant circuit in which the horseshoe magnet coils are connected to the diode capacitor so that frequency regulation is assured. The diode capacitor is then connected to the Leyden jar, transmitter unit.
The major physical principles involved in this outstanding composite unit are:

1. Electrostatic conversion using twin discs for positive output from one and negative output from the other.

2. The evidence of the Searle Effect from the use of multiple, identical steel segments inducing and EMF in electromagnets at the rim of the discs.

3. The Ecklin principle is also in evidence, since the steel segments pass by permanent horseshoe magnets, as in Ecklin's S.A.G. units.

4. The Poggendorff self-rotating electrostatic motor principle as described above.

5. The crystal capacitance function of the crystal diode module. The full operation of this unique component with its hollow cylindrical permanent magnet, is a composite component with the dual functions of distributing the correct charges to the sectors, and maintaining the output frequency at the desired value.

The M-L Converter is completely symmetrical with two acrylic discs, a light metal lattice, insulated copper wires, a secret crystal-diode rectifier, and gold-plated electrical connections. These machines have been developed over a period of twenty years.

In electrostatic generators, the air molecules between the two acrylic discs which counter-rotate closely side by side, become electrically activated by friction. This causes the discs to be continually charged until a flashover equalises the charge on them. To limit the voltage to the desired amount, the positively charged
particles on one of the discs and the negatively charged particles on the other disc are each extracted by means of separately adjustable lattice-electrodes, and are fed into a Leyden jar which collects the energy. The speed of the discs which have 50 lattice electrodes, is 60 rpm which produces a 50 Hz pulsed DC output. This speed is synchronised by magnetic impulses.

The unit is hand started by revolving the two discs in opposite directions until the Converter is charged up enough to synchronise itself and continues to rotate smoothly and noiselessly without any external source of input power. A centrally mounted disc of about 4" (100 mm) in diameter glimmers with all the colours of the rainbow. After a few seconds the Leyden jars are ready for operation and 300 volts DC with a current of 10 amps can be drawn from the device for any desired length of time. On many occasions, demonstrations have been made of the power available from the device. Heating elements, lights and hand power tools can be run from the device.

This suggested explanation of the M-L Converter contains a number of very interesting points. It has seemed mysterious that the electrostatic discs continued to rotate on their own without any visible motor driving them. Mr Kelly, who has seen the device and its operation, suggests that there are sloping brushes pressing against the front and rear faces of the twin electrostatic discs and that these are supplied with electrical current from the horseshoe magnet coils and that acts as a motor which drives the discs onwards once they have been started. He also suggests that the fifty steel segments per second which pass between the poles of the horseshoe magnets cause a rapidly fluctuating magnetic field through the magnet coils, which makes them operate as an Ecklin electrical generator, as described elsewhere in this eBook.

Mr D. A. Kelly also suggests that the two cylinders seen on the M-L Converter, are Leyden jar capacitors and that they work together as described by Sir Oliver Lodge (whose book is on this website). This is a very interesting suggestion, but it does not explain why the people in the Swiss commune refuse point-blank to let anyone see what is inside those cylinders.

There is a video produced by Don Kelly (presumably, a different person) which puts forward another theory of operation. He suggests that each of the cylinders contains a bi-filar coil on a barium ferrite magnet:

![Diagram of barium ferrite bar](image)

However, he describes the barium ferrite magnet as being the same type as used in radio receivers, and they are standard "ferrite rods" which are not permanent magnets as far as I am aware. Don suggests that the output from the high-voltage electrostatic discs gets fed directly to these coils and then on via a series connection to the coils around the horseshoe magnets. He envisages the bi-filar coil amplifying the current and the electrostatic discs being rotated by a standard low-voltage DC motor.
Another possibility is that the jars also contain a spark gap and surrounding copper pick-up shells and as the machine operates silently, the jars have a vacuum inside them. That would provide silent operation and explain why the people in the commune could not open them for inspection. It seems very clear that we just don't know exactly how this device operates.

One very interesting fact which has been reported by the Swiss group is that if a series of copper, aluminium and Perspex sheets are placed in a magnetic field, they generate a high voltage. This is worth investigating. It is not clear if the magnetic field should be constant or oscillating. The sequence of plates is said to be: cpacpacpacpa ("c" being copper, "p" being ‘Perspex’ (acrylic or ‘Plexiglas’) and “a” being aluminium).

The following set-up might be worth investigating:

There is good information on the Testatika at [http://peswiki.com/index.php/PowerPedia:Testatika](http://peswiki.com/index.php/PowerPedia:Testatika) but unfortunately, the bottom line is that nobody knows how to replicate Paul Baumann’s excellent machine.


**The ‘Romag’ and ‘Mini-Romag’ Generators.**

These generators have been displayed on the internet for some considerable time now. They can be found on the Jean-Louis Naudin website: [http://jnaudin.free.fr/html/mromag.htm](http://jnaudin.free.fr/html/mromag.htm)
The Mini Romag generator from Magnetic Energy uses the principle of moving magnetic flow named "the magnetic current" for generating electrical power. According to Magnetic Energy this generator is able to produce 3.5 volts, 7A DC (24 Watts) of free electricity plus sufficient power to sustain itself.

This generator needs to be started by using an external motor to rotate it at 2,100 rpm for some 42 seconds. After this, the energy flow is established in the Romag generator and the external motor can be removed and the free electrical energy output can be used.

The starting procedure generates magnetic energy within the six coils of copper wire, the copper tube supporting these coils and the copper coated steel wires wrapped around the magnets. This charging is accomplished while the six coil connection wires, (shown as 22 in the above drawing), are making contact and setting up their alternating magnetic poles. After the 42 second start-up time one of these coil connection wires is opened by switch (24 above) leaving the working load in its place. The load (23 above) can draw 7 amps. As current is drawn from the six coils, it sets up magnetic poles which react with the rotor magnets maintaining the rotation. The main shaft is rotated by the 12 permanent magnets as they attract and build a release field. Then the driver unit (hand crank or motor) is disconnected allowing the unit to continue rotating with the load being the **activating** driving force.
Construction:
If you decide to attempt to build one of these units we suggest using the stated materials:
1. Aluminium Base Plate
2. Sleeve Bearing of oil impregnated brass, 1” long, 0.5” inside diameter.
3. Brass Shaft, 4” long, 0.5” outside diameter
4. Rotor, brass 1.75” long, 2” diameter,
5. Six rotor slots, each 1.75” long, 0.26” deep, 0.72” wide. These slots are spaced exactly 60 degrees apart.
6. One slot cut in centre of Brass Rotor, 360 degrees around, 0.25” wide by 0.313” deep.
7. 12 slots (produced from the six slots when the 360 degree cut is made). Each slot is lined with mica insulation, 0.01” thick.
8. A total of 228 pieces of U-shaped copper coated steel wires, 0.04” thick. Each slot (7 above) has 19 pieces of these wires fitted into the Mica, thus these wires do not contact the Brass rotor. The leading edge of these wires is flush with the Rotor’s outer surface and the trailing edge protrudes 1/8” above the Rotor’s outer diameter.
9. Each of the 12 magnets receives eleven complete turns of 0.032” thick copper coated steel wire. These 11 turns or ‘wraps’ accumulate to 3/8” wide and the same pattern is placed around all 12 magnets. When placed into the bent wires (8 above), they form a snug fit making firm contact.
10. Twelve pieces of mylar insulation, 0.005” thick, are inserted into the cores of the wires (9 above).
11. The twelve permanent magnets, insulated with the mylar, must not contact wires of 9). These magnets measure 3/4” long, 5/8” wide, 3/8” thick and are made of a special composition and strength. Alnico 4, M-60; 12 AL, 28 Ni, 5 Cobalt Fe, Isotropic permanent magnet material cooled in magnetic field, Cast 9100 TS. 450 Brin. 2.2 Peak energy product. When inserted in the rotor the outer faces of these 12 magnets are not to be machined to a radius. The centre of these magnets pass the centre of the coils with 3/32” clearance. The edges, where the wires are wrapped, pass 1/32” away from the coils. This ‘changing magnet spacing’ aids in not only the release cycle but also contributes to rotational movement. (Sharp magnet edges which are facing the coils are to be sanded to a small smooth radius.)
12. Make sure that the magnets are placed in the Rotor with the polarity shown in the diagram.
13. The 12 magnet wire wraps are divided into two sections; 6 upper and 6 lower. There are no connections between these sections. The magnetic flow direction between the upper 6 wraps and the lower 6 wraps is attained by the ‘flow direction’. The wires are wrapped around the magnet starting at the top ‘north’ half and then after 11 complete turns the wire exits at the lower ‘south’ half. As this wire then goes to the next magnet it arrives at an attract wire which is its ‘north’ side. Thus all wires get interconnected from south to north magnet half or north to south magnet half. The actual connections should be crimped copper clips (not solder) with insulation tubing to prevent contact to the Rotor body.
14. A 0.03” thick copper tube (stiff material) 2” long by 2½” inside diameter.
15. Six slots are cut at the top of tube #14. These slots are 5/8” wide by 1/32” deep spaced at 60 degrees apart.
16. Six slots are cut at the bottom of tube #14. These slots are 5/8” wide by 5/16” deep and in line with the upper slots #15.
17. There are six copper tube mounting points.
18. An acrylic ring is used to hold Part #14, measuring 3.75” outer diameter and 2.25” inner diameter, 3/8” thick, bolted directly to Part #1. This ring has a 0.03” wide groove cut 0.25” deep to allow the six copper tube mounting points to be inserted (part 17).
19. Plastic insulation paper, 0.002" thick, is to be placed around the inside and outside of Part #14.

20. There are six coils of insulated copper wire, each coil having 72 turns of .014 thick wire. Each coil is wound with two layers, the bottom layer completely fills the 5/8" wide slot with 45 turns and the top layer spans 5/16" wide with 27 turns. To be sure each coil has the exact wire length of 72 turns, a sample length wire is wrapped then unwound to serve as a template for six lengths. A suggested coil winding method is to fill a small spool with one length then by holding the copper tube at the lower extension, then start at the plus wire in Figure 2 and temporarily secure this wire to the outer surface of the tube.

21. Next, place the pre-measured spool of wire inside the tube, wrapping down and around the outside advancing clockwise until the 5/8" slot is filled with 45 turns. Then, return this wire back across the top of the coil for 15/32" and winding in the same direction again advance clockwise placing the second layer spanned for 5/16" with 27 turns. This method should have the second layer perfectly centered above the first layer. After winding this coil, repeat the process, filling the small spool with another length of pre-measured wire. A very important magnetic response happens as all six coils have their second layers spaced in this way.

22. Item 22 above shows the connection pattern for six coils. When the unit is driven at start-up (hand crank) for 42 seconds at 2100 RPM, all six jumper wires must be together which means the plus wire goes to the minus wire connected by the start switch. After 42 seconds the load is added to the circuit and the start switch is opened. To double check your connections between the coils, note that the finish wire of coil #1 goes to the finish wire of coil #2, which is top layer to top layer. This pattern then has start of coil 2 (bottom layer) going to start of coil 3 (also bottom layer). When the copper tube with the coils is placed around the rotor, the distance from any magnet to any coil must be identical. If it measures different, acrylic holding shapes can be bolted to the aluminium base, protruding upward, and thus push the copper tube in the direction needed to maintain the spacing as stated.

23. Wires to load.

24. Wires to start switch.

25. Rotational direction which is clock—wise when viewing from top down.


27. Coating of clear acrylic to solidify rotor. Do not use standard motor varnish. Pre-heat the rotor and then dip it into heated liquid acrylic. After removal from dip tank, hand rotate until the acrylic hardens, then balance rotor. For balancing procedure, either add brass weights or remove brass as needed by drilling small holes into rotor on its heavy side.

28. Insulation tubing on all connections.

29. Shaft for start purposes and speed testing (if desired).

The reason that this generator is included in this chapter is because the construction is quite complex. Also, the plans have been around for several years without my being aware of anyone constructing or operating one of these units other than J.L. Naudin.

The Frolov / Moller Atomic Hydrogen Generator.

One already successful experiment has been shown at the J.L. Naudin website where many successful tests were performed. Alexander Frolov remarks that due to the water pump being externally powered, the results shown by J.L. Naudin are not quite accurate although the error is not significant for power levels below one kilowatt, and so the performance is actually very slightly less than that reported.

This system started with William Lyne’s concept which he published in his book “Occult Ether Systems” in 1997. In 1999, Nikolas Moller bought a copy of Lyne’s book and drew the attention of Alexander Frolov to the idea. Alexander then worked on the idea and produced both the present theory and design. A joint project was then started between Alexander’s Faraday Company Ltd. of St. Petersburg in Russia (www.faraday.ru) and Nikolas’ company Spectrum Ltd.

The prototype shown in the photograph below, was then built by Alexander and passed to Nikolas where it was tested extensively. The exact process involved in the energy gain has only recently been fully disclosed in Alexander’s book entitled “New Energy Sources”.

The technique used involves repeatedly converting a quantity of hydrogen gas from its diatomic state (H₂ where two hydrogen atoms are bonded together to form a stable molecule), to its monatomic state H-H (where two hydrogen atoms remain as separate atoms, not closely bonded together) and back again to it’s original form.

No hydrogen is consumed. No additional gas is required. The gas is just converted from one state to the other, repeatedly. The problem for conventional science is that the output power measured in tests is considerably greater than the input power in carefully measured tests which were run for periods of more
than half an hour each. The additional power is flowing in from the Zero-Point Energy field due to an energy extraction mechanism caused by the collision of molecules which have very different atomic weights. This is explained by Dr Frolov in his paper: [http://alexfrolov.narod.ru/mac.html](http://alexfrolov.narod.ru/mac.html) where the energy imbalance is described in detail. In it, he observes that the theory shows clearly that an input of 1,400 watts is capable of producing an output of 7,250 watts due to the impact energy imbalance between high-mass and low-mass molecules when they collide.

Here is a photograph of the development assembly built by Alexander Frolov and then used in the testing phase of the system:

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**Jesse McQueen's System.**

There is a US patent which was granted to Jesse McQueen in 2006. This system looks too good to be true and, on the surface, appears impossible, even taking into account that it has been said that ordinary vehicle alternators have a Coefficient Of Performance over one (i.e. output energy is greater than the energy that the user has to put into the device to make it operate). I am not aware of anybody who has tried this system, so I have no evidence that it doesn’t work - just a lack of belief in a system of this type being able to operate as described. As against that, it is not far from the proven system of Chas Campbell (chapter 4) and the US Patent office has granted this patent and they have a reputation of being highly opposed to admitting that there is any such thing as a “perpetual motion machine”, which this system appears to be. So, I leave it up to you to make up your own mind, and test the system if you wish, which should be easy to do as it involves no real construction, but instead, uses off-the-shelf manufactured products which are readily available and not particularly expensive. Here is the patent:

**US Patent 7,095,126**  
22nd August 2006  
Inventor: Jesse McQueen
INTERNAL ENERGY-GENERATING POWER SOURCE

ABSTRACT
An external power source such as a battery is used to initially supply power to start an alternator and generator. Once the system has started it is not necessary for the battery to supply power to the system. The battery can then be disconnected. The alternator and electric motor work in combination to generator electrical power. The alternator supplies this electrical power to the two inverters. One inverter outputs part of it’s power to the lamp, and part back to the electric motor/generator. This power is used to power the electric motor. The second inverter supplies power to the specific load devices which are connected to the system.

US Patent References:
5033565 July 1991 Abukawa et al.
5036267 July 1991 Markunas
5785136 July 1998 Falkenmayer et al.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Electrical energy occurs naturally, but seldom in forms that can be used. For example, although the energy dissipated as lightning exceeds the world’s demand for electricity by a large factor, lightning has not been put to practical use because of its unpredictability and other problems. Generally, practical electric-power-generating systems convert the mechanical energy of moving parts into electrical energy. While systems that operate without a mechanical step do exist, they are at present either excessively inefficient or expensive because of a dependence on elaborate technology. While some electric plants derive mechanical energy from moving water (hydropower), the vast majority derives it from heat engines in which the working substance is steam. Roughly 89% of power in the United States is generated this way. The steam is generated with heat from combustion of fossil fuels or from nuclear fission.

In electricity, a machine is used to change mechanical energy into electrical energy. It operates on the principle of electromagnetic induction. When a conductor passes through a magnetic field, a voltage is induced across the ends of the conductor. The generator is simply a mechanical arrangement for moving the conductor and leading the current produced by the voltage to an external circuit, where it actuates devices which require electricity. In the simplest form of generator, the conductor is an open coil of wire rotating between the poles of a permanent magnet. During a single rotation, one side of the coil passes through the magnetic field first in one direction and then in the other, so that the induced current is alternating current (AC), moving first in one direction, then in the other. Each end of the coil is attached to a separate metal slip ring that rotates with the coil. Brushes that rest on the slip rings are attached to the external circuit. Thus the current flows from the coil to the slip rings, then through the brushes to the external circuit. In order to obtain direct current (DC), i.e., current that flows in only one direction, a commutator is used in place of slip rings.

A commutator is a single slip ring split into left and right halves that are insulated from each other and are attached to opposite ends of the coil. It allows current to leave the generator through the brushes in only one direction. This current pulsates, going from no flow to maximum flow and back again to no flow. A practical DC generator, with many coils and with many segments in the commutator, gives a steadier current. There are also several magnets in a practical generator. In any generator, the whole assembly carrying the coils is called the armature, or rotor, while the stationary parts constitute the stator. Except in the case of the magneto, which uses permanent magnets, AC and DC generators use electromagnets. Field current for the electromagnets is most often DC from an external source. The term dynamo is often used for the DC generator; the generator in automotive applications is usually a dynamo. An AC generator is called an alternator. To ease various construction problems, alternators have a stationary armature and rotating electromagnets. Most alternators produce a polyphase AC, a complex type of current that provides a smoother power flow than does simple AC. By far the greatest amount of electricity for industrial and civilian use comes from large AC generators driven by steam turbines.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
It is an objective of the present invention to provide an energy source that generates more energy than the energy source requires in order to operate.
It is a second objective of the present invention to provide a system that uses the excess energy produced by the energy source to power other various devices.

It is a third objective of the present invention to provide an energy source for supplying power to various devices without the reliance on an external energy source for supplying power to the energy source of the present invention.

The present invention provides an energy source that is capable of producing more energy than it requires to operate. The excess energy is used to power devices. A feedback loop approach is used to channel a portion of the energy produce by the generator back to the generators power input port. This feedback loop approach enables the generator to use its own generated energy to operate. The additional energy generated by the generator is used to power other devices that can be connected to the generator.

In the method of the invention an external power source such as a battery is used to initially supply power to start an alternator and generator. Once the system has started it is not necessary for the battery to supply power to the system. The battery can then be disconnected. The alternator and electric motor work in combination to generate electrical power. The alternator supplies this electrical power to the two inverters. One inverter outputs part of its power to the lamp load device and part back to the electric motor/generator. This power is used to power the electric motor. The second inverter supplies power to the specific load devices that are connected to the system.

**DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig.1 is a configuration of an implementation of the internal power generating system of the present invention.

Fig.2 is a configuration of an alternate embodiment of the internal power generating system of the present invention.

**DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION**

This invention is an electric power-generating device that produces several times more power than it takes to operate this system. This invention comprises a first power source that is connected to a second power source. Referring to Fig.1, the system of the present invention comprises a battery source 10 (12 volt DC) that connects to an electrical alternator 20. The battery supplies the initial power to the system to initiate/start the operation of the alternator. The present invention can implement other power sources in...
addition to the illustrated battery to supply the initial power to the system. In the initial model of the present invention incorporated an alternator from a 1997 Isuzu Trooper. The invention incorporates an electric motor 30 (148 watt AC). The electric motor connects to an inverter 40 (400 watt AC). The system also comprises a second inverter 50. The battery 10 also connects to both inverters 40 and 50. Each inverter has two outputs. For the first inverter 40, one output feeds into the electric motor 30 to provide to the motor and alternator combination. The other output feeds into a lamp device 60. The lamp device is a 60-watt AC lamp. This lamp device alters the current travelling from the inverter 40 such that the current feeding into the electric motor 30 is not purely inductive.

Although, Fig.1 shows a lamp device, other loads can be used to accomplish this same a task. The inverter 40 has an input from which the inverter receives power from the alternator 20. The second inverter 50 also has an input that also receives power from the alternator.

In operation, initially, the battery 10 is used to supply power to start the alternator 20 and generator 30. Once the system has started, it is not necessary for the battery to supply power to the system. The battery can then be disconnected. Once started, the alternator 20 and electric motor 30 work in combination to generate electrical power. The alternator supplies this electrical power to the two inverters 40 and 50. Inverter 40 outputs part of this power to the lamp 60 and part to the electric motor 30. This power is used to power the electric motor. The second inverter 50 supplies power to the specific load devices which are connected to the system. These load devices can be any devices which operate by using electrical power.

The key aspect of the present invention is the loop between the alternator 20, electric motor 30 and the first inverter 40. A portion of the power generated by the electric motor is recycled and is used to power the electric motor. In this way the system produces the power internally that is used to power the system. This concept makes this system a self-power generating system.

![Diagram](image_url)

**Fig.2** shows an alternative embodiment of the power generating system of the present invention. This embodiment incorporates a gear box 70, a car starter 72, and a head brush generator 74, and buck booster 76. Initially, the car starter 72 works with the battery to supply power to the generator. This process is similar to the process of starting a car. The gears 70 increases the rpm of the generator. The Buck Booster 76 serves as the output to supply power to the various loads. This configuration also incorporates a DC converter 78.
The “Nitro” Cell.

This document was originally produced at the request of an Australian man who said that the cell worked well for him but that he was afraid to publish the details himself. This document was prepared, approved by him and published. It proved very popular and an enthusiast group was set up to build and test this “Nitro Cell”.

The results of this building and testing have been most unsatisfactory. As far as I am aware, not a single cell proved successful in powering an engine. I therefore, withdrew the document, since even though I believe it to be capable of working, the fact that many people failed to get it working indicates to me that this document should not be in a “practical” guide. I have been assured by two separate independent sources, both of which I rate as being reliable sources, that there are “hundreds” of these cells working in Australia and the USA. I have repeatedly been asked for copies of this document, so I am publishing it again, but requesting you, the reader, to be aware that should you make one of these devices, that it is unlikely that you will get it operational. Having said that, I understand that it may work very well as a booster.

Simple arithmetic applied to the claimed performance of this device, shows that much of the claimed mileage has to have been covered without using any fuel at all. While this sounds impossible, in actual fact it is not, but that sort of operation comes from the Joe Cell which is notoriously difficult to get operational, requiring at least a week of fiddling around to get the metalwork of the vehicle aligned with the energy field used to provide the motive power. Also, each person acts as a “dipole” which produces an energy field around that person. Most people have a polarity which opposes the Joe Cell energy, and they will never get a Joe Cell to operate as they can disrupt such a cell from several paces away from it. Chapter 9, which describes the Joe Cell, includes information on how to reverse your own personal polarity, to stop blocking the cell performance.

This definitely sounds unbelievable, but as it happens to be the way that things actually are, there is little point in pretending otherwise. Personally, I never recommend anybody to build a Joe Cell for powering a vehicle, as the likelihood of success is so low. However, having said that, a friend of mine in the USA has his Joe Cell connected to his truck in “shandy” mode where the carburettor is left connected to it’s normal fossil fuel supply. The vehicle is perfectly capable of drawing in fossil fuel to run the engine, but it just doesn’t. His fuel consumption is literally zero and he is driving around powered solely by the energy channelled into the engine by the Joe Cell. This is most unusual, and I do not recommend you spending time and money on building such a cell. I mention these cells so that you can know all about them, but I would leave it at that.

Here is the original “D18” document, which is followed by important update information:

A Different Fuel

In the early days of heavier than air flight, observations were made and based on those observations, practical operating rules were deduced. After a time, those rules became called the “laws” of aerodynamics. These “laws” were applied to the design, building and use of aircraft and they were, and are, very useful.

One day it was observed that if you apply those laws of aerodynamics to bumble bees, then according to those laws, it was not possible for a bee to fly since there was just not enough lift generated to get the bee off the ground. But simple observation shows that bees do in fact fly and they can rise off the ground when they choose to do so.

Does that mean that the “laws” of aerodynamics are no good? Of course not, as they have been shown to be of great practical use when dealing with aircraft. What it did show was that the existing laws did not cover every instance, so research was done and the laws of aerodynamics were extended to include the equations for lift generated by turbulent flow. These show how a bee can develop enough lift to get off the ground. Do bees care about this? No, not at all, they just go on flying as before. What has changed is that the understanding of scientists and engineers has been extended to better fit the world around us.

Today, people who are trained in science and engineering are fed the idea that internal combustion engines need to consume a fossil fuel in order to operate. That is not strictly true and at the present time, engines using hydrogen gas as a fuel are becoming commonplace. Unfortunately, most of the hydrogen produced for this use, comes from fossil fuels, so these vehicles are still running on a fossil fuel, though only indirectly.

The “laws” of engineering say that it is not possible for an internal combustion engine to run without consuming some sort of fuel. Unfortunately, Josef Papp has demonstrated an internal combustion engine which has had it’s intake and exhaust systems blanked off. Filled with a mixture of inert gasses, during one
demonstration, that Volvo engine ran for half an hour, producing a measured 300 horsepower from the nominally 90 horsepower motor, and apparently consuming no fuel at all. Josef received US patent 3,680,432. Robert Britt designed a similar sealed motor filled with a mixture of inert gasses, and he received US patent 3,977,191 for it. However, Heinrich Klostermann has shown that the same effect is produced with just air as the gas: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=INSAXbZfnbE and that is certainly much more simple than using inert gas, although several people have replicated the Papp design strategy as can be seen in various videos, such as https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3kQ9MdoKT7I.

Does this mean that the current laws of engineering are of no use? Certainly not, they are vital for everyday life today. What it does mean, however, is that the present laws need to be extended to include the effects shown by these engines.

Another thing widely accepted today is that an internal combustion engine can’t use water as a fuel. Well…. let’s leave that to one side for the moment and look at it from a slightly different angle. Engines can definitely run using air and hydrogen as the fuel, there is no argument about that as there are many vehicle around which do just that. If you pass a current through water, the water breaks up into hydrogen gas and oxygen gas, this mixture is called “hydroxy” gas and that can most definitely be used, along with air, as the fuel for an internal combustion engine. But… this gas came from water, so is it really correct to say that water cannot be used as the fuel for an internal combustion engine?

Ah, says somebody with relief, that is not the case, because you are using water and electricity to get the fuel for the engine. But… the average vehicle powered by an internal combustion engine, has an alternator which produces electricity when the engine is running, so there is a source of electricity to do the electrolysis of the water and produce the gas to run the engine.

But the laws of engineering say that you can’t get enough electricity from the alternator to produce enough gas to run the engine. Engineers will point to the work of Faraday who examined the process of electrolysis in great detail and produced the “laws” of electrolysis. These laws show that you can’t get enough electrical power from an engine to make enough gas to run the engine.

Unfortunately, there have been several people who have done just that, so we have reached the point in time when these “laws” need to be extended to cover cases not covered by the work of Faraday. People have got from 300% to 1,200% of the gas output which Faraday considered to be the maximum possible. Several people have run vehicles on hydroxy gas produced by electrolysis of water using electricity generated by the vehicle’s alternator. This shows clearly that it can be done, and as a consequence, the “laws” need to be extended to include the newer techniques.

Leaving that aside for the moment, there have been at least two people who have managed to power an engine with water as the only fuel, and without using electrolysis. In this instance, a fine spray of water droplets inside the cylinder is acted on by the spark, and a secondary electrical supply from an inverter boosts the spark, forming a plasma discharge. The result is a power stroke nearly as powerful as using a fossil fuel. For the moment, let us also ignore that style of operation.

This document describes another system which uses water and air as the primary fuels, but again, does not use electrolysis to generate hydroxy gas for use in the engine. Instead, the objective is to create a continuous supply of Nitrogen Hydroxide (NHO₂) for use as the fuel. This system has worked well for a number of people but there has been considerable intimidation and most of these people are very reluctant to pass the information on. This document is an attempt to present those details clearly enough to allow the system to be replicated by anyone who wishes to do so.

So, how exactly is this fuel generated? The production method is described as the fuel gas being synthesised by a mixture of stream water and rock salt (the mineral “halite”) in the presence of air, being acted on by engine “vacuum”, electrolysis and a strong magnetic field. This fuel is said to be more powerful than hydrogen and is a much more viable fuel source as less of it is needed to run an internal combustion engine.

This system may be used with any internal combustion engine, whether used in a vehicle or stationary when powering an electrical generator or other equipment. The additional equipment consists of one, or more, horizontal cylinders mounted near the engine. A single, horizontally mounted, cylinder can generate sufficient gas to power an internal combustion engine up to two litres in capacity. Larger engines will need two cylinders to generate enough gas for them to operate.
It must be stressed that this is not a hydroxy gas electrolysis cell. One test vehicle has been run on this system for a distance of 3,000 miles (4,800 kilometers) and the liquid fuel used was only 2 litres of water and 2 gallons of petrol. Two litres of water converted to hydroxy gas will definitely not power a vehicle engine for anything like 3,000 miles, so let me stress again that the fuel being generated in this cell is Nitrogen Hydroxide (NHO$_2$). It should be noted that if the cell described here is used as a booster for the original fossil fuel, then it will not be necessary to upgrade the engine by fitting stainless steel valves, piston rings, exhaust system, etc.

The person using this system which is shown in the following photograph, has opted for an exceptionally long generation tube attached to his stationary generator:

The versions of this cell design shown in the previous photograph and the following photograph, are early models which were in use before it was discovered that there was a considerable enhancement in gas production if a coil is wrapped around the cylinder.

For vehicle operation, it is more normal to have a shorter cylinder, (or pair of cylinders if the engine capacity is large) as can be seen in the following photograph of a 4-litre, 8-cylinder vehicle engine which uses this system. Engines of up to 2 litre capacity can be powered by a single horizontal cell, while two cells are used for larger engines.
The construction details are not difficult to follow and the materials needed are not particularly difficult to find nor expensive to buy. The main body of the device is constructed as shown in the following diagram. A chamber is constructed from a piece of 316L Grade (food quality) stainless steel pipe, 300 mm (12 inches) long and 100 mm (4 inches) in diameter. The length of 300 mm is chosen for convenience of fitting in the engine compartment of a vehicle. If there is plenty of room there, the length can be extended for better gas performance and water capacity. If that is done, keep the 100 mm cylinder diameter and all of the clearance dimensions mentioned below.

The chamber is sealed at each end with 12 mm (half inch) thick discs made from “Lexan” (a very strong polycarbonate resin thermoplastic). These discs have a 3 mm (1/8”) deep groove cut into their inner faces. The groove is there for the cylinder to fit into when the discs are clamped in place and held by stainless steel nuts tightened on a 10 mm (3/8”) stainless steel threaded rod. To combat engine vibration, a lock nut is used to clamp the retaining nuts in place. The threaded rod also provides the contact point for the negative side of the electrical supply and a stainless steel bolt is TIG welded to the outside of the cylinder to form the connection point for the positive side of the electrical supply.

This basic container is modified in a number of ways. Firstly, a small 3 mm (1/8 inch) diameter air intake pipe is provided in one of the Lexan discs. This air intake is provided with a needle-valve which is screwed tightly shut for the early stages of testing and only eased slightly open when the engine is actually running.

Also fitted is an 12 mm (1/2”) stainless steel pipe, attached to the stainless steel cylinder to form a gas supply feed to the engine. A one-way valve is placed in this pipe as the design calls for the cylinder to be maintained at a pressure which is less that the outside atmosphere. The lower the pressure inside the cell, the greater the rate of gas production. The one-way valve allows flow into the engine but blocks any flow from the engine into the cylinder. This valve is the same type as is used in the vehicle’s vacuum brake booster system.
The gas outlet pipe is continued from the one-way valve using plastic tubing for a few inches. This is to prevent an electrical connection between the stainless steel cylinder which is connected to the positive side of the electrical supply, and the engine manifold which is connected to the negative side of the electrical supply. If this pipe were metal all the way, then that would create a direct electrical short-circuit. The pipe running to the engine intake manifold needs to be made of metal in the area near the engine, due to the high engine temperature, so stainless steel pipe should be used for the last part of the gas supply pipe running to the engine. The gas supply pipe fitting is made to the most central of the bungs fitted to the manifold.

For the initial testing period, a filling port with a screw cap is mounted on the top of the cylinder, in order to allow the water inside to be topped up as necessary. Later on, if long journeys are made on a regular basis, then it is worth fitting a separate water tank, water-level sensor and water injection system using a standard vehicle windscreen washer water pump. The topping up is done with water alone as the rock salt additive does not get used in the process and so does not need to be replaced. With these additional features, the gas generation cell looks like this:

There is one further step, and that is to add an inner cylinder of 316L grade stainless steel. This cylinder is 274 mm (10.75 inches) long and 80 mm (3.15") in diameter. Both cylinders have a wall thickness of 1 mm. The inner cylinder is supported on the central threaded bar and it is clamped in place with retaining nuts. A supporting lug is created by making two cuts at each end of the cylinder, drilling a hole and then bending the lug up inside the cylinder at right angles to its axis. This needs to be done accurately, otherwise the inner cylinder will not lie parallel to the threaded rod, or alternatively, not be centred on the threaded rod. The centre of the 10 mm (3/8") hole is positioned 8 mm (5/16") in from the end of the cylinder. Two 48 mm (1.9") long cuts are made each side of the hole, positioned to be about 5 mm (3/16") clear of the hole - this measurement is not critical. This is done at each end of the cylinder and the holes are positioned exactly opposite one another, along the axis of the cylinder, as shown here:
The inner cylinder is secured in position by two bolts as shown here:

The inner nuts are manoeuvred on inside on of the lugs by hand and then the threaded rod is rotated to move one nut to the inside of the other lug, while the nearer nut is held to prevent it rotating. When the rod is positioned correctly and the inner nuts are pressed up hard against the lugs, then a box spanner is used to lock the outer nuts tightly against the lugs, forming a strong mounting lock.

The inner cylinder is inserted inside the outer cylinder, the Lexan end discs are then added and the outer lock nuts added to produce this arrangement:

This gives a 9 mm clearance between the two cylinders and this gap stretches 360 degrees around the cylinders. The inner cylinder is located 10 mm clear of the Lexan end discs.
The units is completed by winding a coil of 2 mm diameter insulated copper wire tightly around the full length of the outer cylinder and filling the unit with electrolyte to a level of 3 mm (1/8 inch) above the top of the inner cylinder as shown here:

The wire used for the coil is heavy duty copper wire with an inner diameter of 2 mm, i.e. British 14 SWG wire or American 12 AWG wire. The coil is held in position at the ends of the cylinder, with plastic cable ties, as these are non-magnetic. This coil is of major importance in this design as the strong magnetic field produced by it has a very marked effect on the performance of the cell. The magnetic field produced by this coil, increases the gas production by anything from 30% to 50% and increases the production of Nitrogen Hydroxide by a factor of ten times. The electrical connection of the coil is in series with the cell, so the battery positive is not taken directly to the bolt welded to the outer cylinder, but instead it passes through the coil winding before being connected to the outer cylinder.

**Installation and Use**

The gas outlet pipe is connected directly to a vacuum port directly below the carburettor on the manifold of the engine. This connection is important as the cell relies on the “vacuum” (actually reduced air pressure) produced by the engine intake stroke, as part of its gas-forming process.

The exact method of mounting the cell in a vehicle depends on the vehicle, so this is something which you will need to think out for yourself. Be sure that you insulate the cell from the metal bodywork of the vehicle and I would suggest that you keep it away from the high-voltage electrical wiring (coil, distributor, spark plug leads, etc.).

The electrical connection arrangement is as shown here:
The method of electrical connection is important. It is vital that the electrical supply is disconnected when the engine is not running. For that reason, the power to the cell(s) is taken via the vehicle's ignition switch. In order not to load that switch unduly, a standard automotive relay is used to carry the main current, leaving just the relay current to be handled by the ignition switch. Also, a 30 amp circuit-breaker or fuse is placed in the circuit, immediately after the battery connection. In the unlikely event of some physical problem with the cell occurring, this device will disconnect the power instantly and avoid any possibility of a short-circuit causing a fire, or of excess gas being produced when it is not needed.

The water to be used in this cell needs to be selected carefully. Tap water is not acceptable as it will be contaminated with several additives - fluorine, chlorine, etc. put in it when going through the purification process of the supply company and many other chemicals picked up along the way. It is considered very important that the water be taken from a stream, preferably from where it rises, as that is the point of greatest purity. May I also suggest that the water be transported in either glass containers or stainless steel containers as these help to maintain the purity. Avoid plastic containers, because while these appear to be completely inert, they frequently are most definitely not and chemicals from their manufacture can, and do, enter any liquid contained in them.

The cell is filled to a depth of 25 mm (1 inch) below the top of the outer cylinder and then (on the first occasion only) one or two grains of rock salt are added to the cell. This addition needs to be minimal as it controls the current draw from the electrical system and the strength of the magnetic field created by that current. After using the cell for at least a week, if the gas rate is not adequate, then add one more grain of rock salt.

Getting the cell attuned to the vehicle is likely to take at least a week of use. The cell is put in place and the vehicle run using it's normal fuel. The needle valve on the cell’s air intake is kept completely closed during this period. The inventor opted to continue running his engine on very small amounts of petrol plus this new gas fuel - the result being 3,000 miles covered on just two gallons of petrol. If you consider this as still being a petrol powered vehicle, then getting 1,500 mpg is quite an achievement - I certainly would settle for that.

When the cell is first connected, you will notice that the engine ticks over faster and tends to rev more than it did before. It will take several days for the system to settle down. Part of this is believed to be the effect of the new magnetic coil in the engine compartment. It may be that the metal parts of the vehicle have to take up a magnetic alignment which matches the magnetic field produced by the cell. Whether that is so or not, it will take a few days before the system settles down into its final state.

It should be realised that if the vehicle has a fuel-control computer with an oxygen sensor mounted in the exhaust stream, then the oxygen sensor signal will need to be adjusted. The D17.pdf document of this series, shows in detail how to do this, should it be necessary. If the vehicle has a carburettor, then there is an advantage in fitting a one inch bore carburettor of the type found on lawnmowers, as this promotes lower pressure inside the manifold and promotes good cell operation as the lower the pressure (or the greater the "vacuum"), the higher becomes the rate of gas production.
Practical Details

The original end pieces were cut and grooved using a lathe. Most people do not own or have access to a lathe so an alternative method of cutting the discs needs to be used. The essential part of this operation is to cut an accurate groove to take the 100 mm stainless steel outer cylinder. The groove needs to be cut accurately as it needs to form an airtight seal on the end of the cylinder. Consequently, the end of the cylinder and the bottom of the groove, both need to be straight and true if they are to mate securely.

An alternative method is to use an adjustable hole-cutter drill attachment. If this is used with a drill press or a vertical stand adaptor for an electric hand drill, then if care is taken, an accurate groove of the correct dimensions can be cut. As an extra precaution, a thin layer of marine grade white “SikaFlex 291” bedding compound can be used in the bottom of the groove. Two things here. Firstly, only use the genuine Sikaflex 291 compound even though it is far more expensive than other products which claim to be equivalents - they aren’t, so pay for the genuine product. Secondly, we do not want the slightest trace of the Sikaflex contacting the electrolyte if we can avoid it, so be very sparing in the amount put into the groove, no matter what you paid for it. Make sure that the bedding compound is placed only in the very bottom of the groove and not on the sides. When the cylinder is forced into the groove, a very small amount of the compound will be driven into any gap between the cylinder and the sides of the groove.

What is needed is a result which looks like this:

The other important part of this joint is the end of the outer cylinder. It is recommended that the cylinder be cut by hand with a hacksaw to avoid generating excessive heat which can affect the structure of the metal. To get the end exactly square, use a piece of printer paper. This has straight edges and square corners, so wrap it flat around the cylinder and manoeuvre it into place so that the overlapping edges match exactly on both sides. If the paper is flat and tight against the cylinder and the edges match exactly, then the edge of the paper will be an exact true and square line around the cylinder. Mark along the edge of the paper with a felt pen and then use that line as a guide to a perfectly square cut. To avoid excessive heat, do not use any power tool like an angle grinder on the cylinder. Just clean the edges of the cut gently with a hand file.

In the diagrams shown earlier, the gas pipe, water-filler cap and the battery positive connection bolt have all been shown on the top of the cylinder. This is only to show them clearly, and there is no need to have them positioned like that. You will notice that they all get in the way of the wire coil, which is not an advantage.

It is necessary for the gas pipe to be positioned at the top as that gives the best clearance above the water surface. The clearance should be maintained at 25 mm (1 inch). The water-filler cap which was shown on top of the cylinder, would be better positioned on one of the end caps as that would keep it out of the way of the coil of wire:
This arrangement has the advantage that it does not require a filler hole to be drilled through the steel cylinder.

It is necessary for the electrical connection to be welded to the cylinder, but it is not necessary to have a head on the bolt as that just gets in the way of the electrical coil. The best strategy is to use a longer bolt of small diameter, remove the head and weld the shaft in place with spot welds which will not get in the way of the coil, as shown below. Spot welds are very quick to make, but even they generate a good deal of heat in the pipe. Some people prefer to silver-solder the bolt shaft to the cylinder as the heating is less.

The bolt is kept just clear of the end cap to avoid fouling it when it is clamped on to the cylinder. A lock nut is used to keep the solder tag assembly clear of the outer edge of the end cap. This allows the wire coil to be wound right up to the bolt. It does not matter which end of the coil is connected to the outer cylinder, but common sense suggests that the end nearest the bolt is connected to the bolt. It is, however, important that once connected, the electrical connections to the coil are maintained ever afterwards, to ensure that the magnetic field stays in the same direction. Remember that the surrounding metal parts of the vehicle will take up a magnetic orientation matching that of the coil's magnetic field, so you do not want to keep changing the direction of the coil's magnetic field.

When welding the bolt to the outer cylinder, be sure you use stainless steel wire. The joint needs to be made with a MIG or TIG welder. If you don't have one and can't hire one, then your local metal fabrication shop will make the spot welds for you in less than a minute and probably not charge you for doing them.

The grade of stainless steel in the cylinders is important. Grade 316L is nearly non-magnetic, so if you hold the cylinder with it's sides vertical and place a magnet against the cylinder, the magnet should fall off under its own weight. Try this test no matter what grade the stainless steel is supposed to be, as some steels are not labelled correctly. There is a good chance that you will be able to find suitable tubing at your local scrap yard, but be careful on sizing. The 9 mm gap between the outer 100 mm diameter cylinder and the inner cylinder’s 80 mm diameter, is very important indeed. This gap needs to be 9 mm (11/32 inch) so if really necessary to vary the diameters slightly up or down, be sure to pick material which gives the correct gap between the cylinders. Seamless piping is usually preferred to pipes which have seams as the seam welding tends to generate a magnetic effect in the steel. However, if a seamed pipe passes the magnet test with the magnet falling off it, it is definitely good material for the cell.
If you can get it, a good material for the 12 mm (1/2 inch) pipe running to the carburettor manifold, is aluminium. Please remember that the one-way valve on the cell’s output pipe needs to be connected to this pipe with a material which insulates the two metal components. The suggested piping is therefore: the cell output is via a stainless steel pipe connector, connected directly to the one-way valve, which then has a plastic pipe connection to the aluminium tube which runs all the way to the manifold. Please remember to insulate the cell from the vehicle chassis and components to avoid a short-circuit.

An alternative to using the rather expensive “Lexan” for the end caps, is to use “UHMWP” - Ultra-High Molecular Weight Polyethylene which is cheap and easy to obtain as plastic food-chopping boards are usually made from it. The advantage of Lexan is that it is transparent and so the level of the electrolyte can be seen without the need for removing the water-filler cap.

It has been suggested that the topping up of water in the cell can be automatic if you wish it to be so. For this, a water-level sensor circuit is used to drive a standard windscreen-washer water pump when the level of the electrolyte falls below the design level. The sensor itself, can be a bolt running through one of the end caps as shown here:

When the electrolyte level drops below the upper bolt, the circuit contact to the control circuit is broken and the circuit responds by powering up the water pump, which injects a little water to bring the electrolyte level back up to where it should be. When the vehicle is moving, the surface of the electrolyte will not be steady as shown in the diagram, so the control circuit needs to have an averaging section which prevents the water pump being switched on until the circuit input has been missing for several seconds.

Circuitry suitable for this is shown in Chapter 12, and there is no reason why you should not design and build your own circuit for this.

In the initial stages of testing and installation, when adding rock salt, be very sparing indeed. Add just one grain at a time because the salt ions are very effective in carrying current through the electrolyte solution. Also, if too much is added, it is difficult to reduce the concentration as more water needs to be added, which involves draining off some of the water already in the cell. It is much easier to take your time and add very, very little salt. Give the salt grain plenty of time to dissolve and spread out throughout the electrolyte before checking the cell performance again.

Let me remind you that during the initial cell testing, the air intake needle valve is closed completely and it is not eased open until the engine is running satisfactorily. In the engine acclimatisation period, the engine should be run on it’s normal fuel and the cell just used as a booster. Remember that it will take at least a week for the vehicle to settle down to it’s new method of operation. There is no particular hurry, so take your time and don’t rush things.

If the vehicle is fitted with computer control of the fuel supply, it may be necessary to apply some control to the unit by adjusting the signal coming from the oxygen sensor placed in the vehicle’s exhaust system. The information on how to do this is shown in considerable detail in Chapter 10.

Some questions have been asked about this cell:
1. Does petrol have to be used or can the engine be run on the cell alone?
   Answer: No, you can eventually eliminate petrol altogether but the engine runs so cleanly that old carbon deposits around the piston rings and elsewhere will get cleaned away and the components may rust. These parts can eventually be replaced with stainless steel versions or instead of that, it is probably possible to avoid replacements by the use of the oil additive called “Vacclaisocryptene QX and Molybdenum Disulfide” - see http://www.clickspokane.com/vacclaisocryptene/ for details. This additive reduces wear to such a degree that engine life may be doubled, no matter what fuel is being used.

2. Why is the unit 300 mm long?
   Answer: Just for convenience in fitting it into the engine compartment. It can easily be longer if space allows it. The longer the unit, the greater the gas production and that is why two 300 mm cells are needed for engines over 2 litres in capacity.

3. Does the cell body need to be made from seamless pipe?
   Answer: Seamless 316L-grade stainless steel is preferred.

4. How do you determine the amount of rock salt to add to the water in the cell?
   Answer: The amount varies with the type and size of engine being dealt with. You want the minimum current through the coil so start with one grain and increase it only very gradually with tiny amounts. If the cell is being mounted in the engine compartment of a vehicle, then the make, model and size of the vehicle will affect the amount due to the magnetic effect of metal components near the cell.

5. Does it matter which end of the coil is attached to the outer cylinder?
   Answer: No, it can be either end.

6. Is the pipe diameter shown from the cell to the engine the best size?
   Answer: The 1/2 inch diameter is very good as it increases the "vacuum" inside the cell as the engine runs. When first testing the engine, remember that the needle valve is completely shut off, and when it is opened during tuning, it is only opened to a minimal setting.

7. Are the exhaust emissions damaging to the environment?
   Answer: Some years ago, a Mercedes car dealer ran his own emissions test on a new Mercedes diesel, using his own equipment. He found that the emissions were reduced by 50% and the engine power increased by 12%. The engine ran better, cleaner and quieter. He was fired for doing this.

   Other independent gas-analyser tests showed that there is an increase in water emissions and a drop in carbon emissions as less fossil fuel is used. It was also noted that the volume of gas produced by the cell was affected by where it was mounted in the engine compartment. This is thought to be due to the magnetic effect on the cell.

However, having emphasised those concerns and provisos, I was informed early in 2010, that Jim Bundock in the UK has had considerable success using this design as a booster. He estimates that using this device has saved him about £500 over a two year period. Here is some detail from him:
These two cells have been in use in two different vehicles for more than a year now. The vehicles are Ford Transit vans with 2.5 litre diesel engines. One is sixteen years old and the other is seventeen years old and the Nitro Cells have given a 10 mpg improvement from the day that they were installed in spite of the vans being heavily loaded when being used. The original mpg was 25, so the resulting 35 mpg represents a 40% improvement over a long period.

Jim says: these cells were built from the plans shown above, the only variation being that instead of bending the tabs for the inner tube, tabs were silver-soldered at the end of the inner tubes as shown here:

These cells are run without salt and they work equally well without the wire wrap suggested in the design. The vertical cell is 18 inches tall and 4 inches in diameter and it has a rubber diaphragm on top which acts both as a seal and as an anti-slosh device. The inner cylinder gives a 9 mm gap between the inner and outer cylinders. The cell ends and spacers are made from plastic food-chopping board. The top spacers are about 30 mm long as it was found that vibration tended to dislodge shorter ones. This vertical “slow” cell is very easy to build.

On one of the “fast” horizontal units, there is a length of blue pipe:
This prevents water from entering the engine when a certain boy-racer tries to negotiate corners at the speed of light. The horizontal cell was plumbed in using a plastic 12mm pipe connected to the inlet manifold. Personally, I don't think these cells like speed and they seem to respond best when driving around 50 mph – this is for a single cell on a diesel engine. The cell is wired in as standard, only on a diesel, the relay is connected to the fuel cut-off valve, making it very easy to wire, and when the engine is switched off, then the cell is turned off at the same time. Using a miniature version of the upright cell, the bore-hole water which I use, is pre-charged on the bench for as long as I feel it needs to be, just to remove some of the material suspended in it. Topping up with water is done every 750 miles or so and takes about an egg cup full of water. All in all, the Nitro Cell is a good honest working device, it is a simple drive-and-go piece of kit that has saved me around £500 in two years and will carry on doing that for ever.

The “HydroStar” and “HydroGen” Systems.
There are various sets of plans for car conversions and many of them are worthless and intended to waste the time and money of people who are interested in moving away from fossil fuel products. It is not possible for anyone to say with assurance that these plans do not work since even if you construct in exact accordance with the plans and your replication fails to come anywhere close to working, all that can be truthfully said is that your own replication was useless. We need to avoid this sort of comment, since for example, the Joe Cell does indeed work and can power a vehicle in a completely fuel-less mode, but, most people fail to get it operational. Consequently, it is completely wrong to write off the Joe Cell, but warnings on the difficulty of getting it working should always be given.

In the case of the HydroStar and HydroGen plans, I have never heard of anyone who has ever got either of them working. Also, experienced people are quite convinced that the design is seriously flawed and never worked in the first place. Still, it is up to you to make up your own mind on this, and so these plans are mentioned in this chapter.

The plans shown here can be downloaded free from [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/P62.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/P62.pdf) and they are intended for free use by anyone who wants to use them. Please remember that should you decide to undertake any work of this nature, nobody other than yourself is in any way responsible for any loss or damage which might result. The full manual for an essentially updated version of the design is included under the name “HydroGen” and can be downloaded free from [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/P61.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/P61.pdf).

It is recommended that should experimental work be undertaken on a car, then the car chosen should be of little value and that all existing parts be kept so that the vehicle can be restored to its present fossil-oil burning status should you choose to do so. It is also suggested that you use a car which is not important to
your present transport needs. It is claimed that the modified car will travel 50 to 300 miles per gallon of water depending on how well it is tuned. The system is set up like this:

Here, the car has an extra tank installed to contain a reserve of water. This is used to maintain the water level in the reaction chamber which contains the electrode plates. The electrodes are driven by the electronics which applies a pulsed waveform to them in the 0.5 to 5.0 Amp range. The electronics box is powered directly from the existing car electrics. The Hydrogen/Oxygen mix which is the output from the reaction chamber is fed directly into the existing carburettor or fuel-injection system.

The start-up procedure is to power up the electronics and wait for the gas pressure to reach the 30 - 60 psi range. Then the car ignition is operated as normal to start the engine. The accelerator pedal is wired into the electronics to give more power to the electrode plates the further the pedal is pressed. This increases the gas production rate as the throttle is operated.

Electronic Control Circuit
The diagrams show a simple circuit to control and drive this mini-system. You are going to make a 'square-pulse' signal that you can watch on an oscilloscope. The premise given by the literature is: the faster you want to go down the road, the 'fatter' you make the pulses going into the reaction chamber. Duty cycle will vary with the throttle from a 10% Mark/Space ratio (10% on and 90% off) with the pedal up, to a 90% Mark/Space ratio with the pedal fully down.

There are many ways to generate pulses. This circuit uses an "NE555" integrated circuit. The output switching transistor must be rated at 5 Amps, 12V for pulsed operation.
The output of the 741 integrated circuit is adjusted via its 2K variable resistor, to give an output voltage (at point 'B' in the circuit diagram) of 1 Volt when the car throttle is fully up, and 4 Volts when the throttle is fully down.

The CD4069 is just an IC containing six inverters. It can handle a supply voltage of up to 18V and is wired here as an oscillator. Its four capacitors are likely to be used in just four combinations: C1, C+C2, C+C2+C3, and C1+C2+C3+C4 as these are the most widely spaced tuning ranges. There are, of course, eleven other capacitor combinations which can be switched with this arrangement of four switches.

Important Note
Gary of G. L. Chemelec commenting on “The HydroStar” circuit which sounds to be based on the same style of circuitry, states that the circuit and design are riddled with serious errors, some of which are:
1. The use of the 741 WILL NOT WORK! Pin 5 is a Voltage Control pin that already has its own voltage of 2/3 of the Supply voltage so it requires a pull down resistor, not an IC to control it.
2. The 2K Pulse width adjust will blow the 555 timer if adjusted all the way down. It needs an additional resistor to limit current to those pins on the IC.
3. The output of the 555, Pin 3 is fed to the CD4059 as well as a TC4420CPA (Mosfet Driver). This driver is a waste of money as it is not needed.
4. The Output of the TC4420CPA is then fed to the IRF510 Mosfet which is now obsolete, however you can use an RFP50N06 (50V, 60A).
5. There is no schematic of the CD4059. They should have shown pin 1 as in, pin 23 as out, pins 3, 10, 13, 14, and 24 connected to 12 volts and pins 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 connected to ground.
6. The "Strength Adjust" Only Needs the variable resistor connected to Pin 5 and the Ground. The Connection of this control to the Supply Voltage Make Absolutely No Difference in the Output Waveforms, as the IC only needs a 2/3's voltage on this Pin and this is supplied internally, Within the IC.
7. The "Frequency Adjust", Connects to Pins 6 & 7 of This 555. Supply to the battery Will Destroy the 555. so another resistor is needed to prevent this from happening.

This is just a small list of what is wrong. There is MUCH MORE and even after the thing is built it does NOT WORK! If you want to experiment then please do, but I would suggest you just make your own Pulse Width Modulator.
There are also many problems with the design of the reaction chamber and simply put, even if you did get it to work you would need more of these units than you could ever fit in your car to even think about running the engine. Simply put, the unit will NOT create enough gas to run much of anything. Don't get me wrong, I do think that the idea is GREAT and that it can be done.

**Reaction chamber:**

The suggested reaction chamber arrangement is:

It is suggested that you use a section of 4" PVC waste pipe with a threaded screw-cap fitting on one end and a standard end-cap at the other. Make sure to drill-and-epoxy or tap threads through the PVC components for all fittings. Set and control the water level in the chamber so that the pipe electrodes are well covered and there is still ample headroom left to build up the hydrogen/oxygen gas pressure. Use stainless steel wires inside the chamber or otherwise use a protective coating; use insulated wires outside. Ensure that the epoxy seals are perfect or alternatively, lay down a bead of water-proof silicone sufficient to hold the pressure.

The screw fitting may require soft silicone sealant, or a gasket. Its purpose is to maintain the pressure in the cylinder and yet allow periodic inspection of the electrodes. Make sure that there are no leaks and you will have no problems. Make sure you get a symmetric 1.5 mm gap between the 2 stainless steel pipes. The referenced literature suggests that the closer to 1 mm you get, the better. Check that the chamber water-level sensor is working correctly before you epoxy its cap in place. Make your solder connections at the wire/electrode junctions nice, smooth, and solid; then apply a waterproof coating, e.g. the epoxy you use for joining the pipes to the screw cap. This epoxy must be waterproof and be capable of holding metal to plastic under pressure.

The suggested circuit for the reaction chamber water-level pump control is:

![Circuit Diagram](image-url)
Hydrogen from Aluminium.

Since 2003 Rothman Technologies of Canada have been running a 12 HP petrol motor on hydrogen produced by a chemical process. This is a cheap process in which metal is consumed and so, although of great interest, this is not a ‘free-energy’ engine. A recent patent application by William Brinkley proposes a system where aluminium pipes are consumed by a 25% solution of Potassium Hydroxide heated to 180 degrees Fahrenheit. William remarks on the non-polluting nature of the system, but this is not really so in that a very large amount of energy has to be put into producing the aluminium metal in the smelting and refining process, and the pollution is just moved from the end user to the industrial plant, and much more importantly, the aluminium oxide produced is said to be highly toxic and cause a wide range of serious illnesses including Alzheimer’s, although I have seen this disputed. Francis Cornish of the UK has a system where electrolysis of water is combined with a chemical process consuming aluminium wire. The system works well, but I have reservations about using consumables which tie you to industrial manufacturing, also concerns about the reliability of mechanical feed systems when they are being used by non-technical people (most car drivers). There is also the issue of removing and recycling the chemical residue generated by the process.

I personally am not keen on chemical processes and I do NOT recommend that you construct anything based on the following description. However, it might be possible to adapt the Brinkley system so that it operates with no moving parts:

Here, there is a header tank containing a 25% mixture of Potassium Hydroxide (KOH) in water. This tank is positioned higher than the pressure tank where the hydrogen gas is generated and the venting pipe is protected by a baffle. The venting pipe should provide an outlet to the air outside the vehicle or building which contains the system.

Initially, the KOH solution in the pressure tank is heated by the heating element, but when the process gets started, it generates heat to maintain the chemical reaction. The gas generation then builds up pressure in the strongly-built pressure tank. The raised pressure pushes some of the KOH solution back into the header tank, against gravity. This reduces the area of aluminium exposed to the KOH solution and reduces the rate of gas production. This effectively creates an automated gas production rate control which has no moving parts.

If the rate of gas taken by the engine increases, that lowers the pressure in the pressure tank, allowing more KOH solution to run into the pressure tank, increasing the rate of gas production. When the engine is stopped completely, then the KOH solution gets pushed into the header tank until all gas production stops, as shown here:
This looks as if the pressure tank is under considerable pressure, but that is not so, as the header tank is open to atmospheric pressure. I have concerns about controlling purely chemical processes rapidly enough for practical use. The above system would be more suited to a fixed engine, such as an electrical generator, where the gas requirement does not fluctuate greatly. The KOH tank shown above should be large enough to contain all of the KOH solution in case the gas production just does not stop when it should. The vent from the header tank should be capable of venting excess hydrogen with no possibility of it ponding on a ceiling and forming an explosive mixture with air. As far as I am aware, the above system has never been constructed and it is just shown here for discussion purposes.

Only 5 pounds per square inch of pressure is needed for electrolyser systems to feed a car engine satisfactorily, so a relatively low pressure is quite satisfactory, provided that the piping is of reasonable internal diameter. It should be remembered that the car engine will be applying a slight vacuum through the bubbler. As with all of these systems, it is vital that at least one bubbler is used between the gas production and the engine, to guard against flashback from the engine ignition if faulty ignition should occur. All bubblers should have a tightly fitting pop-off cap which can ease the effect of an explosion, and they should contain only a small amount of gas. The method of connection to the engine and the necessary timing adjustments are shown and explained in Chapter 10.

**Francois Cornish Hydrogen System.**

The method of using aluminium for a fuel in an on-demand hydrogen system for vehicle propulsion has been presented in detail by several people. One of the best known is the 1987 US Patent 4,702,894 by Francois Cornish, where he uses a feed mechanism for aluminium wire to maintain an underwater electrical arc which raises the water temperature high enough to make the aluminium react with the water. The rotating drum is made of aluminium but as it has a much larger thermal capacity than the aluminium wire being fed towards it, the drum temperature is much lower than that of the wire. As a result of this, the wire reaches the temperature required to make the aluminium react with the water. The chemical reaction releases hydrogen and converts the aluminium wire to aluminium oxide powder, which settles on the bottom of the tank, passing through a grid just above the bottom of the tank.

The bubbles of hydrogen gas released by the reaction tend to stick to the rotating aluminium drum, so a wiper blade is provided to sweep the bubbles off the drum. The bubbles then rise to the surface of the water and are directed into the gas collection chamber by a funnel located above the arc. If the engine demand drops and the pressure in the gas collection tank rises, a sensor located in the tank causes the wire-feed control electronics to stop the wire feed which cuts off the gas production.

At first glance, a system like this appears to have limited appeal. It uses aluminium wire which requires manufacturing by a process which uses substantial amounts of energy and while a vehicle using hydrogen produced by this method will generate very little pollution, the pollution occurs at the point of manufacture. Also, the device uses a mechanical wire feed and any device of that nature will need regular maintenance and may not be 100% reliable. In addition, the aluminium oxide powder will have to be cleaned out of the generating tank on a routine basis.

But, having said all that, the system has some very significant advantages. It does not use any fossil fuel (directly). It can be readily installed in a vehicle and the consumption of aluminium wire is surprisingly low. Figures quoted indicate that typical consumption is of the order of 20 litres of water, plus one kilogram of aluminium used to cover 600 kilometers distance (1 pound per 170 miles). This is probably a good deal cheaper than using fossil fuel to drive the vehicle. However, the aluminium oxide produced by this system is...
a serious pollutant as it is **highly toxic**, producing a wide range of serious illnesses, including Alzheimer’s. The system is set up like this:

![Electrolysis System Diagram](image)

Another system of interest is the self-powered electrolysis system of the 1992 US Patent 5,089,107 granted to Francisco Pacheco where sacrificial anode plates of magnesium and aluminium are placed in seawater opposite a stainless steel cathode. Electrical power is generated and hydrogen produced on demand. There is also surplus electrical power available to run a standard electrolyser if so desired.

**The “MEG” Motionless Electricity Generator.**

Tom Bearden, Stephen Patrick, James Hayes, Kenneth Moore and James Kenny were granted US Patent 6,362,718 on 26th March 2002. The patent should never have been granted as it is in direct conflict with patent 5,926,083 granted two years earlier to Kelichiro Asaoka, which implies that the MEG patent is solely for the purpose of blocking other genuine patents. This patent is for an electromagnetic generator with no moving parts. This device is said be self-powered and is described and illustrated on JL Naudin’s web site at [http://jnaudin.free.fr/meg/megv21.htm](http://jnaudin.free.fr/meg/megv21.htm) where test results are shown. While this device has been claimed to have a greater output than its input and an output five times higher than the input has been mentioned, I am not aware of anyone who has attempted to replicate this device and achieved a COP>1 performance, and so, for that reason, it is described in this section describing devices which are unlikely to be worthwhile for the home-constructor to attempt to replicate.

The “Motionless Electromagnetic Generator” or “MEG” consists of a magnetic ring with output coils wound on it. Inside the ring is a permanent magnet to provide a steady magnetic flux around the ring. Superimposed on the ring are two electromagnets which are activated one after the other to make the magnetic flux oscillate. This is very much like Floyd Sweet’s “VTA” device.
The external power source shown above is intended to be disconnected when the circuit starts operating, at which time, part of the output from one of the pick-up coils is fed back to power the circuit driving the oscillator coils. The circuit then becomes self-sustaining, with no external input but with a continuous electrical output.

This device is essentially, a custom-built transformer with two primary windings (the oscillator coils) and two secondary windings (the pick-up coils), with a permanent magnet inserted to create a standing magnetic field through the yoke (frame) of the transformer. However, a permanent magnet has two separate energy streams coming from it. The main field is the magnetic field which is very well known. It normally flows out in every direction, but in the MEG, a very good conducting path is provided by the frame of the device. This traps the magnetic energy flow and channels it around inside the frame. This prevents it masking the second energy field which is the Electrical energy field.

The MEG looks like a very simple device, but in actual fact, it is not. To act as a successful device with a Coefficient of Performance (COP) over 1, where the input power which is provided is less than the useful power output of the device, then Tom says that the frame needs to be made from a nanocrystalline material. This material has special properties which would give the MEG exceptional output.

The output power is controlled by the waveform being sent to the oscillator coils. The power is controlled by the exact shape of the “square wave” drive:

Dave Lawton has experimented with the MEG arrangement, using a professionally constructed custom laminated iron yoke. He found that using the standard arrangement, he found no difference when he removed the permanent magnet. Testing various configurations, he found that the most effective set-up for his components is:
Here, the drive coils are both put asymmetrically on one side of the frame and wired so that their pulses complement each other. Then two pairs of button magnets are placed on the other side of the centreline, each side of the yoke, and bridged together with two straight vertical sections of laminated iron bar. This arrangement is sensitive to the exact position of these magnets and tuning is achieved by moving the group of four magnets and two bars (effectively two “horseshoe” magnets) slightly left or right to find the optimum position. Introducing or removing these magnets then made a considerable difference to the operation of the device.

The Devices of Hans Coler

Hans Coler developed a device which he named the “Stromerzeuger” which consisted of an arrangement of magnets, flat coils and copper plates with a primary circuit powered by a small battery. The output from the secondary circuit was used to light a bank of lamps and it was claimed that the output power was many times the input power and could continue indefinitely.
The apparatus principally consists of two parallel connected spools which being bi-filar wound in a special way, are magnetically linked together. One of these spools is composed of copper sheets (the spool is called the ‘plate spool’). The other one is made of a number of thin parallel connected isolated wires (called ‘spool winding’), running parallel to the plates, at small intervals. Both spools can be fed by separate batteries (6 Volt, 6.5 Ahr were used). At least two batteries are needed to get the apparatus operating, but subsequently, one battery can be removed.

The spools are arranged in two halves each by the bi-filar windings. The plate spool also contains iron rods with silver wire connections. These rods are magnetised by a special battery through exciter windings. Electrically, the exciter winding is completely isolated from the other windings. Hans said that the production of energy takes place principally in these iron rods and the winding of the spools plays an essential part in the process.

It should be mentioned that the spool circuit is powered up first. Initially, it took a current of 104 mA. The plates and exciter circuits are then switched on simultaneously. When this is done, the current in the spool circuit dropped from 104 mA to about 27 mA.

It is suggested that an electron be not only regarded as a negatively charged particle but also as a South magnetic pole. The basic Stromerzeuger element is that of an open secondary circuit, capacity loaded, inductively coupled to a primary circuit. The novel feature is that the capacities are connected to the secondary core through permanent magnets as shown here:

It is claimed that on switching on the primary circuit, “separation of charges” takes place with M1 becoming positively charged and M2 becoming negatively charged and that these charges are “magnetically polarised” when they formed, owing to the presence of the magnets. When the primary circuit is switched off, a “reversing current” flows in the secondary but the magnets “do not exert a polarising effect on this reversal”.

Two of the basic elements shown above are placed together making a double stage arrangement with the copper plates close together.

Note that the M1 coil is reversed. The magnets carry current and so it would be reasonable to presume that they are iron magnets rather than ferrite, iron magnets being common sixty years ago, combined with the fact that ferrite magnets do not conduct current and neodymium types were not available in 1925. The secondary windings are both exactly equal and “wound in a direction such that, on switching the primary coil on”, the electrons flow from P1 to P2 and from F1 to F2. Again, this is a most peculiar statement as the direction of electron flow is not affected by the direction of winding of the coil, which suggests that the person making the report knew almost nothing about circuitry. It is highly likely therefore, that the brief report which
has survived to today, is very vague and lacking in the essential details, the diagrams not indicating the bifilar windings and straight wire lengths mentioned earlier.

One of the very unusual statements made is that the F1/F2 circuit only induces the effect and that the excess power is drawn from the P1/P2 circuit. This is the basic working arrangement. More of these double stages can be added to provide higher outputs, with their outputs connected in parallel for greater current.

The original document, with masterly ambiguity, states that to make this arrangement, two of the original circuits are placed one on top of the other and then promptly draws the arrangement, showing the M1 magnet poles reversed, which of course, contradicts what has just been stated. So, it is not clear if the diagram or the statement is correct, but the likelihood is that the diagram is right.

For there to be any kind of continuous output from a transformer, the input cannot be DC in spite of the fact that dry-cell batteries were used to power the circuits (even though the output could be as high as six kilowatts). Coler stated that his research indicates that permanent magnets actually oscillate at about 180 kHz. If that is correct, then that could account for the magnetic induction produced in the circuit. If that is not what is relied on in this circuit, then the batteries have to be connected and disconnected continuously, and the technology being simple at that time, is seems likely that a relay would have been wired to self-oscillate as in the early electric bells. While that arrangement could have been used just to connect and disconnect the batteries with a relay contact, the relay coil will have generated high-voltage sharp pulses, generating short magnetic pulses of the type which causes an inflow of cold electricity into the circuit from the local ambient background.

Alternatively, although it is not mentioned or suggested, the connection could have been made using a relay which had only one contact, in which case, the back-EMF of the relay coil may have fed high-voltage pulses directly into the circuit. This is, of course, just ill-informed speculation. The arrangement might have been:

![Diagram](image)

In each case, the battery current flows the normally closed relay contact, powering the relay winding, which opens the switch contact, disconnecting the relay and so closing the switch contact again. This causes rapid pulsing of the battery voltage and the relay coil generates high voltages, typically of some hundreds of volts. If the circuit connection is as shown in the first arrangement, then when the relay switch opens, high back-EMF voltage pulses will be fed to the circuit. On the other hand, if a relay with two separate contacts is used, the second relay switch contact can be used to connect the battery to the circuit and disconnect it again in a very rapid sequence. There is a group of people at [http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/testatika/](http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/testatika/) who are working towards making an operational version of this device. Information on the Coler devices is presented clearly at [http://rimstar.org/sdenergy/coler/index.htm#STROMERZEUGER](http://rimstar.org/sdenergy/coler/index.htm#STROMERZEUGER).

Patrick Kelly

[http://www.free-energy-info.com](http://www.free-energy-info.com)
Chapter 14: Renewable Energy Devices

Note: If you are not at all familiar with basic electronics, you might find it easier to follow parts of this chapter if you read chapter 12 first.

Heaters.
The devices described here are not “free-energy” devices as such, but in spite of that, it is an area of considerable interest to many people, and the subject is included here because of that.

If you do not live in an urban area, then a solid fuel stove can be an economic solution, especially if the fuel can be collected free from wooded areas. Stove design has advanced considerably and it is now possible to make a simple stove with very high efficiency and very low emissions as shown here:

Although this stove is a very simple construction, it’s efficiency is very high indeed. The best fuel is made of smaller pieces which rest on a simple shelf. Branches work better than large pieces of wood as the consumption is more complete. As the fuel is consumed, it is pushed further into the stove, which gives the user an appreciation of the rate of consumption. Having the fuel resting on a shelf has the major advantage of allowing air to flow both above it and below it, which gives improved combustion. The operation is said to be so good that there is virtually no residue and no emissions.

Again, if land space is available, a solar oven (or Stirling motor) can be used, either to store energy for later use or generate heat for cooking or home heating, as can hot-water solar panels. However, it is only realistic to consider the application to be during the night in a built-up area with little or no spare space for equipment.

The Wood-Gas Stove.
There is another very effective type of wood-burning stove. There are several commercial versions of this stove on sale, but most of them use an electric fan to get the effect which is produced automatically by this design. This design has been replicated by Alberto Feliciano and found to be very effective in operation. It causes a load of wood which would normally burn up in fifteen minutes to burn for a whole hour, putting out a much greater amount of heat. The design is very straightforward. There is an outer drum which has a solid base, and the opposite end removed entirely as shown here:
A ring of ventilation holes is drilled around the whole of the bottom edge of the drum and threaded rods are run through the drum. These support a circle of wire mesh which forms a supporting shelf.

A smaller drum then has both ends removed, to form a cylinder. This cylinder is to fit inside the outer drum. It rests on the mesh shelf of the outer drum. This cylinder has a ring of ventilation holes is drilled around the whole of it’s upper edge as shown here:

A third drum which is only slightly smaller than the outer drum is cut down to make a cap for the inner cylinder. This cap is not tight-fitting, but it effectively closes off the top of the gap between the sides of inner cylinder and the sides of the outer drum:

This cap has a circular hole cut in it, and this hole is only slightly smaller than the diameter of the inner cylinder. It is supported by the upper lip of the inner drum but the hole is large enough that it does not obstruct the flow of heat up through the top of the inner drum. These three pieces fit together like this:
Wood of any type, branches, sticks, firewood, etc. are placed inside the inner cylinder and set alight. Initially, the flames come out of the top of the stove as you would expect, but after a few minutes, the combustion alters completely. The burn now becomes that of wood-gas rather than of the wood itself. The wood is slowly converted to charcoal and the gas released by this process burns with greater heat than the wood would give as well as burning for a much greater length of time. This stove design can be made in any size. Small versions get a burn length of about three times that of the wood burning in the open air, while large versions can reach four times the burn length.

Flames no longer come out of the top of the stove, but instead, they come out of the ring of holes around the base of the outer drum. The process is like this:

A high-temperature gas burn takes place in the centre of the inner cylinder. This pushes heat out through the top and the bottom of the inner cylinder. The heat flowing out of the top is used for heating or cooking as before. The heat flowing out of the bottom gets diverted around the outside of the inner drum, flows upwards, is caught by the cap and fed back into the inner cylinder through the ring of holes at the top of the inner cylinder. This raises the temperature of the gas burn even further and it augments the heat coming out of the top of the stove. The result is a very hot burn which goes on far longer than would happen if the same wood was burnt on an open fire or in a single open drum. When the wood reaches the end of it’s burn cycle, it can be replaced by feeding new wood through the hole in the cap which rests on the inner cylinder. The stove will need to be emptied of ash from time to time.
Mr Teslonian’s Heating / Fuel-producing / Electricity and Refrigeration System

The Wood-gas stove shown above has been taken several steps further by “Mr Teslonian” as shown in his videos:  http://www.youtubeskip.com/watch?v=arbXj9R6Zxw&list=PLw28_n7AgcmBtqfnxDV50M-V2JPi3vtFt and http://www.youtubeskip.com/watch?v=647R2R_VzG8 where he burns twigs in a home-made wood-gas furnace, heats his house, heats his water, produces engine fuel, runs an electricity generator off the gas and powers a refrigerator. All that, from a few twigs! This is very impressive and he is definitely to be congratulated for his development. His basic wood-gas stove can produce flames up to eight feet (2.5m) tall when operating very effectively on just a few handfuls of short twigs and branches. It looks like this:

This very effective wood burner produces enough heat to heat a house and produce hot water. The wood-gas can also be used to produce both crude oil and fairly well-refined oil which can be used in an engine:

And as you can see from the picture above, the wood-gas can run an electricity generator. There is a world of difference between burning wood like this and a typical camp fire or bonfire.

Wood-gas can also be used to run vehicles (as was done during World War 2). Links to a great deal more information include:
Solid Fuel Producing Electricity

We then to think of small-scale solid-fuel burners as providing heat and perhaps a little light as well. The people in Siberia don’t think like that and they produce a range of (just) portable solid fuel stoves which provide heating, cooking and 12-volt electricity up to 50 watts. While 50 watts doesn’t sound like much, it is a major amount when there isn’t any at all available. A small inverter provides mains AC power for smaller appliances:

[Image of a solid fuel stove]

If it is still there, the video of this is at [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2Za98e7-Mxg&feature=related](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2Za98e7-Mxg&feature=related) and the manufacturers ([http://www.termofor.ru/eng/products/for_heating/normal_pg/index.html](http://www.termofor.ru/eng/products/for_heating/normal_pg/index.html)) show a video of this stove design being used in a snow-covered wood at -32 Centigrade temperatures, giving about +35 degrees Centigrade inside the tent. Mind you, weighing in at 54 kilograms which is a whopping 120 pounds or so, this is not a back-packing solution for camping trips. Sales outlets are in Siberia, New York, Australia, Kyrgyzstan, Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan and Latvia at the present time.

The HHO Gas Option.

One significant advantage of this design is that less wood is needed for any give heating or cooking application and there is very little smoke or soot produced which is a distinct advantage for a person using the stove for cooking and standing nearby during the cooking process. This can cause a major medical
improvement as smoke inhalation for women who need to undertake long periods of daily cooking using wood as a fuel, are liable to suffer serious breathing problems as a result.

Electrical heating, while very convenient, is usually expensive, and it often seems that the effectiveness of an electric heater is not directly related to its power consumption. In theory it definitely is, but in practice it just does not seem that way. There are other alternatives.

One of the other documents in this set, shows how to construct a Stanley Meyer style electrolyser which uses ordinary tap water and splits it into burnable fuel using just a low power electrical input:

The difficulty in creating a heating system which uses the gas produced by this unit, is in the very high temperature produced when the gas is burnt. Stan overcame this problem with by designing a special burner which mixes air and burnt gasses in with the gas before it is burnt. That lowers the flame temperature to a level which is suitable for heating and cooking:

While this looks a bit complicated, it's construction is really quite simple. The combination of the Meyer electrolyser and Meyer burner form a system which has the potential of being operated from a solar panel and battery as shown here:
A system like this needs extreme care as the hydrogen / oxygen ("HHO") gas produced is explosive. So:

1. It is very important that the electrolyser has the ability to provide sufficient gas to keep the flame(s) sustained.

2. The electrolyser must be fitted with a pressure switch, typically operating at 5 pounds per square inch or so. This is included so that should the gas usage drop, then the drive from the electronics is cut off to stop further gas production, and incidentally, stopping the current draw from the battery.

3. It is absolutely essential that there be a flame-operated valve on the gas supply line to the burner, so that should the flame go out for any reason whatsoever, then the gas supply will be cut off. This type of valve is common on town-gas operated fires for use in homes.

**Henry Paine's Patent.**

There is an alternative method which it is claimed can convert the explosive HHO gas into a much more docile fuel, more suited to conventional burners and stoves. It must be stressed that this system is over 120 years old and it should not be used until you have carried out careful tests on it. David Quirey has been using this technique successfully for more than twenty years now. The method was patented by Henry M. Paine in US Letters Patent No. 308,276 dated 18th November 1884 and it is very simple:

The idea is to bubble the HHO gas produced by electrolysis of water, through a liquid hydrocarbon such as turpentine or acetone. The bubbler should have a large number of small holes in the incoming tube, so that a very large number of small bubbles of HHO gas pass through the hydrocarbon. This brings the majority of the HHO gas into intimate contact with the hydrocarbon and the process is claimed to convert the HHO gas into a new variety of gas which is not explosive, can be stored for later use, and which burns with the same characteristics as coal-gas ("town gas").

**The Heaters of Sang Nam Kim.**

Mr Kim of Korea also proposes methods of using hydroxy gas for heating and using Henry Paine's hydrocarbon bubbling method. He has four patents on the subject of heating:

US 6,397,834 in June 2002 - Heating Furnace
US 6,443,725 in September 2002 - Energy Generation
US 6,761,558 in July 2004 - Heating Apparatus
The first of these shows his method of getting both beneficial radiant heat and convention heating from a stone construction like this:

This unit is intended as a seriously powerful heating source for a minimum of one room. Mr Kim quotes a hydroxy gas requirement of 30 litres per minute which is a very considerable amount, and if the gas is produced by electrolysis of water at Faraday efficiency, it would need a current draw of 4.2 kilowatts. There is every indication that Mr Kim's method of electrolysis is low efficiency as his latest patent shows a radiator and fan:

It is virtually certain that there will be a high proportion of hot water vapour mixed in with the gas which is being burnt and that will reduce the explosive nature of the gas to near zero. It also means that the actual volume of hydroxy gas is likely to be well below the 30 lpm quoted by Mr Kim.
Mr Kim also shows a burner intended for use with an existing furnace. He remarks that the outer casing gets to be red hot, running at 1,000°C or more, and so any replication of his design should be treated with care when mounting fixtures are being constructed. In this design, Mr Kim uses the Paine technique and recommends bubbling his hydroxy gas through hexane liquid (C\textsubscript{6}H\textsubscript{14}) where 0.3 litres of hexane per hour gets burnt as well as the hydroxy gas. He rates the hydroxy gas requirement of this burner as being 20 lpm, which at Faraday efficiencies, represents 2.8 kilowatts of electricity, although as mentioned before, it is likely that the actual amount of hydroxy gas in his 20 lpm volume is much lower than he thinks, and so will have a lower electrical requirement when using a more electrically efficient electrolyser. His burner is like this:

Mr Kim believes that the hexane prevents flashback ignition. He does not appear to specify the heating material inside the burner but it is probably stainless steel wool. He speaks of gas pressures of 1 Kg per sq. cm., which, if my calculations are correct is 14.22 psi. which is not possible for 100% hydroxy gas as it will explode spontaneously at 12 psi. due to its high energy state and electrical charge.

He states that the secondary flames at the top of the unit "burn with a blue flame colour" and that is different to the flame colour lower down. Mr Kim believes that the hydroxy burnt at the bottom of the burner forms water vapour which is then split into hydroxy gas again by the very high temperature and that is the reason for the blue flames at the top. Personally, I don't believe that this will take place and that the effect may have a good deal to do with the hexane liquid being burnt. However, this burner design appears to be a good one for lower grades of hydroxy gas.

If a higher grade of hydroxy gas is being used, please be aware that a hypodermic-size tiny burner orifice will be needed to avoid flashbacks and no commercial flashback arrester will work reliably with good quality hydroxy gas on every occasion and so a bubbler is absolutely essential.

The Hydrogen Garage
In 2013, Andrew of the Hydrogen Garage in America stated:
We are heating up the shop with only 216 watts, 12 Volts at 18 amps using one “dual 7 plate” electrolyser cell with a water tank and bubbler and a 5-inch dryer, hose and torch which can be operated continuously 24/7 if desired. The flames produced are pointed into a central stainless steel tube 12-inches (300 mm) long and 1-inch (25 mm) in diameter. Wrapped all around the central pipe are 10 more stainless steel tubes held together as a group by 2 hose clamps. The set of pipes is placed on the concrete floor. In our work, we have to prepare HHO electrolyser cells and the HHO gas produced during that process is used to heat the shop. No more need for propane and no more headaches from 6 hours of heating the room. Now the HHO gas adds ozone to the air in the shop and there are no fumes and no smell. The burner used is shown at http://hydrogengarage.com/h2eat.html and it can be powered by one 14/7 HHO cell available at: http://stores.homestead.com/hydrogengarage/-strse-179/ICE-BLOCK-14-dsh-7-Cell/Detail.bok There is no need for a Pulse-Width Modulator unit as you can just use direct DC power from a DC power supply or battery charger. Solar panels can run HHO cells well.

![Image](image.jpg)

Catalytic HHO Heating from Justin Church

On Sterling Allan’s website at http://peswiki.com/index.php/OS:Justin_Church%27s_H-Cat there is a description of an HHO heating process which has been under development since 2010. It is a particularly interesting system in that no flame is involved, but instead, a stream of HHO gas is fed into a standard vehicle catalytic converter along with air which can freely enter the converter. Justin has found that with a quite low flow of HHO, such as that produced by 13.8V at 5A (70 watts), the converter heats up to a level which can barely be touched and that is quite remarkable considering that the converter is has substantial weight of metal in its construction. Measurements of the temperature inside the converter show that it is running at more than five hundred degrees F. Justin calls his unit the “H-Cat”.

14 - 10
Sterling’s web site is definitely worth a visit.

**Heating With Electric Power.**
Electric power is very popular for heaters. However, with most appliances, it is a very expensive form of heating. There is a technique which is reputed to improve the efficiency and lower the cost of electric heating. This method involves rotating a cylinder inside an outer cylinder and filling part of the narrow space between the cylinders with some variety of light oil.

**Eugene Frenette’s Patent.**
This method has been patented more than once. In 1979, Eugene Frenette was granted patent 4,143,639 where a single motor is used to rotate the drum and power a fan to boost the motion of the hot air:

It is not immediately obvious why this arrangement should work well, but it appears that it does. As the inner drum spins around, the oil rises up between the two inner cylinders. It lubricates the bearing under the rotating drum and the rotation causes the oil to heat up. This heats the middle cylinder and air being drawn
up around it by the action of the fan blade, is also heated before being pushed out of the top of the heater. After a few minutes, the outer housing becomes so hot that the thermostat attached to it, cuts off the electrical supply.

The heater does not stop heating at this time as air continues to circulate through the heater by ordinary convection. In my opinion, it would be more effective if the fan motor were operated independently and did not cut off when the heater reaches its operating temperature.

**Eugene Perkins’ Patent.**

Very similar systems were patented by Eugene Perkins: January 1984 patent 4,424,797, November 1984 patent 4,483,277, March 1987 patent 4,651,681, October 1988 patent 4,779,575, and in January 1989 patent 4,798,176.

His first patent shows a horizontal drum which is completely immersed in the liquid:

![Diagram of a horizontal drum heater](image)

This calls for a much greater accuracy of construction in that the liquid has to be contained even though it has a rotating shaft running through the housing. This device pumps the heated liquid through central-heating piping and radiators.

In his later patent of the same year, he shows a modified version with two drums and an impeller:

![Diagram of a modified drum heater](image)
The “heat exchanger” is a radiator or set of radiators.

He then progressed to a system where the shaft rotation forces the liquid to be expelled through the tips of arms radiating out from the centre of the impeller hub:

Here, the liquid is forced into a small space between the rotor and its drum housing. This system has been used very successfully for water heating and some measurements indicate that it is at least 100% efficient and some people believe that it is well over the 100% efficiency, though they don’t want to get drawn into long discussions on methods of measurement. It is sufficient to say here, that this method is very effective indeed.

**Frenette Variation:** The Frenette heater design shown above with its two vertical cylinders, is not the easiest for the home constructor unless one of the cylinders (presumably the inner one) is constructed from steel sheet, as it is difficult to find two commercially available steel cylinders of just the right relative size to produce the wanted gap between them. A much easier variation replaces the inner cylinder with a stack of circular steel discs. As these can be cut from 20 gauge steel sheet fairly readily by the home constructor, or alternatively, cut by any local metalworking or fabrication company, any available size of outer cylinder can be used and the disc diameter chosen accordingly.

The discs are mounted about 6 mm (1/4") apart on a central steel rod which is rotated in order to drive the discs through the oil contained inside the body of the heater. While this looks like a Tesla Turbine, it is not because the spacing of the discs creates a different effect. The wider disc spacing creates shear as they spin through the surrounding oil, and this shearing creates a high degree of heating. It must be remembered that this is a heater, and the outer canister gets very hot during operation (which is the whole point of the exercise in the first place). For that reason, oil is used as a filling and not water, which boils at a much lower temperature. The larger the diameter of the canister and the greater the number of discs inside it, the greater the heat developed.

To ensure that the discs do not come loose during prolonged operation, a hole can be drilled through them just outside the area covered by the locking/spacing nuts, and a stiff wire run through the holes and the ends either welded to the central rod or pushed through a hole drilled in it and bent over to hold it in place. The heat of the cylinder can be circulated by attaching a simple fan blade to the spinning shaft. This blows air down the hot sides of the canister, moving it towards the floor which is the most effective place for it circulate and heat the entire room.
As the discs spin, the oil is pushed outwards and moves upwards, filling the top of the canister and building up some pressure there. This pressure can be relieved by running an external pipe from the top of the cylinder back to the bottom, allowing the oil to circulate freely. This has the decided advantage the circulating oil can be passed through a radiator as shown in the following diagram:

The central rod can be rotated by any convenient motor, conventional, Adams type, pulse-motor, permanent magnet motor, or whatever. An alternative to this style of operation, is to use the rotating motor to spin a ring of permanent magnets positioned close beside a thick aluminium plate. The eddy currents cause very strong heating of the aluminium plate which then can have air blown across it to provide space heating.
The Series-connected Heater.
While not a free-energy device, one simple arrangement which I use myself, is an adapted halogen heater. A standard, low-cost halogen heater consists of three separate 400-watt sections with a switching arrangement which allows one, two or three sections to be powered up:

![Diagram of a 1200-watt halogen heater with three sections powered up.]

I changed the connections inside my particular heater, so that all three halogen lamps are connected in a chain. This did not involve cutting any wires or making any new connections as the wires connecting to the lamps have push-on ‘spade’ connectors to allow for both simple manufacturing and easy replacement of a halogen lamp. The new arrangement is like this:

![Diagram of a 230 watt halogen heater with two sections powered up.]

This arrangement ‘under-runs’ the lamps as each lamp only gets one third of the voltage which it was designed for. This has the effect of increasing the working life of the lamp enormously. You would expect the heat output to be very poor, and perhaps it is. But it gives the impression of being quite effective and with all of the three sections working, it provides a gentle heat and light which seems very effective in keeping a room warm.

William McDavid’s Wind-Powered Generator.
William McDavid junior remarks that a horizontal axis windmill of that type creates an area of slow-moving air behind the blades and that restricts the flow of air past the blades. A way to overcome that is to project the outgoing air in a direction which does not impede the incoming air. He shows how this can be done in his patent US Patent 6,800,955 of 5th October 2004. In this design, the wind blows into the generator housing and is deflected upwards through the fan blades of a turbine which spins an electrical generator:
One clever feature common to both of these designs is the use of a stationary circular housing with deflectors which uses the wind flow no matter what the wind direction happens to be at any given moment. Looking down from above, the housing looks like this:

![Diagram of housing with deflectors](image)

This view shows two important features which enhance the performance of the device. The first is that hinged flaps allow the (horizontal) inflow of air but block the air from flowing straight out of the other side of the central section. This forces the wind to turn and flow upwards, and not only that, but this arrangement causes the air to spin, creating a miniature tornado vortex which amplifies the power of the wind as can be seen from the devastation caused by full-size tornadoes in the environment. As can be seen from the upper
diagram, an upward-curving conical piece on the base of the housing assists the airflow to turn upwards as it spins. The spinning air helps to spin the generator blades faster, giving additional power.

A major additional feature is the fact that the dimension “A” is considerably less than the dimension “B” due to the reduced diameter of the housing nearer the centre. This means that the air flowing past the vanes of housing gets squeezed into a smaller space as it flows. This forces the air to speed up, causing the flow inside the central housing to be higher than the wind-speed outside and that boosts the performance of the device. This wind-powered generator looks like a straightforward project for home construction and with the air being deflected vertically, there does not appear to be any reason why several should not be located near each other. William’s full patent can be seen in the appendix of this eBook.

**Frank Herbert’s Wind-Powered Generator.**

As has been carefully explained by the above article, if a windmill of the blade variety is mounted low down then it is dangerous, and people on sailing boats have been killed by them. Also, if the blade arrangement is designed to operate well in low wind conditions, then it is not unusual for there to be a problem if the wind rises to gale force or higher, with some generator designs giving up and switching off entirely, even though the available free energy is at its highest level.

This design by Frank Herbert is perfectly capable of being home-built and yet it overcomes these problems as well as being a high-efficiency wind turbine. It has an outside cage which prevents human access to the moving parts inside and the ‘cage’ is not just for protection but is there to enhance the performance of the device. In passing, windmills can be used to compress air and compressed air cylinders can be used to power vehicles and/or power electrical generators during periods of heavy power requirements. The following information is from Frank Herbert’s US Patent 4,142,822 of 1979:

![Diagram of Frank Herbert's Wind-Powered Generator](image)

The vertical housing 22 shown dotted here, surrounds the vertical power take-off shaft 26. The wind is allowed to flow through this housing at any angle, so there is no need for the housing to move. In the diagram above small discs 44 are shown at each end of the vertical shaft. These discs have arms 42 extending outwards to support a series of vertical vanes or pressure surfaces 24. For clarity, just one vane is shown through there will actually be many of these (rather like the cutting blades on a cylinder lawnmower). In reality, there will be no arms on the discs 42 as it is much easier just to have a full-width solid disc supporting the vanes.

The outer housing has a series of vertical slats which are angled to direct the incoming wind on to the vanes at the best possible angle:
This top view of part of the device, shows the main mounting shaft 26 on which the top and bottom rotor discs are mounted. The red dots show the pivot points where the vanes 24 can turn to take the greatest advantage of the wind pressure. The incoming wind 36, is deflected by the slats of the housing 32, to give it a good angle when flowing through the device as well as keeping humans away from the spinning mechanism. As the vanes and slats are located all the way around shaft 26, sudden changes in wind direction and/or wind strength have no particular effect on this design as it operates with wind coming from any direction and no physical movement of any part of the device is needed for a change in wind direction.

The vanes can have various different profiles and still work well. The shape shown above is the shape of an aircraft wing, where a force acting towards the curved surface is generated when air flows around the shape. This is not a particularly difficult shape to construct and it is very effective in an airflow (which is why it is used to lift aircraft off the ground). There can be any convenient number of vanes and a device built as shown above should be very effective..

As the overall efficiency is improved if there is no turbulence inside the device, Frank has found a method of minimising this. For this, he uses a mechanism which can alter the shape of the vanes when the wind speed gets high. The higher wind speed whirls the vanes around faster, causing higher ‘centrifugal’ forces on the vanes which Frank uses as follows. Weight 54 gets pushed across by the spin rate of the rotor.

This pushes against the spring 56, compressing it. The triangle link 59 moves upwards, pivoting at points 59a and 59c, and raising section 50 of the vane. This changes the shape of the vane as shown here:
The result of this changed shape is to reduce turbulence inside the device and raise the overall efficiency.

**The Mead and Holmes Power System.**
The US patent 4,229,661 dated 1980 from Claude Mead and William Holmes is entitled “Power Plant for Camping Trailer” proposes the use of a wind power generator to store compressed air for later use in providing household electrical current, and simultaneously charge batteries which can be used to drive the compressor in periods of very high electrical demand. There is also an option for a rapid system charge if AC mains power becomes available:

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**Solar Ovens.**
This information comes from [http://solarcooking.org/plans/funnel.htm](http://solarcooking.org/plans/funnel.htm) and ownership remains with the original authors and the material is reproduced here with their kind permission.

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**The Solar Funnel Cooker**
How to Make and Use The Brigham Young University Solar Cooker/Cooler
by Professor of Physics at Brigham Young University (BYU), with Colter Paulson, Jason Chesley, Jacob
Introduction

A few years ago, I woke up to the fact that half of the people in the world must burn wood or dried dung in order to cook their food. It came as quite a shock to me, especially as I learned of the illnesses caused by breathing smoke day in and day out, and the environmental impacts of deforestation - not to mention the time spent by people (mostly women) gathering sticks and dung to cook their food. And yet, many of these billions of people live near the equator, where sunshine is abundant and free. So.....

As a University Professor of Physics with a background in energy usage, I set out to develop a means of cooking food and sterilising water using the energy freely available from the sun. First, I looked at existing methods.

The parabolic cooker involves a reflective dish which concentrates sunlight to a point where the food is cooked. This approach is very dangerous since the sun's energy is focused to a point which is very hot, but which cannot be seen. (Brigham Young University students and I built one which will set paper on fire in about 3 seconds!). I learned that an altruistic group had offered reflecting parabolas to the people living at the Altiplano in Bolivia. But more than once these parabolas had been stored next to a shed -- and the passing sun set the sheds on fire! The people did not want these dangerous, expensive devices, even though the Altiplano region has been stripped of fuel wood.

The box cooker: Is basically an insulated box with a glass or plastic lid, often with a reflecting lid to direct sunlight into the box. Light enters through the top glass (or plastic), to slowly heat up the box. The problems with this design are that energy enters only through the top, while heat is escaping through all of the other sides, which have a tendency to draw heat away from the food. When the box is opened to put food in or take it out, some of the heat escapes and is lost. Also, effective box cookers tend to be more complicated to build than the funnel cooker.

While studying this problem, I thought again and again of the great need for a safe, inexpensive yet effective solar cooker. It finally came to me at Christmas a few years ago, a sort of hybrid between the parabola and the box cooker. It looks like a large, deep funnel, and incorporates what I believe are the best features of both the parabolic cooker and the box cooker.

The first reflector was made at my home out of aluminium foil glued on to cardboard, then this was curved to form a reflective funnel. My children and I figured out a way to make a large cardboard funnel easily. (I'll tell you exactly how to do this later on.)

The Solar Funnel Cooker is safe and low cost, easy to make, yet very effective in capturing the sun's energy for cooking and pasteurising water -> Eureka!

Later, I did extensive tests with students (including reflectivity tests) and found that aluminised Mylar was good too, but relatively expensive and rather hard to come by in large sheets. Besides, cardboard is found throughout the world and is inexpensive, and aluminium foil is also easy to come by. Also, individuals can make their own solar cookers easily, or start a cottage-industry to manufacture them for others.

Prototypes of the Solar Funnel Cooker were tested in Bolivia, and outperformed an expensive solar box cooker and a "Solar Coolkit" while costing much less then either. Brigham Young University submitted a patent application, mainly to insure that no company would prevent wide distribution of the Solar Funnel Cooker. Brigham Young University makes no profit from the invention. (I later learned that a few people had had a similar idea, but with methods differing from those developed and shown here). So now I'm trying to get the word out so that the invention can be used to capture the free energy coming from the
sun - for camping and for emergencies, yes, but also for every day cooking where electricity is not available and where even fuel wood is getting scarce.

How it Works

The reflector is shaped like a giant funnel, and lined with aluminium foil. (Easy to follow instructions will be given soon). This funnel is rather like the parabolic cooker, except that the sunlight is concentrated along a line (not a point) at the bottom of the funnel. You can put your hand up the bottom of the funnel and feel the sun's heat, but it will not burn you.

Next, we paint a jar black on the outside, to collect heat, and place this at the bottom of the funnel. Or a black pot with a lid can be used. The black vessel gets hot, quickly, but not quite hot enough to cook with. We need some way to build up the heat without letting the outside air cool it. So, I put a cheap plastic bag around the jar -- and, the solar funnel cooker was born! The plastic bag, available in grocery stores as a "poultry bag", replaces the cumbersome and expensive box and glass lid of solar box ovens. You can use the plastic bags used in American stores to put groceries in, as long as they let a lot of sunlight pass. (Dark-coloured bags will not do).

I recently tested a bag used for fruits and vegetables, nearly transparent and available free at American grocery stores, that works great. This is stamped "HDPE" for high-density polyethylene on the bag (ordinary polyethylene melts too easily). A block of wood is placed under the jar to help hold the heat in. (Any insulator, such as a hot pad or rope or even sticks, will also work).

A friend of mine who is also a Physics Professor did not believe I could actually boil water with the thing. So I showed him that with this new "solar funnel cooker" I was able to boil water in Utah in the middle of winter! I laid the funnel on its side since it was winter and pointed a large funnel towards the sun to the south. I also had to suspend the black cooking vessel -- rather than placing it on a wooden block. This allows the weaker sun rays to strike the entire surface of the vessel.

Of course, the Solar Funnel works much better outside of winter days, that is, when the UV index is 7 or greater. Most other solar cookers will not cook in the winter in northern areas (or south of about 35 degrees, either).

I thought that a pressure cooker would be great. But the prices in stores were way too high for me. Wait, how about a canning jar? These little beauties are designed to relieve pressure through the lid -- a nice pressure cooker. And cooking time is cut in half for each 10ºC we raise the temperature (Professor Lee Hansen, private communication). I used one of my wife's wide-mouth canning jars, spray-painted (flat) black on the outside, and it worked great. Food cooks faster when you use a simple canning jar as a pressure cooker. However, you can also put a black pot in the plastic bag instead if you want. But don't use a sealed container with no pressure release like a mayonnaise jar -- it can break as the steam builds up (I've done it!)

How to Build Your Own Solar Funnel Cooker

What You will Need for the Funnel Cooker:

A piece of flat cardboard, about 2 feet wide by 4 feet long. (The length should be just twice the width. The bigger, the better).

Ordinary aluminium foil.

A glue such as white glue (like Elmer's glue), and water to mix with it 50-50. Also, a brush to apply the glue to the cardboard (or a cloth or paper towel will do). Or, some may wish to use a cheap "spray adhesive" available in spray cans. You can also use flour paste.

Three wire brads - or small nuts and bolts, or string to hold the funnel together.

For a cooking vessel, I recommend a canning jar ("Ball" wide-mouth quart jars work fine for me; the rubber ring on the lid is less likely to melt than for other jars I've found. A two-quart canning jar is available and works fine for larger quantities of food, although the cooking is somewhat slower).

The cooking jar (or vessel) should be spray-painted black on the outside. I find that a cheap flat-black spray paint works just fine. Scrape off a vertical stripe so that you have a clear glass "window" to look into the vessel, to check the food or water for boiling.

A block of wood is used as an insulator under the jar. I use a piece of 2" x 4" board which is cut into a square nominally 4" x 4" by about 2" thick. (100 mm square x 50 mm thick). One square piece of wood makes a great insulator.
A plastic bag is used to go around the cooking-jar and block of wood, to provide a green-house effect. Suggestions:

- Reynolds™ Oven Bag, Regular Size works great: transparent and won't melt. (Cost about 25 cents each in U.S. grocery stores.)

- Any nearly-transparent HDPE bag (High-density Polyethylene). Look for “HDPE” stamped on the bag. I've tested HDPE bags which I picked up for free at my grocery store, used for holding vegetables and fruits. These are thin, but very inexpensive. Tested side-by-side with an oven bag in two solar funnels, the HDPE bag worked just as well! Caution: we have found that some HDPE bags will melt should they contact the hot cooking vessel. For this reason, we recommend using the oven-safe plastic bag wherever possible.

- An idea attributed to Roger Bernard and applied now to the BYU Funnel Cooker: place a pot (having a blackened bottom and sides) in a glass bowl, and cover with a lid. Try for a tight fit around the bottom to keep hot air trapped inside. The metal pot or bowl should be supported around the rim only, with an air space all around the bottom (where the sunlight strikes it). Put a blackened lid on top of the pot. Then simply place this pot-in-bowl down in the bottom of the funnel - no plastic bag is needed! This clever method also allows the cook to simply remove the lid to check the food and to stir. I like this idea - it makes the solar cooker a lot like cooking over a fire. See Photographs for further details.

**Construction Steps**

**Cut a Half-circle out of the Cardboard**

Cut a half circle out of the cardboard, along the bottom as shown below. When the funnel is formed, this becomes a full-circle and should be wide enough to go around your cooking pot. So for a 7” diameter cooking pot, the radius of the half-circle is 7”. For a quart canning jar such as I use, I cut a 5” radius half-circle out of the cardboard.
Form the Funnel

To form the funnel, you will bring side A towards side B, as shown in the figure. The aluminium foil must go on the INSIDE of the funnel. Do this slowly, helping the cardboard to the shape of a funnel by using one hand to form creases that radiate out from the half-circle. Work your way around the funnel, bending it in stages to form the funnel shape, until the two sides overlap and the half-circle forms a complete circle. The aluminium foil will go on the INSIDE of funnel. Open the funnel and lay it flat, "inside up", in preparation for the next step.

Glue Foil to Cardboard

Apply glue or adhesive to the top (inner) surface of the cardboard, then quickly apply the aluminium foil on top of the glue, to affix the foil to the cardboard. Make sure the shiniest side of the foil is on top, since this becomes your reflective surface in the Funnel. I like to put just enough glue for one width of foil, so that the glue stays moist while the foil is applied. I also overlap strips of foil by about 1" (or 2 cm). Try to smooth out the aluminium foil as much as you reasonably can, but small wrinkles won't make much difference. If cardboard is not available, one can simply dig a funnel-shaped hole in the ground and line it with a reflector, to make a fixed solar cooker for use at mid-day.

Join side A to side B to keep the funnel together.
The easiest way to do this is to punch three holes in the cardboard that line up on side A and side B (see figure). Then put a metal brad through each hole and fasten by pulling apart the metal tines. Or you can use a nut-and-bolt to secure the two sides (A & B) together.

Be creative here with what you have available. For example, by putting two holes about a thumb-width apart, you can put a string, twine, small rope, wire or twist-tie in one hole and out the other, and tie together.

When A and B are connected together, you will have a "funnel with two wings". The wings could be cut off, but these help to gather more sunlight, so I leave them on.

**Tape or glue a piece of aluminium foil across the hole at the bottom of the funnel, with shiny side in.**

This completes assembly of your solar funnel cooker.

For stability, place the funnel inside a cardboard or other box to provide support. For long-term applications, one may wish to dig a hole in the ground to hold the Funnel against strong winds.

**Final Steps**

At this stage, you are ready to put food items or water into the cooking vessel or jar, and put the lid on securely. (See instructions on food cooking times, to follow).

Place a wooden block in the INSIDE bottom of the cooking bag. I use a piece of 2" x 4" board which is cut into a square nominally 4" x 4" by 2" thick. Then place the cooking vessel containing the food or water on top of the wooden block, inside the bag.

Next, gather the top of the bag in your fingers and **blow air into the bag, to inflate it.** This will form a small "greenhouse" around the cooking vessel, to trap much of the heat inside. Close off the bag with a tight twist tie or wire. Important: the bag should not touch the sides or lid of the cooking vessel. The bag may be called a "convection shield," slowing convection-cooling due to air currents.

Place the entire bag and its contents inside the funnel near the bottom as shown in the Photographs.

Place the Solar Funnel Cooker so that it Faces the Sun.
Remember: Sunlight can hurt the eyes: so please wear sunglasses when using a Solar Cooker! The Funnel Cooker is designed so that the hot region is deep down inside the funnel, out of harm's way.

Put the Solar Funnel Cooker in the sun pointing towards the sun, so that it captures as much sunlight as possible. The design of the funnel allows it to collect solar energy for about an hour without needing to be re-positioned. For longer cooking times, readjust the position of the funnel to follow the sun's path.

In the Northern Hemisphere, it helps to put the Solar Funnel Cooker in front of a south-facing wall or window as this reflects additional sunlight into the funnel. A reflective wall is most important in locations farther from the equator and in winter. In the Southern Hemisphere, put the Solar Funnel Cooker in front of a North-facing wall or window to reflect additional sunlight into your cooker.

After Cooking
Remember that the cooking vessel will be very hot: so use cooking pads or gloves when handling it! If you are heating water in a canning jar, you may notice that the water is boiling when the lid is first removed - it gets very hot!

Open the plastic cooking bag by removing the twist-tie. Using gloves or a thick cloth, lift the vessel out of the bag and place it on the ground or table. Carefully open the vessel and check the food, to make sure it has finished cooking. Let the hot food cool before eating.

Helpful Hints
Avoid leaving fingerprints and smudges on the inside surface of the cooker. Keep the inner surface clean and shiny by wiping occasionally with a wet towel. This will keep the Solar Funnel Cooker working at its best.

If your funnel gets out-of-round, it can be put back into a circular shape by attaching a rope or string between opposite sides which need to be brought closer together.

For long-term applications, a hole in the ground will hold the Funnel Cooker securely against winds. Bring the funnel inside or cover it during rain storms.

The lids can be used over and over. We have had some trouble with the rubber on some new canning-jar lids becoming soft and "sticky." "Ball canning lids" do not usually have this problem. Running new lids through very hot water before the first use seems to help. The lids can be used over and over if they are not bent too badly when opened (pry off lid carefully).

The jar can be suspended near the bottom of the funnel using fishing line or string (etc.), instead of placing the jar on a block of wood. A plastic bag is placed around the jar with air puffed inside, as
usual, to trap the heat. The suspension method allows sunlight to strike all surfaces of the jar, all around, so that heats faster and more evenly. This suspension method is crucial for use in winter months.

Adjust the funnel to put as much sunlight onto the cooking jar as possible. Look at the jar to check where the sunlight is hitting, and to be sure the bottom is not in the shadows. For long cooking times (over about an hour), readjust the position of the funnel to follow the sun’s path. During winter months, when the sun is low on the horizon (e.g., in North America), it is helpful to lay the funnel on its side, facing the sun.

**Tests in Utah**

I have personally used the Solar Funnel Cooker to cook lunches over many weeks. My favourite foods to cook are potatoes (cut into logs or slices) and carrot slices. Vegetables cook slowly in their own juices and taste delicious. I also make rice, melted cheese sandwiches, and even bread in the Solar Funnel Cooker. I usually put the food out around 11:30 and let it cook until 12:45 or 1 pm, just to be sure that it has time to cook. I've never had any food burn in this cooker.

I have also cooked food in the mountains, at an altitude of around 8,300 feet. If anything, the food cooked faster there - the sunlight passes through less atmosphere at high altitudes.

I find that people are surprised that the sun alone can actually cook food. And they are further pleasantly surprised at the rich flavours in the foods which cook slowly in the sun. This inexpensive device does it!

Students at Brigham Young University have performed numerous tests on the Solar Funnel Cooker along with other cookers. We have consistently found much faster cooking using the Solar Funnel Cooker. The efficiency/cost ratio is higher than any other solar cooking device we have found to date. Mr. Hullinger also performed studies of transmissivity, reflectivity and absorptivity of alternate materials which could be used in the Solar Funnel Cooker. While there are better materials, such as solar-selective absorbers, our goal has been to keep the cost of the Solar Cooker as low as possible, while maintaining safety as a first priority.

**Tests in Bolivia**

The BYU Benson Institute organised tests between the Solar Funnel Cooker and the "old-fashioned" solar box oven. The solar box oven cost about $70 and was made mostly of cardboard. It took nearly two hours just to reach water pasteurisation temperature. The Bolivian report notes that "food gets cold every time the pots are taken from and into the oven." The solar box oven failed even to cook boiled eggs. (More expensive box cookers would hopefully work better.)
An aluminised-mylar Solar Funnel Cooker was also tested in Bolivia, during the Bolivian winter. Water pasteurisation temperature was reached in 50 minutes, boiled eggs cooked in 70 minutes, and rice cooked in 75 minutes. The Bolivian people were pleased by the performance. So were we! (La Paz, Bolivia, August, 1996).

I also donated two dozen solar funnel cookers for people in Guatemala. These were taken there by a group of doctors going there for humanitarian service. The people there also liked the idea of cooking with the sun's free energy. For an aluminised-Mylar Solar Funnel Cooker kit, please contact CRM (licensed manufacturer) at +1 (801) 292-9210.

Water and Milk Pasteurisation

Contaminated drinking water or milk kills thousands of people each day, especially children. The World Health Organisation reports that 80% of illnesses in the world are spread through contaminated water. Studies show that heating water to about 65º - 70º C (150º F) is sufficient to kill coliform bacteria, rotaviruses, enteroviruses and even Giardia. This is called pasteurisation.

Pasteurisation depends on how hot and how long water is heated. But how do you know if the water got hot enough? You could use a thermometer, but this would add to the cost, of course. When steam leaves the canning jar (with lid on tight) and forms "dew" on the inside of the cooking bag, then the water is probably pasteurised to drink. (The goal is to heat to 160º Fahrenheit for at least six minutes.) With a stripe of black paint scraped off the jar, one can look through the bag and into the jar and see when the water is boiling - then it is safe for sure.

Think of all the lives that can be saved simply by pasteurising water using a simple Solar Cooker!

Safety

Safety was my first concern in designing the Solar Funnel Cooker, then came low cost and effectiveness. But any time you have heat you need to take some precautions.

- The cooking vessel (jar) is going to get hot, otherwise the food inside it won't cook. Let the jar cool a bit before opening. Handle only with gloves or tongs.
- Always wear dark glasses to protect from the sun's rays. We naturally squint, but sunglasses are important.
- Keep the plastic bag away from children and away from nose and mouth to avoid any possibility of suffocation.

Cooking with the Solar Funnel Cooker

What do you cook in a crock pot or moderate-temperature oven? The same foods will cook about the same in the Solar Funnel Cooker - without burning. The charts below give approximate summer cooking times.

The solar cooker works best when the UV index is 7 or higher (Sun high overhead, few clouds).
Cooking times are approximate. Increase cooking times for partly-cloudy days, sun not overhead (e.g., wintertime) or for more than about 3 cups of food in the cooking jar.

Stirring is not necessary for most foods. Food generally will not burn in the solar cooker.

**Vegetables** (Potatoes, carrots, squash, beets, asparagus, etc.)
**Preparation:** No need to add water if fresh. Cut into slices or "logs" to ensure uniform cooking. Corn will cook fine with or without the cob.
**Cooking Time:** About 1.5 hours

**Cereals and Grains** (Rice, wheat, barley, oats, millet, etc.)
**Preparation:** Mix 2 parts water to every 1 part grain. Amount may vary according to individual taste. Let soak for a few hours for faster cooking. To ensure uniform cooking, shake jar after 50 minutes.
**CAUTION:** Jar will be hot. Use gloves or cooking pads.
**Cooking Time:** 1.5-2 hours

**Pasta and Dehydrated Soups**
**Preparation:** First heat water to near boiling (50-70 minutes). Then add the pasta or soup mix. Stir or shake, and cook 15 additional minutes.
**Cooking Time:** 65-85 minutes

**Beans**
**Preparation:** Let tough or dry beans soak overnight. Place in cooking jar with water.
**Cooking Time:** 2-3 hours

**Eggs**
**Preparation:** No need to add water. **Note:** If cooked too long, egg whites may darken, but taste remains the same.
**Cooking Time:** 1-1.5 hours, depending on desired yolk firmness.

**Meats** (Chicken, beef, and fish)
**Preparation:** No need to add water. Longer cooking makes the meat more tender.
**Cooking Time:** Chicken: 1.5 hours cut up or 2.5 hours whole; Beef: 1.5 hours cut up or 2.5-3 hours for larger cuts; Fish: 1-1.5 hours

**Baking**
**Preparation:** Times vary based on amount of dough.
**Cooking Times:** Breads: 1-1.5 hours; Biscuits: 1-1.5 hours; Cookies: 1 hour

**Roasted Nuts** (Peanuts, almonds, pumpkin seed, etc.)
**Preparation:** Place in jar. A little vegetable oil may be added if desired.
**Cooking Time:** About 1.5 hours

**MRE's and pre-packaged foods**
**Preparation:** For foods in dark containers, simply place the container in the cooking bag in place of the black cooking jar.
**Cooking Times:** Cooking time varies with the amount of food and darkness of package.

**How to Use the Solar Funnel as a Refrigerator/Cooler**
A university student (Jamie Winterton) and I were the first to demonstrate that the Brigham Young University Solar Funnel Cooker can be used - at night - as a refrigerator. Here is how this is done:

The Solar Funnel Cooker is set-up just as you would during sun-light hours, with two exceptions:

1. The funnel is directed at the dark night sky. It should not "see" any buildings or even trees. (The thermal radiation from walls, trees, or even clouds will diminish the cooling effect.).
2. It helps to place 2 (two) bags around the jar instead of just one, with air spaces between the bags and between the inner bag and the jar. HDPE and ordinary polyethylene bags work well, since polyethylene is nearly transparent to infrared radiation, allowing it to escape into the "heat sink" of the dark sky.
During the day, the sun’s rays are reflected on to the cooking vessel which becomes hot quickly. At night, heat from the vessel is radiated outward, towards empty space, which is very cold indeed (a “heat sink”). As a result, the cooking vessel now becomes a small refrigerator. We routinely achieve cooling of about 20º F (10º C) below ambient air temperature using this remarkably simple scheme.

In September 1999, we placed two funnels out in the evening, with double-bagged jars inside. One jar was on a block of wood and the other was suspended in the funnel using fishing line. The temperature that evening (in Provo, Utah) was 78º F (25.5º C). Using a Radio Shack indoor/outdoor thermometer, a BYU student (Colter Paulson) measured the temperature inside the funnel and outside in the open air. He found that the temperature of the air inside the funnel dropped quickly by about 15º F (8º C), as its heat was radiated upwards in the clear sky. That night, the minimum outdoor air temperature measured was 47.5º F (8.6º C) - but the water in both jars had ICE. I invite others to try this, and please let me know if you get ice at 55 or even 60 degrees outside air temperature (minimum at night). A black PVC container may work even better than a black-painted jar, since PVC is a good infrared radiator - these matters are still being studied.

I would like to see the "Funnel Refrigerator" tried in desert climates, especially where freezing temperatures are rarely reached. It should be possible in this way to cheaply make ice for Hutus in Rwanda and for aborigines in Australia, without using any electricity or other modern "tricks." We are in effect bringing some of the cold of space to a little corner on earth. Please let me know how this works for you.

**Conclusion: Why We Need Solar Cookers**

The BYU Funnel Cooker/Cooler can:

- Cook food without the need for electricity or wood or petroleum or other fuels.
- Pasteurise water for safe drinking, preventing many diseases.
- Save trees and other resources.
- Avoid air pollution and breathing smoke while cooking.
- Use the sun's free energy. A renewable energy source.
- Cook food with little or no stirring, without burning.
- Kill insects in grains.
- Dehydrate fruits, etc.
- Serve as a refrigerator at night, to cool even freeze water.

(Try that without electricity or fuels!)

The burden for gathering the fuel wood and cooking falls mainly on women and children. Joseph Kiai reports:

From Dadaab, Kenya: "Women who can’t afford to buy wood start at 4 am to go collecting and return about noon... They do this twice a week to get fuel for cooking... The rapes are averaging one per week."

From Belize: "Many times the women have to go into the forest dragging their small children when they go to look for wood. It is a special hardship for pregnant and nursing mothers to chop and drag trees back to the village... they are exposed to venomous snakes and clouds of mosquitoes."

And the forests are dwindling in many areas. Edwin Dobbs noted in *Audubon Magazine*, Nov. 1992, "The world can choose sunlight or further deforestation, solar cooking or widespread starvation..."

Americans should be prepared for emergencies, incident to power failures. A Mormon pioneer noted in her journal: “We were now following in their trail travelling up the Platte River. Timber was sometimes very scarce and hard to get. We managed to do our cooking with what little we could gather up...” (Eliza R. Snow) Now there's someone who needed a light-weight Solar Cooker!

Here's another reason to use a solar cooker. Many people in developing countries look to see what's being done in America. I'm told that if Americans are using something, then they will want to try it, too. The more people there are cooking with the sun, the more others will want to join in. A good way to
spread this technology is to encourage small local industries or families to make these simple yet reliable solar cookers for others at low cost. I’ve used this cooker for three summers and I enjoy it. Cooking and making ice with the funnel cooker/cooler will permit a significant change in lifestyle. If you think about it, this could help a lot of people. The BYU Solar Funnel Cooker uses the glorious sunshine -- and the energy of the sun is a free gift from God for all to use!

Answers to commonly-asked questions

Will the cooker work in winter (in the United States)?

As the sun moves closer to the southern horizon in the winter, the solar cooker is naturally less effective. A good measure of the solar intensity is the “UV index” which is often reported with the weather. When the ultraviolet or UV index is 7 or above – common in summer months – the solar cooker works very well. In Salt Lake City in October, the UV index was reported to be 3.5 on a sunny day. We were able to boil water in the Solar Funnel Cooker during this time, but we had to suspend the black jar in the funnel so that sunlight struck all sides. (We ran a fishing line under the screw-on lid, and looped the fishing line over a rod above the funnel. As usual, a plastic bag was placed around the jar, and this was closed at the top to let the fishing line out for suspending the jar.)

The solar “minimum” for the northern hemisphere occurs on winter solstice, about December 21st each year. The solar “maximum” occurs six months later, June 21st. Solar cooking works best from about 20th March to 1st October in the north. If people try to cook with the sun for the first time outside of this time window, they should not be discouraged. Try again when the sun is more directly overhead. One may also suspend the jar in the funnel, which will make cooking faster any time of the year.

It is interesting to note that most developing countries are located near the equator where the sun is nearly directly overhead all the time. Solar Cookers will then serve year-round, as long as the sun is shining, for these fortunate people. They may be the first to apply fusion energy (of the sun) on a large scale. They may also accomplish this without the expensive infrastructure of electrical power grids that we take for granted in America.

How do you cook bread in a jar?

I have cooked bread by simply putting dough in the bottom of the jar and placing it in the funnel in the usual way. Rising and baking took place inside the jar in about an hour (during summer). One should put vegetable oil inside the jar before cooking to make removal of the bread easier. I would also suggest that using a 2-quart wide-mouth canning jar instead of a 1-quart jar would make baking a loaf of bread easier.

What is the optimum “opening angle” for the funnel cooker?

A graduate student at Brigham Young University did a calculus calculation to assess the best shape or opening angle for the Solar Funnel. Jeannette Lawler assumed that the best operation would occur when the sun’s rays bounced no more than once before hitting the cooking jar, while keeping the opening angle as large as possible to admit more sunlight. (Some sunlight is lost each time the light reflects from the shiny surface. If the sunlight misses on the first bounce, it can bounce again and again until being absorbed by the black bottle). She set up an approximate equation for this situation, took the calculus derivative with respect to the opening angle and set the derivative equal to zero. Optimising in this way, she found that the optimum opening angle is about 45 degrees, when the funnel is pointed directly towards the sun.

But we don’t want to have to “track the sun” by turning the funnel every few minutes. The sun moves (apparently) 360 degrees in 24 hours, or about 15 degrees per hour. So we finally chose a 60-degree opening angle so that the cooker is effective for about 1.2 hours. This turned out to be long enough to cook most vegetables, breads, boil water, etc. with the Solar Funnel Cooker. We also used a laser pointer to simulate sun rays entering the funnel at different angles, and found that the 60-degree cone was quite effective in concentrating the rays at the bottom of the funnel where the cooking jar sits.

For questions regarding the complete Solar Funnel Cooker kit using aluminised Mylar and a jar for the cooking vessel, please contact CRM at +1 (801) 292-9210.

Tests of the Solar Funnel and Bowl Cookers in 2001
Christopher McMillan and Steven E. Jones  
Brigham Young University  

Introduction  

With an increase in population and a decrease in available fuels such as wood and coal in developing countries, the need for alternative cooking methods has increased. Solar cookers are an alternative to conventional methods such as wood-fires and coal-fires. They provide usable heat for cooking and pasteurising water, without the harmful side effects such as smoke inhalation that non-renewable sources create. In many countries such as Haiti, Bolivia and Kenya, the need for cheap, effective, and safe cooking methods has increased due to poverty and deforestation. Solar cookers are ideal because they rely on the sun’s free energy which is abundant in many of the world’s poorest countries. Though there are good designs, more testing and improvement is desirable.

There are three areas of comparison that were focused on during the course of the study. The first area of comparison is in the reflective material used. The original material is a mirror-finished aluminium Mylar. Due to the mirror finish, the reflection light is very bright and can be difficult to work over when cooking. An alternative material is a matt-finish Mylar. This material diffuses the sunlight and is not as harsh on the eyes as is the mirrored finish.

The second area of concentration is on the method of containing the air that surrounds the cooker so that the cooker is kept from being cooled by convection currents. A common method is to use a clear plastic oven-safe bag around the cooking vessel. However, this method is rather tedious and awkward to use, and such bags are rarely available in developing countries. Another technique is to use a disk or window made out of a clear plastic or glass. This makes the cooker easier to use.

The third main area of focus is in the cooking containers used. The present cooking vessel for the Solar Funnel Cooker is a black-painted canning jar. This method is also tedious and awkward. The canning jars can be hard to clean, and they can break. Design changes are tested that would allow people to use their own cookware. This too would make the cooker more convenient to use.

The fourth area of testing pitted the wooden block support which we have been using for years against a rabbit-wire support. A rabbit-wire cylinder holds the cooking vessel up off the bottom of the cooker, and allows sunlight to strike essentially all surfaces of the cooking vessel, including the bottom.

The effectiveness of these methods is tested and compared both qualitatively and quantitatively. In addition to acquiring temperature-rise versus time data, we also cooked numerous meals in the solar cookers so as to get hands-on experience with cooking. Several students participated in these cooking tests.

Cooker Designs:  

Several solar cooker designs were used during these tests. The Solar Funnel Cooker was the main cooker tested. A Solar CooKit and a bowl-shaped variation of the Solar Funnel Cooker were also tested. Most experiments were comparative tests between the various designs, and the cooker set-up was varied from test to test. The basic design of the Solar Funnel Cooker is a funnel-shaped aluminium Mylar collector. A highly reflective material is necessary to collect and concentrate the sun’s rays. The funnel walls are at a 60 degree angle (with respect to the horizontal) since this collects sunlight for a two hour time period without requiring re-orientation to follow the sun. Due to the way the Mylar sheets are cut and folded, a pair of wings
on opposite ends of the funnel is formed. The wings increase the collector size and create an elliptical shape at top. At the tips of the wings, the cooker stands about 20 inches high and has a diameter of about 28 inches. At the top, along the minor axis of the elliptical funnel, the cooker stands about 15 inches high, and has a diameter of about 20 inches. Since the Aluminium Mylar does not support itself well, a nine inch diameter by five inch high bucket is used to support the funnel.

The cooking container primarily tested is a glass canning jar that has been painted flat black. The black paint allows the jar to absorb the sun’s rays. The canning jar works well due to the added pressure-cooker effect caused by the rubber ring on the inside of the lid. A black-enamel pot and a black-painted stainless steel canister were also used. We found immediately that raising the vessel off the bottom of the cooker using a rabbit-wire stand provided more rapid and even heating than the wooden block used previously. Placing the jar or pot on a wire stand allows as much reflected light onto the cooking vessel as possible. This allows even the bottom of the cooking container to absorb thermal energy that is reflected off the lower portion of the funnel.

Two methods of closing the cookers off from convection currents were used. It is important to keep the air that surrounds the container from circulating, thus keeping the cooking container from being cooled by convection currents or breezes. This first method used was to enclose the cooking vessel and wire stand in a clear plastic bag, such as a heat resistant Reynolds Oven Bag. It is important to make sure that the bag is not touching the cooking vessel, so once the vessel is placed into the clear bag, air is blown into the bag and the bag is tied off. This is the most common method used for solar panel cookers, such as the Solar CookIt, because of the bags’ ability to withstand the temperatures attained in these types of cookers. But these bags tear rather easily and they are not readily available in developing countries and must be imported.

The second method of closing off the cooking vessel from convection currents, designed by Dr. Jones, is to place a clear plastic disk down into the funnel above the cooking vessel. The funnel used in the test was a conventional-shaped funnel that was constructed out of thin sheet metal and aluminium-foil lined for better reflectivity. The diameter of this funnel is about 30 inches at the top, and it stands about 16 inches high. The walls also form about a 60 degree angle with respect to the horizontal. This funnel was designed to hold a larger cooking container such as a pot. The diameter of the plastic disk is large enough that the disk does not touch the top of the container. For the experiments that tested this method, a one-sixteenth inch (1.6 mm) thick Lexan disk was used.

Data Collection
To collect the temperatures as a function of time, a Texas Instruments Calculator Based Laboratory (CBL) was used. This portable interface is capable of recording real-time data from multiple channels. The data were downloaded into a graphing calculator, where they can be analysed and graphed immediately. From the calculator, the data can be transferred to a computer spreadsheet such as Microsoft Excel for further analysis. Due to the nature of these experiments and the low cost to purchase the CBL, this is an ideal data collector to use. A graphing calculator was used to program the CBL and to tell it what data to collect, how many points to collect, and the time period between data points collected. Since the CBL does not have any internal programs for data collection, a program must be written into the graphing calculator. There are
ready-made programs that can be uploaded into the calculator, or a custom program can be made to fit the
needs of the test. The program that the CBL used allowed multiple thermocouples to collect data
simultaneously. To ensure that the thermocouples were calibrated against each other, both were run on the
same constant temperature sample in very close proximity. Both temperature probes agreed to within 0.21°C
of each other. For these experiments, this temperature difference was considered to be acceptable.

Procedure

Each experiment was conducted on the campus of Brigham Young University during mid-day, usually
between 11:00 am and 2:00 pm to ensure that the sun was close to being directly overhead. This allowed
as much sun light as possible to enter the solar collector. Each experiment included several steps, as listed
below.

Before each experiment was set up, the volume of the water and the mass of the container were measured
and recorded. The heat capacity of the water and the container were also found. The area of the cooker
perpendicular to the sun’s rays was also measured. To collect temperature data using thermocouple probes,
small holes were drilled into the top of the canning jar and stainless steel canister lids. The jar and canister
were both painted ultra-flat black to absorb as much of the sun’s energy as possible.

On the morning of each test, the designated volume of water was measured out and poured into the cooking
vessel. This volume ranged from 0.6 litre for one-quart jars, to 1.2 litters for half-gallon canning jars. For
simultaneous testing, the same amount of water was poured into each container. The temperature probes
were wired through the holes in the lids of the containers and secured about 13 mm into the water. For
comparative tests, the probes were placed the same depth into the water to ensure that the probes did not
read different measurements due to depth-related temperature differences within the containers. To enable
later analysis; the time, ambient temperature, and solar irradiance were also noted and recorded. These
numbers gave a reference point for each test. Each cooker that was to be tested was then completely set
up. The temperature probes were secured through the lids, and the jar was placed into the clear oven bag –
supported by a wire cage. Each bag was inflated so that no part of the bag touched the sides or top of the
cooking container. The cord from the thermocouple to the CBL was passed through the top of the bag, and
the bag was tied off with a twist-tie.

The test began once both cookers were completely ready and the CBL had been programmed. Care was
taken to block the sun from radiating directly onto the cookers until both were ready to begin. This ensured
that the water in both cookers started at very nearly the same temperature. Most tests were set up to collect
one data point every four to five minutes, for up to two hours. This allowed the cooker temperatures to reach
maxima and then remain at a nearly constant temperature. Once a test was complete, the cooker was
dissembled and the data downloaded into the graphing calculator. Though the graphing calculator does
allow analysis, a spread sheet such as Microsoft Excel is easier to use. Thus, the data from each test were
downloaded from the calculator into Microsoft Excel. The elapsed time (in seconds) and the corresponding
temperatures were listed next to each other. A graph of temperature versus time was made, with the Time
being the horizontal axis for each test. For comparative tests, the Temperature versus Time data for both
cookers was plotted on the same graph. As a reference, a trend-line was fitted to the linear portion of the
graph, along with the linear regression and the coefficient of correlation (R2). It is important to have a
coefficient of correlation close to one, as this is how close the linear regression fits the data. In a separate
column, the temperatures were again listed, however only from 30°C to 70°C. The change in temperature
for every ten or twelve minutes was found and logged next to the temperature column. The power output (in
Watts) of each cooker could then be calculated.

To calculate the power output of the cookers for each specific test, the mass of the water and of the
container were both measured. Though the thermal energy content of the container was relatively small
compared to that of water (due to the large heat capacity of water), it was important to add it into the
calculation. Also, since several different containers were compared, the energy content of the container was
important. The power is found by:

\[
Q_{\text{out}} = Q_{\text{water}} + Q_{\text{container}}
\]

\[
Q_{\text{out}} = (m_w c_w + m_c c_c) \Delta T
\]

\[
P_{\text{power}} = \frac{Q_{\text{out}}}{\Delta t}
\]
The power is found in Watts. A power output for each change in temperature for the time interval is calculated and logged next to the T column. Since there are uncertainties in all of the measurements, it is important to include the error in each power output. To do this, the error in the water’s and container’s measurements is taken into consideration. The error is found by:

\[
\pm \Delta P = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial m_w} \Delta m_w\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial m_c} \Delta m_c\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial \Delta t} \Delta \Delta t\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial \Delta T} \Delta \Delta T\right)} + 2\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial \Delta T} \Delta \Delta T\right)_c^2
\]

Where ±dP is the total error in the calculated error, dmw and dmc are the error in the mass of the water and container respectively, delta-Tp is the error in the temperature difference, and delta-t is the error in the time interval.

This simplifies to:

\[
\pm \Delta P = \sqrt{\left(\frac{c_w \Delta T}{l} \Delta m_w\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c_c \Delta T}{l} \Delta m_c\right)^2 + \left(\frac{m_c c_w \Delta T}{t^2} - \Delta \Delta T\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{m_c c_w \Delta T}{t^2} \Delta \Delta T\right)_c^2 + 2\left(\frac{m_c c_w \Delta T}{t^2} \Delta \Delta T\right)_c^2}
\]

The error was found only for the average change in temperature, rather than for each individual temperature measurement. Since the power output is dependant on the amount of energy coming in from the sun, the cooker efficiency is a good factor to calculate. To find the efficiency, the total amount of local solar radiation must be known. This should be given in watts per square metre, so that the input wattage can be found. To find the power coming in, the area of the cooker perpendicular to the sun’s rays was multiplied by the solar radiation to give the amount of power that was being collected by the cooker. Since the Solar Funnel is able to be kept on track with the sun, and since the tests were done during mid-day, it was not necessary to calculate any angles. The efficiency is simply the power output divided by the power input. The solar radiation for each test was supplied by the Department of Physics and Astronomy weather station at Brigham Young University in Provo, UT, where the tests took place.

Results:

Matt vs. Mirror: Several tests were conducted on the matt versus mirror finishes. In each test, the matt finish outperformed the mirror finish. On 27 July, 2001, a matt funnel and a mirror funnel were simultaneously tested with 650 cc of water. The average power output for the mirror finish was 46.4 W ± 1.7 W, while the matt funnel put out an average of 59.4 W ± 2.1 W. The efficiency of the mirror funnel was 15.8%, while the matt was 20.2% efficient.

The following graph shows the temperatures reached by the matt and mirror funnels.
Channel 1 (Ch1) was the mirror finish, and channel 2 (Ch2) was the matt finish. This shows that both funnels peaked at about the same temperature: 97°C (207°F). The matt funnel peaked in about 76 minutes, whereas the mirror funnel peaked in 96 minutes, twenty minutes later. Though this perhaps a tolerable time difference for actual cooking, it is substantial. Every matt vs. mirror test performed in a similar way. These results are due to the way the matt funnel reflects the sun’s rays. The mirror finish seems to focus a strip of light onto the cooking vessel more than the matt finish does. As a result, the matt finish diffuses the light more and the cooker is heated more uniformly. This is good, since the matt finish is easier to work with, delivering much less glare to the eyes.

The following graph shows the temperature rise with time for a Solar CooKit:

Comparing the two graphs above, we find that the Solar CoolKit performed very well, comparable to the Funnel Cooker. We should note that in both cases, we used a canning jar (pressurised) supported by a wire stand. We found that the wire stand improves the performance of the Solar CooKit significantly and hope that this support stand will be used in countries where the Solar CooKit is in use.

In tests where the use of the clear plastic disk was tested against the oven-bag, an aluminium pot was used in the disk-set-up. In these tests, the cooker with an oven bag outperformed the cooker using a plastic disk. On 10 August, 2001, a test was run which compared the disk/pot set-up against the oven-bag/jar set-up. Both cookers follow similar heating paths with time, but the oven-bag/jar did slightly better. Due to the higher mass of the jar compared to the mass of the aluminium pot, and the much higher heat capacity of the water, the average power output for the oven-bag/jar was 39.8 ± 1.4 W, while the disk/pot put out 30.3 W ± 1.2 W. The efficiency of the oven-bag/jar was 14.7% and the efficiency of the disk/pot set-up was 10.4% for this test. This is also partly due to the pressure-cooker effect that the canning jar produces. Though this is a considerable efficiency difference, the disk/pot set-up did very well in subjective tests where food was actually cooked and tasted. In all cases where the disk/pot set-up was used to cook food, the food cooked in about the same amount of time. The ease of the disk/pot set-up is also an important consideration. Overall, in tests where food was cooked, the disk/pot set-up was preferred over the oven-bag/jar set-up.

Conclusions:
As many countries are depleting their natural resources due to increased population and the resulting deforestation, methods other than burning wood are needed to cook food and pasteurise water. Solar
cookers provide a sustainable technology that relies on the sun’s free energy. We report several advances to make them better. The need for cheap and effective solar cookers is very great and growing.

The Solar Funnel Cooker has been designed to meet the growing need by being inexpensive and effective. We determined that the Solar CooKit was nearly as effective when a rabbit-wire stand was used to support the cooking vessel. By collecting time vs. temperature data, quantitative analysis has been done. This analysis approach is useful for further development of the cookers.

Several areas of research were explored in 2001. Two finishes were tested for the reflector, a matt finish and a mirror finish. The benefits of the matt over the mirror finish are:

1) The matt finish is easier to work over because the sun’s glaring reflection is diffused, and
2) the matt finish out-performs the mirror finish in temperature vs. time tests.

The method of closing off the cooker from convection current was tested and compared with an alternative method – a clear plastic disk. The use of a pot rather than a canning jar was also tested. Though the present oven-bag/jar method does outperform the disk/pot method, the disk/pot method is easier to use and seems to be nearly as efficient. Finally, we showed that a wire-mesh stand is a considerable improvement over the use of a wooden block or other opaque stand for the cooking vessel. We join with our fellow researchers around the world in pursuing further development of solar cookers, particularly to benefit people in developing countries.

References:


Recent Advances in Solar Water Pasteurisation

Boiling isn't necessary to kill disease microbes

The main purpose of solar cookers is to change sunlight into heat which is then used to cook foods. We are all familiar with how successful solar cookers are at cooking and baking a wide variety of foods. In this article I want to consider using the heat in solar cookers for purposes other than cooking. My main focus will be solar water pasteurisation, which can complement solar cooking and address critical health problems in many developing countries.

The majority of diseases in developing countries today are infectious diseases caused by bacteria, viruses, and other microbes which are shed in human faeces and polluted water which people use for drinking or washing. When people drink the live microbes, they can multiply, cause disease, and be shed in faeces into water, continuing the cycle of disease transmission.

World-wide, unsafe water is a major problem. An estimated one billion people do not have access to safe water. It is estimated that diarrhoeal diseases that result from contaminated water kill about 2 million children and cause about 900 million episodes of illness each year.
Boiling contaminated water

How can infectious microbes in water be killed to make the water safe to drink? In the cities of developed countries this is often guaranteed by chlorination of water after it has been filtered. In developing countries, however, city water systems are less reliable, and water from streams, rivers and some wells may be contaminated with human faeces and pose a health threat. For the billion people who do not have safe water to drink, what recommendation do public health officials offer? The only major recommendation is to boil the water, sometimes for up to 10 minutes. It has been known since the time of Louis Pasteur 130 years ago that heat of boiling is very effective at killing all microbes which cause disease in milk and water.

If contaminated water could be made safe for drinking by boiling, why is boiling not uniformly practised? There seem to be five major reasons:

1) people do not believe in the germ theory of disease,
2) it takes too long,
3) boiled water tastes bad,
4) fuel is often limited or costly,
5) the heat and smoke are unpleasant.

Some examples of the cost of boiling water are worth mentioning. During the cholera outbreak in Peru, the Ministry of Health urged all residents to boil drinking water for 10 minutes. The cost of doing this would amount to 29% of the average poor household income. In Bangladesh, boiling drinking water would take 11% of the income of a family in the lowest quartile. In Jakarta, Indonesia, more than $50 million is spent each year by households for boiling water. It is estimated that in the city of Cebu in the Philippines, population about 900,000, about half the families boil their drinking water, and the proportion is actually higher for families that obtain their water from an unreliable chlorinated piped supply. Because the quantities of fuel consumed for boiling water are so large, approximately 1 kilogram of wood to boil 1 litre of water, and because firewood, coal, and coke are often used for this purpose, an inadequate water supply system significantly contributes to deforestation, urban air pollution, and other energy-related environmental effects.

If wood, charcoal, or dung is used as fuel for boiling water, the smoke creates a health hazard, as it does all the time with cooking. It is estimated that 400 to 700 million people, mainly women, suffer health problems from this indoor air pollution. As a microbiologist, I have always been perplexed as to why boiling is recommended, when this is heat far in excess of that which is necessary to kill infectious microbes in water. I presume the reason boiling is recommended is to make sure that lethal temperatures have been reached, since unless one has a thermometer it is difficult to tell what temperature heated water has reached until a roaring boil is reached. Everyone is familiar with the process of milk pasteurisation. This is a heating process which is sufficient to kill the most heat resistant disease causing microbes in milk, such as the bacteria which cause tuberculosis, undulant fever, streptococcal infections and Salmonellosis. What temperatures are used to pasteurise milk? Most milk is pasteurised at 71.7°C (161°F) for only 15 seconds. Alternatively, 30 minutes at 62.8°C (145°F) can also pasteurise milk. Some bacteria are heat resistant and can survive pasteurisation, but these bacteria do not cause disease in people. They can, however, spoil the milk, so pasteurised milk is kept refrigerated.

There are some different disease microbes found in water, but they are not unusually heat resistant. The most common causes of water diseases, and their heat sensitivity, are presented in Table 1. The most common causes of acute diarrhoea among children in developing countries are the bacteria Escherichia coli and Shigelia SD. and the Rotavirus group of viruses. These are rapidly killed at temperatures of 60°C or greater.

Solar water pasteurisation

As water heats in a solar cooker, temperatures of 56°C and above start killing disease-causing microbes. A graduate student of mine, David Ciochetti, investigated this for his master's thesis in 1983, and concluded that heating water to 66°C in a solar cooker will provide enough heat to pasteurise the water and kill all disease causing microbes. The fact that water can be made safe to drink by heating it to this lower temperature - only 66°C - instead of 100°C (boiling) presents a real opportunity for addressing contaminated water in developing countries.

Testing water for faecal contamination
How can one readily determine if the water from a well, pump, stream, etc. is safe to drink? The common procedure is to test the water for bacterial indicators of faecal pollution. There are two groups of indicators which are used. The first is the coliform bacteria which are used as indicators in developed countries where water is chlorinated. Coliform bacteria may come from faeces or from plants. Among the coliform bacteria is the second indicator, Escherichia coli. This bacterium is present in large numbers in human faeces (approximately 100,000,000 per gram of faeces) and that of other mammals. This is the main indicator used if water is not chlorinated. A water source containing 100 E. coli per 100 ccs poses a substantial risk of disease.

The standard method of testing water for the presence of coliforms and E. coli requires trained personnel and a good laboratory facility or field unit which are usually not present in developing countries. Thus, water supplies are almost never tested.

**A new approach to testing in developing countries**

In 1987, the Colilert MPM Test (CLT) was introduced as the first method which used a defined substrate technology to simultaneously detect coliforms and E. coli. The CLT comes as dry chemicals in test tubes containing two indicator nutrients: one for coliforms and one for E. coli. The CLT involves adding 10 ml of water to a tube, shaking to dissolve the chemicals, and incubating at body temperature for 24 hours. I prefer incubating tubes under my belt against my body. At night I sleep on my back and use night clothes to hold the tubes against my body.

If no coliform bacteria are present, the water will remain clear. However, if one or more coliforms are present in the water, after 24 hours their growth will metabolise ONPG and the water will change in colour from clear to yellow (resembling urine). If E. coli is among the coliform bacteria present, it will metabolise MUG and the tube will fluoresce blue when a battery-operated, long-wave ultraviolet light shines on it, indicating a serious health hazard. I have invited participants at solar box cooker workshops in Sierra Leone, Mali, Mauritania, and Nepal to test their home water supplies with CLT. One hundred and twenty participants brought in samples. In all four countries, whether the water was from urban or rural areas, the majority of samples contained coliforms, and at least half of these had E. coli present. Bacteriological testing of the ONPG and MUG positive tubes brought back from Mali and Mauritania verified the presence of coliforms/E. coli in approximately 95% of the samples. It is likely that soon the Colilert MPN test will be modified so that the test for E. coli will not require an ultraviolet light, and the tube will turn a different colour than yellow if E coli is present. This will make the test less expensive and easier to widely use in developing countries to assess water sources.

**Effect of safe water on diarrhoea in children**

What would be the effect if contaminated water could be made safe for drinking by pasteurisation or boiling? One estimate predicts that if in the Philippines, families at present using moderately contaminated wells (100 E. coli per 100 ml) were able to use a high-quality water source, diarrhoea among their children would be reduced by over 30%. Thus, if water which caused a MUG (+) test were solar pasteurised so it would be clear, this would help reduce the chance of diarrhoea, especially in children.

**Water pasteurisation indicator**

How can one determine if heated water has reached 65°C? In 1988, Dr. Fred Barrett (USDA, retired) developed the prototype for the Water Pasteurisation Indicator (WAPI). In 1992, Dale Andreatta, a graduate engineering student at the University of California, Berkeley, developed the current WAPI. The WAPI is a polycarbonate tube, sealed at both ends, partially filled with a soybean fat which melts at 69°C
("MYVEROL" 18-06K, Eastman Kodak Co., Kingsport, TN 37662). The WAPI is placed inside a water container with the fat at the top of the tube. A washer will keep the WAPI on the bottom of the container, which heats the slowest in a solar box cooker. If heat from the water melts the fat, the fat will move to the bottom of the WAPI, indicating water has been pasteurised. If the fat is still at the top of the tube, the water has not been pasteurised.

The WAPI is reusable. After the fat cools and becomes solid on the bottom, the fish line string is pulled to the other end and the washer slides to the bottom, which places the fat at the top of the tube. Another pasteurisation indicator has been developed by Roland Saye which is based on expansion of a bi-metal disc which is housed in a plastic container. This also shows promise and is in the early testing stages. The WAPI could be useful immediately for people who currently boil water to make it safe to drink. The WAPI will indicate clearly when a safe temperature has been reached, and will save much fuel which is currently is being wasted by excessive heating.

[Editor's note: Using Beeswax & Carnauba Wax to Indicate Temperature: In SBJ #15 we discussed using beeswax, which melts at a relatively low 62°C, as an indicator of pasteurisation. We have now found that mixing a small amount of carnauba was with the beeswax (~1:5 ratio) raises the melting temperature of the beeswax to 70°C - 75°C. Carnauba wax is a product of Brazil and can be bought in the US at woodworking supply stores. Further testing needs to be done to confirm that the melting point remains the same after repeated re-melting.

Different strategies for solar water pasteurisation

The solar box cooker was first used to pasteurise water. David Ciochetti built a deep-dish solar box cooker to hold several gallons of water. At this time of the year in Sacramento, three gallons could be pasteurised on our typical sunny days.

Dale Andreatta and Derek Yegian of the University of California, Berkeley, have developed creative ways to greatly increase the quantity of water which can be pasteurised, as we will hear about at this conference.

I am also excited about the possibility of pasteurising water using the simple solar panel cookers. By enclosing a dark water container in a polyester bag to create an insulating air space, and by using lots of reflectors to bounce light onto the jar, it is possible to pasteurise useful amounts of water with a simple system. It takes about four hours for me to pasteurise a gallon of water in the summer with the system I am using. Solar panel cookers open up enormous possibilities for heating water not only for pasteurisation, but also for making coffee and tea, which are quite popular in some developing countries. The heated water can also be kept hot for a long time by placing it in its bag inside an insulated box. In the insulated container I use, a gallon of 80°C water will be approximately 55°C after 14 hours. Water at a temperature of 55°C will be about 40°C after 14 hours, ideal for washing/shaving in the morning.

I will close with some advice from the most famous microbiologist, who pioneered the use of vaccinations in the 1890s: Louis Pasteur. When he was asked the secret of his success, he responded that above all else, it was persistence. I will add that you need good data to be persistent about, and we certainly have that with solar cookers; the work in Sacramento, Bolivia, Nepal, Mali, Guatemala, and wherever else the sun shines. Continued overuse of fuel-wood is non-sustainable. We need to persist until the knowledge we have spreads and becomes common knowledge world-wide.

For questions or comments contact Dr. Robert Metcalf at.

Dr. Robert Metcalf
1324 43rd St.
Sacramento, California 95819 USA.
IDEXX Laboratories, Inc. makes the Colilert kit and is located at this address:

IDEXX Laboratories, Inc.
One IDEXX Drive
Westbrook, ME 04092
USA
Voice: (800) 321-0207 or (207) 856-0496
Fax: (207) 856-0630

Editor’s Note: Testing Water in Developing Countries
The Colilert system makes it possible to test water without the need for a laboratory. IDEXX Laboratories, the manufacturer, recommends that you use five test tubes for each sample. Bob Metcalf explains that five tubes would comprise 50 ml, which is the minimum sample size permitted by US law. This is an unrealistically high standard by which to judge the water in developing countries where you are examining water that is already being drunk, in spite of the fact that it may be making people sick. By using a single test tube (10 ml) there is a very small chance that your sample missed the small number of bacteria that might have been present.

IDEXX Laboratories will also tell you that you need an incubator to achieve valid results. Again, Bob Metcalf tells us that all that is needed is to keep the tubes close to your body for 36 hours, since body temperature is the correct incubation temperature.

What you are actually measuring in the test is the presence of 1) coliform bacteria, and 2) E. coli, a type of coliform bacteria that is largely found in faecal matter. A positive test for coliform bacteria might be due to coliform bacteria that has washed off of plant leaves, and thus be fairly innocuous. A positive test for E. coli, however, would indicate that any bacteriological contamination was from a faecal source, which might also contain Giardia, cholera, or other serious infectious microbes.

This document is published on The Solar Cooking Archive at http://solarcooking.org/pasteurisation/metcalf.htm.

The Solar Puddle
A new water pasteurisation technique for large amounts of water

The lack of clean drinking water is a major health problem in the developing world. To reduce this health risk ways of producing clean water at an affordable cost are needed, and people need to be educated about germs and sanitation, lest they accidentally re-contaminate their clean drinking water. Recently, several of us at the University of California at Berkeley have attacked the first of these requirements. Previous issues of this newsletter have included stories about our water pasteurisation indicator and our flow-through water pasteurises based on a design by PAX World Service. In this article we describe a new low-cost device that pasteurises water.

For those not familiar with the pasteurisation process, if water is heated to 149° F (65° C) for about 6 minutes all the germs, viruses, and parasites that cause disease in humans are killed, including cholera and hepatitis A and B. [Ed. We have reports from the field that at 145° F (63° C) in a solar puddle, bacterial growth might actually be increased. Since this temperature is very close to the minimum pasteurisation temperature mentioned in this article, we suggest that you heat the water to a higher
temperature and perform tests before adopting a solar puddle as your method of pasteurisation]. This is similar to what is done with milk and other beverages. It is not necessary to boil the water as many people believe. Pasteurisation is not the only way to decontaminate drinking water, but pasteurisation is particularly easy to scale down so the initial cost is low.

The new device is called a solar puddle, and it is essentially a puddle in a greenhouse. One form of the solar puddle is sketched in the figure below, though many variations are possible.

One begins by digging a shallow pit about 4 inches deep. The test device was a "family-size" unit, about 3.5 feet by 3.5 feet, but the puddle could be made larger or smaller. If the puddle is made larger there is more water to pasteurise, but there is also proportionately more sunshine collected. The pit is filled with 2 to 4 inches of solid insulation. We used wadded paper, but straw, grass, leaves, or twigs could be used. This layer of insulation should be made flat, except for a low spot in one corner of the puddle.

Put a layer of clear plastic and then a layer of black plastic over the insulation with the edges of the plastic extending up and out of the pit. Two layers are used in case one develops a small leak. We used inexpensive polyethylene from a hardware store, though special UV stabilised plastic would last longer. Put in some water and flatten out the insulation so that the water depth is even to within about 0.5 inch throughout the puddle, except in the trough which should be about 1 inch deeper than the rest. Put in more water so that the average depth is 1 to 3 inches depending on how much sunshine is expected.

A pasteurisation indicator (available from Solar Cookers International at 916/455-4499) should go in this trough since this is where the coolest water will collect. Put a layer of clear plastic over the water, again with the edges extending beyond the edges extending beyond the edges of the pit. Form an insulating air gap by putting one or more spacers on top of the third layer of plastic (large wads of paper will do) and putting down a fourth layer of plastic, which must also be clear. The thickness of the air gap should be 2 inches or more. Pile dirt or rocks on the edges of the plastic sheets to hold them down. The puddle is drained by siphoning the water out, placing the siphon in the trough and holding it down by a rock or weight. If the bottom of the puddle is flat, well over 90% of the water can be siphoned out.

One the puddle is built it would be used by adding water each day, either by folding back the top two layers of plastic in one corner and adding water by bucket, or by using a fill siphon. The fill siphon should NOT be the same siphon that is used to drain the puddle, as the fill siphon is re-contaminated each day, while the drain siphon MUST REMAIN CLEAN. Once in place the drain siphon should be left in place for the life of the puddle.

The only expensive materials used to make the puddle are a pasteurisation indicator (about $2 for the size tested). All of these items are easily transportable, so the solar puddle might be an excellent option for a refugee camp if the expertise were available for setting them up.

Many tests were done in the spring and summer of this year in Berkeley, California. On days with good sunshine the required temperature was achieved even with 17 gallons of water (2 1/2 inch depth). About 1 gallon is the minimum daily requirement per person, for drinking, brushing one's teeth, and dish washing. With thinner water layers higher temperatures can be reached. With 6 gallons (1 inch depth) 176°F was achieved on one day.

The device seems to work even under conditions that are not ideal. Condensation in the top layer of plastic doesn't seem to be a problem, though if one gets a lot of condensation the top layer should be
pulled back to let the condensation evaporate. Small holes in the top layers don't make much difference. The device works in wind, or if the bottom insulation is damp. Water temperature is uniform throughout the puddle to within $2^\circ$ F.

After some months the top plastic layers weaken under the combined effects of sun and heat and have to be replaced, but this can be minimised by avoiding hot spots. Another option would be to use a grade of plastic that is more resistant to sunlight. The two bottom layers of plastic tend to form tiny tears unless one is very careful in handling them, (that is why there are two layers on the bottom). A tiny hole may let a little water through and dampen the solid insulation, but this is not a big problem.

There are many variations of the solar puddle. We've been able to put the top layer of plastic into a tent-like arrangement that sheds rain. This would be good in a place that gets frequent brief showers. Adding a second insulating layer of air makes the device work even better, though this adds the cost of an extra layer of plastic. As mentioned the device can cover a larger or smaller area if more or less water is desired. One could make a water heater by roughly tripling the amount of water so that the maximum temperature was only $120^\circ$ F or so, and this water would stay warm well into the evening hours. This water wouldn't be pasteurised though. One could help solve the problem of dirty water vessels by putting drinking cups into the solar puddle and pasteurising them along with the water. The solar puddle could possibly cook foods like rice on an emergency basis, perhaps in a refugee camp.

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You can contact

Dr. Dale Andreatta

S. E. A. Inc.

7349 Worthington-Galena Rd.

Columbus, OH 43085

(614) 888-4160 FAX (614) 885-8014

This document is published on The Solar Cooking Archive at http://solarcooking.org/pasteurisation/puddle.htm.

Important web link: http://solarcooking.org/plans/default.htm

The “Easy Lid” Solar Cooker.

Designed by Chao Tan and Tom Sponheim

Although designs for cardboard cookers have become more simple, fitting a lid can still be difficult and time consuming. In this version, a lid is formed automatically from the outer box.
Making the Base

Take a large box and cut it in half as shown in Figure 1. Set one half aside to be used for the lid. The other half becomes the base.

![Figure 1](image)

Fold an extra cardboard piece so that it forms a liner around the inside of the base (see Figure 2).

![Figure 2](image)

Use the lid piece as shown in Figure 3 to mark a line around the liner.

![Figure 3](image)

Cut along this line, leaving the four tabs as shown in Figure 4.

![Figure 4](image)

Glue aluminium foil to the inside of the liner and to the bottom of the outer box inside.

Set a smaller (inner) box into the opening formed by the liner until the flaps of the smaller box are horizontal and flush with the top of the liner (see Figure 5). Place some wads of newspaper between the two boxes for support.
Mark the underside of the flaps of the smaller box using the liner as a guide.

Fold these flaps down to fit down around the top of the liner and tuck them into the space between the base and the liner (see Figure 6).

Fold the tabs over and tuck them under the flaps of the inner box so that they obstruct the holes in the four corners (see Figure 6).

Now glue these pieces together in their present configuration.

As the glue is drying, line the inside of the inner box with aluminium foil.

**Finishing the Lid**

Measure the width of the walls of the base and use these measurements to calculate where to make the cuts that form the reflector in Figure 7. Only cut on three sides. The reflector is folded up using the fourth side as a hinge.

Glue plastic or glass in place on the underside of the lid. If you are using glass, sandwich the glass using extra strips of cardboard. Allow to dry.
Bend the ends of the wire as shown in Figure 7 and insert these into the corrugations on the lid and on the reflector to prop open the latter.

Paint the sheet metal (or cardboard) piece black and place it into the inside of the oven.

Improving Efficiency

Glue thin strips of cardboard underneath the sheet metal (or cardboard) piece to elevate it off of the bottom of the oven slightly.

Cut off the reflector and replace it with one that is as large as (or larger than) the entire lid. This reflects light into the oven more reliably.

Turn the oven over and open the bottom flaps. Place one foiled cardboard panel into each airspace to divide each into two spaces. The foiled side should face the centre of the oven.

For more information contact:
Solar Cookers International
1919 21st St., Suite 101
Sacramento, CA 95811 USA

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Drinking Water Collection Systems.
Getting adequate drinking water can often be a problem as there are many places where the local water supply is heavily contaminated with poisons, deadly organisms or both. While it is definitely much better to drink purified water than seriously contaminated water, it should be understood that most of the systems mentioned here, produce either distilled water or something very close to distilled water. Drinking distilled water for more than a few weeks is not ideal as distilled water is able to dissolve almost anything and it can do that perfectly well inside your body, removing essential minerals and other important items. So, if possible, avoid drinking distilled water for lengthy periods of time unless there is no other option other than seriously contaminated water carrying diseases and poisons.

One solution introduced for an area where there is almost never any rainfall is particularly interesting. This region gets fogs in the early morning, so plastic devices were constructed to take advantage of this fact. The devices were like plastic clothes brushes with long, slender vertical projections. The fog encountering these, condenses into freshwater droplets on the surface of these vertical fronds and run down the fronds into a plastic tank which forms the base of the device. No moving parts. No input power needed, but the result is large quantities of drinking water every morning. There is very little evaporation from the tanks, due to the small surface area of the stored water.
This effect is very noticeable on foggy days where trees drip water extensively due the fog depositing moisture on the leaves and branches.

One commercial version of this is the Fog-net which is a net which is suspended between two poles and in foggy areas such as in Peru, each net can provide 200 to 400 litres of fresh water per day:

Moisture is deposited on the net and runs down the net and into a pipe placed along the bottom of the net. Needing no source of power, this is a very effective and economical system.

At http://www.wired.com/2015/01/architecture-and-vision-warkawater/ there is shown a very large (and comparatively expensive at £1000 each) and very elegantly designed version of this, designed in Italy and called the “warkawater” tower:
Supplied in kit form, using structural members made of bamboo, this unit is 4 metres wide and 9 metres tall with rotating mirrors to scare birds away. With passive water collection from fog, rain and dew, tested in Ethiopia it can produce between 50 and 100 litres per day. The condensation material is plastic netting.

An emergency measure where water is needed, is to fasten a clean plastic bag around a branch of a tree. Trees lift a large amount of water through their root systems and a good deal of that water exist from the leaves of the tree. The plastic bag intercepts that moisture loss and collects it as clean water:

Another emergency measure is to use a clean plastic sheet and a hole dug in the ground. A clean container is placed in the centre of the hole and the plastic sheet used to cover the hold. The sheet is held around the edges of the hole with stones or any other suitable heavy material – bricks, timber, etc. A weight is then
placed in the centre of the plastic sheet, pulling it down into a slope in every direction and forming an inverted peak over the container:

![Diagram of water collection system]

The area under the plastic sheet is heated by the greenhouse effect. Moisture also comes from the earth inside the enclosed hole. The moisture in the air in the cavity condenses on the underside of the plastic sheet. But as the plastic sheet is shaped into an inverted pyramid due to the weight just above the container, the water runs down and drips into the container. Again, no input power required and no moving parts.

While these methods produce good quality water which is effectively distilled water, it should not be considered to be sterile and immediately ready for human consumption, even though any risk from drinking it ‘as-is’ is likely to be very low. There will always be air-borne pathogens, and the ‘clean’ components used to collect the water in the first place may not be as clean as was thought. The same applies to the excellent quality water produced by dehumidifiers, where the inner working surfaces cannot be considered sterile after the equipment has been used for any length of time. To raise the water quality, boiling briefly, microwaving the water or it to UV radiation should kill any remaining harmful organisms in the water and make it fit for consumption.

By applying these same methods on a more permanent basis, leads to the construction of devices of the type that can produce clean water at the rate of 4 litres for every 8 square feet (0.75 square meters) of glass area in only 5 hours of sunshine:

![Diagram of solar still]

There can be many variations on this shape. These devices are generally built either with glass lids or the whole construction in acrylic sheet. Here, the greenhouse effect heats the inside of the box, causing evaporation of the water inside. This condenses on the walls and lid of the box, where it runs down and into the clean-water section. Please remember that after a long period of use, the device needs to be cleaned very carefully and to deal with air-borne bacteria, the water could be treated briefly with UV light.

This particular design can be further enhanced as shown on the [http://www.permapak.net/solarstill.htm](http://www.permapak.net/solarstill.htm) website, where the heating inside the box is upgraded by using black high-temperature silicone to coat the inside of the bottom of the case. The black material absorbs sunlight particularly well and so helps to heat the water. Another enhancement is to place a reflector, possibly made from aluminium foil, behind the unit in order to increase the amount of sunlight or UV radiation reaching the water inside the box:
The web site http://www.gabriediamanti.com/projects/eliodomestico---how-does-it-work/ shows details of what is considered to be a very effective, low-cost unit aimed at undeveloped countries. Please visit that site where there is a ‘Donations’ button which allows you to support this excellent work. The designer Gabriele Diamanti says “Eliodomestico is an open project, free to the people who need it. I would really appreciate if you would like to help me in the development of this project!”. It works like this:
At the end of the day the Eliodomestico delivers 5 liters of fresh drinking water. The lower basin is specifically designed for the transport over the head, supporting this common habit.

Eliodomestico is entirely made from poor, widely available materials. The technologies involved in the production are very simple and popular. This also makes the maintenance much easier:
- No electricity
- No filters
- Very easy maintenance
- Good impact on the local economy
- No impact on the environment

Eliodomestico

Normal solar still

5 liters/day

3 liters/day

estimated cost: 50$ average cost: 100$

Eliodomestico is intended to be an open project

attribution - non commercial - share alike
Very simple systems:

It is usually presumed that quite a bit of expenditure and construction is needed to make a solar still which will purify water. That is not necessarily the case. Here is a design which can cost nothing and which can work well in a sunny location:

![Diagram of solar still](image)

This arrangement could hardly be more simple than it is. An inner container is used and it is made either from a dark material or is painted black, preferably, matt black as a shiny black reflects more of the light falling on it than a matt black surface does. In the diagram above, the black stops well short of the top of the inner container, but that is only to show the liquid inside the container and in fact, the inner container will be dark from top to bottom. Because of this dark colour, the liquid inside the inner container gets hotter than the air outside it (which is hotter than the air outside the outer container, due to the greenhouse effect). There is considerable evaporation from the inner container, but as it can’t escape, it forms droplets on the inside of the outer container and these droplets slide down and collect at the bottom of the container, forming a reservoir of distilled water which is safe to drink. The construction of this still can be from things which are already to hand. For example, the bottom can be cut off a transparent plastic drinks bottle and used to cover a dark glass drinks bottle standing in an ordinary bowl, as shown here:
It is, of course, essential for the outside of the glass bottle and the inside of the plastic bottle to be completely clean so that they do not contaminate the purified water.

Another variation on this is to use a dark glass jar inside a plastic storage jar, again, placed inside an ordinary bowl as shown here:

Alternatively, a plastic jar with a screw lid can be used upside down and the lid used to replace the bowl. The inner container in this case, happens to be plastic. The capacity of the lid limits the amount of clean water which can be produced at any one time, unless the lid is carefully removed and a larger bowl used to catch the clean water (which means that it would have been easier to use the bowl instead of the lid):
Water Purity and Quality

There are two main factors involved in pure drinking water:

1. Debris and other non-biological material.
2. Biological material.

It is necessary to deal with each of these problems.

1. Non-biological material is avoided if the water is gathered by any of the evaporation/distillation systems shown above as the solids, sea-salts, mud or whatever, gets left behind. The same applies to collecting the evapotranspiration water from a tree using a clean plastic bag as mentioned above.

If it is necessary to use stagnant, muddy water or water from a polluted river, then two things can be done. The first thing is to get the water as clean as possible before collecting it. If it is possible, dig a hole near the water supply, making the hole deeper than the bed of the river or pool. That causes the hole to fill partially with water coming from the source through the ground which acts as a filter and as a result, the water in the hole is likely to have a lower level of solids in it. Having extracted the water from the new hole, unless it is exceptionally good quality, it can be improved by filtering it through sand held in a cloth material, or even just through a fine-mesh cloth. Water can generally be found under the bed of a dried out river and the best point to dig is at the outside of a bend in the river bed.

2. Biological material is a serious hazard and it can make you very ill and/or kill you. The evaporation systems mentioned above, generally avoid this problem, but the safe method for producing safe drinking water is to boil it for at least ten minutes as that kills the organisms in the water, making it safe. Unfortunately, that requires a good deal of fuel and the water needs to cool afterwards. Mixing ozone into the water or shining ultraviolet light through the water are alternatives. Be very careful as even moistening your lips with contaminated water can make you severely ill.

Water in a fast-flowing or bubbling stream flowing over rocks and sand, should be safe to drink provided that there is a stretch of 10 metres (30 feet) upstream of the sampling point, which is free from contaminants (dead animals, effluent inflow, etc.) as the movement of the water mixes air into the water and the oxygen in the air kills the bacteria.

A very effective way of dealing with polluted water (and any illness caused by it) is to add some colloidal silver to it, as that deals with all serious pathogens and, for example, can totally clear a contaminated well. In case you are not familiar with how to make colloidal silver, details are given below.

Fresh water on a larger scale

US patent 2,996,897 (22 Aug 1961) from Elmer Grimes:

The fifty-year-old Grimes system is effectively an outdoor refrigerator. A series of cone-shaped metal panels are stacked together vertically to save space. Each cone has pipes inside it which pass the cooling fluid through the cones, ensuring that they are always at low temperature. In the same way that a cold drink gets water droplets on the outside of the glass, the cones get water droplets forming on them all the time. A wiper arm like a windscreen wiper on a car then brushes those droplets off, with the wiper arm rotating around the cones continuously, rather than backwards and forwards as a car wiper blade does. This produces a continuous stream of fresh water coming off the cones. Unless there is some good reason why not to, the cones are mounted in a raised position so that gravity can be used to direct the water flow to where it needs to end up. Cones are used as they have a greater surface area than a flat plate of the same diameter would have, and the downward slope of the cone helps the water droplets flow off the cone surfaces:
ATMOSPHERIC WATER SUPPLY APPARATUS

This invention relates to a method and apparatus for obtaining a fresh water supply from the atmosphere. In arid and semi-arid regions, the supply of fresh water is a considerable problem which has in the past, been met by the use of highly expensive apparatus, equipment and systems involving the transport of water over great distances, using equipment which is consequently very vulnerable to destruction and additionally expensive in upkeep and repair. Other types of apparatus for obtaining a fresh water supply in such regions, involves the processing of sea water which has proven to be slow and also extremely expensive for obtaining water in larger practical quantities. It is therefore a primary object of this invention to provide apparatus which is especially useful in such regions for providing a fresh water supply in a more efficient, rapid and less costly a manner.

Another object is to provide a source of fresh water obtained from the atmosphere in a manner similar to a portion of the natural water cycle and by a process which avoids the high costl boiling, evaporating and pumping of sea water.

A further object is to provide an apparatus which removes water from the atmosphere by condensation and precipitation for use in home and commercial purposes having the advantage of providing a more local source of water which will be naturally soft, having no scale to clog plumbing, nor any disposal problem for salt and mineral matter as occurs with seawater.

An additional object is to provide apparatus for obtaining water directly from the atmosphere by condensing water vapour in the atmosphere on a number of conical condensing surfaces exposed to the air which may be cooled by the air if the air temperature is below the condensing temperature and automatically cooled by circulating refrigerant when necessary so as to provide means for continuously condensing on to the condensing surfaces, the water vapour which is in the air. Continuously operating wipers on the condensing surfaces cause the condensation on them to be swept into the bottom funnel portion of the apparatus. The water so collected is then conducted to local storage or use while the kinetic energy of the water flowing from the apparatus may be converted by means of a turbine-driven generator into useful energy which may be used to operate the motor driving the precipitation wipers as well as the compressor by means of which, the refrigerant is circulated within the condensing surface members for maintaining them at a temperature lower than the water vapour’s condensing temperature.

It will therefore be apparent that the apparatus and method of this invention has the advantage of providing a continuous supply of water which may be so engineered to supply water at all times in sufficient quantities and at the same time, furnish the power for its own operation and even at times, excess power which may be used for other purposes. The apparatus and method take advantage of the potential energy acquired by water undergoing the natural water cycle by prematurely condensing the water vapour in the atmosphere and mechanically precipitating it by a mechanism acting in concert with, and supplementing the natural phenomena.
Fig. 1 is a schematic illustration of the installation and operating principles of the method and apparatus.

Fig. 2 is a partial sectional view with parts shown in section of the apparatus.
Fig. 3 is a sectional view taken substantially through a plane indicated by section line 3—3 of Fig. 2.

Fig. 4 is a partial, enlarged sectional view of a portion of the conical condensing plate and wiper mechanism.

Fig. 5 is a partial sectional view taken substantially through a plane indicated by section line 5—5 in Fig. 2.
Fig.6 is a top plan view of an opening in the funnel portion of the apparatus as viewed from a plane indicated by section line 6–6 in Fig.2.

Fig.7 is a partial sectional view taken through a plane indicated by section line 7–7 in Fig.3.

Referring to the drawings in detail:

Fig.1 illustrates the installation set-up. The entire apparatus is indicated by reference number 10 and includes a tank structure 12, (preferably) mounted at a height greater than the area to be supplied with the water. The water supply originates in the tank structure and is fed to the water reservoir 14 by a conduit system 18 which has a turbine 20. A portion of the kinetic energy of the water flowing in the conduit 18 is absorbed by the turbine mechanism 20 which powers and electrical generator 22 from which electricity can be drawn via a voltage regulator 24, which is connected to an electric motor 26 which is associated with the tank mechanism 12 by power lines 28. The voltage regulator 24 is also connected to external power lines 30 which may be able to supply additional power to other equipment. On the other hand, the power line may be interrelated with the mains supply so that when the power output of the generator 22 is insufficient to energise motor 26, and external source of power through the power line 30 may be used.

It will also be noted from Fig.1, that an additional electrical connection 32 is provided between the power lines 28 supplied either by the generator 22 or the external power source through line 30 and voltage regulator 24 so as to operate other parts of the equipment associated with the tank structure 12 as will be explained later.
Referring now to figures 2, 3, 4 and 5, it will be observed that the tank structure 12 includes a cylindrical portion 34 which is connected at the bottom to a funnel portion 36, to which the conduit 18 is connected. Water collects at the bottom of the funnel 46 and carried by conduit 18 for storage and use. On the funnel walls are a number of streamlined-shaped openings 37 with upward projecting rims enabling the circulation of moisture-laden air through the funnel portion for additional water collection, each opening being designed however to prevent flow of water from the funnel portion as seen from Fig.2 and Fig.6. It will also be observed that the motor 26 which is positioned above the open top of the cylindrical portion 34 of the tank structure 12, is mounted on the cylindrical section 34 by means of a suitable mounting structure 38 while a refrigerant circulating unit 40 is mounted within the funnel portion 36 in axial alignment with the motor 26 by any suitable supporting structure 42. In addition to the wiper of the unit 44 driven by the motor 26, the compressor mechanism 40 is also driven from the motor 26 and is connected by a thermostatically controlled disconnector mechanism 46 of any suitable design, using mains power for connecting and disconnecting using lines 32 which are there for that purpose. The specific designs for mechanism 46 are well known.
It will be observed for Fig.2 and Fig.4 in particular, that the motor 26 has an output shaft 48 to which there is connected an elongated extension shaft 50 which extends downwards through tank 12 for connection to the compressor 40 through the thermostatically-controlled electrically-operated clutch 46. Also connected to the motor shaft 48 are a number of interconnected wiper arms 52 of the wiper mechanism 44. It will be observed from Fig.2 and Fig.4 that there are provided several parallel downward-inclined wiper arms 52 which are connected by axial connecting members 54.

The wiper arms 52 are positioned around, and rotate with respect to, the cone-shaped parallel, vertically spaced apart, plates 56, each of which has an exposed upper condensing surface 58 and a lower condensing surface 50 which are connected at their outer edge, and at their inner edge, they are connected to the next plates vertically above and below by plate 62. As is more clearly seen in Fig.4, the plate members terminate at the top with an axial portion 64 with respect to which, the motor shaft 48 rotates, bearing 66 being positioned between motor shaft 48 and part 64 of the conical plate. Shown in Fig.3 and Fig.7, lined curved openings 63 are placed in the condensing portions 58 and 60 of the conical plate members 56 in order to accommodate the circulation of air through and between the plate members. The plate members may be held fixed with respect to the housing tank 12 while the wiper arms 52 of the wiper mechanism 44 may be rotated relative to it. Accordingly, the wiper arm 52 includes wiper material 68 which contacts the upper and lower surfaces 58 and 60 of each of the conical plate members 56 so as to wipe from them the condensation 70 formed there as more clearly seen in Fig.5. The water so precipitated falls down to collect at the bottom of the funnel portion 36 of the tank 12.

It will be understood that the water vapour in the air will condense on surfaces 58 and 60 if the temperature of the air is low enough, or below, the water condensing temperature. At certain times, such as at night, the air temperature will have the conducting surface at the proper temperature. However, at other times it will be necessary to cool the condensing surface artificially by use of a conventional circulating refrigerant system. Accordingly, circulating refrigerant coils 72 are placed inside each conical plate 56.

As seen more clearly in Fig.3, the coils 72 are arranged to provide cooling for the entire exposed surface of the conical condensing plate 56 between the upper and lower condensing surfaces 58 and 60 of each conical plate member as more clearly seen in Fig.4, with the lined openings 63 being located between the coils. Each cooling coil network 72 is connected by a radial connecting tube 74 (Fig.3) connected to an axial tube portion 76 (Fig.4) through which refrigerant may be pumped into the coil 72 of each of the conical plate members 56. The axial portion 76 of the cooling tube is connected at the bottom to the circulating unit 40. Refrigerant under pressure is applied to the supply tube 76 for circulation through each of the conical plate members 56 and returned through a parallel axial tube 78 as seen in Fig.2 and Fig.4.

It will also be understood that although the apparatus is described in the illustrated example with stationary conical plates and rotating wiper arms, it would be possible to have the wipers fixed and the cone rotating, and in that case the rotation of the cones may provide sufficient physical disturbance through inertia and centrifugal effect to cause precipitation, in which case the wipers will not be needed. Furthermore, the number of wiper arms may be varied to suit the conditions under which the apparatus operates and the quantity of water to be derived from the atmosphere. The wiper mechanism 44 which is operated by means of the electric motor 26 to which the compressor 40 is also connected, may for the most part receive its operating power from the generator 22 which in turn derives its power from the kinetic energy of the water flowing through the conduit 18.

Also, the unit 40, in which addition to the wiper mechanism 44 loads the motor 26 may have its load disconnected from the motor 26 for more efficient operation when the refrigerant is not needed, such as at night when the air temperature is low. Removing the compressor load may be done manually or automatically by the mechanism 46 shown schematically, and which may be electrically operated to disconnect the motor drive shaft extension 50 from the compressor of the unit 40 when the air temperature is low.

There is also patent 4,418,549 (1983) from Calice Courneya. In this method the cooling parts are buried underground as it is assumed that the ambient air will be at a higher temperature than that below ground. The passage of air through the apparatus is intended to be wind driven although the incoming air is filtered to remove particles before entering the apparatus. There is also the provision of an extractor fan on the outlet, presumably for when there is little or no wind.
Another system is using a large Fresnel lens to distil water which is not suitable for drinking. This is possible using the most simple equipment of two glass bottles and a piece of copper tubing. If it is still there, the video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aXjMAItCMIo shows the method, though I must admit that I would prefer to take the liquid which he drinks and pass it through the system again to improve its quality further.

Making Colloidal Silver

Colloidal silver is minute charged particles of pure silver suspended in distilled water. It is completely harmless to humans and has no side effects of any kind. It should be stored in a cool, dark place away from direct sunlight.

It is made using a glass container, some 99.99% pure silver wire and a battery:

Two clip wires are used to connect to the battery which can be 6-volt, 9-volt, 18-Volt or 27-Volt (by plugging two or three 9V batteries together). The other end of the two wires are used to clip the silver wire to the sides of the glass container holding the distilled water, holding the silver wire in place as well as making the electrical connection to the silver. Be sure that the distilled water does not cover any part of the clips as that contaminates the water as the clips are steel and not pure silver.

When the battery is connected, the distilled water is stirred gently for about fifteen minutes. The stirrer needs to be non-metallic – glass, plastic or wood, to avoid the stirrer becoming part of the processing and preventing the production of pure colloidal silver. The stirring is a very important part of the processing. The current flowing from the battery is very small and it is influenced by the separation of the silver electrodes.
The space between the electrodes can be adjusted by choosing where they are placed on the rim of the glass container. The particles taken from the silver wire are so tiny that the silver wire never seems to need to be replaced.

After a few minutes, the silver wire which is connected to the minus terminal of the battery, will become coated with a black substance. This needs to be cleaned off. I use a clean tissue for this. As time goes by, the rate at which the black coating develops increases as the water becomes much more able to carry current from the battery. Do not use any kind of chemicals to clean the silver – the purity of the water and the silver is vital. The silver wire connected to the positive terminal of the battery develops a dull grey coating which needs to be cleaned off occasionally.

I generally continue the process until I have cleaned off the negative electrode four or five times using a clean tissue. In passing, “colloidal” just means that the silver particles are too small to drop out of the water under gravity and so, stay dispersed throughout the water indefinitely. The end product should be clear and look exactly like water (which it mainly is). If you shine a laser light such as a lecturer’s laser pointer, into the colloidal silver, it looks very pretty, lighting up with thousands of little sparkles as the light is reflected off the silver particles in the water.

The most popular concentration is 10 Parts Per Million as that is a very effective level and that is the level typically produced after fifteen minutes of production. If you want to take it orally, then a teaspoon of colloidal silver held under the tongue for a minute before swallowing is recommended perhaps five times per day.

Some interesting facts:

1. When Czechoslovakia was under communist occupation, Soviet intelligence came across a domestic disinfectant which was capable of neutralising not only their existing biological weapons, but also those under development. The Soviets quickly dismantled the factory which was producing this product and moved the equipment, documentation and even the staff to the Soviet Union. Following this, no one heard of the disinfectant again. In a study of infected wells, it completely destroyed typhus, malaria, cholera, and amoebic dysentery. This domestic disinfectant is a variety of colloidal silver.

2. Colloidal silver does more than just kill disease-causing organisms, it also promotes major bone growth and accelerates the healing of injured tissues by over 50%. It promotes healing in skin and other soft tissues in a way which is unlike any other known natural process. An example of this is the case of Glen Roundtree, a 32 year old man, who was clearing brush and trees in his parent's yard when some petrol left on his hands after filling the chain saw ignited. He burned for over 30 seconds as he tried to get the fire out. Glen suffered third degree burns on his hands and face. His mother's friend brought him some colloidal silver. He drank it and sprayed it on his face often. He was able to stop taking morphine immediately. Within three and a half weeks his recovery was so advanced that his hospital attendant did not believe he was the same burns patient. In less than three months his face was completely healed with absolutely no scarring. The planned re-constructive surgery for his melted nose and ear was cancelled.

3. In the presence of colloidal silver, cancer cells change back to normal cells regardless of their location in the body. The presence of silver ions regenerates tissues and eliminates cancer cells and other abnormal cells. For many years, Dr Bjorn Nordstrom of Sweden's Karolinska Institute has used silver in his cancer treatment methods. He reports that he has successfully cured patients who had been diagnosed as "terminally ill" by other doctors. He also discovered that the silver was promoting the growth of a new kind of cell which looked like the cells only found in children. These cells grew fast, producing a diverse and surprising assortment of primitive cell forms able to multiply at great rate and then change into the specific cells of an organ or tissue which had been injured, even in patients over 50 years old. In no case were there any undesirable side effects. He also discovered that previously untreatable osteomyelitis and bones which refused to knit, could be healed quickly by applying a silver-impregnated nylon dressing attached to a small battery. This worked so well that it has become standard practice today when dealing with bones which refuse to knit.

4. Dr Paul Farber suffered a tick bite which overnight, gave him the crippling Lyme's Disease. There was no satisfactory treatment so he searched medical literature to see if he could find anything to help. He finally found the comments of Dr Crookes about colloidal silver killing a microbe in six minutes or less. He also found the research and development work done on colloidal silver by Dr Moyer, Dr Bretano and Dr Margraf. Dr Farber started taking colloidal silver with spectacular results, clearing the bacteria out of his body in a short time - colloidal silver kills the Lyme's Disease bacteria.
5. Antibiotics have no impact whatsoever on viruses. This means that taking any antibiotic will have no effect on a viral infection. Worse still, many forms of bacteria are now resistant to most antibiotics. Colloidal silver will kill both and boost your natural immune system at the same time, and it cures AIDS and Ebola.

Agriculture
The Elmer Grimes system for extracting water from the air is able to produce volumes of water capable of supporting agriculture, even in dry areas such as Texas. While agriculture or food production is not part of this publication, there are a few things which should be mentioned. I know nothing about agriculture but I do know that soil of very poor quality can be converted to rich, productive soil by burning vegetation and then working the resulting ash into the poor soil. That requires no chemicals and is very low cost and effective.

Also, the effectiveness of a growing area can be boosted substantially by using vertical stacking. The company Agricube at http://www.agricube.co.uk has an effective, proven, low cost system for doing this with standard modules which stack on top of each other:

These stacking units can boost the effective growing area by a factor of five.

Trickier to operate but very neat in concept is the technique of hydroponics combined with fish farming. With that technique, the fish waste forms food for the plants and the plants draw the waste from the water, keeping it fresh for the fish. It is a very effective system and there is a free download manual on this at http://www.fishplant.co.uk/ where fish selection is explained as well as how to operate the system in family size or commercial scale. Useful video at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HYR9s6chrI0.
Kimbal Musk’s “Urban Farming Accelerator”  
By Justin Gardner  29th August 2016  
The demand for real, local food is growing as more people become aware that agribusiness corporations such as Monsanto, along with lobbying groups like the Grocery Manufacturers Association, have a frightening grip on America’s food system.

“Big Food” would rather have everyone continue to eat highly processed, mass-produced substances packed with genetically modified fillers and artificial ingredients.

The surge in organic and non-Genetically Modified sales is a heartening reminder that the power of the purse can make a difference. Farmer’s markets, where people congregate to buy real, nutritious food and meet the farmer who produces that food, have grown all over America but the availability of real, local food is limited in urban areas, where communities often experience “food deserts” where the only things available are the unhealthiest processed substances of the Big Food industry.

Kimbal Musk (brother of the innovating entrepreneur Elon Musk) and his colleague Tobias Peggs are looking to change that by bringing real food production into the heart of urban areas. This autumn they are launching Square Roots, an “urban farming accelerator” centered on the use of modular shipping containers to grow the equivalent of two acres of food year-round. It’s not just a box, though, but an initiative to join the energy of youth with healthy, sustainable solutions to food production.

“Square Roots builds campuses of climate-controlled, indoor, hydroponic vertical farms, right in the hearts of our biggest cities. We train young entrepreneurs to grow fresh, local food all year round. And we empower them to create forward-thinking, responsible businesses that strengthen their communities through real food. All this means year-round heaven for local foodies. From farmer’s market conversations to farm-campus parties, from speaker series’ to digital content, Square Roots creates opportunities for everyone to dig into local food – even if there’s two feet of snow on the ground.”

With technology and urbanisation, people have unfortunately been losing touch with the basic knowledge of where food comes from and how it is grown and made – which makes the system ripe for abuse by corporate interests and government lackeys. Square Roots is a brilliant counter to this trend. It not only puts power back in the hands of the people, but also creates opportunity for activities that contribute to the health of body and mind. Gardening is known to make you smarter and happier.

Last week, Kimbal Musk explained why he is “empowering thousands of young people to become #realfood entrepreneurs through Vertical Farming”. He says “strong communities are built around local, real food. Food we trust to nourish our bodies, the farmer and planet. This is #realfood. Sadly, many people in our biggest cities are at the mercy of industrial food. The industrial food system ships in high-calorie, low-nutrient, processed food from thousands of miles away. It leaves us disconnected from our food and the people who grow it. As Michael Pollan and others are have pointed out, the results are awful - from childhood obesity and diabetes to a total loss of community in our food”.

14 - 63
For a decade, Musk's startup called “The Kitchen” has served real, local food to millions of city residents, while getting kids interested in real food through 300 Learning Gardens across the country. Square Roots will naturally build on this success.

“Leveraging proven technologies like Freight Farms and ZipGrow, Square Roots’ vertical farms are literally built inside shipping containers. They essentially enable three-dimensional growing - giving farmers the annual yield equivalent of two acres of outdoor farmland inside a climate-controlled module with a footprint of barely 320 sq. ft. These systems also use 80% less water than outdoor farms. That’s the potential for a lot of real food grown in a very small space using very few resources. Best of all: vertical farms can be installed in the middle of cities. Our urban campuses will have anywhere from 10 to 100 farms. Using this platform, Square Roots entrepreneurs can avoid almost all the transport-impact of the industrial food system - by growing real food, at scale, right next to people who want to eat it”.

Their first campus will debut in Brooklyn, New York this autumn, and they admittedly “have a lot to prove” in the beginning stage. But all indications point to a huge demand for real food in urban areas, and plenty of young entrepreneurs ready to merge their business drive with sustainable solutions for the planet.

**Toribio Bellocq’s Water Pump.**

A serious problem for farmers and individuals is the cost of pumping water up from a borehole or well. While the combined Lever / Pendulum system of Veljko Milkovic described in Chapter 4 can reduce the amount of effort required by a substantial margin, there are other methods which could be useful.

It was originally thought that water could not readily be pumped to a greater height than 32 feet or so unless the pump was located at the bottom of the pipe. Toribio Bellocq demonstrated in 1924 that this is actually not the case and that water can be pumped to any height using a pump mounted at the top of a vertical pipe. He showed a working system to the Patent Office where an 80-foot vertical pipe was used to demonstrate the principle and having proved the point, he was granted US Patents 1,730,336, and 1,730,337, and later, US Patent 1,941,593 in which he describes chamber devices which can enhance the sonic wave operation.

Toribio’s system is very straightforward. He places a one-way ball valve at the bottom of the vertical pipe (item V in the diagram below). A crank rod is then used to vibrate piston C in its pumping cylinder. The pumping cylinder has no valves and the piston stroke is very short. Both the pipe and the pump cylinder are filled with water before the operation is begun.

The rapid movement of the piston creates a pressure wave in the water in the pipe. The pressure wave causes the water pressure inside the pipe to rise and fall rapidly. This altering water pressure at the one-way valve at the bottom of the pipe, causes water to be drawn into the pipe when the pressure is low and the valve prevents the water flowing out again when the pressure rises.

This repeating action causes water to be pumped up the vertical pipe and out through an adjustable valve R. When the pumping action is timed correctly, there is an almost continuous flow of water from the pipe.

Toribio quotes an example in his patent, where the vertical pipe has an internal diameter of one inch, placed in a well where the water is twenty metres below the ground level. The valve opening is 30 mm and the sealing ball of the valve has a diameter of about 38 mm and contained in an ordinary cage which allows some 20 mm of vertical movement of the valve.
With this arrangement, the piston at the surface has a diameter of 50 mm and a stroke of 38 mm and is driven by an electric motor at about 360 rpm. The outflow pipe has an internal diameter of half an inch and the valve $R$ is used to control the rate of flow out of the system. When the valve is adjusted correctly, a continuous flow is achieved and the flow rate is about 1,000 litres per hour (265 US gallons per hour, or 220 Imperial gallons per hour). It is important that the initial filling of the pipe and fully-open piston avoids getting any air trapped along with the water. The compressor cylinder can be horizontal or vertical. The well can be of any depth and there is no need for the pipe to be straight or vertical. When the system is adjusted correctly, there is little or no wear on the valve at the bottom of the pipe. The liquid pumped does not have to be water.

Richard Dickinson's Water Pump.
US Patent 2,232,678 of 1937, show a very similar system with a piston being driven in a cylinder without valves, creating a pressure wave in the vertical pipe which has a similar one-way valve at the bottom of the pipe. Interestingly, no mention of Bellocq's patent is made. Dickinson's patent drawing of the system outline is shown here:
Arthur Bentley’s Water Pump.
The grandson of the car designer, Arthur Bentley has some 34 patents to his name, one of which (US 4,295,799) is very much like Toribio Bellocq’s pump system. Richard Bruner writing in the Calgary Herald newspaper in 1989, tells how a prototype of the Bentley design was tested on a Navajo reservation in Arizona. Driven by four solar panels, a flow rate of 120 US gallons per hour was achieved, (about half that of Bellocq’s rate at 20 metres depth), though the depth of the Navajo well was not mentioned. The manufacturers claim that the pump can operate at depths of up to 4,000 feet.

Neither this Bentley patent nor his earlier patent 3,804,557 makes any mention of Bellocq which seems somewhat strange, especially with the marked apparent similarity between the designs. Again, we see here, a piston being used to generate an acoustic wave in the vertical pipe and a series of one-way valves at the bottom of the tube being used to trap the rising column of water and prevent it from flowing out of the bottom of the pipe again. A variation in this patent is the addition of a spring loaded bottom section to the pipe which is alternately compressed and expanded by the sound waves as part of the pumping process as shown in the following diagrams:
The Ram Self-Powered Pump.

In hilly areas, it is frequently necessary to pump water up to locations where it is needed. These locations are usually considerably higher than the source of water. There is a simple device called a "Ram Pump" which is powered by water flow alone and needs no other form of power. In a way, it operates very much like the pumps just described, in that water flowing into a pressure chamber causes fluctuating pressure which with just two valves, and no other moving parts, pumps water to a considerable height.

A Ram Pump can be used if there is a fast-flowing stream of clean water, and more than 50% of the water flow into the pump can be lifted to a higher level. The remainder of the water flows back into the stream at a point lower down. These pumps are readily available commercially and interestingly, they have a COP of infinity as the user does not have to supply any input power and yet substantial pumping power is produced for an unlimited period. As this is a standard Engineering technique, nobody gets upset at the thought of 'perpetual motion' or 'free-energy' even though the pump can go on pumping for years with absolutely no fuel being burnt. This is energy being drawn from the environment in the same way as a self-powered compressed air engine draws energy from the environment, and yet, the compressed air engine is considered to be "unbelievable" while the Ram Pump is accepted without question. Could there be a certain degree of bias being seen here? The power operating the pump comes from the water flowing down hill. The water arrives at this height by falling as rain. The rain gets up there by evaporation caused by water being heated by the sun. So, bottom line, the pumping power comes from the sun.

If a fast-flowing stream is not available but the terrain allows it, then a Ram Pump feeding system can be built. Ideally, there should be a drop of at least two metres (six feet) on the inlet pipe. This creates a fast flow into the pump by feeding it through a steeply sloping intake pipe, like this:
The performance of a Ram Pump is impressive even though it has only two moving parts. With an input fall of just four metres and a small flow rate of just three litres per minute, a Ram Pump can deliver 69 litres per day to a massive height of 100 metres vertically above the pump. Or, 159 lpd to 60 metres above the pump, or 258 lpd to a height of 40 metres above the pump. This is impressive for such a simple device.

It operates by the water rushing into the air chamber. This raises the pressure until the valve at the base of the chamber slams closed. The increased pressure in the chamber pushes water out of the delivery outlet, lowering the pressure again. While this is happening, the closed valve causes a ‘water-hammer’ wave of reverse pressure which pushes excess water out of the ‘waste’ pipe and pushes water back up the intake pipe. When the pressure wave in the intake pipe dissipates, the water rushes back down the pipe, pushing the valve at the base of the air chamber, open again, to repeat the cycle. This oscillating pressure wave causes the pumping action, very much in the same way as the previous pumps which use a mechanical oscillator pump as no free-flowing water is available to create the oscillation.

Commercial ram pumps have an efficiency of about 66%. The calculation of performance is:

\[ D = \frac{(S \times F \times E)}{L} \]

Where:
- \( D \) = The quantity of water in litres delivered in 24 hours.
- \( S \) = The quantity of water, in litters per minute, fed to the pump.
- \( F \) = The height in metres of the water source above the pump intake.
- \( E \) = The efficiency of the pump (assume 33% for home built units).
- \( L \) = The height in metres, of the supply outlet above the pump.

Reproduced here by kind permission of US AID 1982 from the web site shown in the diagram above, is a table of values, calculated from the formula above, and assuming the 66% efficiency of a commercial unit. The input flow for these numbers is a tiny 1 litre per minute trickle. This is less than the hydroxy gas rate produced by the Smack’s Booster shown in Chapter 10, so in practice, you will be multiplying the numbers in this table by a realistic number of inflow litres per minute.
Discouraging Mosquitoes and Small Flies

Maurice Cottrell (whose work is in chapter 11) presents what is a quite remarkable effect. He says:

What it is, is a church door in Ireland, surrounded with a white plastic pipe filled with water. When in Palenque in Mexico Maurice found that the local people discouraged flies, particularly mosquitoes and very
small flies, by hanging polythene bags filled with water, from the lintels of their open doors. They do not know why, but doing that discourages flies from entering the doorway.

Maurice considered the effect and his opinion is that small flies can be injured by raindrops and so they have learned to avoid them. A falling raindrop has an electrogravitic effect due to the hydrogen atoms in the water, and flies which can see in the ultraviolet spectrum, can detect that effect around water and their instinct makes them avoid water – whether falling as droplets or not. Large bluebottle flies do not seem to be affected, but there is a definite effect with smaller flies.

If a doorway is surrounded with a 1-inch (25 mm) diameter plastic pipe filled with water, as seen in the picture above, then Maurice believes that the resulting effect is like this:

Here, gravity waves spread out from the water and create an effective barrier all the way across the doorway, discouraging the smallest flies, including midges. Obviously, any opening can be surrounded with a water-filled pipe, and not just doorways. While this is not a renewable energy device as such, it is a method which could well be useful where serious diseases are carried by mosquitoes.

**Wave Power.**  
Although not generally thought of as an option for personal use, wave power does have a high potential, although, like wind power and unlike tidal power, not always available. We tend to think of wave power systems as being large scale and very expensive, but that is not always the case. At it’s most basic level, most wave power system uses the varying distance between the surface of an ocean or sea and some fixed point on land or the sea bed.

Ideally, there should be a minimum of moving parts. One neat design uses a simple rectangular concrete housing with an electrical generator mounted above sea level. The generator being above sea level is easy to reach for maintenance or replacement and there are no moving parts underwater. It is a very simple design which can be built quite easily. In it’s most simple form, it is just a rectangular box with an underwater opening:
Here, a large opening allows the sea to flow into the structure which makes the water level inside the box move up and down with the wave motion outside. As a wave passes by, it compresses the air inside the box and the air is driven out through the generator opening, spinning the generator blades in the same way as a wind-powered generator has its blades spun by the wind.

Some generators operate well with the air flowing backwards and forwards through the blades, generating electricity no matter which way the blades are spun. With a generator which works better with just one direction of spin, then a large flap valve is installed and it allows air to flow into the structure when the water level is falling but closes immediately the water level starts rising again.

Even though this style of wave power generator is so simple, it works very well in practice, provided that the vertical dimensions are arranged so that the top of the underwater opening is below the lowest neap tide and the bottom of the generator opening is above the highest spring tide. A baffle arrangement can be used to protect the generator from spray and storm debris. There is no need to have the structure full width above the water level:
This has the very considerable advantage that the area of the water surface inside the structure is very much larger than the cross-sectional area of the generator housing column and so the air rushes out through the generator much faster than the wave rises. This amplification factor can be increased by increasing the length of the base of the unit, further enlarging the water surface area inside the structure. If wave action is frequently very strong, then it may be preferred to have the undersea opening facing inshore or sideways in order to reduce the amount of material driven into it by very strong surges.

Another fairly simple wave power generator system design which is based on simple principles, was suggested on Stefan Nystrom’s website which has been discontinued. It is called the “WaveReaper” system. It operates using a large number of separate buoys. Plastic barrels are suggested as suitable buoys but almost any non-dangerous containers which will not corrode in the sea and which have a considerable internal volume, can be used in this system.

Each basic unit consists of a float, a pulley, a cable and a ratchet drive connection to the shaft of an electrical generator. The power provided by the movement of the buoy can be very substantial as sea water weighs a considerable amount. The connecting cable is kept taught by a heavy weight, and the cable runs over a pulley which is mounted on a shaft which connects to the shaft of the generator. Bicycle parts are suggested for this section of the drive as they are cheap and readily available in most places and they come with a toothed sprocket wheel which already has a suitable ratchet built into it.

The reason for the shaft is that a whole series of buoys are used. These buoys are positioned progressively further and further from the shore so that an incoming wave raises the buoys one after the other in a regular sequence. This means that while one buoy is letting its cable run back inshore (pulled by it’s inshore weight), one or more of the other buoys will be rising and applying drive to the shaft linked to the generator. This arrangement allows the generator shaft to receive a continuous drive. Having a heavy flywheel on this shaft is an added advantage as it will smooth out the repeated drive strokes provided by the buoys:

![Diagram of wave power generator system]

Having a sheaf of moving cables threaded through the sea near the shore is asking for a major tangle with seaweed and all kinds of other drifting material. Very sensibly then, Stefan suggests that the cables be housed in a protecting pipe. Considerable care needs to be taken to make sure that the cables do not rub against anything as the movement is constant and the forces involved are high. Each cable needs to have it’s own space keeping it clear of all the other cables and having a pulley mounted at any points where there is a change of direction.

To make maintenance easier, it is also suggested that these protecting pipes are not fixed in position but are themselves on a pulley system so that they can be hauled ashore:
The buoys are also linked together loosely on top with a securing cord so that they always stay in a compact group, though there is little chance of any great sideways movement as the tension in the buoy cables is high. Stefan requests that anyone who constructs his design makes a donation via [http://www.o2gruppen.se/](http://www.o2gruppen.se/) though how that is done is by no means clear to me as there does not appear to be a “Donate” button on that website.

There are many other wave-power devices, some with excellent efficiencies, but most are not generally capable of construction by the average amateur. One example is the “Nodding Duck” design by Stephen Salter of Edinburgh in Scotland, and shown in the US patent 3,928,967 where the wave power is extracted by a raft-like construction with cam-shaped floats. These floats have a rippling movement on the surface of the water and the movement of each section relative to the other sections is used to generate power. This is not exactly a back-yard construction.

**Other Systems.**

Not included in this eBook, but on the website [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/) there are articles from the highly recommended Home Power website [http://www.homepower.com/home/] which are on this general topic. There is a system for producing blocks of ice using sun power alone and no other energy input at all:
Also, a two-part article on Solar cooling, which concentrates on heat absorption with different colours, the strategic positioning of buildings and vegetation, practical roof overhangs and the like, to lower the temperature inside buildings in very hot locations.

There are articles is on cooking with hydrogen, heating your house with hydrogen and using hydrogen with a barbecue. On the Home Power site there is information on how to use solar power to heat household water and you may find the Google video on how to make your own hot-water solar panel interesting and useful. It makes sense to reduce your essential costs by doing a few simple things which help.

**Cooling Using Heat.**  
Most of our current refrigerators use electricity to drive a compressor to achieve cooling. Here is a patent from Albert Einstein (whom you may have heard of) and Leo Szilard which uses heat to power refrigeration instead of electricity. It is US Patent 1,781,541 titled “Refrigeration” and dated 11th November 1930.
Our invention relates to the art of refrigeration and particularly to an apparatus and method for producing refrigeration where the refrigerant evaporates in the presence an inert gas and more particularly, to the type disclosed in the Von Platen and Munters Patent No. 1,685,764 of 25th September 1928 and our British Patent No. 282,428.

The objects and advantages of our invention will be apparent from the following description considered in conjunction with the accompanying drawing which shows more or less diagrammatically, a preferred embodiment of our invention.

In the drawing, 1 is an evaporator which is normally placed inside the chamber which is to be cooled. A pipe 5 connects the upper part of evaporator 1 to the more intermediate portion of the condenser 6. Pipe 11 connects with the bottom of the evaporator 1 and extends into the condenser 6, at a level which is below the level of pipe 5. A cooling water jacket 12, surrounds the condenser and allows cooling water to flow through it.

Pipe 27 connects the bottom of the condenser 6, to the lower part of a heat-exchanger jacket 28. The upper part of jacket 28, is connected to the lower part of generator 29 which is heated by any suitable method. Pipe 30 connects the upper part of generator 29 to a point near the bottom of evaporator 1 where it
terminates in a distributor head 31. Pipe 30 runs inside pipe 5 so that there is a heat exchange between the fluids in those two pipes.

Pipe 32 runs upwards from the lower part of generator 29 to connect with a container 33 which is positioned at a level which is above that of condenser 6. A source of heat 36, is applied to pipe 32 at a point above generator 29. Pipe 37 runs down from container 33, passing through the heat-exchanger jacket 28 and then on up to the top of condenser 6 where it terminates in a distributor head 35. Pipe 37 runs inside the cooling water jacket 12 so that the fluid passing through it will be cooled as it flows. A venting pipe 34 connects the upper part of container 33 with the upper part of condenser 6.

The operation of the apparatus is as follows:

A suitable refrigerant, for example, butane in liquid form, is held inside the evaporator 1. An inert gas, such as ammonia, is introduced into evaporator 1 through pipe 30 and it’s distributor head 31. The refrigerant evaporates in the evaporator in the presence of the inert gas due to the fact that the partial pressure of the refrigerant is reduced thereby and the resulting gaseous mixture passes through pipe 5 and into condenser 6. Here, the mixture comes into intimate contact with an absorption liquid, for example, water, which is fed into the condenser through pipe 37 and it’s distributor head 35. The ammonia gas is very soluble in water but the butane is quite insoluble, so the ammonia is absorbed into the water freeing the butane from the gaseous mixture. Thus, the butane assumes substantially the entire pressure inside the condenser, and that pressure is sufficiently high to cause its liquefaction at the temperature maintained by the cooling water.

The specific gravity of liquid butane is less than that of the solution of ammonia in water and so stratification of the two liquids occurs with the liquid butane floating on top of the ammonia solution 26. The liquid butane passes from condenser 6, through pipe 11, and returns to evaporator 1, where it is again evaporated and the cycle repeated.

Gravity causes the ammonia solution to flow from condenser 6 through pipe 27 and heat-exchanger jacket 28, into generator 29. Here, the application of heat causes the ammonia to be expelled from the solution in the form of a gas, which then passes through pipe 30 and distributor head 31, into evaporator 1, where it reduces the partial pressure of the butane, causing it to evaporate as already described.

Water, containing very little ammonia in solution, passes from generator 29 through pipe 32 where it is further heated by the source of heat 36. This heating causes the formation of vapour in pipe 32 which lifts the liquid through this pipe and into container 33 and on from there under gravity through pipe 37 to condenser 6 and during its flow, this hot, low-concentration liquid is cooled by the heat-exchanger jacket 28. It is further cooled by the cooling water in jacket 12, and so reaches a condition where it can rapidly absorb ammonia in the condenser 6. Vapour entering container 33 through pipe 32, continues on it’s journey to the condenser 6 via the venting pipe 34.

During the operation of this piece of equipment, the pressure existing in the various components is uniform with the exception of slight differences caused by columns of liquid needed to cause the fluids to flow. The pressure existing in generator 29 must be sufficiently greater than the pressure in the upper part of evaporator 1, in order to make vapour flow through distributor head 31. In other words, the pressure difference must be sufficient to override the liquid head marked $h_2$. This excess pressure in the generator is balanced by the pressure created by the column of liquid marked $h_1$ in the drawing. This means that $h_2$ must be less than $h_1$, otherwise there would be no flow.

This patent of Einstein and Szilard seems to indicate that any source of heat such as a fire or a solar oven, should be able to produce cooling using a device which has no moving parts. It would probably be necessary to provide a trickle of water through the water cooling jacket, but apart from that, it looks like a device which could be used effectively by people who live “off the grid” and have little or no access to electricity. All in all, it is an interesting design.

**Solar Panels.**

A very well-know method of producing electricity from what appears to be a renewable resource is the use of solar panels. It hardly seems worth mentioning these as sales are so well promoted but it is possible that the problems with them are not understood. This used to be the most expensive way of producing electricity, but by 2015, electricity from free-energy and renewable energy sources have now exceeded the electricity produced by fuels such as oil, coal and nuclear energy. Much of this gain has been improvements in solar panels with a move away from the silicon wafer based technology to the newer thin film methods of
construction. That lowering in cost made the new solar panels viable as an investment for speculators and that drove up the installed volume enormously, with solar farms supplying the existing grid and getting paid for their input. Schemes in Germany produce 7% or 8% for investors. Details of this can be seen in the 2008 presentation [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mLHBFyfvK8A](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mLHBFyfvK8A) which explains the details very well.

What is often not realised is that solar panels have a working life span and will need replacement at some later date. The life is quite good, typically ten to twenty years, but the price of replacement must be allowed for. Solar panels are not the only part of your electrical system which will need replacing. Generally speaking, solar panels are used to charge batteries which then power equipment, usually by using an "inverter" which changes a DC battery voltage to a mains voltage AC supply. The big snag is that the frequently used lead-acid batteries generally have a lifespan of about four years. They are expensive, heavy and as they contain lead, they are not easy to dispose of (legally). This is a major recurring cost and disposal problem. The Tesla Car company has a high power ‘battery’ design capable of storing solar power and then run an entire household. At the present time, the unit is about 4 feet x 2 feet x six inches which is about 1220 x 610 x 150 millimetres and the price is around US $3,500. Hopefully, the size and price will both reduce considerably as manufacturing volume increases.

Another point which may not be realised with the older systems is that the current which can be drawn from a lead-acid battery without reducing its working life is very limited, quite apart from the fact that any lead-acid battery is only 50% efficient, requiring it to be fed twice as much current as it can supply afterwards. The safe discharge rate for a lead-acid battery is called the "C20" rate which just means that the allowable current is one which discharges the battery in a period of 20 hours. For example, if a new battery is rated as being a 100 Amp-hour ("100 AHr") battery, then the safe discharge rate is about 100 amps divided by 20, which is 5 amps. At twelve volts, a current of five amps is a power output of sixty watts. A washing machine needs about 2,200 watts for at least some of the time, so to power it (and nothing else at the same time) would take 37 of those 100 AHr batteries. Could you conveniently house 37 large batteries? How much do you think it would cost to replace them every four years?

Please understand that I have nothing against solar panels and actually own some myself, but you need to be aware of the practical problems with using them and not imagine that buying them will give you free electricity for ever afterwards.

The next factor to be considered is the fact that the power "rating" of a panel such as "120 watts" is not the amount of power which will be provided by the panel. It will provide that amount of power IF it is positioned exactly square-on to very strong sunlight in a region near the Equator. If the panel is not aimed exactly at the sun, then the panel output will be considerably lower. The sun moves around at a rate of fifteen degrees per hour, so your panel will only be aimed directly at the sun for about four minutes unless you have it mounted on a rotating platform and you push the platform round slowly to face the sun at all times. While that sounds complicated, it is actually not a difficult or expensive thing to arrange although most people don’t bother to do that.

Even though most solar panels operate on UV rather than visible light, any minor cloud cover drops the panel output quite noticeably. There is also the little detail that most solar panels only work in sunlight or with reduced output in very bright daylight. This means half the day does not contribute to electrical input and in winter, when the electrical need is greatest, the days are shortest, sunlight scarce and daylight quality very poor unless you live near the equator. The level of sunlight which you will receive drops off steadily the further you get from the equator as the light angle gets lower and lower. This also causes problems in winter with quite low obstacles casting a shadow on the panels and cutting the working time for the panel even further.

The effect of all this is that you will need a far greater claimed panel wattage than your needs seem to require and I would suggest that you probably need between two and three times as many panels as the stated panel wattage would suggest that you need. Considering that chapter 10 shows how to run a generator on water, it would be cheaper to buy and replace a generator on a regular basis than to buy batteries and panels and having to replace them. A generator also runs at night and through the winter.

However, if you are installing solar panels, please be aware that there are considerable differences between panels which have the same apparent rating. A key factor is the voltage produced by the cell under normal working conditions. This makes the difference between a good charging rate under poor conditions and a near-zero charging rate at those times. The good panels have a greater number of cells and the higher voltage produced can make a major difference, so check out the technical specification document on each panel you want to consider and pay attention to the voltage figures and not just the (maximum possible) "wattage" quoted by the manufacturer or sales person. The panels which I picked are made by Kyocera but...
do your own checking as designs change from year to year. At the present time, solar panels are only about 17% efficient which means that 83% of the power reaching them does not go to make electricity.

Solar panels expand due to heat during the day and so need to be mounted in such a way that allows for this expansion and contraction during the day and night. As you don't want to over-charge a battery, it is generally considered essential to use a control circuit to prevent this happening. In real life, when you use the electricity generated on a daily basis, there is little or no chance of over-charging, but you can decide this for yourself.

One recent development is to use the solar panel(s) to drive a battery-pulsing charging system. This has the major advantage that battery charging does not stop when the light falling on the panel produces a voltage which is too low to charge the battery bank directly. With a pulsing unit, the charging pulse voltage is largely independent of the input voltage and so a good charging rate can be produced in poor lighting conditions, including twilight. This can extend the battery charging period very substantially, especially in winter when there is less light. At this time, one of John Bedini’s companies is offering these units for sale.

Assessing solar panels generally from the standpoint of knowing what the snags are, unless you live in a very good location on the planet and have a good deal of spare money to spend, then they are not a great solution, but this is something which you also need to decide for yourself.

However, having said that, a scheme has recently been introduced in the UK and it appears to be a realistic option. Under this scheme, the householder does not buy the solar panels but merely pays to cover the cost of installing them. For example, this house:

![A house with solar panels](image)

has twenty-one panels mounted on the roof and the total cost to the home owner was just £500. The home owner receives a very much reduced electricity cost and expects to recover the installation cost within two years. Even in November at latitude 52 degrees North, these panels are performing well. No batteries are involved and the panels tie in directly to the electricity grid.

Not having to pay for the purchase of the panels themselves makes an enormous difference to the viability of such an installation. I understand that the strategy behind this scheme is to increase the presently tiny percentage of electricity in the UK, which is produced from renewable sources, by offering people a scheme which actually makes it worthwhile to have an installation.

### A Solar Panel Desk Lamp

Solar panels can be very useful items in spite of their very low efficiency and high cost. When thinking about solar panels people generally imagine a set of many large solar panels mounted on the roof of a house. The cost of doing that is far too great for most people to consider it. However, at this time, there are one billion people in the world who do not have any electricity at all. It appears that a useful electricity feature for them...
would be electric lighting at night. With the components which have become available recently, providing
good lighting at realistic cost is now possible.

Small solar panels offered for sale as “10 watt, 12 volt” capacity can now be bought reasonably cheaply.
Made in China, these panels can provide a current of just over half an amp. These panels which have an
aluminium frame are typically 337 x 205 x 18 mm in size and look like this:

Tests which I have run show that a 1000 lux very realistic level of lighting can be provided with a total of just
1.5 watts of electrical power. The best lighting source that I have found is the “G4” style, LED arrays made in
China using the “5050” chip technology. These are cheap and have a very heavily non-linear light output for
current draw, which is a fact which we can use to our advantage. These LED arrays come in “white” or
“warm white” versions (my preference is the warm white variety) and they look like this:

With a diameter of 30 mm and pins which are easy to connect to, these are very convenient devices which
have an excellent lighting angle of 160 degrees and a light output of 165 lumens for a 1.2 watt electrical
input.

One of the problems with such a unit is the selection of a suitable battery. Lithium batteries are excellent but
the cost of a suitable lithium battery is ten times greater than the cost envisaged for the whole unit, effectively
excluding lithium batteries. Lead-acid batteries are far too large, too heavy and too expensive for this
application. Surprisingly, what appears to be the best choice is the very popular AA size Nickel-Manganese
rechargeable battery which is 50 mm long and 14 mm in diameter:
Rated at up to 3 Amp-Hour capacity, they are very low cost, are lightweight and can be placed in a battery box like this:

The battery box can be adapted to hold seven batteries rather than the intended eight batteries, producing a nine volt battery pack with 1.2V batteries. If three of these battery packs are used with the solar panel, then there is no need for over-charging protection as NiMh batteries can deal with overcharging current if it does not exceed 10% of the battery’s milliamp-hour rating, and that simplifies the design very considerably.

However, some of these small NiMh batteries do not live up to the maker’s claims and so you need to run a load test on any particular make of battery which you may consider using. For example, here are six different types of these batteries tested in groups of four, with a load of about 50 milliamps at five volts. The same load was used to test each of these batteries:
The results were most revealing:

The BTY 3000 batteries do not actually claim on the battery to be 3000 mAHr (although the sellers do) and so, the “3000” could just be a trading name. The tests results for the BTY 3000 were so staggeringly poor that the test was repeated three times with longer recharging time for each test, and the one shown above is the ‘best’ result. You will notice how far short it falls when compared to the low-cost Fusiomax 800 mAHr batteries. The terrible performance of the BTY 3000 batteries is only exceeded by the incredible “SDNMY 3800 mAHr” batteries which show almost negligible capacity in spite of their amazing claims of 3800 mAHr.

NiMh batteries are 66% efficient. You should only ever charge a 3000 milliamp-hour NiMh battery at 300 milliamps or less and so with a 10-watt solar panel, overcharging is not a problem.

Light meter tests provide some very interesting results for the LED arrays. When using two LED arrays side by side in a light box, the figures for voltage / current draw / light produced using 1.2-volt NiMh batteries were:

9 batteries 11.7V 206 mA 1133 lux: 2.41 watts 470 lux per watt (the manufacturer’s intended performance)
8 batteries 10.4V 124 mA 725 lux 1.29 watts 562 lux per watt
7 batteries 9.1V 66 mA 419 lux 0.60 watts 697 lux per watt (a very realistic performance level)
6 batteries 7.8V 6 mA 43 lux 0.0468 watts 918 lux per watt

This is very revealing information, showing that one of these LED arrays fed with just 33 milliamps can produce very impressive 210 lux lighting at a wide angle of illumination. To put that another way, feeding five LED arrays with 9 volts, generates a very acceptable 1000-lux lighting level for just 165 milliamps which is only 1.5 watts. That is spectacular performance.

Equally impressive is what happens when the battery voltage drops when the battery is nearly fully discharged. The LED performance rises to combat the loss of voltage and even at a ridiculously small 3 milliamps fed into each LED, there is a 21 lux light output from each LED array. The effect is that while the lighting does dim slightly, it does so very gradually in a barely noticeable way. With three sets of genuine high-capacity AA NiMh batteries, we can expect a minimum of eight hours of continuous 1000-lux lighting from our desk lamp. That is a total of twelve watt-hours, and the solar panel feeding 66% efficient batteries at nine volts, is capable of replacing one of those usable watt-hours in twenty minutes. In other words, just two hours forty minutes of good daytime lighting can provide eight hours of 1000-lux lighting every night.
The only moving component in this system is the On/Off switch and the circuit could not be any more simple than this:

All solar panels have a diode to prevent the panel drawing current from the batteries during the hours of darkness and it is not unusual for the panel to be supplied with a diode already connected in place. Personally, I would consider a fuse to be unnecessary but it is standard practice to fit one. The batteries are installed in a base box which supports the solar panel and gives sufficient weight to produce a very stable lamp. The five LED arrays are connected in parallel and fitted into a suitable lamp housing such as this one:

Only the flexible stem, 120 mm diameter lampshade and On/Off switch are used.

While this is an exceptionally simple and robust design, it is actually an affordable and very desirable unit which can provide years of cost-free lighting at a very satisfactory level. The prototype looks like this:
This is, of course, a perfectly ordinary and quite standard type of a solar-powered light. The difference here is that it is a very effective light suited to lighting a desk to a high level all night long. It is mobile and has a wide angle of lighting.

It is also possible to extend the design very slightly, to provide an even longer period of lighting or if preferred, a period of even brighter lighting. This can be done by using eight batteries in each battery holder – which has the advantage that standard battery holders can be used without any need to adapt them to hold just seven batteries.

This has the slight disadvantage that we do not want to supply the extra voltage to the LED arrays because doing that would cause a greater current draw than we want. We can overcome this by using an extra change-over switch and having two connections to each battery holder. The circuit could then become:

With this arrangement, the lighting unit is fed by either eight batteries or by seven batteries, depending on the position of the change-over switch. When the solar panel is charging the batteries, all eight batteries per holder get charged no matter what position the extra switch is in.

This has the advantage that when the battery voltage starts to drop after a few hours of powering the light, then the switch can be operated, raising the voltage reaching the lamp by the voltage of the extra battery, possibly producing a brightness exceeding the maximum when using just seven batteries in each battery holder. This arrangement has the slight disadvantage that the user could switch in all eight batteries from the beginning, producing a much higher current drain and while that would give a higher lighting level, the overall time is likely to be reduced. Mind you, it is possible that this might suit the user.

If this style of operation is chosen, then I suggest that the extra switch is located well away from the On/Off switch so that the user does not get confused as to which switch does which job. Perhaps the second switch might be located near the stem of the lamp support, like this:
Without knowing much electronics, it is possible to make a more versatile version of this desk lamp. This can be done by providing a fully adjustable lighting level. For this, we use three 10-battery holders, each containing a full set of ten batteries, producing a nominal 12-volts but in reality, about 13.8 volts when fully charged.

We would like the user to be able to adjust the voltage applied to the LED arrays in order to get the very high current-to-light output efficiency or a higher level for a shorter time, if that style of operation is preferred. This can be done quite easily, in a very simple and cheap way, using this arrangement where just one battery is shown to represent all three battery packs wired in parallel to produce a higher battery capacity:

Here, instead of feeding the battery voltage directly to the LED arrays, two cheap and widely available transistors are placed between the battery and the LEDs. These transistors control the voltage applied to the LEDs and that controls the current through the LEDs and the level of light produced. The chosen light level is set using the variable resistor “VR” and the light level can be turned down gradually, all the way to zero, so the unit could also be used as a night light if that was wanted.

The physical layout of the components could be like this:
Here, the weight of the solar panel and the three battery packs give the unit stability if the lamp is bent in any direction. With four LED arrays, an excellent level of lighting results, however, I would suggest using five LED arrays as that gives an even wider range of lighting. A big advantage of this arrangement is that if the variable resistor is fitted with a knob like this:

then each user will become familiar with the particular light-level setting which suits the recharging rate. It also allows for short periods of very high level lighting if that ever becomes necessary.

From a practical point of view, when the light is first switched on the battery voltage will almost certainly be over 13 volts. As we want about 9 volts applied to the LED arrays, some four volts need to be dropped off to stop the LEDs drawing excessive current and draining the batteries too quickly. In passing, it might be mentioned that the human eye is very bad at assessing light levels, and so, doubling the LED current (which would more than halve the length of lighting time) does not increase the visual effect by much, and so, controlling the current flow makes a major improvement in the length of time during which the light can be used each night. The lighting period each night is expected to be about eight hours.

The transistors controlling the light level drop off some 1.4 volts, no matter what the current is. This is not a problem during the normal lighting period. However, if the lighting period is unusually long and the battery voltage is starting to drop, then it is possible to gain that extra 1.4 volts by using another switch to bypass the transistor control. It is wired so that the battery is connected directly to the LEDs in order to extract every last milliamp of current from the batteries. That extra 1.4 volts makes a major difference to a falling light level but it should not be used for any length of time on a fully charged battery (quite apart from the excessive current draw) as it is feeding the LEDs a voltage higher than the LED designer was expecting and while it does produce exceptional lighting, it is being very unkind to the LEDs. The bypass switch would be arranged like this:
Here, the extra switch marked “BOOST” short-circuits across the transistors and so connects the LEDs directly to the battery. The fuse shown is optional but if your wiring is not the best, then it is worth having in case your wiring creates a direct short-circuit across the batteries. A ‘slow-blow’ fuse rated at 1-amp would be a good choice as the normal current flow, even on BOOST with a fully charged battery, will be less than one amp if five LED arrays are used. It is also possible to use a variable resistor which has the On/Off switch built into it:

Also shown in the diagram is the solar panel which is connected to the batteries at all times, even bypassing the fuse. It is connected through a diode such as a 1N4007 so that the panel will not draw current from the batteries during the hours of darkness. To make sure that the two switches are not mixed up by the user, I suggest that the extra switch “SW2” is positioned well away from the On/Off switch:
Of course, it is not essential to use a commercial, adjustable lamp such as this. Instead, the LED arrays could be mounted on a home-made strip attached to the back of the solar panel plate and possibly, angled slightly downwards if a desk or table is the main place to be lit. In either case, it is advisable to put a piece of frosted plastic across the LEDs as they can be lit so brightly that they can be difficult to look at. Also, just because this is intended primarily as a desk lamp, there is nothing to stop the user tipping the light upwards to light the whole room. Actually, the room will probably be fairly well lit even when the main lighting area is a desk or table even if that is located at one end of the room.

The construction sequence might be:

1. Lay the solar panel face up on the corner of a sheet of some suitable material such as 6 mm Medium Density Fibreboard ("MDF"). Run a pencil around the edge of the solar panel and cut the sheet along the pencil line to produce a sheet which can be attached to the back of the solar panel. Drill a 6 mm diameter hole about 30 mm in from one corner, that is 30 mm in and 30 mm up so that the hole will be clear of the sides and corner strips when they are attached later on. If it is your intention to paint the desk lamp, then painting this backing sheet before attaching it to the solar panel makes it much easier to do neatly.

2. Lay the solar panel face down on a soft surface and slide the cover off the electrical connection points. It should look like this:

Under the cover, there will be two connection terminals, one marked with a Plus symbol. Some of these panels come with wires already connected and a diode already soldered in place. If there is a diode already there and you are going to remove the cover permanently, it is advisable to embed the diode region in epoxy resin as the diode leads are unduly flexible and could break easily.
If there are not wires already attached, then you need to solder a wire to each of these two terminals. If you do not know how to solder, and don’t have a friend who can, then you can learn quite easily. On the web there are several videos showing how to do it. The connecting wire used should not be solid core but should have several tiny strands of wire inside the insulation. The wire should be able to carry at least 1-amp and ideally two or three amps. The thicker the wire, the better electrically but the more difficult it is to solder. The convention is to have a red wire connected to the Plus and a black wire connected to the Minus of the panel, but so long as you know which wire is which, you can use any colour of wire that is convenient. Even if you forget which is which, a voltmeter will tell you which is the Plus when light shines on the panel. These wires need to be about 600 mm. (2 feet) long.

3. Pass the two wires through the hole drilled in the solar panel backing sheet and with the hole positioned at the bottom left. Attach the sheet securely to the back of the solar panel using a good quality adhesive. I prefer to use Impact Evostick or epoxy resin for this, but each constructor will have his own preferred adhesive.

You don’t need the plastic cover which can slide over the terminals and it can be discarded. It is far more important to make good electrical connections to the terminals rather than bothering about keeping under the plastic cover which usually has very, very little clearance and which can get in the way of the backing sheet. The result should look like this:

4. We now need to construct the housing for the batteries and other components. For convenience of description, I am going to assume that your sheet material is 6 mm thick. In America, that would be a thickness of one quarter of an inch. Cut a strip of the sheet material “L” long (‘L’ being the length of your particular solar panel). The width of the strip should be width of the battery box (typically 79 mm) plus one thickness of the material, which, with 6 mm thick material is likely to be 85 mm.

5. To make the ends of the box, cut two small strips with a length of that 85 mm (or whatever) and a width of 7 mm greater than the depth of your battery boxes, which are normally 30 mm deep, making the strip typically, 85 mm x 37 mm.

6. Epoxy these three strips to the bottom of the panel backing sheet to form an 85 mm wide, shallow channel like this:
7. Using the same sheet material (or thinner material if convenient), cut two 70 mm x 37 mm strips, and epoxy them one on each side of the three battery boxes. The battery boxes need to have the batteries inserted and the connectors attached to them to ensure that the spacing is right. These dividers connect to the solar panel backing sheet, leaving a gap on the near side as wires have to run from left to right past those dividers. The result should be like this:

![Diagram of battery boxes with dividers]

It is important that the batteries are secured so they cannot move at all. As shown above, they can still swivel through an angle due to the gap created by the battery connecting clips. To prevent this, three strips of timber or other suitable material should be attached very firmly to the base to hold the batteries rigidly in place, as shown below.

8. Next, cut a strip of your 6 mm. thick sheet, 65 mm wide and slightly less than the gap between your two dividers. This strip is to hold the batteries securely in place and still allow room for wires to be run past the batteries. The strip will **not** be attached to the solar panel sheet although it will be positioned very close to it. Check that it fits in place. The gap will be on the near side to make the final wiring easier:

![Diagram of strip holding batteries]

9. The next step is to cut the top strip which will hold the lamp, switches and variable resistor. While the lamp fitting is quite light, the length of the arm is so very much greater than the diameter of the screw thread which attaches it to the top plate that any load applied to the lamp arm when adjusting its position, generates many times that stress in the area of locking nut holding it in place. Because of that stress in such a small area, it is suggested that the top plate be particularly strong. A strip of laminate flooring material is very tough and being only 7 mm thick, it is not difficult to work with, so cut a strip to run across between the two end pieces like this:

![Diagram of top strip]

The objective here is to enclose the batteries so that they cannot move, nor can any individual AA cell move out of position. The laminate flooring strip will be used face down as the underside is normally a conservative and attractive matt finish which is particularly suited to this project.
10. It is much easier to work on the laminate strip before it is attached in place, so we will drill the holes for the lamp column and the variable resistor, and cut out the rectangular holes needed for mounting the two rocker switches. In the UK, the rocker switches and variable resistor look like this:

The switches need a rectangular hole of 13 x 19 mm, while the variable resistor needs a 10 mm diameter circular hole and the lamp shown also needs a 10 mm diameter hole. Hold the laminate strip in place and mark the locations carefully, making sure that each item will not foul anything underneath before cutting out the various apertures. Slide the knob on to the shaft of the variable resistor and note the length of shaft inside the knob. Cut the shaft, leaving that same length of shaft remaining. Attach the variable resistor and switches to the laminate strip and slide the knob on to the remaining variable resistor shaft. The skirt of the knob should now be close to the surface of the laminate strip and a V-shaped piece of material can be glued in place to give a reading point for the scale on the knob.

11. If a commercial lamp is being used, then it needs to be taken apart now and prepared for this project. The base is removed, the bulb holder is removed and two wires are fed through the remaining shaft so that the LED arrays can be fitted. A circular disc of any kind of rigid material is cut, the diameter being slightly less than the diameter of the mouth of the lamp. Four or five LED arrays (depending on your choice of numbers) are glued to the disc and wired up in parallel with all of the plus wires connected together and to one of the wires feeding through the shaft of the lamp, and all of the minus wires connected together and attached to the other wire passing through the column of the lamp:

This disc is then eased through the mouth of the lamp shade where it sits about 10 mm below the rim of the shade due to the taper of the shade. Position the disc so that it is square on to the rim of the shade and glue it in position. If frosted plastic is to be used, then mark the sheet around the rim of the shade and cut out the resulting circle, drill some ventilation holes in it although the LED arrays always run cold, and glue the frosted plastic disc to the rim of the shade.

12. Connect the wires to the switches and variable resistor mounted on the laminate strip, and then position the lamp in its hole and fix it in place by tightening one nut. There are two nuts but I have found the locking nut to be less than adequate, so epoxy the tightened nut to the remainder of the screw thread as that keeps the nut securely in place and yet allows the lamp to be rotated quite easily.

To make construction easier, before placing this laminate strip in place, if a separate On/Off switch is being used, then make the connections shown here:
If a variable resistor with an integral On/Off switch is being used, the these connections become:

The 22K fixed resistor (colour bands red/red/orange) is connected to one of the outer tags of the 22K variable resistor and wire “5” is connected to the other end. I suggest that all wires coming off this panel are at least 200 mm (8-inches) long. A separate wire “4” is connected to the centre tag of the variable resistor, and the third tag is connected to the On/Off switch as shown, and when making the connection to the switch, also connect another wires to that same tag. The extra wire is run across and connected to the top tag of the “boost” switch along with another wire “3”. The wire connecting the switches is run close to the outer edge of the laminate strip so that it will clear the battery packs, as there is very little clearance past the batteries in order to hold them tightly and prevent them moving. The negative wire of the LED arrays is connected to the centre tag of the “boost” switch and another wire “1” is taken out from that central tag. When connected up as shown, there will be six wires coming out from the laminate strip and I will refer to these wires by the numbers shown above, so it might be worthwhile actually tagging those wires temporarily with those numbers.

13. If inclined, apply some glue to the variable resistor and switches (on the underside of the laminate strip) but do not epoxy the strip in place until the final connections have been made and the circuit confirmed to be working, including the solar panel charging the batteries.
14. The final connections which need to be made are:

a. The non-striped end of the diode is connected to the Plus wire "7" coming from the solar panel and the Plus wire of the three sets of batteries are connected together "9" along with the striped end of the diode and one end of the fuse (if no fuse is being used, then wire "6" is connected directly instead of to the other end of the fuse). A fuse rated at 1-amp would be suitable as the working current should only be one sixth of that:

b. Remove the insulation from the Minus wires coming from all three battery packs and twist them together ("10"). Connect wires "2", "5" and "8" to this collection of Minus wires and solder them together make a solid joint, and insulate the joint with duct tape, epoxy, or any other robust form of insulation:
c. To complete the wiring, the three remaining wires are connected to the two transistors like this:

Please be aware that transistors are heat sensitive and so soldering transistor leads needs to be completed quickly and where possible, the transistor lead held in a pair of pliers while the solder joint is being made and when it remains hot, as the pliers diverts the heat away from the transistor.

The desk lamp is now ready to be tested.

15. If the light goes on and off when the On/Off switch is operated and the light intensity alters when the variable resistor knob is turned, and if the light level increases when the “boost” switch is closed, then all is well and the laminate strip can be epoxied into its final position. If the desk lamp does not operate as it should, then follow the test procedures below, until the desk lamp is fully functional and then continue with step 16.

16. Epoxy the laminate strip in position and glue four short lengths of timber in the corners. These lengths of timber should reinforce the joint between the four pieces which form the housing and the solar panel backing sheet, and they should stop off 6 mm short of the outside edge so that they both support the final piece as well as holding it in place.
17. Connect a voltmeter across the LEDs and rotate the knob of the variable resistor to get 9V across the LEDs and note or mark the reading on the scale attached to the knob. This is the initial setting for the knob when starting with a fully charged battery.

18. Finally, insulate the transistor circuitry with tape, plastic or whatever method suits you and secure it in place with a little adhesive to make sure that the wiring does not break if the unit is moved a lot. Then, a strip is cut to close the box and screwed at the corners using woodscrews or bolts:

The gap between the two rocker switches provides an easy gripping point for carrying the unit from place to place.

While this solar desk lamp can be built this way at quite reasonable cost even with one-off prices on individual prices, a really major improvement is achieved if they are being manufactured, especially if made in China. Firstly, all the effort of making the housing disappears as a cheap custom plastic case does away with all that time and effort as the solar panel has its wires connected, fed through the existing hole in the case and then the panel is just pushed into place. The battery packs are then assembled and pushed into place, the circuit connections made and the case clicked closed on its own or held in place by self-tapping screws. The component prices drop enormously with bulk purchasing, reducing the not unreasonable one-off price by a major factor, especially since wages in China are very low by our standards. The result is an attractive, useful product with a very large market and a unit price capable of taking full advantage of that large sales base.

Test procedures:

If the unit does not work straight off, then step-by-step tests are needed to locate and fix the problem. These are simple, common sense tests. If you do not have a voltmeter, then it is worth purchasing one as they are now very cheap.

1. We need to confirm that the battery has the electrical power to run the lamp, so open the “boost” switch “SW2” and connect a voltmeter as shown here:
This connects the meter directly across the battery and so the meter should show some realistic voltage around the 12V mark. If it doesn’t, then lift out one of the battery holders and check that the batteries are charged and confirm that the fuse has not blown. If the fuse has blown, then it will because of excessive current, probably caused by a direct short-circuit where the battery Plus is being connected directly to the battery Minus. Check the wiring from the battery to these two points until you do get a sensible voltage reading.

2. Next, connect the meter like this:

and confirm that the voltage appears and disappears when you operate the On/Off switch. If it does not, then it is highly likely that your connections to the two switch tags are touching and stopping the circuit being switched off. If that is the case, then adjust one of the connections to cure the problem and leave the On/Off switch switched On.

3. The next step is to connect the meter like this:
The same voltage reading should be seen. If it isn’t, then the wiring between the two switches is almost certainly defective and needs to be corrected.

4. Now close the boost switch, and the light should come on at full intensity because the transistors are being bypassed and the battery connected directly across the LEDs. The circuit is then:

If the light does not come on brightly, then check the wiring around this path – battery Plus – fuse – wire “6” – On/Off switch – boost switch – wire “1” – LEDs Positive – LEDs Negative – battery Minus (wire “2”).

5. When the boost switch circuit is working correctly, turn the boost switch off and check the operation of the transistors. First, use a screwdriver to short-circuit between the Collector and Emitter of the TIP3055 transistor:

This should have exactly the same effect as closing the boost switch but it is testing your wiring connections to the power transistor and simulating the TIP3055 being switched on fully. If this does not produce the full light output, then you need to check (visually) the wire “1” connection between the centre tag of the boost switch and the Emitter of the TIP3055 transistor. Also check the connection between the Collector of the TIP3055 transistor and the top tab of the boost switch as one or both of those connections has to be faulty if the boost switch works when you switch it On.
6. When you have corrected the wiring and short-circuiting between the TIP3055 Collector and Emitter turns the light on at full brightness and the light-level control variable resistor is still not controlling the light level, then short-circuit between the TIP3055 Collector and Base:

![Diagram](image)

This bypasses the BC109C transistor and should produce the maximum light level. If it does not, then the TIP3055 transistor is defective. This is highly unlikely as the TIP3055 is enormously robust and can survive all sorts of mishandling. However, if this test definitely fails, replace the transistor without connecting its Base and confirm that the new one switches the light on fully when you short-circuit the Base to the Collector. Then connect the BC109C and repeat the TIP3055 Base to Collector short-circuit test to confirm that it is still working with the BC109C in place.

7. If the light-level control still does not work, then short-circuit the BC109C transistor's Emitter to its Collector:

![Diagram](image)

This checks the wiring between the Emitter of the BC109C and the Base of the TIP3055 (shown in blue in the diagram above). If the light comes on at full brightness, then the wiring is okay, otherwise, correct that connection.

8. Now we test the operation of the BC109C transistor. Turn the light-level control knob down to its minimum and short-circuit the BC109C Base to its Collector:

![Diagram](image)

With the short-circuit in place, the light should be fully on and with the short-circuit removed (or if its base is short-circuited to its Emitter), the light should be fully off. If this does not happen, replace the BC109C transistor and repeat the test.

9. If the light-dimming control still does not control the light level, then the wiring of the variable resistor has to be suspect, so connect your voltmeter like this:
This is making a connection between the negative line and the slider of the variable resistor, and that should allow the slider to adjust the voltage fed to the BC109C transistor:

This is the test and unless there is a major problem with the resistor “R”, the variable resistor “VR” or the transistors short-circuiting the slider of the variable resistor, your voltmeter should show your full battery voltage when turned up as high as possible, and an evenly falling voltage to around half that voltage at the other end of the variable resistor shaft movement.

If this does not happen, then you need to check over the wiring connections for the variable resistor, fixed resistor and connection to the base of the BC109C transistor.

**Components for home-build:**

1. One 10-watt, 12-volt solar panel.
2. Thirty AA-size, 1.2V NiMh batteries with a capacity near 3000 mAHr if possible.
3. Three AA battery boxes each holding 10 batteries.
4. Three battery clip connectors to fit the battery boxes.
5. One 1-amp diode type 1N4007 or similar.
6. One 22K Linear variable resistor and graduated knob to fit the shaft diameter.
7. One 10% quarter watt (or higher rated) 22K resistor (colour bands red/red/orange)
8. One BC109C transistor.
9. One TIP3055 transistor.
10. Five G4 LED arrays.
11. One desk lamp (optional)
12. Two rocker switches.
13. One fuse holder (of any type) and a 1-amp fuse.
14. Ten metres of insulated, stranded wire rated for 1-amp or higher current.
15. Rigid sheet material 6 mm thick (possibly MDF).
16. One small off-cut of laminate flooring 85 x \( L \) (typically 337) mm
17. Adhesive.
18. Rubber feet or soft material for the underside of the desk lamp.

Notes:
Rocker switches are generally cheaper as the Change-over version with three switch tags, and so these have been shown. For this design, only On/Off action is needed. Press the “1” end of the rocker down, and the two contacts used are then the two farthest away from the “1”.

The TIP3055 transistor is the more recent version of the 2N3055 and is a particularly good transistor for this application being much easier to connect to. While the TIP3055 is strongly recommended, other power transistors may be used. No heat sink is needed if the transistor can handle 8 amps or more (the TIP3055 can handle 15 amps and 90 watts).

The BC109C transistor has a very high gain between 200 and 800, which is useful in this application, but a major advantage of it is that it switches off fully with pretty much zero leakage current, while I have some of the very popular 2N2222 transistors which don’t switch off properly at all and so are effectively rejects. Most alternative transistors are highly inferior to the BC109C and so, if it is not readily available, then it is worth ordering.

The 1N4007 diode is the cheapest readily available diode. It is rated for 1000-volt operation which is of course, of no interest here and so the lower voltage 1N4001 through 1N4006 diodes are perfectly suitable although slightly more expensive as they are less popular. While one diode is shown in this document, people who are expert in electronics are inclined to use three connected in parallel as that passes current more freely. That would cost an extra 6 pence at 1-off prices in the UK.

Some people are really put off by electronics of any kind, so here is a version of the solar desk lamp which effectively, has no electronics at all:

The only control on this version is the On/Off switch. As we no longer have any control over the voltage applied to the LED arrays installed in the lamp shade, and since that voltage controls dramatic changes in current draw, we need to reduce the number of 1.2V NiMh batteries from ten to seven. It is a matter of choice whether you use three or four sets of seven batteries. If 10-battery battery boxes are used, then a wire can be soldered across the gap left by the three omitted batteries.

The general construction is the same as before, with a rocker On/Off switch being installed instead of the variable resistor. As with all of these solar units, the important thing is to switch the light off when it is not in use, to avoid the next charging session being hindered by unwanted current draw through the light. The general layout of the unit can be the same:
There are other variations which can be low-cost and very versatile. For example, instead of connecting the three battery packs together, they can be kept separate from each other, individually housed with the same circuit, each driving one of the LED arrays:

Here, three identical units are charged from the solar panel, which can be any size or wattage, although a ten-watt panel would be considered to be the minimum for daily use. Each unit is in effect, just a wide-beam, high-intensity, high-capacity solar torch which can be dimmed and which will stand securely when unsupported. It has the advantage that the units can be constructed one at a time, and if necessary due to time constraints, or perhaps, very poor daylight, just two or even one unit can be charged from the entire solar panel output. If manufactured and sold, then the units could be sold separately, allowing a lighting...
system to be extended and improved when additional funds become available (or when the user has tried one unit and discovered how effective it is). Each unit is easy to understand and use:

A built unit of this type looks like this from the front:

and like this from the back:
While these particular units have just one of the LED arrays each, tests run since that construction show that with manual dimming control, two LED arrays per unit would be more satisfactory. Also, if the second LED array is mounted on the side of the box, then the lighting angle increases from 160 degrees to 250 degrees which should be helpful for indoor lighting of a room. The units could, of course, be used in different rooms simultaneously and there is the option of carrying one around for lighting anywhere. Again, the construction is very simple and the same circuit as for the desk lamp shown above, can be used in each box.

If good-quality NiMh AA-size batteries are used, each of the mobile units is capable of providing good light for eight hours, which means that if it gets dark at 4 pm (16:00), lighting is available until midnight as a minimum, at which point in time, the user should be going to sleep.

If a very powerful single source of lighting is needed, it is possible to use a larger solar panel, or for a more compact unit, two of the 12-volt 10-watt panels shown above. The arrangement can use the same simple manual control of lighting level and the same booster switch for even greater lighting for a few minutes. The arrangement can be like this:

When closed over, the face of solar panel P1 faces that of solar panel P2, protecting both when the unit is being carried.
An early prototype of this style of construction with the panels open, looks like this:

A magnetic catch is used to hold the hinged panel securely closed when the unit is being carried and a small flap is attached beside the magnetic catch to overcome the slightly excessive looseness of the hinges. The unit does not need to be as deep as this experimental model was made.

The front view of the unit, ready to receive the frosted plastic cover for the LED arrays, looks like this:

The underside of the unit is covered with a soft protective layer to ensure that it does not scratch any surface on which it is placed. In order to avoid the need for overcharging circuitry, this unit has six battery packs and so, having ten LED arrays, the duration of lighting is about the same as that of the desk lamp, although obviously, the light output can be much greater. With the greater lit area of ten LED arrays, a lower actual current can be used while still providing a good level of lighting.
With fully charged batteries switched to the 'boost' setting, this unit puts out more light than a 100-watt incandescent bulb powered by the mains. Tested in daylight, that looks like this:

![Image](image.jpg)

Let me stress again, that these units are not difficult to build and they don’t call for any great knowledge of electronics.

**Alternatives:**

While the systems shown above are effective and reasonable cost, it is possible to make them more efficient. With battery packs of ten NiMh 1.2V AA cells, when fully charged, we get more than 13-volts, when we actually want 9-volts for effective lighting. We get this by using two transistors to drop the voltage down to 9-volts. The current flow is about 135 milliamps and so, the voltage drop of 4-volts at that current flow is a power loss of 540 milliwatts, which is a significant percentage of the power used to generate the lighting.

By arranging things in a different way, we can reduce that power loss very considerably, IF we don’t mind the user being involved in controlling the lighting level. We could do this by tapping into our 10-battery pack and using an extra 3-way switch which allows us to start off with 8 batteries and when the voltage starts to drop, switch to 9 batteries as the extra fully-charged battery would make a major difference to the lighting. Then when the voltage of the 9 batteries starts to get low, the tenth battery can be switched in:

![Diagram](diagram.jpg)

Whether or not this is worth doing is a matter of opinion in spite of the longer and/or brighter lighting. With 8 batteries in use, the power saving is 350 milliwatts and with 9 batteries the power saving is 175 milliwatts. The lighting power is 1215 milliwatts, so these represent 29% and 14.5% of that power. If it is decided to use this arrangement, then the battery boxes can be tapped with additional output wires connected between batteries 8 and 9 and between 9 and 10.

The operational sequence would be:
1. Eight batteries switched in: variable light control.
2. Nine batteries switched in: variable light control.
3. Ten batteries switched in: variable light control.
4. Boost switch closed: fixed lighting level as batteries discharge to their minimum level.

Each of these switched levels gives a new lease of life to the lighting system, but it does require the intervention of the user, although that intervention is very minor.

It does not matter whether it is the Plus end of the battery chain, or the Minus end which is switched. The way that the battery boxes are constructed, actually make it more convenient to make the two extra connections at the Minus end of the stack:

Medical usage

The applications of the solar desk lamp shown above are intended for home or office use. There is one other serious lighting requirement and that is for doctors working in isolated rural areas, far from any electrical grid but also, very far from fuel supplies for running a conventional generator which is the only known option for most of them. For example, it can take a doctor two days of travelling to get some more generator fuel. If we apply a slight alteration to the desk lamp and sacrifice the long period of lighting, we could boost the light output from 1000 lux right up to 2,700 lux for an hour or two of very brightly lighting. I can see no reason why two or three of those would not give more than adequate light for night time emergency surgery when placed on stands or suspended from the ceiling. Being self-contained and mobile, an assistant could hold and aim one to illuminate exactly where the light is needed.

The basic solar desk lamp operates off seven 1.2V batteries in series. Eight batteries in series would boost the light level to 1730 lux at the cost of much higher current draw and reduced period of lighting. Increasing the batteries to nine would raise the light level to a massive 2,700 lux with a current draw so high that there might only be lighting for perhaps one hour, but that doesn’t matter in an emergency where a life could be saved. To achieve this emergency level of lighting all that is needed is an ordinary 4-way rotary switch which replaces the On/Off switch as it can do that job as well, otherwise the construction remains identical. The arrangement could be like this:
360 Degree Lighting for Africa

The desktop lighting unit described above is very effective for lighting in cold areas where houses have windows with glass in them and where the roof does not project much beyond the house wall. However, housing style is very different in places like Africa where strong sunlight is experienced all year round and so a house roof is likely to project well beyond the wall in order to give improved shade for outside seating.

Anna Brüderle’s “Solar Lamps – Africa” marketing research published by GIZ GmbH Uganda, has raised many previously unknown facts which should result in physical design changes. To date, I have produced three solar prototype lighting units, but these have been based on recharging using light coming through a glass window. That is not really possible in the African environment surveyed, as it shows:

1. Using a solar panel indoors is not possible due to lack of windows and major roof overhang.
2. Using a solar panel light being recharged outdoors is liable to have it stolen.
3. Using an outside solar panel connected by a wire is liable to damage and/or child injury when at play.

The survey-area lifestyle has the following characteristics:

1. Seven people living in one building is not unusual and so 360-degree lighting is preferred.
2. The kitchen is normally separate and has no windows and yet needs meal-preparation lighting.
3. Burning a fuel for lighting is liable to cause poor health from the fumes produced.
4. Child education is hindered by lack of lighting.
5. Light usage is usually 3 or 4 hours at night plus 2 hours in the morning.
6. Tests with 100 lumen lighting level have been considered to be satisfactory.
7. Lamps are normally placed on the dining table during meals and hung from the ceiling at other times.
8. When carried outside, a narrow forward lighting arc of say, 90-degrees is preferred for safety.
9. Units with variable lighting levels are preferred but why is not specified – probably light duration.

In these houses, there can be internal walls which do not reach the ceiling so that light in the central room spills over into the additional rooms.

These features call for a lighting unit which is:

1. Able to provide 360-degree illumination.
2. Able to give a restricted 90-degree lighting arc when used outside.
3. Stable when standing on a horizontal surface.
4. Able to be carried comfortably.
5. Able to be suspended from a ceiling.
6. Able to provide considerably more than 100 lumens for the lighting periods used.
7. Is cheap enough to be bought.
8. Is very robust.
9. Is free of any glass components as hurricane lamp accidents are mainly cuts from broken glass.
It is possible to design a lamp which meets all of these requirements although low cost is the most challenging requirement. To meet the user’s needs, it might be possible to use a housing like this:

The triangular shape makes for easy construction and is very robust from an engineering point of view. It also cuts down the number of faces needed for 360-degree lighting to just three. The versatility is increased greatly if two faces are hinged:

This arrangement allows two faces to be aligned with the fixed front face, giving all horizontal lighting in one direction which is a very, very bright arrangement. The two faces can be moved further around to give the wanted narrow forward beam for walking outdoors. If desired, the lighting level can be controlled by making the On/Off switch a three-pole four-way rotary switch:

This arrangement gives Off, One panel, Two panels and Three panels of illumination, but it could also be that instead of switching off an entire panel that the switching illuminates one LED array per panel, two LED arrays per panel and three LED arrays per panel.
If ordinary 10-battery holders are used, then the lamp housing can be made more compact as the corners of the triangle are not needed. The battery packs fit in like this:

![Diagram of lamp housing](image1)

**SEEN FROM ABOVE**

Giving a compact hexagonal shape which is strong and has the same lighting capability. The sides extend above the top and below the base so that the unit can stand on a flat surface either way up. The hinges need to be stiff so that they hold their position when set to the desired angle.

![Diagram of lamp standing](image2)

The addition of a simple hinged flap to the base allows a tilted option which imitates the downward lighting style of a desk lamp:

![Diagram of tilted lamp](image3)
The Chinese LM2587 DC-DC converter from h-quality_electronic selling on eBay in October 2015 for £3.17 including postage, has COP>1 performance:

Ten LED arrays are brightly lit by it with just a 2.88 volt input. Measurements using three NiMh batteries connected in series, indicate an input of 800 mA at 3.33 volts (2.664W) driving the 10-LED array displays with 389 mA at 10.3 volts (4.01W) which is COP=1.5 and has the advantage of reducing the number of batteries needed for good LED array lighting. In practice, four batteries in series are used. This converter also charges ten NiMh batteries from 10.5V to 13V (falling eventually to 12.5V) in just 30 minutes at 50 mA current draw.

A very useful addition to this sort of lighting system is using a simple constant-current circuit to control the current draw and give a steady, unchanging lighting level throughout the entire period of illumination. I have found that zener diodes do not perform well when supplied by batteries with gradually falling voltage. A much better method of getting a reference voltage is to use ordinary diodes and use their normal voltage drop as a reference.

As the transistor TR1 has a voltage drop across it's Base - Emitter junction equivalent to the voltage drop across one diode, we use two diodes to create a voltage reference level and so maintain a 0.7 volt voltage drop across resistor R2. R1 is chosen to give about 3 milliamps of current flowing through point “A” and the diodes can be any silicon type, perhaps 1N4148 diodes. The transistor needs to have a high gain and be able to handle the desired current flow through the load. A 2N2222 transistor appears to work well in this circuit. Resistor R2 is chosen to give the desired current flow, forcing that current flow through the load (provided that the battery can supply that current). The load can be the DC-DC converter shown above and the battery voltage can quite easily be 5 volts. If there is concern about the power handling ability of a 2N2222 transistor, then two or more can be used in parallel with the Bases connected together, the Collectors connected together and the Emitters connected together.

It may well be possible to charge a second battery pack when the lights are on and then, when the lights are switched off, to use that second battery to recharge the main battery pack. Alternatively, a 10 watt solar panel, as used with the desk light, can be used to recharge the battery pack through a length of low-resistance cable and a plug and socket. There is also the possibility of providing a USB socket for
recharging mobile phones. It should be able to supply 5 volts at 500 milliamps and draw no current when not in use. The user should be alerted to the fact that extensive use of the USB socket may reduce the power in the battery pack used for powering the lighting.

The prototype worked very well indeed when carried out of doors in a totally unlit and unfamiliar place. If the suspension cord is made longer and an additional hook is provided near the base, then the unit can be suspended indoors with all of the LED arrays facing downwards, which with their 160 degree angle of illumination would give excellent 360 degree lighting.

Manoj Bhargava
Throughout this ebook there are many designs for generating electricity, getting pure water and my websites also have some information on health issues. These things have all been approached from the point of view of you, as a single individual, doing something in spite of having very limited finance, workspace, tools and skills. There is a very interesting and inspiring video at http://billionsinchange.com/film which describes some of the work of Manoj Bhargava and his colleagues. Manoj produced a drink called “Five-hour Energy” which became a major commercial product, leaving Manoj with four billion US dollars. That has given him the freedom to use his common sense and practical attitude to start to deal with the major issues of half the population of the world – free-energy, clean water and health improvement. With his finance, he works with much larger solutions to these problems and some of his designs are most interesting. He avoids any mention or use of unconventional systems.

For the provision of electricity, he proposes the use of an adapted bicycle which spins a generator and charges a battery which can slowly charge mobile phones and provide lighting. It is said that one hour of pedalling can produce 24 hours of (low-power) electricity. His design looks like this:

This is the generator which is spun by belt gearing from the pedals. The wheel with the large rim forms a flywheel and although he does not mention it, the flywheel causes an energy gain. The basic build looks like this:
the cyclist pedals in a reclining position and the belting drives the gearing which spins the generator shaft:

The design produces a good deal more electricity than I would have expected:
These metres show more than 100-watts being generated. However, production cost is always a major factor in these things, especially since the people who need them most are the people with least money. Perhaps a version which is driven by an existing bicycle might ease the situation – that method is already used for some exercise equipment. Another factor which might be missed by designers is the fact that the people needing this equipment are labourers and will be tired after a long, physical working day. Of course, the pedalling would be less effort for them due to their much higher muscle strength. The addition of two small motors like Chas Campbell does, would probably make the design self-powered and do away with most of the construction – pedals, belts, seat, etc.

In August 2016, Manoj found that his plans for shipping completed bicycles into India from his newly-built factory in Singapore, was effectively blocked off by import restrictions. So, he is building a factory in India and he expects production there to be implemented in 2017. He also found that a number of changes needed to be made because it is primarily women who are free to do the pedalling. The changes include a reduction in size to allow for smaller people, a chain guard to protect long clothing, a battery, low-voltage setting of 11.5 volts, a reduced gearing to allow easier pedalling, and finally, a detachable battery so that the power can be mobile. The main application is lighting, although I suspect that the lighting efficiency is not as high as the 1000-lux for just 1.5 watts of the LED designs shown in the previous section of this chapter.

However, in 2018, Manoj found that the bicycle is really just an accessory and it is a modified storage battery which is the important part of the design:

![Battery Box](image1)

The battery box has a capacity of 300 watt-hours and is fitted with a solar panel which can recharge the battery in four hours of sunshine. The construction is massively strong and the unit can survive being dropped on to concrete from several feet in the air. It can also recharge a mobile phone battery.

However, more important are the water purification systems which Manoj has developed. He has a system for purifying brackish water (which is common in wells worldwide) and another for “grey water” which is water which is contaminated with bacteria and suspended matter.

He has also discovered that the technique of composting has been lost in many parts of the world and so he is promoting the use of simple systems which use local waste materials to produce good quality compost in just eighteen days, and that with zero cost to the user.

Most important of all is the fact that Manoj is putting resources into installing his designs in needy countries such as India, Africa and the like, and training people to train others in his new technology.
Low-cost Cooling Systems

When most people think of air-conditioning systems they think of large pieces of equipment which are expensive to buy and expensive to run and which are mounted in one fixed location. While those systems are certainly effective (although, often noisy in operation), there are other ways of improving living, travelling and working conditions. Ways which are not very expensive to buy and which are not expensive to run. Many people have made effective air coolers and shared their designs using web videos, and I should like to thank them for showing what they have achieved.

Simple cooling systems can use two different methods of operation. One method is to use ice which has been produced using an ordinary refrigerator or freezer (those being very common in places where air-cooling would be considered an asset). Another method uses the well-known principle that when water evaporates, it draws heat from its surroundings as part of the process.

The general idea is to cool some air and then use a fan to blow that cooler air to where it is most effective for the user. Typically, cooling is most needed inside buildings and inside vehicles. Inside buildings, mains electricity is often available. Inside vehicles, twelve-volt or similar levels of DC power are generally available. In both locations, a solar panel (possibly aided by a car battery for night time operation) can operate a useful system.

What we are talking about here, is a small system which will not be as effective as a large commercial unit, but yet is something which can make a great improvement in a small area. Something which does not seem to occur to many people is that you can have more than one of these units operating in a room or vehicle.

While I am delighted that people have shared their simple designs on the web, they usually assume that the components which they have used are available to everybody, and that is very much not the case as the items which are readily available locally vary enormously at different places around the world. For that reason, I should like to discuss the basic principles used so that when any chosen design uses something which is just not available locally, you can choose a suitable alternative which is readily available locally at low cost.

Let us start with indoor cooling. The unwanted heating comes mainly from the sun shining in through windows, and from heat leaking in through the walls because the outside of the walls is being heated by sunlight falling directly on it or by hot air flowing along the outer surface of the wall. Of these two main sources of indoor heating, the sun coming through the windows is generally the greater source of heat.

If a room has one or more windows facing the sun and one or more windows which do not face the sun, then a first step might be to use shiny silver-faced insulation cut to exactly fit the windows through which the sun shines. Curtains can generally hold the insulation in place on their own, but if that is not convenient, then a few small pieces of adhesive tape work adequately and can be used again day after day. The outer shiny layer reflects most of the sunlight back out of the room. The outer surface of the insulation sheet heats up as not all of the light is reflected, but the insulation layer stops most of that heat actually entering the room, resulting in a major improvement in the room temperature, although the light level is reduced considerably as well. This is suitable for people living in apartment blocks where there is no convenient access to the outside of windows.

In the case of people living in bungalows or other low buildings, the use of shade should not be overlooked as it is a very effective way of reducing temperature. This effect is even very noticeable in cooler countries on sunny days as there is a very marked effect driving down a road which has large trees on the same side as the sun. With the car windows open, there is a very considerable drop in temperature when the car enters the area shaded by the trees. I am not suggesting growing trees to give shade as that is not convenient for most people, but a simple overhang or a temporary or retractable awning may be possible to block direct sunlight from coming in through the windows. An awning or overhang has no running costs.

Let’s take a look at one of the systems shown on the web. This one is being used to lower the temperature in a house with a floor space of 1,700 square feet (158 square metres) and the video presentation is at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6ScZiMiva8M and deals with a house where the outside daytime temperatures exceed 100 degrees Fahrenheit (38 degrees Centigrade), making the indoor temperatures uncomfortable. With his cooler running and the outside air 90F (32C) the air entering the house is 69F (20.5C) which means that the warmest place in the house is around 75F (24C). As hot air rises, the hottest place in the house is the highest point and very sensibly, he has mounted an extraction fan which pulls the hottest air out of the house and pushes it into the attic (which is open to the outside and so vents to the outside air).
For the system to be effective, all of the windows and doors are kept closed except for the one which has the cooling system mounted on it. This blows the hottest air out of the house and at the same time, draws fresh air in through the cooling system. You can see the attic fan mounting here:

The entering air comes in through a large window which has evaporative pads clamped to the window frame by a simple timber mounting system:
The pads are kept wet by droplets of water pumped to the top of the window by a small submersible pump submerged in a large plastic storage box filled with water:

Excess water is returned to the reservoir by two short lengths of plastic guttering as shown here:

The particular fan and pump used draw a total of 120 watts, and so as one “unit” of electricity is 1000 watts for one hour, running the system all day and night is a power usage of 120 /1000 x 24 = 2.88 Kilowatt-Hours per day. The construction costs in America in 2013 were about US $60.

If solar panel power is to be used with a lead-acid battery, please remember that the battery is only 50% efficient, which means that it will only return half of the current that you put into it. Also, please remember that solar panels are rated for bright sunlight shining directly on them at exactly 90-degrees to the panel and in normal operation, the panel output is far less than the retailer’s claimed wattage, not to mention the fact that the panel will only be operational during daylight hours. As against that, many such installations do not need to be run day and night and so solar operation may be quite economical. Also, 120 watts is a large amount of input power and could almost certainly be reduced for smaller installations.

It is not unusual for the cooling of a single room to be satisfactory in many situations. For this, using a very small self-contained unit is often considered to be adequate. These units generally use a fan from an old computer, typically, running on 12-volts and drawing about 4-watts. For the cars which still do not have air
conditioning, a fan of that type is very convenient as it can run directly off the ‘cigarette lighter’ socket or from a direct wire connection through a fuse, to the car battery. For indoor use, any tiny 12V mains power unit can power the unit for minimal cost.

These units have been made in all sorts of shapes and sizes and by all accounts, do very well when easing excessive heat. This very small unit uses a 12V 3.6-watt computer fan blowing air into a small insulated box containing ice and can be seen at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6pwHvXZr1A4. In spite of being rated as a 12-volt unit, the fan can actually run on a low-power USB socket. Cold air exits from the holes drilled beside the fan:

![ Homemade Air Conditioner](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6pwHvXZr1A4)

This one is at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Wf2Zhu4Fmz0 uses a 21-inch (535 mm) square box fan with a simple evaporation system attached to it:

![ Homemade Air Conditioner](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Wf2Zhu4Fmz0)

This one at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gawOWyhtthU also uses a computer fan:

![ Homemade Air Conditioner](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gawOWyhtthU)
This one at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LiS0W5peFBk uses a Wal-Mart battery-powered fan which means that with a solar panel to recharge extra rechargeable batteries when the unit is in use, the unit could be very, very cheap to run. An ordinary ice-box is used, so perhaps cold drinks are a possible additional option:

Also using an ordinary ice-box the https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N1NwXBxShQ unit has a wooden push-fit lid and uses a car fan:

The unit at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NUhs_1puHk0 is intended for use inside a car, although obviously, it could easily be operated inside a house using a small 12-volt mains unit. The preferred coolant is 2-litre plastic bottles filled with water which has been frozen solid in a freezer. The builder states that the bottles will cool a car down faster than ice does and the bottles also provide a longer period of cooling than ice can:
The fan is set to blow air into the container and the cold air exits through the four holes drilled around the fan. This design suggests that as a temporary measure, standing some frozen 2-litre bottles in front of an ordinary fan could well provide effective cooling in a room. Using ice or bottles of frozen water is energy efficient as refrigerators and freezers are generally about 300% efficient. That is, the cooling energy is three times greater than the electrical energy used to achieve that cooling.

These are only a few of the many ingenious and simple designs which could make life much more comfortable in conditions which are generally considered to be excessively warm. A little time spent examining these and similar units shown on in web videos should give you confidence to build your own, or if you prefer, to design and build your own simple cooler system.

**Sensible Building**

There is a famous American Architect called Michael Reynolds. He has a very low opinion of conventional housing which he considers to be a "compartment" which is wholly dependent on outside power sources. His opinion is justified. He produces buildings which have been named "EarthShips" by his wife and the name has caught on world-wide.

The objective is to make a home which has no utility bills at all. A building which collects its own water and uses that water several times. Generates its own electrical power. Provides its own heating and cooling. Grows some of its own food, and uses materials many of which have been disposed of by previous owners - vehicle tyres, aluminium drink cans and glass bottles. An EarthShip can be a stylish and comfortable home:
Although, obviously, the overall cost of the structure and furnishings depends on the quality chosen by the owner. This particular EarthShip is one shown in the film "Building Off The Grid" which can be found on the peer-to-peer network, took fifty volunteers four weeks to complete the basic structure and then another team of workers were paid to supply and install the fittings and fixtures.

The structure faces South and has twelve large solar panels mounted along the top of the greenhouse area. Although this picture does not show it, there is a drainage ditch along the back of the property to divert heavy rainwater coming off the protecting hillside behind the property:

The walls of the property are seven feet thick (2.13 metres) in order to allow the use of fairly simple materials and more importantly, to provide thermal mass which keeps the inside of the building warm in winter and
cool in summer. There are no significant bills for heating or cooling and normal electrical equipment is run from the solar panels.

The design of the electrical system is elderly and as shown, it requires lead-acid batteries to be replaced about every four years. A smaller system driving DC battery pulse-chargers would provide fast battery charging and the batteries would never have to be replaced. However, this particular house was built using twelve large solar panels. Initially, three were used to provide electrical power during the building period. These were just propped up against the hillside near the battery box which contains control equipment, a battery bank and a mains inverter:

The battery box used during construction is very simple:
The overall design is set up for construction by unskilled workers under the supervision of a few experienced people, but let me point out that this is a Civil Engineering project and so a reasonable level of understanding is needed before you build one for yourself.

For example, the roof spans across the gap between the outside walls. The loading on any support beams increases with the cube of the distance between those walls. That means that if you were to double the width of the room, then the support needed to hold the roof up increases by a factor of eight times!! This can, of course, be achieved, but you really need to be aware of it. In this particular building, the roof is held up by numerous tree trunks which have been stripped and prepared for the job:

These beams are very heavy and are quite capable of causing serious injury if not handled carefully and sensibly. They form the joists which support the roof and there is a gap of about one foot between them, so many of them are needed. They are secured to the top of the wall by steel rods driven through them and on into the wall.

The main construction is with vehicle tyres and about a thousand are needed for the building. Each is filled with earth which is compacted carefully and then they are stacked in a staggered bank and grouted in place using mortar. In passing, most American get confused with concrete products, so to clarify:

1. Cement is a grey powder material.
2. Mortar is a mixture of cement and sand, wetted with water, which sets into a solid. It is normally used to fill the gap between concrete blocks or clay bricks.
3. Concrete is Mortar which has pebbles mixed into it.

Also used in these constructions is adobe which is mud and straw mixed together. Properly made adobe dries into a solid block and is used in hot dry countries as a main building material, but it needs to be waterproofed against future rain unless a temporary structure is sufficient.
The tyres are overlapped in successive rows, forming a stable structure and then grouting is applied between them. The outside is enclosed in an earth bank and the inside is later smoothed over.

This style can be seen at the back door alongside the greenhouse area:
The constructional details can be found in the books by Michael Reynolds “Garbage Warrior”, “EarthShip”, “Comfort in Any Climate”, etc. or full constructional plans can be bought direct from Michael.

Water is collected from the roof, filtered and then held in massive plastic tanks which have a total capacity of 6000 US-gallons (22,700 litres). There are no pumps as all water flows under gravity. Water used for washing is then used for toilets and then on to water plants which grow food.

The positioning of the tanks is important as they have to be just below the roof so that rainwater flows into them under gravity and yet they have to be higher than shower-heads for the same reason (unless a pump is used for showers). A simple filter is used to remove any blown material which finds its way into the water intake.

For all that unskilled people can do most of the work, there are a number of trade skills which are needed – plumber for the piping, electrician for the electrics, engineer for levelling and concrete work, glazier for the double glazing units, etc.
Steel bars called “rebar” are driven into the walls and positioned to the exact height, and a reinforced concrete ring is cast around the top of the walls to give overall strength to the structure, before the heavy tree trunks are put into place.

A nice feature of this style of construction is using coloured glass bottles in walls to allow light through and allow artistic designs to give the impression of stained glass.
When the wall is finished off and the bottles polished, the effect is really good, especially since the glass bottles are effectively free being recycle materials. However, choosing them as part of your living room is a matter of personal taste:

It is quite normal to have conventional styles of construction:
The important thing to remember about this house is that the walls are thick and so have a high thermal mass. The ‘greenhouse’ section all along the South side of the main building forms a heat buffer and water filtration. The roof is seriously effective with a one-inch thick layer of timber with tarred paper covering it, and then eight-inches of polystyrene on top of that and a ridged metal roof on top of that. That is a seriously effective thermal layer. This style of construction is definitely worth considering.

Patrick Kelly  
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl  
www.free-energy-info.com  
www.free-energy-info.co.uk  
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 15: An Easy-Build Generator.

Many people want a simple project which they can build and which demonstrates free-energy. Let's see if this need can be met. You must understand that most generators, whether free-energy or conventional energy, are not particularly low-cost to make. For example, if you wanted a device which showed that burning a fuel could propel a vehicle, then building a car could do that, but making a car is not necessarily cheap. However, let's see what we can manage here.

However, please understand that you, and you alone, are responsible for whatever you do. This presentation is NOT an encouragement for you to make or build anything. It is merely some suggestions which you might find helpful if you have already decided to build something. This means that if you injure yourself, neither I nor anyone else is liable in any way. For example, if you are cutting a piece of wood with a saw and are very careless and cut yourself, then you, and only you are responsible for that – you should learn to be more careful. If you drop something heavy on your toe, then you, and only you, are responsible for that. Normally, constructions of this type do not result in any kind of injury, but please be careful if you decide to build.

In chapter 2 of the ebook available free from http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl there is a rotary generator design by Lawrence Tseung which was built by Mr Tong Po Chi and his colleagues. Being an open and straightforward construction, it has been demonstrate publicly, on many occasions as having 330% efficiency, that is, the output power is 3.3 times greater than the input power. Another way of saying this is to say that it’s Coefficient of Performance is 3.3 (or COP=3.3). Hopefully, we will achieve much better performance than that in this construction. No drawings in this document are to scale.

I suggest that we start by replicating the original design, and then apply some modifications step by step in order to raise the output power. The original construction looks like this:

In the version shown above, there are six electrical meters, but those are not necessary and they were included to help when demonstrating the device to members of the public. Built in October 2009, the unit shown has a 600 mm diameter rotor (which is not visible in the photograph). It has 16 permanent magnets mounted on the rotor.
rim and 16 air-core coils mounted on the stator, one of which is used as a timing sensor. The coils can be switched to act as either rotor powering coils or as power collecting coils.

Initially, power is provided by a small lead-acid battery. The power is applied through the very simple switching style shown in the 1974 patent of Roger Andrews US 3,783,550 where a passing magnet activates the circuit which powers the system. The rotor magnets trigger the operation and the fifteen main coils mounted on the stator can be switched to be either electromagnets pushing the rotor on its way, or as energy-gathering coils producing a power output.

If you are a skilled constructor of new devices, then please excuse me for making so many constructional suggestions aimed at first-time constructors. The main generator components are like this:
plank and to a much lesser extent, by the baseboard. The dimensions of all components will be suggested later, but for the time being, let’s concentrate on connecting the stator pieces together properly.

Each plank is supplied with a factory cut straight edge top and bottom. The end of the plank supplied has a perfectly square edge, but we have to cut the required length and get a good cut every time. It is easy enough to mark a perfectly square line across the width of the plank, but cutting along that line is not sufficient as the cut needs to be absolutely square as it moves through the thickness of the plank. If the cut isn’t properly square, then that face will not form a good fit against the stator piece and the workmanship will be very inferior. For somebody who does not have a cutting table, it is a very good idea to use a mitre box in order to get a good quality cut:

The width of the mitre box limits the width of the plank which can be used and a common size for the mitre box channel is just over 90 mm. Allowing the box to guide the saw blade without forcing it and sawing gently, produces a properly square cut in the two planes needed. Planed Square Edge timber is available with a width of 89 mm and thickness 38 mm, and that should be suitable:

If we choose to use threaded rod for the axle:
then it is available in various lengths, and while it is perfectly possible to cut it to whatever length is chosen, we might as well pick a 500 mm length and save having to cut a longer length to get what we need. I suggest a 10 mm diameter rod and if the overall length is 500 mm, then the gap between the two stator pieces might be 430 mm and the overall length of timber used would then be 16 x 430 = 6880 mm or 22.5 feet. However, as it is most unlikely that any timber supplied would be exactly a multiple of the 430 mm chosen, then a slightly greater length will be needed and there will be offcuts. One big advantage of using a threaded rod as the axle is that nuts and washers can be used to clamp a rotor exactly square to the axle and then lock nuts used to clamp it permanently in place.

The axle needs to be supported in a low-friction bearing and the most readily available type is the sealed ball or roller bearing:

These have a rubber seal to keep dust and dirt out of the grease packed around the ball bearings inside and that spoils the free movement. One way to overcome this has the bearing outer ring clamped stationary and an electric drill used to spin the inner ring until the movement becomes low-friction. A 10 mm inner diameter bearing is often referred to as a type 6200. An alternative method is to remove the rubber seals and remove the grease by immersing the bearing in paraffin (known as 'kerosene' in the American language). Then the ball bearings or rollers inside the bearing are lightly oiled to give a very free-running bearing.

The active part of this design is the magnets attached to the outside of the rotor. We need these magnets to be powerful, and the neodymium types generally available are rated as types N35, N45, N50 and N52 with the type N52 being the most powerful. There is a substantial pulling-power difference between the different grades. I would suggest using 20 mm diameter 5 mm thick, N52 grade magnets:
There is no need for the hole in the magnet, but if there is one, then a steel wood screw can be used to help secure the magnets to the edge of the rotor, in addition to glue. Please be very careful when handling these magnets as N52 is so powerful that they can injure you. If you have one in your hand and move your hand within 150 mm or so of another one lying on a bench, the loose one will jump off the bench and try to attach to the one in your hand. Unfortunately, your hand is in the way and the result is painful. If the flying magnet catches the skin at the edge of your hand or finger, then the grip can be strong enough to cause bleeding.

Also, when these magnets attach in a roll as shown in the picture above, it can be very hard to pull them apart. The way to deal with the situation is to slide the end magnet sideways as far as possible and then pull it away diagonally from the roll.

We are now in a position to be a bit more specific about what we want to construct:
It is suggested that the rotor is driven round by pulsing most of the coils and using the remainder of the coils to collect the output power generated by the magnets moving past them. The general arrangement is expected to be like this:
With this arrangement which was intended to be a development and demonstration unit, a single pole two way ("changeover") switch is used with every coil. This allows any coil to be changed from acting as a power collection coil to be a rotor-powering coil by just changing the switch position. If the positions of the switches are as shown in the diagram above, then ten of the fifteen coils act as drive coils and are coloured green in the diagram. The sensor is adjusted so that the drive circuit delivers a brief energising pulse to those coils just after the magnets have passed their exact alignment position with the coils. This causes them to generate a magnetic field which repels the magnets, pushing the rotor around.

Before going any further, we need to note the fact that in this particular design, the pulse timing is controlled by the physical position of the sixteenth coil. The coil movement has to be in the direction of the rotor movement, whether in the direction of rotation or alternatively directly against the direction of rotation. When setting up the device, the timing coil position (shown in blue) is moved very slowly to find the position which gives the best performance. While the original builders wanted to demonstrate an output power greater than the input power, we would like to achieve a good deal more than that, getting the device to power itself and have a useful power output for other equipment. Consequently, having an adjustable timing coil would be a good idea. For that, we can cut a slot in one of the cross timbers of the stator and attach a strip at right angles so that the timing coil can be supported and moved either towards the incoming magnet to get an earlier pulse, or away from the incoming magnet so that the pulse is generated later.

As adjustments will be made to this setting, it is probably easiest if the adapted plank is at the top of the set of sixteen planks, rather than at the bottom as shown in the electrical diagram. The arrangement might be like this one which gives the sensor coil a 138 mm wide mounting area:
A really major advantage of this type of drive using a pulsed coil to push a magnet on its way, is that the working voltage does not have to be maintained at or near any particular design voltage. In the original case, a small lead-acid battery was used to drive the generator. I am not a fan of lead-acid batteries although they have their uses. I dislike them because they are big, heavy, expensive and they waste half of the power which you feed into them. If you feed one amp into a lead acid battery for one hour, you can only draw one amp from that battery for half an hour. That is an efficiency of only 50% and other batteries do better than that. NiMh batteries are 66% efficient, so you could get your 1 amp of current back for 40 minutes. The best of all is a capacitor as it is 100% efficient, but more about that later.

Each pulse powering the rotor is very brief, so very little power is needed to accomplish this pulsing. As mentioned before, any number of coils can be switched to provide this driving force. With the original wheel construction, the best number of drive coils was found to be ten.
With that particular arrangement, five of the coils gather energy while ten provide the drive. For the sake of simplicity, the diagram shows the five collection coils adjacent to each other and while that would work, the wheel is better balanced if the drive coils are evenly spaced out around the rim. For that reason, this switching would actually be selected to give five sets of two drive coils followed by one pick-up coil as that gives a well balanced thrust on the wheel.

However, we may choose a more powerful arrangement. Firstly, the power-gathering air-core coils are wound without any kind of power enhancing core, probably with the notion that there will not be any drag when a magnet passes a coil of that type. That is the case if the coil is unconnected and so is useless. That is not the case if the coil is connected and is contributing output power, because doing that causes a current to flow in the coil, and current flowing in a coil produces a magnetic field and that magnetic field definitely interacts with the passing rotor magnet.

I will suggest a few alterations which I suspect will make a major difference. You can ignore them and replicate the original build exactly, or you can try some or all of them either as part of the build or as future modifications. It is your project and you are free to do whatever you choose.

As a first step, I would upgrade the coils. A coil is generally considered to be one long length of wire wound around a tube of some kind, to form a helix. Nikola Tesla patented a bi-filar coil design which has much stronger magnetic properties, and I suggest that the drive coils (if not all coils) are wound in that way. To wind a bi-filar coil, you use two strands of wire simultaneously. That is a great advantage because the coil spool only needs to be turned once to get two turns on the coil, and that halves the effort if you are winding your coils by hand. When the coil is wound, then the end of strand 1 is connected to the beginning of strand 2. That results in a helically wound coil just as before, but the major difference is in the physical position of each turn inside the coil. Tesla's patent US 512,340 describing this technique, puts it forward specifically for electromagnet coils as the magnetic effects of the current flowing through the coil are considerably increased by using a bi-filar coil.

The coils powering the rotor are driven by a transistor. The transistor is switched on by the passing rotor magnet. That switching can be done with a coil of wire feeding the generated current into the Base (or Grid) of the transistor. That current flow turns the transistor on, but as soon as the magnet passes by, the current is no longer generated and so the transistor switches off again.

An alternative is to use a reed relay which is just two strips of thin metal inside a glass tube. The strips form a switch which closes when the rotor magnet comes near. That switch can be used to feed a small current from the battery into the Base (or Grid) of the transistor through a current-limiting resistor “R”. These two arrangements look like this:

If you are familiar with electronics, then a Hall-effect magnetic switch or an optical switch could be used as alternatives. Personally, I think that the pick up coil is the most simple and effective way of timing the drive pulses from the battery.

Both of the circuits shown above have a diode placed between the transistor collector and the Plus of the battery. Most people will tell you that it is there to protect the transistor, but in this circuit, the diode also feeds back-EMF power from the drive coils back into the battery and Robert Adams usually places a capacitor across the diode when doing this.

As an additional method of boosting the power of the unit I suggest that additional power output coils are used. If the build has a 600 mm diameter then the magnets are spaced out at 117.8 mm centres and the gap between the magnets is 97 mm (4.6 inches) and the gap between adjacent cross planks is 60 mm (2.3 inches).

Another potential upgrade is to mount an extra pick-up coil on the reverse side of each plank. The original build had a construction like this:
This arrangement has sixteen coils, each mounted one per plank. That is a very simple construction. However, it is possible to double the number of coils while still maintaining the great simplicity of the construction. The way to do that is to mount a second coil on the other side of the plank like this:

If the rotor is 600 mm in diameter, then the coils should not have a diameter of more than 38 mm. If 40 mm (1.5 inch) diameter coils are wanted, then make the rotor diameter 620 mm. Using these additional coils with this method does not have all the coils spaced out evenly around the rotor, but that does not matter in the least. Leaving the driving circuitry unchanged, there will still be 16 evenly spaced pulses for every 360-degree movement of the rotor. The additional coils are passive and pick up energy from the magnets as they pass by. However, with a coil on both sides of the plank, the new coils are only about 5 mm away from the next of the original coils and that is close enough to pick up the magnetic field from that coil when that drive coil is pulsed.

One additional power upgrade would be to have two or three rotors on the one shaft. Doing that has considerable advantages, not the least of which is that each additional rotor can be added at a later date when it is convenient to do so. The arrangement looks like this:
There is no need for any additional circuitry as the original rotor controls the timing of the pulses from the drive coils and the magnets on the rotors are aligned exactly. The additional rotors can have drive coils, power gathering coils or any mixture of the two types.

While the original diagram shows both the drive coils and the power gathering coils as being connected in parallel, it is likely that the power gathering coils at least would be better off connected in chains of twos or threes in order to raise the output voltage before being connected in parallel to increase the available current.

There is also the possibility of putting additional magnets in the face of the rotor and additional coils on both sides of the rotor, the coils being supported on arms coming off the planks:

But this level of modification is probably more advanced than is needed at this point in the development, so let's add some more detail to the most simple version.

The rotor can be made from any non-magnetic sheet material which is rigid and which will not warp. The sheet needs to be larger than 600 x 600 mm in size. Measuring carefully, you mark a point which has 300 mm clear on all sides. If the sheet is nearly the correct size and the offcuts are not likely to be much use for anything else, then marking where the diagonals from the edges cross gives a suitable point.

Next, you drill a 10 mm diameter hole at that central point:

While this sounds easy, it is probably the single most difficult part of the entire construction. It is very difficult to hold a hand drill perfectly vertically, especially when you have to look at it from one side because the body of the
drill blocks the view from vertically above. The board is too wide to use a normal drill press, and the notion of using something drilled in a drill press as a guide to the vertical while attempting to get the drill bit on the marked point which the guide now obscures is usually a recipe for disaster. To get over this problem, we will drill a sloppy hole by hand and use two nuts and two washers to force the rotor into an exactly vertical position as well as holding the rotor in place permanently. However, even though it is going to be a sloppy hole, do your best to drill it as square and upright as possible.

Next, cover the hole over with tape pulled into a smooth surface and mark the exact centre of the hole on the tape:

![Diagram of a square with a central dot, marked lines and points A, B, C, D]

Forget all previous markings. This central dot is what we work from now as everything is exactly related to that point, and only that point.

Now, draw a line through the centre point, at any convenient angle. Then a second line through the point at exactly 90 degrees to the first line. If you wish, you can use a sheet of paper to get the 90 degrees:

![Diagram with a central dot, a line, and a sheet of paper]

The next step is to measure off exactly 300 mm from the central point along each of those four lines and connect those points “A”, “B”, “C” and “D” with straight lines:  

![Diagram with lines connecting points A, B, C, D]
Measure the length A to B, B to C, C to D and D to A. Those lengths should all be exactly the same. Now, mark the centre point of each of those four lines (points E, F, G and H):

and draw a straight line from the centre point through those four points and mark off exactly 300 mm from the centre point on each of those lines. This has now located 8 of the 16 magnet positions in exact relationship to the central hole:

The next step is to join each of those 8 points to the next one, mark the centre point on each and draw a 300 mm long line from the centre point through those points to show the positions of the final 8 magnets:

We now have the exact positions of all sixteen of the magnets, so remove the piece of tape and push your 10 mm diameter drill bit into the hole. Tie a loop in a piece of string and put the loop over the drill bit. Take a pencil and place the tip on one of your marked magnet positions, and then with the string wrapped round the pencil low down near the board, adjust the string so that it is tight and mark a 300 mm radius arc through all of the magnet positions. This is the edge of the rotor.

Why didn’t we just do that instead of all the measuring? Because the string method is very easy to get badly wrong and we want the rotor to be as accurate as we can make it.
We now want to cut out the rotor (being careful not to erase the lines showing where the magnets are to be attached) and the inclination is to grab a power jig saw as that is the easiest way. However, I recommend that you don’t do that as power tools are very good at getting things wrong in less than one second. Cutting carefully and slowly using a coping saw should give you a perfect rotor whose edges can then be sanded. The advantage of a coping saw is that the blade angle can be set to allow very long cuts near the edge of a piece of material:

![Coping Saw Diagram]

When the rotor has been cut out, mark 20 mm lengths at the magnet points and use the coping saw to remove a 5 mm deep slot the full width of the rotor material along each 20 mm length. This allows the magnets to be flush with the edge of the rotor. The rotor is the only precision item in the entire construction, so the most difficult part has now been completed.

As it is more convenient to attach the coils to the cross planks before assembling the outer frame of the stator, we will cut the necessary pieces but not assemble them until after the coils have been completed. To cut out the side pieces, place the rotor on a thick sheet of material such as chipboard, Medium Density Fibreboard, plywood, block board or similar, in a position where there is 135 mm (5.5 inches) clear all around it. As the rotor is 600 mm in diameter, the side panel needs to be at least 830 mm square:

![Side Panel Diagram]

Mark the sheet through the rotor hole, remove the rotor and drill a 10 mm hole through the sheet. Place the drill bit in the hole in the sheet and slide the rotor down on to the drill bit. This matches the rotor exactly with the stator side panel. Carefully mark around the rotor with a pencil and remove the rotor and the drill bit.
Draw parallel lines 20 mm apart, running from the centre of the rotor outline, through each of the magnet slots. Allow for a 5 mm gap between the rotor and its matching plank and mark off a 90 mm length as shown above. This is to mark out the position where the plank will be attached to the side panel of the stator. As the plank is 38 mm wide, it will extend 9 mm outside the lines like this:

After the position of the plank end has been outlined, drill two holes to take the screws which will hold the two stator side panels together. When the first one has been completed, it will look like this:

That process is repeated for all sixteen planks, and that outlines the stator side panel well enough to allow it to be completed:
Leave 30 mm below the lowest plank position and 20 mm at each of the two side planks, and draw the horizontal and vertical lines shown in blue in the diagram above. Then, putting the drill bit back in the hole and using a piece of string and a pencil to improvise a very large compass, draw the red arc shown above. That completes the outline of the side panel of your stator, which can now be cut out. This cutting is not critical in any way, but it would be nice to have it looking neat. The completed side panel is now placed on a second panel and a pencil mark is made to show the position of the drilled hole. The second panel is drilled with a 10 mm diameter hole and the drill bit is used to make sure that the two holes align perfectly. A pencil line is now traced around the outside of the completed side and the second side panel is then cut out along that line.

The 10 mm drill bit is now used to align the rotor and the second side panel, taking great care to align the rotor in exactly the same position as on the first side, and the end positions of the planks marked out and drilled ready to take the screws.

Next, you take your two bearings and treat them to make them as free-spinning as possible, then, measure carefully out from the hole drilled in each of the two stator side panels and mark a circle of exactly the same diameter as the outside of the bearings. Use a power jig saw to cut out the circle staying just inside the line. This gives a rough opening which is just too small for the bearing to fit into. Enlarge the hole very gradually using a wood rasp or coarse sandpaper until a bearing can just be forced into the hole. Leave the bearing in place but don’t do anything further to attach it at this time — that will be done later when the axle is in place and the rotor has been proved to spin freely.

The base panel is just a rectangle 850 x 500 mm in size, but we are not ready to assemble the unit just yet as we need to wind the coils and attach them to their support planks ahead of assembling the generator.

We need to choose a wire diameter, coil dimensions, number of turns per coil and style of winding. Those items are the things which are changed when a builder says that he is “tuning” his generator to get maximum performance. It sounds much more impressive to say that you are “tuning” rather than to say that you are experimenting with different coils. So, let’s get started with our choices.

The thicker the wire used, the greater the current which it can carry, but the fewer turns which will fit on to any particular coil spool. Also, the thicker the wire, the shorter the length which you get when buying it by weight.

The thinnest wire, say, SWG 40 which is about one tenth of a millimetre in diameter, is liable to break when you wind it unless you are very careful and wind gently. The really thick wire is a bit stiff and can be a bit difficult to wind. However, we are not going to encounter those problems in this job as current handling capacity needs to be taken into account. The question we need to answer is “how much current can we draw from a coil when we swing a magnet past the coil?” and the answer is “probably not much”. So, we take a look at the table which shows the currents which the different wire sizes can carry comfortably:
Looking at the smallest wire size shown, it can carry 44 milliamps, but it is so thin that it would be difficult to handle. I have wound successfully with SWG 40 but it is not the most convenient. I would suggest SWG 36 which is AWG 32 and has a diameter of nearly one fifth of a millimetre. It can carry 91 milliamps continuously and a good deal more when it is the pulsed current produced by a magnet passing by. The table shows that if we buy two 500 gram reels of SWG 36, then we receive a length of three thousand eight hundred metres of wire for winding our coils. Every extra coil that we wind, increases the power of the generator, so we will be winding a lot of coils.

It is not at all difficult to wind these coils, but it will take a few days. For people living in the UK, the best supplier is the Scientific Wire Company who manufactures the wire. In November 2015 they sell two 500 gram reels of SWG 36 wire (their Ref: SX0190-2x500) for just £18 including tax at [http://wires.co.uk/acatalog/SX_0190_0280.html](http://wires.co.uk/acatalog/SX_0190_0280.html) and that is 'solderable' enamel which just burns away when you solder to it, which is enormously helpful, especially with very thin wire.

Alternatively, if you choose two 500 gram reels of SWG 37 wire with 72 milliamp current carrying capacity (their Ref: SX0170-2x500) at [http://wires.co.uk/acatalog/SX_0140_0180.html](http://wires.co.uk/acatalog/SX_0140_0180.html) then the cost is £19.72 but the wire length has increased to four thousand nine hundred metres, which is an extra 1,100 metres of thinner wire.

Please remember that the wire current carrying capacity is not all that important as many coils are involved. For example, if each coil is contributing 30 milliamps (which is well inside the ability of the wire to manage) and there are ten coils connected in parallel, then the combined current is 300 milliamps which is well outside the capacity of any single wire to carry. Just remember that if they are connected in parallel and feeding the power away, then you need a much larger diameter wire to carry that combined current from the set of coils to its destination.

When winding a coil, you need to choose the starting diameter of the coil. The magnetism produced by a coil increases with the number of turns, more turns produces more magnetism. The magnetism also increases with the area inside each turn of the coil, the bigger the area the bigger the magnetism. The snag is that the bigger the enclosed area, the greater the wire length needed to complete each turn of the coil wire. So, the question is should we use a small diameter coil shaft or a thick coil shaft? In this case we want a large number of turns on a coil of not more than 38 mm diameter, so we will choose a narrow tube for our coils.

We can make up coil spools quite easily if we use a power drill and a hole saw set like this:
These saw sets normally have a saw which has an inner diameter of 35 mm. That doesn’t sound very large but the wire being used does not build up much depth of turns when being wound, even with a large number of turns in the coil. A small sheet of 3 mm thick Medium Density Fibreboard (“MDF”) can easily be drilled using the hole saw, and each drilling produces one perfectly round disc with an exactly centred hole in the middle. Two of those can be glued (at exact right angles to the central shaft) on to a tube to form a spool of the size wanted. If it is available, plastic sheet could be used instead of the MDF. Plastic tube of 8 mm diameter and an inner diameter of 6 mm is often available on eBay, but failing that, it is actually quite easy to drill a 6 mm hole through a short length, say, a 30 mm length of 8 mm diameter dowel rod. The piece of dowel is held in a vise and because it is easy to see, drilling a reasonable hole down the length of dowel is not actually that difficult.

The spool can be clamped on to a standard 6 mm diameter threaded rod using two washers and two nuts or wing nuts:

![Diagram of spool clamped to rod](image)

Then the threaded rod can be clamped at one end with a simple crank handle formed out of a small piece of timber, a clamping screw to grip the rod and a 20 mm length of drilled dowel on a screw to form the rotating winding handle:

![Diagram of winding handle](image)

A simple drilled hole in the vertical sides works perfectly well as a bearing, but keep the length “A” short as that needs less wrist movement and with it short, it is quite easy to turn the handle four times per second. A plank around 600 mm long makes a good base for the winder:

![Plank as winder base](image)

The winding handle part is at the near end and the two 500 gram spools of wire are placed one above the other at the far end. The longer the plank, the easier it is to draw wire from the large supplying spools as the angle between those spools and the spool being wound is smaller. The supplying spools are each just mounted on a dowel pushed through holes in the side pieces. Be sure to make those dowels horizontal so that the spools don’t keep moving to one side or the other.
To start winding a coil, drill a very small hole in the left hand flange, just outside the washer. Thread the two wires through the hole and wind each a few times around the bared end of a short length of plastic covered wire, and join each wire to the copper winding wire by soldering it. This only takes a moment and if you have never soldered, it is very easy to learn and easy to do. Next, use a piece of duct tape to attach the thin wires firmly against the outer face of the flange of the coil spool and wrap the spare plastic covered wires around the threaded rod a few times so that they won’t catch on anything when being whirled around. Trim the duct tape so that it is all on the outside of the flange and so will not get in the way of the wire which is being wound on to the coil spool.

The coil is wound by gathering the two strands in your left hand and turning the crank handle with your right hand. If you wish, you can clamp the winder to the table or workbench which you are using. The preferred way of winding is to turn the crank handle so the wire entering the coil spool feeds on to the underside of the spool. That method of winding is called “Counter-Clockwise”. If you want a clockwise wound coil, you just turn the crank handle in the opposite direction so that the wire enters the spool at the top. Counter-Clockwise is considered to be the better way to wind these coils.

When starting to wind, guide the wires close to the drilled flange. This is to keep the starting wire taught, flat and out of the way of the following turns. As winding continues, the wires are directed very slowly to the right until the spool shaft is fully covered. Then the wires are directed very slowly to the left for the next layer, and that is continued, right, left, right, left until the coil is completed. Then the two wires are duct taped to the plank so that they are kept controlled while you are busy with other things. Then the wires are cut, a few turns taken around the stripped end of a short length of thicker wire and soldered to make an electrical and mechanical join between the thick wire and the thin wire. The body of the coil is now wound with electrical tape so that none of the wire is visible, and then the duct tape is removed from the spool and the two starting soldered joints are epoxied to the flange.

There is no need to mark the wires as the start of the wires are the ends coming through the drilled hole and the ends of the wires just stick out from under the electrical tape, and a meter will tell you which start and which finish are the same wire. You need to check that anyway to ensure that the wire connections are good and that the resistance of each of the two wires in the coil is exactly the same.

What hasn’t been mention so far is the number of turns in the coil. The larger the number of turns the higher the voltage produced when a magnet passes by. A larger number of turns produces a larger amount of output power, or if it is being used as a drive coil, the greater the strength of the magnetic field produced.

There are various winding methods. One method is to choose the number of turns and count the turns as they are being wound, perhaps counting to 100 and then marking down that count and starting on the next 100 turns. That method works well enough even though it does not give identical results from one coil to the next, due to the wires not being directed in exactly the same way due to human error. I would suggest at least 3000 turns in any coil.

One idea which occurs to me is to take our 30 mm long, 35 mm diameter coil spool and wind two separate bifilar coils on it, one on top of the other. If that is done, then there is the option to use the inner coil as a drive coil and the outer coil as a power collection coil. The drive coil pushes the passing rotor magnet away as before, but that drive pulse also produces a magnetic field around all of the drive coil and that field will be picked up by the collection coil, in addition to the power collection from the passing rotor magnet. If it is found that this arrangement is not particularly good, then the second bifilar coil can be joined to the first one to make a much larger single bi-filar coil.

One tempting option is to just wind the coil until the spool is completely full. That is not a technique which is commonly used, but it is definitely possible. It will result in coils which have slightly different characteristics. The pushes from the drive coils will not be exactly the same, but I doubt that it would cause any great problem. The voltages from the power gathering coils will be slightly different. This means that current draw will start from the coil with the highest output voltage, but the load will quickly draw that voltage down until the on-load voltage
reaches that of the second highest voltage coil, and then both will be drawn down to the third highest voltage, and so on.

So, the choice of winding style is yours. No matter which method you use, you end up with a set of 16 or 31 coils ready for installation. Irrespective of the number of coils being installed, mark the centre point on both sides of every plank. If your coil winding has left an unused section of flange on the coil spool, cut it off on one side so that the turns of wire can be attached directly to its plank. Position the coil on the middle mark and attach it to the plank in a non-permanent way, such as using a metal strap or wooden strap screwed to the plank, straddling the turns of the coil. The attachment has to allow you to adjust the coil position towards, or away from, the rotor.

Join the end of the first strand of the coil winding to the start of the second strand. If you want to use switches (and that is really unnecessary in our construction) then solder the remaining wires to the central contact of each side of a miniature two pole changeover switch:

Join the end of the first strand of the coil winding to the start of the second strand. If you want to use switches (and that is really unnecessary in our construction) then solder the remaining wires to the central contact of each side of a miniature two pole changeover switch:

Glue a small spacer 15 mm thick, to the side of the switch and then glue the spacer to the plank. That lifts the switch up high enough to make soldering other wires to the switch much easier. The original build used single pole switches, assuming that there would be a common negative line to all of the coils. In this implementation, we would use double pole switches so that the coil can be switched into more advanced circuit configurations as we want to experiment with power collection coils connected in separate groups. We really do not need switches.

If a coil is being used on both sides of each plank, then attach the second coil to the centre of the plank’s other face.

The magnets need to be attached to the rotor. It is said that the North-seeking pole is four times stronger than the South-seeking pole of any permanent magnet when used in an application of this type. If you don’t know which face of the magnets is North, then take a stack of two or four magnets and suspend them on a thread so that they are roughly horizontal. After a few minutes, the magnets will align along a definite line and the magnet face which is facing towards the North is the North-seeking pole face. If you don’t know which direction is North from where you are, consult a map, or if the Sun rises in the morning and you face the rising Sun, then North is on your left. Once you have established which magnet pole is North, then the attraction or repulsion of the other magnets shows which is their North pole face.

Epoxy the magnets in place on the rotor edge with the North pole face facing outwards. Some people are inclined to put duct tape around the rotor outside the magnets to make sure that the magnets don’t fly off the rotor when it is spinning. It is my experience that rotors of this type spin slowly at one revolution per second or slower, and that speed will never, ever, dislodge a rotor magnet, and if it did, there would be no significant energy in the loose magnet anyway, but if you feel inclined to do so, apply a 20 mm wide strip of duct tape on top of the magnets.

We are now ready to assemble the main components of the generator. People will have different ideas about how this should be done and there are various opinions about the best way. The cross planks will be attached to the sides of the stator using two screws on each side of every plank. That allows the unit to be taken apart later on if that should be necessary. The screws of the original were placed like this:
Personally, I would like the screws to be offset so that neither is on the centre line of the plank as that is the weakest arrangement, and so I suggest that the two screws are positioned one third of the way in from the plank edge as that gives a stronger connection with the screws 13 mm apart and not stressing the timber along one plane.

When the two stator sides are connected together by the planks, it is quite difficult to get at the planks half way up the stator. To overcome that difficulty, we can attach the planks to one side and make all wiring connections to the coils and switches. Those wires can then be run along each plank and through the stator side so that they will be easily accessible when the unit is fully assembled. It is very much easier to have the wiring on the outside, both for understanding it initially and for making changes afterwards if experiments are tried in the search for optimising the performance of the generator.

You would think that connecting a cross plank to the stator side would be ever so easy. It actually isn’t all that easy and getting the screws set correctly and the plank exactly in place is not a trivial task as the screws tend to push the plank out of position. One way to overcome this and get an accurate result is to clamp the end of the plank firmly in place before driving the screws into the plank. That can be done using two pieces of scrap timber:

![Clamping Plank](image)

The piece on the left is cut so that a plank fits tightly in the cut out. The opening is positioned exactly where the plank should go and the piece clamped securely to the stator. The second piece is then clamped to the stator so as to complete the enclosure. This allows the plank to be pressed securely into place against the stator and the screws driven in while pressure is applied to keep the plank pressed securely against the stator with no chance of movement or any gap allowing screws to be driven in at an angle and causing a mismatch and the subsequent weakness of an inferior join. Clamping becomes impossible for the lower part of the side panel because of the increasing distance of the plank from the edge. In that area, the guide can be screwed to the inside of the side panel using short screws which do not go all the way through the side panel. The guides have to be kept fairly narrow as there is not much clearance between adjacent planks.

The four switching wires from the switches, or the two coil wires if switches are not being used, are run through the side of the stator and connected to an ordinary screw terminal strip:
This arrangement allows complete flexibility for any arrangement of interconnections, but there is a more simple arrangement which needs no switches and that is to run the two coil wires directly out to a screw terminal strip and then make all of the subsequent interconnections with a screwdriver:

Although some coils can be connected with just two screw terminals, I suggest that four are allocated to every coil. That allows circuitry to be constructed using the terminal strips themselves.

When all of the cross planks have been attached to one of the stator side panels, attach that side to the base plate. That can be done by screwing a wooden batten to the base plate and then screwing the side panel to the batten, ensuring that the side panel is exactly vertical.
Then, put the rotor in position, through the bearing in the stator side panel, slip the other end of the axle through the bearing in the second side panel and attach the second side panel to the base plate:

This diagram does not show the planks attached to one side as including them would not be helpful as they would conceal the main details.

Ensure that the base is horizontal and both sides are exactly vertical and then attach the planks to the second side panel using the clamping pieces:

Once most of the planks have been attached, the base (with the battens attached) can be removed temporarily in order to make the remaining plank attachments easier to reach.

At this point, most of the construction is completed with the base, two side panels, rotor with magnets, sixteen planks and one full set of coils with their connections carried through one stator side to screw connector terminals. So now we are ready to wire up the connections and run the generator.

We use a transistor to power the generator. There are lots of different transistors and so we need to choose one. A very popular and powerful one is the 2N3055 which in its more convenient more recent packaging is called the TIP3055 transistor looks like this:
This transistor is popular and is available in many different countries. Transistors are basically, very simple devices to understand. They are made of two pieces of N-type silicon separated by a very thin layer of P-type silicon. The “N” and the “P” just stand for “Negative” and “Positive”. It works like this: If you have a block of N-type silicon (which we call a ‘diode’) and connect a battery across it, current will flow provided that the battery is connected the right way round:

![Diagram of a diode with positive and negative terminals]

A transistor is two of those N-type silicon blocks separated by a very thin layer of P-type silicon to control the operation. The P-type forms a barrier when the N-type silicon would normally conduct a current:

![Diagram of a transistor with collector, base, and emitter terminals]

However, if a small current flows into the Base and out through the Emitter, then the barrier effect is reduced by a large amount and a current starts flowing from the Collector to the Emitter:

![Diagram showing current flow in a transistor]

The ratio of the base current to the Collector current which it triggers is called the DC power gain. For example, if one milliamp of current flows into the base and causes a current flow through the transistor of 30 milliamps, then the gain is said to be 30, and that is about the gain which we can expect from a TIP3055 transistor.

That is not a very high gain and it would be nice if it were much higher. We can arrange that increase in gain by using one other transistor – a low power transistor which has a high gain of about 200, say, a BC109C or a 2N2222A transistor. If we use one of those to amplify the current going into the base of the TIP3055, then the overall gain becomes 200 x 30 which is six thousand. A gain of 6000 should work very nicely for our generator.

The way that we use the transistors is we have one coil act as a synchronisation or timing sensor. It detects a rotor magnet passing by because the magnet generates a voltage in the coil and we use that voltage to switch on our pair of transistors:

![Diagram of a timing coil and transistors]

This works as follows. When the rotor magnet passes the timing coil, it generates a voltage in that coil. Each transistor needs about 0.7 volts to switch on, so if the voltage generated in the timing coil exceeds 1.4 volts (which
is pretty certain for a coil with many turns in it) then that voltage will cause a current to flow through the Base of the small transistor. That turns the small transistor On, feeding a generous current into the base of the big transistor through the 47 ohm resistor which limits the size of that current, turning the TIP3055 transistor On and causing a large current to flow through it.

If we connect the generator's drive coils between the collector of the large transistor and the battery Plus terminal, then that big current will flow through those coils, powering the rotor on its way. By adjusting the position of the Timing Coil, we can control exactly when the drive coils get powered up, and so we can adjust the position to get the very best performance from the generator. The circuit diagram for this is:

![Circuit Diagram](image1)

Physically, that is:

![Physical Diagram](image2)

Here, the red positive connection to the battery goes to the Collector of the 2N2222A transistor and to one side of all of the drive coils. The green wire connects to the other side of all of the drive coil connections and on to the Collector of the TIP3055 transistor. The Minus of the battery goes to the Emitter of the TIP3055 and to one side of the single timing coil and the other side of the timing coil goes to the Base of the 2N2222A transistor.

If you don’t want to solder connections to transistors, then you can bend the centre leg upwards and use individual, trimmed down screw terminals, one on each leg:

![Screw Terminals](image3)

I suggest that initially, you ignore the power take off circuitry and concentrate on getting the rotor spinning satisfactorily. However, just before starting on that, consider the first circuit diagram shown and consider the difference:
You will notice that there is a diode between connected across the drive coils. The direction of the diode will not allow current to flow from the battery through it (it would have to be connected the other way round if we wanted that to happen – which we don’t). A feature of coils, especially coils with lots of turns, is that if they have a current flowing through them, they really, really don’t like that current flow to be stopped. If it is, then they generate a large voltage spike in the reverse direction.

If the battery is a 12-volt battery and the transistor is switched hard On, that connects the full battery voltage across the coils and so causes strong current flow through the coils. When the transistor switches Off it stops the current flow through the coils, which promptly generates a major reverse voltage in the coils. Because one side of the coils is connected to the battery Plus, that voltage drags the collector of the transistor to a much higher voltage than the voltage of the battery. This worries circuit designers as the transistor might not be able to survive such a high voltage, and so they connect a diode from the battery Plus to the transistor Collector. The thinking behind this is that once the transistor Collector is dragged to 0.7 volts or more, above the battery voltage, then the diode will start to conduct and that will collapse the voltage spike of the coils and prevent the voltage getting much above the battery voltage.

That does happen, and yes, it does protect the transistor from being damaged by excessive voltage. But, consider the current flow through the diode. It is connected to the battery Plus, and so any current flows back into the battery as it has no alternative flow path. That recovers some of the current used to drive the generator, so the diode is much more useful than just protecting the transistor (especially since we could use a transistor able to withstand the high voltage generated). Please note that the diode is a UF5408. The “UF” stands for Ultra Fast, meaning that the diode is able to switch On and Off very quickly indeed. That is important when we are dealing with very fast, very sharp voltage spikes like those generated by our coils, so please don’t assume that any old diode will do the job for us, as we need a fast one.

Just before we leave the drive coils to move on to the power gathering coils, let me confirm how they are connected. Initially, we need the biggest possible push from the coils and so they are connected ‘in parallel’. That is, like this:

The start of each drive coil is connected to the start of every other drive coil (the blue line) and the end of each drive coil is connected to the end of every other drive coil (the red line). The TIP3055 power transistor applies the full battery voltage to all drive coils simultaneously. Initially, I would suggest that you try ten drive coils as that was what suited the original build, although it is highly unlikely that those coils are the same as your coils.

To get the rotor started requires giving it a push in the right direction. That will start the pulsing drive pushing the rotor around and it will accelerate to its working speed all on its own. Some people may feel that the rotor could rotate in either direction. That would be the case if, and only if, the timing coil is positioned centrally without any movement when the wheel performance is optimised after the power collection coils have been wired up and are contributing output power. So, choose a direction of rotation and stay with it at all times.
When a magnet passes close to a coil of wire, the result is a voltage between the ends of the coil. That voltage varies with time and is generally a sine wave shape which varies slowly compared to the voltage spikes of the rotor-powering coils when they are switched off, and so, any diode can be used to convert that voltage to Direct Current.

Ideally, you have 3000-turn coils mounted on the second side of the fifteen active planks (the sixteenth plank being exclusively for timing and adjusting for the best possible performance, certainly on the first rotor, any additional rotors don’t need a timing coil as we already have that). For the moment, leave the remaining five rotor-powering coils unused as we can decide later if they are to be powering coils or power-gathering coils. We won’t know that for sure until we start drawing current from the generator, because that current flowing in the output coils causes a magnetic field which alters conditions for the rotor. So, we need to see how it goes when we are drawing current from the generator.

I suggest that every power output coil is treated exactly the same as all of the other power gathering coils. First, we use four diodes to convert all of the coil power from AC to DC. This is done with a standard bridge configuration like this:

![Bridge Configuration Diagram]

This arrangement may look a little strange. The four diodes are not a bridge although electronically they do form one. These can be four separate, discrete diodes such as the 1N4148 or the 1N4007 both of which are incredibly cheap as they are so popular. Alternatively, a 1.5 amp 100V single-package diode bridge can be used nearly as cheaply. The capacitor shown is very helpful for testing as well as for producing a good output. It can be quite small in value, perhaps 100 microfarads or 1000 microfarads if you prefer. It is easier to check the output voltage on each power gathering coil when there is a capacitor in place, and you get an increased capacity smoothing capacitor with every output coil added. A possible physical layout is:

![Physical Layout Diagram]

The original build was to show conclusively that the generated output power was greater than the input power. That was the reason for all of the meters used on the original. As the input power was DC and the output power was DC, measuring the input voltage and current gave the input power, while measuring the output voltage and current gave the output power and the demonstrations showed that the output power was more than three times larger than the input power.

That being the case, we should be able to get the generator running and then switch from battery input to feeding the input from a capacitor powered by several of the output coils. This type of rotor drive is really good for doing this, because the drive voltage is not particularly important. I can see no reason why this generator cannot be self-powered and still supply power for other uses. With three rotors, many magnets and many coils, it should be possible to extract significant power from this generator. Even if that were not the case, there are various devices in chapter 14 (“renewable energy systems”) which need very little power to be useful – lighting, cooling, etc.

One really big advantage of this design is that it is easy to understand, easy to expand, and does not need any specialist skills. Also, while a number of hand tools have been used in the construction, if you do not already own those tools you don’t necessarily have to buy them. It is likely that a friend has them and can lend them to you or alternatively, a local hire shop can rent you those tools for a day or even half a day at a very low charge.
If you prefer not to make coil spools for yourself, then it is possible to buy the wire on a large number of 50-gram reels. The reels supplied by the Scientific Wire Company are good quality plastic, 40 mm diameter, 30 mm tall, with 2 mm thick flanges, which leaves a shaft length of 26 mm. You can wind the wire off one spool on to any suitable temporary holder, giving you one empty spool. That spool can then be wound from two of the full spools and that gives you two empty spools. Every spool wound, gives you an extra empty spool. As the 40 mm diameter flange is wider than we need, after the coil has been wound, the excess flange width can be cut off with your coping saw:

The hole through the shaft of the spool is 10 mm in diameter but that is no problem as the 6 mm diameter threaded rod of your winder can easily be expanded to 10 mm by wrapping a length of masking tape, duct tape, electrical insulating tape or any other similar tape, around the shaft to align the spool which is then clamped in place by the nuts and washers.

If your particular build of this generator produces a voltage which is lower than you want, then instead of connecting the output coils in parallel you can start by connecting them in pairs before making the parallel connections:

The second arrangement is called connected “in series parallel” and naturally, as they are only half the number of pairs of coils as there are single coils, the overall current is only half of what it is when the coils are connected in parallel. However, the power is exactly the same no matter how the coils are wired together.

To tune the generator for best output, you can connect a voltmeter (usually a multimeter set to it’s 20-volt DC range) across any output coil’s capacitor and move the timing coil slowly to find the position of the timing coil which gives the greatest output. That is why it is probably best to have the timing coil on the top plank where it is easiest to get at.

There are a couple of additional things which you may care to try out to see if they work well. They both are a different style of drive coil. The first comes from what is known as the Thomas Motor as shown in the video https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9s7sM3csFHM&feature=youtu.be. This drive is a strong but small permanent magnet which is placed inside a wire wrapped ferrite toroid. When the toroid winding is energised by passing a current through it, the resulting magnetic field circling around the toroid blocks off the field of the permanent magnet, acting as a very effective magnetic shield:
The toroid used is probably the 22.5 x 13.5 x 10 mm toroid from China, currently selling at £5.01 for a pack of ten toroids delivered from China:

The above video has some errors in it so please use common sense and use the technique rather than paying undue attention to what is said.

The toroid is wound with one continuous helical counter-clockwise coil going all the way around the core. The one shown is wound with approximately 10 metres of 38 gauge enamelled copper wire which has a diameter of 0.15 mm. The permanent magnet used is 6 mm diameter and 3 mm thick. If the rotor magnets have the North pole facing the coils, then the North pole of the magnet inside the toroid, faces the rotor and the coil is energised until the rotor magnet has just passed and then the current is cut off to allow the toroid magnet to push the rotor on its way through repulsion.

The second method is using the Steorn ‘Orbo’ style coils (with no toroid magnets). These toroids are also wound in the same way using ferrite toroids as shown here: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aCpniBm9i_M and described in chapter 1. With no current flowing through the winding, the rotor magnets are attracted towards the ferrite toroids. When the rotor magnets align with the toroids, the current is switched on, blocking the ferrite toroid from the rotor magnets and letting the momentum of the rotor carry the rotor magnets half way towards the next toroid, where the current is cut off and the attraction starts all over again. For best effect, the hole in the centre of the toroids faces towards the rotor and not as shown in the above video. This technique of letting the rotor magnets provide the power which spins the rotor is the method used by Robert Adams in his COP=8 motor generators shown in chapter 2.

If you are confused by the many possible options for making a generator of this general type, then I would suggest that you choose to have just one rotor with sixteen magnets on it, and 31 coils each with 3000 bi-filar wound turns (that is, one coil on both sides of each plank except for the timing coil plank).

If you choose to construct this generator, then good luck with your project. Remember that increased power comes with more coils, more rotors, more coil turns. I would expect you to have a lot of fun adjusting and optimising this generator.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 16: Avoiding Lenz’s Law

As you are probably aware, commercial transformers and commercially available electric motors are wound in a symmetrical way which forces them to oppose their own function – a bit like getting a push start with a car whose battery is depleted, but, having two people at the front pushing backwards and two people at the back pushing forwards. That is so stupid that it is difficult to believe that anyone would do it, but that is exactly how motors and transformers are ‘designed’ and built. The bigger the output power, the more the output power opposes the input power, meaning that you have to have greater and greater input power in order to get greater output. That is what Lenz’s Law is all about.

It doesn’t have to be that way. If you build a non-symmetrical transformer like Thane Heins has done, that effect is absent and the output power can be forty times greater than the input power as shown by bench test results. It is not all that easy to build a completely non-symmetrical transformer or motor, but there are other ways to approach the problem. Vladimir Utkin has produced the following presentation explaining the ins and outs of an alternative way of dealing with the problem. Some readers may well find it a bit technical in the later stages, but the initial information can be understood by anybody.

Introduction

It’s well known, that orthogonal coils, that is, coils at right angles to each other, do not interact. This is illustrated in Fig.1. In the following diagrams, the letter “U” represents voltage, the letter “I” represents current and L stands for a coil of wire:

![Fig.1 These orthogonal coils do not interact.](image)

This means that when there is an oscillating voltage applied to the input coil L1, there is absolutely no voltage induced in the coil L2. It makes no difference if the coils are air-core or if they have an iron core. In other words, it can be assumed that the coils are suspended isolated in air.

This is a well-known fact but it is considered to be of little interest as it is thought to be a trivial matter – it isn’t. If we can make the coils L1 and L2 interact so that real power can be extracted from coil L2 without that extracted power effecting the input coil L1, then that is a very different matter and nobody would dismiss that as being “trivial”!!

That very desirable situation can indeed be brought about as shown in Fig.2, by adding two permanent magnets, M1 and M2, facing each other on the axis of the coil L1, and switch from powering coil L1 with voltage to powering it with current, and for that, we add the capacitor C and operate coil L1 in resonance where the real magnetic field is in the ambient space. Here, the input current is at a minimum and the magnetic output is at its maximum. We add a load to coil L2 as it is now able to provide output current:
In Fig.2 the South poles of the magnets face each other, but the arrangement also works if it altered so that the North poles face each other. I suggest that the problem is solved, that is, the load $R_L$ receives real power, which has no bearing on the resonance of the input circuit. I will now try to explain how and why this configuration solves the feedback problem.

The main explanation

In Fig. 1, when two magnets (M1 and M2), are added as shown with the same poles facing each other along the axis of the coil L1, this adds a magnetic field which flows perpendicular to the axis of coil L1, and encompasses some, or all, of coil L2. This changes everything, because the magnetic fluctuations in coil L1 can modify the magnetic field produced by the magnets and causes induced voltage and current in coil L2.

For this, we made the "moving" magnetic field by adding alternating current to the coil L1, resulting in alternating magnetic flux passing through coil L2. Current and voltage are induced in the output coil L2. This is shown in the slightly simplified illustration Fig. 3, indicating the movement of the magnetic field depending on whether or not the oscillator powering coil L1 augments or opposes the magnetic field produced by the permanent magnets.

The resonance coil L1 is used to create an oscillating magnetic field, but that "moving" field can also be created using permanent magnets, introducing them into the gap between two oppositely facing magnets through the physical movement of those extra magnets as shown in Fig. 4. The moving magnets would be on a rotor and the poles of the rotor magnets would alternate N, S, N, S…
Possible errors in interpretation
The following errors are possible in the interpretation of the described interactions:

1. Harnessing resonant energy to the load.
2. Harnessing the magnetic field energy to the load.

Neither interpretation is true. The basic principle shows that the energy of any resonant system cannot "be tapped" because doing that would destroy the resonance itself. Also, the energy of the magnetic field is not used, because the magnetisation of the magnets is not changed or reduced in any way.

The most reasonable interpretation is from the position of double energy systems; within which, due to internal organisation, some latent energy is induced - and then fed to the load. From the point of view an outside observer (the oscillator), this energy is imaginary, but in terms of an internal observer (the output coil) it is quite real. Monitoring the energy in different coordinate systems produces different results, which conform to the current scientific knowledge.

The Law of Conservation of Energy
The 1918 theorem of the mathematician Emma Noether states, that each continuous symmetry of a physical system corresponds a conservation law:

Symmetries of time corresponds to the law of conservation of energy,
Symmetries of space corresponds to the law of conservation of momentum,
Isotropy of space corresponds to the law of conservation of angular momentum,
Gauge symmetry corresponds to the law of conservation of electric charge, and so on.

That is, the symmetry exists in Nature, and then that leads to the corresponding Conservation Law theory. At the same time, all the symmetries are seen as "immutable". The possibility of breaking any symmetry is not even considered, although doing that does not actually contradict anything, it merely changes the physics.

Thus, the Law of Conservation of Energy actually cannot be violated as a principle, because that "Law" is the result of an existing symmetrical interaction and not the cause of that symmetrical interaction. However, to bypass the applicability of the Law of Conservation of Energy is perfectly possible. To do that, all that is needed is to arrange things in such a way that it breaks the symmetry. The method described above is an asymmetrical interaction, and Emma Noether's theorem just does not apply (but, that needs to be proved at a future date).

The dependence of the output power
The output power depends on several parameters:

1. First of all, it depends on the intensity of the initial magnetic field of the permanent magnets, which is to be "moved". The greater the intensity of that magnetic field, the higher the output power will be. A zero intensity magnetic field produces zero output.

2. Secondly, it depends on the distance through which the initial magnetic field shifts, that is, from the current in the resonant coil (or more accurately, on the reactive power caused by that current flow).
3. Thirdly, it depends on the speed of "movement" of the initial magnetic field, that is, from the resonant frequency. The higher the frequency, the higher the output power will be, because the EMF output coil depends on the speed of changes in the initial magnetic field.

This last point suggests the decrease of resonant circuit capacitance, when the voltage on it is raised (for preservation of the stored energy in the circuit). This should lead to increased output power.

**Replacing the permanent magnets with electromagnets**

Replacement of permanent magnets by electromagnets is obvious and may be done for various reasons. For example, it could be due to lack of the necessary permanent magnets, or alternatively, due to the fact that magnets become gradually demagnetised due to the influence of "moving field" of L1 coil. Anyway, the substitution of electromagnets can definitely be done. We do this for the generalisation of the principle, because later we will show that electromagnets were used in some 'prior art' devices. In this case the electromagnets can be included either sequentially or in parallel, the polarity of voltage applied to them can also be selected arbitrarily.

One such modification is shown in Fig. 5 for (A) sequential and (B) parallel electromagnets.

![Fig. 5. Replacing the permanent magnets by electromagnets with (A) serial and (B) parallel connection.](image)

Here, for parallel connection of the pair of electromagnets, it can actually be represented as one short-circuited coil, in which the resonant coil induces the voltage of the following distribution:

![Fig. 6. The voltage induced resonant coil in electromagnets included in parallel.](image)

This allows the output coil to be placed on the same axis as the resonant coil, because the resonant coil induces no voltage in the output coil without current in the electromagnets. In practice, this leads to the resonant coil being wound exactly halfway of the short-circuited, and the output coil in the correct position of the short-circuited coil.

**Using the electro-radiant effect**

Using the electro-radiant effect is an extension of the idea of using magnets when causing interaction between orthogonal coils. The purpose is the elimination of the master oscillator and power supply for the electromagnets. The easiest way to see the electro-radiant effect is with the spark discharge of a pre-charged capacitor, where at least one of its electrodes is an inductor.
We are interested in option (B), in which one plate is fully wound in one direction and the other electrode is made in two halves wound in opposite directions. The electrode is wound in one direction, will be used as the resonant coil, and a plate of two halves as the windings of the solenoids.

The result of this modification is presented in Fig. 8 for serial (A) and parallel (B) powering solenoids. If the flow of sparks (turn-to-turn capacitance discharge) occurs with a frequency of the resonance circuit, it will lead to the maintenance of sustained oscillations in the coil circuit. What you need to “move” the magnetic field. And the solenoids (electromagnets) would be to create a current, necessary to ensure initial fields that you want to “move”. Thus, a separate generator for resonance and a separate source of current for the solenoids is not required. The spark will be weak, since it does not commute any high current circuits.

**Powerful magnet - resonance frequency of zero**

This approach is a continuation of the ideas of solenoids and electric-radiant effect. Electro - Under floor heating effect is allowed to get rid of the generator and a separate power supply for the solenoids, to create a powerful alternating magnetic field to move the resonant coil (with appropriate spark supply frequency). However, the initial magnetic field in the solenoids can be quite weak. To strengthen it, and create a powerful permanent magnet used the idea of “resonance at zero frequency” or current accumulation – Fig. 8 (A).

**Fig. 8(A)** Illustration of the idea of “zero resonance frequency” or the current accumulation.
This idea is quite simple and consists in the discharge inter-turn capacitance diode in the shunt solenoids - Fig. 8 (A). The diode is used to maintain the current in the solenoids between discharges inter-turn capacitance. Each discharge inter-turn capacitance, the current in the solenoids is increased (in accordance with the energy conservation law), and increases the power output of the entire device. The increase in current (and power) will occur as long as the losses in the solenoids are equal to the input energy due to discharge inter-turn capacitance.

Shunt switching circuits for accumulating current diodes, in serial (A) and a parallel connection of coils (B) are shown in Fig. 8 (B).

This approach allows you to "squeeze out" of the electro-radiant effect almost everything, that is, the coil - resonant, solenoids - powerful electromagnet.

**ATTENTION:** Schemes shunt solenoids for specific devices may vary slightly (e.g., by grounding the middle point coils).

**Using the electromagnets as an output coil**

This approach is a continuation for electromagnets ideas and the electro-radiant effect. It would be interesting not to use the output coil and use the electromagnets for it, thus ensuring the interaction of the two orthogonal coils. In this case, the creation of an initial field (for "moving") and harvesting output energy are achieved by the same circuit elements.

To do this, you need to arrange things so that the "moving" magnetic field "presses" differently for each of the electromagnets, leading to the formation in them of different currents. To this end, electromagnets which are connected in series can be shunted by capacitor, and connected in parallel with the electromagnets used but with a somewhat different number of turns. The resulting voltage distribution on the common electromagnet will be changed.

![Diagram](image-url)
But, the use of symmetrical electromagnets is also possible.

**"Demagnetisation" - current amplification**

"Demagnetisation" or "switching magnetic flux" is a kind of asymmetrical interaction for orthogonal coils. For the two coils to interact one needs to create an initial magnetic field.

The simplest implementation of the scheme "demagnetisation" is based on E-shape ferromagnetic cores and is as follows. The coil which creates the original magnetic field, is wound on top of the E-type core. The demagnetising coil is wound on core as usual as shown in Fig.10. In the absence of current in the outer coil and the absence of current in the inner coil, they do not interact - the output EMF on the external coil is zero - Fig.10 (A).

If there is a current in the outer coil, and a current supplied to the inner coil, the magnetic flux in the ferromagnetic core is trying to close the external magnetic flux on itself. An external magnetic field begins to "fade". As a result, the current in the outer coil is increasing to compensate the "disappearing" magnetic field – Fig. 10 (B).
Fig. 12. The direction of the magnetic field inside the ferromagnetic core for magnetisation - (A) and demagnetisation - (B).

The output power depends on the same factors as mentioned earlier. There is no interaction without the initial magnetic field. Previously described interaction circuits without a divided output coil can also be considered a form of the principle of "demagnetisation" or current gain.

**Already known schematics**

The best known circuits are from Donald Smith’s presentations and mainly his pdf document. His most simple circuit is comprised of a resonant coil and an output coil, and electromagnets are used in parallel connection instead of magnets. An electro-radiant effect is used for excitation.

**Fig. 13.** Schematic from Donald Smith’s document.
It can be clearly seen from Fig. 14 that the output coil 6 (A) does not interact with the input "moving" resonant coil (6) and does not affect resonance. An electrical analogue of Donald Smith's schematic without using the electro-radiant effect is shown in Fig. 15.

Another of Donald Smith's schematics uses electromagnets instead of a single output coil. To be able to use electromagnets (7) as the output coil, they are made asymmetrical. Everything else is similar.
An electrical analogue of the Donald Smith's schematic without using the electro-radiant effect is shown in Fig. 17:

And, one more schematic of Don Smith device is shown here in Fig. 18. It has some errors, but those are not important for understanding the process. In this case, the solenoids are connected in series, and the electro–radiant effect is used for excitation of the initial current in them.
Fig. 18 Schematic from the Donald Smith document with serially connected electromagnets and electro–radiant excitation.

Fig. 19 Electrical analogue of the Donald Smith’s device, without using the electro-radiant effect.

And finally, the electro–mechanical device from Donald Smith - (A), and its possible schematic - (B) in Fig. 20.

Fig. 20 The electro–mechanical device from Donald Smith (A) and its possible schematic (B).

CONCLUSIONS

The presence of the original magnetic field is an important factor in the devices of "free energy", based on the interaction of the orthogonal coils (an asymmetrical transformer). There is no interaction between the coils without the initial magnetic field. This initial magnetic field can be created either by permanent magnets or electromagnets (possibly involving the electro-radiant effect).
As a special case, this field can be created by the initial current in the output coil. Which leads to the schematic of "degaussing" ("shifting, moving") with increasing initial current. Here, a "moving, switching, demagnetisation" current is used as the resonant current needed by the input coil. In this regard, we can recall the words of Donald Smith, when he says that the magnetic field is the primary force in electromagnetism. The meaning of his words become clear, namely that without the initial magnetic field, there is no interaction between orthogonal coils.

The effect described here has been known for many decades and has been used by many "free energy" researchers to create their own devices. They were independently "inventing and reinventing" the effect. However, there is a reason to believe that the first time it was used was with Nikola Tesla’s resonant transformer study (with spark excitation).

Also, given in the schematics, one could deliver other schematics and photographs of the various circuits and devices (both electrical and electromechanical), from a wide variety of authors, however, this work is not intended to be an encyclopaedia.

Instead, let us recall once again:

1. Energy conservation law is the result (not the reason) of symmetric interaction.
2. The easiest way to destroy the balanced interaction - to use an electromagnetic feedback in the field.
3. All asymmetrical systems are outside the area specified in the energy conservation law.
4. The Law of Conservation of Energy cannot be broken but it only applies to symmetrical interactions.

No private or state secrets are contained in this document which only uses open source material. Please note that all charts and diagrams are only provided as an aid to principles.

Our thanks go to Vladimir Utkin for freely sharing this important information.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
Using a motor-driven generator has been popular for a long time now. There are various types and styles and there is usually the desire to organise things so that the system is self-powered.

You have the simple, direct-coupled types where a second motor is used as a generator or a mains style of generator is used:

You will notice that two small flywheels are used in this system.

Then there is the style used by Chas Campbell of Australia where a large flywheel is used and pulleys allow for control of the speed of rotation as well as for alignment. Chas chooses to have his coupling spread out:

While José Luis García del Castillo prefers a more compact arrangement (which is presumably more difficult to construct and maintain:}
And then there is the very rough and ready style used by “Mr Wilson” of Texas where he took an old round table and converted it into a very heavy wooden flywheel by hammering nails into the circumference to form a very rough V shape:

![Flywheel and Motor/Generator Diagram](image)

And then there is the most simple looking style where the motor is coupled directly to the generator, which in this case is a motor:

![Motor and Alternator](image)

This last version is by far the most difficult to build as the shaft alignment has to be perfect and that requires:

1. The two shafts to be at exactly the same height.
2. The two shafts to be aligned exactly in the vertical plane.
3. The two shafts to be aligned exactly in the horizontal plane.

Achieving those three requirements simultaneously requires a skill level which I certainly don’t have. Please bear that in mind when we consider the next design which was built by John Bedini of America. John is an exceptionally talented and able developer. Unfortunately, his designs can look ever so simple but they are usually very subtle constructions as John is very intuitive and knowledgeable as well as being very persistent and patient. His designs usually need fine adjustments in order to achieve the remarkable performances which are routine for him. John never does anything without a reason and his initial build of a motor / generator, described by him in 1984 is dangerous because of the way that he chooses to use it and he states quite bluntly that using his technique can make the lead-acid battery explode. I do not recommend that you try to use John’s design in the way that he does as there is no need for involving a dangerous technique since a useful generator can be made and run perfectly safely.

I will try to explain John’s design and then go on to describe a simple version which most people would be able to understand, build and use safely. None of the drawings in this document are to scale and are included merely to aid understanding. It should be noted that John’s design has run quite literally, for years, keeping its own battery charged at all times. An American called Jim Wilson built an excessively large version of it and that produced twelve kilowatts of excess power as well as being self-powered. Ideally, we want to build something which is between those two sizes and which has a useful power output.
John’s design starts with a DC motor, which in the case of his first prototype is a General Electric permanent magnet, one-twelfth horsepower (62 watt) 12-volt motor which runs at 1100 rpm. That motor is coupled to a small, heavy flywheel:

This coupling arrangement has the difficulty of aligning the motor shaft exactly with the flywheel shaft and a flexible coupling would generally be used by most people as it is very difficult to align the shafts perfectly.

The inclusion of the flywheel is said to be in order to keep the motor running well when it is being pulsed rather than having a continuous feed of electricity from the battery. Please understand that John knows far more about free energy than I do. However, I am not sure that I would agree with that assessment of John’s as the motor is designed to rotate 1100 times in a period of one minute and that is 18 times per second and it seems unlikely to me that the armature inside the motor would not have sufficient weight to run smoothly when receiving several pushes per second.

I think that a flywheel draws energy in from the local gravitational field (although I can’t prove that and wouldn’t care even if I could). Every particle making up the rim of the flywheel is accelerating inwards towards its axle and that happens continuously when it rotates. Anyway, either way, John has a great working system whatever the reason. In passing, John is so expert with lead-acid batteries that he has tuned his unit so that the battery does not realise that it is powering a motor and that creates a problem because the battery is getting recharged without getting discharged and so needs a protection circuit to prevent it getting overcharged. That is a nice problem to have.

The rotating shaft turns a generator to produce a useful output. In the case of John’s prototype, he modified an American office 2-speed fan, using the housing for his own generator arrangement. The generator is a set of six permanent magnets spun in front of six coils of 200 turns each, of AWG 20 (21 SWG) wire of 0.81 mm diameter. The coils are connected in series, effectively making a 1200 turn coil which is pulsed by six separate magnets. Amazingly, the magnets are bonded to an aluminium disc. That seems strange as aluminium has major magnetic properties but the old phrase “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” applies and if you decide to attempt a direct replication of John’s generator, then do exactly what he does. The arrangement is like this, although only four of the six magnets can be seen as they are placed in a circle:

The coils have a metal core and Robert Adams stated that experimentation has shown that output coils should have a core whose cross-sectional area is four times the cross-sectional area of the rotor magnets. Robert also stated that the rotor magnets do not have to be exceptionally close when passing the coils and that a gap of 10 mm or so works well. This is an area where you can experiment to see what works best for your particular construction. John’s rotor construction is unusual as the North poles of the magnets bond to the aluminium disc and the South poles face the coils. I have seen the opinion expressed that North poles have four times the effect when passing power collection coils, that South poles have. But as always, if you are going to replicate something, then you do exactly the same, otherwise it is not a replication but instead is a notion of yours (quite possibly a notion that the inventor also had, tested, and found to be no use).

The next step for building this system is to arrange the connection of the output power from the generator. This is arranged to have the power going back to the battery for some of the time and for some of the remaining time the battery feeds power to the motor. This leaves me slightly puzzled. The output from the generator is available all of the time, but we seem to be abandoning it for half of the time and that doesn’t seem to make any kind of sense to me. With six output coils and six rotor magnets, each rotation feeds generator power to the battery while the six magnets pass three of the coils, but then, the generator output isn’t used while the magnets pass the next three of
the six coils. Huh? Maybe I’m missing something here – perhaps that 180 degrees of unused rotation store extra energy in the coils or a capacitor which John does not show, but that seems unlikely to me. However, John only shows the system running itself and no indication at all of where any excess energy might be drawn from the system, although, presumably, a load could be powered directly from the battery which is powering the motor.

Anyway, the best switching arrangement for John has been to use a mechanical switch which acts as a single pole changeover switch mounted on the shaft of the motor (and electrically insulated from the shaft). First, the switch connects the battery Plus through to the Plus of the motor, causing it to rotate, as the battery Minus is permanently connected to the motor Minus. Current then flows from the battery, through the switch and into the motor (although John has his system so well tuned that he says that the battery supplies voltage but gets disconnected before any actual current has time to flow out of the battery). Then, just before 180 degrees of rotation have occurred, the switch opens and then connects the generator output through to the battery, with current flowing in the other direction through the switch. Timing in these systems is generally related to the position of the motor shaft and so each full turn is considered to be a timing of 360 degrees:

From 0 degrees to 100 degrees or less

From 180 degrees to 280 degrees or less

For this switching, John uses this arrangement which is known as a commutator:

As the inner circle is electrically connected to the dark (copper) strip at the top which spans approximately 100 degrees around the circumference, sliding contact 1 is electrically connected to sliding contact 2 in the position shown above. When the disc rotates so that the copper strip no longer touches sliding contact 2, there is a period of about 80 degrees of rotation where there is no connection between any of the contacts. When the copper strip reaches sliding contact 3, then sliding contact 1 is connected to sliding contact 3. That arrangement is the equivalent of a single pole changeover switch. That switching system is mounted on the shaft of the motor but insulated from the motor shaft to avoid short circuits through the motor itself. However, contacts 2 and 3 shown above are adjustable in position so that the duration and timing of the pulses can be altered to some degree.
John says that he tunes his design by adjusting the feedback to resonate with the ions inside the battery. In my opinion that is highly dangerous and I would not for one moment suggest that you do anything remotely like that. That is why John recommends the use of protective clothing, eye shields and enclosing the battery in a very strong box to contain the acid if your fooling around with battery acid resonance strays into a danger area. It is not at all necessary to do what John does. How he does the adjustment is by putting a variable capacitor across the generator output and he adds a meter to show how his adjustments are affecting the operation, both when he alters the setting of the capacitor and when he alters the position of the commutator brush which feeds power back to the battery. The arrangement is like this:

![Diagram of Motor - Generator system](image)

So, to clarify the operation, the constructor is expected to adjust the variable capacitor and the duration and timing of the commutator switching on the motor shaft to get the exact combination which resonates with the acid in your particular battery. There is no indication of how these adjustments are best made or exactly what the meter would show when the optimum setting has been reached.

I personally do NOT recommend that you try to achieve battery acid resonance and I stress that if you choose to do so, then the results of your decision are yours and yours alone and nobody else is in any way responsible for what happens. If you succeed in replicating John's exact system, then congratulations to you, but please be very clear that I do not recommend it. Later on in this document I will be showing you a very effective and safe system for constructing a Motor - Generator system.

Alright, so far we have covered the general outline of a Motor - Generator system, from the most simple version using two motors with one being the ‘generator’ through to the very sophisticated Bedini design. We now have to choose which version is easiest for us to build and which will give us the greatest output power. However, let us consider some practical details.

I would suggest that we avoid trying to align shafts exactly and instead, use pulleys and belts as those are easier to align correctly as well as giving the ability to gear the speed of rotation up or down (although in John Bedini’s case, the ratio is 1-to-1). In these days when 3D printers are becoming widespread, if you can’t find the pulley you want, then a friend with a 3D printer can make one for you (3D printer maximum diameter is likely to be 220 mm). A friend who owns a lathe or alternatively a local steel fabrication company could also make any pulley wheel that you want. If those options are not possible for you, then you can actually make a pulley wheel by hand – a fact which in these days of automation, may not occur to you.

Making an accurate flywheel sounds difficult, but there are many things on the market which can be adapted to act as a flywheel. For example, dumbbells are low cost and very suitable:

![Dumbbell](image)
These come with a mounting bar and clamps and using only half of the bar, can give 5, 10, 15 or 20 kilograms on the half shaft. It should also be possible to convert one of the smaller discs into a pulley if you feel like doing that. You can also get a flywheel made up by a local steel fabrication shop, or a friend with a metal-cutting lathe could make one for you.

If you are inclined to put dumbbell discs on to a threaded steel rod or plain steel circular bar then the alignment can be helped by using a stack of the weights and some electrical tape. Decide where you want the first disc to be located on the bar. That is, what length of bar you want sticking out of the disc. The thickness of one disc further along the bar towards its end, wind electrical tape tightly around the bar and keep winding until the tape is a reasonably tight fit in the central hole of one of the discs and position a disc there. That places the rod central to the hole in the disc. Just above that disc put a piece of card which has a hole which is a tight fit on the rod and is wider than the hole in every direction. Measure all of the discs of that size which you have and measure along the bar to where the last disc would be if all those discs were placed in a stack on the bar. Wind more electrical tape to form a plug for the disc hole of the top disc in the stack. Supporting one disc on a pile of books or some other suitable packing which allows the axle shaft to be vertical, put one disc on top of the card on the rod and fill in around the shaft with epoxy resin. Then place all the other discs on the rod to form a perfect stack, using a straight edge all around the stack to ensure that the discs are exactly on top of each other. The electrical tape rings at top and bottom give exact alignment provided that the discs are all aligned exactly:

When the epoxy has gone hard, you can remove the upper discs and the bottom disc and remove the card which will be stuck to the epoxy and which will need to be cut away and sanded smooth. Treating the glued disc as the bottom one, as many discs as you want can be epoxied to the axle shaft in a single operation, ideally keeping an extra disc at the top centred with a ring of electrical insulation tape. Use slow setting epoxy and be sure to fill all of the gap between the axle shaft and the inside of the discs with no air voids in the epoxy and make sure that the stack of discs are exactly aligned, checking all around with your straight edge:

When the epoxy has set, you end up with an accurate, properly centred and squared flywheel:
If you are careful to get the centring and perpendicular angles right, it is possible to use a deep circular biscuit or sweets tin as a mould and with a central hole in both the bottom and the lid, fill the tin completely with a mortar mixture of sand, cement and water, using the lid to give you the exact alignment of the shaft which could be a threaded rod or a steel or brass bar:

If using that method of construction, you might like to paint the tin if you are not keen on the manufacturer’s decoration of the container. But, no matter what the flywheel looks like, the important thing is that it is balanced and aligned squarely so that when it is spun fast, there are no wobbles or wavering of the flywheel edge as that generates stress on the mountings. The flywheel axle should not be less than 10 mm diameter steel and anything up to 20 mm would be good. Consider the available pulleys and buy what you need before choosing the diameter of the axle.

http://www.bellingonline.com/vee-pulleys-273/spb-section-v-pulleys-682/1-groove-spb-pulley-699/?zenid=adem9c and others have a wide range of pulleys. Please remember that your drive motor will need a pulley which is made for a very different shaft diameter.

It would be nice to take advantage of the energy gain available from having different pulley diameters on the flywheel shaft and the generator shaft if that is possible, but if replicating John Bedini’s design, keep the pulley ratios exactly the same.

As the flywheel is the biggest and heaviest thing in this construction, we start with it. We use a thick base board for mounting the various items, and we need powerful brackets to support the flywheel axle, which should be mounted in ball or roller bearings. We want the axle to be exactly horizontal so that there is no sideways force trying to push the axle through its bearings.

Common bearing sizes in Europe are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Inner diameter</th>
<th>Outer diameter</th>
<th>Thickness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6000</td>
<td>10 mm</td>
<td>26 mm</td>
<td>8 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6001</td>
<td>12 mm</td>
<td>26 mm</td>
<td>8 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6002</td>
<td>15 mm</td>
<td>32 mm</td>
<td>9 mm</td>
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<tr>
<td>6003</td>
<td>17 mm</td>
<td>35 mm</td>
<td>10 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6004</td>
<td>20 mm</td>
<td>42 mm</td>
<td>12 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6005</td>
<td>25 mm</td>
<td>48 mm</td>
<td>12 mm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These bearings have a rubber seal to keep dust and dirt out of the grease packed around the ball bearings inside and that spoils the free movement. One way to overcome this has the bearing outer ring clamped stationary and
an electric drill used to spin the inner ring until the movement becomes low-friction. An alternative method is to discard the rubber seals and remove the grease by immersing the bearing in paraffin (known as ‘kerosene’ in America). Then the ball bearings or rollers inside the bearing are lightly oiled to give a very free-running bearing. As our bearings are on an axle which is supporting a heavy flywheel spun by a motor, the bearings should wear in reasonably soon even if they are not made free running beforehand.

The next thing to do is to make the supports for the flywheel. When the flywheel is spinning it has a lot of energy in it, so we want the flywheel supports to be robust and so I suggest using material which is at least 9 mm thick and preferably thicker than that.

Measure the diameter of your flywheel – probably 200 to 250 mm. Divide by 2 to get the radius “R” and add 30 mm to R as the height which the flywheel will be above the base board. Mark your material one and a half times R in from the edge and a point R + 30 mm above it. That is to be the centre of the axle. Draw a line 80 mm long at a height of 50 mm above the axle, and join the ends to the base like this:

Mark the diameter of your bearing centred on the axle point and then cut out that circle using a coping saw or a jigsaw, being sure to keep the blade perpendicular to the sheet material. If possible, stay slightly inside the circle and then use a wood rasp or coarse sandpaper to produce a perfect circle of exactly the right size so that the bearing is a tight push fit in the hole.

Next, measure a distance of 1.5R + 10 mm (if your flywheel has a diameter of 200 mm then this distance would be 160 mm) in from the edge of a sheet of material and in a distance of 60 mm and mark that point as it is the axle position for the second side support:

Mark a bearing circle, cut it out and insert the second bearing into that hole. Place a piece of axle material (or a length of dowel of exactly the same diameter) in the bearing and position the first side so that the axle material passes through both bearings, aligning them exactly. Mark around the edges of the first side, being very careful when marking the edge which will become the base of the second side:
Cut out the marked lines and work the bottom edge very carefully to make it exactly the same as the first side as that ensures that the axle will be exactly horizontal.

Attach one side to the base board using a piece of timber 50 x 50 mm x the length of the side. Attach a similar piece of wood to the bottom edge of the second side and attach it firmly. Pass the axle through the first side, then thread the second side on to the axle and attach the second side to the base board:

Using a belt and pulley link between the drive motor and the flywheel allows the link to be constructed by the average person, however, great care is needed to get the alignment right. First, the pulley wheels are attached to the flywheel shaft and the motor spindle. Then the drive belt is looped over the pulleys and the motor moved to make the belt fairly tight. Parallel lines drawn on the baseboard makes it easier to get the axis of the motor and the axis of the flywheel exactly parallel. You can then move the motor slowly forward to where it is clearly in the wrong position. Mark that point. Edge the motor slowly back until it is again clearly misaligned. Mark that point. The correct position will be very close to the position half way between those two marks.

Use a set square (or fold a piece of paper to form an exact right angle) and mark the base board exactly underneath both sides of the flywheel pulley and draw two lines at right angles to the flywheel axis, going through those two points. If the motor is aligned correctly, then the belt should be exactly above and between those two lines:
When the motor is positioned exactly, hold it in position and mark the positions of the retaining bolts or screws. Removing the motor, drill holes if using bolts or very carefully start the retaining screws into the base board. Then replace the motor and bolt or screw it in position with the drive belt running over both pulleys.

John Bedini’s design calls for the generator rotor to be directly attached to the flywheel shaft. This is an aluminium disc with magnets attached to it. As the disc rotates very fast, the magnets need to be very firmly attached to the aluminium. In spite of the fact that aluminium has a major damping effect on magnetic fields, magnets do not stick to aluminium and so a strong mechanical bond is needed. John’s drawing shows the magnets inset into a thick aluminium plate. That is not impossible, especially if small diameter magnets are used, but the magnetic field will be different if the magnets are surrounded by aluminium on all sides except their South pole faces. For example, if backed by aluminium and encased in epoxy resin will produce a different shape of magnetic field, and although that form of construction is much easier, I suggest doing it the way that John’s sketch indicates.

If you have a drill press, you should be able to drill accurately enough to make construction easy. Otherwise, as we want a perfectly balanced rotor for high speed rotation, we can drill the axle hole and then measuring out from the hole, mark the edge of the disc and then cut it out. Neodymium disc magnets of 10 mm diameter and grade N52 would be convenient as a 10 mm diameter drill bit fits into most household drills and the diameter of the corresponding coil cores can be 20 mm to give four times the cross-sectional area of the magnet. The rotor can be constructed like this:

Here, two 5 mm thick discs of aluminium are bolted together and to the flywheel pulley, being careful to ensure that the bolts are in positions which balance the rotor disc. The red strip under the magnets indicates glue with “Impact” Evostick being the preferred glue as it is very powerful and sticks to smooth metal better than epoxy does. The blue strip indicates a thin sheet of rigid plastic covering the rotor face and enclosing the six magnets. Following what Robert Adam said after years of experimentation, I suggest that there is a 10 mm clearance between the face of the magnets and the coil cores which they energise. The coils have 200 turns of 0.8 mm diameter wire and being power gathering coils, it would be normal to have them 50% wider than they are deep as that gives a better sweep of the rotor magnet flux through the coils.

In John’s design, all of the six coils are connected “in series”, that is, in a chain and if John’s documentation shows his system correctly, then there is no rectification or storage capacitor. However, as the generator power is being fed back to a battery which has definite Plus and Minus connections, I personally would use four UF5408 diodes in a bridge, feeding a 35-volt 22000 microfarad capacitor. Please understand that I do not recommend that you build John Bedini’s acid pulsing design as this document will go on to describe a highly effective and much safer motor-generator design.

Let me remind you of what John Bedini says in his document: “I must give a very stern warning at this time that if the voltage developed is too high, the battery will explode. Use the utmost care. Test setups in my lab have proved that this can be dangerous. Do not build the device and experiment with it unless you know what you are doing. The ions in the electrolyte are being stressed. The electrolyte in the battery goes wild and the ions race backwards giving off hydrogen and oxygen gas. I must make a stern warning here. The time of the stimulating pulse is very important. If the time is too long the battery will burn itself out. If the pulse time is too short the battery will never recover its charge. We must remember that, if the battery is applied to the energiser longer than normal, we must burn up the excess energy to keep the battery cool. The problem becomes one of an embarrassing excess of energy, not a shortage”.

So, let me stress again that although John’s system has a flywheel, it is not primarily a device for extracting energy from gravity. While it has an electrical generator it does not feed the energy generated continuously back
to the battery to recharge it. Instead, it is a system intended to push resonant pulses into a lead-acid battery to make the battery electrolyte behave in a way which is very far removed from the way that a lead-acid battery is expected to perform. As I have already said, I do not encourage you to do that as I consider it to be both dangerous and unnecessary.

There are alternative ways of using this equipment. The flywheel axle could extend through John’s generator rotor and have one or more other rotors mounted on it, energising additional stator coils. The commutator could be scrapped and a battery voltage sensing switch used to recharge the battery conventionally (and safely) from the generator and when fully charged again, switch to charging a second battery. The flywheel could be geared differently, spinning a separate generator with an increase in rotational speed due to the flywheel axle having a larger pulley than the pulley on the generator. However, let me suggest a method to experiment with.

The pulsed wheel system described in chapter 17 has a proven output which is three times greater than the input needed to make it operate. The drive for that wheel is by coil pulsing which is not affected by the Lenz Law effect and so is efficient. If we use an ordinary commercial motor to drive the rotor, then we will have to accept the drag described by Lenz. However, John Bedini is undoubtedly very experienced and you will notice that in his design he drives his motor with pulses:

And in the suggested pulsing diagram the pulses powering the motor are only 28% of the time, which means that the motor is not being powered for three quarters of the time. That fact reduces the current needed to keep the generator running. The recharging pulses applied to the battery are only applied for about one third of the time. Mind you, John is using those battery-charging pulses to achieve resonant charging.

It may be that as each output coil is disconnected when every second magnet passes by them, that may store additional energy in the coil, making the following actual output pulse more powerful. Although John’s designs are frequently based on subtle physical arrangements, I suggest that we do not actually attempt to follow his design exactly, so please understand clearly that the following description is not an attempt to replicate John Bedini’s design directly, but instead to create a somewhat similar configuration. It would be really nice to eliminate the battery in spite of the fact that John views the battery itself to be a free-energy generator. So, I would suggest that we dispense with the commutator switching and use an ordinary “Pulse-Width Modulator” (“PWM”) which is often called a “DC Motor Speed Controller”. While we are testing the device, we will use a battery although we aim to operate without it when the system is completed. The initial arrangement is like this:

The 12V battery power supply to the motor passes through the “PWM” controller which switches the current On and Off many times per second. The ratio of the On timer to the Off time is called the Mark/Space ratio and it controls the amount of power fed to the motor.
The John Bedini arrangement has just six magnets and six coils, but for this application I suggest using twelve magnets and twelve coils. The first step is to try to get the system running on part of its own output. In this case we are not trying to feed the highest possible voltage spikes into a battery, but instead are trying to generate a suitable power supply for the motor.

For this, we take the output from one coil, rectify it with four 1N5408 high-speed diodes and feed the output into a capacitor. A voltmeter across the capacitor shows what voltage is being developed. As the output voltage is almost certainly less than the motor needs, the coil is replaced with two coils connected in series and the voltage measured again. If, perhaps, it takes four coils to get to the motor voltage or higher, then the motor input is quickly switched from the battery to the coil power supply from the four coils.

The coil output is probably not sufficient although adjusting the PWM setting might be able to compensate for that. After all, if it can run on its own output, then we really don’t care how efficient or inefficient the motor drive is as long as it works. However, assuming that no PWM setting allows the motor to continue running, connect four more coils in series and put them across the first set of four coils. Be sure to connect the two sets of coils with the finish of coil 1 connecting to the start of coil 2, the end of coil 2 connected to the start of coil 3, etc. Connecting the coils in series raises the output voltage fed to the motor and connecting the two chains in parallel raises the output current.

Get the motor speed up again using the battery and then try again with the eight coils. If necessary, the PWM controller can by bypassed and the coils connected direct to the motor. If the motor runs okay with that arrangement, then you have a self-powered generator and the four remaining coils form a free-energy electrical output. If it is found that all twelve coils are needed to keep the motor running, then either or both of the next two options should produce success. You can raise the voltage from every coil by increasing the number of turns on each coil. I would suggest doubling the length of wire in each coil. And/or put an identical rotor and stator arrangement on the other end of the flywheel shaft, giving you an additional twelve coil output.

Please remember that this is only a suggestion and has not been built and tested at this time. If you do build and test it, then please let me know how you get on at engpj (at) gmail (dot) com.

The diode bridge can be constructed without needing to solder as ordinary electrical connector strips can be used:

Here, we have the connections for using one coil, two coils or three coils although any number of coils connected in series can be used.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 18: Building An Impulse Generator

Many people have the mistaken impression that it is not possible to extract useful power from what they call “gravity”. They say that a falling weight can indeed do useful work, but then the weight has to be raised again in order to perform more useful work. This is, of course, a very mistaken impression, especially since useful work has been produced by practical devices for many centuries now. Water flows downhill under the influence of “gravity” and that water flow powers water mills which grind grain, operate bellows and power hammers. It also powers massive hydro-electric schemes producing many megawatts of electrical energy, so please don’t tell me that “gravity” can’t do useful work.

The argument about a falling weight needing to be raised up again before it can do ‘useful work’ again certainly sounds reasonable, but in 1939 William Skinner of America demonstrated that it is possible to have a weight fall continuously without the weight getting nearer to the ground. Initially, that sounds impossible, but it is not impossible if the weight is always falling sideways. William produced substantial power by moving the top of a weighted shaft around in a circle. That unbalances the weight and it falls sideways to reach a stable position. But the weight never gets there because the top of the shaft is moved continuously to prevent that happening:

William’s video is at: http://www.britishpathe.com/video/gravity-power and the principle has been taken up recently in the patent application US2014/0196567 of David W. John who shows several variations of that basic arrangement, including this one:
This is the same as William Skinner’s method as the top of the shaft is moved in a circle and the weights follow the top of the shaft, falling continuously in a circular path at a far greater level of power than is required to move the top of the shaft. This demonstrates very clearly that it is certainly possible to extract useful work from what we call “gravity”. (in passing, there is no such thing as ‘gravity’ which pulls things towards the Earth, the reality is that the effect is actually an imbalance in the universal energy field in which we live, and that imbalance is a push towards the Earth as Newton correctly deduced. The universal energy field is called the zero-point energy field, the aether or any one of many other names).

This, however, is only one of the factors involved in the energy gain produced by this generator as we have inertia and acceleration to consider as well. Let’s start with acceleration. There is an excellent lecture by Mike Waters here: http://world-harmony.com/max-velocity-turbine/ although the video quality is not by any means perfect.

Mike describes a simple wind turbine design of his which is highly efficient. He points out that as wind flows past an obstruction, it speeds up. He uses this fact to boost the performance of his wind turbine. Next, he puts the turbine blades as far from the axle as possible in order to get the largest lever arm for the wind force on the turbine blades. The design is a simple circular disc forming the obstacle for the wind, and turbine blades mounted around the circumference of the disc.
The performance is most impressive with the generator producing power at a wind speed of just 1 kilometre per hour. To understand that, consider the fact that you can walk a kilometre in about ten minutes, so a wind speed of one kilometre per hour is only one sixth of your walking speed.

Mike points out that the force turning the generator is proportional to the square of the wind velocity. That means if the wind speed doubles, then the force powering the generator goes up by a factor of four. If the wind speed catches up to your walking speed, then his generator output would increase by a factor of 36 times. So the main point here is that any acceleration boosts the generator output. So, just to get the operation clear in your mind, Mike’s wind turbine has the wind flowing directly on to the circular plate and to get past it, the wind accelerates sideways to flow around the plate and continue on along its normal flow path. However, the wind accelerates as it moves sideways and so is moving faster than the general wind speed when it reaches the turbine blades at the edge of the disc and so provides a substantial energy boost to the rotor disc. That action, of course, is not limited to wind generators.

Engineers get the impression that a flywheel is just a storage device for kinetic energy and while a flywheel does indeed store energy, even to the extent that some city buses are powered by a flywheel, that is not the only important thing that flywheels do – they also rotate on an axle. Big shock! Flywheels rotate on a pivot point. I would be very surprised if you didn’t already know that. But, are you aware that rotation at a constant speed produces continuous acceleration? Like the William Skinner design, it takes some explaining as to how a constant rotational speed produces acceleration. It’s all Newton’s fault!!

Newton pointed out that if something is started moving, then it will continue moving in a straight line until some force or other acts on it to change its movement. This is a little difficult to understand as we live on a planet whose ‘gravity’ affects all moving objects very considerably, and the air surrounding the planet also acts on moving objects very considerably. We are so used to these things that we find it difficult to understand that in deep space an object will tend to continue moving in a straight line for a very long time indeed.

Suppose then, that we have a flywheel and we have glued a block of steel to the rim. We spin the flywheel at a speed so high that the glue joint breaks and the steel block flies off on its own. It would be like this:

![Diagram of a flywheel and steel block](image)

The steel block flies off (horizontally in this case) as shown by the red arrow. That is what the steel block would do if left alone and not bothered by any other forces. But, if the glue joint did not fail, being attached to the flywheel, the steel block would be in the position shown by the blue arrow. University professors who specialise in this subject, describe this as “an acceleration” inwards along the blue line, so although the flywheel is rotating at a constant speed, every molecule of steel in the flywheel is constantly accelerating inwards and acceleration produces an increase in energy. The larger the flywheel, the greater the effect.

There is also another factor which is often ignored and that is inertial impact (the impact of two things colliding) and the energy gain from that is substantial. To give you some idea of how powerful this is, if you spin an unbalanced rotor it produces twenty times more thrust than the engine of a jet aircraft. For example, John Bedini has run a small motor/generator in self-powered mode for years on end, using both a small flywheel and the inertial drive of a pulsed DC motor.
The DC motor is provided power in three short pulses per turn of the motor shaft, the switching being performed by contacts on the motor shaft. The timing of the pulses is like this:

We need to be careful not to underestimate the effect of inertial impulses, and John's pulsing of his DC motor causes it to keep the flywheel spinning for three times longer than the duration of the pulses. There is a distinct inertial gain in energy when the motor is suddenly powered and applies a short thrust to the flywheel axle. In passing, it might be noticed that while those motor pulses are only there for a quarter of the time, the motor is receiving some 3000 pulses per second, so the energy gain from the pulsing seems almost continuous.

So, overall, we can get an energy gain from ‘gravity’ and from acceleration and from inertia. Chas Campbell of Australia who is experienced in building successful gravity-powered generators has very kindly agreed to explain to us, step by step, how to construct a self-powered generator of his latest design. Initially, Chas built a very successful motor/generator design which is described in chapter 4 and which looks like this:
Driven by an AC mains motor, once running, this generator can be powered from its own output and when powered like that it can also supply power for other pieces of equipment. That generator gains power from the acceleration effect of the flywheel and from the inertial impacts of the mains motor pushing one hundred times per second. In my opinion, it would probably work more effectively if powered through a mains dimmer light switch. Those switches are available in powers of up to one kilowatt and they can be turned down slightly to give a more noticeable On/Off effect for those one hundred pulses per second.

However, Chas has very kindly agreed to share his latest flywheel design so that anyone who wants can make and use one for himself. As people’s circumstances and skill levels vary so much around the world, we will explain three different ways to build his design – two ways when building in steel and one when building using wood.

Chas’ latest design uses either two or three flywheels – one large one to drive the output generator and either one or two small flywheels to keep the large flywheel rotating. An additional inertial effect is produced as the small flywheels use a drive mechanism which is not continuous. The arrangement looks like this in broad outline:
Here, the large flywheel "A" is supported on a triangular frame "D" and smaller flywheels "C" and possibly "B" give the large flywheel a brief push on its way twice per revolution. The target speed of rotation for the large flywheel is just one revolution per second, so this is not an intimidating generator design and it is well within the constructional ability of most people.

To be really effective, a gravity-powered generator has to be heavy (and usually, large in size as a result of the weight) and so, although alternative methods can be used, it is normally built in welded mild steel. If you have never built anything in steel, let me assure you that it is not a difficult thing to do, and yes, I have built in steel, starting as a total beginner. However, while mild steel is easy to work and weld, stainless steel is much, much more difficult, so avoid stainless steel. Steel pieces are cut and shaped using an angle grinder like this:

And while the picture shows a handle sticking out of the side of the grinder so that you can use two hands, it is generally more convenient to remove the handle and just hold the grinder in just one hand as it is not heavy. When working steel, wear a pair of "rigger" gloves which are strong, reinforced gloves which will protect your hands from sharp steel edges and always wear eye protection.

If you are going to be drilling steel, then a mains powered drill is needed as battery-powered drills are just not up to the job unless it is just a single hole. When drilling steel it is helpful to have an additional hand grip.

With the drill shown above, the hand grip clamps on to the ring just behind the chuck and can be set at any angle. Steel pieces are joined together by welding. Some welders are quite cheap. Most types can be hired for a day or half a day. It is also possible to shape the pieces and have a local steel fabrication workshop weld them together for you and making a good welded joint takes only a second or two. The really vital thing is never look at a weld being made unless you are wearing a welding visor or welding goggles, as you can damage your eyesight looking at a welding arc without protection.

If you decide to buy a welder, then be sure to get one which will run on your house mains supply, otherwise you have to upgrade your house wiring to carry the higher current. This welder would be suitable, and at the start of 2016 it costs only £60 including tax which is about 82 euros or US $90.
With this “stick welder” the silver clamp on the right is attached to the metal to be welded and a 2.3 mm diameter coated welding rod placed in the black clamp on the left. The stick is then applied to the welding area and the coating on the welding rod becomes a gas cloud, shielding the hot metal from the oxygen in the air. When the weld has cooled down, there will be a layer of oxide on the outside of the joint and so the back of the wire brush is used as a hammer to break up the layer and the wire brush used to scrub the joint clean.

However, the most important item of equipment for anyone doing welding work is a protective helmet. There are many different designs and widely varying costs. Many professional welders choose one of the cheapest types which look like this:

This type has a clear glass screen and a hinged safety filter to allow safe welding. Professionals adjust the hinge tension so that the filter can only just stay in its raised position. The welder then positions the joint pieces in their exactly correct position while looking through the plain glass, and when ready to start the weld he just nods his head which makes the filter drop into place and the weld is started. Never, ever, try welding without proper eye protection

The large flywheel which Chas prefers, looks something like this:
The wheel has a diameter of two metres (six and a half feet) and is a central hub with an axle, eight spokes of 50 x 50 mm steel box section welded to the 200 mm diameter hub and to the rim of the wheel. What is unusual about this design is that the axle bar is stationary and the flywheel rotates around it. However, bearing in mind that some people building this generator will be located where there are no local steel fabrication businesses, Chas has produced a much more simple design which will work well using straight edges like this:
For this construction, each of the eight spokes has a square-cut length of 100 x 100 x 8 mm angle iron welded to it. The angle iron which weighs about 12.276 Kg per metre is shaped like this:

Welding is easy to learn and it is a brilliant method of construction ... but it has one major problem. When a joint is made the two pieces of steel melt and merge together. This can happen in a tenth of a second. Don't put your finger on the joint to see if it is still hot; if it is, then you will get a painful burn and that should remind you not to do that again. That heat is the problem, because when steel gets hot it expands, and when it cools down it contracts. That means that if you were to set up a piece of steel at exactly a right angles and weld the pieces together then as the joint cools down it contracts and pulls the joint out of alignment:

Please don't imagine that you can just push the vertical piece back into position as that isn't going to happen because the joint is instantly very, very strong. Instead, you use two quick welds of equal size, with the second one being 180 degrees opposite the first one:

Then, as the welds cool down, they pull in opposing directions and while it produces stresses in the metal, the vertical piece stays vertical. Let the welds cool down in their own good time, taking perhaps ten minutes to cool properly. Do not apply water to the welds to speed up the cooling as that actually alters the structure of the steel and you really don't want to do that.

Metal can be cut quite readily using a cutting blade in your angle grinder but be sure to install the blade so that it rotates in the direction shown on the blade. The blade is likely to look something like this:
When cutting or grinding always wear protective goggles to make sure that you don’t get a metal fragment in your eye – eyes are not readily replaceable!! If you do get a small steel fragment in your eye, remember that steel is highly magnetic and so a magnet may help in getting the fragment out with the minimum of damage, however, it is much, much easier to wear goggles and not have the problem in the first place.

For this generator, we start by making the hub. While a circular shape can be produced using simple tools, there is actually no need and so we can just use straight edges which are much easier to produce. So, for this, we cut a square of metal 350 mm along each face:

This is an important structural component and so it would be good if the metal was 10 mm thick or even thicker. We need to construct an arrangement where the 2-metre diameter flywheel is supported on two 16010 bearings which have an inner diameter of 50 mm, an outer diameter of 80 mm and a thickness of 10 mm. For this, a length of mild steel pipe needs to be inserted through the hub plate and welded in position at exactly right angles to the hub plate. But, for the moment, back to our square piece of steel which we intend to become the hub plate of our main flywheel. Draw diagonals from the corners to establish where the centre of the square is, then mark a 90 mm square centred exactly on that centre point, and draw a vertical and horizontal line, like this:

Measure 175 mm out along the diagonals and mark each of those four points. Then, connect those points to make an even octagon:
We need to pass a mild steel pipe through the plate in the centre of the square, and we are not going to put in any additional work on the hub plate until we have the pipe in place and its welding is confirmed to be accurate. The pipe is needed to give the thin hub plate stability when rotating around the 50 mm diameter axle shaft, and so, it should be at least 100 mm (4-inches) long when installed. There is a mild steel pipe with 80.78 mm inner diameter and an outer diameter of 88.9 mm and a wall thickness of 4.06 mm. That gives a clearance of just 0.39 mm all around the bearing and allows the bearing to be tack welded directly to the pipe which has a robust wall thickness.

Cut a 300 mm length of the pipe and position it carefully in the centre of the square marked in the middle of the hub plate. Draw carefully around it to show the size and position where the pipe needs to go. We now have the difficulty of getting the pipe through the hub plate. With a powerful plasma cutter that would be no problem and the circular cut could be made quite easily, but it is definitely too expensive to buy one for just that one cut, although hiring one and an air compressor for a morning might be an option.

With the most simple tools you could cut out the largest possible square in the centre of the circle and then use a round file (and a lot of effort) to cut back the remaining metal to make the required circle. A more crude method is to just cut out a square and settle for welding the pipe at the four points where it touches the hub plate. Remember that the moment the weld is made on one side of the hub plate, the other side of the hub plate needs to be welded immediately and both allowed to cool as slowly as possible to avoid heat shrinkage pulling the pipe out of its alignment with the hub plate. Remember that the hub plate will be hot enough to burn you even if the weld only took a split second to make, so take care. In other words, if the pipe is vertical, then (almost) simultaneous welds need to be made on the top of the hub plate and on the underside of the hub plate. The thicker the steel, the easier it is to weld without problems and the pipe is straightforward to weld with its 4 mm thickness. It takes a great deal of skill to weld steel sheet of 1 mm thickness without tearing a hole in the sheet, but thankfully, that is not something which you need to do with this design.

Before welding, we need to stand the pipe piece exactly vertical to the hub plate, with 50 mm projecting beyond the hub plate. This can be done easily with four permanent magnet units intended specifically for this job. They are very powerful and look like this:

![Magnetic holders](image)

These attach strongly to both the pipe and the hub plate and with one every 90 degrees around the axle, it is held very securely in place, leaving plenty of space for the initial welds. In early 2016, a set of four of these right-angle magnets costs £10 in the UK.

Having tack-welded the pipe carefully and quickly on both sides, using welds only 6 mm or so long, and having waited for those welds to cool down fully, make two additional tack welds at 180 degrees to the first two, and then two more pairs so as to have a weld every 90 degrees around the pipe. This leaves you with 50 mm of pipe
sticking out of one side of the hub plate and 240 mm sticking out of the other side. We will cut off the excess to leave 50 mm sticking out of both sides. It is surprisingly difficult to cut a circular bar or pipe off at right angles. I suggest that you remove the magnets and mark the 50 mm position and the wrap a sheet of rectangular paper such as an A4 size sheet of printer paper, tightly around the pipe. Make absolutely sure that the paper is tight and aligns exactly when wrapped around the pipe for the full length of the long side of the paper. Mark carefully around the end of the paper and that gives you a clean circular line around the pipe at exactly right angles to the pipe. Remove the paper and do NOT attempt to cut through the pipe from one side. Instead, make a series of short cuts exactly on the line. Make one cut of perhaps 20 mm, then stop, move on 20 mm and make another 20 mm cut. When you get back to your starting point, continue the process to join up your cuts and remove the excess section of the pipe. If necessary, smooth the end of the cut pipe very slightly with your angle grinder. Do not over do that smoothing and remember to use goggles for both cutting and smoothing.

Check your work to make sure that it is square and accurate, as the spokes will amplify any inaccuracies. When the welds have cooled, remove the magnets, turn the construction upside down, supporting it however you wish – a cheap workmate like this:

![Workmate](image)

makes a good support for this work and it allows the pipe to be gripped securely while the hub plate is resting horizontally on the bench. The second half of the axle shaft is then positioned very carefully and accurately over the centre of the hub plate, secured with the magnets and tack welded in place.

Even though the flywheel will only be rotating once per second, we now reach the most critical part of its construction, namely, checking that the work so far is accurate enough. For this we use two temporary pieces of notched timber clamped in the bench to support the shaft horizontally so that it can be spun. Spin the shaft and watch the hub plate very carefully. The plate should spin with no sideways movement at all. This is essential because the wheel spokes will amplify any error many times. If the result is good, then award yourself a pat on the back. If there is some sideways movement, then scrap the work and start again with another hub plate and piece of pipe.

If the work is accurate, then grip the pipe in the workmate and cut off the projecting pieces of the hub plate to form a clean octagon:

![Octagon](image)

With two spokes welded to the central hub the basic construction will look like this:
The spokes are made with 50 mm x 50 mm steel box section which has good rigidity in all directions. As the overall diameter is 2000 mm that means that the length around the rim will be 2000 x 3.1416 = 6283 mm (if construction is very accurate) and the rim angle iron will have a weight of about 77.13 kilos (170 pounds) which means that in the later stages of building this flywheel most people will need a second person to help lift and manoeuvre it into position. The flywheel weight can easily be increased at any later date by welding additional steel pieces to the inside of the rim – just remember to keep the wheel perfectly symmetrical and balanced around the axle by always matching any additional piece with an identical piece exactly opposite it (that is, 180 degrees away around the rim).

When attaching the 50 x 50 mm box sections to the hub plate be sure to align them exactly and clamp them in place very firmly with steel clamps and double check the position before welding them. This is done by drawing accurate parallel lines on each side of the existing lines, 25 mm out, so that when the 50 x 50 steel is clamped in place, those lines show that the positioning is correct. Also, be very sure that you make two opposing welds to avoid the pieces being pulled out of position. So, in the diagram above, when weld “1” is made, then weld “2” is made immediately so that they can cool down together and heat distortion avoided.

We now need to work out the length of the strip of angle iron marked as “L” in the diagram above. The overall circumference is 6283 mm and it will be divide up into 16 equal lengths, so each length will (hopefully) be 392 mm long. We start by attaching square cut 392 mm lengths to the ends of the box-section spokes and then cut a template in some stiff material such as 3 mm Medium Density Fibreboard. This is done by sliding the flat template material under two successive rim pieces and marking the shape, showing the angles and lengths involved:

Cut out the template shown in red in the diagram above and check it for accuracy between the two steel pieces to make sure that it is correct before using it to mark the piece of angle iron which will be welded in place to close the gap in the wheel rim. The angle iron has the slanted faces cut and then verticals are marked on the vertical face and those are cut separately. Check the piece in place and if the fit is not perfect, use the angle grinder to make the fit as good as possible.

Use two packing pieces above and below, to clamp the angle iron in place aligning it in the horizontal plane, and use robust clamps when doing this:
And when the pieces are positioned perfectly make two of the short welds ("1" and "2") on the vertical faces, and let the welds cool down before making the next of the four pairs of vertical welds:

When the welds have cooled down, remove the clamps and packing pieces and make the horizontal welds. You need to make the underside weld and upper weld quickly one after the other. This means that you need access to both faces so that the welding can be completed one immediately after the other. For your first joining piece, the wheel will weight around 50 kilos and that is not a trivial weight to be handling and obviously, as you continue fitting the remaining pieces, it gets progressively heavier. You don’t prop it up high so that you can be underneath it for one of the welds – welding above your head is definitely to be avoided as your head does not enjoy having drops of molten steel landing on it, which is exactly where gravity will direct the molten drops. If you do prop it up at waist height, then stay well to one side when making the underside weld. One possibility is to stand the partially completed wheel upright, so that the underside face becomes a vertical face. The wheel is already a fairly robust construction, but it would be no harm to support it on a rod through the hole in the centre of the hub plate if you are choosing to do all of the welds on a vertical face.

The flywheel is completed by inserting the bearings into the ends of the pipe, making sure that they are exactly flush with the end of the pipe and applying two pairs of spot welds to each bearing. The bearings end up with four spot welds spaced at 90-degree positions:
There are a few additions to be made, but this is the basic wheel which forms the heart of the generator. The overall easy-build flywheel (roughly sketched) looks like this:

Please remember that when completed, this 2-metre diameter flywheel weighs more than 80 kilos and so to raise it into a vertical position means that you have to lift 40 kilos. While that is by no means impossible, it would be much more convenient to have two people lifting and manoeuvring the flywheel into position, if that is possible.

The additions to this large flywheel are two pressure strips which are used to drive the main flywheel. The power for the complete system is supplied to one, or preferably two small flywheels and those flywheels which are easy to spin, pass a thrust to the main flywheel each time that they encounter a pressure strip. As a general rule, (provided that you are not building a space drive) you always keep a flywheel balanced, and so, if you attach something on the right hand side you should attach an equivalent weight on the other side to keep the flywheel balanced. We have the option to add one drive strip and a counterbalancing weight opposite it, or to have two drive strips positioned 180 degrees apart.

With one drive strip and one small flywheel, the main flywheel gets one drive pulse once per revolution. With one drive strip and two small flywheels the main flywheel gets two drive pulses per revolution. With two drive strips and one small flywheel, the main flywheel gets two drive pulses per revolution. With two drive strips and two small flywheels the main flywheel gets four drive pulses per revolution.
The main flywheel drive is caused by making each small flywheel press a rubber-covered cylinder against a rubber-covered steel strip attached to the large flywheel. The additional strips are arranged like this:

The final detail is something which will prevent the flywheel sliding along the stationary 50 mm diameter axle shaft, which it will do if the axle is not exactly horizontal. If the axle shaft is even 1 degree off the horizontal, the flywheel will keep edging towards the lower end. It is possible to stop the movement with a collar on both sides of the flywheel. Those collars are nice and cheap in the common small sizes but at a 50 mm inner diameter they are very expensive, and the continuously rotating flywheel will be pressing against the stationary collar, causing friction and wear. A suitable way of dealing with this is to use a 51110 size end-thrust bearing like this:

This allows the flywheel to rotate freely even if the axle shaft is not quite horizontal. It is just necessary to lock the outer sides of the two end-thrust bearings to the stationary axle and that can be done cheaply and effectively using a hosepipe clip also known as a Terry Clip or a Jubilee Clip:

Just position the tightening bolts 180 degrees apart even though the whole clip is light.
All right, that is the first way to build the main flywheel and it is the method preferred by Chas, because he lives in an area where there are steel fabrication workshops with experienced welders and professional tools and equipment. However, many people live where there are few facilities and where the Customs charge exorbitant fees which can triple the cost of anything delivered through the postal service. So, here are two other ways of building the flywheel which may be more suited to areas where the conditions are more difficult.

The first method is very much the same, building in welded steel, but this time we will assume that the nicely sized steel pipe is not available. There are various ways around this problem, but probably the easiest is to attach the 50 mm diameter axle shaft directly to the hub plate and let the axle rotate along with the flywheel. For this, we set out and mark up the hub plate as before:

![Diagram of hub plate marked up](image)

But this time around, the central square is 50 mm in size, and both sides of the plate are marked to produce that exactly centred square. The axle shaft is cut into two equal lengths, but we use the factory machine-cut end and position it in our central square, using four of the magnets to hold it exactly perpendicular to the hub plate. We make two quick welds on opposite sides of the axle, attaching it to the hub plate, positioning the welds half way between the magnets. When the welds have cooled, we make two more quick welds so that the axle is attached at 90-degree positions all around the shaft.

When the welding has cooled down completely, remove the magnets and turn the piece over, clamping the attached axle section in the workbench to hold the hub plate steady. Position the factory-cut end of the second axle piece exactly in the centrally marked box and use the magnets to hold it exactly vertical. Again, two pairs of quick welds are made to attach the axle to the hub plate.

When everything has cooled fully we need to check to see if the result is usable. For this, support the two axle pieces in a piece of timber with a V-notch cut in it. That is, the axle is positioned horizontally, supported near each end in a notched piece of timber. Spin the axle and watch the hub plate very carefully as it spins around. If the hub plate stays steady and doesn't wobble, then your work is excellent and ready to progress further. If the plate wobbles, then scrap it and start again as you will never make a satisfactory flywheel with that plate forming the hub. Every alignment error will be magnified many times at the rim of the flywheel due to the length of the spokes.

The rest of the flywheel construction is the same except that the 50 x 50 mm spokes are not welded to the hub plate, but instead are bolted there using two 10 mm diameter bolts per spoke. That allows the hub plate and axle to be removed from the flywheel to make things easier if you need to transport the flywheel to a new location at a later date. It is perfectly possible to transport the whole generator fully assembled, using the sort of lorry which transports building blocks for new houses.

The only other difference for this style of build is that the two bearings are positioned on the support frame rather than being part of the flywheel itself.

The third way of building the flywheel is for places where steel is not readily available. You might think that building in timber is not nearly as good, but surprisingly, it is a very successful way of constructing a heavy flywheel. For this construction we use standard sheets of chipboard, blockboard, or Medium Density Fibreboard. In metric areas of the world, these sheets are 2440 x 1220 mm in size. In American areas the sheets are 8 x 4 feet in size.

We need to cut several semicircles from these sheets, and I would suggest using 20 mm thick (or failing that, 18 mm thick) sheets. These semicircles will be attached together to form a solid circular flywheel of any thickness we wish. Different varieties of wood and laminate sheets vary very considerably in weight, but a two meter diameter wood disk of 80 mm thickness is likely to have a weight of 90 kilos (200 pounds) and there is no reason (other than cost) why the thickness should not be twice or three times that 80 mm thickness. It also has the advantage that additional layers can be added at any later date if you want the flywheel to be heavier.
I suggest that a timber lath is used for marking the sheets. It is necessary to have the lath pivoted at the exact edge of the sheet and so a nail can be used as the pivot for the marking lath but remember that the nail needs to be inset into the side of the sheet for half the nail depth:

![Image of a nail and a lath](image1.png)

The lath then fits exactly on to the nail which forms a fixed and steady pivot point. The lath has holes positioned at 40 mm and 1000 mm in from the centre of the nail. These holes are only just large enough to pass the tip of a pencil through them:

![Diagram showing lath holes](image2.png)

This marks the board out for it to become half of a 2-metre diameter disc with an 80 mm central hole ready to take the two 80 mm diameter 16010 bearings.

![Diagram of a semi-circular board](image3.png)

Two of these semi-circular boards are assembled with the join vertical and the next two are positioned on top of those with the joint vertical to give the maximum supporting effect between the components.

To cut out a component that large, the easiest tool to use is a power jig saw, or if necessary, a drywall saw:
No matter what tool is used, don’t rush through the cut but take your time and make a good clean and accurate cut. The disc components can be held together by bolts and/or they can be set into a cohesive whole by using one of the boat building epoxy resins which can be mixed in large volumes and easily spread across the whole face of the components, provided that the workplace temperature does not fall below 5 degrees Centigrade for several hours after the epoxy mix is applied. Other wood glues could be used if the epoxy is considered too expensive.

The bearings are placed exactly aligned with the outer disc and secured in place with epoxy resin or other suitable glue for a steel-to-timber strong joint. The glue is applied the whole way around the outer ring of the bearings and that concludes the Flywheel construction, making the equivalent of the metal flywheel first described:
The next step is to build the base support for the generator, and that support is mainly for the large wheel. If you are working in steel, then it is constructed by welding together some pieces of box steel to form a shape like this:

If working in timber, keep the same overall size of the components (which are solid timber) and be sure to make the two triangular parts very robust with both epoxy and screw attachments for each join. Otherwise, we start by constructing the base using steel “channel” which is a box section material. The size we want is 100 x 50 mm which is (4-inch x 2-inch as there are 25.4 mm in one inch) and we join two 1650 mm long pieces using two 550 mm long pieces to form the base rectangle:
It is not at all easy to take a welded joint apart, even if that welded joint took only a tenth of a second to make, so it pays to get the job done exactly right every time. Place the two pieces to be joined on a flat surface such as concrete (which is not flammable) and get them in exactly the right position. Then weight them down so that they can't move. Then, and only then, weld them together. Probably the most difficult thing about welding is the fact that it is very hot and the heat makes the metal expand. I suggest therefore, that you make a short weld of perhaps 20 to 25 mm long and then stop and wait for that weld to cool down before welding the next short length. If you have a long weld to do, then weld the start. Let it cool. Then weld the end. Let it cool. Then weld the middle and let it cool. Those welds hold the piece securely against further movement as you gradually fill in the distance between those first three welds with short welds, letting each one cool before making the next weld and spacing those welds apart as much as possible to let each weld area cool as much as possible between welds.

When the main base is completed, two additional pieces 550 x 100 x 50 mm are welded in place as shown here:

Also, a strong threaded stud is welded in the middle of each of the cross pieces. A stud is effectively a threaded bolt without a head, and where the head would have been is welded to the base members as shown above. These studs are like those used to attach car wheels and in this application they are there to allow something to be bolted to the base.

One of the things bolted to the base is the alternator. Chas used a “Genelite” 3.5 kilowatt alternator which is a single-phase, 220 volt, 50 Hz unit which needs its shaft to be spun at a nominal 3000 rpm in order to generate the normal mains voltage and frequency. As the flywheel spins at just one revolution per second, Chas uses three V-belt pulleys (shown in blue) to generate the wanted shaft speed on the alternator. In his area, the pulley sizes are specified in inches and he uses 16 inch driving 4 inch. Followed by 12 inch driving 4 inch. Followed by 14 inch driving a 3.25 inch diameter pulley on the alternator shaft. That gives ratios of 4:1, 3:1 and 4.3:1 which combine to drive the alternator shaft at 51.6 revolutions per second which is 3096 rpm.

The large flywheel and pulleys are mounted on the support frame and look like this:
To support the intermediate pulley axles, additional support members “A” are added to the inside of the frame to support the additional bearings or “pillow blocks” which form the mounting for the additional pulley axles. For Chas’ design and the solid wood version where the main flywheel axle is stationary and the flywheel rotates around that stationary axle, the largest pulley (16 inch diameter in Imperial units or 450 mm diameter in metric units) is adapted so that it doesn’t touch the axle and is bolted directly to the flywheel, using spacers to align it with the pulley train below it. The pulley is larger than the flywheel hub and so needs to be attached to four of the spokes.

In the version where the 50 mm diameter axle rotates, the largest pulley is available with a 50 mm central boss and so it can be attached directly to the axle in the required position. Where your pulleys are bought depends on where you live. One such supplier is [http://www.bearingstation.co.uk/Products/Pulleys/V_Pulleys/SPA_V_Pulley](http://www.bearingstation.co.uk/Products/Pulleys/V_Pulleys/SPA_V_Pulley) but there are many similar suppliers around the world.

While the diagram above shows the gear train from the flywheel to the generator in a logical vertical alignment, there is no particular need to do that and the drive train can zig-zag if you wish. As long as the flywheel continues to rotate at its one rotation per second, the generator shaft will spin at 3000 rpm (or perhaps slightly faster than that) and the system will output continuous AC electricity which can operate power tools, lights, heaters, refrigerators, etc. This is a continuous system which can operate at all times, day and night. It can charge a bank of lead-acid batteries, but lead-acid batteries are only 50% efficient and so they waste half of the power that you feed into them, so if you feed 10 amps into your lead-acid battery for 10 hours, your battery will only be able to provide 5 amps for 10 hours, and there seems little point in throwing away half of your generated power, quite apart from the fact that the batteries are heavy, expensive and will need to be replaced every four years or so.

So, we need to keep the flywheel spinning and do that with as little power as necessary. In this design, the main flywheel is made to spin by a rubber covered drum pressing briefly against a rubber covered ramp attached to the main flywheel. As we want to keep the flywheel balanced, we actually attach two ramps to it, spaced out so that they are exactly opposite each other, that is, at 180 degrees apart. That means that the large flywheel receives two thrusts per revolution. The arrangement looks like this:
This diagram shows only one drive motor and while the system will work with one motor it is more powerful with two and so an identical unit can be mounted on the left hand side of the support frame. The motor used by Chas is the Australian built CMG one-horsepower AC mains motor which runs on 240 volts 50 Hz, at 1410 rpm, drawing 750 watts under full load and has a 5/8 inch (16 mm) drive shaft which has a 2-inch diameter pulley mounted on it, connected to a 4-inch diameter pulley on the small flywheel. The motor is mounted on a hinged plate with a spring pulling the plate away from the small flywheel. The main reason for this is to allow the small 600 mm diameter flywheel with its 180 mm diameter rubber covered drive cylinder, to move outwards slightly when it comes in contact with the drive ramp attached to the large flywheel. This is effectively an automatically adjusting arrangement.

As you can see from the diagram, the main flywheel rotates clockwise while the 600 mm diameter flywheel rotates counter clockwise. If you wish that they went around in the other direction, then just walk around to the other side of the generator and your wish is magically granted with the main flywheel going counter clockwise and the small flywheel going clockwise!!

The current drawn by the drive motor (or motors) is far less than their full working load current draw of 4.5 amps, probably around 2.2 amps. Chas also reduces the current by switching the supply to the motor and allowing 3 seconds of current flow followed by two seconds with the motor disconnected, where the shaft rotation is driven by the momentum of the small flywheel. Chas achieves this switching by gearing down the movement of the main flywheel to give one rotation in five seconds. While that works, it is a mechanical switch which has one fixed setting and is subject to wear as time goes by. I suggest that there is no gearing down, but instead that the current flow to the motor is controlled electronically, using an ordinary light dimmer switch which is available in powers up to one kilowatt and which allows continuous adjustment of the current so that the most effective current flow for the motor can be set by the turn of a knob and no moving parts are involved.

We come now to the construction of the drive ramps and driving cylinders. Ideally, we would like both to be covered in rubber so that there is good traction and the minimum of noise as the main flywheel is driven around. If you live in an area where there are lots of workshops, you may be able to get these components covered in vulcanised rubber. If no such facilities are available, then perhaps cutting up an old car tyre might be a good alternative. While the temptation is to use your angle grinder with a cutting blade, that is probably not a great idea.
as the speed of the blade is liable to melt the rubber and make a good deal of mess. So, slower cutting is an advantage and perhaps an ordinary hand saw like this:

![Hand saw image]

might work well when cutting the tyre.

If building in steel, making the curved ramp is not the easiest thing to do. You need a strip of steel which is not thicker than 3 mm and ideally, thinner than that if it needs to be bent into a smooth, even curve. Chas recommends that the ramp is one inch (25 mm) higher than the rim of the large flywheel at the trailing end of the ramp. The idea is that the leading edge of the ramp passes easily underneath the drive roller, but contacts it after a few inches as the flywheel rotates, transferring energy from the small flywheel and its motor to the large flywheel. The rubber strip needs to be attached very securely to the ramp. If possible, epoxy resin covering the whole of the ramp surface and mating with the cleaned and roughened inner surface of the rubber strip should give a good grip. Further strengthening of the bond is given by bolting the rubber to the raised, trailing end of the ramp as that is the point of greatest stress:

![Ramp and flywheel image]

It has been found that the 180 mm diameter rubber covered drive wheel works better if it is filled with lead. The curved drive strip has an optimum length of 900 mm determined by experimentation, and two bracing blocks are glued in position at the one-third and two-thirds of the length, to prevent any flexing of the strip when the roller is pressed against the strip. When the unit is completed, the alternator is disconnected electrically in order to make it the minimum possible drag on the flywheel and then the small flywheel or flywheels are got up to speed, either by connecting to the mains or by connecting to an inverter powered by a battery. Then the large flywheel is spun in the correct direction by hand and when the large flywheel gets up to speed, the alternator output is switched so as to power the motors and the other electrical equipment which is to be powered by the system.

Chas has a preference for using two drive motors and four evenly spaced drive strips. This gives a balanced flywheel and a more powerful thrust to the main flywheel four times per revolution, unless you wish to consider each thrust as a separate item, in which case, there are 8 thrusts per revolution. However, two thrust strips and a single motor will certainly generate excess power and the system can be upgraded with extra strips and/or a second motor when there is finance for that type of upgrade. The 600 mm diameter flywheels weigh 109 pounds (50 Kg) each with most of the weight positioned around the rim.

It is quite possible that if the alternator output power is connected to the drive motors and no other load, that spinning the main flywheel by hand would be sufficient to get the system running. An alternator is very much like a bicycle dynamo in operation as electricity is produced by moving coils through magnetic fields. In the case of an AC alternator used here, if the rate of rotation of the alternator drive shaft is lower than expected, then the alternator output voltage will be lower than it is at full speed, but it still can produce considerable voltage. Most drive motors are capable of working with a much lower voltage than they are supposed to have and that means that the drive cylinders can progressively build up the speed of the small flywheels which in turn can help the manual spinning of the main flywheel until the system progressively works up to its full operational speed.

The electrical connections are very simple. The mains connection is fed to the drive motor through a 2-pole, 10 amp, changeover switch so that the supply can be switched from the mains to the generator output when the flywheels are spinning at their normal speed. For additional control of speed, a 1 kilowatt light dimmer switch can be placed between the switch and the motor. Contact breakers should also be used and the generator output should have an On/Off switch as well. This gives an arrangement like this:
In the position shown, the Generator is feeding current to the drive motor “M”. The 15-amp circuit breaker protects the generator “G” from a short-circuit anywhere else in the circuit. The 5-amp circuit breaker protects the 1-kilowatt dimmer switch and the Motor “M”. With the switch in the other position, the mains (or the output from a battery powered inverter) is fed through to the motor when the system is being started.

More Powerful Generators

In May 2017 Chas decided to add some additional information on more powerful versions of his motor-powered generator. For this design, the flywheel is mounted horizontally instead of vertically. The flywheel design remains the same:

but in this case, the overall weight of the flywheel is increased by bolting concrete blocks to the inside of the rim of the flywheel, making a 2.0 metre diameter flywheel weigh 800 pounds and is suited to a 10 KVA (8 kilowatt) generator. A 2.5 metre diameter flywheel weighs 1200 pounds and is suited to a 25 KVA (20 kilowatt) generator. Concrete is used as it is both heavy and cheap and it can be attached to the rim using long bolts:
The weighted flywheel is mounted on a vertical shaft but not attached to it. That is, the flywheel is free to rotate around the stationary vertical shaft which is mounted on the central concrete plinth set in the ground. The base construction has three separate arms radiating from the central point, both to give stability and to provide mounting points for the three drive motors, each of which has its own smaller flywheel:

The central shaft is bolted to the centre of the concrete support pad and it has a 16-inch pulley wheel bolted to it:
Interestingly, there is no direct drive to the main flywheel. Instead, a strip of steel faced with rubber is used:

This strip is bolted or welded to just one point on the rim of the main flywheel like this:
This strip forms a ramp which edges gradually outwards from the rim of the flywheel and it connects with a drive wheel mounted on the shaft of each of the small flywheels:

Because of the positioning of the three small flywheels, this arrangement gives the main flywheel three drive pulses per revolution, but each of the small flywheels provide only one drive pulse per revolution, and each of the drive pulses are only of very short duration:

This design feature produces a system which uses impulse power very efficiently, keeping the main flywheel rotating steadily even though it is driving a substantial alternator and providing output electrical power. The input power requirement for this is 2.2 amps for each motor drive, giving a total of 6.6 amps at 240 volts. Once the main flywheel gets up to its running speed of 60 rpm, it is able to supply that input power plus a great deal of excess electrical power as free-energy.
The three foundation arms are made of cast concrete with two rectangular steel box section channels mounted on top of each one. The drive motors are mounted on a section of angle steel attached to one of the box sections:

The motor rotates at 1400 rpm and it is geared using two pulley wheels so that its small drive cylinder rotates at about 700 rpm. The diameter of the drive cylinder needs to be selected so that the main flywheel rotates at 60 rpm, and that depends on the diameter of the main flywheel which may be 2.0 m, 2.5 m or some other diameter which suits your needs.

For example, if the main flywheel radius (measured to the outside of the rubber-faced drive strip) is 1300 mm and rotating at 60 rpm then the rubber drive strip is moving through a distance of \( \pi \times 2600 \) mm per second. Consequently, the drive strip surface needs to move through the same distance, which for it is \( \pi \times d \times \left( \frac{700}{60} \right) \) mm if it is rotating at 700 rpm and “d” is the diameter of the drive cylinder (measured to the outside of the rubber facing). So, \( 2600 = d \times \left( 11.67 \right) \) or \( d = 222.9 \) mm which is 8.77 inches.

However, there is a variation in daily temperature and the main flywheel will physically increase in diameter as temperature rises. The increase in diameter is not great but in spite of that we need to allow for it. Chas has chosen to mount the drive flywheels on a spring-loaded mechanism. The movement distance does not need to be large, say half an inch or 15 mm or so. There are various ways of arranging this and the method suggested by Chas involves mounting each of the small flywheels on a hinged plate and using a spring to allow a small movement when the flywheel is pushed aside by the friction drive band on the main flywheel:

The concrete base is like this:
And mounted on top of this base are three pairs of steel box sections as shown here:

The alternator which provides the output power from this generator system is driven by a belt and pulley system from a 16-inch pulley mounted on the main flywheel which is rotating at 60 rpm. The size of the alternator which
you are using determines the vertical dimensions of the whole flywheel structure. The alternator is mounted on a steel frame like this:

And the steel frame is mounted vertically, supported on angle irons attached to the steel box sections on the concrete base. When attached securely in position, vertical angle irons are erected from the two base members to allow the mounting of two additional pivots for the three drive belts which provide the step-up gearing for driving the alternator at just over 3000 rpm:
The vertical positioning of these extra two additional pulley mounts and the height of the 50 mm diameter central flywheel shaft, is determined by the physical size of the alternator used to generate the electrical output. When the construction work has been completed, the entire generator is encased using panels attached to posts surrounding the structure. This give weatherproofing as well as keeping children and blown debris away from the generator. There needs to be an access flap in the housing so that the main flywheel can be given a manual spin for starting. There is only one direction of spin as the lowest part of the drive ramp on the main flywheel needs to approach the drive motors first.

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
A free-energy developer working in South Africa where it is difficult to find electronic components, has very kindly shared the details of his compact self-powered generator so that you can build one if you choose to do so. Using a small inverter, the output of the prototype is 40 watts at mains voltage and frequency and the generator is a small table-top unit which is not difficult to build. The generator uses five small 12-volt 7 Amp-Hour lead-acid batteries like this:

While this sounds like a lot of batteries, bear in mind that this is a generator which has a continuous electrical output, day and night and the batteries never have to be charged – a bit like a solar panel which works at night as well as during the day. Even if you are not familiar with electronics circuit diagrams (chapter 12 can fix that for you if you want), please try to follow along as we run through the circuit diagram and explain how the generator works. This is the circuit diagram:

The battery marked “A” powers the circuit. A rotor “C”, containing five magnets is moved so that one of the magnets passes near the coils. The coils set “B” has three specially-wound coils and the magnet moving past those three coils generates a small current in coil number “1” which then flows through the resistor “R” and into the...
base of the transistor, causing it to switch on. The power flowing through the transistor coil “2” causes it to become a magnet and that pushes the rotor disc “C” on its way, keeping the rotor spinning. It also induces a current in the winding “3” and that current is rectified by the blue diodes and passed back to charge battery “A”, replacing the current drawn from that battery.

When the magnet in rotor “C” passes away from the coils, the transistor switches off, moving its collector voltage very quickly up to the +12 Volt line, starving coil “2” of current. Because of the way that coils are, the coil drags the collector voltage on up and it would reach 200 volts or more if it were not connected through the red diode to all five batteries which are connected in one long chain. The batteries will have a combined voltage of just over 60 volts (which is why a powerful, fast-switching, high-voltage T13009 transistor is being used. As the collector voltage passes the voltage of the battery chain the red diode starts conducting, passing the available energy in the coil into the battery chain. That current pulse passes through all five batteries, charging all of them. The higher voltage caused by so many batteries means that higher power is fed into all the batteries from coil “2”. Loosely speaking, that is the generator design.

In the prototype, the load for long-term testing was a twelve volt 150-watt inverter powering a 40-watt mains light bulb:

Coils “B”, “D” and “E” are all triggered at the same time by three different magnets. The electrical energy produced in all three coils is passed to the four blue diodes to produce a DC power supply which is used to charge
battery “A” which powers the circuit. That additional input to the drive battery and the addition of two more drive coils to the stator, makes the system operate securely as self-powered, maintaining the voltage of battery “A” indefinitely.

The only moving part of this system is the rotor which is 110 mm in diameter and is a 25 mm thick acrylic disc mounted on a bearing taken from an old computer hard disc drive. The arrangement looks like this:

In the pictures, the disc looks to be hollow but in actual fact it is solid, very clear plastic. The disc has been drilled at five evenly spaced points around the circumference, that is, at 72 degree intervals. The five main holes drilled in the disc are to take the magnets which are sets of nine circular ferrite magnets, each 20 mm in diameter and 3 mm thick, making each stack of magnets 27 mm long and 20 mm in diameter. The magnet stacks are positioned so that their North poles face outwards. When the magnets have been installed, the rotor is placed inside a strip
of plastic pipe which prevents the magnets escaping when the disc is spun rapidly. The plastic pipe is secured to the rotor using five bolts with countersunk heads.

The gap between the rotor and the coils can be set as anything from 1 mm to 10 mm as the coils have slotted mounts as can be seen from this picture of an earlier version of the generator:

Notice the way that the coil mounts allow the distance between the coils and the rotor to be changed. The working gap between the rotor and the coils can be adjusted so that the performance can be maximised by finding the most effective gap.

The spools of the coils are 80 mm long and the ends are 72 mm in diameter. The centre shaft of each coil is made of a length of plastic pipe with a 20 mm outer diameter and an inner diameter of 16 mm, giving a wall thickness of 2 mm. After being wound, that inner diameter is filled with a series of welding rods with their welding coating removed, and which are then encased in polyester resin although a solid bar of soft iron is a good alternative:
The three strands of wire which form coils “1”, “2” and “3” are 0.7 mm diameter wire and they are twisted together to become a “Litz” wire before being wound into the coil “B”. This produces a much thicker composite wire strand which is easy to wind accurately on to the spool. The winder shown above uses a chuck to grip the coil core for winding, but any simple winder will work well.

The developer does the Litzing by stretching out three strands of wire, each coming from a separate 500 gram reel of wire. The three strands are clamped at each end with the wires touching each other at each end and with three metres between the clamps. Then, the wires are clamped in the middle and 80 turns applied to the middle. That gives 80 turns for each of the two 1.5 metre lengths held between the clamps. The twisted wire is wound on to a makeshift reel to keep it tidy as this twisting has to be repeated 46 more times as the entire contents of the reels of wire will be needed for this one composite coil:

The next 3 metres of the three wires is now clamped and 80 turns applied to the central point, but this time the turns are applied in the opposite direction. Still the same 80 turns, but if the last length was ‘clockwise’ then this stretch of wire will be turned ‘counter-clockwise’. This alternation of direction gives a finished set of twisted wires.
where the direction of twist reverses every 1.5 metres along the length. That is the way that commercially produced Litz wire is made, but I seriously doubt that the resulting performance is any better than if the direction of wind was never changed and the twisted wire had the same direction of twist along its whole length.

This very nice twisted group of wires is now used to wind the coil. A hole is drilled in one spool flange, right beside the central tube and core, and the start of the wire fed through it. The wire is then bent sharply at 90 degrees and fed around the shaft of the spool to start the winding of the coil. The wire bundle is wound carefully side by side along the length of the spool shaft and there will be 51 turns in each layer and the next layer is wound directly on top of the first layer, moving back towards the start. Make sure that the turns of this second layer sit exactly on top of the turns beneath them. This is easy to do as the wire bundle is thick enough to make positioning very easy. If you prefer, a single thickness of white paper can be placed around the first layer, to make it easier to see the second layer as it is wound. There will be 18 of these layers to complete the coil, which will then weigh 1.5 kilograms and in 2016 prices in the UK, the wire in this coil will cost £45 and the winding looks like this:

![Coil winding](image)

This completed coil now contains three separate coils in very close proximity to each other and that arrangement is excellent when one coil is powered up, for inducing energy in the other two coils. This winding now contains coils 1, 2 and 3 of the circuit diagram. There is no need to concern yourself with marking the ends of each strand of wire as a simple ohmmeter will tell you which two ends have a winding between them.

Coil 1 is used as the trigger coil which switches the transistor on at the right instant. Coil 2 is the drive coil which is powered by the transistor, and Coil 3 is the first of the output coils:

![Circuit diagram](image)

Because of the coils which were already to hand during the development of this highly successful system, coils 4 and 5 are simple helical-wound coils which are wired in parallel with drive coil 2. They boost the drive and they are necessary. Coil 4 has a DC resistance of 19 ohms and coil 5 a resistance of 13 ohms. However, investigation is underway at present to determine the best coil combination for this generator and it is probable that the additional
coils will be the same as the first coil, coil “B” and that all three coils are connected in the same way and the driving winding in each coil driven by the one powerful, fast transistor. The present arrangement looks like this:

![Coil arrangement](image)

The two gantries can be ignored as they were only for investigating alternative ways of triggering the transistor and they are no longer used.

At this time, coils 6 and 7 (22 ohms each) are extra output coils connected in parallel with output coil 3 which is 3 strands each with 4.2 ohm resistance. They can be air-core or have a solid iron core. Testing indicates that the air-core version works slightly better than having an iron core. These two coils are wound on 22 mm diameter spools and each has 4000 turns of 0.7 mm (AWG # 21 or swg 22) enamel or shellac insulated solid copper wire. All of the coils are wound with this size of wire.

With this coil arrangement, the prototype has run continuously for three weeks, maintaining the drive battery at 12.7 volts all the time. At the end of the three weeks, the system was stopped so that it could be altered and tested with a new configuration. In the configuration shown above, the current flowing from the driving battery into the circuit is 70 milliamps, which at 12.7 volts is an input power of 0.89 watts. The output power is either 40 watts or close to it, which is a COP of 45, not counting the fact that three additional 12V batteries are being charged at the same time. That is very impressive performance for the circuit.

Again, our thanks go to the developer for freely sharing this most important circuit which he developed and for his future modifications, the first of which is shown here:
In this arrangement, coil “B” is also pulsed by the transistor and the output from the coils around the rotor is now directed to the output inverter. The drive battery has been eliminated and a low-power 30V transformer and diode run from the inverter output replaces it. Spinning the rotor generates sufficient charge on the capacitor to get the system running without a battery. The output power has now risen to 60 watts which is a 50% improvement. The three 12-volt batteries have also been eliminated, and the circuit can run with just one battery. Continuous power output from a single battery which never needs to be recharged is a very satisfactory situation.

The next advance is a circuit arrangement using a Hall-effect sensor and an FET transistor. The Hall-effect sensor is aligned exactly with the magnets. That is, the sensor is positioned between one of the coils and the rotor magnet. There is a 1 mm clearance between the sensor and the rotor and the arrangement looks like this:
Or when the coil is in position, the view from above is like this:
This circuit has a 150 watt continuous output and it uses three 12-volt batteries. The first two batteries are used, one to power the circuit while the second one is being recharged through three diodes wired in parallel to improve the recharging current flow. The two-pole two-way changeover switch “RL1” swaps the batteries over every few minutes using the circuit shown below. This technique keeps both batteries fully charged.

The recharging current also flows through a second set of three diodes wired in parallel, recharging the third 12-volt battery which powers the inverter which supplies the load. The test load was a 100-watt bulb and a 50-watt fan.

The Hall-effect sensor drives a C5353 transistor but any fast-switching transistor such as a BC109 or a 2N2222 transistor can be used. You will notice that all of the coils are now being driven by the IRF840 FET. The relay used for the switching is a latching type such as this one:

And it is driven by a low current draw ILC555N timer like this:
The capacitors shown in blue are chosen to operate the actual physical relay which is used in the circuit. They give the relay a brief switching pulse every five minutes or so. The 18K resistors across the capacitors are to bleed off the capacitor charge during the five minutes when the timer is in its alternative state.

However, if you wish to avoid switching between batteries, the circuit can be arranged this way:

Here, the battery which powers the inverter which supplies the load is increased in capacity and while the developer used two of his 7 Amp-Hour batteries, you can use a standard 12-volt 12 Amp-Hour battery intended for a mobility scooter. All but one of the coils is used to supply current to the output battery and the one remaining coil, which is part of the three-strand main coil, is used to supply the drive battery directly.

The 1N5408 diode is a 1000-volt 3-amp component. The diodes which are not shown with a type number against them can be any diode in the 1Nxxx range of diodes.

The coils shown connected to the IRF840 FET transistor are physically positioned around the circumference of the rotor. There are five of these coils as the grey shading indicates that the righthandmost three coils are the
separate strands of the main 3-wire composite coil which was shown in the earlier circuits.

**Update in April 2018:**

While the three-strand twisted wire coil prepared for the Bedini-style switching was used for both drive and output purposes, it was actually no longer necessary to use a coil of that type and an ordinary helically wound coil containing 1500 grams of 0.71 mm diameter enamelled copper wire would have been just as effective. Development has been continuing and the following circuit has been found to work very well:

In this version of the circuit, a 12-volt non-latching relay is used. The relay normally draws 100 milliamps at 12 volts but a 75 ohm or a 100 ohm resistor in series lowers that current to about 60 milliamps. That current is only drawn for half the time as the relay is not powered up when the “normally closed” contacts are being used. The system powers itself very satisfactorily as before.

However, the South African developer would very much like to omit the mains inverter, and so he prefers the following arrangement. This version powers the drive circuitry through an ordinary DC-to-DC inverter which provides additional voltage to the IRF840 transistor and the circuit works very well with this configuration:
The developer stresses that the circuit operates in a non-intuitive way. First, the performance is somewhat reduced if the rotor spins faster which is something which is not at all obvious. Then it has been found that using ferrite magnets produces a better performance than using the stronger neodymium magnets. He sees it as the coil pulses being a mechanism for preventing ‘cogging’ or backward drag on the passing rotor magnets.

This is the same thing that Robert Adams found with his high performance motor/generator. In Robert’s design, the rotor was drawn to the iron cores of his coils, making his motor essentially a permanent magnet motor. Admittedly, Robert’s rotor got additional thrusts from the current in his output coils being switched off at exactly the correct instant, but that involved a somewhat higher level of design complexity. While there is no official claim that this South African design is actually a permanent magnet motor/generator, it is difficult not to see some of its performance coming directly from the magnets themselves.

Finally, the design which the designer likes best of all is this one which has no inverter or converter and which can power any ordinary 12-volt load:
The output (marked as “12V Load”) is effectively a 12-volt battery which never needs recharging and which can power any typical 12-volt small piece of equipment such as lighting, a fan, a computer or whatever. You will notice that the triple coil is now shown as a single helically wound coil with a shaded background as there is no longer any need for a triple wound coil as the Bedini-style switching is no longer used. Let me stress that the five coils driven by the IRF840 FET transistor are shown in a horizontal row just for clarity. In reality, they are spaced out evenly around the rotor, that is, at 72-degree spacings around the rotor. There is nothing special about having five magnets in the rotor and that number could be six, eight, ten or twelve magnets if there is room for the corresponding coils around the rotor.

At the present time (April 2018), this is where the developer has reached and he considers the circuit shown above to be very satisfactory for his needs. So, let me (Patrick Kelly) make some untested suggestions which are intended to be helpful for replicators of the design. The rotor spins fast at about 2500 rpm (varying from 2000 to 3000 rpm depending on load and supply voltage). That is about 42 revolutions per second. As there are five magnets in the rotor, that produces about 208 pulses per second.

It is essential that the rotor itself is made very accurately so that there is no imbalance and so no vibration forces are generated by the rotation. The developer used a lathe to produce a perfect rotor but that option is not generally available to most people. I suggested casting a rotor using epoxy resin but it was pointed out that you have to have an exactly horizontal surface for that or the rotor will have an uneven thickness which would be disastrous. If you have access to a large 3D printer, a good rotor could be built up. One replicator shows his rotor like this:
This 3D-printed rotor is made in two halves which are then bolted together.

The developer has continued advancing his design. One of the things which he didn't like was the fact that the five coils being used required a total of some 1640 metres of wire, so smaller coils were constructed. This new arrangement works spectacularly well and each new coil has a total wire length of just 22 metres, which is less than one twelfth of the previous wire length. The wire size remains 0.711 mm diameter wire (swg 22 or AWG #21) and each new coil is wound on a 6 mm diameter iron bolt core and the windings cover a length of 24 mm along the bolt which has two 30 mm diameter flanges mounted on it giving an overall length of 30 mm and the completed winding is 27 mm in diameter. There are twelve layers of the 0.71 mm diameter wire on each coil.

These new coils are connected in two groups of five in series, giving a DC resistance of about 4 ohms for each chain of five coils. The voltage spikes generated when a set of five coils is switched off is more than 500 volts. The wire in each coil weighs 70 grams. The coils look like this:

And they are drawn like this:

![Diagram of the coils]

The two sets of five coils in series are connected in opposite directions as shown above. The Start of the set of coils shown in blue and the Finish of the set of coils shown in red are connected to the Plus of the battery. This causes current to flow in opposite directions in each set of five coils and if one set has a North pole facing the rotor, then the other set will have a South pole facing the rotor. The coils are alternated around the rotor like this:
All ten coils are pulsed at the same instant and that instant is arranged to happen when a rotor magnet is between the two opposing coils. One coil pushes the magnet away and the other coil pulls that same magnet towards itself. This is very effective with the rotor spinning so fast that the developer describes it as being “scary” and he has to clamp it to the workbench because of the power being generated.

Another reason why there is such a great increase in power is that now the design uses two Hall-effect sensors (at coil 1 and coil 4 in the above diagram) and that gives ten pulses per rotation as opposed to the earlier five pulses per rotation. The drive circuit is very simple indeed.

The developer now uses a different method of mounting the ten coils so that there is more space to access the Hall-effect sensors for adjustment. The whole top wood and acrylic mounting ring is easily removed by loosening just four screws:
The small coils are held in place with cable ties and are easy to remove. Each coil has a resistance of 0.8 ohms and the cores are standard 6 mm diameter galvanised iron bolts which do not retain magnetism, that is, they do not become permanent magnets no matter how often they are stroked repeatedly with a strong permanent magnet. The set of ten coils mounted around the rotor look like this:
Remember that the coils are mounted on their own support ring and so can be handled as a single unit. This is very convenient.

In the following picture, the matchbox at the right hand side of the picture is there to give you a good visual idea of the size of the unit:

![Image of coils and matchbox]

The working space left free around the underside of the rotor is much greater than was available in the earlier designs:
It is important to understand that while the 110 mm diameter rotor has five magnets located at even intervals around its circumference, there are now ten coils on the surrounding stator, and there are now ten pulses per revolution. These pulses are powerful and when the current is cut off, each chain of five coils generates 600 volt spikes (although that can reach 900 volts on occasions).

In this latest design, every second coil is wired in reverse so that it presents a South pole to the rotor magnet, and there are now two Hall-effect sensors, one just before the rotor magnet and one just after the rotor magnet. This allows a simplified circuit with just one drive transistor like this:
However, while this circuit works very well, the designer prefers the following circuit, and while it has a larger number of components, it has the advantage of having two separate outputs:
As it stands, this circuit can charge 12V or 24V batteries or power a 12V inverter connected across a 12V battery, or 24V inverter connected across a 24V battery. A version of this circuit with fewer components which works very well indeed is this:
The 150-watt Generator Goes Solid State

A free-energy developer who lives in South Africa and who prefers to remain anonymous, has very kindly shared the details of his compact self-powered generator so that you can build one if you choose to do so. His design has developed through several stages and reached 150 watts of self-powered output. He used an accurately made rotor with five magnets, spinning inside a ring of ten coils:
His designs are fine for people with good constructional skills and access to suitable equipment. However, it has always been desirable to have a motionless, solid-state version which generates excess power without moving parts or the constructor needing to have good skills and equipment.

This next step comes by applying common sense to the earlier designs which have proved to have very satisfactory operation and output. If the latest rotor version produces ten pulses per revolution and rotates at say, 2500 revolutions per minute, then the circuit generates about $2500 \times 10 / 60 = 417$ pulses per second. That is normally written as 417 Hz which is a low rate for an electronic circuit although it is a major rate of mechanical rotation.

The circuit generates its excess power by applying these 417 pulses per second of 12-volts to two chains of five small coils in each chain. The circuit uses two separate Hall-effect sensors and it is like this:
If we want to reproduce this performance without the rotor and its magnets, then we need to apply 12-volt pulses to those two chains of coils 417 times every second. That may sound difficult if you are not familiar with electronics, but in actual fact, it is a very simple task and 417 Hz is very slow operation for an electronic circuit as they could easily generate 3,000,000 pulses per second.

Because we live in an intense energy field, when each of those 12-volt pulses is cut off, the voltage across the coil chain rises very rapidly to more than 600-volts and that causes an inflow of energy into the circuit from our local environment. That inflow of energy is much greater than the original 12-volt pulse, and that is what we call “free energy”.

The latest coils used with the rotor system are wound twelve layers deep and 27 mm long, on galvanised iron 6 mm diameter bolts. There is a common conception that iron can't change its direction of magnetism very fast. Personally, I'm not at all sure that that is actually correct, but initially, let us presume that we need to keep the pulsing down to say, 800 Hz or less. Of course, if we are winding coils for this solid state project, then we could wind them on a ferrite rod as the core as that should allow a much higher pulsing rate, and it is reasonable to presume that the greater the number of pulses per second, the greater the average excess output power will be.
Initial tests have been carried out using the existing ten coils which were used with the rotor circuit. The output proved to be satisfactory and pretty much equivalent to the rotor circuit output if the driving signal was 40% On and 60% Off:

Just initially, we will stay with low frequency (due to assumed iron core coil limitations) and run the testing using a circuit of this type:

![Circuit Diagram]

The resistor “R” and the capacitor “C” control the frequency of the pulsing and the result is very good. However, as the developer has powered both coil chains of his rotor circuit from a single transistor (although they generate at least 600V feedback pulses), he used just one transistor for his tests. He also likes to use his circuit which swaps over two drive batteries, one to provide current while the other one is recharging, but that is a minor matter.

So, let’s say for argument sake, that the above circuit is running at about 500 Hz (C and R might be 100nF and 1.5K) in order to keep the coil frequency down, then there will be some 500 pulses per second returned to the drive battery. But, if we were to connect the circuit like this:

![Circuit Diagram]

Then when the first transistor switches on, the second transistor switches off and vice versa. Doing that returns twice as many pulses per second to the drive battery without increasing the rate of pulsing of either of the coil chains. Remember also, that the transistors are powerful enough to drive several coil chains simultaneously, and each extra coil can be expected to increase the excess output power available.
However, testing shows that the output from the first transistor is not very good for switching the second transistor and so a better result is produced with the addition of a monostable circuit as that allows you to specify exactly what length of voltage pulse you want for the second transistor:

This technique of keeping the coils pulsed slowly while increasing the rate of pulses passed back to the output, can be extended further. It is perfectly possible to cascade ten or more coil chains during each of the 500 Hz pulses. That raises the output pulse rate without raising the coil pulse rate. This can be done by using a Divide-By-Ten chip, such as the CD4017B which can be wired to act as divide-by-9, divide-by-8, etc. down to divide-by-2. This is achieved by connecting the Reset pin (pin 15) to the next output. In the following circuit diagram, a divide-by-3 arrangement is shown and the divide-by-4 output is connected to the reset as that bounces the output back to output 1 again. The 555 clock is speeded up by a factor of three as it will take three times as long before the high voltage output of the 4017 chip returns to output 1 (on pin 3). The chip connections are like this:
For a divide-by-4 output, pin 10 would be connected to Reset pin 15 and the fourth output would be from pin 7 and the 555 clock pulse rate increased to four times the original rate by lowering the value of “C” or increasing the value of “R”.

Please remember that the transistor needs to be able to handle high voltages if you decide to use a different type, also, you will need a more powerful DC/AC inverter to handle higher output power. There is essentially no limit to the output power you can achieve with solid state as you just add more coils and possibly more transistors. Please use a heat sink with each transistor.

If you decide to use a 24-volt input, please remember that both the 555 chip and the 4017 chip need to be kept down to 12-volts as they are not able to handle 24-volts. Also, you need a 24-volt inverter if you decide to do that.

If experimentation shows that your particular construction of the circuit works better at higher and higher frequency of clock pulses, and that results in each coil driving transistor needing a longer drive voltage period than the length of one divide-by-N clock period, then that can be dealt with by using a monostable on each output as shown by the shaded portions of this diagram:
Now that there is no need to construct a precision rotor with magnets, the only significant task is to wind the coils which generate the excess power. It is perfectly possible to wind perfect coils without any equipment at all. First, you need to choose the wire diameter and buy in the wire needed. Wire of 0.71 mm diameter is popular (swg 22 or AWG 21) and is easy to work with. Then you need to choose the core material – iron (not steel) or ferrite and create a spool with that core by attaching stiff flange discs of about 30 mm diameter at the ends of the core for iron. The coils shown here are wound on 8 mm iron bolts with windings 75 mm long, eight layers of wire and 40 mm diameter flanges (which could be much smaller):

Three of these coils can be wound from a single 500 gram reel of 0.71 mm wire and the iron cores can certainly operate at more than 6000 Hz. Each of these coils has about 315 turns and a DC resistance of 1.6 ohms. However, ferrite is generally considered to be a better core for high frequency operation and these can be wound quite easily. Using the same 0.71 mm diameter wire (swg 22 or AWG #21), a 140 mm long ferrite rod of 10 mm diameter can be wound quite easily without any equipment, and six coils with three layers each can be wound from a single 500 gram reel of wire, and each coil has about 590 turns and a DC resistance of one ohm.

The basic ferrite rod has a 20 mm diameter disc of stiff cardboard glued to each end. It looks like this:
Cut a 140 mm wide piece of paper 32 mm long. This width matches the gap between the spool flanges. Attach a strip of Selotape to the paper so that it overlaps by half its width all along the paper strip and set it aside until the first layer of wire has been wound.

You can hang the full spool of wire on a rod hung from the edge of a table or desk. Push the first few inches of wire through a hole through the flange near the core and start winding by turning the spool in your hand. The winding needs to be done carefully so that the turns lie cleanly side by side with no gaps between them and no turns overlapping any other turn:

When the far end of the spool is reached, stick the piece of paper to the layer of turns using the Selotape already on the paper, bend the paper round the layer of winds and pull it tight using other strips of Selotape to hold it in place as you move progressively along the length of the spool. The paper
will not be long enough to go all the way around the layer as the core now has the wire thickness making the core larger, but that is quite intentional as you don’t want more than a single layer of paper. You will need the paper layer to allow you to see the next layer of wire clearly as you wind it. If you don’t have that paper layer it is enormously difficult to see the next layer well enough to detect winding errors as the wire is exactly the same colour as the first layer.

You now have a perfectly wound first layer. Before starting the second layer, cut the next strip of paper, measuring 40 mm wide. Stick a strip of Selotape along the length of the paper, again, with half of the width of the Selotape overlapping the paper and set it aside. Wind the next layer in exactly the same way, finishing by sticking and securing the paper around the core with its two layers of wire.

That process is repeated until all of the desired layers have been wound. Finally, the wire is cut with a few inches left for connecting the coil in the circuit, and the wire is passed through a second hole in one of the flanges:

This generator can be built in thousands of variations, the main difference being the coils being used – the core material, the core length, the wire diameter, and the number of layers wound. You can, of course, start with one coil and see how your circuit performs, and later on, add one or more coils to boost the performance.

The way that coils perform is not at all obvious. It is generally agreed that the larger the number of turns, the greater the voltage produced when the coil is pulsed. BUT, other factors are also important. The impedance of the coil (it’s AC resistance) makes a very big difference when the coil is being pulsed. That is affected by the core material, the wire diameter, the wire material, the number of turns, the quality of the winding, how spread out the turns are, the number of layers, etc. Generally speaking, it is probably best to wind a series of coils and test them to see which works best for you, and then wind the remaining coils to match your best result.
If you wish to use two separate drive batteries, one to power the circuit while the other is recharging, then that is perfectly possible. Batteries which are providing power to a load don’t charge nearly as well as unloaded batteries being charged. However, the mechanism which switches between the two sets of batteries needs to have extremely low current draw in order not to waste current. One possibility for that would be to use a latching relay like this:

![Latching Relay Diagram]

This is the electronic version of a mechanical two-pole switch. A brief pulse of current between pins 1 and 16 locks the switch in one position and later, a pulse of current between pins 2 and 15 locks it in the other position. The current drain on the circuit would be almost zero.

While standard NE555 integrated circuits can operate with a supply voltage down to 4.5 volts (and in practice, most will operate well at much lower supply voltages), there are several much more expensive 555 ICs which are designed to work at much lower supply voltages. One of these is the TLC555 which has a supply voltage range from just 2 volts right up to 15 volts, which is a very impressive range. Another version is ILC555N with a voltage range of 2 to 18 volts. Combining one of those chips with a latching relay produces a very simple circuit as the 555 timer circuit is exceptionally simple:

![555 Timer Circuit Diagram]

The capacitor used has to be high quality with very low leakage in order to get this waveform which is On for exactly the same length of time as it is Off. This is important if we want the two batteries to receive the same length of time powering the load as the time they receive being recharged.

A weakness of the 555 chip timer from our point of view is that it has only one output while we need two outputs, one falling when the other rises. That can be arranged by adding a transistor and a couple of resistors like this:
With this circuit, when pin 3 of the 555 chip goes low, the capacitor connecting it to pin 2 of the relay pulls that pin 2 voltage low and causes the relay to change state as the relay pin 15 is connected to +12V, causing a current surge through the coil as the capacitor charges. A few moments later, when the capacitor has charged up, the current drops away to zero. Five minutes later pin 3 goes high again and that switches the transistor on causing its collector voltage to drop rapidly to near zero. That pulls pin 1 of the relay down low causing it to change state before the capacitor has a chance to charge up.

This is fine if the capacitors shown in blue are poor quality and their charge bleeds away in a period of five minutes. Nowadays, even cheap capacitors are generally much too good quality to allow that to happen and so we need to connect a resistor across the capacitor to create that drop in charge. But that additional resistor is connected continuously and so it needs to be of a high enough value not to waste any significant current – perhaps 18K would be a reasonable choice. An 18K resistor with twelve volts across it draws only 0.667 of a milliamp of current.

So, if we prefer, we could use this circuit, perhaps laid out like this:
The TIP3055 transistors are there only to raise the current carrying capacity of the tiny latching relay. Let’s decide to build a very simple version of the circuit but allowing for later expansion for greater output power. Let’s try this circuit arrangement:

This arrangement allows for considerable alteration of the operating frequency by merely turning a knob. Experienced constructors will have their own preferred methods of construction, but we might choose to use a layout on an open board in order to make it easy to see what is happening and to give good cooling during the development stage, perhaps something like this:

This arrangement keeps soldering to a minimum and allows for easy alterations as the circuit is extended for higher output power. The timer board can be swapped out later on if you decide to use a Divide-by-N style of operation.

Two types of screw connectors are used. One type has all of the connectors connected so that many wires can be connected to a single point. They look like this:
Unfortunately, these connectors cost about £5 each which is several times more expensive than the standard connector which has each connector insulated from all of the other connectors in the block:

If cost is a major factor, then a standard connector strip can be converted to a single multiple output strip by wiring one side with a thick piece of wire like this:

We have a problem with connecting the FET transistors because their pins are so close together that they don’t fit conveniently into a screw connector block. We can get around that problem by cutting one connector off the block, bending the central pin of the FET upwards into a vertical position and using the single cut off connector to make the connection to the central pin of the FET:

The layout of the timer is not at all critical and a layout like this might be used:
The capacitor “C” will be about 10 nF and the variable resistor can be 47K or 50K linear or a higher value could be used.

So, if you were going to build this generator, how might you go about it? Well, you might start by building the timer board shown here, either as shown or to your own layout. I strongly recommend using a socket for the 555 timer chip as transistors, Integrated Circuits and diodes can easily be damaged by heat if they are not soldered quickly. As the generator is for your own use, you can avoid the horrible lead-free solder which is so difficult to work with and I suggest that 0.8 mm diameter multicore solder is the right size for this work. So, to construct the timer board you will need:

1. A soldering iron of about 40 watts, and 0.8 mm cored solder.
2. Stripboard (“Veroboard”) with 14 strips each with 23 holes.
3. A drill bit or a knife to break the copper strips which run between the pins of the 555 chip.
4. One 8-pin Dual-In-Line socket for the 555 chip.
5. Some solid-core plastic covered wire to form the jumpers on the board.
6. The components: One 555 chip, one 8-pin socket, one 1000 microfarad 25V capacitor, two 10 nanofarad ceramic capacitors, one 1K resistor, one 50K or 47K or higher linear variable resistor, one diode which could be 1N4007, or 1N4148, or almost any other diode.
7. A magnifying glass of some description. A cheap plastic one can be quite sufficient. This helps greatly when examining the underside of the board to make sure that solder joints are well made and that there is no solder bridging between adjacent copper strips.

Not essential but very, very convenient is one of those angled arm clamping devices which are usually supplied with a magnifying glass. If you discard the magnifying glass, the angled arms can hold the board and component in place, leaving both hands free to do the soldering. A cloth wet with cold water is very good for cooling down soldered joints rapidly to prevent heat damage.
Start by breaking the copper strip in columns 10 and 11 on rows 6 to 9. This is needed in order to prevent the strips short-circuiting the pins of the 555 chip. Mount and solder the 555 socket in place (if you bend the legs outwards along their strips it holds the socket in place and makes for a good solder joint. Then, cut solid core insulated copper wire to the correct lengths and solder the five wire jumpers on the board:

Then work from left to right, mounting the remaining components. The capacitor "C" has got a lot of spare space around it so that it can be altered at a later date if you decide that you should.

Finally, connect the variable resistor (which many people mistakenly call a "pot") and the positive and negative connecting wires using multi-strand copper wire as that is much more flexible, and lastly, the connecting wire from pin 3 out to the distribution block which connects to the FET gates. Check that the circuit has been connected correctly and that there are no soldering errors on the underside of the board – this is much easier with a magnifying glass as the gaps are very small.

Set the variable resistor shaft to about its mid position, connect the board to a 12-volt source of power and measure the voltage coming from pin 3 of the 555 chip. The voltage should be about half of the supply voltage and should not change much when you adjust the variable resistor.

We are now ready to start assembling the generator, getting a suitable board and attaching to it the inverter and
These two units can be attached to the base board by drilling holes through the board and using string or wire to bind them securely in place.

The timer board can be attached to the base board using a screw or a bolt. The board is very light and robust and a single screw is quite sufficient to hold it neatly in place. The variable resistor and the three connecting strips can be glued to the board. Some constructors hate the idea but my preferred method is to use Impact Evostick as the glue as it is very effective and after a day or so becomes very strong indeed.

The diodes used are 1N5408 types and although each one can handle 3 amps of current, they are grouped in
sets of three as that lowers the very slight resistance to current flow through them as well as raising the possible current to nine amps.

My inclination is to use a separate FET with each coil, but the South African developer states that he can detect no difference between driving two coils with one FET and driving those same two coils with two separate FETs.

Please understand that this presentation is for information purposes only and it is not an encouragement for you or anyone else to actually build one. Also, no representations are made that this design will produce any particular level of output power.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.com
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl

Video: www.youtube.com/user/TheEngpjk/videos
Chapter 20: Health

There are a number of things which have a profound effect on the health of any person. There are the obvious things like getting adequate sleep, adequate exercise, adequate diet including a wide range of vitamins and minerals. Most people are already aware of these things.

Hulda Clark states that illness is caused by either absorbing poisons or by becoming infested by one or more of a wide range of destructive bugs and she produced a book covering how to deal with these harmful things: [http://www.free-energy-info.com/Hulda2.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/Hulda2.pdf) and another book dealing specifically with treating cancers: [http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/Hulda.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/Hulda.pdf).

Bob Beck has also been very effective in dealing with illness, including those illnesses which conventional (pharmaceutical-based) medicine cannot cure. Bob recommends the use of colloidal silver [http://www.free-energy-devices.com/Silver.pdf](http://www.free-energy-devices.com/Silver.pdf) and electronic pulsing at low frequency of about 4 pulses per second [http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Beck.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl/Beck.pdf) and constructional help can be found at [http://www.free-energy-info.com/BeckBuild.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/BeckBuild.pdf). It is also a fact that autism can be quickly combatted by use of the 100-year old drug suramin.

There are also effects caused typically by aging. There is the condition of Alzheimer’s which can be combated by taking MSM and Lecithin daily and the condition of macular degeneration (made worse by using LED lighting in your home), leading to blindness which can be combated by taking Lutein daily.

Both Hulda Clark and Bob Beck have helped many people overcome physical problems. However, around 1920, Georges Lakhovsky, a Russian, presented a very advanced system which is probably the most powerful medical system to date.

The Lakhovsky system is based on the fact that every cell in a living body, vibrates at its own particular frequency and that cells which are not in good health have weak vibrations. Lakhovsky deals with this by sitting his patient in a mild electronic field which vibrates over a very wide range of frequencies. That vibrating field is very beneficial for the patient, as it reinforces the strength of the cells in the body, increasing their strength of vibration and so raising their level of health. There is no contact between the equipment and the patient, and the treatment can deal with all sorts of illnesses.
At time of writing I am not aware of any correctly-built, ready-made Lakhovsky oscillator being offered for sale. However, it is perfectly possible to make one of your own and that is what the remainder of this chapter is about. Just to get it clear in your mind, the treatment involves sitting in a harmless electronic field as you can see Lakhovsky doing here:

An American contributor who prefers to remain anonymous, has kindly agreed to share the details of his successful replication of a Lakhovsky wide-range oscillator. His design has been independently replicated by eighteen other people and his own unit has been in regular use for two years now. He says:

Using my Lakhovsky machine I never get sick or even get a cold any more. I use it for fifteen minutes once very four days. I will not bore you with Georges Lakhovsky's life story. There is a fair amount of information on the internet that you can search to find out more about the man. Let me tell you what I think of him, how I came to know him and his work, and why I think he is a "bigger than life" figure.

Lakhovsky was born in 1870 in Russia. He lived in France and then in 1940 he moved to America but having great knowledge and experience, he was welcomed by Dr Disraeli Kobak. Subsequently, Dr Kobak used Lakhovsky's machine to treat thousands of patients who had a wide range of diseases.

Lakhovsky died in a car accident in 1942. He was 73 years old. His son took over his work with Dr Kobak. Lakhovsky believed that cells are small Oscillatory Circuits, emitting ultra short electromagnetic waves. He has shown that no living thing is without cells, and those cells act like a radio formed by oscillating circuits.

In 1998 I purchased a book written by Georges Lakhovsky. The book is entitled "The Secret of Life". I still own that book and I would never sell it. It changed my view of the human body and how it works.... So, I started to collect anything about his work, I wanted to build his Multiple Wave Oscillator machine 20 years ago, but there was just not enough information available at that time.

I had some idea where to start, because of his patent of his early machine, but it was definitely not enough information to invest my time and money at that time. Years passed by while I waited for the right time. I also came to know about the Dotto ring machine but because of lack of information I decided to do nothing about it. As you will see shortly I made the right decision... you can't just guess the Lakhovsky machine! You need to know the facts, to be able to build it properly and safely!
Georges Lakhovsky was a humanitarian, caring individual who saved thousands of lives with his machine. Hundreds of time he treated poor people without charging them a fee. He said one time to a Doctor that to him is not about money and fame, when people came back to him after he healed them the look in their eyes, the gratitude to him was worth more than anything. All he cared about was helping sick people. He was far ahead of his time. He was a genius just like Nicola Tesla was.

Lakhovsky stated that "life is created by radiation, maintained by radiation and destroyed by oscillatory disequilibrium". How Lakhovsky’s machine works is not that difficult to understand. First you need to understand that everything in our universe is vibrating! Tesla said; “If you want to find the secrets of the universe, think in terms of energy, frequency and vibration”. Tesla became a good friend when Georges Lakhovsky asked him to help him to design his coil for his machine. I think the evidence is overwhelming in the machine itself. Some people say that there is Tesla technology hidden in Lakhovsky’s machine.

It is unfortunate that Tesla and Lakhovsky died just few months apart from each other. The biggest problem which Lakhovsky faced was that he had to overcome the fact that the human body made up of over some 200 quintillion cells! Each cell oscillates at its own specific rate, and with its own particular wavelength. So, he had to make an apparatus which is able to generate an electrostatic field with a high number of different frequencies with wavelengths anything from 3 meters to infra-red, that is a frequency from 750kHz through to 3 GHz or even 300 GHz. This is necessary so that every cell could find its own frequency and start vibrating in resonance.

To implement this, he also needed a diffuser antenna with an oscillating circuit connected to it. In 1931 the first Lakhovsky machine was installed in a Paris hospital. In America and in Europe the machine was used very successfully for treating various organic diseases, including cancer.

This is an advanced design and while the circuit diagram shows components as single items, some of them are made up of two or more components as explained in the descriptive text. There is very little scope for alternative components if the equipment is to operate as intended and produce beneficial effects on humans, and even the direction in which the equipment is orientated is a critical factor. However, the design as described here works well and is simple enough for you to build. This is the circuit diagram:

![Circuit Diagram]

the components are themselves fairly heavy and so are built into a fairly substantial box which itself is physically heavy, and so is mounted on four casters so that it can be wheeled around easily. As the builder is American, his mains supply is 110V AC which is controlled by a foot-operated switch which switch the equipment off instantly if patient chooses. The mains power then passes through a fuse, a filter and a magnetic switch to provide an electronically clean and safe power supply. However, as the circuit creates considerable electronic noise with its spark gap, the filter is primarily there to block signals generated by the circuit from getting back into the mains supply wiring. Similarly, the circuit has a six-rod earth connection located close by and which uses earthing rods of Copper, Brass, Aluminium, Iron and Zinc plated Copper. Please note that your “earth” or “ground” connection has to be your own separate earth connection and the mains earth wire must not be used as that would pass interference from the circuit through the common earth wire to other mains users nearby. A cooling fan is run directly from the mains supply and a mechanical manual timer is provided so that...
the treatment time can be set in advance. A neon lamp is installed to show when the timer is operational.

However, if you are not experienced in electronics, please do not be put off by the circuit diagram as most of the components can be bought ready-made and so the majority of creating the circuit is just a matter of interconnecting commercial components.

What needs to be built are the housing, a few coils (and those are easy to wind, even if you have never wound a coil before), the spark gap which is made from components which can be bought commercially and which is covered in great detail in this document, and the aerials which are also described in detail here.

To encourage you in this, take a look at some of the components which you can use in this project and you will notice that almost everything in the circuit ahead of the spark gap can be bought ready-made:

Whether operating with 110-volts AC mains as in America or with 220-volts AC mains everywhere else, a 770-watt variable transformer known as a “Variac” allows the voltage to the remainder of the circuit to be set manually and a voltmeter and an ammeter are provided to show what the power input is for the remainder of the circuit. Voltmeters, ammeters and capacitors are all available commercially and an eBay search should find the components which you need.
The operational part of the circuit starts with a 12,000V 60mA step-up transformer with capacitor “C1” connected across its primary winding. While the circuit diagram shows this component as a simple transformer, it is actually a Neon Sign Transformer (“NST”) and driver circuit which raises the frequency of the alternating voltage to 20,000 cycles per second or more, and the voltage to eight thousand volts or more. The output from the NST secondary passes through two chokes and two resistors to capacitor “C2” where voltage build up until the spark gap discharges. A spark creates a very sharp voltage pulse which contains all frequencies added together in a single pulse and that pulse is fed through the two capacitors “C3” and “C4” to the transmission aerials which are built so as to transmit a range of different frequencies through resonating elements of the aerial:

You will notice that there are many different diameters of copper pipe used in this aerial and that, combined with the diameter of the circle into which each pipe is bent, causes each section of pipe to resonate with a different frequency, and that is the operational heart of the design, but more of this later on.

So, in broad outline, we have a circuit which causes two matching aerials to oscillate (90 degrees out of phase) at a range of frequencies, and that creates a very beneficial environment for a human
being, and probably any other living biological primate. The builder says: No doctor has ever healed anybody in the history of mankind. Your own body has the power to heal itself 24 hours, 7 days a week and doctors can only help the body to recover faster. I have built a machine that keeps me energised, making me feel better every time I use it, it releases me from every day stress, and heals me if that is necessary.

A logical place to start construction is to make the housing. As the builder is American, he shows dimensions in Imperial units (feet and inches) but as most people in the world work in Metric units (metres and millimetres) drawings showing measurements in Imperial units are repeated in metric units. None of the drawings are to scale.

The housing is built in three-quarter-inch solid timber or plywood which is three quarters of an inch (about 18 mm or 20 mm) thick. It has a front, a hinged back, two sides, a top, a bottom, a full size shelf and a narrow shelf. The sides have ventilators to allow the fans to blow cooling air through the housing as most of the electrical and electronic equipment is positioned inside the housing and the spark discharges cause heating.

Much of the contents of the housing is heavy and as the housing itself is substantial, the overall weight makes it advisable to mount the housing on wheels or castors so that it can be moved around easily. One aerial is attached to the housing and the other aerial is on a separate free-standing unit as shown here:
You will notice that the plastic ventilator covers span across most of the side panels. They are positioned with one above the internal shelf and one below it on each side of the housing:
The dimensions of the pieces are as follows:

Door:
- Width: 17.5 inches
- Height: 36.25 inches

Front panel (facing the aerials):
- Width: 16 inches
- Height: 40 inches
- Electrical connection box mounted on the outside
- Antenna holder
- Ground connection

Base panel:
- Width: 16 inches
- Height: 19.75 inches

Top panel:
- Width: 16 inches
- Height: 20.1 inches
Side panel (2 required)

These panels can now be assembled to form the housing:
If you intend to paint the housing, then do it now before installing anything. The housing is completed by installing one full-size shelf and one quarter-width shelf inside the housing:

We are now ready to install the parts which make up the circuit. We can buy most of these ready to install, but others we need to construct as there is no commercial supplier which we can use.

We are now about to start construction of the electronic part of this circuit and so it is very important indeed that you understand the factors involved. This unit is mains powered, whether by 110-volts or by 220-volts. **These mains voltages are running at low frequency of 50 or 60 cycles per second which is a destructive frequency for humans.** That voltage and speed (combined with the ability to supply substantial current at that speed) is liable to kill you if you touch it. **Also, everything connected to that sort of power supply is equally dangerous.** So, you definitely disconnect the system from the mains before making any alterations to any of that circuitry. That means, every part of the circuit up to and including the primary winding of the “step-up” transformer, which is actually not just a transformer but instead is a Neon Sign Transformer circuit which raises the frequency to 20,000 cycles per second or higher, and the voltage to thousands of volts, at which point it is no longer dangerous to humans. So the dangerous part of the circuit is:
However, to put the level of danger in perspective, that level of danger applies to all mains equipment, changing a light bulb, tightening a loose wire in a mains plug, and so on. Just be very sure that the mains connection is not plugged in when you are connecting or altering any wiring in this part of the circuit. This is just common sense. You can wear rubber gloves as an additional safety measure if you wish.

The starting part of the circuit can be assembled quite easily. The two plastic junction boxes are mounted on the outside of the front of the machine, that is, the surface facing the ‘transmitting’ aerial which will be attached to this housing unit. The box on the same side as the earthing box is for housing the incoming mains.
The ‘Variac’ variable mains transformer is the next item to be connected. Please remember that this has a mains power connection to its input side and in some of its adjustment positions it will also have mains power at its output side. The Variac may look like this:

![VARIABLE AC TRANSFORMER # 116CU AC OUTPUT VARIAC 0-140VAC 60HZ. @ 10AMPS 1.4KVA](image)

However, Variac construction varies a great deal and so your particular Variac may look different. Please remember that if your local mains supply is 220-volts that your Variac needs to be designed for that voltage. You can probably locate one on eBay.

The output from the Variac has two meters attached to it. The ammeter is inserted into one line so that the current is forced to pass through it, while the voltmeter is connected between the two output wires following the ammeter so that it shows the voltage being applied to the remainder of the circuit. It is essential that these two meters are AC types as we are not dealing with DC anywhere in this circuit. The meters for 110V use will look like this:

![1PC AC 0-10A Analog Ammeter Panel AMP Current Meter 50°50mm No need Shunt](image)

1 PC AC 0-200V Analog 85L1 Voltage Analogue Panel meter Directly connnected

Meters of this type generally have screw connections, so the connecting leads are best terminated with crimped connectors which will suit the screw connectors.

And please remember that these connections are carrying mains power and so are potentially dangerous, so be sure that the mains is not connected when you attach these metres.
We now have reached the specialist part of the circuit and we need to start paying attention to the fine details involved. Here is the full circuit:

![Circuit Diagram]

However, please understand that we are dealing with high-voltage components and they are generally hard to find. Consequently, we generally make up the required values by connecting together two or more components in a chain (known as “in series”) in order to raise the working voltage of the combination. But, doing that alters the characteristics of the group and on occasion that change can be important. For example, why connect several capacitors in series if any one of them can easily handle the voltage being used? That is a good question as the answer is not at all obvious. The answer is because of the way that capacitors charge up. The voltage across a capacitor which is being charged, increases in a very non-linear way and it is generally illustrated like this:

![Voltage vs Time Graph]

The red lines show the average rate of charge and the steeper the line, the faster the rate of charge. The greater the charging voltage relative to the size of the capacitor, the steeper the start of the line is. When connecting two or more high-voltage capacitors in series, the combined set of capacitors charges up very fast indeed. The intensity of that current is determined by the size of the capacitors in the chain, the larger the capacitors the more intense the pulse.

In theory, as capacitors are mass-produced, there is liable to be a difference in the exact parameters of any one capacitor. So, if you connect several supposedly identical capacitors in series, if one has a smaller capacity than the others, then it could charge up faster than the others and exceed its maximum voltage rating before the other capacitors have charged up to the intended level. It is not worth bothering about with just two capacitors in the chain, but when there are several, then it is worth while protecting them by connecting a very high value resistor across each capacitor:
This has the effect of overcoming any such manufacturing variations and keeps the voltage across each capacitor substantially the same, without causing any major problems.

The Lakhovsky apparatus needs to have an exceptionally fine earth of its own, one which is wholly isolated from the earth wire used with the mains supply. For this, six six-foot-long (2m) earthing rods of half-inch (12 mm) diameter are driven into the ground like this:

The wires between each of the earthing rods is kept short, typically three feet or one metre, and the connection from this ground array to the earthing box on the lower outside corner of the Lakhovsky device is also kept as short as possible. Normally, this ground wire is not connected to the earthing wire of the mains supply. The six-rod earthing array shown here forms an important part of the Lakhovsky design. However, some places on Earth have soil of very poor conductivity and if you live in such an area, it may be necessary to join the mains earthing lead to your Lakhovsky earth array.

There are two pairs of capacitors in the earthing box which have not yet been shown. These are for additional cleaning up of the mains supply, intended to capture and suppress any voltage spikes arriving along the mains wiring. These are 2.2nF 1000-volt capacitors connected in pair to produce a 1.1nF 2000V composite capacitor:

They are arranged like this in the mains supply insulating connection box:
We also need to combine capacitors to make the 50pF 60KV capacitor which is connected across the input winding of the Neon Sign Transformer driver circuit. For this, we use two of these capacitors connected in series:

And finally, we need two identical capacitors with a value of 15.9 nF and a 45KV rating, and we will use three of these capacitors connected in series, to make up each of these two capacitors:
The NST unit is readily available as these units are used to drive neon signs, but a common practice nowadays is for the manufacturer to build in circuitry to stop the circuit operating if there is "leakage to earth". While that is a sensible precaution, it must be avoided in this circuit as the spark gap discharges continuously to earth and so an earth-leakage protected NST will stop the circuit operating. There are three ways around this. First is to find an old NST (or build one yourself) which does not have the protection circuit. Second is to open a new NST and disable the protection circuit (if your knowledge of circuitry is up to that), or third, ask the manufacturer to supply you one which has the circuit disabled by the manufacturer. Ideally, you want an NST which provides 10,000 volts at 60 milliamps at a frequency of 20,000 cycles per second (or faster).

You need to decide where the equipment will be used during the treatment session. This location needs to have the transmission aerial array in the direction of North and the receiving aerial in the direction of South. Also, the equipment needs to be at least one metre away from equipment such as computers, TVs and anything else of that nature, and away from permanently mounted equipment such as wall-mounted heaters or air conditioning units. Remember that walls do not block electronic signals (if they did, then radios would not work indoors). Having chosen the position, prepare a mains plug and length of cable from the nearest mains socket to your device. Also, the chosen working position needs to be close to where the 6-rod earthing grid is physically located.

Please remember that having passed through the fuse and the filter, the cable exiting from the plastic box is still carrying dangerous mains power. The drawing shows the "Live" mains wire as brown which is the European standard (it used to be red but was changed as 30% of males are colour blind). In America that wire is colour-coded black and the European blue "neutral" wire is colour-coded white in America. The wire coming from the filter unit connects next to the emergency Off switch box and care needs to be taken as the cable leaves that box. First it connects to the fan speed control and the fan. Then it connects to the mechanical 15-minute timer and when it exits from the timer module, the neon is wired across it to show when the power is on to the rest of the circuit, and the wires then continue to the input of the Variac variable transformer:

Remember that we are still solidly inside the mains power danger zone as we have just completed the wiring inside the blue rectangle. The wiring connections made can be soldered connections which are then insulated, or they can be mains-voltage screw connectors or crimped connectors. No matter which method is used, the finished result should make it impossible to touch any live wire or connector with a finger, so insulate everything as people make mistakes and are liable to forget that they have left the equipment plugged in to the mains.
The output of the Variac is still mains power and it is wired across the AC voltmeter mounted on the control panel and to one side of the AC ammeter which is also mounted on the control panel. Please remember that the wires coming away from these two meters are carrying mains power and all joints still need to be insulated. The final connection in this section is to the input of the Neon Sign Transformer driver circuit which also has the “C1” capacitor connected across it. From this point onwards, the frequency rises by a factor of 200 times or so and that makes it much safer for human contact.

Each wire coming out of the NST unit has a coil called a “choke” attached to it. You wind these coils using #24 AWG enamelled solid copper wire which has a diameter of 0.511 millimetres, and some thick nylon fishing line. Each coil is wound on a 3.5 inch (90 mm) spool. The spools can be made up using several layers of paper, or they can be plastic. However, if they are plastic then be warned that only “white schedule 40 PVC” material is suitable for this kind of work as other colours have additives which make the material unsuitable. Each of these chokes are wound with 100 turns of wire and each wire turn is separated from its neighbour by running a thick strand of fishing nylon line alongside the winding wire. That is, the coil is wound with the enamelled copper wire and the nylon line beside it, producing a coil of wire, nylon, wire, nylon, wire, etc. for a hundred turns of each. Each finished coil should have an inductance of 426 micro-Henries. These chokes are installed on the small lower shelf and each has a 1K 25-watt resistor attached to its output wire:

It needs to be understood that ordinary wire is just not suitable in a circuit like this where high voltages are being carried by the wire. The insulation of ordinary wire will just break down and it could cause a short-circuit and possibly a fire. Because of this, you need to use wire with extra high quality insulation. The builder has chosen to modify coaxial cable and enclose it in an additional layer of plastic pipe. The first step is to buy high-quality coaxial cable:

The cable is then modified by removing the dark outer insulation and the laced copper screen which leaves the central copper conductor surrounded by a thick plastic layer.

This arrangement can be seen clearly here where two sets of three capacitors are strapped together to form the two 5.9nF 45KV capacitors, which being high-voltage, have the high-voltage wire connecting them to the Neon Sign Transformer circuit:
We now come to the items which we need to fabricate for this Lakhovsky system. We will start with the spark gap. This is built on a plastic chopping board. These boards are made from very rigid UHMWP (Ultra High Molecular Weight Polythene) plastic material and they are available in white and various colours. They are tough but can be sawn and are an excellent non-conductive constructional material. The chopping boards used by the constructor were 14 x 10 x 3/8 inches (355 x 254 x 9 mm) in size. The baseboard has a rectangular piece removed from it:
Each section of the spark gap is made from a short length of tungsten rod which can stand the high temperature generated by the sparks. The tungsten rod is inserted into a section of 1.5 inch diameter aluminium rod, which is tapped at the other end to allow a length of brass rod to be screwed into it. An aluminium mounting bracket is bolted to the brass rod using a brass nut and then a length of 5 mm diameter solid copper wire is flanked by two washers and clamped tightly with a third brass nut.

Secure electrical connections can be made like this:

For this, the wire is bent around in a circle in the direction that a tightening nut turns, and if possible, the end is secured with a solder joint. If this is done, then even without the solder and without the washer, tightening a nut in direct contact with the wire tends to pull the wire tighter against the brass rod instead of distorting the loop and spoiling the electrical contact.
However, the overall arrangement shown does not allow the width of the spark gap to be adjusted. The adjustment is normally very small, varying from a 0.01 mm gap to a 0.04 mm gap, but for very ill patients, a gap of up to 5 mm may be used. That five millimetre movement is small being only 3/16" or so, but this adjustment is very important as part of the treatment. To arrange for this movement, the lower four components are mounted on a movable block of plastic and a length of 3/8 inch (10 mm) diameter threaded stainless steel rod is used to make the spark gap adjustable. This adjustable arrangement is produced by locking the upper row or four electrodes in place and placing the lower four electrodes on a wide strip of plastic board material which is attached to a 3/8" (9 mm) diameter stainless steel threaded rod, allowing the tiny movement required. The stainless steel rod is extended by attaching a "bakelite" insulating plastic rod to it, running the bakelite rod through the top of the housing and attaching an insulating plastic knob to it. This arrangement is constructed like this:

The lowest bracket is bolted to the full-size timber shelf and computer fans are attached to the main vertical plastic plate to blow cooling air across the four spark gaps. The stainless steel rod passes through the upper block of plastic strips but is not connected to them in any way.
The dimensions for constructing this adjustable spark gap are as follows.

The base board has just one central opening cut in it as shown here:
This board is called type “B” and the mounting holes drilled in it allow it to be bolted to a 12” (305 mm) length of 1.5” x 1.5” (40 mm x 40 mm) aluminium angle.

The following strips are now cut from other HDMWP plastic chopping boards:

5 pieces 12” x 2” (305 mm x 50 mm) called type “A”.
5 pieces 11.5” x 2.25” (292 mm x 57 mm) called type “C”.
2 pieces 11.25” x 1.75” (286 mm x 45 mm) called type “D”.

These pieces fit together to form the stationary support block and the movable support block on which the spark gap components are mounted.

They are positioned like this:
The piece of aluminium angle has the adjustment rod fed through it, so it needs to be drilled like this:

A hole of about 1/8" (3 mm) is drilled through the stainless steel threaded rod, about 0.5" (12 mm) from the end ready for attaching the insulating bakelite rod and plastic knob. The aluminium angle is then bolted to the stack of “A” plastic pieces and fitted with the washers and nuts shown here:
One detail to be mentioned is the tip of each spark gap. As that part gets hot, using tungsten is sensible and so the builder bought in eight pieces each one inch (25 mm) long and a quarter inch (6 mm) in diameter. These were bought on eBay:

![Image of tungsten rods](image1)

(4) Pure Tungsten Rod Electrodes 1/4” dia x 1” long Tesla Coil Spark Gap

Seller: saturnind (1774 ⭐) 99.7% Positive feedback
Follow this seller | See other items | Visit store: saturnind

Item condition: New
Quantity: 1
Price: US $28.60

![Image of aluminum rod](image2)

1-1/2" Diameter 6061 Aluminum Round Rod 2" Length T6511 Extruded 1.5 inch Dia
( 322186173598 )

Quantity: 10

20-24
And each was inserted into an axial hole drilled in the short section of 1.5” (40 mm) diameter aluminium solid bar, and held in place with a brass locking screw at right angles, tapped into the aluminium rod:

![Image of inserted components](image1)

The mounting bracket is clamped to the aluminium section using a piece of 3/8-inch brass threaded rod which has been tapped into an axial hole.

**The aerials:**
Once the construction of the spark gap has been completed, we need to make the two aerial arrays. For this, we need to use a one-inch thick timber template so that the positioning and sizes of each ring is exactly right. While plywood could be used for the housing, it is **not** suitable for this template.

![Image of aerial arrays](image2)
The idea is to cut a groove or channel for each pipe ring, bend and place each ring in its groove, and when all of the rings are in place, use the two extra diagonal grooves to tie the rings securely in place so that when they are hanging in the air they remain in exactly the correct positioning. The builder cut the larger grooves using a half-inch chisel, a quarter-inch chisel and a mallet and the smaller grooves using screwdrivers instead of chisels. Here is what the board looks like in an advanced stage of construction:

First, the exact ring positions are marked out on the board. These are the diameter of the centreline of each pipe, the groove width and the groove depth:

Ring 1: Diam 500 mm, width 14.5 mm, depth 8 mm, copper diameter 14 mm, buy 144"
Ring 2: Diam 400 mm, width 12.3 mm, depth 7 mm, copper diameter 12 mm, buy 120"
Ring 3: Diam 320 mm, width 10.3 mm, depth 6 mm, copper diameter 10 mm, buy 96"
Ring 4: Diam 275 mm, width 8.2 mm, depth 5 mm, copper diameter 8 mm, buy 72"
Ring 5: Diam 225 mm, width 6.2 mm, depth 4 mm, copper diameter 6 mm, buy 115"
Ring 6: Diam 184 mm, width 6.2 mm, depth 4 mm, copper diameter 6 mm.
Ring 7: Diam 143 mm, width 6.2 mm, depth 4 mm, copper diameter 6 mm.
Ring 8: Diam 112 mm, width 6.2 mm, depth 4 mm, copper diameter 6 mm.
Ring 9: Diam 81 mm, width 6.2 mm, depth 4 mm, copper diameter 6 mm.
Ring 10: Diam 51 mm, width 3.1 mm, depth 3 mm, copper diameter 3 mm. buy 36"
Ring 11: Diam 30 mm, width 3.1 mm, depth 3 mm, copper diameter 3 mm.
Ring 12: Diam 14 mm, width 3.1 mm, depth 3 mm, copper diameter 3 mm.

The soft copper pipe lengths were bought from China and the lengths shown above are sufficient for making two aerials. Brass spheres were soldered to the ends of the larger tubes. These were bought in America as they were easier to find there. The quantities needed are: 4 size 7/8", 4 size 3/4", 4 size 5/8", 4 size 1/2", and 20 size 3/8". The 3 mm diameter rings were left open ended and care was taken to ensure that the pipe was circular and not damaged in any way at the ends. This style of pipe cutter was used:
The copper pipe used in these aerials is made of “soft” copper which can be bent by hand, unlike the current UK plumbing variety which is very rigid and needs a powerful mechanical device to bend it. The greater flexibility is caused by a final annealing process during manufacture.

The builder describes the finishing steps like this: Starting with the biggest ring to the smallest one. I always cut in with a carpet knife on the two side’s markings before I started chiselling out the tube size line. Also I marked a 3/8” wide 1/2” deep cross for making room to tie the rings together. After this I just kept chiselling away for three days when I had time! Now the fun part; I took the copper tubes and started forming them in to the template from the number 12 ring to the biggest ring, the number 1. As seen on the photo, the number 1 ring's cut ends in the assembled antenna, with the gap at the top! The number 1 ring will be attached to the output coil later on; it will also hold all other 11 rings in their positions.

Thinking ahead before I started making the rings I drilled the correct sphere holes on the template paying attention on the up and down positions of the spheres. It can easily confuse anybody after working for so many hours on this part of the project. I triple checked all the rings positions to make sure that they are correct before I started to tie the rings together while they were still in their grooves. But I was not ready yet! When all the rings are formed, I drilled the spheres with the correct holes and soldered them on to the copper tubes. I ordered solid brass spheres, no holes in them at all. I used a stand drill and had two aluminium pieces installed on the two sides of the table vise which was holding the spheres for drilling. I drilled about half way into any of the spheres from straight up to the centre of the sphere.

4 pieces of 7/8” spheres (for two antennas) got centre drilled half way in with 17mm drill bit
4 pieces of 3/4” spheres (for two antennas) got centre drilled half way in with 15mm drill bit
4 pieces of 5/8” spheres (for two antennas) got centre drilled half way in with 13mm drill bit
4 pieces of 1/2” spheres (for two antennas) got centre drilled half way in with 11mm drill bit
20 pieces of 3/8” spheres (for two antennas) got centre drilled half way in with 8mm drill bit

If by any chance one of the copper pipe ends is not perfectly rounded, try to fix the problem with conical pliers and if really necessary, drill another hole one size bigger in the sphere to make it fit. DO NOT push a screw diver into the hole trying to fix the edge around the tube end. The inner end side of the screw driver will push out the copper tube wall, damaging the copper pipe! I used Pipe Tubing Cutter No. 350 (US) professional plumber hand tool for cutting the pipes to fit, and when I got to the small tubes I simply used a metal saw and holding my hand with the tube in it, put my hand on the table edge and cut the needed piece off. After every cut I filed the ends off with fine metal file, finishing with 220 sandpaper.

The following process will demand careful planning: I previously cut off 4 pieces of 1/2” round brass rod, 1” long. I made the two rods to fit into the two open ends of one of the biggest ring. I did not have to solder it because it could never go anywhere. After this I took the first sphere and put them on
to the two ends of my first number 1 ring. Of course before all the rings get soldered they have to be cleaned up at the ends with sandpaper and brush on plumbing flux (water soluble, lead free) everywhere around the soldering area. I used the blue BernzOmatic P propane tank, net weight 14.1 oz. I only used the smallest setting on it with a flame size of about 1/2". I always soldered the one on the top. When I finished, about in one minute I cooled heated area down with a cold wet rag, and turned the tube around. I did the same process till I got all the nine rings finished. All my rings are sized correctly between the spheres and ready for the next step. I used fine brass scuffing pad to shine them up, and I cleaned all the rings with ammonia cleaning solution. I put them all back in the template. My spheres fitted perfectly.

I used Nylon Wax Lacing Tape Tying String Size 4 Finish B - 500 yards each MIL-T-43436B. It worked well. I had no idea how much was needed for one side of the cross to finish it, so I pulled off about 4' of the nylon lace. The good thing about this part, there is no way to make costly mistake, if it doesn't look right it can be cut off and started again. Tools needed are; one small pair of scissors, a magnifying glass, and 7-SA tweezers. I started with the number 12 ring which is the smallest of all the tubes, and put three knots on it. I had to pick it out of its place because it is so small, but when I was done I put it right back to its right position. Next, I went under the next tube, turning around the tube and came back to where I went under the tube, I went under the straight lace and came back on top, back through the loop I just made before, I put my finger on the small ring and on the second smallest ring and I squeezed the nylon lace. I basically made a knot over the next tube of number 12 Ring. After this made another tight knot on the same ring! The third time I just went around the same ring without the knot and pulled on the nylon lace. Every time I made a loop on any rings I put my fingers to hold the involved rings down, and I pulled on the lace and moved on to the next ring, went under it and the whole process is repeating itself again until I reached the 6th ring. At the 6th ring all the same, but when I went to the next ring from here on I approached the first contact from the top not through the bottom and the rest is all the same with the top approach till the last ring number 1.

After every turn it is necessary to pull hard on the lace keeping the connections between the rings tight. When the last ring is finished, I went back with the lace to the number 3 ring from the bottom (opposite of what has been done before). When I turned back to toward the number 1 ring, I made a knot on number 3 ring and went straight back on the top of the number 2 ring, made the usual knot again and went to the number 1 ring again on the top and making 2 more tight knots on the number 1 ring. I carefully cut the end off the lace about 1" away from the knot and one side of the cross was done. Next, must finish the opposite of the cross I just finished, so I am pulling on against the side I just finished. This insures the integrity of the antenna gets stronger, by finishing step by step all the cross sides. I finished all 4 sides of the cross grooves.

The completed aerial array is connected in its place with four plastic spacing nuts on each side because if connected with brass like this, you get sparks between the corners of the nuts:

![Use Plastic nuts]
In order to connect up the two aerials, we need to construct two Tesla coils, one for the transmitting aerial connected to the housing and one for the free-standing receiving aerial.

These coils are a bit unusual. They are wound in a “clockwise” direction and they have two separate coils wound on a single former or central tube. The first coil is made with thick wire and is only 6.3 turns long, and these turns are spaced out so that there is a 2 mm gap between each turn and the next turn. The wire is bare #10 AWG which has a diameter of 2.54 mm. The windings take up only 1.25 inches (29 mm) along the former which has a diameter of 2.99 inches (76 mm) and is made of white “schedule 40 PVC” plastic.

Then there is a gap of a quarter of an inch (6 mm) between that thick primary coil and the thinner secondary 330-turn coil which is wound with #20 AWG solid enamelled copper wire with a diameter of 0.81 mm:

However, the transmitting Tesla coil and the receiving Tesla coil need to resonate at different frequencies, so wind the receiving coil with 350 turns of wire to give it a lower resonant frequency. We want the frequency difference between the two coils to be 100 kHz. Getting that to happen is not all that easy.

This requires the use of a Megahertz frequency oscilloscope and a radio-frequency signal generator. Radio frequency is the range from 3 kHz to 300 GHz. If you happen to own those and are familiar with how they work, then that is excellent. For the rest of us, it is a case of finding a friend who has those, or perhaps persuading a technician at your local university or technical college to help you with
the setting up of your machine. Failing that, there may be a radio amateur club in your area and members would almost certainly be pleased to help out.

We need to isolate each coil in turn, so we remove both aerials and the receiving Tesla coil and place they well away in another room. Then we couple the signal generator loosely to the transmitting Tesla coil by taking an unshielded wire from the generator and wrapping two turns around the outside of the coil holder. That signal generator wire radiates the generator frequency and the Tesla coil picks up that frequency and transmits from the thick-wire primary through the thin-wire secondary and on out into the room along that axis.

We pick up that radiated signal by giving the oscilloscope an aerial like a TV indoor aerial. A loop of wire is quite sufficient for this, so place the oscilloscope on a stool or chair in front of the Tesla coil, at the same height and two or three feet away from it. The Lakhovsky machine is left switched off and the spark gap needs to be either fully open or fully closed, so short-circuit the spark gap like this:

![Image of a machine with a signal generator and oscilloscope setup]

Make sure that the Lakhovsky earth grid is connected and then power up the signal generator and the oscilloscope. As the signal generator frequency is adjusted, the signal received and displayed by the oscilloscope increases or decreases in strength. The maximum signal strength is when the Tesla coil resonates with the generator's signal. That frequency is likely to be more than 500 kHz and less than 1 MHz. When you have discovered that value, remove the Tesla coil and put it in another room. Replace the receiving Tesla coil but not the aerial, and prepare to repeat the oscilloscope measurement. We need to make the receiving Tesla coil resonate 100 kHz lower than the transmitting Tesla coil. The receiving Tesla coil’s resonant frequency can be lowered by adding more turns to the receiving coil’s secondary or raised by removing some turns. It is much harder to add turns to an existing coil rather than to remove turns, and that is why additional turns are suggested on one of the two Tesla coils. That number of turns will be reduced as you tune the resonant frequency of the second Tesla coil.

When you have got the two Tesla coils with a 100 kHz difference in resonant frequency, then both coils can be coated with a suitable material. The easiest is the old-fashioned shellac which is easy to use and dries to a shiny brown coat which acts as a high-voltage insulator. The American developer opted to use a mixture of resin and hardener used for fabricating fibreglass, but that has a very long hardening time and the coil has to be rotated for long periods of time in order to keep an even thickness of the coating.
When the coating on both coils has hardened, the spark gap short circuit can be removed and both Tesla coils and both aerials mounted again. Please remember that you must not use metal nuts as spacers to keep the aerials away from the Tesla coil housings as you will get unwanted sparking between the nuts if you do that. If you have any difficulty in getting plastic nuts of the correct size, then you can just use a non-conductive sleeve of rigid plastic or of hardwood.

**Using the machine:**
The developer describes using the equipment like this: My machine is set up in the room, so that it is close to the area where my ground rods are located outside. The machine is aligned along a North-South axis, with the transmitter aerial attached to the housing being on the North side.

I positioned the two antennas 31 inches (790 mm) apart. We are all different sizes, so there should be 8” (200 mm) between each antenna and the body. I don't adjust them any more, if I'm sitting between the antennas, shoulder to shoulder I have 200 mm between me and the antenna, and if I stand up and I turn sideways between the antennas I just position myself in the centre of the two antennas. I never touch the antennas when the machine is operating and I don't touch them for 30 minutes after using the machine. If I have to touch the antennas immediately after testing for any reason, I make sure that all capacitors are discharged!!

I use an all wood stool to sit on (21" high x 13” width) if I sit during treatment. I remove all metal objects off me before I use the machine and I keep them far away so that they will not interfere with the performance of the machine. I put my wood stool on the top of a plastic sheet 44” x 27” x 2mm thick. I try to avoid having anything metal in the treatment room, and I have NO metal anywhere within 4-feet around the machine. The emergency foot-operated shut-off switch allows me to power down the equipment completely if something is not right. I always check my antenna distance and I always do a visual check before I start using the equipment. I have a great respect for the power it takes to run this machine, I never forget the fact that it can certainly heal me, but if I am not careful it can also kill me.

I personally do not have any disease or any major physical problems. I built the Lakhovsky machine to prevent illness before it could happen - sort of like having my own insurance, rather than paying for the expensive Obama Care.

First I let the equipment run continuously over 1 hour for testing, to see how all my connections are holding up, and waiting for any sign of high voltage problems like burning wire, sparking, or anything that would compromise any level of safety. Every 10 minutes I turned the Variac transformer to a higher voltage to see if at maximum power still everything stays normal. My machine worked as expected.

Starting the equipment is very easy. Plug in the main power to the wall outlet. Making sure that no window air-conditioning unit, any electric motor or computer is running nearby. I have a fused Power Socket Surge Protector Strip Plug Extension Cord 3ft long and I plug my equipment in to that and then I plug the extension cord in to the mains supply socket. Then I turn on the main power switch on
the housing control panel. I then turn on the Timer switch to the desired time, which activates the cooling fans, neon light, and the Variac transformer.

The voltage adjustment very much depends on what size of high voltage transformer is installed in the equipment. The higher the Neon Tube Transformer module output voltage, the lower is the voltage needed to run the equipment. Mine is a 12,000-volt module. I adjust the voltage to about 40-50 volts as shown on my voltage meter. My spark gap turns on around 30 volts and start to be giving more constant sound the more I keep turning the voltage higher. When I have turned my Variac transformer up to the voltage I want, I never need to adjust it any more, but I am using the machine for maintaining my health and keeping my immune system "charged". So, for that I adjust the NST output voltage to 3700 volts and I adjust the spark gaps to give 3 amps on my ammeter. More than enough for most of the maintaining health and less serious conditions like cold or headache.

For more serious medical conditions, the NST can be adjusted to 4000 volts and between 3 and 4.5 amps for deeper penetrations in the body. Care must be taking to insure the problematic side facing the transmitter antenna. For very sick people or for a child, you should use a lower adjustment and a shorter treatment time, like 3400 volts and 2 to 2.5 amps with 10 minutes of running time.

The equipment is of great value for dogs and cats too, but for them adjustment should be around 3000 volts at 2 amps for a maximum of 10 minutes or less for cats and small dogs. When I adjust the voltage and amps to the desired ampere if I hear a breaking up sound from the spark gaps I just turn the Variac knob to slowly raise the voltage until the equipment's spark gap is giving out a nice continuous sound - when this happens everything works right. I sit between the antennas until the adjusted manual timer turns the equipment off. Do not touch the antennas.

When I am done, I turn off the switches and I always unplug the equipment after every use. I usually turn my timer to 15 minutes. Sometimes I use it twice a week some times I use it every 3 days or just once a week. It depends on how I feel. According to experienced operators, the best results can be achieved by using the equipment every 4th day.

I also drink a big glass of water with 1000mg of vitamin C (non-acidic sodium ascorbate) in soluble fine crystals form, mixed in the water. I drink another 8 ounce glass of water right after when I am finished using the equipment machine.

**Personal experiences:**
I love my Lakhovsky machine! "Can't live without it!" I don't know that I found the sweet spot maybe with my adjustments on my machine that resonate with my body composition but it works on me just great. I know this because in less than 7 minutes it calms me down like no kava or xanax could. It's just a miracle how it can affect me and still after all this time I wonder how this is possible even if I understand the principle of the machine. I never get cold or sick any more. After the machine been used, it makes me feel relaxed all day long and just feeling that general well being, with uplifting like everything is great.

I have a routine usage of my machine. Most of the time I use it every 4th day around noon when the sun is highest above me. I start my cycle by putting the antennas at my head and neck position, shoulder to shoulder position, so my liver is on the transmitter antenna side. I do 15 minutes. This is my set up that is the most powerful for me. I feel calmness in 5 to 7 minutes. Four days later I set up my antennas to my back & front standing up (no wood stool) around where the kidneys are facing the transmitter antenna. I do 12 minutes. Four days later, I position myself the same way before but at this time my abdomen area facing the transmitter antenna. I do 15 minutes. I finish my cycle four days later by positioning my antennas to my legs when I am sitting on my stool shoulder to shoulder, liver facing the transmitter antenna. My cycle is done and I take a week off and then start my cycle again same way or randomly how ever I feel about it.

I see many people paying for Rife tubes to use them with the Lakhovsky machine which cost thousands of dollars of additional money. I think it is a waste of money! I use MMS to kill pathogens in my body! It works and cost pennies to make it! Taking everything into account, I am very satisfied with my Lakhovsky machine!
**Disclaimer:**
Please understand clearly, that this text is for information purposes only and it must not be construed as being an encouragement to make or use any such equipment. Should you, in spite of this warning, decide to build and use any such machine, then you do so entirely at your own risk and on your own responsibility, and nobody other than you is in any way responsible for your actions and the resulting effects.

Also, if you are not already familiar with working with high-voltage circuits, then please do not do so unless under the supervision and guidance of a person who has experience with these kinds of circuits.

Please note that nobody who has a pacemaker or any similar device, should come within ten metres of this machine when it is switched on as the pacemaker or device is likely to be affected by the radiation coming from the machine, and that could result in death.

It has also been commented on that the electromagnetic radiations from a Lakhovsky device can damage computer and other similar circuitry if not kept well away from the machine. A distance of one metre is the absolute minimum distance and a distance of ten metres is to be preferred.

This equipment produces a continuous spark in the same way that a MIG welder does, and so there is a similar visual hazard. However, as the spark gap is inside the housing, just ensure that the door of the housing is kept closed when the machine is in use.

Finally, as already stated in the text, capacitors can hold lethal levels of charge for a very long time after the equipment is disconnected from the mains. This must be allowed for, and it is good practice to connect a high-value resistor across any high-voltage capacitor, so that the charge will be siphoned off reasonably soon after power-down.

Since writing this, people have made copies for themselves and they and their friends have experienced great medical benefits from this equipment.

**2017 Updates**
The designer of the Lakhovsky equipment shown above has made some improvements and comments in March 2017. He says:

**Additional capacitors:** I have updated my two capacitor banks from the original 15.9nF /15KV to 21.2nF /15KV. For this, I installed one more 5300pF /15KV capacitor to my already existing capacitor bank. I added one more 5300pF /15KV capacitor into the parallel connections with the rest of the capacitors in each bank. So, each side now has four 5300pF /15KV capacitors. I did this for smoother operation, more vibration and having more "punch" at the end of the antennas.

**Cleaning the spark gaps:** After using the machine for ten hours, I clean the spark gaps because they will have built up white residue deposits which interfere with the smooth operation of the spark gap as a whole. With the machine unplugged and the capacitors discharged, I open the spark gaps as much as possible. I use a brass rounded brush to clean the surface area.

![Image of Lakhovsky machine](image-url)
around the tungsten rods and the aluminium which is holding the rods. When that has been completed, I use a small file and gently file the end of the two rods until they shine again. Then I blow them off with an air can cleaner for keyboard cleaning, unless compressed air is available, and finally, adjust the spark gaps to the desired gap size.

**Adjustments during use:** I have repeatedly tested different spark gap distances and higher or lower voltage adjustments in order to find the best healing results for the body. I found one spark gap setting that felt better for many applications. I believe that the smaller the spark gaps, the higher the "quality" of vibration at the antennas. I found that many experiments were much better if I adjusted the spark gaps to 0.20 mm drawing between 3 and 4 amps. I'm using a transformer which has a 120V input and a 12,000V output, and able to provide 60 milliamps of current. This is an old style Neon Tube Transformer, with the mid point of the output winding grounded.

I also believe that I should not lower the current below 3 amps unless the machine is being used for sick small children or very weak old people or dogs and cats! I control the treatment intensity by timing the sessions. Also, I "discovered" that sometimes the time is the most important adjustment of the session. I believe that there are days when the person needs more or less time, very much depends on stress level of the person, food intake of the day, liquid consumption, and how much sugar, dietary carbohydrates was eaten on the day of the treatment.

I came to realise that it is not good just to say: “use the machine for 15 minutes per session”. I actually found that my best times were around 17 minutes for upper body treatment between the neck and the hip, back and front, 12 minutes for legs, 15 minutes for neck and head from the two sides. All these data time are for the antennas set at a 200 mm distance from both sides of the body.

My experiments show me also, that you can actually over stress the body with too long operation of the machine, if you located directly between the two antennas, as the healing energy directly between the two antennas.

Each person is unique in every way as possible so, I recommend that each person should find the right time for himself by starting for the first time with a 10 minute session, and then keep adding 1 minute per session, keeping 3 days between sessions. Also I would recommend making notes of every session recording the duration in minutes, current used, voltage level, field intensity level between the two antennas, antenna gap distance, date, time of day, body part facing the transmitter antenna, notes of any feelings good or bad, anything that helps monitor healings of the body.

These notes help me to make better adjustments and give me guidance for best usage of the machine. When you keep adding the 1 minutes to find out how much time would be best for you, pay attention for nervousness, next day muscle strain where the transmitter antenna was pointed on the body, unpleasant feeling at the end of the session or during session. When this happening make a note of your duration time and do another session in 3 days and see that if it happens again. If it does, then reduce your duration time by 1 minute, and most likely you found your best time on that area of your body.

This is of course how I do my experimentation for myself, everybody should use common sense. What works for me may be unpleasant for somebody else. And of course after few months of using the machine, you will need less time per session because now your energy level will be charged up to a much higher level than it was when you first started. During the first month of treatment I did not feel anything in 20 minutes use, only some tingling here and there. The body will learn from the changes and will adapt slowly for better or worse symptoms. The challenge here is to be able to recognise as quickly as possible if the change in or on the body is worst or better and make the appropriate correction immediately! What I consider to be a ‘better’ change is feeling generally better, skin getting smoother, nails are growing noticeable faster, hair feels stronger, better sleep, eyes are whiter if it was stressed before with lots of red line or yellowish colour (which is always the symptoms of a stressed out liver), if pain is present, then it should start going away with every new treatment session. ‘Worse’ changes are you feeling stressed out, feeling light pressure at the head, light soreness in the muscles, If these symptoms were not present before you started using your machine, then your machine is not built right or it’s not tuned right, or quite simply the antennas are not positioned at the right area of the body, or you are over-using the machine.
Sitting or standing: I do realise that most people may be motivated to build this machine because of an illness which they have and they may find it difficult to stand up for 15 to 17 minutes. For people who can't stand up safely, they need to do the best that they can. I hardly ever sit down on my wooden stool unless I am doing neck and head session. I think standing is the best position if you are lucky enough to be able to stand and so can pull the two antennas closer together. When standing, it is easier to position the transmitter antenna on the desired location of the body! Chairs with their arms, get in the way between the body and antennas. I know it's not that much of a restriction because the healing rays will pass through the chair but I want maximum exposure as much as possible. That's just how I think. So, I prefer to stand so that I can get the antennas closer together for maximum field intensity level.

June 2017:
The builder has started experimenting and has added some modifications which increase the machine’s effectiveness, lowers the input power needed and provides a meter which is very helpful in setting treatment levels. The main modification is the addition of two additional, identical aerials. The existing housing might need to be strengthened if the additional weight is considered to be excessive. The arrangement looks like this:

You will notice that there is an unconnected compact fluorescent lamp mounted on top of each of the vertical supports. These glow when the machine is on and their brightness gives a visual check on how the machine output is operating during treatment. With the improved arrangement of four aerials, treatment which used to take 15 minutes, now takes only 5 minutes.
The way that the two additional aerials are connected is important. When facing the aerial, the left hand end of the lower outermost aerial ring is connected directly to the left hand end of the outermost ring of the upper aerial. Then, the right hand end of the outermost ring of the lower aerial is connected to the right hand end of the outermost ring of the upper aerial. That is, two connections for each of the two new aerials. As shown in the photograph above, two quarter inch (6 mm) thick plastic chopping boards were used to mount each of the two aerials on the housing of the driver coil:

You will notice that it was found necessary to use plastic nuts and bolts as brass bolts spark over. Also, plastic clamps are used to hold the aerial rings in place. The aerial rings must not touch the plastic board anywhere other than the end connection points shown above, so it may be necessary to angle the boards slightly to achieve that. It is found that having four aerials instead of two aerials, actually reduces the current drawn from the power supply for the machine.

A very useful and important addition to the machine is a meter to show the strength of the transmitted field. For this, a fluorescent tube is used by placing it between the aerials so that some of the field flows through it. Because the fluorescent tube has some resistance to the field flowing through it, it develops a voltage difference between the ends of the tube and that voltage difference increases as the field strength increases. That means that if we measure the voltage difference between the ends of the fluorescent tube then that is a direct measure of the field strength of the invisible field which is so beneficial to humans. In the prototype, a Philips TL6W/33 220 mm (8.66 inch) long 6-watt fluorescent tube was used for this. As the Lakhovsky field is an alternating field, diodes are used to convert the voltage to a Direct Current voltage to make it easier to measure. As the voltages involved are very low and diodes have a voltage drop across them, four germanium diodes are used because of the low voltage drop across germanium diodes. The prototype diodes are low power type AA119 but any germanium diodes will work just as well.

To measure the small voltage it is preferred that a mechanical meter is used, so a "15-Volt DC" voltmeter is used. The so-called "voltmeter" is actually a milliamper meter which has a resistor connected in series inside the meter case. That resistor has been chosen so that the meter gives its full scale deflection when 15 volts is applied to the terminals of the meter. In our case the voltage developed across the fluorescent tube when rectified by the germanium diodes is just 0.09 volts and so the resistor inside the ‘voltmeter’ case needs to be changed for a much lower value which is likely to be around 100 ohms, so the resistor inside the ‘voltmeter’ is removed and so a 200 ohm multi-turn preset resistor like this is connected instead:

This style of preset variable resistor is cheap and has twenty turns of the end screw to vary the resistance between the central pin and either end pin from zero to 200 ohms and so that makes it easy to select the setting which gives a full-scale “15-volts” displayed reading when the input voltage
is 0.09 volts. Actually, the hardest part is to get the 0.09 volt DC voltage for the input to achieve the correct preset resistor setting. The setting up is like this:

![Diagram](image1)

It is actually slightly difficult to get a steady voltage as low as 0.09 volts to calibrate the meter as most power supplies are not calibrated well enough or adjustable enough to produce such a low voltage reliably. So, for this brief meter calibration we can use a single battery of 1.5 volts or 1.2 volts and drop the voltage down to 0.09 volts using a variable resistor connected like this:

![Diagram](image2)

With the variable resistor connected directly across the battery, the slider of the variable resistor can be set to any voltage from zero to the battery voltage, and so, connecting a digital meter across the supply to the meter allows a voltage of 0.09 volts to be set exactly. As the resistor is 100 ohms, it passes 10 milliamps per volt and so there will be about 10 milliamps flowing through the variable resistor, which means that the maximum dissipation in the resistor will not exceed 15 milliwatts which is easily handled by the variable resistor. As the meter will draw only 1 milliamp or less, the supply to the meter will be stable as the preset is adjusted.

When the meter calibration has been completed, the component connections are like this:

![Diagram](image3)

And finally, the components are mounted in a plastic box of any suitable size, and the ends of the fluorescent tube are insulated and the meter placed on the treatment chair or stool midway between the two pairs of aerials:
For treatment, you start by setting the high voltage and then adjust the spark gap to get the suggested field intensity. The following settings are suggestions based on very limited patient experience:

General treatment: 3500 volts and field intensity 7 volts. Brain tumour: 3500 volts and field intensity 10 volts. Liver or pancreas tumour: 4000 volts and field intensity 12 volts.

However, it is possible that the ‘DC voltmeter’ which you are using is less sensitive than we would like and so it will not deflect to the 15 volt setting when fed with 0.09 volts. If that is the case, then there are two options. The first is to get a more sensitive meter and the second is to adjust the suggested reading above to match your present meter. To make the arithmetic easy, increase the calibration voltage to twice the original 0.09 volts. Then using 0.18 volts for the calibration, adjust the preset variable resistor to get the full “15 volts” full-scale deflection on the meter. Now, this is where you need to be careful. Your meter is only half as sensitive as the one used in the prototype and so where the above suggested field intensities say a 7-volt deflection, your meter will only show a 3.5 volt deflection and the above 12-volt deflection will only read 6-volts on your less sensitive meter.

Please understand clearly that there is no need at all to make these upgrade modifications as the extra development is essentially just experimentation and the original equipment is wholly effective and satisfactory.

**Diet:** I tried many ways to see how, in what physical condition is the best to use the machine. I do not use my machine with an empty stomach. I prefer to use the machine around noon, but that’s just me. I remember at the beginning I felt dizzy and fussed when I used the machine with an empty stomach. I believe that the very same day, same night when I use the machine, immediately after the session started working in the body so, in my opinion the body uses lots of energy to start the healing process. The worst thing that you can do is to put too much food in the body after using the machine. The best way to help the healing process is to lower your calorie intake and eat higher quality food.

Here is my amazing food combination recipe for the day after the machine was used. I highly recommend it. It has been tested for years and IT WORKS. It will speed up the healing process and help to detoxify the body. This combination of food addresses all the need for all organs in the body. It can be eaten as the only food source for 3 to 7 days as a detoxifying diet. I did it once for 5 days, and it is unbelievable how fast the human body responds positively to the right food! Here we go…….

In a Vita Mix or in a blender blend the following until you have a paste.

1. 20 blueberries
2. 1 orange slice
3. 1 whole banana
4. 3 strawberries
5. 1 half an apple (red or green)
6. 20 raw almonds (or raw walnuts)
7. 10 grapes
8. 1 thin slice of onion
9. 2 pinches of cinnamon

Make 10 ounces (0.28 litres) of the above mix for one day. You must drink 80 - 120 ounces (2.25 to 3.4 litres) of water the same day with the paste food.

Eat your paste at the following rates:

*Breakfast:* Eat 60% of the paste food  
*Lunch:* Eat 30% of the paste food  
*Dinner:* Eat 10% of the paste food

The paste should be eaten alone with nothing else in the day after the machine was used. Even if you do this for only one day after using the machine, it will be extremely beneficial.

**April 2017:**
The author on whose information and experience this Lakhovsky equipment description has been based, wishes to share his insight, much of which has been gained from the book "Diagnostic Face Reading and Holistic Healing" by Roger Bezantis which he considers to be a masterpiece and which he recommends very highly. The paperback version of the fifth edition of that book can be purchased from Amazon in America for $48.95 plus postage, or from Amazon in UK for £82.45 plus postage.

After considering what the book has to say, he says: Know what you are! Health is freedom. Dr Alex Karrel, the Nobel Prize winner who kept a chicken heart cell alive for 34 years, said: "The cell itself is IMMORTAL. The key point is the liquid medium, (water) the cell is in, and in which it degenerates. If you renew the medium periodically, and give the cell all it needs for nutrition, then the beat of life can last FOREVER."

"Our body is an energetic organism made of material or mass! The ideal balance is where Equal Mass = Equal Energy. In any structure, such as the human body, when there are equal amounts of mass and energy present, a state of optimum health is the result and balance is achieved. When there is an OVERABUNDANCE of Mass or Energy, then the body gets sick and can die. If an imbalanced condition persists long enough, without fail the body will die.

Please understand that bodily organs are overwhelmed if there is too much Mass or too much Energy! Any organ or organ system that can process mass or energy waste at its optimum capacity will fail and eventually will shut down. Cancer is a mass that is not interfacing with, and not being monitored by, Energy! Any health remedy for a so called cancer must at its root re-establish the FLOW OF ENERGY and mass at the affected part of the body!

The body must be in communication with itself at every level 100% of the time to survive at an optimum level. ALL LIFE IS DEPENDENT UPON THESE FACTORS. This is where the Lakhovsky machine comes into the bigger picture. This is why the Lakhovsky machine has been so very successful in the past. Why has this machine been suppressed for over 80 years now? The Lakhovsky machine is able to start the flow of energy again at any affected area of the body.

Pain is always a sign of an abnormality or problem point in the body, but pain is not necessarily telling us the true cause of the problem. I could write 1000 pages about how the complex human body works and still I would just be scratching the surface of the problem. So, I think that the best way to show ‘the elephant in the room’ is by telling you what I do, and leave it up to you, the reader, to choose what to do with the information that I am sharing, with a pure heart and based upon my own experience.

I look at the body and in my mind there is a map of the location of every organ. I highly recommend that you go online and look at some pictures which show the human anatomy in detail. Your success with a Lakhovsky machine depends on it. Arm yourself with the understanding of where all organs are located in the body! I spent thousands of hours studying human health and the causes of failure, and I can tell you with certainty that it is not nearly as complicated as I thought it was at the beginning.

You need to understand, as a Lakhovsky machine operator, what the Liver and the Kidney control in the body. I only focus my antennas to liver, kidney, heart, colon, and head. After that, if there are still no signs of any positive results after 8 to 10 sessions, I would start targeting the rest of the body where pain is present and still keep up with the liver or kidney too.

I think that it's clear that if one has a colon problem I would target the colon, same goes for the heart and head, but when it comes to Liver and Kidney it is a totally different ball game! The Liver and Kidneys are the master organs in the body! Let's see what they control in the body and you, the reader, (and possibly machine operator) will see clearly why I want you to know this priceless information, so that one day it can save your life.

**Liver:**
Liver and emotions are linked.
Coughing
All bad moods
Emotional stress
Watery eyes
Itchy skin
Migraines headaches like all headaches are product of the liver being overwhelmed.

The Liver regulates:
- Skin
- Lungs
- Sinuses
- Nasal cavities
- Colon
- Intestines
- Uterus
- Mouth
- Tongue
- Gums
- All hollow organs

Kidneys:
The kidneys regulate:
- Uric acid
- Lactic acid
- Urine production and removal
- Mucous distribution
- Blood flow, i.e. blood pressure
- The heart
- The ears
- Fingernails
- Hair
- Most muscle groups
- Reproductive system
- The scalp
- Fluid of the eyes
- Fluid at the colon
- Waste water from the colon
- Waste water from the liver
- Water distributed to the liver
- Most joints (except the right shoulder region down to the right elbow)
- Pancreas
- Lymphatic system
- All non-hollow organs

The Kidney regulates most of the left side of the body, and the Liver regulates the right side of the body, so armed with this information the body tells its own story. If the problem is on the left side of the body I would focus on the kidney as the root of the problem. If the complaint is on the right side of the body, I know immediately that something is "fishy" with the liver.

This means that a cancer (just an evil word for toxic mass) that shows up on the outside (or inside of any organ this includes melanoma) is a Liver problem! Handling any problems such as "surface cancer" as a Liver problem, always solves the problem. On the other hand "deep tissue cancer" is basically a Kidney problem. If one addresses each problem correctly with the Lakhovsky machine, then the results will be excellent every time!

REMEMBER, YOUR BODY NEVER LIES. TRUST ITS SIGNALS AND YOU WILL BE HEALTHIER.
Alzheimer's Disease
At [http://emediapress.com/2016/12/18/mit-reverses-alzheimers-with-40hz-blinking-lights/](http://emediapress.com/2016/12/18/mit-reverses-alzheimers-with-40hz-blinking-lights/), half way down the page there is a recording which when listened to using headphones, is claimed to reverse Alzheimer’s disease. The recording runs for 30 minutes and using headphones is essential as the sound input to the left ear is different to the sound input to the right ear. Whether or not the recording is effective, I have no way of knowing, but I have no reason to doubt the claim. It is also recommended that the supplement Lecithin and the supplement MSM, both taken daily can also oppose the onset of Alzheimer’s.

The World situation.
The late Dr Hans Rosen made an exceptionally good presentation on world population, world health and world income. Spanning a period from 10,000 years BC to the year 2100, he has made many people aware of the current situation and pointed out the average person’s extreme lack of knowledge on the subject. He points out that the critical birth rate is now around 2.2 children per family as opposed to the 5 children per family average which caused the world population growth. At this point in time, there are about 2 billion children in the world, but that number has stabilised out and is now roughly constant. Yes, the overall population will rise from around 7 billion to around 11 billion due to the present population aging, as is normal.

Hans also points out the financial situation for people generally. He uses the American dollar as a unit for comparison and states that the richest billion people earn about $100 per day and the poorest billion people live in extreme poverty, earning about $1 per day. People in extreme poverty cannot be sure of their next meal, and most do not have clean drinking water, medical services, electricity or education. Putting those income levels in annual amounts, the richest one billion people receive US $36,500 (or more) per year and the poorest one billion people earn just $500 (or less) per year. It is highly likely that you didn’t realise how very well off you are compared to more than one billion other people.

In his book “Doing Good, Better” (available free from [http://audiobookle.com/](http://audiobookle.com/)), William MacAskill debunks the general notion that “I can’t do anything about the world situation – I am only one person”. If you live in extreme poverty, then that is probably true, but if you are one of the richest one billion, then that is so not true. If you were to donate just ten percent of your income on a regular basis, then you could make a major difference to those people whose income is only one percent of your income. Even a lesser level of regular donation makes a major difference, and that major difference is caused by you personally.

William examines the facts and points out a number of things which are disconcerting, such as the fact that donating to a good charity is not nearly as effective as donating to the very best charities, that is, those charities whose work produces the very best results as shown by subsequent, independent examination. Some of those charities are shown here: [https://www.thelifeyoucansave.org/Top-Charities?utm_source=top-icon&utm_campaign=homepage&utm_medium=all](https://www.thelifeyoucansave.org/Top-Charities?utm_source=top-icon&utm_campaign=homepage&utm_medium=all)

Extreme poverty is self-sustaining as people trapped in that situation live in such poor conditions that they have large families because most of their children will die as young children, many before the age of five. In fact, some 2000 poor children die every day, and I leave you to consider the level of unhappiness that is caused by those family deaths. Regular donations from you (and from me) do make it possible to move these people permanently out of extreme poverty. It is actually 100 times more effective to donate to those poorest people than to donate to the needy in your own advanced country where the neediest would be considered to be ‘rich’ by the people in the poorest one billion. You and I are very rich by comparison to those people and it is an interesting question to ask what it was that we personally did to be born into such a wealthy situation.
It is most interesting to note the charitable activities which have proven to be the most effective. One is called *Give Directly* and it gives a cash sum of $1000 to a family, leaving it up to the family members to use it in the most effective way for the family. That technique is very effective as the family is in great need and will definitely not waste the asset, but instead will buy what will help them most in the future.

Another effective charity, most surprisingly, makes radio broadcasts. That is the *Development Media International* group and it educates the very poor on health and hygiene matters. You would think that doing that is unnecessary, but the poorest people do not know even the most basic things such as washing hands before a meal.

The *Evidence Action* charity works on providing safe drinking water and combating intestinal worms which cause illness which can kill and which if not too severe, prevents children attending school.

The *Against Malaria Foundation* provides insecticide-impregnated anti-mosquito nets to go around beds. These nets are very cheap and are effective. William MacAskill prefers that you donate to cancer research as more people die of cancer than die from malaria, but that really puzzles me as the very cheap and well-proven colloidal silver treatment can cure both cancer and malaria. Is it a case that the Cancer Research people just don’t know about it, or is it the case that they just want to get paid to do research?

Patrick Kelly
http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
http://www.free-energy-info.com
http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk
http://www.free-energy-devices.com
Chapter 21: Reversing Genetic Modification

It is not widely known, but the universe is powered by the zero-point energy field and all life forms are powered by an intelligent life force which has been called by different names by the men who discovered it and learned how to use it. Perhaps the most widely known name for this force is “Orgone” and it can be concentrated and directed by certain physical shapes as described by Dan Davidson in his book *Shape Power*. The force has unlimited power and with a concentrator made of concentric stainless steel pipes called a Joe Cell, it can power a vehicle without the need for any kind of fuel. With a concentrator shaped as a pyramid, it can preserve foods, discourage harmful insects, or recuperate old or sick animals. With a small and simple electrical device it can affect the weather up to a thousand miles away.

In recent years, Mehran Tavakoli Keshe (pronounced ‘Kesh’) has developed another, powerful way of concentrating Orgone energy through the use of processed water. Keshe has invented a range of new names for different parts of his various processes and as these new names are unfamiliar, they have made his techniques difficult to understand. He has produced devices for dealing with ill health and injury, accessing Orgone for power production, and techniques for dealing with growing food and other plants where the conditions are difficult. This last item is particularly important as it is capable of overcoming defects in grain and so can restore grain to its original, robust form. This is important as Genetically Modified “GM” or “GMO” alterations to grain are effectively ‘defects’ as far as the original grain is concerned and so the process can remove the “GM” alteration and restore the grain to its original robust state. This can be accomplished by soaking the grain and keeping it near Keshe’s modified water before planting the grain.

This brings us to the Keshe modifications of water. The technology is confusing for newcomers as there are several different ways of producing Keshe modified water, each with a different outcome and different potential applications. The term which Keshe has invented for all of these modified waters is “GaNS water” where “GaNS” is his term for a material produced during his treatment of water.

This is a new technology and I am not yet expert in it, but as far as I am aware, in the most simple broad outline, the procedure is:

1. You make a GaNS electrode by immersing copper wire in cold, diluted caustic soda for two or three days. Caustic soda is dangerous stuff, so you wear gloves and goggles when working with it. The wire is then rinsed off in distilled water.

2. You perform electrolysis on water containing sea salt (from your local supermarket), using your GaNS-coated copper electrode and another electrode made of zinc, (or copper, iron, or whatever). That produces genuine GaNS material in the container.

3. After a 24 to 48 hour period of zero-applied-current electrolysis the electrode plates are removed from the container which is then left undisturbed for a further 24 to 48 hours, during which time the GaNS material sinks to the bottom of the container.

4. Pour off most of the water (keeping it for re-use in case you want to make more GaNS material later). As the GaNS material is mixed with the last little bit of your sea-salt electrolyte, you need to add distilled water to the container, agitate the contents gently and after the GaNS material settles again, pour out as much of the water as possible.

5. That rinsing off process is repeated for at least 5 times and preferably 10 times in order to get clean, salt-free GaNS material.
6. The GaNS material is very valuable. It has indefinite life and can make any number of sets of GaNS water by filling the container with distilled water and leaving it there for at least 24 hours. The resulting GaNS water has spectacular properties. Fifty ccs of the water in a bottle left floating in 24000 litres of water energises the water with Orgone and makes an enormous difference to an aquaphonics farm. When placed in a plastic tube it feeds Orgone energy to growing plants (or to humans). I know very little about Keshe technology which is unfamiliar to say the least. Remember that you can make as much GaNS material as you want AND you can make as much GaNS water as you want from every dose of GaNS material that you make.

Using a carbon rod for one electrode in the electrolysis does NOT produce GaNS material. The “GM” Genetically Modifications made to seed can be reversed by placing the seed in a bucket of water and floating the bucket in a container of GaNS water for 24 hours. The GaNS for this work is made with zinc as one of the electrodes.

1. Now, expanding the detail on these steps it must be understood that the basic process for making any variety of GaNS material requires the use of one GaNS coated electrode and one contributor electrode of a pure metal. The most commonly used metal is zinc which produces what is called ‘Carbon’ or ‘Carbon Dioxide’ GaNS. The initial task is to get a GaNS-coated electrode. These can be bought from places such as chriz (dot) baker (at) hotmail (dot) co (dot) uk or you can make one yourself. There are various methods for the GaNS plating of a copper wire or plate.

The most common processing is done by immersing the copper in a caustic soda (Sodium Hydroxide) solution and leaving it for two or three days. Some people prefer to start the process with heat and then leave the solution to cool as the process continues. No matter what the chosen process is, you definitely need to wear protective gloves and goggles as caustic soda is serious stuff, especially when hot:

If a copper plate is being treated, then both sides need to be in contact with the caustic soda solution, so to achieve that a low table of wire mesh is used to hold the underside of the copper plate clear of the base of the treatment box. When the processing is completed, the copper plate will be black on all faces.

2. When the copper electrode is ready and completely black all over, rinse it off using clean water, holding the plate in a pair of pliers. You still need gloves and goggles when doing this and when disposing or storing the caustic solution for use again.

Originally, sea water would have been used in the next step of processing, but nowadays, due to contamination, it is recommended that a mixture of distilled water and dried sea salt is used instead.
The salt concentration is not at all critical but I would suggest that 10% salt by weight as an absolute upper limit. The processing method is to suspend the GaNS electrode about 70 mm away from a zinc plate with both supported in the salt solution. The two electrodes form a battery in the salt solution and so a short-circuiting wire is connected between the two electrodes using either a soldered connection or a crocodile-clip wire. In either case, the connection must be kept out of the water in order to avoid the process being altered by the metal of the clips or solder. A current will flow along the short-circuiting wire due to chemical action.

No electrical energy source of any kind is applied to the plates, but the required processing continues slowly on its own. Keshe is not joking when he says that patience is a major requirement when making GaNS. When the processing has continued long enough (probably 48 hours), the GaNS material is left floating on the surface of the water and the electrodes are removed from the salt solution.

3. When left alone, the GaNS material gradually sinks to the bottom of the container and is left alone for a further 24 hour period.

4. The water used in making GaNS is salty and so it is poured off very carefully and replaced with distilled water:

5. That water replacement and pouring is done several times to remove the salt, and finally, the container is filled with distilled water and left for 24 hours during which time the GaNS at the bottom of the container charges the new water with Orgone energy, turning it into “GaNS water”.

6. This GaNS water is what can return seed to its original state. The water can also be used very effectively in growing vegetables and fruit, reviving dying plants and causing major improvements in the size and quantity of produce treated with the water when growing. Obviously, during the period when the GaNS water is gaining its extraordinary power, other containers can be processed in order to increase the amount of GaNS material available for use and a good deal of GaNS water is needed if farming levels of seed are to be treated before planting. A recommended method for treating grain is to place the grain in a bucket, top up the bucket with water and place the bucket inside a larger container filled with GaNS water. After twenty-four hours, the enhanced grain is ready to be planted. The GaNS material remains potent for weeks and can be used to charge up many, many jars of distilled water to produce GaNS water ready for use.

In passing, it should be mentioned that in all likelihood, a pyramid erected over a sack of grain should have the same effect in returning the grain to its original healthy state. For that, it is only necessary to have the eight straight edges which form the pyramid, as the sides can be left open since the Orgone energy flows along the edges. One of the straight base lines of the pyramid needs to be exactly North-South in direction and by “North” what is meant is Magnetic North which varies gradually every year, and so a compass is used to determine the exact alignment. There are more details in chapter 9.
Sodium Hydroxide is sold as “Lye”, “drain cleaner” or “Caustic Soda”. Please be aware that caustic soda is highly dangerous and pouring hot water on it is a potentially reckless thing to do. Consequently, great care needs to be taken when doing that – using a covered container with the lid covering almost all of the top of the container before the hot water is poured in. Have vinegar to hand in case of accidental exposure to the caustic soda, wear protective gloves and goggles, and place the lid back on the container as soon as the water has been poured. Do not breathe in the steam which occurs when hot water is poured on caustic soda.

There are various videos worth watching: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iRQfYtSHFiY&t=93s or https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DLMC3AYmUJg&t=393s or https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l-u7RLuDNfQ. Essentially, keeping your material to be plated in a caustic soda environment for a long, long time is the most important factor.

It needs to be understood that “GaNS water” has a strong Orgone concentrating effect. That effect can be used most effectively by various techniques for vegetable and fruit growing. A pyramid has been shown to draw the groundwater table up towards the surface of the soil, and if the pyramid is large enough and made from the best materials, the water level can actually exceed the ground level. It is likely that the same effect happens with a loop of plastic pipe filled with GaNS water and placed on the ground. That method of filling a plastic tube ring with GaNS water in order to enhance the Orgone flow around a tree is used like this:

For this, a piece of hollow plastic tube is used to connect the ends of the tube after it is filled with the GaNS water:
In the example above, a smaller diameter tube has also been used, and the smaller tube has been filled with copper GaNS water which is made by substituting a strip of copper for the zinc metal when making the GaNS material. Copper GaNS water is considered to be different to Carbon GaNS water and although with different salt concentrations the resulting colour can be light blue, dark blue or brown. However, Carbon GaNS water is recommended for most plant-growing work.

For example, this container which is being used to grow tomato plants, has small yellow plastic spheres filled with GaNS water suspended around the plants:

You need to understand that there are many possible variations when using Orgone energy with growing plants and this particular gardener uses Carbon GaNS water in the lower spheres and Copper GaNS water in the spheres which are hung higher up. The idea is to generate an increasingly powerful
Orgone field as the plants grow higher. In this instance, the effect of the orgone flow around the tomato plants spills out sideways and enhances the growth of other plants growing in the ground near the tomato container. The gardener waters his plants with water which has been stored for some time with GaNS containers floating in the water. Other gardeners who use GaNS water spheres also insert a small coil of GaNS coated copper wire inside the spheres in the belief that doing so will enhance the Orgone concentrating effect of the spheres.

So, to recap, the effective material used is GaNS water. That is very clean water which is left for 24 hours on top of GaNS material which has been rinsed off many times after creation. The GaNS material itself is not used directly in spite of the fact that it stays active for many months and can make great quantities of GaNS water. I’m told that GaNS water can also be used in many health-related treatments, but that is not the subject here. The GaNS material should never be touched with bare skin, nor should it be eaten.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-info.com
Chapter 22: The Sabourin Generator

Denis Sabourin has built a generator which operates well in that it runs indefinitely, self-powered while charging a cell phone overnight. The construction is very simple. The heart of the generator is a small motor with a yellow plastic float from a fishing net glued to it to make a lightweight rotor which has four magnets attached to the float:

The rotor can, of course, be constructed from lightweight materials if it is difficult to get a float from a professional fishing net. The magnets are N52-grade 20 mm diameter neodymium magnets 5 mm thick. The motor is powered by a 3.7V Lithium ion battery and there are eight output coils positioned around the rotor. The coils are connected in pairs with the four pairs powering the system.
Each coil is wound with two strands of 0.19 mm diameter enamelled copper wire, which is swg 36 or could be AWG #32. Each strand weighs 50 grams and both strands are wound at the same time. That arrangement allows the coils to be connected as bi-filar coils if that is desired. The central core of each coil is made of plastic and is 8 mm in diameter with a 6 mm diameter hole in the centre, and the completed winding is 30 mm diameter on a coil which has 33 mm of winding space between the ends. When the winding is completed, each coil is given a layer of electrical insulating tape to protect the wires rather than to provide any additional insulation. So, the overall arrangement is:

![Diagram of the system](image)

Here, Battery 1 powers the motor which spins the rotor. The powerful rotor magnets passing close by the set of eight coils generates an alternating voltage which is rectified by the diode bridge and used to charge the mobile phone battery through a 5-Volt USB module. Only two of the eight output coils are shown in the diagram above.

This system works well, charging Battery 2, but the Battery 1 gradually runs down as it is powering the motor but is not being recharged. To deal with this situation, Denis uses a switching box which powers a relay for ten seconds once every ten minutes. The relay contacts are used to disconnect the charging current from Battery 2 and pass it instead to Battery 1:

![Diagram of the switching box](image)

While there may be easier ways to achieve the required result, here are details of the switching box which Denis uses. It has three stages:

Stage 1 provides the 10 minute timing using a 555 timer chip as that is the most convenient. However, the problem with simple circuits with a long cycle time is that the time interval is determined by the length of time it takes for a capacitor to charge up. That needs a large capacitor and a very small charging current. BUT large capacitors leak the charge away unless they are high quality capacitors. The highest quality is a tantalum capacitor and the largest available is 47 microfarads, so two in parallel are used to give about 100 microfarad. The time delay with 100 microfarads needs a charging resistor of about 3 megohms. Going for the most simple version of the circuit (one which has equal On and Off times) makes the circuit this:
And to get a little control over the time period, the resistor is made from three 1 meg resistors and a 1M variable resistor. The result is a circuit which is On for about 5 minutes and Off for about 5 minutes. That is, the output on pin 3 goes high for four minutes and then low for four minutes. The low is about 0V and the high is about 2 volts below the supply voltage. The supply voltage must never exceed 15 volts as the 555 chip is instantly destroyed by an over voltage power supply.

The second stage is this:

The transistor is a high-gain low current type and it is normally On which costs about one milliamp. The capacitor charges up during the four minute interval and when the 555 timer voltage goes low, the capacitor drives the transistor base low, switching the transistor off and causing its collector voltage to go high. However, the capacitor charge can only hold the transistor off for a short period of time and with a 100K resistor across the capacitor as shown, the transistor is off for about 10 seconds. To allow some control over the time, the resistor can be varied from 47K to 147K but the overall time of this stage will always be short.

The third stage is to drive the relay with the full supply voltage and a low cost very high gain transistor is used for this:

The current into the base of the TIP132 transistor is about half of one milliamp and the transistor minimum gain is 1000 so the relay is fed with up to 500 milliamps. Of course, the relay does not draw that much current, but it does get the full battery voltage across it. The diode is just to protect the transistor from reverse voltage at switch-off.
The whole switching box circuit is then:

In this diagram, the red dots indicate a break in the copper strip underneath the board and the variable resistors allow a fair degree of adjustment of the timing periods. Please remember that the 555 timer chip will be destroyed immediately if it is fed more than 15 volts, so a 12V battery should be your highest supply. However, the circuit works well when driven by a PP3 size 9-volt battery. The current draw at 9-volts on the prototype is 12 milliamps rising to 32 milliamps for a few seconds when the relay is being powered.

It may well be possible to improve on this arrangement and omit the switching box. This is just a suggestion at this time as the arrangement has not yet been tested. The objective is to keep Battery 1 charged while the circuit is running. If no switching is used, then Battery 1 has to be connected to the charging circuit at all times. But if a fully discharged phone is connected to the system then Battery 1 might have a much higher voltage than Battery 2 and so we need to prevent Battery 1 from pouring its current into the Battery 2. That can be done by using a diode which allows charging current to flow into Battery 1 but no current flowing from Battery 1 to Battery 2:
With this arrangement, Battery 2 gets most of the charging current, especially since Battery 1 always has a good level of charge on it and there is a small voltage drop across the diode, so most of the charging current will flow into Battery 2.

If you wish to limit the Battery 1 charging current further, then a resistor “R” can be placed in the line like this:

The value of the resistor “R” has to be found by experimentation with your own physical implementation, but I would expect the value to be low, perhaps 47 ohms or so. If the light is not required, then all eight output coils can be used for charging. The coils are connected in pairs and Denis has an unusual method of connecting them:

This is not the bi-filar connections which you would expect, but this wiring arrangement has proved to be very effective in practice. A variation on this which I would prefer due to its increased flexibility and the possibility of creating increased output voltage through different connections, is:
Here, each pair of coils has its own rectification and smoothing capacitor and as such, each pair acts as a small everlasting battery. An alternative to that is to use a voltage-doubler circuit for the rectification to nearly double the output voltage when powering a load:

The batteries used in the prototype are lithium ion types with a voltage of 3.7 volts and a capacity of 1200 mAh. These batteries have worked very well, but lithium ion batteries are not the easiest batteries to work with as they have a strong tendency to catch fire if mistreated, and they are rather expensive as can be seen here:

An alternative which might be considered is using Nickel-Manganese batteries which are the same size but only 1.2 volts each, so we would use three NiMh batteries instead of one lithium ion battery. However, the NiMh batteries can have a much greater capacity of 2850 mAh and they are fully stable although when fully charged they should not be over-charged at more than 10% of the mAh rate value as the battery life will be reduced if that is done.

However, some of these small NiMh batteries do not live up to the maker’s claims and so you need to run a load test on any particular make of battery which you may consider using. For example, here are six different types of these batteries tested in groups of four, with a load of about 50 milliamps at five volts. The same load was used to test each of these batteries:
The results were most revealing:

The BTY 3000 batteries do not actually claim on the battery to be 3000 mAh (although the sellers do) and so, the “3000” could just be a trading name. The tests results for the BTY 3000 were so staggeringly poor that the test was repeated three times with longer recharging time for each test, and the one shown above is the ‘best’ result. You will notice how far short it falls when compared to the low-cost Fusiomax 800 mAh batteries. The terrible performance of the BTY 3000 batteries is only exceeded by the incredible “SDNMY 3800 mAh” batteries which show almost negligible capacity in spite of their amazing claims of 3800 mAh.
Consequently, I would suggest replacing one 3.7V lithium-ion battery with three Digimax 2850 batteries in a box like this:

A battery pack like this will charge up to 4 volts and so would be a good substitute for lithium-ion batteries as one of those is required to drive the USB board which is used to charge a mobile phone. The connector clips are very cheap:

The USB board is small and low cost as can be seen here:

The input to this DC-DC converter board is supposed to be in the range 0.9 volts to 5.0 volts, so the 4 volts of the NiMh battery pack should be very suitable.

Suitable magnets are available on eBay:
The coils can be wound easily by hand as enamelled copper wire is supplied in 50 gram reels and that makes it easy to wind one coil from two of those reels placed side by side on a fixed bar. We can make up coil spools quite easily if we use a power drill and a hole saw set like this:

These saw sets normally have a saw which has an inner diameter of 35 mm. A small sheet of 3 mm thick Medium Density Fibreboard (“MDF”) can easily be drilled using the hole saw, and each drilling produces one perfectly round disc with an exactly centred hole in the middle. Two of those can be glued (at exact right angles to the central shaft) on to a tube to form a spool of the size wanted. If it is available, plastic sheet could be used instead of the MDF. Plastic tube of 8 mm diameter and an inner diameter of 6 mm is often available on eBay, but failing that, it is actually quite easy to drill a 6 mm hole through a short length, say, a 30 mm length of 8 mm diameter dowel rod. The piece of dowel is held in a vise and because it is easy to see, drilling a reasonable hole down the length of dowel is not actually that difficult.

The spool can be clamped on to a standard 6 mm diameter threaded rod using two washers and two nuts or wing nuts:

Then the threaded rod can be clamped at one end with a simple crank handle formed out of a small piece of timber, a clamping screw to grip the rod and a 20 mm length of drilled dowel on a screw to form the rotating winding handle:
A simple drilled hole in the vertical sides works perfectly well as a bearing, but keep the length “A” short as that needs less wrist movement and with it short, it is quite easy to turn the handle four times per second. A plank around 600 mm long makes a good base for the winder:

The winding handle part is at the near end and the two 50 gram spools of wire are placed side by side on a rod or dowel at the far end. The longer the plank, the easier it is to draw wire from the supplying spools as the angle between those spools and the spool being wound is smaller. The supplying spools are each just mounted on a dowel pushed through holes in the side pieces. Be sure to make those dowels horizontal so that the spools don’t keep moving to one side or the other.

To start winding a coil, drill a very small hole in the left hand flange, just outside the washer. Thread the two wires through the hole and wind each a few times around the bared end of a short length of plastic covered wire, and join each wire to the copper winding wire by soldering it. This only takes a moment and if you have never soldered, it is very easy to learn and easy to do. Next, use a piece of duct tape to attach the thin wires firmly against the outer face of the flange of the coil spool and wrap the spare plastic covered wires around the threaded rod a few times so that they won’t catch on anything when being whirled around. Trim the duct tape so that it is all on the outside of the flange and so will not get in the way of the wire which is being wound on to the coil spool.

The coil is wound by gathering the two strands in your left hand and turning the crank handle with your right hand. If you wish, you can clamp the winder to the table or workbench which you are using. The
preferred way of winding is to turn the crank handle so the that wire entering the coil spool feeds on to the underside of the spool. That method of winding is called “Counter-Clockwise”. If you want a clockwise wound coil, you just turn the crank handle in the opposite direction so that the wire enters the spool at the top. Counter-Clockwise is considered to be the better way to wind these coils.

When starting to wind, guide the wires close to the drilled flange. This is to keep the starting wire taught, flat and out of the way of the following turns. As winding continues, the wires are directed very slowly to the right until the spool shaft is fully covered. Then the wires are directed very slowly to the left for the next layer, and that is continued, right, left, right, left until the coil is completed. Then the two wires are duct taped to the plank so that they are kept controlled while you are busy with other things. Then the wires are cut, a few turns taken around the stripped end of a short length of thicker wire and soldered to make an electrical and mechanical join between the thick wire and the thin wire. The body of the coil is now wound with electrical tape so that none of the wire is visible, and then the duct tape is removed from the spool and the two starting soldered joints are epoxied to the flange.

There is no need to mark the wires as the start of the wires are the ends coming through the drilled hole and the ends of the wires just stick out from under the electrical tape, and a meter will tell you which start and which finish are the same wire. You need to check that anyway to ensure that the wire connections are good and that the resistance of each of the two wires in the coil is exactly the same.

It is not at all difficult to wind these coils, but it will take a few days. For people living in the UK, the best supplier is the Scientific Wire Company who manufactures the wire. In June 2017 they sell 50 gram reels of SWG 36 wire (their Ref: SX0190-050) for £3.10 including tax at http://wires.co.uk/acatalog/SX_0190_0280.html and that is ‘solderable’ enamel which just burns away when you solder to it, which is enormously helpful, especially with very thin wire. An alternative supplier is https://www.esr.co.uk/electronics/products/frame_cable.htm which also offers 50 gram reels of 36 swg wire. The big advantage of these small reels is that you can just wind the entire contents of two reels of the wire to make the needed bi-filar coil without having to count the turns, and that is very convenient.

The motor is a 5V fan with the fan blades glued to the yellow float and positioned very carefully to get it exactly centred over the shaft of the fan. The maximum current draw for the motor is 360 milliamps but as Denis is running it on 3.7 volts or less, the actual current draw is very small indeed. The underside of the fan looks like this:

![Motor Fan Image](image)

22 - 11
Denis invites you to build this generator circuit yourself, but if Denis will find some funds to produce the coils in big quantity and get the components he will be happy to offer the generators for sale to the public. Denis can be contacted via his YouTube channel by posting a reply on any of his videos and he will respond to you. His channel is https://www.youtube.com/user/mermaidfrommars/videos.

Patrick Kelly
www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl
www.free-energy-info.com
The Purpose of Life

It seems difficult to get answers to who we are, what we are and what is life all about? We really need a framework about what is going on. I’m not an expert in anything but let me try to give you a summary which might help – if it doesn’t then my apologies, at least I tried.

You were born into a war zone – right into the middle of a battlefield and the propaganda lies of one side make it hard for us to understand clearly what is going on. So let’s start from the beginning.

1. At the beginning of time God existed, and only God, nothing else and nobody else.

2. God chose to create many angelic beings. One of those angelic beings was exceptional, very powerful and exceptionally beautiful. We know this being by the name Satan although he has other names.

3. God created the Earth for these angelic beings.

4. The being Satan decided that he was at least as powerful as God the Creator and he convinced one third of the other angelic beings that he was right and they staged a rebellion, wanting to depose God and set up Satan as overall ruler. That action caused the destruction of the Earth and God exiled that rebellious group to the Earth (which they can no longer leave).

5. God the Creator then reconstructed the Earth in its present form with land, seas, air and sky with the Sun to “rule the day” and the Moon to “rule the night”. Both of these are described as “great lights”. God also created something called “the firmament” which, as far as I can tell, encloses the whole Earth and contains all the air inside it.

6. God the Creator then created a man and a woman as a pair of humans who would have offspring which would spread out and fill the world. God also created animals, fish and insects.

7. Satan is the most powerful being on Earth and unless God intervenes, what Satan says goes. For that reason Satan is described as “the ruler of the world”.

8. God has an agenda for world history. Much of that agenda has been accomplished before you were born. The most staggering event in that time has been the birth, death and resurrection of Jesus Christ which occurred about two thousand years ago. You can find the details in the “New Testament” section of the Bible, perhaps starting with the gospel of John, part of which says “God so loved the world that he gave his only son so that whoever believes in him should not perish but have everlasting life” If that is not clear enough, then we are also told “if you confess with your mouth the Lord Jesus and believe in your heart that God has raised him from the dead, you shall be saved”

9. But remember that you were born into a battle zone with God the Creator on one side and Satan the ruler of this world on the other side. Satan specialises in propaganda deception and lies and one of his favourite techniques is “but did God really say that?” Satan denies everything that God says – here are a few examples:

A. God said that he created the Earth and two great lights, one to rule the day and one to rule the night. But no says Satan, there is only one light, the Sun and the Moon only reflects sunlight. So, who do you believe, God or Satan? Well, check it out for yourself. Sunlight heats, moonlight cools. Put a thermometer in sunlight and then in shade and you will see that the area in sunlight is warmer than the shade. Do the same with moonlight and you find that it is warmer in the shade than in the moonlight. Moonlight comes from the Moon and is nothing like sunlight.

B. God talks about the four corners of the world. But no, says Satan, the Earth is a sphere and so has no corners. People who have investigated the subject state that the Earth is not spherical and does
not rotate. Further, astronomers have noted that it is possible to see stars through the unlit part of the Moon and so the Moon is not a solid piece of rock. They also remark that the Moon is sometimes eclipsed when both the Sun and the Moon are visible in the sky and so eclipses of the Moon could not possibly be caused by the shadow of the Earth.

C. God said that he created mankind – a male and a female. But no says Satan, there are lots of different genders and you must teach your children that. Satan also denies that God created mankind, claiming that life evolved on earth. So, if you have dogs you need to be careful as your dogs may give birth to a giraffe, a camel, a snake or perhaps a porpoise!

D. God said that in the last days the stars will fall on to the Earth. But no says Satan, the Sun is much larger than Earth and the other stars are all bigger than the Sun, so they couldn't possibly fall on the Earth which is much smaller. People who have studied the matter state that the Sun is much smaller than the Earth and is less than 4000 miles away and all the stars are less than 6000 miles away – that doesn't quite agree with Satan's claim that the Sun some 93,000,000 miles away.

10. God’s agenda for Earth and humanity has some way to run yet. First, there has to be a hazardous time with wars and rumours of wars, causing people to be afraid.

11. Then there has to come a man who appears to have all the answers and who can cause peace through his skilful organisation. This is the Antichrist who introduces a period of great trial and difficulty, his number one target being the people who have Jesus Christ as their Saviour and who don't fall for his lies. He will murder many Christians and try to kill every last one of them.

12. That time is completed at the last moment when Jesus Christ returns to Earth and deals with Satan once and for all, ushering in permanent peace and prosperity on Earth.

That is the purpose of life.
## TABLE OF WIRE SIZES:

The wire sizes specified for use in some designs are American Wire Gauge so a comparison table showing the UK ‘Standard Wire Gauge’ (with lengths on a 500 gram reel of enamelled copper wire), and the ‘American Wire Gauge’ is given here:

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<th>SWG</th>
<th>Dia mm</th>
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This is a re-worded extract from this Patent. It describes a motor powered solely by permanent magnets and which it is claimed can power an electrical generator.

**ABSTRACT**

The invention is directed to the method of utilising the unpaired electron spins in ferromagnetic and other materials as a source of magnetic fields for producing power without any electron flow as occurs in normal conductors, and to permanent magnet motors for utilising this method to produce a power source. In the practice of the invention the unpaired electron spins occurring within permanent magnets are utilised to produce a motive power source solely through the superconducting characteristics of a permanent magnet, and the magnetic flux created by the magnets is controlled and concentrated to orientate the magnetic forces generated in such a manner to produce useful continuous work, such as the displacement of a rotor with respect to a stator. The timing and orientation of magnetic forces at the rotor and stator components produced by the permanent magnets is accomplished by the proper geometrical relationship of these components.

**BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION:**

Conventional electric motors employ magnetic forces to produce either rotational or linear motion. Electric motors operate on the principal that when a conductor which carries a current is located in a magnetic field, a magnetic force is exerted upon it. Normally, in a conventional electric motor, the rotor, or stator, or both, are so wired that magnetic fields created by electromagnets use attraction, repulsion, or both types of magnetic forces, to impose a force upon the armature causing rotation, or linear displacement of the armature. Conventional electric motors may employ permanent magnets either in the armature or stator components, but to date they require the creation of an electromagnetic field to act upon the permanent magnets. Also, switching gear is needed to control the energising of the electromagnets and the orientation of the magnetic fields producing the motive power.

It is my belief that the full potential of magnetic forces existing in permanent magnets has not been recognised or utilised because of incomplete information and theory with respect to atomic motion occurring within a permanent magnet. It is my belief that a presently unnamed atomic particle is associated with the electron movement of a superconducting electromagnet and the loss-less flow of currents in permanent magnets. The unpaired electron flow is similar in both situations. This small particle is believed to be opposite in charge to an electron and to be located at right angles to the moving electron. This particle must be very small to penetrate all known elements in their various states as well as their known compounds (unless they have unpaired electrons which capture these particles as they endeavour to pass through).

The electrons in ferrous materials differ from those found in most elements in that they are unpaired, and being unpaired they spin around the nucleus in such a way that they respond to magnetic fields as well as creating a magnetic field themselves. If they were paired, their magnetic fields would cancel out. However, being unpaired they create a measurable magnetic field if their spins are orientated in one direction. The spins are at right angles to their magnetic fields.

In niobium superconductors, at a critical state, the magnetic lines of force cease to be at right angles. This change must be due to establishing the required conditions for unpaired electronic spins instead of electron flow in the conductor, and the fact that very powerful electromagnets can be formed with superconductors illustrates the tremendous advantage of producing the magnetic field by unpaired electron spins rather than conventional electron flow. In a superconducting metal, wherein the electrical resistance becomes greater in the metal than the proton resistance, the flow turns to electron spins and the positive particles flow parallel in the metal in the manner occurring in a permanent magnet where a powerful flow of magnetic positive particles or magnetic flux
causes the unpaired electrons to spin at right angles. Under cryogenic superconduction conditions the freezing of the crystals in place makes it possible for the spins to continue, and in a permanent magnet the grain orientation of the magnetised material allows these spins, permitting them to continue and causing the flux to flow parallel to the metal. In a superconductor, at first the electron is flowing and the positive particle is spinning; later, when critical, the reverse occurs, i.e., the electron is spinning and the positive particle is flowing at right angles. These positive particles will thread or work their way through the electron spins present in the metal.

In a sense, a permanent magnet may be considered a room-temperature superconductor. It is a superconductor because the electron flow does not cease, and this electron flow can be made to do work through the magnetic field which it creates. Previously, this source of power has not been used because it was not possible to modify the electron flow to accomplish the switching functions of the magnetic field. Such switching functions are common in a conventional electric motor where electrical current is employed to align the much greater electron current in the iron pole pieces and concentrate the magnetic field at the proper places to give the thrust necessary to move the motor armature. In a conventional electric motor, switching is accomplished by the use of brushes, commutators, alternating current, or other means.

In order to accomplish the switching function in a permanent magnet motor, it is necessary to shield the magnetic leakage so that it will not appear as too great a loss factor at the wrong places. The best method to accomplish this is to concentrate the magnetic flux in the place where it will be the most effective. Timing and switching can be achieved in a permanent magnet motor by concentrating the flux and using the proper geometry of the motor rotor and stator to make most effective use of the magnetic fields. By the proper combination of materials, geometry and magnetic concentration, it is possible to achieve a mechanical advantage of high ratio, greater than 100 to 1, capable of producing continuous motive force.

To my knowledge, previous work done with permanent magnets, and motive devices utilising permanent magnets, have not achieved the result desired in the practice of the inventive concept, and it is with the proper combination of materials, geometry and magnetic concentration that the presence of the magnetic spins within a permanent magnet may be utilised as a motive force.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION:**

It is an object of the invention to utilise the magnetic spinning phenomenon of unpaired electrons occurring in ferromagnetic material to produce the movement of a mass in a unidirectional manner so as to permit a motor to be driven solely by the magnetic forces occurring within permanent magnets. Both linear and rotational types of motor may be produced. It is an object of the invention to provide the proper combination of materials, geometry and magnetic concentration to power a motor. Whether the motor is a linear type or a rotary type, in each instance the "stator" may consist of several permanent magnets fixed relative to each other, to create a track. This track is linear for a linear motor and circular for a rotary motor. An armature magnet is carefully positioned above this track so that an air gap exists between it and the track. The length of the armature magnet is defined by poles of opposite polarity, and the longer axis of the armature magnet is pointed in the direction of its movement.

The stator magnets are mounted so that all the same poles face the armature magnet. The armature magnet has poles which are both attracted to and repelled by the adjacent pole of the stator magnets, so both attractive and repulsive forces act upon the armature magnet to make it move.

The continuing motive force which acts on the armature magnet is caused by the relationship of the length of the armature magnet to the width and spacing of the stator magnets. This ratio of magnet and magnet spacings, and with an acceptable air gap spacing between the stator and armature magnets, produces a continuous force which causes the movement of the armature magnet.

In the practice of the invention, movement of the armature magnet relative to the stator magnets results from a combination of attractive and repulsive forces between the stator and armature magnets. By concentrating the magnetic fields of the stator and armature magnets the motive force imposed upon the armature magnet is intensified, and in the disclosed embodiments, the means for achieving this magnetic field concentration are shown.

This method comprises of a plate of high magnetic field permeability placed behind one side of the stator magnets and solidly engaged with them. The magnetic field of the armature magnet may be concentrated and directionally oriented by bowing the armature magnet, and the magnetic field may further be concentrated by shaping the pole ends of the armature magnet to concentrate the magnet field at a relatively limited surface at the armature magnet pole ends.

Preferably, several armature magnets are used and these are staggered relative to each other in the direction of their movement. Such an offsetting or staggering of the armature magnets distributes the impulses of force
imposed upon the armature magnets and results in a smoother application of forces to the armature magnet producing a smoother and more uniform movement of the armature component.

In the rotary embodiment of the permanent magnet motor of the invention the stator magnets are arranged in a circle, and the armature magnets rotate about the stator magnets. A mechanism is shown which can move the armature relative to the stator and this controls the magnitude of the magnetic forces, altering the speed of rotation of the motor.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
The objects and advantages of the invention mentioned earlier, will be appreciated from the following description and accompanying drawings:

Fig. 1 is a schematic view of electron flow in a superconductor indicating the unpaired electron spins,
Fig. 2 is a cross-sectional view of a superconductor under a critical state illustrating the electron spins,
Fig. 3 is a view of a permanent magnet illustrating the flux movement through it,
Fig. 4 is a cross-sectional view illustrating the diameter of the magnet of Fig.3,
Fig. 5 is an elevational representation of a linear motor embodiment of the permanent magnet motor of the invention illustrating one position of the armature magnet relative to the stator magnets, and indicating the magnetic forces imposed upon the armature magnet,
Fig. 6 is a view similar to Fig.5 illustrating displacement of the armature magnet relative to the stator magnets, and the influence of magnetic forces thereon at this location,
Fig. 7 is a further elevational view similar to Fig.5 and Fig.6 illustrating further displacement of the armature magnet to the left, and the influence of the magnetic forces thereon,
Fig. 8 is a top plan view of a linear embodiment of the inventive concept illustrating a pair of armature magnets in linked relationship disposed above the stator magnets,
Fig. 9 is a diametrical, elevational, sectional view of a rotary motor embodiment in accord with the invention as taken along section IX-IX of Fig.10, and
Fig. 10 is an elevational view of the rotary motor embodiment as taken along X-X of Fig.9.
DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS

In order to better understand the theory of the inventive concept, reference is made to Figs. 1 through 4. In Fig. 1 a superconductor 1 is illustrated having a positive particle flow as represented by arrow 2, the unpaired electrons of the ferrous conductor 1 spin at right angles to the proton flow in the conductor as represented by the spiral line and arrow 3. In accord with the theory of the invention the spinning of the ferrous unpaired electrons results from the atomic structure of ferrous materials and this spinning atomic particle is believed to be opposite in charge and located at right angles to the moving electrons. It is assumed to be very small in size capable of penetrating other elements and their compounds unless they have unpaired electrons which capture these particles as they endeavour to pass through.

The lack of electrical resistance of conductors at a critical superconductor state has long been recognised, and superconductors have been utilised to produce very high magnetic flux density electromagnets. Fig. 2 represents a cross section of a critical superconductor and the electron spins are indicated by the arrows 3. A permanent magnet may be considered a superconductor as the electron flow therein does not cease, and is without resistance, and unpaired electric spinning particles exist which, in the practice of the invention, are utilised to produce motor force. Fig. 3 illustrates a horseshoe shaped permanent magnet at 4 and the magnetic flux through it is indicated by arrows 5, the magnetic flow being from the south pole to the north pole and through the magnetic material. The accumulated electron spins occurring about the diameter of the magnet 5 are represented at 6 in...
The embodiments of motors utilising the concepts of the invention may take many forms, and in the illustrated forms the basic relationships of components are illustrated in order to disclose the inventive concepts and principles. The relationships of the plurality of magnets defining the stator 10 are best appreciated from Figs. 5 through 8. The stator magnets 12 are preferably of a rectangular configuration, Fig. 8, and so magnetised that the poles exist at the large surfaces of the magnets, as will be appreciated from the N (North) and S (South) designations. The stator magnets include side edges 14 and 16 and end edges 18. The stator magnets are mounted upon a supporting plate 20, which is preferably of a metal having a high permeability to magnetic fields and magnetic flux such as that available under the trademark Netic CoNetic sold by Perfection Mica Company of Chicago, Illinois. Thus, the plate 20 will be disposed toward the south pole of the stator magnets 12, and preferably in direct engagement therewith, although a bonding material may be interposed between the magnets and the plate in order to accurately locate and fix the magnets on the plate, and position the stator magnets with respect to each other.

Preferably, the spacing between the stator magnets 12 slightly differs between adjacent stator magnets as such a variation in spacing varies the forces being imposed upon the armature magnet at its ends, at any given time, and thus results in a smoother movement of the armature magnet relative to the stator magnets. Thus, the stator magnets so positioned relative to each other define a track 22 having a longitudinal direction left to right as viewed in Figs. 5 through 8.

In Figs. 5 through 7 only a single armature magnet 24 is disclosed, while in Fig. 8 a pair of armature magnets are shown. For purposes of understanding the concepts of the invention the description herein will be limited to the use of single armature magnet as shown in Figs. 5 through 7.

The armature magnet is of an elongated configuration wherein the length extends from left to right, Fig. 5, and may be of a rectangular transverse cross-sectional shape. For magnetic field concentrating and orientation purposes the magnet 24 is formed in an arcuate bowed configuration as defined by concave surfaces 26 and convex surfaces 28, and the poles are defined at the ends of the magnet as will be appreciated from Fig. 5. For further magnetic field concentrating purposes the ends of the armature magnet are shaped by bevelled surfaces 30 to minimise the cross sectional area at the magnet ends 32, and the magnetic flux existing between the poles of the armature magnet are as indicated by the light dotted lines. In like manner the magnetic fields of 6 the stator magnets 12 are indicated by the light dotted lines.

The armature magnet 24 is maintained in a spaced relationship above the stator track 22. This spacing may be accomplished by mounting the armature magnet upon a slide, guide or track located above the stator magnets, or the armature magnet could be mounted upon a wheeled vehicle carriage or slide supported upon a non-magnetic surface or guideway disposed between the stator magnets and the armature magnet. To clarify the illustration, the means for supporting the armature magnet 24 is not illustrated and such means form no part of invention, and it is to be understood that the means supporting the armature magnet prevents the armature magnet from moving away from the stator magnets, or moving closer thereto, but permits free movement of the armature magnet to the left or right in a direction parallel to the track 22 defined by the stator magnets.

It will be noted that the length of the armature magnet 24 is slightly greater than the width of two of the stator magnets 12 and the spacing between them. The magnetic forces acting upon the armature magnet when in the position of Fig. 5 will be repulsion forces 34 due to the proximity of like polarity forces and attraction forces at 36 because of the opposite polarity of the south pole of the armature magnet, and the north pole field of the sector magnets. The relative strength of this force is represented by the thickness of the force line.

The resultant of the force vectors imposed upon the armature magnet as shown in Fig. 5 produce a primary force vector 38 toward the left, Fig. 5, displacing the armature magnet 24 toward the left. In Fig. 6 the magnetic forces acting upon the armature magnet are represented by the same reference numerals as in Fig. 5. While the forces 34 constitute repulsion forces tending to move the north pole of the armature magnet away from the stator magnets, the attraction forces imposed upon the south pole of the armature magnet and some of the repulsion forces, tend to move the armature magnet further to the left, and as the resultant force 38 continues to be toward the left the armature magnet continues to be forced to the left. Fig. 7 represents further displacement of the armature magnet 24 to the left with respect to the position of Fig. 6, and the magnetic forces acting thereon are represented by the same reference numerals as in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, and the stator magnet will continue to move to the left, and such movement continues the length of the track 22 defined by the stator magnets 12.
Upon the armature magnet being reversed such that the north pole is positioned at the right as viewed in Fig.5, and the south pole is positioned at the left, the direction of movement of the armature magnet relative to the stator magnets is toward the right, and the theory of movement is identical to that described above.

In Fig.8 a plurality of armature magnets 40 and 42 are illustrated which are connected by links 44. The armature magnets are of a shape and configuration identical to that of the embodiment of Fig.5, but the magnets are staggered with respect to each other in the direction of magnet movement, i.e., the direction of the track 22 defined by the stator magnets 12. By so staggering a plurality of armature magnets a smoother movement of the interconnected armature magnets is produced as compared when using a single armature magnet as there is variation in the forces acting upon each armature magnet as it moves above the track 22 due to the change in magnetic forces imposed thereon. The use of several armature magnets tends to "smooth out" the application of forces imposed upon linked armature magnets, resulting in a smoother movement of the armature magnet assembly. Of course, any number of armature magnets may be interconnected, limited only by the width of the stator magnet track 22.

In Fig.9 and Fig.10 a rotary embodiment embracing the inventive concepts is illustrated. In this embodiment the principle of operation is identical to that described above, but the orientation of the stator and armature magnets is such that rotation of the armature magnets is produced about an axis, rather than a linear movement being achieved.

In Fig.9 and Fig.10 a base is represented at 46 serving as a support for a stator member 48. The stator member 48 is made of a non-magnetic material, such as synthetic plastic, aluminium, or the like. The stator includes a cylindrical surface 50 having an axis, and a threaded bore 52 is concentrically defined in the stator. The stator includes an annular groove 54 receiving an annular sleeve 56 of high magnetic field permeability material such as Netic Co-Netic and a plurality of stator magnets 58 are affixed upon the sleeve 56 in spaced circumferential relationship as will be apparent in Fig.10. Preferably, the stator magnets 58 are formed with converging radial sides as to be of a wedge configuration having a curved inner surface engaging sleeve 56, and a convex pole surface 60.

The armature 62, in the illustrated embodiment, is of a dished configuration having a radial web portion, and an axially extending portion 64. The armature 62 is formed of a non-magnetic material, and an annular belt receiving groove 66 is defined therein for receiving a belt for transmitting power from the armature to a generator, or other power consuming device. Three armature magnets 68 are mounted on the armature portion 64, and such magnets are of a configuration similar to the armature magnet configuration of Figs. 5 through 7.

The magnets 68 are staggered with respect to each other in a circumferential direction wherein the magnets are not placed exactly 120 degrees apart but instead, a slight angular staggering of the armature magnets is desirable to "smooth out" the magnetic forces being imposed upon the armature as a result of the magnetic forces being simultaneously imposed upon each of the armature magnets. The staggering of the armature magnets 68 in a circumferential direction produces the same effect as the staggering of the armature magnets 40 and 42 as shown in Fig.8.

The armature 62 is mounted upon a threaded shaft 70 by anti-friction bearings 72, and the shaft 70 is threaded into the stator threaded bore 52, and may be rotated by the knob 74. In this manner rotation of the knob 74, and shaft 70, axially displaces the armature 62 with respect to the stator magnets 58, and such axial displacement will vary the magnitude of the magnetic forces imposed upon the armature magnets 68 by the stator magnets thereby controlling the speed of rotation of the armature. As will be noted from Figs. 4 to 7, 9 and 10, an air gap exists between the armature magnets and the stator magnets and the dimension of this spacing, effects the magnitude of the forces imposed upon the armature magnet or magnets. If the distance between the armature magnets and the stator magnets is reduced the forces imposed upon the armature magnets by the stator magnets are increased, and the resultant force 8 vector tending to displace the armature magnets in their path of movement increases. However, the decreasing of the spacing between the armature and stator magnets creates a "pulsation" in the movement of the armature magnets which is objectionable, but can be, to some extent, minimised by using a plurality of armature magnets. Increasing the distance between the armature and stator magnets reduces the pulsation tendency of the armature magnet, but also reduces the magnitude of the magnetic forces imposed upon the armature magnets. Thus, the most effective spacing between the armature and stator magnets is that spacing which produces the maximum force vector in the direction of armature magnet movement, with a minimum creation of objectionable pulsation.

In the disclosed embodiments the high permeability plate 20 and sleeve 56 are disclosed for concentrating the magnetic field of the stator magnets, and the armature magnets are bowed and have shaped ends for magnetic field concentration purposes. While such magnetic field concentration means result in higher forces imposed upon
the armature magnets for given magnet intensities, it is not intended that the inventive concepts be limited to the use of such magnetic field concentrating means.

As will be appreciated from the above description of the invention, the movement of the armature magnet or magnets results from the described relationship of components. The length of the armature magnets as related to the width of the stator magnets and spacing between them, the dimension of the air gap and the configuration of the magnetic field, combined, produce the desired result and motion. The inventive concepts may be practiced even though these relationships may be varied within limits not yet defined and the invention is intended to encompass all dimensional relationships which achieve the desired goal of armature movement. By way of example, with respect to Figs. to 7, the following dimensions were used in an operating prototype:

The length of armature magnet 24 is 3.125”, the stator magnets 12 are 1” wide, .25” thick and 4” long and grain oriented. The air gap between the poles of the armature magnet and the stator magnets is approximately 1.5” and the spacing between the stator magnets is approximately .5“ inch.

In effect, the stator magnets define a magnetic field track of a single polarity transversely interrupted at spaced locations by the magnetic fields produced by the lines of force existing between the poles of the stator magnets and the unidirectional force exerted on the armature magnet is a result of the repulsion and attraction forces existing as the armature magnet traverses this magnetic field track.

It is to be understood that the inventive concept embraces an arrangement wherein the armature magnet component is stationary and the stator assembly is supported for movement and constitutes the moving component, and other variations of the inventive concept will be apparent to those skilled in the art without departing from the scope thereof. As used herein the term "track" is intended to include both linear and circular arrangements of the static magnets, and the "direction" or "length" of the track is that direction parallel or concentric to the intended direction of armature magnet movement.
PAVEL IMRIS: OPTICAL GENERATOR


OPTICAL GENERATOR OF AN ELECTROSTATIC FIELD HAVING LONGITUDINAL OSCILLATION AT LIGHT FREQUENCIES FOR USE IN AN ELECTRICAL CIRCUIT

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes a gas-filled tube which allows many standard 40-watt fluorescent tubes to be powered using less than 1-watt of power each.

ABSTRACT
An Optical generator of an electrostatic field at light frequencies for use in an electrical circuit, the generator having a pair of spaced-apart electrodes in a gas-filled tube of quartz glass or similar material with at least one capacitor cap or plate adjacent to one electrode and a dielectric filled container enclosing the tube, the generator substantially increasing the electrical efficiency of the electrical circuit.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to improved electrical circuits, and more particularly to circuits utilising an optical generator of an electrostatic field at light frequencies.

The measure of the efficiency of an electrical circuit may broadly be defined as the ratio of the output energy in the desired form (such as light in a lighting circuit) to the input electrical energy. Up to now, the efficiency of many circuits has not been very high. For example, in a lighting circuit using 40 watt fluorescent lamps, only about 8.8 watts of the input energy per lamp is actually converted to visible light, thus representing an efficiency of only about 22%. The remaining 31.2 watts is dissipated primarily in the form of heat.

It has been suggested that with lighting circuits having fluorescent lamps, increasing the frequency of the applied current will raise the overall circuit efficiency. While at an operating frequency of 60 Hz, the efficiency is 22%, if the frequency is raised to 1 Mhz, the circuit efficiency would only rise to some 25.5%. Also, if the input frequency were raised to 10 Ghz, the overall circuit efficiency would only be 35%.

SUMMARY OF THE PRESENT INVENTION
The present invention utilises an optical electrostatic generator which is effective for producing high frequencies in the visible light range of about $10^{14}$ to $10^{23}$ Hz. The operation and theory of the optical electrostatic generator has been described and discussed in my co-pending application serial No. 5,248, filed on 23rd January 1970. As stated in my co-pending application, the present optical electrostatic generator does not perform in accordance with the accepted norms and standards of ordinary electromagnetic frequencies.

The optical electrostatic generator as utilised in the present invention can generate a wide range of frequencies between several Hertz and those in the light frequency. Accordingly, it is an object of the present invention to provide improved electrical energy circuits utilising my optical electrostatic generator, whereby the output energy in the desired form will be substantially more efficient than possible to date, using standard circuit techniques and equipment. It is a further object of the present invention to provide such a circuit for use in fluorescent lighting or other lighting circuits. It is also an object of the present invention to provide a circuit with may be used in conjunction with electrostatic precipitators for dust and particle collection and removal, as well as many other purposes.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig.1 is a schematic layout showing an optical electrostatic generator of the present invention, utilised in a lighting circuit for fluorescent lamps.

A - 10
Fig. 2 is a schematic layout of a high-voltage circuit incorporating an optical electrostatic generator:

Fig. 2A is a sectional view through a portion of the generator and

Fig. 3 is a schematic sectional view showing an optical electrostatic generator in accordance with the present invention, particularly for use in alternating current circuits, although it may also be used in direct current circuits:
DESCRIPTION OF THE ILLUSTRATED EMBODIMENTS

Referring to the drawings and to Fig.1 in particular, a low voltage circuit utilising an optical electrostatic generator is shown. As shown in Fig.1, a source of alternating current electrical energy 10, is connected to a lighting circuit. Connected to one tap of the power source 10 is a rectifier 12 for utilisation when direct current is required. The illustrated circuit is provided with a switch 14 which may be opened or closed depending on whether AC or DC power is used. Switch 14 is opened and a switch 16 is closed when AC is used. With switch 14 closed and switch 16 open, the circuit operates as a DC circuit.
Extending from switches 14 and 16 is conductor 18 which is connected to an optical electrostatic generator 20. Conductor 18 is passed through an insulator 22 and connected to an electrode 24. Spaced from electrode 24 is a second electrode 25. Enclosing electrodes 24 and 25, which preferably are made of tungsten or similar material, is a quartz glass tube 26 which is filled with an ionisable gas 28 such as xenon or any other suitable ionisable gas such as argon, krypton, neon, nitrogen or hydrogen, as well as the vapour of metals such as mercury or sodium.

Surrounding each end of tube 26 and adjacent to electrodes 24 and 25, are capacitor plates 30 and 32 in the form of caps. A conductor is connected to electrode 25 and passed through a second insulator 34. Surrounding the tube, electrodes and capacitor caps is a metal envelope in the form of a thin sheet of copper or other metal such as aluminium. Envelope 36 is spaced from the conductors leading into and out of the generator by means of insulators 22 and 34. Envelope 36 is filled with a dielectric material such as transformer oil, highly purified distilled water, nitro-benzene or any other suitable liquid dielectric. In addition, the dielectric may be a solid such as ceramic material with relatively small molecules.

A conductor 40 is connected to electrode 25, passed through insulator 24 and then connected to a series of fluorescent lamps 42 which are connected in series. It is the lamps 42 which will be the measure of the efficiency of the circuit containing the optical electrostatic generator 20. A conductor 44 completes the circuit from the fluorescent lamps to the tap of the source of electrical energy 10. In addition, the circuit is connected to a ground 46 by another conductor 48. Envelope 36 is also grounded by lead 50 and in the illustrated diagram, lead 50 is connected to the conductor 44.

The capacitor caps or plates 30 and 32, form a relative capacitor with the discharge tube. When a high voltage is applied to the electrode of the discharge tube, the ions of gas are excited and brought to a higher potential than their environment, i.e. the envelope and the dielectric surrounding it. At this point, the ionised gas in effect becomes one plate of a relative capacitor in co-operation with the capacitor caps or plates 30 and 32.

When this relative capacitor is discharged, the electric current does not decrease as would normally be expected. Instead, it remains substantially constant due to the relationship between the relative capacitor and an absolute capacitor which is formed between the ionised gas and the spaced metal envelope 36. An oscillation effect occurs in the relative capacitor, but the electrical condition in the absolute capacitor remains substantially constant.

As also described in the co-pending application serial No. 5,248, there is an oscillation effect between the ionised gas in the discharge lamp and the metallic envelope 36 will be present if the capacitor caps are eliminated, but the efficiency of the electrostatic generator will be substantially decreased.

The face of the electrode can be any desired shape. However, a conical point of 60° has been found to be satisfactory and it is believed to have an influence on the efficiency of the generator.

In addition, the type of gas selected for use in tube 26, as well as the pressure of the gas in the tube, also affect the efficiency of the generator, and in turn, the efficiency of the electrical circuit.
To demonstrate the increased efficiency of an electrical circuit utilising the optical electrostatic generator of the present invention as well as the relationship between gas pressure and electrical efficiency, a circuit similar to that shown in Fig. 1 may be used with 100 standard 40 watt, cool-white fluorescent lamps connected in series. The optical electrostatic generator includes a quartz glass tube filled with xenon, with a series of different tubes being used because of the different gas pressures being tested.
Table 1 shows the data to be obtained relating to the optical electrostatic generator. Table 2 shows the lamp performance and efficiency for each of the tests shown in Table 1. The following is a description of the data in each of the columns of Tables 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Gas used in discharge tube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Gas pressure in tube (in torrs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Field strength across the tube (measured in volts per cm. of length between the electrodes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Current density (measured in microamps per sq. mm. of tube cross-sectional area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Current (measured in amps)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Power across the tube (calculated in watts per cm. of length between the electrodes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Voltage per lamp (measured in volts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Current (measured in amps)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Resistance (calculated in ohms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Input power per lamp (calculated in watts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Light output (measured in lumens)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Test No.</th>
<th>B Type of discharge lamp</th>
<th>C Pressure of Xenon (Torr)</th>
<th>D Field strength across lamp (V/cm)</th>
<th>E Current density (A/sq.mm)</th>
<th>F Current (A)</th>
<th>G Power across the lamp (W/cm.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mo elec</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Xe 0.01</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>0.1818</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>0.1818</td>
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<td>32.56</td>
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### Table 2

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Test No.</th>
<th>Voltage (Volts)</th>
<th>Current (Amps)</th>
<th>Resistance (Ohms)</th>
<th>Input Energy (Watts)</th>
<th>Light Output (Lumen)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>38.17</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>190</td>
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<td>3,200</td>
</tr>
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<td>53</td>
<td>0.1818</td>
<td>291</td>
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</tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>9.09</td>
<td>3,200</td>
</tr>
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<td>71</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.1818</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>3,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1818</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>3,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The design of a tube construction for use in the optical electrostatic generator of the type used in Fig.1, may be accomplished by considering the radius of the tube, the length between the electrodes in the tube and the power across the tube.

If $R$ is the minimum inside radius of the tube in centimetres, $L$ the minimum length in centimetres between the electrodes, and $W$ the power in watts across the lamp, the following formula can be obtained from Table 1:

- \[ R = \left(\frac{\text{Current [A]}}{\text{Current Density [A/sq.mm]}}\right) / \pi \]
- \[ L = 8R \]
- \[ W = L[V/cm] \times A \]

For example, for Test No. 18 in Table 1:

- The current is 0.1818 A,
- The current density 0.000353 A/sq.mm and
- The Voltage Distribution is 122.8 V/cm; therefore

\[
R = \left(\frac{0.1818}{0.000353}\right)^2 / 3.14 = 12.80 \text{ mm.}
\]

\[
L = 8 \times R = 8 \times 12.8 = 102.4 \text{ mm (10.2 cm.)}
\]

\[
W = 10.2 \times 122.8 \times 0.1818 = 227.7 \text{ VA or 227.7 watts}
\]

The percent efficiency of operation of the fluorescent lamps in Test No. 18 can be calculated from the following equation:

\[
\% \text{ Efficiency} = \left(\frac{\text{Output Energy}}{\text{Input energy}}\right) \times 100
\]
Across a single fluorescent lamp, the voltage is 60 volts and the current is 0.1818 amps therefore the input energy to the lamp 42 is 10.90 Watts. The output of the fluorescent lamp is 3,200 lumens which represents 8.8 Watts power of light energy. Thus, the one fluorescent lamp is operating at 80.7% efficiency under these conditions.

However, when the optical generator is the same as described for Test No. 18 and there are 100 fluorescent lamps in series in the circuit, the total power input is 227.7 watts for the optical generator and 1,090 watts for 100 fluorescent lamps, or a total of 1,318 watts. The total power input normally required to operate the 100 fluorescent lamps in a normal circuit would be 100 x 40 = 4,000 watts. So by using the optical generator in the circuit, about 2,680 watts of energy is saved.

Table 1 is an example of the functioning of this invention for a particular fluorescent lamp (40 watt cool white). However, similar data can be obtained for other lighting applications, by those skilled in the art.

In Fig.2, a circuit is shown which uses an optical electrostatic generator 20a, similar to generator 20 of Fig.1. In generator 20, only one capacitor cap 32a is used and it is preferably of triangular cross-sectional design. In addition, the second electrode 25a is connected directly back into the return conductor 52, similar to the arrangement shown in my co-pending application serial No. 5,248, filed 23rd January 1970.

This arrangement is preferably for very high voltage circuits and the generator is particularly suited for DC usage.

In Fig.2, common elements have received the same numbers which were used in Fig.1.
In Fig. 3, still another embodiment of an optical electrostatic generator 20b is shown. This generator is particularly suited for use with AC circuits. In this embodiment, the capacitor plates 30b and 32b have flanges 54 and 56 which extend outwards towards the envelope 36. While the utilisation of the optical electrostatic generator has been described in use in a fluorescent lighting circuit, it is to be understood that many other types of circuits may be used. For example, the high-voltage embodiment may be used in a variety of circuits such as flash lamps, high-speed controls, laser beams and high-energy pulses. The generator is also particularly usable in a circuit including electrostatic particle precipitation in air pollution control devices, chemical synthesis in electrical discharge systems such as ozone generators and charging means for high-voltage generators of the Van de Graff type, as well as particle accelerators. To those skilled in the art, many other uses and circuits will be apparent.
HAROLD COLMAN & RONALD SEDDON-GILLESPIE: 70-YEAR BATTERY

Patent GB 763,062  5th December 1956  Inventors: Harold Colman and Ronald Seddon-Gillespie

APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING AN ELECTRIC CURRENT

This patent shows the details of a lightweight device which can produce electricity using a self-powered electromagnet and chemical salts. The working life of the device before needing a recharge is estimated at some seventy years. The operation is controlled by a transmitter which bombards the chemical sample with 300 MHz radio waves. This produces radioactive emissions from the chemical mixture for a period of one hour maximum, so the transmitter needs to be run for fifteen to thirty seconds once every hour. The chemical mixture is shielded by a lead screen to prevent harmful radiation reaching the user. The output from the tiny device described is estimated to be some 10 amps at 100 to 110 volts DC.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to a new apparatus for producing electric current the apparatus being in the form of a completely novel secondary battery. The object of this invention is to provide apparatus of the above kind which is considerably lighter in weight than, and has an infinitely greater life than a known battery or similar characteristics and which can be re-activated as and when required in a minimum of time.

According to the present invention we provide apparatus comprising a generator unit which includes a magnet, a means for suspending a chemical mixture in the magnetic field, the mixture being composed of elements whose nuclei becomes unstable as a result of bombardment by short waves so that the elements become radio-active and release electrical energy, the mixture being mounted between, and in contact with, a pair of different metals such as copper and zinc, a capacitor mounted between those metals, a terminal electrically connected to each of the metals, means for conveying the waves to the mixture and a lead shield surrounding the mixture to prevent harmful radiation from the mixture.

The mixture is preferably composed of the elements Cadmium, Phosphorus and Cobalt having Atomic Weights of 112, 31 and 59 respectively. The mixture, which may be of powdered form, is mounted in a tube of non-conducting, high heat resistivity material and is compressed between granulated zinc at one end of the tube and granulated copper at the other end, the ends of the tube being closed by brass caps and the tube being carried in a suitable cradle so that it is located between the poles of the magnet. The magnet is preferably an electromagnet and is energised by the current produced by the unit.

The means for conveying the waves to the mixture may be a pair of antennae which are exactly similar to the antennae of the transmitter unit for producing the waves, each antenna projecting from and being secured to the brass cap at each end of the tube.

The transmitter unit which is used for activating the generator unit may be of any conventional type operating on ultra-shortwave and is preferably crystal controlled at the desired frequency.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig. 1 is a side elevation of one form of the apparatus.

Fig. 2 is a view is an end elevation

Fig. 3 is a schematic circuit diagram.

In the form of our invention illustrated, the generator unit comprises a base 10 upon which the various components are mounted. This base 10, having projecting upwards from it a pair of arms 11, which form a cradle housing 12 for a quartz tube 13, the cradle 12 preferably being made of spring material so that the tube 13 is firmly, yet removably held in position. The arms 11 are positioned relative to the poles 14 of an electromagnet 15 so that the tube 13 is located immediately between the poles of the magnet so as to be in the strongest magnetic field created by the electromagnet. The magnet serves to control the alpha and beta rays emitted by the cartridge when it is in operation.
The ends of the quartz tube 13 are each provided with a brass cap 16, and these caps 16 are adapted to engage within the spring cradles 12 and the coils 17 associated with the magnet being so arranged that if the base 10 of the unit is in a horizontal plane, the poles 14 of the magnet are in a substantially vertical plane.

Also connected across the cradles is a lead capacitor 18 which may conveniently be housed in the base 10 of the unit and connected in parallel with this capacitor 18 is a suitable high frequency inductance coil 19. The unit is provided with a lead shield 20 so as to prevent harmful radiation from the quartz tube as will be described later.

The quartz tube 13 has mounted in it, at one end, a quantity of granulated copper which is in electrical contact with the brass cap 16 at that end of the tube. Also mounted within the tube and in contact with the granulated copper is a chemical mixture which is in powdered form and which is capable of releasing electrical energy and which becomes radioactive when subjected to bombardment by ultra-short radio waves.

Mounted in the other end of the tube, and in contact with the other end of the powdered chemical mixture is a quantity of granulated zinc which is itself in contact with the brass cap on this end of the tube, the arrangement being that the chemical mixture is compressed between the granulated copper and the granulated zinc.

Projecting outwards from each brass cap 16, and electrically connected to them, is an antenna 21. Each antenna 21 corresponding exactly in dimension, shape and electrical characteristics to the antenna associated with a transmitter unit which is to produce the ultra shortwaves mentioned earlier.

The transmitter unit is of any suitable conventional type for producing ultra shortwaves and may be crystal controlled to ensure that it operates at the desired frequency with the necessity of tuning. If the transmitter is only required to operate over a short range, it may conveniently be battery powered but if it is to operate over a greater range, then it may be operated from a suitable electrical supply such as the mains. If the transmitter is to be tuned, then the tuning may be operated by a dial provided with a micrometer vernier scale so that the necessary tuning accuracy may be achieved.

The mixture which is contained within the quartz tube is composed of the elements Cadmium, Phosphorus and Cobalt, having atomic weights 112, 31 and 59 respectively. Conveniently, these elements may be present in the following compounds, and where the tube is to contain thirty milligrams of the mixture, the compounds and their proportions by weight are:

1 Part of Co (No3) 2 6H2O
2 Parts of CdCl2
3 Parts of 3Ca (Po3) 2 + 10C.

The cartridge which consists of the tube 13 with the chemical mixture in it is preferably composed of a number of small cells built up in series. In other words, considering the cartridge from one end to the other, at one end and in contact with the brass cap, there would be a layer of powdered copper, then a layer of the chemical mixture, then a layer of powdered zinc, a layer of powdered copper, etc. with a layer of powdered zinc in contact with the brass cap at the other end of the cartridge. With a cartridge some forty five millimetres long and five millimetres diameter, some fourteen cells may be included.

The cradles 12 in which the brass caps 16 engage, may themselves form terminals from which the output of the unit may be taken. Alternatively, a pair of terminals 27 may be connected across the cradles 12, these terminals 27 being themselves provided with suitable antennae 28, which correspond exactly in dimensions, shape and electrical characteristics to the antennae associated with the transmitter, these antennae 28, replacing the antennae 21.

In operation with the quartz tube containing the above mixture located between the granulated copper and the granulated zinc and with the tube itself in position between the poles of the magnet, the transmitter is switched on and the ultra shortwaves coming from it are received by the antennae mounted at each end of the tube and in contact with the copper and zinc respectively, the waves being thus passed through the copper and zinc and through the mixture so that the mixture is bombarded by the short waves and the Cadmium, Phosphorus and Cobalt associated with the mixture become radioactive and release electrical energy which is transmitted to the granulated copper and granulated zinc, causing a current to flow between them in a similar manner to the current
A flow produced by a thermo couple. It has been established that with a mixture having the above composition, the optimum release of energy is obtained when the transmitter is operating at a frequency of 300 MHz.

The provision of a quartz tube is necessary for the mixture evolves a considerable amount of heat while it is reacting to the bombardment of the short waves. It is found that the tube will only last for one hour and that the tube will become discharged after an hour operation, that is to say, the radioactiveness of the tube will only last for one hour and it is therefore necessary, if the unit is to be run continuously, for the transmitter to be operated for a period of some fifteen to thirty seconds duration once every hour.

With a quartz tube having an overall length of some forty five millimetres and an inside diameter of five millimetres and containing thirty milligrams of the chemical mixture, the estimated energy which will be given off from the tube for a discharge of one hour, is 10 amps at between 100 and 110 volts. To enable the tube to give off this discharge, it is only necessary to operate the transmitter at the desired frequency for a period of some fifteen to thirty seconds duration.

The current which is given off by the tube during its discharge is in the form of direct current. During the discharge from the tube, harmful radiations are emitted in the form of gamma rays, alpha rays and beta rays and it is therefore necessary to mount the unit within a lead shield to prevent the harmful radiations from affecting personnel and objects in the vicinity of the unit. The alpha and beta rays which are emitted from the cartridge when it is in operation are controlled by the magnet.

When the unit is connected up to some apparatus which is to be powered by it, it is necessary to provide suitable fuses to guard against the cartridge being short-circuited which could cause the cartridge to explode.

The estimated weight of such a unit including the necessary shielding, per kilowatt hour output, is approximately 25% of any known standard type of accumulator which is in use today and it is estimated that the life of the chemical mixture is probably in the region of seventy to eighty years when under constant use.

It will thus be seen that we have provided a novel form of apparatus for producing an electric current, which is considerably lighter than the standard type of accumulator at present known, and which has an infinitely greater life than the standard type of accumulator, and which can be recharged or reactivated as and when desired and from a remote position depending on the power output of the transmitter. Such form of battery has many applications.
Electrical power is frequently generated by spinning the shaft of a generator which has some arrangement of coils and magnets contained within it. The problem is that when current is drawn from the take-off coils of a typical generator, it becomes much more difficult to spin the generator shaft. The cunning design shown in this patent overcomes this problem with a simple design in which the effort required to turn the shaft is not altered by the current drawn from the generator.

**ABSTRACT**

A generator of the present invention is formed of ring permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' attached and fixed on to two orbits 1 and 1' about a rotational axis 3, magnetic induction primary cores 4 and 4' attached and fixed above outer peripheral surfaces of the ring permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' at a predetermined distance from the outer peripheral surfaces, magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' attached and fixed on to the magnetic induction primary cores 4 and 4' and each having two coupling holes 6 and 6' formed therein, tertiary cores 8 and 8' inserted for coupling respectively into two coupling holes 6 and 6' of each of the associated magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' opposite to each other, and responsive coils 7 and 7'. The ring permanent magnetic trains 2 and 2' are formed of 8 sets of magnets with alternating N and S poles, and magnets associated with each other in the axial direction have opposite polarities respectively and form a pair.

**DESCRIPTION**

**TECHNICAL FIELD**

The present invention relates to generators, and particularly to a load-free generator which can maximise the generator efficiency by erasing or eliminating the secondary repulsive load exerted on the rotor during electric power generation.

**BACKGROUND ART**

The generator is a machine which converts mechanical energy obtained from sources of various types of energy such as physical, chemical or nuclear power energy, for example, into electric energy. Generators based on linear motion have recently been developed while most generators are structured as rotational type generators. Generation of electromotive force by electromagnetic induction is a common principle to generators regardless of their size or whether the generator is AC or DC generator.

The generator requires a strong magnet such as permanent magnet and electromagnet for generating magnetic field as well as a conductor for generating the electromotive force, and the generator is structured to enable one of them to rotate relative to the other. Depending on which of the magnet and the conductor rotates, generators can be classified into rotating-field type generators in which the magnetic field rotates and rotating-armature type generators in which the conductor rotates.

Although the permanent magnet can be used for generating the magnetic field, the electromagnet is generally employed which is formed of a magnetic field coil wound around a core to allow direct current to flow through them. Even if a strong magnet is used to enhance the rotational speed, usually the electromotive force produced from one conductor is not so great. Thus, in a generally employed system, a large number of conductors are provided in the generator and the electromotive forces generated from respective conductors are serially added up so as to achieve a high electric power.

As discussed above, a usual generator produces electricity by mechanically rotating a magnet (or permanent magnet) or a conductor (electromagnet, electrically responsive coil and the like) while reverse current generated at this time by magnetic induction (electromagnetic induction) and flowing through the coil causes magnetic force which pulls the rotor so that the rotor itself is subjected to unnecessary load which reaches at least twice the electric power production.
Fig.6 illustrates that the load as discussed above is exerted on a rotor in a rotating-field type generator mentioned above.

Referring to Fig.6, a permanent magnet train 104 is arranged about an axis of rotation 106 such that N poles and S poles are alternately located on the outer peripheral surface of the train. At a certain distance outward from the outer periphery of permanent magnet train 104, a magnetic induction core 100 is arranged and a coil 102 is wound around magnetic induction core 100.

As permanent magnet train 104 rotates, the magnetic field produced in the coil by permanent magnet train 104 changes to cause induced current to flow through coil 102. This induced current allows coil 102 to generate a magnetic field 110 which causes a repulsive force exerted on permanent magnet train 104 in the direction which interferes the rotation of the magnet train.

For example, in the example shown in Fig.6, the S pole of magnetic field 110 faces permanent magnet train 104. The S pole of permanent magnet train 104 approaches coil 102 because of rotation of permanent magnet train 104, resulting in the repulsive force as described above.

If reverse current flows in a responsive coil of an armature wound around a magnetic induction core of a generator so that the resulting load hinders the rotor from rotating, reverse magnetic field of the armature responsive coil becomes stronger in proportion to the electricity output and accordingly a load corresponding to at least twice the instantaneous consumption could occur.

If electric power of 100W is used, for example, reverse magnetic field of at least 200W is generated so that an enormous amount of load affects the rotor to interfere the rotation of the rotor.

All of the conventional generators are subjected to not only a mechanical primary load, i.e. the load when the electric power is not consumed but a secondary load due to reverse current which is proportional to electric power consumption and consequently subjected to a load of at least twice the instantaneous consumption.

Such an amount of the load is a main factor of reduction of the electric power production efficiency, and solution of the problem above has been needed.

**DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION**

One object of the present invention is to provide a generator capable of generating electric power with high efficiency by cancelling out the secondary load except the mechanical load of the generator, i.e. cancelling out the load which is generated due to reverse current of a responsive coil of an armature wound around a magnetic induction core, so as to entirely prevent the secondary load from being exerted.
In short, the present invention is applied to a load-free generator including a rotational axis, a first ring magnet train, a second ring magnet train, a first plurality of first magnetic induction primary cores, a first plurality of second magnetic induction primary cores, a first responsive coil, and a second responsive coil.

The first ring magnet train has N poles and S poles successively arranged on an outer periphery of a first rotational orbit about the rotational axis. The second ring magnet train has magnets successively arranged on an outer periphery of a second rotational orbit about the rotational axis at a predetermined distance from the first rotational orbit such that the polarities of the magnets on the second rotational orbit are opposite to the polarities at opposite locations on the first rotational orbit respectively. The first plurality of first magnetic induction primary cores are fixed along a first peripheral surface of the first ring magnet train at a predetermined distance from the first peripheral surface. The first plurality of second magnetic induction primary cores are fixed along a second peripheral surface of the second ring magnet train at a predetermined distance from the second peripheral surface. A first plurality of first coupling magnetic induction cores and a first plurality of second coupling magnetic induction cores are provided in pairs to form a closed magnetic circuit between the first and second magnetic induction primary cores opposite to each other in the direction of the rotational axis. The first responsive coil is wound around the first coupling magnetic induction core. The second responsive coil is wound around the second coupling magnetic induction core, the direction of winding of the second responsive coil being reversed relative to the first responsive coil.

Preferably, in the load-free generator of the invention, the first ring magnet train includes a permanent magnet train arranged along the outer periphery of the first rotational orbit, and the second ring magnet train includes a permanent magnet train arranged along the outer periphery of the second rotational orbit.

Still preferably, the load-free generator of the present invention further includes a first plurality of first magnetic induction secondary cores provided on respective outer peripheries of the first magnetic induction primary cores and each having first and second coupling holes, and a first plurality of second magnetic induction secondary cores provided on respective outer peripheries of the second magnetic induction primary cores and each having third and fourth coupling holes. The first coupling magnetic induction cores are inserted into the first and third coupling holes to couple the first and second magnetic induction secondary cores, and the second coupling magnetic induction cores are inserted into the second and fourth coupling holes to couple the first and second magnetic induction secondary cores.

Alternatively, the load-free generator of the present invention preferably has a first plurality of first responsive coils arranged in the rotational direction about the rotational aids that are connected zigzag to each other and a first plurality of second responsive coils arranged in the rotational direction about the rotational axis that are connected zigzag to each other.

Alternatively, in the load-free generator of the present invention, preferably the first plurality is equal to 8, and the 8 first responsive coils arranged in the rotational direction about the rotational axis are connected zigzag to each other, and the 8 second responsive coils arranged in the rotational direction about the rotational axis are connected zigzag to each other.

Accordingly, a main advantage of the present invention is that two responsive coils wound respectively in opposite directions around a paired iron cores are connected to cancel reverse magnetic forces generated by reverse currents (induced currents) flowing through the two responsive coils, so that the secondary load which interferes the rotation of the rotor is totally prevented and thus a load-free generator can be provided which is subjected to just a load which is equal to or less than mechanical load when electric power production is not done, i.e. the rotational load even when the generator is operated to the maximum.

Another advantage of the present invention is that the reverse magnetic force, as found in the conventional generators, due to reverse current occurring when the rotor rotates is not generated, and accordingly load of energy except the primary gravity of the rotor and dynamic energy of the rotor is eliminated to increase the amount of electricity output relative to the conventional electric power generation system and thus enhance the electric power production and economic efficiency.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**
Fig. 1 is a cross sectional view of a rotating-field type generator according to an embodiment of the present invention illustrating an arrangement a permanent magnet, magnetic induction cores and coils.

Fig. 2 is a partial schematic view illustrating a magnetic array of the permanent magnet rotor and an arrangement of one of magnetically responsive coils placed around that rotor in an embodiment of the present invention.

Fig. 3 illustrates a structure of the magnetically responsive coils and cores in the embodiment of the present invention.
**Fig. 4** is an enlarged plan view of magnetically sensitive cores and coil portions of the load-free generator of the present invention illustrating magnetic flow therethrough.

**Fig. 5** is an exploded view about a central axis showing the interconnection of magnetic field coils which are respectively wound around tertiary cores surrounding the permanent magnet rotor in **Fig. 1** according to the present invention.
Fig. 6 illustrates generation of the secondary load in a conventional generator.
BEST MODES FOR CARRYING OUT THE INVENTION

The structure and operation of a load-free generator according to the present invention are now described in conjunction with the drawings.

Fig.1 illustrates a cross sectional structure of the load-free generator of the invention perpendicular to a rotational axis 3.

Fig.2 partially illustrates a cross sectional structure of the load-free generator of the invention in parallel to rotational axis 3. Specifically, in Fig.2, only one of eight sets of magnetic induction primary cores 4 and 4' arranged around rotational axis 3 as described below is representatively shown.

Referring to Fig.1 and Fig.2, the structure of the load-free generator of the invention is now described. Permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' in ring forms are attached and fixed to respective left and right orbits 1 and 1' provided relative to rotational axis 3 with a certain interval between them. Permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' are fixed onto left and right orbits 1 and 1' respectively such that the polarities on the outer peripheral surface of each magnet train relative to the rotational axis are alternately N poles and S poles. The permanent magnet trains are rotatable about the axis. Further, the facing polarities of respective permanent magnet train 2 and permanent magnet train 2' relative to the direction of rotational axis 3 are arranged to be opposite.
As shown in Fig.2, rotational axis 3 and a case 9 are joined by a bearing 10 at a certain distance from the permanent magnet trains 2 and 2'.

At a predetermined distance from permanent magnet trains 2 and 2', magnetic induction primary cores 4 and 4' with respective coils wound around them are fixed to case 9.

In addition, magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' each having two coupling holes 6 and 6' formed therein are structured by stacking and coupling a plurality of thin cores attached and fixed to magnetic induction primary cores 4 and 4' respectively and the secondary cores are attached and fixed to case 9.

Magnetic induction tertiary cores 8 and 8' are inserted respectively into coupling holes 6 and 6' of magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' so as to couple magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' of each other.

Responsive coils 7 and 7' are wound in opposite directions to each other around respective magnetic induction cores 8 and 8'.

Fig.3 illustrates a structure formed of magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5', magnetic induction cores 8 and 8' and responsive coils 7 and 7' viewed in the direction perpendicular to rotational axis 3.

As explained above, the directions of windings of responsive coils 7 and 7' are respectively opposite to each other around magnetic induction cores 8 and 8' which couple magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5'.

In the structure described in conjunction with Fig.1, Fig.2 and Fig.3, when rotational axis 3 of the generator rotates, permanent magnetic trains 2 and 2' accordingly rotate to generate magnetically sensitive currents (electromagnetically induced current) in responsive coils 7 and 7' and the current thus produced can be drawn out for use.
As shown in Fig.3, the coils are wound about magnetic induction cores 8 and 8' respectively in the opposite directions in the generator of the present invention, and the directions of the magnetic fields generated by the flow of the induced currents are arranged such that the N pole and S pole alternately occurs around rotational axis 3.

Fig.4 illustrates magnetic fields induced in a set of magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5', magnetic induction cores 8 and 8' and responsive coils 7 and 7'.

At iron strips on both ends of respective magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5', a reverse current magnetic field is generated by responsive coil 7 upon the rotation of N and S poles of permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' is in the direction of MA shown in Fig.4, for example, while a reverse current magnetic field generated by responsive coil 7 is in the direction of MB in Fig.4. Consequently, the reverse magnetic fields generated by the flow of currents cancel each other. The cores are formed of a plurality of iron strips in order to eliminate heat generated by eddy currents.

The magnetic field of the rotor thus has no dependence on the flow of currents, the load caused by the induced magnetisation phenomenon disappears, and energy of movement necessary for rotation against the mechanical primary load of the rotor itself is applied to the rotor.
At this time, a magnetic circuit including magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' and magnetic induction tertiary cores 8 and 8' should be shaped into "quadrature" form. If the circuit does not structured as "quadrature" form, a part of the reverse magnetic field functions as electrical force which hinders the rotational force of the rotor.

Further, permanent magnet trains 2 and 2' of the rotor are arranged to have opposite poles to each other on the left and right sides as shown in Fig.2 so as to constitute the flow of magnetic flux. Each rotor has alternately arranged magnets, for example, eight poles are provided to enhance the generator efficiency.

More detailed description of the operational principle is given now. When the rotor in Fig.1 rotates once, S and N poles of permanent magnets 2 and 2' attached to the periphery of the rotor successively supply magnetic fields to induction primary cores 4 above, and magnetic field is accordingly generated in a path from one orbit of the rotor along induction primary core 4, induction secondary core 5, induction tertiary core 8, induction secondary core 5', induction primary core 4' to the other orbit of the rotor as shown in Fig.2.

Accordingly, current flows in the coils affected by this electric field to generate electric power. For example, if the generated power is used as generated output for switching on an electric light or for using it as motive energy, the current flowing through the coils generates the reverse magnetic fields. However, this reverse magnetic fields do not influence permanent magnets 2 and 2' attached to the rotor in Fig.2 since the reverse magnetic fields of the same magnitude respectively of S and N or N and S on both ends of magnetic induction secondary cores 5 and 5' cancel out each other as shown in Fig.4. Because of this, the rotor is in a no-load state in which any resistance except the weight of the rotor itself and dynamic resistance is not exerted on the rotor.

Fig.5 illustrates a manner of connecting magnetically responsive coils 7 and 7' wound around magnetic induction tertiary cores 8 and 8' with eight poles.

Referring to Fig.5, according to a method of connecting magnetically responsive coils 7 and 7', line 1a1 of responsive coil 7' (one drawn-out line of the wire coiled around a first magnetic induction core 8) is connected to line 1a2' (one drawn-out line of the wire coiled around a second magnetic induction core 8'), and then line 1a2 (the other drawn-out line of the wire coiled around a second magnetic induction core 8) is connected to line 1a3', and subsequently lines 1a and 1a' are connected successively in zigzag manner to allow current to flow. Further, responsive coil 7 is arranged to connect lines represented by 1b1 in zigzag manner such that lines 1b and 1b' are successively connected. In this way, lines 1b, 1b' and lines 1a and 1a' of respective magnetically responsive coils 7 and 7' are connected. As a whole, total four electric wires are drawn out for use.
When electric power is to be generated according to the present invention as described above, specifically, a closed circuit is formed by responsive coils 7 and 7', electric currents are induced in responsive coils 7 and 7' wound around the magnetic induction cores of the generator, and the induced magnetic fields produced respectively by responsive coils 7 and 7' could cause a great load which interferes the rotational force of the rotor. However, as shown in Fig.4, the direction of convolution of one coil 7 is opposite to that of the other coil 7' so that the magnetic force generated by the reverse currents (induced currents) in responsive coils 7 and 7' wound around magnetic induction core 4 is not transmitted to magnetic induction cores 8 and 8 accordingly no reverse magnetic force is transmitted to permanent magnets 2 and 2'.

Therefore, each time the N poles and S poles alternate with each other because of the alternation of permanent magnets 2 and 2' shown in Fig.2, the reverse magnetic forces in the right and left direction opposite to the direction of arrows denoted by MA and MB completely disappear as shown in Fig.4. Consequently, the reverse magnetic forces caused by the reverse currents are not influenced by permanent magnets 2 and 2' and accordingly no load except the mechanical primary load is exerted on the generator of the invention.

As discussed above, the load-free generator of the present invention, secondary load except mechanical load of the generator, i.e. the load caused by the reverse currents flowing through the responsive coils can be nulled. With regard to this load-free generator, even if 100% of the current generated by magnetic induction (electromagnetic induction) is used, the magnetic secondary load due to the reverse currents except the mechanical primary load does not serve as load.

Although the number of poles of the rotor is described as 8 in the above description, the present invention is not limited to such a structure, and the invention can exhibit its effect when the smaller or greater number of poles is applied.

Further, although the magnet of the rotor is described as the permanent magnet in the above structure, the invention is not limited to such a case and the magnet of the rotor may be an electromagnet, for example.

In addition, although the description above is applied to the structure of the rotating-field type generator, the generator may be of the rotating-armature type.

**EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE**

More detailed description of the generator of the present invention is hereinafter given based on specific experimental examples of the invention.

The generator of the present invention and a conventional generator were used to measure the electric power production efficiency and the amount of load and compare the resultant measurements.

**EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE 1**

A 12-pole alternating current (AC) generator for battery charging was used, and the electricity output and the load when 50% of the electricity output was used as well as those when 100% of the electricity output was used were measured. The generator above is a single-phase AC motor and the employed power source was 220V, with 1750 rpm and the efficiency of 60%. The result of measurement using power of a motor of 0.5HP and ampere .times.volt gauge is shown in Table 1.

**EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE 2**

Measurement was done under the same conditions as those of experimental example 1 and a generator used was the one which was made according to the present invention to have the same conditions as those of the product of the existing model above. The result of measurement using ampere x volt gauge is shown in Table 1.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Generator</th>
<th>50% Electricity Used</th>
<th>100% Electricity Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity Output (Watts)</td>
<td>Amount of Load (Watts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional:</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This invention:</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(electricity output and load amount of the alternating current generators when 50% and 100% of the electricity were used)

From the result of Experimental Example 1 above, the reason for the remarkable reduction of the electricity output when the electricity consumption was 100% relative to the electricity consumption of 50% in the conventional generator is considered to be the significant increase of the repulsive load exerted on the generator when 100% of the electricity is used.

On the other hand, in the generator of the present invention, there was no appreciable difference in the amount of load between those cases in which 50% of the electricity was used and 100% thereof was used respectively. Rather, the amount of load slightly decreased (approximately 20W) when 100% of the electricity was used. In view of this, it can be understood that the amount of generated electric power of the generator of the present invention is approximately doubled as the electricity consumption increases, which is different from the conventional generator producing electric power which sharply decreases when the electricity consumption increases.

In conclusion, the amount of load above is supposed to be numerical value relative to the mechanical load of the generator as described above. Any secondary load except this, i.e. load due to the reverse currents generated in the armature responsive coils can be confirmed as zero.

EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE 3

12V direct current (DC) generators having similar conditions to those in experimental example 1 were used to make measurement under the same conditions (efficiency 80%). The result of the measurement is presented below.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Generator</th>
<th>50% Electricity Used</th>
<th>100% Electricity Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity Output (Watts)</td>
<td>Amount of Load (Watts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional:</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This invention:</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(electricity output and load amount of the alternating current generators when 50% and 100% of the electricity were used)

The DC generator has higher efficiency (80%) than that of the AC generator, while use of the brush increases the cost of the DC generator. When 100% of the electricity was used, the amount of load slightly decreased which was similar to the result shown in Table 1 and the electricity output was approximately at least 2.2 times that when 50% of the electricity was used.

EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE 4

A 220V single-phase alternating current (AC) generator (0.5HP) having similar conditions to those in experimental example 1 was used, and the rotation per minute (rpm) was changed to make measurement under the condition of 100% consumption of the generated electricity. The result of measurement is illustrated in the following Table 3.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RPM</th>
<th>Electricity Output (Watts)</th>
<th>Amount of Load (Watts)</th>
<th>Electricity Output (Watts)</th>
<th>Amount of Load (Watts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1750</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5100</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>342</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(amounts of generated electric power and load when the rotation per minute of the generator of the present invention was varied)
As shown in Table 3 above, as the rotation per minute (rpm) increases as from 1750, 3600 to 5100, the amount of electric power increases respectively from 130, 210 to 307W and consequently the difference between the amount of generated electric power and the amount of load decreases to cause relative decrease of the amount of load as the rotation per minute (rpm) increases.

**EXPERIMENTAL EXAMPLE 5**

Measurement was done by changing the number of N and S poles of the permanent magnets of the invention under the same conditions as those of experimental example 1 and under the condition that 100% of the generated electricity was used.

The result of the measurement is illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2 poles</th>
<th></th>
<th>4 poles</th>
<th></th>
<th>8 poles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity Output (Watts)</td>
<td>Amount of Load (Watts)</td>
<td>Electricity Output (Watts)</td>
<td>Amount of Load (Watts)</td>
<td>Electricity Output (Watts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(amounts of generated electric power and load when the number of poles of the permanent magnets of the generator of the invention was changed)

From Table 4 above, it can be understood that as the number of poles increases, both of the amounts of generated electric power and load increase. However, the ratio of the amount of generated electric power to the amount of load monotonously increases. In the table above, in terms of the amount of load, only the mechanical primary load is exerted and electrical secondary is not exerted.

The increase of the number of poles causes increase, by the number of increased poles, in the number of lines of magnetic flux which coils traverse, and accordingly the electromotive force increases to increase the amount of generated electric power. On the other hand, the amount of mechanical load has a constant value regardless of the increase of the number of poles, so that the mechanical load amount relatively decreases to reduce the difference between the amount of load and the amount of generated electric power.

Detailed description of the present invention which has been given above is just for the purpose of presenting example and illustration, not for limitation. It will dearly be appreciated that the spirit and scope of the invention will be limited only by the attached scope of claims.
CONTINUOUS ELECTRICAL GENERATOR

This patent application shows the details of a device which it is claimed, can produce sufficient electricity to power both itself and external loads. It also has no moving parts.

ABSTRACT

A stationary cylindrical electromagnetic core, made of one piece thin laminations stacked to desired height, having closed slots radially distributed, where two three-phase winding arrangements are placed together in the same slots, one to the centre, one to the exterior, for the purpose of creating a rotational electromagnetic field by temporarily applying a three-phase current to one of the windings, and by this means, inducting a voltage on the second one, in such a way that the outgoing energy is a lot greater than the input. A return will feedback the system and the temporary source is then disconnected. The generator will run by itself indefinitely, permanently generating a great excess of energy.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Field of the Invention

The present invention relates generally to electrical power generating systems. More specifically, the present invention relates to self-feeding electrical power generating units.

2. Description of Related Art

Since Nikola Tesla invented and patented his Polyphase System for Generators, Induction Motors and Transformers, no essential improvement has been made in the field. The generators would produce the polyphase voltages and currents by means of mechanical rotational movement in order to force a magnetic field to rotate across the generator’s radially spaced windings. The basis of the induction motor system was to create an electro-magnetically rotating field, instead of a mechanically rotated magnetic field, which would induce voltages and currents to generate electromotive forces usable as mechanical energy or power. Finally, the transformers would manipulate the voltages and currents to make them feasible for their use and transmission for long distances.

In all present Electric Generators a small amount of energy, normally less than one percent of the outgoing power in big generators, is used to excite the mechanically rotated electromagnetic poles that will induce voltages and currents in conductors having a relative speed or movement between them and the polar masses.

The rest of the energy used in the process of obtaining electricity, is needed to move the masses and to overcome the losses of the system: mechanical losses; friction losses; brushes losses, windage losses; armature reaction losses; air gap losses; synchronous reactance losses; eddy current losses; hysteresis losses, all of which, in conjunction, are responsible for the excess in power input (mechanical power) required to generate always smaller amounts of electric power.
SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

The Continuous Electrical Generator consists of a stationary cylindrical electromagnetic core made of one piece thin laminations stacked together to form a cylinder, where two three-phase windings arrangements are placed in the same slots not having any physical relative speed or displacement between them. When one of the windings is connected to a temporary three-phase source, an electromagnetic rotating field is created, and the field this way created will cut the stationary coils of the second winding, inducting voltages and currents. In the same way and extent as in common generators, about one percent or less of the outgoing power will be needed to keep the rotational magnetic field excited.

In the Continuous Electrical Generator there are no mechanical losses; friction losses; brush losses; windage losses; armature reaction losses; or air gap losses, because there is not any movement of any kind. There are: synchronous reactance losses, eddy current losses and hysteresis losses, which are inherent to the design, construction and the materials of the generator, but in the same extent as in common generators.

One percent or less of the total energy produced by present electric generators goes to create their own magnetic field; a mechanical energy that exceeds the total output of present generators is used to make them rotate in the process of extracting electrical currents from them. In the Continuous Electrical Generator there is no need for movement since the field is in fact already rotating electro-magnetically, so all that mechanical energy will not be needed. Under similar conditions of exciting currents, core mass and windings design, the Continuous Electrical Generator is significantly more efficient than present generators, which also means that it can produce significantly more than the energy it needs to operate. The Continuous Electrical Generator can feedback the system, the temporary source may be disconnected and the Generator will run indefinitely.

As with any other generator, the Continuous Electrical Generator may excite its own electromagnetic field with a minimum part of the electrical energy produced. The Continuous Electrical Generator only needs to be started up by connecting its inducting three-phase windings to a three-phase external source for an instant, and then to be disconnected, to start the system as described herein. Then, disconnected, it will run indefinitely generating a great excess of electric power to the extent of its design.

The Continuous Electrical Generator can be designed and calculated with all mathematical formulas in use today to design and calculate electrical generators and motors. It complies with all of the laws and parameters used to calculate electrical induction and generation of electricity today.

Except for the Law of Conservation of Energy, which, by itself, is not a mathematical equation but a theoretical concept and by the same reason does not have any role in the mathematical calculation of an electrical generator of any type, the Continuous Electrical Generator complies with all the Laws of Physics and Electrical Engineering. The Continuous Electrical Generator obligates us to review the Law of Conservation of Energy. In my personal belief, the electricity has never come from the mechanical energy that we put into a machine to move the masses against all oppositions. The mechanical system is actually providing the path for the condensation of electricity. The Continuous Electrical Generator provides a more efficient path for the electricity.
DESCRIPTION OF DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 shows one embodiment of the present invention.

FIG. 1
Fig. 2 shows an internal wiring diagram for the embodiment of the present invention shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 shows a single laminate for an alternate embodiment of the present invention.
Fig. 4 shows a two-piece single laminate for another alternate embodiment of the present invention.
Fig. 5 shows a wiring diagram for an embodiment of the present invention constructed from the laminate shown in Fig. 3 or Fig. 4.

![FIG. 5](image)

Fig. 6 shows the magnetic flux pattern produced by the present invention.

![FIG. 6](image)
Fig. 7 shows the rotational magnetic field patterns produced by the present invention.
Fig. 8 shows the complete system of the present invention.

Fig. 9 is an expanded view of the alternate embodiment of the present invention shown in Fig. 3 or Fig. 4.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION
The present invention is a Continuous and Autonomous Electrical Generator, capable of producing more energy than it needs to operate, and which provides itself the energy needed to operate. The basic idea consists in the induction of electric voltages and currents without any physical movement by the use of a rotational magnetic field created by a three-phase stator connected temporarily to a three-phase source, and placing stationary conductors on the path of said rotational magnetic field, eliminating the need of mechanical forces.

![Fig. 1](image)

The basic system can be observed in Fig. 1, which shows one embodiment of the present invention. There is a stationary ferromagnetic core 1 with a three-phase inducting windings 3, spaced 120 degrees and connected in Y 6 in order to provide a rotating electromagnetic field, when a three-phase voltage is applied; for the case, a two-pole arrangement. Inside this core 1 there is a second stationary ferromagnetic core 2, with no space between them, this is, with no air-gap. This second core 2 has also a three-phase stationary winding arrangement (4a in Fig. 4b and 4b in Fig. 2), aligned as shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 with the external core inducting windings 3. There is not any movement between the two cores, since there is no air-gap between them.

There is no shaft on either core since these are not rotating cores. The two cores can be made of stacked insulated laminations or of insulated compressed and bonded ferromagnetic powder. The system works either way, inducting three-phase voltages and currents on the stationary conductors 4a of the internal windings 4b, applying three-phase currents to terminals A 5a, B 5b and C 5c of the external windings 3; or inducting three-phase voltages and currents on the external windings 3, by applying three-phase currents to the terminals T1 7a, T2 7b and T3 7c, of the internal windings 4b. When a three-phase voltage is applied to terminals A 5a, B 5b and C 5c, the currents will have the same magnitude, but will be displaced in time by an angle of 120 degrees. These currents produce magneto motive-forces, which, in turn, create a rotational magnetic flux. The arrangements may vary widely as they occur with present alternators and three-phase motors, but the basics remain the same, a stationary but electro-magnetically rotating magnetic field, inducting voltages and currents on the stationary conductors placed on the path of said rotating magnetic field. The diagram is showing a two-pole arrangement for both windings, but many other arrangements may be used, as in common generators and motors.
Fig. 2 shows the three-phase arrangement of the internal winding 4b which has provided, in practice, symmetrical voltages and currents, due to a space angle of 120 degrees. It is similar to a two-pole arrangement. Many other three-phase or poly-phase arrangements may be used. Wherever a conductor is crossed by a rotational magnetic field, a voltage will be induced across its terminals. The interconnections depend on the use that we will give to the system. In this case, we will have a three-phase voltage in terminals T1 7a, T2 7b and T3 7c and a neutral 8. The outgoing voltage depends on the density of the rotational magnetic flux, the number of turns of the conductor, the frequency (instead of the speed) and the length of the conductor crossed by the field, as in any other generator.

Fig. 3 shows an alternate embodiment of the present invention in which the generator is made from multiple one-piece laminations 9, stacked as a cylinder to the desired height. This embodiment can also be made of a one-piece block of compressed and bonded insulated ferromagnetic powder. The same slot 10 will accommodate the internal 4a/4b and the external windings 3, that is, the inducting and the induced windings (see Fig. 5). In this case, a 24-slot laminate is shown, but the number of slots may vary widely according to the design and needs.

Fig. 4 shows a two-piece single laminate for another alternate embodiment of the present invention. For practical effects the laminate can be divided into two pieces 9a, 9b, as shown, to facilitate the insertion of the coils. Then, they are solidly assembled without separation between them, as if they were only one piece.

The laminates described above may be constructed with thin (0.15 mm thick or less) insulated laminations 9 or 9a and 9b of a high magnetic permeability material and low hysteresis losses such as Hiperco 50A, or similar, to reduce losses or with compressed electrically isolated ferromagnetic powder, which has lower eddy current losses and also may have low hysteresis losses, which can make the generator highly efficient.
OPERATING THE GENERATOR

The Continuous Electrical Generator as described and shown in the following drawings is designed and calculated to produce a strong rotating electromagnetic field with low exciting currents. By using a laminated material, such as the said Hiperco 50A, we can achieve rotating magnetic fields above two Teslas, since there are no air gap losses, mechanical losses, windage losses, armature reaction losses, etc. as said before. This may be obtained by applying a temporary three-phase current to the terminals A, B and C 12 of the inducting coils 13, 14 and 15 (5a, 5b and 5c in Fig.1), spaced 120 degrees from each other (see Fig.5).

Fig.5 shows the spatial distribution of the inducting windings 13, 14 and 15, as well as the induced windings 18a, 18b, 19a, 19b, 20a and 20b. Both, the inducting and the induced windings are placed in the same slots 10 or 16 and 17, with similar arrangements. Even though the system works in both directions, the better configuration seems to be to place the inducting windings 13, 14 and 15, to the centre and the induced windings 18a, 18b, 19a, 19b, 20a and 20b, to the exterior, since small windings will be needed to induce a very strong rotational magnetic field, due to the small losses involved in the process, and in exchange, bigger and powerful windings will be needed to extract all the energy that the system will provide. Both windings are connected in Y (not shown), but they can be connected in different ways, as any other generator. These arrangements are equivalent to the arrangements shown for the embodiment in Fig.1 and Fig.2.

The inducting coils 13, 14 and 15 are designed and calculated so that the generator may be started with common three-phase lines voltages (230 Volts 60 Hz per phase, for example). If the local lines voltages are not appropriate, we can control the voltage to the designed level by means of a three-phase variable transformer, an electronic variator or inverter etc. Once we have such strong magnetic field rotating and crossing the stationary induced coils 18a, 18b, 19a, 19b, 20a and 20b, a three-phase voltage will be induced across terminals T1, T2, T3 and N 21 in proportion to the magnetic flux density, the number of turns in the coils, the frequency used (instead of the speed), the length of the conductors cut by the rotating field, as in any other alternator. We can connect, as we desire in Y or delta, etc., as in any other alternator or generator. The outgoing currents will be three-phase currents (or poly-phase currents depending on the arrangement) and we can have a neutral 21 if we are using a Y connection, as in any other alternator.

The outgoing alternate voltages and currents are perfect sinusoidal waves, perfectly spaced in time, and totally symmetrical. The voltages and currents obtained by this method are usable in any conventional manner. Any voltage can be produced, depending on the design.

Fig.6 shows the magnetic flux pattern produced by the three-phase inducting windings 13, 14 and 15. This pattern is similar to the pattern of an induction motor's stators. Since there is no air gap: the whole path for the magnetic flux is homogeneous with no change in materials. The core is made of thin insulated laminations of a high magnetic permeability and low hysteresis loss material; eddy current losses are minimal due to the thin lamination. There are no counter fluxes or armature reactions thus the magnetic flux may be near to saturation with a small exciting current or input energy. Due to the time differential between the three phases and the spatial distribution of the inducting windings, a rotational magnetic field will be created in the core, as shown in Fig.7.
Once the generator is started, a small part of the energy obtained is sent back (Fig.8 and Fig.9) to feed the inducting coils 3 (in Fig.1) or 13, 14 and 15 (in Fig.5), as in any other auto-excited alternator or generator. Of course voltages and phases should be perfectly identical and aligned, and if necessary the feedback voltages should be controlled and handled by means of variable transformers, electronic variators, phase shifters (to align phases) or other type of voltage or phase controllers.

One possible method consists of the use of an electronic converter or variator 25 which initially converts two or three lines of alternating current 24 to direct current by an electronic rectifier 26 and then, electronically, converts the direct current 27 to three-phase current 28 to supply three-phase currents spaced in time 120 degrees for the electromagnetic fields A, B and C 3. Some variators or converters can accept two lines of voltage, while others will accept only a three-phase line voltage. This embodiment uses a variator of 3 kVA that accepts two 220-volt lines.

The rotational magnetic field created by the currents going through the inducting three-phase windings 13, 14 and 15, will induce a voltage across the terminals T1, T2, T3, N, 29 (7a, 7b, 7c, 8 in Fig.2). Then, from the outgoing current lines 29, a derivation is made 30 to feed back the system, converting the feed back alternate currents, by means of electronic diode rectifiers 31, to direct current 32 and then feed back the electronic converter or variator 25 to the DC terminals of the electronic rectifier 26 (See Fig.8). Once the feedback is connected, the Continuous Electrical Generator may be disconnected from the temporary source 24, and will continue generating electric energy indefinitely.

In Fig.9, an alternate embodiment of the Continuous Electrical Generator can be observed. The basic principles remain the same as for the embodiment described above and shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2. The basic differences are in the shape of the laminations and the physical distribution of the windings, as discussed and shown previously. A variation of the feedback, using a variable and shifting transformers is also shown.

The ferromagnetic core 11 is made of one-piece laminates 9 as shown in Fig.3 (or two for convenience 9a, 9b as shown in Fig.4) stacked to the desired height. The slots 10, as indicated before, will accommodate both the inducting 13, 14 and 15 and the induced 18a-b, 19a-b and 20a-b windings in the same slot 10 or 16 and 17. The incoming three phase lines 12 feed the inducting three-phase windings 13, 14 and 15. They are fed, initially by the temporary source 33 in the first instance, and by the three-phase return 34 once the generator is running by itself.

The inducting windings 13, 14 and 15 have a two-pole arrangement, but many other three-phase or poly-phase arrangements can be made to obtain an electromagnetic rotating field. These windings are connected in Y (not shown) in the same way shown for the embodiment shown in Fig.1, Fig.2 and Fig.8, but may be connected in many different ways. The inducting windings 13, 14 and 15 are located in the internal portion 16 of the slot 10 (Fig.5).

The induced windings 18a-b, 19a-b and 20a-b have a two-pole arrangement, exactly equal to the arrangement for the inducting windings 13, 14 and 15, but many other arrangements can be made depending on the design and the needs. The induced windings must be calculated in a way that the generator will have the lowest possible synchronous reactance and resistance. In this way, most of the outgoing power will go to the charge instead of staying to overcome the internal impedance. These windings are connected in Y to generate a neutral 21, in the same way shown in the embodiment of the present invention shown in Fig.2, but may be connected in different ways according to the needs. The induced windings 18a-b, 19a-b and 20a-b are located in the external portion 17 of the slot 10.

The outgoing three-phase and neutral lines 21 come from the induced windings 18a-b, 19a-b and 20a-b. The rotational magnetic field created in the core (see Fig.6 & Fig.7) by the inducting windings 13, 14 and 15, induces a voltage across the terminals T1, T2 and T3, plus a neutral, 29. From each of the three-phase outgoing lines 21, a return derivation 34 is made to feedback the system.

The temporary three-phase source 33 is temporarily connected to terminals A, B and C 12. The Continuous Electrical Generator must be started with an external three-phase source for an instant, and then disconnected.

Even though the return lines voltage can be calculated and obtained precisely by tabbing the induced windings at the voltage required by the inducting windings (according to the design), it may be convenient to place a three-phase variable transformer or other type of voltage controller 35 in the middle for more precise adjustment of the return voltage.
Placed after the variable transformer 35, the three-phase shifting transformer 36 will correct and align any phase shift in the voltage and currents angles, before the return is connected. This system functions similarly to the system shown in Fig. 8 which uses a variator or a converter 25.

Once the voltage and phases are aligned with the temporary source 33, the return lines 34 are connected to the incoming lines A, B and C 12 at feedback connection 37 and the temporary source 33 is then disconnected. The Continuous Electrical Generator will remain working indefinitely without any external source of energy, providing a great excess of energy permanently.

The outgoing electric energy provided by this system has been used to produce light and heat, run poly-phase motors, generate usable mono-phase and poly-phase voltages and currents, transform voltages and currents by means of transformers, convert the alternate outgoing poly-phase currents to direct current, as well as for other uses. The electricity obtained by the means described is as versatile and perfect as the electricity obtained today with common electric generators. But the Continuous Electrical Generator is autonomous and does not depend on any other source of energy but itself once it is running; may be carried anywhere with no limitations; it can be constructed in any size and provides any amount of electricity indefinitely, according to the design.

The Continuous Electrical Generator is and will be a very simple machine. The keystones of the systems reside in the ultra-low losses of a non-movement generation system, and in a very low synchronous reactance design.

The induced windings must be calculated in a way that the generator may have the lowest possible synchronous reactance and resistance. In this way, most of the outgoing power will go to the charge instead of staying to overcome the internal impedance.
SEMICONDUCTOR COMPOSITIONS

This patent application shows the details of a device which it is claimed, can produce electricity via a solid-state oscillator. It should be noted that while construction details are provided which imply that the inventor constructed and tested several of these devices, this is only an application and not a granted patent.

ABSTRACT
A resonance oscillator electric power pack for operating a flash lamp, for example, or other electrically operated device, operates without moving mechanical parts or electrolytic action. The power pack is contained in a cylindrical metal envelope and in a preferred embodiment, is coupled to a relaxation oscillator and an incandescent lamp. Within the envelope, and insulated from it, is a semiconductor tablet having a metal base connected to the external circuit. A metal probe makes contact with a point on the semiconductor tablet and with a cylindrical ferrite rod, axially aligned with the envelope. Wound about the ferrite rod, are concentric helical coils designated as a ‘primary’ with many turns, and a ‘secondary’ with fewer turns than the primary.

One end of the primary coil is connected to the probe and the other end is connected to the secondary coil. the leads from the secondary coil are connected to the relaxation oscillator via an adjustable capacitor. Oscillation within the envelope is resonance amplified, and the induced voltage in the secondary coil is rectified for application to the relaxation oscillator and lamp. Selenium and germanium base semiconductor compositions including Te, Nd, Rb and Ga in varying proportions area used for the tablet.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
This is a continuation-in-part of my co-pending patent application Serial No. 77,452, filed 2nd October 1970, entitled “Electric Power Pack” now abandoned.

In many situations it is desirable to have a source of electric power which is not dependent on wires from a central generating station, and therefore, portable power supplies having no moving parts have been employed. Typically, such portable power packs have been primary or secondary electrolytic cells which generate or store electrical energy for release by chemical action. Such batteries have a limited amount of contained energy and must often be replaced at frequent intervals to maintain equipment in operation.

Thus, as one example, flashing lights are commonly used along highways and other locations to warn of dangerous conditions. These flashing lights in remote locations are typically incandescent or gas-discharge lamps connected to some type of relaxation oscillator powered by a battery. The batteries employed in such blinking lights have a limited lifetime and must be periodically replaced, typically each 250 to 300 hours of operation. This involves a rather large labour cost in replacing the expended batteries with fresh ones and additional cost for primary cells or for recharging secondary cells. It is desirable to provide an electric power pack capable of providing a sufficient quantity of electrical energy over a prolonged period of time so that the requirement for periodic replacement of the electrolytic cells can be avoided. Such a power pack is valuable even if appreciably more expensive than batteries because of the greatly reduced labour costs required for periodic replacements.

BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
There is provided in practice of this invention according to a preferred embodiment, semiconductive compositions selected from the Group consisting of:

Selenium with, from 4.85% to 5.5% Tellurium, from 3.95% to 4.2% Germanium, from 2.85% to 3.2% Neodymium, and from 2.0% to 2.5% Gallium.

Selenium with, from 4.8% to 5.5% Tellurium, from 3.9% to 4.5% Germanium, from 2.9% to 3.5% Neodymium and from 4.5% to 5% Rubidium, and

Germanium with, from 4.75% to 5.5% Tellurium, from 4.0% to 4.5% Neodymium and from 5.5% to 7.0% Rubidium.
These and other features and advantages of the invention will be appreciated and better understood by reference to the following detailed description of a preferred embodiment when considered in conjunction with the following drawings:

Fig. 1 illustrates in exploded schematic, a flashing lamp connected to an electric power supply constructed according to the principles of this invention.

Fig. 2 illustrates in longitudinal cross-section, the power pack of Fig. 1.
DESCRIPTION

Fig. 1 illustrates schematically, a typical flashing lamp having a power supply constructed according to the principles of this invention. As illustrated in this preferred embodiment, an electric power pack 5, is connected electrically to a relaxation oscillator circuit (shown only schematically) on a conventional printed-circuit board 6.

The power pack 5 and the printed-circuit board are mounted in a metal box 7, which has a transverse partial partition 8, which creates two spaces, one for the power pack and the other for the printed-circuit board which is prevented from contacting the metal box by any convenient insulating mounting. Preferably, these components are potted in place in a conventional manner.

A cover 9, having mounting lugs 10, is riveted on to the box after assembly. A small terminal strip 11, mounted on one side of the box 7, provides electrical contacts for connection to a load such as an incandescent lamp (not shown in Fig. 1), the lamp provides a flash of light when the relaxation oscillator switches. Although the described system is employed for a flashing lamp, it will be apparent that other loads may be powered by the invention.

Fig. 3 is an electric circuit diagram of the system.
In Fig.2, the electric power pack 10, is illustrated in longitudinal cross-section and has dimensions as follows: These dimensions are provided by way of example for powering a conventional flashing lamp and it will be clear that other dimensions may be used for other applications. In particular, the dimensions may be enlarged in order to obtain higher power levels and different voltage or current levels. The power pack is comprised of a cylindrical metal tube 16, having closely fitting metal caps 17 at each end, which are preferably sealed to the tube after the internal elements are inserted in place. The metal tube 16 and caps 17, which are preferably of aluminium, thus form a closed conductive envelope, which in a typical embodiment, has an inside diameter of about 0.8 inch and a length of about 2.25 inches.

Mounted within one end of the envelope is a plastic cup 18, the dimensions of which are not critical, however, a wall thickness of at least 1/16 inch is preferred. Mounted within the plastic cup 18 is a semiconductor tablet 19 having a flat base and somewhat domed opposite side. The composition of the semiconductor tablet 19 is set out in greater detail below. Typically, the semiconductor tablet has a mass of about 3.8 grams. A metal disc 21 is positioned beneath the base of the tablet 19 in the cup 18, and is preferably adhesively bonded inside the cup. The metal disc is tightly fitted to the base of the tablet so that good electrical contact is obtained over a substantial area of the semiconductor.

An ear 22 on one edge of the disc is soldered to a wire 23, which extends through a short insulating sleeve 24 which passes through a hole in the side of the metal envelope. The insulating sleeve 24 acts as a grommet and ensures that there is no damage to the insulation of wire 23 and subsequent accidental short circuiting between the wire and the metal envelope. Preferably, the insulating sleeve 24 is sealed with a small amount of plastic cement or the like, in order to maintain clean air within the cylindrical envelope. Two other openings for leads through the tube 16, as mentioned below, are also preferably sealed to maintain cleanliness within the envelope.

A pair of circular metal discs 26, are fitted inside tube 16 and are preferably cemented in place to prevent shifting. The two discs 26, are equally spaced from the opposite ends of the envelope and are spaced apart by slightly more than 1.15 inches. Each of the discs has a central aperture 27, and there is a plurality of holes 28, extending through the disc in a circular array midway between the centre of the disc and it’s periphery. The holes 28 are preferably in the size range of about 0.01 to 0.06 inch in diameter and there are 12 on each disc located at 30° intervals around the circle.

The two discs 26 divide the interior of the cylindrical envelope into three chambers, and the pattern of holes 28 provides communication between the chambers and affects the electrical properties of the cavity. It is believed that the pattern of holes affects the inductive coupling between the cavities inside the envelope and influences the oscillations in them.

Although an arrangement of 12 holes at 30° centres has been found particularly advantageous in the illustrated embodiment, it is found in other arrangements that a pattern of 20 holes at 18° centres or a pattern of 8 holes at 45° centres, provides optimum operation. In either case, the circle of holes 28 is midway between the centre and the periphery of the disc.

Mounted between the discs 26 is a plastic spool 29 which has an inside distance of 1.1 inches between its flanges. The plastic spool 29 preferably has relatively thin walls and an internal bore diameter of 1/8 inch. A plastic mounting plug 31, is inserted through the central aperture 27 of the disc 26 farthest from the semiconductor table 19, and into the bore of the spool 29. The plastic plug 31 is preferably cemented to the disc 26 in order to hold the assembly together.

Also mounted inside the bore of spool 29 is a cylindrical ferrite core 32, about 1/8 inch diameter and 3/4 inch long. Although a core of any magnetic ferrite is preferred, other ferromagnetic materials having similar properties can be used if desired. The core 32, is in electrical contact with a metal probe 33 about 1/4 inch long. half of the length of the probe 33 is in the form of a cylinder positioned within the spool 29, and the other half is in the form of a cone ending in a point 34 in contact with the domed surface of the semiconductor tablet 19 where it makes an electrical contact with the semiconductor in a relatively small point.

Electrical contact is also made with the probe 33 by a lead 36, which passes through one of the holes 28 in the disc 26 nearer to the semiconductor tablet and thence to a primary coil 37, wound on the plastic spool 29. The primary coil 37 is in the form of 800 to 1000 turns wound along the length of the spool, and the lead 38 at the opposite end of the coil 37 is soldered to one of the external leads 39 of the power pack. This lead 39 proceeds through one of the holes 28 in the disc farthest from the semiconductor tablet 19, and through an insulating sleeve 41 in the metal tube 16.
The lead 39 is also connected to one end of a secondary coil 42 which is composed of 8 to 10 turns around the centre portion of the primary coil 37. A thin insulating sheet 43 is provided between the primary and secondary coils. The other lead 44 from the secondary coil passes through one of the holes 28 in the disk nearer the semiconductor tablet and thence through an insulating sleeve 46 through the wall of the tube 16.

Fig. 3 illustrates schematically, the electrical circuit employing an electric power pack constructed according to the principles of this invention. At the left hand side of Fig. 3, the arrangement of elements is illustrated in a combination of electrical schematic and mechanical position inside tube 16 for ready correlation with the embodiment illustrated in Fig. 2. Thus, the semiconductor tablet 19, probe 33 and ferrite core 32 are shown in both their mechanical and electrical arrangement, the core being inductively coupled to the coils 37 and 42. The lead 23 from the metal base of the semiconductor tablet 19, is connected to a variable capacitor 47, the other side of which is connected to the lead 44 from the secondary coil 42. The lead 44 is also connected to a rectifying diode 48 shunted by a high value resistor 49.

It will be seen that the variable capacitor 47 is in a tank circuit with the inductive coils 37 and 42 which are coupled by the ferrite core 32, and this circuit also includes the semiconductor tablet 19 to which point contact is made by the probe 33. The mechanical and electrical arrangement of these elements provides a resonant cavity in which resonance occurs when the capacitor 47 is properly trimmed. The diode 48, rectifies the oscillations in this circuit to provide a suitable DC for operating an incandescent lamp 50 or similar load.

The rectifying diode 48 is connected to a complementary-symmetry relaxation circuit for switching power to the load 50. The diode is connected directly to the collector of a PNP transistor 51 which is in an inverted connection, the emitter of the PNP transistor is connected to one side of the load 50 by way of a timing resistor 55. The base of the transistor 51 is connected by way of a resistor 52 and a capacitor 56 to the collector of an NPN transistor 53, the emitter of which is connected to the other side of the load 50. The base of the NPN transistor 53 is coupled to the diode by a resistor 54. The emitter of the PNP transistor 51 is fed back to the base of the NPN transistor 53 by the resistor 55. Current flow through the lamp 50 is also limited by a resistor 57 which couples one side of the lamp and the emitter of the NPN transistor 53 to the two coils 37 and 42 by way of the common lead 39.

The electrical power pack is believed to operate due to a resonance amplification once an oscillation has been initiated in the cavity, particularly the central cavity between the discs 26. This oscillation, which apparently rapidly reaches amplitudes sufficient for useful power, is then half-wave rectified for use by the diode 48. With such an arrangement, a voltage level of several volts has been obtained, and power sufficient for intermittent operation of a lamp requiring about 170 to 250 milliwatts has been demonstrated. The resonant amplification is apparently due to the geometrical and electrical combination of the elements, which provide inductive coupling of components in a suitable resonant circuit. This amplification is also, at least in part, due to unique semiconductor properties in the tablet 19, which has electronic properties due to a composition giving a unique atomic arrangement, the exact nature of which has not been measured.

The semiconductor tablet has electronic properties which are determined by it's composition and three such semiconductors satisfactory for use in the combination have been identified. In two of these, the base semiconductor material is selenium provided with suitable dopant elements, and in the third, the base element is germanium, also suitably doped. The semiconductor tablets are made by melting and casting in an arrangement which gives a large crystal structure. It has not been found necessary to provide a selected crystal orientation in order to obtain the desired effects.

A preferred composition of the semiconductor includes about 5% by weight of tellurium, about 4% by weight of germanium, about 3% by weight of neodymium and about 4.7% by weight of rubidium, with the balance of the composition being selenium. Such a composition can be made by melting these materials together or by dissolving the materials in molten selenium.

Another highly advantageous composition has about 5% by weight of tellurium, about 4% by weight of germanium, about 3% by weight of neodymium, and about 2.24% by weight of gallium, with the balance being selenium. In order to make this composition, it is found desirable to add the very low melting point gallium in the form of gallium selenide rather than elemental gallium.

A third suitable composition has about 5% by weight of tellurium, about 4% by weight of neodymium, about 6% by weight of rubidium, with the balance being germanium. These preferred compositions are not absolute and it has been found that the level of dopant in the compositions can be varied within limits without significant loss of performance. Thus, it is found that the proportion of tellurium in the preferred composition can range from about 4.8% to about 5.5% by weight; the germanium can range from about 3.9% to 4.5% by weight; neodymium can range from about 2.9% to 3.5% by weight, and rubidium can vary from about 4.5% to 5.0% by weight. The
balance of the preferred composition is selenium although it has also been found that nominal impurity levels can be tolerated and no great care is required in preventing minor contamination.

The other selenium base composition useful in practice of this invention can have a tellurium concentration in the range of from about 4.85% to 5.5% by weight, germanium in the range of from about 3.95% to 4.2% by weight, neodymium in the range of from about 2.85% to 3.2% by weight, and gallium in the range of from about 2.0% to 2.5% by weight. As in the preferred composition, the balance is selenium and nominal impurity levels can be tolerated. It is preferred to add the gallium in the form of gallium selenide rather than as elemental gallium with a corresponding decrease in the selenium used to make up the composition.

The above selenium base compositions are easier to make and less expensive than the germanium base composition and are therefore preferable for most applications. It is found that these are particularly suited for relatively small semiconductor tablets up to about 1 inch or a little less. For relatively large tablets, it is preferred to use the germanium base composition.

The germanium base composition has a tellurium level in the range of from about 4.75% to 5.5% by weight, neodymium in the range of from about 4.0% to 4.5% by weight, and rubidium in the range of from about 5.5% to 7.4% by weight. It is also found that it is of greater importance to maintain purity of the germanium base compositions than the selenium base compositions. Although the exact purity levels have not been ascertained, it is in excess of 99%.

It has been found that it is not necessary to have single crystals in the semiconductor tablets and any convenient grain size in excess of about 1 millimetre appears satisfactory. In the above compositions, when the recited ranges are exceeded, oscillation in the power pack drops off rapidly and may cease altogether.

The reasons that these compositions are satisfactory in the arrangement providing resonance amplification has not been determined with certainty. It is possible that the semiconductor serves as a source of electrons for providing an oscillating current in the circuit. This is, of course, combined with a relatively large area contact to one side of the semiconductor tablet, and a point contact on another area. Any resonant current in the coils wound on the ferrite rod, induces a varying magnetic field in the resonant cavity, and the electrical connection between the ferrite rod and the metal probe, provides a feedback of this oscillation to the semiconductor tablet.

it should particularly be noted that the oscillation in the circuit does not commence until it is initiated by an oscillating signal. In order to accomplish this, it is only necessary to apply a few millivolts of AC for a few seconds to the semiconductor tablet and the associated coils coupled to it. The initial signal applied to the base of the semiconductor tablet and the lead 39 is preferably in the frequency range of 5.8 to 18 Mhz and can be as high as 150 Mhz. Such a signal can be applied from any conventional source and no great care appears necessary to provide a single frequency signal or to eliminate noise. Once such energisation has been applied to the circuit and oscillations initiated, it does not appear to be necessary to apply such a signal again. This is apparently due to the feedback provided by the ferrite rod to the probe which makes contact with the semiconductor tablet.

Energy is, of course, dissipated in the lamp, or other utilisation device, as the combination operates. Such energy may come from deterioration of the semiconductor tablet as oscillations continue; however, if there is any such deterioration, it is sufficiently slow that a power source may be operated for many months without attention. Such a source of energy may be augmented by ambient Radio Frequency radiation, coupled into the resonant cavity by the external leads. This is a surprising phenomenon because the leads are small compared to what would normally be considered an adequate antenna, and it is therefore postulated that stimulated amplification may also be a consequence of the unique electronic configuration of the semiconductors having the compositions specified above.

Although only one embodiment of electric power pack constructed according to principles of this invention has been described and illustrated here, many modifications and variations will be apparent to one skilled in the art. Thus, for example, a larger power pack may be axially arranged in a cylindrical container with various electronic elements arranged in the annular space. It is therefore to be understood that other configurations are included within the scope of the invention.
PULSED CAPACITOR DISCHARGE ELECTRIC ENGINE

Please note that this is a re-worded extract from Edwin Gray’s Patent 3,890,548. It describes his high voltage motor and the circuitry used to drive it. Please be aware that the underlying technology was developed by Marvin Cole and Edwin Gray did not understand it. Also, Edwin wanted at all costs to conceal any useful technology while getting patents to encourage investors, so please understand that this patent is not intended to tell you how to make a working system of this type.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION:

This invention relates to electric motors or engines, and more particularly to a new electric machine including electromagnetic poles in a stator configuration and electromagnetic poles in a rotor configuration, wherein in one form thereof, the rotor is rotatable within the stator configuration and where both are energised by capacitor discharges through rotor and stator electromagnets at the instant of the alignment of a rotor electromagnet with a stator electromagnet. The rotor electromagnet is repelled from the stator electromagnet by the discharge of the capacitor through the coils of both the rotor and stator electromagnets at the same instant.

In an exemplary rotary engine according to this invention, rotor electromagnets may be disposed 120 degrees apart on a central shaft and major stator electromagnets may be disposed 40 degrees apart in the motor housing about the stator periphery. Other combinations of rotor elements and stator elements may be utilised to increase torque or rate of rotation.

In another form, a second electromagnet is positioned to one side of each of the major stator electromagnets on a centreline 13.5 degrees from the centreline of the stator magnet, and these are excited in a predetermined pattern or sequence. Similarly, to one side of each rotor electromagnet, is a second electromagnet spaced on a 13.5 degree centreline from the major rotor electromagnet. Electromagnets in both the rotor and stator assemblies are identical, the individual electromagnets of each being aligned axially and the coils of each being wired so that each rotor electromagnetic pole will have the same magnetic polarity as the electromagnet in the stator with which it is aligned and which it is confronting at the time of discharge of the capacitor.

Charging of the discharge capacitor or capacitors is accomplished by an electrical switching circuit wherein electrical energy from a battery or other source of d-c potential is derived through rectification by diodes.

The capacitor charging circuit comprises a pair of high frequency switchers which feed respective automotive-type ignition coils employed as step-up transformers. The "secondary" of each of the ignition coils provides a high voltage square wave to a half-wave rectifier to generate a high voltage output pulse of d-c energy with each switching alternation of the high frequency switcher. Only one polarity is used so that a unidirectional pulse is applied to the capacitor bank being charged.

Successive unidirectional pulses are accumulated on the capacitor or capacitor bank until discharged. Discharge of the bank of capacitors occurs across a spark gap by arc-over. The gap spacing determines the voltage at which discharge or arc-over occurs. An array of gaps is created by fixed elements in the engine housing and moving elements positioned on the rotor shaft. At the instant when the moving gap elements are positioned
opposite fixed elements during the rotor rotation, a discharge occurs through the coils of the aligned rotor and stator electromagnets to produce the repulsion action between the stator and rotor electromagnet cores.

A plurality of fixed gap elements are arrayed in a motor housing to correspond to the locations of the stator electromagnets in the housing. The rotor gap elements correspond to the positions of the rotor electromagnets on the rotor so that at the instant of correct alignment of the gaps, the capacitors are discharged to produce the necessary current through the stator and rotor coils to cause the electromagnets to repel one another.

The charging circuits are arranged in pairs, and are such that the discharge occurs through both rotor and stator windings of the electromagnets, which are opposite one another when the spark gap elements are aligned and arc-over.

The speed of the rotor can be changed by means of a clutch mechanism associated with the rotor. The clutch shifts the position of the rotor gap elements so that the discharge will energise the stator coils in a manner to advance or retard the time of discharge with respect to the normal rotor/stator alignment positions. The discharge through the rotor and stator then occurs when the rotor has passed the stator by 6.66 degrees for speed advance.

By causing the discharge to occur when the rotor position is approaching the stator, the repulsion pulse occurs 6.66 degrees before the alignment position of the rotor and stator electromagnets, thus reducing the engine speed.

The clutch mechanism for aligning capacitor discharge gaps for discharge is described as a control head. It may be likened to a firing control mechanism in an internal combustion engine in that it “fires” the electromagnets and provides a return of any discharge overshoot potential back to the battery or other energy source.

The action of the control head is extremely fast. From the foregoing description, it can be anticipated that an increase in speed or a decrease in speed of rotation can occur within the period in which the rotor electromagnet moves between any pair of adjacent electromagnets in the stator assembly. These are 40 degrees apart so speed changes can be effected in a maximum of one-ninth of a revolution.

The rotor speed-changing action of the control head and its structure are believed to be further novel features of the invention, in that they maintain normal 120 degree firing positions during uniform speed of rotation conditions, but shift to 6.66 degree longer or shorter intervals for speed change by the novel shift mechanism in the rotor clutch assembly.

Accordingly, the preferred embodiment of this invention is an electric rotary engine wherein motor torque is developed by discharge of high potential from a bank of capacitors, through stator and rotor electromagnet coils when the electromagnets are in alignment. The capacitors are charged from batteries by a switching mechanism, and are discharged across spark gaps set to achieve the discharge of the capacitor charge voltage through the electromagnet coils when the gaps and predetermined rotor and stator electromagnet pairs are in alignment.

Exemplary embodiments of the invention are herein illustrated and described. These exemplary illustrations and description should not be construed as limiting the invention to the embodiments shown, because those skilled in the arts appertaining to the invention may conceive of other embodiments in the light of the description within the ambit of the appended claims.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS:**
Fig. 1 is an explanatory schematic diagram of a capacitor charging and discharging circuit utilised in the present invention.

Fig. 2 is a block diagram of an exemplary engine system according to the invention.
Fig. 3 is a perspective view of a typical engine system according to the invention, coupled to an automotive transmission.

Fig. 4 is an axial sectional view taken at line 4---4 in Fig. 3.
Fig. 5 is a sectional view taken at line 5--5 in Fig. 4.

Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 are fragmentary sectional views, corresponding to a portion of Fig. 5, illustrating successive advanced positions of the engine rotor therein.
Fig. 8 is an exploded perspective view of the rotor and stator of the engine of Fig. 3 and Fig. 4.

Fig. 9 is a cross-sectional view taken at line 9--9 of Fig. 4.

Fig. 10 is a partial sectional view, similar to the view of Fig. 9, illustrating a different configuration of electromagnets in another engine embodiment of the invention.
Fig.11 is a sectional view taken at line 11---11 in Fig.3, illustrating the control head or novel speed change controlling system of the engine.
Fig. 12 is a sectional view, taken at line 12---12 in Fig. 11, showing a clutch plate utilised in the speed change control system of Fig. 11.

Fig. 13 is a fragmentary view, taken at line 13---13 in Fig. 12.
Fig. 14 is a sectional view, taken at line 14---14 in Fig. 11, showing a clutch plate which co-operates with the clutch plate of Fig. 12.

Fig. 15 is a fragmentary sectional view taken at line 15---15 of Fig. 13.

Fig. 16 is a perspective view of electromagnets utilised in the present invention.

Fig. 17 is a schematic diagram showing co-operating mechanical and electrical features of the programmer portion of the invention.
Fig. 18 is an electrical schematic diagram of an engine according to the invention, showing the electrical relationships of the electromagnetic components embodying a new principle of the invention, and
**DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT**

As mentioned earlier, the basic principle of operation of the engine of the invention, is the discharge of a capacitor across a spark gap and through an inductor. When a pair of inductors is used, and the respective magnetic cores thereof are arranged opposite one another and arranged in opposing magnetic polarity, the discharge through them causes the cores to repel each other with considerable force.

Referring to the electrical schematic diagram of Fig.1, a battery 10 energises a pulse-producing vibrator mechanism 16, which may be of the magnetic type, incorporating an armature 15 moving between contacts 13 and 14, or of the transistor type (not shown) with which a high frequency bipolar pulsed output is produced in primary 17 of transformer 20. The pulse amplitude is stepped up in secondary 19 of transformer 20. Wave form 19a represents the bi-directional or bi-polar pulsed output. A diode rectifier 21 produces a unidirectional pulse train, as indicated at 21a, to charge capacitor 26. Successive unidirectional pulses of wave 21a charge capacitor 26 to high level, as indicated at 26a, until the voltage at point A rises high enough to cause a spark across the spark gap 30. Capacitor 26 discharges via the spark gap, through the electromagnet coil 28. A current pulse is produced which magnetises core 28a. Simultaneously, another substantially identical charging system 32 produces a discharge through inductor 27 across spark gap 29, to magnetise core 27a. Cores 27a and 28a are wound with coils 27 and 28 respectively, so that their magnetic polarities are the same. As the cores 27a and 28a confront one another, they tend to fly apart when the discharge occurs through coils 27 and 28 because of repulsion of identical magnetic poles, as indicated by arrow 31. If core 28a is fixed or stationary, and core 27a is moveable, then core 27a may have tools 33 attached to it to perform work when the capacitor discharges.

Referring to Fig.1 and Fig.2, a d-c electrical source or battery 10, energises pulsators 36 (including at least two vibrators 16 as previously described) when switch 11 between the battery 10 and pulsator 36 is closed, to apply
relatively high frequency pulses to the primaries of transformers 20. The secondaries of transformers 20 are step-up windings which apply bipolar pulses, such as pulses 19a (Fig.1) to the diodes in converter 38. The rectified unidirectional pulsating output of each of the diodes in converter 38 is passed through delay coils 23 and 24, thus forming a harness 37, wound about the case of the engine, as herein after described, which is believed to provide a static floating flux field. The outputs from delay lines 37, drive respective capacitors in banks 39, to charge the capacitors therein, to a relatively high charge potential. A programmer and rotor and stator magnet control array 40, 41, 42, is formed by spark gaps positioned, as hereinafter described, so that at predetermined positions of the rotor during rotation of the engine, as hereinafter described, selected capacitors of the capacitor banks 39 will discharge across the spark gaps through the rotor and stator electromagnets 43 and 44. The converters 38, programmer 40, and controls 41 and 42, form a series circuit path across the secondaries of transformers 20 to the ground, or point of reference potential, 45. The capacitor banks 39 are discharged across the spark gaps of programmer 40 (the rotor and stator magnet controls 41 and 42). The discharge occurs through the coils of stator and rotor electromagnets 43 and 44 to ground 45. Stator and rotor electromagnets are similar to those shown at 27, 27a, 28 and 28a in Fig.1.

The discharge through the coils of stator and rotor electromagnets 43 and 44 is accompanied by a discharge overshoot or return pulse, which is applied to a secondary battery 10a to store this excess energy. The overshoot pulse returns to battery 10a because, after discharge, the only path open to it is that to the battery 10a, since the gaps in 40, 41 and 42 have broken down, because the capacitors in banks 39 are discharged and have not yet recovered the high voltage charge from the high frequency pulsers 36 and the converter rectifier units 38.

In the event of a misfire in the programmer control circuits 40, 41 and 42, the capacitors are discharged through a rotor safety discharge circuit 46 and returned to batteries 10-10a, adding to their capacity. The circuit 46 is connected between the capacitor banks 39 and batteries 10, 10a.

Referring to Fig.3, a motor or engine 49 according to the present invention is shown connected with an automotive transmission 48. The transmission 48, represents one of many forms of loads to which the engine may be applied. A motor housing 50, encases the operating mechanism hereinafter described. The programmer 40 is axially mounted at one end of the housing. Through apertures 51 and 52, a belt 53 couples to a pulley 57 (not shown in this view) and to an alternator 54 attached to housing 50. A pulley 55 on the alternator, has two grooves, one for belt 53 to the drive pulley 58 on the shaft (not shown) of the engine 49, and the other for a belt 58 coupled to a pulley 59 on a pump 60 attached to housing 50. A terminal box 61 on the housing, interconnects between the battery assembly 62 and motor 49 via cables 63 and 64.

An intake 65 for air, is coupled to pump 60 via piping 68 and 69 and from pump 60 via tubing or piping 66 and 70 to the interior of housing 50 via coupling flanges 67 and 71. The air flow tends to cool the engine and the air may preferably be maintained at a constant temperature and humidity so that a constant spark gap discharge condition is maintained. A clutch mechanism 80 is provided on programmer 40.
Referring to Fig.4, Fig.5 and Fig.9, rotor 81 has spider assemblies 83 and 84 with three electromagnet coil assembly sets mounted thereon, two of which are shown in Fig.4, on 85, at 85a and 85b and on 86 at 86a and 86b. One of the third electromagnet coil assemblies, designated 87a, is shown in Fig.5, viewed from the shaft end. As more clearly shown in the perspective view of Fig.8, a third spider assembly 88 provides added rigidity and a central support for the rotor mechanism on shaft 81.

The electromagnet sets 85a, 85b, 86a, 86b, 87a and 87b, disposed on rotor 81 and spiders 83, 84 and 88, each comprise pairs of front units 85a, 86a and 87a and pairs of rear units 85b, 86b and 87b. Each pair consists of a major electromagnet and a minor electromagnet, as hereinafter described, which are imbedded in an insulating
material 90, which insulates the electromagnet coil assemblies from one another and secures the electromagnets rigidly in place on the spider/rotor cage 81, 83, 84 and 88.

The interior wall 98, of housing 50, is coated with an electrically insulating material 99 in which are imbedded electromagnet coils, as hereinafter described, and the interiors of end plates 100 and 101 of the housing 50. On the insulating surface 98 of housing 50 is mounted a series of stator electromagnet pairs 104a, identical with electromagnet pairs 85a, 86a, 87a, etc. Electromagnet pairs such as 104a or 105a are disposed every 40 degrees about the interior of housing 50 to form a stator which co-operates with the rotor 81-88. An air gap 110 of very close tolerance is defined between the rotor and stator electromagnets and air from pump 65 flows through this gap.

As shown in Fig.8, the electromagnet assemblies, such as 85 through 87, of the rotor and magnet assemblies, such as 104a in the stator, are so embedded in their respective insulating plastic carriers (rotor and stator) that they are smoothly rounded in a concave contour on the rotor to permit smooth and continuous rotation of rotor 81 in stator housing 50. The air gap 110 is uniform at all positions of any rotor element within the stator assembly, as is clearly shown in Fig.16.

The rotor 81 and spiders 83, 84 and 88 are rigidly mounted on shaft 111 journaled in bearing assemblies 112 and 113 which are of conventional type, for easy rotation of the rotor shaft 111 within housing 50.

Around the central outer surface of housing 50, are wound a number of turns of wire 23 and 24 to provide a static flux coil 114 which is a delay line, as previously described. Figs. 5, 6, 7 and 9 are cross-sectional views of the rotor assembly 81-88, arranged to show the positioning and alignment of the rotor and stator electromagnet coil assemblies at successive stages of the rotation of the rotor 81-88 through a portion of a cycle of operation thereof. For example, in Fig.5 the rotor assembly 81-88 is shown so positioned that a minor rotor electromagnet assembly 91 is aligned with a minor stator electromagnet assembly 117.

As shown in further detail in Fig.16, minor electromagnet assembly 117 consists of an iron core 118, grooved so that a coil of wire 119 may be wound around it. Core 118 is the same in stator electromagnet 117 as it is in rotor electromagnet 91.

As a position 13.33 degrees to the right of rotor electromagnet 91, as viewed in Fig.5 and Fig.16, there is a second or major rotor electromagnet 121 which has a winding 123 about its core 122. The electromagnets 91 and 121 are the pair 85a of Fig.4 and Fig.8.
At a position 13.33 degrees to the left of stator electromagnet 117, as viewed in Fig.5, there is a second or major stator electromagnet 120 whose core 122 is of the same configuration as core 122 of rotor electromagnet 121. A winding 123 about core 122 of electromagnet 120 is of the same character as winding 123 on electromagnet 121.

Electromagnet assembly pair 85a on the rotor is identical in configuration to that of the electromagnet stator assembly pair 104a except for the position reversal of the elements 117-120 and 91-121 of the respective pairs.

There are none pairs of electromagnets 120-117 (104a) located at 40 degree intervals about the interior of housing 50. The centreline of core 122 of electromagnet 120 is positioned 13.33 degrees to the left of the centreline of the core 118 of electromagnet 117. Three pairs of electromagnets 85a, 86a and 87a are provided on rotor assembly 81-88 as shown in Fig.5.

Other combinations are possible, but the number of electromagnets in the rotor should always be in integral fraction of the number of electromagnets in the stator. As shown in Fig.8, for the rotor assembly 85a and 85b, there are three of each of the front and back pairs of electromagnetic assemblies. Similarly, as shown in Fig.4 and Fig.8, there are nine front and back pairs of electromagnets in the stator such as 104a and 104b.

In order to best understand the operation of the rotor 81-88 rotating within the stator housing 50 of an engine according to this invention, the positions of rotor electromagnets 91 and stator electromagnets 117 are initially exactly in line at the 13.33 degree peripheral starting position marked on the vertical centreline of Fig.5. The winding direction of the coils of these magnets is such that a d-c current through the coils 119 will produce a particular identical magnet polarity on each of the juxtaposed surfaces 125 of magnet 117 and 126 of magnet 91 (Fig.5). Fig.16 and Fig.6 illustrate the next step in the motion wherein the two major electromagnets, 120 in the stator and 121 in the rotor, are in alignment.

When the d-c discharges from the appropriate capacitors in banks 39 occur simultaneously across spark gaps through the coils 119 of electromagnets 117 and 91, at the instant of their alignment, their cores 118, will repel one another to cause rotor assembly 81-88 to rotate clockwise in the direction indicated by arrow 127. The system does not move in the reverse direction because it has been started in the clockwise direction by the alternator motor 54 shown in Fig.3, or by some other starter means. If started counterclockwise, the motor will continue to rotate counterclockwise.

As noted earlier, the discharge of any capacitor occurs over a very short interval via its associated spark gap and the resulting magnetic repulsion action imparts motion to the rotor. The discharge event occurs when electromagnets 117 and 91 are in alignment. As shown in Fig.5, rotor electromagnet 91a is aligned with stator electromagnet 117c, and rotor electromagnet 91b is aligned with stator electromagnet 117e at the same time that similar electromagnets 117 and 91 are aligned. A discharge occurs through all six of these electromagnets simultaneously (that is, 117, 91, 117c, 91a, 117e and 91b). A capacitor and a spark gap are required for each coil of each electromagnet. Where, as in the assembly shown in Fig.8, front and back pairs are used, both the axial in-line front and back coils are energised simultaneously by the discharge from a single capacitor or from a bank of paralleled capacitors such as 25 and 26 (Fig.1). Although Fig.4 and Fig.8 indicate the use of front and back electromagnets, it should be evident that only a single electromagnet in any stator position and a corresponding single electromagnet in the rotor position, may be utilised to accomplish the repulsion action of the rotor with respect to the stator. As stated, each electromagnet requires a discharge from a single capacitor or
capacitor bank across a spark gap for it to be energised, and the magnetic polarity of the juxtaposed magnetic core faces must be the same, in order to effect the repulsive action required to produce the rotary motion.

Referring to Fig.5 and Fig.6, the repulsion action causes the rotor to move 13.33 degrees clockwise, while electromagnets 91, 91a and 91b move away from electromagnets 117, 117c and 117e to bring electromagnets 121, 121a and 121b into respective alignment with electromagnets 120a, 120d and 120f. At this time, a capacitor discharge across a spark-gap into their coils 123 occurs, thus moving the rotor. Another 13.33 degrees ahead, as shown in Fig.7, major electromagnets 121, 121a and 121b come into alignment with minor electromagnets 117a, 117d and 117f, at which time a discharge occurs to repeat the repulsion action, this action continuing as long as d-c power is applied to the system to charge the capacitor banks.

Fig.18 further illustrates the sequencing of the capacitor discharges across appropriate spark gap terminal pairs. Nine single stator coils and three single rotor coils are shown with their respective interconnections with the spark gaps and capacitors with which they are associated for discharge. When the appropriate spark gap terminals are aligned, at the points in the positioning of the rotor assembly for most effective repulsion action of juxtaposed electromagnet cores, the discharge of the appropriate charged capacitors across the associated spark gap occurs through the respective coils. The capacitors are discharged is sets of three, through sets of three coils at each discharge position, as the rotor moves through the rotor positions. In Fig.18, the rotor electromagnets are positioned linearly, rather than on a circular base, to show the electrical action of an electric engine according to the invention. These motor electromagnets 201, 202 and 203 are aligned with stator electromagnets 213, 214 and 215 at 0 degrees, 120 degrees and 240 degrees respectively. The stator electromagnets are correspondingly shown in a linear schematic as if rolled out of the stator assembly and laid side by side. For clarity of description, the capacitors associated with the rotor operation 207, 208, 209 and 246, 247, 248, 249, 282 and 283, are arranged in vertical alignment with the respective positions of the rotor coils 201, 202 and 203 as they move from left to right, this corresponding to clockwise rotation of the rotor. The stator coils 213, 214, 215, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, etc. and capacitor combinations are arranged side by side, again to facilitate description.

An insulative disc 236 (shown in Fig.17 as a disc but opened out linearly in Fig.18) has mounted thereon, three gap terminal blocks 222, 225 and 228. Each block is rectangularly U-shaped, and each interconnects two terminals with the base of the U. Block 222 has terminals 222a and 222b. Block 225 has terminals 225a and 225b. Block 228 has terminals 228c and 228d. When insulative disc 230 is part of the rotor as indicated by mechanical linkage 290, it can be seen that terminal U 222 creates a pair of gaps with gap terminals 223 and 224 respectively. Thus, when the voltage on capacitor 216 from charging unit 219, is of a value which will arc over the air spaces between 222a and 223, and between 222b and 224, the capacitor 216 will discharge through the coil of electromagnet 213 to ground. Similarly, gap terminal U 225 forms a dual spark gap with gap terminals 226 and 227 to result in arc-over when the voltage on capacitor 217, charged by charging circuit 220, discharges into the coil of electromagnet 214. Also, U-gap terminal 228 with terminals 228c and 228d, creates a spark gap with terminals 229 and 230 to discharge capacitor 218, charged by charging circuit 221, into coil 215. At the same time, rotor coils, 201, 202 and 203 across gaps 201a - 204, 202b - 205 and 203c - 206 each receives a discharge from respective capacitors 207, 208 and 209.

When the electromagnet coils 213, 214 and 215 and 201, 202 and 203 are energised, the repulsion action causes the rotor assembly to move to position 2 where a new simultaneous group of discharges occurs into rotor coils 201, 202 and 203 from capacitors 246, 248 and 282 across gaps 201a - 240, 202b - 242 and 203c - 244. Simultaneously, because gap-U-elements 222, 225 and 228 have also moved to position 2 with the rotor assembly, capacitor 261 is discharged through electromagnet coil 260, capacitor 265 is discharged through electromagnet coil 264, and capacitor 269 is discharged through electromagnet coil 268 in alignment with position 2 of the rotor electromagnet coils, thus to cause the rotor electromagnets to move to position 3 where the discharge pattern is repeated now with capacitors 247, 249 and 283 discharging through the rotor electromagnet coils 201, 202 and 203, and the capacitors 263, 267 and 281 discharging respectively through stator electromagnet coils 262, 266 and 280.

After each discharge, the charging circuits 219 - 221 and 272 - 277 for the stator capacitors, and 210 - 212 and 284 - 289 for the rotor capacitors, are operated continuously from a battery source as described earlier with reference to Fig.1, to constantly recharge the capacitors to which each is connected. Those versed in the art will appreciate that, as each capacitor discharges across an associated spark gap, the resulting drop in potential across the gap renders the gap an open circuit until such time as the capacitor can recharge to the arc-over level for the gap. This recharge occurs before a rotor element arrives at the next position in the rotation.

The mechanical schematic diagram of Fig.17, further clarifies the operation of the spark-gap discharge programming system. A forward disc 236 of an electrically insulative material, has thereon the set of U-shaped gap terminal connectors previously described. These are positioned at 0 degrees, 120 degrees and 240 degrees respectively. In Fig.17, schematic representations of the position of the coil and capacitor arrangements at the
start of a cycle are shown to correspond to the above description with reference to Fig.18. Accordingly, the coil and capacitor combinations 213/216, 214/217 and 215/218 are shown connected with their gap terminals, respectively, 223/224, 226/227 and 229/230. On the rotor coil and capacitor connection, three separate discs 291, 292 and 293 are shown, each with a single gap terminal. The discs 291 - 293 are rotated so as to position their respective gap terminals 201a, 201b and 201c, at 120 degree increments, with the 0 degrees position corresponding to the 0 degrees position of U-gap terminal 222 on disc 230.

Representative gap terminals are shown about the peripheries of discs 230, 291 - 293 to indicate clearly how, as the discs turn in unison, the gap alignments correspond so that three rotor coils always line up with three stator coils at 120 degree intervals about the rotary path, producing an alignment every 40 degrees, there being nine stator coils. Thus, there are three simultaneous discharges into stator coils and three into rotor coils at each 40 degree position. Nine positions displaced 40 degrees apart provide a total of 27 discharge points for capacitors into the rotor coils and 27 discharge points for capacitors into the stator coils in one revolution of the rotor.

It will be understood that, as illustrated in Fig.17 and Fig.18, nine individual electromagnet coils are shown in the stator and three in the rotor, in order to show in its simplest form, how the three rotor electromagnets are stepped forward from alignment with three of the stator electromagnets, when the appropriate spark gaps are in alignment, to effect the discharge of capacitors through juxtaposed pairs of rotor/stator electromagnets. The repulsion moves the rotor electromagnet from the stator electromagnet to the next alignment position 40 degrees further on. In the interval, until another rotor electromagnet, 120 degrees removed, is aligned with the stator electromagnet which had just been pulsed, the associated capacitor is recharged. Thus, the rotor moves from one position to the next, with capacitor discharges occurring each 40 degrees of rotation, a total of nine per revolution. It should be obvious that, with other rotor/stator combinations, the number of electromagnet coincidences and spark-gap discharges will vary. For example, with the coil pairs shown in Figs 4 through 8, a total of 27 discharges will occur. Although there are 18 stator electromagnets and 3 rotor electromagnets, the discharge pattern is determined by the specific spark gap arrangement.

The rotor/stator configuration of Fig.5 and Fig.8, involving the major and minor pairs of electromagnets, such as 85a and 104a (the terms "minor" and "major" referring to the difference in size of the elements), include nine pairs of electromagnets in the stator, such as 104a, with three electromagnet pairs of the rotor, such as 85a. Because of the 13.33 degree separation between the major and minor electromagnets in the rotor pair 85a, with the same separation of minor and major electromagnets of the stator pair 104a, the sequence of rotation and discharge described above, with respect to the illustrative example of Fig.5, involves the following:
1. A minor element 117 of stator pair 104a is aligned with the minor element 91 of rotor pair 85a. On the discharge, this moves the rotor ahead 13.33 degrees.
2. The major rotor element 122 of the pair 85a, now is aligned with the major stator element 120b of the next stator electromagnet pair, in the stator array as shown in Fig.6. On the discharge, the rotor moves ahead 13.33 degrees.
3. This brings the minor rotor electromagnet 91 into alignment with the major stator electromagnet 120b of pair 104d, and the major electromagnet 122 (just discharged) of pair 85a into alignment with minor electromagnet 117b of pair 104d, and the rotor spark gap elements into alignment with a different position of gap elements connected with capacitors not discharged in the previous position of the rotor. It should be remembered at this point that it is the positioning of a rotatable spark gap array, similar to that illustrated in Fig.17 and Fig.18, which controls the time of discharge of capacitors connected to these gap terminals. Therefore, any electromagnet can be energised twice, successively, from separate capacitors as the rotor brings appropriate gap terminals into alignment with the coil terminals of a particular electromagnet.

Thus, although major electromagnet 120b of pair 104d has just been energised as described above, it can now be energised again along with minor rotor electromagnet 91 in step 3, because the rotor moved to a new set of terminals of the spark gap arrays connected to capacitors which have not yet been discharged. These capacitors now discharge through rotor electromagnet 91 and stator electromagnet 120b, causing the rotor to move ahead another 13.33 degrees, thus again aligning two minor electromagnets again, these being 117b of stator pair 104d and 91 of rotor pair 85a. The rotor has now moved 40 degrees since step 1 above. The sequence is now repeated indefinitely. It is to be noted that at each 13.33 degree step, the discharges drive the rotor another 13.33 degrees. There are 27 steps per revolution with nine stator coil pairs. The discharge sequence is not uniform, as is shown in Table 1. In the stator, three major electromagnets 120 degrees apart are energised twice in sequence, followed by a hiatus of one step while three minor electromagnets of the stator, 120 degrees apart, are energised during the hiatus. In the rotor the major electromagnets are energised during a hiatus step following two minor electromagnet energisation steps. A total of 27 energisations are this accomplished in the nine pairs of coils of the stator.

In Table 1, the leftmost column shows the location of each rotor arm 85, 86 and 87 at an arbitrarily selected step No. 1 position. For example, in step 1, rotor arm 85 has a minor stator and minor rotor electromagnet in alignment for capacitors to discharge through them simultaneously at the 13.33 degree position.
Similarly, in step 1, rotor arm 86 is at the 133.33 degree position which has two minor electromagnets in alignment, ready for discharge. Simultaneously, rotor arm 87 is at the 253.33 degree position with two minor electromagnets aligned for capacitor discharge. The other steps of the sequence are apparent from Table 1, for each position of the three rotor arms at any step and the juxtapositions of respective stator and rotor electromagnet elements at that position.

In the simplified motor arrangement shown in schematic form in Fig.18, with single electromagnet configuration, the alignment is uniform and the discharge sequences follow sequentially.

As mentioned before, a change in speed is effected by displacing the stator spark gap terminals on the rotor (shown at 236 in Fig.17 and Fig.18) either counterclockwise or clockwise 6.66 degrees so that the discharge position of the stator electromagnets is displaced. Referring to Figs. 11 to 15, the simultaneous discharge of selected capacitors into the displaced electromagnets results in a deceleration if the rotor electromagnet is approaching the stator electromagnet at the time of discharge, or an acceleration if the rotor electromagnet is leaving the stator electromagnet at the time of the discharge pulse. In each event, there is a repulsive reaction between the stator and rotor electromagnets which effects this change in speed.

Referring to Fig.11, clutch mechanism 304 about shaft 111 is operated electromagnetically in conventional manner, to displace the spark-gap mechanism 236 which is operated normally in appropriate matching alignment with the rotor spark-gap discs 291, 292 and 293. Clutch 304 has a fixed drive element 311, containing an electromagnetic drive coil (not shown) and a motor element 310 which, when the electromagnetic drive coil is energised, can be operated by a direct current. The operation of motor element 310, brings into operation, spark gap elements 224r, 223r or 223f, 224f of the system shown in Figs. 4, 5 and 8, as illustrated in Fig.19.

The fixed stator coil spark gap terminal pairs 223, 224 and 266, 267 are arrayed about a cylindrical frame 322 which is fabricated in insulative material. In the illustrative example of Fig.17 and Fig.18, there are nine such spark gap terminal pairs positioned around the periphery of the cylinder frame 324. In the engine of Figs. 4 to 8, a total of 27 such spark gap pairs are involved. In addition, although not shown in the drawing, there are also pairs of terminals, such as 223r or 223f, 224r or 224f and 266r or 226f, 267r or 267f, displaced 6.66 degrees on either side of the pairs 223, 224 or 266, 267 and all other pairs in the spark gap array, the letters "r" and "f" denoting "retard" or "faster". The latter displaced pairs are used in controlling the speed of the engine rotor. The displaced pairs not shown are involved in the operation of the clutch 304, the speed-changing control element.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step No</th>
<th>Rotor Arm</th>
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<th>Rotor Electro-</th>
<th>Stator Electro-</th>
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<td>10</td>
<td>87 19</td>
<td>131.1/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>87 20</td>
<td>126.2/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>87 21</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>87 22</td>
<td>253.1/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>87 23</td>
<td>66.2/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>87 24</td>
<td>60°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>87 25</td>
<td>93.1/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>87 26</td>
<td>106.2/3°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>87 27</td>
<td>120°</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, in step 1, rotor arm 86 is at the 133.33 degree position which has two minor electromagnets in alignment, ready for discharge. Simultaneously, rotor arm 87 is at the 253.33 degree position with two minor electromagnets aligned for capacitor discharge. The other steps of the sequence are apparent from Table 1, for each position of the three rotor arms at any step and the juxtapositions of respective stator and rotor electromagnet elements at that position.

In the simplified motor arrangement shown in schematic form in Fig.18, with single electromagnet configuration, the alignment is uniform and the discharge sequences follow sequentially.

As mentioned before, a change in speed is effected by displacing the stator spark gap terminals on the rotor (shown at 236 in Fig.17 and Fig.18) either counterclockwise or clockwise 6.66 degrees so that the discharge position of the stator electromagnets is displaced. Referring to Figs. 11 to 15, the simultaneous discharge of selected capacitors into the displaced electromagnets results in a deceleration if the rotor electromagnet is approaching the stator electromagnet at the time of discharge, or an acceleration if the rotor electromagnet is leaving the stator electromagnet at the time of the discharge pulse. In each event, there is a repulsive reaction between the stator and rotor electromagnets which effects this change in speed.

Referring to Fig.11, clutch mechanism 304 about shaft 111 is operated electromagnetically in conventional manner, to displace the spark-gap mechanism 236 which is operated normally in appropriate matching alignment with the rotor spark-gap discs 291, 292 and 293. Clutch 304 has a fixed drive element 311, containing an electromagnetic drive coil (not shown) and a motor element 310 which, when the electromagnetic drive coil is energised, can be operated by a direct current. The operation of motor element 310, brings into operation, spark gap elements 224r, 223r or 223f, 224f of the system shown in Figs. 4, 5 and 8, as illustrated in Fig.19.

The fixed stator coil spark gap terminal pairs 223, 224 and 266, 267 are arrayed about a cylindrical frame 322 which is fabricated in insulative material. In the illustrative example of Fig.17 and Fig.18, there are nine such spark gap terminal pairs positioned around the periphery of the cylinder frame 324. In the engine of Figs. 4 to 8, a total of 27 such spark gap pairs are involved. In addition, although not shown in the drawing, there are also pairs of terminals, such as 223r or 223f, 224r or 224f and 266r or 226f, 267r or 267f, displaced 6.66 degrees on either side of the pairs 223, 224 or 266, 267 and all other pairs in the spark gap array, the letters "r" and "f" denoting “retard” or “faster”. The latter displaced pairs are used in controlling the speed of the engine rotor. The displaced pairs not shown are involved in the operation of the clutch 304, the speed-changing control element.
Clutch 304 is associated with shaft 111 in that the movable element 310 draws clutch disc element 316 on shaft 111, away from clutch disc element 322 when energised by a voltage of appropriate polarity applied to its motor electromagnet 311. Such clutch drives are well known in the art.

The clutch mechanism 304 of Fig.11 and Fig.19, when not energised, is in the configuration shown in Fig.11. The energised configuration of clutch 304 is not specifically illustrated. Upon energisation, spark-gap element 222 on disc 236 is displaced rightward, as viewed in Fig.11, by broken lines 236X, into alignment with the positions of fixed spark-gap terminals 223f, 224f and 267r, 266r. When the disc is in position 236X, the flattened edge 332 of pin 330 in disc 325 rides on surface 350 of disc 322. Normally, the flattened edges 351 of pins 330 are engaged against the flat edge 352 in recess 331 of disc 322. The displacement of disc 322 on shaft 111 is effected by the action of clutch 304 against spring 314 (Fig.11). An electric switch (not shown) of clutch mechanism 304 energises it from a d-c power source, and has two positions, one for deceleration and one for acceleration. In either position, clutch 304 is engaged to pull clutch disc 322 from clutch disc 325, momentarily. For the decelerate or the accelerate position, the displaced alignment of spark gap elements 222 is with the 224f, 223f and the 224r, 223r spark-gap terminal elements. However, only the 224f, 223f spark-gap elements are switched into operation with appropriate capacitors for the accelerate position, while in the decelerate position, only the 223r and 224r spark-gap elements are switched into the circuit with their associated capacitors.

Of course, when insulative disc 236 is displaced by clutch 304, its gap terminals 222, 225 and 228 (Fig.14 and Fig.18) are all displaced into the alignment position of 236X so as to engage the “r” and “f” lines of fixed spark gap elements. Although the accelerate and decelerate positions of disc 236 are the same, it is the switching into operation of the 223, 224 or 266, 267 exemplary “r” or “f” pairs of terminals which determines whether the rotor will speed up or slow down.

The momentary displacement of clutch disc 322 from clutch disc 325 results in rotation of disc 325 about disc 322 through an angle of 120 degrees. The detent ball and spring mechanism 320, 321 in disc 325, positions itself between one detent dimple 328 and a succeeding one 328 at a position 120 degrees away on disc 325.

As stated, flat 332 of pin 330 rides on surface 350 of disc 322, and pin 330 leaves the pin-holding groove 331/352 along ramp 333 in disc 322 during the momentary lifting of disc 322 by clutch 304. Pin 330 falls back into the next groove 331 at a point 120 degrees further on about disc 322. Pin 330 falls into place in groove 331 on ramp 334. Pins 330 are rotatable in their sockets 353, so that for either clockwise or counterclockwise rotation, the flat 351 will engage the flat 352 by the particular ramp it encounters.

The deceleration or acceleration due to the action of clutch 304 thus occurs within a 120 degree interval of rotation of disc 325. During this interval, disc 322 may only move a fraction of this arc.

There has been described earlier, an electromotive engine system wherein at least one electromagnet is in a fixed position and a second electromagnet of similar configuration is juxtaposed with it in a magnetic polarity relationship such that, when the cores of the electromagnets are energised, the juxtaposed core faces repel each other. One core being fixed, and the second core being free to move, any attachments to the second electromagnet core will move with it. Hence, if a plurality of fixed cores are positioned about a circular confining housing, and, within the housing, cores on a shaft are free to move, the shaft is urged rotationally each time the juxtaposed fixed and rotatable cores are in alignment and energised. Both the fixed and the movable cores are connected to spark gap terminal elements and the associated other terminal elements of the spark gaps are connected to capacitors which are charged to high voltage from pulsed unipolar signal generators. These capacitors are discharged through the electromagnets across the spark gaps. By switching selected groups of capacitors into selected pairs of spark gap elements for discharge through the electromagnets, the rotor of the circular array systems is accelerated and decelerated.

By confining a fixed electromagnet array in a linear configuration, with a linearly movable electromagnet to which a working tool is attached, exciting the juxtaposed pairs of electromagnets by capacitor discharge, results in the generation of linear force for such tools as punch presses, or for discharging projectiles with considerable energy.
EFFICIENT POWER SUPPLY SUITABLE FOR INDUCTIVE LOADS

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes the circuitry used with Edwin Gray’s power tube. Please be aware Edwin wanted at all costs, to conceal any useful technology while getting patents to encourage investors, so please understand that this patent is not intended to tell you how to make a working system of this type.

Fig.1 is a schematic circuit diagram of the electrical driving system.
Fig.2 is an elevational sectional view of the electrical conversion element.
Fig.3 is a plan sectional view taken along line 3--3 of Fig.2.
Fig.4 is a plan sectional view taken along line 4--4 of Fig.2.
Fig.5 is a schematic circuit diagram of the alternating-current input circuit.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
The present invention provides a more efficient driving system comprising a source of electrical voltage; a vibrator connected to the low-voltage source for forming a pulsating signal; a transformer connected to the vibrator for receiving the pulsating signal; a high-voltage source, where available, connected to a bridge-type rectifier; or the bridge-type rectifier connected to the high voltage pulse output of the transformer; a capacitor for receiving the voltage pulse output; a conversion element having first and second anodes, electrically conductive means for receiving a charge positioned about the second anode and an output terminal connected to the charge receiving means; the second anode being connected to the capacitor; a commutator connected to the source of electrical voltage and to the first anode; and an inductive load connected to the output terminal whereby a high energy discharge between the first and second anodes is transferred to the charge receiving means and then to the inductive load.

As a sub-combination, the present invention also includes a conversion element comprising a housing; a first low voltage anode mounted to the housing, the first anode adapted to be connected to a voltage source; a second high voltage anode mounted to the housing, the second anode adapted to be connected to a voltage source; electrically conductive means positioned about the second anode and spaced therefrom for receiving a charge, the charge receiving means being mounted to the housing; and an output terminal communicating with the charge receiving means, said terminal adapted to be connected to an inductive load.

The invention also includes a method for providing power to an inductive load comprising the steps of providing a voltage source, pulsating a signal from said source; increasing the voltage of said signal; rectifying said signal; storing and increasing the signal; conducting said signal to a high voltage anode; providing a low voltage to a second anode to form a high energy discharge; electrostatically coupling the discharge to a charge receiving element; conducting the discharge to a inductive load; coupling a second capacitor to the load; and coupling the second capacitor to the source.

It is an aim of the present invention to provide a system for driving an inductive load which system is substantially more efficient than any now existing. Another object of the present invention is to provide a system for driving an inductive load which is reliable, is inexpensive and simply constructed.

The foregoing objects of the present invention together with various other objects, advantages, features and results thereof which will be evident to those skilled in the art in light of this disclosure may be achieved with the exemplary embodiment of the invention described in detail hereinafter and illustrated in the accompanying drawings.
DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

While the present invention is susceptible of various modifications and alternative constructions, an embodiment is shown in the drawings and will herein be described in detail. It should be understood however that it is not the intention to limit the invention to the particular form disclosed; but on the contrary, the invention is to cover all modifications, equivalents and alternative constructions falling within the spirit and scope of the invention as expressed in the appended claims.

There is disclosed herein an electrical driving system which, on theory, will convert low voltage electric energy from a source such as an electric storage battery to a high potential, high current energy pulse that is capable of developing a working force at the inductive output of the device that is more efficient than that which is capable of being developed directly from the energy source. The improvement in efficiency is further enhanced by the capability of the device to return that portion of the initial energy developed, and not used by the inductive load in the production of mechanical energy, to the same or second energy reservoir or source for use elsewhere, or for storage.

This system accomplishes the results stated above by harnessing the “electrostatic” or “impulse” energy created by a high-intensity spark generated within a specially constructed electrical conversion switching element tube. This element utilises a low-voltage anode, a high-voltage anode, and one or more “electrostatic” or charge receiving grids. These grids are of a physical size, and appropriately positioned, as to be compatible with the size of the tube, and therefore, directly related to the amount of energy to be anticipated when the device is operating.

The low-voltage anode may incorporate a resistive device to aid in controlling the amount of current drawn from the energy source. This low-voltage anode is connected to the energy source through a mechanical commutator or a solid-state pulser that controls the timing and duration of the energy spark within the element. The high-voltage anode is connected to a high-voltage potential developed by the associated circuits. An energy discharge occurs within the element when the external control circuits permit. This short duration, high-voltage, high-current energy pulse is captured by the “electrostatic” grids within the tube, stored momentarily, then transferred to the inductive output load.

The increase in efficiency anticipated in converting the electrical energy to mechanical energy within the inductive load is attributed to the utilisation of the most optimum timing in introducing the electrical energy to the load device, for the optimum period of time.

Further enhancement of energy conservation is accomplished by capturing a significant portion of the energy generated by the inductive load when the useful energy field is collapsing. This energy is normally dissipated in load losses that are contrary to the desired energy utilisation, and have heretofore been accepted because no suitable means had been developed to harness this energy and restore it to a suitable energy storage device.

The present invention is concerned with two concepts or characteristics. The first of these characteristics is observed with the introduction of an energising current through the inductor. The inductor creates a contrary force (counter-electromotive force or CEMP) that opposes the removal of current or, in other words, produces an energy source at the output of the inductor that simulates the original energy source, reduced by the actual energy removed from the circuit by the mechanical load. This “regenerated”, or excess, energy has previously been lost due to a failure to provide a storage capability for this energy.

In normal applications of an alternating-current to an inductive load for mechanical applications, the useful work of the inductor is accomplished prior to terminating the application of energy. The excess energy applied is thereby wasted.

Previous attempts to provide energy inputs to an inductor of time durations limited to that period when the optimum transfer of inductive energy to mechanical energy is occurring, have been limited by the ability of any such device to handle the high current required to optimise the energy transfer.

The second characteristic is observed when the energising current is removed from the inductor, As the current is decreased, the inductor generates an EMF that opposes the removal of current or, in other words, produces an energy source at the output of the inductor that simulates the original energy source, reduced by the actual energy removed from the circuit by the mechanical load. This “regenerated”, or excess, energy has previously been lost due to a failure to provide a storage capability for this energy.

In this invention, a high-voltage, high-current, short duration energy pulse is applied to the inductive load by the conversion element. This element makes possible the use of certain of that energy impressed within an arc across a spark-gap, without the resultant deterioration of circuit elements normally associated with high energy electrical arcs.

This invention also provides for capture of a certain portion of the energy induced by the high inductive kick.
produced by the abrupt withdrawal of the introduced current. This abrupt withdrawal of current is attendant upon the termination of the stimulating arc. The voltage spike so created is imposed upon a capacitor that couples the attendant current to a secondary energy storage device.

A novel, but not essential, circuit arrangement provides for switching the energy source and the energy storage device. This switching may be so arranged as to actuate automatically at predetermined times. The switching may be at specified periods determined by experimentation with a particular device, or may be actuated by some control device that measures the relative energy content of the two energy reservoirs.

![Fig. 1](image1)

Referring now to Fig. 1, the system 10 will be described in additional detail. The potential for the high-voltage anode, 12 of the conversion element 14 is developed across the capacitor 16. This voltage is produced by drawing a low current from a battery source 18 through the vibrator 20. The effect of the vibrator is to create a pulsating input to the transformer 22. The turns ratio of the transformer is chosen to optimise the voltage applied to a bridge-type rectifier 24. The output of the rectifier is then a series of high-voltage pulses of modest current. When the available source is already of the high voltage, AC type, it may be coupled directly to the bridge-type rectifier.

By repetitious application of these output pulses from the bridge-type rectifier to the capacitor 16, a high-voltage, high-level charge is built up on the capacitor.

Control of the conversion switching element tube is maintained by a commutator 26. A series of contacts mounted radially about a shafts or a solid-state switching device sensitive to time or other variable may be used for this control element. A switching element tube type one-way energy path 28 is introduced between the commutator device and the conversion switching element tube to prevent high energy arcing at the commutator current path. When the switching element tube is closed, current from the voltage source 18 is routed through a resistive element 30 and a low voltage anode 32. This causes a high energy discharge between the anodes within the conversion switching element tube 14.

The energy content of the high energy pulse is electrostatically coupled to the conversion grids 34 of the conversion element. This electrostatic charge is applied through an output terminal 60 (Fig. 2) across the load.
inductance 36, inducing a strong electromagnetic field about the inductive load. The intensity of this electromagnetic field is determined by the high electromotive potential developed upon the electrostatic grids and the very short time duration required to develop the energy pulse.

If the inductive load is coupled magnetically to a mechanical load, a strong initial torque is developed that may be efficiently utilised to produce physical work.

Upon cessation of the energy pulse (arc) within the conversion switching element tube the inductive load is decoupled, allowing the electromagnetic field about the inductive load to collapse. The collapse of this energy field induces within the inductive load a counter EMF. This counter EMF creates a high positive potential across a second capacitor which, in turn, is induced into the second energy storage device or battery 40 as a charging current. The amount of charging current available to the battery 40 is dependent upon the initial conditions within the circuit at the time of discharge within the conversion switching element tube and the amount of mechanical energy consumed by the workload.

A spark-gap protection device 42 is included in the circuit to protect the inductive load and the rectifier elements from unduly large discharge currents. Should the potentials within the circuit exceed predetermined values, fixed by the mechanical size and spacing of the elements within the protective device, the excess energy is dissipated (bypassed) by the protective device to the circuit common (electrical ground).

Diodes 44 and 46 bypass the excess overshoot generated when the “Energy Conversion Switching Element Tube” is triggered. A switching element U allows either energy storage source to be used as the primary energy source, while the other battery is used as the energy retrieval unit. The switch facilitates interchanging the source and the retrieval unit at optimum intervals to be determined by the utilisation of the conversion switching element tube. This switching may be accomplished manually or automatically, as determined by the choice of switching element from among a large variety readily available for the purpose.
Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Fig. 4 show the mechanical structure of the conversion switching element tube 14. An outer housing 50 may be of any insulative material such as glass. The anodes 12 and 22 and grids 34a and 34b are firmly secured by nonconductive spacer material 54, and 56. The resistive element 30 may be introduced into the low-voltage anode path to control the peak currents through the conversion switching element tube. The resistive element may be of a piece, or it may be built of one or more resistive elements to achieve the desired result.

The anode material may be identical for each anode, or may be of differing materials for each anode, as dictated by the most efficient utilisation of the device, as determined by appropriate research at the time of production for the intended use. The shape and spacing of the electrostatic grids is also susceptible to variation with application (voltage, current, and energy requirements).

It is the contention of the inventor that by judicious mating of the elements of the conversion switching element tube, and the proper selection of the components of the circuit elements of the system, the desired theoretical results may be achieved. It is the inventor’s contention that this mating and selection process is well within the capabilities of intensive research and development technique.

Let it be stated here that substituting a source of electric alternating-current subject to the required current and/or voltage shaping and/or timing, either prior to being considered a primary energy source, or thereafter, should not be construed to change the described utilisation or application of primary energy in any way. Such energy conversion is readily achieved by any of a multitude of well established principles. The preferred embodiment of this invention merely assumes optimum utilisation and optimum benefit from this invention when used with portable energy devices similar in principle to the wet-cell or dry-cell battery.

This invention proposes to utilise the energy contained in an internally generated high-voltage electric spike (energy pulse) to electrically energise an inductive load: this inductive load being then capable of converting the energy so supplied into a useful electrical or mechanical output.

In operation the high-voltage, short-duration electric spike is generated by discharging the capacitor 16 across the spark-gap in the conversion switching element tube. The necessary high-voltage potential is stored on the capacitor in incremental, additive steps from the bridge-type rectifier 24. When the energy source is a direct-current electric energy storage device, such as the battery 12, the input to the bridge rectifier is provided by the voltage step-up transformer 22, that is in turn energised from the vibrator 20, or solid-state chopper, or similar device to properly drive the transformer and rectifier circuits.

When the energy source is an alternating-current, switches 64 disconnect transformer 22 and the input to the bridge-type rectifier 24 is provided by the voltage step-up transformer 66, that is in turn energised from the vibrator 20, or solid-state chopper, or similar device to properly drive the transformer and rectifier circuits.

The repetitions output of the bridge rectifier incrementally increases the capacitor charge toward its maximum. This charge is electrically connected directly to the high-voltage anode 12 of the conversion switching element tube. When the low-voltage anode 32 is connected to a source of current, an arc is created in the spark-gap designated 62 of the conversion switching element tube equivalent to the potential stored on the high-voltage anode, and the current available from the low-voltage anode.

Because the duration of the arc is very short, the instantaneous voltage, and instantaneous current may both be very high. The instantaneous peak apparent power is therefore, also very high. Within the conversion switching element tube, this energy is absorbed by the grids 34a and 34b mounted circumferentially about the interior of the tube.

Control of the energy spike within the conversion switching element tube is accomplished by a mechanical, or
solid-state commutator, that closes the circuit path from the low-voltage anode to the current source at that moment when the delivery of energy to the output load is most auspicious. Any number of standard high-accuracy, variable setting devices are available for this purpose. When control of the repetitive rate of the system’s output is required, it is accomplished by controlling the time of connection at the low-voltage anode.

Thus there can be provided an electrical driving system having a low-voltage source coupled to a vibrator, a transformer and a bridge-type rectifier to provide a high voltage pulsating signal to a first capacitor. Where a high-voltage source is otherwise available, it may be coupled direct to a bridge-type rectifier, causing a pulsating signal to a first capacitor. The capacitor in turn is coupled to a high-voltage anode of an electrical conversion switching element tube. The element also includes a low-voltage anode which in turn is connected to a voltage source by a commutator, a switching element tube, and a variable resistor. Mounted around the high-voltage anode is a charge receiving plate which in turn is coupled to an inductive load to transmit a high-voltage discharge from the element to the load. Also coupled to the load is a second capacitor for storing the back EMF created by the collapsing electrical field of the load when the current to the load is blocked. The second capacitor in turn is coupled to the voltage source.
This version of the patent has been re-worded in an attempt to make it easier to read and understand. It describes the design of a pulsed electromagnet / permanent magnet motor which is capable of a higher power output than it’s own power input.

**ABSTRACT**

An electrodynamic motor-generator has a salient pole permanent magnet rotor interacting with salient stator poles to form a machine operating on the magnetic reluctance principle. The intrinsic ferromagnetic power of the magnets provides the drive torque by bringing the poles into register whilst current pulses demagnetise the stator poles as the poles separate. In as much as less power is needed for stator demagnetisation than is fed into the reluctance drive by the thermodynamic system powering the ferromagnetic state, the machine operates regeneratively by virtue of stator winding interconnection with unequal number of rotor and stator poles. A rotor construction is disclosed (Fig.6 and Fig.7). The current pulse may be such as to cause repulsion of the rotor poles.

**FIELD OF THE INVENTION**

This invention relates to a form of electric motor which serves a generating function in that the machine can act regeneratively to develop output electrical power or can generate mechanical drive torque with unusually high efficiency in relation to electrical power input.

The field of invention is that of switched reluctance motors, meaning machines which have salient poles and operate by virtue of the mutual magnetic attraction and/or repulsion as between magnetised poles.

The invention particularly concerns a form of reluctance motor which incorporates permanent magnets to establish magnetic polarisation.

**BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION**

There have been proposals in the past for machines in which the relative motion of magnets can in some way develop unusually strong force actions which are said to result in more power output than is supplied as electrical input.

By orthodox electrical engineering principles such suggestions have seemed to contradict accepted principles of physics, but it is becoming increasingly evident that conformity with the first law of thermodynamics allows a gain in the electromechanical power balance provided it is matched by a thermal cooling.

In this sense, one needs to extend the physical background of the cooling medium to include, not just the machine structure and the immediate ambient environment, but also the sub-quantum level of what is termed, in modern physics, the zero-point field. This is the field activity of the vacuum medium which exists in the space between atomic nuclei and atomic electrons and is the seat of the action which is that associated with the Planck constant. Energy is constantly being exchanged as between that activity and coextensive matter forms but normally these energy fluctuations preserve, on balance, an equilibrium condition so that this action passes unnoticed at the technology level.

Physicists are becoming more and more aware of the fact that, as with gravitation, so magnetism is a route by which we can gain access to the sea of energy that pervades the vacuum. Historically, the energy balance has been written in mathematical terms by assigning 'negative' potential to gravitation or magnetism. However, this is only a disguised way of saying that the vacuum field, suitably influenced by the gravitating mass of a body in the locality or by magnetism in a ferromagnet has both the capacity and an urge to shed energy.

Now, however, there is growing awareness of the technological energy generating potential of this field background and interest is developing in techniques for 'pumping' the coupling between matter and vacuum field to derive power from that hidden energy source. Such research may establish that this action will draw on the 2.7K cosmic background temperature of the space medium through which the Earth travels at some 400 km/s.
The effect contemplated could well leave a cool 'vapour trail' in space as a machine delivering heat, or delivering a more useful electrical form of energy that will revert to heat, travels with body Earth through that space.

In pure physics terms, relevant background is of recent record in the August 1993 issue of Physical Review E, vol. 48, pp. 1562-1565 under the title: 'Extracting energy and heat from the vacuum', authored by D. C. Cole and H. E. Puthoff. Though the connection is not referenced in that paper, one of its author's presented experimental evidence on that theme at an April 1993 conference held in Denver USA. The plasma power generating device discussed at that conference was the subject of U. S. Patent No. 5,018,180, the inventor of record being K. R. Shoulders.

The invention, to be described below, operates by extracting energy from a magnetic system in a motor and the relevant scientific background to this technology can be appreciated from the teachings of E. B. Moullin, a Cambridge Professor of Electrical Engineering who was a President of the Institution of Electrical Engineers in U. K. That prior art will be described below as part of the explanation of the operation of the invention.

The invention presented here concerns specific structural design features of a machine adapted for robust operation, but these also have novelty and special merit in a functional operation. What is described is quite distinct from prior art proposals, one being a novel kind of motor proposed by Gareth Jones at a 1988 symposium held in Hull, Canada under the auspices of the Planetary Association for Clean Energy. Jones suggested the adaptation of an automobile alternator which generates three-phase AC for rectification and use as a power supply for the electrics in the automobile. This alternator has a permanent magnet rotor and Jones suggested that it could be used, with high efficiency gain and torque performance, by operating it as a motor with the three-phase winding circuit excited so as to promote strong repulsion between the magnet poles and the stator poles after the poles had come into register.

However, the Jones machine is not one exploiting the advantages of the invention to be described, because it is not strictly a reluctance motor having salient poles on both stator and rotor. The stator poles in the Jones machine are formed by the winding configuration in a slotted stator form, the many slots being uniformly distributed around the inner circumference of the stator and not constituting a pole system which lends itself to the magnetic flux actions to be described by reference to the E. B. Moulin experiment.

The Jones machine operates by generating a rotating stator field which, in a sense, pushes the rotor poles forward rather than pulling them in the manner seen in the normal synchronous motor. Accordingly, the Jones machine relies on the electric current excitation of the motor producing a field system which rotates smoothly but has a polarity pattern which is forced by the commutation control to keep behind the rotor poles in asserting a continuous repulsive drive.

Another prior art proposal which is distinguished from this invention is that of one of the applicants, H. Aspden, namely the subject of U.K. Patent No. 2,234,863 (counterpart U.S. Patent Serial No.4,975,608). Although this latter invention is concerned with extracting energy from the field by the same physical process as the subject invention, the technique for accessing that energy is not optimum in respect of the structure or method used. Whereas in this earlier disclosure, the switching of the reluctance drive excited the poles in their approach phase, the subject invention, in one of its aspects, offers distinct advantages by demagnetisation or reversal of magnetisation in the pole separation phase of operation.

There are unexpected advantages in the implementation proposed by the subject invention, inasmuch as recent research has confirmed that it requires less input power to switch off the mutual attraction across an air gap between a magnet and an electromagnet than it does to switch it on. Usually, in electromagnetism, a reversal symmetry is expected, arising from conventional teaching of the way forward and back magnetomotive forces govern the resulting flux in a magnetic circuit.

This will be further explained after describing the scope of the invention.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

According to one aspect of the invention, an electrodynamic motor/generator machine comprises a stator configured to provide a set of stator poles, a corresponding set of magnetising windings mounted on the stator pole set, a rotor having two sections each of which has a set of salient pole pieces, the rotor sections being axially spaced along the axis of rotation of the rotor, rotor magnetisation means disposed between the two rotor sections arranged to produce a unidirectional magnetic field which magnetically polarises the rotor poles, whereby the pole faces of one rotor section all have a north polarity and the pole faces of the other rotor section all have a south polarity and electric circuit connections between an electric current source and the stator magnetising windings arranged to regulate the operation of the machine by admitting current pulses for a duration determined according to the angular position of the rotor, which pulses have a direction tending to oppose the polarisation induced in the
stator by the rotor polarisation as stator and rotor poles separate from an in-register position, whereby the action of the rotor magnetisation means provides a reluctance motor drive force to bring stator and rotor poles into register and the action of the stator magnetisation windings opposes the counterpart reluctance braking effect as the poles separate.

According to a feature of the invention, the circuit connecting the electric current source and the stator magnetising windings is designed to deliver current pulses which are of sufficient strength and duration to provide demagnetisation of the stator poles as the stator and rotor poles separate from an in-register position.

In this regard it is noted that in order to suppress the reluctance drive torque or brake torque, depending upon whether poles are converging or separating, a certain amount of electrical power must be fed to the magnetising windings on the stator. In a sense these windings are really 'demagnetising windings' because the polarity of the circuit connections admit the pulse current in the demagnetising direction.

However, it is more usual to refer to windings on magnetic cores as 'magnetising windings' even though they can function as primary windings or secondary windings, the former serving the magnetisation function with input power and the latter serving a demagnetising function with return of power.

According to another feature of the invention, the circuit connecting the electric current source and the stator magnetising windings is designed to deliver current pulses which are of sufficient strength and duration to provide a reversal of magnetic flux direction in the stator poles as the stator and rotor poles separate from an in-register position, whereby to draw on power supplied from the electric current source to provide additional forward drive torque.

According to a further feature of the invention, the electric current source connected to a stator magnetising winding of a first stator pole comprises, at least partially, the electrical pulses induced in the stator magnetising winding of a different second stator pole, the stator pole set configuration in relation to the rotor pole set configuration being such that the first stator pole is coming into register with a rotor pole as the second stator pole separates from its in-register position with a rotor pole.

This means that the magnetising windings of two stator poles are connected so that both serve a 'demagnetising' function, one in resisting the magnetic action of the mutual attraction in pulling poles into register, an action which develops a current pulse output and one in absorbing this current pulse, again by resisting the magnetic inter-pole action to demagnetise the stator pole as its associated rotor pole separates.

In order to facilitate the function governed by this circuit connection between stator magnetising windings, a phase difference is needed and this is introduced by designing the machine to have a different number of poles in a set of stator poles from the number of rotor poles in each rotor section. Together with the dual rotor section feature, this has the additional merit of assuring a smoother torque action and reducing magnetic flux fluctuations and leakage effects which contribute substantially to machine efficiency.

Thus, according to another feature of the invention, the stator configuration provides pole pieces which are common to both rotor sections in the sense that when stator and rotor poles are in-register the stator pole pieces constitute bridging members for magnetic flux closure in a magnetic circuit including that of the rotor magnetisation means disposed between the two rotor sections.

Preferably, the number of poles in a set of stator poles and the number of rotor poles in each section do not share a common integer factor, the number of rotor poles in one rotor section is the same as that in the other rotor section and the number of poles in a rotor section differs by one, with the pole faces being of sufficient angular width to assure that the magnetic flux produced by the rotor magnetisation means can find a circular magnetic flux closure route through the bridging path of a stator pole and through corresponding rotor poles for any angular position of the rotor.

It is also preferable from a design viewpoint for the stator pole faces of this invention to have an angular width that is no greater than half the angular width of a rotor pole and for the rotor sections to comprise circular steel laminations in which the rotor poles are formed as large teeth at the perimeter with the rotor magnetisation means comprising a magnetic core structure the end faces of which abut two assemblies of such laminations forming the two rotor sections.

According to a further feature of the invention, the rotor magnetisation means comprises at least one permanent magnet located with its polarisation axis parallel with the rotor axis. The motor-generator may include an apertured metal disc that is of a non-magnetisable substance mounted on a rotor shaft and positioned intermediate the two rotor sections, each aperture providing location for a permanent magnet, whereby the centrifugal forces acting on the permanent magnet as the rotor rotates are absorbed by the stresses set up in the
disc. Also, the rotor may be mounted on a shaft that is of a non-magnetisable substance, whereby to minimise magnetic leakage from the rotor magnetising means through that shaft.

According to another aspect of the invention, an electrodynamic motor-generator machine comprises a stator configured to provide a set of stator poles, a corresponding set of magnetising windings mounted on the stator pole set, a rotor having two sections each of which has a set of salient pole pieces, the rotor sections being axially spaced along the axis of rotation of the rotor, rotor magnetisation means incorporated in the rotor structure and arranged to polarise the rotor poles, whereby the pole faces of one rotor section all have a north polarity and the pole faces of the other rotor section all have a south polarity and electric circuit connections between an electric current source and the stator magnetising windings arranged to regulate the operation of the machine by admitting current pulses for a duration determined according to the angular position of the rotor, which pulses have a direction tending to oppose the polarisation induced in the stator by the rotor polarisation as stator and rotor poles separate from an in-register position, whereby the action of the rotor magnetisation means provides a reluctance motor drive force to bring stator and rotor poles into register and the action of the stator magnetisation windings opposes the counterpart reluctance braking effect as the poles separate.

According to a feature of this latter aspect of the invention, the electric current source connected to a stator magnetising winding of a first stator pole comprises, at least partially, the electrical pulses induced in the stator magnetising winding of a different second stator pole, the stator pole set configuration in relation to the rotor pole set configuration being such that the first stator pole is coming into register with a rotor pole as the second stator pole separates from its in-register position with a rotor pole.
Fig. 1 presents magnetic core test data showing how the volt-amp reactance power required to set up a constant magnetic flux action in an air gap, as assured by constant AC voltage excitation of a magnetising winding, falls short of the associated power of the potential implicit in the force action across that air gap.

Fig. 2 depicts the test structure to which Fig. 1 data applies.
Fig. 3 depicts the magnetisation action at work in causing magnetic flux to traverse an air-gap and turn a corner in a circuit through a magnetic core.

![Fig. 4](image.png)

**Fig. 4** shows the configuration of a test device used to prove the operating principles of the invention described.

![Fig. 5](image.png)

**Fig. 5** in its several illustrations depicts the progressive rotor pole to stator pole relationship as a rotor turns through a range of angular positions in a preferred embodiment of a machine according to the invention.
Fig. 6 shows the form of a disc member which provides location for four permanent magnets in the machine described.

Fig. 7 shows a cross-section of the magnetic circuit structure of a machine embodying the invention.

Fig. 8 shows a six stator pole configuration with a seven pole rotor and depicts a schematic series connected linking of the magnetising windings of diametrically opposite stator poles.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION
The fact that one can extract energy from the source which powers the intrinsic ferromagnetic state is not explicitly evident from existing textbooks, but it is implicit and, indeed, does become explicit once pointed out, in one textbook authored by E. B. Moullin. His book 'The Principles of Electromagnetism' published by Clarendon Press, Oxford (3rd Edition, 1955) describes on pages 168-174 an experiment concerned with the effect of air gaps between poles in a magnetic circuit. The data obtained are reproduced in Fig. 1, where Professor Moullin shows a curve representing AC current input for different air gaps, given that the voltage supplied is constant. In the same figure, Moullin presents the theoretical current that would need to be applied to sustain the same voltage, and so the related pole forces across the air gap, assuming (a) no flux leakage and (b) that there is complete equality between inductive energy input and the mechanical energy potential for the magnetisation that is established in the air gap in a quarter-cycle period at the AC power excitation frequency.

![Fig.1](image.png)

The data show that, even though the level of magnetic polarisation is well below the saturation value, being confined to a range that is regarded as the linear permeability range in transformer design, there is a clear drop-off of current, and so the volt-amp reactive power input needed, as current increases, compared with that predicted by the mechanical potential built up in the air gaps. Unless leakage flux is excessive, here was clear evidence of anomalous energy activity.

Moullin discusses the leakage flux inferred by this experiment but points out that there is considerable mystery in why the effect of a small gap, which should certainly not result in much flux leakage in the gap region, nevertheless has an enormous effect in causing what has to be substantial leakage in the light of the energy discrepancy. Moullin did not contemplate that energy had been fed in from the zero-point field system and so he left the issue with the statement that it was virtually impossible to predict leakage flux by calculation.

He was, of course, aware of magnetic domain structure and his argument was that the leakage flux problem was connected with what he termed a 'yawing' action of the flux as it passes around the magnetic circuit. Normally, provided the level of polarisation is below the knee of the B-H curve, which occurs at about 70% of saturation in iron cores of general crystal composition, it requires very little magnetising field to change the magnetic flux density. This is assuming that every effort is made to avoid air gaps. The action involves domain wall movements so that the magnetic states of adjacent domains switch to different crystal axes of easy magnetisation and this involves very little energy change.

However, if there is an air gap ahead in the flux circuit and the magnetising winding is not sitting on that air gap, the iron core itself has to be the seat of a progressive field source linking the winding and the gap. It can only serve in that sense by virtue of the lines of flux in the domains being forced to rotate somewhat from the preferred easy axes of magnetisation, with the help of the boundary surfaces around the whole core. This action means that, forcibly, and consequential upon the existence of the air gap, the flux must be carried through the core by

A - 87
that 'yawing' action. It means that substantial energy is needed to force the establishment of those fields within the iron core. More important, however, from the point of view of this invention, it means that the intrinsic magnetic polarisation effects in adjacent magnetic domains in the iron cease to be mutually parallel or orthogonal so as to stay directed along axes of easy magnetisation. Then, in effect, the magnetising action is not just that of the magnetising winding wrapped around the core but becomes also that of adjacent ferromagnetic polarisation as the latter act in concert as vacuum-energy powered solenoids and are deflected into one another to develop the additional forward magnetomotive forces.

The consequences of this are that the intrinsic ferromagnetic power source with its thermodynamic ordering action contributes to doing work in building up forces across the air gap. The task, in technological terms, is then to harness that energy as the gap is closed, as by poles coming together in a reluctance motor, and avoid returning that energy as the poles separate, this being possible if the controlling source of primary magnetisation is well removed from the pole gap and the demagnetisation occurs when the poles are at the closest position.

This energy situation is evident in the Moullin data, because the constant AC voltage implies a constant flux amplitude across the air gap if there is no flux leakage in the gap region. A constant flux amplitude implies a constant force between the poles and so the gap width in relation to this force is a measure of the mechanical energy potential of the air gap. The reactive volt-amp power assessment over the quarter-cycle period representing the polarisation demand can then be compared with the mechanical energy so made available. As already stated, this is how Moullin deduced the theoretical current curve. In fact, as his data show, he needed less current than the mechanical energy suggested and so he had in his experiment evidence of the vacuum energy source that passed unnoticed and is only now revealing itself in machines that can serve our energy needs.

In the research leading to this patent application the Moullin experiment has been repeated to verify a condition where a single magnetising winding serves three air gaps. The Moullin test configuration is shown in Fig.2, but in repeating the experiment in the research leading to this invention, a search coil was mounted on the bridging member and this was used to compare the ratio of the voltage applied to the magnetising winding and that induced in the search coil.

The same fall-off feature in current demand was observed, and there was clear evidence of substantial excess energy in the air gap. This was in addition to the inductive energy that necessarily had to be locked into the magnetic core to sustain the 'yawing' action of the magnetic flux already mentioned.

It is therefore emphasised that, in priming the flux 'yawing' action, energy is stored inductively in the magnetic core, even though this has been deemed to be the energy of flux leakage outside the core. The air gap energy is also induction energy. Both energies are returned to the source winding when the system is demagnetised, given a fixed air gap.

If, however, the air gap closes after or during magnetisation, much of that inductive energy goes into the mechanical work output. Note then that the energy released as mechanical work is not just that stored in the air gap but is that stored in sustaining the 'yaw'. Here, then is reason to expect an even stronger contribution to the dynamic machine performance, one that was not embraced by the calculation of the steady-state situation.

Given the above explanation of the energy source, the structural features which are the subject of this invention will now be described.

The 'yawing' action is depicted in Fig.3, which depicts how magnetic flux navigates a right-angled bend in a magnetic core upon passage through an air gap. By over-simplification it is assumed that the core has a crystal structure that has a preferred axis of magnetisation along the broken line path. With no air gap, the current needed by a magnetising winding has only to provide enough magnetomotive force to overcome the effects of non-magnetic inclusions and impurities in the core substance and very high magnetic permeabilities can apply. However, as soon as the air gap develops, this core substance has to find a way of setting up magnetomotive force in regions extending away from the locality of the magnetising winding. It cannot do this unless its effect is so powerful that the magnetic flux throughout the magnetic circuit through the core substance is everywhere deflected from alignment with a preferred easy axis of magnetisation. Hence the flux vectors depicted by the arrows move out of alignment with the broken line shown.

There is a 'knock-on' effect progressing all the way around the core from the seat of the magnetising winding and, as already stated, this harnesses the intrinsic ferromagnetic power that, in a system with no air gap, could only be affected by magnetisation above the knee of the B-H curve. Magnetic flux rotation occurs above that knee, whereas in an ideal core the magnetism develops with very high permeability over a range up to that knee, because it needs very little power to displace a magnetic domain wall sideways and promote a 900 or a1800 flux reversal. Indeed, one can have a magnetic permeability of 10,000 below the knee and 100 above the knee, the latter reducing progressively until the substance saturates magnetically.
In the situation depicted in Fig.2 and Fig.3 the field strength developed by the magnetising windings 1 on magnetic core 2 has to be higher, the greater the air gap, in order to achieve the same amount of magnetisation as measured by the voltage induced in a winding (not shown) on the bridging member 3. However, by virtue of that air gap there is potential for harnessing energy supplied to that air gap by the intrinsic zero-point field that accounts for the magnetic permeability being over unity and here one can contemplate very substantial excess energy potential, given incorporation in a machine design which departs from convention.

One of the applicants has built an operative test machine which is configured as depicted schematically in Fig.4. The machine has been proved to deliver substantially more mechanical power output than is supplied as electrical input, as much as a ratio of 7:1 in one version, and it can act regeneratively to produce electrical power.

What is shown in Fig.4 is a simple model designed to demonstrate the principle of operation. It comprises a rotor in which four permanent magnets 4 are arrayed to form four poles. The magnets are bonded into four sectors of a non-magnetic disc 5 using a high density polyurethane foam filler and the composite disc is then assembled on a brass spindle 6 between a split flange coupling. Not shown in the figure is the structure holding the spindle vertically in bearings or the star wheel commutator assembly attached to the upper shaft of the spindle.

Note that the magnets present north poles at the perimeter of the rotor disc and that the south poles are held together by being firmly set in the bonding material. A series of four stator poles were formed using magnetic cores from standard electromagnetic relays are were positioned around the rotor disc as shown. The magnetising windings 7 on these cores are shown to be connected in series and powered through commutator contacts 8 by a DC power supply. Two further stator cores formed by similar electromagnetic relay components are depicted by their windings 9 in the intermediate angle positions shown and these are connected in series and connected to a rectifier 10 bridged by a capacitor 11.
The rotor spindle 6 is coupled with a mechanical drive (not shown) which harnesses the torque developed by the motor thus formed and serves as a means for measuring output mechanical power delivered by the machine.

In operation, assuming that the rotor poles are held initially off-register with the corresponding stator poles and the hold is then released, the strong magnetic field action of the permanent magnets will turn the rotor to bring the stator and rotor poles into register. A permanent magnet has a strong attraction for soft iron and so this initial impulse of rotation is powered by the potential energy of the magnets.

Now, with the rotor acting as a flywheel and having inertia it will have a tendency to over-shoot the in-register pole position and that will involve a reverse attraction with the result that the rotor will oscillate until damping action brings it to rest. However, if the contacts of the commutating switch are closed as the poles come

The commutating switch 8 needs only to be closed for a limited period of angular travel following the top dead centre in-register position of the stator and rotor poles. The power supplied through that switch by those pulses will cause the rotor to continue rotating and high speeds will be achieved as the machine develops its full motor function.

Tests on such a machine have shown that more mechanical power can be delivered than is supplied electrically by the source powering the action through the commutating switch. The reason for this is that, whereas the energy in the air gap between rotor and stator poles which is tapped mechanically as the poles come into register is provided by the intrinsic power of the ferromagnet, a demagnetising winding on the part of the core system coupled across that air gap needs very little power to eliminate the mechanical force acting across that air gap. Imagine such a winding on the bridging member shown in Fig.2. The action of current in that winding, which sits astride the 'yawing' flux in that bridging member well removed from the source action of the magnetising windings 1, is placed to be extremely effective in resisting the magnetising influence communicated from a distance. Hence very little power is needed to overcome the magnetic coupling transmitted across the air gap.

Although the mutual inductance between two spaced-apart magnetising windings has a reciprocal action, regardless of which winding is primary and which is secondary, the action in the particular machine situation being described involves the ‘solenoidal’ contribution represented by the ‘yawing’ ferromagnetic flux action. The latter is not reciprocal inasmuch as the flux ‘yaw’ depends on the geometry of the system. A magnetising winding directing flux directly across an air gap has a different influence on the action in the ferromagnetic core from one directing flux lateral to the air gap and there is no reciprocity in this action.

In any event, the facts of experiment do reveal that, owing to a significant discrepancy in such mutual interaction, more mechanical power is fed into the rotor than is supplied as input from the electrical source.

This has been further demonstrated by using the two stator windings 9 to respond in a generator sense to the passage of the rotor poles. An electrical pulse is induced in each winding by the passage of a rotor pole and this is powered by the inertia of the rotor disc 5. By connecting the power so generated, to charge the capacitor 11, the DC power supply can be augmented to enhance the efficiency even further.

Indeed, the machine is able to demonstrate the excess power delivery from the ferromagnetic system by virtue of electrical power generation charging a battery at a greater rate than a supply battery is discharged.

This invention is concerned with a practical embodiment of the motor-generator principles just described and aims, in its preferred aspect, to provide a robust and reliable machine in which the tooth stresses in the rotor poles, which are fluctuating stresses communicating high reluctance drive torque, are not absorbed by a ceramic permanent magnet liable to rupture owing to its brittle composition.

Another object is to provide a structure which can be dismantled and reassembled easily to replace the permanent magnets, but an even more important object is that of minimising the stray leakage flux oscillations from the powerful permanent magnets. Their rotation in the device depicted in Fig.4 would cause excessive eddy-current induction in nearby metal, including that of the machine itself, and such effects are minimised if the flux changes are confined to paths through steel laminations and if the source flux from the magnets has a symmetry or near symmetry about the axis of rotation.

Thus, the ideal design with this in mind is one where the permanent magnet is a hollow cylinder located on a non-magnetic rotor shaft, but, though that structure is within the scope of this invention, the machine described will utilise several separate permanent magnets approximating, in function, such a cylindrical configuration.

Referring to Fig.4, it will further be noted that the magnetic flux emerging from the north poles will have to find its way along leakage paths through air to re-enter the south poles. For periods in each cycle of machine operation
the flux will be attracted through the stator cores, but the passage through air is essential and so the power of the magnets is not used to full advantage and there are those unwanted eddy-current effects.

To overcome this problem the invention provides for two separate rotor sections and the stator poles become bridging members, which with optimum design, allow the flux from the magnets to find a route around a magnetic circuit with minimal leakage through air as the flux is directed through one or other pairs of air gaps where the torque action is developed.

Reference is now made to Fig.5 and the sequence of rotor positions shown. Note that the stator pole width can be significantly smaller than that of the rotor poles. Indeed, for operation using the principles of this invention, it is advantageous for the stator to have a much smaller pole width so as to concentrate the effective pole region. A stator pole width of half that of the rotor is appropriate but it may be even smaller and this has the secondary advantage of requiring smaller magnetising windings and so saving on the loss associated with the current circuit.

The stator has eight pole pieces formed as bridging members 12, more clearly represented in Fig.7, which shows a sectional side view through two rotor sections 13 axially spaced on a rotor shaft 14. There are four permanent magnets 15 positioned between these rotor sections and located in apertures 16 in a disc 17 of a non-magnetic
substance of high tensile strength, the latter being shown in Fig.6. The rotor sections are formed from disc laminations of electrical steel which has seven large teeth, the salient poles. Magnetising windings 18 mounted on the bridging members 12 constitute the system governing the action of the motor-generator being described.

The control circuitry is not described as design of such circuitry involves ordinary skill possessed by those involved in the electrical engineering art.

It suffices, therefore, to describe the merits of the structural design configuration of the core elements of the machine. These concern principally the magnetic action and, as can be imagined from Fig.7, the magnetic flux from the magnets enters the rotor laminations by traversing the planar faces of the laminations and being deflected into the plane of the laminations to pass through one or other of the stator pole bridging members, returning by a similar route through the other rotor.

By using eight stator poles and seven rotor poles, the latter having a pole width equal to half the pole pitch in an angular sense, it will be seen from Fig.5, that there is always a flux passage across the small air gap between stator and rotor poles. However, as one pole combination is in-register the diametrically-opposed pole combinations are out-of register.

As described by reference to Fig.4 the operation of the machine involves allowing the magnet to pull stator and rotor poles into register and then, as they separate, pulsing the winding on the relevant stator member to demagnetise that member. In the Fig.4 system, all the stator magnetising windings were pulsed together, which is not an optimum way in which to drive a multi-pole machine.

In the machine having the pole structure with one less rotor pole than stator poles (or an equivalent design in which there is one less stator pole than rotor poles) this pulsing action can be distributed in its demand on the power supply, and though this makes the commutation switch circuit more expensive the resulting benefit outweighs that cost. However, there is a feature of this invention by which that problem can be alleviated if not eliminated.

Suppose that the rotor has the position shown in Fig.5(a) with the rotor pole denoted R1 midway between stator poles S1 and S2 and imagine that this is attracted towards the in-register position with stator pole S2. Upon reaching that in-register position, as shown in Fig.5(c), suppose that the magnetising winding of stator pole S2 is excited by a current pulse which is sustained until the rotor reaches the Fig.5(e) position.

The combination of these two actions will have imparted a forward drive impulse powered by the permanent magnet in the rotor structure and the current pulse which suppresses braking action will have drawn a smaller amount of energy from the electrical power source which supplies it. This is the same process as was described by reference to Fig.4.

However, now consider the events occurring in the rotor action diametrically opposite that just described. In the Fig.5(a) position rotor pole R4 has come fully into register with stator pole S5 and so stator pole S5 is ready to be demagnetised. However, the magnetic coupling between the rotor and stator poles is then at its strongest. Note, however, that in that Fig.5(a) position R5 is beginning its separation from stator poles and the magnetising winding of stator pole S6 must then begin draw power to initiate demagnetisation. During that following period of pole separation the power from the magnet is pulling R1 and S2 together with much more action than is needed to generate that current pulse needed to demagnetise S6. It follows, therefore, that, based on the research findings of the regenerative excitation in the test system of Fig.4, the series connection of the magnetising windings on stators S2 and S6 will, without needing any commutative switching, provide the regenerative power needed for machine operation.

The complementary action of the two magnetising windings during the pole closure and pole separation allows the construction of a machine which, given that the zero-point vacuum energy powering the ferromagnet is feeding input power, will run on that source of energy and thereby cool the sustaining field system.

There are various design options in implementing what has just been proposed. Much depends upon the intended use of the machine. If it is intended to deliver mechanical power output the regenerative electrical power action can all be used to power the demagnetisation with any surplus contributing to a stronger drive torque by reversing the polarity of the stator poles during pole separation.

If the object is to generate electricity by operating in generator mode then one could design a machine having additional windings on the stator for delivering electrical power output. However, it seems preferable to regard the machine as a motor and maximise its efficiency in that capacity whilst using a mechanical coupling to an alternator of conventional design for the electrical power generation function.
In the latter case it would still seem preferable to use the self-excitation feature already described to reduce commutation switching problems.

The question of providing for machine start-up can be addressed by using a separate starter motor powered from an external supply or by providing for current pulsing limited to, say, two stator poles. Thus, for example, with the eight stator pole configuration, the cross-connected magnetising windings could be limited to three stator pairs, with two stator magnetising windings left free for connection to a pulsed external supply source.

If the latter feature were not required, then the stator magnetising windings would all be connected in pairs on a truly diametrically opposite basis. Thus Fig.8 shows a rotor-stator configuration having six stator poles interacting with seven rotor poles and stator magnetising windings linked together in pairs.

The invention, therefore, offers a wide range of implementation possibilities, which, in the light of this disclosure will become obvious to persons skilled in the electrical engineering art, all based, however, on the essential but simple principle that a rotor has a set of poles of common polarity which are attracted into register with a set of stator poles that are suppressed or reversed in polarity magnetically during pole separation. The invention, however, also offers the important feature of minimising commutation and providing further for a magnetic flux closure that minimises the leakage flux and fluctuations of leakage flux and so contributes to efficiency and high torque performance as well as durability and reliability of a machine incorporating the invention.

It is noted that although a machine has been described which uses two rotor sections it is possible to build a composite version of the machine having several rotor sections. In the eventuality that the invention finds use in very large motor-generator machines the problem of providing very large magnets can be overcome by a design in which numerous small magnets are assembled. The structural concept described by reference to Fig.6 in providing locating apertures to house the magnets makes this proposal highly feasible. Furthermore, it is possible to replace the magnets by a steel cylinder and provide a solenoid as part of the stator structure and located between the rotor sections. This would set up an axial magnetic field magnetising the steel cylinder and so polarising the rotor. However, the power supplied to that solenoid would detract from the power generated and so such a machine would not be as effective as the use of permanent magnets such as are now available.

Nevertheless, should one see significant progress in the development of warm superconductor materials, it may become feasible to harness the self-generating motor-generator features of the invention, with its self-cooling properties, by operating the device in an enclosure at low temperatures and replacing the magnets by a superconductive stator supported solenoid.
SELF-SUSTAINING ELECTRIC POWER GENERATOR UTILISING ELECTRONS OF LOW INERTIAL MASS TO MAGNIFY INDUCTIVE ENERGY

This patent application shows a very neat, self-powered electrical generator with a theoretical output of anything up to a COP of 59 when using cadmium selenide. The discussion of the theoretical aspects of the design includes a large amount of historical information and it covers the origin of the "law" of Conservation of Energy which, in spite of being incorrect, has been for decades, a major obstacle to the scientific development of free-energy devices.

FILE
This disclosure introduces a technical field in which practical electrical energy is created in accordance with the overlooked exception to the energy-conservation rule that Herman von Helmholtz described in his 1847 doctrine on energy conservation: "If . . . bodies possess forces which depend upon time and velocity, or which act in directions other than lines which unite each pair of material points, . . . then combinations of such bodies are possible in which force may be either lost or gained as infinitum". A transverse inductive force qualifies for Helmholtz's ad infinitum rule, but this force is not sufficient of itself to cause a greater energy output than input when applied to electrons of normal mass due to their unique charge-to-mass ratio. However, the increased acceleration of conduction electrons of less-than-normal inertial mass, as occurs in photoconductors, doped semiconductors, and superconductors, is proportional to the normal electron mass divided by the low electron mass, and the magnification of harnessable inductive energy is proportional to the square of the greater relative acceleration.

BACKGROUND
Magnetic force also satisfies Helmholtz's exemption to the energy-conservation rule because magnetic force is transverse to the force that causes it, and magnetic force is determined by the "relative velocity" (i.e. perpendicular to the connecting line) between electric charges. Magnification of magnetic force and energy was demonstrated by E. Leimer (1915) in the coil of a speaker phone and in the coil of a galvanometer when he irradiated a radio antenna-wire with radium. A 10 milligram, linear radium source produced a measured 2.6 fold increase in electrical current in the antenna wire in comparing inaudible radio reception without radium to audible reception with radium. This represented a \((2.6)^2 = 7\) times increase in electrical energy flowing through the respective wire coils. The possibility of this enhanced reception being attributed to a person's body holding the
unit of radium to the wire was eliminated by Leimer's additional observation that whenever the orientation of the small radium unit was changed to approximately 30 degrees relative to the wire, the energy enhancement ceased.

Applicant has deduced that Leimer's energy magnification was most likely due to low-mass electrons that were liberated and made conductive in the antenna by alpha radiation, which allowed these special electrons to be given a greater than normal acceleration by the received radio broadcast photons. Applicant has further deduced that such low-mass electrons must have originated in a thin-film coating of cupric oxide (CuO) on the antenna wire. CuO is a dull black polycrystalline semiconducting compound that develops in situ on copper and bronze wire in the course of annealing the wire in the presence of air. Such CuO coatings have been observed by Applicant on historical laboratory wire at the Science Museum at Oxford University, U.K. and on copper house wire of that era in the U.S., indicating that CuO coatings were commonplace. In later years, annealing has taken place under conditions that prevent most oxidation. This is followed by acid treatment to remove any remaining oxides, leaving shiny wire.

The same year that the English translation of Leimer's paper appeared in *Scientific American*, 16-year old Alfred M. Hubbard of Seattle, Washington, reportedly invented a fuelless generator, which he later admitted, employed radium. Applicant interprets this as implying that Leimer's energy-magnification was utilised by Hubbard with feedback to make it self-sustaining. Three years later, Hubbard publicly demonstrated a relatively advanced fuelless generator that illuminated a 20-watt incandescent bulb (Anon. 1919a). A reputable physics professor from Seattle College, who was intimately familiar with Hubbard's device (but not at liberty to disclose its construction details), vouched for the integrity of the fuelless generator and declared that it was not a storage device, but he did not know why it worked (Anon. 1919b). Because Hubbard initially had no financial means of his own, it is likely that the professor had provided Hubbard with the use of the expensive radium initially and thereby witnessed the inventing process in his own laboratory.

Newspaper photos (Anon. 1920a) of a more impressive demonstration of Hubbard's fuelless generator, show a device described as 14 inches (36 cm) long and 11 inches (28 cm) in diameter, connected by four heavy electrical cables to a 35 horsepower (26 kW) electric motor. The motor reportedly propelled an 18-foot open launch around a like at a speed of 8 to 10 knots (Anon. 1920b). The event was witnessed by a cautious news reporter who claims to have checked thoroughly for any wires that might have been connected to hidden batteries, by lifting the device and motor from the boat. Radioactive-decay energy can be eliminated as the main power source because about $10^6$ times more radium than the entire world's supply would have been needed to equal Hubbard's reported electric energy output of 330 amperes and 124 volts.

Lester J. Hendershott of Pittsburgh, Pa., reportedly demonstrated a fuelless generator in 1928 that was claimed by Hubbard to be a copy of his own device (1928h). The president of Stout Air services, William B. Stout, who also designed the Ford Trimotor aeroplane, reported (1928b): “The demonstration was very impressive. It was actually uncanny.... The small model appeared to operate exactly as Hendershot explained it did”. Also reportedly attesting to the operability of Hendershott's fuelless generator were Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh and Major Thomas Lanphier of the U.S. Air Corps (1928a, et seq.), and Lanphier's troops reportedly assembled a working model of his device.

To the Applicant's best knowledge, the only depiction that was made public of the interior components of any of these reported generators consists of a sketchy drawing (Bermann 1928h) of Hubbard's apparatus similar in size to the device shown in his 1919 demonstration. It depicts a complex set of parallel coils measuring 6 inches (15 cm) in length and 4.5 inches (11.4 cm) in overall diameter. Four leads of insulated wire, with the insulation peeled back, are shown coming out of the end of the device. What those four wires were connected to internally was not shown. Hubbard's description of the internal arrangement of coils in the device generally matches the drawing (Anon. 1920a): “It is made up of a group of eight electromagnets, each with primary and secondary windings of copper wire, which are arranged around a large steel core. The core likewise has a single winding. About the entire group of cells is a secondary winding”. Nothing was reported or depicted about how components functioned with each other, or how much radium was used and where the radium was positioned. The only connectors visible on the drawing were between the outer windings of the eight electromagnet coils. These connectors show that the direction of the windings alternated between clockwise and counterclockwise on adjacent coils, so that the polarity of each electromagnet would have been opposite to that of its adjacent neighbours.

If the Hubbard and Hendershot devices actually operated as reported, they apparently never attained acceptance or commercial success. Assuming the devices actually worked, their lack of success may have been largely financial or supply based, or both, compounded with scepticism from believers in the energy-conservation doctrine. How much radium was employed by Hubbard in his larger generator can only be guessed at, but assuming a typical laboratory radium needle containing 10 milligrams of radium was used, that amount would have cost $900 in 1920, dropping to $500 in 1929. That much radium in a fuelless generator would have cost as much as an inexpensive automobile in the 1920s. Possibly much more radium was used than 10 milligrams.

In 1922, when the Radium Company of America of Pittsburgh, Pa., reportedly discontinued its work with Hubbard on his invention (1928h), the entire world's supply of radium was only about 250 grams. With the extreme assumption that only 1 milligram of radium was needed per generator, less than 10% of a single year's production
of autos in the US in the mid-1920s could have been supplied with such generators. Apparently Hendershott had tried to revive the technology by showing that the fuelless generator could extend the range of air flight indefinitely, but his technology never attracted a sponsor from any private, public or philanthropic entity.

U.S. Pat. No. 4,835,433 to Brown, superficially resembles the drawing of Hubbard’s device. Brown’s device appears to have the same number and essentially the same general arrangement of wire coils as Hubbard’s generator, as nearly as can be understood from the newspaper articles depicting that device. Apparently, no information concerning either the Hubbard or Hendershot devices was considered during the prosecution of the ‘433 patent.

Brown discusses the conversion of energy of radioactive decay products, principally alpha emissions, to electrical energy by amplifying electrical oscillations in a high-Q L-C circuit irradiated by radioactive materials. “During the absorption process, each alpha particle will collide with one or more atoms in the conductor, knocking electrons from their orbits and imparting some kinetic energy to the electrons in the conductor, thereby increasing its conductivity”. (Col. 3, Line 68 to Col. 4, line 5). No claim was made by Brown, that the device employed a semiconductor or photoconductor that could have provided low-mass electrons for energy magnification.

Brown claimed an output of 23 amps at 400 volts, which is vastly greater than all the decay energy represented by his reported radioactive content of 1 milligram of radium that was surrounded by weakly radioactive uranium rods and thorium powder. Powered thorium is highly pyrophoric, so it is typically sealed in a nitrogen atmosphere to prevent spontaneous combustion. In his device, Brown reportedly confined the thorium in cardboard without any mention of sealing out air. This condition would have invited a meltdown that could have been interpreted as massive out-of-control electrical production.

To the best of the Applicant’s knowledge, no person other than the Applicant has ever indicated that the presence of cupric oxide on their wires could have provided energy magnification. If Hubbard’s device actually did work, certain characteristics of its design are unexplainable by the Applicant, namely the use of four rather than two large electrical cables to connect his device to an electrical motor, and the use of alternating polarity instead of single-direction polarity in the orientation of the multiple coils surrounding a central coil. Applicant therefore believes that the specification herein sets forth original configurations of electrical-energy generators that have no known precedent.

SUMMARY
To address the needs for electrical generators which are capable of self-generating substantial amounts of electrical power in various environments, and which are portable as well as stationary, apparatus and methods are provided for magnifying an electrical input, and (with feedback) for generating usable electrical power indefinitely without fuel or other external energy source, except for starting. The apparatus utilises electrons of low effective mass, which receive greater acceleration than normal electrons in an amount that is inversely proportional to the effective mass. Applicant has determined that effective mass is the same as the electron’s true inertial mass. The photon energy that is radiated when an electron is accelerated is proportional to the square of the acceleration, so the increase in radiated photon energy from an accelerated low-mass electron over the energy from a normal electron is equal to the inverse square of the effective mass, e.g. the calculated energy magnification provided by photoconducting electrons in cadmium selenide, with an electron effective mass of 0.13, is 59 times. The use of a transverse force, that lacks a direct back-force, to accelerate low-mass electrons in an oscillating manner, circumvents any equal-and-opposite force that would invoke the application of the energy-conservation law of kinetics and thermodynamics.

The various embodiments of the apparatus, which are configured either to continuously magnify an input of oscillating electric energy, or to serve as a self-sustaining electric generator, employ three principal components:

At least one sending coil
At least one energy-magnification coil, comprising a material that produces , in a “condition” low-mass electrons, and
At least one output coil.

It is desirable that the apparatus also includes a means for establishing the condition with respect to the energy-magnifying coil(s). Except where otherwise indicated in the remainder of this text, where the number of coils of a particular type is referred to in the singular, it will be understood that a plurality of coils of the respective type can alternatively be utilised.

Electrical oscillation in the sending coil, which is comprised of a metallic conductor, causes radiation of inductive photons from the sending coil. The energy-magnifying coil is situated in a position relative to the sending coil so as to receive inductive photons from the sending coil. The inductive photons radiating from electrical oscillations in the sending coil, convey a transverse force to the low-mass electrons in the energy-magnification coil with no back-force on the sending coil. The greater-than-normal accelerations which are produced in the low-mass electrons of the energy-magnifying coil, produce greater irradiation energy of inductive photons than normal.
The output coil is positioned so as to receive the magnified inductive-photon energy from the energy-magnifying coil. The inductive-photon energy received by the output coil, which is comprised of a metallic conductor, is converted into an oscillating electrical current of normal electrons. In order for the electrical output to exceed the electrical input, the output coil is situated in such a manner that it receives more of the magnified inductive-photon energy than that which is directed back against the sending coil to act as a back-force. This “energy leverage” causes the electrical energy output to exceed the electrical energy input.

By way of example, the energy-magnifying coil can comprise a superconducting material, wherein the “condition” is a temperature (e.g. a cryogenic temperature) at which the superconducting material exhibits superconducting behaviour characterised by production of low-mass electrons.

By way of another example, the energy-magnifying coil can comprise a photoconductive material, wherein the “condition” is a situation in which the photoconductive material is illuminated by a wavelength of photon radiation sufficient to cause the photoconductive material of the energy-magnifying coil to produce conduction electrons having low effective mass. In this latter example, the means for establishing the condition can comprise a photoconductor exciter (e.g. one or more LEDs) situated and configured to illuminate the photoconductive material of the energy-magnifying coil with the wavelength of photon radiation.

By way of yet another example, the “condition” is the presence of a particular dopant in a semiconductor that provides a low-mass electron as a charge carrier. Also, by way of example, the energy-magnifying coil can comprise a semiconductive element or compound that has been doped with a particular element or compound that makes it conductive of low-mass electrons without illumination by photon radiation other than by ambient photons.

Various apparatus embodiments comprise different respective numbers and arrangements of the principal components. The various embodiments additionally can comprise one or more of circuitry, energisers, shielding and other components to fulfill the object of providing a self-sustaining source of electrical power for useful purposes.

Also provided, are methods for generating an electrical current. In an embodiment of such a method, a first coil is energised with an electrical oscillation sufficient to cause the first coil to radiate inductive photons. At least some of the radiated inductive photons from the first coil are received by a second coil, called “the energy-magnifying coil”, comprising a material that produces low-mass electrons. The received inductive photons impart respective transverse forces to the low-mass electrons that cause the low-mass electrons to experience accelerations in the material which are greater than accelerations that otherwise would be experienced by normal free electrons experiencing the transverse forces.

Conduction of the accelerated low-mass electrons in the second coil, causes the second coil to produce a magnified inductive force. The magnified inductive force is received by a third coil which causes the third coil to produce an oscillating electrical output of normal conduction electrons which has greater energy than the initial oscillation. A portion of the oscillating electrical output is directed as feedback from the third coil to the sending coil, so as to provide the electrical oscillation to the sending coil. This portion of the oscillating electrical current directed to the sending coil, desirably is sufficient to cause self-sustaining generation of inductive photons by the first coil without the need for any external energy source. The surplus oscillating electrical output from the third coil can be directed to a work loop.

The method can further comprise the step of starting the energisation of the first coil to commence generation of the oscillating electrical output. This “starting” step can comprise momentarily exposing the first coil to an external oscillating inductive force or for example, to an external magnetic force which initiates an electrical pulse.

The foregoing and additional features and advantages of the invention will be more readily apparent from the following detailed description, which proceeds with reference to the accompanying drawings.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
**Fig. 1A** is a perspective view schematically depicting a sending coil in relationship to an energy-magnifying coil such that inductive photons from the sending coil, propagate to the energy-magnifying coil.

**Fig. 1B** is a schematic end-view of the sending coil and energy-magnifying coil of **Fig. 1A**, further depicting radiation of inductive photons from the sending coil and the respective directions of electron flow in the coils.

**Fig. 1C** is a schematic end-view of the sending coil and energy-magnifying coil of **Fig. 1A**, further depicting the production of inwardly-radiating and outwardly-radiating magnified inductive photons from the energy-magnifying coil.
Fig. 2A is a perspective view schematically showing an internal output coil, coaxially nested inside the energy-magnifying coil to allow efficient induction of the internal output coil by the energy-magnifying coil, wherein the induction current established in the internal output coil is used to power a load connected across the internal output coil.

Fig. 2B is a schematic end-view of the coils shown in Fig. 2A, further depicting the greater amount of magnified inductive-photon radiation that is received by the external output coil in comparison to the lesser amount that is directed toward the sending coil to act as a back-force.
Fig. 3 is an electrical schematic diagram of a representative embodiment of a generating apparatus.

Fig. 4 is a schematic end-view of a representative embodiment, comprising a centrally disposed sending coil surrounded by six energy-magnifying coils, each having and axis which is substantially parallel to the axis of the sending coil. A respective internal output coil is coaxially nested inside each energy-magnifying coil, and the energy-magnifying coils are arranged so as to capture substantially all the inductive photons radiating from the sending coil.

Fig. 5 is a schematic end-view of the embodiment of Fig. 4, further including an external output coil situated coaxially with the sending coil and configured to surround all six energy-magnifying coils so as to capture outwardly-radiating inductive photons from the energy-magnifying coils. Also depicted is the greater amount of magnified inductive-photon radiation that is received by the internal output coils and the external output coil in comparison to the lesser amount of inductive-photon radiation that is directed towards the sending coil to act as a back-force. Also shown are the arrays of LEDs used for exciting the energy-magnifying coils to become photoconductive.
Fig. 6 is a perspective view of the embodiment of Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 but further depicting respective inter-coil connections for the energy-magnifying and internal output coils, as well as respective leads for the sending coil, internal output coils and external output coil.

Fig. 7 is a head-end view schematically depicting exemplary current-flow directions in the sending coil, energy-magnifying coils, internal output coils, and external output coils, as well as in the various inter-coil connections of the embodiment of Fig. 4.
Fig. 8 is a schematic end-view showing an embodiment of the manner in which inter-coil connections can be made between adjacent energy-magnifying coils.

Fig. 9A is a schematic end-view depicting the coil configuration of an embodiment in which a sending coil and an internal output coil are nested inside an energy-magnifying coil, which in turn is nested inside an exterior output coil. A metallic separator, having a substantially parabolic shape, and being situated between the sending coil and the internal output coil, reflects some of the otherwise unused inductive-photon radiation to maximise the effective radiation received by the energy-magnifying coil. Also, the metallic shield prevents the internal output coil from receiving radiation sent from the sending coil.
Fig. 9B is a schematic end-view of the coil configuration of Fig. 9A, further depicting the metallic separator acting as a shield to restrict the back-force radiation reaching the sending coil while allowing the internal output coil to receive a substantial portion of the magnified radiation from the energy-magnifying coil. Also depicted is the greater amount of magnified inductive-photon radiation that is received by the internal output coil and the external output coil in comparison to the lesser amount that is received by the sending coil to act as a back-force.

Fig. 10A is a schematic end-view depicting the coil configuration of yet another embodiment that is similar in some respects to the embodiment of Fig. 4, but also including respective ferromagnetic cores inside the sending coil and internal output coils. Also depicted is a metallic shield surrounding the entire apparatus.
Fig. 10B is a schematic end-view of a sending coil of yet another embodiment in which a ferromagnetic sleeve is disposed coaxially around the sending coil.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

General Technical Considerations

An understanding of how “infinite energy” mistakenly came to be rejected by the scientific community, clarifies the basis of this invention. The electrodynamic function described in the embodiments described below, conforms to Helmholtz’s alternate energy rule, which states that a force which is not in line with it’s causative force “may be lost or gained ad infinitum”. This rule was included in “Über die Erhaltung der Kraft” (“On the Conservation of Force”) that Hermann Helmholtz delivered to the Physical Society of Berlin in 1847. But, Helmholtz mistakenly believed that “all actions in nature are reducible to forces of attraction and repulsion, the intensity of the forces depending solely upon the distances between the points involved so it is impossible to obtain an unlimited amount of force capable of doing work as the result of any combination whatsoever of natural objects”.

Helmholtz refused to accept the idea that magnetic energy qualifies for ad infinitum status despite the fact that Ampere’s (1820) magnetic force on parallel straight conductors is obviously transverse to the direction of the electric currents rather than being in line with the currents. He omitted mention that the magnetic force in Ampere’s (1825) important invention, the solenoidal electromagnet, is caused by currents in the loops of his coils, which are transverse to the direction of magnetic force. Also, he failed to mention that Ampere considered the magnetic force of a permanent magnet to be caused by minute transverse circular currents, which are now recognised as electrons that spin and orbit transversely.

Helmholtz, who was educated as a military medical doctor without any formal study of physics, relied instead on an obsolete metaphysical explanation of magnetic force: “Magnetic attraction may be deduced completely from the assumption of two fluids which attract or repel in the inverse ratio of the square of their distance...It is known that the external effects of a magnet can always be represented by a certain distribution of the magnetic fluids on its surface”. Without departing from this belief in magnetic fluids, Helmholtz cited Wilhelm Weber’s (1846) similarly wrong interpretation that magnetic and inductive forces are directed in the same line as that between the moving electric charges which cause the forces.

Weber had thought that he could unify Coulombic, magnetic, and inductive forces in a single, simple equation, but Weber’s flawed magnetic-force term leads to the absurd conclusion that a steady current in a straight wire induces a steady electric current in a parallel wire. Also, a changing current does not induce an electromotive force in line with the current, as Weber’s equation showed. The induced force is offset instead, which becomes more apparent the further that two nested, coaxial coils are separated. What appears to be a directly opposing back-force is actually a reciprocal inductive force.

Helmholtz’s assertion that the total sum of the energy in the universe is a fixed amount that is immutable in quantity from eternity to eternity appealed to his young friends. But, the elder scientists of the Physical Society of Berlin declared his paper to be “fantastical speculation” and a “hazardous leap into very speculative metaphysics”, so it was rejected for publication in Annalen der Physik. Rather than accept this rejection constructively, Helmholtz found a printer willing to help him self-publish his work. Helmholtz headed the publication with a statement that his paper had been read before the Society, but he disingenuously withheld mention of its outright rejection. Unwary readers have since received the wrong impression that his universal energy-conservation rule had received the Society’s endorsement rather than its censure.

Helmholtz (1862, 1863) publicised his concept thus: “We have been led up to a universal natural law, which ... expresses a perfectly general and particularly characteristic property of all natural forces, and which ... is to be placed by the side of the laws of the unalterability of mass and the unalterability of the chemical elements”. Helmholtz (1881) declared that any force that did not conserve energy would be “in contradiction to Newton’s axiom, which established the equality of action and reaction for all natural forces” (sic). With this deceitful misrepresentation of Newton’s strictly mechanical principle, Helmholtz had craftily succeeded in commuting the profound respect for Newton’s laws to his unscientific doctrine. Subsequently, the Grand Cross was conferred on Helmholtz by the kings of Sweden and Italy and the President of the French Republic, and he was welcomed by the German Emperor into nobility with the title of “von” added to his name. These prestigious awards made his doctrine virtually unassailable in the scientific community.

Ampere’s principle of transverse magnetic attraction and repulsion between electric currents had been made into an equation for the magnetic force between moving electric charges by Carl Fredrick Gauss (written in 1835, published posthumously in 1865). The critical part of the Gauss equation shows, and modern physics texts agree, that magnetic force is transverse to the force that imparts a relative velocity (i.e. perpendicular to a connecting line) between charges. Lacking a direct back-force, a transverse magnetic force can produce a greater force than the force that causes it.
The only physicist to recognise in print, the profound significance of the work of Gauss, was James Clerk Maxwell (1873), who stated “(If Gauss’s formula is correct), energy might be generated indefinitely in a finite system by physical means”. Prepossessed with Helmholtz’s “law”, Maxwell chose not to believe Gauss’s transverse magnetic-force equation and accepted Wilhelm Weber’s (1846) erroneous in-line formula instead. Maxwell even admitted knowing of Gauss’s (1845) rebuke of Weber for his mistaken direction of magnetic force as “a complete overthrow of Ampère’s fundamental formula and the adoption of essential a different one”.

In 1893, the critical part of Ampère’s formula for magnetic force, which Weber and Maxwell rejected, and which Helmholtz had replaced with his contrary metaphysical explanation, was proposed for the basis for the international measure of electric current, the Ampere (or amp), to be defined in terms of the transverse magnetic force which the current produces. But Helmholtz’s doctrine had become so impervious to facts that anyone who challenged this “law” faced defamation and ridicule.

The first recognition of unlimited energy came from Sir Joseph Larmor who reported in 1897, “A single ion e, describing an elliptic orbit under an attraction to a fixed centre ... must rapidly lose its energy by radiation ... but in the cases of steady motion, it is just this amount that is needed to maintain the permanency of motion in the aether”. Apparently to mollify critics of his heretical concept, Larmor offered a half-hearted recantation in 1900: “The energy of orbital groups ... would be through time, sensibly dissipated by radiation, so that such groups could not be permanent”.

In 1911, Rutherford found that an atom resembles a small solar system with negative ions moving like planets around a small, positively charged nucleus. These endlessly orbiting electrons were a source of the perpetual radiation that had aptly been described by Larmor, and these orbiting electrons were also Planck’s (1911) “harmonic oscillators” which he used to explain Zero-point Energy (ZPE). ZPE was shown by the fact that helium remains liquid under atmospheric pressure at absolute zero, so that helium must be pressurised to become solid at that temperature. Planck believed that harmonic oscillators derived “dark energy” from the aether to sustain their oscillations, thereby admitting that an infinite source of energy exists. However, he assigned an occult origin to this infinite energy, rather than a conventional source that had not met with Helmholtz’s approval.

Niels Bohr (1924) was bothered by the notion that radiation from an orbiting electron would quickly drain its energy so that the electron should spiral into the nucleus. Whittaker (1951) states, “Bohr and associates abandoned the principle ... that an atom which is emitting or absorbing radiation must be losing or gaining energy. In its place, they introduced the notion or virtual radiation, which was propagated in ... waves but which does not transmit energy or momentum”. Subsequently, the entire scientific community dismissed Larmor radiation as a source of real energy because it failed to conform to Helmholtz’s universally accepted doctrine.

Helmholtz’s constraining idea that the vast amount of light and heat radiating from the many billions of stars in the universe can only come from previously stored energy, has led scientists to concur that fusion of pre-existing hydrogen to helium, supplies nearly all the energy that causes light and heat to radiate from the sun and other stars. If so, then the entire universe will become completely dark after the present hydrogen supply in stars is consumed in about 20 billion years. William A. Fowler (1965) believed that essentially all the hydrogen in the universe “emerged from the first few minutes of the early high-temperature, high-density stage of the expanding Universe, the so-called ‘big bang’ ...” Moreover, the background energy of the universe was thought by some to be “relic” radiation from the “Big Bang”.

To accept the Big Bang idea that all the stars in the universe originated at the same time, it was necessary to disregard the fact that most stars are much younger or much older than the supposed age of the one-time event, which indicates that their energy must have come from a recurring source. The Big Bang is entirely dependent on the idea that the whole universe is expanding, which stemmed from the interpretation that Hubble’s red-shift with distance from the light source, represents a Doppler shift of receding stars and galaxies. This expanding-universe interpretation was shattered by William G. Tifft (1976, 1977), who found that observed red-shifts are not spread randomly and smoothly over a range of values, as would be expected from the Doppler shifts of a vast number of receding stars and galaxies. Instead, the observed red-shifts all fall on evenly spaced, quantised values.

Moreover, Shpenkov and Kreidik (2002) determined that the radiation temperature corresponding to the fundamental period of the orbital electron motion in the hydrogen atom of $2.7289 \text{K}$ matches the measured temperature of cosmic background radiation of $2.725\text{K}$ plus or minus $0.002\text{K}$. This represents perpetual zero-level Larmor radiation from interstellar hydrogen atoms dispersed in the universe. So, Helmholtz’s idea that “the energy in the universe is a fixed amount immutable in quantity from eternity to eternity” does not stand up to known facts.

The large aggregate quantity of heat-photons which is generated continually by Larmor radiation can account for the illumination of stars and for the enormous heat and pressure in active galactic centres. Based on the fact that photons exhibit momentum, photons must posses mass, because, as Newton explained, momentum is mass times velocity, which in this case is “c”. Consequently, the creation of photons by induction or by Larmor radiation, also creates new mass. The conditions that Fowler was seeking for hydrogen nucleosynthesis, are apparently being supplied indefinitely in active galaxies and possibly in the sun and other stars above a certain size. This invention utilises a similar unlimited energy source.
Another principle that is important to this specification, is that the transfer of energy by electrical induction was found by the Applicant to work in the same manner as the transfer of energy by broadcast and reception of oscillating radio signals. A transverse force is communicated in both cases, the force declines similarly with distance, and the effects of shielding and reflection are identical. Since radio signals are communicated by photons, Applicant considers that inductive force is also communicated by photons. The radiation of newly formed inductive photons results when an accelerated charge experiences a change in direction of acceleration. Inductive radiation occurs when the acceleration of electric charges is reversed, as in Rontgen's bremsstrahlung, in Hertz's linear oscillator (plus all other radio-broadcasting antennas), and in coils which carry an alternating current.

In a similar case, when electric charges move in a curving motion due to a continually changing centripetal acceleration, inductive photons are radiated steadily. This includes the radiation from electrons orbiting atomic nuclei (Larmor radiation) and from conduction electrons flowing in a wire coil, whether the current is steady or not. Circularly produced inductive photons induce a circular motion (diamagnetism) in mobile electrons located near the axis of the electron's circular movement.

In both the reverse-acceleration and centripetal-acceleration cases, inductive photons convey a force to mobile electrons that is transverse to the photon's propagation path. As Lapp and Andrews (1954) reported, "Low-energy photons produce photoelectrons at right angles to their path ...". This same right-angle force without a direct back-force, applies as well, to all conduction electrons which are accelerated by low-energy photons. Hence, inductive energy qualifies for exemption from the energy-conservation law by Helmholtz's same ad infinitum principle which exempts magnetic energy.

The transverse force that inductively produced photons delivered to mobile electrons, is opposite in direction to the simultaneous movement of the primary charge which produces the radiation. This is shown by Faraday's induced current opposite to the inducing current and by the diamagnetically-induced circular motion which, in a rotational sense, is opposite to the circular electron motion in the coil producing it. An oscillating flow of electrons within a loop of a wire coil, induces a force on the conduction electrons which is in the opposite direction in adjacent loops of the same wire. This results in self-induction.

Important to this specification is the realisation that the energy transmitted by photons is kinetic rather than electromagnetic. Inductively radiated photons of low energy, light rays and X-rays cannot be deflected by an electric or magnetic field due to the photons' neutral charge. Neither do neutral photons carry an electric or magnetic field with them. Photon radiation is produced by a change in the acceleration of an electric charge, so only in special cases does it have an electrokinetic origin which involves a magnetic force. To honour these facts, Applicant uses the term "electrokinetic spectrum" in place of "electromagnetic spectrum".

Another principle which is important to this specification is the realisation that, although the charge on the electron has a constant value under all conditions, the mass of an electron is not a fixed, unchanging amount. All free electrons, as in cathode rays, have exactly the same amount of mass at sub-relativistic velocities. This is called "normal" mass and is denoted by $m_e$. Free electrons have a unique charge to mass ratio that makes the magnetic force resulting from a sub-relativistic velocity imparted to such an electron, exactly equal to the energy input with "normal" electrons.

Also, when a normal electron is given a sub-relativistic acceleration, the inductive force it produces is equal to the force it receives. The mass of highly conductive electrons of metals is apparently very close to normal, but any very slight inductive-energy gains would be masked by inefficiencies. The ubiquity of free electrons and the conduction electrons of metals has led to the view that electron mass is a never-varying figure that would allow the energy conservation law to apply to magnetic energy and inductive energy.

Accurate determinations of electron mass in solid materials have been made possible by cyclotron resonance, which is also called diamagnetic resonance. The diamagnetic force produced by the steady flow of electrons in a wire coil, induces the mobile electrons of a semiconductor to move in a circular orbit of indefinite radius but at a definite angular frequency. This frequency is only related to the inductive force and the mass of the electron. At the same time, a repulsive magnetic force is developed by the relative velocity between the electron flow in the coil and the conduction electrons, causing the mobile electrons of the semiconductor to move in a helical path away from the coil rather than in planar circles. Only two measurements are needed to determine the mass of such an electron: the cyclotron frequency which resonates with the frequency of the electron's circular motion, and the strength of the inductive force, which is determined by the current and dimensions of the coil. Since the co-produced magnetic field is related to the same parameters, its measurement serves as a surrogate for inductive force.

Because the measured mass of conduction electrons in semiconductors is less than normal, a complicated explanation has been adopted to defend the constancy of electron mass in order to support Helmholtz's energy doctrine. An extra force is supposedly received from the vibrational lattice-wave energy of the crystal (in what would have to be an act of self-refrigeration) to make normal-mass electrons move faster than expected around a circular path, thereby giving the appearance that the electron has less mass than normal. In this explanation, the electron is considered to be a smeared-out wave rather than a particle, which is contradicted by the billiard-ball-
like recoil of an electron when it is bumped by a quantum of radiation, as described by Arthur Crompton and Samuel Allison (1935).

The fallacy that borrowed energy can provide a boost in velocity to an electron, is more apparent in the case of linear motion. The effective-mass theory considers that the greater linear velocity is caused by a boost given to normal-mass electrons by a “longitudinal wave” imparted by an externally applied force in the same direction as the electron motion. Since this longitudinal wave is also considered to have a source in crystal-lattice vibrations, the effective-mass theory relies on a reversal of entropy in violation of the second Law of Thermodynamics.

No reasonable contribution of direct directional energy can be invoked from any source to impart abnormally great velocity to the conduction electrons in semiconductors. So, the operation of apparatus embodiments described herein, relies on electrons having particle properties and on electrons having less-than-normal inertial mass without invoking any special forces. This is supported by Brennan’s (1999) statement that “the complicated problem of an electron moving within a crystal under the interaction of a periodic but complicated potential, can be reduced to that of a simple free particle, but with a modified mass”. The term “effective” is herein considered redundant in referring to truly inertial mass, but “effective mass” still has relevance in referring to the net movement of orbital vacancies or “holes” in the opposite direction of low-mass electrons.

By \( F = ma \), a low-mass electron receives greater acceleration and greater velocity from a given force than an electron of normal mass. The velocity and kinetic energy imparted to an electrically charged body by a force, are determined by the electric charge without regard to the body’s mass. Having a smaller amount of mass, allows a body to attain a greater velocity with any given force. Hence, the magnetic force produced by the charge at this higher velocity will be greater than it would normally be for that same amount of force. This allows low-mass electrons to produce a magnetic force that is greater than the applied force.

Also, the amount of inductive radiation energy from accelerated electrons is related to an electron’s charge without regard to its mass. The energy of inductive radiation increases with the square of the electron’s acceleration according to Larmor’s (1900) equation, while the acceleration is inversely proportional to the lesser electron mass relative to normal electron mass. Therefore, the greater-than-normal acceleration of low-mass electrons, allows the re-radiation of magnified inductive-photon energy at a magnification factor which is proportional to the inverse square of the electron’s mass, e.g., the inductive-energy magnification factor of cadmium selenide photoelectrons with 0.13 of the normal electron mass is \((0.13)^2\) which is 59 times.

Electrons appear to acquire or shed mass from photons in order to fit the constraints of particular orbits around nuclei, because each orbit dictates a very specific electron mass. In metals, where the conduction electrons seem to move as would a gas, one might think that they would assume the normal mass of free electrons. But the largest mean free path of electrons in the most conductive metals is reportedly about 100 atomic spacings between collisions (Pops, 1997), so the conduction electrons apparently fall back into orbit from time to time and thereby regain their metal-specific mass values.

As conduction electrons pass from one metal type to another, they either lose or gain heat-photons to adjust their mass to different orbital constraints. In a circuit comprising two different metallic conductors placed in series contact with each other, the flow of conduction electrons in one direction will cause the emission of heat-photons at the junction, while an electron flow in the reverse direction causes cooling as the result of ambient heat-photons being absorbed by the conduction electrons at the junction (Peltier cooling effect). When a metal is joined with a semiconductor whose conductive electrons have much lower mass than in metals, much greater heating or cooling occurs at their junction.

John Bardeen (1941) reported that the (effective) mass of superconducting electrons in low-temperature superconductors is only \(10^{-4}\) as great as the mass of normal electrons. This is demonstrated when superconducting electrons are accelerated to a much higher circular velocity than normal in diamagnetically induced eddy currents, which results in enormous magnetic forces which are capable of levitating heavy magnetic objects. Electrons with \(10^{-4}\) times normal mass are apparently devoid, (or nearly devoid) of included photon mass, so normal electrons are deduced to possess about \(10^4\) times more included photon mass than the bare electron’s own mass.

The means by which photon mass may be incorporated within, or ejected from electrons, can be deduced from known information. Based on the Thompson scattering cross-section, the classical radius of a normal electron is \(2 \times 10^{-15}\) cm. If the electron has uniform charge throughout a sphere of that radius, the peripheral velocity would greatly exceed the velocity of light in order to provide the observed magnetic moment. Dehmelt (1989) determined that the radius of the spinning charge which creates an electron’s magnetism, is approximately \(10^{-20}\) cm. This apparent incongruity can be explained if the electron is considered to be a hollow shell (which is commensurate with the bare electron’s tiny mass in comparison to the very large radius) and if the negative charge of the shell is not the source of the magnetic moment.

It has long been known that a photon can be split into an negative ion (electron) and a positive ion (positron), each having the same amount of charge but of opposite sign. Electrons and positrons can recombine into electrically neutral photons, so it is apparent that photons are composed of a positive and a negative ion. Two
ions spinning around each other could produce the photon's wave nature. The only size of photon ion that can exist as a separate entity has a charge of exactly plus one or minus one, whereas the ions can have a very much larger or very much smaller charge and mass when combined in photons, as long as the two ions are equal in charge and mass. Combined in a photon, the two ions are apparently attracted together so strongly that their individual volumes are very much smaller than as separate entities.

When a dipole photon enters an electron shell, its negative-ion portion is expected to be forced towards the shell's centre by Coulombic repulsion, while the photon's positive ion would be attracted by the negative charge of the shell equally in all directions. The negative photon ions would likely merge into a single body at the electron's centre, while the positive-ion portion would orbit around the centralised negative ion to retain the photon's angular momentum. The high peripheral velocity of this orbiting photon mass would enable portions of photon material to spin off and exit the electron shell at the same velocity at which they entered the electron, i.e., the speed of light. The orbiting of the positive photon charge at Dehmelt's small radius, most likely accounts for the magnetic moment that is observed in electrons of normal mass.

Liberated low-mass conduction electrons within intrinsic semiconductors (which are also photoconductors by their nature) and within doped semiconductors, are mostly protected against acquiring mass from ambient-heat photons by the heat-insulative properties of the semiconductors. In contrast, low-mass electrons injected into heat-conducting metals, rapidly acquire mass from ambient-heat photons by the existence of cryogenic conditions, but they are vulnerable to internal heat-photons created by excessive induction.

Conduction electrons of metals, typically move as a group at drift velocities of less than one millimetre per second, although the velocity of the electrical effects approaches the velocity of light. (Photons are probably involved in the movement of electrical energy in metallic conductors.) In contrast, conductive low-mass electrons can move individually at great velocities in superconductors and semiconductors. Brennan (1999, p. 631) reports the drift velocity of a particular electron moving in a semiconductor, to be one micrometre in about 10 picoseconds, which is equivalent to 100 kilometers per second.

The concentration of the conduction electrons in metals is the same as the number of atoms, whereas in semiconductors, the mobile low-mass electrons which are free to move, can vary greatly with the amount of certain photon radiation received. Since the magnitude of an electric current is a summation of the number of electrons involved, times their respective drift velocities, the current developed by a small ensemble of photoconducting electrons moving at high speed, can exceed the current of a much greater number of conduction electrons moving at a very low speed in a metal.

A general feature of intrinsic semiconductors is that they become photoconductive in proportion to the amount of bombardment by some particular electron-liberating frequency (or band of frequencies) of photon energy, up to some limit. The amount of bombardment by the particular wavelength (or, equivalently, the frequency), increases along with all other photon wavelengths as the ambient temperature rises, that is, as the area under Planck’s black-body radiation curve increases. Consequently, the conductivity of semiconductors continues to increase with temperature, while the conductivity drops to almost zero at low temperature unless superconductivity occurs.

A single high-energy alpha particle can liberate a great number of low-mass electrons in a thin-film semiconductor, as Leimer’s (1915) energy-magnifying experiment appears to show. Leimer’s alpha radiation was situated near the distant end of a suspended antenna wire of unreported length, when he experienced the maximum magnetic energy increase in the coil of the ammeter in the receiver. The low-mass electrons had to have travelled the entire length of the suspended antenna and the connecting line to his receiving apparatus without encountering any trapping holes. Assuming these electrons traversed a distance of 1 to 10 metres in less than one half-cycle of the radio frequency, (that is, less than 4 microseconds at 128 kHz) at which time the direction of the low-mass electron would have been reversed, this would be equivalent to velocities of 25 to 250 km/sec.

A great number of superconducting electrons can be set in motion by inductive photon radiation. In contrast, inductive photon radiation can pass mostly through photoconductors that have low concentrations of mobile, low-mass electrons. Applicant’s interpretation of Leimer’s experiment is that the liberated low-mass electrons of the semiconductor coating of the antenna wire, were not directly accelerated by the inductive photons of the radio signal, but rather were accelerated to high velocities by an oscillating electric field created in the metallic wire by the radio photons.

A review of an experiment performed by File and Mills (1963), shows that the very low mass of superconducting electrons is responsible for causing supercurrents to differ from normal electric currents. A superconducting solenoidal coil (comprising a Nb-25% Zr alloy wire below 4.3⁰ K.) with the terminals spot-welded together to make a continuous conductor, was employed. Extremely slow declines of induced supercurrents were observed, which can be attributed to an enormous increase in the coil’s self-induction. Because a supercurrent approaches its maximum charge asymptotically when discharging, a convenient measure of the coil’s charging or discharging rate is the “time-constant”. The time-constant has the same value for both charging and discharging, and it is defined as (a) the time needed for charging the coil to 63% of the maximum amount of current inducible in the coil by a given diamagnetic force, or (b) the time needed to discharge 63% of the coil’s induced current.
In normal conductors, the inductive time-constant is calculated by the inductance of the coil, divided by the resistance of the coil. By use of an empirical equation, the inductance of the coil in its non-superconducting state is calculated to be 0.34 Henry, based on a double-layered solenoid of 384 turns that measured 4 inches (10 cm) diameter and 10 inches (25 cm) long. The resistance of the 0.020 inch (0.51 mm) diameter wire at a temperature of 5 K. (just above Tc) is estimated by using data for Zr alone, to be 4 x 10^2 ohms. (Resistivity data were not available for Nb or the subject alloy). Under non-superconducting conditions, the time-constant for charging and discharging this coil is thereby calculated to be approximately 8 x 10^-5 sec.

The time it took to charge up a supercurrent in the coil in the experiment was not reported. But, based on the reported 50 re-energising and magnetic determinations performed in 200 hours, the measured charging time in the superconducting state is computed to be no more than 4 hours on average.

Using Bardeen's (1941) formula of m is approximately equal to m_e times 10^-4 for the order of magnitude of the low Tc superconducting electron's mass, and using Larmor's equation (1900) which relates inductive radiation power to the square of the acceleration of the charge, the inductance of the coil is expected to increase by (10^4)^2 = 10^8 times in the superconducting state. Thus, the calculated increase in the time-constant of charging up the supercurrent is 8 x 10^-5 x 10^8 which equals 8 x 10^3 seconds, or 2.2 hours, which is the same order of magnitude as the maximum actual charging time. The self-induction increased by that amount because the low-mass electrons are accelerated 10^4 times faster.

In the case of discharging, the time constant of the supercurrent was projected by File and Mills from measured declines observed over periods of 21 and 37 days. The projections of the two 63% declines agreed closely at 4 x 10^12 seconds (= 1.3 x 10^5 years). Therefore, the time-constant of supercurrent discharge, based on projecting actual measurements, had increased by 5 x 10^16 times over the time-constant for electrons of normal mass.

The driving force during charging, had been the applied inductive force, whereas the driving force during discharging was the supercurrent that had been magnified 10^8 times. Therefore, during the discharging of the supercurrent, the time-constant is increased again by 10^8 times, so the calculated total increase in the time-constant of discharge is 10^3 x 10^8 = 10^16 times greater than the normal time-constant. This calculated value of the non-superconducting time-constant, based solely on the increase of inductive radiation due to extremely low electron mass, compares favourably in magnitude with the actually observed value of 5 x 10^16 times the normal time-constant.

The superconducting coil required no more than four hours to charge up the supercurrent, yet during subsequent discharge, the superconducting coil was projected to radiate inductive photon energy from the centripetal acceleration of the superconducting electrons for 130,000 years before declining by 63%. If this experiment could take place where no energy would needed to sustain critical cryogenic conditions, as in outer space, the lengthy discharge of this energised coil would clearly demonstrate the creation of energy in the form of newly-created photons inductively radiating from the superconducting low-mass electrons that circulate around the coil's loops. Applicant interprets this as showing that low-mass electrons are capable of inductive-energy-magnification based solely on their mass relative to that of normal electrons.

In the embodiments described below, the magnified inductive energy of low-mass electrons is utilised in coils for electric-energy generation by employing a flow of inductively accelerated photons that alternates in direction. This, in turn, drives low-mass electrons in an oscillating manner, so this forced reversal involves only a single stage of inductive-energy magnification, rather than the two stages (charging and naturally discharging) in the foregoing experiment.

**Mode of Operation**

Inductive photons radiating from an oscillating electric current in a sending conductor (e.g. from a radio-wave broadcasting antenna) convey a force, on conduction electrons in a receiving conductor, that is transverse to the incidence direction of the incident inductive photons on the receiving conductor. As a result, no back-force is transferred directly back to the sending conductor. Applicant has discovered that the action of this transverse force on low-mass electrons in a receiving conductor is analogous to the action of Gauss's transverse magnetic force on free electrons in a conductor, which is not subject to the kinetics law of conservation of energy. If the receiving conductor has low-mass conduction electrons, then this transverse force would impart greater acceleration to the low-mass electrons than that it would impart to normal free electrons. The resulting greater drift velocities of low-mass electrons than normal free electrons in the receiving conductor, would yield an increased magnitude of inductive force produced by the low-mass electrons in the receiving conductor and hence produce a magnification of the irradiation energy of inductive photons.

The direction of the transverse force imparted by the radiated inductive photons on conduction electrons in the receiving conductor is opposite to the direction of the corresponding electron flow in the sending conductor. This
relationship is similar to the inductive force on electrons in the secondary coil of a transformer, which also is opposite to the direction of flow of electrons in the primary coil.

Various embodiments of Applicant’s electrical generator employ inductive photons radiated from electrical oscillations in a “sending coil”. Inductive photons are radiated from the sending coil toward and inductive-photon receiving coil, termed an “energy-magnifying coil”, which comprises a photoconductive or superconductive material, or other suitable material as described below. The energy-magnifying coil is placed in a condition favourable for the production of low-mass electrons that participate in electrical conduction in the energy-magnifying coil. For example, if the energy-magnifying coil is made of photoconductive material, the coil is provided with a photoconduction exciter. Alternatively, if the energy-magnifying coil is made of a superconductive material, the coil is placed in an environment at a temperature (T) no greater than the critical temperature (Tc); i.e., T < Tc. In the former example, the photoconduction exciter can be a source of illumination which provides an appropriate wavelength of excitive electrokinetic radiation. If the energy-magnifying coil is comprised of a doped semiconductor, the condition that provides mobile low-mass electrons already exists.

In the energy-magnifying coil, the greater-than-normal acceleration of the low-mass electrons produces greater-than-normal inductive forces in the form of greater-than-normal radiation of inductive photons from the coil. The resulting increased inductive-photon energy from the photoconductor or superconductor is converted into useful electrical energy in an output coil inductively coupled to the energy-magnifying coil. The output coil can be made of insulated metallic wire. An exemplary output coil is situated coaxially with, and nested within, the energy-magnification coil. A coil of this type is termed herein, an “internal output coil”.

The ability of the subject apparatus to produce more energy output than energy input, is based on the output coil receiving more of the magnified energy from the energy-magnifying coil than is returned as a back-force from the output coil to the energy-magnifying coil. This principle is termed herein “energy leverage”.

The oscillations in the energy-magnifying coil are initiated by an external energy-input source that provides an initiating impulse of electron flow in the sending coil. For example, the external energy-input source can be an adjacent independent electromagnet or an adjacent permanent magnet moved rapidly relative to the sending coil. The initiating impulse starts an oscillation in the sending coil that stimulates radiation of inductive photons from the sending coil to the energy-magnifying coil. Energy from the external energy-input source is magnified by the apparatus so long as the energy-magnifying coil does not act as an independent oscillator at a different frequency. Independent oscillation is desirably avoided by connecting the ends or terminals of the energy-magnifying coil to each other in such a way that it results in one continuous coil, or a continuous multiple-coil system or systems, connected together in such a way that continuity exists for the conduction of low-mass electrons throughout the entire coil system. The energy-magnifying coil inductively creates more energy in the output coil than the energy of the initial impulse. The resulting magnified output of electrical energy produced by the apparatus is available for useful purposes in a work loop.

After initiation, the apparatus is made self-sustaining using a feed-back loop arranged in parallel with the work loop that includes the sending coil, and with a capacitor located in the feed-back loop to make it an L-C circuit, i.e., after start-up of the apparatus using the external energy-input source, the apparatus becomes self-resonating, which allows the external energy-input source to be decoupled from the apparatus without causing the apparatus to cease production of electrical energy.

During normal self-sustained operation, a portion of the output electrical energy is returned to the sending coil by the feed-back loop, thereby overcoming the need to use the external energy-input source for sustaining the oscillations in the sending coil. In other words, after startup, the external energy which was used by the sending coil to excite the photoconductive material or the superconductive material in the energy-magnifying coil is replaced by a portion of the output energy produced by the apparatus itself. The remainder of the output electrical energy is available in the work loop for useful purposes.

Initiating the generation of electrical energy by the apparatus, takes advantage of the fact that the inductive back-force sent from the output coil to the energy-magnifying coil (and hence ultimately, back to the sending coil), arrives at the sending coil one cycle behind the corresponding pulse that initiated the flow of electrons. This one-cycle lag of the back-force, as well as a corresponding one-cycle lag in the feed-back, enables small starting pulses produced in the sending coil to produce progressively greater electrical outputs each successive cycle. Consequently, assuming that the electrical load is not excessive during start-up, only a relatively few initiating cycles from the external energy-input source typically are needed for achieving production by the apparatus of an amount of output power sufficient to drive the load as well as providing sufficient energy feed-back to the sending coil in a sustained manner.

A half-cycle of the one-cycle lag occurs between an initial acceleration of electrons in the sending coil and a corresponding initial oscillation in the energy-magnifying coil. This half-cycle lag occurs because induction photons are not radiated from the initial acceleration of electrons in the sending coil, but rather are radiated when the electrons are reverse-accelerated. (Kramers, 1923, and Compton and Allison, 1935, p.106). As the newly formed photons are being radiated by the respective deceleration of electrons in the sending coil, even more new photons are simultaneously being formed by the new direction (i.e. reverse direction) of acceleration under
oscillating conditions. Thus, the radiation of photons from electrons alternatingly accelerated in the opposite direction from the conveyed force, continues each half-cycle after the initial half-cycle.

Applicant also discovered that a half-cycle lag also occurs between the initial flow of electrons in the primary coil of a certain type of transformer, which is simply comprised of coils nested coaxially rather than being inductively coupled by an iron core, and the resulting electron flow induced in the secondary coil. When applied to this apparatus, these finding indicate that a second half-cycle lag occurs between the acceleration of low-mass electrons in the energy-magnifying coil and the corresponding electron flow induced in the output coil. The feedback from the output coil boosts the electron flow in the sending coil one whole cycle after the initial pulse.

As discussed above, the energy-magnifying coil comprises either a photoconductor, a doped semiconductor or a superconductor as a source of, and as a conductor of, low-mass electrons. The general configuration of the coil is similar in either case. The coil including a photoconductor or doped semiconductor, has an operational advantage at normal temperatures, and the coil including a superconductor has an operational advantage at sub-critical temperatures (T < Tc), such as in outer space.

**Representative Embodiments**

Reference is now made to Fig.1A to Fig.1C and Fig.2A and Fig.2B which depict a sending coil 20 connected to a source of alternating current 21. The sending coil is shown having a desirable cylindrical profile, desirably with a circular cross-section as the most efficient configuration. In Fig.1A and Fig.1B, electrical oscillations from the source 21 are conducted to the sending coil 20 where they cause inductive photons 22 to radiate from the sending coil. The radiated photons 22 convey transverse forces in the same manner that a radio-broadcasting antenna transmits oscillating energy. The sending coil 20 can be a single layer or multiple layers of insulated metal wire (e.g. insulated copper wire). One layer is sufficient, but an additional layer or layers may increase operational efficiency. If necessary, or desired, the turns of wire can be formed on a cylindrical substrate made of a suitable dielectric.

The inductive photons 22 radiating from the sending coil 20, propagate to an energy-magnifying coil 24 that desirably has a cylindrical profile extending parallel to the sending coil. In the embodiment shown in Fig.1A and Fig.1B, the energy-magnifying coil 24 does not terminate at the ends, but rather, it is constructed with a connector 30 to form a continuous conductor. The energy-magnifying coil 24 desirably is a helical coil made of a material comprising a photoconductive or superconductive material, or other suitable material. If necessary or desired, the energy-magnifying coil can be formed on a substrate which, if used, desirably is transmissive to the inductive-photon radiation produced by the coil.
In an energy-magnifying coil 24 made of a superconducting material, a large population of conductive low-mass electrons is produced in the coil by lowering the temperature of the coil to a point below the critical temperature for that material. By way of an example, sub-critical temperatures are readily available in outer space or are produced under cryogenic conditions.

In an energy-magnifying coil 24 made of a photoconductor material, a large population of conductive low-mass electrons is produced in the coil by illuminating the coil with photons of an appropriate wavelength, such as photons produced by a photoconduction exciter 26. The photoconductor exciter 26 desirably is situated and configured so as to illuminate substantially at least the same side of the energy-magnifying coil 24 that receives inductive photons 22 radiating directly from the sending coil 20. Alternatively, the photoconduction exciter 26 can be situated and configured so as to illuminate all sides of the energy-magnifying coil 24. In the depicted embodiment, the photoconduction exciter 26 can be at least one incandescent lamp (as shown) energised by conventional circuitry (not shown). Alternatively, the photoconduction exciter 26 can be at least one gas-discharge lamp or one or more Light Emitting Diodes. The wavelength produced by the photoconduction exciter 26 can be, for example, in the infrared (IR), visible, ultraviolet (UV), or X-ray range as required by the particular photoconductor material in the energy-magnifying coil 24. Another possible form of the photoconduction exciter 26 is a source of photons in the gigahertz or the terahertz portion of the electrokinetic spectrum. Other photoconduction exciters are configured, as required, to produce a suitable wavelength from the radio-wave portion of the electrokinetic spectrum. The illumination can be either direct from the photoconduction exciter 26 to the energy-magnifying coil 24 or conveyed from a remotely located photoconduction exciter to the energy-magnifying coil via optical fibres, light pipes, or the like.

Fig.1B and Fig.1C are respective orthogonal end views of the sending coil 20 and energy-magnifying coil 24 shown in Fig.1A. The radiation of inductive photons 22 from the sending coil 20, is indicated schematically in Fig.1A, Fig.1B and Fig.1C by small, jagged arrows. The forces delivered by the photons 22 to the conductive low-mass electrons in the energy-magnifying coil 24, alternate in directions which are opposite to the respective directions of simultaneous electron flow in the sending coil 20. Whenever the particular oscillation phase of electron flow in the sending coil 20 is in the direction of the curved arrow 25a adjacent to the sending coil 20 in Fig.1B, the resulting transverse photon force causes a flow of low-mass electrons in the energy-magnifying coil 24, depicted by the curved arrow 27a adjacent to the energy-magnifying coil 24.

The shaded sector 29, shown in Fig.1B, denotes the proportion of inductive-photon radiation 22 from the sending coil 20, actually received by the single energy-magnifying coil 24 shown, compared to the entire 360-degree radiation of inductive photons 22 from the sending coil 20. Aside from a small amount of inductive-photon radiation lost from the ends of the sending coil 20, the relative amount of the total energy of inductive-photon radiation received by the energy-magnifying coil 24 is determined by the angle subtended by the energy-magnifying coil 24, relative to the entire 360 degrees of inductive-photon radiation from the sending coil 20.

In Fig.1C, the low-mass conduction electrons of the energy-magnifying coil 24 are accelerated to a higher drift velocity than normal free electrons in the energy-magnifying coil 24 would be. As noted above, the sending coil 20 is energised by alternating electron flow, which causes a periodic reversal of direction of electron flow in the sending coil 20 (compare the direction of the arrow 25b in Fig.1C with the direction of the arrow 25a in Fig.1B). Each reversal of direction of electron flow in the sending coil 20, causes a corresponding reversal in the direction of acceleration of the low-mass electrons in the energy-magnifying coil 24 (compare the direction of the arrow 27b in Fig.1C with the direction of arrow 27a in Fig.1B). Each such reversal in direction of acceleration causes a corresponding radiation of inductive photons (jagged arrows 18a, 18b) radially outwards and radially inwards, respectively, from the energy-magnifying coil 24. Note that the arrows 18a and 18b are larger than the arrows denoting the inductive photons (arrows 22) from the sending coil 20. This symbolically denotes energy magnification. Note also that, of the magnified inductive-photon energy radiating from the energy-magnifying coil 24, substantially half is directed inwards (arrows 18b), and substantially the other half is radiated outwards (arrows 18a).
Turning now to Fig.2A, the sending coil 20, and the energy-magnifying coil 24, are shown. The energy-magnifying coil 24 in Fig.2A includes an internal output coil 28a, that desirably is situated co-axially inside and is of the same length as the energy-magnifying coil 24. A work loop 48 can be connected to the ends of the internal output coil 28a, thereby forming an electrical circuit in which a load 49 is indicated symbolically as a resistor. The internal output coil 28a and the conductors of the work loop 48, desirably are made of insulated metallic (e.g. copper) wire.

Fig.2B depicts a transverse section of the coils shown in Fig.2A. In Fig.2B, the magnified inductive-photon energy (shaded area 19) produced by the energy-magnifying coil 24 and directed radially inwards towards the internal output coil 28a, induces a corresponding oscillating electron flow in the internal output coil 28a. Thus, the work loop 48 connected across the internal output coil 28a, is provided with greater energy than was received by the energy-magnifying coil 24 from the sending coil 20. The direction of the electron flow (arrow 17) in the internal output coil 28a, is opposite to the direction of flow (arrow 27b) in the energy-magnifying coil 24, which in turn is opposite to the direction of electron flow 25b in the sending coil 20.

In Fig.2B, the annular-shaped shaded area 19 between the energy-magnifying coil 24 and the internal output coil 28a, indicates that substantially all of the internally-directed magnified inductive-photon energy (i.e. approximately half of the total radiation energy) from the energy-magnifying coil 24, is directed to, and captured by, the internal output coil 28a. In contrast, the shaded sector 16 extending from the energy-magnifying coil 24 to the sending coil 20, indicates that a relatively small proportion of the outwardly directed magnified radiation 18a from the energy-magnifying coil 24 is directed to the sending coil 20 where the radiation provides a corresponding back-force. Aside from the small amount of inductive-photon radiation lost from the ends of the energy-magnifying coil 24, the relative amount of the magnified inductive-photon radiation (sector 16) providing the back-force on the sending coil 20, is a function of the angle subtended by the sector 16, compared to the 360-degree radiation from the energy-magnifying coil 24.

The ratio of magnified energy 18b from the energy-magnifying coil 24 and received by the internal output coil 28a, to the magnified energy 18a received as a back-force by the sending coil 20, denotes the energy “leverage” achieved by the subject apparatus. If this ratio is greater than unity, then the energy output from the internal output coil 28a exceeds the energy input to the energy-magnifying coil 24. This energy leverage is key to the self-sustained operation of the apparatus, especially whenever the apparatus is being used to drive a load. In other words, with a sufficiently large energy-magnification factor achieved by the energy-magnifying coil 24, the electrical energy available in the work loop 48, exceeds the input energy that produces the oscillations in the sending coil 20. The electric power input to the sending coil 20 thereby produces magnified electric power in the internal output coil 28a that can perform useful work in the work loop 48 while self-powering the continued operation of the apparatus.
Reference is now made to Fig. 3, which schematically depicts aspects of the apparatus 15, responsible for self-generation of electric power by employing a feed-back loop 46. The conductors of the feed-back loop 46 can be made of insulated metallic wire. (In Fig. 3, the dotted lines 47a and dotted arrow 47b, indicate that the internal output coil 28a is actually positioned co-axially inside the energy-magnifying coil 24, as described above, but is depicted in the figure as being outside the energy-magnifying coil for ease of illustration). The feed-back loop 46, conducts a portion of the electric power from the internal output coil 28a, back to the sending coil 20. The remaining portion of the electric power from the internal output coil 28a is directed to the work loop 48 where the power is utilised for useful work 51. The relative proportions of output power delivered to the feed-back loop 46 and to the work loop 48, can be varied by adjusting a variable resistor 50.

As noted above, an initial source of electrical energy is used for “starting” the apparatus 15 by initiating an oscillation in the sending coil 20. After starting, under usual operating conditions, the apparatus 15 is self-resonant and no longer requires the input of energy from the initial source. The particular inductance and distributed capacitance of the sending coil 20, plus all other capacitances and inductances in the apparatus, provide a certain corresponding frequency of self-resonating oscillation. In the feed-back loop 46 is a capacitor 77 that makes the apparatus an L-C circuit which oscillates at its own frequency. The frequency can be changed by altering the capacitance or inductance of the apparatus, or both. The capacitor 77 can be a variable capacitor by which the frequency can be adjusted.

As shown in Fig. 3, the initial source of oscillating electrical energy can be an impulse from an external electromagnet 52 powered by its own energy source (e.g. a battery 53 as shown, or other DC or AC source). For example, the electromagnet 52 can be placed near the sending coil 20 or other portion of the feed-back loop 46, and energised by a momentary discharge delivered from the battery 53 via a switch 57. The resulting pulse generated in the electromagnet 52, initiates a corresponding electrical pulse in the sending coil 20 that initiates self-sustaining oscillations in the apparatus 15. In another embodiment, the electromagnet 52 can be energised briefly by an AC source (not shown). In yet another embodiment, the initial source can be a permanent magnet which is moved rapidly (either mechanically or manually) near the sending coil 20 or other portion of the feed-back circuitry. In any event, the pulse provided by the initial source initiates electrical oscillations in the sending coil 20 that produce corresponding oscillating inductive-photon radiation 22 from the sending coil 20, as shown schematically in Fig. 3 by thin jagged arrows. The inductive-photon radiation 22 from the sending coil 20 causes, in turn, re-radiation of magnified inductive-photon energy 18b from low-mass electrons in the energy-magnifying coil 24, as shown schematically in Fig. 3 by thick jagged arrows. Fig. 3 depicts a photoconductive energy-magnifying coil 24 which is illuminated by an incandescent photoconduction exciter 26 energised by its own power source 55 (e.g., an externally connected battery as shown).

A sufficiently high energy-magnification factor of the apparatus 15 allows the magnified energy from the energy-magnifying coil 24 to induce greater energy in the internal output coil 28a than the energy of the corresponding initial pulse. A portion of the magnified electrical energy is returned to the sending coil 20 via the feed-back loop 46 to sustain the oscillations.
The remaining surplus energy from the internal output coil 28a is available for application to useful work via the work loop 48. In one embodiment, some of this useful work can be used for illuminating the photoconduction exciter 26 (circuitry not shown) in an apparatus configuration in which the energy-magnifying coil 24 comprises a photoconductor. In another embodiment, some of this useful work can be used for maintaining cryogenic (T < Tc) conditions for an apparatus configuration in which the energy-magnifying coil 24 comprises a semiconductor.

After starting oscillations in the apparatus 15, electron flow builds up rapidly, so long as the load 49 does not draw off too much of the output energy during start-up. Upon reaching operating equilibrium, the output of electrical power from the apparatus 15 is a rapidly alternating current (AC). The AC output can be rectified by conventional means to produce direct current (DC), and the output can be regulated as required, using conventional means. Many variations of conventional circuitry are possible, such as, but not limited to, automatic voltage controllers, current controllers, solenoidal switches, transformers, and rectifiers,

Regarding the energy-magnifying coil 24, an exemplary embodiment can be made from a low - Tc superconductor such as commercially available, flexible, niobium-zirconium wire which can be readily formed into a coil.. Other embodiments, as noted above, of the energy-magnifying coil 24 can be made using a photoconductive material or a high - Tc superconductor. Most high - Tc superconductors (and some photoconductors) have ceramic-like properties and thus require the application of special methods for forming the material into a cylindrical coil having electrical continuity throughout. Some commercially available high - Tc superconductors are available in ribbon or tape form. The energy-magnifying coil 24 can be free-standing or supported on a rigid substrate.

By way of example, an energy-magnifying coil 24 can be made from a ribbon of flexible photoconductive material such as the material discussed in patent US 6,310,281, incorporated herein for reference. Briefly, a layer of stress-compliant metal is placed on a plastic ribbon. Then the photoconductive material is deposited on both sides of the metal-covered ribbon and the edges of the ribbon so that the ribbon is coated all the way around. Such a configuration allows low-mass electrons in the photoconductive material, to receive energy from inductive-photons emitted from the sending coil 20 on one side of the ribbon while re-radiating magnified energy from both sides of the ribbon.

In another example, a flexible photoconductor ribbon is made from flexible organic polymer having photoconductive properties. (High electrical conductivity observed in photoconductive polymers is attributed to the presence of low-mass electrons in the material). The flexible photoconductive ribbon can be wound on a dielectric tubular support, to form the energy-magnifying coil 24.

In yet another example, a thick-film coating of photoconductive cadmium sulphide (CdS) or cadmium selenide (CdSe) is formed on a wire coil by sintering as paste, which comprises a powder of finely ground CdS or CdSe crystals mixed with water and at least a fluidiser such as cadmium chloride, at a temperature of 550-600°C. in a controlled atmosphere. During sintering, the boundaries of the small crystals become melted with the heated fluidiser, allowing the crystals to regrow together and solidify when the fluidiser evaporates and the sintered coating is cooled. Alternatively, copper oxides are formed in place on bare copper or bronze wire by heating the wire above about 260°C. in an oxygen atmosphere, or by application of chemical oxidants.

In yet another example, a coil of ceramic-like superconductor or photoconductor is made by tape-casting, extruding, slip-casting, cold or hot-pressing, or coating of the material as a thin film arranged helically on a tubular dielectric substrate. The assembly is heat-treated in a controlled atmosphere furnace to increase inter-crystalline contacts. Alternatively, the thin film of superconductor or photoconductor is formed over the entire exterior of the dielectric substrate, followed by removal of selected portions of the superconductor or photoconductor to form the desired helical coil.

[121]In some photoconductors and doped semiconductors, only a small portion of a population of inductive photons irradiated on the material, impact with, and yield acceleration of, low-mass electrons in the material. This is due to a low density of photoconductive low-mass electrons in the material. In such as case, inductive-photon radiation passing through the material can be captured efficiently by normal free conduction electrons in a metallic strip that desirably is in immediate contact with, or embedded in, the material. The acceleration of normal free electrons in the metallic conductor, sets up an electric field that assists in accelerating the low-mass photoelectrons. In this configuration, it is desirable that the photoconductive material be disposed completely over and around the metallic strip so that the photoconductor faces both outwards and inwards, with both sides of the photoconductor or doped semiconductor being in electrical contact with each other.

One factor in the choice of photoconductor material to use in forming the energy-magnifying coil 24 is the potential magnification of energy that can be realised by low-mass electrons of an n-type or p-type photoconductive material. Other important factors are the quantity of low-mass electrons that are available in the photoconductive material for a given amount of illumination and the actual electrical conductance of the material. Standard illumination-sensitivity measurements provide a general overall index of the ability of a photoconductor to serve effectively in magnifying energy.
Cadmium sulphide and cadmium selenide, the most common photoconductive compounds which are available commercially, have calculated magnification factors of 37 and 59, respectively. The peak response wavelength of cadmium sulphide is 515 nanometers (in the green part of the visible spectrum) and of cadmium selenide is 730 nanometers (in the near-infrared part of the spectrum). Cadmium sulphide can be mixed with caesium selenide under certain conditions, so the resulting mixture assumes photoconductive characteristics between those two values. Mixtures can be produced having peak wavelengths which are matched to the wavelengths of commercially available LEDs of many sizes and illumination intensities. Some semiconductors which become photoconductive at a wavelength smaller than the wavelength produced by currently available LEDs can be made conductive of low-mass electrons merely by heating.

Applicant has found that gallium arsenide develops considerably higher conductivity than copper or silver at a temperature of 100\(^\circ\)C and that the conductive electrons are low-mass. Also, alpha radiation is capable of liberating many low-mass electrons in some semiconductors. A second electron of comparatively low mass may have been liberated from cupric oxide by alpha radiation along with the outer copper electron in Leimer’s (1915) experiments, since the measured energy magnification exceeded the magnification calculated from cyclotron resonance of CuO, which most likely pertains only to the mass of the outer electron.

Dopants can be added to a semiconductor to make it more conductive of low-mass electrons without illumination. Also, the illumination-sensitivity and conductivity of cadmium sulphide are increased by adding small amounts of donor-type dopants such as, but not limited to, sulphides, selenides, tellurides, arsenides, antimonides and phosphides of the Type-IIIa elements: aluminium, gallium, indium and thallium. In this regard, the photoconductors of high-sensitivity photovoltaic cells may comprise as many as five different compounds. The actual mixtures of photoconductive compounds and dopants used in commercially available photovoltaic cells often are trade secrets. But, the sensitivity and conductances of the cells are usually given or are measurable, and these data can be used advantageously in selecting a particular photoconductive compound for use in the apparatus.

Other photoconductive compounds or elements can be employed in energy-magnifying coils. For example, the conduction electrons of silicon have an energy-magnification factor of 15 times. Photoconductors having very high magnification factors include, but are not limited to, gallium arsenide, indium phosphide, gallium antimonide, cadmium-tin arsenide, and cadmium arsenide, which have calculated energy-magnification factors ranging between 200 times and 500 times, and mercury selenide (1100 times), indium arsenide (2000 times), mercury telluride (3400 times) and indium antimonide (5100 times).

The depth of optical transmission largely determines the optimum thickness of photoconductive films for energy-magnifying coils. For example, the highest optical transmission of sintered CdS is reported to be 20 micrometers, but since the average grain size increases (and the average porosity decreases) with an increase in film thickness, the maximum conductivity of a sintered film is at a thickness of 35 micrometers (J. S, Lee et al., 1987).

The metal chosen to be embedded must not react chemically with the photoconductor. For example, aluminium reacts with gallium arsenide (GaAs) in an electrical environment, to change the conductive character of both the GaAs and the aluminium. Gold, platinum, and palladium can serve in many cases because these materials are relatively inert chemically. Gold combines chemically with tellurium, however, so gold is not suitable for embedding in mercury telluride. Cadmium plating over a common metal serves to alleviate the reactivity in cases where cadmium sulphide or cadmium selenide is used as the photoconductor.
sensing coil 20. This proportion of captured inductive photons can be increased greatly in an embodiment in which multiple energy-magnifying coils 24 substantially completely surround the sending coil 20, such as shown in Fig.4. In this embodiment, the energy-magnifying coils 24 substantially completely surround the sending coil 20, and (although six energy-magnifying coils 24 are shown) as few as three energy-magnifying coils 24 of adequate diameter, still could substantially completely surround the sending coil 20. There is no limit, except as possibly related to packaging concerns, to the maximum number of energy-magnifying coils 24 which could be used. The depicted configuration of Fig.4, has a desirable number of six energy-magnifying coils 24. In Fig.4, the shaded sectors 31, considered collectively, illustrate that nearly all 360 degrees of inductive-photon radiation 22 from the sending coil 20, are received by the energy-magnifying coils 24. Not shown in Fig.4 are photoconduction exciters (items 26 in Fig.3) used for illuminating respective portions of the energy-magnifying coils 24 in a photoconductive form of the apparatus 15.

**Fig. 5**

Fig.4 also depicts respective internal output coils 28a nested co-axially and co-extensively inside each of the energy-magnifying coils 24. As discussed earlier, each internal output coil 28a receives nearly all the inductive-photon radiation propagating radially inwards from the respective energy-magnifying coil 24. Desirably, the overall energy output of the embodiment of Fig.4, can be increased by surrounding the array of energy-magnifying coils 24 with an external output coil 28b, of which the conductors desirably are made of insulated metallic wire (Fig.5). In this embodiment, approximately half of the outwardly propagating magnified inductive-photon radiation (large arrows 18) from each energy-magnifying coil 24 (one such coil is highlighted in Fig.5) is received by the external output coil 28b. This captured radiation is denoted by the shaded sector 35. When this externally directed inductive radiation captured from all the energy-magnifying coils 24 is added to all the inwardly directed radiation captured from the energy-magnifying coils 24 by their internal output coils 28a, 28b, greatly exceeds the back-force energy directed by the energy-magnifying coils 24 towards the sending coil 20 (the back-force energy from one energy-magnifying coil 24 is shown as the shaded sector 16). Thus, the resulting energy “leverage” exhibited by the apparatus is increased substantially by including the external output coil 28b.

The embodiment of Fig.5 also includes respective arrays (viewed endwise) of light-emitting diodes (LEDs) collectively serving as photoconductor exciters 26 for the energy-magnifying coils 24. The LED arrays are arranged back-to-back and disposed between adjacent energy-magnifying coils 24. Each array in Fig.5 can comprise multiple LEDs or as few as one LED.
Fig. 6 provides a perspective view of an apparatus having an arrangement of coils similar to the arrangement shown in Fig. 5. In Fig. 6, each energy-magnifying coil comprises a helical coil of superconductive or photoconductive material in wire or ribbon (tape-like) form.

Whenever multiple energy-magnifying coils are used, the respective directions of electron flow in them desirably occur in the same circular direction as viewed endwise. Thus, the flow of electrons in all the energy-magnifying coils is clockwise during one phase of an oscillation cycle and counterclockwise during the other phase. The same principle applies to the flow of electrons in the output coils (But, in such an embodiment, the flow of electrons in the output coils is in the opposite direction to the electron flow in the energy-magnifying coils). These relationships of electron flow in the coils during a particular phase of an oscillation cycle, are shown in Fig. 7.

The energy-magnifying coils desirably are connected together in series, using inter-coil connectors to maintain the same direction of electron flow, which can be clockwise or counterclockwise (as viewed from one end of such a coil). This direction of electron flow in a coil is termed the “handedness” of the coil. If the energy-magnifying coils all have the same handedness, then the ends of adjacent energy-magnifying coils are connected together in a head-to-foot manner progressively in one direction around the group of coils (not shown). (“Head” refers to the forward-facing end, and “foot” refers to the rearward-facing end of the apparatus in relation to the viewer). In this case, the inter-coil connectors must pass either completely through the apparatus or around the outside of the apparatus for its entire length, which reduces efficiency and can cause undesirable wear if the connectors are subjected to vibrations. A more desirable arrangement is depicted in Fig. 6, in which short inter-coil connectors cross directly from one internal output coil to the adjacent internal output coil, head-to-head and the inter-coil connectors cross over directly foot-to-foot from one internal output coil to the adjacent internal output coil. This same handedness convention generally applies to all series-connected internal output coils connected in this manner. The head-to-head inter-coil connectors and foot-to-foot inter-coil connectors for the internal output coils, need not coincide with the same respective connectors for the energy-magnifying coils.

In another embodiment (not shown), each internal output coil is two-layered, with both leads at either the head or foot. Such a configuration allows for short and direct connections between adjacent internal output coils. Multiple-layered internal output coils may be more efficient, but the extra layers of coiled wire increase the mass of the apparatus, which may be a concern in mobile applications. Multiple wire layers carrying high current may also result in overheating, which may require that some space be left between each internal output coil and its surrounding energy-magnifying coil to accommodate one or more conduits of a coolant through the

A - 118
apparatus (at a sacrifice of some efficiency). The coolant can be, for example, forced air (in the case of photoconductors or doped semiconductors) or liquefied cryogenic gas (in the case of superconductors).

**Fig.6** also shows two external conductors 34 connected to respective internal output coils 28a. Electrons flow through the conductors 34 and the internal output coils 28a in series. In addition, two external conductors 36 are connected to respective ends of the external output coil 28b, and two external conductors 38 are connected to respective ends of the sending coil 20.

**Fig.7** is a schematic end view of the apparatus of **Fig.6**, showing the relative direction of electron flow in the various coils and in the inter-coil connections described for single-layer coils. At a particular oscillation phase, the clockwise electron flow denoted by the arrow 39a in the sending coil 20 induces clockwise electron flow 39b in all the energy-magnifying coils 24. The magnified radiation from the clockwise electron flow in the energy-magnifying coils 24, induces counterclockwise electron flow in all the internal output coils 28a, as indicated by the arrows 39c. The counterclockwise electron flow, denoted by the arrow 39d, in the external output coil 28b is opposite in direction to the electron flow in the energy-magnifying coils 24.

The electron flow in the inter-coil connectors 30a extending between adjacent energy-magnifying coils 24 is indicated by the arrows 39e, and the electron flow in the inter-coil connectors 32a extending between adjacent internal output coils 28a is indicated by the arrows 39f. During the next oscillation phase, all the direction arrows shown in **Fig.7** reverse themselves.

Connecting the internal output coils 28a together in series is advantages if it is desired to maximise the output voltage from the apparatus 15. Alternatively, the internal output coils 28a can be connected together in parallel if it is desired to maximise the output electrical current from the apparatus 15 while minimising the output voltage. In this alternative configuration, all the internal output coils 28a desirably are wound with the same handedness, with each coil 28a having two respective leads. The leads at one end (e.g., the foot end) of the coils 28a are connected to each other, and the leads at the other end (the head end) of the coils 28a are connected to each other. The resulting parallel-coil system is connected in a conventional manner in other circuitry of the apparatus (not shown).

Further alternatively, the internal output coils 28a can be connected together so as to provide more than one output circuit (so long as sufficient energy is produced for use as feedback to the sending coil 20 and for use in establishing favourable conditions for producing abundant low-mass electrons). Alternatively, the relative voltage(s) and current(s) of output power can be varied by changing the ratio of the number of turns in the energy-magnifying coils 24 to the number of turns in the internal output coils 28a. Alternatively again, the energy-magnifying coils 24 can be employed in a separate manner to provide more than one energy-magnifying unit. Each unit can comprise one or more energy-magnifying coils that can serve its respective circuit of internal output coils.

The two conductors 36 connected to the external output coil 28b, can be connected to the internal output coils 28a or can be used (without being connected to the internal output coils 28a) with only the external output coil 28b to provide an independent output circuit (not shown). The two conductors 38 connected to the sending coil 20,
are connected in the feedback loop 46 such that electron flow in the sending coil 20 is in the same circular direction as in the internal output coils 28a.

Fig. 8 depicts yet another embodiment of the apparatus 15, in which each energy magnifying coil 24 comprises a thin film or thick film of a polycrystalline or other suitable photoconductor deposited in a helical manner directly on to a tubular substrate 40 desirably made of ceramic or other suitable dielectric material. On each energy magnifying coil 24, the polycrystalline photoconductor is formed as a helical band on the outside of the tubular substrate 40. The helical band of photoconductor can include a thin film of metal embedded within it. In certain cases, inter-coil connections between adjacent energy magnifying coils 24 can be made by extending the deposited photoconductor from the helices to contact areas 44 situated at the ends of the tubular substrates 40 and extending toward contact areas 44 on adjacent tubular substrates 40. Electrical contact between adjacent energy magnifying coils 24 is made under moderate pressure via the contact areas 44, which are shown in Fig.8. To distinguish the individual contact areas 44, they are shown in a separated position before being pressed together to make contact. To maintain the integrity of the contact areas 44, the energy magnifying coils 24 can be held together in mutual proximity by any of various non-metallic fasteners to make continuous electrical contact between all of the photoconductive portions. For example, bolts 43 and nuts 45 made of a plastic such as nylon, or other dielectric material, can be used. Another variation is to maintain contact pressure of one coil to the next by means of spring clips. Thus, in one embodiment, the energy magnifying coils 24 are connected so as to be in endless contact with each other, with no capacitative break between them. The remainder of the apparatus can be constructed in the same manner as the photoconductor or doped-semiconductor embodiment described above, wherein the same attention to the direction of electron flow in respective coils is observed.
The coil configuration of yet another embodiment is shown in Fig. 9A and Fig. 9B. A tubular substrate 40 supports a helical, thin film or thick film, dipole-type of energy-magnifying coil 24 that is nested inside and coaxial with a single external output coil 28b. Nested inside the tubular substrate 40, and with respective axes parallel to the axis of the tubular substrate 40, are a sending coil 20 and an internal output coil 28a. The sending coil 20 and the internal output coil 28a, are positioned on opposite sides of a reflective metallic separator 59. The separator 59 is substantially parabolic in cross-section throughout its axial extent, and is positioned so that the longitudinal edges are touching, or nearly touching, the tubular substrate 40. The separator 59 can be composed of common, non-magnetic metal such as aluminium or magnesium. The sending coil 20 is positioned on the concave side of the separator 59, with the axis of the sending coil 20 being positioned at the geometric focus 60 of the parabola and disposed parallel to the axis of the energy-magnifying coil 24. The energy-magnifying coil 24 in this embodiment, comprises a thin film or thick film photoconductor formed helically on the tubular substrate 40. A photoconduction exciter 26 is positioned inside the separator 59. (The tubular substrate 40, is made of a rigid material that is transparent to radiation produced by the photoconduction exciter 26). All the other forms of the energy-magnifying coil 24 as described herein, including the superconducting form, can be employed in this embodiment.

The separator 59, serves a double purpose. One purpose is to direct towards the energy-magnifying coil 24 the portion of the inductive-photon radiation 22 which is not otherwise directed towards the separator, as shown by the reflected-photon rays 61 in Fig. 6A. (Reflection of these radiated photons does not change the directionality of the transverse force which these photons convey). Another purpose of the separator 59 is to serve as a shield to restrict the amount of inward radiation 18b from the energy-magnifying coil 24 which is returned as a back-force to the sending coil 20. The restricted back-force radiation is shown by the shaded area 63 in Fig. 9B.
The portion of the inwardly directed, magnified inductive-photon radiation $18b$ which is received by the internal output coil $28a$, is denoted by the shaded area $65$. The proportional amount of outwardly directed magnified radiation $18a$ from the energy-magnifying coil $24$ which is received by the external output coil $28b$, is shown by the shaded area $67$. The sum of the magnified radiation in the area $65$ which reaches the external output coil $28b$, substantially exceeds the magnified radiation in the area $63$ (the latter serving as a back-force on the sending coil $20$). This excess of utilised energy over the back-force energy, provides energy leverage. This embodiment also includes a starting mechanism, and initial power source for the photoconduction exciter, a work loop, and a feedback loop (not shown) as provided in the other embodiments described herein.

Certain features can be incorporated with any of the embodiments described herein, to add functional practicality. For example, referring to the schematic representation of a coil configuration shown in end view in Fig. 10A, a ferromagnetic core $69$ can be placed inside the sending coil $20$, and ferromagnetic cores $71$ can be placed inside respective internal output coils $28a$. These cores increase the inductance of the apparatus, which lowers the frequency of the electrical oscillations produced by the apparatus. Although increases in inductance can cause
the output voltage and current to be out of phase, the phase difference can be corrected by adding capacitance to the circuitry by conventional means. Also shown, is an external metal shield which completely surrounds the apparatus to block any radiation from the device that could interfere with radios, televisions, telephones, computers and other electronic devices. The shield can be comprised of any of various non-magnetic metals such as aluminium or magnesium.

An alternative means of increasing the inductance of the apparatus is shown in Fig.10B, which is a variation of the end view of just the sending coil 20 that is depicted in Fig.10A. In Fig.10B, a ferromagnetic sleeve 73 is placed coaxially around the sending coil 20.

The respective dimensional ratios of various components generally remain similar with respect to each other for different apparatus sizes, except for the longitudinal dimension, which generally can be as short or as long as desired, up to some practical limit. The respective gauges of wires used in the sending coil 20 and the output coils 28a and 28b, are commensurate with the electric current carried by these wires, and the respective thickness of insulation (if used) on the wires is commensurate with the voltage.

The outside diameter of the internal output coils 28a desirably is only slightly less than the inside diameter of the respective energy-magnifying coils 24, as shown in Fig.6, Fig.7 and Fig.8, thereby ensuring close proximity of each internal output coil 28a with its respective energy-magnifying coil 24. At a sacrifice in efficiency, the outside diameter of the internal output coils 28a can be made smaller, to allow space for heat from the current-carrying wires to escape or be removed by a coolant such as forced air in the case of a semiconductor type apparatus, or by a cryogenic liquid gas in the case of a superconductor type apparatus.

Also, desirably, the external output coil 28b is connected in series with the internal output coils 28a to maximise the output voltage from the apparatus 15 and to minimise heat produced by electric currents in the apparatus. The output voltage can be stepped down and the output electric current stepped up to normal operating ranges by using a transformer, wherein the primary of the transformer would comprise the load in the work loop 48.

As discussed above, each energy-magnifying coil 24 can comprise a photoconductor or doped semiconductor formed as a helical pattern on a respective thin-walled tubular substrate provided with extended, raised contact surfaces at each end. The energy-magnifying coils 24 desirably are connected electrically (rather than capacitatively) to each other in series at the raised contact surfaces. The photoconductive coils desirably are coated using clear varnish or enamel to provide electrical insulation and to protect the photoconductors from oxidation and weathering.

Where the low-mass photoconducting electrons in the energy-magnifying coils 24 are present in a concentration which is insufficient for capturing most of the inductive-photon radiation from the sending coil 20, each energy-magnifying coil desirably includes a thin metallic band. The metal desirably is in intimate contact with the low-mass-electron carrier. The metal can be on the exterior of a doped semiconductor, or it can be embedded in a photoconductor band of the coil to capture the inductive radiation and set up an electric field which, in turn, assists in accelerating the low-mass electrons. In the photoconductive embodiment, the photoconductive material desirably is disposed all around the metallic band so that the low-mass electrons are conducted on the outer side as well as the inner side and edges of the photoconductive band on the portion or portions which are exposed to illumination on the outside. The width of the metal band desirably is sufficient to capture as much of the inductive-photon radiation from the sending coil as is practical, since gaps between turns of the metal band in the energy-magnifying coil permit the sending coil’s inductive radiation to pass through to the internal output coil. Since the sending coil’s radiation is a half-cycle out of phase with the inductive radiation from the low-mass electrons, all the sending coil radiation which reaches the output coil, reduces the output efficiency of the apparatus.

Appropriate photoconductive materials (e.g. cadmium sulphide, cadmium selenide) for forming the energy-magnifying coils 24 are commercially available. The photoconductive material can be a single material or a mixture of materials, and can be formed by, for example, sputtering. A mixture of cadmium sulphide and cadmium selenide can be adjusted optimally to yield energy-magnifying coils exhibiting maximal energy-magnifying factors at a peak wavelength matching the brightest photoconduction exciters 26 which are available.

With respect to the photoconduction exciters 26, photo-excitation of the energy-magnifying coils 24 can be provided by one or more LEDs, either surface-emitting or edge-emitting, for example, selected to produce an output wavelength matched to the peak photoconduction wavelength of the energy-magnifying coils 24. In the embodiment of Fig.7 and Fig.10A, individual LEDs 26 are positioned in linear arrays mounted back-to-back on respective mounting bars. The assembled mounting bars with LEDs are placed in the gaps between adjacent energy-magnifying coils 24 to illuminate at least the sides of the respective energy-magnifying coils 24 which receive inductive-photon radiation from the sending coil 20. LEDs are advantageous compared to incandescent lamps because LEDs produce more light with less heat and have a much longer operational lifetime than...
incandescent lamps. LEDs are also preferred because of their small size which facilitates fitting a large number of them into the relatively small space between adjacent energy-magnifying coils 24.

Whereas the invention has been described in connection with several representative embodiments, the invention is not limited to those embodiments. On the contrary, the invention is intended to encompass all modifications, alternatives and equivalents as may be included within the spirit and scope of the invention, as defined by the appended claims.

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This is a reworded excerpt from this patent which shows a high-efficiency electrical generator of alternating current. It is stated that this generator design is not affected by Lenz’s law and the experimental results showed a 13,713% improvement over conventional power output.

ABSTRACT
An alternating current electrical generator creates three different and distinct magnetic fields between wound coil elements and rotating magnets, two fields of which are induced fields caused by magnet rotation. A plurality of magnets are positioned such that they extend outwardly from a rotating shaft. The magnets are circumferentially spaced around the shaft such that the north polar end of one magnet follows the south polar end of the next magnet or such that the polar end of one magnet follows a magnet with the same polar end. A plurality of stationary coil elements are positioned in spaced relation to the magnets. The coil elements each have electrical windings and metal cores which extend the lengths of the coil elements. The magnets rotate in spaced relation to the ends of the coil elements in such a way that the magnets' flux lines cut the cores located at the centre of each of the coil elements. This induces alternating electric current that oscillates back and forth along the lengths of the cores. This oscillating current creates an expanding and collapsing set of magnetic flux lines which expand and contract through every inch of the coil element's windings. This expanding and collapsing magnetic field induces an expanding and collapsing magnetic field and an alternating electric field in the coil elements.

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BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Alternating current generators are rotating devices which convert mechanical energy into electrical energy. To generate an electromotive force by mechanical motion, there must be movement between an electric coil and a magnetic field in a manner that will cause a change in the flux that passes through the coil. Fundamentally, the induced electromotive force is brought about by a change in the flux passing through the coil.

The use of electromagnets, magnets and magnet components in generators to create the magnetic field and its subsequent effect on electric coils to ultimately generate electric current is well known. Such magnetic generators operate by using the repelling forces created by the effect of changing polarities of both permanent and electromagnets. For instance, there are electrical generating devices which employ electromagnets which are fixed in position and which induce current by being selectively energised, as iron or other magnetic metal discs, bars, or similar elements are rotated at or around the magnets. Other systems employ electromagnet or permanent magnets which are rotated, by various means, in relation to iron cores or coils, inducing an alternating electrical current within the coils.

However, prior alternating current generators which employ rotating magnet systems are inefficient and generally fail to deliver adequate current, in relation to the mechanical effort applied.
SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

It is thus an object of the present invention to address the limitations and disadvantages of prior alternating electric current generators.

It is an object of the present invention to provide an alternating current generator which generates a substantial amount of electrical current efficiently and effectively.

It is a further object of the present invention to provide an alternating current generator which employs rotating magnets to induce increased alternating electrical current within the iron cores of electrical coils.

It is still another object of the present invention to provide an alternating current generator which can be simply and readily manufactured and be operated with high efficiency.

These and other objects are obtained by the present invention, an alternating current electrical generator which creates three different and distinct magnetic fields between wound coil elements and rotating magnets, two fields of which are induced fields caused by magnet rotation. A plurality of magnets are positioned such that they extend outwardly from a rotating shaft. The magnets are circumferentially spaced around the shaft such that the north polar end of one magnet follows the south polar end of the next magnet or such that the polar end of one magnet follows a magnet with the same polar end. A plurality of stationary coil elements are positioned in spaced relation to the magnets. The coil elements each have electrical windings and metal cores which extend the lengths of the coil elements. The magnets rotate in spaced relation to the ends of the coil elements in such a way that the magnets' flux lines cut the cores located at the centre of each of the coil elements. This induces alternating electric current that oscillates back and forth along the lengths of the cores. This oscillating current creates an expanding and collapsing set of magnetic flux lines which expand and contract through every inch of the coil element's windings. This expanding and collapsing magnetic field induces an expanding and collapsing magnetic field and an alternating electric field in the coil elements.

The novel features which are considered as characteristic of the invention are set forth in particular in the appended claims. The invention itself, however, both as to its design, construction, and use, together with additional features and advantages thereof, are best understood upon review of the following detailed description with reference to the accompanying drawings.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is an isometric representation of key components of the present invention.
Fig. 2 is a side view representation of the present invention showing the two housed sets of coil elements and their relationship with the magnets.

Fig. 3 is an explanatory view, showing the generation of flux lines which forms the basis for the operation of the present invention.
Fig. 4 is an alternate embodiment of the present invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION
Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show a clear depiction of the components of alternating current generator 1 of the subject invention. Generator 1 comprises housings 2 and 3. For simplicity purposes and ease of understanding, only housing 2 is shown in Fig. 1. It must be understood, however, that generator 1 of the present invention is configured for use with both housings 2 and 3. Housing 2 contains coil elements 4, 6, 8, and 10. Each coil element comprises multiple windings 12, 14, 16, and 18, respectively, wound around inner steel or similar metal cores 20, 22, 24, and 26, respectively. Each steel core extends the full length and directly through each of the coil elements. Coil elements 4, 6, 8, and 10 are mounted within housing 2, such that the end surfaces of the coil elements and the ends of cores 20, 22, 24, and 26 are positioned flush with the external surface of housing 2.

Housing 3 also contains four coil elements positioned identically as has been described with regard to housing 2. Two of these coil elements 5 and 7 are shown in Fig. 2. Coil element 5 has multiple windings 13 and centre core 21 and coil element 7 has multiple windings 11 and centre core 21.

Magnets 28, 30, 32, and 34 are secured to shaft 36, which is configured to be rotated by conventional power source 37, such as a diesel engine, turbine, etc. Magnets 28, 30, 31, and 32 all have ends with outwardly extending polarities. Magnets 28, 30, 32, and 34 are positioned in spaced relation to the ends of exposed cores 20, 22, 24 and 26 of coil elements 4, 6, 8, and 10 and in spaced relation to the ends of the four exposed cores in the four coil elements located in housing 3, cores 19 and 21 being shown in Fig. 2. All magnets are equidistantly spaced on and around shaft 36, such that the outwardly extending pole of one magnet circumferentially follows the outwardly extending pole of the next magnet. The north polar end of one magnet may follow the south polar end of the next magnet or the polar end of one magnet may follow a magnet with the same polar end.

While four magnets and four cores are shown, it is contemplated that additional magnets and cores could be employed in the generator. Also, while permanent magnets are shown in the drawings, electromagnets could also be used, as they produce the same magnetic flux.

Alternating electrical current is generated when power source 37 rotates shaft 36, thus causing rotation of magnets 28, 30, 32, and 34 in spaced, adjacent relation to the ends of cores 20, 22, 24, and 26 of coil elements 4, 6, 8, and 10, and in spaced, adjacent relation to the ends of cores 19 and 21 of coil elements 7 and 5 and the ends of the cores of the other two similarly aligned coil elements in housing 3. The current which is generated is transmitted through electrical conductive wiring 27, which merges at connection points 29 in housing 2 and 31 in housing 3, for the consolidated transmission at connection point 33 of the electricity produced.

As best represented in Fig. 2, when magnet 28 is rotated in space relation to the end of core 20 of coil element 4, flux lines 100 of the magnet cut the core at the centre of the coil element. This induces an alternating electrical current that oscillates back and forth along the length of core 20. This oscillating current creates an expanding and collapsing set of magnetic flux lines 200 which expand and contract through every inch of coil windings 12. Expanding and collapsing field 200 induces an alternating electric field in coil element 4 which is accompanied by

![Diagram](image-url)
an expanding and collapsing magnetic field 300. It is noted, significantly, that none of the magnetic field lines 100, 200 and 300, act in a negative fashion or in an opposing action. This allows the subject invention to overcome the limitations of Lenz’s law, which states that whenever there is a change in magnetic flux in a circuit, an induced electromotive force is set-up tending to produce a current in a direction which will oppose the flux change.

Fig. 3 illustrates an alternate embodiment of the invention to that which is shown in Fig.1. As shown in Fig.3, coil element 44 with outer windings 58 and inner steel core 66, coil element 46 with windings 56 and core 64, coil element 48 with windings 54 and core 62, and coil element 50 with outer windings 52 and core 60 are positioned adjacent to rotor 67, which is mounted on shaft 69. Magnets 68 and 72 are mounted on rotor 67 such that the north poles of the magnets are positioned in spaced relation to coil elements 44, 46, 48 and 50. Magnets 70 and 74 are mounted on rotor 67 such that the south poles of the magnets are also positioned in spaced relation to coil elements 44, 46, 48, and 50. All magnets are fixedly mounted on rotor 67 such that a north pole of one magnet circumferentially follows a south pole of the next magnet in line. The contemplated gap between the magnets and coil element cones is approximately 0.0001 of an inch, although the scope and use of the invention should not be deemed restricted to this distance.

As in the prior embodiment, rotation of magnets 68, 70, 72, and 74, by rotation of shaft 69 and hence rotor 67, causes the flux lines of the magnets to cut cores 60, 62, 64, and 66 of coil elements 44, 46, 48, and 50, eventually resulting in the output of electrical current as previously described.

It is noted that the larger the diameter of rotor 67, the more coil elements can be positioned around the rotor. The greater the number of coil elements, the slower rotor 67 needs to rotate; however, there is a power loss in so doing. In addition, while rotor 67 is shown as being circular, it may be as square in shape or formed of as other appropriate multi-sided configurations.

This unique way of generating electricity allows generation of more electrical power, e.g. anywhere in the range of 4 to 137 times more power, than prior, conventional means. It also has the advantage of obtaining unity power with very little effort.

As evidence of such power gains, reference is made to the below outlined experimental outputs from coils and magnets which produced electric power the conventional way compared with the subject invention. The conventional way of generating power, for purpose of the following experimental outputs, as referenced herein, is accomplished by cutting the wires, not the cores, of the coil's windings with the magnet's flux.

In this regard, proof is also provided that the herein described method of generating electrical power is not affected by Lenz's Law, by reference to the readings obtained by the conventional methods as the rpm and size of the coil increase. With conventional methods, the values do not change linearly, but are less because Lenz's Law restricts the outputs from increasing proportionally to the speed and size of the coil. In comparison, however,
in the method of producing power of the subject invention, there is an increase in the readings of V (voltage), I (current), and P (power) which are actually larger than anticipated.

It is also noted that, just like a transformer, when the number of turns ratio is increased, V increases and I decreases, which is exactly what is seen at the various rpm readings for the different size coils. However, they do not increase or decrease proportionally.

Thus, this presents the ideal model for producing electrical power that corresponds to the general law that states that as the speed increases, the voltage will increase proportionally, through the equation: 
\[ V = q \times v \times B \] 
(magnetic field strength). This also holds true for a coil, in that transformers increase proportionally to the turns ratio.

With reference to the voltage outputs for each of the coils, 1100T, 2200T and 5500T, it is seen that they are consistent with the types of voltage outputs for a transformer action. That is to say, as the turns ratio goes up in a transformer so does the voltage. Since the increases in voltage between the number of turns is not exactly 2 to 5 times, one can pick any one of the coils and assume it is accurate and adjust the other coils accordingly. Thus, by fixing the 1100T coil, the other coils become 2837T and 5896T respectively. By fixing the 2200T coil, the other coils become 853T and 4572T respectively. And by fixing the 5500T coil, the other coils become 1026T and 2646T respectively. Also, if the adjustments are made as described here, i.e. that the coils are bigger than originally thought, and they are applied to the voltages for the conventional method of generating power, the voltages do not increase proportionally but are actually smaller than they are supposed to be, additional proof that Lenz's Law has application to conventional generators, but not to this invention.

The proportional changes in the voltage relative to speed can also be seen. Thus, considering the 350 RPM speed as accurate, the 1200 RPM and 1300 RPM speeds will adjust to 906 RPM and 1379 RPM respectively. Considering the 1200 RPM speed as accurate, the 350 RPM and 1300 RPM speed becomes 464 RPM and 1826 RPM respectively. And finally, considering the 1300 RPM speed as accurate, the 350 RPM and 1200 RPM speeds become 330 RPM and 854 RPM respectively.

It is noted that in using the various RPM readings based upon the above, it is seen that, in the conventional way of generating power, there are losses associated with the measured values. The calculated values again show the application of Lenz's Law in the conventional way of generating power, but not to this invention. In fact, whether or not there is an adjustment of RPM speed or coil size, the power generation of this invention is in no way affected by Lenz's Law.

Since Lenz's Law has no effect in this generator, it can be assumed that the voltages increase proportionally to the speed of the magnets rotation. Therefore, one can extrapolate the expected voltages at 1800 RPM, the speed necessary to create 60 Hz. With regard to this generator, for each of the three coils from the 350 RPM, 1200 RPM and 1300 RPM speeds, the following results (values are based on one coil/magnet):

1. At assumed 350 RPM the voltages range as follows:
   A. 5.863v @1100T
   B. 15.12v @2200T
   C. 31.42v @5500T

2. At assumed 1200 RPM the voltages range as follows:
   A. 4.425v @1100T
   B. 11.295v @2200T
   C. 16.845v @5500T

3. At assumed 1300 RPM the voltages range as follows:
   A. 6.217v @1100T
   B. 10.716v @2200T
   C. 17.668v @5500T

The reason the current is not changing linearly as the laws of physics imply from transformers, i.e. as voltage goes up based on the number of turns, the current goes down proportionally to the voltage gain, is due to the fact
that the inductive reactance is also going up. See the following chart for the inductive reactances for each coil at each speed.

Impedance (Z) or inductive reactance (X(L)) for a circuit with only a coil in it is the AC voltage divided by the AC current, and the inductance (L) is Z/2 × π × F (frequency). For a circuit with a resistor and a coil, Z = square root of (R (resistance) squared + X(L) squared)).

The following is the chart of impedance Z for all coil sizes at all speeds for the conventional method of generating power and the method of generating power with this invention:

Where:
*T* stands for Turns,
"CM" stands for Conventional Method and
"SI" stands for Subject Invention:

(1) For 350 RPM for 1100T, 2200T and 5500T coils,

1. (a) CM: 0.57v / 56.6 mA = 10.021 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 1.14v / 106.6 mA = 10.694 ohms = Z

2. (a) CM: 0.93v / 32.4 mA = 28.704 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 2.94v / 70.1 mA = 41.94 ohms = Z

3. (a) CM: 2.09v / 17.3 mA = 120.81 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 6.11v / 37.9 mA = 161.21 ohms = Z

(2) For 1200 RPM for 1100T, 2200T and 5500T coils:

1. (a) CM: 1.45v / 60.2 mA = 23.387 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 2.95v / 141 mA = 20.922 ohms = Z

2. (a) CM: 3.225v / 36.2 mA = 89.088 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 7.53v / 73.5 mA = 102.449 ohms = Z

3. (a) CM: 4.81v / 17 mA = 282.941 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 11.23v / 31.4 mA = 357.643 ohms = Z

(3) For 1300 RPM for 1100T, 2200T and 5500T coils:

1. (a) CM: 1.6v / 83 mA = 19.27 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 4.59v / 157 mA = 29.236 ohms = Z

2. (a) CM: 2.75v / 50.4 mA = 54.455 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 7.74v / 88.5 mA = 87.458 ohms = Z

3. (a) CM: 5.061v / 17.3 mA = 292.543 ohms = Z
   (b) SI: 12.76v / 36.4 mA = 350.549 ohms = Z

(4) For 400 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.5" core:

(a) CM: 0.15v / 3.7 mA = 40.541 ohms = Z
(b) SI: 2.45v / 26.2 mA = 93.511 ohms = Z

(5) For 1200 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.5" core:

(a) CM: 0.37v / 2.7 mA = 137.037 ohms = Z
(b) SI: 4.1v / 10.3 mA = 398.058 ohms = Z
(6) For 1400 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.5" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.58v / 2.4 \text{ mA} = 241.667 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 8.3v / 7.8 \text{ mA} = 1065.385 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(7) For 400 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.23v / 4.2 \text{ mA} = 54.762 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 0.37v / 7.2 \text{ mA} = 51.389 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(8) For 1200 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.79v / 3.4 \text{ mA} = 232.353 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 0.43v / 6.9 \text{ mA} = 207.246 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(9) For 1400 RPM for 2300T coil with 24 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.79v / 3.21 \text{ A} = 246.875 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 2.1v / 2.7 \text{ mA} = 777.778 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(10) For 400 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.5" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.49v / 2 \text{ mA} = 245 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 5.48v / 0.13 \text{ mA} = 421.538 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(11) For 1200 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.5" core:
(a) CM: \( 1.25v / 1.5 \text{ mA} = 833.333 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 15.04v / 4.1 \text{ mA} = 3668.293 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(12) For 1400 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.5" core:
(a) CM: \( 2.08v / 1.1 \text{ mA} = 1890.909 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 18.76v / 2.5 \text{ mA} = 7504 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(13) For 400 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 0.64v / 1.7 \text{ mA} = 376.471 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 7.97v / 7.4 \text{ mA} = 1077.027 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(14) For 1200 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 2.08v / 1.3 \text{ mA} = 1600 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 20.4v / 5.6 \text{ mA} = 3642.857 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

(15) For 1400 RPM for 6000T coil with 28 gauge wire and 0.75" core:
(a) CM: \( 2.28v / 1.2 \text{ mA} = 1900 \text{ ohms} = Z \)
(b) SI: \( 28.4v / 2.1 \text{ mA} = 13523.81 \text{ ohms} = Z \)

It is noted that, based upon the variations of wire size, core size and number of turns, the following effects take place:
(a) the smaller the wire size the higher the gains regardless of speed;
(b) the greater the number of turns, generally the higher the gains; and
(c) the smaller the core size the higher the gains.
However, when comparing coils with smaller cores but a higher number of turns, the effects stay about the same.
Finally, the magnets are placed in the rotor so that they are all north or south poles up or out. A pure half-wave generator is created without rectifying the AC signal, which otherwise must be accomplished in a normal AC generator with electronic components in an electronic circuit.

**Experimental Values for Producing Power the Conventional Way and with the Subject Invention:**

The results were achieved using a small 3” magnet with a diameter of ±2” on a 1.25” high coil of 1” diameter and 3/8” centre/core of steel. (Unknown wire gauge size.)

**(a)** Conventional method of generating electricity:

1. 0.324 volts
2. 2.782 mA (milli-amps)
3. 0.9014 mW (milli-watts)

**(b)** Subject invention method of generating electricity:

1. 7.12 volts
2. 17.35 mA
3. 100.87 mW

**(c)** Associated gains of Volts, Current and Watts:

1. 2198% over conventional voltage output.
2. 624% over conventional current output.
3. 13,713% over conventional power output.

The following results show the voltage, current and power outputs for an 1100, 2200 and 5500 turn coil of 20 gauge copper wire, 6” in length, 3” in diameter with a 0.75” core of steel. The results are those taken at 350 rpm, 1200 rpm and 1300 rpm.

**(A)** 350 RPM for an 1100 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method: 0.57</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method: 1.14</td>
<td>106.6</td>
<td>121.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains 200%</td>
<td>188.3%</td>
<td>376.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(B)** 350 RPM for a 2200 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method: 0.93</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method: 2.94</td>
<td>70.1</td>
<td>206.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains 316.1%</td>
<td>216.4%</td>
<td>684%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(C)** 350 RPM for a 5500 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method: 2.09</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method: 6.11</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>231.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains 292.3%</td>
<td>219.1%</td>
<td>640%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(D)** 1200 RPM for an 1100 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method: 1.45</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>87.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method: 2.95</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains 203.4%</td>
<td>234.2%</td>
<td>476%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### (E) 1200 RPM for a 2200 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>3.225</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>116.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>553.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>233.5%</td>
<td>203%</td>
<td>474%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (F) 1200 RPM on a 5500 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>81.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>352.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>235.5%</td>
<td>184.7%</td>
<td>431.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (G) 1300 RPM on an 1100 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>132.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>704.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>280.6%</td>
<td>189.2%</td>
<td>530.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (H) 1300 RPM on a 2200 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>138.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>281.5%</td>
<td>175.2%</td>
<td>493.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (I) 1300 RPM on a 5500 turn coil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>5.061</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>87.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>464.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>252%</td>
<td>210%</td>
<td>530%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following readings are taken from a coil with 24 gauge wire, 0.5" centre/core of steel and 2300T.

### (A) 400 rpm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>1,633%</td>
<td>708%</td>
<td>11,563%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (B) 1200 rpm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>1,108%</td>
<td>381%</td>
<td>4,227%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (C) 1400 rpm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.39</td>
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<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>8.31</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>64.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>1,433%</td>
<td>325%</td>
<td>4,657%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following readings are taken from a coil made with 24 gauge wire, 0.75" centre/core of copper, 2300T.

### (A) 400 rpm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td>1,633%</td>
<td>708%</td>
<td>11,563%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rpm</td>
<td>Volts</td>
<td>mA</td>
<td>mW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400 rpm</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1200 rpm</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400 rpm</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following readings were taken from a coil made of 28 gauge wire, 0.5" centre/core of steel and 6000T.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rpm</th>
<th>Volts</th>
<th>mA</th>
<th>mW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Conventional method:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Subject invention method:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Associated gains</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400 rpm</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1200 rpm</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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The following readings were taken from a coil made of 28 gauge wire, 0.75" steel centre/core and 6000T.
The extrapolated voltages for the items immediately above at the 1800 RPM speed for the method of the subject invention are as follows:

(A) 400-1400 RPM, 0.5" core, 2300T:
(1) 11.025v
(2) 6.15v
(3) 10.68v

(B) 400-1400 RPM, 0.75" core, 2300T:
(1) 1.665v
(2) 2.145v
(3) 2.7v

(C) 400-1400 RPM, 0.5" core, 6000T:
(1) 24.66v
(2) 22.56v
(3) 24.12

(D) 400-1400 RPM, 0.75" core, 6000T:
(1) 10.25v
(2) 30.6v
(3) 36.51v

Some of the readings above do not seem consistent with others. This is attributed to the possibility that the wire connections may have been faulty or the proximity of the magnet relative to the core or coil may not have been the same. This was not taken into account at the time the tests were done.

The following figures are derived based on the premise that the subject invention has characteristics of a transformer when the number of turns on the coils change. In nearly all these situations, the subject invention acts exactly like a transformer, while the conventional way of producing electricity does not.
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CLAIMS

1. A generator for providing alternating electrical current comprising:

(a) an independently supported rotating drive shaft;

(b) a plurality of spaced apart magnets extending outwardly from the shaft, the magnets each creating magnetic flux and having a polar end with a particular north or south polarity, said magnets being circumferentially spaced and mounted around the shaft, such that the polar ends of the magnets extend away from and circumferentially around the shaft;

(c) a plurality of stationary coil elements, each said coil element comprising electrical windings wound about substantially the entire coil element, each of said coil elements further comprising a solid metal core with two ends extending substantially through the coil element at the centre of the coil element, each element being positioned such that one end of each of the cores is located in spaced, adjacent relation to the magnets, whereby rotation of the shaft causes rotation of the magnets around the shaft and in spaced, adjacent relation to the cores of the coil elements, the magnetic flux of the magnetics cutting the cores of the coil elements, creating alternating current in the coil elements; and

(d) a first housing in which some of the plurality of coil elements are mounted and a second housing in which the remainder of the plurality of coil elements are mounted.

2. The generator as in claim 1 wherein the magnets are spaced 90° apart around the shaft.

3. The generator as in claim 1 wherein magnets with north polar ends alternate with the magnets with south polar ends in spaced, circumferential relation around the shaft.

4. The generator as in claim 1 wherein all the plurality of magnets are magnets with the same polar ends.

5. The generator as in claim 1 wherein the magnets are equidistantly spaced around the shaft.

6. The generator as in claim 1 wherein the plurality of magnets is rotated by the drive shaft between and in spaced apart relation with the housings.

7. The generator as in claim 1 further comprising four magnets extending from the shaft, adjacent magnets being positioned perpendicular to each other, each magnet having either an outwardly extending north or south polar end, and said magnets being positioned such that a north polar end magnet follows a south polar end magnet, in spaced, circumferential relation around the shaft.

8. The generator as in claim 1 further comprising multiple north polar end magnets and multiple south polar end magnets extending from the shaft, said magnets being positioned in spaced, circumferentially relation around the shaft.

9. The generator as in claim 1 in which the shaft is positioned within a rotor and the magnets are circumferentially mounted on the rotor.

10. The generator as in claim 1 in which the shaft is connected to power means for rotating the shaft, whereby upon rotation of the shaft, the magnets are rotated around the shaft in spaced relation to the cores of the coil elements, thereby inducing an alternating electrical field along the length of each of the cores, thereby producing an alternating electric current in the windings of the coil elements.

11. The generator as in claim 10 further comprising means to transmit the alternating electrical current for electrical power usage.
This is a slightly reworded excerpt from this patent which has a substantial electrical output capable of providing its own electrical input to be self-powering as well as generating kilowatts of excess power. The highly-respected Dr. Harold Aspden comments: 

"In my Energy Science Report No. 81, I also mentioned the apparatus designed by Geoffrey Spence, an inventor based in U.K. This is the subject of his U.S. Patent No. 4,772,816. Electrons injected into a chamber formed between two concentric electrodes are deflected into the inner electrode by a pair of magnets that provide a magnetic field along the central axis of the concentric electrodes. Of itself, this should add no excess energy, because the energy fed into accelerating the electrons is merely absorbed by electrostatic repulsion in charging the central electrode and so the capacitor. However, if that electron flow pulsates and there are connections to draw electron current from that central electrode then the pulsation implies a recurring sequence of charge and discharge. That 'magic capacitor' function is then harnessed.

The questions then are whether the Spence invention really works and whether it is commercially viable? Well, I wrote that Energy Science Report back in 1996, six years ago, and it is only a few months ago that I heard any more of that project. Geoffrey Spence has developed the prototype product to the stage where he has closed the loop in the sense that a portion of the output power was fed back to impart the energy needed to sustain the electron beams. He has a self-sustaining unit that can deliver kilowatts of useful electrical power with no visible energy input."

ABSTRACT

The apparatus uses a magnetic field to accelerate a charged particle radially towards a target electrode. The increased kinetic energy of the particles enables the particle to give up more electrical energy to the target electrode than was initially given to it. This charges the target electrode, and the increased energy is extracted from the apparatus by connecting an electrical load between the target electrode and a point of lower or higher potential.

US Patent References:
1717413 Jun, 1929 Rudenberg 310/306.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to a process and apparatus for generating a potential difference between two or more electrodes and using charged particles as energy carriers.

Electrical power is usually generated by burning a fossil fuel and converting the energy released into rotary motion which drives electrical generators. This is cost-effective only if carried out on a large scale, the conversion process being inefficient; utilising natural resources, and producing waste products which can cause serious environmental pollution. An additional disadvantage is that the electrical power cannot be supplied directly to road vehicles or ships.

The energy-conversion process of this invention involves no health or pollution hazard and generates electrical power directly by a single-stage process without waste products. The overall energy-conversion factor and power-to-weight ratio are both high, making the apparatus suitable for most fixed and mobile applications.

One known apparatus for doing useful work by operating on electrons with a magnetic field is called the "betatron". This includes a doughnut-shaped vacuum chamber between the poles of a specially-shaped electromagnet. Thermionically-produced electrons are injected into the chamber with an initial electrostatic energy of about 50 kV. As the magnetic field builds up during its positive-going half-cycle, it induces an electromotive force within the doughnut, which force accelerates the electrons and forces them to move in an curved path, by
interaction with the magnetic field. An important distinction between the betatron and the energy converter of this invention is that in the former the magnetic field has got to be able to increase over a very short period, in order to accelerate the electrons sufficiently, whereas in the latter the magnetic field is virtually constant and the electrons fall inwardly to give up both their kinetic energy and electric charge to a central electrode.

The present invention aims at providing an energy converter which may be mobile and which has a permanent magnet or an energised source of magnetic radiation associated with it in order to amplify the electrical energy initially imparted to charge particles fed to, or produced in, a so-called "vacuum" chamber forming part of the generator, which increased energy is extracted from the target electrode on which the particles are incident.

Accordingly the present invention provides an energy converter as per the appended claims.

While the invention is not to be limited to any particular theory of operation, it is based on the fact that, when a charged particle is constrained to move through a radial distance \( d \) (irrespective of the path which it actually follows) through a magnetic field of intensity \( H \), the work done on the particle is \( H \times d \). For an electron carrying a charge \( e \), and moving at a speed \( v \) over distance \( d \), the total force on the electron is the centripetal force the sum of \( H \times e \times v \), less the force exerted on the electron in the opposite direction by the centrifugal force, which is the sum of \( (m \times v^2)/r \). By making the radius of the centre electrode appreciably greater than the orbit of equilibrium, the centrifugal force can be minimised, thus maximising the centripetal force, and hence the work done in bringing the charge to the electrode.

The process by which the converter of this invention works uses, as a source of charge, electrically-charged particles, for example electrons and/or ions. Two or more electrodes are housed in a low-pressure chamber. A magnetic field as specified below traverses the chamber: it emanates from a permanent magnet, electromagnet or a source of magnetic radiation. An external source of energy is used to give the charge particles initial kinetic energy, for example by heating, acceleration through an electric field, or from nuclear radiation. The energy-conversion process uses the magnetic field to transfer the charged particles along a desired orbit until they impinge on a central electrode (cathode). The work done on the particles (therefore the electrical potential attained by the cathode) is proportional to the resultant magnetic force times the distance over which the force acts. As the particles move within the chamber they cross the magnetic field. This produces a force acting on the particles, the force being proportional to the field strength, speed and electrical charge of the particles, and the sine of the angle of incidence between the path of the particle and the magnetic lines of force. This force has an angular component and a centripetal one, which forces the particles to travel along a spiral orbit.

An opposing centrifugal force also acts on the particles in opposition to the centripetal magnetic force. The electrode potential is proportional to the work required to be done on the charged particles to overcome both the centrifugal force and the electric field around the cathode as the charges accumulate and the potential difference between the electrodes increases. Maximum electrode potential is reached when the centrifugal and repulsive forces are equal to the centripetal force, after which no further charged particles reach the electrode. The radius of the electrode determines the minimal value voltage between the central and an outer electrode: as the central electrode radius is reduced (by sputtering or erosion) the centrifugal force increases, reducing the number of charged particles which can reach the central electrode and therefore the electrode potential, for a given field strength and particle speed. The difference in mass between ions and lighter charged particles, such as electrons, results in different centrifugal forces for given particle kinetic energies. The generator output and efficiency are optimised when the generator uses the maximum magnetic field to minimise the centrifugal force and to maximise the radial distance over which the force acts for a given field strength. Particles having the highest charge-to-mass ratio should be used.

Low pressure gases can be used as a charge source when ionised by particle collision and excitation within the chamber. Doped gases can minimise the energy level for ionising gas atoms/molecules thereby improving efficiency. However, the resultant magnetic force is lower for the heavier ions due to their lower velocity so that the electric field radiated by the high voltage electrode (cathode) can attract oppositely charged particles (+ ions) and subsequently discharge the electrode reducing the output voltage. Various methods can be used to overcome or reduce this effect. For example one method would be to separate the opposite charges and/or to use electrical biased grids to control the flow of opposite charges to the high voltage electrode.

Gaseous systems are generally more complex than single charge systems, providing higher currents at lower voltages, whereas single charge systems, for example electrons used in high vacuum chambers, can generate higher voltages.

The magnetic field can be from one or more permanent magnets and/or from one or more electromagnets; a static magnetic field produces a constant output voltage, while a varying field produces a varying voltage for particles with equal mass and velocity.
An external source is used to accelerate the charged particles to give them initial kinetic energy, which is released as heat when the particles collide with the electrode. When the energy represented by the increased voltage between the electrodes is greater than the energy required to provide the charged particles; and accelerate them, the conversion process is self-sustaining, the output energy being the difference between the sum of the kinetic energy lost and the energy generated. Charge flows from the central electrode via an external load to another electrode. The electrical energy (work) released is a function of the current (sum of charges that flow per second) times the potential difference. Electrical and thermal output can be controlled by varying: the field strength; the particle speed; the particle density (mean free path), and/or by incorporating a grid to control the rate at which particles reach the central electrode. The output is also proportional to the heat lost or gained, since the translational energy of the particle is proportional to its temperature. Heat liberated at the electrode can be returned to the particles to maintain their energy, or be utilised in a heat exchanger for external use. The generator normally uses non-reacting conductive material to prevent chemical reaction by gases, coolants etc. with the electrodes, container walls or other components. Various particle trajectories, directional movements and positioning of the orbiting particles can be used with appropriate magnetic fields. The low-pressure gas can be ionised by any suitable means: one method would be to use an electron/ion gun where the plane and direction of the injected particles is correct for the applied magnetic field. In gas apparatus, the electrons flowing through the external circuit, on reaching the anode, recombine with a gaseous ion to form a neutral gas atom/molecule. This atomic particle is duly re-ionised by collision and/or the electric fields, the energy being directly or indirectly derived from the work done by the resultant force acting on the charged particles.

In order that the invention may be better understood, it will now be described with reference to the accompanying schematic drawings, which are given by way of example, and in which:

**Fig. 1.**

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**Fig.1** shows schematically a cross-section of the generator; and the path followed by a particle during the energy-conversion process;
Fig. 2 shows an axial cross-section of one type of apparatus for the invention, using permanent magnets; and a grid controlling ion migration to the cathode.

Fig. 3 shows a cross-section of the apparatus of Fig. 2 along the line A--A;
Fig. 4 is a diagrammatic section through one form of converter using electrons, showing a circular series of electron sources;

Fig. 5 is an axial cross-section through a more practical embodiment of the Fig. 4 converter;
Fig. 6 is a section along the line VI--VI of Fig. 5;

Fig. 7 is a cross-section along a diameter of a doughnut-shaped (toroidal) high-power converter;
Fig. 8 is a section on line A--A of Fig. 7, and

Fig. 9 is a scheme of a two-stage converter, using both forms of charged particles concurrently.
As shown in Fig. 1, a charged particle is injected along a trajectory 2 into a magnetic field extending normal to the plane of the drawing. The field permeates the space 4 of the annular cross-section within a cylindrical chamber 6. The magnetic field produces a force on the particle, extending at right angles to both its direction of motion and the magnetic field. The resultant centripetal force causes the particle to follow a spiral path 8 ending on the central electrode 10 spaced radially inwards from the outer cylindrical electrode 12. The extra energy acquired by the particle is a function of the radial distance travelled and the strength of the magnetic field between the electrodes. This energy is given up on impact with the central electrode, in the form of heat and/or work done in bringing the charge against the opposing electric field to the electrode. In the absence of the central electrode 10, the electrons would follow the orbit of equilibrium 3, this being the orbit followed by a particle when the centrifugal and centripetal forces balance, resulting in no work being done on the particle.
As shown more particularly in Fig.2 and Fig.3, the energy converter consists basically of an annular chamber having an outer cylindrical electrode; an inner cylindrical electrode, and two gas-tight walls of electrical insulation material. In the electrode is a port through which an electron gun can inject electrons into space. Additionally or alternatively, an ion gun can inject positively-charged particles through port.

Seated on the major flat surfaces of chamber are magnetic pole-pieces giving rise to a uniform magnetic field which traverses the space parallel with the axis of chamber. The magnets may be ceramic permanent magnets, or they may be electromagnets. In either case, means may be provided for adjusting the magnetic field strength.

Heavy conductors connect the two electrodes to terminals across which a resistive load can be placed to dissipate the generator output.

A vacuum pump (not shown) has its inlet in communication with the interior of chamber so that the gas pressure in the generator can be reduced to, and kept at, a desired sub-atmospheric value. Associated with the pump, or separate from it, may be means for ensuring that the gas in the generator is of a desired composition, for instance, one which enhances the possibility of ionising collisions between the charged particles and gas atoms or molecules. One such suitable gas would be neon containing 0.1% argon by volume.

In order to cause the generator to start working, it is necessary to start the vacuum pump and to energise the electron gun or each particle source. The latter involves heating a filament from an external source of power until the required internal energy level (temperature) is reached which in turn causes a piece of thermo-emissive material to emit electrons. If the electrons are to be the charge carriers, they are accelerated by a suitable electric field and projected into the space. Here they are further accelerated by the radial electric field between the electrodes, and at the same time have a deflecting force applied to them by the axial magnetic field through which they pass.

For an ion source, the electrons are accelerated until they impact some atoms or molecules, to produce a stream of ions which likewise pass into the space. With the polarities shown, the electrons are attracted to the central electrode, while the ions are pulled towards the outer electrode, which accounts for the different orientations of sources and 20.

Any gas molecules which pass close to, or between, the electrodes are ionised by collision and/or the electrostatic field. Output current can then be taken through a load impedance connected across terminals 28. The impedance is matched to prevent the internal process energy dropping below a value which would prevent the re-ionisation of the gaseous atoms. As each ion is deionised at the anode, the gas atoms will tend to continue to circulate until re-ionised, the resultant force drawing both the ions (shown by solid circles) and electrons (shown by hollow circles) back into their respective orbits.
It is envisaged that, in the case of a converter using electrons, the chamber could be evacuated to a chosen sub-atmospheric pressure and sealed.

In that form of the invention shown in Fig.4, each electron source forming one of a circular series 29 of sources has a body 30 of electro-emissive material, such as molybdenum coated by caesium, heated by an electric filament 32 connected in series or parallel across a source of electric power (not shown). Immediately in front of each emitter 30 is a grid 34 of fine wires, all the grids being connected with a source of adjustable voltage so as to control the flow of electrons from the emitter. These electrons are projected through one or more acceleration electrodes 36 across which a potential difference is established along the electron path, so that each incremental electron source injects a stream of electrons having known kinetic energy into a space 38, indicated by the circle shown in a broken line, traversed by the deflection magnetic field, within which is the central, target, electrode 40. The stream of electrons injected into the magnetic field may be focused by electric and/or magnetic fields.

In the remaining Figs, those parts already referred to will retain the same references.

In the “flat disc” configuration shown in Fig.5, the annular chamber 6 is enclosed in a body 42 of thermal insulation material. The central electrode 10 is seated on insulators 44 which are pierced by conduits 45 for the passage of a coolant fluid and by an output lead 26, which may extend along the conduit so that it too is cooled.

Fig.5 shows how the deflection magnet is generally U-shaped, and has two annular pole-pieces 48, so that the magnetic field is uniform between the surface of electrode 10 and the region 38 radially innermost of the circular electron source, the electric field between the electrode 36 and emission surface 61 providing the electrons initial accelerations (kinetic energy). Fig.5 also shows how a voltage is tapped off the resistive load 40 (which thus functions as a potentiometer) and is fed through to the acceleration electrode 36.

Chamber 6 is also provided with two annular magnets 49 (or a circular series of incremental magnets) designed to influence the direction along which the electrons pass into space 38. The magnets provide local magnetic fields to ensure that the electrons meet the boundary of space 38 tangentially, i.e. with zero radial velocity.
In that form of the invention shown in Fig.7 and Fig.8, the individual "flat disc" converters of Fig.5 and Fig.6 are arranged in a type of "circular" construction, such that the magnetic fields extend along the axis of the resulting toroidal space 50 penetrated by a single toroidal target electrode 51 through which a coolant fluid may pass, along conduits 52. The cross-section of Fig.8 shows that the magnetic fields are supplemented by an electric field produced by windings 53 wound on a magnetic core 54 bounded by insulation 55.

Apart from the fact that the electrodes are common to all converters, each functions individually as described above. Obviously the power source driving the heaters for the electron guns 56; the electromagnets (if any); the acceleration electrodes and the control grids, have to be of sufficient capacity to supply the greater power needed to drive this "toroidal" configuration. Some changes would need to be made to the physical dimensioning and positioning of the relatively-complex construction, but as all these are readily understood by a competent engineer, they are not further described in this specification.
As already mentioned, the converters of this invention are of two types, i.e. electronic and ionic. Fig. 9 shows diagrammatically how they may be combined to take advantage of their differences. In the two-stage power generation apparatus shown in Fig. 9 the first stage consists of an ioniser 520 supplying a mixture of charged particles, i.e. ions and electrons, to a separator 540, which supplies electrons to a second stage consisting of a sealed electronic converter 560 in parallel with a gaseous ionic converter 580.

The separator 540 may use the different particle masses to separate them centrifugally using, for example, the energy conversion system of Fig. 1 (without the target electrode), or it may use electromagnetic deflection fields, or a physical diffusion process, either alone or in combination. As this is not part of the subject-matter of this invention, it will not be described herein in any further detail.

In the generators of Fig. 6 and Fig. 8, the respective particles are deflected magnetically and accelerated radially, to function as already described above.

Because each generator is designed to operate most effectively with its particular form of charge carrier, it can be designed optimally, thus reducing the energy absorption caused by ions and electrons recombining before each has fallen on its respective target electrode. Because the electronic converter would finish up with a negatively-charged electrode, whereas the converse is true for the ionic converter, the load 400 extracting energy from the apparatus is connected across the two target electrodes. The other two electrodes of the converters may be held at the same potential, as by being connected together, or their potentials may float.

The generator can be designed to produce a wide range of output voltages and currents. The lower-energy generators are light enough to be mobile, so that they can power vehicles or act as stand-by generators. Various electrode and magnet configurations can be used, and the generators can be connected in series or parallel. Cooling jackets are fitted to prevent overheating in high-powered apparatus, and the generator is enclosed within a thermally-insulating jacket to reduce heat losses thereby increasing particle velocities. For high-energy generators, it may be necessary to provide for forced cooling of the inner electrode, as by fins projecting therefrom into a high-speed stream of suitable coolant.

Although the process according to this invention is particularly suited to using external electrical energy, it must be understood that other sources can be used to provide the initial energy input, e.g. solar and waste process heat are some of the varied energy sources which could be utilised. Control of the charge-generation process can be achieved by other means, including one or more electrically-biased grids, as used in thermionic valves.
METHOD AND APPARATUS FOR INCREASING ELECTRICAL POWER

This patent shows a method of altering a standard electrical generator intended to be driven by a separate motor, so that it operates without the motor. In an example quoted, a DC input of 48 volts at 25 amps of current (1.2 kW) produces a 110 volt 60Hz AC output of 3.52 kW. That is a Coefficient Of Performance of 2.93 at an output level suited to Off-The-Grid operation of a house.

ABSTRACT
A form of rotating machine arranged in such a way as to convert a substantially constant input voltage into a substantially constant output voltage; involving generally, a rotor that revolves at a substantially constant speed within a stator, and which comprises a transformer core subjected to and having a primary motor-transformer winding and a secondary transformer-generator winding; whereby transformed and generated power are synchronously combined as increased output power.

BACKGROUND
Electrical power is frequently changed in voltage, phase, frequency, and the current is changed from alternating to direct or from direct to alternating. Voltage conversion in AC circuits is usually by means of transformers, and in DC circuits is usually by means of motor-generators. Phase conversion is also accomplished by either transformers or motor-generators, and frequency conversion is most simply done by motor-generators.

Motor-generators have various classifications of use, as follows:

(1) DC to DC, used to charge batteries and to boost voltage.
(2) AC to AC, used for frequency and phase conversion
(3) AC to DC used for all types of service, such as battery charging, generator and motor field excitation, railways, electrolysis, and speed control etc. and
(4) DC to AC used to limited extent for special applications.

To these ends combination motor-generators have been built, such as dynamotors stepping up DC voltage for radio equipment and amplidynes for reproducing a weak signal at a higher power level. When a particular variable frequency A.C. is required of a motor-generator set and the power supply is DC, the equipment will include a DC motor for variable speed and a separate alternator driven by it. Such equipment is special in nature and characterised by separation of the motor and generator and by polyphase (usually three-phase) generator windings and with auto transformers having suitable taps for obtaining the required voltages; and a DC speed controller for the motor. The phase output of such equipment is selective and its single phase capacity necessarily restricted (66%) as compared with its three-phase capacity, in which case transmission efficiency for single phase is poor.

When a higher level power output is desired, the amplidyne is employed with field windings and brushes equipped for the purpose, and in some instances to give a constant current output from a constant voltage input, for example, in inverted rotary converter provided to convert DC to A.C. However, the present invention is concerned with method and apparatus for increasing electrical power and provides a dynamo-electric converter that operates from an electrical energy supply to produce A.C. most efficiently for a useful load.

The method involves simultaneous motor-transformer-generator steps and the preferred embodiment of the apparatus involves a dynamo-electric converter (DEC) in the form of a rotary machine combined in a single rotor revolving within a stator, the rotor being comprised of a transformer core having both a primary motor-transformer winding and a secondary transformer-generator winding, and the stator being comprised of magnetic field poles.

Synchronous converters have been combined in single rotor machines to produce DC from A.C., but that effect is quite different from the effect of the present invention when A.C. is to be produced from DC in a single rotor having primary and secondary armature windings as distinguished from armature windings common to both A.C. and DC circuits. With the present invention, both a transforming and a generating effect are produced in the rotor, all of which is inherently synchronised and delivered through the A.C. outlet leads. A.C. motors and DC generators have been combined in one machine, that is in one rotor, and referred to as synchronous converters.
However, synchronous converters are lacking in their ability to change DC into A.C. when operating from the former as a prime mover to drive a generator simultaneously, and more specifically to drive an alternator synchronously.

**SUMMARY OF INVENTION**

This method involves the placement of a primary winding in a field to both motor the same and to have a transformer effect with respect to a secondary winding also in a field to have a generator effect. In its preferred embodiment, this dynamo-electric converter is comprised of primary and secondary windings combined in a rotor commutated to alternate a DC energy supply in and thereby motivate the rotor within a stator field. The primary winding is advantageously of fewer turns than the secondary and by means of electromotive force drives the secondary windings of more turns to cut the magnetic lines of force for the generation of electrical energy at a higher voltage level than the DC supply. This DC operated motor is shunt wound with the stator field poles fully energised by the DC energy supply, or is provided with permanent magnet field poles, to efficiently motivate the rotor and efficiently generate electrical energy in the secondary windings. The A.C. output of the secondary windings is inherently synchronised with the transformer function of the primary windings combined in the common slots of the single rotor; and by adding the transformer and generator voltages and amperages the wattage is correspondingly increased at the output.

**DRAWINGS**

The various objects and features of this invention will be fully understood from the following detailed description of the typical preferred form and application, which is made in the accompanying drawings, in which:

![Fig.1](image)

Fig.1 is a diagrammatic schematic view of the dynamo-electric converter components comprising the present invention.
Fig. 2 is a diagram of a typical commutator brush, slip ring brush and field pole arrangement which is utilised.

Fig. 3 is a longitudinal section through a machine embodying the stator and rotor on bearings with the frame and brushes removed.
Fig. 4 is a typical duplicate of an oscilloscope diagram showing the power output of the dynamo-electric converter.

**PREFERRED EMBODIMENT**

The dynamo-electric converter is illustrated diagrammatically in the drawings and involves, generally, a rotor $R$ carried upon spaced bearings $B$ so as to rotate on an axis $A$ concentric within a stator $S$. The rotor $R$ comprises the armature, while the stator $S$ comprises the field, there being a commutator $C$ associated with primary windings $10$ on the rotor and slip rings $SR$ associated with secondary windings $11$ on the rotor. Brushes $12$ and $13$ are engaged slideably with the commutator and slip rings respectively, by conventional means, to conduct DC through the commutator $C$ and to conduct AC through the slip rings $SR$. The brushes $12$ and interconnected primary windings $10$ comprise a motor while the brushes $13$ and interconnected secondary windings $11$ comprise a generator or alternator.

In practice, the field windings $16$ can be separately energised or connected in parallel with the brushes $12$ or shunted with respect to the primary motor winding $10$. Motorisation of the armature rotor $R$, or motoring thereof, causes continued polarity reversals on a cycle basis as determined by the speed of rotation, and this of course results in magnetic reversals in the rotor core $15$ and a consequent induction in the secondary windings $11$. A feature of this invention is the combining and co-operative relationship of the primary and secondary windings which occupy common slots in and embrace a common portion of the core $15$ of the rotor $R$, thereby to have a
transformer function as well as a generator function as the lines of magnetic force are cut by the secondary windings. The stator S has field poles of opposite magnetic polarity, excited independently from the armature, or as permanent magnets, and preferably shunted across the DC input. As shown, there are four equally spaced field poles in a circumferentially disposed series.

In practice, the primary DC motor windings are of fewer turns in the rotor slots than the secondary AC generator windings. For example, the primary motor windings 10 are flat wound between north to south poles of the field while the secondary generator windings are flat wound in the same or common slots of the rotor armature. In a typical unit having a four brush commutator with 20 bars and having a 20-slot armature, the primary windings 10 are comprised of a number of turns of conductor efficiently to draw 48 volts DC at 25 amperes or 1,200 watts to rotate at 1,750 rpm, while the secondary windings 11 are comprised of a number of turns of conductor efficiently to deliver 60 cycle (by transforming and generating) 110 volts AC at 32 amperes or 3,520 watts, the volt meter used to read these values upon an actual reduction to practice being calibrated to read the root-mean-square (RMS) value of the pure sine wave, which is 70.7% of the peak voltage.

The reduction to practice previously referred to as a "typical unit" was constructed of a machine originally designed as a self-exciting 60 cps 110 volt 2.5 kVA generator to be shaft driven by a separate prime mover. Firstly, the prime mover was eliminated. The exciter windings were intended to excite the field at 45 volts DC delivered through the commutator, while the generator windings were intended to independently deliver 110-120 volts AC through the slip rings. The winding ratio between the exciter and generator windings was approximately one to three, and these are the values which determined the values employed in the present reduction to practice. However, it is to be understood that other values can be employed by design, for operation at the desired input and output voltages and amperages. It is also to be understood that the example reduction to practice disclosed herein is not necessarily the optimum design, in that other input-output power balances are contemplated, such as a DC battery input voltage substantially equal to the AC power voltage. In any case, an unexpected increase in power is realised by practising this invention.

This dynamo electric converter inherently operates at a substantially constant angular velocity with the result that the alternating cycles of the output are substantially constant. Also, the DC input voltage can be maintained at a substantially constant level with the result that the AC output voltage is also substantially constant. As shown, the output is single phase AC in which case the effective power in watts delivered is the product of current, voltage and power factor. Since the voltage is substantially constant, the current varies with load applied to the output as it is affected by the power factor. It will be seen therefore, that the apparent power represented by voltage times amperage is drawn directly from the DC input and applied to the primary motor winding 10 to motivate the rotor R for the functions previously described. It will also be seen therefore, that the DC input is commutated into AC and transformed by induction from windings 10 into windings 11.

It will also be seen therefore, that the AC generated by motorisation of the motor is synchronously imposed upon the windings 11, and all to the end that the two alternating currents are complementary and one added to the other. It will be observed that the output wattage is approximately triple the input wattage, by virtue of the synchronous superimposing of transformed input voltage and generated voltage while utilising the former to operate the rotor in order to generate the latter. A feature of this invention is the separation of the primary and secondary circuits and the consequent isolation of the inverted input DC from the output AC and the utilisation of input energy commensurate with output load according to amperage required for the operations to which this DEC machine is applied.

In carrying out this invention, the dynamo electric machine is conventional in design and the primary and secondary windings 10-11 are wound into the common slots of the armature as they are in self exciting generators. However, the primary windings 10 are motor-transformer windings and function totally as such. Similarly, the secondary windings 11 are wound into the armature slots together with the primary windings 10 and are powered with current that is alternated by virtue of the commutation and rotation of the armature, and consequently there is a transformer action between the primary windings 10 and secondary windings 11, and this transformer function is supplemented by generation of a superimposed current by virtue of the secondary windings 11 cutting the magnetic lines of force provided by the surrounding stator field. Consequently, there is a multiplying of power synchronously applied through the slip rings SR to the output brushes 13, and this increased output power is measurable as previously described and double or almost triple that of the input power.

**METHOD**

Referring now to this method of increasing electrical power, input alternating current is applied to a primary winding to both motor and alternately magnetise a core. The said primary winding is immersed in a field and consequently is caused to motor and simultaneously to perform the first stage of transforming. A second stage of transforming is then performed by a secondary winding associated with the core to function as both a transformer and a generator winding, and the output current is drawn from it at an increased power value as compared with the input power, since the current induced by transformer action is superimposed upon the current generated in
cutting the magnetic lines of force by motoring the secondary winding through the magnetic field. The direct application of AC power to the primary winding is contemplated, however the present and preferred embodiment employs commutation of DC power which is thereby inverted to AC power in the process of motoring the windings and the core in which they are carried together with the secondary winding. The net result is three fold, in that there is a motoring function, a transforming function, and a generating function, all of which are inherently synchronised to increase the output power with respect to the input power.

From the foregoing it will be seen that this method, and the dynamo-electric converter termed a DEC, synchronously superimposes transformed electrical energy and mechanically generated electrical energy when inverting DC to AC as is shown by observing the oscilloscope diagram duplicated in Fig.4 of the drawings. The DC motor section of the rotor-stator unit will operate at its designed speed well within a small tolerance, by applying known engineering principles, and consequently, the AC generator-alternator section will operate at a substantially uniform frequency of, for example, 60 cycles per second. Thus, the output voltage potential is kept to a maximum while current is drawn as required, within the design capacity of the unit.

Having described only a typical preferred form and application of my invention, I do not wish to be limited or restricted to the specific details herein set forth, but wish to reserve to myself any modifications or variations that may appear to those skilled in the art:
SHIGEAKI HAYASAKA: INDUCTION GENERATOR


INDUCTION GENERATOR HAVING A PAIR OF MAGNETIC POLES OF THE SAME POLARITY
OPPOSED TO EACH OTHER WITH RESPECT TO A ROTATION SHAFT

This patent covers a device which is claimed to have a greater output power than the input power required to run it.

ABSTRACT
An induction generator having a pair of magnetic poles of the same polarity opposed to each other with respect to a rotation shaft is characterised by a high energy conversion efficiency. The induction generation has a rotation shaft driven by an external means; an even number of (more than three) stator cores provided to encircle the rotation shaft, predetermined gaps being provided between the adjacent stator cores; a first monopole rotor provided in the rotation shaft, surrounded by the even number of stator cores, and having first and second magnetic poles of the same polarity, the first and second magnetic poles being opposed to each other with respect to the rotation shaft in a cross section; a second monopole rotor provided in the rotation shaft so as to face the first monopole rotor at a predetermined distance along the rotation shaft, surrounded by the even number of stator cores, and having third and fourth magnetic poles of the same polarity opposite to the polarity of the first and second magnetic poles, the third and fourth magnetic poles being opposite to each other with respect to the rotation shaft; a plurality of windings provided in the even number of stator cores and connected according to a predetermined configuration.

US Patent References:
282472 Jan., 1883 Delaporte 318 / 197.
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Other References:

DESCRIPTION
TECHNICAL FIELD
The present invention relates to an induction generator having a pair of magnetic poles of the same polarity opposed to each other with respect to a rotation shaft.

Induction generators have been known as one type of electrical appliance from relatively old days and embodied in various forms adapted for individual applications. In addition to applications in power plants, ships and aircraft, induction generators convenient for household or leisure purposes have also been developed and used extensively.

An induction generator converts kinetic energy into electric energy. Due to a necessity for improving efficiency of energy utilisation, there is a demand for a highly efficient energy conversion.

BACKGROUND ART
As is well known, an induction generator is operated on the principle that an electromotive force is induced in a coil, in proportion to the rate at which magnetic flux crosses that coil (Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction). According to Lenz's law, an induced electromotive force is generated in a direction in which a current that acts against a change in the magnetic flux is generated.
For example, as shown in Fig.1A and Fig.1B, assuming that the magnetic flux $\phi$ crossing a circular coil 1 at a perpendicular direction moves in the A to B direction as indicated by the arrow, a current $I_1$ flows in accordance with Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction so that the pointer of a galvanometer 2 swings clockwise (+ direction) and then returns to the zero position. When the magnetic flux $\phi$ moves in the direction B to C, a current $I_2$ flows so that the indicator of the galvanometer 2 swings counterclockwise (- direction) and then returns to the zero position.

Generally, an induction generator is constructed in such a way that an electromotive force is induced according to Fleming's right-hand rule by a conductor cutting magnetic flux lines (Fig.1A) or by the magnetic flux lines crossing the conductor (Fig.1B).

A rotor in an induction generator is usually constructed as a one-piece body having alternately disposed North poles and South poles. When there are two magnetic poles, the N-pole and the S-pole are opposite to each other. When there are more than two magnetic poles (for example, four magnetic poles or six magnetic poles etc.), the N-pole and the S-pole alternate, resulting in a N-S-N-S- . . . succession.

In this background, a unipolar induction generator is a special case wherein an electromotive force is generated by a conductor cutting the magnetic flux while moving or rotating, and a direct current is supplied through a slip.
ring. In other words, a unipolar induction motor is unique in its construction characterised by a non-alternating magnetic field travelling in the same direction.

In the conventional induction generator such as the one described above, improvement in energy conversion efficiency is attained such that the rotor is constructed of a ferrite, or rare-earth, magnet characterised by a high energy product and a small reversing permeability (recoil permeability). Alternatively, the extent of demagnetisation due to generation of a counter magnetic field in an induction coil is reduced allowing the single polarity of the rotor to interact with the stator in forming a magnetic circuit. However, despite these measures, reduction in energy conversion efficiency due to a counter magnetic field of the rotor core, more specifically, due to demagnetisation resulting from the counter magnetic field caused by armature reaction presents a serious problem.

The present invention has been developed in view of the above points, and its object is to provide an induction generator having a pair of magnetic poles of the same polarity opposed to each other with respect to a rotation shaft, wherein a high energy conversion efficiency is attained.

**DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION**

The present invention provides an induction generator having a pair of magnetic poles of the same polarity opposed to each other with respect to a rotation shaft, characterised by comprising:

A rotation shaft driven by external means;

An even number of (more than three) stator cores provided to encircle the rotation shaft, predetermined gaps being provided between the adjacent stator cores;

A first single-opposed polarity rotor provided in the rotation shaft, surrounded by the even number of stator cores, and having first and second magnets magnetised such that the even number of stator cores remain facing a first polarity, the first and second magnets being opposed to each other with respect to the rotation shaft in a cross section;

A second single-opposed-polarity rotor provided in the rotation shaft so as to face the first single-opposed-polarity rotor at a predetermined distance along the rotation shaft, surrounded by the even number of stator cores, and having third and fourth magnets magnetised such that the even number of stator cores remain facing a second polarity which is opposite to the polarity of the first polarity, the third and fourth magnets being disposed opposite to each other with respect to the rotation shaft;

A plurality of windings provided in the even number of stator cores and connected according to a predetermined configuration, characterised in that:

A rotating magnetic field which causes electromagnetic induction in the even number of stator cores successively is created by the first, second, third and fourth magnets when the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors are rotated; and

Periodic increase and decrease in the number of magnetic flux lines crossing a given winding and associated periodic decrease and increase crossing an adjacent winding causes a periodic electromotive force having a rectangular waveform to be output.

In one aspect of the present invention, the plurality of windings connected according to the predetermined configuration form first and second serial circuits:

The first serial circuit outputs a periodic first electromotive force having a rectangular waveform when a rotating magnetic field which causes electromagnetic induction in the even number of stator cores successively is created by the first, second, third and fourth magnets when the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors are rotated; and

The second serial circuit outputs a periodic second electromotive force of a rectangular waveform 180° out of phase with the first electromotive force and having the same period as the first electromotive force, when a rotating magnetic field which causes electromagnetic induction in the even number of stator cores successively is created by the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors are rotated.

The induction generator of the present invention may also comprise:
Rotation position detecting means for detecting a position of the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors during their rotation; and

Switching means which alternately causes positive components of the first electromotive force having a rectangular waveform and provided by the first serial circuit, or positive components of the second electromotive force having a rectangular waveform and provided by the second serial circuit to be output at intervals of an electrical angle of 180°.

In another aspect of the present invention, the plurality of windings comprise a first winding provided in a first stator core of the even number of stator cores, a second winding provided in a second stator core adjacent to the first stator core so as to wind in a direction opposite to a direction in which the first winding is provided, a third winding provided in a third stator core adjacent to the second stator core so as to wind in the same direction as the first winding, a fourth winding provided in a fourth stator core adjacent to the third stator core so as to wind in a direction opposite to a direction in which the third winding is provided, the first through fourth windings being connected with each other according to a predetermined configuration.

In still another aspect of the present invention, the first serial circuit comprises a first winding provided to wind in a first direction in a first stator core of the even number of stator cores, a second winding serially connected to the first winding and provided in a second stator core adjacent to the first stator core so as to wind in a second direction opposite to the first direction, a third winding serially connected with the second winding and provided in a third stator core adjacent to the second stator core so as to wind in the first direction, a fourth winding serially connected to the third winding and provided in a fourth stator core adjacent to the third stator core so as to wind in the second direction; and

The second serial circuit comprises a fifth winding provided to wind in the second direction in the first stator core, a sixth winding serially connected to the fifth winding and provided in the second stator core so as to wind in the first direction, a seventh winding serially connected with the sixth winding and provided in the third stator core so as to wind in the second direction, an eighth winding serially connected to the seventh winding and provided in the fourth stator core so as to wind in the first direction.

In yet another aspect of the present invention, the first through fourth magnets are arc-shaped; and

the even number of stator cores have arc-shaped cross sections.

In still another aspect of the present invention, the arc-shaped first through fourth magnets and the stator cores which have arc-like cross sections have an almost identical circumferential length.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig.1A and Fig.1B are diagrams explaining the principle of an induction generator;

Fig.2A and Fig.2B are diagrams showing a first embodiment of the present invention;

Fig.3A and Fig.3B are diagrams showing a single-opposed-polarity rotor 11N according to the first embodiment of the present invention;

Fig.4A and Fig.4B are diagrams showing a single-opposed-polarity rotor 11S according to the first embodiment of the present invention;

Fig.5A, Fig.5B and Fig.5C are diagrams showing how wirings are connected with each other according to the first embodiment of the present invention;

Fig.6A is a diagram schematically showing how a rotating magnetic field according to the first embodiment crosses windings 7c-10c;

Fig.6B shows a magnetic path;

Fig.7 is a diagram showing a waveform of an output voltage according to the first embodiment;

Fig.8A and Fig.8B are diagrams showing a second embodiment of the present invention;

Fig.9 is a diagram showing how wirings are connected with each other according to a second embodiment; and
Fig.10 is a diagram showing a waveform of an output voltage according to the second embodiment.

BEST MODE FOR CARRYING OUT THE INVENTION

Fig.2A and Fig.2B show a first embodiment of the present invention. Specifically, Fig.2A is a longitudinal sectional view and Fig.2B is a cross-sectional view taken in the line 1B-1B' of Fig.2A.

Referring to Fig.2A and Fig.2B, 3 indicates a rotation shaft formed of a non-magnetic material and driven by an external means; 4a and 4b bearings for supporting the rotation shaft 3; 5a and 5b are flanges provided with the bearings 4a and 4b, respectively; and 6 is a cylindrical case cover for accommodating the flanges 5a and 5b.

Stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10 are arranged so as to encircle the rotation shaft 3, equidistant gaps g1 being provided between the adjacent stator cores. Each of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10 has the same arc-like cross section.

A single-opposed-polarity N-pole rotor 11N and a single-opposed-polarity S-pole rotor 11S are provided on the rotation shaft 3 so as to be opposite to each other. The single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N and 11S are surrounded by the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10, a small rotation gap g0 being provided between the single-opposed-polarity rotor and the stator core.
Referring to Fig.2B, windings 7c and 9c are provided clockwise around the stator cores 7 and 9, respectively. Windings 8c and 10c are wound counterclockwise around the stator cores 8 and 10, respectively. The windings 7c, 8c, 9c and 10c are connected with each other in a configuration described later.

Fig.3A and Fig.3B show the single-opposed-polarity rotor 11N. Specifically, Fig.3A is a longitudinal sectional view, and Fig.3B is a cross-sectional view. The single-opposed-polarity rotor 11N has arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 which are 180° displaced from each other and are magnetised such that their surfaces which face the stator cores 7-10 are N-poles while their inner surfaces are S-poles. The arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 are configured to match the outline of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10. Referring to Fig.3B, the symbols N and N' are used so as to differentiate between the magnets 12 and 13.

A rotor piece 14 is positioned so as to connect the arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13. The rotor piece 14 is magnetised by the arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 so that it's surfaces which face the arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 are S-poles and is formed of a substance (for example, a silicon steel) constructed of a low carbon steel having mixed therein several percent of non-ferrous metal subjected to a forging-cast process. The iron core embodied by the rotor piece 14 thus constructed is characterised by a well-balanced magnetic field where the permeability approximates a peak value in a unipolar magnetic field that the iron core presents to its surroundings.
Fig. 4A and Fig. 4B show the single-opposed-polarity rotor 11S. Specifically, Fig. 4A is a longitudinal sectional view, and Fig. 4B is a cross-sectional view.

The single-opposed-polarity rotor 11S has arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 which are 180° displaced from each other and are magnetised such that the surfaces thereof facing the stator cores 7-10 are S-poles while their inner surfaces are N-poles. The arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 are configured to match the outline of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10.

A rotor piece 17 is positioned so as to connect the arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16. The rotor piece 17 is magnetised by the arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 so that its surfaces which face the arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 are N-poles. The rotor piece is made from a substance constructed from a low carbon steel having mixed in it, several percent of non-ferrous metal subjected to a forging-cast process. The iron core embodied by the rotor piece 17 thus constructed is characterised by a well-balanced magnetic field where the permeability approximates a peak value in a unipolar magnetic field that the iron core presents to its surroundings.

The arc-shaped magnets 12, 13, 15 and 16 have the same circumferential length, which is also equal to the length of the arc formed by the circumference of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10. More specifically, this length is obtained by dividing the entire hypothetical circumference minus the four gaps by four. Referring to Fig. 2A and Fig. 2B, the rotation gap \( g_0 \) is equal to \( R_1 - R \), where \( R_1 \) is a distance between the centre of the rotation shaft 3 and the inner surface of the stator cores 7-10, and \( R \) is a distance between the centre of the rotation shaft 3 and the outer surface of the single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N and 11S, as indicated in Fig. 3B and Fig. 4B.
Fig. 5A, Fig. 5B and Fig. 5C, show how the wirings are connected with each other. T₁ indicates the beginning of a winding, T₂ the end of a winding, and 18 and 19 output terminals. More specifically, Fig. 5A shows a serial connection configuration, Fig. 5B a serial-parallel connection configuration, and Fig. 5C a parallel connection configuration. The serial connection configuration allows the electromotive force induced in the windings to be added together and provides a high-voltage output. The parallel connection configuration allows currents resulting from the electromotive force induced in the windings to be added together and provides a large-current output.

A description will now be given, with reference to Fig. 6A, Fig. 6B and Fig. 7, of power generation operation of the serial connection configuration.

Fig. 6A is a diagram showing schematically how the rotating magnetic field provided by the single-opposed-polarity rotors 11S and 11N crosses windings 7c-10c. Fig. 6B shows a magnetic path.

Referring to Fig. 6A, 2πR indicates rotating magnetic flux rotating along the circumference 2πR x R. Fig. 6B shows the arc-shaped magnets 12 and 15 directly opposite the stator core 7 over their entire length, and the arc-shaped magnets 13 and 16 directly opposite the stator core 9 over their entire length.
As shown in Fig. 6B, the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ forms a magnetic path as follows:

The rotor piece 14 (S) - the arc-shaped magnet pole 12 (N) - stator core 7 - the rotation gap $g_0$ - the arc-shaped magnet 15 (S) - the rotor piece 17 (N).

The magnetic flux $\Phi_2$ forms a magnetic path as follows:

The rotor piece 14 (S) - the arc-shaped magnet 13 (N) - the rotation gap $g_0$ - the stator core 9 - the rotation gap $g_0$ - the arc-shaped magnet 16 (S) - the rotor piece 17 (N).

Thus, a parallel magnetic path is formed. In this state, the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding $7c$, and the magnetic flux $\Phi_2$ crosses the winding $9c$.

A description focused on the rotation of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ is given. Specifically, a description will be given of a change in the way the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the windings.
Referring to a waveform of an output voltage shown in Fig.7, the entirety of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding \textbf{10c} at a time $t_1$. At a time $t_2$, the entirety of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding \textbf{7c}. At a time $t_3$, the entirety of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding \textbf{8c}. At a time $t_4$, the entirety of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding \textbf{9c}. At a time $t_5$, the entirety of the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ crosses the winding \textbf{10c}. In this way, the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ rotates at a constant speed during a time $T$, in a clockwise direction in Fig.6A.

Between the time $t_1$ and the time $t_2$, an electromotive force having a descending triangular waveform, indicated by $I$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{10c} due to a decrease in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{10c}. An electromotive force having an ascending triangular waveform, indicated by $I'$ in Fig.6, is generated in the winding \textbf{7c} due to an increase in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{7c}. Accordingly, a positive rectangular waveform obtained by the sum of these triangular waveforms is output to the output terminals \textbf{18} and \textbf{19}.

Between the time $t_2$ and the time $t_3$, an electromotive force having an ascending triangular waveform, indicated by $II$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{7c} due to a decrease in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{7c}. An electromotive force having a descending triangular waveform, indicated by $II'$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{8c} due to an increase in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{8c}. Accordingly, a negative rectangular waveform obtained by the sum of these triangular waveforms is output to the output terminals \textbf{18} and \textbf{19}.

Between the time $t_3$ and the time $t_4$, an electromotive force having a descending triangular waveform, indicated by $III$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{8c} due to a decrease in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{8c}. An electromotive force having an ascending triangular waveform, indicated by $III'$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{9c} due to an increase in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{9c}. Accordingly, a positive rectangular waveform obtained by the sum of these triangular waveforms is output to the output terminals \textbf{18} and \textbf{19}.

Between the time $t_4$ and the time $t_5$, an electromotive force having an ascending triangular waveform, indicated by $IV$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{9c} due to a decrease in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{9c}. An electromotive force having a descending triangular waveform, indicated by $IV'$ in Fig.7, is generated in the winding \textbf{10c} due to an increase in the number of magnetic flux lines of the magnetic flux $\Phi$ crossing the winding \textbf{10c}. Accordingly, a negative rectangular waveform obtained by the sum of these triangular waveforms is output to the output terminals \textbf{18} and \textbf{19}.

While the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ makes one rotation, an electromotive force having a synthesised rectangular waveform and a period of $T/2$ is output, as shown in Fig.7. Since the magnetic flux $\Phi_2$ also makes one rotation while the magnetic flux $\Phi_1$ makes one rotation and produces an output of an electromotive force having a similar rectangular waveform, the magnitude of the electromotive force obtained between the terminals \textbf{18} and \textbf{19} is actually double that indicated in Fig.7.

In this way, this embodiment makes it possible to cancel a counter magnetic field and provide an induction generator having a pair of magnetic poles of the same polarity opposed to each other with respect to a rotation shaft and characterised by a high energy conversion efficiency. Our operating practice has confirmed that the generator having the construction of this embodiment provides an energy conversion efficiency which is high enough to require only 1/5.2 of the driving torque for the conventional generator.
Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B show a second embodiment of the present invention. Specifically, Fig. 8A is a longitudinal sectional view, and Fig. 8B is a cross-sectional view taken in the line 7B-7B' of Fig. 8A.

Referring to Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B, 3 indicates a rotation shaft formed of a non-magnetic material and driven by an external source; 4a and 4b are bearings which support the rotation shaft 3, 5a and 5b are flanges housing the bearings 4a and 4b, and 6 is a cylindrical case cover for accommodating the flanges 5a and 5b.

Stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10 are arranged so as to encircle the rotation shaft 3, equidistant gaps g1 being provided between the adjacent stator cores. Each of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10 has a same arc-like cross section.

A single-opposed-polarity N-pole rotor 11N and a single-opposed-polarity S-pole rotor 11S are provided on the rotation shaft 3 so as to be opposite to each other. The single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N and 11S are surrounded by the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10 a small rotation gap g0 being provided between the single-opposed-polarity rotor and the stator core.

Referring to Fig. 8B, windings 7c and 9c are provided clockwise around the stator cores 7 and 9, respectively. Windings 27c and 29c are provided counterclockwise around the stator cores 7 and 9, respectively. Windings 8c and 10c are provided counterclockwise in the stator cores 8 and 10, respectively. Windings 28c and 30c are wound clockwise around the stator cores 8 and 10, respectively. The windings 7c, 8c, 9c, 10c, 27c, 28c, 29c and 30c are connected with each other according to a configuration described later.

A magnetic sensor (for rotation position detection) 31 is provided between the stator cores 7 and 10, and a magnetic sensor (for rotation position detection) 32 is provided between the stator cores 7 and 8. The magnetic sensors 31 and 32 detect the magnetic field so as to determine the position of the single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N and 11S during their rotation.

The single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N has a configuration as shown in Fig. 3A and Fig. 3B, and the monopole rotor 11S has a configuration as shown in Fig. 4A and Fig. 4B.

The single-opposed-polarity rotor 11N has arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 which are 180° displaced from each other and are magnetised such that their surfaces facing the stator cores are N-poles while their respective inner surfaces are S-poles. The arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13 are configured to match the outline of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10.

A rotor piece 14 is positioned so as to connect the arc-shaped magnets 12 and 13. The rotor piece 14 is constructed from a low-carbon steel having several percent of non-ferrous metal, using a forging-cast process. The iron core rotor piece 14 constructed by this means, has a well-balanced magnetic field where the permeability approximates a peak value in a unipolar magnetic field that the iron core presents to its surroundings.

The single-opposed-polarity rotor 11S has arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 which are positioned 180° apart from each other and are magnetised so that their surfaces which face the stator cores are S-poles while their inner...
surfaces are N-poles. The arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16 are shaped and positioned so as to match the outline of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10.

A rotor piece 17 is positioned so as to connect the arc-shaped magnets 15 and 16. The rotor piece 17 is constructed from a low-carbon steel having several percent of non-ferrous metal, using a forging-cast process. The iron core rotor piece 17 constructed by this means, has a well-balanced magnetic field where the permeability approximates a peak value in a unipolar magnetic field which the iron core presents to its surroundings.

The arc-shaped magnets 12, 13, 15 and 16 have the same circumferential lengths, which is equal to the length of the arc formed by the circumference of the stator cores 7, 8, 9 and 10. More specifically, this length is obtained by dividing by four, the entire hypothetical circumference minus the four gaps $g_1$. Referring to Figs. 3A, 3B, 4A, 4B and 8, the rotation gap $g_0$ is equal to $R_1 - R$.

Fig. 9 shows how the wirings are connected with each other. $T_1$ indicates the beginning of a winding, $T_2$ the end of a winding, and 18 and 19 are the output terminals.

Two serial circuits are formed out of the windings. Switches SW1 and SW2 are used for selection of the respective serial circuits. A switching control circuit 40, which processes a detection signal from the magnetic sensors 31 and 32, drives the switches SW1 and SW2 selectively in accordance with the detection signal.

As shown in Fig. 9, the first serial circuit comprises the winding 7c provided clockwise in the stator core 7, the winding 8c serially connected with the winding 7c and provided counterclockwise in the stator core 8 adjacent to the stator core 7; the winding 9c serially connected with the winding 8c and provided clockwise in the stator core 9; and the winding 10c serially connected with the winding 9c and provided counterclockwise in the stator core 10 adjacent to the stator core 9.

As shown in Fig. 9, the second serial circuit comprises the winding 27c provided counterclockwise in the stator core 7; the winding 28c serially connected with the winding 27c and provided clockwise in the stator core 8; the winding 29c serially connected with the winding 28c and provided counterclockwise in the stator core 9; and the winding 30c serially connected with the winding 29c and provided clockwise in the stator core 10.

According to the construction described above, a rotating magnetic field which causes electromagnetic induction in the stator cores 7-10 successively is created by the arc-shaped magnets 12, 13, 15 and 16 when the single-opposed-polarity rotors 11N and 11S are rotated. As has been already explained with reference to Fig. 6A, Fig. 6B and Fig. 7, as the magnetic flux lines crossing one of the windings 7c-10c increase in number, the magnetic flux lines crossing the adjacent one of the windings 7c-10c decrease in number. That is, the magnetic
flux lines periodically increase and decrease with respect to a given winding so that a first electromotive force, having a rectangular waveform similar to the one shown in Fig. 7 and a period that is 1/2 the period of the rotation, is output from the first serial circuit (7c-10c).

As the magnetic flux lines crossing one of the windings 27c-30c increase in number, the magnetic flux lines crossing the adjacent one of the windings 27c-30c decrease in number. That is, the magnetic flux lines periodically increase and decrease with respect to a given winding so that a second electromotive force of a rectangular waveform 180° out of phase with the first electromotive force and having the same period as the first electromotive force is output from the second serial circuit (27c-30c). That is, the second electromotive force is 180° out of phase with the electromotive force shown in Fig. 7.

Referring to Fig. 10, in accordance with the detection signal from the magnetic sensors 31 and 32, the switches SW1 and SW2 effect switching at 90° intervals. By that means, the positive components I and III of the first electromotive force having a rectangular waveform and provided from the first serial circuit, and the positive components II and IV of the second electromotive force having a rectangular waveform and provided from the second serial circuit are alternately selected at 180° intervals and output to the output terminals 18 and 19.

This means that, this embodiment ensures a high-efficiency energy conversion wherein a counter magnetic field is cancelled, and a DC electromotive force having a positive level is properly synthesised and output. It is of course possible to synthesise and output a negative DC electromotive force by shifting the switching timing by 180°.

**INDUSTRIAL APPLICABILITY**

As has been described, according to the present invention, the rotation of the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors generates a rotating magnetic field which causes an induction in an even number of stator cores successively. As the magnetic flux lines crossing one of the first-through-fourth windings increase in number, the magnetic flux lines crossing the adjacent one of the first-through-fourth windings decrease in number. That is, the magnetic flux lines periodically increase and decrease with respect to a given winding. The electromotive force generated as the magnetic flux lines crossing a winding increase in number and the electromotive force generated as the magnetic flux lines crossing an adjacent winding decrease in number are synthesised so that a periodic AC electromotive force having a rectangular waveform is generated out of the synthesis and output. In this way, a high-efficiency energy conversion wherein a counter magnetic field is cancelled is provided.

According to the first serial circuit of the present invention, the rotation of the first and second single-opposed-polarity rotors generates a rotating magnetic field which causes an induction in an even number of stator cores successively. As the magnetic flux lines crossing one of the first through fourth windings increase in number, the magnetic flux lines crossing the adjacent one of the first through fourth windings decrease in number. That is, the magnetic flux lines periodically increase and decrease in a given winding. Accordingly, the first electromotive force having a rectangular waveform is output. According to the second serial circuit, as the magnetic flux lines crossing one of the fifth-through-eighth windings increase in number, the magnetic flux lines crossing the adjacent one of the fifth-through-eighth windings decrease in number. That is, the magnetic flux lines periodically increase and decrease in a given winding. Accordingly, the second electromotive force 180° out of phase with the first electromotive force and having the same period as the first electromotive force is output. In accordance with the detection signal from the rotation position detecting means, the switching means selectively causes the positive components of the first electromotive force provided by the first serial circuit, or the positive components of the second electromotive force provided by the second serial circuit to be output at 180° intervals. In this way the DC electromotive force is synthesised and output. This results in a high-efficiency energy conversion where a counter magnetic field is cancelled.

In addition to extensive applications in power plants, ships, aircraft etc., the present invention may find household applications or may be conveniently adapted for leisure uses.
ENERGY SOURCE EMPLOYING ELECTRICAL ENERGISER

This patent application shows the details of a device which it is claimed, can produce electricity without the need for any fuel. It should be noted that while construction details are provided which imply that the inventor constructed and tested several of these devices, this is only an application and not a granted patent.

ABSTRACT
An energy producing system is provided which produces energy for use, for example, in an electric vehicle or in a home power plant. The system includes an electrical energiser (60) including a double-wound rotor and a double-wound stator, for producing electrical energy which is stored in the system, e.g. in a battery (66) storage arrangement, which provides initial energisation of the system. The stored energy is supplied to an electric motor (68) which drives the energiser (60) to thereby create additional energy. The energiser is able to supply the needs of the system as well as to power a load.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
The present invention relates to energy producing systems and, more particularly, to an electrical energiser-motor system for providing energy, e.g., for an automotive vehicle or as part of a home energy plant.

With the advent of the so-called “energy crisis” and the consequent search for alternative energy sources to substitute for oil, considerable attention has been focused on automotive vehicles as chief users of oil products. One aspect of this search has fostered renewed interest in electrically driven vehicles such as electric cars and the like. A principal shortcoming of prior-art electrical vehicles has been the need to recharge the batteries which provide the power for the electrical motor drive system.

The present invention overcomes this problem through the provision of an electrical energiser-motor system which produces more energy than is expended, thereby enabling the excess energy to be stored in the battery system, to be drawn upon as required. Thus, the need for recharging of the batteries associated with conventional electrical vehicles is eliminated with the system of this invention. It should be noted that while the system of the invention has enormous potential in connection with its use in electrical vehicles, the system is clearly not limited to such use and would obviously be advantageous when used, for example, as the energy source for a home energy plant, as well as in many other applications.

In accordance with the invention, and energy producing system of the type described above is provided which comprises and electrical "energiser" comprising at least one double-wound stator and at least one double-wound shaft-mounted rotor located within a housing, electrical energy being collected from the rotor through a suitable electrical take-off device and being available for utilisation by the system, and an electric motor, powered by the energiser for driving the rotor shaft of the energiser. A battery arrangement is initially used to supply energy to the system and, as stated above, the excess energy generated by the energiser over and above that required by the system and the system load, is stored through charging of the batteries. The motor includes an armature with a plurality of winding slots in it and a plurality of windings being wound into two circumferentially spaced slots in the armature, i.e. such a winding is wound through a first slot (e.g. slot 1) and returned through a second spaced slot (e.g. slot 5). Depending on the energy demands, the energiser may include a pair of stators and rotors, with the rotors being mounted on a common shaft. The motor is preferably energised through an arrangement of a commutator and plural brushes, while a slip ring and associated brushes connected to an output bridge circuit form the energy take-off for the energiser.

Other features and advantages of the invention will be shown in the detailed description of the preferred embodiments which follows.
Fig. 1 is a partially sectioned elevational view of the electrical "energiser" of the invention.

**FIG. 1**

Fig. 2 is a block diagram of the overall energy-producing system of the invention.

**FIG. 2**

Fig. 3 is a partially sectioned side elevational view of a modified electrical motor constructed in accordance with the invention.

**FIG. 3**
Fig. 4 is an exploded perspective view of the basic components of the motor of Fig. 3.

Fig. 5 is an end view of the brush holder also illustrated in Fig. 4.

Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 show details of the winding pattern of the motor of Fig. 3.
Referring to Fig.1, a preferred embodiment of the “energiser” device of the invention is shown. The device includes a housing 10, in which are located, in a first chamber or compartment 10a, a first rotor 12 and a first stator 14 and, in a second compartment 10b, a second rotor 16, and a second stator 18. It should be noted that although two stator-rotor combinations are used in this embodiment, a single stator-rotor combination can be used for some applications. Housing 10 is divided into the compartments 10a and 10b, by a centre plate 20 and it includes a pair of end plates 22 and 24. Both the rotors 12, 16 and the stators 14, 18 are double wound and the rotors 12, 16 are nested inside their respective stators 14 and 18 and mounted for rotation on a common shaft 26. Shaft 26 extends longitudinally through housing 10 and is mounted on bearings 28 and 30, supported by end plates 22 and 24, and a further bearing 32 which is supported by central plate 20.

A pair of slip rings 34 and 36, are mounted on shaft 26 and connect with their corresponding brush pairs 38 and 40. Slip rings 34 and 36 are connected to rotors 12 and 16 respectively, and permit the current flowing in the rotor windings to be collected through the associated pairs of brushes 38 and 40. Brush pairs 38 and 40 are mounted on respective brush holders 42 and 44. The terminals of respective bridge circuits 46 and 48 are connected to stators 14 and 18, while conversion bars 50 and 52 are connected to brush holders 42 and 44, as indicated.
A cooling fan 54, is also mounted on shaft 26 and a plurality of apertures 201, 22a and 24a are provided in centre plate 20 and end plates 22 and 24, to promote cooling of the device. The energiser of Fig.1 is preferably incorporated in a system such as shown in a highly schematic manner in Fig.2 where the output of the energiser is used to supply the energy for driving a motor. To this end, the energiser, which is denoted by 60 in Fig.2, is connected through a regulator 62, to battery charger 64 for batteries 66 connected to a motor 68. These batteries 66 are used to provide the initial energisation of the system as well as to store energy produced by the energiser 60. It will be understood that the energiser 60 provides energy enough to power motor 68 (which, in turn, drives energiser 60 through rotation of shaft 26) as well as to provide storage for energy in the system. It will also be appreciated that the system illustrated schematically in Fig.2 includes suitable controls (switches, rheostats, sensors, etc.) to provide initial energisation as well as appropriate operational control of the system.

In a preferred embodiment, motor 68 is of the form shown in Fig.3. As illustrated, the motor is of a generally conventional form (with exceptions noted below) and comprises an armature 70, mounted on a shaft 72 within housing 74. Housing 74 includes a pair of end plates 76 and 78, which mount shaft bearings 77 and 79. Apertures 76a and 78a are provided in end plates 76 and 78 and a cooling fan 80 is mounted on shaft 72 to provide cooling.
A commutator 82 is also mounted on shaft 72, and co-operates with associated brushes (not shown in Fig.1), to conduct current to the windings of armature 70. This co-operation is shown best in Fig.4 which is an exploded view, illustrating the armature 70, commutator 82 and a brush holder 84.

As shown in Fig.5, the brush holder 84 includes eight brush mounts 86, each of which defines a slot 88 in which a pair of brushes is mounted. One brush 90 is shown in Fig.5, it being understood that two such brushes are mounted in each slot 88 so that sixteen brushes are required.

The motor of Fig.3 to Fig.6 includes eight pole shoes (not shown) which are secured to housing 74 and which serve to mount eight field coils or windings 92 (see Fig.3 and Fig.4) spaced out around the periphery of armature 72.

An important feature of the motor of Fig.3 to Fig.6 concerns the manner in which the windings for armature 70 are wound. As illustrated in Fig.3, Fig.6 and Fig.7, a typical winding W1 is wound in two slots, with the illustrated winding being doubled back and continuing from armature slot S1 to armature slot S5 (see Fig.3 and Fig.6). Similarly, the winding in slot S2 continues to slot S6, the winding of slot S3 continues to slot S7, and so on for the forty-nine windings.

In a specific preferred embodiment, the motor described above is a 48-volt, 412 horsepower motor having a top operating speed of 7,000 rpm. A rheostat control (not shown) is used to control the input voltage and, as discussed above, the motor is powered from the energiser of Fig.1. It will be appreciated that the energy take-off from the system is preferably from the output shaft of the motor, although the electrical energy may also be tapped off from the energiser output.

Although the invention has been described in relation to exemplary embodiments, it will be understood by those skilled in the art, that variations and modifications can be effected in these embodiments without departing from the scope and spirit of the invention.
TERUO KAWAI: ELECTRIC MOTOR


MOTIVE POWER-GENERATING DEVICE

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes a motor which has an output power greater than its input power.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

It is an object of the invention to provide a motive power generation device in which the occurrence of a force acting in a direction opposite to the direction of movement of a rotor and/or a stator is prevented, so as to permit efficient use of electric energy to be applied to electromagnets, as well as magnetic energy generated by a permanent magnet.

In order to achieve the above object, the first invention comprises a permanent magnet disposed around a rotational output shaft which is mounted on a bearing, a magnetic body positioned concentrically with the permanent magnet for rotation with the output shaft, the magnetic body being subjected to the magnetic flux of the permanent magnet, a plurality of electromagnets permanently mounted on the support member so that they are spaced a predetermined distance around the periphery of the magnetic material, each magnetic circuit of the electromagnets being independent of one another and the excitation change-over mechanism of the electromagnets which can sequentially magnetise one of the electromagnets which is positioned forward, with regard to a rotational direction, of the output shaft, so as to impart to the electromagnet a magnetic polarity magnetically opposite to that of the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet, whereby a magnetic flux passing through the magnetic body converges in one direction thereby applying a rotational torque to the output shaft.

According to the first invention, when one of the electromagnets which is positioned ahead in the rotational direction of the rotational output shaft, a magnetic field created by the excited electromagnet and a magnetic field created by the permanent magnet interact with each other. Thus, the magnetic flux passing through the magnetic body converges toward the exited electromagnet, so as to rotate the rotational output shaft by a predetermined angle toward the excited electromagnet. When the rotational output shaft has been rotated by the predetermined angle, the above excited electromagnet is de-magnetised, and another electromagnet currently positioned ahead with respect to the rotational direction of the rotor output shaft is excited or magnetised. Sequential excitation of the electromagnets in the above manner permits rotation of the output shaft in a predetermined direction. In this regard, it should be noted that the electromagnets are excited so as to have a magnetic polarity opposite to that of the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet and that the magnetic circuit of the excited electromagnets is independent from those of adjacent electromagnets. Thus, the magnetic flux generated by the excited electromagnet is prevented from passing through magnetic circuits of adjacent electromagnets, which, if it occurs, might cause the electromagnets to be magnetised to have the same polarity as that of the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet. Accordingly, no objectionable force will be generated which might interfere with rotation of the output shaft.

In order to achieve the above object, the second invention comprises a permanent magnet mounted on a movable body arranged movably along a linear track, a magnetic body mounted on the permanent magnet, the magnetic body being subjected to a magnetic flux of the permanent magnet, a plurality of electromagnets spaced an appropriate distance along the linear track, the electromagnets having magnetic circuits which are independent of one another and the excitation mechanism arranged to magnetise each of the electromagnets sequentially when each is positioned forward of the movable body, (with respect to the direction of movement) so as to impart to the excited electromagnet a magnetic polarity opposite to that of the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet and that the magnetic circuit of the excited electromagnets is independent from those of adjacent electromagnets. Thus, the magnetic flux generated by the excited electromagnet is prevented from passing through magnetic circuits of adjacent electromagnets, which, if it occurs, might cause the electromagnets to be magnetised to have the same polarity as that of the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet. Accordingly, no objectionable force will be generated which might interfere with rotation of the movable body.

According to the second invention, when the electromagnet positioned ahead of the forward end of the movable body with regard to the direction of the movement of the movable body is excited, a magnetic field generated by the excited electromagnet and magnetic field generated by the permanent magnet interact with each other. Thus, a magnetic flux passing through the magnetic body converges toward the excited electromagnet, so as to displace the movable body a predetermined distance toward the excited electromagnet. When the movable body has been moved the predetermined distance, the movable body is positioned below the above excited electromagnet, and another electromagnet is positioned ahead of the forward end of the movable body. When this occurs, excitation of the electromagnet positioned above the movable body is interrupted, and excitation of the electromagnet now positioned ahead of the forward end of the movable body is initiated. Sequential excitation of
the electromagnets in the above manner permits movement of the movable body in a predetermined direction. It should be noted that no objectionable force which would interfere with movement of the movable body is created for the same reason as that explained in relation to the first invention.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig. 1 is a front elevational view, partly in section and partly omitted, of a motor according to a first embodiment of the invention;
Fig. 2 is a sectional view along line II--II in Fig. 1;
FIG. 3 is a rear elevational view of the motor provided with a light shield plate thereon;
Fig. 4A through Fig. 4H illustrate operation of the motor when the electromagnets are excited or magnetised;
FIG. 4C

FIG. 4D
Fig. 5A is an illustrative view showing a magnetic path of magnetic flux created by a permanent magnet of the motor when the electromagnets are not magnetised;
Fig. 5B is an illustrative view showing a magnetic path of magnetic flux created by the permanent magnet of the motor, as well as magnetic path of magnetic flux created by the electromagnets;
FIGS. 6 through 9 are cross-sectional view illustrating a modified form of the motor;
FIGS. 10A through 10C are cross-sectional views illustrating operation of the modified motor;
FIGS. 11A through 11H are illustrative diagrams showing operation of a motor in a form of a linear motor according to a second embodiment of the invention;
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS

Preferred embodiments of the invention will be explained in detail below with reference to the attached drawings.

According to a first embodiment of the invention, a rotational output shaft 11 is mounted in a bearing between front and rear side plates 10a of a support member 10 through bearings 11a, as shown in Fig.1 and Fig.2. A ring of permanent magnets 13 are fitted over the opposite ends of the output shaft, inside the side plates 10a and these move with the rotor shaft 11. The permanent magnets are magnetised in the axial direction. A magnetic body 14 is rigidly mounted between each of the side plates 10a of the rotor shaft 11 and the permanent magnets 13. Each of these magnetic bodies 14 has alternate notches 14a and magnetic teeth 14b. It should be noted that the flux of the permanent magnets 13 passes through the respective magnetic bodies 14. For example, Fig.1 shows the magnetic body 14 with three notches 14a and three magnetic teeth 14b. The permanent magnets 13 and magnetic bodies 14 are positioned co-axially with the rotor output shaft 11. The corresponding permanent magnets 13 and magnetic bodies 14 are shown connected together by bolts 15 so as to form a rotor 12 which is attached to the rotational output shaft 11.

It should be noted that the support member 10 and rotational output shaft are both made from a non-magnetic material. The support member 10 may be formed, for example, from stainless steel, aluminium alloys, or synthetic resins, while the rotational output shaft 11 may be formed from stainless steel, for example. Thus, the magnetic circuit formed by the permanent magnet 13 and magnetic body at one axial end of the rotational output shaft 11 and the magnetic circuit formed by the permanent magnet 13 and magnetic body at the opposite axial end of the output shaft, are independent of one another. The magnetic bodies 14 may be formed from magnetic materials having a high magnetic permeability, such as various kinds of steel materials, silicon steel plate, permalloys, or the like.

The stator contains electromagnets 16a through 16l, which are positioned between the side plates 10a. The electromagnets are evenly spaced around the magnetic pieces 14 so that they surround the magnetic bodies. As shown in Fig.1, twelve electromagnets may be used. The magnetic circuit of each of the electromagnets 16a...
through 16l is arranged so as to be independent of each other, so that no flux of a magnetised electromagnet passes through the iron cores of the adjacent electromagnets.

The iron cores of the electromagnets 16a through 16l are positioned parallel to the rotor axis shaft 11, and positioned with only a slight gap between them and the magnetic bodies 14.

Some of the electromagnets 16a through 16l are located at a position corresponding to boundary portions 14c1 through 14c6 between the notch 14a and the magnetic tooth 14b. For example, as shown in Fig.1, electromagnets 16a, 16b, 16e, 16f, 16i and 16l are positioned opposite the boundary portions 14c1, 14c2, 14c3, 14c4, 14c5, and 14c6, respectively.

Fig.5A shows a path of magnetic flux created by the permanent magnet 13 when the electromagnets are not excited or magnetised, while, Fig.5B shows a path of magnetic flux created by the permanent magnet 13 and a path of magnetic flux created by the windings of the electromagnets when the electromagnets are magnetised. As will be clear from Fig.5A and Fig.5B, both paths of magnetic flux represent a uni-polar distribution in which N-pole or S-pole evenly appears at the opposite axial ends. When the electromagnets are magnetised, the magnetic fields of the permanent magnet and the electromagnets co-operate or interact with each other so as to generate a rotational torque.

Excitation change-over mechanism 17 for sequentially exciting or magnetising the electromagnets 16a through 16l is basically consisted of a conventional excitation circuit for supplying direct current to each windings of the electromagnets 16a through 16l. In this embodiment, the change-over portion for changing electric feed to the electromagnets 16a through 16l includes a plurality of optical sensors 18 and a light shield plate 19 for turning the optical sensors ON and OFF as shown in Fig.6.

The optical sensors 18 are spaced apart from one another with a space between them for permitting the light shield plate 19 to pass through a light emitting element and a light receiving element. The optical sensors 18 are disposed in the outer surface of one of the side plates 10a equally spaced apart along the circumference, so that they are positioned to correspond to the electromagnets 16a through 16l (for example, the optical sensor 18 is shown to be disposed in the outer surface of the rear side plate). The light shielding plate 19 is fixed to the rotational output shaft 11 at the end thereof, the light shielding plate protruding from the rear side plate 10a on which the optical sensors are mounted.

According to the illustrated embodiment, when a particular optical sensor 18 is blocked by the light shielding plate 19, the electromagnet corresponding to such optical sensor 18 is supplied with electricity.

The operation of the first embodiment described above will be explained with reference to Fig.4A through Fig.4H.

When the electromagnets 16a through 16l are not supplied with electricity by means of the excitation changeover mechanism 17, the electromagnets 16c, 16d, 16g, 16h, 16k and 16l opposed to the magnetic teeth 14b with a small gap between them merely serve as a magnetic material disposed within the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 13 (refer to shaded portion in Fig.4A), so as to absorb the magnetic teeth 14b, and the rotor 12 remains stationary.

When the electromagnets 16a, 16e and 16l positioned adjacent to the boundary portion 14c1, 14c3 and 14c5 formed between the respective notches 14a and the magnetic teeth 14b are magnetised or excited simultaneously by means of the excitation change-over mechanism, as shown in Fig.4B, the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 13 and the magnetic fields of the electromagnets 16a, 16e and 16l interact with each other, so that a magnetic flux 14d passing through the magnetic body 14 instantaneously converges to the electromagnets 16a, 16e, and 16l. In this way, the rotor 12 is imparted with a rotational torque in a direction in which the magnetic flux 14d will be widened, i.e., counterclockwise direction as viewed in Fig.4B.

Fig.4C through Fig.4G illustrate change in the width of the magnetic flux 14d in accordance with rotation of the rotor 12. When the width of the magnetic flux becomes maximised, i.e., when only the magnetic teeth 14b are opposed to the electromagnets 16a, 16e and 16l, while the notches 14a are displaced completely away from the electromagnets 16a, 16e and 16l, the width of the magnetic flux 14d is maximised. Thus, an absorption force acting between the permanent magnet 13 and the electromagnets 16a, 16e and 16l is maximised. On the other hand, the rotational torque acting on the rotor 12 becomes zero.
Then, the electromagnets 16c, 16g and 16k are excited. When the boundary portion 14c1, 14c3 and 14c5 approach another electromagnets 16d, 16h and 16l positioned ahead with respect to the rotational direction, in response to rotation of the rotor 12, the electromagnets 16c, 16g and 16k are de-magnetised and the electromagnets 16d, 16h and 16l are energised or excited.

As explained above, sequential excitation or energising of the electromagnets 16a through 16l causes interaction between the magnetic flux of the permanent magnet 13 and the electromagnets 16a through 16l, whereby a rotational torque is applied to the rotor 12.

When this occurs, a rotational torque is generated between one of the magnetic poles of the permanent magnet 13 (for example, N-pole) and the magnetic poles (for example, S-poles) of the electromagnets 16a through 16l positioned at their respective axial ends. A rotational torque is also generated between the other magnetic pole (for example, S-pole) of the permanent magnet 13 and the other magnetic pole (for example, N-pole) of each of the electromagnets 16a through 16l positioned at the other axial end.

It should be noted that, at one magnetic pole, for example N-pole, of the permanent magnet 13, certain of the electromagnets 16a through 16l are magnetised only to S-pole, thus preventing formation of a magnetic circuit, due to passage of magnetic flux from the excited electromagnets through either of the adjacent electromagnets, which tends to bring about N-poles magnetically similar to the permanent magnet 13. It is also noted that, at the other magnetic pole, for example S-pole, of the permanent magnet 13, certain of the electromagnets are magnetised only to N-pole, thus preventing formation of a magnetic circuit, due to passage of magnetic flux from the excited electromagnets through adjacent electromagnets, which tends to bring about S-poles magnetically similar to the permanent magnet 13. The magnetic flux of the permanent magnet 13 passes through the magnetic bodies 14 so as to be converged to the excited electromagnets (refer to the magnetic flux 14d shown in Fig.4 through Fig.4H), thus forming dead zones, through which no magnetic flux passes, in the magnetic bodies 14 at a position opposite to the un-excited electromagnets. Accordingly, no force is generated which would tend to prevent rotation of the rotor 12.

In view of electric energy applied to the electromagnets 16a through 16l, substantially all the electric energy applied is used to contribute to the rotation of the rotor 12. On the other hand, and in view of magnetic energy of the permanent magnet 18, all the magnetic energy contributes to the rotation of the rotor 12.

It is also noted that, since the notches 14a and the magnetic teeth 14b are alternately disposed in the outer periphery of the magnetic materials 14 in an acute angle configuration seen in Fig.4A to Fig.4H, and the electromagnets are disposed at a position each corresponding to the boundary portions between the notches and the magnetic teeth, it is possible for the line of the magnetic force, generated in each gap between the boundary portions and the electromagnets when the electromagnets are excited, to be inclined to a substantial degree, so that a sufficient degree of rotational torque may be obtained upon initial excitation of the electromagnets.

The result obtained during an actual running test of the motor according to the first embodiment is shown in Fig.1 to Fig.3.

Pure steel was used as a magnetic material. The magnetic material was 30 mm in thickness and formed to have magnetic teeth of 218 mm diameter and notches of 158 mm diameter. A ferrite magnet was used as a permanent magnet. The magnetic force of the magnet was 1,000 gauss. Electric power of 19.55 watts was applied to the electromagnets at 17 volts and 1.15 amperes. The above conditions produced a rotational speed of 100 rpm, with a torque of 60.52 Kg-cm and an output of 62.16 watts.

Alternative embodiments will be explained below with reference to Fig.6 through Fig.9.

The modified embodiment shown in Fig.6 is similar to the motor presented as the first embodiment as shown in Fig.1 through Fig.3, with the exception that each electromagnet 160 used as part of the stator, comprises an iron core 161 having a pair of legs 162 which extend towards the outer periphery of the magnetic bodies (outer periphery of the magnetic teeth 14b), each of the legs being wound with coils 163. The remaining components are basically identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 through Fig.3. In Fig.6, the components similar to those in Fig.1 through Fig.6 are denoted by like reference numerals. It should be noted that each coil 163 is supplied with electricity so that one leg 162 (left-hand side in Fig.6) of each of the iron cores 161 is magnetised to be S-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (N-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14, while the leg 162 disposed at the other end of each of the iron cores is magnetised to be N-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (S-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14.
According to this modified embodiment, it is possible to significantly reduce leakage of the magnetic flux created by the electromagnets 160 in gaps each defined between the surfaces of the magnetic poles of the electromagnets 160 and the outer peripheries of the magnetic teeth 14 of the magnetic bodies 14.

An alternative embodiment shown in Fig.7 is similar to the motor shown in Fig.1 through Fig.8, with the exception that: an additional magnetic body 14 is mounted on the rotational output shaft 11 at its axial midpoint; two permanent magnets 130 are freely mounted on the output shaft 11 in the manner shown in Fig.6; and each iron core 165 is provided with three legs 166 positioned at the opposite axial ends and midpoint thereof and extending toward the respective outer periphery of the magnetic bodies, with the legs 166 positioned at axial opposite ends of the respective iron cores 165 being wound with a coil 167, which form electromagnets 164. The remaining components are substantially the same as those in the motor shown in Fig.1 through Fig.3. It should be noted here, that the rotational output shaft 11 may be formed from either magnetic materials or non-magnetic materials.

As shown in Fig.7, each of the coils 167 is supplied with electricity so that the legs 166 positioned at the opposite axial ends of each of the iron cores 164 is magnetised to be S-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (N-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14. By this, the leg 166 positioned at the midpoint of the iron core 165 is magnetised to be N-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (S-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14.

In this embodiment, it is also possible, as in the modified embodiment shown in Fig.6, to significantly reduce the leakage of the magnetic flux generated by the electromagnets 164. In addition to this, it is also possible to obtain a rotational torque between the leg 166 positioned at the midpoint of the iron core and the magnetic body 14 positioned at the axial midpoint of the rotational output shaft 11. Accordingly, a higher rotational torque may be obtained with the same amount of electrical consumption, in comparison with the embodiment shown in Fig.6.

A further embodiment shown in Fig.8 is similar to the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3, with the exception that a permanent magnet magnetised in the radial direction, rather than in the axial direction is employed. The permanent magnet 131 of an annular configuration has, for example, N-pole in the outer periphery and S-pole in the inner periphery. The permanent magnet 131 is received within a cavity 14e provided in the respective magnetic body 14 at the intermediate portion thereof as disposed at the opposite axial ends of the rotational output shaft 11. The remaining components are identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3. The components identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3 are denoted by the same reference numerals. It should be noted that this embodiment may also employ the electromagnets 160 shown in Fig.6.

In this embodiment, the rotational output shaft 11 may be formed from magnetic materials, rather than non-magnetic materials.

Further embodiment shown in Fig.9 is similar to the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3, with three exceptions. The first exception is that a permanent magnet magnetised in the radial direction, rather than in the axial direction is employed. The permanent magnet 131 having an annular configuration has, for example, N-pole in the outer periphery and S-pole in the inner periphery. The permanent magnet 131 is received within a cavity 14e provided in the respective magnetic body 14 at the intermediate portion thereof as disposed at the axial opposite ends of the rotational output shaft 11. The second exception is that an additional magnetic body 14 is disposed at the axial midpoint of the rotational output shaft 11. Finally, the third exception is that the iron core 165 is provided with three legs 166 disposed at the axial opposite ends and the midpoint thereof, respectively, and extending toward the outer periphery of the magnetic body 14, with the legs positioned at the opposite axial ends being wound with respective coils so as to form an electromagnet 164. The remaining components are identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3. The components identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3 are denoted by the same reference numerals.

As shown in Fig.9, each coil is supplied with electricity so that the legs 166 disposed at opposite axial ends of the iron core 165 are magnetised to be S-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (N-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14. By this, the leg 166 disposed at the midpoint of the iron core 165 is magnetised to be N-pole which is magnetically opposite to the magnetic pole (S-pole) of the confronting magnetic body 14.

According to the embodiment described above, the rotational output shaft 11 may be formed from magnetic materials rather than non-magnetic materials. With this embodiment, it is possible to obtain the same effect as that obtained with the embodiment shown in Fig.7.

Further the alternative embodiments shown in Fig.10A to Fig.10C are similar to the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3, with the exception that: like the embodiments shown in Fig.8 and Fig.9, an annular permanent magnet 131 is employed which is received in a cavity 140e provided in the central portion 140 of the magnetic body 140; the magnetic body 140 is provided with notches 140a in the outer peripheral portion thereof, so that the gap G
between the magnetic body 140 and the electromagnet becomes gradually broader in the rotational direction of the rotor; and the electromagnets confronting to the gap G with an intermediate width as positioned between the electromagnets confronting to the gap G with a narrower width and the electromagnets confronting to the gap G with a broader width are excited or magnetised in a sequential manner. The remaining components are identical to those in the motor shown in Fig.1 though Fig.3. In Fig.10A to Fig.10C, the components identical to those in Fig.1 though Fig.3 are denoted by the same reference numerals. In this regard, it should be noted that reference numeral 140d indicates magnetic flux passing through the magnetic body 140, so as to illustrate converged condition of such magnetic flux upon excitation of the electromagnets.

In the embodiment Just described above, it is possible to rotate the rotor in the counter clockwise direction as viewed in Fig.10A, for example, by exciting the electromagnets 16a, 16d, 16g and 16j, as shown in Fig.10A, then, the electromagnets 16c, 16f, 16i and 16l, as shown in Fig.10B, and then the electromagnets 16b, 16e, 16h and 16k. According to this embodiment, it is possible to obtain a stable rotational force, as well as a higher rotational torque, even though number of rotations is reduced in comparison with the above embodiment.

As shown in Fig.10A, four notches 140a are provided. It should be noted, however, that two or three notches may be provided. It is also possible to attach the magnetic material 140 to the rotational output shaft 11 in an eccentric manner in its entirety, without providing notches 140a.

Fig.11A through Fig.11H are illustrative diagrams showing the operation of the second embodiment of the invention when developed into a linear motor type.

According to this embodiment, a movable body 21 is adapted to be moved along a linear track 20 of a roller conveyor type. The track includes a frame on which a plurality of rollers are positioned in parallel relative to one another. A permanent magnet 22 is mounted on the movable body 21. A magnetic body 23 of a plate-like configuration is fixed to the permanent magnet 22 in the upper surface, so as to form a movable element. It should be noted that magnetic flux from the permanent magnet 22 passes through the magnetic body 23. A plurality of electromagnets 25a, 25b, 25c, 25d and so on are disposed above the movable element 24 along the linear track positioned parallel to each other. These electromagnets constitute a stator 25. Magnetic circuits of the electromagnets 25a, 25b, 25c, 25d, and so on, are independent from one another, so that the electromagnets are magnetised in a sequential manner by means of excitation change-over mechanism (not shown), so as to have a magnetic polarity opposite to the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet 22. Power output shafts 21a are attached to a side surface of the movable body 21.

Operation of the above second embodiment will be explained below.

As shown in Fig.11A, and when no electricity is supplied to the electromagnets, the electromagnets 25a and 25b positioned Just above the movable element 24 are subjected to magnetic field of the permanent magnet 22 (refer to shaded portion in Fig.11A). Thus, such electromagnets magnetically absorb the magnetic body 23, so that the movable element 24 remains to be stopped.

As shown in Fig.11B, and when the electromagnet 25c, positioned ahead with respect to the direction in which the movable element 24 moves, is excited, the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 22 and the magnetic field of the electromagnet 25c interact with each other, so that magnetic flux 23a passing through the magnetic body 23 converges instantaneously toward the electromagnet 25c. By this, the movable element 24 is magnetically absorbed to the electromagnet 25c, so that it is moved along the linear track 20 under the propulsive force acting in the direction in which the width of the magnetic flux 23a becomes broader, i.e., in the direction of an arrow mark shown in Fig.11B.

Fig.11C through Fig.11E illustrate a change in width of the magnetic flux 23a in response to movement of the movable element 24. At the point at which the width of the magnetic flux 23a becomes maximised, i.e., when the forward end of the magnetic material 23 of the movable element 24 is positioned just before passing by the electromagnet 25c, the width of the flux 23 becomes maximised. At this time, magnetic absorption acting between the permanent magnet 22 and the electromagnet 25c becomes maximised, but the propulsive force acting on the movable element becomes zero.

Before the propulsive force acting on the movable element 24 becomes completely zero, i.e., when the forward end of the magnetic body 23 of the movable element 24 is about to pass the electromagnet 25d, the excitation changeover mechanism is actuated so as to stop excitation of the electromagnet 25c and so as to initiate excitation of the electromagnet 25d. Thus, the magnetic flux 23a converges to the electromagnet 25d, as shown in Fig.11F, so that a propulsive force acts on the movable element 24, as in the previous stage.

Subsequently, and in response to further movement of the movable element 24, the width of the magnetic flux 23a is reduced as shown in Fig.11G and Fig.11H, and thus a similar operation will be repeated.
The sequential excitation of the electromagnets, as explained above, causes interaction between the magnetic fields of permanent magnet 22 and electromagnets, whereby a propulsive force is applied to the movable element 24.

It should be noted that, when the magnetic polarity of the permanent magnet 22 confronting the electromagnets is assumed to be N-pole, the electromagnet 25c is magnetised solely to be S-pole, so as to prevent formation of a magnetic circuit by virtue of passage of magnetic flux from the electromagnet 25c through to the adjacent electromagnets 25b and 25d, which formation, if it occurs, tends to cause the polarity of the electromagnets to be N-pole identical to the magnetic pole of the permanent magnet 22. Accordingly, and in a manner similar to that in the first embodiment, no force is generated which tends to interfere with movement of the movable element 24.

In the present invention, a plurality of electromagnets serving as a stator are so arranged that their respective magnetic circuits become independent from one another. The electromagnets are also arranged so that they are solely magnetised or excited to have a magnetic polarity opposite to the magnetic pole of the confronting permanent magnet. Thus, each electromagnet is prevented from becoming magnetised to the same polarity as that of the permanent magnet, which may occur when magnetic flux from a particular electromagnet passes through to adjacent electromagnets. Accordingly, no force will be exerted which tends to interfere with the intended movement of a rotor or a movable element. As a result, electric energy applied to the electromagnets may be efficiently utilised, while, at the same time, magnetic energy contained in the permanent magnet may also be efficiently utilised.

The coils constituting the electromagnets are consistently supplied with electric current with the same polarity, without any change, so that heating of coils may be prevented. Further, it is possible to obviate the problems of vibration and noise which might occur due to a repulsive force being generated when polarity of an electric current supplied to the coils is changed.
This patent covers a device which is claimed to have a greater output power than the input power required to run it.

ABSTRACT
A system for generating obvious work motion, or electromagnetic energy (fields of force) or electric current utilising the electromagnetic energy which makes up a matter and results in a greater output of energy, than the initial input of conventional energy means and teachings. A first exemplary embodiment (Fig. 1) of the generator uses a contained fluid (117) surrounding a series of aligned magnets (120); while a second exemplary embodiment (Fig. 3) uses a special material (201) held stationary between two static magnets (202, 203), the special material having its atoms aligned but maintaining the resulting magnetic field at least substantially within its boundary surface; while third and fourth exemplary embodiments (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6) utilise a relatively heavy coil (205) made up of relatively large diameter wire of relatively great length and number of loops and length and a relatively small energising current to drive a rotatable permanent magnet (200).

DESCRIPTION

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Field of the Invention:
The present invention relates generally to devices or systems (including methods) for generating usable energy such as for example electrical energy from electromagnetic fields, electrical energy or electromagnetic fields from matter, and more particularly to devices or systems (including methods) for producing electrical current flow for use as electrical power, and magnetic fields of force which cause motion (obvious work) or electrical current flow or for increasing electromagnetic potential energy available for use or mechanical energy available for use.

2. Prior Art:
There have been many devices proposed over the years for producing electrical-energy, with mechanical friction, thermo-electricity, photoelectricity, piezoelectricity, electrochemistry and electromagnetic induction being the chief forms of primary energy capable of producing electricity. Of these, the only significant source of commercial electrical power has been the mechanical actions of electric generators, and for mobile electric power the chemical action of batteries has been important. Usable motion has resulted from the interactions between the input of electrical energy and the magnetic and/or electromagnetic fields of force (electric motors) and heat or light as a result of input of electrical current through conventional mechanical systems, heaters, lightbulbs, etc.
All of the prior art systems are designed accordingly to rigid mathematical laws taught both in physics and electrical engineering which coincide with the hypothesis rigidly accepted by the industrial and scientific communities concerning the Second Law of Thermodynamics (1850).

From the foregoing generally accepted hypothesis it has also been generally accepted and rigidly taught in physics and electrical engineering that the electric current flowing in a closed circuit from a battery, electric generator, etc.

is used up in the mechanical device being operated by this flow of electric current, and that all such electric current producing systems would only put out at most work equal to the work initially put into the system, or in accordance with generally accepted laws stating that a particular electrical generating system was only capable of a given output of energy and no more.

These beliefs have till this date still remained rigid in both the industrial and scientific communities in spite of proof of Einstein's equation $E=mc^2$. Nuclear reactors convert matter into usable electromagnetic energy in the form of heat, which converts water into steam to turn conventional turbines for production of electric current by conventional electrical generating means. This system is extremely inefficient using less than 1% of the energy of the atom and producing a deluge of contaminated materials which has caused a serious problem as to safe disposal.

Additionally, the basic electrical generators is use throughout the world today utilise the principle of causing relative movement between an electrical conductor (for example a rotor) and a magnetic field produced by a magnet or an electromagnet (for example a stator), all using the generally accepted hypothesis that the greater the relative speed or movement between the two are concerned and the more normal or perpendicular the relative movement of the conductive material to the lines of force of the electromagnetic field, the greater will be the efficiency of the prior art electrical generator. Additionally, all of the prior art systems are based on the generally accepted hypothesis that the greater the electrical conductivity of the material being moved through the field, the more efficient will be the electrical generation.

From the foregoing generally accepted hypotheses, it also has been generally accepted that there should always be movement between, for example, the rotor and stator elements, and that only generally accepted electrical conductors, that is materials with high electrical conductivity, will effectively serve in an electrical generation system.

However, in one of the systems (Fig.3) of the present invention, electrical generation can occur with relatively static elements and with materials that are not generally considered to be of high electrical conductivity, although, of course, the present invention likewise can utilise relatively moving elements as well as materials of generally accepted high electrical conductivity, if so desired, as occurs in the systems of the present invention illustrated in Fig.5 and Fig.6.

The prior art has failed to understand certain physical aspects of matter and the makeup of electromagnetic fields, which failure is corrected by the present invention.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF DRAWINGS
For a further understanding of the nature and objects of the present invention, reference should be had to the following detailed description, taken in conjunction with the accompanying drawings, in which like parts are given like reference numerals and wherein:
Fig. 1 is a schematic, side view in generalised, representational form of a first embodiment of an electrical generator based on the principles and guidelines of the present invention.

Fig. 2 is a close-up view in general form of an electrical charge pick-up element which can be used in the generator illustrated in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 is a schematic view in generalised, representational form of a second embodiment of an electrical generator based on the principles and guidelines of the present invention.
Fig. 4 is a schematic view in generalised, representational form of the negative and positive particles exhibiting gyroscopic actions which emanate from a magnet to form an electromagnetic field.

Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 are schematic views in generalised, representational form of third and fourth embodiments of a combined electrical generator and motor utilising a static, relatively large coil energised by a relatively low current.
driving a rotatable magnet, wherein in the embodiment of Fig.5 the rotatable magnet is positioned along side of the coil and in the embodiment of Fig.6 the rotatable magnet is positioned within the open core of the coil.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF-PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS:

Basic Principles and Guidelines

In accordance with the principles of the present invention and as generally illustrated in Fig.3, an electromagnetic field 10 comprises flows of quanta or particles 20, 30 of electrical energy flowing from each of the poles 21, 31 of a magnet (or electromagnet) 40 to the other pole, following the "lines of force" 11 of the electromagnetic field. These particles 20, 30, believed to be travelling at the speed of light, are always coming out of one end 21, 31, respectively, of the magnet 40 and going into the other pole 31, 21, respectively, flowing from a relatively high energy source to a low energy source.

These particles 20, 30 are, it is believed, negative and positive charges and have a spin producing a gyroscopic motion and follow the mechanical laws of gyroscopic action.

The mass of each of the particles 20, 30 equals the energy of the particle divided by the speed of light squared. The peripheral speed of the gyroscopic spin of the particles is believed to be the speed of light.

For purposes of illustration only and as a matter of nomenclature, the positive charge particle 20 is going in one direction ("N" to "S") with a clockwise spin, and the negative charge particle 30 is going in the opposite direction with a counter-clockwise spin. Of course, if a particle such as 20 or 30 is flipped around one-hundred-and-eighty degrees, it becomes the opposite charge or type of particle.

The electromagnetic field 10 is thus the orderly flow of the positive and negative charges 20, 30 moving at the speed of light from the north and south poles 21, 31, to the south and north poles 31, 21, respectively, and follow the paths of what is termed in the art as the "lines of force" 11 of the electromagnetic field 10.

As is known from the laws of gyroscopes, a gyroscopic particle or body moves at right angles to the direction of an applied force. Therefore, when a force is applied to the electrical energy particles 20, 30, they will move at right angles to that force.

It should also be noted from known gyroscopic laws that the electrical energy particles 20, 30, when they move with their gyroscopic axis straight into an object, tend to knock that object straight, but, if that object hits the particles at an angle to the axis other than at zero or one-hundred-and-eighty degrees, the particles are moved off at an angle from the straight.

Additionally, it is noted that a magnetic field caused by a current flowing through a wire comes from negative and positive particles, such as 20, 30, with a net flow of such particles going in the same direction but with opposite spin.

In the system and method of the present invention, the foregoing principles serve as guidelines in the present invention.

Reference is further had to pages DD23 through DD27 of the Disclosure Document and to page 8, line 26 through page 11, line 23 of the prior application Serial number 25,907 and its Figures 7 - 10.

From the foregoing disclosures, many different devices, structures, and methods are possible to embody the principles and guidelines of the system of the present invention, which will in general utilise a material or substance or structure to place a force at the proper angle to the gyroscopic particles 20, 30 wherein the particles 20, 30 follow a path or paths which do not cancel one another out, thereby producing electrical current at appropriate outputs for further use or for increasing available potential electrical energy for ultimate use.
One possible, exemplary embodiment using the principles of the system of the present invention is schematically shown in the generalised illustration of Fig.1.

As illustrated in Fig.1, there is provided an electrical current generator 100 comprising an outer keeper housing 115 and an inner, pressure containing, closed housing 116 supported therein by insulating supports 105. A vacuum exists in the area 106 between the two housings 115, 116, which vacuum is regulated and induced by means of the vacuum line 104 with its gauge 107 and its control valve 108. The outer housing 115 acts as a keeper for magnetic fields of force, and can be made for example of soft iron, while the vacuum in area 106 prevents the leakage or discharge of static electrical charges which might build up on the exterior of the inner housing 116.

A gas or gas-liquid mixture 117 which may also include solid particles such as for example lead or brass filings, is included within the inner housing 116 surrounding a series of aligned magnets 120 carried by insulating braces or supports 121 and producing a high, combined electromagnetic field. The magnets 120, which can for example be cryogenic magnets, have their "north" and "south" poles aligned (as illustrated by the "Ns" and "Ss") so that their magnetic fields reinforce one another.

The level of the gas or gas-liquid mixture 117 in the housing 116 is regulated by means of the line 122 with its gauge 123 and control valve 124. Electric current output wires 119 are provided and extend down to electrically connect with a wire pick-up system 118 (shown in close-up in Fig.2), which can be for example in the form of very small wires forming a closely spaced network or mesh or of a porous conducting metal body or sheet, located in and extended throughout the fluid 117 in the housing 116.

It is noted that a thimbleful of gas contains a fantastically large number of extremely tiny bodies which are in continuous, random motion moving at extremely high speeds. Hence, the fluid 117 continuously applies a force to the gyroscopic particles (analogous to particles 20, 30 of Fig.3) moving at the speed of light in the high electromagnetic field (produced by the magnets 120) as they continuously collide with each other, which results in the fluid 117 becoming electrically charged. The charged fluid 117 discharges its electrical charge to the pick-up wire network 118 positioned in the fluid, and the electric current so produced and generated is taken off for use via the electrical output wires 119.

As an alternative to having internally contained magnets 120, the electromagnetic field needed in the fluid 117 could be produced by a source located outside of the confines of the fluid 117 as long as a significant field was produced within the fluid 117.
A further exemplary, generalised embodiment utilising the principles of the system of the present invention is shown in schematic form in Fig. 3.

The electrical current generator 200 of Fig. 3 comprises an extended member 201 of a special material having its atoms especially aligned to produce electric current when positioned in an electromagnetic field but which does not on its own exhibit any substantial magnetic field outside of its boundary surfaces but substantially contains the field within itself. This is in contrast to "magnetic" materials which likewise have atom alignment but which also exhibit or produce a substantial magnetic field in the area surrounding it.

The generator 200 further comprises for example two magnets 202, 203, with their north and south poles facing each other, with the member 201 positioned between them, and with the three elements 201-203 held static with respect to each other. Because of the special nature of the material of the member 201 and its special atom alignment, it will produce a direct current through output line 204 as a result of the gyroscopic actions of the particles of the electromagnetic field 205 produced by the facing magnets 202, 203, on the especially aligned atoms in member 201, which phenomenon occurs even when and even though the member 201 is completely static with respect to the magnets 212, 203.

However, it may be desirable in some applications to allow or produce some relative movement between the generator elements 201-203. The output line 204 extends to an appropriate "load" 206 for using the electrical current generated by the generator 200. A return line 207 completes the circuit back to the member 201.

Based on experiments to date, it is believed that brass and lead are materials which can have their atoms especially aligned to interact with the gyroscopic particles (analogous to particles 20, 30) flowing between the magnets 202, 203 and will substantially contain within their surface boundaries the magnetic field produced by the aligned atoms or molecules.

With respect to producing the proper material with atom alignment for the member 201, it is noted that most materials seem to align their atoms in random directions when formed by conventional methods of production. However, it can be observed that certain materials can be made magnetic by putting the material in an electromagnetic field while cooling from a temperature of around a thousand degrees Centigrade. The magnetism is the result of atom alignment of the material in a given direction (see pages DD19 through DD21 of the Disclosure Document). All materials are affected so as to align parallel or across lines of force when in a powerful electromagnetic-field. Accordingly, if a material while being formed is cooled in an extremely powerful electromagnetic field, the atoms of the material will take a particular alignment. The atom alignment direction could be varied depending on whether the electromagnetic field was aligned with the material or at a ninety degree angle to the material. This would result in the atoms of a material having their particular electromagnetic spin direction primarily along the same axis.

However, merely having atom alignment is not sufficient. Additionally the material for the invention should be such that it exhibits very little if any magnetic field in the area surrounding it. Thus it should be noted that the exterior electromagnetic field that occurs from the atom alignment of the conventional magnet is not duplicated in the material of the invention, because the electromagnetic energy resulting from atom alignment in the material of the invention will be primarily contained within the boundaries of the material. It is believed that lead, made superconductive by immersion in a bath of for example liquid helium, is such a special material and could for example serve as the material for member 201.

This then results in having a material which would place a force at the proper angle on the gyroscopic type particles moving in the electromagnetic field so as to cause an EMF to be produced even when the material was sitting still. (See also first paragraph of page DD23 and paragraphs four, A through E, of page DD19 of the Disclosure Document).

It is believed that high, contained pressures, as well as other methods, can also probably produce atom alignment as the atoms of a conductor or any material will react to sufficient external force. (See first paragraph of page DD35 of the Disclosure Document). This possibility is also indicated by the fact that hard knocks or impacts will demagnetise a magnet.

The proper procedure of material production in achieving atom alignment with internally contained fields of force will cause the controlled release of electrical energy in electromagnetic fields of force when the material of the invention is placed in the lines of force of the electromagnetic field.

-Third and Fourth Embodiments (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6)
A. Related Principles

1. Numerous scientific tests and experiments made by the inventor indicate that the magnetic field resulting from an electrical current flowing through a conductor is the result of atom alignment within that conductor at an extremely high speed with an ability to reverse atom alignment just as rapidly without the magnetic hysteresis associated with conventional materials considered "magnetic." Prior to this time it has been believed and taught by the scientific community that the magnetic field associated with an electric current carrying conductor was the result of the electric current itself and not of the conductor material, for example copper, which was considered to be "nonmagnetic." Even the inventor was influenced and mislead by these teachings and attempted to mechanically explain and justify the prior teachings, as is seen on page DD-27 of the Disclosure Document which is an important part of this patent application.

However, as taught in the present invention, what mechanically happens is that the gyroscopic particles making up the electric current moving in a conductor interact with the electromagnetic makeup of the atoms of the conductor, causing them to align extremely rapidly, thereby then releasing some of their electromagnetic make-up in the form of a magnetic field exactly as explained in great detail for conventional magnetic materials in the Disclosure Document.

This is easily proven and understood by taking for example, a size 14-gauge conductor one foot long, winding it into a coil and connecting the coil to a meter and a 1.5 volt battery. The total current registered on the meter will be 1.5 amps and the strength of the magnetic field created from the short conductor will be extremely small. Next, the same type of test is run again but with the length of the conductor increased to for example two thousand feet, but still in a coil. The total current registered on the meter will now be considerably less, but the strength of the magnetic field given off from the conductor will now be extremely large!

This shows that the magnetic field is not from the electric current flow, but is the result of the interactions of the gyroscopic particles which make up the electric current interacting with the atoms of the conductor! This causes the gyroscopic particles of the electric current not to be able to make the circuit back to the battery so quickly, and therefore the meter shows less current used.

The magnetic field is the result of the atom alignment of the conductor. The more atoms in a conductor (up to a point), the stronger the magnetic field produced from a given amount of electric current input. Again, this is proven by changing the diameter of the conducting wires, and, with the lengths being the same, the strongest magnetic field will result from the conductor with the largest diameter. The reason for this is that there are more conducting atoms to interact with the gyroscopic particles of the electric current moving through the conductor, which results in a greater number of conducting atoms being aligned, thereby then releasing some of their electromagnetic make-up, exactly as has been explained in great detail in the Disclosure Document as being possible for all matter.

If the magnetic field produced was strictly based on the amount of current going through a conductor, as taught in the prior art, then the strongest magnetic field would result when current went through a large diameter and short length conductor, because the current flow through the entire circuit is greatest at that time. However, experiments prove that the shorter a conductor is made, the greater the current flow through the entire circuit and the less strength of the magnetic field surrounding that conductor. The longer that same conductor is made (up to a point), the greater the magnetic field surrounding the total mass of the conductor and the less current that makes the complete circuit of the entire system. Reason: more atoms!

2. Numerous scientific tests and experiments made by the inventor also indicate that the magnetic field created when an electric current moves in a conductor does not use up measurable energy when performing obvious or non-obvious work, force or power. This is true no matter how strong or how immense the power of the motor or electromagnets is.

Reason: the magnetic field coming from the conductor is the result of extremely quick atom alignment within that conductor. Therefore the energy in the magnetic field is the energy that makes up the atoms of the conductor! This energy is literally Einstein’s equation of E=MC², and therefore the energy is believed to be moving at the speed of light.

This energy use cannot be measured by today's measuring instruments. This has been explained in great detail in the Disclosure Document and is believed to be true of all matter!

3. The same is true for the electric current that comes from a conventional battery. The electromagnetic energy coming from the battery is the energy that makes up the atoms of the material of the battery! Again this energy use is not measurable by today’s measuring instruments. Electric meters of all types are simply mechanical
The gyroscopic particles in a moving electric current interact with the atoms of the material through which the current is moving. This is not true at all! The electromagnetic energy released from the atom make-up of a battery has a relatively infinite capacity to do obvious work, force, or power.

This is easily proven even with a small motor and a 1.5 volt battery. With a battery connected to motor to operate it and with a meter to take readings, the motor is then physically stopped from turning by physically holding or restraining the shaft. At that moment the motor is performing no obvious work, force or power, but the meter will register a greater flow of current. The magnets of the motor can be taken out and the reading will still be the same. If the electric current was being used to operate the motor, the meter would register more current when the motor was running.

The electric current not only will operate the motor but, once it flows through the complete circuit back to the battery, it also does additional work based on Faraday's Laws of Electrolysis within the battery itself. What has happened is that the electromagnetic energy released from the atoms of the material of the battery once they have completed the circuit, then take a "short cut" and move large pieces of the mass of one material of the battery over to the other material of the battery. The inventor has stated and shown throughout the Disclosure Document that the effect of gravity was the non-obvious effect of electromagnetic energy. Once the materials of the battery have combined, the extreme desire for the two materials to merge is physically reduced. These materials will attempt this merger anyway possible and, if the electric current initially released from a battery is not allowed by mechanical means to complete the circuit back within itself, the electromagnetic energy then in the mechanical means will perpetually (in a relative, theoretical sense) perform obvious work, force or power. The reason: the force which initiated this flow of current (electromagnetic make-up of atoms of material) is constant, similar to hydraulic pressure, with the noticeable exception that it is moving it is believed at the speed of light and will interact with the electromagnetic make-up of the atoms of other materials, causing them to release some of their electromagnetic make-up in the form of a magnetic field. This then multiplies the capacity for doing obvious or non-obvious work, force or power, which can then react with another conducting coil or with the electromagnetic energy within the magnetic field of a conventional magnet and multiply this effect even further, and on and on and on for a relatively unlimited source of energy.

The same is true in not letting the current get back to a conventional generator. If a mechanical means is set up so that the electric current is "trapped," without completing a circuit, the gyroscopic particles of the current have a capacity for continuous work without increasing the power input into the generator system. However, if the circuit is complete and the electric current moving in the system does absolutely no obvious work, power or force, the gyroscopic particles making up the current on getting back to the generator will then increase the need for more power input into the system. Reason: the opposing effect of magnetic fields as defined in Lentz’s Law. This law is simply an observation of this effect, which before now has never been fully understood.

4. Numerous scientific tests and experiments made by the inventor also indicate that there is a correlation between the electromagnetic spin orientation of the atoms of non-conductors, semi-conductors, and conductors, and the varying results achieved with an electric current in attempting to move through these materials, or when moving these materials through a magnetic field attempting to induce electric current. The property of resistance to electric current movement is generally speaking the same type factor already explained above for electric current producing a magnetic field when moving in a conductor.

The gyroscopic particles in a moving electric current interact with the atoms of the material through which the current is moving. Each atom can efficiently only interact with sun exact maximum amount of electric current, and, if exceeded, there is an interruption of orderly movement. Then the angle of release of the gyroscopic particles from the atoms are such that the electromagnetic release from those atoms are in the form of heat, exactly as explained in great detail in the Disclosure Document. This effect is easily observed by the fact that resistance decreases relative to an increase of the cross-section of the material. Reason: simply, more atoms within that given area, and, for a fixed input of electric current, there are more atoms to receive and interact efficiently with the gyroparticles making up the electric current.

Again the same is true for resistors designed for deliberately producing heat. Such resistors are not materials which are considered good conductors of electric current. It is stated and shown in great detail in the Disclosure Document that the electromagnetic spin orientation of the atoms of a non-conductor are different from that of conductor atoms, and therefore different results will occur from the same inputs of electromagnetic energy.

This is easily seen by the fact that, in a resistor, for a given amount of electric current input, the heat release increases as the diameter increases. What that means is that the property of resistance has decreased. On a conductor it is just the opposite. If the diameter is increased the resistance is decreased, but so is heat release. Again, this is an indication that the gyroparticles in the electric current movement interact with each atom of the...
material. This same effect shows up again in conventional electrical induction from a conductor interacting with a magnetic field. Experiments by the inventor have indicated that the property of conventional induction is the result of the same property of resistance.

If one increases the diameter of a conductor, lengths staying the same, one decreases the amount of electric current produced relative to the total number of atoms within the conductors under consideration. Or, if one takes a given number of wires of the same diameter and length, and moves a magnet across them, the current produced will be considerably less, than if one takes the same diameter wire, but only one wire, and increases its length considerably and then forms it into a coil forming the same number of wires on any one side and then moves the same magnet across only one side of that coil, the electric current generated will then be considerably greater. Reason: the property of resistance. This is the mechanical effect within the gyroscopic electromagnetic make-up and orientation of the atoms of all materials which have the mechanical ability to perform a given task efficiently up to a point concerning input of additional electromagnetic energy and then mechanically causes varying results once this threshold is exceeded.

This and all the other thoughts and innovations in this and the previous disclosures of the previous applications and the Disclosure Document previously put forth show that there are many different mechanical ways to release a relatively unlimited source of energy from electromagnetic energy which makes up all matter and which results from this invention.

B. Working Prototypes

Fig.5 and Fig.6 illustrate rough, working prototypes of this aspect of the invention. These embodiments are only relatively inefficient prototypes built by hand for the purpose of demonstrating the invention. It should be self-evident that the prototypes, by various mechanical means and designs, can easily be made extremely efficient and the illustrated embodiments are being presented only for general, representational purposes.

As is illustrated in Fig.5, there is provided a combined electrical current generator and an electromagnetic motor comprising a rotatably mounted, permanent magnet 200, a battery 201, brushes and commutator 202, bearings 203 and power, mounting shaft 204, and a first, primary, magnetic producing coil 205 and a second, secondary electric producing coil 206. The two coils 205, 206 are juxtaposed together in parallel disposition with concurrent core centre-lines, with the magnet 200 positioned alongside of coil 205 at or near its core centre-line with the rotational axis of the shaft 204 positioned orthogonally to the centre-line.

In the prototypes a very small battery 201, for example, size "N", of 1.5 volts is used. When the circuit is completed, the battery 201 converts an immeasurable amount of its mass into electrical current (gyroscopic particles moving at the speed of light) which goes out through the communicator and brushes 202, and then enters magnetic producing conductor coil 205 made, for example, from insulated 14-gauge or 15-gauge copper wire, with the total weight of the coil 205 being for example seventy to ninety pounds. This causes the atoms of coil 205 to align extremely fast then releasing some of their electromagnetic make-up (gyroscopic particles) in the form of a magnetic field. This field then interacts with the gyroscopic particles making up the magnetic field coming from the atoms of the material of the permanent magnet 200.

This causes magnet 200 to attempt to align its magnetic field movement with the magnetic field movement coming from the atoms of coil 205, resulting in rotation of magnet 200 and the shaft 204 to which it is attached. This then changes the position of the commutator and brushes 202 relative to each other's initial positions, which then causes the electric current coming from battery 201 to be going in the opposite direction into coil 205, causing the
atoms of coil 205 to extremely quickly reverse their alignment and the polarity of their magnetic field which they are emitting. The reversed field then interacts again with the magnetic field of permanent magnet 200, causing it to further rotate.

This process is then continuously repeated, producing continuous rotation of the shaft 204 which can be used as a source of motive power in many different ways. A power belt wheel 207 for example using a continuous "V" belt is illustrated as a general representation of this motive power source for producing useful, obvious work. In a prototype test run with a small 1.5 volt, type "N" battery, the shaft 204 and the magnet 200 - rotated at a high speed for approximately twelve hours before running down. By improving the particular design features of the prototype and by using longer lasting batteries, the rotation time of the shaft 204 can be greatly increased to a theoretical point approaching "perpetual" for all practical purposes. At the same time the alternating magnetic field produced by the coil 205 induces into coil 206 electrical induction, which then causes coil 206 to produce an alternating current across its "load," which current can be made to exceed the conventional output of the battery 201. The battery source 201 can be replaced when needed.

It is very important to understand that, the longer the length of the conducting wire in coil 205, the stronger will be the magnetic field produced and the less electric current that will complete the circuit and get back into the battery and destroy the mechanical source of the electrical current. This effect can be increased further by increasing the diameter of the conducting wire in coil 205 and then greatly increasing its length still further in the coil.

Reason: The gyroscopic particles making up the electric current interact with the atoms of coil 205. The more atoms in coil 205, relative to it's length, the longer it takes the gyroscopic particles of the electric current to influence them and exit from the other end of the coil. It is then easily seen that if the direction of the current flowing into coil 205 is then reversed, this then further increases the lag time. Reason: The gyroscopic particles have inertia and are believed to be moving at the speed of light and they are interacting with the gyroscopic particles making up the atoms of the conducting coil 205. These atoms also have inertia, and when the direction of current in coil 205 is reversed, the incoming current then collides with the current already in coil 205 going in the opposite direction.

This causes a brief hesitation during the time the current already in the coil is being forced to reverse its direction, thereby then reversing the direction of the atoms within coil 205 which have already been influenced to become aligned. This causes a constant force throughout the circuit, but does not allow very much current to get back into the battery 201 to destroy the mechanical means which initiated the release of electric current in the first place.

Therefore, it should be further understood that, the faster the current direction reverses into the coil 205, the more efficiently the matter of battery 201 is converted into 2 pure electrical energy (E=MC^2), without destruction of the mechanical situation that initiates the electrical current release.

It is also important to understand that, the stronger the magnetic field coming from the mass of magnet 200, the greater will be its rotational speed. Additionally, the greater the magnetic field coming from the mass of coil 205, the greater will be the rotational speed of magnet 200, and, up to a point, the greater the electric current input from battery 201, the greater the rotational speed of magnet 200.

Reason: the greater the electric current flow into coil 205, the greater will be the percentage of the atoms making up coil 205 that are aligned. This probably has the same relationship as does achieving atom alignment in conventional magnetic materials. Once complete atom alignment is reached in coil 205, no amount of current will cause those atoms to increase the strength of the magnetic field emitting from those atoms.

Therefore, it should be clear that, for a given input of electric current from battery 201, the most efficient design is one in which the most atoms of coil 205 are influenced to atom alignment by that given electric current, which means increasing the diameter and the length of the conducting wire of coil 205 to the point that the strength of the magnetic field produced is sufficient to cause rotation of the magnet 200 to a speed that allows none or at least very little of the electric current which initially comes from the battery 201 to complete the circuit and get back into battery 201 and destroy or reduce the mechanical effect which induced the conversion of the matter of battery 201 in electric current in the first place. Again this desired effect can be increased by increasing the strength of the magnetic field given off by the atoms of the permanent magnet 200.
In the second prototype embodiment of Fig.6, the structure and operation of the prototype is substantially identical to that of Fig.5 with the major exception being that the magnet 300/shaft 304 elements (and related sub-elements 302, 303 and 307) are positioned inside of and within the core of the primary coil 305, as compared to the placement of the magnet 200/shaft 204 elements next to and along side of the coil 205 of Fig.5. Therefore, for brevity, a detailed description of the elements of Fig.6 will not be repeated, but it is noted that the corresponding and analogous elements and sub-elements are similarly numbered in Fig.5 and Fig.6.

It is also important to again stress the fact that the prototype designs shown are presented simply to prove the correctness of the invention, and it should be clear that the invention can be made extremely more efficient by utilising all of the magnetic field produced by coil 205 and designing the magnet 200 of a shape and strength that efficiently interacts with the majority of the magnetic fields from coil 205. The illustrated prototypes is relatively highly inefficient in this regard, but even so, the results of the invention itself greatly exceed the prior art as to use of electric current from whatever source and interaction with an electric motor or whatever work was conventionally performed.

The applicant feels it is very important to again stress, in building many varying designs of this invention, consideration must be given to the fact that the Energy in the field of force of any type magnet is the Energy that makes up the Atoms of the material from which it comes! This Energy is a real Entity with, it is believed, a gyroscopic action. It is literally Einstein's Equation of $E=MC^2$ and it is believed that this Energy moves at the speed of light and makes up all Matter. And that this Energy has a constant pressure effect back to the Atoms of the material from which it came, similar to hydraulic pressure. This effect is additionally more fully understood by stating the following results obtained from experimentation by the applicant in the process of this invention.

a) When the system is initially attached to a 1.5 volt size N Battery 201 or 301 and the magnet 200 or 300 and related rotation entities are placed close to or in the centre of coil 205 or 305, the following results are observed:

If the electric current produced in coil 206 (306) is then fed back into coil 205 (305) in accordance with proper polarity, the rotation speed of magnet 200 or 300 will then accelerate. If fed back into coil 205 (305) in wrong polarity, the rotation speed of magnet 200 (300) will slow down.

This proves that the total force from coil 205 (305) interacting with the magnet 200 (300) is greater when the electrical energy from coil 206(306) is fed back into coil 205 (305), then when only the initial electric energy from battery 201 (301) is fed into coil 205 (305)! When two or three batteries are electrically connected together in series, so as to create for example three or four and a half volts of electrical input, this effect is multiplied. Remember, up to a point, the greater the electrical input, the greater the percentage of atom alignment within coil 205 (305).

This further proves that the electric current produced in coil 206 (306) is a result of the gyroscopic particles of Energy released from the magnetic fields which came from the Electromagnetic make-up of the atoms of coil 205 (305), and is not part of the initial Electrical Energy released from the atoms making up the materials of battery 201 (301)! The coil 206 (306) can be taken out of the system, or its electrical current fed away from the system, and the rotational speed of the magnet 200 (300) will not observably change. However, the rotational speed of magnet 200 (300) will noticeably change when the electric current from coil 206 (306) is fed back into coil 205 (305)!

Now a different result:
b) When the electric current from battery 201 (301) becomes weaker to the point that the magnetic field coming from coil 205 (305) has weakened and shrunk allowing the magnetic field of the rotating magnet 200 (300) to expand and then noticeably induce electric current into coil 206 (306) and into coil 205 (305), then reverse results are observed. When the magnetic field from the coil 205 (305) is large, then the magnetic field from magnet 200 (300) is retained! If coil 206 (306) is then short circuited, the rotation of magnet 200 (300) will noticeably slow down.

If electric current from coil 206 (306) is fed back into coil 205 (305) in wrong polarity, the rotation of the magnet 200 (300) will stop. If fed back into coil 205 (305) in correct polarity, the rotation of the magnet 200 (300) will slow down. At that point, the rotation of the magnet 200 (300) will not accelerate, no matter how connected!

These results show that, at this time, the magnetic field from magnet 200 (300) noticeably induces a current in coils 206 (306) and 205 (305) which opposes the rotation of the magnet 200 (300). This effect has already been mechanically explained, and it has been shown that Lenz’s Law was simply an observation of that mechanical explanation. These results further demonstrate that the expanding and collapsing magnetic fields from coil 205 (305) and 206 (306) do not noticeably effect each other detrimentally.

Because the resulting magnetic fields from all the coils are the results of fluctuating atom alignment within the coils! Remember, the gyroscopic energy particles making up the magnetic fields have a hydraulic pressure effect back to the atoms from which they came. Also remember that the atoms making up the material of the permanent magnet 200 (300) are stationary as to atom alignment direction! Therefore, the pressure effect resulting from an opposing field which the magnet 200 (300) induced, is immediate. As is Hydraulic Pressure.

However, the magnetic field emitted from the atoms of coil 205 (305) relative to induction into the atoms of coil 206 (306) are fluctuating and out of step, so to speak, and therefore, in harmony with each other. The pressure effect from the induction of coil 205 (305) into coil 206 (306) is an action and reaction effect which reinforces the flipping action of the atoms of coil 205 (305) and back into the atoms of coil 206 (306).

This action is again seen when the invention is hooked into one-hundred-fifteen volt alternating current, and battery 201 (301) is not used. The magnet 200 (300) will not rotate even though the magnetic field from coil 205 (305) is strong and is alternating. Reason: The fluctuating magnetic field is so fast, that the inertia mass of magnet 200 (300) can not get started in one direction before the magnetic field from coil 205 (306) has reversed, thereby, causing magnet 200 (300) to vibrate only microscopically at sixty cycles per second. And, if a sixty watt bulb is hooked into the system of coil 205 (306), it will only light dimly. And there is a lag time of two to three seconds before it lights even dimly.

If then coil 206 (306) is hooked to a meter, there is a reading of forty-nine volts, and if the meter is replaced by another sixty watt bulb it will light only extremely dimly. However, the sixty watt bulb hooked to coil 205 (305) will now become noticeably brighter! This again shows that the action and reaction results of the atoms of the coils are not noticeably detrimental to each other. Because of the lag time (out of step, so to speak), resulting in reinforcing the flipping atom alignment of the coils.

From this further explanation of the invention it is seen that desirable results may be obtained by the following:

For example, in Fig.6 the magnet 300 may be of a design and/or be located at a distance from the inside diameter of coil 305 and coil 306, whereby the majority of the magnetic field from the magnet 300 does not cut the conducting loops of coil 305 or 306. Yet the alternating magnetic field produced by coil 305 should efficiently have the majority of its gyroscopic particles interacting with the majority of the gyroscopic particles making up the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 300, but not directly reacting with the atoms making up coil 305, or magnet 300!

When the magnetic lines of force of the magnet 200 (300) cross at right angles with the conducting wires of coil 205 (305), 206 (306), a braking action is incurred. It should be noted that, as the inner diameter of coil 205 (305) increases, the percentage of time of braking effect decreases.

Along this same line of instruction, the commutator segments 202 (302) can be made of a large diameter and the area of brushes made small, whereby, when the brushes cross over the gaps in the commutator segments, there will be no short circuit at any time directly back to the battery 201 (301).

By combining the slip rings and brushes (the slip rings can be made of a small diameter) to the side or sides of the brushes and commutator segments 202 (302); then battery 201 (301) does not have to rotate with magnet 200 (300).
The 14-gauge and 15-gauge insulated copper wire weighing seventy and ninety pounds respectively (31.5 kilograms and 40.5 kilograms) used for the motor coil 205 (305) and the generator coil 206 (306), respectively, in the first hand-made prototypes of the embodiments of Fig.5 and Fig.6, for demonstration purposes only, come in standard buckets of varying weights from wholesale outlets.

It was then wound in coils as shown, and, as taught, the more conducting wire used, the better the results. The magnets 200 and 300 were each initially about a 2.5 inch (6.25 centimetre) cube and can be any size and strength desired.

In a further, rough, hand-built, demonstration, working prototype of the invention of the type illustrated in Fig.6, the primary or motor coil 305 was made of 5-gauge copper wire in a single, continuous wire, weighing approximately 4,100 pounds (1,845 kilograms) with a coil loop diameter of 4.5 feet (135 centimetres), while the secondary or generator coil 306 was made of 24-gauge copper wire in a single continuous wire weighing approximately 300 pounds (135 kilograms) with the same, approximate coil loop diameter of 4.5 feet (135 centimetres), with both coils 305, 306 coincidentally forming a cylinder of approximately 30 inches (75 centimetres) in length. The coils 305, 306 were built around a cylindrical, fiberglass core body of approximately 200 pounds (90 kilograms) having a vertical, longitudinal centre-line axis.

The rotating magnet 300 was made up of six, separate, parallel cylindrical magnetic columns spaced and disposed about the periphery of a hollow cylindrical fiberglass surface of approximately twenty inch (fifty centimetres) in diameter. Each column was 30 inches 75 cm.) long and was composed of a stack of 70, individual ceramic ring magnets in disc form as made by Jobmaster Magnets of Randallstown, Maryland, 21133, U.S.A. Each disc had a thickness of seven-sixteenths of an inch (1.09375 centimetres), an inner diameter of 1 inch (2.5 cm.) and an outer diameter of 4 inches (10 cm.). The discs were stacked and secured together in 4 inch (10 cm.) diameter fiberglass tubes longitudinally mounted on the inner surface of the twenty inch (fifty cm.) diameter fiberglass cylinder.

The composite magnet 300 had a total weight of approximately 400 pounds (180 kilograms) and a total length of 30 inches (75 cm.) and an approximate diameter of 20 inches (50 cm.).

The magnet 300 was mounted for rotation on a horizontal shaft 304 extending across the hollow core of the coils 305, 306 crossing through the centre point of the longitudinal centre-line of the cylinder and orthogonally to the longitudinal centre-line of the magnet 300 for rotation within the open centre area of the cylindrically disposed coils 305, 306 with the longitudinal centre-lines of the coils being vertically disposed.

With a D.C. battery source 301 of two 12 volt lantern batteries and seventeen 6 volt lantern batteries all in series (totalling 126 volts), a measured voltage of 126 volts and a measured current of 99 milliamps in the primary coil 305 were noted. Concurrently a voltage reading of 640 volts and an amperage measurement in excess of 20 milliamps were noted in the secondary or generating coil 306, with the magnet 300 rotating at a speed of 120 revolutions per minute (rpm). Thus the system was outputting and producing in the generating coil 306 usable electrical energy in excess of 102% of that being inputted in the motor coil 305! This excess useful electrical energy, of course, is in addition to the further useful mechanical energy available at the exemplary drive take-off 307 on the rotating shaft 304, on which the 400 pound, 30 inch long magnet 300 was rotating at 120 rpm!

Thus the invention, by utilising the energy of the gyroscopic particles in the magnetic field, produces a greater energy output than the energy input into the system, thus producing results beyond presently accepted scientific teachings of the world.

This prototype achieves exactly what has already been described in great detail in applicant's prior patent applications. There was simply used in this prototype a stronger magnet and a larger diameter conducting wire of great length, that has a considerably greater number of atoms aligned when current is put into the system, and used a greater number of atoms in the generator coil of fine diameter conducting wire.

While the results of the energy released from this particular prototype is highly impressive to others, the applicant still has only scratched the surface of the energy that can be released using the principles of the present invention.

Again, as has already been stressed, the most efficient design, is one in which the least amount of input of current causes the greatest amount of atom alignment.

These data do not constitute any departure from applicant's previous work, but is only to further document that which has already been stressed in the prior patent applications.
Varying the D.C. voltage for the battery source 301 shows that obvious efficiency will continue to rise as the voltage input goes up! Also, the leverage factor advantage of the invention, combined with the inertia of the 400 pound magnet 300 rotating at 120 rpm (even while causing the electrical generator to put out over 100% of energy input) proves the invention to be greatly over 100% efficient even at this slow rpm.

It is contemplated that the next prototype will use super-conducting type material for the coil 305 with a magnet 300 having a magnetic field strength comparable to that of cryogenic-type magnet relative to percentage of atom alignment or size. This will result in the size of the device being much smaller and yet with the available work output being much greater than the prototype just described. Reason: The most efficient type design is one whereby the least amount of current input into the motor coil produces the greatest atom alignment of said motor coil and having rotatable magnet also comparable in strength, relative to size.

The invention can be made without using the coil 206 (306) and producing just useful mechanical energy. Coil 206 (306) can be merged or wound with coil 205 (305). The magnet 200 (300) can be an electromagnet, a permanent magnet, a cryogenic magnet or any magnet. The design of magnet 200 (300) can create a strong but retained magnetic field. The design of coil 205 (305) can be used to further retain the magnetic field of magnet 200 (300). Alternating current (A.C.) can be used in place of the direct current (D.C.) battery 201 (301), if the magnet 200 (300) is designed accordingly. The coils 205 (305) and 206 (306) may be made up of several coils rather than a single coil. The magnet 200 (300) may be made up of several individual magnets rather than from just a single magnet.

From the foregoing it should be understood that, unlike the teachings of the prior art, the following is desired in the design of the coil 205/305 under the principles of the present invention:

a) Current initially flowing into and through the coil should be small compared to the energy output of the system;
b) A relatively large diameter wire or its equivalent is used for the coil;
c) A relatively large number of coil loops or coils is used;
d) A relatively long, continuous length of coil wire or its equivalent is used; and
e) The greatest magnetism for a given mass of the magnet 200/300 is desired but may be designed so that the magnetic lines of force will not cut the coils at a right angle.

The present invention applies to any mechanical device which is operated by electrical energy. In accordance with the principles of the present invention, the mechanical device should be designed wherein the electric current as much as is feasible cannot get back to its source, but the circuit is completed whereby the "pressure force" is constant throughout the system.

What has been invented, built and disclosed is an invention of immense importance to the well-being of the entire world. There will be many devices built from what has been shown and taught. It should now be known that all matter is made up of electromagnetic energy and that there are many mechanical ways to release this energy, as has been stated throughout the five prior, related patent applications hereof and the Disclosure Document. All of these future developments will be as a result of the present invention which releases energy above and beyond conventional energy release mechanisms, prior to this invention.

Some of the basic approaches of the invention are outlined below:

I. Any device which utilises a means by which the electric current (electromagnetic energy) is retained within a member or members outside of the source of said original electric current and then, as a result thereof, is capable of producing a continuous electromagnetic motion or current if so desired beyond present scientific teachings.

2. Any device which releases the electromagnetic energy make up of matter to such an impressive degree as does this invention that it defies several of the present accepted laws of physics and electrical engineering as of this time.

3. That the energy release is noticeably higher and in some cases more controllable than the conventional means of energy release of this time.
Because many varying and different embodiments may be made within the scope of the inventive concept taught here, and because many modifications may be made in the embodiments detailed here in accordance with the descriptive requirements of the law, it is to be understood that the details given above are to be interpreted as illustrative and not in any limiting sense.
A permanent magnet device includes a permanent magnet having north and south pole faces with a first pole piece positioned adjacent one pole face thereof and a second pole piece positioned adjacent the other pole face thereof so as to create at least two potential magnetic flux paths. A first control coil is positioned along one flux path and a second control coil is positioned along the other flux path, each coil being connected to a control circuit for controlling the energisation thereof. The control coils may be energised in a variety of ways to achieve desirable motive and static devices, including linear reciprocating devices, linear motion devices, rotary motion devices and power conversion.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Magnetic force of attraction is commonly used in a variety of types of permanent magnet devices including both linear and rotary motors. In the field of such permanent magnet devices there is a continuous pursuit of increased efficiency and reduced complexity.

Accordingly, an object of the present invention is to provide a permanent magnet control component in which the path of a given level of permanent magnet flux can be controlled by a lesser level of electromagnetic flux.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a permanent magnet control component in which substantially all of the flux from a permanent magnet can be switched between at least two different flux paths of the permanent magnet control component so as to enable useful work in the form of linear, reciprocating, and rotary motion.

Still another object of the present invention is to provide permanent magnet control components and motor constructions in which flux path control is provided by energising an 10 electromagnet to oppose the magnetic flux of one or more permanent magnets.

Another object of the present invention is to provide permanent magnet control components and motor constructions in which flux path control is provided by energising an electromagnet to aid the magnetic flux of one or more permanent magnets.

Yet another object of the present invention is to provide permanent magnet motor constructions with improved operating characteristics.
SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

These and other objects of the invention are attained by an apparatus which, in one aspect, is a permanent magnet device, comprising a permanent magnet having north and south pole faces, a first pole piece, a second pole piece, a first control coil, a second control coil, and circuit means, the first pole piece positioned adjacent the north pole face of the permanent magnet and including a first path portion, a second path portion and a third portion, the first path portion extending beyond a perimeter of the north pole face and the second path portion extending beyond the perimeter of the north pole face to define first and second flux paths for magnetic flux emanating from the north pole face of the permanent magnet, the first path portion of the first pole piece connected to the second path portion of the first pole piece by the third portion which extends across the north pole face of the permanent magnet, the second pole piece positioned adjacent the south pole face and including a first path portion and a second path portion, the first path portion extending beyond a perimeter of the south pole face and substantially aligned with the first path portion of the first pole piece, the second path portion extending beyond the perimeter of the south pole face and substantially aligned with the second path portion of the first pole piece, the first control coil positioned around the first path portion of the first pole piece, the second control coil positioned around the second path portion of the first pole piece, the circuit means connected to each of the first control coil and the second control coil to alternately energise the first coil and the second coil in a timed sequential manner.

Another aspect of the present invention provides a method for controlling the path of magnetic flux from a permanent magnet which involves placing a first pole piece adjacent a first pole face of the permanent magnet so as to have at least first and second path portions extending beyond a perimeter of the first pole face. A second pole piece is placed adjacent a second pole face of the permanent magnet so as to include at least one portion which substantially aligns with the first and second path portions of the first pole piece. A first control coil is placed along and around the first path portion of the first pole piece and a second control coil is placed along and around the second path portion of the first pole piece. The first control coil is repeatedly energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner so as to prevent magnetic flux of the permanent magnet from traversing the first path portion of the first pole piece, and the second control coil is repeatedly energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner so as to prevent magnetic flux of the permanent magnet from traversing the second path portion of the first pole piece.

Yet another aspect of the present invention provides a method for controlling the path of magnetic flux from a permanent magnet by placing a first pole piece adjacent a first pole face of the permanent magnet so as to have at least first and second path portions extending beyond a perimeter of the first pole face. A second pole piece is placed adjacent a second pole face of the permanent magnet so as to include at least one portion which substantially aligns with the first and second path portions of the first pole piece. A first control coil is placed along and around the first path portion of the first pole piece, and a second control coil is placed along and around the second path portion of the first pole piece. The following steps are alternately performed in a repeated manner:

(i) energising the first control coil in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner so as to couple with substantially all magnetic flux of the permanent magnet such that substantially no magnetic flux of the permanent magnet traverses the second path portion of the first pole piece when the first control coil is so energised; and

(ii) energising the second control coil in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner so as to couple with substantially all magnetic flux of the permanent magnet such that substantially no magnetic flux of the permanent magnet traverses the first path portion of the first pole piece when the second control coil is so energised.

A further aspect of the present invention provides method for controlling the path of magnetic flux from a permanent magnet by placing a first pole piece adjacent a first pole face of the permanent magnet so as to have at least first and second path portions extending beyond a perimeter of the first pole face, and placing a second pole piece adjacent a second pole face of the permanent magnet so as to include at least one portion which substantially aligns with the first and second path portions of the first pole piece. A first control coil is placed along and around the first path portion of the first pole piece, and a second control coil is placed along and around the second path portion of the first pole piece. The following steps are alternately performed in a repeated manner:

(i) energising the first control coil in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner so as to couple with substantially all magnetic flux of the permanent magnet such that substantially no magnetic flux of the permanent magnet traverses the second path portion of the first pole piece when the first control coil is so energised; and

(ii) energising the second control coil in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner so as to couple with substantially all magnetic flux of the permanent magnet such that substantially no magnetic flux of the permanent magnet traverses the first path portion of the first pole piece when the second control coil is so energised.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION
For a better understanding of the present invention reference may be made to the accompanying drawings in which:

**Fig. 1** is a perspective view of a magnetic device in which the magnetic flux from a magnetic member traverse a single path to produce a coupling force;

**Fig. 2** is a perspective view of a magnetic device in which the magnetic flux from a magnetic member splits between two paths;

**Fig. 3** is a side view of two magnetic members arrange in parallel between pole pieces;
Fig. 4 is a side view of two magnetic members arranged in series between pole pieces;

Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 are side views of a permanent magnet device including a permanent magnet having pole pieces positioned against the pole faces thereof and including a movable armature;
Fig. 7, Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 are side views of a permanent magnet device including a permanent magnet having pole pieces positioned against the pole faces thereof to provide two magnetic flux paths and including a movable armature which can be positioned along each magnetic flux path;
Figs. 10, 10A-10H are perspective views of various embodiments of permanent magnet control components which include two or more magnetic flux paths;
Figs. 11A-11F are side views of a permanent magnet device including a permanent magnet having pole pieces positioned against the pole faces thereof and including a movable armature and a permanent bypass extending between the pole pieces;
Figs. 12, 12A-12E are side views of a two path permanent magnet device including two bypasses;
Figs. 13A-13C are side views of a permanent magnet linear reciprocating device;

Fig. 14 is a side view of an electromagnetic linear reciprocating device;

Fig. 15 is a side view of a two path permanent magnet device showing control coils energised in an exceeding manner;
Figs.16A-E are a side view of a linear reciprocating device with control coils energised in an exceeding manner;
Figs. 17A-17D depict another embodiment of a linear reciprocating device;
Figs. 18A-18E show a linear motion device;
Fig. 19 is an exploded perspective view of a rotary motion device;

Fig. 20 is a partial assembled and cut away view of the rotary motion device of Fig.19;
Figs. 21A-21E are top views of the partial assembly of Fig. 20, which views depict rotational motion thereof,
Fig. 22 is an assembled, cut-away view of the rotary motion device of Fig. 19 including a housing;

Fig. 23 is an exploded perspective view of another embodiment of a rotary motion device;
Fig. 24 is a perspective view of the rotary motion device of Fig. 23 as assembled;

Figs. 25A-25B are end views of the rotary motion device of Fig. 24 with the end cap removed to expose the rotor member;

Figs. 26-28 show end views of various configurations for skewing the direction of rotation in the rotary motion device of Fig. 24;
Figs. 29A-29D are end views of the rotary motion device of Fig. 24 illustrating a sequence of its rotational movements;

Fig. 30 is an exploded partial perspective view of another embodiment of a rotary motion device;
Fig. 31 is a perspective view of the rotary motion device of Fig. 30 as assembled.

Figs. 32A-32D are top views of the rotary motion device of Fig. 31 illustrating its rotational movement.
Fig. 33 is a side view of the rotary motion device of Fig. 31 as assembled and including a housing;

Fig. 34 is a perspective view of another embodiment of a rotary motion device;

Fig. 35 is a top view of the rotary motion device of Fig. 34;
Fig. 36 is a perspective view of the permanent magnet rotor member of the rotary motion device of Fig. 34;

Fig. 37 and Fig. 38 show alternative configurations for the control component incorporated into the rotary motion device of Fig. 34;
Figs. 39A-39D are top views of the rotary motion device of Fig. 34 and depict its rotational movement;
Figs. 40-44 are alternative variations of the circuit for controlling the timed energisation of control coils in the various devices of the present invention;
Figs.45A-45C and Figs.45X-45Z are side views of two path power conversion devices;
Fig. 46 is a schematic view of the permanent magnet portion of a rotor for use in some embodiments of the present device;

Fig. 47 and Fig. 48 show other embodiments of a linear motion device;
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

**Fig. 49** is a top view of another embodiment of a rotating motor like construction; and

**Fig. 50** is a schematic view of one of the three stator portions of the device shown in **Fig. 49**.
Referring now to the drawings, Figs. 1-4 are provided to facilitate an understanding of various aspects or features of the technology utilised in the present invention. Fig. 1 depicts a device 10 having a magnetic flux producing member 12 which may be a permanent magnet or electromagnet with magnetic poles 14 and 16 as shown. Pole pieces 18 and 20 are positioned adjacent respective poles 14 and 16 to provide a path for the magnetic flux of member 12. Each pole piece 18 and 20 has a pole piece end face 22 and 24. As used throughout this specification, it is understood that a pole piece, regardless of its shape or size, is preferably formed of soft iron, steel or some other magnetic material, with the preferred material being one which provides low reluctance, exhibits low hysterisis, and has a high magnetic flux density capability. Accordingly, the various pole pieces disclosed and described herein could likewise be of laminate type construction.

Referring again to Fig. 1 an armature 26, also formed of magnetic material, is shown with end faces 28 and 30 which are positioned and sized for being placed adjacent pole piece end faces 22 and 24, such that when so positioned a substantially continuous low reluctance path 32 is provided for magnetic flux from north pole 14, through pole piece 18, through armature 26, through pole piece 16, and to south pole 16. The magnetic flux travelling along such path 32 results in a force which tends to hold armature 26 in position aligned with pole piece end faces 22 and 24. The resulting magnetic coupling or holding force F provided between adjacent pole piece end face 22 and armature end face 28, and between adjacent pole piece end face 24 and armature end face 30, can be approximated by the following equation:

\[ F = \frac{B^2 A}{2 \mu_0} \]

where B is the magnetic flux density passing through the adjacent end faces and A is the surface area of the adjacent end faces. Assuming that if B is uniform throughout flux path 32 and that the area A of all end faces 22, 24, 28, and 30 is the same, then the total holding force \( F_{126} \) of armature 26 against pole pieces 18 and 20 will be:

\[ F_{126} = \frac{B^2 A}{\mu_0} \]
In Fig. 2 a device 40 having the same magnetic flux producing member 12 with magnetic poles 14 and 16 is shown. Pole pieces 42 and 44 are positioned adjacent respective pole faces 14 and 16 to provide two paths, as opposed to one above, for the magnetic flux of member 12. In particular, pole piece 42 includes a first path portion 46 extending beyond a perimeter of north pole face 14 in one direction and a second path portion 48 extending beyond the perimeter of north pole face 14 in another direction. Similarly, pole piece 44 includes a first path portion 50 extending beyond the perimeter of south pole face 16 in one direction and a second path portion 52 extending beyond the perimeter of south pole face 16 in another direction. Each pole piece path portion 46, 48, 50, 52 includes a respective end face. A first armature 54 which can be positioned adjacent to the end faces of pole piece path components 48 and 52 provides a first magnetic flux path 56 and a second armature 58 is which can be positioned adjacent the end faces of pole piece path components 46 and 50 provides a second magnetic flux path 60. If the flux carrying area along flux paths 56 and 60 is the same as the flux carrying area along flux path 32 of Fig. 1, the magnetic flux density along each flux path 56 and 60 will be one-half the magnetic flux density along flux path 32 of Fig. 1 because the same amount of flux is split between two like paths. The effect of dividing a given amount of magnetic flux along two like flux paths instead of it passing along just one flux path can be seen by examining the holding force on armature 54 as compared to the holding force on armature 26 of Fig. 1. As already noted the magnetic flux density along path 56 will be one-half that along flux path 32 and thus the total holding force $F_{T54}$ can be determined as:

$$F_{T54} = \frac{B}{2} A \mu_0 = B^2 A / 4 \mu_0 = \frac{F_{T32}}{4}.$$

It is therefore seen that dividing the same amount of magnetic flux along two flux paths rather than along one flux path reduces the magnetic holding or coupling force on an armature to one-fourth rather than one-half as might have been expected. This unexpected magnetic holding or coupling force differential, resulting from multiple flux paths, can provide advantageous properties in linear, reciprocating, and rotary motion devices.
Referring now to Fig.3 and Fig.4, the behaviour of multiple magnetic flux sources arranged in parallel and series is described as compared to a single flux source. When identical flux sources or magnetic flux producing members 70 and 72 are positioned in parallel as shown in Fig.3, with pole pieces 74 and 76 positioned adjacent the poles thereof to provide a flux path through armature 78, the flux density B through armature 78 is double what the flux density would be if only one magnetic flux producing member were present. However, the field intensity H resulting from the two members 70 and 72 remains unchanged. This result holds true regardless of whether members 70 and 72 are both permanent magnets, are both electromagnets, or are a combination of one permanent magnet and one electromagnet. On the other hand, the properties resulting from magnetic flux producing members 80 and 82 arranged pole-to-pole in series between pole pieces 84 and 86, with armature 88, as shown in Fig.4, will vary depending on the nature of the members 80 and 82.

In a first case, if both members 80 and 82 are permanent magnets, the magnetic field intensity H resulting from the two permanent magnets will be double that of one permanent magnet and the flux density B through armature 88 will be the same as what the flux density would be if only one permanent magnet type member were present.

In a second case, if both members 80 and 82 are electromagnets, the field intensity H again doubles and the flux density B increases according to the B/H curve or relationship of the pole piece 84, 86 and armature 88 materials.

In a third case, if member 80 is a permanent magnet and member 82 is an electromagnet, the field intensity H again doubles, but, since the permanent magnet is near flux density saturation B_r the flux density can only be increased from B_r to B_{max} of the permanent magnet. At the point where electromagnet-type member 82 contacts permanent magnet-type member 80 the flux from the electromagnet-type member 82 couples with the flux of the permanent magnet-type member 82 until the flux density through permanent magnet-type member 80 reaches B_{max}. At that point additional flux from electromagnet-type member 82 does not contribute to the flux density along the flux path unless a bypass path around the permanent magnet-type member is provided. Use of such bypass paths will be described below.

Controlling the flow of flux along both one and multiple flux paths is best described with reference to Figs.5-9. In Fig.5 and Fig.6 a permanent magnet device 90 including a permanent magnet 92 having pole pieces 94 and 96 positioned adjacent to it’s pole faces, and an armature 98 completing a low reluctance path 104 from pole to pole is shown. Control coils 100, 102 are positioned along path 104. When control coils 100, 102 are not energised, the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 92 follows path 104 as shown and armature 98 is held in place against
pole pieces 94, 96 due to the resulting magnetic coupling forces. However, if coils 100, 102 are energised to provide an equal but opposing magnetic flux to that of permanent magnet 92, the result is that the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 92 is blocked and no magnetic flux traverses the path which includes armature 98 and therefore no magnetic coupling forces act on armature 98 allowing it to fall away as shown in Fig.6. The permanent magnet device 90 is useful, although as will become apparent below, it is more advantageous to provide multiple flux paths rather than one.

In this regard, in Fig.7 a permanent magnet device 110 includes a permanent magnet 112 having pole pieces 114, 116 positioned adjacent the pole faces of it, with armatures 118, 120 completing two low-reluctance paths 130, 132 from pole to pole thereof. Control coils 122, 124 are positioned along path 130 and control coils 126, 128 are positioned along path 132. The two paths provided are assumed to be of equal reluctance. With no coils energised, the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 divides equally along flux path 130 and flux path 132 such that both armatures 118, 120 are subjected to a magnetic coupling force which holds them in place against pole pieces 114, 116.

If coils 122, 124 are energised to provide a magnetic flux equal to but opposing the magnetic flux which travels along flux path 130 from permanent magnet 112 when no coils are energised, the result is that the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 is blocked and no magnetic flux traverses the path which includes armature 118 and therefore no magnetic coupling forces act on armature 118 allowing it to fall away as shown in Fig.8. Further, the magnetic flux traversing path 132 will be double that of when no coils are energised and therefore the magnetic coupling force on armature 120 will be about four (4) times that of when no coils are energised. By energising coils 126, 128 in an opposing manner a similar result would be achieved such that armature 120 would fall away and such that the magnetic coupling force on armature 118 would be increased.

If coils 122, 124 are energised to provide a magnetic flux equal to and aiding the magnetic flux which travels along flux path 130 when no coils are energised, the result is that the control coils couple completely with the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 and no magnetic flux traverses the path which includes armature 120 and therefore no magnetic coupling forces act on armature 120 allowing it to fall away as shown in Fig.9. Further, the magnetic flux traversing path 130 will be double that of when no coils are energised and therefore the magnetic coupling force on armature 118 will be about four (4) times that when no coils are energised. By energising coils 126, 128 in an aiding manner a similar result would be achieved such that armature 118 would fall away and the magnetic coupling force on armature 120 would be increased.

Based on the foregoing, it is seen that the full magnetic coupling force available from the permanent magnet 112, can be switched from one path to another path by the application of one half the power it would require for a coil alone to produce the same magnetic flux along one path. The ability to switch the full magnetic coupling force easily from one path to another, allows for efficient reciprocating, linear, and rotary motion and power conversion to be achieved.
The basic device utilised to achieve permanent magnet flux division and to control such permanent magnet flux division is defined herein as a "permanent magnet control component," various configurations of which are shown by way of example only, and not by way of limitation, in Figs. 10A-10F. **Fig. 10A** depicts a permanent magnet control component 150 in which pole pieces 152 and 154 are positioned adjacent to the pole faces of permanent magnet 156 to provide two magnetic flux paths extending from opposite sides of permanent magnet. Control coils 158 are positioned along each path.

**Fig. 10B** depicts a permanent magnet control component 160 in which pole pieces 162 and 164 are positioned against the pole faces of permanent magnet 166 to provide two spaced, adjacent magnetic flux paths extending from the same side of permanent magnet 166. Control coils 168 are positioned along each path.

**Fig. 10C** depicts a permanent magnet control component 170 in which pole pieces 172 and 174 are configured so as to be positioned adjacent the pole faces of permanent magnet 176 so as to provide four flux paths, each flux path extending in a respective direction from permanent magnet 176. Control coils 178 are also positioned along each path.
Fig. 10D depicts another four-path configuration of a permanent magnet control component 180 in which pole pieces 182, 184 are configured and positioned to provide four flux paths for permanent magnet 186, with a pair of spaced, adjacent flux paths extending from each side of permanent magnet 186. Control coils 188 are positioned along each path.

Fig. 10E depicts another four-path configuration of a permanent magnet control component 190 in which all four flux paths formed by pole pieces 192, 194 extend from one side of permanent magnet 196. Again, control coils 198 are positioned along each flux path.

Fig. 10F still further depicts a four-path configuration of a permanent magnet control component 200 in which pole pieces 202, 204 extend to one side of permanent magnet 206, with pole piece 202 defining four flux paths and with pole piece 204 including a continuous return path. Control coils 208 are positioned along each path of pole piece 202. Many other variations are possible.

Accordingly, it is seen that a variety of different configurations of permanent magnet control components are possible, in accordance with the present invention. The important considerations for division of permanent magnet flux in such permanent magnet control components include, extending each pole piece to, or beyond, the outer perimeter of the pole face of the permanent magnet in each region where a flux path is intended and assuring that the pole face of the permanent magnet intersects each of the flux paths. It is not necessary for each pole piece to include the same number of path portions extending beyond the perimeter of the respective permanent magnet pole face as noted with reference to permanent magnet control component 200. Although two control coils are shown along each of the flux paths in Figs. 10A-10E, it is apparent from component 200 in Fig. 10F that one control coil positioned along a flux path is generally sufficient for purposes of the present invention. Further, although in the illustrated configurations each pole piece is positioned to contact a respective pole face of the permanent magnet, a small spacing between a pole piece and its adjacent permanent magnet pole face could be provided, particularly in applications where relative movement between the subject pole piece and the permanent magnet will occur.
In its simplest form a two path permanent magnet control component only requires one control coil positioned along one of the control paths to permit the magnetic flux of a permanent magnet to be switched between the two paths. In particular, a side view of such a two path component 210 is shown in Fig.10G and includes a permanent magnet 211 pole pieces 212 and 213, and control coil 214 which may be connected to a suitable control circuit. By alternating energising control coil 214 in an opposing manner and an aiding manner the magnetic flux of permanent magnet can be switched between the path including armature 215 and the path including armature 216. When control coil 214 is energised in an opposing manner the magnetic flux will traverse the path including armature 215 and when control coil 214 is energised in an aiding manner the magnetic flux will traverse the path including armature 216. Control coil 214 could also be placed at any of the positions 217, 218, or 219 to achieve the flux path switching.

Further, in the two coils embodiment shown in Fig.10H control coil 217 is added. In such a device, flux switching can be achieved by simultaneously energising control coil 214 in a flux aiding manner and control coil 217 in a flux opposing manner, and by then simultaneously reversing the energisation of the respective control coils 214 and 217.

Reference is made to Figs.11A-11F which depict devices similar to that of Figs.5-6 except that a bypass, formed of magnetic material, is provided in each case. In device 220 of Figs.11A-11C a bypass 222 is provided from pole piece 224 to pole piece 226 and is located between permanent magnet 228 and control coils 230, 232, with armature 234 located adjacent the ends of pole pieces 224, 226. In Fig.11A with no coil energisation, magnet flux components 236 and 237 travel as shown.

When coils 230 and 232 are energised in an aiding or adding manner as in Fig.11B, the result is permanent magnet magnetic flux components 236 and 237 travelling as shown, and with the added magnetic flux component
from coils 230 and 232 also travelling as shown. Thus, in device 220 energising the coils in an aiding manner results in an increased magnetic coupling force on armature 234.

In Fig.11C coils 230, 232 are energised in an opposing exceeding manner which results in permanent magnetic flux components 236 and 237 travelling as shown and excess magnetic flux component 238 travelling as shown. Thus, in device 220 energising the coils in an opposing exceeding manner results in magnetic coupling force on armature 234, albeit smaller than that in the aiding exceeding case.

In device 240 of Figs.11D-11F a bypass 242 is provided between pole piece 244 and pole piece 246 but is located on an opposite side of permanent magnet 248 as compared to control coils 250, 252 and armature 254. Permanent magnet flux components 256 and 257 are shown for no coil energisation in Fig.11D. In Fig.11E the paths of permanent magnet flux components 256 and 257, as well as excess coil magnetic flux 258, are shown when coils 250, 252 are energised in an aiding exceeding manner.
In Fig.11F the path of each magnetic flux component 256, 257, and 258 is shown when coils 230, 232 are energised in an opposed exceeding manner.

Figs.12A-12E depict a device 270 similar to that shown in Figs.7-9 except that bypasses 272 and 274 are provided from pole piece 276 to pole piece 278. Bypass 272 is located between permanent magnet 280 and control coils 282, 284 and bypass 274 is located between permanent magnet 280 and control coils 286, 288. Armatures 290 and 292 are also provided. When no coils are energised permanent magnet magnetic flux components 294, 296, 298, and 300 travel as shown in Fig.12A.

If coils 282, 284 are energised in an opposing manner permanent magnet flux components 295, 297, and 299 travel as shown, with no flux component traversing the path which includes armature 290 and therefore no magnetic coupling force acting thereon. This would be the case when coils 282, 284 are energised to the level where the coils magnetic flux just blocks, but does not exceed, the magnetic flux component 294 (Fig.12A) from permanent magnet 280. However, if coils 282, 284 are energised in an opposed exceeding manner an excess coil magnetic flux component 301 is produced which travels a path including armature 290 and bypass 272 results as shown in Fig.12C.
Coils 286, 288 may be energised in an aiding manner such that all permanent magnet magnetic flux travels along the path which includes armature 292 as shown in Fig.12D. If coils 286, 288 are energised in excess of the level of Fig.12D then the excess magnetic flux component 304 traverses the path which includes armature 292 and bypass 274 as shown in Fig.12E, thereby increasing the magnetic coupling force on armature 292 as compared to Fig.12D. The advantage of incorporating such bypasses into permanent magnet control components in certain applications will become apparent below.

**Reciprocating Motion**

As mentioned above, controlling the path of magnetic flux from a permanent magnet can be useful in a variety of applications such as achieving reciprocating motion. In this regard, if the device 110 of Figs.7-9 is modified such that armatures 118 and 120 are fixed to a sliding shaft 320 as shown in Figs.13A-13C, and if the distance between the armatures is greater than the end to end length of pole pieces 114, 116, limited linear motion in two directions (left and right in Figs.13A-13C), and therefore linear reciprocating motion, can be achieved by the timed, alternate delivery of electrical signals to control coils 122, 124 and control coils 126, 128. By way of example, Fig.13A represents the position of shaft connected armatures 118, 120 when coils 122, 124 are energised in an opposing manner to block the flux of permanent magnet 112 such that all magnetic flux traverses path 132 as shown and such that the resulting magnetic coupling force acts to the left as indicated by arrow 322.
As shown in Fig.13B when coils 122, 124 are de-energised the magnetic flux from permanent magnet 112 can again travel along path 130 through armature 118. However, due to the air gap 324 between armature 118 and pole pieces 114, 116 the reluctance along path 130 will be significantly greater than the reluctance along path 132. Accordingly, the amount of magnetic flux which flows along path 130 will be less than the amount of magnetic flux which flows along path 132 such that the magnetic coupling force on armature 118 acting to the right will be significantly less than the magnetic coupling force on armature 120 acting to the left as shown by arrows 326 and 328, which arrows are sized to represent the strength of the respective directional force.

Fig.13C represents the position of shaft connected armatures 118, 120 after coils 126, 128 are energised in a manner to oppose the flux of permanent magnet 112 such that all flux traverses path 130 and the resulting magnetic coupling force on armature 118, depicted by arrow 330, moves the shaft 10 connected armatures 118, 120 to the right.

Control coils 122, 124 and 126, 128 could also be energised in a flux aiding manner to achieve the same result. In such a device, Fig.13A would represent coils 126, 128 energised to aid magnetic flux along path 132, Fig.13B would again represent no coils energised, and Fig.13C would represent coils 122, 124 energised to aid magnetic flux along path 130.

Thus, by alternately energising and de-energising control coils 122, 124 and 126, 128 a linear reciprocating motion of shaft connected armatures 118, 120 may be achieved. Further, such reciprocating motion may be achieved by energising the coils in either an opposing or aiding manner. The magnetic coupling force exerted on a given armature when 20 the control coils are energised to establish all magnetic flux along a single path which includes that armature is significantly greater than the magnetic coupling force which would be exerted on such armature by an identical energisation of the control coils in the absence of the permanent magnet.
This is demonstrated with reference to Fig. 14 which depicts a reciprocating device 340 in which only coils or electromagnets are utilised. As shown armatures 342 and 344 are connected by shaft 346, and each armature 342, 344 includes a respective U-shaped pole path piece 348, 350 which pole path pieces are mechanically connected by a non-magnetic material 352. Each pole path piece 348 and 350 has respective control coils 354, 356 and 358, 360 positioned along them. By comparison with the device of Figs. 13A-13C, if coils 358, 360 of device 340 are energised to cause magnetic flux flow in either direction, clockwise or counterclockwise, along path 362, the amount of electrical energy which would be required in order to achieve the same magnetic coupling force on armature 344 as achieved on armature 120 above in Fig. 13A would be twice that delivered to coils 122, 124 or 126, 128 in Fig. 13A. It is therefore demonstrated, that by controlling or switching the flow of magnetic flux from a permanent magnet between at least two different paths results in greater coupling forces per unit of input electrical energy, and therefore that such control or switching will enable more work to be achieved per unit of input electrical energy.

As described above, if a coil is energised beyond the point where the magnetic flux produced by the coil aiding the amount of the permanent magnet's flux that is either opposed or aided, the extra magnetic flux needs a low reluctance path between the poles of the coil that produces the excess magnetic flux. If a complete low-reluctance path is not provided for the excess magnetic flux, there is little potential for taking advantage of the excess magnetic flux in terms of producing additional magnetic coupling forces. The path for such excess flux cannot be through a permanent magnet member. In assemblies which include an armature on each path, the armature will provide the necessary low-reluctance path.

Referring to Fig. 15, various components of the magnetic flux in device 110 (Figs. 7-9) are depicted by numerals 380, 382, and 384 for the case when coils 122, 124 are energised to oppose the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 in an amount which exceeds the level of magnetic flux which permanent magnet 112 would cause to flow through armature 118 when no coils are energised. Fig. 15 is likewise representative of the case when coils 126, 128 are energised to aid the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 by an amount which exceeds the level of magnetic flux which permanent magnet 112 would cause to flow through armature 118 when no coils are energised. In particular, magnetic flux component 380 represents the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 which normally flows through the path including armature 120; magnetic flux component 382 represents the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 112 which is diverted by the opposing field of coils 122, 124 so as to traverse
the path which includes armature 120; and magnetic flux component 384 represents the magnetic flux produced by coils 122, 124 which is in excess of the diverted magnetic flux 382. As shown, the excess magnetic flux 384 produced by coils 122, 124 traverses the path which includes armature 120 and bypasses permanent magnet 112 so as to also traverse the path which includes armature 118. Thus, the excess magnetic flux produced by coils 122, 124 adds to the permanent magnet flux traversing the path which includes armature 120, thus increasing the magnetic coupling force on armature 120, while at the same time providing a magnetic coupling force on armature 118.

In a reciprocating device where armatures 118 and 120 are connected by shaft 320 as shown in Figs.13A-13C and again in Fig.16A, excess magnetic flux 384 will increase magnetic coupling force 390 on armature 120 acting to the left. However, because such excess flux 384 also traverses the path which includes armature 118, such excess magnetic flux 384 also results in a magnetic coupling force 392 on armature 118 which acts to the right. Even though excess magnetic flux 384 traversing the path which includes an armature 118 has an opposite polarity to that which would traverse the path due to permanent magnet 112, the magnetic coupling force on armature 118 still acts to the right because armature 118 is not polarity sensitive, that is, armature 118 will be attracted regardless of the direction of the magnetic flux traversing the path. The overall effect is that a resultant force which is the difference between force 390 and force 392 will act on the shaft-connected armatures 118, 120. However, if armatures 118 and 120 were formed by permanent magnets having polarities as shown at the top and bottom of such armatures, the force acting on each armature would be in the same direction and therefore additive.

In this regard reference is made to Fig.16B in which a two path device 371 having four control coils 373, 375, 377 and 379 is shown with the illustrated armatures being formed by permanent magnets 381 and 383 having polarities as shown. With no coils energised both permanent magnet armatures 381 and 383 are attracted to the ends of pole pieces 385 and 387. With coils 373, 375 energised in an opposing manner and coils 377, 379 energised in an aiding manner, the attractive force on permanent magnet armature 383 will generally increase and the attractive force on permanent magnet armature 381 will generally decrease.
This is demonstrated with reference to the graph of Fig.16C which depicts a graph of the current flowing in the control coils on the x-axis versus the magnetic flux in gauss on the y-axis with line 389 representing the flux along the aiding side of device 371 and line 391 representing the flux along the opposing side of device 371. As shown, the magnetic flux on the coil opposing side decreases as the coil current increases and passes through zero at point 393. After point 393, reverse magnetic flux begins to be produced and would result in a repelling force on permanent magnet armature 381. In some applications, particularly those where permanent magnet armatures and rotors are not utilised, it is critical to recognise point 393 so that reverse magnetic flux is not produced.
In this regard, reference is made to Fig.16D and Fig.16E, in which use of Hall Effect switches 401 and 403 is made to enable control of the coil energising current in situations where it is desirable to prevent reverse magnetic flux. As shown, small bypasses 405 and 407 are provided with Hall Effect switches 401 and 403 positioned in gaps along them, the switches being connected to control circuit 409. As the flux travelling along the bypass path falls to zero, the Hall Effect switch can be utilised to prevent further energisation of the control coils so that no reverse flux is created.
Another embodiment of a device 400 which would provide reciprocating motion is shown in Figs.17A-17D in which a permanent magnet control component 402 having two flux paths may be provided. A first pole piece 404, has two spaced, adjacent path portions 406 and 408 extending beyond the perimeter of the pole face of permanent magnet 410, and a second pole piece 412 includes only one continuous portion 414 extending beyond the perimeter of the pole face of permanent magnet 410, each path portion 406 and 408 of pole piece 404 being substantially aligned with at least a part of portion 414 of pole piece 412. Control coil 416 is positioned along pole piece path portion 406 and control coil 418 is positioned along pole piece portion 408. An armature 420 is positioned in the region between pole piece path portions 404, 406 and pole piece portion 414 and is free to slide from side to side as shown by arrows 422 and 424.

A front view of component device 400 with no coils energised and armature 420 at a mid-point depicts flux flowing from the north pole face of permanent magnet 410, through each of pole piece path portions 406 and 408, through armature 420, and returning to the south pole face through pole piece portion 414. Thus, the magnetic flux divides equally along two paths. If coil 416 is energised in an aiding manner, or if coil 418 is energised in an opposing manner, all or a majority of the magnetic flux of the permanent magnets can be made to flow through pole piece portion 406 so that a resulting magnetic coupling force on armature 420 causes it to move to the left as shown in Fig.17C. Likewise, if control coil 416 is energised in an opposing manner, or if control coil 418 is energised in an aiding manner, all or a majority of the permanent magnet flux can be made to flow through pole piece path portion 408 such that a resulting magnetic coupling force on armature 420 causes it to move to the right as shown in Fig.17D. Accordingly, by alternately energising and de-energising coils 416 and 418 a reciprocating motion of armature 420 may be achieved.

Linear Motion

Referring now to Figs.18A-18E, linear motion in accordance with the present invention is described. In particular, a permanent magnet control component 440 including a permanent magnet 442 with a pole piece 444 positioned against it's north pole face and a pole piece 446 positioned against it's south pole face is shown in an exploded view in Fig.18A and assembled in Fig.18B.
Pole piece 444 includes five path portions 448A-448E which extend beyond the edge of the north pole face of permanent magnet 442 to one side of it and at respective positions along it's length, and it has path portion 448A-448E each with a control coil 450A-450E positioned around them. Pole piece 446 includes one portion 452 extending beyond the edge of the south pole face of permanent magnet 442 to the one side of it, and this portion 452 extends along the entire length of permanent magnet 442. A number of armatures 454 define a path of relative movement between permanent magnet control component 440 and such armatures 454, and by providing timed energisation of given control coils 450A-450E such relative movement can be achieved.

In Fig.18C, magnetic flux will only flow along path portions 448B and 448C of pole piece 444 causing resultant magnetic coupling forces depicted by arrows 456, 458 which act to move permanent magnet control component 440 to the left, assuming armatures 454 are fixed. Similarly, due to the timing of subsequent coil energisation resultant magnetic forces depicted by arrows 460, 462 in Fig.18D and arrows 464, 466 in Fig.18E act to continue movement of permanent magnet control component 440 to the left. Thus, if permanent magnet control component 440 were fixed to a device or structure, controlled movement of the device or structure along the path defined by armatures 454 could be achieved. Conversely, if permanent magnet control component 440 were fixed and armatures 454 were located on a device or structure, controlled movement of the device or structure...
could also be achieved. It is also easily recognised that by varying the coil energisation sequence and timing relative movement in the opposite direction can be achieved. Further, if the permanent magnet was doughnut shaped and the armatures were arranged in a circumferential pattern, rotary motion would likewise be achievable.

**Rotary Motion**

![Figure 19](image1.png)

One embodiment of a rotary motion device or motor 500 which incorporates various permanent magnet flux control aspects of the present invention is shown in the exploded view of Fig.19 and in the partial assembled view of Fig.20. Motor 500 includes a rotor assembly which includes a shaft 502 and associated upper bearing 504, a non-magnetic disk member 506 mounted for rotation with shaft 502, and a rotor pole piece 508 which is mounted for rotation with disk member 506 such as by the use of screws 510. Rotor pole piece 508 includes a ring-shaped portion having two inwardly extending magnetic flux path portions 512A and 512B. A stator assembly of motor 500 includes a doughnut or ring-shaped permanent magnet 514 having an upwardly directed north pole face positioned adjacent and in close proximity to rotor pole piece 508, and a downward directed south pole face positioned adjacent and in contact with a stator pole piece 516. Stator pole piece includes a ring-shaped portion having five inwardly projecting path portions 518A-518E. Each path portion includes a respective winding post 520A-520E extending therefrom and having a respective control coil 522A-522E wound on it. Stator pole piece faces 524A-524E are which can be positioned on respective winding posts 518A-518B and, as shown in the partial assembly of Fig.20, are substantially aligned with the top surface of permanent magnet 514 so as to be which can be positioned adjacent rotor path portions 512A and 512B when aligned therewith. Each of winding posts 518A-518E and stator pole piece faces are formed of magnetic material, and although shown as separate pieces, an integral, one piece stator could be formed with similar winding posts and pole piece faces machined on it. Lower bearing 526 is also shown.
Figs. 21A-21E illustrate top views of the partial assembly of Fig. 20 with magnetic flux shown. In Fig. 21A, magnetic flux travel when none of coils 522A-522E are energised is depicted. Disregarding leakage flux, due to the low-reluctance path provided by rotor pole piece path portions 512A and 512B, the majority of magnetic flux from the north pole face of permanent magnet 514 will travel radially inward along one of such path portions before passing downward through the stator assembly and returning to the south pole face of permanent magnet 514. It is noted that rotor pole piece 508 includes two path portions and stator pole piece 516 includes five path portions such that rotor pole piece path portions 512A and 512B will always be skewed relative to the stator pole piece faces 524A-524E. Only one rotor pole piece path portion can directly align with a stator pole piece face at a given time. By alternately energising the control coils of each of the stator pole piece paths, rotary motion of the rotor may be achieved.

In particular, referring to Figs. 21B-21D, an energising sequence which results in such rotary motion is described. In Fig. 21B, control coils 522A and 522C are energised in a permanent magnet flux opposing manner. Permanent magnet magnetic flux travelling along rotor pole piece path portion 512A tends to traverse to stator pole piece face 524B causing a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 526. Likewise, permanent magnet flux travelling along rotor pole piece path portion 512B tends to traverse to stator pole piece face 524D causing a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 528. The result is rotation of rotor pole piece 508 in a clockwise direction as indicated by arrow 530.
Referring to Fig.21C, just after rotor pole piece path portion 512B is no longer aligned with stator pole piece face 524D, control coil 522C is de-energised and control coil 522D is energised in an opposing manner such that the permanent magnet flux travelling along rotor pole piece path 512B tends to traverse to stator pole piece face 524E resulting in magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 532. Control coil 522A remains energised such that a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 534 results. Accordingly, clockwise rotation of rotor pole piece 508 is continued.

In Fig.21D, just after rotor pole piece path portion 512A is no longer aligned with stator pole piece face 524B, control coil 522A is de-energised and control coil 522B is energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner such that the permanent magnet magnetic flux travelling along rotor pole piece path 512A tends to traverse to stator pole piece face 524C such that a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 536 results. Control coil 522D remains energised such that a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 538 results, and clockwise rotation of rotor pole piece 508 is continued.
As shown in Fig. 21E, just after rotor pole piece path portion 512B is no longer aligned with stator pole piece face 524E, control coil 522D is de-energised and control coil 522E is energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner such that the permanent magnet magnetic flux travelling along rotor pole piece path 512B tends to traverse to stator pole piece face 524A such that a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 540 results. Control coil 522B remains energised such that a magnetic coupling force indicated by arrow 542 results, and clockwise rotation of rotor pole piece 508 is continued.

Thus, by alternating energising and de-energising control coils 522A-522E, in a predetermined timed sequence based upon rotation of the rotor assembly, continued rotation movement of rotor pole piece 508 may be achieved. Such an energisation/de-energisation scheme can be achieved utilising circuitry common in the art, such as the control circuitry described in Applicant's U.S. Pat. Nos. 5,463,263 and 5,455,474, as well as various of the circuit configurations described below.

Referring now to Fig. 22, an assembled view of rotary motor 500 is shown including a housing or cover formed by an upper housing member 544 and a lower housing member 546, with portions of each housing member cut away to expose motor structure described above. It is recognised that such housing members 544 and 546 should be constructed from a non-magnetic material, and likewise that motor shaft 502 and bearings 504, 526 should be constructed from a non-magnetic material.
In another embodiment, a rotary motion device or motor 580 in accordance with the present invention is shown in an exploded perspective view in Fig. 23 and in an assembled perspective view in Fig. 24. Two spaced permanent magnets 582 and 584 are positioned between stator pole pieces 586 and 588. Stator pole piece 586 includes two path portions 590A and 590B extending away from permanent magnets 582, 584 in opposite directions. Likewise, stator pole piece 588 includes two path portions 592A and 592B extending away from permanent magnets 582, 584 in opposite directions and which can be aligned with stator pole piece path portions 590A and 590B. Control coils 594, 596, 598, and 600 are each positioned along a stator pole piece path portion as shown. A non-magnetic shaft 602 includes a pair of matching elongated rotor members 604 and 606, formed of magnetic material, mounted at spaced locations on the shaft and being set at an angle to each other, shaft 602 passing between spaced permanent magnets 582 and 584. Two end cap members 608 and 610, made from non-magnetic material, are attached to the ends of stator pole pieces 586 and 588 and are configured for receiving shaft 602 and respective bearings 612 and 614.
The ends of the stator pole pieces 506 and 508 are configured for a given desired coupling relationship with rotor members 604 and 606. For example, as shown in the exemplary end views of Fig.25A and Fig.25B, with end cap 608 removed, the end of stator pole piece 586 may include an curved portion 616 which is configured to create a variable-reluctance air gap 618 with elongated rotor member 604. The end of stator pole piece 588 includes an curved portion 620 which is also configured to create a variable-reluctance air gap 622 with rotor member 604.

In particular, portion 618 includes a circumferential curvature which has a centre point offset below the axis of rotation of shaft 602 and rotor member 604 as indicated by circle 624 shown in shadow. Similarly, portion 620 includes a circumferential radius of curvature which has a centre point offset above the axis of rotation of shaft 602 and rotor member 604. When magnetic flux is passing along the path which includes a given end of the assembly, maximum coupling between the rotor member and stator pole pieces occurs when the rotor is positioned as shown in Fig.25B. Accordingly, the illustrated rotor member and stator pole piece configurations of themselves do not provide any skewing to the direction of rotation of the rotor assembly.

In this regard, various configurations for the rotor and ends of the stator pole piece are shown in the end views of Figs.26-28, which configurations provide skewing the direction of rotation. In particular, in device 620 of Fig.26 a
rotor member 622 having notches 624 and 626, which notches provide for greater magnetic coupling with the stator pole pieces 628 and 630 at corners 632 and 634 such that rotation is skewed in the clockwise direction. If notches were instead located at corners 632 and 634, skewed rotation in the counterclockwise direction would be the result. In device 620 such counterclockwise rotation could also be achieved by removing rotor 622 from shaft 636, flipping it end to end, and replacing it on shaft 636.

In the device 640 of Fig.27, a portion 642 of the curved end portion of stator pole piece 644 is removed and a portion 646 of the curved end portion of stator pole piece 648 is removed. This configuration results in greater magnetic coupling between rotor member 650 and stator pole piece 644 at corner 652, and greater magnetic coupling between rotor member 650 and stator pole piece 648 at corner 654, such that rotation is skewed in the counterclockwise direction. Counterclockwise rotation could be achieved by instead modifying the opposite side of stator pole pieces 644 and 648.

**Fig.28** depicts an end view of a device 660 in which the axis 662 of the curved end portion of upper stator pole piece 664 and lower stator pole piece 666 is placed at an angle A as shown. This configuration creates an unequal variable-reluctance air gap where opposite corners of rotor member 668 are closer to stator pole pieces 664 and 666. Further, the angle at which maximum magnetic coupling between rotor member 668 and stator pole pieces 664 and 666 occurs is retarded by angle A. Rotation would be in the counterclockwise direction for the illustrated configuration.
Referring again to motor 580 of Figs.23-25, rotary motion of such device is depicted in the end views of Figs.29A-29D. In each end view the end cap has been removed to show rotation of the rotor members and in each of Figs.29A-29D an end view depicting rotor member 604 and an end view depicting rotor member 606 are shown side-by-side. In Fig.29A, rotor member 604 is defined as being at zero degrees and rotor member 606 is defined as being at ninety degrees. Control coils 594, 598 are energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner such that no magnetic flux passes through stator pole piece path portions 590B and 592B. This allows rotor member 606 to move out of its ninety degree position and the magnetic coupling between rotor member 604 and stator pole piece path portions 590A and 592A will cause rotation to the position shown in Fig.29B and then Fig.29C. When rotor member 604 reaches the ninety degree position shown in Fig.29D control coils 594, 598 are de-energised and control coils 596, 600 are energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner causing rotation to continue due to the magnetic coupling between rotor member 606 and stator pole piece path portions 590B and 592B. Thus, by alternately energising the control coils of each path with every ninety degree rotation of rotor members 604 and 606, continuous rotary motion is achieved.

The initial direction of rotation can be controlled by the circuit means used to energise control coils 594, 598 and 596, 600, which circuit means includes circuitry for detecting the angular position of the rotor members. In particular, if rotor members 604 and 606 are at rest in the position shown in Fig.29A, and coils 594, 598 are energised in an aiding manner, rotation may be clockwise or counterclockwise. If the desired direction is clockwise but upon energisation of coils 594, 598 the rotor members begin to move counterclockwise, the detection circuitry will immediately de-energise coils 594, 598 and energise coils 596, 600 so that the clockwise direction is achieved.

Further, bypasses around permanent magnets 582 and 584 could be provided in rotary motion device 580, such as those shown in Fig.12, and rotor members 604 and 606 could be formed by permanent magnets so as to take advantage of energising the control coils in an exceeding manner.
A third embodiment of a rotary motion device or motor 650 is shown in the exploded partial perspective view of Fig. 30 and in the assembled partial perspective view of Fig. 31. In motor 650 the stator assembly includes a control component 651 including a permanent magnet 652 having a stator pole piece 654 positioned adjacent to one pole face of the magnet and a stator pole piece 656 positioned adjacent to the opposite pole face. Stator pole piece 654 includes a path portion 658A extending to one side of permanent magnet 652 and a path portion 658B extending to the opposite side thereof and spaced from first path portion 658A. Control coils 660 and 662 are positioned along respective stator pole piece path portions 658A and 658B.

In the same way, stator pole piece 656 includes path portions 664A and 664B which extend in a similar manner from it so as to be aligned with stator path portions 658A and 658B respectively. Control coils 666 and 668 are positioned along respective stator pole piece path portions 664A and 664B. Positioned opposite, and facing control component 651, is a similar control component 670 including permanent magnet 672 stator pole piece 674 with path portions 676A and 676B having the control coils 678 and 680, and stator pole piece 682 with path portions 684A and 684B having their control coils 686 and 688. The end of each of the pole piece path portions 658A, 658B, 664A, 664B, 676A, 676B, 684A, and 684B is of a generally curved configuration.

A rotor assembly of motor 650 includes a non-magnetic shaft 700 having a permanent magnet rotor member 702 mounted on it and which rotates with it. Permanent magnet rotor member 702 is generally ring-shaped and segmented to include distinct north and south pole faces which reverse about every ninety degrees around them. When assembled, the top and bottom surfaces of permanent magnet rotor member 702 align with pole pieces 654, 656, 674, and 682 of the stator assembly and are preferably configured so that there is a minimal gap between the outer surface of permanent magnet rotor member 702 and the curved surfaces of the pole piece path portions.
Rotation of device 650 can be achieved by controlled, timed energising and de-energising of control coils 660, 662, 666, 668, 678, 680, 686, and 688. Exemplary rotation is demonstrated with reference to the top views of Figs.32A-32B which depict counterclockwise rotation of permanent magnet rotor member 702 through one-hundred and eighty degrees. In Fig.32A stator pole piece path portion 658A of component 651 is active and stator pole piece path portion 658B is not active, which may be achieved by energising control coil 660 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner or by energising control coil 662 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner. Stator pole piece path portion 676B of component 670 is active and stator pole piece path portion 676A is not active, which may be achieved by energising control coil 680 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner or by energising control coil 678 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner.

Thus, portions 690 and 692 of permanent magnet rotor member 702, which both have a north magnetic polarity, will be repelled by the north polarity of stator pole piece path portions 658A and 676B aligned with it. Portions 694 and 696 of permanent magnet rotor member 702, both of which have a south magnetic polarity, will be attracted to the active path portions 658A and 676B. At the instant that rotor member portion 694 becomes aligned with stator pole piece path portion 658A, as shown in Fig.32B, all coils are de-energised such that all pole piece path portions will be active as shown. Pole piece path portions 658B and 676A are then kept active while pole piece path portions 658A and 676B are made inactive. This is achieved by energising control coils 662 and 678 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner or by energising control coils 660 and 680 in a permanent magnet magnetic flux opposing manner. Rotor member portions 690 and 692 will again be repelled by the north polarity of path portions 658B and 676A aligned with it so that rotation of permanent magnet rotor 702 is continued.

In Fig.32D all coils are shown de-energised when rotor portion 692 aligns with pole piece path portion 658A. By continuing this timed sequence of energisation and de-energisation of the control coils, continued rotary movement is achieved. As explained above, the initial direction of rotation can be controlled by circuit means.
which detects the initial direction of permanent magnet rotor 702 and immediately alters the coil energisation scheme if the initial direction is incorrect.

A side view of assembled motor 650 is shown in Fig.33 and includes an upper housing or enclosure portion 710, a bottom housing portion 712, upper bearing 714, and a lower bearing 716.
A fourth embodiment of a rotary motion device or motor 740 is illustrated in Figs. 34-39. Motor 740 includes five stator control components 742A-742E positioned around a ring shaped permanent magnet rotor member 744 (Fig. 36). As shown with reference to component 742A in Fig. 37, each stator component 742A includes a permanent magnet 746A with an upper pole piece 748A positioned adjacent to one pole face and a lower pole piece 750A positioned adjacent to the opposite pole face. Control coils 752A, 754A are positioned along respective pole pieces 748A, 750A. A bypass 756A extends from pole piece 748A to pole piece 750A and is positioned between permanent magnet 746A and control coils 752A, 754A. Alternatively, bypass 756A could be provided on the opposite side of permanent magnet 746A as shown in Fig. 38. Although not shown, it is anticipated that permanent magnet rotor member 744 would be mounted on an axis for rotation with it and that a motor housing or enclosure could be provided, such as shown in relation to motor 650 of Fig. 33.

Referring to the top views of Figs. 39A-39D, rotary motion of rotor member 744 is depicted by the sequence of views. Regions 770 and 772 in Figs. 39A-39D represent the magnetic north regions of the top of permanent magnet rotor 744. In Fig. 39A control coils 752E and 752C are energised in a permanent magnet aiding and exceeding manner such that regions 770 and 772 of permanent magnet rotor 744 are repulsed by components 742E and 742C while permanent magnet motor regions 774 and 776 are attracted by components 742E and 742C. The resultant coupling forces act to move permanent magnet rotor in a counterclockwise direction to the location shown in Fig. 39B. Just after permanent magnet rotor region 772 passes the point shown in Fig. 39C, control coil 752B is energised in a permanent magnet aiding and exceeding manner, while control coils 752E and 752C also remain energised, and counterclockwise rotation of permanent magnet rotor 744 is continued. Just
after permanent magnet rotor region 772 passes by control component 742C control coil 752C is de-energised, while control coils 752E and 752B remain energised, so as to continue counterclockwise rotation. Then, just after permanent magnet rotor region 770 reaches the location shown in Fig.39D control coil 752D is energised in a permanent magnet flux aiding and exceeding manner, while coils 752E and 752B remain energised, so as to continue counterclockwise rotation. Thus, as in the other embodiments, repeated and timed energisation and de-energisation of the control coils produces the desired rotational movement.

In terms of controlling the energisation of coils in the devices described above, various electronic control circuit-switching means and electromechanical control circuit-switching machines are depicted in Figs.40-44. In circuit 800 of Fig.40 a given coil 802 is placed in series between an electrical energy source 804 and a power MOSFET 806. An LED 808 is connected to electrical energy source 804 through resistor 810 and is positioned to impinge upon a phototransistor 812 which is connected in series with resistor 814. A control input of MOSFET 806 is connected between phototransistor 812 and resistor. Accordingly, when LED 808 activates phototransistor 812 the voltage drop across resistor 814 activates, or turns ON, MOSFET 806 and coil 802 is energised. Timed energisation of coil 802 is provided by mounting an interrupter 816, such as shown in Fig.42, to the shaft 816 of the motor device to be controlled, such that as interrupter 814 rotates with shaft 816 coil 802 is alternately energised and de-energised. In a device with a plurality of coils a corresponding plurality of LED/photoresistor pairs may be provided.

In circuit 820 of Fig.41 a coil 822 is positioned between electrical energy source 824 and power MOSFET 826. A hall switch 828 is connected in series with resistor 830. Hall switch 828 is also connected to the control input of MOSFET 826 through resistor 832. In a given device hall switch 828 would be positioned to react to a change in magnetic flux so as to control the ON/OFF switching of MOSFET 826, and thus the alternate energisation and de-energisation of coil 822.
In Fig.43 a circuit 840 for controlling two coils in an opposite manner is provided such that when coil 842 is energised coil 844 is de-energised, and such that when coil 842 is de-energised coil 844 is energised. Both coils 842 and 844 are connected in series between electrical energy source 846 and respective power MOSFETs 848 and 850. An LED 852 and phototransistor 854 arrangement is provided, LED connected in series with resistor 856 and phototransistor connected in series with resistor 858. When LED 852 turns phototransistor 854 ON the voltage drop across resistor 858 turns MOSFET 848 ON and coil 842 is energised. At that time the voltage applied at the control input of MOSFET 850 will be low and therefore MOSFET 850 will be OFF and coil 844 will be de-energised. When interrupter 814 blocks LED 852, phototransistor 854 is turned OFF and MOSFET 848 is likewise turned OFF. The control input of MOSFET 850 is therefore pulled high through resistor 860 and MOSFET 850 is turned ON such that coil 844 is energised.

In Fig.44 a system 870 including member 872 mounted on rotating shaft 874 is provided, with the left side of member 872 being alternately conductive at 876 and non-conductive at 878. Coils 880 and 882 are connected to respective brushes 884 and 886 which are positioned to contact member 872 during each rotation of the shaft. Member 872 is connected through brush 890 to power supply 888. Thus, coils 880 and 882 will alternately be energised and de-energised as the respective brushes thereof contact the conductive and non-conductive portions of member 872.

Any of such circuit means, variations thereof, or other circuit means may be used to provide the timed energisation of the control coils in the various embodiments of the present invention.

From the preceding description of the illustrated embodiments, it is evident that the objects of the invention are attained. Although the invention has been described and illustrated in detail, it is to be clearly understood that the same is intended by way of illustration and example only and is not to be taken by way of limitation.

For example, although the magnetic flux control techniques of the present invention have been discussed as applicable mainly to various motive applications, such magnetic flux control techniques are also useful in static applications.
Power Conversion

Referring to Figs. 45A-45C there is shown the permanent magnet device 900 of Figs. 45A-45C which has two magnetic flux paths provided by rectangular pole piece 902 which includes upper portion 904 and lower portion 906 each positioned against a respective pole face of permanent magnet 910. Unlike the device of Figs. 7-9, fall away armatures are not provided. Instead, fixed armatures in the form of integral pole piece portions 912 and 914 extend from upper portion 904 to lower portion 906 completing the two flux paths in a permanent manner. Control coils 916, 918 are provided along one flux path and control coils 920, 922 are provided along the other flux path, such control coils acting as primary windings in device 900. One coil 924 is positioned around pole piece portion 912 and another coil 926 is positioned around pole piece portion 914, such coils 924, 926 acting as secondary windings in device 900.

In Fig. 45A no coils are energised and the permanent magnet magnetic flux splits evenly between paths 930 and 932, coupling with both coil 924 and coil 926.

In Fig. 45B coils 916, 918 are energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner so as to couple with all the magnetic flux of permanent magnet 910. All magnetic flux flows along path 930 as shown and thus couples with coil 924.
In Fig.45C coils 920, 922 are energised in a permanent magnet magnetic flux aiding manner such that all magnetic flux traverses path 932 and couples with coil 926. By continuously alternately energising and de-energising coils 916, 918 and 920, 922 in such a manner energy conversion is achieved due to the coupling with coils 924 and 926. The magnetic flux in the integral pole piece portions 912 and 914, and thus the flux coupling with respective coils 924 and 926, varies by a factor of twice the amount of magnetic flux generated by energising coils 916, 918 and 920, 922.

The construction shown in Fig.45A and Fig.45X are similar to the construction shown in Fig.7 and Fig.47. The difference in both cases relates to replacing the two flux paths and armatures with one continues flux path. The arrangement in Fig.7 has one permanent magnet and four coils and the arrangement in Fig.47 has two permanent magnets and two coils. Although the physical aspects of the two arrangements and the details of the flux control vary, the control method for varying the permanent magnets flux are similar and will be described simultaneously and only differences will be pointed out.
With continuous flux paths the static flux from the permanent magnet or magnets is useless. However, if the static flux of the permanent magnet confined to the flux paths were modified to be time varying it would have utility for electromagnetic induction devices for power conversion like transformers and power inverters. However, the same basic method for controlling the flux of a permanent magnet to provide linear and rotary motion can also be applied to time varying the static flux from the permanent magnet. The construction shown in Fig.45X utilises four control coils and a single permanent magnet while the construction shown in Fig.45A uses two control coils and two permanent magnets. The flux that would normally be supplied by a primary winding is supplied by the static flux of the permanent magnet or magnets and the control coils convert this static flux into a time varying flux in a novel way. Both arrangements use two secondary coils, the secondary coils are placed in the region of the continuous flux path that would be occupied by an armature or rotor in the linear or rotary arrangements. The regions of the flux paths that perform work are the same in all cases.

In all cases the control coils can either be wired in series or parallel and the secondary coils can be either wound in series or parallel. More than one secondary coil or secondary coils with multiple taps can be placed in the working regions and further multiple flux paths can be utilised with one or more secondary coils placed in each of the working regions. This is made obvious by the disclosures of the linear and rotary devices herein and based on the fact that the working regions of the flux paths are identical.

Fig.45X and Fig.45A also show the paths of the static flux of the permanent magnet or magnets when no current is flowing in the control coils. In the arrangement shown in Fig.45X the flux from the single permanent magnet divides between the two working areas of the flux path. In the arrangement of Fig.45A all of the flux of one of the permanent magnets passes through one of the working regions and all of the flux of the second permanent magnet passes through the other working region. Each of the working regions in both cases are occupied by secondary coils.

Fig.45Y and Fig.45B show the control coils energised with the polarity shown with respect to the polarity of the permanent magnet or magnets included. In Fig.45Y the opposing coil, blocks the passage of flux from the permanent magnet, and the aiding coil couples with the flux of the permanent magnet and therefore all of the flux of the permanent magnet passes through one working region as shown. In Fig.45B the opposing side of the coil blocks the passage of flux from the permanent magnet on the opposing side of the coil and the aiding side of the
coil couples with the flux of the other permanent magnet and therefore all of the flux of both the permanent magnets passes through the working region as shown.

**Fig. 45Z**

**Fig. 45C** show the control coils energised with a polarity opposite of that shown in **Fig. 45Y** and **Fig. 45B**. The same action occurs and results in all of the permanent magnet or magnets path flux passing through the opposite working regions.

By alternating the polarity of the control coils during one cycle, one working region experiences an increasing flux and the opposite region experiences a decreasing flux and during the next cycle the opposite occurs. This results in the induction of a voltage in the secondary coils that is decided by the magnitude of the change in flux in the working region and the time in which this change occurs. The novelty of this discovery is that the primary flux inducing the voltage in the secondary coils is supplied by the permanent magnet or magnets and is far greater than the flux supplied by the control coils.

**Fig. 46**

Further, in the rotary motion devices of **Fig. 31** and **Fig. 34**, it is not necessary that respective rotor members 702 and 744 be formed of permanent magnets. Each could take the form shown in **Fig. 46** where sections 950 and 952 are formed of magnetic material such as soft iron and sections 954 and 956 are formed by a non-magnetic filler material.
Fig. 47 and Fig. 48 show another embodiment 1000 of the subject device. The embodiment 1000 includes two spaced permanent magnets 1002 and 1004 each of which has its north pole adjacent to the upper surface and its south pole adjacent to the lower surface. A magnetisable bridging member 1006 extends across and makes contact with the north magnetic poles of the magnets 1002 and 1004 and another magnetisable bridging member 1008 makes contact with the south magnetic poles of the two permanent magnets 1002 and 1004.

The members 1006 and 1008 extend slightly beyond the opposite sides of the respective permanent magnets 1002 and 1004 and a pair of spaced armature members 1010 and 1012 are positioned to move into and out of engagement with the ends of the members 1006 and 1008. Coils 1014 and 1016 are mounted respectively on the members 1006 and 1008 in the space between the permanent magnets 1002 and 1004, and the armatures 1010 and 1012 are shown connected together by a rod 1018 which enables them to move backwards and forwards into engagement with the respective members 1006 and 1008 when different voltages are applied to the respective coils 1014 and 1016.

In Fig. 47, the coils 1014 and 1016 are energised as shown with the coil 1014 having its north magnetic end to the left and its south magnetic end to the right and the opposite is true of the coil 1016. In Fig. 48, the voltage applied to the respective coils 1014 and 1016 is reversed so that the polarity of the left end of coil 1014 is south and the polarity of the opposite end of the same coil 1014 is a north magnetic pole. The reverse is true of the coil 1016. In Fig. 47 and Fig. 48 it should be noted that the relationship of aiding and opposing is indicated on the figures to indicate the relationship when the coils are energised. For example, in Fig. 47 when the coils are energised as shown the relationship is opposing for the permanent magnet 1002 and is aiding with respect to the permanent magnet 1004. The reverse is true when the voltage on the coils is reversed as shown in Fig. 48. The movement of the armature is therefore controlled by the proper timing of the voltage on these coils. The same principles can be applied to produce rotating movement as shown in Fig. 42.
Fig. 49 shows another embodiment 1030 of the subject invention using principles similar to those described in connection with Fig.47 and Fig.48. The embodiment 1030 includes a plurality, three being shown, of stationary members 1032, 1034 and 1036.

The details of these members are better shown in Fig.50 which shows the details of the member 1036. This member includes a pair of permanent magnets 1038 and 1040, each of which has magnetisable members mounted adjacent to its opposite sides, as in the previous construction. The members 1042 and 1044 also have coils 1046 and 1048, respectively, and the coils are energised as described in connection with Fig.47 and Fig.48 to produce aiding and opposing magnetism. The construction shown in Fig.49 may have three stator portions as shown or it may have more stator portions as desired. The rotor 1050 is positioned in the space between the members 1032, 1034 and 1036 and includes a permanent magnet portion part of which has its north magnetic pole on the surface as shown and the other parts has its south magnetic pole in the same surface as shown. The permanent magnets 1038 and 1040 on the stators interact with the permanent magnets on the rotor to produce the rotating motion and is controlled by the energising of the coils.

Other applications and advantages of the devices and methods of the present invention exist and various modifications are possible, and therefore the present invention is not intended to be limited to the specific examples disclosed herein. Accordingly, the spirit and scope of the invention are to be limited only by the terms of the appended claims.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. If the content interests you, then you should obtain a full copy via the www.freepatentsonline.com web site. This patent describes an electrical device very similar to the MEG device, capable of powering itself while powering additional external items of equipment.

ABSTRACT
The Acoustic Magnetic Field Power Generator uses an acoustic signal focused into a permanent magnet to stimulate the nuclear structure of the magnet to cause the magnetic field of the permanent magnet to move or oscillate. This effect can be used to tap power from the oscillating magnetic field by putting a coil of wire in the oscillating field. When an alternating current signal generator is connected simultaneously to an acoustic transducer and a stimulating coil; whereby, both the acoustic transducer and the stimulating coil are located within the magnetic field of the magnet, the acoustic signal enhances the stimulating effect to the permanent magnet transformer. The acoustic transducer can be any acoustic generation device such as a piezoelectric, magnetostrictive, or other acoustic transducer. The combined effect of the acoustic signal and the stimulating coil increases the efficiency of permanent magnet induction transformers.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
The present invention relates to a solid state electrical generator having no moving parts. More particularly, the invention makes use of a new method of stimulating the nuclear material of a permanent magnet so that the electronic structure of the atom will vibrate and thus cause the magnetic field of the permanent magnet to oscillate. It is a well-known fact that an oscillating magnetic field will induce electrical current in a coil as was discovered by Michael Faraday in the last century. What is new in this invention, is the discovery of the ability of an acoustic field to stimulate the nuclear structure of a material to cause the electrons to wobble under the influence of the acoustic field. If the material is magnetic or temporarily magnetised by an external magnetic field then the magnetic field will vibrate under the stimulus of the acoustic field. If this effect is combined with a coil which is simultaneously stimulating the magnet then the efficiency of stimulating the permanent magnet's field is enhanced. If a pickup coil is placed in the oscillating magnetic field so as to create an induction transformer then the combination of the acoustic and magnetic stimulation will enhance the efficiency of the induction transformer.

The most relevant prior art known to the inventor comprises U.S. Pat. No. 4,904,926 (1990) to Mario Pasichinsky, entitled Magnet Motion Electrical Generator; and U.S. Pat. No. 4,077,001 (1978) to Frank Richardson, entitled Electromagnetic Converter With Stationary Variable-Reluctance Members; and U.S. Pat. No. 4,006,401 (1977) to de Rivas, entitled Electromagnetic Generator.

The above references to Pasichinsky, Richardson, and de Rivas, all use inductive methods to stimulate the motion of a permanent magnetic field. In the de Rivas invention, ‘Electromagnetic Generator’, the flux of the permanent magnet is "alternated by switching" using inductive coupling. In the Richardson disclosure an "energy conversion system" the flux of the permanent magnet is also "shifted" by inductive means. In the Pasichinsky disclosure, alternating magnetic coils induce flux changes in a closed magnetic circuit and output coils attached to the circuit are induced by the changing flux to produce a magnetic field. All of these devices are essentially variations of transformer design with permanent magnets as part of the transformer cores and all use magnetic induction. The transformer aspect of these references is the use of permanent magnets as the transformer core with coils wrapped around the magnetic core which are energised to produce oscillation or movement of the permanent magnet's field. The above references will, in this document, be called "permanent magnet transformers".

The reference to Peek cited above, takes advantage of the difference in operation of piezoelectric and magnetostrictive crystals to produce a response in one when stimulated by the other. The Peek patent does not use an acoustic wave to stimulate a permanent magnet as in the present invention.

The reference to Sommers cited above, is a transducer which uses a conductive bar or tube, which supports relatively slow helicon waves, placed next to a piezoelectric or magnetostrictive crystal. The transducer is designed in such a way as to either enhance the acoustic wave or the electric wave by interaction of the two materials. The Sommers patent does not use an acoustic wave to stimulate a permanent magnet to enhance to oscillation of the magnetic field as the present invention does.

The reference to Balmuth cited above, uses mechanically resonant reeds, rods, or chambers which are coupled to transducers that are piezoelectric, magnetostrictive, or transistorised. The electrical output of the transducers stimulates an electrical circuit when the resonator receives acoustic energy and again does not use an acoustic wave to stimulate a permanent magnet to enhance to oscillation of the magnetic field as the present invention does.

The reference to Olson cited above, uses an acoustically responsive material such as a piezoelectric or a magnetostrictive to act as a delay line for microwave signals and again does not use an acoustic wave to stimulate a permanent magnet to enhance to oscillation of the magnetic field as the present invention does.

The references to Benson, Quinn, Grisdale, Scott, and Butler cited above, are all concerned with acoustic transducers which convert acoustic pressure to an electrical signal or vice versa using only the piezoelectric and/or the magnetostrictive effect. The Benson patent is an underwater acoustic transformer which converts acoustic waves hitting a transducer into an electromagnetic field which excites a transformer. The Quinn patent uses a magnetostrictive effect to stimulate piezoelectric crystals to output a high voltage which is a reverse of the Benson patent. The Grisdale patent uses mechanically stacked piezoelectric or magnetostrictive crystals to produce a more efficient mechanical gyrator. The Scott patent uses and electrical oscillator to stimulate magnetostrictive rods which put pressure on piezoelectric crystals to output a high voltage from the piezoelectric crystals. The Butler patent uses a combined effect of piezoelectric and magnetostrictive crystals to produce an enhanced acoustic energy detector.

The reference to Thompson cited above, uses a permanent magnetic transducer to induce eddy currents in metal which is in the field of the transducer or uses moving eddy currents in a piece of metal to stimulate a magnetic field. The induction of the eddy currents is the result of an oscillating magnetic field generated in the transducer.

None of the references cited above, use an acoustic wave to stimulate the atoms of a permanent magnet and hence are not related to this invention.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
An object of this invention is to provide a power generator with no moving parts.

Another object of this invention is to use an acoustic field to stimulate the nuclear level of the magnetic material and provide a method of oscillating the magnetic field of permanent magnets.

Another object of this invention is to provide a simple method of generating electrical energy by including a piezoelectric transducer which is used to vibrate the magnetic field of a permanent magnet. When the nucleus of the atom is vibrated by the piezoelectric, it in turn, vibrates the electronic structure of all the atoms. Since the electronic structure is the basis of the magnetic field of the magnet then the entire magnetic field of the magnet is vibrated when the electronic structure is vibrated. Coils placed in the vibrating magnetic field will have voltage and current induced in them.

It is a well established fact, that when the magnetic field of a permanent magnet is vibrated, it is possible to generate an alternating current in a coil winding placed within the vibrating magnetic field. What is unique about this invention, is to increase the efficiency of permanent magnet transformers by using acoustic stimulation from piezoelectrics to further stimulate the permanent magnet so as to add to the inductive effects of permanent magnet transformers. This invention does this by stimulating the permanent magnet cores of permanent magnet transformers with an acoustic field generated by a piezoelectric or other acoustically active generator which is vibrated at the same frequency as the electrical induction of the permanent magnet transformers.
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

FIG. 1 illustrates a frequency signal generator attached to and driving a piezoelectric transducer which is in the acoustic proximity of a bar type of permanent magnet with an output coil placed within the magnetic field of the permanent magnet.

Fig. 2 illustrates a frequency signal generator attached to and driving a piezoelectric transducer which is in the acoustic proximity of a torroidal type of permanent magnet with an output coil wrapped around the torroidal permanent magnet.

Fig. 3 illustrates a frequency signal generator attached to and driving a piezoelectric transducer which is in the acoustic proximity of a torroidal type of permanent magnet transformer and the signal generator is also driving the input coil of the torroidal permanent magnet transformer.

Fig. 4 illustrates a frequency signal generator attached to and driving two torroidal core permanent magnet transformers as well as an acoustic transducer that is in acoustic proximity of the torroidal cores.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

In Fig. 1, a frequency signal generator 6 is connected to a piezoelectric transducer 1 via wires 4 and 5 connected to the electrode surfaces of the piezoelectric transducer 2 and 3 respectively. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is made from a high dielectric material such as barium titanate or lead zirconate titanate or any other acoustic transducer material suitable for sonic and ultrasonic generators. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is placed in close proximity to the permanent magnet 7 such that the acoustic field of the piezoelectric transducer 1 can radiate into the permanent magnet material. A permanent magnet transformer shown as coil 8 is positioned in the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 7. When the piezoelectric transducer 1 is stimulated by the frequency generator 6 then a voltage and current is generated between the output leads 9 and 10 of the permanent magnet transformer.

Another embodiment of this invention is shown in Fig. 2, which is similar to Fig. 1, with a similar frequency signal generator 6 connected to a piezoelectric material 1 via wires 4 and 5 connected to the electrode surfaces of the piezoelectric transducer 2 and 3. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is as defined above, that is to say that it is constructed from a material suitable for sonic and ultrasonic generators. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is placed in close proximity to the permanent magnet 11 so that the acoustic field of the piezoelectric transducer 1 can radiate into the permanent magnet material. A permanent magnet transformer shown as coil 12 is placed in the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 11. When the piezoelectric transducer 1 is stimulated by the frequency generator 6 then a voltage and current is generated between the output leads 13 and 14 of the above defined magnetic transformer.

Fig. 3 is similar to Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 with a frequency signal generator 6 connected to a piezoelectric transducer 1 via wires 4 and 5 connected to the electrode surfaces 2 and 3 of the piezoelectric transducer. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is as defined in the descriptions above. The signal generator 6 is also connected to the input coil 20.
of the permanent magnet transformer defined by the torroidal permanent magnet core 11, input coil 20 and output coil 19. The piezoelectric transducer 1 is placed in close proximity to the permanent magnet 11 so that the acoustic field of the piezoelectric transducer 1 can radiate into the permanent magnet material. The magnetic transformer defined by 11, 19, and 20 is in the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 11 and is connected to the frequency signal generator 6 via wires 15 and 16. The frequency generator 6 stimulates the piezoelectric transducer 1 which stimulates the permanent magnet transformer via the acoustic field and at the same time the signal generator also stimulates the coil electromagnetically. A voltage and current is generated at the output coil 19 and power can be taken from the output wires 17 and 18 of the magnetic transformer.

A further embodiment of this invention, shown in Fig. 4, is a frequency signal generator 6 driving a pair of permanent magnet transformers defined by 26, 35, 27 and 25, 36, 28 respectively, also driving a piezoelectric transducer 1. The piezoelectric transducer is as described above. The signal generator is connected via input wires 23 and 24 to the input coil 26 of the permanent magnet transformer on the left and to the input coil 25 of the transformer on the right respectively. The other input wire 38 of the left permanent magnet transformer is connected to the remaining input wire 39 of the right magnetic transformer. The output of the signal generator in also connected to the piezoelectric transducer 1 via connections 21 and 22 to the connector surface of the piezoelectric 33 and 34 respectively. The output of the permanent magnet transformer on the left is connected to a load 40 via wire 30 and the output of the permanent magnet transformer on the right is connected to the load via wire 29. The remaining output wires 31 and 32 of the left and right permanent magnet transformers are also connected to the load. The load 40 can be anything such as a motor or electrical lights or any appliance.

A further embodiment of this invention, shown in Fig. 4, is a frequency signal generator 6 driving a pair of permanent magnet transformers defined by 26, 35, 27 and 25, 36, 28 respectively, also driving a piezoelectric transducer 1. The piezoelectric transducer is as described above. The signal generator is connected via input wires 23 and 24 to the input coil 26 of the permanent magnet transformer on the left and to the input coil 25 of the transformer on the right respectively. The other input wire 38 of the left permanent magnet transformer is connected to the remaining input wire 39 of the right magnetic transformer. The output of the signal generator in also connected to the piezoelectric transducer 1 via connections 21 and 22 to the connector surface of the piezoelectric 33 and 34 respectively. The output of the permanent magnet transformer on the left is connected to a load 40 via wire 30 and the output of the permanent magnet transformer on the right is connected to the load via wire 29. The remaining output wires 31 and 32 of the left and right permanent magnet transformers are also connected to the load. The load 40 can be anything such as a motor or electrical lights or any appliance.

This invention is not limited to the 4 different versions of the invention shown in Figs. 1, 2, 3, and 4 as there are any number of cascading and electrical hook-up techniques that can be accomplished to amplify power and to take advantage of the acoustic influence of the piezoelectric upon the magnetic material. Similarly, this invention is not limited to the torroidal core configuration as there can be many types of permanent magnet transformers with any number of magnetic core and coil configurations that can be enhanced with acoustic stimulation depending on power and output requirements according to the rules of electronics and those familiar with the state of the art in permanent magnet power transformers.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes a self-contained device which can charge an external battery or battery bank.

ABSTRACT
A back EMF monopole motor and method using a rotor containing magnets all of the same polarity and in a monopole condition when in momentary apposition with a magnetised pole piece of a stator having the same polarity, the stator being comprised of a coil with three windings: a power-coil winding, a trigger-coil winding, and a recovery-coil winding. The back EMF energy is rectified using a high voltage bridge, which transfers the back EMF energy to a high voltage capacitor for storage in a recovery battery. The stored energy can then be discharged across the recovery battery through the means of a contact rotor switch for further storage.

DESCRIPTION
Technical Field:
The invention relates generally to the capturing of available electromagnetic energy using a device and method for creating an electromagnetic force ('EMF') and then using the available stored energy for recycling into the system as stored energy. The method of creating back EMF is the result of coupling/uncoupling a coil to a voltage source.

Background:
The operation of present day normal magnetic motors, has the rotor pole attracting the stator pole, resulting in the generation of mechanical power from the magnets to the rotor and flywheel. During this phase, energy flows from the magnetics to the rotor/flywheel and is stored as kinetic energy in the increased rotation. A rotor pole leaving a stator pole and creating a condition of "drag" results in power having to be put back into the magnetic section by the rotor and flywheel to forcibly overcome the drag. In a perfect, friction-free motor, the net force field is therefore referred to as "most conservative". A most conservative EMF motor has maximum efficiency. Without extra energy continually fed to the motor, no net work can be done by the magnetic field, since half the time the magnetic field adds energy to the load (the rotor and flywheel) and the other half of the time it subtracts energy from the load (the rotor and flywheel). Therefore, the total net energy output is zero in any such rotary process without additional energy input. To use a present day magnetic motor, continuous energy must be fed to the motor to overcome drag and to power the motor and its load.

Motors and generators presently in use, all use such conservative fields and therefore, have internal losses. Hence, it is necessary to continually input all of the energy that the motor outputs to the load, plus more energy to cover losses inside the motor itself. EMF motors are rated for efficiency and performance by how much energy "input" into the motor actually results in "output" energy to the load. Normally, the Coefficient of Performance ('COP') rating is used as a measure of efficiency. The COP is the actual output energy going into the load and powering it, divided by the energy that must be input into the device with its motor/load combination. If there were zero internal losses in a motor, that "perfect" motor would have a COP equal to 1.0. That is, all energy input into the motor would be output by the motor directly into the load, and none of the input energy would be lost or dissipated in the motor itself.

In magnetic motor generators presently in use, however, due to friction and design flaws, there are always internal losses and inefficiencies. Some of the energy input into the motor is dissipated in these internal losses. As a consequence, the energy that gets to the load is always less than the input energy. So a standard motor operates with a COP of less than 1.0, which is expressed as COP<1.0. An inefficient motor may have a COP of 0.4 or 0.45, while a specially designed and highly efficient motor may have a COP of 0.85.

The conservative field inside of a motor itself is divided into two phases. Producing a conservative field involves net symmetry between the "power out" phase from the magnetics to the rotor/flywheel and the "power back in" phase from the rotor/flywheel back to the magnetics. That is, the two flows of energy are identical in magnitude but opposite in direction. Each phase alone is said to be "asymmetrical", that is, it either has: 1) a net energy flow out to the rotor/flywheel; or 2) a net energy flow back into the magnetics from the rotor/flywheel. In simplified terms, it is referred to as "power out" and "power back in" phases with respect to the motor magnetics.
For the power-out phase, energy is derived from the EMF existing between the stator pole and incoming rotor pole in an attraction mode. In this phase, the rotary motion (angular momentum and kinetic energy) of the rotor and flywheel is increased. In short, power is added to the rotor/flywheel (and thus to the load) from the fields between stator pole and rotor pole (the electromagnetic aspects of the system).

For the "power back in" phase, energy must be fed back into the magnetics from the rotor and flywheel (and the load) to overcome the drag forces existing between stator pole and outgoing rotor pole. In this phase, energy is returned to the internal magnetic system from the rotary motion of the rotor and flywheel (the angular momentum, which is the rotational energy multiplied by time). As is well known in physics, a rotor/flywheel's angular momentum provides a convenient way to store energy with the spinning rotor/flywheel mass acting as an energy reservoir.

Most present day conventional magnetic motors use various methods for overcoming and partially reversing back EMF. Back EMF may be defined as the return pulse from the coil out of phase and is the result of re-gauging, which is the process of reversing the magnetics polarity, that is, form North to South, etc. The back EMF is shorted out and the rotor is attracted back in, therefore eliminating drag. This can be accomplished by pouring more energy in, which overpowers the back EMF, thereby producing a forward EMF in that region. The energy required for this method is furnished by the operator.

It is well known that changing the voltage alone creates a back EMF and requires no work. This is because to change the potential energy does not require changing the form of that potential energy, but only its magnitude. Work is the changing of the form of energy. Therefore, as long as the form of the potential energy is not changed, the magnitude can be changed without having to perform work in the process. The motor of the present invention takes advantage of this permissible operation to create back EMF asymmetrically, and thereby change its own usable available potential energy.

In an electric power system, the potential (voltage) is changed by inputting energy to do work on the internal charges of the generator or battery. This potential energy is expended within the generator (or battery) to force the internal charges apart, forming a source dipole. Then the external closed circuit system connected to that source dipole ineptly pumps the spent electrons in the ground line back through the back EMF of the source dipole, thereby scattering the charges and killing the dipole. This shuts off the energy flow from the source dipole to the external circuit. As a consequence of this conventional method, it is a requirement to input and replace additional energy to again restore the dipole. The circuits currently utilised in most electrical generators have been designed to keep on destroying the energy flow by continually scattering all of the dipole charges and terminating the dipole. Therefore, it is necessary to keep on inputting energy to the generator to keep restoring its source dipole.

A search of prior art failed to reveal any monopole motor devices and methods that recycle available energy from back EMF to charge a battery or provide electrical energy for other uses as described in the present invention. However, the following prior art patents were reviewed:
U.S. Pat. No. 4,055,789 to Lasater, Battery Operated Motor with Back EMF Charging.
U.S. Pat. No. 2,279,690 to Z. T. Lindsey, Combination Motor Generator.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

An aspect of the device and method of the present invention is a new monopole electromagnetic motor that captures back EMF energy. The captured back EMF energy may be used to charge or store electrical energy in a recovery battery. The amount of energy recoverable, as expressed in watts, is dependent upon the configuration, circuitry, switching elements and the number and size of stators, rotors, magnets and coils which comprise the motor.

The motor uses a small amount of energy from a primary battery to "trigger" a larger input of available energy by supplying back EMF, thus increasing the potential energy of the system. The system then utilises this available potential energy to reduce, or reverse, the back EMF, thereby increasing the efficiency of the motor and, therefore, the COP.

If the energy in phase 1 (the power-out phase) is increased by additional available energy in the electromagnetics themselves, then the energy in phase 1 can be made greater than the energy in phase 2 (the power-back-in phase) without the operator furnishing the energy utilised. This produces a non-conservative nett field. Nett power can then be taken from the rotating stator and flywheel, because the available energy added into the stator and flywheel by the additional effects, is transformed by the rotor/flywheel into excess angular momentum and stored as such. Angular momentum is conserved at all times, but now, some of the angular momentum added to the flywheel, is evoked by additional effects in the electromagnetics, rather than being furnished by the operator.
That is, the motor is designed to deliberately create a back EMF itself, and thus increase its potential energy, thereby retaining each extra force for a period of time and applying it to increase the angular momentum and kinetic energy of the rotor and flywheel. Specifically, this back EMF energy with its nett force is deliberately applied in the motor of the present invention to overcome and even reverse the conventional drag-back (the back EMF). Hence, less energy needs to be taken from the rotor and flywheel to overcome the reduced back EMF, and in the ideal case, none is required since the back EMF has been overpowered and converted to forward EMF by the back EMF energy and force. In the motor, the conventional drag section of the magnetics becomes a forward-EMF section and now adds energy to the rotor/flywheel instead of reducing it. The important feature is that the operator only pays for the small amount of energy necessary to trigger the back EMF from the primary battery, and does not have to furnish the much larger back EMF energy itself.

Thus, when the desired energy in phase 1 (the power-out phase) is made greater than the undesired drag energy in phase 2, then part of the output power normally taken from the rotor and flywheel by the fields in phase 2, is not required. Hence, in comparison to a system without special back EMF mechanisms, additional power is available from the rotor/flywheel. The rotor therefore maintains additional angular momentum and kinetic energy, compared to a system which does not produce back EMF itself. Consequently, the excess angular momentum retained by the rotor and flywheel can be utilised as additional shaft power to power an external load.

In this motor, several known processes and methods are utilised. These allow the motor to operate periodically as an open dissipative system (receiving available excess energy from back EMF) far from thermodynamic equilibrium, whereby it produces and receives its excess energy from a known external source.

A method is utilised to temporarily produce a much larger source of available external energy around an energised coil. Design features of this new motor provide a device and method that can immediately produce a second increase in that energy concurrently as the energy flow is reversed. Therefore, the motor is capable of producing two asymmetrical back EMFs, one after the other, of the energy within a single coil, which dramatically increases the energy available and causes that available excess energy to then enter the circuit as impulses which are collected and utilised.

The motor utilises this available excess back EMF energy to overcome and even reverse the drag EMF between stator pole and rotor pole, while furnishing only a small trigger pulse of energy from a primary battery necessary to control and activate the direction of the back EMF energy flow.

By using a number of such dual asymmetrical self back EMFs for every revolution of the rotor, the rotor and flywheel collectively focus all the excess impulsive inputs into increased angular momentum (expressed as energy multiplied by time), shaft torque, and shaft power.

Further, some of the excess energy deliberately generated in the coil by the utilisation of the dual process manifests in the form of excess electrical energy in the circuit and can be utilised to charge a recovery battery or batteries. The excess energy can also be used to power electrical loads or to power the rotor and flywheel, with the rotor/flywheel also furnishing shaft horsepower for powering mechanical loads.

The motor utilises a means to furnish the relatively small amount of energy from a primary battery to initiate the impulsive asymmetrical self back EMF actions. Then part of the available excess electrical power drawn off from back EMF created energy is utilised to charge a recovery battery with dramatically increased over-voltage pulses.

Design features of this monopole motor utilise one magnetic pole of each rotor and stator magnet. The number of impulsive self-back EMF in a single rotation of the rotor is doubled. Advanced designs can increase the number of self-back EMFs in a single rotor rotation with the result that there is an increase in the number of impulses per rotation, which increase the power output of this new motor.

The sharp voltage spike produced in the coil of this monopole motor by the rapidly collapsing field in the back EMF coil is connected to a recovery battery(s) in charge mode and to an external electrical load. The nett result is that the coil asymmetrically creates back EMF itself in a manner which adds available energy and impulse to the circuit. The available energy collected in the coil is used to reverse the back-EMF phase of the stator-rotor fields to a forward EMF condition, with the impulses adding acceleration and angular momentum to the rotor and flywheel. The available back EMF energy collected in the coil is used to charge a battery. Loads can then be driven by the battery.

A device and method in which the monopole motor alters the reaction cross section of the coils in the circuit, which briefly changes the reaction cross section of the coil in which it is invoked. Thus, since this new motor uses only a small amount of current in the form of a triggering pulse, it is able to evoke and control the immediate change of the coil's reaction cross section to this normally wasted energy-flow component. As a result, the motor captures and directs some of this usually wasted available environmental energy, collecting the available excess energy in the coil and then releasing it for use in the motor. Through timing and switching, the innovative gate
design of this new motor directs the available excess energy so that it overcomes and reverses the return EMF of the rotor-stator pole combination during what would normally be the back EMF and demonstrates the creation of the second back EMF of the system. Now, instead of an "equal retardation" force being produced in the back EMF region, a forward EMF is produced which adds to the rotor/flywheel energy, rather than subtracting from it. In short, it further accelerates the rotor/flywheel.

This results in a non-conservative magnetic field along the rotor's path. The line integral of the field around that path (i.e., the net work on the rotor/flywheel to increase its energy and angular momentum) is not zero but a significant amount. Hence, the creation of an asymmetrical back EMF impulse magnetic motor:
1) Takes its available excess energy from a known external source, the huge usually non-intercepted portion of the energy flow around the coil;
2) Further increases the source dipolarity by this back EMF energy; and
3) Produces available excess energy flow directly from the source dipole's increased broken symmetry in its fierce energy exchange with the local vacuum.

By operating as an open dissipative system, not in thermodynamic equilibrium with the active vacuum, the system can permissibly receive available energy from a known environmental source and then output this energy to a load. As an open dissipative system not in thermodynamic equilibrium, this new and unique monopole motor can tap in on back EMF to energise itself, loads and losses simultaneously, fully complying with known laws of physics and thermodynamics.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig.1 is a perspective side view of a monopole back EMF motor with a single stator and a single rotor.

![Fig. 1](image1)

Fig.2 is a perspective top view of a monopole back EMF motor with a single stator and a single rotor.
An embodiment of the present invention is a device and method for a monopole back EMF electromagnetic motor. As described in the Summary of the Invention, this monopole motor conforms to all applicable electrodynamic laws of physics and is in harmony with the law of the conservation of energy, the laws of electromagnetism and other related natural laws of physics.

The monopole back EMF electromagnetic motor comprises a combination of elements and circuitry to capture available energy (back EMF) in a recovery element, such as a capacitor, from output coils. The available stored energy in the recovery element is used to charge a recovery battery.

As a starting point, an arbitrary method in describing this device will be employed, namely, the flow of electrical energy and mechanical forces will be tracked from the energy’s inception at the primary battery to its final storage in the recovery battery.
**FIG. 1**

Fig. 1 is a perspective side view of the monopole motor according to an embodiment of the invention. As shown in Fig. 1, electrical energy from primary battery 11 periodically flows through power switch 12 and through power-coil wiring 13a. In one embodiment, power switch 12 is merely an On-Off mechanical switch and is not electronic. However, the switch 12 may be a solid-state switching circuit, a magnetic Reed switch, a commutator, an optical switch, a Hall-effect switch, or any other conventional transistorised or mechanical switch. Coil 13 is comprised of three windings: power-coil winding 13a, trigger-coil winding 13b, and recovery-coil winding 13c. However, the number of windings can be more or fewer than three, depending upon the size of the coil 13, size of the motor and the amount of available energy to be captured, stored and used, as measured in watts. Electrical energy then periodically flows from power-coil winding 13a and through transistor 14.

Trigger energy also periodically flows through variable resistor 15 and resistor 16. Clamping diode 17 clamps the reverse base-emitter voltage of transistor switch 14 at a safe reverse-bias level that does not damage the transistor. Energy flows to stator 18a and pole piece 18b, an extension of stator 18a. Pole piece 18b is electrically magnetised only when transistor switch 14 is on and maintains the same polarity as the rotor poles 19 – North pole in this instance - when electrically magnetised. The North rotor poles 19a, 19b and 19c, which are attached to rotor 20, come in momentary apposition with pole piece 18b creating a momentary monopole interface. The poles 19a, b, c, which are actually permanent magnets with their North poles facing outward from the rotor 20, maintain the same polarity when in momentary alignment with pole piece 18b.

Rotor 20 is attached to rotor shaft 21, which has drive pulley 22. Attached to rotor shaft 21 are rotor-shaft bearing blocks 31a and 31b, as seen in Fig. 2. As rotor 20 begins to rotate, the poles 19a, b, c respectively come into alignment with magnetised pole piece 18b in a momentary monopole interface with energy flowing through diode bridge rectifier 23 and capacitor 24. The number of capacitors may be of a wide range, depending upon the amount of energy to be temporarily stored before being expelled or flash charged into recovery battery 29. Timing belt 25 connects drive pulley 22 on timing shaft 21 to timing wheel 26. Attached to timing wheel 26 is contact rotor 27, a copper insulated switch that upon rotation, comes in contact with brushes on mechanical switch 28. The means for counting the number of rotor revolutions may be a timing gear or a timing belt. Finally, the available energy derived from the back EMF that is stored in capacitor 24 is then discharged and stored in recovery battery 29.
Fig. 2 is a mechanical perspective top view of the monopole motor of the instant invention without electrical circuitry. Stator 18a consists of coil 13, which is comprised of three separate coil windings: power-coil winding 13a, trigger-coil winding 13b and recovery-coil winding 13c. Pole piece 18b is at the end of stator 18a. As rotor 20, (which is attached to rotor shaft 21) rotates, each pole 19 respectively comes in a momentary monopole interface with pole piece 18b. The polarity of pole piece 18b is constant when electrically magnetised. Rotor shaft 21 has rotor shaft bearing blocks 31a,b attached to it for stabilisation of rotor shaft 21. Attached to rotor shaft 21 is drive pulley 22 with timing belt 25 engaged with it. Another means for timing may be a timing gear. Timing belt 25 engages with timing wheel 26 at its other end. Timing wheel 26 is attached to timing shaft 30. Shaft 30 is stabilised with timing shaft bearing blocks 32a,b. Attached to one end of timing shaft 30 is contact rotor 27 with brush 28a, which, upon rotation of the timing shaft, comes into momentary contact with brushes 28b,c.

Fig. 3 is a block diagram detailing the circuitry of the monopole motor. Block 40 represents primary battery 11 with energy flowing to coil block 41, which represents coil windings 13a,b,c. From coil block 41 energy flows into three directions: to trigger-circuit block 42, transistor-circuit block 43, and rectifier-circuit block 44. Energy flows from rectifier-block 44 to storage-capacitor block 45 with energy flowing from block 45 to both recovery-battery block 46 and rotor-switch block 47.

Referring to Fig. 1, the operation of the motor is described according to an embodiment of the invention. For purpose of explanation, assume that the rotor 20 is initially not moving, and one of the poles 19 is in the three o'clock position.
First, the switch 12 is closed. Because the transistor 14 is off, no current flows through the winding 13a.

Next, the motor is started by rotating the rotor 20, say, in a clockwise direction. The rotor may be rotated by hand, or by a conventional motor-starting device or circuit (not shown).

As the rotor 20 rotates, the pole 19 moves from the three o'clock position towards the pole piece 18b and generates a magnetic flux in the windings 13a, 13b and 13c. More specifically, the stator 18a and the pole piece 18b include a ferromagnetic material such as iron. Therefore, as the pole 19 moves nearer to the pole piece 18b, it magnetises the pole piece 18b to a polarity - South in this instance - that is opposite to the polarity of the pole 19 (which is North). This magnetisation of the pole piece 18b generates a magnetic flux in the windings 13a-13c. Furthermore, this magnetisation also causes a magnetic attraction between the pole 19 and the pole piece 18b. This attraction pulls the pole 19 toward the pole piece 18b, and thus reinforces the rotation of the rotor 20.

The magnetic flux in the windings 13a-13c generates voltages across their respective windings. More specifically, as the pole 19 rotates toward the pole piece 18b, the magnetisation of the stator 18a and the pole piece 18b, and thus the magnetic flux in the windings 13a-13c, increases. This increasing flux generates voltages across the windings 13a-13c such that the dotted (top) end of each winding is more positive than the opposite end. These voltages are proportional to the rate at which the magnetic flux is increasing, and so, they are proportional to the velocity of the pole 19.

At some point, the voltage across the winding 13b becomes high enough to turn the transistor 14c on. This turn-on, i.e., trigger, voltage depends on the combined serial resistance of the potentiometer 15 and the resistor 16. The higher this combined resistance, the higher the trigger voltage, and vice-versa. Therefore, one can set the level of the trigger voltage by adjusting the potentiometer 15.

In addition, depending on the level of voltage across the capacitor 24, the voltage across the winding 13c may be high enough to cause an energy recovery current to flow through the winding 13c, the rectifier 23, and the capacitor 24. Thus, when the recovery current flows, the winding 13c is converting magnetic energy from the rotating pole 19 into electrical energy, which is stored in the capacitor 24.

Once turned on, the transistor 14 generates an opposing magnetic flux in the windings 13a-13c. More specifically, the transistor 14 draws a current from the battery 11, through the switch 12 and the winding 13b. This current increases and generates an increasing magnetic flux that opposes the flux generated by the rotating pole 19.

When the opposing magnetic flux exceeds the flux generated by the rotating pole 19, the opposing flux reinforces the rotation of the rotor 20. Specifically, when the opposing flux (which is generated by the increasing current
through winding 13a) exceeds the flux generated by the pole 19, the magnetisation of the pole piece 18 inverts to North pole. Therefore, the reverse-magnetic pole piece 18 repels the pole 19, and thus imparts a rotating force to the rotor 20. The pole piece 18 rotates the rotor 20 with maximum efficiency if the pole-piece magnetisation inverts to North when the centre of the pole 19 is aligned with the centre of the pole piece. Typically, the potentiometer 15 is adjusted to set the trigger voltage of the transistor 14 at a level which attains or approximates to this maximum efficiency.

The transistor 14 then turns off before the opposing flux can work against the rotation of the rotor 20. Specifically, if the pole piece 18 remains magnetised to North pole, it will repel the next pole 19 in a direction (counterclockwise in this example) opposite to the rotational direction of the rotor 20. Therefore, the motor turns transistor 14 off, and thus demagnetises the pole piece 18, before this undesirable repulsion occurs. More specifically, when the opposing flux exceeds the flux generated by the pole 19, the voltage across the winding 13b reverses polarity such that the dotted end is less positive than the opposite end. The voltage across the winding 13b decreases as the opposing flux increases. At some point, the voltage at the base of the transistor decreases to a level that turns transistor 14 off. This turn-off point depends on the combined resistance of potentiometer 15 and resistor 16 and the capacitance (not shown) at the transistor base. Therefore, potentiometer 15 can be adjusted, or other conventional techniques can be used to adjust the timing of this turn-off point.

The rectifier 23 and capacitor 24 recapture the energy that is released by the magnetic field (which energy would otherwise be lost) when the transistor 14 turns off. Specifically, turning transistor 14 off abruptly, cuts off the current flowing through winding 13a. This generates voltage spikes across the windings 13a-13c where the dotted ends are less positive than their respective opposite ends. These voltage spikes represent the energy released as the current-induced magnetisation of stator 18a and pole piece 18b collapses, and may have a magnitude of several hundred volts. But, as the voltage spike across the winding 13c increases above the sum of the two diode drops of the rectifier 23, it causes an energy-recovery current to flow through the rectifier 23 and the voltage across the capacitor 24 charge the capacitor 24. Thus, a significant portion of the energy released upon collapse of the current-induced magnetic field is recaptured and stored as a voltage in the capacitor 24. In addition, the diode 17 prevents damage to the transistor 14 by clamping the reverse base-emitter voltage caused by the voltage spike across the winding 13b.

The recaptured energy can be used in a number of ways. For example, the energy can be used to charge a battery 29. In one embodiment, the timing wheel 26 makes two revolutions for each revolution of the rotor 20. The contact rotor 27 closes a switch 28, and thus dumps the charge on the capacitor 24 into the battery 29, once each revolution of the wheel 26. Other energy-recapture devices and techniques may also be used. Rotor 20 may be stopped, either by applying a brake to it or by opening the switch 12.

Other embodiments of the monopole motor are contemplated. For example, instead of remaining closed for the entire operation of the motor, the switch 12 may be a conventional optical switch or a Hall-effect switch that opens and closes automatically at the appropriate times. To increase the power of the motor, the number of stators 18a and pole pieces 18b, may be increased and/or the number of poles 19. Furthermore, one can magnetise the stator 18a and pole piece 18b during the attraction of the pole 19 instead of or in addition to magnetising the stator and pole piece during the repulsion of the pole 19.

Moreover, the stator 18a may be omitted so that coil 13 becomes an air coil, or the stator 18a and the pole piece 18b may compose a permanent magnet. In addition, although the transistor 14 is described as being a bipolar transistor, a MOSFET transistor may also be used. Furthermore, the recaptured energy may be used to recharge the battery 11. In addition, although described as rotating in a clockwise direction, the rotor 20 can rotate in a counterclockwise direction. Moreover, although described as attracting a rotor pole 19 when no current flows through winding 13a and repelling the pole 19 when a current flows through winding 13a, the pole piece 18b may be constructed so that it attracts the pole 19 when a current flows through winding 13a and repels the pole 19 when no current flows through winding 13a.

In multiple stator/rotor systems, each individual stator may be energised one at a time or all of the stators may be energised simultaneously. Any number of stators and rotors may be incorporated into the design of such multiple stator/rotor monopole motor combinations. However, while there may be several stators per rotor, there can only be one rotor for a single stator. The number of stators and rotors that would comprise a particular motor is dependent upon the amount of power required in the form of watts. Any number of magnets, used in a monopole fashion, may comprise a single rotor. The number of magnets incorporated into a particular rotor is dependent upon the size of the rotor and power required of the motor. The desired size and horse power of the motor determines whether the stators will be in parallel or fired sequentially. Energy is made accessible through the capturing of available energy from the back EMF as a result of the unique circuitry and timing of the monopole motor. Individual motors may be connected in sequence with each motor having various combinations of stators and rotors or they may be connected in parallel. Each rotor may have any number of rotor magnets, all arranged without change of polarity. The number of stators for an individual motor may also be of a wide range.
One feature that distinguishes this motor from all others, is the use of monopole magnets in momentary apposition with the pole piece of the stator maintaining the same polarity when magnetised. In this particular embodiment, there are three magnets and one pole piece, the pole piece being an extension of a permanent-magnet stator. Finally, although the invention has been described with reference of particular means, materials and embodiments, it is to be understood that the invention is not limited to the particulars disclosed and extends to all equivalents within the scope of the claims.
ABSTRACT

This invention is a back EMF permanent electromagnetic motor generator and method using a regauging process for capturing available electromagnetic energy in the system. The device comprises a rotor with magnets of the same polarity; a timing wheel in apposition to a magnetic Hall-effect pickup switch semiconductor; and a stator comprised of two bars connected by a permanent magnet with magnetised pole pieces at one end of each bar. There are input and output coils created by wrapping each bar with a conducting material such as copper wire. Energy from the output coils is transferred to a recovery rectifier or diode. The magnets of the rotor, which is located on a shaft along with the timing wheel, are in apposition to the magnetised pole pieces of the two bars. The invention works through a process of regauging, that is, the flux fields created by the coils is collapsed because of a reversal of the magnetic field in the magnetised pole pieces thus allowing the capture of available back EMF energy. Additional available energy may be captured and used to re-energise the battery, and/or sent in another direction to be used for work. As an alternative, the available back EMF energy may be dissipated into the system.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Field of the Invention

The invention relates generally to the capturing of electromagnetic energy using a method and device to create back EMF (electromagnetic force) and re-phasing of the back EMF to recycle and capture the available back EMF energy. Back EMF is also referred to as regauging and may be defined as energy created by the magnetic field from coils, and only from coils, and not from magnets.

2. Background Information and Related Art

Operation of a normal magnetic motor has the rotor pole attracting the stator pole, resulting in the generation of power from the magnets to the rotor and flywheel. During this phase, energy flows from the magnetics to the rotor/flywheel and is stored in the increased rotation. A rotor pole leaving a stator pole and creating a condition of drag-back results in power having to be put back into the magnetic section by the rotor and flywheel to forcibly overcome the drag-back. In a perfect, friction-free motor, the nett force field is therefore referred to as most conservative. In other words, a most conservative EMF motor has maximum efficiency. Without extra energy continually fed to the motor, no nett work can be done by the magnetic field, since half the time the magnetic field adds energy to the load (the rotor and flywheel) and the other half of the time it subtracts energy from the load (the rotor and flywheel). Therefore the total nett energy output is zero in any such rotary process without additional energy input. To use a present day magnetic motor, continuous energy must be fed to the motor to overcome drag-back and to power the motor and its load.

Present EMF motors and generators all use such conservative fields and therefore, have internal losses. Hence, it is necessary to continually input all of the energy that the motor outputs to the load, plus more energy to cover losses inside the motor itself. EMF motors are rated for efficiency and performance by how much energy input into the motor actually results in output energy to the load. Normally, the Coefficient of Performance (COP) rating is used as a measure of efficiency. The COP is the actual output energy going into the load and powering it, divided by the energy that must be input into the device with its load. COP is the power out into the load, divided by the power input into the motor/load combination. If there were zero internal losses in a motor, that "perfect" motor would have a coefficient of performance (COP) equal to 1.0. That is, all energy fed into the motor would be output by the motor directly into the load, and none of the input energy would be lost or dissipated in the motor itself. In magnetic motor generators presently in use, however, due to friction and design flaws, there are always internal losses and inefficiencies. Some of the energy input into the motor is dissipated in these internal losses. As a consequence, the energy that gets to the load is always less than the input energy. So a standard motor operates with a COP of less than 1.0 which is expressed as COP<1.0. An inefficient motor may have a COP of 0.4 or 0.45, while a specially designed, highly efficient motor may have a COP of 0.85.

The conservative field inside a motor itself can be divided into two phases. Producing a conservative field involves nett symmetry between the "power out" phase from the magnetics to the rotor/flywheel and the "power back in" phase from the rotor/flywheel back to the magnetics. That is, the two flows of energy (one from the
magnetics into the rotor and flywheel, and one from the rotor and flywheel back to the magnetics) are identical in magnitude but opposite in direction. Each phase alone is said to be "asymmetrical"; that is, it either has:

1) a nett energy flow out to the rotor/flywheel; or
2) a nett energy flow back into the magnetics from the rotor/flywheel.

In simplified terms, it is referred to as "power out" and "power back in" phases with respect to the motor magnetics. Hence, the two asymmetrical phases are:

1) the power-out phase; and
2) the "power back in" phase, with reference to the magnetics.

For the power-out phase, energy is derived from the EMF existing between the stator pole and incoming rotor pole in an attraction mode. In this phase, the rotary motion (angular momentum and kinetic energy) of the rotor and flywheel becomes a forward-EMF section and now adds energy to the energy reservoir.

On the other hand, the motor of the present invention deliberately creates a back EMF itself and its potential energy to reduce or reverse back EMF, thereby increasing the efficiency of the motor and, therefore, the COP.

All present day conventional magnetic motors use various methods for overcoming, and partially reversing, back EMF. Back EMF is the out of phase return pulse from the coil and is also referred to as regauging. The back EMF is shorted out and the rotor is attracted back in, therefore eliminating back drag. This can be accomplished by pouring more energy in to overpower the back EMF, thereby producing a forward EMF in that region. The energy required for this method must be furnished by the operator.

The motor of the present invention uses only a small amount of energy to "trigger" a much larger input of available energy by supplying back EMF, thus increasing the potential energy of the system. It then utilizes this excess potential energy to reduce or reverse back EMF, thereby increasing the efficiency of the motor and, therefore, the COP.

If the energy in phase 1 (the power-out phase) is increased by additional available energy in the electromagnetics themselves, then the energy in phase 1 can be made greater than the energy in phase 2 (the power-back-in phase) without the operator furnishing the energy utilised. This produces a non-conservative nett field. Nett power can then be taken from the rotating stator and flywheel, because the available energy transferred into the stator and flywheel by the additional effects, is transformed by the rotor/flywheel into additional angular momentum and stored as such. Angular momentum is conserved at all times; but now some of the angular momentum added to the flywheel is generated by additional effects in the electromagnetics rather than being provided by the operator.

Electrodynamicists assume that the potential available energy of any system can be changed at will and without cost. This is back EMF and is well-known in physics. It is also routinely employed by electrodynamicists in the theoretical aspects. However, to simplify the mathematics, electrodynamicists will create a back EMF twice simultaneously, each back EMF being carefully selected so that the two available forces which are produced, are equal and opposite and cancel each other "symmetrically”. This is referred to as "symmetrical back EMF”. A symmetrical back EMF system cannot produce a COP>1.0.

On the other hand, the motor of the present invention deliberately creates a back EMF itself and its potential energy only once at a time, thereby retaining each extra force for a period of time and applying it to increase the angular momentum and kinetic energy of the rotor and flywheel. Specifically, this back EMF energy with its nett force is deliberately applied in the motor of the present invention to overcome and even reverse the conventional drag-back (the back EMF). Hence less energy need be taken from the rotor and flywheel to overcome the reduced back EMF, and in the ideal case none is required since the back EMF has been overpowered and converted to forward EMF by the back EMF energy and force. In the motor of the present invention, the conventional back-drug section of the magnetics becomes a forward-EMF section and now adds energy to the rotor/flywheel instead of subtracting it. The important feature is that the operator only has to provide the small amount of energy necessary to trigger the back EMF, and does not have to furnish the much larger back EMF energy itself.

When the desired energy in phase 1 (the power out phase) is thus made greater than the undesired "drag-back” energy in phase 2, then part of the output power normally dragged back from the rotor and flywheel by the fields in phase 2 is not required. Hence, compared to a system without the special back EMF mechanisms, additional power is available from the rotor/flywheel. The rotor maintains additional angular momentum and kinetic energy, compared to a system which does not produce back EMF itself. Consequently, the excess angular momentum
retained by the rotor and flywheel can be utilised as additional shaft power to power an external load connected to the shaft.

A standard magnetic motor operates as the result of the motor being furnished with external energy input into the system by the operator to reduce phase 2 (power back into the magnetics from the rotor/flywheel) by any of several methods and mechanisms. The primary purpose of this external energy input into the system is to overcome the back EMF and also provide for the inevitable energy losses in the system. There is no input of energy separate from the operator input. Therefore, the COP of any standard magnetic motor is COP less than 1.0. The efficiency of a standard magnetic motor varies from less than 50% to a maximum of about 85%, and so has a COP<1.0. When nothing is done in the motor that will produce a reduction of the back EMF without the operator inputting all the energy for it, then for even a frictionless, ideal permanent magnet motor, the COP can never exceed 1.0.

Until the introduction of the motor of the present invention, it has been standard universal practice that the operator must furnish all energy used to reduce the back EMF, provide for the internal losses, and power the load. It is therefore a common belief by the scientific community that an ideal (loss-less) permanent magnet motor cannot exceed a COP of 1.0. That is true, so long as the operator himself must furnish all the energy. Furthermore, since real permanent magnetic motors have real internal losses, some of the input energy is always lost in the motor itself, and that lost energy is not available for powering the rotor/flywheel and load. Hence a real permanent magnetic motor of the conventional kind will always have a COP<1.0.

The common assumption that the COP of a motor is limited to less than 1.0 is not necessarily true, and that COP>1.0 is permitted without violating the laws of nature, physics, or thermodynamics. However, it can immediately be seen that any permanent magnet motor exhibiting a COP>1.0 must have some available energy input returning in the form of back EMF.

A problem relates to how back EMF energy can be obtained from a circuit's external environment for the specific task of reducing the back-drag EMF without the operator having to supply any input of that excess energy. In short, the ultimate challenge is to find a way to cause the system to:

1) become an open dissipative system, that is, a system receiving available excess energy from its environment, in other words, from an external source; and
2) use that available excess energy to reduce the drag-back EMF between stator and rotor poles as the rotor pole is leaving the stator pole.

If this objective can be accomplished, the system will be removed from thermodynamic equilibrium. Instead, it will be converted to a system out-of-thermodynamic equilibrium. Such a system is not obliged to obey classical equilibrium thermodynamics.

Instead, an out-of-equilibrium thermodynamic system must obey the thermodynamics of open systems far from the established and well-known parameters of thermodynamic equilibrium. As is well known in the physics of thermodynamics, such open systems can permissibly:

1) self-order;
2) self-oscillate;
3) output more back EMF energy than energy input by the operator (the available excess back EMF energy is received from an external source and some energy is input by the operator as well);
4) power itself as well as its loads and losses simultaneously (in that case, all the energy is received from the available external source and there is no input energy from the operator); and
5) exhibit negative entropy, that is, produce an increase of energy that is available in the system, and that is independent of the energy put into the system by the operator.

As a definition, entropy roughly corresponds to the energy of a system that has become unavailable for use. Negative entropy corresponds to additional energy of a system that has become available for use.

In the back EMF permanent magnet electromagnetic motor generator of the present invention, several known processes and methods are utilised which allow the invention to operate periodically as an open dissipative system (receiving available excess energy from back EMF) far from thermodynamic equilibrium, whereby it produces and receives its excess energy from a known external source.

A method is utilised to temporarily produce a much larger source of available external energy around an energised coil. Then the unique design features of this new motor provides a method and mechanism that can immediately produce a second increase in that energy, concurrently as the energy flow is reversed. Therefore, the motor is capable of producing two asymmetrical back EMFs, one after the other, of the energy within a single coil, which dramatically increases the energy available and causes that available excess energy to then enter the circuit as an impulse, being collected and utilised.
The present motor utilises this available excess back EMF energy to overcome and even reverse the back-drag EMF between stator pole and rotor pole, while furnishing only a small trigger pulse of energy necessary to control and activate the direction of the back EMF energy flow.

By using a number of such dual asymmetrical self back EMFs for every revolution of the rotor, the rotor and flywheel collectively focus all the excess impulsive inputs into increased angular momentum (expressed as energy multiplied by time), shaft torque, and shaft power.

Further, some of the excess energy deliberately generated in the coil by the utilisation of the dual process manifests itself in the form of excess electrical energy in the circuit and is utilised to power electrical loads, e.g., a lamp, fan, motor, or other electrical devices. The remainder of the excess energy generated in the coil can be used to power the rotor and flywheel, with the rotor/flywheel also furnishing shaft horsepower for powering mechanical loads.

This new and unique motor utilises a means to furnish the relatively small amount of energy to initiate the impulsive asymmetrical self back EMF actions. Then part of the available excess electrical power drawn off from the back EMFs is utilised to recharge the battery with dramatically increased over voltage pulses.

The unique design features of this motor utilise both north and south magnetic poles of each rotor and stator magnet. Therefore, the number of impulsive self back EMFs in a single rotation of the rotor is doubled. Advanced designs increase the number of self back EMFs in a single rotor rotation with the result that there is an increase in the number of impulses per rotation which increase the power output of this new motor.

The sharp voltage pulse produced in the coil of this new motor by the rapidly collapsing field in the back EMF coil is connected to a battery in charge mode and to an external electrical load. The nett result is that the coil asymmetrically creates back EMF itself in a manner adding available energy and impulse to the circuit. The excess available energy collected in the coil is used to reverse the back-EMF phase of the stator-rotor fields to a forward EMF condition, and through an impulse, adding acceleration and angular momentum to the rotor and flywheel. At the same time, a part of the excess energy collected in the coil is used to power electrical loads such as charging a battery and operating a lamp or such other device.

It is well known that changing the voltage alone, creates a back EMF and requires no work. This is because to change the potential energy does not require changing the form of that potential energy, but only its magnitude. Strictly speaking, work is the changing of the form of energy. Therefore, as long as the form of the potential energy is not changed, the magnitude can be changed without having to perform work in the process. The motor of the present invention takes advantage of this permissible operation to create back EMF asymmetrically, and thereby change its own usable available potential energy.

In an electric power system, the potential (voltage) is changed by inputting energy to do work on the internal charges of the generator or battery. This potential energy is expended within the generator (or battery) to force the internal charges apart, forming a source dipole. Then the external closed circuit connected to that source dipole ineptly pumps the spent electrons in the ground line back through the back EMF of the source dipole, thereby scattering the charges and killing the dipole. This shuts off the energy flow from the source dipole to the external circuit. As a consequence of that conventional method, it is a requirement to input and replace additional energy to again restore the dipole. The circuits currently utilised in most electrical generators have been designed to keep on destroying the energy flow by continually scattering all of the dipole charges and terminating the dipole. Therefore, it is necessary to keep on inputting energy to the generator to keep restoring its source dipole.

An investigation of particle physics is required to see what furnishes the energy to the external circuit. Since neither a battery nor a generator furnishes energy to the external circuit, but only furnishes energy to form the source dipole, a better understanding of the electric power principle is required to fully understand how this new motor functions. A typical battery uses its stored chemical energy to form the source dipole. A generator utilises its input shaft energy of rotation to generate an internal magnetic field in which the positive charges are forced to move in one direction and the negative charges in the reverse direction, thereby forming the source dipole. In other words, the energy input into the generator does nothing except form the source dipole. None of the input energy goes to the external circuit. If increased current is drawn into the external load, there also is increased spent electron flow being rammed back through the source dipole, destroying it faster. Therefore, dipole-restoring-energy has to be inputted faster. The chemical energy of the battery also is expended only to separate its internal charges and form its source dipole. Again, if increased current and power is drawn into the external load, there is increased spent electron flow being rammed back through the source dipole, destroying it faster. This results in a depletion of the battery's stored energy faster, by forcing it to have to keep restoring the dipole faster.

Once the generator or battery source dipole is formed (the dipole is attached also to the external circuit), it is well known in particle physics that the dipole (same as any charge) is a broken symmetry in the vacuum energy flux.
By definition, this means that the source dipole extracts and orders part of that energy received from its vacuum interaction, and pours that energy out as the energy flowing through all space surrounding the external conductors in the attached circuit. Most of this enormous energy flow surging through space surrounding the external circuit does not strike the circuit at all, and does not get intercepted or utilised. Neither is it diverted into the circuit to power the electrons, but passes on into space and is just "wasted". Only a small "sheath" of the energy flow along the surface of the conductors strikes the surface charges in those conductors and is thereby diverted into the circuit to power the electrons. Standard texts show the huge available but wasted energy flow component, but only calculate the small portion of the energy flow that strikes the circuit, is caught by it, and is utilised to power it.

In a typical circuit, the huge available but "wasted" component of the energy flow is about 10 to the power 13 times as large as the small component intercepted by the surface charges and diverted into the circuit to power it. Hence, around every circuit and circuit element such as a coil, there exists a huge non-intercepted, non-diverged energy flow that is far greater than the small energy flow being diverted and used by the circuit or element.

Thus there exists an enormous untapped energy flow immediately surrounding every EMF power circuit, from which available excess energy can be intercepted and collected by the circuit, if respective non-linear actions are initiated that sharply affect and increase the reaction cross section of the circuit (i.e., its ability to intercept this available but usually wasted energy flow).

The method in which the motor of the present invention alters the reaction cross section of the coils in the circuit, is by a novel use, which momentarily changes the reaction cross section of the coil in which it is invoked. Thus, by this new motor using only a small amount of current in the form of a triggering pulse, it is able to evoke and control the immediate change of the coil's reaction cross section to this normally wasted energy flow component. As a result, the motor captures and directs some of this usually wasted environmental energy, collecting the available excess energy in the coil and then releasing it for use in the motor. By timing and switching, the innovative gate design in this new motor directs the available excess energy so that it overcomes and reverses the return EMF of the rotor-stator pole combination during what would normally be the back EMF and demonstrates the creation of the second back EMF of the system. Now instead of an "equal retardation" force being produced in the back EMF region, a forward EMF is produced that is additive to the rotor/flywheel energy and not subtractive. In short, it further accelerates the rotor/flywheel.

This results in a non-conservative magnetic field along the rotor's path. The line integral of the field around that path (i.e., the nett work on the rotor/flywheel to increase its energy and angular momentum) is not zero but a significant amount. Hence, the creation of an asymmetrical back EMF impulse magnetic motor:

1) takes its available excess energy from a known external source, the huge usually non-intercepted portion of the energy flow around the coil;
2) further increases the source dipolarity by this back EMF energy; and
3) produces available excess energy flow directly from the source dipole's increased broken symmetry in its fierce energy exchange with the local vacuum.

No laws of physics or thermodynamics are violated in the method and device of the present invention, and conservation of energy rigorously applies at all times. Nonetheless, by operating as an open dissipative system not in thermodynamic equilibrium with the active vacuum, the system can permissibly receive available excess energy from a known environmental source and output more energy to a load than must be input by the operator alone. As an open system not in thermodynamic equilibrium, this new and unique motor can tap in to back EMF to energise itself, loads and losses simultaneously, fully complying with known laws of physics and thermodynamics.

A search of prior art failed to reveal any devices that recycle available energy from back EMF of a permanent electromagnetic motor generator as described in the present invention. However, the following prior art US patents were reviewed:

1. No. 5,532,532 to DeVault, et al., Hermetically Sealed Super-conducting Magnet Motor.
2. No. 5,508,575 to Elrod, Jr., Direct Drive Servovalve Having Magnetically Loaded Bearing.
4. No. 5,371,426 to Nagate et al., Rotor For Brushless Motor.
5. No. 5,369,325 to Nagate et al., Rotor For Brushless Electromotor And Method For Making Same.
8. No. 5,334,894 to Nakagawa, Rotary Pulse Motor.
10. No. 5,130,595 to Arora, Multiple Magnetic Paths Pulse Machine.
11. No. 4,980,595 to Arora, Multiple Magnetics Paths Machine.
12. No. 4,972,112 to Kim, Brushless D.C. Motor.
13. No. 4,916,346 to Kliman, Composite Rotor Lamination For Use In Reluctance Homopolar, And Permanent Magnet Machines.
14. No. 4,761,590 to Kaszman, Electric Motor.
16. No. Re. 31,950 to Binns, Alternating Current Generators And Motors.
17. No. 4,488,075 to DeCesare, Alternator With Rotor Axial Flux Excitation.
18. No. 4,433,260 to Weisbord et al., Hysteresis Synchronous Motor Utilizing Polarized Rotor.
19. No. 4,429,263 to Muller, Low Magnetic Leakage Flux Brushless Pulse Controlled D-C Motor.
20. No. 4,423,343 to Field, II, Synchronous Motor System.
21. No. 4,417,167 to Ishii et al., DC Brushless Motor.
22. No. 4,265,754 to Menold, Water Treating Apparatus and Methods.
23. No. 4,265,746 to Zimmermann, Sr. et al. Water Treating Apparatus and Methods.
25. No. 2,974,981 to Vervest et al., Arrester For Iron Particles.
27. No. 2,560,260 to Sturtevant et al., Temperature Compensated Magnetic Suspension.
SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

The device and method of the present invention is a new permanent electromagnetic motor generator that recycles back EMF energy (regauging) thus allowing the motor to produce an energy level of COP = 0.98, more or less, depending upon configuration, circuitry, switching elements and the number and size of stators, rotors and coils that comprise the motor. The rotor is fixed between two pole pieces of the stator. The motor generator is initially energised from a small starter battery means, analogous to a spark plug, that sends a small amount of energy to the motor, thus stimulating a rotating motion from the rotor. As the rotor rotates, energy is captured from the surrounding electromagnetic field containing an asymmetrical pulse wave of back EMF. The energy produced and captured can be directed in one of several directions, including returning energy to the initial starter battery, rotating a shaft for work and/or sending a current to energise a fan, light bulb or other such device.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

FIG.1 is the top view of a back EMF permanent electromagnetic motor generator with a single stator and a single rotor.
Fig. 1a is a side view of a timing wheel and magnetic Hall-effect sensor of the back EMF motor generator.

![Fig. 1A](image)

Fig. 1b is a side view of the rotor of the back EMF motor generator.

![Fig. 1B](image)

Fig. 2 is a schematic drawing incorporating circuitry for the back EMF motor generator.

![Fig. 2](image)
Fig. 3 is a box diagram showing the relationships of the back EMF motor generator circuitry.

**Detailed Description of the Invention**

The present invention is a device and method for creating a back EMF permanent electromagnetic motor generator. As described in the Background Information, this new motor generator conforms to all applicable electrodynamic laws of physics and is in harmony with the law of the conservation of energy, the laws of electromagnetism and other related natural laws.

The back EMF permanent electromagnetic motor generator is comprised of a combination of electrical, material and magnetic elements, arranged to capture available electromagnetic energy (back EMF) in a recovery rectifier or single diode from output coils. The capturing of back EMF energy is also known as 'regauging'. As an arbitrary starting point in describing this invention, an input battery, as a means of energy, sends power through a power on-off switch and then to a timing mechanism, such as a magnetic timing switch (a semiconductor Hall-effect magnetic pickup switch) which is triggered by a magnet on a timing wheel. The timing wheel may contain any number of magnets (i.e. one or more), with the South poles facing outwards and aligned with the Hall-effect pickup switch.

The timing wheel is mounted at the end of a shaft which is located along the centreline of a rotor, which in turn, may contain any number of magnets (i.e. two or more). The rotor magnets are arranged so that they have the same polarity and are equidistant from each other. The shaft has the timing wheel mounted at one end, the rotor, and then some means for performing work, such as a power take off at the opposite end. However, there are other embodiments in which the position of the rotor, timing wheel and power take-off have other configurations. The rotor is mounted on a platform or housing which is fixed in a stationary position within a stator.

The stator is comprised of a permanent magnet connected to a means for conducting electromagnetic energy such as two parallel bars, each bar having a magnetised pole piece at one end. The conduction material of the bar may be ferrous, powdered iron, silicon steel, stainless magnetic steel, laminations of conductive material or any other magnetic conductive material. Each bar has an input coil placed around it. The coil may be constructed from copper, aluminium or any other suitable conductive material. The primary or input coil is connected to the switching circuit. A second coil on top of the input coil becomes a secondary or output coil. The secondary or output coil is connected to the recovery circuit. The rotor is located symmetrically between the pole pieces of the bars of the stator and it contains a series of magnets all having the same polarity, North or South, with each magnet in the rotor being in aligned with the pole piece as the rotor rotates.

When the rotor is energised from the battery of the switching circuit, there is an initial magnetic field that is instantly overcome as the magnetised pole pieces align with the rotor magnets. As the rotor begins to move, increasing electromagnetic energy is produced as a result of flux gaiting from the aligned magnets of the rotor and pole pieces. The coils surrounding the bars "buck" the permanent magnet connecting the bars. This is known as the "buck boosting" principle. When the permanent magnet is bucked by the coils, it reverses the polarity of the pole pieces which are aligned with the rotor magnets causing the rotor to increase its rate of rotation. The energy
available from the fields that are collapsing in the primary and secondary coils, (which creates the back EMF within the system), is now in non-equilibrium. Energy can now be put back into the system via the switching circuitry. Available energy captured from the back EMF, may be applied in different directions, including re-energising the input battery, storage in a capacitor, conversion by a recovery rectifier to be stored in the input battery, a capacitor or a secondary or recovery battery. Recovery rectifiers are used to convert this AC to DC. Available energy may be used to energise an electric bulb, fan or any other uses.

The shaft in the centre of the rotor can transfer energy in the form of work through a power take-off. The power take-off may be connected to any number of secondary shafts, wheels, gears and belts to increase or reduce torque.

This is a description of the basic invention, however, there are an innumerable number of combinations and embodiments of stators, rotors, Hall-effect magnetic pickup switches, coils, recovery rectifiers and electronic connecting modes that may be combined on a single shaft or several shafts connected in various combinations and sequences, and of various sizes. There may be any number of stators to one rotor, (however, there can be only one active rotor if there is a single stator). The number of Hall-effect pickup switches may vary, for example, in the case of multiple stators of high resistant coils, the coils may be parallel to form a low resistant coil so that one Hall-effect pickup with one circuit may fire all of the stators at the same time. The number of magnets in both the timing wheel and the rotor may also vary in number as well as the size and strength of the magnets. Any type of magnet may be used. The number of turns on both the input and output coils on each conducting bar may also vary in number and in conductive material.

The motor generator, as shown in Fig.1, a top perspective view of a single stator, single rotor back EMF motor and is comprised of a means of providing energy, such as input battery 10 connected to power switch 11 (shown in Fig.2) and Hall-effect magnetic pickup switch 13. Magnetic pickup 13 interfaces with timing wheel 12 to form a timing switch. Timing wheel 12 contains four magnets 14 with the South pole of each said magnet facing outward towards magnetic pickup 13. Timing wheel 12 is fixed at one end of shaft 15. Located on shaft 15 is rotor 16. Rotor 16 can be of any realistic size, and in this example the rotor contains four rotor magnets 17. The rotor magnets 17 are arranged so all have the same polarity.

Opposite timing wheel 12 on shaft 15 is a means for performing work, such as a power take-off 18. Rotor 16 is mounted in a fixed position with rotor magnets 17 in aligned with the magnetised pole pieces 19a and 19b. Each pole piece 19a and 19b is connected to iron bars 20a and 20b. These iron bars are connected by a permanent magnet 21. Wire is wrapped around iron bars 20a and 20b to form input coils 22a and 22b. Superimposed upon input coils 22a and 22b are output coils 23a and 23b. These output coils are connected to full wave bridge first recovery rectifier 24a which then connects to battery 10.

Fig.1a is a side view of the back EMF Motor Generator timing wheel 12 with Hall-effect magnetic pickup 13 positioned to be triggered by each of the four magnets 14 in turn as timing wheel 12 rotates. The magnets 14 have their South poles facing outward and they are spaced evenly with a 90 degree angular separation.

Fig.1b is a side view of rotor 16 with four rotor magnets 17 with 90 degree angular separation from each other and having the same polarity.

Fig.2 is a schematic diagram of the motor generator circuitry showing input coil connections from input battery 10 through power switch 11, transistors 30a,b,c resistors 31a-e, through power supply lead 32 (“VCC+”) and to magnetic pickup 13. Magnetic pickup 13 is in aligned with timing wheel magnets 14 located on timing wheel 12.
Collector lead 33 and ground lead 34 carry the signals from magnetic pickup 13. When current is reversed, it flows through resistor 31e and transistor 30c to input battery 10. Input coils 22a,b send power to full wave bridge first recovery rectifier 24a which then sends power through switch recovery 27 back into the system, and/or to the input battery 10. Output coils 23a and 23b send power through single diode second recovery rectifier 24b to recovery battery 25.

In this particular embodiment, the value and type number of the components are as follows:
Hall-effect magnetic pickup switch 13 is a No. 3020;
Transistor 30a is a 2N2955;
Transistor 30b is an MPS8599;
Transistor 30c is a 2N3055;
Resistors 31a and 31b are 470 ohms
Resistor 31b is 2.2 K ohms
Resistor 31c is 220 ohms
Resistor 31d is 1 K ohms
Recovery rectifier 24a is a 10 Amp, 400 volts bridge rectifier.

Fig.3 is a box diagram showing the flow of voltage from input battery A, through recovery circuit B, switching circuit C and motor coils D. Motor coils D send available back EMF energy through recovery circuit B, and then on to recovery battery E and input battery A. Available back EMF energy can also flow from switching circuit C to recovery circuit B.

In multiple stator/rotor systems, each individual stator may be energised one at a time or all of the stators may be energised simultaneously. Any number of stators and rotors may be incorporated into the design of such multiple stator/rotor motor generator combinations. However, while there may be several stators per rotor, there can only be one rotor for a single stator. The number of stators and rotors that would comprise a particular motor generator is dependent upon the amount of power required in the form of watts. The desired size and horsepower of the motor determines whether the stators will be in parallel or fired sequentially by the magnetic Hall-effect pickup or pickups. The number of magnets incorporated into a particular rotor is dependent upon the size of the rotor and power required of the motor generator. In a multiple stator/rotor motor generator, the timing wheel may have one or more magnets, but must have one magnet Hall-effect pickup for each stator if the stators are not arranged in parallel. The back EMF energy is made available through the reversing of the polarity of the magnetised pole pieces thus collapsing the field around the coils and reversing the flow of energy to the recovery diodes, which are capturing the back EMF.

Individual motors may be connected in sequence, with each motor having various combinations of stators and rotors, or they may be connected in parallel. Each rotor may have any number of magnets ranging from a minimum of 2 to maximum of 60. The number of stators for an individual motor may range from 1 to 60 with the number of conducting bars ranging from 2 to 120.

What distinguishes this motor generator from all others is the presence of a permanent magnet connecting the two conducting bars which transfer magnetic energy through the pole pieces to the rotor, thereby attracting the rotor between the pole pieces. With the rotor attracted in between the two pole pieces, the coils switch the polarity of the magnetic field of the pole pieces so that the rotor is repelled out. Therefore there is no current and voltage being used to attract the rotor. The only current being used is the repulsion of the rotor between the two conductive bar pole pieces thereby requiring only a small amount of current to repel the rotor. This is known as ‘a regauging system’ and allows the capturing of available back EMF energy.

Finally, although the invention has been described with reference of particular means, materials and embodiments, it is to be understood that the invention is not limited to the particulars disclosed and extends to all equivalents within the scope of the claims.
This is a slightly reworded copy of this patent application which shows a method of pulse-charging a battery bank or powering a heater and/or a motor. John Bedini is an intuitive genius with very considerable practical ability, so any information coming from him should be considered most carefully. At the end of this document there is some additional information not found in the patent.

**ABSTRACT**
This two-phase solid-state battery charger can receive input energy from a variety of sources including AC current, a battery, a DC generator, a DC-to-DC inverter, solar cells or any other compatible source of input energy. Phase 1 is the charging phase and Phase 2 is the discharge phase, where a signal, or current, passes through a dual timing switch which independently controls two channels, thus producing the two phases.

The dual timing switch is controlled by a logic chip, or pulse width modulator. A potential charge is allowed to build up in a capacitor bank. The capacitor bank is then disconnected from the energy input source and then a high voltage pulse is fed into the battery which is there to receive the charge. The momentary disconnection of the capacitor from the input energy source allows a free-floating potential charge in the capacitor. Once the capacitor has completed discharging the potential charge into the battery, the capacitor disconnects from the charging battery and re-connects to the energy source, thus completing the two-phase cycle.

**TECHNICAL FIELD**
This invention relates generally to a battery pulse-charger using a solid-state device and method where the current going to the battery is not constant. The signal or current is momentarily switch-interrupted as it flows through either the first channel, (the charging phase), or the second channel, (the discharging phase). This two-phase cycle alternates the signal in the two channels thereby allowing a potential charge in a capacitor to disconnect from its power source an instant before the capacitor discharges its stored potential energy into a battery set up to receive the capacitor's stored energy. The capacitor is then disconnected from the battery and re-connected to the power source upon completion of the discharge phase, thereby completing the charge-discharge cycle. The battery pulse-charger can also drive devices, such as a motor and a heating element, with pulses.

**BACKGROUND AND PRIOR ART**
Present day battery chargers use a constant charge current in their operation with no momentary disconnection of the signal or current as it flows either: (1) from a primary energy source to the charger; or (2) from the charger itself into a battery for receiving the charge. Some chargers are regulated to a constant current by any of several methods, while others are constant and are not regulated. There are no battery chargers currently in the art or available wherein there is a momentary signal or current disconnection between the primary energy source and the charger capacitors an instant before the capacitors discharge the stored potential energy into a battery receiving the pulse charge. Nor are there any chargers in the art that disconnect the charger from the battery receiving the charge when the charger capacitors receive energy from the primary source. The momentary current interruption allows the battery a short "rest period" and requires less energy from the primary energy source while putting more energy into the battery receiving the charge while requiring a shorter period of time to do it.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**
One aspect of the invention relates to a solid-state device and method for creating a pulse current to pulse-charge a battery or a bank of batteries in which a new and unique method is used to increase and preserve, for a longer period of time, the energy stored in the battery, as compared to constant-current battery chargers. The device uses a timed pulse to create a DC pulse waveform to be discharged into the battery receiving the charge.

One embodiment of the Invention uses a means for dual switching such as a pulse-width modulator (PWM), for example, a logic chip SG3524N PWM, and a means for optical coupling to a bank of high-energy capacitors to
store a timed initial pulse charge. This is the charge phase, or phase 1. The charged capacitor bank then discharges the stored high energy into the battery receiving the charge in timed pulses. Just prior to discharging the stored energy into the battery, the capacitor bank is momentarily disconnected from the power source, thus completing the charge phase, and thereby leaving the capacitor bank as a free-floating potential charge disconnected from the primary energy source to then be discharged into the battery. The transfer of energy from the capacitor bank to the battery completes the discharge phase, or phase 2. The two-phase cycle now repeats itself.

This embodiment of the battery pulse-charger works by transferring energy from a source, such as an AC source, to an unfiltered DC source of high voltage to be stored in a capacitor or a capacitor bank. A switching regulator is set to a timed pulse, for example, a one second pulse that is 180 degrees out of phase for each set of switching functions. The first function is to build the charge in the capacitor bank from the primary energy source; the second function is to disconnect the power source from the capacitor bank; the third function is to discharge the stored high voltage to the battery with a high voltage spike in a timed pulse, for example, a one second pulse; and the fourth function is to re-connect the capacitor bank to the primary energy source.

The device operates through a two-channel on/off switching mechanism or a gauging/re-gauging function wherein the charger is disconnected from its primary energy source an instant before the pulse-charger discharges the high-energy pulse into the battery to be charged. As the primary charging switch closes, the secondary discharging switch opens, and vise-versa in timed pulses to complete the two-phase cycle.

The means for a power supply is varied with several options available as the primary energy source. For example, primary input energy may come from an AC source connected into the proper voltage (transformer); from an AC generator; from a primary input battery; from solar cells; from a DC-to-DC inverter; or from any other adaptable source of energy. If a transformer is the source of primary input energy, then it can be a standard rectifying transformer used in power supply applications or any other transformer applicable to the desired function. For example, it can be a 120-volt to 45-volt AC step-down transformer, and the rectifier can be a full-wave bridge of 200 volts at 20 amps, which is unfiltered when connected to the output of the transformer. The positive output terminal of the bridge rectifier is connected to the drains of the parallel connected field-effect transistors, and the negative terminal is connected to the negative side of the capacitor bank.

The Field Effect Transistor (FET) switches can be IRF260 FETs, or any other FET needed to accomplish this function. All the FETs are connected in parallel to achieve the proper current handling capacity for the pulses. Each FET may be connected through a 7-watt, 0.05-ohm resistor with a common bus connection at the source. All the FET gates may be connected through a 240-ohm resistor to a common bus. There may also be a 2 K-ohm resistor wired between the FET gates and the drain bus.

A transistor, for example an MJE15024, can be used as a driver for the gates, driving the bus, and in turn, an optical coupler powers the driver transistor through the first channel. A first charging switch is used to charge the capacitor bank, which acts as a DC potential source to the battery. The capacitor bank is then disconnected from the power rectifier circuit. The pulse battery charger is then transferred to a second field-effect switch through the second channel for the discharge phase. The discharge phase is driven by a transistor, and that transistor is driven via an optical coupler. When the second (discharge) switch is turned on, the capacitor bank potential charge is discharged into the battery waiting to receive the charge. The battery receiving the charge is then disconnected from the pulse-charger capacitor bank in order to repeat the cycle. The pulse-charger may have any suitable source of input power including:

1. solar panels to raise the voltage to the capacitor bank;
2. a wind generator;
3. a DC-to-DC inverter;
4. an alternator;
5. an AC motor generator;
6. a static source such as a high voltage spark; and
7. other devices which can raise the potential of the capacitor bank.

In another embodiment of the invention, one can use the pulse-charger to drive a device such as a motor or heating element with pulses of energy.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**
Fig. 1 is a schematic drawing of a solid-state pulse-charger according to an embodiment of the invention.
Fig. 2 is a schematic drawing of a conventional DC-to-DC converter that can be used to provide power to the pulse-charger of Fig.1 according to an embodiment of the invention.
Fig. 3 is a schematic drawing of a conventional AC power supply that can be used to provide power to the pulse-charger of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention.

Fig. 4A to Fig. 4D are schematic drawings of other conventional power supplies that can be used to provide power to the pulse-charger of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention.

Fig. 5
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

An embodiment of the present invention is a device and method for a solid-state pulse-charger that uses a stored potential charge in a capacitor bank. The solid-state pulse-charger comprises a combination of elements and circuitry to capture and store available energy in a capacitor bank. The stored energy in the capacitors is then pulse-charged into the battery to be charged. In one version of this embodiment, there is a first momentary disconnection between the charger and the battery receiving the charge during the charge phase of the cycle, and a second momentary disconnection between the charger and the input energy source during the discharge phase of the cycle.

As a starting point, and an arbitrary method in describing this device and method, the flow of an electrical signal or current will be tracked from the primary input energy to final storage in the battery receiving the pulse charge.
Fig. 1 is a schematic drawing of the solid-state pulse-char ger according to an embodiment of the invention. As shown in Fig. 1, the primary input energy source to the pulse-char ger is a power supply 11, examples of which are shown in Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Figs. 4A-4D. A 12-volt battery, as a low voltage energy source 12, drives a dual switching means of control such as a logic chip or a pulse-width modulator (PWM) 13.

Alternatively, the voltage from the power supply 11 may be converted to a voltage suitable to power the PWM 13. The PWM 13 may be an SG3524N logic chip, and functions as an oscillator or timer to drive a 2-channel output with "on/off" switches that are connected when on to either a first optical isolator 14, or alternatively, to a second optical isolator 15. The first and second optical isolators 14 and 15 may be H11D3 optical isolators. When the logic chip 13 is connected to a first channel, it is disconnected from a second channel, thus resulting in two phases of signal direction; phase 1, a charge phase, and phase 2, a discharge phase.

When the logic chip 13 is switched to the charge phase, the signal flows to the first optical isolator 14. From the optical isolator 14, the signal continues its flow through a first NPN power transistor 16 that activates an N-channel MOSFET 18a and an N-channel MOSFET 18b. Current flowing through the MOSFETs 18a and 18b builds up a voltage across a capacitor bank 20, thereby completing the charge phase of the switching activity.

The discharge phase begins when the logic chip 13 is switched to the second channel, with current flowing to the second optical isolator 15 and then through a second NPN power transistor 17, which activates an N-channel MOSFET 19a and an N-channel MOSFET 19b. After the logic chip 13 closes the first channel and opens the second channel, the potential charge in the capacitor bank 20 is free floating between the power supply 11, from which the capacitor bank 20 is now disconnected, and then connected to a battery 22 to receive the charge. It is at this point in time that the potential charge in the capacitor bank 20 is discharged through a high-energy pulse into the battery 22 or, a bank (not shown) of batteries. The discharge phase is completed once the battery 22 receives the charge. The logic chip 13 then switches the second channel closed and opens the first channel thus completing the charge-discharge cycle. The cycle is repetitive with the logic chip 13 controlling the signal.
direction into either channel one to the capacitor bank, or to channel two to the battery 22 from the capacitor bank. The battery 22 is given a momentary rest period without a continuous current during the charge phase.

The component values for the described embodiment are as follows. The resistors 24, 26, . . . 44b have the following respective values: 4.7K, 4.7K, 47K, 330, 330, 2K, 47, 47, 0.05(7W), 0.05(7W), 2K, 47, 47, 0.05(7 W), and 0.05(7W). The potentiometer 46 is 10K, the capacitor 48 is 22 mF, and the total capacitance of the capacitor bank 20 is 0.132F. The voltage of the battery 22 is between 12-24 V, and the voltage of the power supply 11 is 24-50 V such that the supply voltage is approximately 12-15 V higher than the battery voltage.

Other embodiments of the pulse-charger are contemplated. For example, the bipolar transistors 16 and 17 may be replaced with field-effect transistors, and the transistors 18a, 18b, 19a, and 19b may be replaced with bipolar or insulated-gate bipolar (IGBT) transistors. Furthermore, one can change the component values to change the cycle time, the peak pulse voltage, the amount of charge that the capacitor bank 20 delivers to the battery 22, etc. In addition, the pulse-charger can have one or more than two transistors 18a and 18b, and one or more than two transistors 19a and 19b.

Still referring to Fig.1, the operation of the above-discussed embodiment of the pulse-charger is discussed. To begin the first phase of the cycle during which the capacitor bank 20 is charged, the logic circuit 13 deactivates the isolator 15 and activates the isolator 14. Typically, the circuit 13 is configured to deactivate the isolator 15 before or at the same time that it activates the isolator 14, although the circuit 13 may be configured to deactivate the isolator 15 after it activates the isolator 14.

Next, the activated isolator 14 generates a base current that activates the transistor 16, which in turn generates a current that activates the transistors 18a and 18b. The activated transistors 18a and 18b charge the capacitors in the bank 20 to a charge voltage equal or approximately equal to the voltage of the power supply 11 less the lowest threshold voltage of the transistors 18a and 18b. To begin the second phase of the cycle during which the capacitor bank 20 pulse charges the battery 22, the logic circuit 13 deactivates the isolator 14 and activates the isolator 15. Typically, the circuit 13 is configured to deactivate the isolator 14 before or at the same time that it activates the isolator 15, although the circuit 13 may be configured to deactivate the isolator 14 after it activates the isolator 15.

Next, the activated isolator 15 generates a base current that activates the transistor 17, which in turn generates a current that activates the transistors 19a and 19b. The activated transistors 19a and 19b discharge the capacitors in the bank 20 into the battery 22 until the voltage across the bank 20 is or is approximately equal to the voltage across the battery 22 plus the lowest threshold voltage of the transistors 19a and 19b. Alternatively, the circuit 13 can deactivate the isolator 15 at a time before the bank 20 reaches this level of discharge. Because the resistances of the transistors 19a and 19b, the resistors 44a and 44b, and the battery 22 are relatively low, the capacitors in the bank 20 discharge rather rapidly, thus delivering a pulse of current to charge the battery 22. For example, where the pulse-charger includes components having the values listed above, the bank 20 delivers a pulse of current having a duration of about 100 ms and a peak of about 250 A.
Fig. 2 is a schematic drawing of a conventional DC-to-DC converter 30 that can be used as the power supply 11 of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention. A DC-to-DC converter converts a low DC voltage to a higher DC voltage or vice-versa. Therefore, such a converter can convert a low voltage into a higher voltage that the pulse-charger of Fig. 1 can use to charge the capacitor bank 20 (Fig. 1). More specifically, the converter 30 receives energy from a source 31 such as a 12-volt battery. An optical isolator sensor 33 controls an NPN power transistor which provides a current to a primary coil 36 of a power transformer 32. A logic chip or pulse width modulator (PWM) 34 alternately switches on and off an IRF260 first N-channel MOSFET 35a and an IRF260 second N-channel MOSFET 35b such that when the MOSFET 35a is on the MOSFET 35b is off and vice-versa. Consequently, the switching MOSFETs 35a and 35b drive respective sections of the primary coil 36 to generate an output voltage across a secondary coil 38. A full-wave bridge rectifier 39 rectifies the voltage across the secondary coil 38, and this rectified voltage is provided to the pulse-charger of Fig. 1. Furthermore, the secondary coil 38 can be tapped to provide a lower voltage for the PWM 13 of Fig. 1 such that the DC-to-DC converter 30 can be used as both the power supply 11 and the low-voltage supply 12 of Fig. 1.
Fig. 3 is a schematic drawing of an AC power supply 40 that can be used as both the power supply 11 and the power supply 12 of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention. The power input 42 to the supply 40 is 120V AC. A first transformer 44 and full-wave rectifier 46 compose the supply 11, and a second transformer 48, full-wave rectifier 50, and voltage regulator 52 compose the supply 12.

Fig. 4A to Fig. 4D are schematic drawings of various conventional primary energy input sources which can be used as the supply 11 and/or the supply 12 of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention. Fig. 4A is a schematic drawing of serially coupled batteries. Fig. 4B is a schematic drawing of serially-coupled solar cells. Fig. 4C is a schematic drawing of an AC generator, and Fig. 4D is a schematic drawing of a DC generator.

Fig. 5 is a block diagram of the solid-state pulse-charger of Fig. 1 according to an embodiment of the invention. Block A is the power supply 11, which can be any suitable power supply such as those shown in Fig. 2, Fig. 3, Figs. 4A-4D. Block B is the power supply 12, which can be any suitable power supply such as a 12V DC supply or the supply shown in Fig. 3. Block C is the PWM 13 and its peripheral components. Block D is the charge switch that includes the first optical isolator chip 14, the first NPN power transistor 16, the first set of two N-
channel MOSFETs 18a and 18b, and their peripheral resistors. Block E is the capacitor bank 20. Block F is the discharge switch that includes the second optical isolator chip 15, the second NPN power transistor 17, the second set of two N-channel MOSFETs 19a and 19b, and their peripheral resistors. Block G is the battery or battery bank 22 which is being pulse-charged.

A unique feature that distinguishes one embodiment of the pulse-charger described above, from conventional chargers is the method charging the battery with pulses of current instead of with a continuous current. Consequently, the battery is given a reset period between pulses.

Fig. 6 is a diagram of a DC motor 60 that the pulse-charger of Fig. 1 can drive according to an embodiment of the invention. Specifically, one can connect the motor 60 in place of the battery 22 (Fig. 1) such that the pulse-charger drives the motor with pulses of current. Although one need not modify the pulse-charger to drive the motor 60, one can modify it to make it more efficient for driving the motor. For example, one can modify the values of the resistors peripheral to the PWM 13 (Fig. 1) to vary the width and peak of the drive pulses from the capacitor bank 20 (Fig. 1).

Fig. 7 is a diagram of a heating element 70, such as a dryer or water-heating element, that the pulse-charger of Fig. 1 can drive according to an embodiment of the invention. Specifically, one can connect the heating element 70 in place of the battery 22 (Fig. 1) such that the pulse-charger drives the element with pulses of current. Although one need not modify the pulse-charger to drive the element 70, one can modify it to make it more efficient for driving the element. For example, one can modify the values of the resistors peripheral to the PWM 13 (Fig. 1) to vary the width and peak of the drive pulses from the capacitor bank 20 (Fig. 1).

In the embodiments discussed above, specific electronic elements and components are used. However, it is known that a variety of available transistors, resistors, capacitors, transformers, timing components, optical isolators, pulse width modulators, MOSFETs, and other electronic components may be used in a variety of combinations to achieve an equivalent result. Finally, although the invention has been described with reference of particular means, materials and embodiments, it is to be understood that the invention is not limited to the particulars disclosed and extends to all equivalents within the scope of the claims.

Notes:
The following information is NOT part of John’s patent. It is information intended to be helpful, but as it is not coming from John it must be considered to be opinion and not fact. In the above diagrams, the SG3524N integrated circuit is likely to be unfamiliar to many readers, and an examination of the specification sheet does not make it obvious which pin connections are used in John’s circuit. The following pin connections are believed to be correct, but cannot be guaranteed.
In addition to these SG3524N pin connections, it is suggested that pins 1, 4 and 5 be connected to ground instead of just pin 8, and that a 100nF capacitor be connected from pin 9 to ground. Pins 3 and 10 are left unconnected.

The pinouts for the chip are:

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**Fig. 1**

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In addition to these SG3524N pin connections, it is suggested that pins 1, 4 and 5 be connected to ground instead of just pin 8, and that a 100nF capacitor be connected from pin 9 to ground. Pins 3 and 10 are left unconnected.

The pinouts for the chip are:
CONVERSION OF ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRIC ENERGY

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes in considerable detail, different methods for abstracting useable electrical power from passive aerial systems. He describes a system with 100 kilowatt output as a “small” system.

Be it known that I, Hermann Plauson, Estonian subject, residing in Hamburg, Germany, have invented certain new and useful improvements in the Conversion of atmospheric Electric Energy, of which the following is a specification.

According to this invention, charges of atmospheric electricity are not directly converted into mechanical energy, and this forms the main difference from previous inventions, but the static electricity which runs to earth through aerial conductors in the form of direct current of very high voltage and low current strength is converted into electro-dynamic energy in the form of high frequency vibrations. Many advantages are thereby obtained and all disadvantages avoided.

The very high voltage of static electricity of a low current strength can be converted by this invention to voltages more suitable for technical purposes and of greater current strength. By the use of closed oscillatory circuits it is possible to obtain electromagnetic waves of various amplitudes and thereby to increase the degree of resonance of such current. Such resonance allows various values of inductance to be chosen which, by tuning the resonance between a motor and the transformer circuit, allows the control of machines driven by this system. Further, such currents have the property of being directly available for various uses, other than driving motors, including lighting, heating and use in electro-chemistry.

Further, with such currents, a series of apparatus may be fed without a direct current supply through conductors and the electro-magnetic high frequency currents may be converted by means of special motors, adapted for electro-magnetic oscillations, into alternating current of low frequency or even into high voltage direct current.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1. is an explanatory figure
Fig. 2 is a diagrammatic view of the most simple form.

Fig. 3 shows a method of converting atmospheric electrical energy into a form suitable for use with motors.

Fig. 4 is a diagram showing the protective circuitry.
Fig. 5 is a diagram of an arrangement for providing control.

Fig. 6 is an arrangement including a method of control.

Fig. 7 shows how the spark gap can be adjusted.
Fig. 8 shows a unipolar connection for the motor.

Fig. 9 shows a weak coupled system suitable for use with small power motors.

Fig. 10, Fig. 11 and Fig. 12 show modified arrangements.
Fig. 13 shows a form of inductive coupling for the motor circuit.

Fig. 14 is a modified form of Fig. 13 with inductive coupling.

Fig. 15 is an arrangement with non-inductive motor.
Fig. 16 is an arrangement with coupling by capacitor.

Fig. 17, Fig. 18 and Fig. 19 are diagrams showing further modifications.

Fig. 20 shows a simple form in which the aerial network is combined with special collectors.
Fig. 21 shows diagramatically, an arrangement suitable for collecting large quantities of energy. Fig. 22 is a modified arrangement having two rings of collectors.

Fig. 23 shows the connections for three rings of collectors.

Fig. 24 shows a collecting balloon and diagram of its battery of capacitors.
Fig. 25 and Fig. 26 show modified collector balloon arrangements.
Fig. 27 shows a second method of connecting conductors for the balloon aerials.
Fig. 28 shows an auto-transformer method of connection.
Fig. 29 shows the simplest form of construction with incandescent cathode.

Fig. 30 shows a form with a cigar-shaped balloon.
Fig. 31 is a modified arrangement.

Fig. 32 shows a form with cathode and electrode enclosed in a vacuum chamber.
Fig. 33 is a modified form of Fig. 32
Fig. 34 shows an arc light collector.

Fig. 35 shows such an arrangement for alternating current.
Fig. 36 shows an incandescent collector with Nernst lamp.
Fig. 37 shows a form with a gas flame.

Fig. 1 illustrates a simple diagram for converting static electricity into dynamic energy of a high number of oscillations. For the sake of clarity, a Wimshurst machine is assumed to be employed and not an aerial antenna. Items 13 and 14 are combs for collecting the static electricity of the influence machine. Items 7 and 8 are spark-discharging electrodes. Items 5 and 6 are capacitors, 9 is the primary winding of an inductive coil, 10 is the secondary winding whose ends are 11 and 12. When the disc of the static influence machine is rotated by mechanical means, the combs collect the electric charges, one being positive and one negative and these charge the capacitors 5 and 6 until such a high voltage is developed across the spark gap 7–8 that the spark gap is jumped. As the spark gap forms a closed circuit with capacitors 5 and 6, and inductive resistance 9, as is well known, waves of high frequency electromagnetic oscillations will pass in this circuit.
The high frequency of the oscillations produced in the primary circuit induces waves of the same frequency in the secondary circuit. Thus, in the primary circuit, electromagnetic oscillations are formed by the spark and these oscillations are maintained by fresh charges of static electricity.

By suitably selecting the ratio between the number of turns in the primary and secondary windings, with regard to a correct application of the coefficients of resonance (capacitance, inductance and resistance) the high voltage of the primary circuit may be suitably converted into a low voltage high current output.

When the oscillatory discharges in the primary circuit become weaker or cease entirely, the capacitors are charged again by the static electricity until the accumulated charge again breaks down across the spark gap. All this is repeated as long as electricity is produced by the static machine through the application of mechanical energy to it.

An elementary form of the invention is shown in Fig.2 in which two spark gaps in parallel are used, one of which may be termed the working gap 7 while the second serves as a safety device for excess voltage and consists of a larger number of spark gaps than the working section, the gaps being arranged in series and which are bridged by very small capacitors a1, b1, c1, which allow uniform sparking in the safety section.

1 is the aerial antenna for collecting charges of atmospheric electricity, 13 is the earth connection of the second part of the spark gap, 5 and 6 are capacitors and 9 is the primary coil winding. When the positive atmospheric electricity seeks to combine with the negative earth charge via aerial 1, this is prevented by the air gap between the spark gaps. The resistance of spark gap 7 is lower than that of the safety spark gap set of three spark gaps connected in series a which consequently has three times greater air resistance.

Therefore, so long as the resistance of spark gap 7 is not overloaded, discharges take place only through it. However, if the voltage is increased by any influence to such a level that it might be dangerous for charging the capacitors 5 and 6, or for the coil insulation of windings 9 and 10, the safety spark gap set will, if correctly set, discharge the voltage directly to earth without endangering the machine. Without this second spark gap arrangement, it is impossible to collect and render available large quantities of electrical energy.

The action of this closed oscillation circuit consisting of spark gap 7, two capacitors 5 and 6, primary coil 9 and secondary coil 10, is exactly the same as that of Fig.1 which uses a Wimshurst machine, the only difference being the provision of the safety spark gap. The high frequency electromagnetic alternating current can be tapped off through the conductors 11 and 12 for lighting and heating purposes. Special motors adapted for working with static electricity or high frequency oscillations may be connected at 14 and 15.
In addition to the use of spark gaps in parallel, a second measure of security is also necessary for taking the
current from this circuit. This is the introduction of protective electromagnets or choking coils in the aerial circuit
as shown by S in Fig.3. A single electromagnet having a core of the thinnest possible separate laminations is
connected with the aerial. In the case of high voltages in the aerial network or at places where there are frequent
thunderstorms, several such magnets may be connected in series.

In the case of large units, several such magnets can be employed in parallel or in series parallel. The windings of
these electromagnets may be simply connected in series with the aerials. In this case, the winding preferably
consists of several thin parallel wires, which together, make up the necessary cross-sectional area of wire. The
winding may be made of primary and secondary windings in the form of a transformer. The primary winding will
then be connected in series with the aerial network, and the secondary winding more or less short-circuited
through a regulating resistor or an induction coil. In the latter case it is possible to regulate, to a certain extent,
the effect of the choking coils. In the following circuit and constructional diagrams, the aerial electromagnet
choke coil is indicated by a simple ring S.

Fig.3 shows the most simple way of converting atmospheric electricity into electromagnetic wave energy by the
use of special motors adapted for high oscillatory currents or static charges of electrical energy. Recent
improvements in motors for working with static energy and motors working by resonance, that is to say, having
groups of tuned electromagnetic co-operating circuits render this possible but such do not form part of the present
invention.

A motor adapted to operate with static charges, will for the sake of simplicity, be shown in the diagrams as two
semi-circles 1 and 2 and the rotor of the motor by a ring M (Fig.3). A is a vertical aerial or aerial network. S is
the safety choke or electromagnet with coil O as may be seen is connected with the aerial A. Adjacent to the
electromagnet S, the aerial conductor is divided into three circuits, circuit 8 containing the safety spark gap, circuit
7 containing the working spark gap, and then a circuit containing the stator terminal 1, the rotor and stator terminal
2 at which a connection is made to the earth wire. The two spark gaps are also connected metallically with the
earth wire. The method of working in these diagrams is as follows:

The positive atmospheric electric charge collected tends to combine with the negative electricity (or earth
electricity) connected via the earth wire. It travels along the aerial A through the electromagnet S without being
checked as it flows in the same direction as the direct current. Further, its progress is arrested by two spark gaps
placed in the way and the stator capacitors. These capacitors charge until their voltage exceeds that needed to
jump the spark gap 7 when a spark occurs and an oscillatory charge is obtained via the closed oscillation circuit
containing motor M. The motor here forms the capacity and the necessary inductance and resistance, which as is
well known, are necessary for converting static electricity into electromagnetic wave energy.

The discharges are converted into mechanical energy in special motors and cannot reach the aerial network
because of the electromagnet or choke. If, however, when a spark occurs at spark gap 7, a greater quantity of
atmospheric electricity tends to flow to earth, then a counter voltage is induced in the electromagnet, which is
greater the more rapidly and strongly the flow of current direct to earth is. This opposing voltage causes the
circuit to exhibit a sufficiently high resistance to prevent a short circuit between the atmospheric electricity and the
earth.

The circuit containing spark gap 8, having a different wave length which is not in resonance with the natural
frequency of the motor, does not endanger the motor and serves as security against excess voltage, which, as
practical experiments have shown, may still arise in certain cases.
In Fig. 4, spark gap 7 is shunted across capacitors 5 and 6 from the motor M. This arrangement provides improved over-voltage protection for the motor and it gives a uniform excitation through the spark gap 7.

Fig. 5 shows an arrangement for producing large currents which can be used direct without motors, to provide heating and lighting. The main difference here is that the spark gap consists of a star-shaped disc 7 which can rotate on its own axis and is rotated by a motor opposite similarly fitted electrodes 7a. When separate points of starts face one another, discharges take place, thus forming an oscillation circuit with capacitors 5 and 6 and inductor 9. It is evident that a motor may also be connected directly to the ends of inductor 9.

Fig. 6 shows how the oscillation circuit may have a motor connected via a variable inductor which opposes any excess voltages which might be applied to the motor. By cutting the separate coils 9 (coupled inductively to the aerial) in or out, the inductive action on the motor may be more or less increased, or variable aerial action may be exerted on the oscillation circuit.
In Fig.7 the oscillation circuit is closed through the earth (E and E₁). The spark gap 7 may be increased or reduced by means of a contact arm 7b.

Fig.8 shows a unipolar connection of the motor with the aerial network. Here, two oscillation circuits are closed through the same motor. The first oscillation circuit passes from aerial A through electromagnet S, point x, inductance 9a to the earth capacitor 6, across spark gap 7 to the aerial capacitor 5 and back to point x. The second oscillation circuit starts from the aerial 5 at the point x₁ through inductor 9 to the earth capacitor 6 at the point x₃, through capacitor 6, across spark gap 7 back to point x₁. The motor itself, is inserted between the two points of spark gap 7. This arrangement produces slightly dampened oscillation wave currents.

Fig.9 shows a loosely coupled system intended for small motors for measuring purposes. A is the serial, S is the electromagnet or aerial inductor, 9 the inductor, 7 the spark gap, 5 and 6 capacitors, E the earth, M the motor, and 1 and 2 the stator connections of the motor which is directly connected to the oscillator circuit.
Fig. 10 shows a motor circuit with purely inductive coupling. The motor is connected with the secondary wire 10 as may be seen in Fig. 11 in a somewhat modified circuit. The same applies to the circuit of Fig. 12.

The circuit diagrams shown so far, allow motors of small to medium strength to be operated. For large aggregates, however, they are too inconvenient as the construction of two or more oscillation circuits for large amounts of energy is difficult; the governing is still more difficult and the danger in switching on or off is greater.

A means for overcoming such difficulties is shown in Fig. 13. The oscillation circuit shown here, runs from point x over capacitor 5, variable inductor 9, spark gap 7 and the two segments 3a and 3b forming arms of a Wheatstone bridge, back to x. If the motor is connected by brushes 3 and 4 transversely to the two arms of the bridge as shown in the drawing, electromagnetic oscillations of equal sign are induced in the stator surfaces 1 and 2 and the motor does not revolve. If however, the brushes 3 and 4 are moved in common with the conducting wires 1 and 2 which connect the brushes with the stator poles, a certain alteration or displacement of the polarity is obtained and the motor commences to revolve.

The maximum action will result if one brush 3 comes on the central sparking contact 7 and the other brush 4 on the part x. In practice however, they are usually brought on to the central contact 7 but only held in the path of the bridge segments 4a and 3a in order to avoid connecting the spark gaps with the motor oscillation circuit.
As this prevents the whole of the oscillation energy acting on the motor, it is better to adopt the modification shown in Fig. 14. The only difference here is that the motor is not wired directly to the segments of the commutator, but instead it is wired to secondary coil \(10\) which receives induced current from primary coil \(9\). This arrangement provides a good transforming action, a loose coupling and an oscillation circuit without a spark gap.

In Fig. 15, the motor is wired directly to the primary coil at \(x\) and \(x_1\) after the principle of the auto-transformer. In Fig. 16, instead of an inductor, capacitor \(6\) replaces the inductance and is inserted between the segments \(3a\) and \(4a\). This has the advantage that the segments \(3a\) and \(4a\) need not be made of solid metal, but may consist of spiral coils which allow a more exact regulation, and high inductance motors may be used.

The circuits shown in Fig. 17, Fig. 18 and Fig. 19 may be used with resonance and particularly with induction capacitor motors; between the large stator induction capacitor surfaces, small reversing pole capacitors are connected which are lead together to earth. Such reversing poles have the advantage that, with large quantities of electrical energy, the spark formation between the separate oscillation circuits ceases.

Fig. 19 shows another method which prevents high frequency electromagnetic oscillations formed in the oscillation circuit, feeding back to the aerial. It is based on the well known principle that a mercury lamp, one electrode of which is formed of mercury, the other of solid metal such as steel, allows an electric charge to pass in only one direction: from the mercury to the steel and not vice versa. The mercury electrode of the vacuum tube \(N\) is therefore connected with the aerial conductor and the steel electrode with the oscillation circuit. Charges can then only pass from the aerial through the vacuum tube to the oscillation circuit and no flow occurs in the opposite direction. In practice, these vacuum tubes must be connected behind an electromagnet as the latter alone provides no protection against the danger of lightning.

As regards the use of spark gaps, all arrangements as used for wireless telegraphy may be used. Of course, the spark gaps in large machines must have a sufficiently large surface. In very large stations they are cooled in liquid carbonic acid or better still, in liquid nitrogen or hydrogen; in most cases the cooling may also take place by means of liquefied low homologues of the metal series or by means of hydrocarbons, the freezing point of which lies between \(-90^\circ\mathrm{C}\) and \(-40^\circ\mathrm{C}\). The spark gap casing must also be insulated and be of sufficient strength to be able to resist any pressure which may arise. Any undesirable excess super-pressure which may be formed must
be let off automatically. I have employed with very good results, mercury electrodes which were frozen in liquid carbonic acid, the cooling being maintained during the operation from the outside, through the walls.

**Fig. 20** shows one of the most simple forms of construction of an aerial network in combination with collectors, transformers and the like. **E** is the earth wire, **8** the safety spark gap, **7** the working spark gap, **1** and **2** the stator surfaces of the motor, **5** a capacitor battery, **S** the protective magnet which is connected with the coil in the aerial conductor, **A** to **A** aerial antennae with collecting balloons, **N** horizontal collecting or connecting wires, from which, a number of connections run to the centre.

The actual collectors consist of metal sheaths, preferably made of an aluminium magnesium alloy, and are filled with hydrogen or helium, and are attached to copper-plated steel wires. The size of the balloon is selected so that the actual weight of the balloon and its conducting wire is supported by it. Aluminium spikes, made and gilded as described below, are arranged on top of the balloons in order to produce a conductor action. Small quantities of radium preparations, more particularly, polonium-ionium or mesothorium preparations, considerably increase the ionisation, and the performance of these collectors.

In addition to metal balloons, fabric balloons which are sprayed with a metallic coating according to Schoop's metal-spraying process may also be used. A metallic surface may also be produced by lacquering with metallic bronzes, preferably according to Schoop's spraying process, or lacquering with metallic bronze powders in two electrical series of widely different metals, because this produces a considerably increased collecting effect.

Instead of the ordinary round balloons, elongated cigar-shaped ones may be employed. In order also to utilise the frictional energy of the wind, patches or strips of non-conducting substances which produce electricity by friction, may be attached to the metallised balloon surfaces. The wind will impart a portion of its energy in the form of frictional electricity, to the balloon casing, thus substantially increasing the collection effect.

In practice however, very high towers of up to 300 metres may be employed as antennae. In these towers, copper tubes rise freely further above the top of the tower. A gas lamp secured against the wind is then lit at the point of the copper tube and a netting is secured to the copper tube over the flame of this lamp to form a collector. The gas is conveyed through the interior of the tube, up to the summit. The copper tube must be absolutely protected from moisture at the place where it enters the tower, and rain must be prevented from running down the walls of the tower, which might lead to a bad catastrophe. This is done by bell-shaped enlargements which expand downwards, being arranged in the tower in the form of high voltage insulators of Siamese pagodas.

Special attention must be devoted to the foundations of such towers. They must be well insulated from the ground, which may be achieved by first embedding a layer of concrete in a box form to a sufficient depth in the ground, and inserting in this, an asphalt lining and then glass bricks cast about 1 or 2 metres in thickness. Over this in turn, there is a ferro-concrete layer in which alone the metal foot of the tube is secured. This concrete block must be at least 2 metres from the ground and at the sides, be fully protected from moisture by a wooden covering. In the lower part of the tower, a wood or glass housing should be constructed to protect the capacitors and/or motors. In order to ensure that the ground lead connects to the water-table, a well insulated pit lined with vitreous bricks must be provided. Several such towers are erected at equal distances apart and connected with a horizontal conductor. The horizontal connecting wires may either run directly from tower to tower or be carried on bell-shaped insulators similar to those in use for high voltage electricity transmission lines. The width of the aerial tower network may be of any suitable size and the connection of the motors can take place at any convenient location.
In order to collect large quantities of electricity with few aerials, it is as well to provide the aerial conductor with sets of capacitors as shown in the two methods of construction illustrated in Fig.21 and Fig.22. In Fig.21 the set of capacitors 5 is connected between the aerials Z via lead A and an annular conductor from which horizontal run to the connecting points C to which the earth wire is connected. Fig.22 shows a similar arrangement.

Should two such series of antenna rings be shown by a volt meter to have a large voltage difference (for example, one in the mountains and one on the plain) or even of a different polarity, these differences may be compensated for by connecting sufficiently large capacitor sets (5, 5a, 5b) by means of Maji star conductors D and D1. Fig.23 shows a connection of three such rings of collectors are positioned in a triangle with a central set of capacitors.

The capacitor sets of such large installations must be embedded in liquefied gasses or in liquids freezing at very low temperatures. In such cases, a portion of the atmospheric energy must be employed for liquefying these gasses. It is also preferable to employ pressure. By this means, the capacitor surfaces may be reduced in area and still allow the storage of large quantities of energy to be stored, secure against breakdown. For the smaller installations, the immersing of the capacitors in well insulated oil or the like, is sufficient. Solid substances, on the other hand, cannot be employed as insulators.

The arrangement in the diagrams shown earlier has always shown both poles of the capacitors connected to the aerial conductors. An improved method of connection has been found to be very advantageous. In this method, only one pole of each capacitor is connected to the collecting network. Such a method of connection is very important, as by means of it, a constant current and an increase in the normal working voltage is obtained. If, for example, a collecting balloon aerial which is allowed to rise to a height of 300 metres, shows 40,000 volts above earth voltage, in practice it has been found that the working voltage (with a withdrawal of the power as described earlier by means of oscillating spark gaps and the like) is only about 400 volts. If however, the capacity of the capacitor surfaces be increased, which capacity in the above mentioned case was equal to that of the collecting surface of the balloon aerials, to double the amount, by connecting the capacitors with only one pole, the voltage rises under an equal withdrawal of current up to and beyond 500 volts. This can only be ascribed to the favourable action of the connecting method.
In addition to this substantial improvement it has also been found preferable to insert double inductances with electromagnets and to place the capacitors preferably between two such electromagnets. It has also been found that the useful action of such capacitors can be further increased if an induction coil is connected as an inductive resistance to the unconnected pole of the capacitor, or still better if the capacitor itself be made as an induction capacitor. Such a capacitor may be compared to a spring, which when compressed, carries in itself accumulated force, which it gives off again when released. In charging, a charge with reversed sign is formed at the other free capacitor pole, and if a short circuit occurs through the spark gap, the accumulated energy is again given back since now new quantities of energy are induced at the capacitor pole connected to the conductor network, which in fact, charges with opposite sign to that at the free capacitor pole. The new induced charges have of course, the same sign as the collector network. The whole voltage energy in the aerial is thereby increased. In the same time interval, larger quantities of energy are accumulated than is the case without such capacitor sets being inserted.

In Fig.24 and Fig.25, two different connection diagrams are illustrated in more detail. Fig.24 shows a collecting balloon along with its earth connections. Fig.25 shows four collecting balloons and the parallel connection of their capacitor sets.

A is the collecting balloon made of an aluminium magnesium alloy (electron metal magnalium) of a specific gravity of 1.8 and a plate thickness of 0.1 mm to 0.2 mm. Inside, there are eight strong vertical ribs of T-shaped section of about 10 mm to 20 mm in height and about 3 mm in thickness, with the projecting part directed inwards (indicated by a, b, c, d and so forth). They are riveted together to form a firm skeleton and are stiffened in a horizontal direction by two cross ribs. The ribs are further connected to one another internally and transversely by means of thin steel wires, whereby the balloon obtains great strength and elasticity. Rolled plates of 0.1 mm to 0.2 mm in thickness made of magnalium alloy are then either soldered or riveted on to this skeleton so that a fully metallic casing with a smooth external surface is created. Well silvered or coppered aluminium plated steel wires run from each rib to the fastening ring 2. Further, the coppered steel hawser L, preferably twisted out of separate thin wires (shown as dotted lines in Fig.24) and which must be long enough to allow the balloon to rise to the
desired height, leads to a metal roller or pulley 3 and on to a winch W, which must be well insulated from the earth. By means of this winch, the balloon which is filled with hydrogen or helium, can be allowed to rise to a suitable height of 300 to 5,000 metres, and brought to the ground for recharging or repairs.

The actual current is taken directly through a friction contact from the metal roller 3 or from the wire or even from the winch, or simultaneously from all three by means of brushes (3, 3a and 3b). Beyond the brushes, the conductor is divided, the paths being:-- firstly, over 12 to the safety spark gap 8, on to the earth conductor E1, and secondly over electromagnet S1, point 13, to a second loose electromagnet having an adjustable coil S2, then to the spark gap 7 and to the second earth conductor E2. The actual working circuit is formed through the spark gap 7, capacitors 5 and 6, and through the primary coil 9; here the static electricity formed by oscillatory discharges is accumulated and converted into high frequency electromagnetic oscillations. Between the electromagnets S1 and S2 at the crossing point 13, four capacitor sets are introduced which are only indicated diagramitically in the drawings by a single capacitor. Two of these sets of capacitors (16 and 18) are made as plate capacitors and prolonged by regulating induction coils or spirals 17 and 19 while the two others (21 and 23) are induction capacitors. As may be seen from the drawings, each of the four capacitor sets, 16, 18, 21 and 23 is connected by only one pole to either the aerial or to the collector conductor. The second poles 17, 19, 22 and 24 are open. In the case of plate capacitors having no inductive resistance, an induction coil is inserted. The object of such a spiral or coil is the displacement of phase of the induction current by 1/4 periods, whilst the charging current of the capacitor poles which lie free in the air, works back to the collector aerial. The consequence of this is that in discharges in the collector aerial, the back-inductive action of the free poles allows a higher voltage to be maintained in the aerial collecting conductor than would otherwise be the case. It has also been found that such a back action has an extremely favourable effect on the wear of the contacts. Of course, the inductive effect may be regulated at will within the limits of the size of the induction coil, the length of the coil in action being adjustable by means of wire connection without induction (see Fig.24 No. 20).

S1 and S2 may also be provided with such regulating devices, in the case of S2 illustrated by 11. If excess voltage be formed, it is conducted to earth through wire 12 and spark gap 8, or through any other suitable apparatus, since this voltage would be dangerous for the other components. The action of these capacitor sets has already been described.

The small circles on the collector balloon indicate places where small patches of extremely thin layers (0.01 to 0.05 mm thick) of zinc amalgam, gold amalgam or other photoelectric acting metals, are applied to the balloon casing of light metal. Such metallic patches may also be applied to the entire balloon as well as in greater thickness to the conducting network. The capacity of the collector is thereby considerably strengthened at the surface. The greatest possible effect in collecting may be obtained by polonium amalgams and the like. On the surface of the collector balloon, metal points or spikes are also fixed along the ribs. These spikes enhance the charge collection operation. Since it is well known that the sharper the spikes, the less the resistance of the spikes, it is therefore extremely important to use spikes which are as sharp as possible. Experiments have shown that the formation of the body of the spike or point also play a large part, for example, spikes made of bars or rollers with smooth surfaces, have point resistance many times greater than those with rough surfaces. Various kinds of spike bodies have been experimented with for the collector balloons and the best results were given with spikes which were made in the following way: Fine points made of steel, copper, nickel or copper and nickel alloys, were fastened together in bundles and then placed as anode with the points placed in a suitable electrolyte (preferably in hydrochloric acid or muriate of iron solutions) and so treated with weak current driven by 2 to 3 volts. After 2 to 3 hours, according to the thickness of the spikes, the points become extremely sharp and the bodies of the spikes have a rough surface. The bundle can then be removed and the acid washed off with water. The spikes are then placed as cathode in a bath containing a solution of gold, platinum, iridium, palladium or wolfram salts or their compounds, and coated at the cathode galvanically with a thin layer of precious metal, which must however be sufficiently firm to protect them from atmospheric oxidation.

Such spikes act at a 20 fold lower voltage almost as well as the best and finest points made by mechanical means. Still better results are obtained if polonium or radium salts are added to the galvanic bath when forming the protective layer or coating. Such pins have low resistance at their points and have excellent collector action even at one volt or lower.

In Fig.24, the three unconnected poles are not connected with one another in parallel. That is quite possible in practice without altering the principle of the free pole. It is also preferable to interconnect a series of collecting aerials in parallel to a common collector network. Fig.25 shows such an arrangement. A1, A2, A3, A4 are four metal collector balloons with gold or platinum coated spikes which are electrolytically mad in the presence of polonium emanations or radium salts, the spikes being connected over four electromagnets S1, S2, S3, S4, through an annular conductor R. From this annular conductor, four wires run over four further electromagnets Sb, Sc, Sd, to the connecting point 13. There, the conductor is divided, one branch passing over 12 and the safety spark gap 7 to the earth at E1, the other over inductive resistance J and working spark gap 7 to the earth at
$E^2$. The working circuit, consisting of the capacitors 5 and 6 and a resonance motor or a capacitor motor $M$, such as already described, is connected in proximity around the sparking gap section 7. Of course, instead of connecting the capacitor motor directly, the primary circuit for high frequency oscillatory current may also be inserted.

The capacitor sets are connected by one pole to the annular conductor $R$ and can be either inductionless (16 and 18) or made as induction capacitors as shown by 21 and 23. The free poles of the inductionless capacitors are indicated by 17 and 19, and those of the induction capacitors by 22 and 24. As may be seen from the drawings, all of these poles 17, 22, 19 and 24 may be interconnected in parallel through a second annular conductor without any fear that thereby the principle of the free pole connection will be lost. In addition to the advantages already mentioned, the parallel connection also allows an equalisation of the working voltage in the entire collector network. Suitably calculated and constructed induction coils 25 and 26 may also be inserted in the annular conductor of the free poles, by means of which, a circuit may be formed in the secondary coils 27 and 28 which allows current produced in this annular conductor by fluctuations of the charges, to be measured or otherwise utilised.

According to what has already been stated, separate collector balloons may be connected at equidistant stations distributed over the whole country, either connected directly with one another metallically or by means of intermediate suitably connected capacitor sets through high voltage conductors insulated from earth. The static electricity is converted through a spark gap, into high frequency dynamic electricity which may be utilised as a source of energy by means of a suitable connection method, various precautions being observed, and with special regulations. The wires leading from the collector balloons, have up to now been connected through an annular conductor without this endless connection, which can be regarded as an endless induction coil, being able to exert any action on the whole conductor system.

It has now been found that if the network conductor connecting the aerial collector balloons with one another, is not made as a simple annular conductor, but preferably short-circuited in the form of coils over a capacitor set or spark gap or through thermionic valves, then the total collecting network exhibits quite new properties. The collection of atmospheric electricity is thereby not only increased but an alternating field may easily be produced in the collector network. Further, the atmospheric electrical forces showing themselves in the higher regions, may also be obtained directly by induction. In Fig.26 and Fig.28, a form of construction is shown, on the basis of which, the further foundations of the method will be explained in more detail.
In Fig.26, 1, 2, 3 and 4 are metallic collector balloons, with 5, 6, 7 and 8 their metallic aerial conductors and I the actual collector network. This consists of five coils and is mounted on high voltage insulators in the air, on high voltage masts (or with a suitable construction of cable, embedded in the earth). One coil has a diameter of 1 to 100 km. or more. S and S1 are two protective electromagnets, F is the second safety section against excess voltage, E its earth conductor and E1 the earth conductor of the working section. When an absorption of static atmospheric electricity is effected through the four balloon collectors, in order to reach the earth connection E1, the current must flow spirally through the collector network, over the electromagnet S, primary induction coil 9, conductor 14, anode A of the audion tube, incandescent cathode K, as the way over the electromagnet and safety spark gap F offers considerably greater resistance. Owing to the fact that the accumulated current flows in one direction, an electromagnetic alternating field is produced in the interior of the collector network coil, whereby all of the free electrons are directed more or less into the interior of the coil. An increased ionisation of the atmosphere is therefore produced. Consequently, the points mounted on the collector balloon, show a considerably reduced resistance and therefore increased static charges are produced between the points on the balloon and the surrounding atmosphere. This results in a considerably increased collector effect.

A second effect, which could not be achieved in any other way, is obtained by the alternating electromagnetic field running parallel to the earth's surface, which acts more or less with a diminishing or increasing effect on the earth's magnetic field, whereby in the case of fluctuations in the current, a return induction current of reversed sign is always produced in the collector coil by earth magnetism. Now if a constantly pulsating, continuous alternating field is produced as stated in the collector network I, an alternating current of the same frequency is also produced in the collecting network coil. As the same alternating field is further transmitted to the aerial balloon, the resistance of its points is thereby considerably reduced, while the collector action is considerably increased. A further advantage is that positive charges which collect on the metal surfaces during the conversion into dynamic current, produce a so-called voltage drop in the collector area. As an alternating field is present, when discharge of the collector surfaces takes place, the negative ions surrounding the collector surfaces produce, by the law of induction, an induction of reversed sign on the collector surface - that is, a positive charge.

In addition to the advantages already stated, the construction of connecting conductors in coil form, when of
sufficiently large diameter, allows a utilisation of energy arising in higher regions, also in the most simple way. As is well known, electric discharges frequently take place at very great elevations which may be observed, such as ‘St. Elmo’s fires’ or ‘northern lights’. These energy quantities have not been able to have been utilised before now. By this invention, all of these kinds of energy, as they are of electromagnetic nature and since the axis of the collector coils is at right angles to the earth’s surface, can be absorbed in the same way as a radio absorbs distant radio signals. With a large diameter of the spiral, it is possible to connect large surfaces and thereby take up large quantities of energy.

It is well known that in the summer months and in the tropics, large radio stations are very frequently unable to receive signals due to interruptions caused by atmospheric electricity, and this takes place with vertical coils of only 40 to 100 metres in diameter. If, on the contrary, horizontal coils of 1 to 100 kilometres in diameter are used, very strong currents may be obtained through discharges which are constantly taking place in the atmosphere. Particularly in the tropics, or still better in the polar regions where the northern lights are constantly present, large quantities of energy may probably be obtained in this way. A coil with several windings should perform the best. In a similar manner, any alteration of the earth’s magnetic field should act inductively on such a coil.

It is not at all unlikely that earthquakes and sunspots will also produce an induction in collector coils of that size. In similar manner, this collector conductor will react to earth currents more particularly when they are near the surface of the earth or even embedded in the earth. By combining the previous kind of current collectors, so far as they are adapted for the improved system with the improved possibilities of obtaining current, the quantities of free natural energy which are to be obtained in the form of electricity are considerably increased.

In order to produce uniform undamped current oscillations in the improved collector coil, so-called audion high vacuum or thermionic valves are used instead of the previous described spark gaps (Fig.26, 9-18). The main aerial current flows through electromagnet S (which in the case of a high number of alternations is not connected here but in the earth conductor E) and may be conveyed over the primary coils in the induction winding through wire 14 to the anode A of the high vacuum grid valve. Parallel with the induction resistance 9, a regulating capacity of suitable size, such as capacitor 11, is inserted. In the lower part of the vacuum grid valve is the incandescent filament cathode K which is fed through a battery B. From the battery, two branches run, one to the earth conductor E and the other through battery B1 and secondary coil 10 to the grid anode g of the vacuum tube. By the method of connections shown in dotted lines, a desired voltage may also be produced at the grid electrode g through wire 17 which is branched off from the main current conductor through switches 16 and some small capacitors (a, b, c, d) connected in series, and conductor 18, without the battery B1 being required. The action of the whole system is somewhat as follows:-

On the connecting conductor of the aerial collector network being short-circuited to earth, the capacitor pole 11 is charged, and slightly dampened oscillations are formed in the short-circuited oscillation circuit formed by capacitor 11 and self inductance 9. Because of the coupling through coil 10, voltage fluctuations of the same frequency take place in the grid circuit 15 and in turn, these fluctuations influence the strength of the electrode current passing through the high vacuum amplifying valve and thus produce current fluctuations of the same frequency in the anode circuit. A permanent supply of energy. Consequently, a permanent supply of energy is supplied to the oscillation circuits 9 and 10 takes place, until a balance is achieved where the oscillation energy consumed exactly matches the energy absorbed. This produces constant undamped oscillations in the oscillation circuits 9 - 11.

For regular working of such oscillation producers, high vacuum strengthening tubes are necessary and it is also necessary that the grid and anode voltages shall have a phase difference of 180° so that if the grid is negatively charged, then the anode is positively charged and vice versa. This necessary difference of phase may be obtained by most varied connections, for example, by placing the oscillating circuit in the grid circuit or by separating the oscillation circuit and inductive coupling from the anodes and the grid circuit, and so forth.

A second important factor is that care must be taken that the grid and anode voltages have a certain relation to one another; the latter may be obtained by altering the coupling and a suitable selection of the self induction in the grid circuit, or as shown by the dotted lines 18, 17, 16 by means of a larger or smaller number of capacitors of suitable size connected in series; in this case, the battery B1 may be omitted. With a suitable selection of the grid potential, a glow discharge takes place between the grid g and the anode A, and accordingly at the grid there is a cathode drop and a dark space is formed. The size of this cathode drop is influenced by the ions which are emitted in the lower space in consequence of shock ionisation of the incandescent cathodes K and pass through the grid in the upper space. On the other hand, the number of the ions passing through the grid is dependent on the voltage between the grid and the cathode. Thus, if the grid voltage undergoes periodic fluctuations (as in the present case), the amount of the cathode drop at the grid fluctuates, and consequently, the internal resistance of the valve fluctuates correspondingly, so that when a back-coupling of the feed circuit with the grid circuit takes
place, the necessary means are in place for producing undamped oscillations and of taking current as required, from the collecting conductor.

With a suitably loose coupling, the frequency of the undamped oscillations produced is equal to the self-frequency of the oscillation circuits 9 and 10. By selecting a suitable self-induction for coil 9 and capacitor 11, it is possible to extend operation from frequencies which produce electromagnetic oscillations with a wavelength of only a few metres, down to the lowest practical alternating current frequency. For large installations, a suitable number of frequency producing tubes in the form of the well known high vacuum transmission tubes of 0.5 kW to 2 kW in size may be connected in parallel so that in this respect, no difficulty exists.

The use of such tubes for producing undamped oscillations, and the construction and method of inserting such transmission tubes in an accumulator or dynamo circuit is known, also, such oscillation producing tubes only work well at voltages of 1,000 volts up to 4,000 volts, so that on the contrary, their use at lower voltages is considerably more difficult. By the use of high voltage static electricity, this method of producing undamped oscillations as compared with that through spark gaps, must be regarded as an ideal solution, particularly for small installations with outputs from 1 kW to 100 kW.

By the application of safety spark gaps, with interpolation of electromagnets, not only is short-circuiting avoided but also the taking up of current is regulated. Oscillation producers inserted in the above way, form a constantly acting alternating electromagnetic field in the collector coil, whereby, as already stated, a considerable accumulating effect takes place. The withdrawal or ‘working’ wire is connected at 12 and 13, but current may be taken by means of a secondary coil which is firmly or moveably mounted in any suitable way inside the large collector coil, i.e. in its alternating electromagnetic field, so long as the direction of its axis is parallel to that of the main current collecting coil.

In producing undamped oscillations of a high frequency (50 KHz and more) in the oscillation circuits 9 and 11, electromagnets S and S1 must be inserted if the high frequency oscillations are not to penetrate the collector coil, between the oscillation producers and the collector coil. In all other cases they are connected shortly before the earthing (as in Fig.27 and Fig.28).

In Fig.27 a second method of construction of the connecting conductor of the balloon aerials is illustrated in the form of a coil. The main difference is that in addition to the connecting conductor I another annular conductor II is inserted parallel to the former on the high voltage masts in the air (or embedded as a cable in the earth) but both in the form of a coil. The connecting wire of the balloon aerials is both a primary conductor and a current producing network while the coil is the consumption network and is not in unipolar connection with the current producing network.
In Fig. 27 the current producing network I is shown with three balloon collectors 1, 2, 3 and aerial conductors 4, 5, 6; it is short-circuited through capacitor 19 and inductor 9. The oscillation forming circuit consists of spark gap f, inductor 10 and capacitor 11. The earth wire E is connected to earth through electromagnet $S^1$. $F_I$ is the safety spark gap which is also connected to earth through a second electromagnet $S_{II}$ at $E_{II}$. On connecting up the capacitor circuit 11 it is charged over the spark gap f and an oscillatory discharge is formed. This discharging current acts through inductor 10 on the inductively coupled secondary 9, which causes a change in the producing network, by modifying the voltage on capacitor 19. This causes oscillations in the coil-shaped producer network. These oscillations induce a current in the secondary circuit II, which has a smaller number of windings and lower resistance, consequently, this produces a lower voltage and higher current in it.

In order to convert the current thus obtained, into current of an undamped character, and to tune its wavelengths, a sufficiently large regulatable capacitor 20 is inserted between the ends 12 and 13 of the secondary conductor II. Here also, current may be taken without an earth conductor, but it is advisable to insert a safety spark gap $E^I$ and to connect this with the earth via electromagnet $S^2$. The producer network may be connected with the working network II over an inductionless capacitor 21 or over an induction capacitor 22, 23. In this case, the secondary conductor is unipolarly connected with the energy conductor.

In Fig. 28, the connecting conductor between the separate collecting balloons is carried out according to the autotransformer principle. The collecting coil connects four aerial balloons 1, 2, 3, 4, the windings of which are not made side-by-side but one above the other. In Fig. 28, the collector coil I is shown with a thin line and the metallically connected prolongation coils II with a thick line. Between the ends $I^1$ and $II^1$ of the energy network I, a regulating capacitor 19 is inserted. The wire $I^1$ is connected with the output wire and with the spark gap F.
As transformer of the atmospheric electricity, an arrangement is employed which consists of using rotary pairs of capacitors in which the stator surface $B$ is connected with the main current, while the other $A$ is connected to the earth pole. These pairs of short-circuited capacitors are caused to rotate and the converted current can be taken from them via two collector rings and brushes. This current is alternating current with a frequency dependent on the number of balloons and the rate of revolutions of the rotor. As the alternating current formed in the rotor can act through coils $10$ on the inductor $9$, an increase or decrease of the feed current in $1$ can be obtained according to the direction of the current by back-induction. Current oscillations of uniform rhythm are produced in the coil-shaped windings of the producer network.

As the ends of this conductor are short-circuited through the regulatable capacitor $19$, these rhythms produce short-circuited undamped oscillations in the energy conductor. The frequency of these oscillations can be altered at will by adjusting the capacitance of capacitor $19$. These currents may also be used as working current via the conductors $II^{1}$ and $III$. By inserting capacitor $20$, a connection between these conductors may also be made, whereby harmonic oscillations of desired wavelength are formed. By this means, quite new effects as regards current distribution are obtained. The withdrawal of current can even take place without direct wire connection if, at a suitable point in the interior of the producing network (quite immaterially whether this has a diameter of 1 or 100 km) a coil tuned to these wavelength and of the desired capacity, is firmly or moveably mounted in the aerial conductor in such a way that its axis is parallel with the axis of the collector coil. In this case, a current is induced in the producing network, the size of which is dependent on the total capacity and resistance and on the frequency selected. A future possibility is taking energy from the producer network by radio signals as in addition to atmospheric electricity, magnetic earth currents and energy from the upper atmosphere may be tapped.

Of course, vacuum tubes may be used to produce undamped oscillations anywhere spark gaps are shown in the circuits. The separate large-diameter coils of the producer network may be connected to one another through separate conductors all in parallel or all in series or in groups in series. By regulating the number of oscillations and the magnitude of the voltage, more or fewer large collector coils of this kind may be used. The coils may also be divided spirally over the entire section. The coils may be carried out in annular form or in triangular, quadrangular, hexagonal or octagonal form.

Of course, wires which form guides for the current waves, may be carried from a suitable place to the centre or also laterally. This is necessary when the currents have to be conducted over mountains and valleys and so forth. In all these cases, the current must be converted into a current of suitable frequency.

As already mentioned, separate collecting balloons may be directly metallically interconnected an equidistant stations distributed over the entire country, or may be connected by interpolation of suitable capacitor sets by means of high voltage conductors. The static electricity is converted through a spark gap into dynamic energy of high frequency and could then in that form be used as an energy source after special regulation.

According to this invention, in order to increase the collecting effect of the balloon in the aerial collector conductor or in the earth wire, radiating collectors are used. These consist of either incandescent metal or oxide electrodes in the form of vacuum grid valves, or electric arcs (mercury or similar electrodes), Nernst lamps, or flames of various kinds maybe simply connected with the respective conductor.

It is well known that energy can be drawn off from a cathode consisting of an incandescent body opposite an anode charged with positive electricity (vacuum grid tube). Hitherto however, a cathode was always first directly placed opposite an anode, and secondly, the system always consisted of a closed circuit.

Now if we dispense with the ordinary ideas in forming light or flame arcs in which a cathode must always stand directly opposite an anode charged to a high voltage or another body freely floating in the air, or consider the incandescent cathode to be only a source of unipolar discharge, (which represents group and point discharges in electro-static machines similar to unipolar discharges), it may be ascertained that incandescent cathodes and less perfectly, all incandescent radiators, flames and the like, have relatively large current densities and allow large quantities of electric energy to radiate into open space in the form of electron streams as transmitters.

The object of this invention is as described below, if such incandescent oxide electrodes or other incandescent radiators or flames are not freely suspended in space but instead are connected metallically with the earth so that they can be charged with negative terrestrial electricity, these radiators possess the property of absorbing the free positive electrical charges contained in the air space surrounding them (that is to say, of collecting them and conducting them to earth). They can therefore serve as collectors and have in comparison to the action of the spikes, a very large radius of action $R$; the effective capacity of these collectors is much greater than the geometrical capacity ($R_0$) calculated in an electro-static sense.

As is well known, our earth is surrounded with an electro-static field and the difference of potential $dV/dh$ of the earth field according to the latest investigations, is in summer about 60 to 100 volts, and in winter, 300 to 500 volts
per metre difference in height, a simple calculation gives the result that when such a radiation collector or flame collector is arranged, for example, on the ground, and a second one is mounted vertically over it at a distance of 2,000 metres and both are connected by a conducting cable, there is a voltage difference in summer of about 2,000,000 volts and in winter 6,000,000 volts or more.

According to Stefan Boltzmann’s law of radiation, the quantity of energy which an incandescent surface (temperature $T$) of 1 sq. cm. radiates in a unit of time into the open air (temperature $T_0$) is expressed by the following formula:

$$S = R \left( T^4 - T_0^4 \right) \text{ watts per square centimetre}$$

and the universal radiation constant $R$, according to the latest researches of Ferry, is equal to $6.30 \times 10^{-12}$ watts per square centimetre.

Now, if an incandescent surface of 1 sq. cm., as compared to the surrounding space, shows a periodic fall of potential $dV$, it radiates (independent of the direction of the current) in accordance with the above formula, for example at a temperature of $3715^0 \text{ C}$, an energy of $1.6 \text{ kW}$ per square centimetre. As for the radiation, the same value can be calculated for the collection of energy, but reversed. Now, as carbon electrodes at the temperature of the electric arc, support a current density up to 60 to 65 amps per sq. cm., no difficulties will result in this direction in employing radiating collectors as accumulators.

If the earth be regarded as a cosmically insulated capacitor in the sense of geometrical electro-statics $x$, according to Chwolson, there results from the geometric capacity of the earth:

For negative charging $1.3 \times 10^6 \text{ Coulomb}$

For negative potential $V = 10 \times 10^8 \text{ volts}$.

It follows from this that $EJT$ is approximately equal to $24.7 \times 10^{24}$ watts/sec. Now if it is desired to make a theoretical short circuit through an earthed flame collector, this would represent an electrical total work of about $79,500 \times 10^{10}$ kilowatt years. As the earth must be regarded as a rotating mechanism which is thermodynamically, electromagnetically and kinematically coupled with the sun and star system by cosmic radiation and gravitation, a reduction in the electric energy of the earth field can not be feared. The energies which the incandescent collectors could withdraw from the earth field can only cause a lowering of the earth temperature. This is however, not the case as the earth does not represent a cosmically entirely insulated system. On the contrary, there is conveyed from the sun to the earth an energy of $18,500 \times 10^{10}$ kilowatts. Accordingly, any lowering of the earth temperature without a simultaneous lowering of the sun’s temperature would contradict Stefan Boltzmann’s law of radiation.

From this it must be concluded that if the earth temperature sinks, the total radiation absorbed by the earth increases, and further, the rate of cooling of the earth is directly dependent on that of the sun and the other radiators cosmically coupled with the sun.

The incandescent radiation collectors may, according to this invention, be used for collecting atmospheric electricity if they (1) are charged with the negative earth electricity (that is to say, when they are directly connected to the earth by means of a metallic conductor) and (2) if large capacities (metal surfaces) charged with electricity are mounted opposite them as positive poles in the air. This is regarded as the main feature of the present invention as without these inventive ideas it would not be possible to collect with an incandescent collector, sufficiently large quantities of the electrical charges contained in the atmosphere as technology requires; the radius of action of the flame collectors would also be too small, especially if it be considered that the very small surface density does not allow of large quantities of charge being absorbed from the atmosphere.

It has already been proposed to employ flame collectors for collecting atmospheric electricity and it is known that their collecting effect is substantially greater opposite the points. It is however, not known that the quantities of current which hitherto be obtained are too small for technical purposes. According to my experiments, the reason for this is to be found in the inadequate capacities of the collector conductor poles. If such flame or radiating collectors have no or only small positive surfaces, their radius of action for large technical purposes is too small. If the incandescent collectors be constantly kept in movement in the air, they may collect more according to the speed of the movement, but this is again not capable of being carried out in practice.

By this invention, the collector effect is considerably increased by a body charged with a positive potential and of the best possible capacity, being also held floating (without direct earth connection) opposite such an incandescent collector which is held floating in the air at a desired height. If, for example, a collecting balloon of sheet metal or metallised fabric, be caused to mount to 300 to 3,000 metres in the air, and as a positive pole it is brought opposite such a radiating collector connected by a conductor to earth, quite different results are obtained.
The metallic balloon shell which has a large surface area is charged to a high potential by atmospheric electricity. This potential is greater the higher the collecting balloon is above the incandescent collector. The positive electricity acts concentratedly on the anode floating in the air as it is attracted through the radiation shock ionisation, proceeding from the incandescent cathode. The consequence of this is that the radius of action of the incandescent cathode collector is considerably increased and so is the collecting effect of the balloon surface. Further, the large capacity of the anode floating in the air, plays therefore an important part because it allows the collection of large charges resulting in a more uniform current even when there is substantial current withdrawal - this cannot be the case with small surfaces.

In the present case, the metallic collecting balloon is a positive anode floating in the air and the end of the earth conductor of this balloon serves as positive pole surface opposite the surface of the radiating incandescent cathode, which in turn is charged with negative earth electricity as it is connected to the earth by a conductor. The process may be carried out by two such contacts (negative incandescent cathode and anode end of a capacity floating in the air) a capacitor and an inductive resistance being switched on in parallel, whereby simultaneously undamped oscillations may be formed.

In very large installations it is advisable to connect two such radiating collectors in series. Thus an arc light incandescent cathode may be placed below on the open ground and an incandescent cathode which is heated by special electro-magnetic currents, be located high in the air. Of course for this, the special vacuum Liebig tubes with or without grids may also be used. An ordinary arc lamp with oxide electrodes may be introduced on the ground and the positive pole is not directly connected with the collecting balloon, but through the upper incandescent cathode or over a capacitor. The method of connecting the incandescent cathode floating in the air may be seen in Figs.29-33.

B is the air balloon, K a Cardan ring (connection with the hawser) C the balloon, L a good conducting cable, P a positive pole, N negative incandescent cathode and E the earth conductor.

![Diagram](image)

**Fig.29** represents the simplest form of construction. If electric oscillations are produced below on the ground by means of a carbon arc lamp or in any other suitable way, a considerably greater electric resistance is opposed to that in the direct way by inserting an electrical inductive resistance 9. Consequently, between P and N, a voltage is formed, and as, over N and P only an inductionless ohmic resistance is present, a spark will spring over as long as the separate induction coefficients and the like are correctly calculated. The consequence of this is that the oxide electrode (carbon or the like) is rendered incandescent and then shows as incandescent cathode, an increased collecting effect. The positive poles must be substantially larger than the negative in order that they may not also become incandescent. As they are further connected with the large balloon area which has a large capacity and is charged at high voltage, an incandescent body which is held floating in the air and a positive pole which can collect large capacities is thereby obtained in the simplest way. The incandescent cathode is first
caused to become incandescent by means of separate energy produced on the earth, and then maintained by the energy collected from the atmosphere.

Fig. 30 only shows the difference that instead of a round balloon, a cigar-shaped one may be used, also, a capacitor $5$ is inserted between the incandescent cathode and the earth conductor so that a short-circuited oscillation circuit over PN $5$ and $9$ is obtained. This has the advantage that quite small quantities of electricity cause the cathode to become incandescent and much larger cathode bodies may be made incandescent.

In this form of construction, both the incandescent cathode and the positive electrode may be enclosed in a vacuum chamber as shown in Fig. 32. A cable $L$ is carried well insulated through the cover of a vessel and ends in a capacitor disc $5$. The cover is arched in order to keep the rain off. The vessel is entirely or partially made of magnetic metal and well insulated inside and outside. Opposite disc $5$ another disc $6$ and on this again a metallic positive pole of the vacuum tube $g$ with the incandescent cathode (oxide electrode) $N$ is arranged. The negative electrode is on the one hand connected to the earth conductor $E$, and on the other hand with the inductive resistance $9$ which is also connected with the cable $L$ with the positive pole and wound around the vessel in coils.
The action is exactly the same as that in Fig. 29 only instead of an open incandescent cathode, one enclosed in vacuo is used. As in such collectors, only small bodies be brought to incandescence, in large installations a plurality of such vacuum tubes must be inserted in proximity to one another. According to the previous constructions Fig. 31 and Fig. 33 are quite self evident without further explanations.
Figs. 34-37 represent further diagrams of connections over radiating and flame collectors, and in fact, how they are to be arranged on the ground.  Fig. 34 shows an arc light collector with oxide electrodes for direct current and its connection.  Fig. 35 shows a similar one for alternating current.  Fig. 36 an incandescent collector with a Nernst lamp and Fig. 37 a similar one with a gas flame.

The positive pole 1 of the radiating collectors is always directly connected to the aerial collecting conductor A. In Fig. 34, this is further connected over the capacitor set 5 with a second positive electrode 3. The direct current dynamo b produces current which flows over between the electrodes 3 and 2 as an arc light. On the formation of an arc, the negative incandescent electrode 2 absorbs electricity from the positive poles standing opposite it and highly charged with atmospheric electricity which it conveys to the working circuit. The spark gap 7, inductive resistance 9 and induction coil 10 are like the ones previously described. The protective electromagnet S protects the installation from earth circuiting and the safety spark gap 8 from excess voltage or overcharging.

In Fig. 35, the connection is so far altered that the alternating current dynamo feeds the excitation coil 11 of the induction capacitor. 12 is its negative and 13 its positive pole. If the coil 3 on the magnet core of the dynamo is correctly calculated and the frequency of the alternating current sufficiently high, then an arc light can be formed between poles 1 and 2. As the cathode 2 is connected to the negatively charged earth, and therefore always acts as a negative pole, a form of rectification of the alternating current produced by the dynamo 3 is obtained, since the second half of the period is always suppressed. The working circuit may be carried out in the same way as in Fig. 34; the working spark gap 7 may however be dispensed with, and instead of it, between the points n and m, a capacitor 5 and an induction resistance 9 may be inserted, from which, a current is taken inductively.

Fig. 36 represents a form of construction similar to that shown in Fig. 34 except that here instead of an arc lamp, a Nernst incandescent body is used. The Nernst lamp is fed through the battery 3. The working section is connected with the negative pole, the safety spark gap with the positive poles. The working spark gap 7 may also be dispensed with and the current for it taken at 12 over the oscillation circuit 5, 11 (shown in dotted lines).

Flame collectors (Fig. 37) may also be employed according to this invention. The wire network 1 is connected with the aerial collector conductor A and the burner with the earth. At the upper end of the burner, long points are provided which project into the flame. The positive electrode is connected with the negative over a capacitor 5 and the induction coil 9 with the earth.
The novelty in this invention is:

(1) The use of incandescent cathodes opposite positive poles which are connected to large metallic capacities as automatic collecting surfaces.

(2) The connection of the incandescent cathodes to the earth whereby, in addition to the electricity conveyed to them from the battery of machine which causes the incandescing, also the negative charge of the earth potential is conveyed, and

(3) The connection of the positive and negative poles of the radiating collectors over a capacitor circuit alone or with the introduction of a suitable inductive resistance, whereby simultaneously an oscillatory oscillation circuit may be obtained. The collecting effect is by these methods quite considerably increased.
APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING ELECTRICITY

ABSTRACT
A rectifier for use with apparatus for producing electricity from the earth consists of mercury-vapour lamps constructed and arranged as shown in Fig. 4. Each lamp comprises two wires 6<1>, 7<1> wound around a steel tube 15 surrounding a mercury tube 11 preferably of copper. The coil 6<1> is connected between the electrode 14 and the terminal 18, and the coil 7<1> between the terminals 19, 5. The coils 6<1>, 7<1> are preferably composed of soft iron.

DESCRIPTION
This invention relates to improvements in apparatus for the production of electrical currents, and the primary object in view is the production of a commercially serviceable electrical current without the employment of mechanical or chemical action. To this end the invention comprises means for producing what I believe to be dynamic electricity from the earth and its ambient elements.

I am, of course aware that it has been proposed to obtain static charges from upper strata of the atmosphere, but such charges are recognised as of widely variant potential and have thus far proved of no practical commercial value, and the present invention is distinguished from all such apparatus as has heretofore been employed for attracting static charges by the fact that this improved apparatus is not designed or employed to produce or generate irregular, fluctuating or other electrical charges which lack constancy, but on the other hand I have by actual test been able to produce from a very small apparatus at comparatively low elevation, say about 50 or 60 feet above the earth’s surface, a substantially constant current at a commercially usable voltage and amperage.

This current I ascertained by repeated tests is capable of being readily increased by additions of the unit elements in the apparatus described below, and I am convinced from the constancy of the current obtained and its comparatively low potential that the current is dynamic and not static, although, of course, it is not impossible that certain static discharges occur and, in fact, I have found occasion to provide against the damage which might result from such discharge by the provision of lightning arresters and cut-out apparatus which assist in rendering the obtained current stable by eliminating sudden fluctuations which sometimes occur during conditions of high humidity from what I consider static discharges.

The nature of my invention is obviously such that I have been unable to establish authoritatively all of the principles involved, and some of the theories herein expressed may possibly prove erroneous, but I do know and am able to demonstrate that the apparatus which I have discovered does produce, generate, or otherwise acquire a difference of potential representing a current amperage as stated above.

The invention comprises the means for producing electrical currents of serviceable potential substantially without the employment of mechanical or chemical action, and in this connection I have been able to observe no chemical action whatever on the parts utilised although deterioration may possibly occur in some of the parts, but so far as I am able to determine such deterioration does not add to the current supply but is merely incidental to the effect of climatic action.

The invention more specifically comprises the employment of a magnet or magnets and a co-operating element, such as zinc positioned adjacent to the magnet or magnets and connected in such manner and arranged relative to the earth so as to produce current, my observation being that current is produced only when such magnets have their poles facing substantially to the north and south and the zincs are disposed substantially along the magnets.

The invention also comprehends other details of construction, combinations and arrangements of parts as will be fully set forth.
DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a plan view of an apparatus embodying the features of the present invention, the arrow accompanying the figure indicating substantially the geographical north, parts of this figure are diagrammatic.

Fig. 2 is a view is side elevation of the parts seen in plan in Fig. 1.
Fig. 3 is a vertical section taken on the plane indicated by the line A--A of Fig. 2.
Fig. 4 is a detail view, partly in elevation and partly in section, showing the connections of the converter and intensifier.

Fig. 5 is a transverse section taken on the planes indicated by line 5-5 of Fig. 4, looking downwards.
Fig. 6 is an enlarged detail fragmentary section illustrating the parts at the junction of the conductors and one of the intensifiers.

Fig. 7 is an enlarged detail view partly in elevation and partly in section of one of the automatic cut-outs.
Fig. 8 is a diagrammatic view of one of the simplest forms of embodiment of the invention.

Referring to the drawing by numerals, 1,1 indicates magnets connected by a magnetic substance 2, preferably an iron wire. The magnets 1 are arranged in pairs, one pair being spaced beneath the other, and interposed between the magnets are zinc plates 3,3 connected by an iron wire conductor 4. Suitable insulating supports 5 are arranged for sustaining the respective magnets 1 and plates 3,3. Each plate 3 is preferably bent substantially into V form, as clearly seen in Fig.1, and the V of one of the plates opens or faces toward the North and the V of the other plate to the South. I have determined by experimentation that it is essential that the plates 3 be disposed substantially North and South with their flat faces approximately parallel to the adjacent faces of the cooperating magnets, although by experience I have not discovered any material difference in the current obtained when the plates are disposed slightly to one side of North and South, as for instance when the plates are disposed slightly to one side of North and South, as for instance when disposed in the line of the magnetic polarity of the earth. The same is true with respect to the magnets 1, the said magnets being disposed substantially North and South for operative purposes, although I find that it is immaterial whether the North pole of one of the magnets is disposed to the North and the South pole to the South, or vice versa, and it is my conviction from experience that it is essential to have the magnets of each pair connected by magnetic material so that the magnets substantially become one with a pole exposed to the North and a pole exposed to the South.

In Fig.1, I have indicated in full lines by the letters 8 and N the respective polarities of the magnets 1, and have indicated in dotted lines the other pole of those magnets when the connection 2 is severed. I have found that the magnets and zinc plates operate to produce, (whether by collection or generation I am not certain), electrical currents when disposed substantially North and South, but when disposed substantially East and West, no such currents are produced. I also find that the question of elevation is by no means vital, but it is true that more efficient results are obtained by placing the zinics and magnets on elevated supports. I furthermore find from tests, that it is possible to obtain currents from the apparatus with the zinics and magnets disposed in a building or otherwise enclosed, although more efficient results are obtained by having them located in the open.

While in Figures 1, 2, and 3, I have shown the magnets and the zinc plates as superimposed, it will be apparent, as described in detail below, that these elements may be repositioned in horizontal planes, and substantially the same results will be secured. Furthermore, the magnets 1 with the interposed zinics 3, as shown in Figures 1, 2 and 3 merely represent a unit which may be repeated either horizontally or vertically for increasing the current supply, and when the unit is repeated the zinc plates are arranged alternating with the magnets throughout the entire series as indicated below.

A conductor 6 is connected in multiple with the conductors 2 and a conductor 7 is connected with conductor 4, the conductor 6 extending to one terminal of a rectifier which I have indicated by the general reference character 8, and the conductor 7 extending to the other terminal of the rectifier. The rectifier as seen in the diagram Fig.1 may
assume any of several well known embodiments of the electrical valve type and may consist of four asymmetric cells or Cooper-Hewitt mercury vapour lamps connected as indicated in Fig. 1 for permitting communication of the positive impulses from the conductor 6 only to the line conductor 9 and the negative impulses from conductor 6 on only to the line conductor 10. The current from this rectifier may be delivered through the conductors 9 and 10 to any suitable source for consumption.

While the said rectifier 8 may consist of any of the known types, as above outlined, it preferably consists of a specially constructed rectifier which also has the capacity of intensifying the current and comprises specifically the elements shown in detail in Figures 4, 5, and 6 wherein I have disclosed the detail wiring of the rectifier when composed of four of the rectifying and intensify in elements instead of asymmetric cells or simple mercury vapour valves. As each of these structures is an exact embodiment of all the others, one only will be described, and the description will apply to all. The rectifying element of each construction consists of a mercury tube 11 which is preferably formed of glass or other suitable material, and comprises a cylinder having its end portions tapered and each terminating in an insulating plug or stopper 12. Through the upper stopper 12 is extended the electrode 13 which extends well into the tube and preferably about one-half its length, to a point adjacent the inner end of an opposing electrode 14 which latter electrode extends from there down through the insulation 12 at the lower end of the tube. The tube 11 is supplied with mercury and is adapted to operate on the principle of the mercury vapour lamp, serving to rectify current by checking back impulses of one sign and permitting passage of impulses of the other.

To avoid the necessity for utilising a starter, as is common with the lamp type of electrical valve, the supply of mercury within the tube may be sufficient to contact with the lower end of the electrode 13 when current is not being supplied, so that as soon as current is passed from one electrode to the other sufficiently for volatilising that portion of the mercury immediately adjacent the lower end of electrode 13, the structure begins its operation as a rectifier. The tube 11 is surrounded by a tube 15 which is preferably spaced from tube 11 sufficiently for allowing atmospheric or other cooling circulation to pass the tube 11. In some instances, it may be desirable to cool the tube 11 by a surrounding body of liquid, as mentioned below. The tube 15 may be of insulating material but I find efficient results attained by the employment of a steel tube, and fixed to the ends of the of the tube are insulating disks 16, 16 forming a spool on which are wound twin wires 6' and 7', the wire 6' being connected at the inner helix of the coil with the outer end of the electrode 14, the lower portion of said electrode being extended to one side of the tube 11 and passed through an insulating sleeve 17 extending through the tube 15, and at its outer end merging into the adjacent end of the wire 6'. The wire 7' extends directly from the outer portion of the spool through the several helices to a point adjacent to the junction of the electrode 14 with wire 6' and thence continues parallel to the wire throughout the coil, the wire 6' ending in a terminal 18 and the wire 7' ending in a terminal 19.

For the sake of convenience of description and of tracing the circuits, each of the apparatus just above described and herein known as an intensifier and rectifier will be mentioned as A, B, C and D, respectively. Conductor 6 is formed with branches 20 and 21 and conductor 7 is formed with similar branches 22 and 23. Branch 20 from conductor 6 connects with conductor 7' of intensifier B and branch 21 of conductor 6 connects with the conductor 7' of intensifier C, while branch 22 of conductor 7 of intensifier C, while branch 22 of conductor 7 connects with conductor 7' of intensifier D. A conductor 27 is connected to terminal 19 of intensifier A and extends to and is connected with the terminal 18 of intensifier C, and a conductor 27 connects with conductor 7' of intensifier D. A conductor 27 is connected to terminal 19 of intensifier A, and extends to and is connected to terminal 18 of intensifier C, and a conductor 28 is connected to the terminal 19 of intensifier C and extends from the terminal 19 of intensifier B to the terminal 18 of intensifier D to electrode 13 of intensifier B. Each electrode 13 is supported on a spider 13' resting on the upper disk 16 of the respective intensifier. Conductors 31 and 32 are connected to the terminals 18 of intensifiers A and B and are united to form the positive line wire 9 which co-operates with the negative line wire 10 and extends to any suitable point of consumption. The line wire 10 is provided with branches 35 and 36 extending to the electrodes 13 of intensifiers C and D to complete the negative side of the circuit.

Thus it will be seen that alternating currents produced in the wires 6 and 7 will be rectified and delivered in the form of a direct current through the line wires 9 and 10, and I find by experiment that the wires 6 and 7 should be of iron, preferably soft, and may of course be insulated, the other wiring not specified as iron being of copper or other suitable material.

In carrying out the operation as stated, the circuits may be traced as follows: A positive impulse starting at the zincls 3 is directed along conductor 7 to branch 23 to conductor 7' and the winding of the rectifier of intensifier B through the rectifier to the conductor 6', through its winding to the contact 18, conductor 32 and to the line wire 9. The next, or negative, impulse directed along conductor 7 cannot find its way along branch 23 and the circuit just above traced because it cannot pass across the rectifier of intensifier B but instead the negative impulse passes along conductor 22 to conductor 7 of intensifier A and its winding to the contact 19 and to conductor 27 to contact 18 of intensifier C, to the winding of the wire 6' thereof to the electrode 14 through the rectifier to the the
Obviously the positive impulse cannot pass along the wire 20 because of its inverse approach to the rectifier of intensifier B. The next impulse or negative impulse delivered to conductor 6 cannot pass along conductor 21 because of its connection with electrode 13 of the rectifier of intensifier A, but instead passes along conductor 20 to the wire 7' and its winding forming part of intensifier B to the contact 19 and conductor 29 to contact 18 and the winding of wire 6' of intensifier D to the electrode 14 and through the rectifier to the electrode 13 and conductor 35 to line wire 10. Thus the current is rectified and all positive impulses directed along one line and all negative impulses along the other lie s that the potential difference between the two lines will be maximum for the given current of the alternating circuit. It is, of course, apparent that a less number of intensifiers with their accompanying rectifier elements may be employed with a sacrifice of the impulses which are checked back from a lack of ability to pass the respective rectifier elements, and in fact I have secured efficient results by the use of a single intensifier with its rectifier elements, as shown below.

Grounding conductors 37 and 38 are connected respectively with the conductors 6 and 7 and are provided with the ordinary lightning arresters 39 and 40 respectively for protecting the circuit against high tension static charges.

Conductors 41 and 42 are connected respectively with the conductors 6 and 7 and each connects with an automatic cut-out 43 which is grounded as at 4. Each of the automatic cut-outs is exactly like the other and one of the these is shown in detail in Fig.7 and comprises the inductive resistance 45 provided with an insulated binding post 46 with which the respective conductor 6 or 7 is connected, the post also supporting a spring 48 which sustains an armature 49 adjacent to the core of the resistance 45. The helix of resistance 45 is connected preferably through the spring to the binding post at one end and at the other end is grounded on the core of the resistance, the core being grounded by ground conductor 44 which extends to the metallic plate 52 embedded in moist carbon or other inductive material buried in the earth. Each of the conductors 41, 42 and 44 is of iron, and in this connection I wish it understood that where I state the specific substance I am able to verify the accuracy of the statement by the results of tests which I have made, but of course I wish to include along with such substances all equivalents, as for instance, where iron is mentioned its by-products, such as steel, and its equivalents such as nickel and other magnetic substances are intended to be understood.

The cut-out apparatus seen in detail in Fig.7 is employed particularly for insuring against high voltage currents, it being obvious from the structure shown that when potential rises beyond the limit established by the tension of the spring sustaining the armature 40, the armature will be moved to a position contacting with the core of the cut-out device and thereby directly close the ground connection for line wire 41 with conductor 44, eliminating the resistance of winding 45 and allowing the high voltage current to be discharged to the ground. Immediately upon such discharge the winding 45 losing its current will allow the core to become demagnetised and release the armature 49 whereby the ground connection is substantially broken leaving only the connection through the winding 45 the resistance of which is sufficient for insuring against loss of low voltage current.

In Fig.8 I have illustrated an apparatus which though apparently primitive in construction and arrangement shows the first successful embodiment which I produced in the course of discovery of the present invention, and it will be observed that the essential features of the invention are shown there. The structure shown in the figure consists of horseshoe magnets 54, 55, one facing North and the other South, that is, each opening in the respective directions indicated and the two being connected by an iron wire 55 which is uninsulated and wrapped about the respective magnets each end portion of the wire 55 being extended from the respective magnets to and connected with, as by being soldered to, a zinc plate 56, there being a plate 56 for each magnet and each plate being arranged longitudinally substantially parallel with the legs of the magnet and with the faces of the plate exposed toward the respective legs of the magnet, the plate being thus arranged endwise toward the North and South. An iron wire 57 connects the plates 56, the ends of the wire being preferably connected adjacent the outer ends of the plates but from experiment I find that the wire may be connected at practically any point to the plate. Wires 58 and 59 are connected respectively with the wires 55 and 57 and supply an alternating current at a comparatively low voltage, and to control such current the wires 58 and 59 may be extended to a rectifier or combined rectifier and intensifier, as discussed above.

The tests which I have found successful with the apparatus seen in Fig.8 were carried out by the employment first of horseshoe magnets approximately 4 inches in length, the bar comprising the horseshoe being about one inch square, the zinsics being dimensioned proportionately and from this apparatus with the employment of a single intensifier and rectifier, as above stated, I was able to obtain a constant output of 8 volts.

It should be obvious that the magnets forming one of the electrodes of this apparatus may be permanent or may be electromagnets, or a combination of the two.
While the magnets mentioned throughout the above may be formed of any magnetic substance, I find the best results obtained by the employment of the nickel chrome steel.

While the successful operation of the various devices which I have constructed embodying the present invention have not enabled me to arrive definitely and positively at fixed conclusion relative to the principles and theories of operation and the source from which current is supplied, I wish it to be understood that I consider myself as the first inventor of the general type described above, capable of producing commercially serviceable electricity, for which reason my claims hereinafter appended contemplate that I may utilise a wide range of equivalents so far as concerns details of construction suggested as preferably employed.

The current which I am able to obtain is dynamic in the sense that it is not static and its production is accomplished without chemical or mechanical action either incident to the actual chemical or mechanical motion or incident to changing caloric conditions so that the elimination of necessity for the use of chemical or mechanical action is to be considered as including the elimination of the necessity for the use of heat or varying degrees thereof.
ENERGY CONVERSION SYSTEMS

This patent application shows the details of devices which can produce ordinary electricity from Tesla longitudinal waves. If these claims are correct (and there does not appear to be the slightest reason for believing that they are not), then implementations of this patent application are capable of producing free electrical power and the importance of this information is enormous.

ABSTRACT
This invention relates to apparatus for the conversion of mass-free energy into electrical or kinetic energy, which uses in its preferred form a transmitter and a receiver both incorporating Tesla coils, the distal ends of whose secondary windings are co-resonant and connected to plates of a chamber, preferably evacuated or filled with water, such that energy radiated by the transmitter may be picked up by the receiver, the receiver preferably further including a pulsed plasma reactor driven by the receiver coil and a split phase motor driven by the reactor. Preferably the reactor operates in pulsed abnormal gas discharge mode, and the motor is an inertially dampened drag motor. The invention also extends to apparatus in which an otherwise driven plasma reactor operating in pulsed abnormal gas discharge mode in turn used to drive an inertially dampened drag motor.

DESCRIPTION
This is a continuation of application Ser. No. 09/907,823, filed Jul. 19, 2001.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to systems for the conversion of energy, inter alia in the form of what we will refer to for convenience as Tesla waves (see below), to conventional electrical energy.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Energy converters that are fed by local or environmental energy are usually explained by taking recourse to the notion that they convert zero point electromagnetic radiation (ZPE) to electric energy. The ZPE theories have gained a life of their own, as T. Kuhn has pointed out (in his "Black Body Theory and the Quantum"), after emerging from Planck's second theory, specifically from the term $\frac{1}{2} \nu^2$ in the new formula for oscillator energy. In 1913, Einstein and Stern suggested that motional frequencies contributing to specific heat fell into two categories--those that were independent of temperature and those that were not (e.g. rotational energy), leading them to conclude that zero-point energy on the order of $\frac{1}{2} \nu^2$ was most likely. In the second part of their paper, however, they provided a derivation of Planck's Law without taking recourse to discontinuity, by assuming that the value of the ZPE was simply $\frac{1}{2} \nu^2$. It is worth noting that Einstein had already in 1905 ("Erzeugung und Verwandlung des Lichtes betreffenden heuristischen Gesichtspunkt", Ann. d. Phys, 17, 132) framed the problem of discontinuity, even if only heuristically, as one of placing limits upon the infinite energy of the vacuum state raised by the Rayleigh-Jeans dispersion law. According to Einstein, the Rayleigh-Jeans law would result in an impossibility, the existence of infinite energy in the radiation field, and this was precisely incompatible with Planck's discovery - which suggested instead, that at high frequencies the entropy of waves was replaced by the entropy of particles. Einstein, therefore, could only hope for a stochastic validation of Maxwell's equations at high frequencies "by supposing that electromagnetic theory yields correct time-average values of field quantities", and went on to assert that the vibration-energy of high frequency resonators is exclusively discontinuous (integral multiples of $\nu^2$).

Since then, ZPE theories have gone on a course independent from Planck's second theory. The more recent root of modern ZPE theories stems from the work of H. Casimir who, in 1948, apparently showed the existence of a force acting between two uncharged parallel plates. Fundamentally the Casimir effect is predicated upon the existence of a background field of energy permeating even the "vacuum", which exerts a radiation pressure, homogeneously and from all directions in space, on every body bathed in it. Given two bodies or particles in proximity, they shield one another from this background radiation spectrum along the axis (i.e. the shortest distance) of their coupling, such that the radiation pressure on the facing surfaces of the two objects would be less than the radiation pressure experienced by all other surfaces and coming from all other directions in space. Under these conditions, the two objects are effectively pushed towards one another as if by an attractive force. As the distance separating the two objects diminishes, the force pushing them together increases until they collapse one on to the other. In this sense, the Casimir effect would be the macroscopic analogy of the microscopic van der Waals forces of attraction responsible for such dipole-dipole interactions as hydrogen bonding. However, it is worth noting that the van der Waals force is said to tend to establish its normal radius, or
the optimal distance between dipoles, as the distance where the greatest attractive force is exerted, beyond which
the van der Waals forces of nuclear and electronic repulsion overtake the attraction force.

Subsequently, another Dutch physicist, M. Sparnaay, demonstrated that the Casimir force did not arise from
thermal radiation and, in 1958, went on to attribute this force to the differential of radiation pressure between the
ZPE radiation from the vacuum state surrounding the plates and the ZPE radiation present in the space between
them. Sparnaay's proposal is that a classical, non-quantal, isotropic and ubiquitous electromagnetic zero-point
energy exists in the vacuum, and even at a temperature of absolute zero. It is further assumed that since the ZPE
radiation is invariant with respect to the Lorentz transformations, it obeys the rule that the intensity of its radiation
is proportional to the cube of the frequency, resulting in an infinite energy density for its radiation spectrum.

What appeared to be the virtue of this reformulated theory was the notion that the vacuum no longer figured as
pure space empty of energy, but rather as a space exposed to constantly fluctuating "fields of electromagnetic
ergy".

Puthoff has utilised the isomorphism between van der Waals and Casimir forces to put forth the zero-point (ZP)
energy theory of gravity, based on the interpretation that the virtual electromagnetic ZP field spectrum predicted
by quantum electrodynamics (QED) is functionally equivalent to an actual vacuum state defined as a background
of classical or Maxwellian electromagnetic radiation of random phases, and thus can be treated by stochastic
electrodynamics (SED). Whereas in QED, the quanta are taken as virtual entities and the infinite energy of the
vacuum has no physical reality, for SED, the ZPE spectrum results from the distortion of a real physical field and
does not require particle creation. Gravity then, could be seen as only the macroscopic manifestation of the
Casimir force.

We do not dispute the fact that even in space-absent matter, there is radiant energy present which is not of a
thermal nature. But we claim that this energy is not electromagnetic, nor is its energy spectrum-infinite. That this
is so, stems not just from our opinion that it is high time that Einstein's heuristic hypothesis should be taken as
literally factual - in the dual sense that all electromagnetic energy is photon energy and all photons are local
productions, but above all from the fact that it is apparent, from the experiments of Wang and his colleagues
(Wang, Li, Kuzmich, A & Dogariu, A. "Gain-assisted superluminal light propagation", Nature 406; #6793; 277),
that the photon stimulus can propagate at supraluminal speeds and lies therefore well outside of any scope of
electromagnetic theory, be this Maxwell's classical approach taken up by ZPE theories, or Einstein's special
relativistic phenomenology of Maxwell's theory. The fact is, that if the light stimulus can propagate at speeds
greater than those of light, then what propagates is not light at all, and thus not energy configured
electromagnetically. Light is solely a local production of photons in response to the propagation of a stimulus that
itself is not electromagnetic.

It is critical to understand that the implication from this, that - aside from local electromagnetic radiation and from
thermal radiation associated with the motions of molecules (thermo-mechanical energy), there is at least one
other form of energy radiation which is everywhere present, even in space-absent matter. Undoubtedly, it is that
energy which prevents any attainment of absolute zero, for any possible local outpumping of heat is matched by
an immediate local conversion of some of this energy into a minimum thermal radiation required by the manifolds
of Space and Time. Undoubtedly also, this radiation is ubiquitous and not subject to relativistic transformations
(i.e. it is Lorentz invariant). What it is not, is electromagnetic radiation consisting of randomistic phases of
transverse waves.

To understand this properly, one must summarise the differences from existing ZPE theories - and all these
differences come down to the fact that this energy, which is neither electromagnetic nor thermal per se, (and is
certainly not merely thermo-mechanical), has nevertheless identifiable characteristics both distributed across sub-
types or variants and also common to all of them.

Essentially, the first sub-type or variant consists of longitudinal mass-free waves which deploy electric energy.
They could well be called Tesla waves, since Tesla-type transformers can indeed be shown experimentally to
radiate mass-free electric energy, in the form of longitudinal magnetic and electric waves having properties not
reducible to photon energy nor to "electromagnetic waves", and having speeds of displacement which can be
much greater than the limit c for all strictly electromagnetic interactions.

One may well denote the second sub-type by the designation of mass-free thermal radiation, since it contributes
to temperature changes - and, as obviously indicated by the impossibility of reaching an absolute zero of
temperature, this contribution occurs independently of the presence of matter, or mass-energy, in Space. In
other words, not all thermal radiation can be reduced to vibration, rotation and translation (drift motion) of
molecules, i.e. to thermomechanical energy, because the properties of pressure and volume which determine
temperature and affect matter, appear indeed to a great extent to be independent from matter, a fact which itself is
responsible for the observed catastrophic and unexpected phase changes of matter and has required to this day
the insufficient explanation offered semi-empirically by the Van der Waals Force Law.
Finally, the third sub-type may be designated latent mass-free energy radiation - since it deploys neither charge, nor thermal or baroscopic effects, and yet it is responsible for “true latent heat” or for the “intrinsic potential energy” of a molecule. It is also responsible for the kineto-regenerative phenomenon whereby an electroscope performs a variable charge-mediated work against the local gravitational field.

The common characteristic of all three sub-types of mass-free energy radiation is that they share the same non-classical fine structure, written as follows for any energy unit, where $c$ is any speed of light wave function, and the wavelength $\lambda$ and wave function $W$ are interconnected as a function of the physical quality of the energy field under consideration:

$$E = \lambda c W$$

In the instance of longitudinal electric radiation, this takes on the directly quantifiable form:

$$E = (\lambda c) W = p c W = (h / \lambda) W = q V$$

where:
- $W$ is the voltage-equivalent wave function corresponding to $V$,
- $p$ constitutes the linear momentum corresponding to the conventional $q$ or $e$,
- $h$ is the Planck constant,
- $\lambda$ is the Duane-Hunt constant expressed as a wavelength,
- $\lambda^q$ is a wavelength constant; and the sign $\sim$ signifies exact equality between an expression in the conventional dimensions of length, mass and time, and an expression in length and time dimensions alone.

In the instance of mass-free thermal radiation (contributing to temperature changes), the transformation obeys Boltzmann’s rule ($k$ is now Boltzmann’s constant and $T$ is Kelvin-scale temperature):

$$E = \lambda_{11} c W_{11} = \lambda_{11} (\pi / \sqrt{c}) (\lambda_{11}) \sim k T$$

and in the third instance - of latent mass-free radiation, the transformation obeys the rule:

$$E = \lambda_{11} c W_{11} = \lambda_{11} (\lambda_{11} / c_{11}) (\lambda_{11} / f_{11}) = \lambda_{11} \lambda c_{11} f_{11}$$

where $c$ and $f$ are frequency functions, $f$ being a specific gravitational frequency term, and $f_{11}$ being defined as equal to $c / (\lambda_{11})^{0.5} \sec^{-1}$ and $c_{11}$ has the value of $c / \lambda c$.

If the electric variant of mass-free radiation has a direct quantum equivalence, via the Duane-Hunt Law, none of the three primary aether energy variants possess either the classic form of electromagnetic energy which requires square superimposition of speed of light wave functions $c$, as $c^2$, or the quantum form of energy, requiring $E = h c$. The critical first step in the right direction may well be attributed to Dr. W. Reich, as it regards the fact that mass-free energy couples two unequal wave functions, only one of which is electromagnetic and abides by the limit $c$.

We then unravelled the threefold structure described above, and further showed that, in the case of longitudinal electric waves, the postulated equivalence is merely phenomenological, as these waves are not restricted by the function $c$ in their conveying of electric charge across space. It can further be demonstrated that all black-body photons are bound by an upper frequency limit (64 x 10$^{14}$ Hz), above which only ionising photons are produced, and that all black-body photons arise precisely from the interaction of mass-free electric radiation with molecules of matter (including light leptons), whereby the energy of that radiation is locally converted into photon or electromagnetic radiation. In other words, all non-ionising electromagnetic energy appears to be secondary energy which results locally from the interaction of matter with mass-free electric energy. It cannot therefore consist of the primary energy that is present in the vacuum, an energy that is neither virtual nor electromagnetic, but actual and concrete in its electric, thermal and antimatter manifestations. Lastly, gravitational energy, being either the potential or the kinetic energy responsible for the force of attraction between units of matter, is a manifestation that also requires, much as electromagnetic radiation does, coupling of mass-free energy to matter or to mass-energy.

The Tesla coil is a generator of a mass-free electric energy flux which it transmits both by conduction through the atmosphere and by conduction through the ground. Tesla thought it did just that, but it has been since regarded instead (because of Maxwell, Hertz and Marconi) as a transmitter of electromagnetic energy. The transmitter operates by a consumption of mass-bound electric power in the primary, and by induction it generates in the
coupled secondary two electric fluxes, one mass-bound in the coil conductor, and the other mass-free in the body of the solenoid. Tesla also proposed and demonstrated a receiver for the mass-free energy flux in the form of a second Tesla coil resonant with the first. The receiver coil must be identical and tuned to the transmitter coil; the capacitance of the antenna plate must match that of the transmitter plate; both transmitter and receiver coils must be grounded; and the receiver coil input and output must be unipolar, as if the coil were wired in series.

The generators of mass-free energy with which we are concerned, provide current pulses associated with a dampened wave (DW) oscillation of much higher frequency than the pulse repetition frequency. A particular problem in recovering the mass-free energy content of such pulses is provided by the dampened wave oscillations. Although in our U.S. Pat. No. 5,416,391 we describe arrangements incorporating split phase motors to recover such energy, their efficiency is a great deal less than what should theoretically be attainable. Other workers such as Tesla and Reich, have encountered the same problem to an even greater degree.

In nineteenth century motor engineering terminology, dynamos capable of producing direct current by continuous homopolar induction were known as “unipolar” generators. The term “unipolar induction” appears to have originated with W. Weber, to designate homopolar machines where the conductor moves continuously to cut the magnetic lines of one kind of magnetic pole only, and thus require sliding contacts to collect the generated current. Faraday’s rotating copper disc apparatus was, in this sense, a homopolar generator when the disc was driven manually, or a homopolar motor when the current was provided to it. Where the rotating conductor continuously cuts the magnetic field of alternatingly opposite magnetic poles, the operation of a machine, whether a generator or a motor, is said to be “heteropolar”. Unipolar machines went on to have a life of their own in the form of low voltage and high current DC generators - from Faraday, through Plucker, Siemens, Ferraris, Hummel, to Lord Kelvin, Pancinoti, Tesla and others - almost exclusively in the form of disc dynamos, but some having wound rotors.

In Mordey’s alternator, and in so-called “inductor alternators”, however, homopolar generators were employed to obtain alternating currents, with the use of rotors wound back and forth across the field. Use of smooth, unwound rotors in AC induction motors (as opposed to AC synchronous motors, such as hysteresis motors) was a later development than homopolar dynamos. By 1888, Tesla and Ferraris amongst still others, had independently produced rotating magnetic fields in a motor, by employing two separate alternate currents with the same frequency but different phase. Single phase alternate current motors were developed later, and split-phase motors were developed last. Ferraris (Ferraris, G (1888) "Rotazioni elettrodinamiche", Turin Acad, March issue,) proposed the elementary theory of the 2-phase motor, where the current induced in the rotor is proportional to the slip (the difference between-the angular velocity of the magnetic field and that of the rotating cylinder), and the power of the motor is proportional to both the slip and the velocity of the rotor.

If an iron rotor is placed within the rotating magnetic field of a 2-phase stator, it will be set in rotation, but not synchronously, given that it is always attracted to the moving magnetic poles with a lag. But if an aluminium or copper rotor is used instead, it gets “dragged” around by the rotating stator field because of the eddy currents induced in it. If the aluminium or copper rotor were to rotate synchronously with the stator magnetic field, there would be no induced eddy currents and thus no motor action would result. The motor action depends, in this instance, upon the presence of asynchronous slip, since the function of the latter is to sustain the induction of those currents in the rotor that are responsible for the motor action of the dragged rotor. This then is the origin of the term “AC drag motors”. Once the drag rotor evolved from a cylinder to a hollow cup, they earned the epithet of “drag-cup motors”. Later, already in the 20th century, the cups were fitted over a central stator member, and the sleeve rotor 2-phase servo motor was born.

Tesla knew that impulse currents as well as CW (constant wave) sinusoidal currents could be used to drive AC motors. Regarding his invention of a hysteresis motor (which he called a “magnetic lag motor”), he stated: “. . . pulsatory as well as an alternating current might be used to drive these motors . . . ” (Martin, T C (1894) "The inventions, researches and writings of Nikola Tesla", Chapter XII, p. 68). In his search for efficient utilisation of the high frequency DW (dampened wave) impulse currents of his induction coils, Tesla began by employing an AC disc induction motor as shown in Fig.17 of his famous 1892 address (Tesla, N (1892) "Experiments with alternate currents of high potential and high frequency", in "Nikola Tesla Lectures", 1956, Beograd, pp. L-70-71). This consisted of a copper or aluminium disc mounted vertically along the longitudinal axis of an iron core on which was wound a single motor coil which was series wired to the distal terminal of an induction coil at one end, and to a large suspended and insulated metal plate at the other. What was new about this was the implementation of an AC disc induction motor drive, where the exciting current travelled directly through the winding with just a unipolar connection to the coil secondary (under certain conditions, even the series connection to the plate could be removed, or replaced with a direct connection to the experimenter’s body): "What I wish to show you is that this motor rotates with one single connection between it and the generator” (Tesla, N. (1892), op. cit., L-70, Tesla’s emphasis). Indeed, he had just made a critical discovery that, unlike in the case of mass-bound charge where current flow requires depolarisation of a bipolar tension, mass-free charge engages current flow unipolarly as a mere matter of proper phase synchronisation:
Tesla thought that his motor was particularly adequate to respond to windings which had "high-self-induction", such as a single coil wound on an iron core. The basis of this self-induction is the magnetic reaction of a circuit, or an element of a circuit - an inductor - whereby it chokes, dims or dampens the amplitude of electric waves and retards their phase.

For the motor to respond to still higher frequencies, one needed to wind over the primary motor winding, a partial overlap secondary, closed through a capacitor, since "it is not at all easy to obtain rotation with excessive frequencies, as the secondary cuts off almost completely the lines of the primary" (Idem, L-71.).

Tesla stated that "an additional feature of interest about this motor" was that one could run it with a single connection to the earth ground, although in fact one end of the motor primary coil had to remain connected to the large, suspended metal plate, placed so as to receive or be bathed by "an alternating electrostatic field", while the other end was taken to ground. Thus Tesla had an ordinary induction coil that transmitted this "alternating electrostatic field", an untuned Tesla antenna receiving this "field", and a receiver circuit comprising his iron-core wound motor primary, a closely coupled, capacitatively closed secondary, and the coupled non-ferromagnetic disc rotor. Eventually, in his power transmission system, he would replace this transmitter with a Tesla coil, and place an identical receiving coil at the receiving end, to tune both systems and bring them into resonance. But his motor remained undeveloped, and so did the entire receiver system.

Tesla returned to this subject a year later, saying "on a former occasion I have described a simple form of motor comprising a single exciting coil, an iron core and disc" (Tesla, N (1893) "On light and other high frequency phenomena", in "Nikola Tesla Lectures", 1956, Beograd, pp. L-130, and L-131 with respect to Fig.16-II). He describes how he developed a variety of ways to operate such AC motors unipolarly from an induction transformer, and as well other arrangements for "operating a certain class of alternating motors founded on the action of currents of differing phase". Here, the connection to the induction transformer is altered so that the motor primary is driven from the coarse secondary of a transformer, whose finer primary is coupled, at one end, directly and with a single wire to the Tesla secondary, and at the other left unconnected. On this occasion, Tesla mentions that such a motor has been called a "magnetic lag motor", but that this expression (which, incidentally, he had himself applied to his own invention of magnetic hysteresis motors) is objected to by "those who attribute the rotation of the disc to eddy currents when the core is finally subdivided" (Tesla, N (1893), op. cit., p. L-130).
In none of the other motor solutions, 2-phase or split-phase, that he suggests as unipolar couplings to the secondary of an induction coil, does the non-ferromagnetic disc rotor motor again figure. But he returns to it a page later, and indirectly so, by first addressing the disadvantages of ferromagnetic rotors: "Very high frequencies are of course not practicable with motors on account of the necessity of employing iron cores. But one may use sudden discharges of low frequency and thus obtain certain advantages of high-frequency currents-without rendering the iron core entirely incapable of following the changes and without entailing a very great expenditure of energy in the core. I have found it quite practicable to operate, with such low frequency disruptive discharges of condensers, alternating-current motors."

In other words--whereas his experiments with constant wave (CW) alternating currents, and as well with high-voltage dampened wave (DW) impulses from induction coils, indicated the existence of an upper frequency limit to iron core motor performance, one might employ instead high-current, DW impulses - of high DW frequencies but low impulse rates - to move these motors quite efficiently. Then he adds "A certain class of [AC] motors which I advanced a few years ago, that contain closed secondary circuits, will rotate quite vigorously when the discharges are directed through the exciting coils. One reason that such a motor operates so well with these discharges is that the difference of phase between the primary and secondary currents is 90 degrees, which is generally not the case with harmonically rising and falling currents of low frequency. It might not be without interest to show an experiment with a simple motor of this kind, inasmuch as it is commonly thought that disruptive discharges are unsuitable for such purposes."

What he proposes next, forms the basis of modern residential and industrial AC electric power meters, the AC copper disc motor whose rotor turns on the window of these meters, propelled forward by the supply frequency. But instead of employing any such Constant Wave input, Tesla uses the disruptive discharges of capacitors, incipiently operating as current rectifiers. With the proper conditions, e.g. correct voltage from the generator, adequate current from the capacitor, optimum capacitance for the firing rate, and tuned spark-gap, to mention a few, Tesla found that the non-ferromagnetic disc rotor turned but with considerable effort. But this hardly compared to the results obtained with a high-frequency CW alternator, which could drive the disc "with a much smaller effort". In summary then, Tesla went as far as being the first to devise a motor driven by Tesla waves, that employed a non-ferromagnetic rotor, and whose arrangement encompassed both transmitter and receiver circuits. For this purpose, he employed a single-phase method in which the signal is fed unipolarly to the winding, placed in series with a plate capacitance.

Tesla also later proposed driving a similar single-phase non-ferromagnetic disc motor from bipolar capacitative discharges through an atmospheric spark-gap now placed in parallel with the main motor winding, and again simulating a split-phase by a closely-wound secondary which was closed by a capacitance.

As Tesla admits, the results of all his AC eddy current motor solutions were meagre and limited by current and frequency problems. Likewise, the two-phase arrangements proposed by Reich for his OR motor, involving a superimposition of the Dampened Waves of a first phase on a fixed Continuous Wave second phase, require an external power source and a pulse amplifier circuit, and failed to meet Reich's own requirements.

We have previously proposed the use of squirrel cage motors with capacitative splitting of phase to convert the Dampened Wave output of plasma pulsers, but once a Squirrel Cage is introduced, the dampening effect which the non-ferromagnetic copper cage exerts in being dragged by the revolving stator field, is counteracted by the ferromagnetic cylinder of laminated iron, in which the copper cage is embedded, working to diminish the slip and bring the rotor to near synchronism. This is, in all likelihood, what limits Squirrel Cage motors responding to the DC component of the Dampened Wave impulse, and thus be limited to respond to fluxes of mass-bound charges. Historically, as we shall see, the obvious advantage of the Squirrel Cage servo motors lay in the fact that, in particular for 2-phase applications, they were far more efficient at performing work without evolution of heat. Indeed, if the eddy currents in the non-ferromagnetic rotor are permitted to circulate in non-ordered form, the rotor material and stator will heat up rapidly and consume much power in that heating. This is in fact considered to be a weakness of AC non-ferromagnetic-rotor induction motors.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The present invention is concerned with conversion to conventional electrical energy of the variants of mass-free energy radiation considered above, referred to for convenience as Tesla waves, mass-free thermal radiation and latent mass-free radiation. The first variant of such radiation was recognised, generated and at least partially disclosed by Tesla about a hundred years ago, although his work has been widely misinterpreted and also confused with his work on the transmission of radio or electromagnetic waves. The Tesla coil is a convenient generator of such radiation, and is used as such in many of the embodiments of our invention described below, but it should be clearly understood that our invention in its broadest sense is not restricted to the use of such a coil as a source of mass-free radiation and any natural or artificial source may be utilised. For example, the sun is
a natural source of such radiation, although interaction with the atmosphere means that it is largely unavailable at
the earth's surface, limiting applications to locations outside of the earth's atmosphere.

According to the invention, a device for the conversion of mass-free radiation into electrical or mechanical energy
comprises a transmitter of mass-free electrical radiation having a dampened wave component, a receiver of such
radiation tuned to resonance with the dampened wave frequency of the transmitter, a co-resonant output circuit
coupled into and extracting electrical or kinetic energy from the receiver, and at least one structure defining a
transmission cavity between the transmitter and the receiver, a full-wave rectifier in the co-resonant output circuit,
and an oscillatory pulsed plasma discharge device incorporated in the co-resonant output circuit. The output
circuit preferably comprises a full-wave rectifier presenting a capacitance to the receiver, or an electric motor,
preferably a split-phase motor, presenting inductance to the receiver. The transmitter and receiver each preferably
comprise a Tesla coil and/or an autogenous pulsed abnormal glow discharge device. The transmission cavity is
preferably at least partially evacuated, and comprises spaced plates connected respectively to the farthest out
poles of the secondaries of Tesla coils incorporated in the transmitter and receiver respectively, the plates being
parallel or concentric. The structure defining the cavity may be immersed in ion-containing water. The split-phase
motor is preferably an inertially-dampened AC drag motor.

The invention, and experiments demonstrating its basis, are described further below with reference to the
accompanying drawings.

SHORT DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig.1 is a schematic view of a Tesla coil connected to a full-wave rectifier to form an energy conversion device:
**Fig. 2** is a schematic view of a Tesla coil connected to a gold leaf electrometer:

![Fig. 2](image1)

**Fig. 3 to Fig. 6** show alternative electrometer configurations:

![Fig. 3](image2)

![Fig. 4](image3)

![Fig. 5](image4)
Fig. 7 to Fig. 11 show modifications of the circuit of Fig. 1:
Fig. 12 shows apparatus for investigating aspects of the experimental results obtained with the foregoing devices;

Fig. 13 is a graph illustrating results obtained from the apparatus of Fig. 12:
Fig. 14 to Fig. 17 show schematic diagrams of embodiments of energy conversion devices:
Fig. 18 is a diagrammatic cross-section of an inertially dampened drag cup motor:
Based upon observations of weight loss in metallic matter as induced by exposure to high frequency alternating electric fields, we developed an experimental method to optimise this weight loss, and from this a device that treats the forces causing weight loss as manifestations of intrinsic potential energy $\Delta U$ (or true "latent heat") of the molecules of matter, and converts both "true latent heat" energy present in the neighbourhood of a receiver, and "sensible" heat induced within that receiver, into electric energy which can be used to drive a motor, flywheel or charge batteries.

It is commonly believed that the output of the Tesla coil is ionising electromagnetic radiation. We have demonstrated that it is not, i.e. that it is neither electromagnetic radiation, nor ionising electromagnetic radiation. The output of an air-cored, sequentially-wound secondary, consists exclusively of electric energy: upon contact with the coil, a mass-bound AC current can be extracted at the resonant frequency, whilst across a non-sparking gap, mass-free AC-like electric wave radiation having the characteristics of longitudinal waves, can be intercepted anywhere in adjacent space. Accordingly, the radiation output from such coils is different to electromagnetic radiation.

The basic demonstration that the output of a Tesla coil does not consist of ionising radiation, is that it does not accelerate the spontaneous discharge rate of electroscopes, whether positively or negatively charged. In fact, in its immediate periphery, the coil only accelerates the spontaneous discharge rate of the negatively charged electroscope (i.e. the charge leakage rate), whereas it arrests the discharge of the positively charged electroscope (i.e. the charge seepage rate falls to zero). But this dual effect is not due to any emission of positive ions from the secondary, even if it can positively charge a discharged electroscope brought to its proximity. This charging effect is in fact an artifact, in that metals but not dielectrics are ready to lose their conduction and outer valence band electrons when exposed to the mass-free electric radiation of the coil.

This is simply demonstrated by the apparatus of Fig.1, in which the outer terminal of the secondary winding 6 of a Tesla coil having a primary winding 4 driven by a vibrator 2 is connected to the input of a full-wave voltage wave divider formed by diodes 8 and 10 and reservoir capacitors 12 and 14 (the same reference numerals are used for similar parts in subsequent diagrams). If the rectifiers employed are non-doped, then the coil appears to only charge the divider at the positive capacitance 10, but if doped rectifiers are employed, the coil will be observed to charge both capacitances equally. Whereas positive ionises can charge either doped or undoped dividers
positively, no positive ionise can charge a doped divider negatively, clearly demonstrating that the Tesla coil does not emit positive ions.

The basic demonstration that the output of a Tesla coil is not non-ionising electromagnetic radiation of high frequency, such as optical radiation, or of lower frequency, such as thermal photons, is also a simple one. Placement of a sensitive wide spectrum photoelectric cell (capable of detecting radiation to the limits of vacuum UV), wired in the traditional closed circuit manner from a battery supply, at any distance short of sparking from the outer terminal of the coil will show in the dark that the light output from the coil is negligible. This rules out optical radiation at high frequency. The demonstration that the sensible heat output from the Tesla coil is also negligible will be addressed below.

Our theory proposed the existence of physical processes whereby mass-free electric radiation can be converted into electromagnetic radiation. Such a process is at work whenever mass-free electric wave radiation interacts with electrons, such as those that remain in the valence bands of atoms. This mass-free electric energy interacts with charge carriers, such as electrons, to confer on them an electrokinetic energy which they shed in the form of light whenever that electrokinetic energy is dissociated from those carriers (e.g. by deceleration, collision or friction processes). Such a process is at work to a negligible extent in the coil itself and its usual terminal capacitance, hence the faint glow that can be seen to issue from it, but it can also be greatly amplified in the form of a corona discharge by connecting a large area plate to the output of the secondary, as Tesla himself did in his own experiments, and thus by increasing the capacitance of the coil system.

Now, what is interesting in this process is that, in the absence of virtually any I²R losses at the plate, and if the plate thus introduced is bent at the edges so that it has no pointed edges, or if it is in the form of a bowl, or in any other manner that precludes sparking at edges and specially corners, and thus enhances the corona discharge, any electroscope, whether negatively or positively charged, now brought close to the plate will show a tendency to arrest its spontaneous discharge rate. One might say that this is simply the result obtained in a Faraday cage which disperses charge on its outside and electrically insulates its interior, and indeed if an electroscope is placed inside a Faraday cage no amount of Tesla radiation on the outside of that cage, save direct sparking, adversely affects the leakage or seepage rate of the electroscope. In fact, since the effect of such a cage can be shown to be that of, by itself, inducing arrest of either spontaneous electroscopic discharge, this effect simply remains or is magnified when the cage is bathed by Tesla radiation. However, a cage constitutes an electrically isolated environment, whereas a plate with or without curved or bent edges does not. Furthermore, the change observed in the properties of the output radiation from a Tesla coil when certain metal plates or surfaces are directly connected to the outer terminal of the secondary, takes place whilst the capacitance of the coil is increased by the connected plate, and thus the plate is an electrically active element of the circuit - and hence the opposite of an electrically isolated element.

For a long time, we believed that the anomalous cathode reaction forces observed in autoelectronic discharges (atmospheric sparks, autogenous PAGD (pulsed abnormal glow discharge) and vacuum arc discharges) were exclusive to an autoelectronic emission mechanism prompted by a direct potential between discharging electrodes. Sparking driven by AC potentials could sustain the same forces, but their mutual cancellation over time would not deploy a net force. In this sense, when a large gold leaf connected directly to the ground (via a water pipe or any other suitable connection) or to another large area plate suspended at some height above the ground, is vertically placed at a sparking distance above the surface of another plate connected to the secondary of a Tesla coil, one would not expect the AC spark to sustain any net force across the gap between the gold leaf and the plate. In terms of cathode reaction forces, one would expect their cancellation to be simply brought about by the high frequency of the current alternation in the coil, as both leaf and plate would alternate between being the emitting cathode or the receiving anode. However, this is not what is observed - instead, the gold leaf 16 lifts away from the plate 18 (Fig.2). If instead, the suspended gold leaf is connected to the coil terminal, and the bottom plate is connected to the ground in the same manner as described above, this also yields the same result.

Even more curious is the finding that this anomalous reaction force deployed by an alternate current of mass-bound charges in the arc, remains present when the sparking is prevented and instead the corona effect is enhanced (by employing a large plate connected to the outer pole of the secondary, and by employing a distance at which sparking ceases), as if the lift itself were the property of the corona underlying the spark channels and not the property per se of the autoelectronic emission mechanism.

By mounting the suspended leaf 16 (41 mg of hammered 99.9996% pure gold) directly at the end of a long dielectric rod 20 balanced at the centre and placed on a light stand over an electronic balance 22, we sought to determine the observed lift of the leaf as weight lost. Surprisingly, and despite the most apparent lifting motion of the leaf, the balance registered a substantial weight gain, indicating the addition of 1 to 5 mg weight (with the same 14W input to the vibrator stage), independently of whether the leaf was connected to the terminal of the coil or instead to the earth ground via a water pipe. This suggested to us that, whether formed as a DC or AC spark channel, or whether in the form of a corona discharge, the electric gap develops an expansion force (exactly
To examine this problem further, we assembled a different experiment where the gold leaf 16 was suspended between two large metal plates 18 and 24 placed 20 cm apart, and the leaf was not electrically connected to them or to any other circuit, while attached to the dielectric rod employed to suspend it over the electronic balance. Given that the leaf is suitably and equally spaced from both plates, there is no arcing between it and either plate. The obvious expectation is that, since the electric field bathing the leaf alternates at high frequency (measured in hundreds of kilohertz), and the corona from both electrodes should equalise and balance any electric wind, no lift should be observed. In fact, no lift is apparent, but a most curious observation is made: depending upon which orientation is employed for the plates, the gold leaf either gains or loses 4-6% of its weight. This gain or loss is registered for as long as the coil is on. If the top plate is grounded and the bottom one connected to the different terminal of the secondary, a gain in weight is observed (Fig.3). If the connections are reversed, an equal weight loss is registered (Fig.4).

Furthermore, in this last instance, if the grounded plate 24 is entirely removed (Fig.5), and only the top plate remains connected to the outer terminal of the secondary, the observed loss of weight continues to occur such that in effect, this reaction can be obtained with unipolar electric fields of high frequency, and it provides a unidirectional force which, once exerted upon metallic objects bathed by its field, can be made to oppose or augment gravity.

Now, these effects can be greatly magnified, in the order of 10-fold, if the same gold leaf is made part of a simple series floating electric circuit where the leaf functions as a large area plate, and is wired in series with a coil 26 which, for best results, should be wound so as to be of a length resonant with the secondary of the Tesla-type coil employed; and this coil is connected in turn to a point antenna 28 upwardly oriented (Fig.6). The entire floating circuit is mounted on the rod 20 and this in turn, is mounted over the sensitive balance. If both plates are kept as in Fig.3 and Fig.4, the observed weight loss and weight gain both vary between 30% and 95% of the total weight of the leaf. Again, the gain or loss of weight is registered for as long as the coil is on.

These anomalous findings suggested that, whatever is the nature of the energy responsible for the force observed in that high frequency alternating current gap, any metallic object placed in that gap will experience a force repelling it from the electric ground. This force will be maximised if the gap frequency is tuned to the elementary or molecular structure of the metallic object. If the electric ground is placed opposite the actual plane of the earth ground, that force will act in the direction of gravity. If, instead, the electric ground and the earth ground are made to coincide on the same plane, that force will act opposite the direction of gravity, i.e. will repel the metallic object from the ground.

No such weight alteration was observed with solid dielectrics, for instance with polyethylene and other thermoplastic sheets.

These facts rule out the possibility of a hidden electrostatic attraction force, acting between the plate connected to the different terminal of the secondary and the gold leaf. Firstly, such an attraction would be able to lift the gold leaf entirely, as is easily observed with the unipole of any electrostatic generator operating with a few milliwatts output with either negative or positive polarity; secondly, the same attraction, if it existed and were the product of an electric force, would surely be manifested independently from whether the experimental leaf was metallic or a dielectric (as again is observed with electrostatic generators).

The results suggest therefore, that whenever a large plate is connected to a Tesla-type coil, it induces in surrounding matter that is not part of its own circuit, a directional thrust which is oriented in a direction which is opposite to the electric ground and, if the electrical ground is on the same side as the surface of the Earth, then a thrust is produced which opposes gravity.

When this thrust is made to oppose gravity, we believe that its effect upon the gold leaf can be compared to the lifting power imparted to the water molecule when it transits from the liquid to the vapour state and which is associated with the increase in internal (or intrinsic) potential “thermal” energy $\Delta U$ (See Halliday D & Resnick R (1978) "Physics", Vol. 1, section 22-8, p. 489). The “specific latent heat” of water (m$^L$) contains indeed both an expression for the sensible radiant thermal work involving volume and pressure relations: $W = P(V_V-V_L)$ where $P$ is a pressure of 1 atmosphere, and $V_V$ and $V_L$ are the molar volumes in the vapour and liquid phases respectively, and an expression for a quantity of “latent” energy $(\Delta U)$ which is associated with the molecule in the more rarefied state. Hence, the relation for the latter with respect to water vapour is: $\Delta U = mL - P(V_V-V_L)$.
We propose that likewise, if a very small portion of the energy of the mass-free electric waves is indirectly transformed by mass-bound charge carriers on that plate into blackbody photons (once those charge carriers shed their electrokinetic energy), the greater portion of those waves are directly transformed in the space adjacent to that plate into the latent energy equivalent to $\Delta U$ for the atoms of the surrounding air, and so on, until this process itself is also occurring for the atoms of that gold leaf, thus inducing their non-electrical weight loss and suggesting the existence of a non-thermal "antigravitokinetic" energy term previously unknown to mankind other than as "latent heat" or "internal potential energy".

From this viewpoint, the energy released by any Tesla-type coil to its surroundings, would be tantamount to a radiative injection of "internal potential energy" which would confer on local gas molecules a weight cancellation (a cancellation of gravitational mass occurring in the absence of any cancellation of inertial mass - a process which the inventors theorise is explained by the neutralisation of elementary gravitons), and the same process would be equally at work for metallic solids but not dielectric solids.

Gold vapour also deploys a substantial intrinsic potential energy. With an enthalpy of vaporisation on the order of $H_V = 324 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, the molar volumetric work performed by gold vapour at atmospheric pressure at the temperature of vaporisation $T_v$ (2,856°C., i.e. 3,129 degrees Kelvin) is:

$$W = P \Delta V_{V-L} = 23.58 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \text{ where } \Delta V_{V-L} = 0.2327 \text{ m}^3.$$  

The intrinsic potential energy of gold vapour is then given by:

$$\Delta U = H_V - W = 300.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \text{ i.e. 12.74 times greater than the volumetric work performed during the phase transition.}$$

It is our contention that this intrinsic potential energy, associated with molecules as their "latent heat", has fine structure that in turn is altered if this energy is released from these molecules and fails to gain a "sensible" thermal form. What is suggested is that the fine structure of "latent heat" is not electromagnetic and obeys instead the molecular function:

$$\lambda = \frac{n^2}{c} \frac{n^2}{\lambda_{Au}}$$

where $n^2$ is the wavelength-equivalent of the mass of the molecule to which the "latent heat" is associated, obtained by a conversion method proposed in these inventors' theory, and the frequency term $\tilde{f}$ is a non-electromagnetic frequency term, specifically in this case a gravitational frequency function.

Employing the conversion of Joules into $m^3 \text{ sec}^{-2}$ proposed by these inventors as being exactly:

$$1 \text{ J} = 10 N_A \text{ m}^3 \text{ sec}^{-2},$$

and putting the wavelength $\lambda_{n2}$ down as the wavelength-equivalent of the mass of the gold atom, $\lambda_{Au}$, at 1.9698 m, that frequency term $\tilde{f}$ can be obtained as being equal to $2.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1}$.

According to the present inventors' theory, the wave function $c$ constitutive of the fine structure of "latent heat" associated with molecules of matter, carries the same wavelength $\lambda_{Au}$ and its frequency is given in the usual manner by $c(\lambda_{Au}) = 1.52 \times 10^3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. The resultant frequency for the non-Planckian unit quantum of "latent energy" associated with each gold atom at the vaporisation temperature is then obtained by the geometric mean of the two synchronous frequency terms: $(c(\lambda_{Au}))_{n2}^{0.5} = 624 \text{ Hz}$. However, this is the signature of that intrinsic potential energy when associated with that gold atom at its vaporisation temperature. It is not the signature of the energy quantum itself if it is released from that molecule, nor prior to being absorbed (i.e. in transit), at that same temperature.

The fine structure of the same non-Planckian "latent" energy quantum varies to encompass different determinations of the constituent wavelength and frequency functions. The basic relation for the determination of the wavelength of a "latent thermal" energy quantum not associated with matter, but corresponding to one that is, is:

$$\lambda_{n1} = \left( \frac{\Delta U}{N_A} \right)^{0.666} \text{ meters}^{0.333} \text{ seconds}^{0.666}$$

which gives 0.046478 m for the unbound equivalent of the "latent heat" unit quantum of vaporisation associated with the gold atom at a pressure of one atmosphere. The fine structure of the free quantum is still parallel, as given by:

$$\Delta U / N_A = \lambda_{n1}^2 c \tilde{f}_{n1}$$
but now notice how the frequency terms have changed value, with the $f_{n1}$ function having the value $4.65 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ and $c/\lambda_{n1}$ yielding $6.48 \times 10^9 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. The geometric mean of the superimposition of the two frequencies is then:

$$[(c/\lambda_{n1})^2f_{n1}]^{0.5} = 173.7 \text{ KHz}$$

We contend that it is at this frequency that the atoms of gold vapour absorb "latent heat".

However, this is just the overall scenario of what happens at the temperature of vaporisation of gold. But at room temperature (e.g. 293 degrees Kelvin), and with respect to processes where there is no sublimation of the atoms of that gold leaf under way (and indeed, once the coil is turned off, the leaf returns to its normal weight), one must infer to a different phase of matter what portion of "latent heat" energy, if any, do the atoms of gold hold in the solid phase lattice. Assuming the same proportionality between the "sensible" and "latent" thermal energy terms for atoms of gold at room temperature, where the unit thermal energy is $N_A k T = 2.436 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, we speculate that the gold atom could absorb up to 12.74 times the value of this "sensible" thermal energy, and thus hold $N_A k T = 31.053 \text{ kJ}$ more energy in its own micro-atmosphere.

If this speculation is correct, and employing the above novel methodology, then the mean geometric frequency of the maximal "latent heat" energy quantum of a gold atom at room temperature would be $538 \text{ KHz}$ (versus $174 \text{ KHz}$ at the vaporisation temperature), and once absorbed its mean frequency mode would reduce to $201.5 \text{ Hz}$ (versus $630 \text{ Hz}$ once the atom has vaporised).

To test this hypothesis, we employed two different Tesla-type coils having output frequencies of 200 KHz and 394 KHz. The circuit tested was that shown in Fig.6, and both coils were operated at 50 KV outputs. Whereas the former coil, closer to the 174 KHz marker, could only systematically produce 10mg to 11 mg of weight cancellation in the gold leaf of the floating circuit, the second coil, closer to the speculated 538 KHz marker, could produce 15mg to 35 mg of weight cancellation in the same gold leaf. The empirical results appear therefore to suggest that our speculation may well be a valid one.

The above-mentioned full wave divider (see Fig.1) can be easily coupled to our autogenous Pulsed Abnormal Glow Discharge technology as described in our U.S. Pat. No. 5,416,391 to form an alternative source of direct current, ultimately powered by Tesla waves, and such a drive can equally be applied to any other vacuum device that can sustain endogenous oscillatory discharges, whether in the PAGD regime or any other pulsatory regime.

For the purposes of experimental and visual determination of power outputs from the divider in question, we have utilised either 2 Torr vacuum tubes operating in the high-current PAGD regime, or 20-100 Torr spark tubes requiring high voltages (2 to 10 KV) for their spark breakdown. As taught in the above US Patent, the output from the full wave voltage divider can be assessed by the energy spent in driving the tube and the motor, whose rotary speed is proportional, within the limits chosen, to the power input.

Two separate sets of experiments presented in Table 1 below, showed that direct connection of the wave divider to the outer terminal of the coil (set constantly at 6 clicks on the vibrator stage in Fig.1) or to the same terminal but across a large (2 or 3 square feet) plate 30 that increased the capacitance of the secondary (Fig.7), presented the same power output in either case (the effect of the plate is to lower the voltage of the output proportional to the increase in current). A substantial increase in power output through the divider is observed only when an identically wound Tesla coil is connected in reverse (Fig.8) with the non-common end of its winding 4 not connected, in order to obtain a condition of resonance, and this observed increase is further augmented by now interposing either of the metal plates 18, 24 between the two chirally connected and identical coils (Fig.9). The increase in plate area appears to have the effect of increasing the output for as long as the plate is isolated between the two chiral image coils. Throughout these experiments, the input power to the vibrator was fixed at 14W (60 Hz AC). [Note: ‘Chirality’, or ‘handedness’, is a property of objects which are not symmetrical. Chiral objects have a unique three-dimensional shape and as a result a chiral object and its mirror image are not completely identical - PJK].
In our loss of weight experiments described above, we noted that the phenomenon of weight loss by a metallic body placed in proximity of the coil output continued to be observed when only the plate connected to the distal pole of the secondary was retained. The leaf, although not part of the circuit of the secondary, could however be seen as part of a circuit for the capture of ambient radiant energy, specifically that generated by the coil and, as well, that also possibly picked up, in the process, from other ambient sources. To determine whether the last consideration is a possibility at all, or whether the energy picked up by an analogue of our metallic body or gold leaf in the experiments described above, is entirely a by-product of the energy transmitted by the plate connected to the outer pole of the secondary, we next determined what would happen if the pick-up for the full-wave divider were placed, not at the output from the secondary coil, but from an, in all respects identical, plate (the Receiver plate \( R \), as opposed to the Transmitter plate \( T \)) placed a distance away from, and above, the first one. In other words, the gold leaf is replaced by a receiver plate, and this carries an attached test circuit identical to the test circuit employed to directly assess the coil output.

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<thead>
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<th>TABLE 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expt A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tesla coil (TC) to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC to inverted TC, to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC to 2 ft² plate, to inverted TC, to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expt B</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tesla coil (TC) to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC to 2 ft² plate, to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC to inverted TC, to divider</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC to 2 ft² plate, to inverted TC, to divider</td>
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As shown in Table 2 above, the results of the experiment show that there is no loss of energy picked up at the R plate (Fig.10) when compared to the most favourable situation involving the plate 30 (Fig.9) interposed between the chirally connected coils. This observation is however not always the case. For best results one should employ iron, gold or silver plates placed parallel to the horizon, with the T plate underneath the R plate. In fact, if one employs instead aluminium plates and suspends these vertically, one can consistently register a loss of output at the divider when changing the divider input from the T to the R plates.
If however the plate R is connected in turn to a second identical coil, also wired in reverse, and this second coil in turn serves as input to the full-wave divider (Fig.11), then a most curious occurrence takes place - the power output increases considerably (see Table 2), as if the divider circuit had undergone an energy injection not present at the source. Note that the circuits are in fact resonant, but the energy injection contributing nearly 60-66% (for both plate areas in the previous experiment) of the input that we refer to, is not caused by inductive resonance, since the effect of resonance can be ascribed to the set-up described in Fig.9. The distance between the plates, as well as their orientation with respect to the local horizon system of the observer also appear to matter, best results being achieved at optimal distances (e.g. for 2 square feet plates the best gap, at 43% RH and room temperature, was at least 6 inches).

We tested the possibility that environmental heat produced by operation of the coil might be the source of the injected energy, the plate of the second system acting possibly as collector for the heat present in the gap. As it turned out, experiments showed repeatedly that in the gap between the T and R plates there was no significant thermal radiation propagating between one and the other. The more illustrative experiments are those in which we identified where the sensible thermal energy appears, and which involved coupling two cavities: the Transmitter-Receiver gap between plates T and R, and a Faraday cage enclosure 34 (see Fig.12). The first cavity appears to be much like that of a capacitor: the two identical parallel plates are surrounded by a thick dielectric insulator 32, and a thermometer T2 is inserted half-way through it. A thermometer T1 is also fixed to the T plate, to measure its temperature. The second cavity is a simple insulated metal cage with a thermometer T3 inserted 2 cm into its top. Some 2-4 cm above the top of the cage there is placed a fourth thermometer T4, inside an insulated cylinder.

If the Tesla Coil is a source of thermal energy (e.g. IR radiation, microwaves, etc.) we would expect the T plate to be the hottest element from which, by radiation, thermal energy would reach the middle of the first cavity making the next thermometer T2 second hottest, and that the third thermometer T3 inside the second cavity, even if it might initially be slightly warmer than the other two, would, over time, become comparatively cooler than either one of the other two thermometers, despite the fact that the rising heat would still be seen to warm it up over time. One would expect a similar outcome for the fourth thermometer T4, above the cage. As shown by Fig.13, where only the temperature differences \((\Delta T^0 - T_C^0)\) between the experimental thermometers and the control thermometer reading the air temperature \(T_{C0}\) of the laboratory are shown, the surface of the T plate warms up by 0.1°C. at 3 minutes after initiation of the run (closed squares), whereas in the space of the T/R gap a diminutive warming, by 0.05°C., is registered after 10 minutes (open circles). Conversely, the temperature inside the cage, at the top (shaded circles) rises by 0.1ºC. also by the third minute, and the temperature above the cage itself (shaded squares) rises by a much greater difference of 0.35ºC., which remains stable after the eighth minute.

These results show that it is not sensible heat that radiates from the T plate. Instead, some other form of radiation traverses these cavities to generate sensible heat at their metallic boundaries, such that more heat is generated above the R plate (inside the cage) and again above the third plate, i.e. above the top of the cage, than is generated in the T/R gap, i.e. near the T plate. This clearly shows that the Tesla coil is not a significant source of thermal radiation, and that sensible heat can be detected inside and on top of the Faraday cage only as a further transformation of the radiant energy transmitted across the T/R cavity.

The same experiment also illustrates that, whatever is the nature of the additional environmental energy being injected at the surface of R plate (as shown by Table 2 results above), it is most likely not thermal radiation, at least not energy in the form of sensible heat. And whatever is the nature of this ambient radiant energy being mobilised by the electric radiant energy transmitted from the T plate, it can produce significant heat inside an enclosure adjacent to plate R.

Since we also know experimentally, that this observation of an ambient energy injection at the R plate or R cage depends upon relative humidity, being most easily observable when the latter is low (<50% Relative Humidity), and being virtually impossible to observe when air is saturated with water vapour, we can infer that water vapour is a good absorber of the electric mass-free radiant energy emitted from the T plate. This strongly suggests that this absorption process is tantamount to increasing the potential intrinsic energy \(\Delta U\) of the water vapour molecules adjacent to the T plate. In the absence of significant quantities of water vapour, when the atmosphere is dry, one may speculate that this absorption process is replaced by what one presumes is a parallel process involving the various gaseous molecules of air. However, either because the air molecules involve molecular species that readily give off this potential energy, as one might speculate is the case with molecular oxygen, hydrogen and nitrogen, or because the air molecules absorb far less "latent" energy (as appears to be the case with inert gases), and therefore there is more of it in the molecularly unbound state (as we explicitly propose as a possibility) and thus available for absorption by the appropriately tuned receiver, the increased \(\Delta U\) of air molecules conferred by the absorption of the mass-free electric radiation in the T/R gap is transferred to the R conductor together with the latent energy which those molecules already possessed before entering that gap. Hence the
energy injection and its dependency upon the partial pressure of water vapour, which absconds instead with this "latent" energy and succeeds in withholding it from transmission to the R plate.

If the T/R gap can mobilise ambient energy which is neither electromagnetic nor thermal in nature, but which "latent" energy becomes injected into the divider circuit in electric form, the heat (i.e. sensible thermal energy) produced inside and on top of the cage, can also be mobilised electrically as input into the divider circuit. The obvious place to look for the positioning of the cool junction which could convert sensible heat into electrokinetic energy of mass-bound charges is at the top of the cage, where it is warmest (See top curve of Fig.13 in shaded squares). This is clearly observed from the results shown in Table 3 below, where the initial temperature difference between the top of the box and the T plate surface was 0.50°C., and the top of the box temperature rose by 0.20°C. after 2.5 minutes when the divider was connected at the junction, versus 0.35°C. when it was not (and the transmitter coil was on).

For the run performed with the naked R cage, the temperature directly above the top of the cage was 24.3°C., at the outset, versus the control room temperature of 23.9°C. For the run performed with the insulated R cage exposed directly to the sun at midday, on a cool and clear August day, the temperature directly above the top of the cage was 33°C., versus the control air temperature of 18.4°C. The temperature of the cool junction at the top of the cage was 31.9°C. while the run was performed.

It is apparent from the data of Table 3, how a second injection of energy has occurred in the apparatus. If, within the T/R gap, the energy injected appears to be on the order of absorption of "latent heat", at the top of the cage cavity, at the cool junction, the injection is one of radiant "sensible" heat. Moreover, this secondary energy addition could be further enhanced by placing strong insulation around the whole apparatus or the cage itself, and further so, by exposing the whole apparatus to solar radiation.

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We next turned our attention to the T/R gap cavity with the intention of determining whether atmospheric conditions or vacua yield the same or different results. We could not, of course, test the same large area plates as have been employed for the studies undertaken at atmospheric pressures. For the present purpose we employed instead large area electrodes (ca 0.2 ft²) made of high grade stainless steel or even aluminium. Preliminary results showed that these T/R gap tubes, when coupled to the divider circuit, yielded faster pulse rates in the secondary circuit when evacuated than at atmospheric pressure. The strength of the corona discharge also intensified, as it eventually became replaced by a normal glow discharge. For purposes of improved spatial capture of (1) the electric mass-free energy radiated from the T electrode and (2) the non-radiant latent thermal energy mobilised by it to be collected electrically at the R plate, an axial cylindrical T electrode was inserted inside a larger concentric cylinder or between two common plates of large surface area (e.g. >100 cm²) functioning as the R electrode(s), in a dielectric container suitable for evacuation (glass, polycarbonate), at a typical distance of at least 3 cm between electrodes, and the entire device was tested at different pressures.

The secondary circuit connected downstream from the full-wave divider was as shown in Fig.14 (employing an autogenous pulsed abnormal glow discharge, or PAGD, converter circuit), with the PAGD reactor 36 set at 10 Torr (in light of the high-voltage input, which varied between 1,500V and 3,200V) and gave the results presented in Table 4 below. We should remark also that these pulses charged the charge pack CP through the coupling
capacitors 38, bridge rectifier 40 and reservoir capacitors 42, and blocking diodes 44, as expected from the prior art represented by our patents related to PAGD devices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T/R tube Pressure (Torr)</th>
<th>Pulse rate (PPS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>760</td>
<td>0.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The effect of the vacuum in the T/R gap tube seems to be dual. By transforming the corona discharge into a normal glow discharge, it increases the local production of photons (probably associated to the formation and discharge of metastable states in the plasma), and at the same time, increases the pulse rate in the output circuit and thus, in all probability, the energy injected in the T/R gap cavity. But this did not yet permit us to confirm whether or not it is "latent heat" energy of the plasma molecules which is being tapped at the receiver plate, even if it be plausible in principle that plasmas may effect more efficient transfer of "latent heat" to tuned receivers than atmospheric gases.

The vacuum dependency of the pulse rate of the PAGD reactor employed as example in the secondary circuit downstream from the divider is also rather well marked, with the fastest pulse rates being registered at 1 Torr for the sample run shown in Table 5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T/R tube Pressure (Torr)</th>
<th>Pulse rate (PPS)</th>
<th>PAGD Reactor Pressure (Torr)</th>
<th>Voltage (across divider)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>4.5 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.5 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.3 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.6 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.53 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.45 kV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth noting here that the illustrated polarity of the wiring of the PAGD reactor tube, as shown in Fig.14, is best for purposes of sustaining regular auto-electronic emission at high voltage. The reverse configuration, with the centre electrode negative and the plates positive favours instead heating of the cathode and a lapse into a normal glow discharge.

We tested a similar arrangement to that shown in Fig.14 above, but with a PAGD motor circuit (see our U.S. Pat. No. 5,416,391). A split-phase motor 44 replaces the rectifier and charge pack, and the PAGD reactor is operated at the same pressure of 15 Torr, as shown in Fig.15. The T/R gap tube tested had a longer plate distance (2"), with one plate now functioning as Transmitter and the other as Receiver. Note also the different wiring of the PAGD reactor. The results, as shown below in Table 6, present pulse per second (PPS) and motor revolutions per minute (RPM) curve trends that appear to be analogous and parallel to the well known Paschen curves for breakdown voltage in vacuum - such that the T/R gap performs better either in the atmospheric corona discharge mode, or in the high vacuum normal glow discharge (NGD) mode, than in the low breakdown voltage range of the curve where the discharge forms a narrow channel and takes on the appearance of an "aurora" transitional region discharge (TRD).
These results suggest that plasmas with high lateral dispersion, i.e. formed over large electrode areas (e.g. corona and NGD plasmas) and thus devoid of pinch, are more likely to mobilise electrically, the intrinsic potential energy of the molecular charges than pinch plasmas appear to be able to do (e.g. TRD plasmas). Apparently also, the greater the vacuum drawn from the T/R gap cavity, the more efficient does the transfer of this intrinsic potential energy become, i.e. the mass-bound latent heat, to the electrokinetic energy of the charges circulating in the receiver circuit. At about 0.06 Torr, this transfer in vacuo is comparable to that observed under atmospheric conditions and thus for a much greater density of molecules.

We investigated whether it is possible to tap the latent heat energy of water molecules. It is possible that in the vapour phase they can effectively hold on to their latent energy - but could they give off some of it once closely packed in liquid phase? To test this hypothesis we immersed the T/R gap in a glass water tank. The motor employed for these tests was a high-speed 2-phase drag-cup motor (see Fig.18 and associated description), wired in split-phase with two identical phase windings capacitatively balanced, and the galvanised iron plates each had an area of one square foot. The results are shown in Table 7 below, and clearly indicate that it is possible to tap - within the T/R cavity - the 'latent heat' of water in the liquid phase. As observed, immersion of the T/R cavity in water increased the motor output speed 22% (12,117 / 9,888) x 100). This corresponds to a 50% increase in power output, from 18W at 9,888 rpm to 27W at 12,117 rpm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T/R tube Pressure (Torr)</th>
<th>Pulse rate (PPS)</th>
<th>Motor rotation (RPM), M ± SEM (n = 17)</th>
<th>Discharge Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>750</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>751.2 ± 7.1</td>
<td>Corona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>611.5 ± 5.1</td>
<td>TRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>701.9 ± 4.6</td>
<td>TRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>748.4 ± 9.3</td>
<td>NGD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>819.4 ± 6.5</td>
<td>NGD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus the use of ion-containing water or other ion-containing aqueous liquid in the cavity promotes long distance propagation and a greater injection of latent and thermal energies in the receiver circuit. Such a result is not achieved if the cavity is filled with deionised water.

The preceding results lead therefore to the design of a presently preferred apparatus, based on these findings, for the conversion of mass-free electric energy, "latent heat" energy and "sensible" heat energy into conventional electric energy, as shown in Fig.16, which integrates all of the separate findings and improvements. The winding 6 of the Tesla coil at the bottom is driven in the usual manner employing a vibrator stage 2 to pulse the primary coil 4. The outer pole of the secondary 6 is then connected to a circular metal plate T which is one end of an evacuated cylindrical cavity, connected to a vacuum pump or sealed at a desired pressure, or which forms a still containing water or other aqueous solution or liquid. This cavity constitutes the transmitter/receiver gap, and is therefore bounded by a dielectric envelope and wall structure 32, with the circular receiver plate R as its top surface. In turn this plate R serves as the base of a conical Faraday cage 34, preferably air-tight and at atmospheric pressure, but which could also be subject to evacuation, which conical structure carries at its apex provisions for a cold junction 45 and any possible enhancement of the same junction by surface application of different metallic conductors that may optimise the Peltier-Seebeck effect. The output from the cold junction where sensible thermal energy is added to the electrokinetic energy of charge carriers, is also the input to the distal end of the winding 6 of the chiral coil arrangement that sustains resonant capture of all three energy flows ((1) mass-free electric waves of a longitudinal nature, (2) true "latent heat" or the intrinsic (thermal) potential energy, and (3) the thermokinetic energy of molecules, (i.e. "sensible" heat) and, placed in series with the input of

---

**TABLE 7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pulse rate PPS</th>
<th>Motor rotation RPM M ± SEM</th>
<th>T/R distance cm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct from TC</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>8076 ± 89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC to T plate</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>9888 ± 78.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R plate</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>12117 ± 29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R plate</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>12203 ± 55.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the full wave divider 8, 10, feeds the circuit output from the series capacitors 12, 14 grounded at their common tap. In the T/R gap, the transmitted electric longitudinal wave energy is captured along with any intrinsic potential energy shed by molecules caught in the field. Within the R element, expanded into an enclosure that guides "sensible" radiant heat, the latter is generated and then recaptured at the cold junction.

The apparatus consisting of the cylindrical T/R gap cavity and the contiguous conical cage is then preferably finished in gloss white and cylindrically enveloped within a matt black container 46 by effective thermal insulation 48, the latter terminating at the height of the bottom disc T. Apparatus (not shown) may be provided to move the plate T vertically to adjust the T/R gap.

Another alternative embodiment of the apparatus is shown in Fig.17. Here the circuit driving the apparatus is as we have set forth in our prior patents, which employs an autogenous pulsed abnormal glow discharge tube 50 in the configuration shown, supplied by a battery pack DP through blocking diodes 52 and an RC circuit formed by resistor 54 and capacitor 56 to drive the primary 2 of a first Tesla coil to obtain at the distal pole of the secondary 6 the energy to be injected to plate T in the form of a central electrode of a coaxial vacuum chamber (sealed or not), of which the cylindrical metallic envelope forms the receiver plate R, the latter being placed centrally inside the conical cage 34 and contiguous with its walls and base. The top and bottom of the coaxial chamber carries suitable insulating discs, preferably with O-ring type fittings. Again, the apparatus is enclosed in insulation within a cylindrical container 46, and the input into the capture circuit driven from the full wave divider is taken from the cold junction 45 at the apex of the air-tight cage. The output circuit is similar to that of Fig.15.

We have found however that even when the component values in the motor driver and motor circuits are carefully selected so that these circuits are co-resonant with the dampened wave (DW) component of the motor driver pulses, the motor power output falls well short of that which should theoretically be attainable. In an endeavour to meet this problem, we replaced the squirrel-cage type induction motor 44 by a drag cup motor of type KS 8624 from Western Electric in the expectation that the low-inertia non-magnetic rotor would allow better response to the Dampened Wave component. This motor is similar to one of the types used by Reich in his experiments. Although results were much improved they still fell short of expectations. Replacement of this motor by an inertially dampened motor of type KS 9303, also from Western Electric, provided much better results as discussed below.

Fundamentally, the difficulties we encountered stemmed from the inability of motor couplings to respond efficiently and smoothly, and at the same time, to the pulse and wave components of Dampened Wave impulses: that is, simultaneously to the high-intensity peak current pulses (the front end event), the DC-like component, and to the dampened wave trains these cause, i.e. the pulse tails (or back end event)-or AC-like component. This difficulty is present even when we just seek to run induction motors from the DW impulses of a Tesla coil, the very difficulty that led Tesla to abandon his project of driving a non-ferromagnetic disc rotor mounted on an iron core bar stator with dampened waves.

We believe that the key to the capture of the mass-free energy flux output in electric form by Tesla transmitters, including any injected latent or thermal energy that have undergone conversion into electrical energy is to employ the tuned, unipolar, Y-fed, PAGD-plasma pulser driven split-phase motor drive we have invented (U.S. Pat. No. 5,416,391) in conjunction with an inertia lly dampened AC servomotor-generator (see Fig.18): this has a motor shaft 64 which couples a drag-cup motor rotor 60, preferably of aluminium, silver, gold or molybdenum, directly to a drag-cup generator rotor 62 that drives a permanent magnet (PM) flywheel 66, freely rotatable in bearings 67, that provides inertial damping. The shaft 64, journalled by bearings 61 in the casing of the motor 44, provides a power output through optional gearing 68. The phase windings of the motor 44 are wound on a stator core 70 having concentric elements between which the rotor or cup 60 rotates. This structure makes it ideal for the capture of the DW impulses, whether sourced in the transmitter, amplified in the T/R cavity or sourced in the plasma pulser, all in synchrony. Effectively the motor couples the damping action of the drag-cup sleeve motor rotor, which action, as we have already found for the KS-8624 motors, is quite effective at absorbing the front-end DC-like event, with the inertial damping of the PM flywheel upon the drag-cup sleeve generator rotor, that in turn is quite efficient at absorbing the back-end AC-like wavetrain event.

The KS-9154 motor used by Reich was not an inertially dampened AC drag-cup servomotor-generator. Had Reich succeeded in overcoming the limitations of his 2-phase OR Motor solution, as we have now shown it is possible to do (by applying the Function Y circuit to the PAGD split-phase motor drive which we invented), his motor would have suffered the same limitations which we encountered with the KS 8624 motor.

Any motor, by itself, has an internal or inherent damping whereby the acceleration only vanishes when the rotor is running at constant speed. For motors which operate on the basis of the drag principle, where the asynchronous slip is actually constitutive of the motor action, by inducing eddy currents in the rotor, the inherent damping is always more pronounced than for other induction motors. The damping or braking torque is produced when a
Aside from this inherent braking, dampers can also be applied to servo motors to further stabilise their rotation. They absorb energy, and the power output and torque of the motor is thereby reduced. Optimal operation of servo motors requires both rapid response on the part of the rotor to changes in the variable or control phase, and a stable response that is free from oscillation, cogging and overshooting. The rapid response is assured by employing low inertia rotors, such as drag-cups or cast alloy squirrel-cages, and the overshooting and oscillation are reduced to a minimum by damping or a retarding torque that increases with increasing motor speed. Typically, in a viscous-dampened servomotor, the damper is a drag-cup generator mounted rigidly on the shaft of the motor rotor, and the generator drag-cup rotates against the stator field of a static permanent magnet field. The generator develops a retarding torque directly proportional to speed, and the energy absorbed by the damper is proportional to speed squared. The damping can be adjusted and, as it increases, the same amount of input power yields lower torque and motor speeds. Inertial-dampened servo motors differ from viscous dampened motors in that the permanent magnet stator of the drag-cup generator is now mounted in its own bearings, either in the motor shaft or on a separate aligned shaft, forming a high-inertia flywheel.

This means that, whereas the motor rotor always experiences a viscous damping in viscous-dampened servo motors, in inertial-damped servo motors the drag cup motor rotor only experiences a viscous damping while accelerating the flywheel, with the damping torque always opposing any change in rotor speed. Once the flywheel rotates synchronously with the rotor, all damping ceases. Note that this viscous damping is carried out via the coupling of the drag-cup generator rotor, rigidly affixed to the motor rotor, to the PM flywheel, so that their relative motion generates the viscous torque proportional to the relative velocity. Use of drag-cup sleeve rotors in inertially dampened servo motors was largely supplanted by squirrel-cage rotors once the latter became produced as cast alloy rotors. Since inertially dampened motors can be used in open and closed-loop servo applications, and present better stability - even in the presence of non-linearities - and higher velocity characteristics than other induction motors do (Diamond, A (1965) "Inertially dampened servo motors, performance analysis", Electro-Technology, 7:28-32.), they have been employed in antenna tracking systems, stable inertial-guidance platforms, analogue to digital converters, tachometers and torque tables.

The typical operation of an inertially dampened servomotor is as follows: with the reference phase fully excited, the motor rotor -fixedly linked to the generator rotor, as well as the flywheel - remain immobile; once power is applied to the control phase, the motor rotor immediately responds but the flywheel remains at rest. However, as the drag-cup generator 62 is forced to move through the permanent magnetic field of the flywheel, it creates a drag torque that slows down the attached motor rotor proportionally to the acceleration that it imparts to the flywheel that it now sets into motion, thus creating the viscous damper. As the flywheel accelerates, the relative speed of the motor with respect to the flywheel, as well as the damping torque, decrease until both motor and flywheel rotate synchronously and no damping torque is exercised - at which point the drag on the motor cup exerted by the generator cup is negligible.

The KS-9303 motor is an inertial dampened servomotor but is differentiated with respect to other inertially dampened motors, in that (1) it employs a drag-cup sleeve motor rotor made of aluminium, very much like that of the KS-8624, but with slightly altered dimensions and with a shaft extension for the drag-cup copper generator rotor, and (2) the moving flywheel structure was journaled on a separate, fixed shaft, as already described with reference to Fig.18. Now, in principle, even application of minimal damping decreases motor efficiency, resulting in diminished torque and speed. Whether the inertially-damped motor has a drag-cup rotor, a sleeve rotor or a squirrel-cage rotor, the damping increases the rotor slip. Laithwaite considers drag-cup motors as being "dynamically inferior to their cage counterparts" (Laithwaite, E R (1957) "Induction machines for special purposes", London, England, p. 323). If we now add a viscous damping and retarding torque, we should not be able to get much more than a 55% efficiency in the best of conditions. On the other hand, the inertial damping arrangement described will only abstract or supply energy when the motor rotor is accelerating or decelerating relative to the flywheel.

These drag-cup motors, whether inertially dampened or not, develop a constant torque at constant rpm for a given supply frequency and a suitable phase shift capacitance. For each frequency the motors respond to, there is an optimum resonant split-phase capacitance, but other values nearby are still suited for operation, and for each value of capacitance, there is an optimum frequency to which the motors respond. For example the KS-8624 motor responds best at 450 Hz when a 1 microfarad capacitance is employed, responds best at 250 Hz when a capacitance of 10 microfarads is employed, and responds best at 60 Hz, when a capacitance of 100 microfarads is employed. As the capacitance increases, the resonant CW frequency of the motor is displaced to lower values. If we fix the capacitance at a value (e.g. 10 microfarads) suitable for testing the frequency response at a fixed voltage of 12 VAC, the observed result for both the KS-8624 and KS-9303 motors show a response distribution of the motor rotary velocity that has an identical peak at 250 Hz for both motors, with the response decreasing to zero smoothly on both sides of the peak.
These results indicate that, when wired as a split-phase motor, the motor rotary velocity varies not as a function of voltage or current, but as a function of frequency when the phase-splitting capacitance is fixed within a suitable range, there being an optimum frequency mode for each value of suitable capacitance, with lower values of capacitance favouring higher frequency modes. For a given frequency and capacitance, the motor rotary velocity remains essentially constant and independent from voltage and current input, and thus at a plateau. Torque, in the same circuit arrangement, follows exactly the same pattern as rotary velocity, as a function of input frequency at a fixed potential. Torque is linearly proportional to rpm in these motors when they are split-phase wired, and rpm linearly proportional to CW frequency, which makes them ideal for experimentation and determination of power output computations. Moreover, since these are drag machines, the slip itself determines the rotor currents and these are susceptible to tuning such that their retardation and relative position in the field can find resonant modes for varying CW frequency and capacitance.

In the circuit of Fig.17 when using the KS 9303 motor, the inertial damping of the flywheel coupling retards the motor rotor currents sufficiently to allow them to build up torque, with the entire motor assembly serving as the preferred sink for all of the energy, mass-free and mass-bound, captured by the receiving coil circuit with a drawing action established by the motor on the circuit, and providing satisfactory absorption by an inertial damper of the combined, synchronised, dampened wave impulses, those occurring at a low frequency as a result of the firing of the PAGD reactor, and those occurring at a higher superimposed frequency -sourced in the transmitter circuit and picked-up by the receiver plate and coil. The action of each DW impulse train itself generates two different events; the DC-like auto-electronic-like discontinuity which sets the motor in motion and initiates the rotor currents, and the AC-like dampened wavetrain which supports the consistency of those rotors. The concentration of current required to kick-start the motor is provided by the DW impulses of the PAGD reactor, whereas, once the motor is in motion, and particularly, once it is stabilised by the flywheel, the cumulative action of the higher frequency DW impulses makes itself felt by accelerating the rotor to an optimum rotary velocity.

For the next series of tests we employed the basic circuit diagram of the improved motor shown in Fig.19. The transmission station is the typical Tesla transmitter with a line-fed, 60 Hz vibrator stage. At the line input to the first stage, we place a calibrated AC wattmeter (Weston Model 432), and a Beckman 330B rms ammeter in series with the hot lead, we set the vibrator stage for 41 clicks, consuming between 28.5W and 35W, depending upon circumstances yet to be described. This consumption was confirmed by driving the coil from an inverter powered by a 12 volt battery. The inverter consumes 2.16 watts, and is 90% efficient. The total consumption from the battery was 42 watts (12V at 3.5A); once the 2.16 watts is deducted and the efficiency taken into account, we obtain the same 36W (vibrator stage at max., i.e. 47 clicks, in this experiment). The T/R gap is adjusted to 3", and 2 square foot plates are used. Transmitter and receiver coils are tuned, and so are the plate capacitances, to 250 kHz, also the capacitances of the Function Y circuit connected at the output of the receiving coil.

The rectified voltage and current generated by the transmitter secondary and by the transmitter plate was ascertained with a coil-tuned wave-divider (Function Y) circuit by loading it with different resistive values. The results constitute a measure of the mass-bound electrical power output directly from the transmitter apparatus. The same method was employed to ascertain the voltage, current and power of the mass-bound charges circulating in the receiving plate and coil circuit. The results are shown in Table 8 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Massbound currents rectified by Function Y at the output of the Tesla transmitter, transmitter plate and receiver plate, as a function of the bleeding resistance employed in each of the function Y arms</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VDC (kivolts)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct from 2°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (T) plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (R) plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct from 2°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (T) plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (R) plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct from 2°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (T) plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2° (R) plate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continuing with the description of the circuit of Fig.19, a 128 cm² plate area, 6 cm gap PAGD reactor is used, connected as described in our prior art to a high-vacuum rotary pump (Correa, P & Correa, A (1995) "Energy conversion system", U.S. Pat. No. 5,449,989). Pressure readings were obtained with a thermocouple gauge during the operational runs. The KS-9303 motors to be tested are then connected to the PAGD reactor in the usual capacitatively-coupled, inverter fashion described in our prior art (Correa, P & Correa, A (1995) "Electromechanical transduction of plasma pulses", U.S. Pat. No 5,416,391). Their rpm is detected by a stroboscopic tachometer and fed to a Mac Performa 6400 running a motor algorithm program calculating the power output. Motor measurements were made at five minutes into each run for the unloaded motors, and at ten minutes for the inertially dampened motors.

All experiments were carried out in the same work session. The experimental determination of the continuous rotary power output as a function of the reactor pulse rate confirmed that the improved circuit develops maximum rotary capture of the mass-free energy in the receiver circuit at the lowest rates of pulsation, just as we have previously found for the conversion system of U.S. Pat. No. 5,449,989. Furthermore, the data showed that even motors of type KS-8624 are able to output power mechanically in excess of the mass-bound power output by the transmitter (7W) or captured by the receiver (5 to a max. of 7W), once the PAGD rate decreases to 1.5 PPS. Such an anomaly can only be explained by the system having become able to begin capturing the mass-free energy flux in the receiver circuit that we know already is output by the transmitter circuit. But this excess mechanical power is still less than the power input into the transmitter, and clearly so. It represents a power gain with respect to the secondary, but a loss with respect to the primary. The full breadth of the capture of the mass-free electric energy flux circulating in the receiver circuit is not seen until the motors are resonantly loaded because they are inertially dampened.

The KS-9303 motors, once inertially dampened, and thus loaded, are able to recover enough power from the mass-free energy field to develop a mechanical power, not just greatly in excess of the mass-bound power of the secondary, but also greatly in excess of the mass-bound power input to the vibrator stage and the primary, at 28 to 35W. Once the pulse rate approaches the same 1.5 PPS marker, mechanical power in excess of the mass-bound electric power input to the transmitter (7W) or captured by the receiver (5 to a max. of 7W), once the PAGD rate decreases to 1.5 PPS. Such an anomaly can only be explained by the system having become able to begin capturing the mass-free energy flux in the receiver circuit that we know already is output by the transmitter circuit. But this excess mechanical power is still less than the power input into the transmitter, and clearly so. It represents a power gain with respect to the secondary, but a loss with respect to the primary. The full breadth of the capture of the mass-free electric energy flux circulating in the receiver circuit is not seen until the motors are resonantly loaded because they are inertially dampened.

Reviewing the mechanical power output results as a function of increasing vacuum in the PAGD reactor and at different output power levels, any motor performance below the 5-7W limit of the traditional mass-bound output power of the secondary represents an output mechanical power loss with respect to both the mass-bound secondary output and the mass-bound primary input. All the results for pressures down to 0.03 Torr fall into this category, and thus represent a very inefficient coupling to the PAGD regime. Any motor performance between 7W and 28-35W represent a loss with respect to the electrical power input to the transmitter system, but a net gain of power with respect to the mass-bound secondary power output. None of the non-inertially dampened motors tested were able to perform outside of this area, under the test conditions. With more efficient primary to secondary couplings in the transmitter station, however, one could advantageously employ these motors alone to extract some of the mass-free power of the secondary or to operate them in enclosed vessels without conventional external electrical connections.

To reach satisfactory levels of recovery of mass-free energy, one must dampen the superimposed DW impulses. Hence, all results showing outputs in excess of 35W were obtained using the inertially dampened KS-9303 motors, and represent a net overunity power gain over both the power input to the primary and the mass-bound power output by the secondary, or the mass-bound power emulated by the receiver circuitry. This happens when the PAGD pulse rate falls to 2 PPS, with the rotary power output steeply increasing as the rate falls to 1 PPS.
One of the interesting features of the motor circuitry we have proposed is that it can operate with pulsed plasmas in both the TRD and the AGD regions, the least efficient response occurring in the NGD region near the Paschen minimum. One might think that the voltage depression would allow increased current intensity supplied to the motors, but in fact that is not observed, with the flashing of the NGD yielding erratic oscillations and low values of current. In keeping with the notion that the TRD plasma is mainly composed of lagging positive ions, whereas the PAGD plasma is mostly an electron plasma, the observed direction of rotation of the motors is opposite in the TRD region to that of the AGD region. The NGD region therefore marks the depression where the velocity vectors change direction. In the second or PAGD region, motor operation is very quiet, unlike what is observed in the TRD region.

Part and parcel of the tuning of the circuit components is the selection of the optimum capacitances employed to couple the PAGD reactor to the motor circuit and split the phase to feed the auxiliary winding of the motor. We have experimented with capacitances ranging from 0.5 to 100 microfarads, and found that best results (for the specific circuit in question - including the characteristics of the transmission), were such that the optimum value of the PAGD coupling capacitance lay near 4 microfarads, and the phase splitting capacitance, near 1 to 4 microfarads, depending upon weather conditions. In good weather days lower capacitance values can be used, while in bad weather days higher capacitances are needed. For ease of comparison in demonstrating the need to tune the circuit by employing optimum capacitances in those two couplings (reactor to motor, and motor phase coupling), we employed the same capacitances in both circuit locations.

A comparison of tests using 1 and 4 microfarad values shows the difference caused by changing those capacitances from their optimum value: across all discharge regions of the pressure range that was examined, the four motors tested, operated with greater motor speeds when the capacitances are set to 4 microfarads rather than to 1 microfarad. The less efficient performance obtained with 1 microfarad capacitance fits the inverse correlation of pulse power with increasing pulse frequency, such as we have found for the PAGD regime. This is made evident by a comparison of rpm versus pulse rate for the two capacitance values being considered. They demonstrate the higher pulse rates observed with the lower capacitance, that correlate with the lower motor speeds, and result in lower efficiency of the motor response. The results equally indicate that low capacitance values increase the pulse rate, but if this increase is out of tune with the rest of the circuit values, it results in power waste because it imposes a rate that is not optimum.

We have also determined experimentally that the efficiency of the system is affected by external weather conditions, higher efficiencies being noted on a fine bright day than under poor weather conditions even though the apparatus is not exposed to such conditions. This may reflect a diminution under poor weather conditions of latent mass-free energy that can be taken up by the system.

The observed high efficiency of circuits including inertially dampened motors indicates that the phenomenon does not reduce to a mere optimum capture of, DC-like pulses produced by the reactor in what is essentially an AC motor circuit. Effectively, the pulsed plasma discharge deploys a front-end, DC-like pulse, or discontinuity, but this is followed by an AC-like dampened wave of a characteristic frequency (having a half-cycle periodicity identical to that of the front-end pulse) to which the motor circuit also responds. Moreover, the mass-free electric radiation from the transmitter circuit itself induces, in the receiver antenna, coil and circuit, and in the reactor discharge itself, the train of finer dampened wave impulses responsible, after conversion through the wave-divider, for the mass-bound rectified current which is employed to charge the plasma reactor to begin with. Serving as trigger of the plasma charges in the reactor are the DW impulses circulating in the receiver circuit, divider, for the mass-bound rectified current which is employed to charge the plasma reactor to begin with. In the second or PAGD region, motor operation is very quiet, unlike what is observed in the TRD region.

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The mass-bound current is employed to charge the wave-divider capacitance bridge and therefore the reactor. In turn, the plasma pulses from the reactor are superimposed with the DW impulses from the receiving coil, and together they are coupled to the split-phase motor drive. Hence the first receiver stage employs the totality of the energy captured in the T/R gap cavity - mass-free electric energy transmitted by the T plate, latent and sensible thermal energy injected at the surface of the R plate - and produces in the receiving coil a mass-bound current comparable to that assembled in the transmitter coil by the action of the primary. The mass-bound current is stored in the wave-divider bridge and used to drive the plasma reactor in the PAGD region. Subsequently, the autogenous disruptive discharge that employs a substantial electron plasma generates both a concentrated, intense flux of mass-bound charges in the output circuit, and a mass-free oscillation of its own. The dampened motor is therefore fed directly with (1) the intense mass-bound current output from the reactor; (2) the pulse and wave components of the mass-free electric energy captured by the receiver plate and coil (and matched by conduction through the earth), and which are gated through the wave-divider and the reactor for the duration of the PAGD channel; and (3) any mass-free latent energy taken up from the vacuum by the PAGD event. Once the
motor is set into motion, and is resonantly loaded with an inertial damper, we believe that it will also respond to the much weaker DW impulses captured by the receiver, since these impulses encompass both a DC-like front end - further enhanced by analytic separation through the wave-divider - and a dampened wave at 154 kHz.

Essentially, the DW impulses that are ultimately sourced in the transmitter - and received unipolarly through the T/R gap - have sufficient DC-like potential (plus all the other requisite physical characteristics, such as frequency) to contribute directly to the motor response, once the motor has gained substantial speed (for they lack the current to set it into motion, one of the contributions from the plasma pulser). This is the case, provided that the motor itself is suited for absorption of both DC-like pulses and AC-like dampened waves, which is precisely the case with motors of the type shown in Fig.18 since the inertia of the flywheel is overcome through homopolar absorption of the dampened oscillations simultaneously in the motor drag-cup rotor and in the generator drag-cup rotor.

We also tested these inertially dampened motors in the traditional DC power supply-driven PAGD circuit we have taught in our previous patents, that is, circuits with an overt HV DC power source, and thus in the absence of any Function Y circuit or transmitter circuit. Here then, only the DW impulses generated by the PAGD reactor can account for the motor response. The tube employed (A31) had an area of 256 cm², and a gap distance of 4 cm. Coupling capacitances employed were 4 microfarads for the inverter coupling, and 1 microfarad for the split phase motor coupling. The DC power supply delivered up to 1 ampere of current between 150 and 1,000 VDC, and the ballast resistor was adjusted to 215 ohms. Having determined the basic physical characteristics of the reactor's behaviour in the circuit under consideration, we conducted our experiment in the PAGD region. We chose a pressure of 0.6 Torr, just off from the Paschen minimum, as we intended to benefit from the lower sustaining voltage which it affords.

The experiment basically consisted of increasing the sustaining voltage at this fixed pressure in the PAGD regime, and measuring the diverse physical parameters of the circuit and motor response in order to ultimately ascertain the difference between the input electric DC power and the output mechanical rotary power. We first looked at how the motor rpm response varied as a function of the sustaining voltage (V_s): the results illustrate the importance of starting close to the Paschen minimum in the pressure scale, since the KS-9303 motors reach plateau response (at 17,000 rpm) when the reactor output voltage nears 450V. Any further increase in potential is simply wasted. Likewise, the same happened when we measured motor speed as a function of increasing peak DC current, plateau response being reached at 0.1 ADC. Again, any further increase in current is wasted. Essentially then, the optimal power input to the reactor when the output of the latter is coupled to the motor, lies around 45 watts. This is a typical expenditure in driving a PAGD reactor. As for pulse rate we once again find a motor response that is frequency proportional in the low frequency range, between 10 and 40 PPS (all pulse rates now refer solely to PAGDs per sec), but once rates of >40 PPS are reached, the response of the motor also reaches a plateau.

The observed increment in speed from 40 to 60 PPS translates only into an increase of 1,000 RPM, from 16,000 to 17,000 RPM. So, we can place the optimal PAGD rate at ca 40 PPS. The DC electric power input to drive the PAGD reactor was next compared to the rotary mechanical power output by the inertially loaded motor, driven in turn by the reactor. This comparison was first carried out with respect to the PAGD rates. The motor response far exceeds the conventional input power, indicating that the whole system can be tuned to resonance such that optimal power capture inside the reactor takes place, the critical limit rate lying at around 60 PPS, when the motor response is firmly within the pulse response plateau. At this juncture, the break-even efficiency for the measured rates of energy flux over time reach 700% (overunity coefficient of 7), in keeping with the observations and the values we have made in the PAGD conversion system. In the proportional part of the curve, before the plateau is reached, even greater rates of break-even efficiency - up to >1,000% were registered.

These results constitute the first time we have been able to confirm the presence of output energy in excess of break-even over conventional mass-bound energy input in the PAGD inverter system, and the results are comparable to what we have observed and previously reported for the PAGD converter system. At pulse rates greater than 60 PPS a greater input power results in decreased efficiency, also translated into a noticeable heating of the reactor and motor. And this is all the more remarkable as experiments we have conducted with inductive tuning of PAGD reactors, or employing PAGD reactors as replacements for the primaries of Tesla coil assemblies, and still, more recently, with the PAGD inverter circuit driving motors, have all shown that it is possible to operate these reactors with minimal mirroring and heating, preserving essentially the cold-cathode conditions and yet focusing the plasma column so that deposition on the insulator is negligible. It appears that above a certain threshold of optimal efficiency, surplus input energy is just dissipated thermally by both the reactor and the motors.

It should be understood that the above described embodiments are merely exemplary of our invention, and are, with the exception of the embodiments of Figs. 16 to 19 designed primarily to verify aspects of the basis of the invention. It should also be understood that in each of these embodiments, the transmitter portion may be omitted.
if an external or natural source of Tesla waves is available, provided that the receiver is tuned to the mass-free radiation mode of the source. For example if solar radiation is available in which the mass-free component has not interacted with the earth's atmosphere (as in space applications), the receiver is tuned to the voltage wave of the mass-free radiation sourced in the sun, e.g. by using a Tesla coil in the receiver constructed to have an appropriate voltage wave close to the 51.1 kV characteristic of such radiation.
METHOD FOR THE PRODUCTION OF A FUEL GAS

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes one of the methods which Stan used to split water into hydrogen and oxygen using very low levels of input power.

OBJECTS OF THE INVENTION

It is an object of the invention to provide a fuel cell and a process in which molecules of water are broken down into hydrogen and oxygen gases, and other formerly dissolved within the water is produced. As used herein the term "fuel cell" refers to a single unit of the invention comprising a water capacitor cell, as hereinafter explained, that produces the fuel gas in accordance with the method of the invention.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS:

Fig.1 Illustrates a circuit useful in the process.
Fig. 2 Shows a perspective of a "water capacitor" element used in the fuel cell circuit.

**FIG 2**

Figs. 3A through 3F are illustrations depicting the theoretical bases for the phenomena encountered during operation of the invention herein.

**FIG. 3 (Parts A to F)**

Figs. 3A through 3F are illustrations depicting the theoretical bases for the phenomena encountered during operation of the invention herein.
DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIEMENT

In brief, the invention is a method of obtaining the release of a gas mixture including hydrogen on oxygen and other dissolved gases formerly entrapped in water, from water consisting of:

(a) Providing a capacitor, in which the water is included as a dielectric liquid between capacitor plates, in a resonant charging choke circuit that includes an inductance in series with the capacitor;

(b) Subjecting the capacitor to a pulsating, unipolar electric voltage field in which the polarity does not pass beyond an arbitrary ground, whereby the water molecules within the capacitor are subjected to a charge of the same polarity and the water molecules are distended by their subjection to electrical polar forces;

(c) Further subjecting in said capacitor to said pulsating electric field to achieve a pulse frequency such that the pulsating electric field induces a resonance within the water molecule;

(d) Continuing the application of the pulsating frequency to the capacitor cell after resonance occurs so that the energy level within the molecule is increased in cascading incremental steps in proportion to the number of pulses;

(e) Maintaining the charge of said capacitor during the application of the pulsing field, whereby the co-valent electrical bonding of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms within said molecules is destabilised such that the force of the electrical field applied, as the force is effective within the molecule, exceeds the bonding force of the molecule, and hydrogen and oxygen atoms are liberated from the molecule as elemental gases; and

(f) Collecting said hydrogen and oxygen gases, and any other gases that were formerly dissolved within the water, and discharging the collected gases as a fuel gas mixture.

The process follows the sequence of steps shown in the following Table 1 in which water molecules are subjected to increasing electrical forces. In an ambient state, randomly oriented water molecules are aligned with respect to a molecule polar orientation.

They are next, themselves polarised and "elongated" by the application of an electrical potential to the extent that covalent bonding of the water molecule is so weakened that the atoms dissociate and the molecule breaks down into hydrogen and oxygen elemental components.

Engineering design parameters based on known theoretical principles of electrical circuits determine the incremental levels of electrical and wave energy input required to produce resonance in the system whereby the fuel gas comprised of a mixture of hydrogen, oxygen, and other gases such as air were formerly dissolved within the water, is produced.

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process Steps:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. (ambient state) random</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Alignment of polar fields</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Polarisation of molecule</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Molecular elongation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Atom liberation by breakdown of covalent bond</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Release of gases</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the process, the point of optimum gas release is reached at a circuit resonance. Water in the fuel cell is subjected to a pulsating, polar electric field produced by the electrical circuit whereby the water molecules are distended by reason of their subjection to electrical polar forces of the capacitor plates. The polar pulsating frequency applied is such that the pulsating electric field induces a resonance in the molecule. A cascade effect occurs and the overall energy level of specific water molecules is increased in cascading, incremental steps. The hydrogen and oxygen atomic gases, and other gas components formerly entrapped as dissolved gases in water, are released when the resonant energy exceeds the covalent bonding force of the water molecule. A preferred construction material for the capacitor plates is T304-grade stainless steel which is non-chemical reactive with water, hydrogen, or oxygen. An electrically conductive material which is inert in the fluid environment is a desirable material of construction for the electrical field plates of the "water capacitor" employed in the circuit.

Once triggered, the gas output is controllable by the attenuation of operational parameters. Thus, once the frequency of resonance is identified, by varying the applied pulse voltage to the water fuel cell assembly, gas output is varied. By varying the pulse shape and/or amplitude or pulse train sequence of the initial pulsing wave source, final gas output is varied. Attenuation of the voltage field frequency in the form of OFF and ON pulses likewise affects output.
The overall apparatus thus includes an electrical circuit in which a water capacitor having a known dielectric property is an element. The fuel gases are obtained from the water by the disassociation of the water molecule. The water molecules are split into component atomic elements (hydrogen and oxygen gases) by a voltage stimulation process called the electrical polarisation process which also releases dissolved gases entrapped in the water.

From the outline of physical phenomena associated with the process described in Table 1, the theoretical basis of the invention considers the respective states of molecules and gases and ions derived from liquid water. Before voltage stimulation, water molecules are randomly dispersed throughout water in a container. When a unipolar voltage pulse train such as shown in Figs.3B through 3F is applied to positive and negative capacitor plates, an increasing voltage potential is induced in the molecules in a linear, step like charging effect. The electrical field of the particles within a volume of water including the electrical field plates increases from a low energy state to a high energy state successively is a step manner following each pulse-train as illustrated figuratively in the depictions of Figs.3A through 3F. The increasing voltage potential is always positive in direct relationship to negative ground potential during each pulse. The voltage polarity on the plates which create the voltage fields remains constant although the voltage charge increases. Positive and negative voltage "zones" are thus formed simultaneously in the electrical field of the capacitor plates.

In the first stage of the process described in Table 1, because the water molecule naturally exhibits opposite electrical fields in a relatively polar configuration (the two hydrogen atoms are positively electrically charged relative to the negative electrically charged oxygen atom), the voltage pulse causes initially randomly oriented water molecules in the liquid state to spin and orient themselves with reference to positive and negative poles of the voltage fields applied. The positive electrically charged hydrogen atoms of said water molecule are attracted to a negative voltage field; while, at the same time, the negative electrically charged oxygen atoms of the same water molecule are attracted to a positive voltage field. Even a slight potential difference applied to inert, conductive plates of a containment chamber which forms a capacitor will initiate polar atomic orientation within the water molecule based on polarity differences.

When the potential difference applied causes the orientated water molecules to align themselves between the conductive plates, pulsing causes the voltage field intensity to be increased in accordance with Fig.3B. As further molecule alignment occurs, molecular movement is hindered. Because the positively charged hydrogen atoms of said aligned molecules are attracted in a direction opposite to the negatively charged oxygen atoms, a polar charge alignment or distribution occurs within the molecules between said voltage zones, as shown in Fig.3B. And as the energy level of the atoms subjected to resonant pulsing increases, the stationary water molecules become elongated as shown in Fig.3C and Fig.3D. Electrically charged nuclei and electrons are attracted toward opposite electrically charged equilibrium of the water molecule.

As the water molecule is further exposed to an increasing potential difference resulting from the step charging of the capacitor, the electrical force of attraction of the atoms within the molecule to the capacitor plates of the chamber also increase in strength. As a result, the covalent bonding between which form the molecule is weakened --- and ultimately terminated. The negatively charged electron is attracted toward the positively charged hydrogen atoms, while at the same time, the negatively charged oxygen atoms repel electrons.

In a more specific explanation of the "sub-atomic" action the occurs in the water fuel cell, it is known that natural water is a liquid which has a dielectric constant of 78.54 at 20 degrees C. and 1 atmosphere pressure. [Handbook of Chemistry & Physics, 68th ed., CRC Press(Boca Raton, Florida (1987-88)), Section E-50. H2O(water)].

When a volume of water is isolated and electrically conductive plates, that are chemically inert in water and are separated by a distance, are immersed in water, a capacitor is formed, having a capacitance determined by the surface area of the plates, the distance of their separation and the dielectric constant of water.

When water molecules are exposed to voltage at a restricted current, water takes on an electrical charge. By the laws of electrical attraction, molecules align according to positive and negative polarity fields of the molecule and the alignment field. The plates of the capacitor constitute such as alignment field when a voltage is applied.

When a charge is applied to a capacitor, the electrical charge of the capacitor equals the applied voltage charge; in a water capacitor, the dielectric property of water resists the flow of amps in the circuit, and the water molecule itself, because it has polarity fields formed by the relationship of hydrogen and oxygen in the covalent bond, and intrinsic dielectric property, becomes part of the electrical circuit, analogous to a "microcapacitor" within the capacitor defined by the plates.
In the Example of a fuel cell circuit of Fig. 1, a water capacitor is included. The step-up coil is formed on a conventional toroidal core formed of a compressed ferromagnetic powered material that will not itself become permanently magnetised, such as the trademarked "Ferramic 06# "Permag" powder as described in Siemens Ferrites Catalogue, CG-2000-002-121, (Cleveland, Ohio) No. F626-1205". The core is 1.50 inch in diameter and 0.25 inch in thickness. A primary coil of 200 turns of 24 gauge copper wire is provided and coil of 600 turns of 36 gauge wire comprises the secondary winding.

In the circuit of Fig. 1, the diode is a 1N1198 diode which acts as a blocking diode and an electric switch that allows voltage flow in one direction only. Thus, the capacitor is never subjected to a pulse of reverse polarity.

The primary coil of the toroid is subject to a 50% duty cycle pulse. The toroidal pulsing coil provides a voltage step-up from the pulse generator in excess of five times, although the relative amount of step-up is determined by preselected criteria for a particular application. As the stepped-up pulse enters first inductor (formed from 100 turns of 24 gauge wire 1 inch in diameter), an electromagnetic field is formed around the inductor, voltage is switched off when the pulse ends, and the field collapses and produces another pulse of the same polarity i.e., another positive pulse is formed where the 50% duty cycle was terminated. Thus, a double pulse frequency is produced; however, in pulse train of unipolar pulses, there is a brief time when pulses are not present.

By being so subjected to electrical pulses in the circuit of Fig. 1, water confined in the volume that includes the capacitor plates takes on an electrical charge that is increased by a step charging phenomenon occurring in the water capacitor. Voltage continually increases (to about 1000 volts and more) and the water molecules starts to elongate.

Because a voltage potential applied to a capacitor can perform work, the higher the voltage the higher the voltage potential, the more work is performed by a given capacitor. In an optimum capacitor that is wholly non-conductive, zero (0) current flow will occur across the capacitor. Thus, in view of an idealised capacitor circuit, the object of the water capacitor circuit is to prevent electron flow through the circuit, i.e. such as occurs by electron flow or leakage through a resistive element that produces heat. Electrical leakage in the water will occur, however, because of some residual conductivity and impurities or ions that may be otherwise present in the water. Thus, the water capacitor is preferably chemically inert. An electrolyte is not added to the water.

In the isolated water bath, the water molecule takes on charge, and the charge increases. The object of the process is to switch off the covalent bonding of the water molecule and interrupt the subatomic force, i.e. the electrical force or electromagnetic force, that binds the hydrogen and oxygen atoms to form a molecule so that the hydrogen and oxygen separate.

Because an electron will only occupy a certain electron shell (shells are well known) the voltage applied to the capacitor affects the electrical forces inherent in the covalent bond. As a result of the charge applied by the plates, the applied force becomes greater than the force of the covalent bonds between the atom of the water molecule;
and the water molecule becomes elongated. When this happens, the time share ratio of the electron shells is modified.

In the process, electrons are extracted from the water bath; electrons are not consumed nor are electrons introduced into the water bath by the circuit as electrons are conventionally introduced in as electrolysis process. There may nevertheless occur a leakage current through the water. Those hydrogen atoms missing electrons become neutralised; atoms are liberated from the water. The charged atoms and electrons are attracted to the opposite polarity voltage zones created between the capacitor plates. The electrons formerly shared by atoms in the water covalent bond are reallocated such that neutral elemental gases are liberated.

In the process, the electrical resonance may be reached at all levels of voltage potential. The overall circuit is characterised as a "resonant charging choke" circuit which is an inductor in series with a capacitor that produces a resonant circuit. [SAMS Modern Dictionary of Electronics, Rudolf Garff, copyright 1984, Howard W. Sams & Co. (Indianapolis, Ind.), page 859.] Such a resonant charging choke is on each side of the capacitor. In the circuit, the diode acts as a switch that allows the magnetic field produced in the inductor to collapse, thereby doubling the pulse frequency and preventing the capacitor from discharging. In this manner a continuous voltage is produced across the capacitor plates in the water bath; and the capacitor does not discharge. The water molecules are thus subjected to a continuously charged field until the breakdown of the covalent bond occurs.

As noted initially, the capacitance depends on the dielectric properties of the water and the size and separation of the conductive elements forming the water capacitor.

**EXAMPLE 1**

In an example of the circuit of Fig.1 (in which other circuit element specifications are provided above), two concentric cylinders 4 inches long formed the water capacitor of the fuel cell in the volume of water. The outside cylinder was 0.75 inch in outside diameter; the inner cylinder was 0.5 inch in outside diameter. Spacing from the outside of the inner cylinder to the inner surface of the outside cylinder was 0.0625 inch. Resonance in the circuit was achieved at a 26 volt applied pulse to the primary coil of the toroid at 0 KHz (suspected mis-typing for 10KHz), and the water molecules disassociated into elemental hydrogen and oxygen and the gas released from the fuel cell comprised a mixture of hydrogen, oxygen from the water molecule, and gases formerly dissolved in the water such as the atmospheric gases or oxygen, nitrogen, and argon.

In achieving resonance in any circuit, as the pulse frequency is adjusted, the flow of amps is minimised and the voltage is maximised to a peak. Calculation of the resonance frequency of an overall circuit is determined by known means; different cavities have a different frequency of resonance dependant on parameters of the water dielectric, plate size, configuration and distance, circuit inductors, and the like. Control of the production of fuel gas is determined by variation of the period of time between a train of pulses, pulse amplitude and capacitor plate size and configuration, with corresponding value adjustments to other circuit components.

The wiper arm on the second conductor tunes the circuit and accommodates to contaminants in water so that the charge is always applied to the capacitor. The voltage applied determines the rate of breakdown of the molecule into its atomic components. As water in the cell is consumed, it is replaced by any appropriate means or control system.

Variations of the process and apparatus may be evident to those skilled in the art.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes one method for using hydrogen and oxygen gases to fuel a standard vehicle engine.

ABSTRACT
System and apparatus for the controlled intermixing of a volatile hydrogen gas with oxygen and other non-combustible gasses in a combustion system. In a preferred arrangement the source of volatile gas is a hydrogen source, and the non-combustible gasses are the exhaust gasses of the combustion system in a closed loop arrangement. Specific structure for the controlled mixing of the gasses, the fuel flow control, and safety are disclosed.

CROSS REFERENCES AND BACKGROUND
There is disclosed in my co-pending U.S. patent application Serial No. 802,807 filed Sept. 16, 1981 for a Hydrogen-Generator, a generating system converting water into hydrogen and oxygen gasses. In that system and method the hydrogen atoms are dissociated from a water molecule by the application of a non-regulated, non-filtered, low-power, direct current voltage electrical potential applied to two non-oxidising similar metal plates having water passing between them. The sub-atomic action is enhanced by pulsing this DC voltage. The apparatus comprises structural configurations in alternative embodiments for segregating the generated hydrogen gas from the oxygen gas.

In my co-pending patent application filed May 5, 1981, U.S. Serial No. 262,744 now abandoned for Hydrogen-Airdation Processor, non-volatile and non-combustible gasses are controlled in a mixing stage with a volatile gas. The hydrogen airdation processor system utilises a rotational mechanical gas displacement system to transfer, meter, mix, and pressurise the various gasses. In the gas transformation process, ambient air is passed through an open flame gas-burner system to eliminate gasses and other substances present. After that, the non-combustible gas-mixture is cooled, filtered to remove impurities, and mechanically mixed with a pre-determined amount of hydrogen gas. This results in a new synthetic gas.

This synthetic gas-formation stage also measures the volume and determines the proper gas-mixing ratio for establishing the desired burn-rate of hydrogen gas. The rotational mechanical gas displacement system in that process determines the volume of synthetic gas to be produced.

The above-noted hydrogen airdation processor, of my co-pending application, is a multi-stage system suited to special applications. Whereas the hydrogen generator system of my other mentioned co-pending application does disclose a very simple and unique hydrogen generator.

In my co-pending patent application Serial No. 315,945, filed Oct. 18, 1981 there is disclosed a combustion system incorporating a mechanical drive system. In one instance, this is designed to drive a piston in an automotive device. There is shown a hydrogen generator for developing hydrogen gas, and perhaps other non-volatile gasses such as oxygen and nitrogen. The hydrogen gas with the attendant non-volatile gasses is fed via a line to a controlled air intake system. The combined hydrogen, non-volatile gasses, and the air, after inter-mixing, are fed to a combustion chamber where they are ignited. The exhaust gasses of the combustion chamber are returned in a closed loop arrangement to the mixing chamber to be used again as the non-combustible gas component. Particular applications and structural embodiments of the system are disclosed.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
The system of the present invention in its most preferred embodiment is for a combustion system utilising hydrogen gas; particularly to drive the pistons in an car engine. The system utilises a hydrogen generator for developing hydrogen gas. The hydrogen gas and other non-volatile gasses are then fed, along with oxygen, to a mixing chamber. The mixture is controlled in such a way as to lower the temperature of the combustion to bring it in line with that of the currently existing commercial fuels. The hydrogen gas feed line to the combustion chamber includes a fine linear control gas flow valve. An air intake is the source of oxygen and it also includes a variable
valve. The exhaust gasses from the combustion chamber are utilised in a controlled manner as the non-combustible gasses.

The hydrogen generator is improved by the inclusion of a holding tank which provides a source of start-up fuel. Also, the hydrogen gas generator includes a pressure-controlled safety switch on the combustion chamber which disconnects the input power if the gas pressure rises above the required level. The simplified structure includes a series of one-way valves, safety valves, and quenching apparatus. The result is an apparatus which comprises the complete assembly for converting a standard car engine from petrol (or other fuels) to use a hydrogen/gas mixture.

OBJECTS
It is accordingly a principal object of the present invention to provide a combustion system of gasses combined from a source of hydrogen and non-combustible gasses.

Another object of the invention is to provide such a combustion system that intermixes the hydrogen and non-combustible gasses in a controlled manner and thereby control the combustion temperature.

A further object of the invention is to provide such a combustion system that controls the fuel flow to the combustion chamber in s system and apparatus particularly adapted to hydrogen gas.

Still other objects and features of the present invention will become apparent from the following detailed description when taken in conjunction with the drawings in which:

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig.1 is a mechanical schematic illustration partly in block form of the present invention in its most preferred embodiment.
Fig. 2 is a block schematic illustration of the preferred embodiment of the hydrogen injector system shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 is the fine linear fuel flow control shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 4 is cross-sectional illustration of the complete fuel injector system in an car utilising the concepts of the present invention.
**Fig. 5** is a schematic drawing in a top view of the fuel injector system utilised in the preferred embodiment.

**Fig. 6** is a cross-sectional side view of the fuel injector system in the present invention.

**Fig. 7** is a side view of the fuel mixing chamber.

**Fig. 8** is a top view of the air intake valve to fuel mixing chamber.
Fig. 9 is a comparison of the burning velocity of hydrogen with respect to other fuels.

**DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF INVENTION TAKEN WITH DRAWINGS:**

Referring to Fig. 1, the complete overall gas mixing and fuel flow system is illustrated together for utilisation in a combustion engine, particularly an engine in a car. With specific reference to Fig. 1, the hydrogen source 10 is the hydrogen generator disclosed and described in my co-pending application, supra. The container 10 is an enclosure for a water bath 2. Immersed in the water 2 is an array of plates 3 as further described in my co-pending application, supra. Applied to plates 3 is a source of direct current potential via electrical inlet 27. The upper portion 7 of the container 10 is a hydrogen storage area maintaining a predetermined amount of pressure. In this way, there will be an immediate flow of hydrogen gas at start-up.
To replenish the expended water, the generator provides a continuous water source. Thereafter, the generator is operable as described in the aforesaid patent application. The safety valve is designed to rupture should there be an excessive build-up of gas. Switch is a gas-pressure switch included to maintain a predetermined gas pressure level about a regulated low-volume.

The generated hydrogen gas is fed from the one-way check valve via pipe to a gas-mixing chamber, where the hydrogen gas is mixed with non-combustible gasses via pipe from a source described later.

If the one-way valve failed, there could be a return spark which could ignite the hydrogen gas in the storage area of the hydrogen generator. To prevent this, the quenching assembly has been included to prevent just such an ignition.

With particular reference to Fig.2, the hydrogen gas (via pipe) and non-combustible gasses (via pipe), are fed to a carburettor (air-mixture) system also having an air intake for ambient air.

The hydrogen gas is fed via line through nozzle in a spray in to the trap area of the mixing chamber. Nozzle has an opening smaller than the plate openings in the quenching assembly, thereby preventing flash-back in the event of sparking. The non-volatile gasses are injected into mixing chamber in a jet spray via nozzle. Quenching assembly is operable much in the same manner as quenching assembly.

In the preferred arrangement, the ambient air is the source of oxygen necessary for the combustion of the hydrogen gas. Further, as disclosed in the aforesaid co-pending application, the non-volatile gasses are in fact, the exhaust gasses passed back via a closed loop system. It is to be understood that the oxygen and/or the non-combustible gasses might also be provided from an independent source.

With continued reference to Fig.2 the gas trap area is a predetermined size. As hydrogen is lighter than air, the hydrogen will rise and become trapped in area. Area is large enough to contain enough hydrogen gas to allow instant ignition upon the subsequent start-up of the combustion engine.

It will be noted that the hydrogen gas is injected in the uppermost region of the trap area. Hydrogen rises at a much greater rate than oxygen or the non-combustible gasses; perhaps three times or greater. Therefore, if the hydrogen gas entered the trap area (mixing area) at its lowermost region the hydrogen gas would rise so rapidly that the air could not mix with the oxygen. With the trap area shown in Fig.2, the hydrogen is forced downwards into the air intake. That is, the hydrogen gas is forced downwards into the upwardly forced air and this causes adequate mixing of the gasses.

The ratio of the ambient air (oxygen) and the non-combustible gas via line is a controlled ratio which is tailored to the particular engine. Once the proper combustion rate has been determined by the adjustment of valve (for varying the amount of the non-combustible gas) and the adjustment of valve (for varying the amount of the ambient air), the ratio is maintained thereafter.

In a system where the non-combustible gasses are the exhaust gasses of the engine itself, passed back through a closed loop-arrangement, and where the air intake is controlled by the engine, the flow velocity and hence the air/non-combustible mixture, is maintained by the acceleration of the engine.
The mixture of air with non-combustible gasses becomes the carrier for the hydrogen gas. That is, the hydrogen gas is mixed with the air/non-combustible gas mixture. By varying the amount of hydrogen gas added to the air/non-combustible mixture, the engine speed is controlled.

Reference is made to Fig.3 which shows in a side view cross-section, the fine linear fuel flow control 53. The hydrogen gas 4 enters chamber 43 via gas inlet 41. The hydrogen gas passes from chamber 43 to chamber 47 via port or opening 42. The amount of gas passing form chamber 43 to chamber 47 is dictated by the setting of the port opening 42.

The port opening is controlled by inserting the linearly tapered pin 73 into it. The blunt end of pin 73 is fixed to rod 71. Rod 71 is passed, (via supporting O-ring 75), through opening 81 in housing 30, to the manual adjustment mechanism 83.

Spring 49 retains the rod 71 in a fixed position relative to pin 73 and opening 42. When mechanism 83 is operated, pin 73 moves back from the opening 42. As pin 73 is tapered, this backward movement increases the free area of opening 42, thereby increasing the amount of gas passing from chamber 43 to chamber 47.

The stops 67 and 69 maintain spring 49 in its stable position. The nuts 63 and 67 on threaded rod 61 are used to set the minimum open area of opening 42 by the correct positioning of pin 73. This minimum opening setting, controls the idle speed of the engine, so pin 73 is locked in its correct position by nuts 63 and 67. This adjustment controls the minimum rate of gas flow from chamber 43 to chamber 47 which will allow continuous operation of the combustion engine.

Referring now to Fig.8 which illustrates the air adjustment control for manipulating the amount of air passing into the mixing chamber 20. The closure 21 mounted on plate 18 has an opening 17 on end 11. A plate-control 42 is mounted so as to slide over opening 17. The position of this plate, relative to opening 17, is controlled by the position of the control rod 19 which passes through grommet 12 to control line 13. Release valve 24 is designed to rupture should any malfunction occur which causes the combustion of the gasses in mixing chamber 20.

With reference now to Fig.4, if hydrogen gas 4 were to accumulate in mixing chamber 20 and reach an excessive pressure, the escape tube 36 which is connected to port 34 (located on the car bonnet 32), permits the excess hydrogen gas to escape safely to the atmosphere. In the event of a malfunction which causes the combustion of the gasses in mixing chamber 20, the pressure relief valve 33 will rupture, expelling the hydrogen gas without combustion.

In the constructed arrangement of Fig.1, there is illustrated a gas control system which may be fitted to an existing car’s internal combustion engine without changing or modifying the car’s design parameters or characteristics. The flow of the volatile hydrogen gas is, of course, critical; therefore, there is incorporated in line 5 a gas-flow valve 53, and this is used to adjust the hydrogen flow. This gas-flow valve is shown in detail in Fig.3.
The intake air 14 may be in a carburettor arrangement with an intake adjustment 55 which adjusts the plate 42 opening. This is shown more fully in Fig.8. To maintain constant pressure in hydrogen gas storage 7 in the on-off operation of the engine, the gas flow control valve is responsive to the electrical shut-off control 33. The constant pressure permits an abundant supply of gas on start-up and during certain periods of running time in re-supply.

The switch 33 is in turn responsive to the vacuum control switch 60. During running of the engine vacuum will be built up which in turn leaves switch 33 open by contact with vacuum switch 60 through lead 60a. When the engine is not running the vacuum will decrease to zero and through switch 60 will cause electrical switch 33 to shut off cutting off the flow of hydrogen gas to the control valve 53.

As low-voltage direct current is applied to safety valve 28, solenoid 29 is activated. The solenoid applies a control voltage to the hydrogen generator exciter 3 via terminal 27 through pressure switch 26. As the electrical power activates solenoid 29, hydrogen gas is caused to pass through flow adjustment valve 16 and then outlet pipe 5 for utilisation. The pressure differential hydrogen gas output to gas mixing chamber 20 is for example 30 lbs. to 15 lbs. Once hydrogen generator 10 reaches an optimum gas pressure level, pressure switch 26 shuts off the electrical power to the hydrogen exciters. If the chamber pressure exceeds a predetermined level, the safety release valve 28 is activated disconnecting the electrical current and thereby shutting down the entire system for safety inspection.

With particular reference now to Fig.6 which illustrates the fuel injector system in a side cross-sectional view and to Fig.5 the top view. The structural apparatus incorporated in the preferred embodiment comprises housing 90 which has air intakes 14a and 14e. The air passes through filter 91 around the components 14b and 14c and then to intake 14d of the mixing chamber 20. The hydrogen enters via line 5 via quenching plates 37 and into the mixing chamber 20. The non-volatile gasses pass via line 9 to the quenching plates 39 and into the mixing chamber 20.
Returning to Fig. 1 there is illustrated the non-volatile gas line 9 passing through mixture pump 91 by engine pulley 93. Valve 95 controls the rate of flow. Also driven by pulley 93 is pump 96 having line 85 connected to an oil reservoir 92 and valve 87 and finally to mixing chamber 20. As a practical matter, such as in a non-oil lubricated engine, lubricating fluid such as oil 81 is sprayed in the chamber 20, via oil supply line 85 for lubrication.

There have been several publications in the past year or so, delving into the properties of Hydrogen gas, its potential use, generating systems, and safety. One such publication is "Selected Properties of Hydrogen" (Engineering Design Data) issued February 1981 by the National Bureau of Standards.

These publications are primarily concerned with the elaborate and costly processes for generating hydrogen. Equally so, they are concerned with the very limited use of hydrogen gas because of its extremely high burning velocities. This in turn reflects the danger in the practical use of hydrogen.

With reference to the graph of the Appendix A, it is seen that the burning velocities of alcohol, propane, methane, petrol, Liquid Petroleum Gas, and diesel oil are in the range of minimum 35 to maximum 45. Further, the graph illustrates that the burning velocity of hydrogen gas is in the range of 265 minimum to 325 maximum. In simple terms, the burning velocity of hydrogen is of the order of 7.5 times the burning velocity of ordinary commercial fuels.

Because of the unusually high burning velocity of hydrogen gas, it has been ruled out as a substitute fuel, by these prior investigators. Further, even if an engine could be designed to accommodate such high burning velocities, the danger of explosion would eliminate any thoughts of commercial use.

The present invention, as above described, has resolved the above-noted criteria for the use of hydrogen gas in a standard commercial engine. Primarily, the cost in the generation of hydrogen gas, as noted in the aforementioned co-pending patent applications, is minimal. Water with no chemicals or metals is used. Also, as noted in the aforementioned co-pending patent applications, the reduction in the hydrogen gas burn velocity has
been achieved. These co-pending applications not only teach the reduction in velocity, but teach the control of the velocity of the hydrogen gas.

In the preferred embodiment, practical apparatus adapting the hydrogen generator to a combustion engine is described. The apparatus linearly controls the hydrogen gas flow to a mixing chamber mixing with a controlled amount of non-combustible gas oxygen, hence, the reduction in the hydrogen gas velocity. The reduction in the hydrogen gas velocity makes the use of hydrogen as safe as other fuels.

In more practical terms the ordinary internal combustion engine of any size or type of fuel, is retrofitted to be operable with only water as a fuel source. Hydrogen gas is generated from the water without the use of chemicals or metals and at a very low voltage. The burning velocity of the hydrogen gas has been reduced to that of conventional fuels. Finally, every component or step in the process has one or more safety valves or features thereby making the hydrogen gas system safer than that of conventional cars.

In the above description the terms ‘non-volatile’ and ‘non-combustible’ were used. It is to be understood they are intended to be the same; that is, simply, gas which will not burn.

Again, the term ‘storage’ has been used, primarily with respect to the hydrogen storage area 7. It is not intended that the term ‘storage’ be taken literally; in fact, it is not storage, but a temporary holding area. With respect to area 7, this area retains a sufficient amount of hydrogen for immediate start-up.

Other terms, features, apparatus, and the such have been described with reference to a preferred embodiment. It is to be understood modifications and alternatives can be had without departing from the spirit and scope of the invention.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes how to burn the hydrogen and oxygen gas mix produced by electrolysis of water. Normally, the flame produced is too hot for practical use other than cutting metal or welding. This patent shows a method of reducing the flame temperature to levels suitable for general use in boilers, stoves, heaters, etc.

**ABSTRACT**

A hydrogen gas burner for the mixture of hydrogen gas with ambient air and non-combustible gasses. The mixture of gasses when ignited provides a flame of extremely high, but controlled intensity and temperature.

The structure comprises a housing and a hydrogen gas inlet directed to a combustion chamber positioned within the housing. Air intake ports are provided for adding ambient air to the combustion chamber for ignition of the hydrogen gas by an ignitor therein. At the other end of the housing there is positioned adjacent to the outlet of the burner (flame) a barrier/heating element. The heating element uniformly disperses the flame and in turn absorbs the heat. The opposite side to the flame, the heating element uniformly disperses the extremely hot air. A non-combustible gas trap adjacent to the heating element captures a small portion of the non-combustible gas (burned air). A return line from the trap returns the captured non-combustible gas in a controlled ratio to the burning chamber for mixture with the hydrogen gas and the ambient air.

**CROSS REFERENCE**

The hydrogen/oxygen generator utilised in the present invention is that disclosed and claimed in my co-pending patent application, Serial. No.: 302,807, filed: Sept. 16, 1981, for: HYDROGEN GENERATOR SYSTEM. In that process for separating hydrogen and oxygen atoms from water having impurities, the water is passed between two plates of similar non-oxidising metal. No electrolyte is added to the water. The one plate has placed thereon a positive potential and the other a negative potential from a very low amperage direct-current power source. The sub-atomic action of the direct current voltage on the non-electrolytic water causes the hydrogen and oxygen atoms to be separated—and similarly other gasses entrapped in the water such as nitrogen. The contaminants in the water that are not released are forced to disassociate themselves and may be collected or utilised and disposed of in a known manner.

The direct current acts as a static force on the water molecules; whereas the non-regulated rippling direct current acts as a dynamic force. Pulsating the direct current further enhances the release of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms from the water molecules.

In my co-pending patent application, Serial. No. 262,744, filed: May 11, 1981, for: HYDROGEN AERATION PROCESSOR, there is disclosed and claimed the utilisation of the hydrogen/oxygen gas generator. In that system, the burn rate of the hydrogen gas is controlled by the controlled addition of non-combustible gasses to the mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gasses.

**SUMMARY OF INVENTION**

The present invention is for a hydrogen gas burner and comprises a combustion chamber for the mixture of hydrogen gas, ambient air, and non-combustible gasses. The mixture of gasses is ignited and burns at a retarded velocity rate and temperature from that of hydrogen gas, but at a higher temperature rate than other gasses.

The extremely narrow hydrogen gas mixture flame of very high temperature is restricted from the utilisation means by a heat absorbing barrier. The flame strikes the barrier which in turn disperses the flame and absorbs the heat therefrom and thereafter radiates the heat as extremely hot air into the utilisation means.

Positioned on the opposite side of the heat radiator/barrier is a hot air trap. A small portion of the radiated heat is captured and returned to the combustion chamber as non-combustible gasses. Valve means in the return line regulates the return of the non-combustible gas in a controlled amount to control the mixture.
The present invention is principally intended for use with the hydrogen generator of my co-pending patent application, supra; but it is not to be so limited and may be utilised with any other source of hydrogen gas.

**OBJECTS**

It is accordingly a principal object of the present application to provide a hydrogen gas burner that has a temperature controlled flame and a heat radiator/barrier.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a hydrogen gas burner that is capable of utilising the heat from a confined high temperature flame.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a hydrogen gas burner that is retarded from that of hydrogen gas, but above that of other gasses.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a hydrogen gas burner that utilises the exhaust air as non-combustible gas for mixture with the hydrogen gas.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a hydrogen gas burner that is simple but rugged and most importantly safe for all intended purposes.

Other objects and features of the present invention will become apparent from the following detailed description when taken in conjunction with the drawings in which:
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig. 1 is an overall cross-sectional view of the present invention in its most preferred embodiment.

Fig. 2 is a graphical illustration of the burning of various standard fuels with that of hydrogen velocities.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF INVENTION
With particular reference Fig.1 there is illustrated in a schematic cross-section the principals of the present invention. The structure of the preferred embodiment comprises a housing 10, having an igniter 20 extending through the wall 11 thereof. A combustion chamber 60 positioned within the housing 10 has a first open end 62. A hydrogen gas 72 inlet 30 directs hydrogen gas via port 37 from a source 35 to the inlet 62 of the combustion chamber 68. Also directed to the same inlet 62, and assisted by flanges 64 and 66, is ambient air 70 entering through ports 13 in the housing 10.

Adjacent the opposite end of the combustion chamber 60 the gas mixture 75 is ignited by the ignitor 20 to produce flame 77. The velocity of the flame 77 causes it to strike and penetrate the barrier/radiator 50. The barrier 50 is of a material, such as metallic mesh or ceramic material, to disperse therein the flame and in turn become saturated with heat. The flame 77 is of a size sufficient to be dispersed throughout the barrier 50, but yet, not penetrate through the barrier 50.

Radiated from the surface 52 of the barrier 50 is superheated air 56 (gasses) to be passed on to a utilisation device. Adjacent to surface 52 of barrier/radiator 50 is a hot air trap 40 with closed loop line 45 returning non-combustible gas 44 to the combustion chamber 60. Control valve 42 is intermediate the line 45.

In operation of the preferred embodiment hydrogen gas, 72, emitted from the nozzle 37 is directed to the combustion chamber 60. The flanges 64 and 66 on the open end of housing 63 of the combustion chamber 60 enlarges the open end of 62. In the enlargement ambient air from the opening 13 in the housing 10 is also directed to the combustion chamber 60.

The ambient air and hydrogen traverses the opening 43 and further mixes with the non-combustible gas 44 from the closed loop line 45 with the hot air trap 40. The mixture of hydrogen gas 72, ambient air 70, and non-combustible gas 44, is ignited by the ignitor 20 having electrical electrodes 21 and 23. Upon ignition flame 77 ensues. The mixture is controlled with each of three gasses. That is, the line 32 from the hydrogen source 35 has a valve 38 therein for controlling the amount of hydrogen 72 emitted from the nozzle 37. The opening 13 has a
plate adjustment 15 for controlling the amount of ambient air 60 directed to the combustion chamber 60, and the closed-loop line has valve 42, as aforesaid, for controlling the amount of non-combustible gasses in the mixture.

It can be appreciated that the temperature of the flame 77 and the velocity of the flame 77 is a function of the percentage of the various gasses in the mixture. In a practical embodiment, the flame 70 temperature and velocity was substantially retarded from that of a hydrogen flame per se; but yet, much greater than the temperature and velocity of the flame from the gasses utilised in a conventional heating system.

To maintain a sufficient pressure for combustion of the hydrogen gas mixture with a minimum of pressure (for safety) and to limit blow-out, the nozzle 37 opening 39 is extremely small. As a consequence, if the hydrogen gas were burned directly from the nozzle 37, the flame would be finite in diameter. Further, its velocity would be so great it is questionable whether a flame could be sustained. The mixing of ambient air and non-combustible gas does enlarge the flame size and reduce its velocity. However, to maintain a flame higher in temperature and velocity than the conventional gasses, the size and temperature of the flame is controlled by the mixture mentioned earlier.

Therefore, to utilise the flame 77 in a present day utilisation means, the flame is barred by the barrier 50. The barrier 50 is of a material that can absorb safely the intense flame 77 and thereafter radiate heat from its entire surface 52. The material 54 can be a ceramic, metallic mesh or other heat absorbing material known in the art. The radiated heat 56 is directed to the utilisation means.

As stated earlier, the mixture of gasses which are burned include non-combustible gasses. As indicated in the above-noted co-pending patent applications, an excellent source of non-combustible gasses is exhaust gasses. In this embodiment, the trap 50 entraps the hot air 74 and returns the same, through valve 42, to the combustion chamber 60 as non-combustible gas.

With reference to Fig.2 there is illustrated the burning velocity of various standard fuels. It can be seen the common type of fuel burns at a velocity substantially less than hydrogen gas. The ratio of hydrogen with non-combustible oxygen gasses is varied to obtain optimum burning velocity and temperature for the particular utilisation. Once this is attained, the ratio, under normal conditions, will not be altered. Other uses having different fuel burn temperature and velocity will be adjusted in ratio of hydrogen/oxygen to non-combustible gasses in the same manner as exemplified above.

Further, perhaps due to the hydrogen gas velocity, there will occur unburned gas at the flame 77 output. The barrier 50, because of its material makeup will retard the movement and trap the unburned hydrogen gas. As the superheated air 77 is dispersed within the material 54, the unburned hydrogen gas is ignited and burns therein. In this way the barrier 50 performs somewhat in the nature of an after-burner.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes in considerable detail, one of Stan's methods for splitting water into hydrogen and oxygen gasses and the subsequent methods for using those gasses.

ABSTRACT
Water molecules are broken down into hydrogen and oxygen gas atoms in a capacitive cell by a polarisation and resonance process dependent on the dielectric properties of water and water molecules. The gas atoms are then ionised or otherwise energised and thermally combusted to release a degree of energy greater than that of combustion of the gas in air.

OBJECTS OF THE INVENTION
A first object of the invention is to provide a fuel cell and a process in which molecules of water are broken down into hydrogen and oxygen gasses, and a fuel gas mixture comprised of hydrogen, oxygen and other gasses formerly dissolved in the water, is produced. A further object of the invention is to realise significant energy-yield from a fuel gas derived from water molecules. Molecules of water are broken down into hydrogen and oxygen gasses. Electrically charged hydrogen and oxygen ions of opposite electrical polarity are activated by electromagnetic wave energy and exposed to a high temperature thermal zone. Significant amounts of thermal energy with explosive force beyond the gas burning stage are released.

An explosive thermal energy under a controlled state is produced. The process and apparatus provide a heat energy source useful for power generation, aircraft rocket engines or space stations.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Figs.1A through 1F are illustrations depicting the theoretical bases for phenomena encountered during operation of the fuel gas production stage of the invention.
Fig. 2 illustrates a circuit which is useful in the fuel gas generation process.
Fig. 3 shows a perspective of a “water capacitor” element used in the fuel cell circuit.

![Figure 3](image3.png)

**FIGURE 3**

Fig. 4 illustrates a staged arrangement of apparatus useful in the process, beginning with a water inlet and culminating in the production of thermal explosive energy.

![Figure 4](image4.png)

**FIGURE 4**
Fig. 5A shows a cross-section of a circular gas resonant cavity used in the final stage assembly of Fig. 4.
**Fig. 5B** shows an alternative final stage injection system useful in the apparatus of **Fig. 4**.

**Fig. 5C** shows an optical thermal lens assembly for use with either final stage of **Fig. 5A** or **Fig. 5B**.
Figs. 6A, 6B, 6C and 6D are illustrations depicting various theoretical bases for atomic phenomena expected to occur during operation of this invention.
Fig. 7 is an electrical schematic of the voltage source for the gas resonant cavity.

Figs. 8A and 8B respectively, show (A) an electron extractor grid used in the injector assemblies of Fig. 5A and Fig. 5B, and (B) the electronic control circuit for the extractor grid.
Fig. 9 shows an alternative electrical circuit useful in providing a pulsating waveform to the apparatus.

![Diagram](image)

**TABLE 1: PROCESS STEPS LEADING TO IGNITION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative State of Water Molecule and/or Hydrogen/Oxygen/Other Atoms</th>
<th>Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Random (ambient state) alignment of polar fields, polarisation of molecules. Molecular elongation. Atom liberation by breakdown of covalent bond</td>
<td>1st Stage: Water to Gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Release of gasses, Liquid to gas ionisation, Electrical charging effect, Particle Impact</td>
<td>2nd Stage: Gas Ionisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electromagnetic Wave, Laser or photon injection, Electron extraction, Atomic destabilisation</td>
<td>3rd Stage: Priming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal Ignition</td>
<td>Final Stage: Ignition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

A fuel gas is produced by a hydrogen fracturing process which follows the sequence of steps shown in Table 1. Beginning with water molecules, the molecule is subjected to successively increasing electrical wave energy and thermal forces. In the succession of forces, randomly orientated water molecules are aligned with respect to molecular polar orientation and themselves polarised and “elongated” by the application of an electric potential, to the extent that the co-valent bonding of the water molecules is so weakened that the atoms disassociate and the molecule breaks down into hydrogen and oxygen elemental components. Next, the released atomic gasses are ionised and electrically charged in a vessel while being subjected to a further energy source which promotes inter-particle impact in the gas at an increased overall energy level. Finally, the atomic particles in the excited gas, having achieved successively higher energy levels, are subjected to a laser or electromagnetic wave energy source which produces atomic destabilisation and the final release of thermal explosive energy.

Engineering design parameters based on known theoretical principles of atomic physics, determine the incremental levels of electrical and wave energy input required to produce resonance in each stage of the system. Instead of a dampening effect, a resonant energisation of the molecule, atom or ion provides a compounding energy interaction resulting in the final energy release.

In brief, in the first stage, a gas mixture including hydrogen, oxygen and other gasses formerly dissolved in the water, is obtained from water. In general, the method used in the first stage consists of:

(A) Providing a capacitor, in which the water is included as a dielectric liquid between capacitor plates, in a resonant charging choke circuit, which includes an inductor in series with the capacitor.

(B) Subjecting the capacitor to a pulsating, unipolar electric voltage field in which the polarity does not pass beyond an arbitrary ground, whereby the water molecules within the capacitor are subjected to a charge of the same polarity, and the water molecules are distended by the electrical polar forces.

(C) Further subjecting the water in the capacitor to the pulsating electric field to achieve a pulse frequency which induces a resonance within the water molecule.

(D) Continuing the application of the pulsing frequency to the capacitor cell after resonance occurs so that the energy level within the molecule is increased in cascading incremental steps in proportion to the number of pulses.

(E) Maintaining the charge of the capacitor during the application of the pulsating field, whereby the co-valent electrical bonding of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms within the water molecules is destabilised to such a degree that the force of the electrical field within the molecule exceeds the bonding force of the molecule, causing the molecule to break apart into the elemental gasses of hydrogen and oxygen.

(F) Collecting the hydrogen and oxygen gasses, along with any other gasses formerly dissolved in the water, and discharging the collected gasses as a fuel gas mixture.

The water molecules are subjected to increasing electrical forces. In an ambient state, randomly orientated water molecules are aligned with respect to a molecular polar orientation. Next, they themselves are polarised and “elongated” by the application of an electrical potential to the extent that co-valent bonding of the water molecules is so weakened that the atoms disassociate and the molecule breaks down into hydrogen and oxygen elemental components. In this process, the point of optimum gas release is reached when the circuit is at resonant frequency. Water in the cell is subjected to a pulsating, polar electric field produced by the electrical circuit, whereby the water molecules are distended by the electrical force on the plates of the capacitor. The polar pulsating frequency applied is such that the pulsating electric field induces a resonance in the molecules. A cascade effect occurs, and the overall energy of specific water molecules is increased in cascading incremental steps. The hydrogen and oxygen are released when the resonant energy exceeds the co-valent bonding force of the water molecules.

A preferred construction material for the capacitor plates is stainless steel T-304 which does not react chemically with water, hydrogen or oxygen. An electrically conductive material which is inert in the fluid environment, is a desirable material of construction for the electric field plates of the “water capacitor” employed in the circuit.

Once triggered, the gas output is controllable by the attenuation of operational parameters. Thus, once the frequency of resonance is identified, by varying the applied pulse voltage to the water fuel cell assembly, gas output is varied. By varying the pulse shape, pulse amplitude or pulse train sequence, the gas output can be varied. Attenuation of the voltage field’s mark/space ratio of OFF/ON periods also affects the rate of gas production.

The overall apparatus thus includes and electrical circuit in which a water capacitor is an element. The water capacitor has a known dielectric property. The fuel gasses are obtained from the water by the disassociation of the water molecules. The water molecules are split into component atomic elements by a voltage stimulation process called the ‘electrical Polarisation process’ which also releases dissolved gasses trapped in the water.
From the outline of physical phenomena associated with the first stage of the process described in Table 1, the theoretical basis of the invention considers the respective states of molecules, gasses and ions derived from liquid water. Before voltage stimulation, water molecules are randomly dispersed throughout water in a container. When a unipolar voltage pulse train such as that shown in Figs.1B through 1F is applied to positive and negative capacitor plates, and increasing voltage potential is induced in the molecules in a linear, step-like charging effect. The electrical field of the particles within a volume of water including the electrical field plates, increases from a low energy state to a high energy state in a step manner following each pulse train as illustrated figuratively in Figs.1A through 1F. The increasing voltage potential is always positive in direct relationship to negative ground potential during each pulse. The voltage polarity on the plates which create the voltage fields remains constant although the voltage charge increases. Positive and negative voltage “zones” are thus formed simultaneously in the electrical field of the capacitor plates.

In the first stage of the process described in Table 1, because the water molecule naturally exhibits opposite electrical fields in a relatively polar configuration (the two hydrogen atoms have a positive charge while the oxygen atom has a negative charge), the voltage pulse causes the water molecules which were initially orientated in random directions, to spin and align themselves with the electrical field applied to the cell. The positively charged hydrogen atoms are attracted to the negative field while the negatively charged oxygen atoms, of the same water molecule, are attracted to the positive voltage field. Even a slight potential difference between the plates of a containment chamber capacitor will initiate the alignment of each water molecule within the cell.

When the voltage applied to the plates causes the water molecules to align themselves, then the pulsing causes the voltage field intensity to be increased in accordance with Fig.1B. As further molecular alignment occurs, molecular movement is hindered. Because the positively charged hydrogen atoms of the aligned molecules are attracted in a direction opposite to the negatively charged oxygen atoms, a polar charge alignment or distribution occurs within the molecules between the voltage zones as shown in Fig.1B, and as the energy level of the atoms, subjected to resonant pulsing, increases, the stationary water molecules become elongated as shown in Figs.1C and 1D. Electrically charged nuceli and electrons are attracted towards opposite electrically charged voltage zones - disrupting the mass and charge equilibrium of the water molecule.

As the water molecule is further exposed to an increasing potential difference resulting from the step charging of the capacitor, the electrical force of attraction of the atoms within the molecule to the capacitor plates of the chamber also increases in strength. As a result, the co-valent bonding between the atoms of the molecule is weakened and ultimately, terminated. The negatively charged electron is attracted toward the positively charged hydrogen atoms, while at the same time, the negatively charged oxygen atoms repel electrons.

In a more specific explanation of the “sub-atomic action which occurs in the water cell, it is known that natural water is a liquid which has a dielectric constant of 78.54 at 20 degrees Centigrade and 1 atmosphere of pressure [Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, Section E-50].

When a volume of water is isolated and electrically conductive plates that are chemically inert in water and which are separated by a distance, are immersed in the water, a capacitor is formed, having a capacitance determined by the surface area of the plates, the distance of their separation and the dielectric constant of the water.

When water molecules are exposed to voltage at a restricted current, water takes on an electrical charge. By the laws of electrical attraction, molecules align according to positive and negative polarity fields of the molecule and the alignment field. The plates of a capacitor constitute such an alignment field when a voltage is applied across them.

When a charge is applied to a capacitor, the electrical charge of the capacitor equals the applied voltage charge. In a water capacitor, the dielectric property of water resists the flow of current in the circuit, and the water molecule itself, because it has polarity fields formed by the relationship of hydrogen and oxygen in the co-valent bond, and an intrinsic dielectric property, becomes part of the electrical circuit, analogous to a “microcapacitor” within the capacitor defined by the plates.

In the Example of a fuel cell circuit of Fig.2, a water capacitor is included. The step-up coil is formed on a conventional torroidal core formed of a compressed ferromagnetic powered material that will not itself become permanently magnetised, such as the trademarked “Ferramic 06# Permag” powder as described in Siemens Ferrites Catalogue, CG-2000-002-121, (Cleveland, Ohio) No. F626-1205. The core is 1.50 inch in diameter and 0.25 inch in thickness. A primary coil of 200 turns of 24 AWG gauge copper wire is provided and a coil of 600 turns of 36 AWG gauge wire comprises the secondary winding. Other primary/secondary coil winding ratios may be conveniently determined.

An alternate coil arrangement using a conventional M27 iron transformer core is shown in Fig.9. The coil wrap is always in one direction only.
In the circuit of Fig.2, the diode is a 1N1198 diode which acts as a blocking diode and an electric switch which allows current flow in one direction only. Thus, the capacitor is never subjected to a pulse of reverse polarity.

The primary coil of the torroid is subject to a 50% duty-cycle pulse. The torroidal pulsing coil provides a voltage step-up from the pulse generator in excess of five times, although the relative amount of step-up is determined by pre-selected criteria for a particular application. As the stepped-up pulse enters the first inductor (formed of 100 turns of 24 gauge wire, 1 inch in diameter), an electromagnetic field is formed around the inductor. Voltage is switched off when the pulse ends, and the field collapses and produces another pulse of the same polarity; i.e. another positive pulse is formed where the 50% duty-cycle was terminated. Thus, a double pulse frequency is produced; however, in a pulse train of unipolar pulses, there is a brief time when pulses are not present.

By being so subjected to electrical pulses in the circuit of Fig.2, the water between the capacitor plates takes on an electrical charge which is increased by a step-charging phenomenon occurring in the water capacitor. Voltage continually increases (to about 1000 volts and more) and the water molecules start to elongate.

The pulse train is then switched off; the voltage across the water capacitor drops to the amount of charge that the water molecules have taken on, i.e. voltage is maintained across the charged capacitor. The pulse train is then applied again.

Because a voltage potential applied to a capacitor can perform work, the higher the voltage potential, the more work is performed by a given capacitor. In an optimum capacitor which is wholly non-conductive, zero current flow will occur across the capacitor. Thus, in view of an idealised capacitor circuit, the object of the water capacitor circuit is to prevent electron flow through the circuit, i.e. such as occurs by electron flow or leakage through a resistive element that produces heat. Electrical leakage in water will occur, however, because of some residual conductivity and impurities, or ions that may otherwise be present in the water. Thus, the water capacitor is preferably chemically inert. An electrolyte is not added to the water.

In the isolated water bath, the water molecule takes on charge, and the charge increases. The object of the process is to switch off the co-valent bonding of the water molecule and interrupt the sub-atomic force that binds the hydrogen and oxygen atoms together to form a molecule, thus causing the hydrogen and oxygen to separate.

Because an electron will only occupy a certain electron shell, the voltage applied to the capacitor affects the electrical forces inherent in the co-valent bond. As a result of the charge applied by the plates, the applied force becomes greater than the force of the co-valent bonds between the atoms of the water molecule, and the water molecule becomes elongated. When this happens, the time share ratio of the electrons between the atoms and the electron shells, is modified.

In the process, electrons are extracted from the water bath; electrons are not consumed nor are electrons introduced into the water bath by the circuit, as electrons would be during conventional electrolysis. Nevertheless, a leakage current through the water may occur. Those hydrogen atoms missing electrons become neutralised and atoms are liberated from the water. The charged atoms and electrons are attracted to opposite polarity voltage zones created between the capacitor plates. The electrons formerly shared by atoms in the water co-valent bond are re-allocated so that neutral elemental gasses are liberated.

In the process, the electrical resonance may be reached at all levels of voltage potential. The overall circuit is characterised as a "resonant charging choke" circuit which is an inductor in series with a capacitor [SAMS Modern Dictionary of Electronics, 1984 p.859]. Such a resonant charging choke is on each side of the capacitor. In the circuit, the diode acts as a switch which allows the magnetic field produced in the inductor to collapse, thereby doubling the pulse frequency and preventing the capacitor from discharging. In this manner, a continuous voltage is produced across the capacitor plates in the water bath and the capacitor does not discharge. The water molecules are thus subjected to a continuously charged field until the breakdown of the co-valent bond occurs.

As noted initially, the capacitance depends on the dielectric properties of the water and the size and separation of the conductive elements forming the water capacitor.

Example 1

In an example of the circuit of Fig.2 (in which other circuit element specifications are provided above), two concentric cylinders 4 inches long, formed the water capacitor of the fuel cell in the volume of water. The outside cylinder was 0.75 in outside diameter; the inner cylinder was 0.5 inch in outside diameter. Spacing between the inside cylinder and the outside cylinder was 0.0625 inch (1.59 mm). Resonance in the circuit was achieved at a 26 volt pulse applied to the primary coil of the torroid at 10khz and a gas mixture of hydrogen, oxygen and...
dissolved gasses was given off. The additional gasses included nitrogen and argon from air dissolved in the water.

In achieving resonance in any circuit, as the pulse frequency is adjusted, the current flow is minimised and the voltage on the capacitor plates is maximised. Calculation of the resonant frequency of an overall circuit is determined by known means; different cavities have a different resonant frequency. The gas production rate is varied by the period of time between trains of pulses, pulse amplitude, capacitor plate size and plate separation.

The wiper arm on the second inductor tunes the circuit and allows for contaminants in the water so that the charge is always applied to the capacitor. The voltage applied, determines the rate of breakdown of the molecule into its atomic components. As water in the cell is consumed, it is replaced by any appropriate means or control system.

Thus, in the first stage, which is of itself independently useful, a fuel gas mixture is produced having, in general, the components of elemental hydrogen and oxygen and some additional atmospheric gasses. The fuel gas is itself combustible in a conventional manner.

After the first stage, the gas atoms become elongated during electron removal as the atoms are ionised. Laser or light wave energy of a predetermined frequency is injected into a containment vessel in a gas ionisation process. The light energy absorbed by voltage-stimulated gas nuclei, causes destabilisation of gas ions still further. The absorbed laser energy causes the gas nuclei to increase in energy state, which in turn, causes electron deflection to a higher orbital shell.

The electrically charged and laser-primed combustible gas ions from a gas resonant cavity, may be directed into a an optical thermal lens assembly for triggering. Before entry into the optimal thermal lens, electrons are stripped from the ions and the atom is destabilised. The destabilised gas ions which are electrically and mass unbalanced atoms having highly energised nuclei, are pressurised during spark ignition. The unbalanced, destabilised atomic components interact thermally; the energised and unstable hydrogen gas nuclei collide with highly energised and unstable oxygen gas nuclei, causing and producing thermal explosive energy beyond the gas burning stage. The ambient air gas components in the initial mixture aid the thermal explosive process under a controlled state.

In the process, the point of optimum energy yield is reached when the electron-deficient oxygen atoms (having less than a normal number of electrons) lock on to an capture a hydrogen atom electron, prior to, or during, thermal combustion of the hydrogen/oxygen mixture. Atomic decay results in the release of energy.

After the first stage, the gas mixture is subjected to a pulsating, polar electric field which causes the orbits of the electrons of the gas atoms to become distended. The pulsating electrical field is applied at a frequency which resonates with the electrons of the gas atoms. This results in the energy levels of the electrons increasing in cascading incremental steps.

Next, the gas atoms are ionised and subjected to electromagnetic wave energy of the correct frequency to induce further electron resonance in the ion, whereby the energy level of the electron is successively increased. Electrons are extracted from the resonating ions while they are in this increased energy state, and this destabilises the nuclear electron configuration of the ions. This gas mixture of destabilised ions is thermally ignited.

In the apparatus shown in Fig.4, water is introduced at inlet 1 into a first stage water fracturing module 2, such as the water fuel cell described above, in which water molecules are broken down into hydrogen, oxygen and released gasses which were trapped in the water. These gasses may be introduced to a successive stage 3 or other number of like resonant cavities, which are arranged in either a series or parallel combined array. The successive energisation of the gas atoms, provides a cascading effect, successively increasing the voltage stimulation level of the released gasses as they pass sequentially through cavities 2, 3, etc. In a final stage, and injector system 4, of a configuration of the type shown in Fig.5A or Fig.5B, receives energised atomic and gas particles where the particles are subjected to further energy input, electrical excitation and thermal stimulation, which produces thermal explosive energy 5, which may be directed through a lens assembly of the type shown in Fig.5C to provide a controlled thermal energy output.

A single cell, or battery of cells such as shown in Fig.3, provides a fuel gas source for the stages following the first stage. The fuel gas is activated by electromagnetic waves, and electrically charged gas ions of hydrogen and oxygen (of opposite polarity) are expelled from the cascaded cells 2, 3, etc. shown in Fig.4. The circuit of Fig.9 may be utilised as a source of ionising energy for the gasses. The effect of cascading, successively increases the voltage stimulation level of the released gasses, which are then directed to the final injector assembly 4. In the injector assembly, gas ions are stimulated to an even greater energy level. The gasses are continually exposed to a pulsating laser or other electromagnetic wave energy source together with a high-intensity oscillating voltage
field which occurs within the cell between electrodes or conductive plates of opposite electrical polarity. A preferred construction material for the plates is a stainless steel T-304 which is non-chemically reactive with water, hydrogen or oxygen. An electrically conductive material inserted in the fluid environment, is a desirable material of construction for the electrical field producing plates, through which field, the stream of activated gas particles passes.

Gas ions of opposite electrical charges reach and maintain a critical energy level state. The gas ions have opposite electrical charges and are subjected to oscillating voltage fields of opposite polarity. They are also subjected to a pulsating electromagnetic wave energy source. Immediately after reaching critical energy, the excited gas ions are exposed to a high temperature thermal zone in the injection cell 4, which causes the excited gas ions to undergo gas combustion. The gas ignition triggers atomic decay and releases thermal energy 5, with explosive force.

Once triggered, the explosive thermal energy output is controllable by the attenuation of operational parameters. With reference to Fig.6A, for example, once the frequency of resonance is identified, by varying applied pulse voltage to the initial water fuel cell assemblies 2, 3, the ultimate explosive energy output is likewise varied. By varying the pulse shape and/or amplitude, or pulse train sequence of the electromagnetic wave energy source, final output is varied. Attenuation of the voltage field frequency in the form of OFF and ON pulses, likewise affects the output of the staged apparatus. Each control mechanism can be used separately, grouped in sections, or systematically arranged in a sequential manner.

A complete system in accordance with the present application thus includes:

1. A water fuel cell for providing a first fuel gas mixture consisting of at least a portion of hydrogen and oxygen gas.
2. An electrical circuit of the type shown in Fig.7 providing a pulsating, polar electric field to the gas mixture as illustrated in Fig.6A, whereby electron orbits of the gas atoms are distended by being subjected to electrical polar forces, changing from the state shown conceptually in Fig.6B to that of Fig.6C, at a frequency such that the pulsating electric field induces a resonance with respect to electrons of the gas atoms. The energy level of the resonant electrons is thereby increased in cascading incremental steps.
3. A further electric field to ionise the gas atoms and
4. An electromagnetic wave energy source for subjecting the ionised gas atoms to wave energy of a predetermined frequency to induce further electron resonance in the ions, whereby the energy level of the electron is successively increased, as shown in Fig.6D.
5. An electron sink, which may be in the form of the grid element shown in Fig.8A, extracts further electrons from the resonating ions while such ions are in an increased energy state and destabilises the nuclear electron configuration of the ions. The “extraction” of electrons by the sink is co-ordinated with the pulsating electrical field of the resonant cavity produced by the circuit of Fig.7, by means of
6. An interconnected synchronisation circuit, such as shown in Fig.8B.
7. A nozzle, 10 in Fig.5B, or thermal lens assembly, Fig.5C, provides the means to direct the destabilised ions, and in which they are finally thermally ignited.

As previously noted, to reach and trigger the ultimate atomic decay of the fuel cell gasses at the final stage, sequential steps are taken. First, water molecules are slit into hydrogen and oxygen gasses by a voltage stimulation process. In the injector assembly, a laser produced coherent light wave is absorbed by the gasses. At this point, as shown in Fig.6B, the individual atoms are subjected to an electric field to begin an ionisation process. The laser energy is absorbed and causes gas atoms to lose electrons and form positively charged gas ions. The energised, positively charged hydrogen atoms now accept electrons liberated from the heavier gasses and attract other negatively charged gas ions as conceptually illustrated in Fig.6C. Positively and negatively charged gas ions are re-exposed to further pulsating energy sources to maintain random distribution of ionised gas particles.

The gas ions within the wave energy chamber are subjected to an oscillating high-intensity voltage field in a chamber 11 in Fig.5A and Fig.5B formed within electrodes 12 and 13 in Fig.5A and Fig.5B of opposite electrical polarity, to produce a resonant cavity. The gas ions reach a critical energy state at the point of resonance.

At this point, within the chamber, additional electrons are attracted to the positive electrode; while positively charged ions or atomic nuclei are attracted to the negative electrode. The positive and negative attraction forces are co-ordinated and act on the gas ions simultaneously; the attraction forces are non-reversible. The gas ions experience atomic component deflection approaching the point of electron separation. At this point electrons are extracted from the chamber by a grid system such as shown in Fig.5A. The extracted electrons are consumed and prevented from re-entering the chamber by a circuit such as shown in Fig.8B. The elongated gas ions are subjected to a thermal heat zone to cause gas ignition, releasing thermal energy with explosive force. During ionic gas combustion, highly energised and stimulated atoms and atom nuclei collide and explode during thermal
excitation. The hydrogen fracturing process occurring, sustains and maintains a thermal zone, at a temperature in excess of normal oxygen/hydrogen combustion temperature, that is, in excess of 2,500 degrees Fahrenheit. To cause and maintain the atomic elongation depicted in Fig.6C before gas ignition, a voltage intensifier circuit such as shown in Fig.7 is utilised as a current-restricting voltage source to provide the excitation voltage applied to the resonant cavity. At the same time, the interconnected electron extractor circuit shown in Fig.8B, prevents the reintroduction of electrons back into the system. Depending on calculated design parameters, a predetermined voltage and frequency range may be designed for any particular application or physical configuration of the apparatus.

In the operation of the assembly, the pulse train source for the gas resonant cavity shown at 2 and 3 in Fig.4 may be derived from a circuit such as shown in Figs. 2, 7 or 9, and such cavity circuits may be in sequence to provide a cascading energy input. It is necessary in the final electron extraction, that the frequency with which electrons are removed from the system be sequenced and synchronised with the pulsing of the gas resonant cavity. In the circuit of Fig.8B, the co-ordination of synchronisation of the circuit with the circuit of Fig.7 may be achieved by interconnecting point “A” of the gate circuit of Fig.8B to point “A” of the pulsing circuit of Fig.7.

The circuit shown in Fig.9 enhances the voltage potential across the resonant charging choke coils during pulsing operations and restricts current flow by allowing an external electromagnetic pulsing field F, derived from the primary coil A being energised to traverse the coil windings D and E being energised by the incoming pulse train Ha xxx Hn, through switching diode G. The external pulse field F, and the incoming pulse train Ha xxx Hn, are sequentially the same, allowing resonant action to occur, restricting current flow while allowing voltage intensity to increase to stimulate the electrical polarisation process, the gas ionisation process and the electron extraction process. The voltage intensifier circuit of Fig.9 prevents electrons from entering into those processes.

Together, the hydrogen injector assembly 4, and the resonant cavity 2 and 3, form a gas injector fuel cell which is compact, low in weight and whose design can be varied. For example, the hydrogen injector system is suited for cars and jet engines. Industrial applications require larger systems. For rocket engine applications, the hydrogen gas injector system is positioned at the top of each resonant cavity arranged in a parallel cluster array. If resonant cavities are sequentially combined in a parallel/series array, the hydrogen injection assembly is positioned after the exits of the resonant cavities have been combined.

From the outline of the physical phenomena associated with the process described in Table 1, the theoretical basis of the invention considers the respective states of molecules, gasses and ions derived from liquid water. Before voltage stimulation, water molecules are randomly dispersed throughout water within a container. When a unipolar voltage pulse train such as shown in Fig.6A (53a xxx 53n) is applied, an increasing voltage potential is induced in the molecules, gasses and/or ions in a linear, step-like charging effect. The electrical field of the particles within a chamber including the electrical field plates increases from a low-energy state (A) to a high-energy state (J) in a step manner, following each pulse train as illustrated in Fig.6A. The increasing voltage potential is always positive in direct relationship to negative ground potential during each pulse. The voltage polarity on the plates which create the voltage fields, remains constant. Positive and negative voltage “zones” are thus formed simultaneously.

In the first stage of the process described in Table 1, because the water molecule naturally exhibits opposite electric fields in a relatively polar configuration (the two hydrogen atoms are positively electrically charged relative to the negatively electrically charged oxygen atom), the voltage pulse causes initially randomly orientated water molecules in the liquid state to spin and orientate themselves with reference to the voltage fields applied.

When the potential difference applied causes the oriented water molecules to align themselves between the conductive plates, pulsing causes the voltage field intensity to be increased in accordance with Fig.6A. As further molecular alignment occurs, molecular movement is hindered. Because the positively charged hydrogen atoms are attracted in the opposite direction to the negatively charged oxygen atoms, a polar charge alignment or distribution occurs as shown in Fig.6B. As the energy level of the atoms subjected to resonant pulsing increases, the stationary water molecules become elongated as shown in Fig.6C. Electrically charged nuceli and electrons are attracted towards opposite voltage zones, disrupting the mass equilibrium of the water molecule.

In the first stage, as the water molecule is further exposed to a potential difference, the electrical force of attraction of the atoms to the chamber electrodes also increases in intensity. As a result, the co-valent bonding between the atoms is weakened and ultimately, terminated. The negatively charged electron is attracted towards the positively charged hydrogen atoms, while at the same time, the negatively charged oxygen atoms repel electrons.

Once the applied resonant energy caused by pulsation of the electrical field in the cavities reaches a threshold level, the dissociated water molecules, now in the form of liberated hydrogen, oxygen and ambient air gasses, begin to ionise and lose or gain electrons during the final stage in the injector assembly. Atom destabilisation
occurs and the electrical and mass equilibrium of the atoms is disrupted. Again, the positive field produced within the chamber or cavity that encompasses the gas stream, attracts negatively charged ions while the positively charged ions are attracted to the negative field. Atom stabilisation does not occur because the pulsing voltage applied is repetitive without polarity change. A potential of approximately several thousand volts, triggers the ionisation state.

As the ionised particles accumulate within the chamber, the electrical charging effect is again an incremental stepping effect that produces an accumulative increased potential, while, at the same time, resonance occurs. The components of the atom begin to "vibrate" at a resonant frequency such that an atomic instability is created. As shown in Fig.6D, a high energy level is achieved, which then collapses, resulting in the release of thermal explosive energy. Particle impact occurs when liberated ions in a gas are subjected to further voltage. A longitudinal cross-section of a gas resonant cavity is shown in Fig.5A. To promote gas ionisation, electromagnetic wave energy such as a laser or photon energy source of a predetermined wavelength and pulse intensity is directed to, and absorbed by, the ions of the gas. In the device of Fig.5A, semiconductor optical lasers 20a - 20p, 20xxx surround the gas flow path. In the device of Fig.5B, photo energy 20 is injected into a separate absorption chamber 21. The incremental stimulation of nuclei to a more highly energised state by electromagnetic wave energy causes electron deflection to a higher orbital state. The pulse rate as well as intensity of the electromagnetic wave source is varied to match the absorption rate of ionised particles to produce the stepped incremental increase in energy. A single laser coupled by means of fibre optic light guides is an alternative to the plurality of lasers shown in Fig.5B. Continued exposure of the gas ions to different forms of wave energy during voltage stimulation, maintain individual atoms in a destabilised state and prevents atomic stabilisation.

The highly energised gas ions are thermally ignited when they pass from injector 4 and enter into and pass through a nozzle 10 in Fig.5B, or an optical thermal lens assembly as shown in Fig.5C. In Fig.5C, the combustible gas ions are expelled through and beyond a quenching circuit 30, and reflected by lenses 31 and 32, back and forth through a thermal heat zone 33, prior to atomic breakdown and then exiting through a final port 34. A quenching circuit is a restricted orifice through which the particle stream passes, such that flashback does not occur. The deflection shield or lens 31, superheats beyond 3000 degrees Fahrenheit and the combustible gas ions passing through the exiting ports are regulated to allow a gas pressure to form inside the thermal zone. The energy yield is controlled by varying the applied voltage or pulse-train since the thermal-lens assembly is self-adjusting to the flow rate of the ionised and primed gasses. The combustible ionic gas mixture is composed of hydrogen, oxygen and ambient air gasses. The hydrogen gas provides the thermal explosive force, the oxygen atoms aid the gas thermal ignition, and the ambient air gasses retard the gas thermal ignition process to a controllable state.

As the combustible gas mixture is exposed to a voltage pulse train, the stepped increasing voltage potential causes the moving gas atoms to become ionised (losing or gaining electrons) and changes the electrical and mass equilibrium of the atoms. Gasses which do not undergo the gas ionisation process may accept the liberated electrons (electron entrapment) when exposed to light or photon stimulation. The electron extractor grid circuit shown in Fig.8A and Fig.8B, is applied to the assembly of Fig.5A or Fig.5B, and restricts electron replacement. The extractor grid 56, is applied adjacent to electric field producing components 44 and 45, within the resonant cavity. The gas ions incrementally reach a critical state which occurs after a high energy resonant state. At this point, the atoms no longer tolerate the missing electrons, the unbalanced electrical field and the energy stored in the nucleus. Immediate collapse of the system occurs and energy is released as the atoms decay into thermal explosive energy.

The repetitive application of a voltage pulse train (A through J of Fig.6A) incrementally achieves the critical state of the gas ions. As the gas atoms or ions (1a xxx 1n) shown in Fig.6C, become elongated during electron removal, electromagnetic wave energy of a predetermined frequency and intensity is injected. The wave energy absorbed by the stimulated gas nuclei and electrons, causes further destabilisation of the ionic gas. The absorbed energy from all sources, causes the gas nuclei to increase in energy state and induces the ejection of electrons from the nuclei.

To further stimulate the electron entrapment process beyond the atomic level (capturing the liberated electrons during the hydrogen fracturing process), the electron extractor grid (as shown in Fig.8A) is placed in spaced relationship to the gas resonant cavity structure shown in Fig.5A. The electron extractor grid is attached to an electrical circuit (such as that shown in Fig.8B) which allows electrons to flow to an electrical load 55, when a positive electrical potential is placed on the opposite side of the electrical load. The electrical load may be a typical power-consuming device such as a light bulb or resistive heat-producing device. As the positive electrical potential is switched on, or pulse-applied, the negatively charged electrons liberated in the gas resonant cavity, are drawn away and enter into the resistive load where they are released as heat or light energy. The consuming electrical circuit may be connected directly to the gas resonant cavity positive electrical voltage zone. The incoming positive wave form applied to the resonant cavity voltage zone through a blocking diode, is synchronised.
with the pulse train applied to the gas resonant cavity by the circuit of Fig.7 via an alternate gate circuit. As one pulse train is gated “ON”, the other pulse train is switched “OFF”. A blocking diode directs the electron flow to the electrical load, while resistive wire prevents voltage leakage during the pulse train “ON” time.

The electron extraction process is maintained during gas-flow change by varying the trigger pulse rate in relationship to the applied voltage. The electron extraction process also prevents spark-ignition of the combustible gases travelling through the gas resonant cavity because electron build-up and potential sparking is prevented.

In an optical thermal lens assembly or thrust-nozzle, such as shown in Fig.5C, destabilised gas ions (electrically and mass unbalanced gas atoms having highly energised nuclei) can be pressurised during spark ignition. During thermal interaction, the highly energised and unstable hydrogen gas nuclei collide with the highly energised and unstable oxygen gas nuclei and produce thermal explosive energy beyond the gas-burning stage. Other ambient air gasses and ions not otherwise consumed, limit the thermal explosive process.
ABSTRACT
An injector system comprising an improved method and apparatus useful in the production of a hydrogen containing fuel gas from water in a process in which the dielectric property of water and/or a mixture of water and other components determines a resonant condition that produces a breakdown of the atomic bonding of atoms in the water molecule. The injector delivers a mixture of water mist, ionised gases and non-combustible gas to a zone within which the breakdown process leading to the release of elemental hydrogen from the water molecules occurs.

DESCRIPTION
This invention relates to a method and apparatus useful in producing thermal combustive energy from the hydrogen component of water.

In my patent no. 4,936,961 "Method for the Production of a Fuel Gas", I describe a water fuel cell which produces a gas energy source by a method which utilises water as a dielectric component of a resonant electrical circuit.

In my patent no. 4,826,581 "Controlled Process for the Production of Thermal Energy From Gasses and Apparatus Useful Therefore", I describe a method and apparatus for obtaining the enhanced release of thermal energy from a gas mixture including hydrogen and oxygen in which the gas is subjected to various electrical, ionising and electromagnetic fields.

In my co-pending application serial no. 07/460,859 "Process and Apparatus for the Production of Fuel Gas and the Enhanced Release of Thermal Energy from Fuel Gas", I describe various means and methods for obtaining the release of thermal/combustive energy from the hydrogen (H) component of a fuel gas obtained from the disassociation of a water (H₂O) molecule by a process which utilises the dielectric properties of water in a resonant circuit; and in that application I more thoroughly describe the physical dynamics and chemical aspects of the water-to-fuel conversion process.

The invention of this present application represents generational improvement in methods and apparatus useful in the utilisation of water as a fuel source. In brief, the present invention is a microminiaturised water fuel cell which permits the direct injection of water, and its simultaneous transformation into a hydrogen-containing fuel, in a combustion zone, such as a cylinder in an internal combustion engine, a jet engine or a furnace. Alternatively, the injection system of the present invention may be utilised in any non-engine application in which a concentrated flame or heat source is desired, for example: welding.

The present injection system eliminates the need for an enclosed gas pressure vessel in a hydrogen fuel system and thereby reduces a potential physical hazard heretofore associated with the use of hydrogen-based fuels. The system produces fuel-on-demand in real-time operation and sets up an integrated environment of optimum parameters so that a water-to-fuel conversion process works at high efficiency.

The preferred embodiment of the invention is more fully explained below with reference to the drawings in which:
Fig. 1 figuratively illustrates the sections and operating zones included in a single injector of the invention.

Fig. 2A is a side cross-sectional view.
Fig. 2B is a frontal view from the operative end.

Fig. 2C is an exploded view of an individual injector.
Fig. 3 and Fig. 3A show the side and frontal cross-sectional views of an alternatively configured injector.
Fig. 4 shows a disk array of injectors.

Fig. 5 shows the resonance electrical circuit including the injector.
Although I refer to an "injector" in this document, the invention relates not only to the physical configuration of an injector apparatus, but also to the overall process and system parameters determined in the apparatus to achieve the release of thermal energy. In a basic outline, an injector regulates the introduction of process constituents into a combustion zone and sets up a fuel mixture condition permitting combustion. That combustion condition is triggered simultaneously with injector operation in real-time correspondence with control parameters for the process constituents.

In the fuel mixture condition which is created by the injector, water (H₂O) is atomised into a fine spray and mixed with 1 ionised ambient air gasses and 2 other non-combustible gasses such as nitrogen, argon and other rare gasses, and water vapour. (Exhaust gas produced by the combustion of hydrogen with oxygen is a non-combustible water vapour. This water vapour and other inert gasses resulting from combustion may be recycled from an exhaust outlet in the injector system, back into the input mixture of non-combustible gasses.) The fuel mix is introduced at a consistent flow rate maintained under a predetermined pressure. In the triggering of the condition created by the injector, the conversion process described in my patent no. 4,936,961 and co-pending application serial no. 07/460,859 is set off spontaneously on a "micro" level in a predetermined reaction zone. The injector creates a mixture, under pressure in a defined zone of water, ionised gasses and non-combustible gasses. Pressure is an important factor in the maintenance of the reaction condition and causes the water/gas mixture to become intimately mixed, compressed and destabilised to produce combustion when activated under resonance conditions of ignition. In accordance with the earlier mentioned conversion process of my patent and application, when water is subjected to a resonance condition water molecules expand and distend; electrons are ejected from the water molecule and absorbed by ionised gasses and the water molecule, thus destabilised, breaks down into its elemental components of hydrogen (H₂) and oxygen (O) in the combustion zone. The hydrogen atoms released from the molecule provide the fuel source in the mixture for combustion with oxygen. The present invention is an application of that process and is outlined in Table 1:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Injector Mixture</th>
<th>+</th>
<th>Process conditions</th>
<th>=</th>
<th>Thermal Energy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Water Mist</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1) Release Under</td>
<td>(1) Heat</td>
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<td>and</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Combustion Zone</td>
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<tr>
<td>(2) Ionised Gas</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Resonance utilising</td>
<td>(2) Internal</td>
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<td></td>
<td>the dielectric</td>
<td>Engine</td>
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<td>property of water</td>
<td>(Explosive</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>as a capacitor</td>
<td>force)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>or</td>
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<td>(3) Non-combustible Gas</td>
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<td>(3) Unipolar pulsing</td>
<td>(3) Jet Engine</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(4) Other application</td>
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</table>

The process occurs as water mist and gasses under pressure are injected into, and intimately mixed in the combustion zone and an electrically polarised zone. In the electrically polarised zone, the water mixture is subjected to a unipolar pulsed direct current voltage which is tuned to achieve resonance in accordance with the electrical, mass and other characteristics of the mixture as a dielectric in the environment of the combustion zone. The resonant frequency will vary according to the injector configuration and depends upon the physical characteristics, such as the mass and volume of the water and gasses in the zone. As my prior patents and application point out, the resonant condition in the capacitative circuit is determined by the dielectric properties of water: (1) as the dielectric in a capacitor formed by adjacent conductive surfaces, and (2) as the water molecule itself is a polar dielectric material. At resonance, current flow in the resonant electrical circuit will be minimised and voltage will peak.

The injector system provides a pressurised fuel mixture for subjection to the resonant environment of the voltage combustion zone as the mixture is injected into the zone. In a preferred embodiment, the injector includes concentrically nested serial orifices, one for each of the three constituent elements of the fuel mixture. (It may be feasible to combine and process non-combustible and ionised gasses in advance of the injector. In this event, only two orifices are required, one for the water and the other for the combined gasses.) The orifices disperse the water mist and gasses under pressure into a conically shaped activation and combustion zone.

**Fig1A** shows a transverse cross-section of an injector, in which, supply lines for water 1, ionised gas 2, and non-combustible gas 3, feed into a distribution disk assembly 4 which has concentrically nested orifices. The fuel mixture passes through a mixing zone 5, and a voltage zone 6, created by electrodes 7a and 7b (positive) and 8 (negative or ground). Electrical field lines are shown as 6a1 and 6a2 and 6b1 and 6b2. Combustion (i.e. the oxidation of hydrogen) occurs in the zone 9. Ignition of the hydrogen can be primed by a spark or may occur spontaneously as a result of the exceptionally high volatility of hydrogen and its presence in a high-voltage field.
Although the mixing zone, the voltage zone and the combustion zone are mentioned separately in this explanation, they are not in fact physically separated, as can be seen from Fig.1. In the zone(s), there is produced an “excited” mixture of vaporised water mist, ionised gasses and other non-combustible gasses, all of which have been instantaneously released from under high pressure. Simultaneously, the released mixture in the zone, is exposed to a pulsed voltage at a frequency corresponding to electrical resonance. Under these conditions, outer-shell electrons of atoms in the water molecule are de-stabilised and molecular time-share is interrupted. Thus, the gas mixture in the injector zone is subjected to physical, electrical and chemical interactive forces which cause a breakdown of the atomic bonding forces of the water molecule.

Process parameters are determined, based on the size of a particular injector. In an injector sized appropriately for use to provide a fuel mixture to a conventional cylinder in a passenger vehicle car engine, the injector may resemble a conventional spark plug. In such an injector, the water orifice is 0.1 to 0.15 inch in diameter; the ionised gas orifice is 0.15 to 0.2 inch in diameter, and the non-combustible gas orifice is 0.2 to 0.25 inch in diameter. In such a configuration, the serial orifices increase in size from the innermost orifice, as appropriate in a concentric configuration. As noted above, it is desirable to maintain the introduction of the fuel components at a constant rate. Maintaining a back-pressure of about 125 pounds per square inch for each of the three fuel gas constituents appears to be satisfactory for a “spark-plug” injector. In the pressurised environment of the injector, spring-loaded one-way check valves in each supply line, such as 14 and 15, maintain pressure during pulse off times.

Voltage zone 6 surrounds the pressurised fuel mixture and provides an electrically charged environment of pulsed direct current in the range from about 500 to 20,000 volts and more, at a frequency tuned into the resonant characteristic of the mixture. this frequency will typically lie within the range from about 20 KHz to about 50 KHz, dependent, as noted above, on the mass flow of the mixture from the injector and the dielectric property of the mixture. In a spark-plug sized injector, the voltage zone will typically extend longitudinally about 0.25 to 1.0 inch to permit sufficient dwell time of the water mist and gas mixture between the conductive surfaces 7 and 8 which form a capacitor so that resonance occurs at a high-voltage pulsed frequency, and combustion is triggered. In the zone, an energy wave which is related to the resonant pulse frequency, is formed. The wave continues to pulse through the flame in the combustion zone. The thermal energy produced is released as heat energy. In a confined zone such as a piston/cylinder engine, gas detonation under resonant conditions, produces explosive physical power.

In the voltage zone, the time-share ratio of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms comprising the individual water molecules in the water mist, is upset in accordance with the process explained in my patent no. 4,936,961 and application serial no. 07/460,859. Namely, the water molecule, which is itself a polar structure, is distended or
distorted in shape by being subjected to the polar electric field in the voltage zone. The resonant condition induced in the molecule by the unipolar pulses, upsets the molecular bonding of shell electrons such that the water molecule, at resonance, breaks apart into its constituent atoms. In the voltage zone, the water molecules are excited into an ionised state, and the pre-ionised gas component of the fuel mixture, captures the electrons released from the water molecule. In this manner, at the resonant condition, the water molecule is destabilised and the constituent atomic elements of the molecule H and O, are released and the released hydrogen atoms are available for combustion. the non-combustible gasses in the fuel mixture, reduce the burn rate of hydrogen to that of a hydrocarbon fuel such as gasoline (petrol) or kerosene (paraffin), from its normal burn rate which is about 2.5 times that of gasoline. Hence the presence of non-combustible gasses in the fuel mixture, moderates the energy release and the rate at which the free hydrogen and oxygen molecules combine in the combustion process.

The combustion process does not occur spontaneously so the conditions in the zone must be fine-tuned carefully to achieve an optimum input flow rate for water and the gasses corresponding to the maintenance of a resonant condition. The input water mist and gasses may likewise be injected into the zone in a physically pulsed (on/off) manner corresponding to the resonance achieved. In an internal combustion engine, the resonance of the electrical circuit and the physical pulsing of the input mixture may be required to be related to the combustion cycle of the reciprocating engine. In this regard, one or two conventional spark plugs may require a spark cycle tuned in correspondence to the conversion cycle resonance, so that combustion of the mixture will occur. Thus, the input flow, conversion rate and combustion rate are interrelated and optimally, each should be tuned in accordance with the circuit resonance at which conversion occurs.

The injection system of the present invention is suited to retrofit applications in conventionally fuelled gasoline and diesel internal combustion engines and conventionally fuelled jet aircraft engines.

**Example 1**

Figs 2A, 2B and 2C illustrate a type of injector useful, among other things, as a fuel source for a conventional internal combustion engine. In the cross-section of Fig.2A, reference numerals corresponding to the identifying numerals used in Fig.1 show a supply line for water 1, leading to first distribution disc 1a and supply line for ionised gas 2, leading to second distribution disc 2a. In the cross-section, the supply line for non-combustible gas 3 leading to distribution disc 3a, is not illustrated, however, its location as a third line should be self evident. The three discs comprise distribution disc assembly 4. The supply lines are formed in an electrically insulating body 10, surrounded by electrically conductive sheath/housing 11 having a threaded end segment 12.

A central electrode 8, extends the length of the injector. Conductive elements 7a and 7b (7a and 7b depict opposite sides of the diameter in the cross-section of a circular body), adjacent threaded section 12 and electrode 8, form the electrical polarisation zone 6 adjacent to combustion zone 9. An electrical connector 13 may be provided at the other end of the injector. (In this document, the term “electrode” refers to the conductive surface of an element forming one side of a capacitor.) In the frontal view of Fig.2B, it is seen that each disc making up the distribution disc assembly 9, includes a plurality of micro-nozzles 1a1, 2a1, 3a1, etc. for the injection of the water and gasses into the polarisation/voltage and combustion zones. The exploded view of Fig.2C shows another view of the injector and additionally depicts two supply line inlets 1 and 2, the third not being shown because of the inability of representing the uniform 120° separation of three lines in a two-dimensional drawing.

In the injector, water mist (forming droplets in the range, for example, of from 10 to 250 microns and above, with size being related to voltage intensity) is injected into the fuel-mixing and polarising zone by way of water spray nozzles 1a1. The tendency of water to form a “bead” or droplet is a parameter related to droplet mist size and voltage intensity. ionised air gasses and non-combustible gasses, introduced through nozzles 2a1 and 3a1, are intermixed with the expelling water mist to form a fuel-mixture which enters into voltage zone 6 where the mixture is exposed to a pulsating, unipolar, high-intensity voltage field (typically 20,000 volts at 50 Hz or above, at the resonant condition in which current flow in the circuit (amps) is reduced to a minimum) created between electrodes 7 and 8.

Laser energy prevents discharge of the ionised gasses and provides additional energy input into the molecular destabilisation process which occurs at resonance. It is preferable that the ionised gasses be subjected to laser (photonic energy) activation prior to their introduction into the zone(s); although, for example, a fibre optic conduit may be useful to channel photonic energy directly into the zone. However, heat generated in the zone may affect the operability of such an alternate configuration. The electrical polarisation of the water molecule and a resonant condition occurs to destabilise the molecular bonding of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms. Combustion energy is then released by spark ignition.
To ensure proper flame projection and subsequent flame stability, pumps for the ambient air, non-combustible gas and water, introduce these components to the injector under static pressure up to and beyond 125 pounds per square inch.

Flame temperature is regulated by controlling the volume flow-rate of each fluid-media in direct relationship to applied voltage intensity. To elevate flame temperature, fluid displacement is increased while the volume flow rate of non-combustible gasses is maintained or reduced and the applied voltage amplitude is increased. To lower flame temperature, the fluid flow rate of non-combustible gasses is increased and pulse voltage amplitude is lowered. To establish a predetermined flame temperature, the fluid media and applied voltage are adjusted independently. The flame-pattern is further maintained as the ignited, compressed, and moving gasses are projected under pressure from the nozzle ports in distribution disc assembly 4 and the gas expands in the zone and is ignited.

In the voltage zone, several functions occur simultaneously to initiate and trigger thermal energy yield. Water mist droplets are exposed to high intensity pulsating voltage fields in accordance with an electrical polarisation process which separates the atoms of the water molecule and causes the atoms to experience electron ejection. The polar nature of the water molecule which facilitates the formation of minute droplets in the mist, appears to cause a relationship between the droplet size and the voltage required to effect the process, i.e. the greater the droplet size, the higher the voltage required. The liberated atoms of the water molecule interact with laser-primed ionised ambient air gasses to cause a highly energised and destabilised mass of combustible gas atoms to ignite thermally. Incoming ambient air gasses are laser primed and ionised when passing through a gas processor, and an electron extraction circuit (Fig.5) captures and consumes in sink 55, ejected electrons, and prevents electron flow into the resonant circuit.

In terms of performance, reliability and safety, ionised air gasses and water fuel liquid do not become volatile until the fuel mixture reaches the voltage and combustion zones. Injected non-combustible gasses retard and control the combustion rate of hydrogen during gas ignition.

In alternate applications, laser-primed ionised liquid oxygen and laser-primed liquid hydrogen stored in separate fuel tanks, can be used in place of the fuel mixture, or liquefied ambient air gasses alone with water can be substituted as a fuel source.

The injector assembly is design variable and is retro-fittable to fossil fuel injector ports conventionally used in jet/rocket engines, grain dryers, blast furnaces, heating systems, internal combustion engines and the like.

**Example 2**

A flange-mounted injector is shown in cross-section in Fig.3 which shows the fuel mixture inlets and illustrates an alternative three-nozzle configuration leading to the polarisation (voltage) and combustion zones in which one nozzle 31a, 32a and 33a is provided for each of the three gas mixtures, and connected to supply lines 31 and 32 (33 is not shown). Electrical polarisation zone 36 is formed between electrode 38 and surrounding conductive shell 37. The capacitative element of the resonant circuit is formed when the fuel mixture, acting as a dielectric, is introduced between the conductive surfaces of 37 and 38. Fig.3A is a frontal view of the operative end of the injector.

**Example 3**

Multiple injectors may be arranged in a gang as shown in Fig.4 in which injectors 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48 and 49 are arranged concentrically in an assembly 50. Such a ganged array is useful in applications having intensive energy requirements such as jet aircraft engines and blast furnaces.

**Example 4**

The basic electrical system utilised in the invention is depicted in Fig.5 showing the electrical polarisation zone 6 which receives and processes the water and gas mixture as a capacitive circuit element in a resonant charging circuit formed by inductors 51 and 52 connected in series with diode 53, pulsed voltage source 54, electron sink 55 and zone 6 formed from conductive elements 7 and 8. In this manner, electrodes 7 and 8 in the injector, form a capacitor which has electrical characteristics dependent on the dielectric media (e.g. the water mist, ionised gasses and non-combustible gasses) introduced between the conductive elements. Within the macro-dielectric media, however, the water molecules themselves, because of their polar nature, can be considered micro-capacitors.
Example 5

Fuel distribution and management systems useful with the injector of this application are described in my co-pending applications for patent; PCT/US90/6513 and PCT/US90/6407.

A distribution block for the assembly is shown in Fig.6. In Fig.6 the distribution block pulses and synchronises the input of the fuel components in sequence with the electrical pulsing circuit. The fuel components are injected into the injector ports in synchronisation with the resonant frequency, to enhance the energy wave pulse extending from the voltage zone through the flame. In the configuration of Fig.6, the electrical system is interrelated to distribution block 60, gate valve 61 and separate passageways 62, 63 and 64 for fuel components. The distributor produces a trigger pulse which activates a pulse-shaping circuit that forms a pulse having a width and amplitude determined by resonance of the mixture and establishes a dwell time for the mixture in the zone to produce combustion.

As in my referenced application regarding control and management and distribution systems for a hydrogen-containing fuel gas produced from water, the production of hydrogen gas is related to pulse frequency on/off time. In the system shown in Fig.6, the distributor block pulses the fluid media introduced to the injector in relationship to the resonant pulse frequency of the circuit and to the operational on/off gate pulse frequency. In this manner, the rate of water conversion (i.e. the rate of fuel produced by the injector) can be regulated and the pattern of resonance in the flame controlled.
The major difficulty in using Stan’s low-current Water Fuel Cell (recently reproduced by Dave Lawton and shown in Chapter 10) is the issue of keeping the cell continuously at the resonant frequency point. This patent application shows the Stan’s circuitry for doing exactly that, and consequently, it is of major importance.

ABSTRACT

A control circuit for a capacitive resonant cavity water capacitor cell (7) for the production of a hydrogen containing fuel has a resonant scanning circuit co-operating with a resonance detector and PLL circuit to produce pulses. The pulses are fed into the primary transformer (TX1). The secondary transformer (TX2) is connected to the resonant cavity water capacitor cell (7) via a diode and resonant charging chokes (TX4, TX5).

This invention relates to electrical circuit systems useful in the operation of a Water Fuel Cell including a water capacitor/resonant cavity for the production of a hydrogen containing fuel gas, such as that described in my United States Letter Patent No. 4,936,961 “Method for the Production of a Fuel Gas” issued on 26th June 1990.

In my Letters Patent for a “Method for the Production of a Fuel Gas”, voltage pulses applied to the plates of a water capacitor tune into the dielectric properties of the water and attenuate the electrical forces between the hydrogen and oxygen atoms of the molecule. The attenuation of the electrical forces results in a change in the molecular electrical field and the covalent atomic bonding forces of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms. When resonance is achieved, the atomic bond of the molecule is broken, and the atoms of the molecule dissociate. At resonance, the current (amp) draw from a power source to the water capacitor is minimised and voltage across the water capacitor increases. Electron flow is not permitted (except at the minimum, corresponding to leakage resulting from the residual conductive properties of water). For the process to continue, however, a resonant condition must be maintained.

Because of the electrical polarity of the water molecule, the fields produced in the water capacitor respectively attract and repel the opposite and like charges in the molecule, and the forces eventually achieved at resonance are such that the strength of the covalent bonding force in the water molecule (which are normally in an electron-sharing mode) dissociate. Upon disassociation, the formerly shared bonding electrons migrate to the hydrogen nuclei, and both the hydrogen and oxygen revert to net zero electrical charge. The atoms are released from the water as a gas mixture.

In the invention herein, a control circuit for a resonant cavity water capacitor cell utilised for the production of a hydrogen-containing fuel gas is provided.

The circuit includes an isolation means such as a transformer having a ferromagnetic, ceramic or other electromagnetic material core and having one side of a secondary coil connected in series with a high speed switching diode to one plate of the water capacitor of the resonant cavity and the other side of the secondary coil connected to the other plate of the water capacitor to form a closed loop electronic circuit utilising the dielectric properties of water as part of the electronic resonant circuit. The primary coil of the isolation transformer is connected to a pulse generation means. The secondary coil of the transformer may include segments which form resonant charging choke circuits in series with the water capacitor plates.

In the pulse generation means, an adjustable resonant frequency generator and a gated pulse frequency generator are provided. A gate pulse controls the number of the pulses produced by the resonant frequency generator sent to the primary coil during a period determined by the gate frequency of the second pulse generator.

The invention also includes a means for sensing the occurrence of a resonant condition in the water capacitor / resonant cavity, which when a ferromagnetic or electromagnetic core is used, may be a pickup coil on the transformer core. The sensing means is interconnected to a scanning circuit and a phase lock loop circuit, whereby the pulsing frequency to the primary coil of the transformer is maintained at a sensed frequency corresponding to a resonant condition in the water capacitor.

Control means are provided in the circuit for adjusting the amplitude of a pulsing cycle sent to the primary coil and for maintaining the frequency of the pulsing cycle at a constant frequency regardless of pulse amplitude.
addition, the gated pulse frequency generator may be connected to a sensor which monitors the rate of gas production in the cell and controls the number of pulses from the resonant frequency generator sent to the cell in a gated frequency in correspondence with the rate of gas production. The sensor may be a gas pressure sensor in an enclosed water capacitor resonant cavity which also includes a gas outlet. The gas pressure sensor is connected to the circuit to determine the rate of gas production with respect to ambient gas pressure in the water capacitor enclosure.

Thus, a comprehensive control circuit and its individual components for maintaining and controlling the resonance and other aspects of the release of gas from a resonant cavity water cell is described here and illustrated in the drawings which depict the following:

Fig. 1 is a block diagram of an overall control circuit showing the interrelationship of sub-circuits, the pulsing core / resonant circuit and the water capacitor resonant cavity.

Fig. 2 shows a type of digital control circuit for regulating the ultimate rate of gas production as determined by an external input. (Such a control circuit would correspond, for example, to the accelerator in a car, or the thermostat control in a building).
Fig. 3 shows an analog voltage generator.

**FIGURE 3**

**FIGURE 4**
Fig. 4 is a voltage amplitude control circuit interconnected with the voltage generator and one side of the primary coil of the pulsing core.

Fig. 5 is the cell driver circuit that is connected with the opposite side of the primary coil of the pulsing core. Figures 6 to 9 form the pulsing control circuitry:

Fig. 6 is a gated pulse frequency generator.
Fig. 7 is a phase lock circuit.

Fig. 8 is a resonant scanning circuit.
Fig. 9 is the pulse indicator circuit.

These four circuits control the pulses transmitted to the resonant-cavity / Water Fuel Cell capacitor.

Fig. 10 shows the pulsing core and the voltage intensifier circuit which forms the interface between the control circuit and the resonant cavity.
Fig. 11 is a gas feedback control circuit.

Fig. 12 is an adjustable frequency generator circuit.
The circuits are interconnected as shown in Fig.1 and to the pulsing core voltage intensifier circuit of Fig.10, which, among other things, isolates the water capacitor electrically so that it becomes an electrically isolated cavity for the processing of water in accordance with it’s dielectric resonance properties. By reason of this isolation, power consumption in the control and driving circuits is minimised when resonance occurs, and current demand is minimised as voltage is maximised in the gas production mode of the water capacitor / Fuel Cell.

The reference letters “A” through “M” and “M1” show, with respect to each separate circuit shown, the point at which a connection in that circuit is made to another of the circuits shown.

In the invention, the water capacitor is subjected to a duty pulse which builds up in the resonant charging choke coil and then collapses. This occurrence allows a unipolar pulse to be applied to the Fuel Cell capacitor. When a resonant condition of the circuit is locked-in by the circuit, current leakage is held to a minimum as the voltage which creates the dielectric field tends to infinity. Thus, when high voltage is detected upon resonance, the phase-lock-loop circuit, which controls the cell driver circuit, maintains the resonance at the detected (or sensed) frequency.

The resonance of the water capacitor cell is affected by the volume of water in the cell. The resonance of any given volume of water contained in the water capacitor cell is also affected by “contaminants” in the water which act as a damper. For example, with a potential difference of 2,000 to 5,000 volts applied to the cell, a current spike or surge may be caused by inconsistencies in the water characteristics which cause an out-of-resonance condition which is remedied instantaneously by the control circuits.

In the invention, the adjustable frequency generator, shown in Fig.12, tunes in to the resonant condition of the circuit which includes the water cell and the water inside it. The generator has a frequency capability of 0 to 10 KHz and tunes into resonance typically at a frequency of 5 KHz in a typical 3-inch long water capacitor formed from a 0.5 inch rod inside a 0.75 inch inside-diameter cylinder. At start up, in this example, current draw through the water cell will measure about 25 milliamps; however, when the circuit finds a tuned resonant condition, the current drops down to a 1 to 2 milliamp leakage condition.

The voltage to the capacitor water cell increases according to the turns of the winding and the size of the coils, as in a typical transformer circuit. For example, if 12 volts is sent to the primary coil of the pulsing core and the secondary coil resonant charging choke ratio is 30 to 1, then 360 volts is sent to the capacitor water cell. The number of turns is a design variable which controls the voltage of the unipolar pulses sent to the capacitor.

The high-speed switching diode, shown in Fig.10, prevents charge leaking from the charged water in the water capacitor cavity, and the water capacitor as an overall capacitor circuit element, i.e. the pulse and charge status of the water/capacitor never pass through an arbitrary ground. The pulse to the water capacitor is always unipolar. The water capacitor is electrically isolated from the control, input and driver circuits by the electromagnetic coupling through the core. The switching diode in the Voltage Intensifier Circuit (Fig.10) performs several functions in the pulsing. The diode is an electronic switch which determines the generation and collapse of an electromagnetic field to permit the resonant charging choke(s) to double the applied frequency and it also allows the pulse to be sent to the resonant cavity without discharging the “capacitor” therein. The diode is, of course,
selected in accordance with the maximum voltage encountered in the pulsing circuit. A 600 PIV (“Peak Inverse Volts”) fast switching diode, such as an NVR 1550, has been found to be useful in this circuit.

The Voltage Intensifier Circuit of Fig.10 also includes a ferromagnetic or ceramic ferromagnetic pulsing core capable of producing electromagnetic flux lines in response to an electrical pulse input. The flux lines affect both the secondary coil and the resonant charging choke windings equally. Preferably, the core is of a closed loop construction. The effect of the core is to isolate the water capacitor and to prevent the pulsing signal from going below an arbitrary ground and to maintain the charge of the already charged water and water capacitor.

In the pulsing core, the coils are preferably wound in the same direction to maximise the additive effect of the electromagnetic field in them. The magnetic field of the pulsing core is synchronised with the pulse input to the primary coil. The potential from the secondary coil is introduced to the resonant charging choke windings which are subjected to the same synchronous applied electromagnetic field, simultaneously with the primary pulse.

When resonance occurs, control of the gas output is achieved by varying the time of duty gate cycle. The transformer core is a pulse frequency doubler. In a figurative explanation of the workings of the fuel gas generator water capacitor cell, when a water molecule is “hit” by a pulse, electron time-share is effected and the molecule is charged. When the time of the duty cycle is changed, the number of pulses that “hit” the molecules in the fuel cell is modified correspondingly. More “hits” result in a greater rate of molecular disassociation.

With reference to the overall circuit of Fig.1, Fig.3 receives a digital input signal, and Fig.4 shows the control circuit which applies 0 to 12 volts across the primary coil of the pulsing core. Depending on design parameters of primary coil voltage and other factors relevant to core design, the secondary coil of the pulsing core can be set up for a predetermined maximum, such as 2,000 volts.

The cell driver circuit shown in Fig.5, allows a gated pulse to be varied in direct relation to voltage amplitude. As noted above, the circuit of Fig.6 produces a gate pulse frequency. The gate pulse is superimposed on the resonant frequency pulse, to create a duty cycle that determines the number of discrete pulses sent to the primary coil. For example, assuming a resonant pulse of 5 KHz, a 0.5 KHz gating pulse with a 50% duty cycle, will allow 2,500 discrete pulses to be sent to the primary coil, followed by an equal time interval in which no pulses are passed through. The relationship of resonant pulse to the gate pulse is determined by conventional signal addition/subtraction techniques.

The phase lock loop circuit shown in Fig.7 allows the pulse frequency to be maintained at a predetermined resonant condition sensed by the circuit. Together, the circuits of Fig.7 and Fig.8, determine an output signal to the pulsing core until the peak voltage signal sensed at resonance is achieved.

A resonant condition occurs when the pulse frequency and the voltage input attenuates the covalent bonding forces of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms of the water molecule. When this occurs, current leakage through the water capacitor is minimised. The tendency of voltage to maximise at resonance, increases the force of the electric potential applied to the water molecules, which ultimately disassociate into atoms.

Because resonances of different waters, water volumes and capacitor cells vary, the resonant scanning circuit of Fig.8 scans frequency from high to low and back to high, until a signal lock is achieved. The ferromagnetic core of the voltage intensifier circuit transformer, suppresses electron surge in an out-of-resonance condition of the fuel cell. In an example, the circuit scans at frequencies from 0 Hz to 10 KHz and back to 0 Hz. In water having contaminants in the range of 1 part per million to 20 parts per million, a 20% variation in resonant frequency is encountered. Depending on water flow rate into the fuel cell, the normal variation range is about 8% to 10%. For example, iron in well water affects the status of molecular dissociation. Also, at a resonant condition, harmonic effects occur. In a typical operation of the cell with a representative water capacitor described below, at a frequency of about 5 KHz, with unipolar pulses from 0 to 650 volts, at a sensed resonant condition in the resonant cavity, on average, the conversion into gas occurs at a rate of about 5 US gallons (19 litres) of water per hour. To increase the rate, multiple resonant cavities can be used and/or the surfaces of the water capacitor can be increased, however, the water capacitor cell is preferably small in size. A typical water capacitor may be formed from a 0.5 inch diameter stainless steel rod and a 0.75 inch inside-diameter cylinder which extends over the rod for a length of 3 inches.

The shape and size of the resonant cavity may vary. Larger resonant cavities and higher rates of consumption of water in the conversion process require higher frequencies up to 50 KHz and above. The pulsing rate, to sustain such high rates of conversion, must be increased correspondingly.

From the above description of the preferred embodiment, other variations and modifications of the system disclosed will be evident to those skilled in the art.
This is a patent application from Stephen Meyer, brother of the late Stan Meyer. While this application mentions filling stations, it is clear that the design is aimed at use in vehicles with internal combustion engines. I believe that the impedance-matching interface between the alternator and the cell electrodes is particularly important. The water-splitter cell uses sets of three pipes in a concentric array which results in small gaps between the innermost, middle and outer pipe. Stephen refers to these three electrode pipes as a “wave-guide”, so please bear that in mind when reading this patent application. Stephen uses the word “hydroxyl” to refer to the mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases produced by electrolysis of water. Other people use the word “hydroxy” to describe this mixture, so they should be considered interchangeable.

The operation of this system as described here, calls for the generating power to be removed when the gas pressure in the generating chambers reaches 5 psi. The gas is then pumped into a pressure chamber where the pressure ranges from 40 psi to 80 psi, at which point the compressor is powered down and the excess gas vented to some external storage or using device. It is not until this is completed that the power is applied again to the generating chambers. May I remark that, in my opinion, there is no need to remove the power from at generating chambers at any time when this system is in operation, since all that that does is to lower the generating capacity, unless of course, the production rate is so high that it exceeds the level of demand.

**ABSTRACT**

The usefulness of this system, its configuration, design and operation, are the keystone of a new type of automation: the production of hydroxyl gases from renewable sources.

**BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION**

Fuel Cell and auto industries have been looking for methods and apparatus that can supply a source of hydrogen and oxygen for its new hybrid industry. This invention is such a device.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The invention is a computerised, automatic, on-site/mobile hydroxyl gas producing filling station which allows the products being produced to be used, either by the hydrogen fuel cells installed in automobiles, trucks, buses, boats and land-based generating applications, or in any internal combustion engine.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig.1 shows the configuration of the components which go to make up the MLS-hydroxyl Filling Station.

Fig.2 shows the software display which the operator uses to monitor and control the production of hydroxy gases and heat.

Fig.3 shows the methods, configuration, and apparatus used in the hydroxyl producing cell system 120.

Fig.4 shows the electronic impedance-matching circuits 102, connected between the dual three-phase synchronised generators (110A and 110B in Fig.3) and each of the electrodes or “waveguide” arrays 132 in cell 120 of Fig.3. Note that only generator A is depicted in Fig.4 as being connected to arrays A, B and C using PC cards 1 to 3. generator B is connected to arrays D, E and F using cards 4 to 6.

Fig.5 Shows the signals emitted by each of the impedance-matching circuits (102 in Fig.4 mounted on cards 1 to 6) which are applied to each of the cylinder arrays (132 in Fig.3) installed in hydroxyl cell 120. These sets of signals with their offset phase relationship, frequencies and amplitudes, are the driving forces producing the hydroxy gases in cell 120 of Fig.3.

Fig.6 shows the high-frequency ringing signal which is produced between points T1 and T2 in the impedance-matching circuit 102 in Fig.4. It is this ringing which enhances the production of the hydroxyl gas in cell 120 of Fig.3.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

The heat-removing section in Fig. 1 consists of a liquid bath 30 and its container 20, a liquid circulating pump 10, conveying-conduits 40, cooling chamber 50 attached to hydroxyl generating cell 120, filter 45, radiator 60 and cooling fans 61 attached to it.

The automatic-control section in Fig. 1 consists of a computer 70, software program 75, video monitor 90 and its graphic operator display 95 (Fig. 2), pointer 85, keyboard 80, interface card 72, and Input/Output controller 100 with its driver electronics cards 102 and 105.

Dual three-phase power sources 110 and impedance-matching circuits 102, provide the power needed to drive the hydroxyl cell 120.

The remaining apparatus is used to convey the gases from cells 120, through liquid trap 130, through gas flow restriction valve 135, elevate its gas pressures through compressor 140, transfer them to storage tank 150, then deliver the gases through safety cut off 165, regulators 160 and through flash-back arrestor 170 for external delivery.

Fig. 2 shows the layout and functions of the operator control display 95 of program 75 in Fig. 1. It consists of cell temperature indicator 230, vacuum controller 240, high-pressure tank indicator 250, delivery controller 260, delivery regulated-pressure indicator 265 and related alarm/status indicators 270. Also, software control buttons
Fig. 3 shows the configuration of our proprietary hydroxyl-producing apparatus 120 consisting of dual three-phase power source 110, impedance matching electronic circuits 102 and gas converter devices 132 submerged in a bath of water 133 in cell 120. The drawing also shows the water jacket 50 surrounding the cell 120 that helps lower its temperature and allows more production of the hydroxyl gases at higher voltage signals as shown in Fig. 5.
Fig. 4 shows the electrical circuits (102) used to drive the gas converting arrays (132 in Fig. 3) submerged in a bath of water (133 in cell 120). Fig. 4 shows three identical circuits connected to each of the three-phase signals from one half of the dual three-phase generator (110A in Fig. 3). The circuits (102) convert the AC signal from each phase of (110) into a modulated signal as depicted by Fig. 5. These signals are then coupled to the triple array elements (132), (Inside, Middle and Outside) by alternating the connection between the Inside and Outside elements of the arrays (132 in Fig. 3).
Fig. 5 shows the composite signals applied to each of the arrays (132 in Fig. 3) submerged in the water bath 133, indicating the differential voltages used in the hydroxyl producing process. Note that the Middle wave-guide element is used as the electrical reference point for both the Outside and Inside elements of array 132. Heat allows the ions from the elements in array 132 submerged in water bath 133, to cross its water surface barriers and contribute to the hydroxyl production. Note the DC bias voltage +,- on either side of the centre electrical signal.

**Signals Traveling Wave Guide**

- **Impedance Matching Signal Plus**
- **Impedance Matching Signal Minus**
- **Electrical Reference Point 0V**
- **Wave Guide Outer Element**
- **Wave-Guide Middle Element**
- **Wave Guide Inner Element**

**FIG-5**
reference point 0V. It is this bias voltage being modulated by multi-polarity differential signals from 102, that contributes to the wave-guide action of arrays 132. Also, the frequency of the waveform shown in Fig.5 is adjusted to match the electrical wavelength of the arrays 132 of Fig.3 and the impedance of water bath 133.

**Fig.6** shows the high-frequency ringing signals which contribute to the operation of the hydroxyl production. just as a tuning fork rings when struck by a hammer, so do the wave-guide elements in array 132 immersed in the hydroxyl-generating liquid 133 when struck by the electrical signals shown in Fig.5 and Fig.6, coming from the impedance-matching circuits 102 shown in Fig.4.

**Brief Description of Sequences**

This invention is a computerised Hydroxyl Gas producing filling station “MLS-HFS” designed to provide automatic control of its on-site gas production and delivery.
The MLS-HFS shown in Fig.1, is a hydroxyl gas and heat generating system which uses a renewable source of liquid supply 30 such as water. It uses a computer control program 75 with display interface 95, for the monitoring, adjusting and controlling of the electronic and hardware apparatus and process logic. The electronic circuits 102 mounted in driver 100, control the production of the gases and heating while circuit 105 controls the process and routing of the hydroxyl gas.

The system consists of a low-pressure hydrolyser cell 120 in Fig.1, a liquid trap 130, an adjustable flow-restriction valve 135, high-pressure vacuum pump 140, and check valve 142 installed in 140. It also contains a high-pressure storage tank 150, an alarm/low-pressure cut-off valve 165, gas regulator 160, flashlight arrestor 170, over-pressure safety release valves 125, pressure gauges 128, analogue pressure-sending units 122 installed on cell 120, and tank 150 at the regulating side of regulator 160. Also, 125 is installed on Compressor 140 high-pressure output. The computer controller 70, monitor 90, keyboard 80, interface I/O card 72 and software position pointer 85, are used to control the production process, using electronic driver 100 through it's PC boards 105 and their attached control devices. The power to the cell-driving circuits 102, installed in driver 100, is supplied from a dual three-phase isolated power source 110. The amplitude, signal phases and frequency from this power source is controlled by signal adjustments coming from the computer 70.

**Detailed Description**

**Sequence of Operation**

The system shown in Fig.1 is monitored and controlled by the software program 75, computer 70, monitor 90, keyboard 80, pointer 85, and display interface 95 in Fig.2.

The software program has five main functions, namely: to purge the system of ambient air, check and test for any equipment malfunctions, prepare the system for production, monitor and control the current activities of the production process, and the safety shutdown of the system if alarms are detected.

During the initial installation, and again after any repairs, the total system is purged using the vacuum pump 140, using manual procedures to ensure that all ambient air has been removed from the system. Before the system is put into service, the operator can test the operation of the system by using the graphic display. The main functions of the testing is to ensure that the temperature electronics 131 attached to the hydroxyl cells 120, transferring compressor 140 and analogue pressure sensors 122 mounted on cells 120, high-pressure tank 150 and the discharge side of regulator 160 used for control and monitoring, are working properly. the operator can then activate the Run Sequence of the program 75 via the start software button 280 in Fig.2 on graphic display 95.

During the initial startup phase of the system, the computer program will configure the system for the purge sequence. this sequence allows the vacuum pump 140 to draw down the hydroxyl cells 120 liquid trap 130 coupled to flow-restriction valve 135, to remove all ambient air from them. Once the program has done this and detected no leaks in the system, it then prepares the system for gas production by switching the gas flow from cells 120 to high-pressure tank 150 and on to the output flashlight protector 170.

The program starts it’s production sequence by turning on the cooling system pump 10 which is submerged in the liquid bath 30, contained in vessel 20. The cooling liquid is pumped through the cooling jacket 50 which is attached to the outside of cells 120, through filter 45 and then through an air-cooled radiator 60. Fans attached to the radiator are turned on for cooling.

Next, the computer turns on the dual three-phase power source 110, which supplies operating power to the frequency, phase-shifting, signal amplitude and impedance-matching circuits coupled to the hydroxyl generating cells.

The result of this is just like the operation of a radio transmitter matching it’s signal to the air via the antenna impedance. Fig.3 shows the relationship of this configuration to arrays 132, water bath 133 and Signals (Fig.5 and Fig.6).

While the power source 110 is operating, the computer 70 is monitoring the pressure 122 and temperature 131 of hydroxyl cells 120. When the cell pressure reaches a typical level of 5 pounds per square inch, the power source is turned off and compressor 140 is turned on the pump the gas into pressure tank 150. When the pressure in the hydroxyl cells 120 is drawn down to near zero, the compressor is turned off and the power to the gas generating cells is turned back on again, to repeat the cycle.
The production cycle is repeated until tank 150 reaches a pressure of, typically, 80 psi, at which time the computer enables the output pressure regulator 160 which is typically set to operate at 40 psi, for the delivery of the hydroxyl gas to some external storage system or device. During this operation, the computer program handles all switching and displays the current status and any alerts or warning messages for the operator on the graphical display 95.

**Impedance-Matching Circuit 102:**

The impedance-matching circuits 102 in Fig.4, convert the sinewave signals coming from the three-phase power source (110 in Fig.3) into multi-polarity differential signals (Fig.5) which are applied to the triple wave-guide cluster arrays 132 A, 132B, 132C, 132D, 132E and 132F installed in cell 120.

It is this converted signal, along with the phase relationship of the power source 110 and the triple wave-guide elements in cluster 132 submerged in water bath 133, which produce the hydroxyl gases. It is important to note that not only is the gas produced between the elements in the array, but also between each array installed in the cell - see the phase relationship of array A-B-C shown in Fig.3. Also note that the array elements themselves are supplying many of the ions needed for the production of the gases.

**Sequence of Hydroxyl Gas Generation:**

Once the hydroxyl-generating cell 120 has been purged of ambient air and the production routing completed (Fig.1), the dual three-phase power source 110 is activated, supplying frequency, amplitude and phase signals to the impedance-matching circuitry 102. The converted signals from 102 are then applied to cell array 132 for processing. It is the combination of the impedance-matching circuits signal transformations (as shown in Fig.5 and Fig.6), the cell configuration and materials used in arrays 132, and the rotational phase relationship between arrays AD, BE and CF and the submersion of these arrays in a bath of water 133, that allows this system to produce large amounts of hydroxyl gases. The computer program 75 and it's graphic display 95, is used by the operator to adjust the rate of gas production and set the upper limit to which the low-pressure cell 120 will charge.

After the cell 120 has reached its upper pressure cut-off limit (typically 5 psi), the power source 110 is turned off, enabling the compressor 140 to start its draw-down and transfer of the gases to the high-pressure tank 150. When the pressure in the cell 120 reaches a low-level limit (near zero psi), 140 stops its charging cycle of 150. Check valve 142 which is installed in 140, prevents any back flow of gases to 120 from high-pressure tank 150. The power source 110 is then turned back on to repeat the cycle. These charging cycles continue until the high-pressure tank 150 reaches it's upper pressure limit (typically 80 psi), at which point the hydroxyl production is stopped. As the gases in the high-pressure tank are being used or transferred to some external storage system, the pressure in 150 is monitored at the output of pressure-regulator 160, until the low-pressure limit for this tank is reached (typically 40 psi). When this pressure level is reached, the hydroxyl gas production is started again.

During the operation of cell 120, it's temperature is monitored to ensure that it does not exceed the “out of limits” conditions set by control 231 and monitored via the graphics display 95. If the temperature exceed the limit set, then the gas production is stopped and the computer program alerts the operator, indicating the problem. The cooling system 30 which uses water jacket 50 surrounding cell 120, helps to reduce the temperature and allows higher rates of gas production.

After extended running times, the water in cell 120 is replenished from bath 30 and filtered by 45, to help control the operating impedance of the cell.
Dr Andrija Puharich (who later changed his name to Henry Puharich) reportedly drove his motor home for hundreds of thousands of miles around North America in the 1970s using only water as fuel. At a mountain pass in Mexico, he collected snow for water. Here is an article which he wrote:

**Cutting The Gordian Knot of the Great Energy Bind**
by Andrija Puharich

**Introduction**
It is hardly necessary to weigh the value of the World Energy bank account for any sophisticated person, these days. It is grim. The oil reserves will dwindle away in a score of years or so, and the coal reserves will be gone in some twelve score years. This is not to say that the outlook is hopeless. There is an abundance of alternative energy sources, but the economics of development and exploitation present an enormous short-term strain on the world political and banking resources.

Visionary scientists tell us that the ideal fuel in the future will be as cheap as water, that it will be non-toxic both in its short-term, and in its long-term, effects, that it will be renewable in that it can be used over and over again, that it will be safe to handle, and present minimal storage and transportation problems and costs. And finally that it will be universally available anywhere on earth. What is this magical fuel, and why is it not being used? The fuel is water. It can be used in its fresh water form. It can be used in its salt water form. It can be used in its brackish form. It can be used in its snow and ice form. When such water is decomposed by electrolytic fission into hydrogen and oxygen gases, it becomes a high energy fuel with three times the energy output which is available from an equivalent weight of high grade gasoline.

Then why is water not being used as a fuel? The answer is simple - it costs too much with existing technology to convert water into hydrogen and oxygen gases. The basic cycle of using water for fuel is described in the following two equations, familiar to every high school student of Chemistry:

$$\text{H}_2\text{O} \xrightarrow{\text{Electrolysis}} \text{H}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 \quad \Delta G \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 \text{ per mole of water} \quad \cdots \cdots \cdots (1)$$

(1 mole = 18 gm). This means that it requires 249.688 BTU of energy (from electricity) to break water by electrolysis into the gases hydrogen and oxygen.

$$\text{H}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 + \text{catalyst} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} - \Delta H 302.375 \text{ BTU per mole of water} \quad \cdots \cdots \cdots (2)$$

This means that 302.375 BTU of energy (heat or electricity) will be released when the gases, hydrogen and oxygen, combine. The end product (the exhaust) from this reaction is water. Note that more energy (under ideal conditions) is released from combining the gases than is used to free them from water. It is know that under ideal conditions it is possible to get some 20% more energy out of reaction (2) above, then it takes to produce the gases of reaction (1) above. Therefore, if reaction (1) could be carried out at 100% efficiency, the release of energy from reaction (2) in an optimally efficient engine (such as a low temperature fuel cell), there would be a net energy profit which would make the use of water as a fuel an economically feasible source of energy.

The cost of producing hydrogen is directly related to the cost of producing electricity. Hydrogen as produced today is generally a by-product of off-peak-hour electrical production in either nuclear or hydroelectric plants. The electricity thus produced is the cheapest way of making hydrogen. We can compare the cost of production of electricity and the cost of producing hydrogen. The following table is adapted from Penner whose data source is based on Federal Power Commission, and American Gas Association Figures of 1970 and on a 1973 price evaluation (just before the OPEC oil price escalation.)
Table 1: Relative Prices in Dollars per 106 BTU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost Component</th>
<th>Electricity</th>
<th>Electrolytically-Produced H₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>2.67 (b)</td>
<td>2.95 to 3.23 (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmission</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.52 (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cost</td>
<td>$4.89</td>
<td>$3.81 to $4.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we compare only the unit cost of production of electricity vs Hydrogen from the above table:

106 BTU H₂ / 106 BTU El = $3.23 / $2.67, or 20.9% higher cost, H₂

It must also be noted that the price of natural gas is much cheaper than either electricity or hydrogen, but because of the price fluctuations due to recent deregulation of gas it is not possible to present a realistic figure. In the opinion of Penner, if the hydrogen production cost component of its total cost could be reduced three fold, it would become a viable alternate energy source. In order to achieve such a three-fold reduction in production costs, several major breakthroughs would have to occur.

1. **Endergonic Reaction** A technological breakthrough which permits 100% conversion efficiency of water by electrolysis fission into the two gases, Hydrogen as fuel and Oxygen as oxidant.

2. **Hydrogen Production in Situ** A technological breakthrough which eliminates the need and cost of hydrogen liquefaction and storage, transmission, and distribution, by producing the fuel in situ, when and where needed.

3. **Exergonic Reaction** A technological breakthrough which yields a 100% efficient energy release from the combination of hydrogen and oxygen into water in an engine that can utilize the heat, steam, or electricity thus produced.

4. **Engine Efficiency** By a combination of the breakthroughs outlined above, 1, 2, and 3 utilized in a highly efficient engine to do work, it is theoretically possible to achieve a 15% to 20% surplus of energy return over energy input.

It is of interest to record that a new invention is now being developed to realise the above outlined goal of cheap, clean renewable and high grade energy. A Thermodynamic Device has been invented which produces hydrogen as fuel, and oxygen as oxidant, from ordinary water or from sea water, eliminating the cost and hazard of liquefaction, storage, transmission, and distribution. The saving of this aspect of the invention alone reduces the total cost of hydrogen by about 25%.

This Thermodynamic Device is based on a new discovery - the efficient electrolytic fission of water into hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by the use of low frequency alternating currents as opposed to the conventional use of direct current, or ultra-high frequency current today. Such gas production from water by electrolytic fission approaches 100% efficiency under laboratory conditions and measurements. No laws of physics are violated in this process.

This Thermodynamic Device has already been tested at ambient pressures and temperatures from sea level to an altitude of 10,000 feet above sea level without any loss of its peak efficiency. The device produces two types of gas bubbles; one type of bubble contains hydrogen gas; the other type contains oxygen gas. The two gases are thereafter easily separable by passive membrane filters to yield pure hydrogen gas, and pure oxygen gas.

The separate gases are now ready to be combined in a chemical fusion with a small activation energy such as that from a catalyst or an electrical spark, and yield energy in the form of heat, or steam, or electricity as needed. When the energy is released by the chemical fusion of hydrogen and oxygen, the exhaust product is clean water. The water exhaust can be released into nature and then renewed in its energy content by natural processes of evaporation, solar irradiation in cloud form, and subsequent precipitation as rain on land or sea, and then collected again as a fuel source. Or, the exhaust water can have its energy content pumped up by artificial processes such as through solar energy acting through photocells. Hence, the exhaust product is both clean and renewable. The fuel hydrogen, and the oxidant oxygen, can be used in any form of heat engine as an energy source if economy is not an important factor. But the practical considerations of maximum efficiency, dictate that a low temperature fuel cell with its direct chemical fusion conversion from gases to electricity offers the greatest economy and efficiency from small power plants of less than 5 kilowatts.

For large power plants, steam and gas turbines are the ideal heat engines for economy and efficiency. With the proper engineering effort, automobiles could be converted rather easily to use water as the main fuel source.
The Thermodynamic Device (“TD”) is made up of three principal components:
Component 1: An electrical function generator which energizes a water cell.
Component 2: The Thermodynamic Device
Component 3: A weak electrolyte.

Component 1: The Electrical Function Generator:

Figure 1: Signal Generator Component Block

This electronic device has a complex alternating current output consisting of an audio frequency (range 20 to 200 Hz) amplitude modulation of a carrier wave (range: 200 to 100,000 Hz). The output is connected by two wires to Component II at the center electrode, and at the ring electrode. See Fig.1. The impedance of this output signal is continuously being matched to the load which is the water solution in Component II.
Component 2: The Thermodynamic Device:

![Figure 2: Thermodynamic Device](image)

The TD is fabricated of metals and ceramic in the geometric form of a coaxial cylinder made up of a centered hollow tubular electrode which is surrounded by a larger tubular steel cylinder. These two electrodes comprise the coaxial electrode system energised by Component I. The space between the two electrodes is, properly speaking, Component III which contains the water solution to be electrolysed. The center hollow tubular electrode carries water into the cell, and is further separated from the outer cylindrical electrode by a porous ceramic vitreous material. The space between the two electrodes contains two lengths of tubular Pyrex glass, shown in Figures 2 and 3. The metal electrode surface in contact with the water solution are coated with a nickel alloy.
Component 3: The weak electrolyte water solution:

This consists of the water solution, the two glass tubes, and the geometry of the containing wall of Component 2. It is the true load for Component 1, and its electrode of Component 2.

The Component 3 water solution is more properly speaking, ideally a 0.1540 M Sodium Chloride solution, and as such, it is a weak electrolyte. In Figure 4 we show the hypothetical tetrahedral structure of water molecule, probably in the form in which the complex electromagnetic waves of Component 1 to see it. The center of mass of this tetrahedral form is the oxygen atom. The geometric arrangement of the p electrons of oxygen probably determine the vectors i (L1) and i (L2) and i (H1) and i (H2) which in turn probably determine the tetrahedral architecture of the water molecule. The p electron configuration of oxygen is shown in Figure 5. Reference to Figure 4, shows that the diagonal of the right side of the cube has at its corner terminations, the positive charge hydrogen (H+) atoms; and that the left side of the cube diagonal has at its corners, the lone pair electrons, (e-). It is to be further noted that this diagonal pair has an orthonormal relationship.

Figure 4: The Water Molecule in Tetrahedral Form:

Hydrogen bonding occurs only along the four vectors pointing to the four vertices of a regular tetrahedron, and in the above drawing we show the four unit vectors along these directions originating from the oxygen atoms at the center. i(H1) and i(H2) are the vectors of the hydrogen bonds formed by the molecule i as a donor molecule. These are assigned to the lone pair electrons. Molecules i are the neighboring oxygen atoms at each vertex of the tetrahedron.
3. Electrothermodynamics

We will now portray the complex electromagnetic wave as the tetrahedral water molecule sees it. The first effect felt by the water molecule is in the protons of the vectors, $i \text{(H}_1$) and $i \text{(H}_2$. These protons feel the 3-second cycling of the amplitude of the carrier frequency and its associated side bands as generated by Component 1. This sets up a rotation moment of the proton magnetic moment which one can clearly see on the XY plot of an oscilloscope, as an hysteresis loop figure. However, it is noted that this hysteresis loop does not appear in the liquid water sample until all the parameters of the three components have been adjusted to the configuration which is the novel basis of this device. The hysteresis loop gives us a vivid portrayal of the nuclear magnetic relaxation cycle of the proton in water.

The next effect felt by the water molecule is the Component 1 carrier resonant frequency, $F_0$. At the peak efficiency for electrolysis the value of $F_0$ is 600 Hz +/- 5 Hz.

This resonance however is achieved through control of two other factors. The first is the molal concentration of salt in the water. This is controlled by measuring the conductivity of the water through the built-in current meter of Component 1. There is maintained an idea ratio of current to voltage where $I/E = 0.01870$ which is an index to the optimum salt concentration of 0.1540 Molal.

The second factor which helps to hold the resonant frequency at 600 Hz is the gap distance of $Y$, between the centre electrode, and the ring electrode of Component 2. This gap distance will vary depending on the size scale of Component 2, but again, the current flow $I$, is used to set it to the optimal distance when the voltage reads between 2.30 (rms) volts, at resonance $F_0$, and at molal concentration, 0.1540. The molal concentration of the water is thus seen to represent the electric term of the water molecule and hence its conductivity.

The amplitude modulation of the carrier gives rise to side bands in the power spectrum of the carrier frequency distribution. It is these side bands which give rise to an acoustic vibration of the liquid water, and it is believed, also to the tetrahedral water molecule. The importance of the phonon effect - the acoustic vibration of water in electrolysis - was discovered in a roundabout way. Research work with Component 1 had earlier established that it could be used for the electro-stimulation of hearing in humans. When the output of Component 1 is comprised of flat circular metal plates applied to the head of normal hearing humans, it was found that they could hear pure tones and speech. Simultaneously, acoustic vibration could also be heard by an outside observer with a stethoscope placed near one of the electrodes on the skin. It was observed that the absolute threshold of hearing could be obtained at 0.16 mW (rms), and by calculation that there was an amplitude of displacement of the eardrum of the order of $10^{-11}$ meter and a corresponding amplitude of the cochlear basilar membrane of $10^{-13}$.
meter. Corollary to this finding, I was able to achieve the absolute reversible threshold of electrolysis at a power level of 0.16 mW (rms). By carrying out new calculations, I was able to show that the water was being vibrated with a displacement of the order of 1 Angstrom unit (= 10^{-10} meters). This displacement is of the order of the diameter of the hydrogen atom. Thus it is possible that the acoustic phonons generated by audio side bands of the carrier are able to vibrate particle structures within the unit water tetrahedron.

We now turn to the measurement problem with respect to efficiency of electrolysis. There are four means which can be used to measure the reactant product of water electrolysis. For simple volume measurements, one can use a precision nitrometer such as the Pregl type. For both volume and quantitative analysis one can use the gas chromatography with thermal conductivity detector. For a continuous flow analysis of both volume and gas species the mass spectrometer is very useful. For pure thermodynamic measurements the calorimeter is useful. In our measurements, all four methods were examined, and it was found that the mass spectrometer gave the most flexibility and the greatest precision. In the next section we will describe our measurement using the mass spectrometer.

**Protocol**


**Introduction**

All systems used today for the electrolysis of water into hydrogen as fuel, and oxygen as oxidant apply direct current to a strong electrolyte solution. These systems range in efficiency from 50% to 71%. The calculation of energy efficiency in electrolysis is defined as follows:

"The energy efficiency is the ratio of the energy released from the electrolysis products formed (when they are subsequently used) to the energy required to effect electrolysis."

The energy released by the exergonic process under standard conditions is

\[ \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} = 3 \text{ 02.375 BTU} \]

which is 68,315 Kcal/mol or, 286,021 Joules/mol, and is numerically equal to the enthalphy charge (\(\Delta H\)) for the indicated process. On the other hand, the minimum energy (or useful work input) required at constant temperature and pressure for electrolysis equals the Gibbs free energy change (\(\Delta G\)).

Penner shows that there is a basic relation derivable from the first and second laws of thermodynamics for isothermal changes which shows that

\[ \Delta G = \Delta H - T \Delta S \] .......... (2)

where \(\Delta S\) represents the entropy change for the chemical reaction and T is the absolute temperature.

The Gibbs free energy change (\(\Delta G\)) is also related to the voltage (e) required to implement electrolysis by Faraday's equation:

\[ e = \frac{\Delta G}{23.06 \text{ n}} \text{ volts} \] .......... (3)

where \(\Delta G\) is in Kcal/mol, and n is the number of electrons (or equivalents) per mole of water electrolysed and has the numerical value 2 in the equation (endergonic process),

\[ \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2(\text{g}) + 56.620 \text{ kcal} \text{ or } + 249.68 \text{ BTU} \] .......... (4)

Therefore, according to equation (2) at atmospheric pressure, and 300°K:

\(\Delta H = 68,315 \text{ kcal/mol of } \text{H}_2\text{O}\), and

\(\Delta G = 56.620 \text{ kcal/mol of } \text{H}_2\text{O} = 236,954 \text{ J/mol } \text{H}_2\text{O} \) for the electrolysis of liquid water.

In view of these thermodynamic parameters for the electrolysis of water into gases, hydrogen and oxygen, we can establish by Eq.(2) numeric values where,

\(\Delta G = 236,954 \text{ J/mol } \text{H}_2\text{O} \) under standard conditions. Thus
\[ n = \frac{\Delta G \text{(J/mol)}}{\Delta Ge \text{(J/mol)}} = <1 \quad \ldots \quad (5) \]

where \( \Delta Ge \) is the electrical energy input to \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) (1) in Joules, and \( \Delta G \) is the Gibbs free energy of \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \). The conversion between the two quantities is one Watt second \((\text{Ws}) = \text{one Joule} \).

Or, in terms of gas volume, as hydrogen, produced and measured,

\[ n = \frac{\text{Measured H}_2 \text{ (cc)}}{\text{Ideal H}_2 \text{ (cc)}} = <1 \quad \ldots \quad (6) \]

In accordance with these general principles we present the methodology followed in evaluating the electrolytic of alternating current on \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) in producing the gases, hydrogen and oxygen. No attempt has been made to utilize these gases according to the process of Eq.(1). It is to be noted that the process

\[ \text{H}_2 \text{ (g)} + \frac{(1/2)}{2} \text{O}_2 \text{ (g)} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} \text{ (g)} \quad \ldots \quad (7) \]

yields only 57.796 kcal /mol. Eq.(7) shows that per mole of gases water formed at 300\(^{\circ}\)K, the heat released is reduced from the 68.315 kcal/mol at Eq. (1) by the molar heat of evaporation of water at 300\(^{\circ}\)K (10.5 kcal) and the overall heat release is 57.796 kcal/mol if \( \text{H}_2\text{O} \) (g) is formed at 300\(^{\circ}\)K.

In the following sections we describe the new method of electrolysis by means of alternating current, and the exact method and means used to measure the endergonic process of Eq.(4) and the governing Eq.(2) and Eq.(5).

5. Thermodynamic Measurement

In order to properly couple Component 2 to a mass spectrometer, one requires a special housing around Component 2 which will capture the gases produced, and permit these to be drawn under low vacuum into the mass spectrometer. Therefore a stainless steel and glass chamber was built to contain Component 2, and provision made to couple it directly through a \( \text{CO}_2 \) water-trap to the mass spectrometer with the appropriate stainless steel tubing. This chamber is designated as Component 4. Both the mass spectrometer and Component 4 were purged with helium and evacuated for a two hour period before any gas samples were drawn. In this way, contamination was minimized. The definitive measurement were done at Gollob Analytical Services in Berkeley Heights, New Jersey.

We now describe the use of Component 1 and how its energy output to Component 2 is measured. The energy output of Component 1 is an amplitude-modulated alternating current looking into a highly non-linear load, i.e., the water solution. Component 1 is so designed that at peak load it is in resonance across the system (Components 1, 2, and 3) and the vector diagrams show that the capacitive reactance, and the inductance reactance are almost exactly 180\(^{\circ}\) out of phase with each other, and so the net power output is reactive (the dissipative power is very small). This design ensures minimum power losses across the entire output system. In the experiments to be described, the entire emphasis is placed on achieving the maximum gas yield (credit) in exchange for the minimum applied electrical energy.

The most precise way to measure the applied energy from Component 1 to Component 2 and Component 3, is to measure the power, \( P \), in watts, \( W \). Ideally this should be done with a precision wattmeter, but since we were interested in following the voltage and current separately, it was decided not to use the watt meter. Separate meters were used to continuously monitor the current and the volts.

This is done by precision measurement of the volts across Component 3 as root mean square (rms) volts; and the current flowing in the system as rms amperes. Precisely calibrated instruments were used to take these two measurements. A typical set of experiments using water in the form of 0.9% saline solution 0.1540 molar to obtain high efficiency hydrolysis gave the following results:

\[ \text{rms Current } = I = 25\text{mA to 38 mA (0.025 A to 0.038 A.)} \]

\[ \text{rms Volts } = E = 4.0 \text{ Volts to 2.6 Volts} \]

The resultant ration between current and voltage is dependent on many factors such as the gap distance between the center and ring electrodes, dielectric properties of the water, conductivity properties of the water, equilibrium states, isothermal conditions, materials used, and even the pressure of clathrates. The above current and voltage values reflect the net effect of various combinations of such parameters. When one takes the product of rms current, and rms volts, one has a measure of the power, \( P \) in watts.

\[ P = I \times E = 25 \text{ mA x 4.0 volts} \times 100 \text{ mW (0.1 W)} \]
and \( P = I \times E = 38 \text{ mA} \times 2.6 \text{ volts} = 98.8 \text{ mW} \) (0.0988 W)

At these power levels (with load), the resonant frequency of the system is 600 Hz (plus or minus 5 Hz) as measured on a precision frequency counter. The waveform was monitored for harmonic content on an oscilloscope, and the nuclear magnetic relaxation cycle was monitored on an XY plotting oscilloscope in order to maintain the proper hysteresis loop figure. All experiments were run so that the power in watts, applied through Components 1, 2, and 3 ranged between 98.8 mW to 100 mW.

Since by the International System of Units 1971 (ST), one Watt-second (Ws) is exactly equal to one Joule (J), our measurements of efficiency used these two yardsticks (1 Ws = 1 J) from the debit side of the measurement.

The energy output of the system is, of course, the two gases, Hydrogen (H\(_2\)) and Oxygen, (1/2)O\(_2\), and this credit side was measured in two laboratories, on two kinds of calibrated instruments, namely gas chromatography machine, and mass spectrometer machine.

The volume of gases H\(_2\) and (1/2)O\(_2\) was measured as produced under standard conditions of temperature and pressure in unit time, i.e., in cubic centimeters per minute (cc/min), as well as the possibility contaminating gases, such as air oxygen, nitrogen and argon, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, water vapor, etc.

The electrical and gas measurements were reduced to the common denominator of Joules of energy so that the efficiency accounting could all be handled in one currency. We now present the averaged results from many experiments. The standard error between different samples, machines, and locations is at +/- 10%, and we only use the mean for all the following calculations.

2. Thermodynamic Efficiency for the Endergonic Decomposition of Liquid Water (Salinized) to Gases Under Standard Atmosphere (754 to 750 mm. Hg) and Standard Isothermal Conditions @ 25°C = 77°F = 298.16°K, According to the Following Reaction:

\[
\text{H}_2\text{O (1)} \rightarrow \text{H}_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2(1) + \Delta G = 56.620 \text{ Kcal /mole} \quad \text{......... (10)}
\]

As already described, \( \Delta G \) is the Gibbs function. We convert Kcal to our common currency of Joules by the formula, One Calorie = 4.1868 Joules

\[
\Delta G = 56.620 \text{ Kcal} \times 4.1868 \text{ J} = 236,954/\text{J/mol of H}_2\text{O where 1 mole = 18 gr.} \quad \text{......... (11)}
\]

\( \Delta G_e \) = the electrical energy required to yield an equivalent amount of energy from H\(_2\)O in the form of gases H\(_2\) and (1/2)O\(_2\).

To simplify our calculation we wish to find out how much energy is required to produce the 1.0 cc of H\(_2\)O as the gases H\(_2\) and (1/2)O\(_2\). There are (under standard conditions) 22,400 cc = V of gas in one mole of H\(_2\)O. Therefore

\[
\Delta G / V = 236,954 \text{ J} / 22,400 \text{ cc} = 10.5783 \text{ J/cc.} \quad \text{......... (12)}
\]

We now calculate how much electrical energy is required to liberate 1.0 cc of the H\(_2\)O gases (where H\(_2\) = 0.666 parts, and (1/2)O\(_2\) = 0.333 parts by volume) from liquid water. Since \( P = 1 \text{ Ws} = 1 \text{ Joule} \), and \( V = 1.0 \text{ cc of gas} = 10.5783 \text{ Joules} \), then

\[
P V = 1 \text{ Js} \times 10.5783 \text{ J} = 10.5783 \text{ Js, or, } 10.5783 \text{ Ws} \quad \text{......... (13)}
\]

Since our experiments were run at 100 mW (0.1 W) applied to the water sample in Component II, III, for 30 minutes, we wish to calculate the ideal (100% efficient) gas production at this total applied power level. This is,

\[
0.1 \text{ Ws x 60 sec x 30 min} = 180,00 \text{ Joules (for 30 min.)}. \text{ The total gas production at ideal 100% efficiency is 180 J/10.5783 J/cc = 17.01 cc H}_2\text{O (g)}
\]

We further wish to calculate how much hydrogen is present in the 17.01 cc H\(_2\)O (g).

\[
17.01 \text{ cc H}_2\text{O (g) x 0.666 H}_2\text{(g) = 11.329 cc H}_2\text{(g) \quad ........... (14)}
\]

\[
17.01 \text{ cc H}_2\text{O (g) x 0.333 (1/2)O}_2\text{(g) = 5.681 cc (1/2)O}_2\text{(g)}
\]
Against this ideal standard of efficiency of expected gas production, we must measure the actual amount of gas produced under: (1) Standard conditions as defined above, and (2) 0.1 Ws power applied over 30 minutes. In our experiments, the mean amount of H₂ and (1/2)O₂ produced, as measured on precision calibrated GC, and MS machines in two different laboratories, where SE is +/- 10%, is,

- Measured Mean = 10.80 cc H₂ (g)
- Measured Mean = 5.40 cc (1/2)cc (1/2)O₂ (g)
- Total Mean = 16.20 cc H₂O (g)

The ratio, n, between the ideal yield, and measured yield,

\[
\frac{\text{Measured H}_2 (g)}{\text{Ideal H}_2 (g)} = \frac{10.80 \text{ cc}}{11.33 \text{ cc}} = 91.30\%
\]


This method is based on the number of electrons that must be removed, or added to decompose, or form one mole of, a substance of valence one. In water (H₂O), one mole has the following weight:

- H = 1.008 gr /mol
- H₂ = 1.008 gr /mol
- O = 15.999 gr/mol
- Thus, 1 mol H₂O = 18.015 gr/mol

For a univalent substance, one gram/mole contains 6.022 x 10-23 electrons = N = Avogadro’s Number. If the substance is divalent, trivalent, etc., N is multiplied by the number of the valence. Water is generally considered to be of valence two.

At standard temperature and pressure (“STP”) one mole of a substance contains 22.414 cc, where Standard temperature is 273.15 K = 0°C = T. Standard Pressure (one atmosphere) = 760 mm Hg = P.

One Faraday (“F”) is 96,485 Coulombs per mole (univalent).

One Coulomb (“C”) is defined as:

\[
1 \text{ N} / 1 \text{ F} = 6.122 \times 10^{23} \text{ Electrons} / 96,485 \text{ C} = 1 \text{ C}
\]

The flow of one C/second = one Ampere.
One C x one volt = one Joule second (Js).
One Ampere per second @ one volt = one Watt = one Joule.

In alternating current, when amps (I) and Volts (E) are expressed in root mean squares (rms), their product is Power in watts.

\[
P = IE \text{ watts (Watts = Amps x Volts)}.
\]

With these basic definitions we can now calculate efficiency of electrolysis of water by the method of Faraday’s electrochemistry.

The two-electron model of water requires 2 moles of electrons for electrolysis (2 x 6.022 x 10²³), or two Faraday quantities (2 x 96,485 = 192,970 Coulombs).

The amount of gas produced will be:

- H₂ = 22.414 cc /mol at STP
- (1/2)O₂ = 11,207 cc / mol at STP
- Gases = 33.621 cc / mol H₂O (g)

The number of coulombs required to produce one cc of gases by electrolysis of water:

\[
193,970 \text{ C} / 33621 \text{ C} = 5.739567 \text{ C per cc gases.}
\]
Then, \( 5,739 \text{ C/cc/sec} = 5.739 \text{ amp/sec/cc} \). How many cc of total gases will be produced by \( 1 \text{ A/sec} \)?

\[ 0.1742291709 \text{ cc.} \]

How many cc of total gases will be produced by \( 1 \text{ A/min} \)?

\[ 10.45375 \text{ cc/min} \]

What does this represent as the gases \( \text{H}_2 \) and \( \text{O}_2 \)?

\( (1/2)\text{O}_2 = 3.136438721 \text{ cc/Amp/min.} \)
\( \text{H}_2 = 6.2728 \text{ cc/Amp/min.} \)

We can now develop a Table for values of current used in some of our experiments, and disregarding the voltage as is done conventionally.

1. Calculations for 100 mA per minute:
   Total Gases = 1.04537 cc/min
   \( \text{H}_2 = 0.6968 \text{ cc/min} \)
   \( (1/2)\text{O}_2 = 0.3484 \text{ cc/min} \)
   30 min. \( \text{H}_2 = 20.9054 \text{ cc/30 minutes} \)

2. Calculations for 38 mA per minute:
   Total Gases = 0.3972 cc/30 minutes
   \( \text{H}_2 = 0.2645 \text{ cc/min} \)
   \( (1/2)\text{O}_2 = 0.1323 \text{ cc/min} \)
   30 min. \( \text{H}_2 = 7.9369 \text{ cc/min} \)

3. Calculations for 25mA per minute:
   30 min. \( \text{H}_2 = 5.2263 \text{ cc/minute} \)

7. Conclusion

Fig.6 and Fig.7 [not available] show two of the many energy production systems that may be configured to include renewable sources and the present electrolysis technique. Figure 6 shows a proposed photovoltaic powered system using a fuel cell as the primary battery. Assuming optimum operating conditions using 0.25 watt seconds of energy from the photovoltaic array would enable 0.15 watt-seconds to be load.

Figure 7 depicts several renewable sources operating in conjunction with the electrolysis device to provide motive power for an automobile.

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METHOD AND APPARATUS FOR SPLITTING WATER MOLECULES

This is a re-worded extract from the United States Patent number 4,394,230. It describes how Henry Puharich was able to split water into hydrogen and oxygen gasses by a process which used very little input power.

ABSTRACT

Disclosed herein is a new and improved thermodynamic device to produce hydrogen gas and oxygen gas from ordinary water molecules or from seawater at normal temperatures and pressure. Also disclosed is a new and improved method for electrically treating water molecules to decompose them into hydrogen gas and oxygen gas at efficiency levels ranging between approximately 80-100%. The evolved hydrogen gas may be used as a fuel; and the evolved oxygen gas may be used as an oxidant.

Inventors: Puharich; Henry K. (Rte. 1, Box 97, Delaplane, VA 22025)
BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
The scientific community has long realised that water is an enormous natural energy resource, indeed an inexhaustible source, since there are over 300 million cubic miles of water on the earth's surface, all of it a potential source of hydrogen for use as fuel. In fact, more than 100 years ago Jules Verne prophesied that water eventually would be employed as a fuel and that the hydrogen and oxygen which constitute it would furnish an inexhaustible source of heat and light.

Water has been split into its constituent elements of hydrogen and oxygen by electrolytic methods, which have been extremely inefficient, by thermochemical extraction processes called thermochemical water-splitting, which have likewise been inefficient and have also been inordinately expensive, and by other processes including some employing solar energy. In addition, artificial chloroplasts imitating the natural process of photosynthesis have been used to separate hydrogen from water utilising complicated membranes and sophisticated artificial catalysts. However, these artificial chloroplasts have yet to produce hydrogen at an efficient and economical rate.

These and other proposed water splitting techniques are all part of a massive effort by the scientific community to find a plentiful, clean, and inexpensive source of fuel. While none of the methods have yet proved to be commercially feasible, they all share in common the known acceptability of hydrogen gas as a clean fuel, one that can be transmitted easily and economically over long distances and one which when burned forms water.

SUMMARY OF THE PRESENT INVENTION
In classical quantum physical chemistry, the water molecule has two basic bond angles, one angle being 104°, and the other angle being 109°28'. The present invention involves a method by which a water molecule can be energised by electrical means so as to shift the bond angle from the 104° degree configuration to the 109° degree 28' tetrahedral geometrical configuration.

An electrical function generator (Component 1) is used to produce complex electrical wave form frequencies which are applied to, and match the complex resonant frequencies of the tetrahedral geometrical form of water. It is this complex electrical wave form applied to water which is contained in a special thermodynamic device (Component II) which shatters the water molecule by resonance into its component molecules --- hydrogen and oxygen.

The hydrogen, in gas form, may then be used as fuel; and oxygen, in gas form is used as oxidant. For example, the thermodynamic device of the present invention may be used as a hydrogen fuel source for any existing heat engine --- such as, internal combustion engines of all types, turbines, fuel cell, space heaters, water heaters, heat exchange systems, and other such devices. It can also be used for the desalination of sea water, and other water purification purposes. It can also be applied to the development of new closed cycle heat engines where water goes in as fuel, and water comes out as a clean exhaust.

For a more complete understanding of the present invention and for a greater appreciation of its attendant advantages, reference should be made to the following detailed description taken in conjunction with the accompanying drawings.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS:
Fig.1 is a schematic block diagram illustrating the electrical function generator, Component I, employed in the practice of the present invention:
Fig. 2 is a schematic illustration of the apparatus of the present invention, including a cross-sectional representation of the thermodynamic device, Component II:

Fig. 3 is a cross-sectional view of Component III of the present invention, the water cell section of Component II:
Fig. 4 is an illustration of the hydrogen covalent bond:

Fig. 4A is an illustration of the hydrogen bond angle:

Fig. 4B is an illustration of hybridised and un-hybridised orbitals:
**Fig. 4C** is an illustration of the geometry of methane ammonia and water molecules:

**Fig. 5** is an illustration of an amplitude modulated carrier wave:
Fig. 6 is an illustration of a ripple square wave:

Fig. 6A is an illustration of unipolar pulses.

Fig. 7 is a diagram showing ion distribution at the negative electrode:
Fig. 8 is an illustration of tetrahedral bonding orbitals:
Fig. 9 is an illustration of water molecules:

Fig. 10 is an illustration of productive and non-productive collisions of hydrogen with iodine:
Fig. 11 is a waveform found to be the prime characteristic for optimum efficiency:

Fig. 12 is an illustration of pearl chain formation:

Fig. 13 is a plot of the course of the onset of the barrier effect and the unblocking of the barrier effect:
Figs. 14A, B, and C are energy diagrams for exergonic reactions:
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF INVENTION:

Section 1:
Apparatus of Invention;
The apparatus of the invention consists of three components, the Electrical Function Generator, the Thermodynamic Device, and the Water Cell.

Component I: The Electrical Function Generator;
This device has an output consisting of an audio frequency (range 20 to 200 Hz) amplitude modulation of a carrier wave (range 200 Hz to 100,000 Hz). The impedance of this output signal is continuously being matched to the load which is the second component, the thermodynamic device. The electrical function generator represents a novel application of circuitry disclosed in my earlier U.S. Pat. Nos. 3,629,521; 3,563,246; and 3,726,762, which are incorporated by reference herein. See Fig.1 for the block diagram of Component I.

Component II: The Thermodynamic Device;
The thermodynamic device is fabricated of metals and ceramic in the geometric form of coaxial cylinder made up of a central hollow tubular electrode which is surrounded by a larger tubular steel cylinder, said two electrodes comprising the coaxial electrode system which forms the load of the output of the electrical function generator, Component I. Said central hollow tubular electrode carries water, and is separated from the outer cylindrical electrode by a porous ceramic vitreous material. Between the outer surface of the insulating ceramic vitreous material, and the inner surface of the outer cylindrical electrode exists a space to contain the water to be electrolysed. This water cell space comprises the third component (Component III) of the invention. It contains two lengths of tubular Pyrex glass, shown in Fig.2 and Fig.3. The metal electrode surfaces of the two electrodes which are in contact with the water are coated with a nickel alloy.
The coaxial electrode system is specifically designed in materials and geometry to energise the water molecule to the end that it might be electrolysed. The central electrode is a hollow tube and also serves as a conductor of water to the Component III cell. The central tubular electrode is coated with a nickel alloy, and surrounded with a porous vitreous ceramic and a glass tube with the exception of the tip that faces the second electrode. The outer cylindrical electrode is made of a heat conducting steel alloy with fins on the outside, and coated on the inside with a nickel alloy. The central electrode, and the cylindrical electrode are electrically connected by an arching dome extension of the outer electrode which brings the two electrodes at one point to a critical gap distance which is determined by the known quenching distance for hydrogen. See Fig.2 for an illustration of Component II.

Component III: The Water Cell;
The water cell is a part of the upper end of Component II, and has been described. An enlarged schematic illustration of the cell is presented in FIG. 3. The Component III consists of the water and glass tubes contained in the geometrical form of the walls of cell in Component II, the thermodynamic device. The elements of a practical device for the practice of the invention will include:

(A) Water reservoir; and salt reservoir; and/or salt

(B) Water injection system with microprocessor or other controls which sense and regulate (in accordance with the parameters set forth here:
   a. Carrier frequency
   b. Current
   c. Voltage
   d. RC relaxation time constant of water in the cell
   e. Nuclear magnetic relaxation constant of water
   f. Temperature of hydrogen combustion
   g. Carrier wave form
   h. RPM of an internal combustion engine (if used)
   i. Ignition control system
   j. Temperature of region to be heated;

(C) An electrical ignition system to ignite the evolved hydrogen gas fuel.

The important aspects of Component III are the tubular vitreous material, the geometry of the containing walls of the cell, and the geometrical forms of the water molecules that are contained in the cell. A further important aspect of the invention is the manipulation of the tetrahedral geometry of the water molecule by the novel methods and means which will be more fully described in the succeeding sections of this specification.

The different parts of a molecule are bound together by electrons. One of the electron configurations which can exist is the covalent bond which is achieved by the sharing of electrons. A molecule of hydrogen gas, H₂ is the smallest representative unit of covalent bonding, as can be seen in Fig.4. The molecule of hydrogen gas is formed by the overlap and pairing of 1s orbital electrons. A new molecular orbit is formed in which the shared electron pair orbits both nuclei as shown in Fig.4. The attraction of the nuclei for the shared electrons holds the atoms together in a covalent bond.

Covalent bonds have direction. The electronic orbitals of an uncombined atom can change shape and direction when that atom becomes part of a molecule. In a molecule in which two or more covalent bonds are present the molecular geometry is dictated by the bond angles about the central atom. The outermost lone pair (non-bonding) electrons profoundly affect the molecular geometry.

The geometry of water illustrates this concept. In the ground state, oxygen has the outer shell configuration:

\[ 1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^2 2p_y^2 2p_z^1 \]

In water the 1s electrons from two hydrogen atoms bond with the 2p_y and 2p_z electrons of oxygen. Since p orbitals lie at right angles to each other (see Fig.4A), a bond angle of 90° might be expected. However, the bond angle is found experimentally to be approximately 104°. Theoretically this is explained by the effect of lone pair electrons on hybridised orbitals.

Combined or hybrid orbitals are formed when the excitation of 2s electrons results in their promotion from the ground state to a state energetically equivalent to the 2p orbitals. The new hybrids are termed sp³ from the combination of one s and three p orbitals (See Fig.4B). Hybrid sp³ orbitals are directed in space from the centre of a regular tetrahedron toward the four corners. If the orbitals are equivalent the bond angle will be 109°28' (See Fig.15) consistent with the geometry of a tetrahedron. In the case of water two of the orbitals are occupied by non-bonding electrons (See Fig.4C). There is greater repulsion of these lone pair electrons which orbit only one nucleus, compared to the repulsion of electrons in bonding orbitals which orbit two nuclei. This tends to increase the angle between non-bonding orbitals so that it is greater than 109°, which pushes the bonding orbitals together, reducing the bond angle to 104°. In the case of ammonia, NH₃ where there is only one lone pair, the repulsion is
not so great and the bond angle is 107°. Carbon forms typical tetrahedral forms and components the simplest being the gas methane, CH₄ (See Fig.4C and Fig.8). The repulsion of lone pair electrons affects charge distribution and contributes to the polarity of a covalent bond. (See Fig.16)

As demonstrated in succeeding sections of this patent specification, a significant and novel aspect of this invention is the manipulation, by electronic methods and means, of the energy level of the water molecule, and the transformation of the water molecule into, and out of, the geometrical form of the tetrahedron. This is made possible only by certain subtle dynamic interactions among the Components I, II, and III of the present invention.

Section 2:
Electrodynamics (Pure Water):
The electrodynamics of Components I, II, and III, will be described individually and in interaction during the progress of pure water reaction rate in time. The reactions of saline water will be described in Section 3. It is to be noted that the output of Component I automatically follows the seven stages (hereinafter Stages A-F) of the reaction rate by varying its parameters of resonant carrier frequency, wave form, current voltage and impedance. All the seven states of the reaction herein described are not necessary for the practical operation of the system, but are included in order to explicate the dynamics and novel aspects of the invention. The seven stages are applicable only to the electrolysis of pure water.

Stage A:
Dry Charging of Component II by Component I;
To make the new system operational, the Component I output electrodes are connected to component II, but no water is placed in the cell of Component III. When Component I output is across the load of Component II we observe the following electrical parameters are observed:

Range of current (I) output with (dry) load: 0 to 25 mA (milliamps) rms.
Range of voltage (E) output with (dry) load: 0 to 250 Volts (AC) rms.

There is no distortion of the amplitude modulated (AM), or of the sine wave carrier whose central frequency, f_c', ranges between 59,748 Hz to 66,221 Hz, with f_c average = 62, 985 Hz.

The carrier frequency varies with the power output in that f_c goes down with an increase in amperes (current). The AM wave form is shown in Fig.5. It is to be noted here that the electrical function generator, Component I, has an automatic amplitude modulation volume control which cycles the degree of Amplitude Modulation from 0% to 100%, and then from 100% to 0% every 3.0 seconds. This cycle rate of 3.0 seconds corresponds to the nuclear spin relaxation time, tau/sec, of the water in Component III. The meaning of this effect will be discussed in greater detail in a later section.

In summary, the principal effects to be noted during Stage A -dry charging of Component II are as follows:

a. Tests the integrity of Component I circuitry.
b. Tests the integrity of the coaxial electrodes, and the vitreous ceramic materials of Component II and Component III.
c. Electrostatic cleaning of electrode and ceramic surfaces.

Stage B:
Initial operation of Component I, Component II, and with Component III containing pure water. There is no significant electrolysis of water during Stage B. However, in Stage B the sine wave output of Component I is shaped to a rippled square wave by the changing RC constant of the water as it is treated;

There is an `Open Circuit` reversible threshold effect that occurs in Component III due to water polarisation effects that lead to half wave rectification and the appearance of positive unipolar pulses; and
There are electrode polarisation effects in Component II which are a prelude to true electrolysis of water as evidenced by oxygen and hydrogen gas bubble formation.

Appearance of Rippled Square Waves:
Phase 1: At the end of the Stage A dry charging, the output of Component I is lowered to typical values of: I = 1 ma.  E = 24V AC.  f_c .congruent.66,234 Hz.

Phase 2: Then water is added to the Component III water cell drop by drop until the top of the centre electrode, 1', in Fig.3 is covered, and when this water just makes contact with the inner surface of the top outer electrode at 2'. As this coupling of the two electrodes by water happens, the following series of events occur:

Phase 3: The f_c drops from 66,234 Hz, to a range from 1272 Hz to 1848 Hz. The current and voltage both drop, and begin to pulse in entrainment with the water nuclear spin relaxation constant, tau =3.0 sec. The presence of
the nuclear spin relaxation oscillation is proven by a characteristic hysteresis loop on the X-Y axes of an oscilloscope.
I = 0 to 0.2 mA surging at \( \tau \) cycle
E = 4.3 to 4.8V AC surging at \( \tau \) cycle
The sine wave carrier converts to a rippled square wave pulse which reflects the RC time constant of water, and it is observed that the square wave contains higher order harmonics. See Fig.6:

With the appearance of the rippled square wave, the threshold of hydrolysis may be detected (just barely) as a vapour precipitation on a cover glass slip placed over the Component III cell and viewed under a low power microscope.

The 'Open Circuit' Reversible Threshold Effect:

Phase 4  A secondary effect of the change in the RC constant of water on the wave form shows up as a full half wave rectification of the carrier wave indicating a high level of polarisation of the water molecule in tetrahedral form at the outer electrode.

With the already noted appearance of the rippled square wave, and the signs of faint vapour precipitation which indicate the earliest stage of electrolysis, it is possible to test for the presence of a reversible hydrolysis threshold. This test is carried out by creating an open circuit between Components I and II, i.e., no current flows. This is done by lowering the water level between the two electrodes in the region --- 1' and 2' shown in Fig.3; or by interrupting the circuit between Component I and II, while the Component I signal generator is on and oscillating.

Immediately, with the creation of an ‘open circuit’ condition, the following effects occur:
(a) The carrier frequency, \( f_c \), shifts from Phase 4 valve 1272 Hz to 1848 Hz to 6128 Hz.
(b) The current and voltage drop to zero on the meters which record I and E, but the oscilloscope continues to show the presence of the peak-to-peak (p-p) voltage, and the waveform shows a remarkable effect. The rippled square wave has disappeared, and in its place appear unipolar (positive) pulses as follows in Fig.6A.

The unipolar pulse frequency stabilises to ca. 5000 Hz. The unipolar pulses undergo a 0 to 1.3 volt pulsing amplitude modulation with \( \tau \) at 3.0 seconds. Thus, there exists a pure open circuit reversible threshold for water electrolysis in which the water molecules are capacitor charging and discharging at their characteristic low frequency RC time constant of 0.0002 seconds. It is to be noted that pure water has a very high dielectric constant which makes such an effect possible.

The pulsing amplitude modulation of the voltage is determined by the Hydrogen Nuclear Spin Relaxation constant of 3.0 seconds. It is to be noted that the positive pulse spikes are followed by a negative after-potential. These pulse wave forms are identical to the classic nerve action potential spikes found in the nervous system of all of the living species which have a nervous system. The fact that these unipolar pulses were observed arising in water under the conditions of reversible threshold hydrolysis has a profound significance. These findings illuminate and confirm the Warren McCulloch Theory of water "crystal" dynamics as being the foundation of neural dynamics; and the converse theory of Linus Pauling which holds that water clathrate formation is the mechanism of neural anesthesia.

Phase 5: The effects associated with reversible threshold electrolysis are noted only in passing, since they reflect events which are occurring on the electrode surfaces of Component II, the Thermodynamic Device.

A principal effect which occurs in Stage B, Phase 3, in Component II, (the thermodynamic device), is that the two electrodes undergo stages of polarisation. It has been observed in extensive experiments with different kinds of fluids in the cell of Component II, i.e., distilled water, sea water, tap water, Ringers solution, dilute suspensions of animal and human blood cells, etc. that the inner surface of the outer ring electrode at 3' in Fig.3 (the electrode that is in contact with the fluid) becomes negatively charged. Referring to Fig.7, this corresponds to the left hand columnar area marked, "Electrode .crclbar.".

Electrode Polarisation Effects at the Interface Between Components II and III:
Concurrently with the driver pulsing of Component I at the \( \tau \) constant cycle which leads to electrode polarisation effects in Component II, there is an action on Component III which energises and entrains the water molecule to a higher energy level which shifts the bond angle from 104° to the tetrahedral form with angle 109°28' as shown in Fig.8 and Fig.15.

This electronic pumping action is most important, and represents a significant part of the novel method of this invention for several reasons. First, the shift to the tetrahedral form of water increases the structural stability of the water molecule, thereby making it more susceptible to breakage at the correct resonant frequency, or frequencies. Second, increasing the polarisation of the water molecule makes the lone pair electrons, S- connected with the oxygen molecule more electronegative; and the weakly positive hydrogen atoms, S+ more positive. See Fig.9 and Fig.22.
As the outer electrode becomes more electrically negative, the central electrode becomes more electrically positive as will be shown. As the polarity of the water molecule tetrahedron increases, a repulsive force occurs between the two S+ apices of the water tetrahedron and the negatively charged electrode surface within the region of the Helmholtz layer, as shown in Fig.7. This effect "orients" the water molecule in the field, and is the well-known "orientation factor" of electrochemistry which serves to catalyse the rate of oxygen dissociation from the water molecule, and thereby causes the reaction rate to proceed at the lowest energy levels. See Fig.10 for an example of how the orientation factor works. Near the end of Stage B, the conditions are established for the beginning of the next stage, the stage of high efficiency electrolysis of water.

**Stage C:**
Generation of the complex wave form frequencies from Component I to match the complex wave form resonant frequencies of the energised and highly polarised water molecule in tetrahedral form with angles, 109°28’ are carried out in Stage C. In the operation of the invention active bubble electrolysis of water is initiated following Stage B, phase 3 by setting (automatically) the output of Component I to:

\[ I = 1 \text{ mA, } E = 22 \text{ V AC-rms, } \]

causing the rippled square wave pulses to disappear with the appearance of a rippled sawtooth wave. The basic frequency of the carrier now becomes, \( f_c = 3980 \text{ Hz.} \)

The wave form now automatically shifts to a form found to be the prime characteristic necessary for optimum efficiency in the electrolysis of water and illustrated in Fig.11. In the wave form of Fig.11, the fundamental carrier frequency, \( f_c = 3980 \text{ Hz.} \), and a harmonic modulation of the carrier is as follows:

- 1st Order Harmonic Modulation (OHM) = 7960 Hz.
- 2nd Order Harmonic Modulation (II OHM) = 15,920 Hz.
- 3rd Order Harmonic Modulation (III OHM) = 31,840 Hz.
- 4th Order Harmonic Modulation (IV OHM) = 63,690 Hz.

What is believed to be happening in this IV OHM effect is that each of the four apices of the tetrahedron water molecule is resonant to one of the four harmonics observed. It is believed that the combination of negative repulsive forces at the outer electrode with the resonant frequencies just described work together to shatter the water molecule into its component hydrogen and oxygen atoms (as gases). This deduction is based on the following observations of the process through a low power microscope. The hydrogen bubbles were seen to originate at the electrode rim, 4’, of Fig.3. The bubbles then moved in a very orderly ‘pearl chain’ formation centripetally (like the spokes of a wheel) toward the central electrode, 1’ of Fig.3, (Fig.12 shows a top view of this effect).

Thereafter, upon lowering the output of Component I, the threshold for electrolysis of water as evidenced by vapour deposition of water droplets on a glass cover plate over the cell of Component III, is:

\[ I = 1 \text{ mA, } E = 10 \text{ V so, Power = 10 mW} \]

with all other conditions and waveforms as described under Stage C, supra. Occasionally, this threshold can be lowered to:

\[ I = 1 \text{ ma, } E = 2.6 \text{ V so, Power = 2.6 mW} \]

This Stage C vapour hydrolysis threshold effect cannot be directly observed as taking place in the fluid because no bubbles are formed --- only invisible gas molecules which become visible when they strike a glass plate and combine into water molecules and form droplets which appear as vapour.

**Stage D:**
Production of hydrogen and oxygen gas at an efficient rate of water electrolysis is slowed in Stage D when a barrier potential is formed, which blocks electrolysis, irrespective of the amount of power applied to Components II and III.

A typical experiment will illustrate the problems of barrier potential formation. Components I, II, and III are set to operate with the following parameters:

\[ I = 1 \text{ ma, } E = 11.2 \text{ V so, Power = 11.2 mW (at the start, rising to 100 mW later)} \]

This input to Component III yields, by electrolysis of water, approximately 0.1 cm³ of hydrogen gas per minute at one atmosphere and 289°K. It is observed that as a function of time the \( f_c \) crept up from 2978 Hz to 6474 Hz over 27 minutes. The current and the voltage also rose with time. At the 27th minute a barrier effect blocked the electrolysis of water, and one can best appreciate the cycle of events by reference to Fig.13.
Stage E:
The Anatomy of the Barrier Effect:
Region A: Shows active and efficient hydrolysis
Region B: The barrier region effect can be initiated with taps of the finger, or it can spontaneously occur as a function of time.
Phase a: The current rose from 1 mA to 30 mA. The voltage fell from 22 volts to 2.5 V.
Phase b: If component II is tapped mechanically during Phase a supra --- it can be reversed as follows: The current dropped from 30 mA to 10 mA. The voltage shot up from 5 volts to over 250 volts (off scale).

Throughout ‘Phase a’ and ‘Phase b’, all hydrolysis has ceased. It was observed under the microscope that the inner surface of the outer electrode was thickly covered with hydrogen gas bubbles. It was reasoned that the hydrogen gas bubbles had become trapped in the electrostricted layer, because the water molecule tetrahedrons had flipped so that the S+ hydrogen apices had entered the Helmholtz layer and were absorbed to the electronegative charge of the electrode. This left the S- lone pair apices facing the electrostricted layer. This process bound the newly forming H+ ions which blocked the reaction

\[ H^+ + H^+ + 2e \rightarrow H_2 \text{ (gas)} \]

Stage F:
Region C: It was found that the barrier effect could be unblocked by some relatively simple procedures:
(a) Reversing the output electrodes from Component I to Component II, and/or:
(b) Mechanically tapping the Component III cell at a frequency T/2 = 1.5 seconds per tap.
These effects are shown in FIG. 12 and induce the drop in barrier potential from:

\[ I = 10 \text{ mA to } 1 \text{ ma}, \quad E = 250V \text{ to } 4V \text{ so, Power fell from } 2.5W \text{ to } 4 \text{ mW} \]

Upon unblocking of the barrier effect, electrolysis of water resumed with renewed bubble formation of hydrogen gas.

The barrier potential problem has been solved for practical application by lowering the high dielectric constant of pure water, by adding salts (NaCl, KOH, etc.) to the pure water thereby increasing its conductivity characteristics. For optimum efficiency the salt concentration need not exceed that of sea water (0.9% salinity) in Section 3, "Thermodynamics of the Invention", it is to be understood that all water solutions described are not "pure" water as in Section B, but refer only to saline water.

Section 3:
The Thermodynamics of the Invention (Saline Water);

Introduction: (water, hereinafter refers to saline water);
The thermodynamic considerations in the normal operations of Components I, II, and III in producing hydrogen as fuel, and oxygen as oxidant during the electrolysis of water, and the combustion of the hydrogen fuel to do work in various heat engines is discussed in this section.

In chemical reactions the participating atoms form new bonds resulting in compounds with different electronic configurations. Chemical reactions which release energy are said to be exergonic and result in products whose chemical bonds have a lower energy content than the reactants. The energy released most frequently appears as heat. Energy, like matter, can neither be created nor destroyed according to the Law of Conservation of Energy. The energy released in a chemical reaction, plus the lower energy state of the products, is equal to the original energy content of the reactants. The burning of hydrogen occurs rather violently to produce water as follows:

\[ 2H_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O - \Delta H 68.315 \text{ Kcal/mol (this is the enthalpy, or heat of combustion at constant pressure)} \text{ where} \]

18 gms = 1 mol.

The chemical bonds of the water molecules have a lower energy content than the hydrogen and oxygen gases which serve at the reactants. Low energy molecules are characterised by their stability. High energy molecules are inherently unstable. These relations are summarised in the two graphs of Fig.14. It is to be noted that Fig.14B shows the endergonic reaction aspect of the invention when water is decomposed by electrolysis into hydrogen and oxygen.

Fig.14A shows the reaction when the hydrogen and oxygen gases combine, liberate energy, and re-form into water. Note that there is a difference in the potential energy of the two reactions. Fig.14C shows that there are two components to this potential energy. The net energy released, or the energy that yields net work is labelled in the diagram as “Net Energy Released”, and is more properly called the free energy change denoted by the Gibbs function, $-\Delta G$. 

A - 492
The energy which must be supplied for a reaction to achieve (burning) spontaneity is called the “Activation Energy”. The sum of the two is the total energy released. A first thermodynamic subtlety of the thermodynamic device of the invention is noted in Angus McDougall’s Fuel Cells, Energy Alternative Series, The MacMillan Press Ltd., London, 1976, where on page 15 it is stated:

"The Gibbs function is defined in terms of the enthalpy H, and the entropy S of the system:

\[ G = H - T \cdot S \]  

(\text{where } \tau \text{ is the thermodynamic temperature})\). A particularly important result is that for an electrochemical cell working reversibly at constant temperature and pressure, the electrical work done is the net work and hence,

\[ \Delta G = -w_e \]

For this to be a reversible process, it is necessary for the cell to be on `open circuit`, that is, no current flows and the potential difference across the electrodes is the EMF, E. Thus,

\[ \Delta G = -zFE \]

(\text{where } F \text{ is the Faraday constant --- the product of the Avogadro Constant + } N_A = 6.022045 \times 10^{23} \text{ mole}^{-1}, \text{ and the charge on the electron, } e = 1.602 \text{ 189 } 10^{-19} \text{ C --- both in SI units; and } z \text{ is the number of electrons transported.) when the cell reaction proceeds from left to right."

It is to be noted that the Activation Energy is directly related to the controlling reaction rate process, and thus is related to the Gibbs free energy changes. The other thermodynamic subtlety is described by S. S. Penner in his work: Penner, S. S. and L. Icerman, Energy, Vol. II, Non-Nuclear Energy Technologies. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. Revised Edition, 1977. Reading, Mass. where on page 140 it is stated that:

"It should be possible to improve the efficiency achieved in practical electrolysis to about 100% because, under optimal operating conditions, the theoretically-attainable energy conversion by electrolysis is about 120% of the electrical energy input. The physical basis for this last statement will now be considered:

"A useful definition for energy efficiency in electrolysis is the following: the energy efficiency is the ratio of the energy released from the electrolysis products formed (when they are subsequently used) to the energy required to effect electrolysis. The energy released by the process

\[ H_2 (\text{gas}) + \frac{1}{2}O_2 (\text{gas}) \rightarrow H_2O (\text{liquid}) \]

under standard conditions (standard conditions in this example are: (1) atmospheric pressure = 760 mm Hg and (2) temperature = 298.16 K = 25°C = 77°F.) is 68.315 Kcal and is numerically equal to the enthalpy change (\( \Delta H \)) for the indicated process. On the other hand, the minimum energy (or useful work input) required at constant temperature and pressure for electrolysis equals the Gibbs free energy change (\( \Delta G \)). There is a basic relation derivable from the first and second laws of thermodynamics for isothermal changes, which shows that:

\[ \Delta G = \Delta H - T \cdot \Delta S \]

where \( \Delta S \) represents the entropy change for the chemical reaction. The Gibbs free energy change (\( \Delta G \)) is also related to the voltage (E) required to implement electrolysis by Faraday’s equation, viz.

\[ E = (\Delta G/23.06n) \text{ volts} \]

where \( \Delta G \) is in Kcal/mol and \( n \) is the number of electrons (or equivalents) per mol of water electrolysed and has the numerical value 2.

At atmospheric pressure and 300°C, \( \Delta H = 68.315 \text{ Kcal/mol of H}_2O \) (i) and \( \Delta G = 56.62 \text{ Kcal/mole of H}_2O \) (i) for the electrolysis of liquid water. Hence, the energy efficiency of electrolysis at 300°C is about 120%.

(When) \( H_2 \) (gas) and \( O_2 \) (gas) are generated by electrolysis, the electrolysis cell must absorb heat from the surroundings, in order to remain at constant temperature. It is this ability to produce gaseous electrolysis products with heat absorption from the surroundings that is ultimately responsible for energy-conversion efficiencies during electrolysis greater than unity."

Using the criteria of these two authorities, it is possible to make a rough calculation of the efficiency of the present invention.

**Section 4:**

**Thermodynamic Efficiency of the Invention;**

Efficiency is deduced on the grounds of scientific accounting principles which are based on accurate measurements of total energy input to a system (debit), and accurate measurements of total energy (or work) obtained out of the system (credit). In principle, this is followed by drawing up a balance sheet of energy debits and credits, and expressing them as an efficiency ration, \( \varepsilon \).

\[ \varepsilon = \frac{\text{Credit}}{\text{Debit}} = \frac{\text{Energy Out}}{\text{Energy In}} < 1 \]
The energy output of Component I is an alternating current passing into a highly non-linear load, i.e., the water solution. This alternating current generator (Component I) is so designed that at peak load it is in resonance (Components I, II, III), and the vector diagrams show that the capacitive reactance, and the inductive reactance are almost exactly 180° out of phase, so that the net power output is reactive, and the dissipative power is very small. This design insures minimum power losses across the entire output system. In the experiments which are now to be described the entire emphasis was placed on achieving the maximum gas yield (credit) in exchange for the minimum applied energy (debit).

The most precise way to measure the applied energy to Components II and III is to measure the Power, P, in Watts, W. This was done by precision measurements of the volts across Component II as root mean square (rms) volts; and the current flowing in the system as rms amperes. Precisely calibrated instruments were used to take these two measurements. A typical set of experiments (using water in the form of 0.9% saline solution = 0.1540 molar concentration) to obtain high efficiency hydrolysis gave the following results:

- rms Current = 25 mA to 38 mA (0.025 A to 0.038 A)
- rms Volts = 4 Volts to 2.6 Volts

The resultant ratio between current and voltage is dependent on many factors, such as the gap distance between the central and ring electrodes, dielectric properties of the water, conductivity properties of the water, equilibrium states, isothermal conditions, materials used, and even the presence of clathrates. The above current and voltage values reflect the net effect of various combinations of such parameters. The product of rms current, and rms volts is a measure of the power, P in watts:

\[ P = I \times E = 25 \text{ mA} \times 4 \text{ Volts} = 100 \text{ mW} \]
\[ P = I \times E = 38 \text{ mA} \times 2.6 \text{ Volts} = 98.8 \text{ mW} \]

At these power levels (with load), the resonant frequency of the system is 600 Hz (plus or minus 5 Hz) as measured on a precision frequency counter. The wave form was monitored for harmonic content on an oscilloscope, and the nuclear magnetic relaxation cycle was monitored on an X-Y plotting oscilloscope in order to maintain the proper hysteresis loop figure. All experiments were run so that the power in Watts, applied through Components I, II, and III ranged between 98.8 mW to 100 mW. Since, by the International System of Units --- 1971 (SI), One-Watt-second (Ws) is exactly equal to One Joule (J), the measurements of efficiency used these two yardsticks (1 Ws = 1 J) for the debit side of the measurement.

The energy output of the system is, of course, the two gases, hydrogen (H₂) and oxygen (1/2O₂), and this credit side was measured in two laboratories, on two kinds of calibrated instruments, namely, a Gas Chromatography Machine, and, a Mass Spectrometer Machine.

The volume of gases, H₂ and (1/2)O₂, was measured as produced under standard conditions of temperature and pressure in unit time, i.e., in ccs per minute (cc/min), as well as the possibly contaminating gases, such as air oxygen, nitrogen and argon; carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, water vapour, etc.

The electrical, and gas, measurements were reduced to the common denominator of Joules of energy so that the efficiency accounting could all be handled in common units. The averaged results from many experiments follow. The Standard Error between different samples, machines, and locations is plus or minus 10%, and only the mean was used for all the following calculations.

Section 5:

**Endergonic Decomposition of Liquid Water;**

Thermodynamic efficiency for the endergonic decomposition of saline liquid water into gases under standard atmosphere (754 to 750 m.m. Hg), and standard isothermal conditions @ 25°C. = 77°F. = 298.16⁰K., according to the following reaction:

\[ \text{H}_2\text{O}(1) \rightarrow \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + (1/2)\text{O}_2(\text{g}) + \Delta G = 56.620 \text{ KCal/mole} \]

As already described, \( \Delta G \) is the Gibbs function (Fig.14B). A conversion of Kcal to the common units, Joules, by the formula, One Calorie = 4.1868 Joules was made.

\[ \Delta G = 56.620 \text{ Kcal} \times 4.1868 \text{ J} = 236,954 \text{ J/mol of H}_2\text{O (1)} \text{ where, 1 mole is 18 gms.} \]

\( \Delta G \) = the free energy required to yield an equivalent amount of energy from H₂O in the form of the gases, H₂ and (1/2)O₂.

To simplify the calculations, the energy required to produce 1.0 cc of H₂O as the gases, H₂ and (1/2)O₂ was determined. There are (under standard conditions) 22,400 cc = V, of gas in one mole of H₂O. Therefore:

\[ \frac{\Delta G}{V} = \frac{236,954 \text{ J}}{22,400 \text{ cc}} = 10.5793 \text{ J/cc} \]
The electrical energy required to liberate 1.0 cc of the H₂O gases (where H₂ = 0.666 parts, and (1/2)O₂ = 0.333 parts, by volume) from liquid water is then determined. Since P = 1 Ws = 1 Joule, and V=1.0 cc of gas = 10.5783 Joules, then:

\[ PV = 1 \times 10.5783 \text{ J} = 10.5783 \text{ Ws} \]

Since the experiments were run at 100 mW (0.1 W) applied to the water sample in Component II, III, for 30 minutes, the ideal (100% efficient) gas production at this total applied power level was calculated.

\[ 0.1 \text{ Ws} \times 60 \text{ sec} \times 30 \text{ min} = 180.00 \text{ Joules (for 30 min)} \]

The total gas production at Ideal 100% efficiency is,

\[ 180.00 \text{ J} / 10.5783 \text{ J/cc} = 17.01 \text{ cc H}_2\text{O (g)} \]

The amount of hydrogen present in the 17.01 cc H₂O (g) was then calculated.

\[ 17.01 \text{ cc H}_2\text{O (gas)} \times 0.666 \text{ H}_2(\text{g}) = 11.329 \text{ cc H}_2(\text{g}) \]

\[ 17.01 \text{ cc H}_2\text{O (g)} \times 0.333 \text{ (1/2)O}_2(\text{g}) = 5.681 \text{ cc (1/2)O}_2(\text{g}) \]

Against this ideal standard of efficiency of expected gas production, the actual amount of gas produced was measured under: (1) standard conditions as defined above (2) 0.1 Ws power applied over 30 minutes. In the experiments, the mean amount of H₂ and (1/2)O₂ produced, as measured on precision calibrated GC, and MS machines in two different laboratories, where the S.E. is +/-10%, was,

- Measured Mean = 10.80 cc H₂(g)
- Measured Mean = 5.40 cc (1/2)O₂(g)
- Total Mean = 16.20 cc H₂O(g)

The ratio, η, between the ideal yield, and measured yield is:

\[ \eta = \frac{\text{Measured H}_2(\text{g})}{\text{Ideal H}_2(\text{g})} = \frac{10.80 \text{ cc}}{11.33 \text{ cc}} = 94.30\% \]

Section 6:
Energy Release;
The total energy release (as heat, or electricity) from an exergonic reaction of the gases, H₂ and O₂, is given by:

\[ \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(\rho) - \Delta\text{H} 68.315 \text{ Kcal/mol} = (-\Delta\text{H} 286,021 \text{ Joules/mol}) \]

It is possible (Penner, Op. Cit., p.128) to get a total heat release, or total conversion to electricity in a fuel cell, in the above reaction when the reactants are initially near room temperature (298.16°K.), and the reactant product (H₂O) is finally returned to room temperature. With this authoritative opinion in mind, it is desirable to determine the amount of energy released (ideal) from the exergonic experiment. The total energy of 1.0 cc of H₂O (1), as above is:

\[ 1.0 \text{ cc } \Delta\text{H} = \frac{286,021 \text{ J/mol}}{22,480 \text{ cc/mol}} - 12.7687 \text{ J/cc } \text{H}_2\text{O} \]

for H₂ = 12.7687 x 0.666 = 8.509 J/0.66 cc H₂ for O₂ = 12.7687 x 0.333 = 4.259 J/0.33 cc (1/2)O₂ The energy produced from the gases produced in the experiments in an exergonic reaction was:

16.20 cc H₂O (g) x 12.7687 J/cc H₂O = 206,8544 J.

The overall energy transaction can be written as:

\[ \text{EXERGONIC} / \text{ENDERGONIC} = \eta - \frac{\Delta\text{H}}{\Delta\text{G}} = \frac{206,854.4 \text{ J}}{180,000 \text{ J}} = 114.92\% \]

In practical bookkeeping terms the balance of debits and credits, n = (-ΔH) - (+ΔG), so:

n = 206.8544 J - 180.0 = + 26.8544 J (surplus).

Since, in the invention, the gas is produced where and when needed, there is no additional cost accounting for liquefaction, storage, or transportation of the hydrogen fuel, and the oxygen oxidant. Therefore, the practical efficiency, is:
In practical applications, the energy output (exergonic) of the Component II System can be parsed between the electrical energy required to power the Component I System, as an isothermal closed loop; while the surplus of approximately 15% can be shunted to an engine (heat, electrical, battery, etc.) that has a work load. Although this energy cost accounting represents an ideal model, it is believed that there is enough return (approximately 15%) on the capital energy investment to yield a net energy profit that can be used to do useful work.

CONCLUSION:

From the foregoing disclosure it will be appreciated that the achievement of efficient water splitting through the application of complex electrical waveforms to energised water molecules, i.e. tetrahedral molecules having bonding angles of 109°28’, in the special apparatus described and illustrated, will provide ample and economical production of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas from readily available sources of water. It is to be understood, that the specific forms of the invention disclosed and discussed herein are intended to be representative and by way of illustrative example only, since various changes may be made therein without departing from the clear and specific teachings of the disclosure. Accordingly, reference should be made to the following appended claims in determining the full scope of the method and apparatus of the present invention.
APPARATUS FOR DECOMPOSITION OF AQUEOUS LIQUID

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. This patent describes an electrolysis system which it is claimed has demonstrated ten times the efficiency that Faraday considered to be the maximum possible.

ABSTRACT
An apparatus for decomposition of liquid, in which spiral negative and positive electrodes are arranged close together but not touching. These two electrodes are supplied with power through external terminals and the electrolyte is caused to flow between the negative and positive electrodes for the electrolysis between two electrodes under the function of the potential magnetic field formed by the coil current which is generated by the electrodes with active movement of an electrolytic ion so that the electrolysis of water takes place smoothly under the spin functions of the atom and electron.

BACKGROUND AND SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to an apparatus for decomposition of liquid where a flowing electrolyte is subjected to electrolysis for the production of gases.

As is well known, water is composed of hydrogen atoms and oxygen atoms. When water is sufficiently magnetised, each constitutive atom is also weakly magnetised to rotate the elementary particle in a regular direction. This rotation of the elementary particle is generally called "spin". That is, the spin function is caused by an electron, atomic nucleus, atom and even by the molecule. When a negative electrode is immersed in the electrolyte - Sodium Hydroxide ("lye") solution - with a view to applying a voltage to it in order to cause the elementary particle to react with the electric field, the coupling state of the hydrogen with the oxygen is varied and the electrolysis is facilitated by the spin.

In the present invention, spiral negative and positive electrodes are arranged close together but not touching and these two electrodes are supplied with power through external terminals and the electrolyte is caused to flow between the negative and positive electrodes. Thus, the electrolyte is subjected to the electrolysis between two electrodes while within a magnetic field formed by the coil current which is generated by the electrodes with active movement of an electrolytic ion (Na⁺, OH⁻) so that the electrolysis of water takes place smoothly under the spin functions of the atom and electron.

It has been confirmed that the rate of the electrolysis of water using this invention is approximately 10 or more times (approximately 20 times when calculated) than that produced by conventional electrolysis.

The design of the electrolytic cell of this invention is such that the electrolyte flowing through the supply ports provided at the lower portion of the electrolytic cell is subjected to the magnetic field produced by a permanent magnet and the electrodes cause it to be further subjected to magnetic and electric fields which cause it to obtain a sufficient spin effect.

It is, therefore, a general object of the invention to provide a novel apparatus for decomposition of liquid in which an electrolyte (NaOH) solution is subjected to magnetic fields to cause electrolysis assisted by the spin of the water molecules which produces a great amount of gas with less consumption of electrical energy.

A principal object of the invention is to provide an apparatus for decomposition of liquid which has a liquid circulating system for the separation of gas and liquid in which positive and negative spiral electrodes are arranged across the flow path of the liquid and the opposite ends of the electrodes being provided with magnetic materials to augment the effect caused by the applied voltage across a liquid passing through a magnetic field caused by the positive and negative spiral electrodes, thereby to promote generation and separation of cat-ions and an-ions with a high efficiency in production of a large quantity of gases.

Other objects and advantages of the present invention will become apparent through the detailed description which follows.
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

The invention will be described more in detail in the following with reference to the accompanying drawings, wherein:

Fig. 1 is a partially cross-sectional schematic elevation of an apparatus in accordance with the invention;
**Fig. 2** is a perspective view of electrodes arranged in accordance with the invention;

**Fig. 3** is a plan view of electrodes with magnetic materials.

**DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT**
In Fig.1, an electrolysis cell 10, a gas-liquid separation tank 12 and a gas-washing tank 14 are vertically arranged as shown with the electrolytic cell 10 being positioned a little lower than the tanks.

Cell 10 and tanks 12 and 14 are connected together by a delivery pipe 16 which connects the top of the electrolytic cell 10 with the middle of the gas-liquid separation tank 12. A feed-back pipe 18 containing a pump 20, is provided to connect the bottom of the gas-liquid separation tank 12, with the bottom of the electrolytic cell 10. Also provided is pipe 22, which runs from the top of the gas-liquid separation tank 12 through a valve 24 to the bottom of the gas-washing tank 14. A drain pipe 26, provided with a valve 28, is taken from the top of the gas-washing tank 14.

In the electrolytic cell 10, positive and negative spiral electrodes 30 of diameters suited to the internal diameter of the electrolytic cell 10 are arranged coaxially. At the upper and lower parts of the spiral electrodes 30 are arranged magnet rings 32 and 34 made from ferrite or similar material, positioned so that North and South poles are opposite one another to create a magnetic field which is at right angles to the axis of the electrolytic cell.

Electrodes 30 are composed of two metal strips 36 which are wound into spiral shapes with cylindrical insulating spacers 38 made of rubber or a similar material, placed between them and attached to the surface of the metal strips 36. From the metal strips 36, wires 40, are taken to the positive and negative power supply terminals, via connectors provided in the inner wall of the electrolytic cell.

The electrolytic cell 10 and the gas-liquid separation tank 12 are filled with a electrolyte 44 which is circulated by the pump 20, while the gas-washing tank 14 is filled with a washing liquid 46 to such a level that gases gushing out of the conduit 22 are thoroughly washed.

The apparatus of the present invention may be well be used for the electrolysis of flowing water for the production of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas at a high efficiency. That is to say, the electrolytic cell 10 and the gas-liquid separation tank 12 are filled with the electrolyte 44 which is caused by pump 20 to flow through a magnetic field in an vortex path in which positive and negative magnetic poles N, S of the magnets 32 and 34 face each other to
produce a transverse field, and through the metal plates 36 of the vortical electrodes 30 to generate an orientation for the electrical migration of cat-ions and an-ions, causing an increased gas separation rate and enhancement of the electrolysis.

In particular, the flowing oxygen gas serves to facilitate an aeration of the electrolyte since it has varying magnetic effects as it passes through the magnetic field. The spiral electrodes 30 of this invention, create a remarkable increase in the rate of electrolysis. This is caused by the continuously decreasing space between the electrodes 30 which causes the flow velocity to increase as the flow progresses along its path. This causes turbulence which instantly removes bubbles of gas from the surface of the electrodes, allowing fresh ions full contact with the metal surfaces, thus raising the efficiency of the cell.

The spiral coiling of the electrodes also enables a very desirable reduction in the size of the cell, while increasing the electrode area and improving its contact with the electrolyte 44. There is also a relatively short migration distance of ions which also promotes rapid gas production. On the other hand, insulating spacers 38 interposed between the metal strips 36 serves to create the desired turbulence of the electrolyte passing through the cell.

The liquid circulating system for separation of gas and liquid requires no other driving unit except the circulation pump 20 to achieve separation of gas and liquid by utilising differences in water heads between cell 10 and tanks 12 and 14. In other words, a flow of gas-liquid mixture supplied from electrolytic cell 10 is fed into the gas-liquid separation tank 12 where, due to the difference in buoyancy of gases and liquid, the gas rises and is fed into the gas-washing tank 14 while the liquid moves down and is returned to the electrolytic cell 10. The washing tank 14 is filled with any convenient washing liquid 46 so that the gases gushing out of conduit 22 are thoroughly washed and fed into the drain pipe 26. Thus, the apparatus may be constructed at reduced cost and without any complexity.

As described earlier, the magnets 32 and 34 provide positive and negative magnetic poles N, S which are confronted in the annular wall for facilitating an alignment between the cross section of the flow-path of the liquid and the annular portion of the magnets 32 and 34 and a generation of a magnetic field in a direction perpendicular to that of the liquid flow, so that the liquid is forced to flow through the magnetic field.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental data</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Room temperature</td>
<td>20(^{\circ}) Centigrade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atmospheric pressure</td>
<td>1003 millibars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrolyte temperature</td>
<td>25(^{\circ}) Centigrade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humidity</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage</td>
<td>2.8 Volts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current</td>
<td>30 Amps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydroxy gas production rate</td>
<td>116 cc/sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen production per Coulomb (1A x 1 sec.)</td>
<td>2.6 cc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen production per Coulomb</td>
<td>1.3 cc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rate of generation shown by these figures is over 20 times that which could be obtained by standard Faraday electrolysis.
While a preferred embodiment of the invention has been illustrated by way of example in the drawings and particularly described, it will be understood that various modifications may be made in the construction and that the invention is no way limited to the embodiments shown.
This patent describes an electrolyser system capable of running a small internal combustion engine directly from water alone.

ABSTRACT
An apparatus for producing orthohydrogen and/or parahydrogen. The apparatus includes a container holding water and at least one pair of closely-spaced electrodes arranged within the container and submerged in the water. A first power supply provides a particular first pulsed signal to the electrodes. A coil may also be arranged within the container and submerged in the water if the production of parahydrogen is also required. A second power supply provides a second pulsed signal to the coil through a switch to apply energy to the water. When the second power supply is disconnected from the coil by the switch and only the electrodes receive a pulsed signal, then orthohydrogen can be produced. When the second power supply is connected to the coil and both the electrodes and coil receive pulsed signals, then the first and second pulsed signals can be controlled to produce parahydrogen. The container is self-pressurised and the water within the container requires no chemical catalyst and yet can produce the orthohydrogen and/or parahydrogen efficiently. Heat is not generated, and bubbles do not form on the electrodes.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Conventional electrolysis cells are capable of producing hydrogen and oxygen from water. These conventional cells generally include two electrodes arranged within the cell which apply energy to the water to thereby produce hydrogen and oxygen. The two electrodes are conventionally made of two different materials.

However, the hydrogen and oxygen generated in the conventional cells are generally produced in an inefficient manner. That is, a large amount of electrical power has to be applied to the electrodes in order to produce the hydrogen and oxygen. Moreover, a chemical catalyst such as sodium hydroxide or potassium hydroxide must be added to the water to separate hydrogen or oxygen bubbles from the electrodes. Also, the produced gas must often be transported to a pressurised container for storage, because conventional cells produce the gases slowly. Also, conventional cells tend to heat up, creating a variety of problems, including boiling of the water. In addition, conventional cells tend to form gas bubbles on the electrodes which act as electrical insulators and reduce the efficiency of the cell.

Accordingly, it is extremely desirable to produce a large amount of hydrogen and oxygen with only a modest amount of input power. Furthermore, it is desirable to produce the hydrogen and oxygen with "regular" tap water and without any additional chemical catalyst, and to operate the cell without the need for an additional pump to pressurise it. It is also desirable to construct both of the electrodes from the same material. It is also desirable to produce the gases quickly, and without heat, and without bubbles forming on the electrodes.

Orthohydrogen and parahydrogen are two different isomers of hydrogen. Orthohydrogen is that state of hydrogen molecules in which the spins of the two nuclei are parallel. Parahydrogen is that state of hydrogen molecules in which the spins of the two nuclei are antiparallel. The different characteristics of orthohydrogen and parahydrogen lead to different physical properties. For example, orthohydrogen is highly combustible whereas parahydrogen is a slower burning form of hydrogen. Thus, orthohydrogen and parahydrogen can be used for different applications. Conventional electrolytic cells make only orthohydrogen and parahydrogen. Parahydrogen is difficult and expensive to make by conventional means.

Accordingly, it is desirable to produce orthohydrogen and/or parahydrogen cheaply within a cell and to be able to control the amount of either produced by that cell. It is also desirable to direct the produced orthohydrogen or parahydrogen to a coupled machine in order to provide a source of energy for it.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
It is therefore an object of the present invention to provide a cell having electrodes and containing water which produces a large amount of hydrogen and oxygen in a relatively small amount of time, and with a modest amount of input power, and without generating heat.
It is another object of the present invention for the cell to produce bubbles of hydrogen and oxygen which do not bunch around or on the electrodes.

It is also an object of the present invention for the cell to operate properly without a chemical catalyst. Thus, the cell can be run using ordinary tap water. This has the advantage of avoiding the additional costs required for producing the chemical catalyst.

It is another object of the present invention for the cell to be self-pressurising. Thus avoiding the need for an additional pump.

It is another object of the present invention to provide a cell having electrodes made of the same material. This material can, for example, be stainless steel. Thus, the construction of the cell can be simplified and construction costs reduced.

It is another object of the present invention to provide a cell which is capable of producing orthohydrogen, parahydrogen or a mixture thereof and can be set so as to produce any relative amount of orthohydrogen and parahydrogen desired by the user.

It is another object of the invention to couple the gaseous output of the cell to a device, such as an internal combustion engine, so that the device may be powered from the gas supplied to it.

These and other objects, features, and characteristics of the present invention will be more apparent upon consideration of the following detailed description and appended claims with reference to the accompanying drawings, wherein the same reference numbers have been used to indicate corresponding parts in the various figures.

Accordingly, the present invention includes a container for holding water. At least one pair of closely-spaced electrodes are positioned within the container and submerged under the water. A first power supply provides a particular pulsed signal to the electrodes. A coil is also arranged in the container and submerged under the water. A second power supply provides a particular pulsed signal through a switch to the electrodes.

When only the electrodes receive a pulsed signal, then orthohydrogen can be produced. When both the electrodes and coil receive pulsed signals, then parahydrogen or a mixture of parahydrogen and orthohydrogen can be produced. The container is self pressurised and the water within the container requires no chemical catalyst to produce the orthohydrogen and/or parahydrogen efficiently.
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a side view of a cell for producing orthohydrogen including a pair of electrodes according to a first embodiment of the present invention;
Fig. 2 is a side view of a cell for producing orthohydrogen including two pairs of electrodes according to a second embodiment of the present invention;
Fig. 3 is a side view of a cell for producing orthohydrogen including a pair of cylindrical-shaped electrodes according to a third embodiment of the present invention;
Fig. 4a is a diagram illustrating a square wave pulsed signal which can be produced by the circuit of Fig. 5 and applied to the electrodes of Fig. 1 through Fig. 3;

Fig. 4b is a diagram illustrating a saw tooth wave pulsed signal which can be produced by the circuit of Fig. 5 and applied to the electrodes of Fig. 1 through Fig. 3;

Fig. 4c is a diagram illustrating a triangular wave pulsed signal which can be produced by the circuit of Fig. 5 and applied to the electrodes of Fig. 1 through Fig. 3;
Fig. 5 is an electronic circuit diagram illustrating a power supply which is connected to the electrodes of Fig. 1 through Fig. 3;

![Fig. 5](image)

Fig. 6 is a side view of a cell for producing at least parahydrogen including a coil and a pair of electrodes according to a fourth embodiment of the present invention;

![Fig. 6](image)
Fig. 7 is a side view of a cell for producing at least parahydrogen including a coil and two pairs of electrodes according to a fifth embodiment of the present invention;
Fig. 8 is a side view of a cell for producing at least parahydrogen including a coil and a pair of cylindrical-shaped electrodes according to a sixth embodiment of the present invention; and
Fig. 9 is an electronic circuit diagram illustrating a power supply which is connected to the coil and electrodes of Fig. 6 through Fig. 8.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

Fig. 1 shows a first embodiment of the present invention including a cell for producing hydrogen and oxygen. As will be discussed below in conjunction with Figs. 6-8, the production of parahydrogen requires an additional coil not shown in Fig. 1. Thus, the hydrogen produced by the first embodiment of Fig. 1 is orthohydrogen.
The cell includes a closed container 111 which is closed at its bottom portion by threaded plastic base 113 and screw thread base 109. The container 111 can be made of, for example, Plexiglas and might have a height of 430 mm and a width of 90 mm. The container 111 holds tap water 110.

The cell also includes a pressure gauge 103 to measure the pressure within the container 111. An outlet valve 102 is connected to the top of the container 111 to permit any gas within the container to escape into an output tube 101.

The cell also includes an over-pressure valve 106 connected to a base 113. The valve 106 provides a safety function by automatically releasing the pressure within the container 111 if the pressure exceeds a predetermined threshold. For example, the valve 106 may be set so that it will open if the pressure in the container exceeds 75 p.s.i. Since the container 111 is built to withstand a pressure of about 200 p.s.i., the cell is provided with a large safety margin.

A pair of electrodes 105a and 105b are arranged within the container 111. These electrodes are submerged under the top level of the water 110 and define an interaction zone 112 between them. The electrodes are preferably made from the same material, such as stainless steel.

In order to produce an optimum amount of hydrogen and oxygen, an equal spacing between the electrodes 105a and 105b must be maintained. Moreover, it is preferable to minimise the spacing between the electrodes. However, the electrodes cannot be positioned excessively close together, because arcing between the electrodes would occur. It has been determined that a spacing of 1 mm is the optimum spacing for producing hydrogen and oxygen. Spacing up to 5 mm can work effectively, but spacing above 5 mm has not worked well, except with excessive power.

Hydrogen and oxygen gas may be output through tube 101 to a device 120 which can use those gases, for example an internal combustion engine, such as shown in Fig.1. Instead of an internal combustion engine, device 120 may be any device using hydrogen and oxygen, including a reciprocating piston engine, a gas turbine engine, a stove, a heater, a furnace, a distillation unit, a water purification unit, a hydrogen/oxygen jet, or other device using the gases. With an adequately productive example of the present invention, any such device 120 using the output gases can be run continuously without the need for storing dangerous hydrogen and oxygen gases.

Fig.2 shows a second embodiment of the present invention which includes more than one pair of electrodes 205a-d. The spacing between the electrodes is less than 5 mm as in the embodiment of Fig.1. While Fig.2 shows only one additional pair of electrodes, it is possible to include many more pairs (e.g., as many as 40 pairs of electrodes) within the cell. The rest of the cell illustrated in Fig.2 remains the same as that illustrated in Fig.1. The multiple electrodes are preferably flat plates closely spaced, parallel to each other.
Fig. 3 illustrates a cell having a cylindrically shaped electrodes 305a and 305b. The outer electrode 305b surrounds the coaxially aligned inner electrode 305a. The equal spacing of the electrodes 305a and 305b is less than 5 mm and the interactive zone is coaxially arranged between the two electrodes. While Fig. 3 illustrates the top portion of the container 111 being formed by a plastic cap 301, it will be appreciated by those skilled in the art, that the cap 301 may be used in the embodiments of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 and the embodiment of Fig. 3 can utilise the same container 111 illustrated in Figs. 1-2. As suggested by Fig. 3, the electrodes can be almost any shape such as flat plates, rods, tubes or coaxial cylinders.

The electrodes 105a and 105b of Fig. 1 (or electrodes 205a-d of Fig. 2 or electrodes 305a and 305b of Fig. 3) are respectively connected to power supply terminals 108a and 108b so that they can receive a pulsed electrical signal from a power supply. The pulsed signal can be almost any waveform and have a variable current level, voltage level, frequency and mark-space ratio (i.e., a ratio of the duration of a single pulse to the interval between two successive pulses). For example, the power supply providing power to the electrodes can be a mains 110 volts to a 12 volt supply or a car battery.

Fig. 4a, Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c illustrate a square wave, a saw tooth wave and a triangular wave, respectively which can be applied to the electrodes 105a and 105b (or 205a-d or 305a, 305b) in accordance with the present invention. Each of the waveforms illustrated in Figs. 4a-4c has a 1:1 mark-space ratio. As shown in Fig. 4b, the saw tooth wave will only reach a peak voltage at the end of the pulse duration. As shown in Fig. 4c, the triangular wave has a low peak voltage. It has been found that optimal results for producing hydrogen and oxygen in the present invention are obtained using a square wave.

After initiation of the pulsed signal from the power supply, the electrodes 105a and 105b continuously and almost instantaneously generate hydrogen and oxygen bubbles from the water 110 in the interaction zone 112. Moreover, the bubbles can be generated with only minimal heating of the water or any other part of the cell. These bubbles rise through the water and collect in the upper portion of the container 111.

The generated bubbles are not bunched around or on the electrodes 105a and 105b and thus readily float to the surface of the water. Therefore, there is no need to add a chemical catalyst to assist the conduction of the solution or reduce the bubble bunching around or on the electrodes. Thus, only tap water is needed for generation of the hydrogen and oxygen in the present invention.

The gases produced within the container are self-pressurising (i.e., pressure builds in the container by the production of gas, without an air pump). Thus, no additional pump is needed to be coupled to the container 111 and the produced gases do no need to be transported into a pressurised container.

The power supply in the present invention is required to provide a pulsed signal having only 12 volts at 300 mA (3.6 watts). It has been found that an optimal amount of hydrogen and oxygen has been produced when the pulsed signal has mark-space ratio of 10:1 and a frequency of 10-250 KHz. Using these parameters, the prototype cell of the present invention is capable of producing gas at the rate of 1 p.s.i. per minute. Accordingly,
the cell of the present invention is capable of producing hydrogen and oxygen in a highly efficient manner, quickly and with low power requirements.

As noted above, the hydrogen produced by the embodiments of Figs.1-3 is orthohydrogen. As is well understood by those skilled in the art, orthohydrogen is highly combustible. Therefore, any orthohydrogen produced can be transported from the container 111 through valve 102 and outlet tube 101 to be used by a device such as an internal combustion engine.

The present invention, with sufficient electrodes, can generate hydrogen and oxygen fast enough to feed the gases directly into an internal combustion engine or turbine engine, and run the engine continuously without accumulation and storage of the gases. Hence, this provides for the first time a hydrogen/oxygen driven engine that is safe because it requires no storage of hydrogen or oxygen gas.

Fig.5 illustrates an exemplary power supply for providing D.C. pulsed signals such as those illustrated in Figs.4a-4c to the electrodes illustrated in Figs.1-3. As will be readily understood by those skilled in the art, any other power supply which is capable of providing the pulsed signals discussed above can be substituted.

The astable circuit is used to generate a pulse train at a specific time and with a specific mark-space ratio. This pulse train is provided to the base of transistor TR1 through resistor R2. Transistor TR1 operates as an inverter. Hence, the voltage level of the collector of transistor TR1 goes low (i.e., close to ground or logic 0).

Transistor TR2 also operates as an inverter. When the collector voltage of transistor TR1 goes low, the base voltage of transistor TR2 is high (i.e., close to Vcc or logic 1). The cell serves as the collector load for transistor TR3.

The astable circuit is used to generate a pulse train at a specific time and with a specific mark-space ratio. This pulse train is provided to the base of transistor TR1 through resistor R2. Transistor TR1 operates as an inverter. Hence, the voltage level of the collector of transistor TR1 goes low (i.e., close to ground or logic 0).

Figs.6-8 illustrate additional embodiments of the cell which are similar to the embodiments of Figs.1-3, respectively. Each of embodiments of Figs.6-8 further includes a coil 104 arranged above the electrodes and power supply terminals 107 connected to the coil 104. The dimensions of coil 104 can be, for example, 5 x 7 cm and have, for example, 1500 turns. The coil 104 is submerged under the surface of the water 110.

The embodiments of Figs.6-8 further include an optional switch 121 which can be switched on or off by the user. When the switch 121 is not closed, then the cell forms basically the same structure as Figs.1-3 and thus can be operated in the same manner described in Figs.1-3 to produce orthohydrogen and oxygen. When the switch 121 is closed, the additional coil 104 makes the cell capable of producing oxygen and either (1) parahydrogen or (2) a
A mixture of parahydrogen and orthohydrogen.

When the switch 121 is closed (or not included), the coil 104 is connected through terminals 106 and the switch 121 (or directly connected only through terminals 106) to a power supply so that the coil 104 can receive a pulsed signal. As will be discussed below, this power supply can be formed by the circuit illustrated in Fig.9.

When the coil 104 and the electrodes 105a and 105b receive pulses, it is possible to produce bubbles of parahydrogen or a mixture of parahydrogen and orthohydrogen. The bubbles are formed and float to the surface of the water 110 as discussed in Figs.1-3. When the coil is pulsed with a higher current, a greater amount of parahydrogen is produced. Moreover, by varying the voltage of the coil 104, a greater/lesser percentage of orthohydrogen/parahydrogen can be produced. Thus, by controlling the voltage level, current level and frequency (discussed below) provided to the coil 104 (and the parameters such as voltage level, current level, frequency, mark-space ratio and waveform provided to the electrodes 105a and 105b as discussed above) the composition of the gas produced by the cell can be controlled. For example, it is possible to produce only oxygen and orthohydrogen by simply disconnecting the coil 104. It is also possible to produce only oxygen and parahydrogen by providing the appropriate pulsed signals to the coil 104 and the electrodes 105a and 105b. All of the benefits and results discussed in connection with the embodiments of Figs.1-3 are equally derived from the embodiments of Figs.6-8. For example, the cells of Figs.6-8 are self-pressurising, require no-chemical catalyst, do not greatly heat the water 110 or cell, and produce a large amount of hydrogen and oxygen gases from a modest amount of input power, without bubbles on the electrodes.

A considerable amount of time must pass before the next pulse provides current to the coil 104. Hence, the frequency of the pulsed signal is much lower than that provided to the electrodes 105a and 105b. Accordingly, with the type of coil 104 having the dimensions described above, the frequency of pulsed signals can be as high as 30 Hz, but is preferably 17-22 Hz to obtain optimum results.

Parahydrogen is not as highly combustible as orthohydrogen and hence is a slower burning form of hydrogen. Thus, if parahydrogen is produced by the cell, the parahydrogen can be coupled to a suitable device such as a cooker or a furnace to provide a source of power or heat with a slower flame.

Fig.9 illustrates an exemplary power supply for providing D.C. pulsed signals such as those illustrated in Figs.4a-4c to the electrodes illustrated in Figs.6-8. Additionally, the power supply can provide another pulsed signal to the coil. As will be readily understood by those skilled in the art, any other power supply which is capable of providing the pulsed signals discussed above to the electrodes of the cell and the coil can be substituted. Alternatively, the pulsed signals provided to the electrodes and the coil can be provided by two separate power supplies.

The portion of the power supply (astable circuit, R2-R6, TR1-TR3, D2) providing a pulsed signal to the electrodes of the cell is identical to that illustrated in Fig.5. The power supply illustrated in Fig.9 further includes the following parts and their respective exemplary values:

The input of the ‘divide-by-N’ counter (hereinafter “the divider”) is connected to the collector of transistor TR1. The output of the divider is connected to the monostable circuit and the output of the monostable circuit is connected to the base of transistor TR4 through resistor R1. The collector of transistor TR4 is connected to one end of the coil and a diode D1. The other end of the coil and the diode D1 are connected to the voltage supply
Vcc. Resistor R1 ensures that TR4 is fully saturated. Diode D2 prevents any induced back emf generated within the coil from damaging the rest of the circuit. As illustrated in Figs.6-8, a switch 121 can also be incorporated into the circuit to allow the user to switch between (1) a cell which produces orthohydrogen and oxygen, and (2) a cell which produces at least parahydrogen and oxygen.

The high/low switching of the collector voltage of transistor TR1 provides a pulsed signal to the divider. The divider divides this pulsed signal by N (where N is a positive integer) to produce a pulsed output signal. This output signal is used to trigger the monostable circuit. The monostable circuit restores the pulse length so that it has a suitable timing. The output signal from the monostable circuit is connected to the base of transistor TR4 through resistor R1 to switch transistor TR4 on/off. When transistor TR4 is switched on, the coil is placed between Vcc and ground. When the transistor TR4 is switched off, the coil is disconnected from the rest of the circuit. As discussed in conjunction with Figs.6-8, the frequency of pulse signal provided to the coil is switched at a rate preferably between 17-22 Hz; i.e., much lower than the frequency of the pulsed signal provided to the electrodes.

As indicated above, it is not required that the circuit (divider, monostable circuit, R1, TR4 and D1) providing the pulsed signal to the coil be connected to the circuit (astable circuit, R2-R6, TR1-TR3, D2) providing the pulsed signal to the electrodes. However, connecting the circuits in this manner provides an easy way to initiate the pulsed signal to the coil.

A working prototype of the present invention has been successfully built and operated with the exemplary and optimal parameters indicated above to generate orthohydrogen, parahydrogen and oxygen from water. The output gas from the prototype has been connected by a tube to the manifold inlet of a small one cylinder gasoline engine, with the carburettor removed, and has thus successfully run such engine without any gasoline:
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes an electrolyser which Charles claimed was able to generate enough gas from hydrolysis of water, to be able to run a car engine without the use of any other fuel. It should be remembered that in Garrett's day, car electrics were all 6-volt systems.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to carburettors and it has particular reference to an electrolytic carburettor by means of which water may be broken up into its hydrogen and oxygen constituents and the gases so formed suitably mixed with each other and with air.

Another object of the invention is to provide a means whereby the electrolyte level in the carburettor may be maintained at a more or less constant level regardless of fluctuations in water pressure at the water inlet of the carburettor.

Another object of the invention is to provide a means whereby the relative amount of air mixed with the hydrogen and oxygen may be regulated as desired.

Still another object of the invention is the provision of a means to prevent the loss of hydrogen and oxygen gases during periods in which these gases are not being drawn from the carburettor.

Still another object of the invention is the provision of a means whereby the hydrogen and oxygen resulting from electrolysis may be formed in separate compartments, and a further object of the invention is the provision of a means to periodically reverse the direction of current flow and thereby alternate the evolution of the gases in the separate compartments, to be intermingled at a later time.

With reference to the accompanying drawings: -
Figure 1 is a view in vertical section of one form of carburettor.
Figure 2 is a modified form.
Figure 3 is a diagrammatic view of a pole changer, showing its actuating mechanism, and
Figure 4 is a wiring diagram for the modified form of carburettor shown in Figure 2.

With reference to Fig.1: The reference numeral 1 designates the carburettor housing, which is preferably constructed of bakelite or other suitable insulating material. This housing is designed so as to divide the carburettor into a float chamber 2 and gas generating chamber 4, connected by a fluid passage 3.
Water under pressure is forced into the carburettor through an opening 5 which communicates with the float chamber 2 through the medium of the sediment chamber 6 and the needle valve orifice 7, which is closed by a needle valve 8 when the device is not in operation. A float 9 surrounds the needle valve 8 and is free to move vertically relative thereto. Descending from the cover 10 to the float chamber 2 are two ears 11, located at spaced intervals on opposite sides of the needle valve 8. The members 12 are pivoted to the ears 11, as shown. The weighted outer ends of the members 12 rest on top of the float 9, and their inner ends are received in an annular groove in the collar 13 which is rigidly attached to the needle valve 8.

Within the gas generating chamber 4, a series of spaced, descending plates 14 are suspended from a horizontal member 15 to which a wire 16 has electrical contact through the medium of the bolt 17, which extends inwards through housing 1 and is threaded into the horizontal member 15. A second series of plates 18 is located between the plates 14 and attached to the horizontal member 19, and has electrical contact with the wire 20 through the bolt 21.

A gas passageway 22, in which a butterfly valve 23 is located, communicates with the gas generating chamber 4 through an orifice 24. An air inlet chamber 25 has communication with the gas passageway 22 above the orifice 24. A check valve 26 which opens downwards, controls the openings 27, and is held closed and inoperative by means of light spring 28.

An adjustable auxiliary air valve 29 is provided in the wall of the gas passageway 22, which air valve is closed by the butterfly valve 23 when the butterfly valve is closed, but communicates with the outside air when the butterfly valve is open.

The operation of the device is as follows:

The chambers 2 and 4 are first filled to the level ‘a’ with a solution of weak sulphuric acid (or other electrolyte not changed by the passage of current through it), and the opening 5 is connected to a tank of water (not shown).

The wire 16 is next connected to the positive pole of a storage battery or other source of direct current and the wire 20 to the negative pole. Since the solution within the carburettor is a conductor of electricity, current will flow through it and hydrogen will be given off from the negative or cathode plates 18 and oxygen from the positive or anode plates 14.

The butterfly valve 23 is opened and the gas passageway 22 brought into communication with a partial vacuum. Atmospheric pressure acting on the top of the check valve 26 causes it to be forced downwards as shown in dotted lines. The hydrogen and oxygen liberated from the water at the plates 18 and 14 are drawn upwards through the orifice 24 covered by the check valve 30 where they are mixed with air entering through the openings 27 and through the auxiliary air valve 29.

When it is desired to reduce the flow of hydrogen and oxygen from the plates 18 and 14, the current flowing through the device is reduced, and when the current is interrupted the flow ceases. When the butterfly valve 23 is moved to its ‘closed’ position, the check-valve 26 is automatically closed by the spring 28. Any excess given off during these operations is stored in the space above the fluid where it is ready for subsequent use.

Water is converted into its gaseous constituents by the device herein described, but the dilute sulphuric acid or other suitable electrolyte in the carburettor remains unchanged, since it is not destroyed by electrolysis, and the parts in contact therewith are made of bakellite and lead or other material not attacked by the electrolyte.
The structure shown in Fig. 2 is substantially the same as that shown in Fig. 1 with the exception that the modified structure embraces a larger gas generating chamber which is divided by means of an insulating plate 31 and is further provided with a depending baffle plate 32 which separates the gas generating chamber 33 from the float chamber 34 in which the float 35 operates in the same manner as in Fig. 1. Moreover, the structure shown in Fig. 2 provides a series of spaced depending plates 36 which are electrically connected to the wire 37, and a second series of similar plates 38 which are electrically connected to the wire 39 and are kept apart from the plates 36 by the insulating plate 31.

Gases generated on the surfaces of the plates 36 and 38 pass upward through the orifice 39a into the gas passageway 40 where they are mixed with air as explained in the description of Fig. 1.

A pipe 51, bent as shown in Fig. 2, passes downwards through the housing of the carburettor and has a series of spaced apertures 'a' in its horizontal portion beneath the plates 36 and 38. Check valve 53, with opens upwards, controls air inlet 54. When a partial vacuum exists in the chamber 33, air is drawn in through the opening 54 and then passes upwards through the apertures 'a'. This air tends to remove any bubbles of gas collecting on the plates 36 and 38 and also tends to cool the electrolyte. The check valve 53 automatically closes when a gas pressure exists within the carburettor and thereby prevents the electrolyte from being forced out of the opening 54.
In order to provide for alternate evolution of the gases from the plates 36 and 38, a pole changer 41, shown in Fig.3, is actuated periodically by the motor 42 which drives the worm 43 and the gear 44 and causes oscillations of the member 45 which is connected by a spring 46 to the arm 47, thereby causing the pole changer to snap from one position to the other.

In operation, the carburettor shown in Fig.2 is connected as shown in the wiring diagram of Fig.4. A storage battery 48 or other suitable source of direct current is connected to a variable rheostat 49, switch 50, pole changer 41 and to the carburettor as shown. Thus the rate of evolution of the gases can be controlled by the setting of the rheostat 49 and the desired alternate evolution of the gases in the compartments of the carburettor is accomplished by means of the periodically operated pole changer 41.

Manifestly, the construction shown is capable of considerable modification and such modification as is considered within the scope and meaning of the appended claims is also considered within the spirit and intent of the invention.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes an electrolyser system where air is drawn through the electrolyte to dislodge bubbles from the electrodes.

**ABSTRACT**
In the electrolytic production of hydrogen and oxygen, air is pumped through the cell while the electrolysis is in progress so as to obtain a mixture of air, hydrogen and oxygen.

**BACKGROUND AND BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION**
This invention relates to the production of gases which can be utilised primarily, but not necessarily, as a fuel.

To decompose water electrically, it is necessary to pass direct current between a pair of electrodes which are immersed in a suitable electrolyte. During such electrolysis, it is normal to place some form of gas barrier between the two electrodes, in order to prevent the gases produced forming an explosive mixture. However provided suitable precautions are taken, it has been found that the gases can be allowed to mix and can be fed into a storage tank for subsequent use. Because the gases when mixed form an explosive mixture, it is possible for the mixture to be utilised, for instance, as a fuel for an internal combustion engine. In such circumstances it is desirable that the gases should also be mixed with a certain proportion of air in order to control the explosive force which results when the gases are ignited.

One of the difficulties encountered with electrolysis is that bubbles of gas are liable to remain on the electrodes during the electrolysis thus effectively limiting the area of electrode which is in contact with the electrolyte and preventing optimum current flow between the electrodes. Because it is desirable that the gases evolved during the electrolysis be mixed with air, it is possible for air to be passed through the cell while electrolysis is in progress. The passage of air through the cell can be directed past the electrodes so as to pick up any gas bubbles on the electrodes.

Accordingly, the invention comprises an electrolytic cell with a gas tight casing, several electrodes supported on a central post within the cell, spaced apart and electrically insulated from each other, each alternative electrode being connected to a positive direct current source or a negative direct current source respectively and wherein the central post is in the form of a tube, one end of which is extended out of the cell and connected to a source of air under pressure, with the other end of the central post terminating in an air outlet below the electrodes. The cell also includes a gas outlet to carry the air forced into the cell through the central post and to exhaust the gases produced by electrolysis.

**DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION**
Various forms of the invention will now be described with the aid of the accompanying drawings wherein:
Fig. 1 is a diagrammatic elevational view partly in section of one form of the invention,
Fig. 2 is a diagrammatic elevational view partly in section of a modified form of the invention.

**FIG. 2**

![Diagram of Fig. 2]

Fig. 3 is a section along the line III–III of Fig. 2.

**FIG. 3**

![Diagram of Fig. 3]

Section III – III
The cell as shown in Fig. 1 comprises a gas-tight casing 10 which is formed from a material incapable of corrosion, such as plastic. Several cathode plates 11 and several anode plates 12 are supported within the cell on an electrically insulating central post 13, with the cathode plates and anode plates being spaced apart by means of insulating spacers 14. The anode plates 12 are all connected in parallel to a positive terminal post 15 while the cathode plates are all connected in parallel to the negative terminal post 16, these connections being indicated in dotted lines in the drawings. The cathode and anode plates are preferably in the form of discs made from a metal suited to the electrolyte, thus ensuring a satisfactory cell life. These plates may be shaped to conform with the shape of the walls of the cell which may be circular in cross section as indicated or any other desired shape.

The central post 26 is preferably in the form of a tube which extends out of the cell. The lower end of the tube 18 is open so that air can be pumped into the cell through the central post 26 and enter the cell via the lower end 18 where it will pass up through the electrolyte. This keeps the electrolyte in constant motion which assists in the rapid removal of any gas bubbles which may be adhering to the electrode plates.
In the modification shown in Fig.2 and Fig.3, each electrode plate is provided with holes 17. The central post 26 is also provided with at least one air hole 19 adjacent to its lower end. A deflector plate 20 is also supported by the central post 26, this plate being dish shaped so as to deflect air issuing out of the air hole 19 up through the holes 17 in the electrodes. This further assists in dislodging any bubbles of gas clinging to the electrode plates.

The cell also includes a gas outlet 21 so that the air which enters the cell, together with the gases produced by electrolysis, can be taken out of the cell into a suitable storage tank (not shown in the drawings). If desired, such storage tank can be arranged to accept the gases under pressure and for this purpose the air pumped into the cell will be pumped in under the required pressure. A gas drier (not shown in the drawings) can also be interposed between the gas outlet 21 and the storage tank.

Although the electrolysis will naturally produce considerable heat, nevertheless it can be found advantageous to install a heater in the cell, preferably in the bottom of the cell, to assist and facilitate the warming up of the electrolyte so that the cell reaches its most efficient operating conditions as quickly as possible.

Preferably also, a current-control device should be employed so that the intensity of the electrolytic action can be controlled.

A mechanism may also be provided for the automatic replenishment of water within the cell as the level of the electrolytic drops during use.

While it is recognised that the mixing of hydrogen and oxygen will create a dangerous explosive mixture, nevertheless by carrying out the invention as described above, the risk of explosion is minimised. The gases produced can be utilised, for instance, as a fuel to power an internal combustion engine and for this purpose it is desirable, as already mentioned, to mix a proportion of air with the gases produced during electrolysis, so that when the mixture is ignited within the cylinder or cylinders of the engine, the explosive force so created can be of the desired amount.

While in the foregoing description reference is made to the utilisation of the mixed gases as a fuel, it will of course be understood that the gases can be separated for individual use.
Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent application. It describes a method which it is claimed is capable of operating an internal combustion engine from a mixture of steam and hydrogen gas.

**ABSTRACT**

This is an energy-transforming system for driving, for instance, an internal combustion engine which uses hydrogen gas as its fuel. The gas is obtained by electrolysis on board and is then injected into the combustion chambers. The electrolysis is carried out in an electrolytic tank 15, energised with electric current generated by the engine. The hydrogen passes from a reservoir 23, via collector cylinder 29, to carburettor device 39. The hydrogen is then fed into the engine together with dry saturated steam and at least part of the hydrogen may be heated 51 prior to admission. A cooler and more controlled combustion is achieved with the steam and furthermore relatively lesser amounts of hydrogen are required. This is probably caused by the steam acting as a temperature moderator during admission and combustion of the hydrogen and additionally expanding during the expansion stroke.

**FIELD OF THE INVENTION**

The present invention refers to energy-converter systems, in particular related to an internal combustion engine fuelled by hydrogen gas, i.e. wherein the main propellant admitted to the combustion chambers is hydrogen. More particularly still, the present invention refers to method and means for obtaining hydrogen gas in an efficient and reasonably economical manner, and for supplying the gas to the combustion chambers under conditions for controlled ignition and optimum energy conversion. The present invention also refers to means and method for running an internal-combustion engine system from an available, cheap and non-contaminant hydrogen containing matter such as water as a fuel supply.

In general, the invention may find application in any system employing internal combustion principles, ranging from large installations such as electricity works to relatively smaller automobile systems like locomotives, lorries, motor-cars, ships and motor-boats. In the ensuing description, the invention is generally disclosed for application in the automotive field, however its adaptation and application in other fields may also be considered to be within the purview of the present invention.

**BACKGROUND**

Dwindling natural resources, dangerous contamination levels, increasing prices and unreliable dependence on other countries are making it increasingly necessary to search an alternative to fossil fuels like oil (hydrocarbons) and oil derivatives as the primary energy source in automobiles. To date, none of the attempted alternatives appears to have proved its worth as a substitute for petrol, either because of inherent drawbacks as to contamination, safety, cost, etc. or because man has not yet been able to find a practical way of applying the alternative energy forms to domestic motor cars.

For instance, electricity is a good alternative in the ecological sense, both chemically and acoustically, however it appears to be the least efficient form of energy known, which together with the high cost of manufacture of electric motors and the severe storage limitations insofar capacity and size have stopped it from coming into the market at least for the time being. The same is generally true even when solar energy is concerned.

Nuclear power is efficient, available and relatively cheap, but extremely perilous. Synthetic fuels may certainly be the answer in the future, however it appears that none practical enough have been developed. Use of gases such as methane or propane, or of alcohol distilled from sugar cane, has also been tried, but for one reason or another its marketing has been limited to small regions. Methanol for instance is a promising synthetic fuel, but it is extremely difficult to ignite in cold weather and has a low energy content (about half that of petrol).

The use of hydrogen gas as a substitute for petrol has been experimented lately. The chemistry investigator Derek P. Gregory is cited as believing that hydrogen is the ideal fuel in not just one sense. Hydrogen combustion produces steam as its only residue, a decisive advantage over contaminating conventional fuels such as petrol and coal. Unfortunately, hydrogen hardly exists on earth in its natural free form but only combined in chemical
DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION

The invention is based on the discovery of an energy-converter system to run an internal combustion engine and particularly is based on the discovery of a method and means for reliably, economically, safely and cleanly fuel an internal combustion engine with hydrogen, and obtaining the hydrogen in a usable form to this end from a cheap and plentifully available substance such as water. The hydrogen may be generated in optimum conditions to be fed into the engine.

According to the invention, hydrogen is obtained on board from a readily available hydrogenous source such as ionised water which is subjected to electrolysis, from whence the hydrogen is injected in each cylinder of the engine on the admission stroke. The hydrogen gas is mixed with water vapour (steam at atmospheric temperature) and surrounding air, and when this mixture is ignited within the combustion chamber, the steam (vapour) seems to act as a temperature moderator first and then assist in the expansion stroke. Preferably, the steam is dry saturated steam which, as a moderator, limits the maximum temperature of the combustion, thus helping to preserve the cylinder, valve and piston elements; and in assisting the expansion, the steam expands fast to contribute extra pressure on the piston head, increasing the mechanical output power of the engine. In other words, the inclusion of steam in the hydrogen propellant as suggested by the present invention moderates the negative effects of hydrogen and enhances the positive effects thereof in the combustion cycle.

As a result of this discovery, the amount of hydrogen required to drive the engine is lower than was heretofore expected, hence the electrolysis need not produce more than 10 cc/sec (for example, for a 1,400 cc engine). Thus the amount of electricity required for the electrolysis, a stumbling block in earlier attempts, is lower, so much so, that on-board hydrogen production is now feasible.

The invention includes an apparatus comprising a first system for generating hydrogen and a second system for conditioning and supplying the hydrogen to the admission valves on the cylinder caps. The hydrogen-generating system basically consists of an electrolysis device which receives electrolytically adapted (i.e. at least partially ionised) water or some other suitable hydrogenous substance. An electric power supply is connected to the electrodes of the electrolysis device for generating the hydrogen, and the electricity requirements and the device dimensions are designed for a maximum hydrogen output rate of about 10 cc/sec for a typical automotive application.

The second system comprises means such as a vacuum pump or the like to draw out the hydrogen from the first system, means for supplying the hydrogen gas to the admission valves, means for conditioning the moisture content of the hydrogen, carburettor means or the like for mixing the hydrogen with atmospheric air or some other combustion enabling substance, and means to control and maintain a specified gas pressure valve or range for the hydrogen supplied to the mixing means.

The apparatus was tested and worked surprisingly well. It was discovered that this seemed to be the result of the steam content in the electrolytic hydrogen gas overcoming the pitfalls encountered in the prior art systems which injected relatively dry gas into the cylinder chambers, or at the most with a relatively small proportion of humidity coming from the air itself.

In the preferred embodiment, the electrolysis system is driven with a pulsed DC power signal of up to 80 Amps at between 75 and 100 Volts. The electrolyte is distilled water salted with sodium chloride with a concentration of about 30 grams of salt per litre of water, to 150 grams of salt in 10 litres of water. Other concentrations are possible depending on the kind of engine, fuel and electricity consumption etc. The maximum rate of hydrogen production required for a typical domestic car engine has been estimated at 10 cc/sec. This hydrogen is drawn out by a pump generating a pressure head of around 2 Kg/cm² to feed the generated steam-containing hydrogen to a receptacle provided with means for removing the undesired excess of moisture from the gas. The gas is thus mixed with the desired content of steam when it enters the carburettor or mixing device.

In the event that the generated hydrogen does not have enough steam content, dry saturated steam may be added to the hydrogen as it proceeds to the engine. This may be done conveniently, before it enters the carburettor.
and is mixed with the intake air. Part of the gas may be shunted via a heat-exchanger serpentine connected to the exhaust manifold. This heats some of the gas before it is injected into the base of the carburettor. This heated gas injection operates like a supercharger. The main unheated hydrogen stream is piped directly into the venturi system of the carburettor, where it mixes with air drawn in by the admission stroke vacuum.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig. 1 is a schematic layout of the first and second systems and shows the electrolysis device for obtaining hydrogen, and the circuit means for injecting the steam-laden hydrogen into the combustion chambers of a car engine, according to one embodiment of this invention.
A - 534

Figure 2 is an elevational view of the electrolysis device of figure 1.

DETAILED ACCOUNT OF AN EMBODIMENT

Fig.1 shows a system 11 for obtaining hydrogen front water piped from a reservoir or tank (not illustrated) to an inlet 13 of an electrolysis cell 15. The water is salted by adding sodium chloride to ionise it and enable electrolysis when electric power is applied to a pair of terminals 17. As disclosed in more detail later, the power applied to the terminals 17 is in the form of a DC pulse signal of 65 Amps at 87 Volts, generated via a suitable converter from, in the event that the present system is applied to an automobile, the standard automotive 12 Volt DC level. The device 15 has various outlets, one of which is the hydrogen gas outlet 19 which is connected through a solenoid valve 21 to an accumulator or reservoir cylinder 23. Other outlets of the electrolysis device 15 are for removing electrolysis effluents such as sodium hydroxide and chlorine gas, to which further reference is made below.

A vacuum pump 25 or similar, extracts gas from the reservoir 23 and channels it through a hydrogen circuit system 27. Thus the reservoir 23 acts as a pressure buffer of a systems interface between the electrolysis device 15 and the pump 25. The reservoir 23 may be a 2,000 cc capacity, stainless-steel cylinder with the valve 21 metering the passage of gas through it, so that the reservoir is initially filled with about 1,500 cc of hydrogen at normal pressure and temperature (NPT) conditions. To this end, the cylinder 23 may be provided with a gauge 28V which controls the state of valve 21 electronically. Valve 21 may be a Jefferson Model SPS solenoid valve, available from OTASI, Santa Rosa 556, Córdoba, Argentina. Vacuum pump 25 is a diaphragm pump with a pulley drive and it is coupled by means of a transmission belt to the engine's crankshaft output. Such a device 25 may be a Bosch model available in Germany. The pulley drive is decoupled by an electromagnetic clutch when the pressure read by a gauge 28P screwed into the outlet side of pump 25 exceeds 2Kg/sq. cm.

Pump 25 sends hydrogen through tubing 26, which also includes a by-pass 24 provided for inspection and safety purposes together with a two-way valve 28, and into a second cylinder 29 which contains means 31 which cause a turbulence or a labyrinthine movement in the gas, in order to condense the heavy mixture, schematically shown as droplets 32, present in the gas stream. The condensed mixture collects in the form of distilled water 33 at the bottom of cylinder 29. Near the top of the cylinder, there is an outlet 35 through which hydrogen gas, laden with a good amount of steam, is transported to mixer 37. Also at the top of collector cylinder 29, there is a temperature sensor 38 which is connected to an electronic digital thermometer circuit (not shown).

Mixer 37 comprises a carburettor device 39 for mixing hydrogen with air prior to feeding the mixture to the
The hydrogen is piped through a 3/8" diameter tube 41 from dryer cylinder 29 and then into the venturi section 43 of the carburettor 39 through a pair of 5/16" diameter tubes or hydrogen injecting nozzles 45. The venturi section 43 is a section of the intake air passage which narrows to increase the air speed at the point where hydrogen is drawn out for mixing. The venturi intake 42 may be covered by a mesh 46. However, it appears that no air filter is needed for the mixer to operate well. The carburettor device 39 may be a simplified form of a conventional carburettor, since the propellant, i.e. hydrogen gas, is fed directly to the venturi 43. A butterfly valve, or the like, connected to an accelerator pedal (not illustrated) of the motor-car, controls the air intake rate and therefore the speed of the engine. This mixer device 39 is mounted as is a conventional carburettor, such that its outlet at the bottom communicates with the admission valves in the cylinder caps.

At the bottom part of the carburettor there is a supplementary hydrogen intake 47 connected to another 3/8" diameter pipe 49 which shunts part of the hydrogen through a heater 51. This heater comprises a serpentine tube 51 of a chromium/cobalt alloy, mounted in close heat-exchange relationship with the body of the exhaust manifold 50 (schematically illustrated) in order to add a portion of heated gas to the fuel mixture before it is drawn into the combustion chambers through the corresponding admission valves on the cylinder caps. This pre-admission heating step, takes the hydrogen mixture to a near critical temperature for detonation. It has been found that this improves performance (e.g. the engine smoothness) at some speed ranges, and it works like a supercharger.

In practice, the engine of the present invention has shown a high efficiency when using three-electrode sparking plugs and an electronic ignition system (not illustrated).

Fig.2 shows the electrolysis cell 15 outlined in Fig.1 in more detail. It is comprised of a rectangular prism reservoir 53 with a pair of spaced-apart vertical electrodes 55. The reservoir may measure, for instance, 24 cm long by 20 cm wide and 28 cm high. Both the anode and cathode 55 may each comprise double electrodes of carbon having a spacing between the electrodes 55 of the same polarity of about 10 cm. Alternatively, the anode 55A may be a ring made of carbon while the cathode 55C is an iron-mesh cylindrical electrode. Each electrode 55 has a terminal 57 at the top for inputting electric power as mentioned earlier. At each outer side of the electrodes 55 there is a porous membrane 59 made from a sheet of amianto (asbestos) for holding the water solution 61 in whilst at the same time letting the electrolysis products, i.e. hydrogen and oxygen, pass through. Thus, the hydrogen gas passes through the membrane 59 into a gas collector chamber 56 and exits out through pipe 19 to fuel the combustion engine. The hydrogen pipe 19 may have a proportioning valve 62 for regulating the flow of hydrogen. The oxygen on the other hand may be vented out into the atmosphere through an outlet 63.

There is a heater element 64, immersed in the salted water 61 fed through a resistor connected to a 12 Volt DC supply. This heats the water to about 85 degrees C (185 degrees F) to enhance the galvanic action of the electrolysis current on the aqueous solution 61. A thermostat with a solid state silicon thermal sensor may be used to control the water temperature via a threshold comparator driving a relay which controls the current in the heater element 64.

The electrolysis of the heated salted water solution 61 further produces, as effluents, chlorine gas (Cl2) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH). The chlorine gas may be vented through an opening 65 at the top of the reservoir 53 or else stored in an appropriate disposal tank (not shown). The sodium hydroxide precipitates and may be removed periodically through tap 67 at the bottom of the electrolysis cell.

It is important to note that the practice of the present invention requires practically no modifications in the engine itself. That is, existing petrol engines may be used with hardly any adjustments. Ignition is initiated at the dead top of the compression stroke or with a 1.5 degree lag at the most, and it has been found convenient to widen the gaps of the admission and exhaust valve pushers and use tri-electrode spark plugs. However it is advisable to use some rust-resistant compound such as plastics for the exhaust pipe and silencer, bearing in mind that the combustion residue is hot steam.

Fig.1 also shows schematically, the electric power supply 71 connected to the terminals 17 of the cube 15. Electrical current is obtained at 12 volt DC from the car battery/alternator system 73 and processed by an inverter device 75 for generating DC pulses of 65 Amps at 87 Volts. Pulse energisation of the electrolysis appears to maximise the ratio of hydrogen output rate to electric power input.
FUEL SUPPLY APPARATUS FOR INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES

Please note that this is a re-worded excerpt from this patent. It describes the water-splitting procedure of Stephen Horvath.

ABSTRACT

A fuel supply apparatus generates hydrogen and oxygen by electrolysis of water. There is provided an electrolytic cell which has a circular anode surrounded by a cathode with a porous membrane between them. The anode is fluted and the cathode is slotted to provide anode and cathode areas of substantially equal surface area. A pulsed electrical current is provided between the anode and cathode for the efficient generation of hydrogen and oxygen.

The electrolytic cell is equipped with a float, which detects the level of electrolyte within the cell, and water is added to the cell as needed to replace the water lost through the electrolysis process. The hydrogen and oxygen are collected in chambers which are an integral part of the electrolytic cell, and these two gases are supplied to a mixing chamber where they are mixed in the ratio of two parts hydrogen to one part oxygen. This mixture of hydrogen and oxygen flows to another mixing chamber wherein it is mixed with air from the atmosphere.

The system is disclosed as being installed in an car, and a dual control system, which is actuated by the car throttle, first meters the hydrogen and oxygen mixture into the chamber wherein it is combined with air and then meters the combined mixture into the car engine. The heat of combustion of a pure hydrogen and oxygen mixture is greater than that of a gasoline and air mixture of comparable volume, and air is therefore mixed with the hydrogen and oxygen to produce a composite mixture which has a heat of combustion approximating that of a normal gas-air mixture. This composite mixture of air, hydrogen and oxygen then can be supplied directly to a conventional internal combustion engine without overheating and without creation of a vacuum in the system.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

This invention relates to internal combustion engines. More particularly it is concerned with a fuel supply apparatus by means of which an internal combustion engine can be run on a fuel comprised of hydrogen and oxygen gases generated on demand by electrolysis of water.

In electrolysis a potential difference is applied between an anode and a cathode in contact with an electrolytic conductor to produce an electric current through the electrolytic conductor. Many molten salts and hydroxides are electrolytic conductors but usually the conductor is a solution of a substance which dissociates in the solution to form ions. The term "electrolyte" will be used herein to refer to a substance which dissociates into ions, at least to some extent, when dissolved in a suitable solvent. The resulting solution will be referred to as an "electrolyte solution".

Faraday's Laws of Electrolysis provide that in any electrolysis process the mass of substance liberated at an anode or cathode is in accordance with the formula

\[ m = zq \]

where \( m \) is the mass of substance liberated in grams, \( z \) is the electrochemical equivalent of the substance, and \( q \) is the quantity of electricity passed, in coulombs. An important consequence of Faraday's Laws is that the rate of decomposition of an electrolyte is dependent on current and is independent of voltage. For example, in a conventional electrolysis process in which a constant current \( I \) amps flows to \( t \) seconds, \( q = It \) and the mass of material deposited or dissolved will depend on \( I \) regardless of voltage, provided that the voltage exceeds the minimum necessary for the electrolysis to proceed. For most electrolytes, the minimum voltage is very low.

There have been previous proposals to run internal combustion engines on a fuel comprised of hydrogen gas. Examples of such proposals are disclosed in U.S. Pat. Nos. 1,275,481, 2,183,674 and 3,471,274 and British specifications Nos., 353,570 and 364,179. It has further been proposed to derive the hydrogen from electrolysis of water, as exemplified by U.S. Pat. No. 1,380,183. However, none of the prior art constructions is capable of producing hydrogen at a rate such that it can be fed directly to internal combustion engines without intermediate
storage. The present invention enables a fuel comprised of hydrogen and oxygen gases to be generated by electrolysis of water at such a rate that it can sustain operation of an internal combustion engine. It achieves this result by use of an improved electrolysis process of the type generally proposed in the parent application hereof.

As disclosed in my aforesaid parent application the prior art also shows electrolytic reactions employing DC or rectified AC which necessarily will have a ripple component; an example of the former being shown for instance in Kilgus U.S. Pat. No. 2,016,442 and an example of the latter being shown in Emich al. U.S. Pat. No. 3,485,742. It will be noted that the Kilgus Patent also discloses the application of a magnetic field to his electrolyte, which field is said to increase the production of gas at the two electrodes.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The apparatus of the invention applies a pulsating current to an electrolytic solution of an electrolyte in water. Specifically, it enables high pulses of quite high current value and appropriately low voltage to be generated in the electrolyte solution by a direct input supply to produce a yield of electrolysis products such that these products may be fed directly to the internal combustion engine. The pulsating current generated by the apparatus of the present invention is to be distinguished from normal variations which occur in rectification of AC current and as hereinafter employed the term pulsed current will be taken to mean current having a duty cycle of less than 0.5.

It is a specific object of this invention to provide a fuel supply apparatus for an internal combustion engine by which hydrogen and oxygen gases generated by electrolysis of water are mixed together and fed directly to the internal combustion engine.

A still further object of the invention is to provide, for use with an internal combustion engine having inlet means to receive a combustible fuel, fuel supply apparatus comprising:

- a vessel to hold an electrolyte solution of electrolyte dissolved in water;
- an anode and a cathode to contact the electrolyte solution within the vessel;
- electrical supply means to apply between said diode and said cathode pulses of electrical energy to induce a pulsating current in the electrolyte solution thereby to generate by electrolysis hydrogen gas at the cathode and oxygen gas at the anode;
- gas collection and delivery means to collect the hydrogen and oxygen gases and to direct them to the engine inlet means; and
- water admission means for admission of water to said vessel to make up loss due to electrolysis.

In order that the invention may be more fully explained one particular example of an car internal combustion engine fitted with fuel supply apparatus in accordance with the invention will now be described in detail with reference to the accompanying drawings.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Fig. 1 is a plan view of part of the car with its engine bay exposed to show the layout of the fuel supply apparatus and the manner in which it is connected to the car engine;
Fig. 2 is a circuit diagram of the fuel supply apparatus;

Fig. 3 is a plan view of a housing which carries electrical components of the fuel supply apparatus;
Fig. 4 is an elevation view of the housing shown in Fig.3;

Fig. 5 is a cross-section on the line 5--5 in Fig.3;
Fig. 6 is a cross-section on the line 6--6 in Fig. 3;

Fig. 7 is a cross-section on the line 7--7 in Fig. 5;

Fig. 8 is a perspective view of a diode heat sink included in the components illustrated in Fig. 5 and Fig. 7;

Fig. 9 illustrates a transformer coil assembly included in the electrical components mounted within the housing;
Fig. 10 is a cross-section on the line 10--10 in Fig. 4;

Fig. 11 is a cross-section on the line 11--11 in Fig. 5;

Fig. 12 is a cross-section through a terminal block mounted in the floor of the housing;

Fig. 13 is a plan view of an electrolytic cell incorporated in the fuel supply apparatus;
Fig. 14 is a cross-section on the line 14--14 in Fig. 13;

Fig. 15 is a cross-section generally on the line 15--15 in Fig. 14;
Fig. 16 is a cross-section on the line 16--16 in Fig. 14;

Fig. 17 is a cross-section on the line 17--17 in Fig. 13;
Fig. 18 is a cross-section on the line 18--18 of Fig. 13;

Fig. 19 is a vertical cross-section through a gas valve taken generally on line 19--19 in Fig. 13;

Fig. 20 is a perspective view of a membrane assembly disposed in the electrolytic cell;

Fig. 21 is a cross-section through part of the membrane assembly;

Fig. 22 is a perspective view of a float disposed in the electrolytic cell;
Fig. 23 is an enlargement of part of Fig. 14;

Fig. 24 is an enlarged cross-section on the line 24--24 in Fig. 16;

Fig. 25 is a perspective view of a water inlet valve member included in the components shown in Fig. 24;

Fig. 26 is a cross-section on line 26--26 in Fig. 16;

Fig. 27 is an exploded and partly broken view of a cathode and cathode collar fitted to the upper end of the cathode;

Fig. 28 is an enlarged cross-section showing some of the components of Fig. 15;
Fig. 29 is a perspective view of a valve cover member;

Fig. 30 shows a gas mixing and delivery unit of the apparatus generally in side elevation but with an air filter assembly included in the unit shown in section;

Fig. 31 is a vertical cross-section through the gas mixing and delivery unit with the air filter assembly removed;

Fig. 32 is a cross-section on the line 32–32 in Fig. 31;
Fig. 33 is a perspective view of a valve and jet nozzle assembly incorporated in the gas mixing and delivery unit;

Fig. 34 is a cross-section generally on the line 34--34 in Fig. 31;

Fig. 35 is a cross-section through a solenoid assembly;

Fig. 36 is a cross-section on the line 36--36 in Fig. 32;
Fig. 37 is a rear elevation of part of the gas mixing and delivery unit;

![FIG-36](image1) ![FIG-37](image2)

Fig. 38 is a cross-section on the line 38--38 in Fig. 34;

Fig. 39 is a plan view of the lower section of the gas mixing and delivery unit, which is broken away from the upper section along the interface 39--39 of Fig. 30;

![FIG-38](image3) ![FIG-39](image4)

Fig. 40 is a cross-section on the line 40--40 in Fig. 32; and

Fig. 41 is a plan of a lower body part of the gas mixing and delivery unit.
DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

Fig. 1 shows an assembly denoted generally as 31 having an engine bay 32 in which an internal combustion engine 33 is mounted behind a radiator 34. Engine 33 is a conventional engine and, as illustrated, it may have two banks of cylinders in "V" formation. Specifically, it may be a V8 engine. It is generally of conventional construction and Fig. 1 shows the usual cooling fan 34, fan belt 36 and generator or alternator 37.

In accordance with the invention the engine does not run on the usual petroleum fuel but is equipped with fuel supply apparatus which supplies it with a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases generated as products of a water electrolysis process carried out in the fuel supply apparatus. The major components of the fuel supply apparatus are an electrolytic cell denoted generally as 41 and a gas mixing and delivery unit 38 to mix the hydrogen and oxygen gases generated within the cell 41 and to deliver them to engine 33. The electrolytic cell 41 receives water through a water delivery line 39 to make up the electrolyte solution within it. It has an anode and a cathode which contact the electrolyte solution, and in operation of the apparatus pulses of electrical energy are applied between the anode and cathode to produce pulses of high current flow through the electrolyte solution. Application of the electrical components necessary to produce the pulses of electrical energy applied between the anode and cathode are carried in a housing 40 mounted on one side of engine bay 32. The car battery 30 is mounted at the other side of the engine bay.

Before the physical construction of the fuel delivery apparatus is described in detail the general principles of its operation will firstly be described with reference to the electrical circuit diagram of Fig. 2.

In the illustrated circuit terminals 44, 45, 46 are all connected to the positive terminal of the car battery 30 and terminal 47 is connected to the negative terminal of that battery. Switch 48 is the usual ignition switch of the car and closure of this switch provides current to the coil 49 of a relay 51. The moving contact 52 of relay 51 receives current at 12 volts from terminal 45, and when the relay is operated by closure of ignition switch 48 current is supplied through this contact to line 53 so that line 53 may be considered as receiving a positive input and line 54 from terminal 47 may be considered as a common negative for the circuit. Closure of ignition switch 48 also supplies current to one side of the coil 55 of a solenoid 56. The other side of solenoid coil 55 is earthed by a connection to the car body within the engine bay. As will be explained below solenoid 56 must be energised to open a valve which controls supply of hydrogen and oxygen gases to the engine and the valve closes to cut off that supply as soon as ignition switch 48 is opened.

The function of relay 51 is to connect circuit line 53 directly to the positive terminal of the car battery so that it receives a positive signal directly rather than through the ignition switch and wiring.

The circuit comprises pulse generator circuitry which includes unijunction transistor Q1 with associated resistors R1, R2 and R3 and capacitors C2 and C3. This circuitry produces pulses which are used to trigger an NPN silicon power transistor Q2 which in turn provides via a capacitor C4 triggering pulses for a thyristor T1.

Resistor R1 and capacitor C2 are connected in series in a line 57 extending to one of the fixed contacts of a relay 58. The coil 59 of relay 58 is connected between line 53 and a line 61 which extends from the moving contact of the relay to the common negative line 54 via a normally closed pressure operated switch 62. The pressure control line 63 of switch 62 is connected in a manner to be described below to a gas collection chamber of electrolytic cell 41 in order to provide a control connection whereby switch 62 is opened when the gas in the collection chamber reaches a certain pressure. However, provided that switch 62 remains closed, relay 58 will operate when ignition switch 48 is closed to provide a connection between lines 57 and 61 thereby to connect capacitor C2 to the common negative line 54. The main purpose of relay 58 is to provide a slight delay in this connection between the capacitor C2 and the common negative line 54 when the circuit is first energised. This will delay the generation of triggering pulses to thyristor T1 until a required electrical condition has been achieved in the transformer circuitry to be described below. Relay 58 is hermetically sealed and has a balanced armature so that it can operate in any position and can withstand substantial shock or vibration when the car is in use.

When the connection between capacitor C2 and line 54 is made via relay 58, unijunction transistor Q1 will act as an oscillator to provide positive output pulses in line 64 at a pulse rate which is controlled by the ratio of R1:C1 and at a pulse strength determined by the ratio of R2:R3. These pulses will charge the capacitor C3. Electrolytic capacitor C1 is connected directly between the common positive line 53 and the common negative line 54 to filter the circuitry from all static noise.

Resistor R1 and capacitor C2 are chosen such that at the input to transistor Q1 the pulses will be of saw tooth form. This will control the form of the pulses generated in the subsequent circuitry and the saw tooth pulse form is chosen since it is believed that it produces the most satisfactory operation of the pulsing circuitry. It should be stressed, however, that other pulse forms, such as square wave pulses, could be used. Capacitor C3 discharges
through a resistor $R_4$ to provide triggering signals for transistor $Q_2$. Resistor $R_4$ is connected to the common negative line $54$ to serve as a gate current limiting device for transistor $Q_2$.

The triggering signals produced by transistor $Q_2$ via the network of capacitor $C_3$ and a resistor $R_4$ will be in the form of positive pulses of sharply spiked form. The collector of transistor $Q_2$ is connected to the positive supply line $53$ through resistor $R_6$ while the emitter of that transistor is connected to the common negative line $54$ through resistor $R_5$. These resistors $R_5$ and $R_6$ control the strength of current pulses applied to a capacitor $C_4$, which discharges through a resistor $R_7$ to the common negative line $54$, thereby to apply triggering signals to the gate of thyristor $T_1$. The gate of thyristor $T_1$ receives a negative bias from the common negative line via resistor $R_7$ which thus serves to prevent triggering of the thyristor by inrush currents.

The triggering pulses applied to the gate of thyristor $T_1$ will be very sharp spikes occurring at the same frequency as the saw tooth wave form pulses established by unijunction transistor $Q_1$. It is preferred that this frequency be of the order of 10,000 pulses per minute and details of specific circuit components which will achieve this result are listed below. Transistor $Q_2$ serves as an interface between unijunction transistor $Q_1$ and thyristor $T_1$, preventing back flow of emf from the gate of the thyristor which might otherwise interfere with the operation of transistor $Q_1$. Because of the high voltages being handled by the thyristor and the high back emf applied to transistor $Q_2$, the latter transistor must be mounted on a heat sink.

The cathode of thyristor $T_1$ is connected via a line $65$ to the common negative line $54$ and the anode is connected via a line $66$ to the centre of the secondary coil $67$ of a first stage transformer $T_1$. The two ends of transformer coil $67$ are connected via diodes $D_1$ and $D_2$ and a line $68$ to the common negative line $54$ to provide full wave rectification of the transformer output.

First stage transformer $T_1$ has three primary coils $71$, $72$, $73$ wound together with secondary coil $67$ about a core $74$. This transformer may be of conventional half cup construction with a ferrite core. The secondary coil may be wound on to a coil former disposed about the core and primary coils $71$ and $73$ may be wound in bifilar fashion over the secondary coil. The other primary coil $72$ may then be wound over the coils $71$, $73$. Primary coils $71$ and $73$ are connected at one side by a line $75$ to the uniform positive potential of circuit line $53$ and at their other sides by lines $79$, $81$ to the collectors of transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$. The emitters of transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$ are connected permanently via a line $82$ to the common negative line $54$. A capacitor $C_6$ is connected between lines $79$, $81$ to act as a filter preventing any potential difference between the collectors of transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$.

The two ends of primary coil $72$ are connected by lines $83$, $84$ to the bases of transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$. This coil is centre tapped by a line $85$ connected via resistor $R_9$ to the positive line $53$ and via resistor $R_{10}$ to the common negative line $54$.

When power is first applied to the circuit transistors $Q_3$ and $Q_4$ will be in their non-conducting states and there will be no current in primary coils $71$, $73$. However, the positive current in line $53$ will provide via resistor $R_9$ a triggering signal applied to the centre tap of coil $72$ and this signal operates to trigger alternate high frequency oscillation of transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$ which will result in rapid alternating pulses in primary coils $71$, $73$. The triggering signal applied to the centre tap of coil $72$ is controlled by the resistor network provided by resistors $R_9$ and $R_{10}$ such that its magnitude is not sufficient to enable it to trigger $Q_3$ and $Q_4$ simultaneously but is sufficient to trigger one of those transistors. Therefore only one of the transistors is fired by the initial triggering signal to cause a current to flow through the respective primary coil $71$ or $73$. The signal required to hold the transistor in the conducting state is much less than that required to trigger it initially, so that when the transistor becomes conductive some of the signal applied to the centre tap of coil $72$ will be diverted to the non-conducting transistor to trigger it. When the second transistor is thus fired to become conductive, current will flow through the other of the primary coils $71$, $73$, and since the emitters of the two transistors are directly connected together, the positive output of the second transistor will cause the first-fired transistor to be shut off. When the current drawn by the collector of the second-fired resistor drops, part of the signal on the centre tap of coil $72$ is diverted back to the collector of the first transistor which is re-fired. It will be seen that the cycle will then repeat indefinitely so that transistors $Q_3$, $Q_4$ are alternately fired and shut off in very rapid sequence. Thus current pulses flow in alternate sequence through primary coils $71$, $73$ at a very high frequency, this frequency being constant and independent of changes in input voltage to the circuit. The rapidly alternating pulses in primary coils $71$ and $73$, which will continue for so long as ignition switch $48$ remains closed, will generate higher voltage signals at the same frequency in the transformer secondary coil $67$.

A dump capacitor $C_5$ bridged by a resistor $R_8$ is connected by a line $86$ to the line $66$ from the secondary coil of transformer $T_1$ and provides the output from that transformer which is fed via line $87$ to a second stage transformer $T_2$.

When thyristor $T_1$ is triggered to become conductive the full charge of dump capacitor $C_5$ is released to second stage transformer $T_2$. At the same time the first stage of transformer $T_1$ ceases to function because of this
momentary short circuit placed across it and consequently thyristor T1 releases, i.e. becomes non-conductive. This permits charge to be built up again in dump capacitor C5 for release when the thyristor is next triggered by a signal from transistor Q2. Thus during each of the intervals when the thyristor is in its non-conducting state the rapidly alternating pulses in primary coils 71, 73 of transformer TR1 produced by the continuously oscillating transistors Q3, Q4 produce, via the transformer coupling, relatively high voltage output pulses which build up a high charge in capacitor C5, and this charge is released suddenly when the thyristor is triggered. In a typical apparatus using a 12 volt DC supply battery pulses of the order of 22 amps at 300 volts may be produced in line 87.

As previously mentioned relay 58 is provided in the circuit to provide a delay in the connection of capacitor C2 to the common negative line 54. This delay, although very short, is sufficient to enable transistors Q3, Q4 to start oscillating to cause transformer TR1 to build up a charge in dumping capacitor C5 before the first triggering signal is applied to thyristor T1 to cause discharge of the capacitor.

Transformer TR2 is a step-down transformer which produces pulses of very high current flow at low voltage. It is built into the anode of electrolytic cell 41 and comprises a primary coil 88 and a secondary coil 89 wound about a core 91. Secondary coil 89 is formed of heavy wire in order to handle the large current induced in it and its ends are connected directly to the anode 42 and cathode 43 of the electrolytic cell 41 in a manner to be described below.

In a typical apparatus, the output from the first stage transformer TR1 would be 300 volt pulses of the order of 22 amps at 10,000 pulses per minute and a duty cycle of slightly less than 0.006. This can be achieved from a uniform 12 volt and 40 amps DC supply using the following circuit components:

**Components:**

- **R1** 2.7 k ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R2** 220 ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R3** 100 ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R4** 22 k ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R5** 100 ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R6** 220 ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R7** 1 k ohms 1/2 watt 2% resistor
- **R8** 10 m ohms 1 watt 5% resistor
- **R9** 100 ohms 5 watt 10% resistor
- **R10** 5.6 ohms 1 watt 5% resistor

- **C1** 2200 mF 16v electrolytic capacitor
- **C2** 2.2 mF 100v 10% capacitor
- **C3** 2.2 mF 100v 10% capacitor
- **C4** 1 mF 100v 10% capacitor
- **C5** 1 mF 1000v ducon paper capacitor 5S10A
- **C6** 0.002 mF 160v capacitor

- **Q1** 2n 2647 PN unijunction transistor
- **Q2** 2N 3055 NPN silicon power transistor
- **Q3** 2n 3055 NPN silicon power transistor
- **Q4** 2n 3055 NPN silicon power transistor
- **T1** btw 30-800 rm fast turn-off thyristor
- **D1** a 14 p diode
- **D2** a 14 p diode

- **L1** indicator lamp
- **Sv1** continuously rated solenoid
- **Rl1** pw5ls hermetically sealed relay
- **Ps1** p658a-10051 pressure operated micro switch

- **Tr1** half cup transformer cores 36/22-341
  - Coil former 4322-021-30390 wound to provide a turns ratio between secondary and primary of 18:1
  - Secondary coil 67 = 380 turns
  - Primary coil 71 = 9 turns
  - Primary coil 73 = 9 turns
  - Primary coil 72 = 4 turns
The installation of the above circuit components is illustrated in Fig.3 to Fig.13. They are mounted within and on a housing which is denoted generally as 101 and which is fastened to a side wall of the car engine bay 32 via a mounting bracket 102. Housing 101, which may be formed as an aluminium casting, has a front wall 103, top and bottom walls 104, 105 and side walls 106, 107. All of these walls have external cooling fins. The back of housing 101 is closed by a printed circuit board 108 which is held clamped in position by a peripheral frame 109 formed of an insulated plastics material clamped between the circuit board and mounting bracket 102. An insulating sheet 111 of cork is held between the frame 109 and mounting bracket 102.

Printed circuit board 108 carries all of the above-listed circuit components except for capacitor C5 and transistors Q3 and Q4. Fig.5 illustrates the position in which transistor Q2 and the coil assembly 112 of transformer TR1 are mounted on the printed circuit board. Transistor Q2 must withstand considerable heat generation and it is therefore mounted on a specially designed heat sink 113 clamped to circuit board 108 by clamping screws 114 and nuts 115. As most clearly illustrated in Fig.7 and Fig.8, heat sink 113 has a flat base plate portion 116 which is generally diamond shaped and a series of rod like cooling fins 117 project to one side of the base plate around its periphery. It has a pair of countersunk holes 118 of the clamping screws and a similar pair of holes 119 to receive the connector pins 121 which connect transistor Q2 to the printed circuit board. Holes 118, 119 are lined with nylon bushes 122 and a Formica sheet 123 is fitted between the transistor and the heat sink so that the sink is electrically insulated from the transistor.

The coil assembly 112 of transformer TR1 (See Fig.9) is comprised of a casing 124 which contains transformer coils and the associated core and former and is closed by a plastic closing plate 125. Plate 125 is held in position by a clamping stud 126 and is fitted with electrical connector pins 127 which are simply pushed through holes in circuit board 108 and are soldered to appropriate copper conductor strips 128 on the outer face of the board.

For clarity the other circuit components mounted on printed circuit board 108 are not illustrated in the drawings. These are standard small size components and the manner in which they may be fitted to the circuit board is entirely conventional.

Capacitor C5 is mounted within casing 101. More specifically it is clamped in position between a flange 131 which stands up from the floor 105 of the casing and a clamping pad 132 engaged by a clamping screw 133, which is mounted in a threaded hole in casing side wall 106 and is set in position by a lock screw 134. Flange 131 has two holes 135 (See Fig.6) in which the terminal bosses 136 of capacitor C5 are located. The terminal pins 137 projecting from bosses 136 are connected to the terminal board 108 by wires (not shown) and appropriate connector pins which are extended through holes in the circuit board and soldered to the appropriate conductor strips on the other face of that board.

Transistors Q3 and Q4 are mounted on the front wall 103 of casing 101 so that the finned casing serves as an extended heat sink for these two transistors. They are mounted on the casing wall and electrically connected to the printed circuit board in identical fashion and this is illustrated by Fig.10 which shows the mounting of transistor Q3. As shown in that figure the transistor is clamped in position by clamping screws 138 and nuts 139 which also serve to provide electrical connections to the appropriate conductors of the printed circuit board via conductor wires 141. The third connection from the emitter of the transistor to the common negative conductor of the printed circuit is made by conductor 142. Screws 130 and conductor 142 extend through three holes in the casing front wall 103 and these holes are lined with electrically insulating nylon bushes 143, 144. A Formica sheet 145 is sandwiched between casing plate 103 and the transistor which is therefore electrically insulated from the casing. Two washers 146 are placed beneath the end of conductor wires 141.

Pressure operated microswitch 52 is mounted on a bracket 147 projecting inwardly from front wall 103 of casing 101 adjacent the top wall 104 of the casing and the pressure sensing unit 148 for this switch is installed in an opening 149 through top wall 104. As most clearly seen in Fig.11, pressure sensing unit 148 is comprised of two generally cylindrical body members 150, 151 between which a flexible diaphragm 152 is clamped to provide a diaphragm chamber 153. The gas pressure of sensing tube 63 is applied to chamber 153 via a small diameter passage 154 in body member 150 and a larger passage 155 in a cap member 156. The cap member and body members are fastened together and clamped to the casing top plate 104 by means of clamping screws 157. Sensing tube 63 is connected to the passage 155 in cap member 156 by a tapered thread connector 158 and the interface between cap member 156 and body member 150 is sealed by an O-ring 159.

The lower end of body member 151 of pressure sensing unit 148 has an internally screw threaded opening which receives a screw 161 which at its lower end is formed as an externally toothed adjusting wheel 162. A switch actuating plunger 163 extends through a central bore in adjusting wheel 162 so that it engages at one end flexible diaphragm 152 and at the other end the actuator member 164 of microswitch 62. The end of plunger 163 which engages the diaphragm has a flange 165 to serve as a pressure pad and a helical compression spring 167 encircles plunger 163 to act between flange 165 and the adjusting wheel 162 to bias the plunger upwardly against the action of the gas pressure acting on diaphragm 152 in chamber 153. The pressure at which diaphragm 152
will force plunger 163 down against the action of spring 167 to cause actuation of switch 62 may be varied by rotating screw 161 and the setting of this screw may be held by a setting screw 168 mounted in a threaded hole in the upper part of casing front wall 103 and projecting inwardly to fit between successive teeth of adjusting wheel 162. After correct setting of screw 161 is achieved set screw 168 will be locked in position by locking screw 169 which is then sealed by a permanent seal 170 to prevent tampering. Microswitch 62 is also electrically connected to the appropriate conductors of the printed circuit board via wires within the housing and connector pins.

Electrical connections are made between the conductors of printed circuit board 108 and the internal wiring of the circuit via a terminal block 150 (Fig.12) set in an opening of housing floor 105 by screws 160 and fitted with terminal plates 140.

The physical construction of electrolytic cell 41 and the second stage transformer TR2 is illustrated in Fig.13 to Fig.29. The cell comprises an outer casing 171 having a tubular peripheral wall 172 and top and bottom closures 173, 174. Bottom closure 174 is comprised of a domed cover 175 and an electrically insulated disc 176 which are held to the bottom of peripheral wall 172 by circumferentially spaced clamping studs 177. Top closure 173 is comprised of a pair of top plates 178, 179 disposed face to face and held by circumferentially spaced clamping studs 181 screwed into tapped holes in the upper end of peripheral wall 172. The peripheral wall of the casing is provided with cooling fins 180.

The anode 42 of the cell is of generally tubular formation. It is disposed vertically within the outer casing and is clamped between upper and lower insulators 182, 183. Upper insulator 182 has a central boss portion 184 and an annular peripheral flange 185 portion the outer rim of which is clamped between upper closure plate 179 and the upper end of peripheral wall 172. Lower insulator 183 has a central boss portion 186, an annular flange portion 187 surrounding the boss portion and an outer tubular portion 188 standing up from the outer margin of flange portion 187. Insulators 182, 183 are moulded from an electrically insulating material which is also alkali resistant. Polytetrafluoroethylene is one suitable material.

When held together by the upper and lower closures, insulators 182, 183 form an enclosure within which anode 42 and the second stage transformer TR2 are disposed. Anode 42 is of generally tubular formation and it is simply clamped between insulators 182, 183 with its cylindrical inner periphery located on the boss portions 184, 186 of those insulators. It forms a transformer chamber which is closed by the boss portions of the two insulators and which is filled with a suitable transformer oil. O-ring seals 190 are fitted between the central bosses of the insulator plates and the anode to prevent loss of oil from the transformer chamber.

The transformer core 91 is formed as a laminated mild steel bar of square section. It extends vertically between the insulator boss portions 184, 186 and its ends are located within recesses in those boss portions. The primary transformer winding 88 is wound on a first tubular former 401 fitted directly onto core 91 whereas the secondary winding 89 is wound on a second tubular former 402 so as to be spaced outwardly from the primary winding within the oil filled transformer chamber.

The cathode 43 in the form of a longitudinally slotted tube which is embedded in the peripheral wall portion 183, this being achieved by moulding the insulator around the cathode. The cathode has eight equally spaced longitudinal slots 191 so that it is essentially comprised of eight cathode strips 192 disposed between the slots and connected together at top and bottom only, the slots being filled with the insulating material of insulator 183.

Both the anode and cathode are made of nickel plated mild steel. The outer periphery of the anode is machined to form eight circumferentially spaced flutes 193 which have arcuate roots meeting at sharp crests or ridges 194 defined between the flutes. The eight anode crests 194 are radially aligned centrally of the cathode strips 192 and the perimeter of the anode measured along its external surface is equal to the combined widths of the cathode strips measured at the internal surfaces of these strips, so that over the major part of their lengths the anode and cathode have equal effective areas. This equalisation of areas generally have not been available in prior art cylindrical anode/cathode arrangements.

As most clearly seen in Fig.27 the upper end of anode 42 is relieved and fitted with an annular collar 200 the outer periphery of which is shaped to form an extension of the outer peripheral surface of the fluted anode. This collar is formed of an electrically insulated plastics material such as polyvinyl chloride or teflon. A locating pin 205 extends through collar 200 to project upwardly into an opening in upper insulating plate 182 and to extend down into a hole 210 in the cathode. The collar is thus located in correct annular alignment relative to the anode and the anode is correctly aligned relative to the cathode.

The annular space 195 between the anode and cathode serves as the electrolyte solution chamber. Initially this chamber is filled approximately 75% full with an electrolyte solution of 25% potassium hydroxide in distilled water. As the electrolysis reaction progresses hydrogen and oxygen gases collect in the upper part of this chamber and water is admitted to maintain the level of electrolyte solution in the chamber. Insulating collar 200 shields the
cathode in the upper region of the chamber where hydrogen and oxygen gases collect to prevent any possibility of arcing through these gases between the anode and cathode.

Electrolyte chamber 195 is divided by a tubular membrane 196 formed by nylon woven mesh material 408 stretched over a tubular former 197 formed of very thin sheet steel. As most clearly illustrated in Fig.20 and Fig.21 former 197 has upper and lower rim portions 198, 199 connected by circumferentially spaced strip portions 201. The nylon mesh material 408 may be simply folded around the upper and lower insulators 182, 183 so that the former is electrically isolated from all other components of the cell. Material 408 has a mesh size which is so small that the mesh openings will not pass bubbles of greater than 0.004 inch diameter and the material can therefore serve as a barrier against mixing of hydrogen and oxygen generated at the cathode and anode respectively while permitting the electrolytic flow of current between the electrodes. The upper rim portion 198 of the membrane former 197 is deep enough to constitute a solid barrier through the depth of the gas collection chamber above the electrolyte solution level so that there will be no mixing of hydrogen and oxygen within the upper part of the chamber.

Fresh water is admitted into the outer section of chamber 195 via an inlet nozzle 211 formed in upper closure plate 178. The electrolyte solution passes from the outer to the inner sections of chamber 195 through the mesh membrane 408.

Nozzle 211 has a flow passage 212 extending to an electrolyte inlet valve 213 controlled by a float 214 in chamber 195. Valve 213 comprises a bushing 215 mounted within an opening extending down through upper closure plate 179 and the peripheral flange 185 of upper insulator 182 and providing a valve seat which co-operates with valve needle 216. Needle 216 rests on a pad 217 on the upper end of float 214 so that when the electrolyte solution is at the required level the float lifts the needle hard against the valve seat. The float slides vertically on a pair of square section slide rods 218 extending between the upper and lower insulators 182 and 183. These rods, which may be formed of polytetrafluoroethylene extend through appropriate holes 107 through the float.

The depth of float 214 is chosen such that the electrolyte solution fills only approximately 75% of the chamber 195, leaving the upper part of the chamber as a gas space which can accommodate expansion of the generated gas due to heating within the cell.

As electrolysis of the electrolyte solution within chamber 195 proceeds, hydrogen gas is produced at the cathode and oxygen gas is produced at the anode. These gases bubble upwardly into the upper part of chamber 195 where they remain separated in the inner and outer compartments defined by membrane and it should be noted that the electrolyte solution enters that part of the chamber which is filled with oxygen rather than hydrogen so there is no chance of leakage of hydrogen back through the electrolyte inlet nozzle.

The abutting faces of upper closure plates 178, 179 have matching annular grooves forming within the upper closure inner and outer gas collection passages 221, 222. Outer passage 222 is circular and it communicates with the hydrogen compartment of chamber 195 via eight ports 223 extending down through top closure plate 179 and the peripheral flange of upper insulator 182 adjacent the cathode strips 192. Hydrogen gas flows upwardly through ports 223 into passage 222 and thence upwardly through a one-way valve 224 (Fig.19) into a reservoir 225 provided by a plastic housing 226 bolted to top closure plate 178 via a centre stud 229 and sealed by a gasket 227. The lower part of housing 114 is charged with water. Stud 229 is hollow and its lower end has a transverse port 228 so that, on removal of a sealing cap 229 from its upper end it can be used as a filter down which to pour water into the reservoir 225. Cap 229 fits over a nut 231 which provides the clamping action on plastic housing 226 and resilient gaskets 232, 233 and 234 are fitted between the nut and cover, between the cap and the nut and between the cap and the upper end of stud 229.

One-way valve 224 comprises a bushing 236 which projects down into the annular hydrogen passage 221 and has a valve head member 237 screw fitted to its upper end to provide clamping action on top closure plate 178 between the head member and a flange 238 at the bottom end bushing 236. Bushing 236 has a central bore 239, the upper end of which receives the diamond cross-section stem of a valve member 240, which also comprises a valve plate portion 242 biased against the upper end of the bushing by compression spring 243. Valve member 240 is lifted against the action of spring 243 by the pressure of hydrogen gas within passage 221 to allow the gas to pass into the interior of valve head 237 and then out through ports 220 in that member into reservoir 225.

Hydrogen is withdrawn from reservoir 225 via a stainless steel crooked tube 241 which connects with a passage 409. Passage 409 extends to a port 250 which extends down through the top and bottom closure plates 178, 179 and top insulator 182 into a hydrogen duct 244 extending vertically within the casing of casing 171. Duct 244 is of triangular cross-section. As will be explained below, the hydrogen passes from this duct into a mixing chamber defined in the gas mixing and delivery unit 38 which is bolted to casing 171.
Oxygen is withdrawn from chamber 195 via the inner annular passage 221 in the top closure. Passage 221 is not circular but has a scalloped configuration to extend around the water inlet. Oxygen enters through eight ports 224 extended through passage 222. The oxygen flows upwardly from passage 222 through a one-way valve 246 and into a reservoir 260 provided by a plastic housing 247. The arrangement is similar to that for withdrawal of hydrogen and will not be described in detail. Suffice to say that the bottom of the chamber is charged with water and the oxygen is withdrawn through a crooked tube 248, an outlet passage 249 and a port which extends down through closure plates 178, 179 and top insulator 182 into a triangular cross-section oxygen duct 251 extending vertically within casing 171 disposed opposite the annular duct 244. The oxygen is also delivered to the gas mixing chamber of the mixing and delivery unit 38.

The pressure sensing tube 63 for switch 62 is connected via a tapered thread connector 410 and a passage 411 in the top closure plate 178 directly to the annular hydrogen passage 222. If the pressure within the passage rises above a predetermined level, switch 62 is operated to disconnect capacitor C2 from the common negative line 54. This removes the negative signal from capacitor C2 which is necessary to maintain continuous operation of the pulse generating circuitry for generating the triggering pulses on thyristor T1 and these triggering pulses therefore cease. The transformer TR1 continues to remain in operation to charge dumping capacitor C5 but because thyristor T1 cannot be triggered dumping capacitor C5 will simply remain charged until the hydrogen pressure in passage 222, and therefore in chamber 195 falls below the predetermined level and triggering pulses are applied once more to thyristor T1. Pressure actuated switch 62 thus controls the rate of gas production according to the rate at which it is withdrawn. The stiffness of the control springs for gas escape valves 224, 246 must of course be chosen to allow escape of the hydrogen and oxygen in the proportions in which they are produced by electrolysis, i.e. in the ratios 2:1 by volume.

Reservoirs 225, 260 are provided as a safety precaution. If a sudden back-pressure were developed in the delivery pipes this could only shatter the plastic housings 226, 247 and could not be transmitted back into the electrolytic cell. Switch 62 would then operate to stop further generation of gases within the cell.

The electrical connections of the transformer coil 89 to the anode and the cathode are shown in Fig.14. One end of the coil 89 is extended as a wire 252 which extends into a blind hole in the inner face of the anode where it is gripped by a grub screw 253 screwed into a threaded hole extended vertically into the anode underneath collar 200. A tapered nylon plug 254 is fitted above screw 253 to seal against loss of oil from the interior of the anode. The other end of the coil 89 is extended as a wire 255 to pass down through a brass bush 256 in the bottom insulator 183 and then horizontally to leave casing 171 between bottom insulating disc 176 and insulator 183.

As most clearly shown in Fig.23, brass bush 256 has a head flange 257 and is fitted at its lower end with a nut 258 whereby it is firmly clamped in position. Gaskets 259, 261 are disposed beneath head flange 257 and above nut 258 respectively.

At the location where wire 255 is extended horizontally to leave the casing the upper face of disc 176 and the lower face of insulator 183 are grooved to receive and clamp onto the wire. Disc 176 and insulator 183 are also extended radially outwardly at this location to form tabs which extend out beneath casing 171 and ensure proper insulation of the wire through to the outer periphery of the casing.

Outside the casing, wire 255 is connected to a cathode terminal bolt 262. Terminal bolt 262 has a head which is received in a socket in a separate head piece 263 shaped to suit the cylindrically curved inner periphery of the cathode and nickel plated to resist chemical attack by the electrolyte solution. The stem of the terminal bolt extends through openings in the cathode and peripheral wall portion 188 of insulator 183 and air insulating bush fitted in an aligned opening in the casing wall 172. The head piece 263 of the terminal bolt is drawn against the inner periphery of the cathode by tightening of a clamping nut 265 and the end of wire 255 has an eye which is clamped between nut 265 and a washer 266 by tightening a terminal end nut 267. A washer 268 is provided between nut 265 and brush 264 and a sealing O-ring 269 is fitted in an annular groove in the bolt stem to engage the inner periphery of the bush in order to prevent escape of electrolyte solution. The terminal connection is covered by a cover plate 271 held in place by fixing screws 272.

The two ends of the primary transformer coil 88 are connected to strip conductors 273, 274 which extend upwardly through the central portion of upper insulator 183. The upper ends of conductors 273, 274 project upwardly as pins within a socket 275 formed in the top of upper insulator 183. The top of socket 275 is closed by a cover 276 which is held by a centre stud 277 and through which wires 278, 279 from the external circuit are extended and connected to conductors 273, 274 by push-on connectors 281, 282.

The transformer connections shown in Fig.14 are in accordance with the circuit of Fig.2, i.e. the ends of secondary coil 89 are connected directly between the anode and the cathode. Transformer TR2 is a step-down
The heat generated by transformer of the cell. It is believed that this magnetic field increases the mobility of the ions in solution thereby improving the efficiency transformer of significant importance. The anode, being constructed of a magnetic material, is acted on by the magnetic field of the electrode surfaces and avoids the possibility of overvoltages.

The arrangement of the secondary transformer in which the central anode is surrounded by the cathode is also of great importance. The anode, being constructed of a magnetic material, is acted on by the magnetic field of the anode and cathode have equal surface areas which is most desirable in order to minimise electrical losses. It is also desirable that the anode and cathode surfaces at which gas is produced be roughened, for example by sand-blasting. This promotes separation of the gas bubbles from the electrode surfaces and avoids the possibility of overvoltages.

The heat generated by transformer TR2 is conducted via the anode to the electrolyte solution and increases the mobility of the ions within the electrolyte solution as above mentioned. The cooling fins are provided on casing to assist in dissipation of excess generated heat. The location of the transformer within the anode also enables the connections of the secondary coil to the anode and cathode to be made of short, well protected conductors.

As mentioned above the hydrogen and oxygen gas generated in electrolytic cell and collected in ducts is delivered to a gas mixing chamber of the mixing and delivery unit. More specifically, these gases are delivered from ducts via escape valves which are held in position over discharge ports from the ducts by means of a leaf spring. The outer ends of spring engage the valves and the centre part of the spring is bowed inwardly by a clamping stud screwed into a tapped hole in a boss formed in the cell casing.

Valve is detailed in Fig.28 and Fig.29 and valve is of identical construction. Valve includes an inner valve body having a cap portion and an annular end ring portion which holds an annular valve seat. A valve disc is biased against the valve seat by a valve spring reacting against the cap portion. An outer valve cover fits around the inner member and is engaged by spring to force the inner member firmly into a socket in the wall of the cell casing so to cover the hydrogen discharge port. The end ring portion of the inner body member beds on a gasket within the socket.

During normal operation of the apparatus valves act as simple one-way valves by movements of their spring loaded valve plates. However, if an excessive gas pressure should arise within the electrolytic cell these valves will be forced back against the action of holding spring to provide pressure relief. The escaping excess gas then flows to atmosphere via the mixing and delivery unit as described below. The pressure at which valves will lift away to provide pressure relief may be adjusted by appropriate setting of stud which setting is held by a nut.

The construction of the gas mixing and delivery unit is shown in Fig.30 and Fig.40. It comprises an upper body portion which carries an air filter assembly, an intermediate body portion, which is bolted to the casing of electrolytic cell by six studs, and successive lower body portions, the latter of which is bolted to the inlet manifold of the engine by four studs.

The bolted connection between intermediate body portion and the casing of the electrolytic cell is sealed by a gasket. This connection surrounds valves which deliver hydrogen and oxygen gases directly into a mixing chamber defined by body portion. The gases are allowed to mix together within this chamber and the resulting hydrogen and oxygen mixture passes along small diameter horizontal passageway within body portion which passageway is traversed by a rotary valve member. Valve member is conically tapered and is held within a correspondingly tapered valve housing by a spring reacting against a bush which is screwed into body portion and serves as a mounting for the rotary valve stem. Valve member has a diametral valve port and can be rotated to vary the extent to which this port is
aligned with passageway 309 thereby to vary the effective cross-section for flow through that passageway. As will be explained below, the rotational positions of the valve member is controlled in relation to the engine speed.

Passage 309 extends to the lower end of a larger diameter vertical passageway 316 which extends upwardly to a solenoid freed valve 310 incorporated in a valve and jet assembly denoted generally as 317.

Assembly 317 comprises a main body 321 (Fig.32) closed at the top by a cap 322 when the assembly is clamped to body portion 303 by two clamping studs 323 to form a gas chamber 324 from which gas is to be drawn through jet nozzles 318 into two vertical bores or throats 319 (Fig.31) in body portion 303. The underside of body 321 has a tapped opening into which is fitted an externally screw threaded valve seat 325 of valve 310. A valve member 326 is biased down against seat 325 by a spring 327 which reacts against cap 322. Spring 327 encircles a cylindrical stem 328 of valve member 326 which stem projects upwardly through an opening in cap 322 so that it may be acted on by solenoid 56 which is mounted immediately above the valve in upper body portion 301.

Solenoid 56 is comprised of an outer insulating casing 366 which has two mounting flanges 367. This casing houses the copper windings constituting coil 55. These are wound on a plastic bobbin 369 disposed about a central mild steel core 371. The core has a bottom flange 372 and the bobbin and coils are held clamped in the casing through insulating closure 373 acted on by flange 372 on tightening of a clamping nut 374 which is fitted to the other end of the core.

Upper body portion 301 of unit 38 is tubular but at one side it has an internal face shaped to suit the exterior profile of solenoid casing 366 and mounting flanges 367. Two mounting screws 375 screw into holes in this face and engage slots 376 in the mounting flanges 367 so that the height of the solenoid above valve 310 can be adjusted. The two terminals 377 are connected into the electrical circuit by wires (not shown) which may be extended into unit 38 via the air filter assembly.

When solenoid 56 is energised its magnetised core attracts valve stem 328 and valve member 326 is lifted until stem 328 abuts the lower flange 372 of the solenoid core. Thus valve 310 is opened when the ignition switch is closed and will close under the influence of spring 327 when the ignition switch is opened. Vertical adjustment of the solenoid position controls the lift of valve member 326 and therefore the maximum fuel flow rate through unit 38.

Electrolyte cell 41 produces hydrogen in the ratio 2:1 to provide a mixture which is by itself completely combustible. However, as used in connection with existing internal combustion engines the volume of hydrogen and oxygen required for normal operation is less than that of a normal fuel air mixture. Thus a direct application to such an engine of only hydrogen and oxygen will result in a direct application to make-up air into throats 319 via the air filter assembly 302 and upper body portion 301.

Upper body portion 301 has a single interior passage 328 through which make-up air is delivered to the dual throats 319. It is fastened to body portion 303 by clamping studs 329 and a gasket 331 is sandwiched between the two body portions. The amount of make-up air admitted is controlled by an air valve flap 332 disposed across passage 328 and rotatably mounted on a shaft 333 to which it is attached by screws 334. The valve flap is notched to fit around solenoid casing 366. Shaft 333 extends through the wall of body portion 301 and outside that wall it is fitted with a bracket 335 which carries an adjustable setting screw 336 and a biasing spring 337. Spring 337 provides a rotational bias on shaft 333 and during normal running of the engine it simply holds flap 332 in a position determined by engagement of setting screw 336 with a flange 338 of body portion 301. This position is one in which the flap almost completely closes passage 328 to allow only a small amount of make-up air to enter, this small amount being adjustable by appropriate setting of screw 336. Screw 336 is fitted with a spring 339 so that it will hold its setting.

Although flaps 332 normally serve only to adjust the amount of make-up air admitted to unit 38, it also serves as a pressure relief valve if excessive pressures are built up, either due to excessive generation of hydrogen and oxygen gases or due to burning of gases in the inlet manifold of the engine. In either event the gas pressure applied to flaps 332 will cause it to rotate so as to open passage 328 and allow gases to escape back through the air filter. It will be seen in Fig.32 that flap mounting shaft 333 is offset from the centre of passage 328 such that internal pressure will tend to open the flap and thus exactly the reverse of the air valve in a conventional gasoline carburettor.

Air filter assembly 302 comprises an annular bottom pan 341 which fits snugly onto the top of upper body portion 301 and domed filter element 342 held between an inner frame 343 and an outer steel mesh covering 344. The assembly is held in position by a wire and eyebolt fitting 345 and clamping nut 346.

Body portion 305 of unit 38 (Fig.31), which is fastened to body portion 303 by clamping studs 347, carries throttle A - 558
valve apparatus to control engine speed. It has two vertical bores 348, 349 serving as continuations of the dual throats which started in body portion 303 and these are fitted with throttle valve flaps 351, 352 fixed to a common throttle valve shaft 353 by fixing screws 354. Both ends of shaft 353 are extended through the wall of body portion 305 to project outwardly therefrom. One end of this shaft is fitted with a bracket 355 via which it is connected as in a conventional carburettor to a throttle cable 356 and also to an automatic transmission kick-down control linkage 357. A biasing spring 358 acts on shaft 353 to bias throttle flaps toward closest positions as determined by engagement of a setting screw 359 carried by bracket 355 with a plate 361 projecting from body portion 303.

The other end of throttle valve shaft 353 carries a lever 362 the outer end of which is connected to a wire link 407 by means of which a control connection is made to the valve stem 314 of valve member 311 via a further lever 406 connected to the outer end of the valve stem. This control connection is such that valve member 311 is at all times positioned to pass a quantity of gas mixture appropriate to the engine speed as determined by the throttle setting. The initial setting of valve member 311 can be adjusted by selection between two connection holes 405 in lever 406 and by bending of link 407.

Body portion 303 is fastened to the bottom body portion 300 of unit 38 by four clamping studs 306. The bottom body portion has two holes 364, 365 which form continuations of the dual throats and which diverge in the downward direction so as to direct the hydrogen, oxygen and air mixture delivered through these throats outwardly toward the two banks of cylinder inlets. Since this fuel is dry, a small quantity of oil vapour is added to it via a passage 403 in body portion 305 to provide some upper cylinder lubrication. Passage 403 receives oil vapour through a tube 404 connected to a tapping on the engine tapped cover. It discharges the oil vapour down on to a relieved top face part 368 of body portion 300 between holes 364, 365. The vapour impinges on the relieved face part and is deflected into the two holes to be drawn with the gases into the engine.

In the illustrated gas mixing and delivery unit 38, it will be seen that passageway 309, vertical passageway 316, chamber 324 and nozzles 318 constitute transfer passage means via which the hydrogen mixture pass to the gas flow duct means comprised of the dual throats via which it passes to the engine. The transfer passage means has a gas metering valve comprised of the valve member 311 and the solenoid operated valve is disposed in the transfer passage means between the metering valve and the gas flow duct means. The gas metering valve is set to give maximum flow rate through the transfer passage means at full throttle setting of throttle flaps 351, 352. The solenoid operated valve acts as an on/off valve so that when the ignition switch is opened the supply of gas to the engine is positively cut-off thereby preventing any possibility of spontaneous combustion in the cylinders causing the engine to "run on". It also acts to trap gas in the electrolytic cell and within the mixing chamber of the mixing and delivery unit so that gas will be available immediately on restarting the engine.

Dumping capacitor C5 will determine a ratio of charging time to discharge time which will be largely independent of the pulse rate and the pulse rate determined by the oscillation transistor Q1 must be chosen so that the discharge time is not so long as to produce overheating of the transformer coils and more particularly the secondary coil 89 of transformer TR2. Experiments indicate that overheating problems are encountered at pulse rates below about 5,000 and that the system will behave much like a DC system, with consequently reduced performance at pulse rates greater than about 40,000. A pulse rate of about 10,000 pulses per minute will be nearly optimum. With the saw tooth wave input and sharply spiked output pulses of the preferred oscillator circuit the duty cycle of the pulses produced at a frequency of 10,000 pulses per minute was about 0.006. This pulse form helps to minimise overheating problems in the components of the oscillator circuit at the high pulse rates involved. A duty cycle of up to 0.1, as may result from a square wave input, would be feasible but at a pulse rate of 10,000 pulses per minute some of the components of the oscillator circuit would then be required to withstand unusually high heat inputs. A duty cycle of about 0.005 would be a minimum which could be obtained with the illustrated type of oscillator circuitry.

From the foregoing description it can be seen that the electrolytic cell 41 converts water to hydrogen and oxygen whenever ignition switch 44 is closed to activate solenoid 51, and this hydrogen and oxygen are mixed in chamber 308. Closure of the ignition switch also activates solenoid 56 to permit entry of the hydrogen and oxygen mixture into chamber 319, when it mixes with air admitted into the chamber by air valve flap 332. As described above, air valve flap 332 may be set to admit air in an amount as required to avoid a vacuum condition in the engine.

In operation the throttle cable 356 causes bracket 355 to pivot about throttle valve shaft 353, which rotates flap 351 to control the amount of hydrogen-oxygen-air mixture entering the engine. At the same time shaft 353 acts via the linkage shown in Fig.37 to control the position of shaft 314, and shaft 314 adjusts the amount of hydrogen-oxygen mixture provided for mixing with the air. As shown in Fig.30, bracket 355 may also be linked to a shaft 357, which is connected to the car transmission. Shaft 357 is a common type of shaft used for down shifting into a passing gear when the throttle has been advanced beyond a predetermined point. Thus there is provided a
compact fuel generation system which is compatible with existing internal combustion engines and which has been designed to fit into a standard passenger car.

While the form of apparatus herein described constitutes a preferred embodiment of the invention, it is to be understood that the invention is not limited to this precise form of apparatus, and that changes may be made therein without departing from the scope of the invention.
The Water Fracture Cell of Christopher Eccles


FRACTURE CELL APPARATUS

Please note that this is a re-worded extract from the patent and the diagrams have been adapted slightly. It describes a device for splitting water into hydrogen and oxygen gasses via electrolysis using electrodes which are placed on the outside of the cell.

ABSTRACT

Fracture cell apparatus including a capacitive fracture cell 20 comprising a container 21 having walls 21a, and 21b made of non-electrically conducting material for containing a liquid dielectric 26, and spaced apart electrodes 22 and 23 positioned outside container 21 with the liquid dielectric 26 between the electrodes, and a mechanism (8a and 8b in Fig.1 and Fig.2) for applying positive and negative voltage pulses to each of the electrodes 22 and 23. In use, whenever one of a positive voltage pulse and a negative voltage pulse is applied to one of the two electrodes, the other of a positive voltage pulse and a negative voltage pulse is applied to the other of the two electrodes, thereby creating an alternating electric field across the liquid dielectric to cause fracture of the liquid dielectric 26. The apparatus may be used for generating hydrogen gas.

FRACTURE CELL APPARATUS

This invention relates to a fracture cell apparatus and to a method of generating fuel gas from such fracture cell apparatus. In particular, but not exclusively, the invention relates to an apparatus and method for providing fuel gas from water.

Conventionally, the principal methods of splitting a molecular species into its component atomic constituents have been either purely chemical or purely electrolytic:

Purely chemical reactions always involve "third-party" reagents and do not involve the interaction of(l) an applied external electrical influence, and (2) a simple substance. Conventional electrolysis involves the passage of an electric current through a medium (the electrolyte), such current being the product of ion-transits between the electrodes of the cell. When ions are attracted towards either the cathode or the anode of a conventional electrolytic cell, they either receive or donate electrons on contact with the respective electrode. Such electron exchanges constitute the current during electrolysis. It is not possible to effect conventional electrolysis to any useful degree without the passage of this current; it is a feature of the process.

A number of devices have recently been described which purport to effect "fracture" of, particularly, water by means of resonant electrostatic phenomena. In particular one known device and process for producing oxygen and hydrogen from water is disclosed in US-A-4936961. In this known device a so-called fuel cell water "capacitor" is provided in which two concentrically arranged spaced apart "capacitor" plates are positioned in a container of water, the water contacting, and serving as the dielectric between, the "capacitor" plates. The "capacitor" is in effect a charge-dependent resistor which begins to conduct after a small displacement current begins to flow. The "capacitor" forms part of a resonant charging circuit that includes an inductance in series with the "capacitor". The "capacitor" is subjected to a pulsating, unipolar electric charging voltage which subjects the water molecules within the "capacitor" to a pulsating electric field between the capacitor plates. The "capacitor" remains charged during the application of the pulsating charging voltage causing the covalent electrical bonding of the hydrogen and oxygen atoms within the water molecules to become destabilised, resulting in hydrogen and oxygen atoms being liberated from the molecules as elemental gases.

Such known fracture devices have, hitherto, always featured, as part of their characteristics, the physical contact of a set of electrodes with the water, or other medium to be fractured. The primary method for limiting current flow through the cell is the provision of a high impedance power supply network, and the heavy reliance on the time-domain performance of the ions within the water (or other medium), the applied voltage being effectively "switched off" in each cycle before ion-transit can occur to any significant degree.

In use of such a known system, there is obviously an upper limit to the number of ion-migrations, electron captures, and consequent molecule-to-atom disruptions which can occur during any given momentary application
of an external voltage. In order to perform effectively, such devices require sophisticated current-limiting and very precise switching mechanisms.

A common characteristic of all such known fracture devices described above, which causes them to behave as though they were conventional electrolysis cells at some point in time after the application of the external voltage, is that they have electrodes in actual contact with the water or other medium.

The present invention seeks to provide an alternative method of producing fracture of certain simple molecular species, for example water.

According to one aspect of the present invention there is provided a fracture cell apparatus including a capacitive fracture cell comprising a container having walls made of non-electrically conducting material for containing a liquid dielectric, and spaced apart electrodes positioned outside the container with the liquid dielectric between the electrodes, and a mechanism for applying positive and negative voltage pulses to each of the electrodes so that, whenever one of a positive voltage pulse and a negative voltage pulse is applied to one of the two electrodes, the other voltage pulse is applied to the other electrode, thereby creating an alternating electric field across the liquid dielectric to cause fracture of the liquid dielectric.

In the apparatus of this invention, the electrodes do not contact the liquid dielectric which is to be fractured or disrupted. The liquid to be fractured is the simple dielectric of a capacitor. No purely ohmic element of conductance exists within the fracture cell and, in use, no current flows due to an ion-carrier mechanism within the cell. The required fracture or disruption of the liquid dielectric is effected by the applied electric field whilst only a simple displacement current occurs within the cell.

Preferably the liquid dielectric comprises water, e.g. distilled water, tap water or deuterated water.

Conveniently each electrode comprises a bipolar electrode.

The mechanism for alternately applying positive and negative pulses, provides step voltages alternately to the two electrodes with a short period of time during each charge voltage cycle in which no step voltage is applied to either electrode. Typically, step voltages in excess of 15 kV, typically about 25 kV, on either side of a reference potential, e.g. earth, are applied to the electrodes. In effect, trains of pulses having alternating positive and negative values are applied to the electrodes, the pulses applied to the different electrodes being "phase shifted". In the case where each electrode comprises a bipolar electrode, each bipolar electrode comprising first and second electrode "plates" electrically insulated from each other, a train of positive pulses is arranged to be applied to one electrode plate of each bipolar electrode and a train of negative pulses is arranged to be applied to the other electrode plate of each bipolar electrode. One electrode plate of one bipolar electrode forms a first set with one electrode plate of the other bipolar electrode and the other electrode plate of the one bipolar electrode forms a second set with the other electrode plate of the other bipolar electrode. For each set, a positive pulse is applied to one electrode plate and a negative pulse is applied simultaneously to the other electrode plate. By alternately switching the application of positive and negative pulses from one to the other set of electrode plates, an "alternating" electric field is generated across the dielectric material contained in the container. The pulse trains are synchronised so that there is a short time interval between the removal of pulses from one electrode plate set and the application of pulses to the other electrode plate set.

According to another aspect of the present invention, there is provided a method of generating gas comprising, applying positive and negative voltage pulses alternately to the electrodes (positioned either side of, but not in contact with, a liquid dielectric), the voltage pulses being applied so that, whenever one of a positive voltage pulse and a negative voltage pulse is applied to one of the two electrodes, the other of a positive voltage pulse and a negative voltage pulse is applied to the other of the two electrodes, the applied voltage pulses generating an alternating electric field across the liquid dielectric causing fracture of the liquid dielectric into gaseous media. Preferably, voltages of at least 15 kV, e.g. 25 kV, either side of a reference value, e.g. earth, are applied across the liquid dielectric to generate the alternating electric field.

An embodiment of the invention will now be described by way of example only, with particular reference to the accompanying drawings, in which:
Fig. 1 is a circuit diagram of fracture cell apparatus according to the invention;

Fig. 2 shows in more detail a part of the circuit diagram of Figure 1;

Fig. 3 shows the different waveforms at various parts of the circuit diagram of Fig. 1;
Fig. 4 is a schematic diagram of a fracture cell for use in fracture cell apparatus according to the invention.

Fig. 5 shows trains of pulses applied to electrodes of the fracture cell apparatus according to the invention.
If a large electric field is applied across a pair of electrode plates positioned either side of a cell containing water, disruption of the water molecules will occur. Such disruption yields hydrogen nuclei and \(\text{HO}^-\) ions. Such a molecular disruption is of little interest in terms of obtaining a usable result from the cell. A proton-rich zone exists for as long as the field exists and quickly re-establishes equilibrium ion-product when the field is removed.

One noticeable side-effect, however, is that the hydroxyl ions (which will migrate to the +ve charged plate) are stripped of electrons as they approach the cell boundary. Any negatively-charged ion will exhibit this behaviour in a strong enough potential well, but the \(\text{OH}\) ions have a strong tendency to such dissociation. This results, momentarily, in a region of negative-charge close to the positive cell boundary. Thus, on opposite sides of the active cell, there are hydrogen nuclei (free proton zone) and displaced electrons (-ve charge zone), both tending to increase in density closer to the charged plates.

If, at this point, the charge is removed from the plates, there is a tendency for the charge-zones to move, albeit very slowly, towards the centre of the active cell. The ion-transit rates of free electrons and of hydrogen nuclei are, however, some two orders of magnitude greater than either \(\text{H}_3\text{O}^+\) ions or \(\text{OH}\) ions.

If the charges are now replaced on the plates, but with opposite polarity, the interesting and potentially useful aspect of the process is revealed. Hydrogen nucleus migration is accelerated in the direction of the new -ve plate and free electron migration takes place towards the new +ve plate. Where there is a sufficient concentration of both species, including the accumulations due to previous polarity changes, monatomic hydrogen is formed with the liberation of some heat energy. Normal molecular association occurs and \(\text{H}_2\) gas bubbles off from the cell.

Also existing \(\text{OH}\) radicals are further stripped of hydrogen nuclei and contribute to the process. Active, nascent 0- ions rapidly lose their electronic space charge to the +ve field and monatomic oxygen forms, forming the diatomic molecule and similarly bubbling off from the cell.

Thus, the continuous application of a strong electric field, changing in polarity every cycle, is sufficient to disrupt water into its constituent gaseous elements, utilising a small fraction of the energy required in conventional electrolysis or chemical energetics, and yielding heat energy of the enthalpy of formation of the diatomic bonds in the hydrogen and oxygen.

Apparatus for performing the above process is described below. In particular, electronic circuitry to effect the invention is shown in the simplified block diagram of Fig.1. In Fig.1 a pulse-repetition frequency (PRF) generator 1 comprises an astable multivibrator clock running at a frequency which is preset for any application, but able to be varied across a range of approximately 5-30 kHz. The generator 1 drives, by triggering with the trailing edge of its waveform, a pulse-width (PW) timer 2.

The output of the timer 2 is a train of regular pulses whose width is determined by the setting of timer 2 and whose repetition frequency is set by the PRF generator 1.

The output of the timer 2 is a train of regular pulses whose width is determined by the setting of timer 2 and whose repetition frequency is set by the PRF generator 1.

A gate clock 3 comprises a simple 555-type circuit which produce a waveform (see Fig.3a) having a period of 1 to 5 ms, e.g. 2 ms as shown in Fig.3a. The duty cycle of this waveform is variable from 50% to around 95%. The waveform is applied to one input of each of a pair of AND gates 5a and 5b and also to a binary divide-by-two counter 4. The output of the counter 4 is shown in Fig.3b.

The signal from the divide-by-two counter 4 is applied directly to the AND gate 5b serving phase-2 driver circuitry 7a but is inverted before application to the AND gate 5a serving phase-1 driver circuitry 7a. The output of the AND gate 5a is therefore (((\text{CLOCK} and \neg \text{(CLOCK)/2}) and the output of the AND gate 5b is (((\text{CLOCK}) and \text{(CLOCK/2)})), the waveforms, which are applied to pulse-train gates 6a and 6b, being shown in Fig.3c and Fig.3d.
Trains of 5-30 kHz pulses are applied to drive amplifiers 7a and 7b alternately, with a small "off"-period during which no pulses are applied to either amplifier. The duration of each "off" period is dependent upon the original duty cycle of the clock timer 3. The reason for the small "off" period in the driver waveforms is to prevent local corona arc as the phases change over each cycle.

The drive amplifiers 7a and 7b each use a BC182L transistor 10 (see Fig.2), small toroidal 2:1 pulse transformer 11 and a BUZ11 power-MOSFET 12 and apply pulse packets across the primary windings of their respective 25 kV line-output transformers 8a and 8b to produce an EHT ac voltage of high frequency at their secondary windings. The secondary windings are 'lifted' from system ground and provide, after simple half-wave rectification, the applied field for application to cell 20 (see Fig.4).

Cell 20 comprises a container 21 having walls 21a, 21b of electrically insulating material, e.g. a thermoplastics material, such as polymethyl methacrylate, typically spaced about 5 mm apart, and bipolar cell electrodes generally designated 22 and 23 and typically constructed from aluminium foil, positioned outside the walls 21a and 21b. Each bipolar cell electrode comprises a pair of electrode plates 22a and 22b (or 23a and 23b) for each side of the cell 20 separated from each other by an electrically insulating layer 24 (or 25), e.g. of polycarbonate plastics material about 0.3 mm thick.

The electrode plates 22a and 23a form one set (set A) of electrode plates positioned on opposite sides of container 21 and the electrode plates 22b and 23b form another set of electrode plates positioned on opposite sides of the container 21. An insulating layer 25, e.g. of polycarbonate material, similar to the insulating layers 24a or 24b may be positioned between each bipolar cell electrode 22 (or 23) and its adjacent container wall 21a(or 21b). A liquid electrolyte, preferably water, is placed in the container 21.

In use, a train of positive pulses is applied to the electrode plates 22a and 23b and a train of negative pulses is applied to the electrode plates 23a and 22b. The timing of the pulses is shown schematically in Fig.5, which illustrates that, for set A (or for set B), whenever a positive pulse is applied to electrode plate 22a (or 23a), a negative pulse is also applied to electrode plate 23a (or 22a). A liquid electrolyte, preferably water, is placed in the container 21.

By arranging for the pulses of electrode plate set B to be applied in the periods when no pulses are applied to the electrode plate set A, the situation arises where pairs of pulses are applied successively to the electrode plates of different sets of electrode plates, there being a short interval of time when no pulses are applied between each successive application of pulses to pairs of electrode plates. In other words, looking at Fig.5, pulses P1 and Q1 are applied at the same time to the electrode plates 22a and 23a. The pulses P1 and Q1 are of the same pulse length and, at the end of their duration, there is a short time period t before pulses R1 and S1 are applied to the electrode plates 23b and 22b.
The pulses **R1** and **S1** are of the same pulse length as the pulses **P1** and **Q1** and, at the end of their duration, there is a further time \( t \) before the next pulses **P2** and **Q2** are applied to the electrode plates **22a** and **23a**. It will be appreciated that whenever a pulse of one sign is applied to one of the electrode plates of a set, a pulse of the opposite sign is applied to the other electrode plate of that set.

Furthermore, by switching from one to the other electrode plate set the polarities applied across the container are repeatedly switched resulting in an "alternating" electric field being created across the "liquid dielectric" water in the container.
The Electrolyser of Spiro Spiros


IMPROVEMENTS IN ELECTROLYSIS SYSTEMS & THE AVAILABILITY OF OVER-UNITY ENERGY

This patent application shows the details of an electrolyser system which it is claimed, produces greater output than the input power needed to operate it.

ABSTRACT
A looped energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work is disclosed. The system comprises an electrolysis cell unit 150 receiving a supply of water to liberate separated hydrogen gas 154 and oxygen 156 by electrolysis driven by a DC voltage 152 applied across respective anodes and cathodes of the cell unit 150. A hydrogen gas receiver 158 receives and stores hydrogen gas liberated by the cell unit 150, and an oxygen gas receiver 160 receives and stores oxygen gas liberated by the cell unit 150. A gas expansion device 162 expands the stored gases to recover expansion work, and a gas combustion device 168 mixes and combusts the expanded hydrogen gas and oxygen gas to recover combusted work. A proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work sustains electrolysis of the cell unit to retain operational gas pressure in the gas receivers 158, 160 such that the energy system is self-sustaining, and there is excess energy available from the sum of energies.

TECHNICAL FIELD OF THE INVENTION
The present invention relates to the generation of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas from water, either as an admixture or as separated gases, by the process of electrolysis, and relates further to applications for the use of the liberated gas. Embodiments of the invention relate particularly to apparatus for the efficient generation of these gases, and to use of the gases in an internal combustion engine and an implosion pump. The invention also discloses a closed-loop energy generation system where latent molecular energy is liberated as a form of 'free energy' so the system can be self-sustaining.

Reference is made to commonly-owned International patent application No. PCT/AU94/000532, having the International filing date of 6 September 1994.

Background Art
The technique of electrolysing water in the presence of an electrolyte such as sodium hydroxide (NaOH) or potassium hydroxide (KOH) to liberate hydrogen and oxygen gas (H2, O2) is well known. The process involves applying a DC potential difference between two or more anode/cathode electrode pairs and delivering the minimum energy required to break the H-O bonds (i.e. 68.3 kcal per mole @ STP).

The gases are produced in the stoichiometric proportions for O2:H2 of 1:2 liberated respectively from the anode (+) and cathode (-).

Reference can be made to the following texts:
"Electro-Chemical Science, J. O'M. Bockris and D.M. Drazic, Taylor and Francis Limited" and


On a macro-scale, the amount of gas produced depends upon a number of variables, including the type and concentration of the electrolytic solution used, the anode/cathode electrode pair surface area, the electrolytic resistance (equating to ionic conductivity, which is a function of temperature and pressure), achievable current density and anode/cathode potential difference. The total energy delivered must be sufficient to dissociate the
water ions to generate hydrogen and oxygen gases, yet avoid plating (oxidation/reduction) of the metallic or conductive non-metallic materials from which the electrodes are constructed.

DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION

The invention discloses a looped-energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work, the said system comprising of:

**An electrolysis cell** unit receiving a supply of water for liberating separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by electrolysis due to a DC voltage applied across respective anodes and cathodes of the cell;

**A hydrogen gas receiver** to receive and store the hydrogen gas liberated by the electrolysis cell;

**An oxygen gas receiver** to receive and store the oxygen gas liberated by the electrolysis cell;

**A gas-expansion chamber** to allow the expansion of the stored gases to recover expansion work; and

**A gas-combustion mechanism** for mixing and combusting the expanded hydrogen and oxygen gases to recover combustion work; and wherein a proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work sustains the electrolysis of the electrolysis cell in order to retain the operational gas pressure in the hydrogen and oxygen gas receivers so that the energy system is self-sustaining and there is excess energy available.

The invention further discloses a method for the generation of excess energy available to do work by the process of electrolysis, said method comprising the steps of: electrolysing water by a DC voltage to liberate separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas; separately receiving and storing the hydrogen and oxygen gases in a manner to be self-pressuring; separately expanding the stored gas to recover expansion energy; burning the expanded gases to recover combustion energy; and applying a portion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work as the DC voltage to retain operational gas pressures and sustain the electrolysis, there being excess energy available to do this.

The invention also discloses an internal combustion engine powered by hydrogen and oxygen comprising of:

**At least one cylinder** and

**At least one reciprocating piston** within the cylinder;

**A hydrogen gas input port** in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised hydrogen;

**An oxygen gas input port** in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised oxygen; and

**An exhaust port** in communication with the cylinder and wherein the engine can be operated in a two-stroke manner whereby, at the top of the stroke, hydrogen gas is supplied through the respective inlet port to the cylinder driving the piston downwards, oxygen gas then is supplied through the respective inlet port to the cylinder to drive the cylinder further downwards, after which time self-detonation occurs and the piston moves to the bottom of the stroke and upwards again with the exhaust port opened to force out the water vapour resulting from the detonation.

The invention also discloses an implosion pump comprising of;

**A combustion chamber** interposed, and in communication with,

**An upper reservoir and a lower reservoir** separated by a vertical distance across which water is to be pumped, this chamber receiving admixed hydrogen and oxygen at a pressure sufficient to lift a volume of water the distance from there to the top reservoir, the gas in the chamber then being ignited to create a vacuum in the chamber to draw water from the lower reservoir to fill the chamber, whereupon a pumping cycle is established and can be repeated.

The invention also discloses a parallel stacked arrangement of cell plates for a water electrolysis unit, the cell plates alternately forming an anode and cathode of the electrolysis unit, and the arrangement including separate

A - 569
hydrogen gas and oxygen gas outlet ports respectively linked to the anode cell plates and the cathode cell plates and extending longitudinally along the plate stack. These outlet ports are arranged so as to be insulated from the anode and cathode plates.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Figs.1 1a-16 of noted International application no. PCT/AU94/000532 are reproduced to aid description of the present invention, but herein denoted as Figs.1a-6:

**Fig.1A** and **Fig.1B** show an embodiment of a cell plate:

![Fig.1A and Fig.1B](image)

**Fig.2A** and **Fig.2B** show a complementary cell plate to that of Fig.1A and Fig1B:

![Fig.2A and Fig.2B](image)
Fig. 3 shows detail of the perforations and porting of the cell plates of Figs. 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B:

Fig. 4 shows an exploded stacked arrangement of the cell plates of Figs. 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B:

Fig. 5A shows a schematic view of the gas separation system of Fig. 4:
Fig. 5B shows a stylised representation of Fig. 5A:

Fig. 5C shows an electrical equivalent circuit of Fig. 5A and
FIG. 5c
Fig. 6 shows a gas collection system for use with the cell bank separation system of Figs. 4 and 5a.
The remaining drawings are:
Fig.7A and Fig.7B are views of a first cell plate:
Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B are views of a second cell plate:

Fig. 9 shows detail of the edge margin of the first cell plate:

Fig. 10 shows an exploded stacked arrangement of the cell plates shown in Fig. 7A and Fig. 8A:
Fig. 11 is a cross-sectional view of three of the stacked cell plates shown in Fig. 10 in the vicinity of a gas port:

Fig. 12A and Fig. 12B respectively show detail of the first and second cell plates in the vicinity of a gas port:
Fig. 13 is a cross-sectional view of a cell unit of four stacked cell plates in the vicinity of an interconnecting shaft:

![Fig. 13](image)

Fig. 14 shows a perspective view of a locking nut used in the arrangement of Fig. 13:

![Fig. 14](image)

Fig. 15 shows an idealised electrolysis system:

![Fig. 15](image)
Figs.16-30 are graphs supporting the system of Fig.15 and the availability of over-unity energy:
THE EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE ON CELL VOLTAGE

FIG. 17

FLOW RATE OF HYDROGEN AND OXYGEN AT 2:1

FIG. 18
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<th>TEST RUN</th>
<th>AMPS</th>
<th>VOLTS</th>
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**FIG. 19**

**VOLTS PER PRESSURE INCREASE**

**FIG. 20**
FIG. 23

Resistance (Ohms) per Pressure Increase

FIG. 24

Pressure Differential (Increase)
FLOW RATE ANALYSIS PER PRESSURE INCREASE

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FIG. 25

FLOW RATE PER PRESSURE INCREASE

FIG. 26
OVER-UNITY IN WATT-HOURS
BASED ON 500/PH OF HYD. & OXY. @ 1000°C

FIG. 27

OVER-UNITY IN WATT-HOURS
BASED ON 500/PH OF HYD. & OXY. @ 1000°C

FIG. 28
Figs. 31a to 31e show a hydrogen/oxygen gas-driven internal combustion engine:
Figs. 32a-32c show a gas-driven implosion pump:

**FIG. 32a**

**FIG. 32b**

**FIG. 32c**

**DETAILED DESCRIPTION AND BEST MODE OF PERFORMANCE**

Fig.1A and Fig.2A show embodiments of a first and second type of cell plate 90, 98 as an end view. Fig.1B and Fig.2B are partial cross-sectional views along the respective mid-lines as shown. Common reference numerals have been used where appropriate. The plates 90, 98 can have the function of either an anode (+) or a cathode (-), as will become apparent. Each comprises an electrode disc 92 which is perforated with hexagonally shaped holes 96. The disc 92 is made from steel or resin-bonded carbon or conductive polymer material. The disc 92 is housed in a circular rim or sleeve 94. The function of the perforations 96 is to maximise the surface area of the electrode disc 92 and minimise the weight over solid constructions by 45%.

By way of example, for a disc of diameter 280 mm, the thickness of the disc must be 1 mm in order to allow the current density (which ranges from 90 A / 2,650 cm² - 100 A / 2,940 cm² of the anode or cathode) to be optimal. If the diameter of the plate is increased, which consequently increases the surface area, it is necessary to increase the thickness of the plate in order to maintain uniformity of conductance for the desired current density.

The hexagonal perforations in a 1 mm disc have a distance of 2 mm between the flats, twice the thickness of the plate in order to maintain the same total surface area prior to perforation, and be 1 mm away from the next adjacent perforation to allow the current density to be optimal. A (flat-to-flat) distance of 1 mm between the hexagonal perforations is required, because a smaller distance will result in thermal losses and a larger distance will add to the overall weight of the plate.

The sleeve 94 is constructed of PVC material and incorporates a number of equally spaced shaft holes 100,102. The holes are for the passage of interconnecting shafts provided in a stacked arrangement of the plates 90, 98 forming the common conductor for the respective anode and cathode plates. The further two upper holes 104,106 each support a conduit respectively for the out-flow of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The further holes 108,110 at the bottom of the sleeve 94 are provided for the inlet of water and electrolyte to the respective cell plates 90, 98.

Fig.3 shows an enlarged view of a portion of the cell plate 90 shown in Fig.1A. The port hole 104 is connected to the hexagonal perforations 96 within the sleeve 94 by an internal channel 112. A similar arrangement is in place for the other port hole 106, and for the water/electrolyte supply holes 108, 110.
Thus the only path for the inlet of water/electrolyte is by bottom channels Bisphenyl/Dirsocynate (MDI), and (b) "MY-T-BOND" (TM) which is a PVC solvent based adhesive. Both LOK" (TM) 34-9002, which is a Urethane Reactive Hot Melt adhesive with a main ingredient of Methylene in intimate contact. Mechanical fastening is achieved by use of one of two adhesives such as (a) "PUR-FECT gases is by the top channels cell plates. The reason for having a large diameter hole in one cell plate adjacent to a smaller diameter hole in the next cell plate, is so that an interconnecting shaft will pass through the larger diameter hole, and not make an electrical connection (i.e. insulated with PVC tubing) rather only forming an electrical connection between alternate (common) cell plates.

Interposed between each adjacent cell plate 90, 98 is a PTFE separation 116. Although not shown in Fig.4, the cell unit includes separate hydrogen and oxygen gas conduits that respectively pass through the stacked arrangement of cell plates via the port holes 106, 104 respectively. In a similar way, conduits are provided for the supply of water/electrolyte, respectively passing through the holes 108, 110 at the bottom of the respective plates 90, 98. Only two pairs of anode/cathode cell plates are shown. The number of such plates can be greatly increased per cell unit 125.

Also not shown are the interconnecting conductive shafts that electrically interconnect alternative common cell plates. The PTFE membrane 116 is fibrous and has 0.2 to 1.0 micron interstices. A suitable type is type Catalogue Code J, supplied by Tokyo Roshi International Inc (Advantec). The water/electrolyte fills the interstices and ionic current flows only via the water - there is no contribution of ionic flow through the PTFE material itself. This leads to a reduction in the resistance to ionic flow. The PTFE material also has a 'bubble point' that is a function of pressure, hence by controlling the relative pressures at either side of the PTFE separation sheets, the gases can be 'forced' through the interstices to form an admixture, or otherwise kept separate. Other advantages of this arrangement include a lesser cost of construction, improved operational efficiency and greater resistance to faults.

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Further, the gas conduits 132, 133, respectively for hydrogen and oxygen, that pass through the port holes 104,106 in the cell plates 90,98 also are shown. In a similar way, water/electrolyte conduits 134,135, passing through the water port holes 108,110 in the cell plates also are shown.

Fig.5B particularly shows how the relative potential difference in the middle cell bank 125 changes. That is, the plate electrode 90a now functions as a cathode (i.e. relatively more negative) to generate hydrogen, and the plate electrode 98a now functions as an anode (i.e. relatively more positive) to generate oxygen. This is the case for every alternate cell unit. The arrowheads shown in Fig.5B indicate the electron and ionic current circuit. Fig.5C is an electrical equivalent circuit representation of Fig.5B, where the resistive elements represent the ionic resistance between adjacent anode/cathode plates. Thus it can be seen that the cell units are connected in series.
Because of the change of function of the cell plates 90a and 98a, the complementary gases are liberated at each, hence the respective channels 112 are connected to the opposite gas conduit 132,133. Practically, this can be achieved by the simple reversal of the cell plates 90,98.

Fig.6 shows the three cell units 125 of Fig.5A connected to a gas collection arrangement. The cell units 125 are located within a tank 140 which is filled with water/electrolyte to the indicated level h. The water is consumed as the electrolysis process proceeds, and replenishing supply is provided via the inlet 152. The water/electrolyte level h can be viewed via the sight glass 154. In normal operation, the different streams of hydrogen and oxygen are produced and passed from the cell units 125 to respective rising columns 142,144. That is, the pressure of electrolyte on opposed sides of the PTFE membranes 116 is equalised, thus the gases cannot admix.

The columns 142,144 also are filled with the water/electrolyte, and as it is consumed at the electrode plates, replenishing supply of electrolyte is provided by way of circulation through the water/electrolyte conduits 134,135. The circulation is caused by entainment by the liberated gases, and by the circulatory inducing nature of the conduits and columns.

The upper extent of the tank 140 forms two scrubbing towers 156,158, respectively for the collection of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The gases pass up a respective column 142,144, and out from the columns via openings therein at a point within the interleaved baffles 146. The point where the gases exit the columns 142,144 is beneath the water level h, which serves to settle any turbulent flow and entrained electrolyte. The baffles 146 located above the level h scrub the gas of any entrained electrolyte, and the scrubbed gas then exits by respective gas outlet columns 148,150 and so to a gas receiver. The level h within the tank 140 can be regulated by any convenient means, including a float switch, again with the replenishing water being supplied by the inlet pipe 152.

The liberated gases will always separate from the water/electrolyte solution by virtue of the difference in densities. Because of the relative height of the respective set of baffles, and due to the density differential between the gases and the water/electrolyte, it is not possible for the liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases to mix. The presence of the full volume of water within the tank 140 maintains the cell plates in an immersed state, and further serves to absorb the shock of any internal detonations should they occur.

In the event that a gas admixture is required, then firstly the two flow valves 136,137 respectively located in the oxygen gas outlet conduit 132 and water/electrolyte inlet port 134 are closed. This blocks the outlet path for the oxygen gas and forces the inlet water/electrolyte to pass to the inlet conduit 134 via a one-way check valve 139 and pump 138. The water/electrolyte within the tank 140 is under pressure by virtue of its depth (volume), and the pump 138 operates to increase the pressure of water/electrolyte occurring about the anode cell plates 90,98a to be at an increased pressure with respect to the water/electrolyte on the other side of the membrane 116.

This pressure differential is sufficient to cause the oxygen gas to migrate through the membrane, thus admixed oxygen and hydrogen are liberated via the gas output conduit 133 and column 144. Since there is no return path for the water/electrolyte supplied by the pump 138, the pressure about the cell plates 90,98a will increase further, and to a point where the difference is sufficient such that the water/electrolyte also can pass through the membrane 116. Typically, pressure differential in the range of 1.5 - 10 psi is required to allow passage of gas, and a pressure differential in the range of 10 - 40 psi for water/electrolyte.

While only three cell units 125 are shown, clearly any number, connected in series, can be implemented.

Embodiments of the present invention now will be described. Where applicable, like reference numerals have been used.

Fig.7A and Fig.7B show a first type of cell plate 190 respectively as an end view and as an enlarged cross-sectional view along line Vllb-Vllb. The cell plate 190 differs from the previous cell plate 90 shown in Fig.1A and Fig.1B in a number of important aspects. The region of the electrode disc 192 received within the sleeve 194 now is perforated. The function of these perforations is to further reduce the weight of the cell plate 190. The shaft holes 200,202 again pass through the electrode disc 192, but so too do the upper holes 204,206 through which the conduits for the out-flow of liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases pass. The bottom holes 208,210, provided for the inlet of water and electrolyte, now also are located in the region of the sleeve 194 coincident with the perforated edge margin of the electrode disc 192. The channels 212,218 respectively communicating with the port hole 204 and the supply hole 210 also are shown.

Fig.8A and Fig.8B show a second type of cell plate 198 as a companion to the first cell plate 190, and as the same respective views. The second cell plate 198 is somewhat similar to the cell plate 98 previously shown in Fig.2A and Fig.2B. The differences between them are the same as the respective differences between the cell
plate shown in Fig.1A and Fig.1B and the one shown in Fig.7A and Fig.7B. The arrangement of the respective channels 220,222 with respect to the port 206 and the water supply hole 208 also are shown.

In the fabrication of the cell plates 190,198, the sleeve 94 is injection moulded from PVC plastics material formed about the edge margin of the electrode disc 192.

The injection moulding process results in the advantageous forming of interconnecting sprues forming within the perforations 196 in the region of the disc 192 held within the sleeve 194, thus firmly anchoring the sleeve 194 to the disc 192.

Fig.9 is a view similar to Fig.3, but for the modified porting arrangement and perforations (shown in phantom where covered by the sleeve) of the region of the disc 192 within and immediately outside of the sleeve 194.

Fig.10 shows a cell unit 225 in the form of an exploded alternating stacking of first and second cell plates 190,198, much in the same manner as Fig.4. Only two pairs of anode/cathode cell plates are shown, however the number of such plates can be greatly increased per cell unit 225. The membrane 216 preferably is type QR-HE silica fibre with the alternative being PTFE. Both are available from Tokyo Roshi International Inc. (Advantec) of Japan. Type QR-HE is a hydrophobic material having 0.2 to 1.0 micron interstices and is capable of operation at temperatures up to 1,000°C. The cell unit 225 can be combined with other such cell units 225 to form an interconnected cell bank in the same manner as shown in Fig.5A, Fig.5B and Fig.5C.

Furthermore, the cell units can be put to use in a gas collection arrangement such as that shown in Fig.6. Operation of the gas separation system utilising the new cell plates 190,198 is in the same manner as previously described.

Fig.11 is an enlarged cross-sectional view of three cell plates in the vicinity of the oxygen port 204. The cell plates comprise two of the first type of plate 190 shown in Fig.7A constituting a positive plate, and a single one of the second type of plate 198 shown in Fig.8A representing a negative plate. The location of the respective channels 212 for each of the positive cell plates 190 is shown as a dashed representation. The respective sleeves 194 of the three cell plates are formed from moulded PVC plastics as previously described, and in the region that forms the perimeter of the port 204 have a configuration particular to whether a cell plate is positive or negative. In the present case, the positive cell plates 190 have a flanged foot 230 that, in the assembled construction, form the contiguous boundary of the gas port 204. Each foot 230 has two circumferential ribs 232 which engage corresponding circumferential grooves 234 in the sleeve 194 of the negative plate 198.

The result of this arrangement is that the exposed metal area of the negative cell plates 198 always are insulated from the flow of oxygen gas liberated from the positive cell plates 190, thus avoiding the possibility of spontaneous explosion by the mixing of the separated hydrogen and oxygen gases. This arrangement also overcomes the unwanted production of either oxygen gas or hydrogen gas in the gas port.

For the case of the gas port 206 carrying the hydrogen gas, the relative arrangement of the cell plates is reversed such that a flanged footing now is formed on the sleeve 194 of the other type of cell plate 198. This represents the converse arrangement to that shown in Fig.11.

Fig.12A and Fig.12B show perspective side views of adjacent cell plates, with Fig.12A representing a positive cell plate 190 and Fig.12B representing a negative cell plate 198. The gas port 206 thus formed is to carry hydrogen gas. The mating relationship between the flanged foot 230 and the end margin of the sleeve 194 of the positive cell plate 192 can be seen, particularly the interaction between the ribs 232 and the grooves 234.

Fig.13 is a cross-sectional view of four cell plates formed into a stacked arrangement delimited by two segmentation plates 240, together forming a cell unit 242. Thus there are two positive cell plates 190 and two negative cell plates 198 in alternating arrangement. The cross-section is taken in the vicinity of a shaft hole 202 through which a negative conductive shaft 244 passes. The shaft 244 therefore is in intimate contact with the electrode discs 192 of the negative cell plates 198. The electrodes discs 192 of the positive cell plates 190 do not extend to contact the shaft 244. The sleeve 194 of the alternating negative cell plates 198 again have a form of flanged foot 246, although in this case the complementarily shaped ribs and grooves are formed only on the sleeve of the negative cell plates 198, and not on the sleeve 194 of the positive cell plates 190. The segmentation plates 240 serve to delimit the stacked plates forming a single cell unit 242, with ones of the cell units 242 being stacked in a linear array to form a cell bank such as has been shown in Fig.5A.
A threaded shaft nut 250 acts as a spacer between adjacent electrodes connecting with the shaft 244. Fig. 14 is a perspective view of the shaft nut 250 showing the thread 252 and three recesses 254 for fastening nuts, screws or the like.

In all of Figs. 11 to 13, the separation membrane material 216 is not shown, but is located in the spaces 248 between adjacent cell plates 190, 198, extending to the margins of the electrode disks 192 in the vicinity of the gas ports 204, 206 or the shaft holes 200, 202.

An electrolysis hydrogen and oxygen gas system incorporating a gas separation system, such as has been described above, can therefore be operated to establish respective high pressure stores of gas. That is, the separated hydrogen and oxygen gases liberated by the electrolysis process are stored in separate gas receivers or pressure vessels. The pressure in each will increase with the continuing inflow of gas.

Fig. 15 shows an idealised electrolysis system, comprising an electrolysis cell 150 that receives a supply of water to be consumed. The electrolysis process is driven by a DC potential (Es) 152. The potential difference applied to the cell 150 therefore must be sufficient to electrolyse the water into hydrogen and oxygen gas dependent upon, inter alia, the water pressure PC and the back pressure of gas PB acting on the surface of the water, together with the water temperature Tc. The separate liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases, by a priming function, are pressurised to a high value by storage in respective pressure vessels 158, 160, being carried by gas lines 154, 156.

The pressurised store of gases then are passed to an energy conversion device that converts the flow of gas under pressure to mechanical energy (e.g., a pressure drop device 162). This mechanical energy recovered WM is available to be utilised to provide useful work. The mechanical energy WM also can be converted into electrical form, again to be available for use.

The resultant exhausted gases are passed via lines 164, 166 to a combustion chamber 168. Here, the gases are combusted to generate heat QR, with the waste product being water vapour. The recovered heat QR can be recycled to the electrolysis cell to assist in maintaining the advantageous operating temperature of the cell.

The previously described combustion chamber 168 can alternatively be a fuel cell. The type of fuel cell can vary from phosphoric acid fuel cells through to molten carbonate fuel cells and solid oxide cells. A fuel cell generates both heat (QR) and electrical energy (WE), and thus can supply both heat to the cell 150 or to supplement or replace the DC supply (Es) 152.

Typically, these fuel cells can be of the type LaserCell™ as developed by Dr Roger Billings, the PEM Cell as available from Ballard Power Systems Inc. Canada or the Ceramic Fuel Cell (solid oxide) as developed by Ceramic Fuel Cells Ltd., Melbourne, Australia.

It is, of course, necessary to replenish the pressurised store of gases, thus requiring the continuing consumption of electrical energy. The recovered electrical energy WE is in excess of the energy required to drive electrolysis at the elevated temperature and is used to replace the external electrical energy source 152, thereby completing the energy loop after the system is initially primed and started.

The present inventor has determined that there are some combinations of pressure and temperature where the efficiency of the electrolysis process becomes advantageous in terms of the total energy recovered, either as mechanical energy by virtue of a flow of gas at high pressure or as thermal energy by virtue of combustion (or by means of a fuel cell), with respect to the electrical energy consumed, to the extent of the recovered energy exceeding the energy required to sustain electrolysis at the operational pressure and temperature. This has been substantiated by experimentation. This notion has been termed "over-unity".

"Over-unity" systems can be categorised as broadly falling into three types of physical phenomena:

(i) An electrical device which produces 100 Watts of electrical energy as output after 10 Watts of electrical energy is input thereby providing 90 Watts of overunity (electrical) energy.

(ii) An electro-chemical device such as an electrolysis device where 10 Watts of electrical energy is input and 8 Watts is output being the thermal value of the hydrogen and oxygen gas output. During this process, 2 Watts of electrical energy converted to thermal energy is lost due to specific inefficiencies of the electrolysis system. Pressure - as the over-unity energy - is irrefutably produced during the process of hydrogen and oxygen gas generation during electrolysis. Pressure is a product of the containment of the two separated gases. The Law of Conservation of Energy (as referenced in "Chemistry Experimental Foundations", edited by Parry, R.W.; Steiner, L.E.; Tellefsen, R.L.; Dietz, P.M. Chap. 9, pp. 199-200, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey" and "An Experimental Science", edited by Pimentel, G.C., Chap. 7, pp. 115-117, W.H. & Freeman Co. San Francisco)
is in equilibrium where the 10 watts of input equals the 8 watts thermal energy output plus the 2 watts of losses. However, this Law ends at this point. The present invention utilises the apparent additional energy being the pressure which is a by-product of the electrolysis process to achieve over-unity.

(iii) An electro-chemical device which produces an excess of thermal energy after an input of electrical energy in such devices utilised in "cold fusion" e.g. 10 watts of electrical energy as input and 50 watts of thermal energy as output.

The present invention represents the discovery of means by which the previously mentioned second phenomenon can be embodied to result in "over-unity" and the realisation of 'free' energy. As previously noted, this is the process of liberating latent molecular energy. The following sequence of events describes the basis of the availability of over-unity energy.

In a simple two plate (anode/cathode) electrolysis cell, an applied voltage differential of 1.57 DC Volts draws 0.034 Amps per cm$^2$ and results in the liberation of hydrogen and oxygen gas from the relevant electrode plate. The electrolyte is kept at a constant temperature of 40$^0$C, and is open to atmospheric pressure.

The inefficiency of an electrolytic cell is due to its ionic resistance (approximately 20%), and produces a by-product of thermal energy. The resistance reduces, as does the minimum DC voltage required to drive electrolysis, as the temperature increases. The overall energy required to dissociate the bonding electrons from the water molecule also decreases as the temperature increases. In effect, thermal energy acts as a catalyst to reduce the energy requirements in the production of hydrogen and oxygen gases from the water molecule. Improvements in efficiency are obtainable by way of a combination of thermal energy itself and the NaOH electrolyte both acting to reduce the resistance of the ionic flow of current.

Thermal 'cracking' of the water molecule is known to occur at 1,500$^0$C, whereby the bonding electrons are dissociated and subsequently 'separate' the water molecule into its constituent elements in gaseous form. This thermal cracking then allows the thermal energy to become a consumable. Insulation can be introduced to conserve thermal energy, however there will always be some thermal energy losses.

Accordingly, thermal energy is both a catalyst and a consumable (in the sense that the thermal energy excites bonding electrons to a higher energetic state) in the electrolysis process. A net result from the foregoing process is that hydrogen is being produced from thermal energy because thermal energy reduces the overall energy requirements of the electrolysis system.

Referring to the graph titled "Flow Rate At A Given Temperature" shown in Fig.16, it has been calculated that at a temperature of 2,000$^0$C, 693 litres of hydrogen/oxygen admixed gas (2:1) will be produced. The hydrogen content of this volume is 462 litres. At an energy content of 11 BTUs per litre of hydrogen, this then gives an energy amount of 5,082 BTUs (11 x 462). Using the BTU:kilowatt conversion factor of 3413:1, 5,082 BTUs of the hydrogen gas equate to 1.49 kW. Compare this with 1 kW to produce the 693 litres of hydrogen/oxygen (including 463 litres of hydrogen). The usage of this apparatus therefore identifies that thermal energy, through the process of electrolysis, is being converted into hydrogen. These inefficiencies, i.e. increased temperature and NaOH electrolyte, reduce with temperature to a point at approximately 1000$^0$C where the ionic resistance reduces to zero, and the volumetric amount of gases produced per kWh increases.

The lowering of DC voltage necessary to drive electrolysis by way of higher temperatures is demonstrated in the graph in Fig.17 titled "The Effect of temperature on Cell Voltage".

The data in Fig.16 and Fig.17 have two sources. Cell voltages obtained from 0$^0$C up to and including 100$^0$C were those obtained by an electrolysis system as described above. Cell voltages obtained from 150$^0$C up to 2,000$^0$C are theoretical calculations presented by an acknowledged authority in this field, Prof. J. O'M. Bockris. Specifically, these findings were presented in "Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy", Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press, pp. 371-379. These calculations appear on page 374.

By inspection of Fig.17 and Fig.18 (titled "Flow Rate of Hydrogen and Oxygen at 2:1"), it can be seen that as temperature increases in the cell, the voltage necessary to dissociate the water molecule is reduced, as is the overall energy requirement. This then results in a higher gas flow per kWh.

As constrained by the limitation of the materials within the system, the operationally acceptable temperature of the system is 1000$^0$C. This temperature level should not, however, be considered as a restriction. This temperature is based on the limitations of the currently commercially available materials. Specifically, this system can utilise material such as compressed Silica Fibre for the sleeve around the electrolysis plate and hydrophobic Silica Fibre
(part no. QR-100HE supplied by Tokyo Roshi International Inc., also known as "Advantec") for the diaphragm (as previously discussed) which separates the electrolysis disc plates. In the process of assembling the cells, the diaphragm material and sleeved electrolysis plates 190,198 are adhered to one another by using high-temperature-resistant silica adhesive (e.g. the "Aremco" product "Ceramabond 618" which has an operational tolerance specification of 1,000°C).

For the electrolysis cell described above, with the electrolyte at 1,000°C and utilising electrical energy at the rate of 1 kWh, 167 litres of oxygen and 334 litres of hydrogen per hour will be produced.

The silica fibre diaphragm 116 previously discussed separates the oxygen and hydrogen gas streams by the mechanism of density separation, and produce a separate store of oxygen and hydrogen at pressure. Pressure from the produced gases can range from 0 to 150,000 Atmospheres. At higher pressures, density separation may not occur. In this instance, the gas molecules can be magnetically separated from the electrolyte if required.

In reference to the experiments conducted by Messrs Hamann and Linton (S.D. Hamann and M. Linton, Trans. Faraday Soc. 62,2234-2241, specifically, page 2,240), this research has proven that higher pressures can produce the same effect as higher temperatures in that the conductivity increases as temperature and/or pressure increases. At very high pressures, the water molecule dissociates at low temperatures. The reason for this is that the bonding electron is more readily removed when under high pressure. The same phenomenon occurs when the bonding electrons are at a high temperature (e.g. 1,500°C) but at low pressures.

As shown in Fig.15, hydrogen and oxygen gases are separated into independent gas streams flowing into separate pressure vessels 158,160 capable of withstanding pressures up to 150,000 Atmospheres. Separation of the two gases thereby eliminates the possibility of detonation. It should also be noted that high pressures can facilitate the use of high temperatures within the electrolyte because the higher pressure elevates the boiling point of water.

Experimentation shows that 1 litre of water can yield 1,850 litres of hydrogen/oxygen (in a ratio of 2:1) gas mix after decomposition, this significant differential(1:1,850) is the source of the pressure. Stripping the bonding electrons from the water molecule, which subsequently converts liquid into a gaseous state, releases energy which can be utilised as pressure when this occurs in a confined space.


Attention must be drawn to the above published material; specifically on page 434, third paragraph, where reference is made to "Fig.7 shows the effect of pressure on cell voltage...". Fig. 7 on page 436 ("Effect of Pressure on SFWES Single Cell") indicates that if pressure is increased, then so too does the minimum DC voltage.

These quotes were provided for familiarisation purposes only and not as demonstrable and empirical fact. Experimentation by the inventor factually indicates that increased pressure (up to 2,450 psi) in fact lowers the minimum DC voltage.

This now demonstrable fact, whereby increased pressure actually lowers minimum DC voltage, is further exemplified by the findings of Messrs. Nayar, Ragunathan and Mitra in 1979 which can be referenced in their paper: "Development and operation of a high current density high pressure advanced electrolysis cell".

Nayar, M.G.; Ragunathan, P. and Mitra, S.K. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy (Pergamon Press Ltd.), 1980, Vol. 5, pp. 65-74. Their Table 2 on page 72 expressly highlights this as follows: "At a Current density (ASM) of 7,000 and at a temperature of 80°C, the table shows identical Cell voltages at both pressures of 7.6 kg/cm² and 11.0 kg/cm². But at Current densities of 5,000, 6,000, 8,000, 9,000 and 10,000 (at a temperature of 80°C), the Cell voltages were lower at a pressure of 11.0 kg/cm² than at a pressure of 7.6 kg/cm². " The present invention thus significantly improves on the apparatus employed by Mr. M.G. Nayar, et al, at least in the areas of cell plate materials, current density and cell configuration.

In the preferred form the electrode discs 192 are perforated mild steel, conductive polymer or perforated resin bonded carbon cell plates. The diameter of the perforated holes 196 is chosen to be twice the thickness of the plate in order to maintain the same total surface area prior to perforation. Nickel was utilised in the noted prior art system. That material has a higher electrical resistance than mild steel or carbon, providing the present invention with a lower voltage capability per cell.
The previously mentioned prior art system quotes a minimum current density (after conversion from ASM to Amps per square cm.) at 0.5 Amps per cm$^2$. The present invention operates at the ideal current density, established by experimentation, to minimise cell voltage which is 0.034 Amps per cm$^2$.

When compared with the aforementioned system, an embodiment of the present invention operates more efficiently due to a current density improvement by a factor of 14.7, the utilisation of better conducting cell plate material which additionally lowers cell voltage, a lower cell voltage of 1.49 at 80$^0$C as opposed to 1.8 volts at 80$^0$C, and a compact and efficient cell configuration.

In order to further investigate the findings of Messrs. M.G. Nayer, et al, the inventor conducted experiments utilising much higher pressures. For Nayer, et al, the pressures were 7.6 kg/cm$^2$ to 11.0 kg/cm$^2$, whereas inventor's pressures were 0 psi to 2,450 psi in an hydrogen/oxygen admixture electrolysis system.

This electrolysis system was run from the secondary coil of a transformer set approximately at maximum 50 Amps and with an open circuit voltage of 60 Volts. In addition, this electrolysis system is designed with reduced surface area in order that it can be housed in an hydraulic container for testing purposes. The reduced surface area subsequently caused the gas production efficiency to drop when compared with previous (i.e. more efficient) prototypes. The gas flow rate was observed to be approximately 90 litres per hour at 70$^0$C in this system as opposed to 310 litres per hour at 70$^0$C obtained from previous prototypes. All of the following data and graphs have been taken from the table shown in Fig.19.

Referring to Fig.20 (titled "Volts Per Pressure Increase"), it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (i.e. 1 Atmosphere), the voltage measured as 38.5V and at a pressure of 2,450 psi, the voltage measured as 29.4V. This confirms the findings of Nayy et al that increased pressure lowers the system's voltage. Furthermore, these experiments contradict the conclusion drawn by F.C. Jensen and F.H. Schubert ("Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press", pp 425 to 439, specifically Fig. 7 on page 434) being that "... as the pressure of the water being electrolysed increases, then so too does the minimum DC Voltage". As the inventor's experiments are current and demonstrable, the inventor now presents his findings as the current state of the art and not the previously accepted findings of Schubert and Jensen.

Referring to Fig.21 (titled "Amps Per Pressure Increase"), it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (i.e. 1 Atmosphere being Test Run No. 1), the current was measured as 47.2A and at a pressure of 2,450 psi (Test Run No. 20), the current was measured as 63A.

Referring to Fig.22 (titled "Kilowatts Per Pressure Increase"), examination of the power from Test Run No. 1 (1.82 kW) through to Test Run No. 20 (1.85 kW) indicates that there was no major increase in energy input required at higher pressures in order to maintain adequate gas flow.

Referring to Fig.23 (titled "Resistance (Ohms) Per Pressure Increase"), the resistance was calculated from Test Run No. 1 (0.82 ohms) to Test Run No. 20 (0.47 ohms). These data indicate that the losses due to resistance in the electrolysis system at high pressures are negligible.

Currently accepted convention has it that dissolved hydrogen, due to high pressures within the electrolyte, would cause an increase in resistance because hydrogen and oxygen are bad conductors of ionic flow. The net result of which would be that this would decrease the production of gases.

These tests indicate that the ions find their way around the H2 and O2 molecules within the solution and that at higher pressures, density separation will always cause the gases to separate from the water and facilitate the movement of the gases from the electrolysis plates. A very descriptive analogy of this phenomenon is where the ion is about the size of a football and the gas molecules are each about the size of a football field thereby allowing the ion a large manoeuvring area in which to skirt the molecule.

Referring to Fig.24 (titled "Pressure Differential (Increase)"), it can be seen that the hydrogen/oxygen admixture caused a significant pressure increase on each successive test run from Test Run No. 1 to Test Run No. 11. Test Runs thereafter indicated that the hydrogen/oxygen admixture within the electrolyte solution imploded at the point of conception (being on the surface of the plate).

Referring again to the table of Fig.19, it can be noted the time taken from the initial temperature to the final temperature in Test Run No. 12 was approximately half the time taken in Test Run No. 10. The halved elapsed time (from 40$^0$C to 70$^0$C) was due to the higher pressure causing the hydrogen/oxygen admixture to detonate which subsequently imploded within the system thereby releasing thermal energy.
Referring to the table shown in Fig.25 (titled "Flow Rate Analysis Per Pressure Increase"), these findings were brought about from flow rate tests up to 200 psi and data from Fig.24. These findings result in the data of Fig.25 concerning gas flow rate per pressure increase. Referring to Fig.25, it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (1 Atmosphere) a gas production rate of 88 litres per kWh is being achieved. At 1,890 psi, the system produces 100 litres per kWh. These findings point to the conclusion that higher pressures do not affect the gas production rate of the system, the gas production rate remains constant between pressures of 14.7 psi (1 Atmosphere) and 1,890 psi.

Inferring from all of the foregoing data, increased pressure will not adversely affect cell performance (gas production rate) in separation systems where hydrogen and oxygen gases are produced separately, nor as a combined admixture. Therefore, in an enclosed electrolysis system embodying the invention, the pressure can be allowed to build up to a predetermined level and remain at this level through continuous (on-demand) replenishment. This pressure is the over-unity energy because it has been obtained during the normal course of electrolysis operation without additional energy input. This over-unity energy (i.e. the produced pressure) can be utilised to maintain the requisite electrical energy supply to the electrolysis system as well as provide useful work.

The following formulae and subsequent data do not take into account the apparent efficiencies gained by pressure increase in this electrolysis system such as the gained efficiency factors highlighted by the previously quoted Hamann and Linton research. Accordingly, the over-unity energy should therefore be considered as conservative claims and that such claimed over-unity energy would in fact occur at much lower pressures.

This over-unity energy can be formalised by way of utilising a pressure formula as follows: \( E = (P - P_0) \frac{V}{P} \) which is the energy \( E \) in Joules per second that can be extracted from a volume \( V \) which is cubic meters of gas per second at a pressure \( P \) measured in Pascals and where \( P_0 \) is the ambient pressure (i.e. 1 Atmosphere).

In order to formulate total available over-unity energy, we will first use the above formula but will not take into account efficiency losses. The formula is based on a flow rate of 500 litres per kWh at 1,000°C. When the gases are produced in the electrolysis system, they are allowed to self-compress up to 150,000 Atmospheres which will then produce a volume \( V \) of \( 5.07 \times 10^{-8} \) m\(^3\)/sec.

\[
\text{Work [Joules/sec]} = ((150-1) \times 10^8) \times 5.07 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3/\text{sec} = 760.4 \text{ Watts}
\]

The graphs in Figs.27-29 (Over-Unity in watt-hours) indicate over-unity energy available excluding efficiency losses. However, in a normal work environment, inefficiencies are encountered as energy is converted from one form to another.

The results of these calculations will indicate the amount of surplus- over-unity energy after the electrolysis system has been supplied with its required 1 kWh to maintain its operation of producing the 500 lph of hydrogen and oxygen (separately in a ratio of 2:1).

The following calculations utilise the formula stated above, including the efficiency factor. The losses which we will incorporate will be 10% loss due to the energy conversion device (converting pressure to mechanical energy, which is represented by device 162 in Fig.15) and 5% loss due to the DC generator \( W_e \) providing a total of 650 watt-hours which results from the pressurised gases.

Returning to the 1 kWh, which is required for electrolysis operation, this 1 kWh is converted (during electrolysis) to hydrogen and oxygen. The 1 kWh of hydrogen and oxygen is fed into a fuel cell. After conversion to electrical energy in the fuel cell, we are left with 585 watt-hours due to a 65 % efficiency factor in the fuel cell (35 % thermal losses are fed back into electrolysis unit 150 via \( Q_r \) in Fig.15).

Fig.30 graphically indicates the total over-unity energy available combining a fuel cell with the pressure in this electrolysis system in a range from 0 kAtmospheres to 150 kAtmospheres. The data in Fig.30 have been compiled utilising the previously quoted formulae where the watt-hours findings are based on incorporating the 1 kWh required to drive the electrolysis system, taking into account all inefficiencies in the idealised electrolysis system (complete the loop) and then adding the output energy from the pressurised electrolysis system with the output of the fuel cell. This graph thereby indicates the energy break-even point (at approximately 66 kAtmospheres) where the idealised electrolysis system becomes self-sustaining.

In order to scale up this system for practical applications, such as power stations that will produce 50 MW of available electrical energy (as an example), the required input energy to the electrolysis system will be 170 MW (which is continually looped).
The stores of high pressure gases can be used with a hydrogen/oxygen internal combustion engine, as shown in Figs. 31A to 31E. The stores of high pressure gases can be used with either forms of combustion engines having an expansion stroke, including turbines, rotary, Wankel and orbital engines. One cylinder of an internal combustion engine is represented, however it is usually, but not necessarily always the case, that there will be other cylinders in the engine offset from each other in the timing of their stroke. The cylinder 320 houses a piston head 322 and crank 324, with the lower end of the crank 324 being connected with a shaft 326. The piston head 322 has conventional rings 328 sealing the periphery of the piston head 322 to the bore of the cylinder 320.

A chamber 330, located above the top of the piston head 322, receives a supply of regulated separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas via respective inlet ports 332,334. There is also an exhaust port 336 venting gas from the chamber 330.

The engine's operational cycle commences as shown in Fig.31A, with the injection of pressurised hydrogen gas, typically at a pressure of 5,000 psi to 30,000 psi, sourced from a reservoir of that gas (not shown). The oxygen gas port 334 is closed at this stage, as is the exhaust port 336. Therefore, as shown in Fig.31B, the pressure of gas forces the piston head 322 downwards, thus driving the shaft 326. The stroke is shown as distance "A".

At this point, the oxygen inlet 334 is opened to a flow of pressurised oxygen, again typically at a pressure of 5,000 psi to 30,000 psi, the volumetric flow rate being one half of the hydrogen already injected, so that the hydrogen and oxygen gas within the chamber 330 are the proportion 2:1.

Conventional expectations when injecting a gas into a confined space (e.g. such as a closed cylinder) are that gases will have a cooling effect on itself and subsequently its immediate environment (e.g. cooling systems/refrigeration). This is not the case with hydrogen. The inverse applies where hydrogen, as it is being injected, heats itself up and subsequently heats up its immediate surroundings. This effect, being the inverse of other gases, adds to the efficiency of the overall energy equation when producing over-unity energy.

As shown in Fig.31C, the piston head 322 has moved a further stroke, shown as distance "B", at which time there is self-detonation of the hydrogen and oxygen mixture. The hydrogen and oxygen inlets 332,334 are closed at this point, as is the exhaust 336.

As shown in Fig.31D, the piston head is driven further downwards by an additional stroke, shown as distance "C", to an overall stroke represented by distance "D". The added piston displacement occurs by virtue of the detonation.

As shown in Fig.31E, the exhaust port 336 is now opened, and by virtue of the kinetic energy of the shaft 326 (or due to the action of others of the pistons connected with the shaft), the piston head 322 is driven upwards, thus exhausting the waste steam by the exhaust port 336 until such time as the situation of Fig.31E is achieved so that the cycle can repeat.

A particular advantage of an internal combustion motor constructed in accordance with the arrangement shown in Figs.31A to 31E is that no compression stroke is required, and neither is an ignition system required to ignite the working gases, rather the pressurised gases spontaneously combust when provided in the correction proportion and under conditions of high pressure.

Useful mechanical energy can be extracted from the internal combustion engine, and be utilised to do work. Clearly the supply of pressurised gas must be replenished by the electrolysis process in order to allow the mechanical work to continue to be done. Nevertheless, the inventor believes that it should be possible to power a vehicle with an internal combustion engine of the type described in Figs.31A to 31E, with that vehicle having a store of the gases generated by the electrolysis process, and still be possible to undertake regular length journeys with the vehicle carrying a supply of the gases in pressure vessels (somewhat in a similar way to, and the size of, petrol tanks in conventional internal combustion engines).

When applying over-unity energy in the form of pressurised hydrogen and oxygen gases to this internal combustion engine for the purpose of providing acceptable ranging (i.e. distance travelled), pressurised stored gases as mentioned above may be necessary to overcome the problem of mass inertia (e.g. stop-start driving). Inclusion of the stored pressurised gases also facilitates the ranging (i.e. distance travelled) of the vehicle.

Over-unity energy (as claimed in this submission) for an average sized passenger vehicle will be supplied at a continual rate of between 20 kW and 40 kW. In the case of an over-unity energy supplied vehicle, a supply of water (e.g. similar to a petrol tank in function) must be carried in the vehicle.

Clearly electrical energy is consumed in generating the gases. However it is also claimed by the inventor that an over-unity energy system can provide the requisite energy thereby overcoming the problem of the consumption of
fossil fuels either in conventional internal combustion engines or in the generation of the electricity to drive the electrolysis process by coal, oil or natural gas generators.

Experimentation by the inventor shows that if 1,850 litres of hydrogen/oxygen gas mix (in a ratio of 2:1) is detonated, the resultant product is 1 litre of water and 1,850 litres of vacuum if the thermal value of the hydrogen and oxygen gas mix is dissipated. At atmospheric pressure, 1 litre of admixed hydrogen/oxygen (2:1) contains 11 BTUs of thermal energy. Upon detonation, this amount of heat is readily dissipated at a rate measured in microseconds which subsequently causes an implosion (inverse differential of 1,850:1). Tests conducted by the inventor at 3 atmospheres (hydrogen/oxygen gas at a pressure of 50 psi) have proven that complete implosion does not occur. However, even if the implosion container is heated (or becomes heated) to 400°C, total implosion will still occur.

This now available function of idiosyncratic implosion can be utilised by a pump taking advantage of this action. Such a pump necessarily requires an electrolysis gas system such as that described above, and particularly shown in Fig.6.

Figs. 32A-32C show the use of implosion and its cycles in a pumping device 400. The pump 400 is initially primed from a water inlet 406. The water inlet 406 then is closed-off and the hydrogen/oxygen gas inlet 408 is opened.

As shown in Fig.32B, the admixed hydrogen/oxygen gas forces the water upward through the one-way check valve 410 and outlet tube 412 into the top reservoir 414. The one-way check valves 410,416 will not allow the water to drop back into the cylinder 404 or the first reservoir 402. This force equates to lifting the water over a distance. The gas inlet valve 408 then is closed, and the spark plug 418 detonates the gas mixture which causes an implosion (vacuum). Atmospheric pressure forces the water in reservoir 402 up through tube 420.

Fig.32C shows the water having been transferred into the pump cylinder 404 by the previous action. The implosion therefore is able to 'lift' the water from the bottom reservoir 402 over a distance which is approximately the length of tube 420.

The lifting capacity of the implosion pump is therefore approximately the total of the two distances mentioned. This completes the pumping cycle, which can then be repeated after the reservoir 402 has been refilled.

Significant advantages of this pump are that it does not have any diaphragms, impellers nor pistons thereby essentially not having any moving parts (other than solenoids and one-way check valves). As such, the pump is significantly maintenance free when compared to current pump technology.

It is envisaged that this pump with the obvious foregoing positive attributes and advantages in pumping fluids, semi-fluids and gases can replace all currently known general pumps and vacuum pumps with significant benefits to the end-user of this pump.
Henry Paine’s HHO Fuel Conversion System

This is a very interesting patent which describes a simple system for overcoming the difficult problem of storing the hydrogen/oxygen gas mix produced by electrolysis of water. Normally this “hydroxy” gas mix is too dangerous to be compressed and stored like propane and butane are, but this patent states that hydroxy gas can be converted to a more benign form merely by bubbling it through a hydrocarbon liquid. Henry automatically speaks of turpentine in the patent, which strongly suggests that he used it himself, and consequently, it would probably be a good choice for any tests of the process.

This patent is more than 120 years old and has only recently been brought to the attention of the various “watercar” internet Groups. Consequently, it should be tested carefully before being used. Any tests should be done with extreme caution, taking every precaution against injury or damage should the mixture explode. It should be stressed that hydroxy gas is highly explosive, with a flame front speed far too fast to be contained by conventional commercial flashback arrestors. It is always essential to use a bubbler to contain any accidental ignition of the gas coming out of the electrolyser cell, as shown here:

For the purposes of a test of the claims of this patent, it should be sufficient to fill the bubbler with turpentine rather than water, though if possible, it would be good to have an additional bubbler container for the turpentine, in which case, the bubbler with the water should come between the turpentine and the source of the flame. Any tests should be done in an open space, ignited remotely and the person running the test should be well protected behind a robust object. A disadvantage of hydroxy gas is that it requires a very small orifice in the nozzle used for maintaining a continuous flame and the flame temperature is very high indeed. If this patent is correct, then the modified gas produced by the process should be capable of being used in any conventional gas burner.

US Letters Patent 308,276            18th November 1884             Inventor: Henry M. Paine

PROCESS OF MANUFACTURING ILLUMINATING GAS

To all whom it may concern:

Be it known that I, Henry M. Paine, a citizen of the United States, residing at Newark, in the county of Essex and State of New Jersey, have invented certain new and useful Improvements in the Process of Manufacturing Illuminating-Gas; and I do hereby declare the following to be a full, clear, and exact description of the invention, such as will enable others skilled in the art to which it appertains, to make and use the same, reference being had to the accompanying drawing, and to letters or figures of reference marked thereon, which form a part of this specification.

The present invention relates to the processes for manufacturing illuminating-gas, as explained and set forth here. Up to now, it has always been found necessary to keep the constituent gases of water separated from each other from the point of production to the point of ignition, as hydrogen and oxygen being present in the proper proportions for a complete reunion, form a highly-explosive mixture. Consequently, the two gases have either been preserved in separate holders and only brought together at the point of ignition, or else the hydrogen alone has been saved and the oxygen to support combustion has been drawn from the open air, and the hydrogen gas thus obtained has been carburetted by itself by passing through a liquid hydrocarbon, which imparts luminosity to the flame.
I have discovered that the mixed gases obtained by the decomposition of water through electrolysis can be used with absolute safety if passed through a volatile hydrocarbon; and my invention consists of the new gas thus obtained, and the process described here for treating the gas mixture whereby it is rendered safe for use and storage under the same conditions as prevail in the use of ordinary coal-gas, and is transformed into a highly-luminiferous gas.

In the accompanying drawing, which shows in sectional elevation, an apparatus adapted to carry out my invention, G is a producer for generating the mixed gases, preferably by the decomposition of water by an electric current. A is a tank partly filled with turpentine, camphene or other hydrocarbon fluid as indicated by B. The two vessels are connected by the pipe C, the end of which terminates below the surface of the turpentine, and has a broad mouthpiece C', with numerous small perforations, so that the gas rises through the turpentine in fine streams or bubbles in order that it may be brought intimately in contact with the hydrocarbon.

Above the surface of the turpentine there may be a diaphragm E, of wire netting or perforated sheet metal, and above this, a layer of wool or other fibre packed sufficiently tightly to catch all particles of the hydrocarbon fluid which may be mechanically held in suspension, but loose enough to allow free passage of the gases. The pipe F, conducts the mixed gases off directly to the burners or to a holder.

I am aware that the hydrocarbons have been used in the manufacturer of water-gas from steam, and, as stated above, hydrogen gas alone has been carburetted; but I am not aware of any attempt being made to treat the explosive mixed gases in this manner.

Experiments have demonstrated that the amount of turpentine or other volatile hydrocarbon taken up by the gases in this process is very small and that the consumption of the hydrocarbon does not appear to bear any fixed ratio to the volume of the mixed gases passed through it. I do not, however, attempt to explain the action of the hydrocarbon on the gases.

What I claim as my invention and desire to secure by Letters Patent, is -

The process described here of manufacturing gas, which consists in decomposing water by electrolysis and conjointly passing the mixed constituent gases of water thus obtained, through a volatile hydrocarbon, substantially as and for the purpose set forth.

In testimony whereof I affix my signature in presence of two witnesses.

HENRY M. PAINE
Henry Paine's apparatus would therefor be:

- Battery
- Electrolyte
- Electrolyser
- Metal plates
- Modified gas
- Anti-slosh material
- Bubbler
- Turpentine
The First High MPG Carburettor of Charles Pogue

US Patent 642,434  12th November 1932  Inventor: Charles N. Pogue

CARBURETTOR

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA in the 1930s but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to a device for obtaining an intimate contact between a liquid in a vaporous state and a gas, and particularly to such a device which may serve as a carburettor for internal combustion engines.

Carburettors commonly used for supplying a combustible mixture of air and liquid fuel to internal combustion engines, comprise a bowl in which a supply of the fuel is maintained in the liquid phase and a fuel jet which extends from the liquid fuel into a passage through which air is drawn by the suction of the engine cylinders. On the suction, or intake stroke of the cylinders, air is drawn over and around the fuel jet and a charge of liquid fuel is drawn in, broken up and partially vaporised during its passage to the engine cylinders. However, I have found that in such carburettors, a relatively large amount of the atomised liquid fuel is not vaporised and enters the engine cylinder in the form of microscopic droplets. When such a charge is ignited in the engine cylinder, only that portion of the liquid fuel which has been converted into the vaporous (molecular) state, combines with the air to give an explosive mixture. The remaining portion of the liquid fuel which is drawn into the engine cylinders and remains in the form of small droplets, does not explode and impart power to the engine, but burns with a flame and raises the temperature of the engine above that at which the engine operates most efficiently, i.e. 160°F to 180°F.

According to this invention, a carburettor for internal combustion engines is provided in which substantially all of the liquid fuel entering the engine cylinder will be in the vapour phase and consequently, capable of combining with the air to form a mixture which will explode and impart a maximum amount of power to the engine, and which will not burn and unduly raise the temperature of the engine.

A mixture of air and liquid fuel in truly vapour phase in the engine cylinder is obtained by vaporising all, or a large portion of the liquid fuel before it is introduced into the intake manifold of the engine. This is preferably done in a vaporising chamber, and the “dry” vaporous fuel is drawn from the top of this chamber into the intake manifold on the intake or suction stroke of the engine. The term “dry” used here refers to the fuel in the vaporous phase which is at least substantially free from droplets of the fuel in the liquid phase, which on ignition would burn rather than explode.

More particularly, the invention comprises a carburettor embodying a vaporising chamber in the bottom of which, a constant body of liquid fuel is maintained, and in the top of which there is always maintained a supply of “dry” vaporised fuel, ready for admission into the intake manifold of the engine. The supply of vaporised liquid fuel is maintained by drawing air through the supply of liquid fuel in the bottom of the vaporising chamber, and by constantly atomising a portion of the liquid fuel so that it may more readily pass into the vapour phase. This is preferably accomplished by a double-acting suction pump operated from the intake manifold, which forces a mixture of the liquid fuel and air against a plate located within the chamber. To obtain a more complete vaporisation of the liquid fuel, the vaporising chamber and the incoming air are preferably heated by the exhaust gasses from the engine. The carburettor also includes means for initially supplying a mixture of air and vaporised fuel so that starting the engine will not be dependent on the existence of a supply of fuel vapours in the vaporising chamber.

The invention will be further described in connection with the accompanying drawings, but this further disclosure and description is to be taken as an exemplification of the invention and the same is not limited thereby except as is pointed out in the claims.

Fig.1 is an elevational view of a carburettor embodying my invention.
Fig. 2 is a vertical cross-sectional view through the centre of Fig. 1.
Fig. 3 is a horizontal sectional view on line 3--3 of Fig. 2.

Fig. 4 is an enlarged vertical sectional view through one of the pump cylinders and adjacent parts of the carburettor.

Fig. 5 is an enlarged view through the complete double-acting pump and showing the associated distributing valve.
Fig. 6 is an enlarged vertical sectional view through the atomising nozzle for supplying a starting charge for the engine.

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 are detail sectional views of parts 16 and 22 of Fig. 6.
Fig.9 and Fig.10 are detail sectional views showing the inlet and outlet to the cylinders of the atomising pump.

Referring to the drawings, the numeral 1 indicates a combined vaporising chamber and fuel bowl in which liquid fuel is maintained at the level indicated in Fig.1 by a float-valve 2 controlling the flow of liquid fuel through pipe 3 which leads from the vacuum tank or other liquid fuel reservoir.

The vaporising chamber 1 is surrounded by a chamber 4 through which hot exhaust gasses from the engine, enter through pipe 5 located at the bottom of the chamber. These gasses pass around the vaporising chamber 1 and heat the chamber, which accelerates the vaporisation of the liquid fuel. The gasses then pass out through the upper outlet pipe 6.

Chamber 4 for the hot exhaust gasses, is in turn surrounded by chamber 7 into which air for vaporising part of the liquid fuel in chamber 1 enters through a lower intake pipe 8. This air passes upwards through chamber 4 through which the hot exhaust gasses pass, and so the air becomes heated. A portion of the heated air then passes through pipe 9 into an aerator 10, located in the bottom of the vaporising chamber 1 and submerged in the liquid fuel in it. The aerator 10 is comprised of a relatively flat chamber which extends over a substantial portion of the bottom of the chamber and has a large number of small orifices 11 in its upper wall. The heated air entering the aerator passes through the orifices 11 as small bubbles which then pass upwards through the liquid fuel. These bubbles, together with the heat imparted to the vaporising chamber by the hot exhaust gasses, cause a vaporisation of a portion of the liquid fuel.

Another portion of the air from chamber 7 passes through a connection 12 into passage 13, through which air is drawn directly from the atmosphere into the intake manifold. Passage 13 is provided with a valve 14 which is normally held closed by spring 14a, the tension of which may be adjusted by means of the threaded plug 14b. Passage 13 has an upward extension 13a, in which is located a choke valve 13b for assisting in starting the engine. Passage 13 passes through the vaporising chamber 1 and has its inner end communicating with passage 15 via connector 15a which is secured to the intake manifold of the engine. Passage 15 is provided with the usual butterfly valve 16 which controls the amount of fuel admitted to the engine cylinders, and consequently, regulates the speed of the engine.

The portion of passage 13 which passes through the vaporising chamber has an opening 17 normally closed by valve 17a which is held against its seat by spring 17b, the tension of which may be adjusted by a threaded plug 17c. As air is drawn past valve 14 and through passage 13 on the intake or suction stroke of the engine, valve 17a will be lifted from its seat and a portion of the dry fuel vapour from the upper portion of the vaporising chamber will be sucked into passage 13 through opening 17 and mingle with the air in it before entering passage 15.

In order to regulate the amount of air passing from chamber 7 to aerator 10 and into passage 13, pipe 9 and connection 12 are provided with suitable valves 18 and 19 respectively. Valve 18 in pipe 9 is synchronised with butterfly valve 16 in passage 15. Valve 19 is adjustable and preferably synchronised with butterfly valve 16 as shown, but this is not essential.

The bottom of passage 15 is made in the form of a venturi 20 and a nozzle 21 for atomised liquid fuel and air is located at or adjacent to the point of greatest restriction. Nozzle 21 is preferably supplied with fuel from the supply of liquid fuel in the bottom of the vaporising chamber, and to that end, a member 22 is secured within the vaporising chamber by a removable threaded plug 23 having a flanged lower end 24. Plug 22 extends through an opening in the bottom of chamber 1, and is threaded into the bottom of member 22. This causes the bottom wall of chamber 1 to be securely clamped between the lower end of member 22 and flange 24, thus securely retaining member 22 in place.

Plug 23 is provided with a sediment bowl 24 and extending from bowl 24 are several small passages 25 extending laterally, and a central vertical passage 26. The lateral passages 25 register with corresponding passages 27 located in the lower end of member 22 at a level lower than that at which fuel stands in chamber 1, whereby liquid fuel is free to pass into bowl 24.

Vertical passage 26 communicates with a vertical nozzle 28 which terminates within the flaring lower end of nozzle 21. The external diameter of nozzle 26 is less than the interior diameter of the nozzle 21 so that a space is provided between them for the passage of air or and vapour mixtures. Nozzle 26 is also provided with a series of
inlets 29, for air or air and vapour mixtures, and a fuel inlet 30. Fuel inlet 30 communicates with a chamber 31 located in the member 22 and surrounding the nozzle 28. Chamber 30 is supplied with liquid fuel by means of a passage 32 which is controlled by a needle valve 33, the stem of which, extends to the outside of the carburettor and is provided with a knurled nut 34 for adjusting purposes.

The upper end of member 22 is made hollow to provide a space 35 surrounding the nozzles 21 and 28. The lower wall of the passage 13 is provided with a series of openings 35a, to allow vapours to enter space 35 through them. The vapours may then pass through inlets 29 into the nozzle 28, and around the upper end of the nozzle 28 into the lower end of nozzle 21.

Extending from chamber 31 at the side opposite passage 32, is a passage 36 which communicates with a conduit 37 which extends upwards through passage 13, and connects through a lateral extension 39, with passage 15 just above the butterfly valve 16. The portion of conduit 37 which extends through passage 13 is provided with an orifice 39 through which air or air and fuel vapour may be drawn into the conduit 37 mingle with and atomise the liquid fuel being drawn through the conduit. To further assist in this atomisation of the liquid fuel passing through conduit 37, the conduit is restricted at 40 just below orifice 39.

The upper end of conduit 37 is in communication with the atmosphere through opening 41 through which air may be drawn directly into the upper portion of the conduit. The proportion of air to combustible vapours coming through conduit 37 is controlled by needle valve 42.

As nozzle 21 enters directly into the lower end of passage 15, suction in the inlet manifold will, in turn, create a suction on nozzle 21 which will cause a mixture of atomised fuel and air to be drawn directly into the intake manifold. This is found to be desirable when starting the engine, particularly in cold weather, when there might not be an adequate supply of vapour in the vaporising chamber, or the mixture of air and vapour passing through passage 13 might be to “lean” to cause a prompt starting of the engine. At such times, closing the choke valve 13b will cause the maximum suction to be exerted on nozzle 21 and the maximum amount of air and atomised fuel to be drawn directly into the intake manifold. After the engine has been started, only a small portion of the combustible air and fuel mixture necessary for proper operation of the engine is drawn through nozzle 21 as the choke valve will then be open to a greater extent and substantially all of the air and vapour mixture necessary for operation of the engine will be drawn through the lower end 20 of passage 15, around nozzle 21.

Conduit 37 extending from fuel chamber 31 to a point above butterfly valve 16 provides an adequate supply of fuel when the engine is idling with valve 16 closed or nearly closed.

The casings forming chambers 1, 4 and 7, will be provided with the necessary openings, to subsequently be closed, so that the various parts may be assembled, and subsequently adjusted or repaired.

The intake stroke of the engine creates a suction in the intake manifold, which in turn causes air to be drawn past spring valve 14 into passage 13 and simultaneously a portion of the dry fuel vapour from the top of vaporising chamber 1 is drawn through opening 17 past valve 17a to mix with the air moving through the passage. This mixture then passes through passage 15 to the intake manifold and engine cylinders.

The drawing of the dry fuel vapour into passage 13 creates a partial vacuum in chamber 1 which causes air to be drawn into chamber 7 around heated chamber 4 from where it passes through connection 12 and valve 19, into passage 13 and through pipe 9 and valve 18 into aerator 10, from which it bubbles up through the liquid fuel in the bottom of chamber 1 to vapourise more liquid fuel.

To assist in maintaining a supply of dry fuel vapour in the upper portion of vaporising chamber 1, the carburettor is provided with means for atomising a portion of the liquid fuel in vaporising chamber 1. This atomising means preferably is comprised of a double-acting pump which is operated by the suction existing in the intake manifold of the engine.

The double-acting pump is comprised of a pair of cylinders 43 which have their lower ends located in the vaporising chamber 1, and each of which has a reciprocating pump piston 44 mounted in it. Pistons 44 have rods 45 extending from their upper ends, passing through cylinders 46 and have pistons 47 mounted on them within the cylinders 46.

Cylinders 46 are connected at each end to a distributing valve V which connects the cylinders alternately to the intake manifold so that the suction in the manifold will cause the two pistons 44 to operate as a double-acting suction pump.

The distributing valve V is comprised of a pair of discs 48 and 49 between which is located a hollow oscillatable chamber 50 which is constantly subjected to the suction existing in the intake manifold through connection 51.
having a valve 52 in it. Chamber 50 has a pair of upper openings and a pair of lower openings. These openings are so arranged with respect to the conduits leading to the opposite ends of cylinders 46 that the suction of the engine simultaneously forces one piston 47 upwards while forcing the other one downwards.

The oscillatable chamber 50 has a T-shaped extension 53. The arms of this extension are engaged alternately by the upper ends of the piston rods 45, so as to cause valve V to connect cylinders 46 in sequence to the intake manifold.

Spring 54 causes a quick opening and closing of the ports leading to the cylinders 46 so that at no time will the suction of the engine be exerted on both of the pistons 47. The tension between discs 48 and 49 and the oscillatable chamber 50 may be regulated by screw 55.

The particular form of the distributing valve V is not claimed here so a further description of operation is not necessary. As far as the present invention is concerned, any form of means for imparting movement to pistons 47 may be substituted for the valve V and its associated parts.

The cylinders 43 are each provided with inlets and outlets 56 and 57, each located below the fuel level in chamber 1. The inlets 56 are connected to horizontally and upwardly extending conduits 58 which pass through the carburettor to the outside. The upper ends of these conduits are enlarged at 59 and are provided with a vertically extending slot 60. The enlarged ends 59 are threaded on the inside to accept plugs 61. The position of these plugs with respect to slots 60 determines the amount of air which may pass through the slots 60 and into cylinder 43 on the suction stroke of the pistons 44.

The upper walls of the horizontal portions of conduits 58 have an opening 62 for the passage of liquid fuel from chamber 1. The extent to which liquid fuel may pass through these openings is controlled by needle valves 63, whose stems 64 pass up through and out of the carburettor and terminate in knurled adjusting nuts 65.

The horizontal portion of each conduit 58 is also provided with a check valve 66 (shown in Fig.10) which allows air to be drawn into the cylinders through conduits 58 but prevents liquid fuel from being forced upwards through the conduits on the down stroke of pistons 44.

Outlets 57 connect with horizontal pipes 67 which merge into a single open-ended pipe 68 which extends upwards. The upper open end of this pipe terminates about half way up the height of the vaporising chamber 1 and is provided with a bail 69 which carries a deflecting plate 70 positioned directly over the open end of pipe 68.

The horizontal pipes 67 are provided with check valves 71 which permit the mingled air and fuel to be forced from cylinders 43 by the pistons 44, but which prevent fuel vapour from being drawn from chamber 1 into cylinders 43.

When operating, pistons 44 on the ‘up’ strokes, draw a charge of air and liquid fuel into cylinders 43, and on the ‘down’ stroke, discharge the charge in an atomised condition through pipes 67 and 68, against deflecting plate 70 which further atomises the particles of liquid fuel so that they will readily vaporise. Any portions of the liquid fuel which do not vaporise, drop down into the supply of liquid fuel in the bottom of the vaporising chamber where they are subjected to the vaporising influence of the bubbles of heated air coming from the aerator 10, and may again pass into the cylinders 43.

As previously stated, the vaporised fuel for introduction into the intake manifold of the engine, is taken from the upper portion of the vaporising chamber 1. To ensure that the vapour in this portion of the chamber shall contain no, or substantially no, entrained droplets of liquid fuel, chamber 1 is divided into upper and lower portions by the walls 71 and 72 which converge from all directions to form a central opening 73. With the vaporising chamber thus divided into upper and lower portions which are connected only by the relatively small opening 73, any droplets entrained by the bubbles rising from the aerator 10, will come into contact with the sloping wall 72 and be deflected back into the main body of liquid fuel in the bottom of the chamber. Likewise, the droplets of atomised fuel being forced from the upper end of pipe 68 will, on striking plate 70, be deflected back into the body of liquid fuel and not pass into the upper portion of the chamber.

In order that the speed of operation of the atomising pump may be governed by the speed at which the engine is running, and further, that the amount of air admitted from chamber 7 to the aerator 10, and to passage 13 through connection 12, may be increased as the speed of the engine increases, the valves 18, 19 and 52 and butterfly valve 16 are all connected by a suitable linkage L so that as butterfly valve 16 is opened to increase the speed of the engine, valves 18, 19 and 52 will also be opened.

As shown in Fig.2, the passage of the exhaust gasses from the engine to the heating chamber 4, located between the vaporising chamber and the air chamber 7, is controlled by valve 74. The opening and closing of valve 74 is controlled by a thermostat in accordance with the temperature inside chamber 4, by means of an adjustable metal
rod 75 having a high coefficient of expansion, whereby the optimum temperature may be maintained in the vaporising chamber, irrespective of the surrounding temperature.

From the foregoing description, it will be understood that the present invention provides a carburettor for supplying to internal combustion engines, a comingled mixture of air and liquid fuel vapour free from microscopic droplets of liquid fuel which would burn rather than explode in the cylinders and that a supply of such dry vaporised fuel is constantly maintained in the carburettor.
The Second High MPG Carburettor of Charles Pogue

US Patent 1,997,497 9th April 1935 Inventor: Charles N. Pogue

CARBURETTOR

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA in the 1930s but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to a device for obtaining an intimate contact between a liquid in a truly vaporous state and a gas, and particularly to such a device which may serve as a carburettor for internal combustion engines and is an improvement on the form of device shown in my Patent No. 1,938,497, granted on 5th December 1933.

In carburettors commonly used for supplying a combustible mixture of air and liquid fuel to internal combustion engines, a relatively large amount of the atomised liquid fuel is not vaporised and enters the engine cylinder more or less in the form of microscopic droplets. When such a charge is ignited in the engine cylinder, only that portion of the liquid fuel which has been converted into the vaporous, and consequently molecular state, combines with the air to give an explosive mixture. The remaining portion of the liquid fuel which is drawn into the engine cylinders remains in the form of small droplets and does not explode imparting power to the engine, but instead burns with a flame and raises the engine temperature above that at which the engine operates most efficiently, i.e. from 160°F to 180°F.

In my earlier patent, there is shown and described a form of carburettor in which the liquid fuel is substantially completely vaporised prior to its introduction into the engine cylinders, and in which, means are provided for maintaining a reverse supply of “dry” vapour available for introduction into the engine cylinder. Such a carburettor has been found superior to the standard type of carburettor referred to above, and to give a better engine performance with far less consumption of fuel.

It is an object of the present invention to provide a carburettor in which the liquid fuel is broken up and prepared in advance of and independent of the suction of the engine and in which a reserve supply of dry vapour will be maintained under pressure, ready for introduction into the engine cylinder at all times. It is also an object of the invention to provide a carburettor in which the dry vapour is heated to a sufficient extent prior to being mixed with the main supply of air which carries it into the engine cylinder, to cause it to expand so that it will be relatively lighter and will become more intimately mixed with the air, prior to explosion in the engine cylinders.

I have found that when the reserve supply of dry vapour is heated and expanded prior to being mixed with the air, a greater proportion of the potential energy of the fuel is obtained and the mixture of air and fuel vapour will explode in the engine cylinders without any apparent burning of the fuel which would result in unduly raising the operating temperature of the engine.

More particularly, the present invention comprises a carburettor in which liquid fuel vapour is passed from a main vaporising chamber under at least a slight pressure, into and through a heated chamber where it is caused to expand and in which droplets of liquid fuel are either vaporised or separated from the vapour, so that the fuel finally introduced into the engine cylinders is in the true vapour phase. The chamber in which the liquid fuel vapour is heated and caused to expand, is preferably comprised of a series of passages through which the vapour and exhaust gases from the engine pass in tortuous paths in such a manner that the exhaust gasses are brought into heat interchange relation with the vapour and give up a part of their heat to the vapour, thus causing heating and expansion of the vapour.

The invention will be further described in connection with the accompanying drawings, but this further disclosure and description is to be taken merely as an exemplification of the invention and the invention is not limited to the embodiment so described.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig.1 is a vertical cross-sectional view through a carburettor embodying my invention.
**Fig. 2** is a horizontal sectional view through the main vaporising or atomising chamber, taken on line 2--2 of Fig. 1.

**Fig. 3** is a side elevation of the carburettor.
Fig. 4 is a detail sectional view of one of the atomising nozzles and its associated parts.

Fig. 5 is a detail cross-sectional view showing the means for controlling the passage of gasses from the vapour expanding chamber into the intake manifold of the engine.

Fig. 6 is a perspective view of one of the valves shown in Fig. 5.

Fig. 7 is a cross-sectional view showing means for adjusting the valves shown in Fig. 5.

Fig. 8 is a cross-sectional view on line 8–8 of Fig. 7.

Referring now to the drawings, the numeral 1 indicates a main vaporising and atomising chamber for the liquid fuel located at the bottom of, and communicating with, a vapour heating and expanding chamber 2.
The vaporising chamber is provided with a perforated false bottom 3 and is normally filled with liquid fuel to the level x. Air enters the space below the false bottom 3 via conduit 4 and passes upwards through perforations 5 in the false bottom and then bubbles up through the liquid fuel, vaporising a portion of it.

To maintain the fuel level x in chamber 1, liquid fuel passes from the usual fuel tank (not shown) through pipe 8 into and through a pair of nozzles 9 which have their outlets located in chamber 1, just above the level of the liquid fuel in it. The pump 7 may be of any approved form but is preferably of the diaphragm type, as such fuel pumps are now standard equipment on most cars.

The nozzles 9 are externally threaded at their lower ends to facilitate their assembly in chamber 1 and to permit them to be removed readily, should cleaning be necessary.

The upper ends of nozzles 9 are surrounded by venturi tubes 10, having a baffle 11, located at their upper ends opposite the outlets of the nozzles. The liquid fuel being forced from the ends of nozzles 9 into the restricted portions of the Venturi tubes, causes a rapid circulation of the air and vapour in the chamber through the tubes 10 and brings the air and vapour into intimate contact with the liquid fuel, with the result that a portion of the liquid fuel is vaporised. The part of the liquid fuel which is not vaporised, strikes the baffles 11 and is further broken up and deflected downwards into the upward-flowing current of air and vapour.

Pump 7 is regulated to supply a greater amount of liquid fuel to the nozzles 9 than will be vaporised. The excess drops into chamber 1 and causes the liquid to be maintained at the indicated level. When the liquid fuel rises above that level, a float valve 12 is lifted, allowing the excess fuel to flow out through overflow pipe 13 into pipe 14 which leads back to pipe 6 on the intake side of pump 7. Such an arrangement allows a large amount of liquid fuel to be circulated by pump 7 without more fuel being withdrawn from the fuel tank than is actually vaporised and consumed in the engine. As the float valve 12 will set upon the end of the outlet pipe 13 as soon as the liquid level drops below the indicated level, there is no danger of vapour passing into pipe 14 and from there into pump 7 and interfere with its normal operation.

The upper end of the vaporising and atomising chamber 1 is open and vapour formed by air bubbling through the liquid fuel in the bottom of the chamber and that formed as the result of atomisation at nozzles 9, pass into the heating and expanding chamber 2. As is clearly shown in Fig.1, chamber 2 comprises a series of tortuous passages 15 and 16 leading from the bottom to the top. The fuel vapour passes through passages 15 and the exhaust gasses of the engine pass through passages 16, a suitable entrance 17 and exit 18 being provided for that purpose.

The vapour passing upwards in a zigzag path through passages 15, will be brought into heat interchange relation with the hot walls of the passages 16 traversed by the hot exhaust gasses. The total length of the passages 15 and 16 is such that a relatively large reserve supply of the liquid fuel is always maintained in chamber 2, and by maintaining the vapour in heat interchange relation with the hot exhaust gasses for a substantial period, the vapour will absorb sufficient heat to cause it to expand, with the result that when it is withdrawn from the top of chamber 2, it will be in the true vapour phase, and due to expansion, relatively light.

Any minute droplets of liquid fuel entrained by the vapour in chamber 1 will precipitate out in the lower passages 15 and flow back into chamber 1, or else be vaporised by the heat absorbed from the exhaust gasses during its passage through chamber 2.

The upper end of vapour passage 15 communicates with openings 19 adjacent to the upper end of a down-draft air tube 20 leading to the intake manifold of the engine. Valves 21 are interposed in openings 19, so that the passage of the vapour through them into the air tube may be controlled. Valves 21 are preferably of the rotary plug type and are controlled as described below.

Suitable means are provided for causing the vapour to be maintained in chamber 2, under a pressure greater than atmospheric, so that when the valves 21 are opened, the vapour will be forced into air tube 20 independent of the engine suction. Such means may comprise an air pump (not shown) for forcing air through pipe 4 into chamber 1 beneath the false bottom 3, but I prefer merely to provide pipe 4 with a funnel-shaped inlet end 22 and placement just behind the usual engine fan 23. This causes air to pass through pipe 4 with sufficient force to maintain the desired pressure in chamber 2, and the air being drawn through the radiator by the fan will be preheated prior to its introduction into chamber 1 and hence will vaporise greater amounts of the liquid fuel. If desired, pipe 4 may be surrounded by an electric or other heater, or exhaust gasses from the engine may be passed around it to further preheat the air passing through it prior to its introduction into the liquid fuel in the bottom of chamber 1.

Air tube 20 is provided with a butterfly throttle valve 24 and a choke valve 24a, as is customary with carburettors used for internal combustion engines. The upper end of air tube 20 extends above chamber 2 a distance sufficient to receive an air filter and/or silencer, if desired.
A low-speed or idling jet 25 has its upper end communicating with the passage through air tube 20 adjacent to the throttling valve 24 and its lower end extending into the liquid fuel in the bottom of chamber 1, for supplying fuel to the engine when the valves are in a position such as to close the passages 19. However, the passage through idling jet 25 is so small that under normal operations, the suction on it is not sufficient to lift fuel from the bottom of chamber 1.

To prevent the engine from backfiring into vapour chamber 2, the ends of the passages 19 are covered with a fine mesh screen 26 which, operating on the principle of the miner's lamp, will prevent the vapour in chamber 2 from exploding in case of a backfire, but which will not interfere substantially with the passage of the vapour from chamber 2 into air tube 20 when valves 21 are open. Air tube 20 is preferably in the form of a venturi with the greatest restriction being at that point where the openings 19 are located, so that when valves 21 are opened, there will be a pulling force on the vapour caused by the increased velocity of the air at the restricted portion of air tube 20 opposite the openings 19, as well as an expelling force on them due to the pressure in chamber 2.

As shown in Fig. 3, the operating mechanism of valves 21 is connected to the operating mechanism for throttle valve 24, so that they are opened and closed simultaneously with the opening and closing of the throttle valve, ensuring that the amount of vapour supplied to the engine will, at all times, be in proportion to the demands placed upon the engine. To that end, each valve 21 has an extension, or operating stem 27, protruding through one of the side walls of the vapour-heating and expanding chamber 2. Packing glands 28 of ordinary construction, surround stems 27 where they pass through the chamber wall, to prevent leakage of vapour at those points.

Operating arms 29 are rigidly secured to the outer ends of stems 27 and extend towards each other. The arms are pivotally and adjustably connected to a pair of links 30 which, at their lower ends are pivotally connected to an operating link 31, which in turn, is pivotally connected to arm 32 which is rigidly secured on an outer extension 33 of the stem of the throttle valve 24. Extension 33 also has rigidly connected to it, arm 34 to which is connected operating link 35 leading from the means for accelerating the engine.

The means for adjusting the connection from the upper ends of links 30 to valve stems 27 of valves 21, so that the amount of vapour delivered from chamber 2 may be regulated to cause the most efficient operation of the particular engine to which the carburettor is attached, comprises angular slides 36, to which the upper ends of links 30 are fastened, and which cannot rotate but can slide in guideways 37 located in arms 29. Slides 36 have threaded holes through which screws 38 pass. Screws 38 are rotatably mounted in arms 29, but are held against longitudinal movement so that when they are rotated, slides 36 will be caused to move along the guideways 37 and change the relative position of links 30 to the valve stems 27, so that a greater or less movement, and consequently, a greater or less opening of the ports 19 will take place when throttle valve 24 is operated.

For safety, and for most efficient operation of the engine, the vapour in chamber 2 should not be heated or expanded beyond a predetermined amount, and in order to control the extent to which the vapour is heated, and consequently, the extent to which it expands, a valve 39 is located in the exhaust passage 16 adjacent to inlet 17. Valve 39 is preferably thermostatically controlled, as for example, by an expanding rod thermostat 40, which extends through chamber 2. However, any other means may be provided for reducing the amount of hot exhaust gasses entering passage 16 when the temperature of the vapour in the chamber reaches or exceeds the optimum.

The carburettor has been described in detail in connection with a down-draft type of carburettor, but it is to be understood that its usefulness is not to be restricted to that particular type of carburettor, and that the manner in which the mixture of air and vapour is introduced into the engine cylinders is immaterial as far as the advantages of the carburettor are concerned.

The term "dry vapour" is used to define the physical condition of the liquid fuel vapour after removal of liquid droplets or the mist which is frequently entrained in what is ordinarily termed a vapour.

From the foregoing description it will be seen that the present invention provides a carburettor in which the breaking up of the liquid fuel for subsequent use is independent of the suction created by the engine, and that after the liquid fuel is broken up, it is maintained under pressure in a heated space for a length of time sufficient to permit all entrained liquid particles to be separated or vaporised and to permit the dry vapour to expand prior to its introduction into and admixture with the main volume of air passing into the engine cylinders.
The Third High MPG Carburettor of Charles Pogue

US Patent 2,026,798 7th January 1936 Inventor: Charles N. Pogue

CARBURETTOR

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA in the 1930s but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION
This invention relates to carburettors suitable for use with internal combustion engines and is an improvement on the carburettors shown in my Patents Nos. 1,938,497, granted on 5th December 1933 and 1,997,497 granted on 9th April 1935.

In my earlier patents, an intimate contact between such as the fuel used for internal combustion engines, and a gas such as air, is obtained by causing the gas to bubble up through a body of the liquid. The vaporised liquid passes into a vapour chamber which preferably is heated, and any liquid droplets are returned to the body of the liquid, with the result that the fuel introduced into the combustion chambers is free of liquid particles, and in the molecular state so that an intimate mixture with the air is obtained to give an explosive mixture from which nearer the maximum energy contained in the liquid fuel is obtained. Moreover, as there are no liquid particles introduced into the combustion chambers, there will be no burning of the fuel and consequently, the temperature of the engine will not be increased above that at which it operates most efficiently.

In my Patent No. 1,997,497, the air which is to bubble up through the body of the liquid fuel is forced into and through the fuel under pressure and the fuel vapour and air pass into a chamber where they are heated and caused to expand. The introduction of the air under pressure and the expansion of the vaporous mixture ensures a sufficient pressure being maintained in the vapour heating and expanding chamber, to cause at least a portion of it to be expelled from it into the intake manifold as soon as the valve controlling the passage to it is opened.

In accordance with the present invention, improved means are provided for maintaining the vaporous mixture in the vapour-heating chamber under a predetermined pressure, and for regulating such pressure so that it will be at the optimum for the particular conditions under which the engine is to operate. Such means preferably comprises a reciprocating pump operated by a vacuum-actuated motor for forcing the vapour into and through the chamber. The pump is provided with a suitable pressure-regulating valve so that when the pressure in the vapour-heating chamber exceeds the predetermined amount, a portion of the vapour mixture will be by-passed from the outlet side to the inlet side of the pump, and so be recirculated.

The invention will be described further in connection with the accompanying drawings, but such further disclosure and description is to be taken merely as an exemplification of the invention, and the invention is not limited to that embodiment of the invention.
DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a side elevation of a carburettor embodying the invention.

Fig. 2 is a plan view of the carburettor
Fig. 3 is an enlarged vertical section view.

Fig. 4 is a transverse sectional view on line 4--4 of Fig. 3.
**Fig. 5** is a detail sectional view on line 5--5 of Fig. 3.

![Diagram of Fig. 5]

**Fig. 6** is a transverse sectional view through the pump and actuating motor, taken on line 6--6 of Fig. 2.

![Diagram of Fig. 6]
Fig. 7 is a longitudinal sectional view through the pump taken on line 7--7 of Fig. 2.

Fig. 8 is a longitudinal sectional view through a part of the pump cylinder, showing the piston in elevation.

In the drawings, a vaporising and atomising chamber 1 is located at the bottom of the carburettor and has an outlet at its top for the passage of fuel vapour and air into a primary vapour-heating chamber 2.

The vaporising chamber 1 is provided with a perforated false bottom 3 and is normally filled with liquid fuel to the level indicated in Fig. 1. Air is introduced via conduit 4 into the space below the false bottom 3, and then through the perforations 5 in the false bottom which breaks it into a myriad of fine bubbles, which pass upwards through the liquid fuel above the false bottom.

Liquid fuel for maintaining the level indicated in chamber 1 passes from the usual fuel tank (not shown) through pipe 6, and is forced by pump 7 through pipe 8 through a pair of nozzles 9 having their outlets located in chamber 1, just above the level of the liquid fuel in it. Pump 7 may be of any approved form but is preferably of the diaphragm type, as such fuel pumps are now standard equipment on most cars.

The nozzles 9 are externally threaded at their lower ends to facilitate their assembly in chamber 1 and to permit them to be readily removed should cleaning become necessary.

The upper ends of nozzles 9 are surrounded by venturi tubes 10 having baffles 11 located at their upper ends opposite the outlets of the nozzles, as is shown and described in detail in my Patent No. 1,997,497. The liquid fuel being forced from the ends of nozzles 9 into the restricted portions of the venturi tubes, causes a rapid circulation of the air and vapour in the chamber through tubes 10 and brings the air and vapour into intimate contact with the liquid fuel, with the result that a portion of the liquid fuel is vaporised. Unvaporised portions of the liquid fuel strike the baffles 11 and are thereby further broken up and deflected downwards into the upward-flowing current of air and vapour.

Pump 7 is regulated to supply a greater amount of liquid fuel to nozzles 9 than will be vaporised. The excess liquid fuel drops into chamber 1 which causes the liquid there to be maintained at the indicated level. When the liquid fuel rises above that level, float valve 12 opens and the excess fuel flows through overflow pipe 13 into pipe 14 which leads back to pipe 6 on the intake side of pump 7. Such an arrangement permits a large amount of liquid fuel to be circulated by pump 7 without more fuel being withdrawn from the fuel tank than is actually vaporised and consumed by the engine. As float valve 12 will set upon the end of the outlet pipe 13 as soon as the liquid level drops below the indicated level, there is no danger of vapour passing into pipe 14 and thence into pump 7 to interfere with its normal operation.

The amount of liquid fuel vapourised by nozzles 9 and by the passage of air through the body of liquid, is sufficient to provide a suitably enriched vaporous mixture for introducing into the passage leading to the intake manifold of the engine, through which the main volume of air passes.
Vapour formed by air bubbling through the liquid fuel in the bottom of chamber 1 and that formed by the atomisation at the nozzles 9, pass from the top of that chamber into the primary heating chamber 2. As is clearly shown in Fig.1, chamber 2 comprises a relatively long spiral passage 15 through which the vaporous mixture gradually passes inwards to a central outlet 16 to which is connected a conduit 17 leading to a reciprocating pump 18 which forces the vaporous mixture under pressure into conduit 19 leading to a central inlet 20 of a secondary heating chamber 21, which like the primary heating chamber, comprises a relatively long spiral. The vaporous mixture gradually passes outwards through the spiral chamber 21 and enters a downdraft air tube 22, leading to the intake manifold of the engine, through an outlet 23 controlled by a rotary plug valve 24.

To prevent the engine from backfiring into vapour chamber 2, the ends of passage 19 are covered with a fine mesh screen 25, which, operating on the principle of a miner's lamp, will prevent the vapour in chamber 2 from exploding in case of a backfire, but will not interfere substantially with the passage of the vapour from chamber 21 into air tube 22 when valve 24 is open.

The air tube 22 is preferably in the form of a venturi with the greatest constriction being at that point where outlet 23 is located, so that when valve 24 is opened, there will be a pulling force on the vaporous mixture due to the increased velocity of the air at the restricted portion of the air tube opposite outlet 23, as well as an expelling force on it due to the pressure maintained in chamber 21 by pump 18.

Both the primary and secondary spiral heating chambers 15 and 21, and the central portion of air tube 22 are enclosed by a casing 26 having an inlet 27 and an outlet 28 for a suitable heating medium such as the gasses coming from the exhaust manifold.

Pump 18, used to force the vaporous mixture from primary heating chamber 2 into and through the secondary chamber 21, includes a working chamber 29 for hollow piston 30, provided with an inlet 31 controlled by valve 32, and an outlet 33 controlled by a valve 34. The end of the working chamber 29 to which is connected conduit 17, which conducts the vaporous mixture from primary heating chamber 2, has an inlet valve 35, and the opposite end of the working chamber has an outlet 36 controlled by valve 37 positioned in an auxiliary chamber 38, to which is connected outlet pipe 19 which conducts the vaporous mixture under pressure to the secondary heating chamber 21. Each of the valves 32, 34, 35 and 37 is of the one-way type. They are shown as being gravity-actuated flap valves, but it will be understood that spring-loaded or other types of one-way valves may be used if desired.

One side of piston 30 is formed with a gear rack 39 which is received in a groove 39a of the wall forming the cylinder of the pump. The gear rack 39 engages with an actuating spur gear 40 carried on one end of shaft 41 and operating in a housing 42 formed on the pump cylinder. The other end of shaft 41 carries a spur gear 43, which engages and is operated by a gear rack 44 carried on a piston 46 of a double-acting motor 47. The particular construction of the double-acting motor 47 is not material, and it may be of a vacuum type commonly used for operating windscreen wipers on cars, in which case a flexible hose 48 would be connected with the intake manifold of the engine to provide the necessary vacuum for operating the piston 45.

Under the influence of the double-acting motor 47, the piston 30 of the pump has a reciprocatory movement in the working chamber 29. Movement of the piston towards the left in Fig.7 tends to compress the vaporous mixture in the working chamber between the end of the piston and the inlet from pipe 17, and causes valve 35 to be forced tightly against the inlet opening. In a like manner, valves 32 and 34 are forced open and the vaporous mixture in that portion of the working chamber is forced through the inlet 31 in the end of the piston 30, into the interior of the piston, where it displaces the vaporous mixture there and forces it into the space between the right-hand end of the piston and the right-hand end of the working chamber. The passage of the vaporous mixture into the right-hand end of the working chamber is supplemented by the partial vacuum created there when the piston moves to the left. During such movement of the piston, valve 37 is maintained closed and prevents any sucking back of the vaporous mixture from the secondary heating chamber 21.

When motor 47 reverses, piston 30 moves to the right and the vaporous mixture in the right-hand end of the working chamber is forced past valve 37 through pipe 19 into the secondary heating chamber 21. At the same time, a vacuum is created behind piston 30 which results in the left-hand end of the working chamber being filled again with the vaporous mixture from the primary heating chamber 2.

As the operation of pump 47 varies in accordance with the suction created in the intake manifold, it should be regulated so that the vaporous mixture is pumped into the secondary heating chamber at a rate sufficient to maintain a greater pressure there than is needed. In order that the pressure in the working chamber may at all times be maintained at the optimum, a pipe 50 having an adjustable pressure-regulating valve 51 is connected between the inlet and outlet pipes 17 and 19. Valve 51 will permit a portion of the vaporous mixture discharged
from the pump to be bypassed to inlet 17 so that a pressure predetermined by the seating of valve 51 will at all times be maintained in the second heating chamber 21.

Air tube 22 is provided with a butterfly throttle valve 52 and a choke valve 53, as is usual with carburettors adapted for use with internal combustion engines. Operating stems 54, 55 and 56 for valves 52, 53 and 24 respectively, extend through casing 26. An operating arm 57 is rigidly secured to the outer end of stem 55 and is connected to a rod 58 which extends to the dashboard of the car, or some other place convenient to the driver. The outer end of stem 56 of valve 24 which controls outlet 23 from the secondary heating chamber 21 has one end of an operating arm 59 fixed securely to it. The other end is pivotally connected to link 60 which extends downwards and pivotally connects to one end of a bell crank lever 61, rigidly attached to the end of stem 54 of throttle valve 52. The other end of the bell crank lever is connected to an operating rod 62 which, like rod 58, extends to a place convenient to the driver. Valves 24 and 52 are connected for simultaneous operation so that when the throttle valve 52 is opened to increase the speed of the engine, valve 24 will also be opened to admit a larger amount of the heated vaporous mixture from the secondary heating chamber 21.

While the suction created by pump 18 ordinarily will create a sufficient vacuum in the primary heating chamber 2 to cause air to be drawn into and upwards through the body of liquid fuel in the bottom of vaporising chamber 1, in some instances it may be desirable to provide supplemental means for forcing the air into and up through the liquid, and in such cases an auxiliary pump may be provided for that purpose, or the air conduit 4 may be provided with a funnel-shaped intake which is positioned behind the engine fan 63 which is customarily placed behind the engine radiator.

The foregoing description has been given in connection with a downdraft type of carburettor, but it is to be understood that the invention is not limited to use with such type of carburettors and that the manner in which the mixture of air and vapour is introduced into the engine cylinders is immaterial as far as the advantages of the carburettor are concerned.

Before the carburettor is put into use, the pressure-regulating valve 51 in the bypass pipe 50 will be adjusted so that the pressure best suited to the conditions under which the engine is to be operated, will be maintained in the secondary heating chamber 21. When valve 51 has thus been set and the engine started, pump 18 will create a partial vacuum in the primary heating chamber 2 and cause air to be drawn through conduit 4 to bubble upwards through the liquid fuel in the bottom of the vaporising and atomising chamber 1 with the resulting vaporisation of a part of the liquid fuel. At the same time, pump 7 will be set into operation and liquid fuel will be pumped from the fuel tank through the nozzles 9 which results in an additional amount of the fuel being vaporised. The vapour resulting from such atomisation of the liquid fuel and the passage of air through the body of the liquid, will pass into and through spiral chamber 1 where they will be heated by the products of combustion in the surrounding chamber formed by casing 26. The fuel vapour and air will gradually pass inwards through conduit 17 to pump 18 which will force them into the secondary heating chamber 21 in which they will be maintained at the predetermined pressure by the pressure-regulating valve 51. The vaporous mixture is further heated in chamber 21 and passes spirally outward to the valve-controlled outlet 23 which opens into air tube 22 which conducts the main volume of air to the intake manifold of the engine.

The heating of the vaporous mixture in the heating chambers 2 and 21, tends to cause them to expand, but expansion in chamber 21 is prevented due to the pressure regulating valve 51. However, as soon as the heated vaporous mixture passes valve 24 and is introduced into the air flowing through intake tube 22, it is free to expand and thereby become relatively light so that a more intimate mixture with the air is obtained prior to the mixture being exploded in the engine cylinders. Thus it will be seen that the present invention not only provides means wherein the vaporous mixture from heating chamber 21 is forced into the air passing through air tube 22 by a positive force, but it is also heated to such an extent that after it leaves chamber 21 it will expand to such an extent as to have a density less than it would if introduced directly from the vaporising and atomising chamber 1 into the air tube 22.

The majority of the liquid particles entrained by the vaporous mixture leaving chamber 1 will be separated in the first half of the outermost spiral of the primary heating chamber 2 and drained back into the body of liquid fuel in tank 1. Any liquid particles which are not thus separated, will be carried on with the vaporous mixture and due to the circulation of that mixture and the application of heat, will be vapourised before the vaporous mixture is introduced into the air tube 22 from the secondary heating chamber 21. Thus only “dry” vapour is introduced into the engine cylinders and any burning in the engine cylinders of liquid particles of the fuel, which would tend to raise the engine temperature above its most efficient level, is avoided.

While the fullest benefits of the invention are obtained by using both a primary and secondary heating chamber, the primary heating chamber may, if desired, be eliminated and the vaporous mixture pumped directly from the vaporising and atomising chamber 1 into the spiral heating chamber 21.
From the foregoing description it will be seen that the present invention provides an improvement over the carburettor disclosed in my Patent No. 1,997,497, in that it is possible to maintain the vaporous mixture in the heating chamber 21 under a predetermined pressure, and that as soon as the vaporous mixture is introduced into the main supply of air passing to the intake manifold of the engine, it will expand and reach a density at which it will form a more intimate mixture with the air. Furthermore, the introduction of the vaporous mixture into the air stream in the tube 22, causes a certain amount of turbulence which also tends to give a more intimate mixture of vapour molecules with the air.
The High MPG Carburettor of Ivor Newberry

US Patent 2,218,922           22nd October 1940           Inventor: Ivor B. Newberry

VAPORIZER FOR COMBUSTION ENGINES

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA in the 1930s but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION
This invention relates to fuel vaporising devices for combustion engines and more particularly, is concerned with improvements in devices of the kind where provision is made for using the exhaust gasses of the engines as a heating medium to aid in the vaporisation of the fuel.

One object of the invention is to provide a device which will condition the fuel in such a manner that its potential energy may be fully utilised, thereby ensuring better engine performance and a saving in fuel consumption, and preventing the formation of carbon deposits in the cylinders of the engine and the production of carbon monoxide and other objectionable gasses.

A further object is to provide a device which is so designed that the fuel is delivered to the cylinders of the engine in a highly vaporised, dry and expanded state, this object contemplating a device which is available as an exhaust box in which the vaporisation and expansion of the liquid components is effected at sub-atmospheric pressures and prior to their being mixed with the air component.

A still further object is to provide a device which will condition the components of the fuel in such a manner that they be uniformly and intimately mixed without the use of a carburettor.

A still further object is to provide a device which will enable the use of various inferior and inexpensive grades of fuel.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Fig.1 is an elevational view of the device as applied to the engine of a motor vehicle.
Fig. 2 is an enlarged view of the device, partially in elevation and partially in section.

Fig. 3 is a section taken along line 3--3 of Fig. 2
Fig. 4 is a section taken along line 4--4 of Fig. 3

Fig. 5 is a fragmentary section taken along line 5--5 of Fig. 3
DESCRIPTION

The device as illustrated, includes similar casings 8 and 9 which are secured together as a unit and which are formed to provide vaporising chambers 10 and 11, respectively, it being understood that the number of casings may be varied. Two series of ribs 12 are formed in each of the vaporising chambers, the ribs of each series being spaced from one another so as to provide branch passages 13 and being spaced from the ribs of the adjacent series to provide main passages 14 with which the branch passages communicate.

The vaporising chambers are closed by cover plates 15. The cover plates carry baffles 16 which are supported in the spaces between the ribs 12. The baffles extend across the main passages 14 and into, but short of the ends of the branch passages 13 to provide tortuous paths. Outlet 10a of chamber 10 is connected by conduit 17 to inlet 11a of chamber 11. Outlet 18 of chamber 11, is connected by conduit 19 with mixing chamber 20 which is located at the lower end of pipe 21 which in turn is connected to and extension 22 of the intake manifold 22a of the engine. Extension 22 contains a valve 23 which is connected by a lever 23a (Fig.1) and rod 23b to a conventional throttle (not shown).

The liquid fuel is introduced into the vaporising chamber 10 through nozzle 24 which is connected by pipe 25 to a reservoir 26 in which the fuel level is maintained by float-controlled valve 27, the fuel being supplied to the reservoir through pipe 28.

In accordance with the invention, ribs 12 are hollow, each being formed to provide a cell 29. The cells in one series of ribs open at one side into an inlet chamber 30, while the cells of the companion series open at one side into an outlet chamber 31. The cells of both series of ribs open at their backs into a connecting chamber 32 which is located behind the ribs and which is closed by a cover plate 33. Casings 8 and 9 are arranged end-to-end so that the outlet chamber of 9 communicates with the inlet chamber of 8, the gasses from the exhaust manifold 34 being introduced into the inlet chamber of casing 9 through extension 34a. The exhaust gasses enter the series of cells at the right hand side of the casing, pass through the cells into the connecting chamber at the rear and then enter the inlet chamber of casing 8. They pass successively through the two series of cells and enter exhaust pipe 35. The exhaust gasses leave the outlet chamber 31, and the path along which they travel is clearly shown by the arrows in Fig.6. As the gasses pass through casings 8 and 9, their speed is reduced to such a degree that an exhaust box (muffler) or other silencing device is rendered unnecessary.

It will be apparent that when the engine is operating a normal temperature, the liquid fuel introduced into chamber 10 will be vaporised immediately by contact with the hot walls of ribs 12. The vapour thus produced is divided into two streams, one of which is caused to enter each of the branch passages at one side of the casing and the other is caused to enter each of the branch passages at the opposite side of the casing. The two streams of vapour merge as they pass around the final baffle and enter conduit 17, but are again divided and heated in a similar manner as they flow through casing 9. Each of the vapour streams is constantly in contact with the highly heated walls of ribs 12. This passage of the vapour through the casings causes the vapour to be heated to such a degree that a dry highly-vaporised gas is produced. In this connection, it will be noted that the vaporising chambers are maintained under a vacuum and that vaporisation is effected in the absence of air. Conversion of the liquid into highly expanded vapour is thus ensured. The flow of the exhaust gasses through casings 8 and 9 is in the opposite direction to the flow of the vapour. The vapour is heated in stages and is introduced into chamber 20 at its highest temperature.

The air which is mixed with the fuel vapour, enters pipe 21 after passing through a conventional filter 36, the amount of air being regulated by valve 37. The invention also contemplates the heating of the air prior to its entry into mixing chamber 20. To this end, a jacket 39 is formed around pipe 21. The jacket has a chamber 40 which communicates with chamber 32 of casing 9 through inlet pipe 41 and with the corresponding chamber of casing 8.
through outlet pipe 42. A portion of the exhaust gasses is thus caused to pass through chamber 40 to heat the air as it passes through conduit 21 on its way to the mixing chamber. Valve 37 is connected to valve 23 by arms 43 and 43a and link 44 so that the volume of air admitted to the mixing chamber is increased proportionately as the volume of vapour is increased. As the fuel vapour and air are both heated to a high temperature and are in a highly expanded state when they enter the mixing chamber, they readily unite to provide a uniform mixture, the use of a carburettor or similar device for this purpose being unnecessary.

From the foregoing it will be apparent that the components of the fuel mixture are separately heated prior to their entry into mixing chamber 20. As the vapour which is produced is dry (containing no droplets of liquid fuel) and highly expanded, complete combustion is ensured. The potential energy represented by the vapour may thus be fully utilised, thereby ensuring better engine performance and a saving in fuel consumption. At the same time, the formation of carbon deposits in the combustion chambers and the production of carbon monoxide and other objectionable exhaust gasses is prevented. The device has the further advantage that, owing to the high temperature to which the fuel is heated prior to its admission into the combustion chambers, various inferior and inexpensive grades of fuel may be used with satisfactory results.
The High MPG Carburettor of Robert Shelton

US Patent 2,982,528 2nd May 1940 Inventor: Robert S. Shelton

VAPOUR FUEL SYSTEM

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA in the 1930s but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to improvements in vapour fuel systems which are to be used for internal combustion engines.

An object of this invention is to provide a vapour fuel system which will provide a great saving in fuel since approximately eight times the mileage that is obtained by the conventional combustion engine, is provided by the use of this system.

Another object of the invention is to provide a vapour fuel system which is provided with a reservoir to contain liquid fuel which is heated to provide vapour from which the internal combustion engine will operate.

With the above and other objects and advantages in view, the invention consists of the novel details of construction, arrangement and combination of parts more fully described below, claimed and illustrated in the accompanying drawings.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig.1 is an elevational view of a vapour fuel system embodying the invention.
Fig. 2 is an enlarged view, partly in section, showing the carburettor forming part of the system shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 is a transverse sectional view on line 3--3 of Fig. 2.
The reference numbers used in the drawings always refer to the same item in each of the drawings. The vapour fuel system 10 includes a conduit 11 which is connected to the fuel tank at one end and to a carburettor 12 at the opposite end. In conduit 11 there is a fuel filter 13 and an electric fuel pump 14. Wire 15 grounds the pump and wire 16 connects the pump to a fuel gauge 18 on which is mounted a switch 17 which is connected to a battery 19 of the engine by wire 20.

The fuel gauge/switch is of conventional construction and is of the type disclosed in US Patents No. 2,894,093, No. 2,825,895 and No. 2,749,401. The switch is so constructed that a float in the liquid in the gauge, opens a pair of contacts when the liquid rises and this cuts off the electric pump 14. As the float lowers due to the consumption of the liquid fuel in the body, the float falls, closing the contacts and starting pump 14 which replenishes the liquid fuel in the body.

Carburettor 12 includes a dome-shaped circular bowl or reservoir 21 which is provided with a centrally located flanged opening 22 whereby the reservoir 21 is mounted on a tubular throat 23. An apratured collar 24 on the lower end of throat 23 is positioned on the intake manifold 25 of an internal combustion engine 26 and fastenings 27 secure the collar to the manifold in a fixed position.

A vapour control butterfly valve 28 is pivotally mounted in the lower end of throat 23 and valve 28 controls the entrance of the vapour into the engine and so controls its speed.

A fuel pump 29, having an inlet 30, is mounted in the bottom of the reservoir 21 so that the inlet 30 communicates with the interior of the reservoir. A spurt or feed pipe 31 connected to pump 29 extends into throat 23 so that by means of a linkage 32 which is connected to pump 29 and to a linkage for control valve 28 and the foot throttle of the engine, raw fuel may be forced into throat 23 to start the engine when it is cold.
The upper end of throat 23 is turned over upon itself to provide a bulbous hollow portion 33 within reservoir 21. An immersion heater 34 is positioned in the bottom of the reservoir and wire 35 grounds the heater. A thermostat 36 is mounted in the wall of the reservoir and extends into it. Wire 37 connects the thermostat to heater 34 and wire 38 connects the thermostat to the thermostat control 39. Wire 40 connects the control to the ignition switch 41 which in turn is connected to battery 19 via wires 20 and 42.

A pair of relatively spaced parallel perforated baffle plates 43 and 44, are connected to the bulbous portion 33 on the upper end of throat 23, and a second pair of perforated baffle plates 45 and 46 extend inwards from the wall of reservoir 21 parallel to each other and parallel to baffle plates 43 and 44.

The baffle plates are arranged in staggered relation to each other so that baffle plate 45 is between baffle plates 43 and 44 and baffle plate 46 extends over baffle plate 44.

Baffle plate 45 has a central opening 47 and baffle plate 46 has a central opening 48 which has a greater diameter than opening 47. The domed top 49 of reservoir 21, extends into a tubular air intake 50 which extends downwards into throat 23 and a mounting ring 51 is positioned on the exterior of the domed top, vertically aligned with intake 50. An air filter 52 is mounted on the mounting ring 51 by a coupling 53 as is the usual procedure, and a spider 54 is mounted in the upper end of mounting ring 51 to break up the air as it enters ring 51 from air filter 52.

In operation, with carburettor 12 mounted on the internal combustion engine instead of a conventional carburettor, ignition switch 41 is turned on. Current from battery 19 will cause pump 14 to move liquid fuel into reservoir 21 until float switch 18 cuts the pump off when the liquid fuel A has reached level B in the reservoir. The control 39 is adjusted so that thermostat 36 will operate heater 34 until the liquid fuel has reached a temperature of 105°F at which time heater 34 will be cut off. When the liquid fuel has reached the proper temperature, vapour will be available to follow the course indicated by the arrows in Fig.2.

The engine is then started and if the foot control is actuated, pump 29 will cause raw liquid fuel to enter the intake manifold 25 until the vapour from the carburettor is drawn into the manifold to cause the engine to operate. As the fuel is consumed, pump 14 will again be operated and heater 34 will be operated by thermostat 36. Thus, the operation as described will continue as long as the engine is operating and the ignition switch 41 is turned on. Reservoir 21 will hold from 4 to 6 pints (2 to 4 litres) of liquid fuel and since only the vapour from the heated fuel will cause the carburettor 12 to run the engine, the engine will operate for a long time before more fuel is drawn into reservoir 21.

Baffles 43, 44, 45 and 46 are arranged in staggered relation to prevent splashing of the liquid fuel within the carburettor. The level B of the fuel in reservoir 21 is maintained constant by switch 18 and with all elements properly sealed, the vapour fuel system 10 will operate the engine efficiently.

Valve 28 controlling the entrance of vapour into intake manifold 25, controls the speed of the engine in the same manner as the control valve in a conventional carburettor.

There has thus been described a vapour fuel system embodying the invention and it is believed that the structure and operation of it will be apparent to those skilled in the art. It is also to be understood that changes in the minor details of construction, arrangement and combination of parts may be resorted to provided that they fall within the spirit of the invention.
The High MPG Carburettor of Harold Schwartz


CARBURETTOR

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA at the time but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

DESCRIPTION

This invention relates to a carburettor construction. An object of the present invention is to provide a carburettor in which the fuel is treated by the hot exhaust fumes of an engine before being combined with air and being fed into the engine.

Another object of the invention is to provide a carburettor as characterised above, which circulates the fume-laden fuel in a manner to free it of inordinately large globules of fuel, thereby insuring that only finely divided and pre-heated fuel of mist-like consistency is fed to the intake manifold of the engine.

The present carburettor, when used for feeding the six-cylinder engine of a popular car, improved the miles per gallon performance under normal driving conditions using a common grade of fuel, by over 200%. This increased efficiency was achieved from the pre-heating of the fuel and keeping it under low pressure imposed by suction applied to the carburettor for the purpose of maintaining the level of fuel during operation of the engine. This low pressure in the carburettor causes increased vaporisation of the fuel in the carburettor and raises the efficiency of operation.

This invention also has for its objects; to provide a carburettor which is positive in operation, convenient to use, easily installed in its working position, easily removed from the engine, economical to manufacture, of relatively simple design and of general superiority and serviceability.

The invention also comprises novel details of construction and novel combinations and arrangements of parts, which will appear more fully in the course of the following description and which is based on the accompanying drawings. However, the drawings and following description merely describes one embodiment of the present invention, and are only given as an illustration or example.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

In the drawings, all reference numbers apply to the same parts in each drawing.
**Fig. 1** is a partly broken plan view of a carburettor constructed in accordance with the present invention, shown with a fuel supply, feeding and return system.

**Fig. 2** is a vertical sectional view of the carburettor taken on the plane of line 2–2 in Fig. 1

**Fig. 3** is a partial side elevation and partial sectional view of the carburettor, showing additional structural details.

The carburettor is preferably mounted on the usual downdraft air tube 5 which receives a flow of air through the air filter. Tube 5 is provided with a throttle or butterfly valve which controls the flow and incorporates a flow-increasing venturi passage. These common features of the fuel feed to the engine intake manifold are not shown since these features are well known and they are also disclosed in my pending Patent application Serial No.
182,420 now abandoned. The present carburettor embodies improvements over the disclosure of the earlier application.

The present carburettor comprises a housing 6 mounted on air tube 5, and designed to hold a shallow pool of fuel 7, a fuel inlet 8 terminating in a spray nozzle 9, an exhaust gas manifold 10 to conduct heated exhaust gasses for discharge into the spray of fuel coming out of nozzle 9 and for heating the pool of fuel 7 underneath it. Means 11 to scrub the fuel-fumes mixture to eliminate large droplets of fuel from the mixture (the droplets fall into pool 7 underneath), a nozzle tube 12 to receive the scrubbed mixture and to pass the mixture under venturi action into air tube 5 where it is combined with air and made ready for injection into the intake manifold of the engine. Pickup pipe 13 is connected to an outlet 14 for drawing excess fuel from pool 7 during operation of the carburettor.

The system connected to the carburettor is shown in Fig.1, and comprises a fuel tank 15, a generally conventional fuel pump 16 for drawing fuel from the tank and directing it to inlet 8, a fuel filter 17, and a pump 18 connected in series between the fuel tank and outlet 14 to place pipe 13 under suction and to draw excess fuel from the carburettor back to tank 15 for re-circulation to inlet 8.

Carburettor housing 6 may be circular, as shown and quite flat compared to its diameter, so as to have a large flat bottom 20 which, with the cylindrical wall 21, holds the fuel pool 7. Cover 22 encloses the top of the housing. The bottom 20 and cover 22 have aligned central openings through which the downdraft tube 5 extends, this pipe forming the interior of the housing, creating an annular inner space 23.

The fuel inlet 8 is attached to cover 22 by a removable connection. Spray nozzle 9 extends through the cover. While the drawing shows spray-emitting holes 24 arranged to provide a spray around nozzle 7, the nozzle may be formed so that the spray is directional as desired to achieve the most efficient interengagement of the sprayed fuel with the heating gasses supplied by the manifold 10.

The manifold is shown as a pipe 25 which has and end 26 extending from the conventional heat riser chamber (not shown) of the engine, the arrow 27 indicating exhaust gas flow into pipe 25. The pipe may encircle the lower portion of the housing 6, to heat the pool of fuel 7 by transfer of heat through the wall of the housing. The manifold pipe is shown with a discharge end 28 which extends into the housing in an inward and upward direction towards nozzle 9 so that the exhaust gasses flowing in the pipe intermingle with the sprayed fuel and heat it as it leaves the nozzle.

The fuel-scrubbing means 11 is shown as a curved chamber 29 located inside housing 6, provided with a series of baffle walls 30 which cause the fumes-heated fuel mist to follow a winding path and intercept the heavier droplets of fuel which then run down the faces of the baffle walls, through openings 31 in the bottom wall 32 of scrubbing chamber 29 into the interior space 23 of housing 6 above the level of the fuel pool 7.

Pickup pipe 13 is also shown as carried by housing cover 22 and may be adjusted so that its lower open end is so spaced from the housing bottom 20 as to regulate the depth of pool 7, which is preferably below the bottom wall 32 of the scrubbing chamber 29. Since this pipe is subject to the suction of pump 18 through outlet 14 and filter 17, the level of pool 7 is maintained by excess fuel being returned to tank 15 by pump 16.

It will be seen that the surface of pool 7 is subject not only to the venturi action in tube 5, but also to the suction of pump 18 as it draws excess fuel back to fuel tank 15. Thus, the surface of the pool is under somewhat less than atmospheric pressure which increases the rate of vaporisation from the pool surface, the resulting vapour combining with the flow from the scrubbing chamber to the downdraft tube 5.

While this description has illustrated what is now contemplated to be the best mode of carrying out the invention, the construction is, of course, subject to modification without departing from the spirit and scope of the invention. Therefore, it is not desired to restrict the invention to the particular form of construction illustrated and described, but to cover all modifications which may fall within its scope.
The High MPG Carburettor of Oliver Tucker


CARBURETTOR

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA at the time but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

ABSTRACT
A carburettor including a housing having a fluid reservoir in the bottom, an air inlet at the top of the housing, a delivery pipe coaxially mounted within the housing and terminating short of the top of the housing, and a porous vaporising filter substantially filling the reservoir. A baffle is concentrically mounted within the housing and extends partially into the vaporising filter in the reservoir to deflect the incoming air through the filter. The level of liquid fuel in the reservoir is kept above the bottom of the baffle, so that air entering the carburettor through the inlet must pass through the liquid fuel and vaporising filter in the reservoir before discharge through the outlet. A secondary air inlet is provided in the top of the housing for controlling the fuel air ratio of the vaporised fuel passing into the delivery pipe.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
It is generally well known that liquid fuel must be vaporised in order to obtain complete combustion. Incomplete combustion of fuel in internal combustion engines is a major cause of atmospheric pollution. In a typical automotive carburettor, the liquid fuel is atomised and injected into the air stream in a manifold of approximately 3.14 square inches in cross-sectional area. In an eight cylinder 283 cubic inch engine running at approximately 2,400 rpm requires 340,000 cubic inches of air per minute. The air velocity in the intake manifold at this engine speed will be approximately 150 feet per second and it will therefore take approximately 0.07 seconds for a particle of fuel to move from the carburettor to the combustion chamber and the fuel will remain in the combustion chamber for approximately 0.0025 seconds.

It is conceivable that in this short period of time, complete vaporisation of the fuel is not achieved and as a consequence, incomplete combustion occurs, resulting in further air pollution. The liquid fuel particles if not vaporised, can deposit on the cylinder walls and dilute the lubricating oil film there, promoting partial burning of the lubricating oil and adding further to the pollution problem. Destruction of the film of lubricating oil by combustion can also increase mechanical wear of both cylinders and piston rings.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
The carburettor of this invention provides for the complete combustion of liquid fuel in an internal combustion engine, with a corresponding decrease of air pollutant in the exhaust gasses. This is achieved by supplying completely vaporised or dry gas to the combustion chamber. The primary air is initially filtered prior to passing through a vaporising filter which is immersed in liquid fuel drawn from a reservoir in the carburettor. The vaporising filter continuously breaks the primary air up into small bubbles thereby increasing the surface area available for evaporation of the liquid fuel. Secondary air is added to the enriched fuel-air mixture through a secondary air filter prior to admission of the fuel-air mixture into the combustion chambers of the engine. Initial filtration of both the primary and secondary air removes any foreign particles which may be present in the air, and which could cause increased wear within the engine. The carburettor also assures delivery of a clean dry gas to the engine due to the gravity separation of any liquid or dirt particles from the fuel-enriched primary air.

Other objects and advantages will become apparent from the following detailed description when read in conjunction with the accompanying drawing, in which the single figure shows a perspective cross-sectional view of the carburettor of this invention.
DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

The carburettor 40 disclosed here is adapted for use with an internal combustion engine where air is drawn through the carburettor to vaporise the fuel in the carburettor prior to its admission to the engine.

In this regard, the flow of liquid fuel, gas or oil, to the carburettor is controlled by means of a float valve assembly 10 connected to a source of liquid fuel by fuel line 12 and to the carburettor 40 by a connecting tube 14. The flow of liquid fuel through the float valve assembly 10 is controlled by a float 16, pivotally mounted within a float chamber 18 and operatively connected to a float valve 20.

In accordance with the invention, the liquid fuel admitted to the carburettor 40 through tube 14, is completely evaporated by the primary air for the engine within the carburettor and mixed with secondary air prior to admission into a delivery tube 100 which is connected to the manifold 102 of the engine. More specifically, carburettor 40 includes a cylindrical housing or pan 42, having a bottom wall 44 which forms a liquid fuel and filter reservoir 46. A vaporising filter 48 is positioned within reservoir 46 and extends upwards for a distance from the bottom wall 44 of the housing 42. The vaporising filter 48 is used to continuously break up the primary air into a large number of small bubbles as it passes through the liquid fuel in reservoir 46. This increases the surface area per volume of air available for evaporation of the liquid fuel, as described in more detail below. This filter 48 is formed of a three-dimensional skeletal material that is washable and is not subject to breakdown under the operating conditions inside the carburettor. A foamed cellular plastic polyurethane filter having approximately 10 to 20 pores per inch has been used successfully in the carburettor.

Housing 42 is closed at the top by a hood or cover 50 which can be secured in place by any appropriate means. The hood has a larger diameter than the diameter of housing 42 and includes a descending flange 52 and a descending baffle 54. Flange 52 is concentrically arranged and projects outwards for a distance from the bottom wall 44 of the housing 42. Baffle 54 is concentrically positioned inside housing 42 to form a primary air inlet 56. Baffle 54 is concentrically positioned inside housing 42 to create a primary air chamber 58 and a central mixing chamber 60.

Primary air is drawn into housing 42 through air inlet 56 and is filtered through primary air filter 62 which is removably mounted in the space between flange 52 and the outside of the wall of housing 42 by means of a screen 64. The primary air filter 62 can be made of the same filtering material as the vaporising filter 48.
As the primary air enters the primary air chamber 58 it is deflected through the liquid fuel in reservoir 46 by means of the cylindrical baffle 54. This baffle extends down from hood 50 far enough to penetrate the upper portion of the vaporising filter 48. The primary air must pass around the bottom of baffle 54 and through both the liquid fuel and the vaporising filter 48 prior to entering the mixing chamber 60.

The level of the liquid fuel in reservoir 46 is maintained above the bottom edge of baffle 54 by means of the float valve assembly 10. The operation of the float valve assembly 10 is well known. Float chamber 18 is located at approximately the same level as reservoir 46 and float 16 pivots in response to a drop in the level of the liquid fuel in the float chamber and opens the float valve 20.

One of the important features of the present invention is the efficiency of evaporation of the liquid fuel by the flow of the large number of bubbles through the reservoir. This is believed to be caused by the continual break up of the bubbles as they pass through the vaporising filter 48. It is well known that the rate of evaporation caused by a bubble of air passing unmolested through a liquid, is relatively slow due to the surface tension of the bubble. However, if the bubble is continuously broken, the surface tension of the bubble is reduced and a continual evaporating process occurs. This phenomenon is believed to be the cause of the high evaporation rate of the liquid fuel in the carburettor of this invention.

Another feature of the carburettor of this invention is its ability to supply dry gas to the central mixing chamber 60 in housing 42. Since the flow of primary air in the central mixing chamber 60 is vertically upwards, the force of gravity will prevent any droplets of liquid fuel from rising high enough in the carburettor to enter the delivery tube 100. The delivery of dry gas to the delivery tube increases the efficiency of combustion and thereby reduces the amount of unburnt gasses or pollutants which are exhausted into the air by the engine.

Means are provided for admitting secondary air into the central mixing chamber 60 to achieve the proper fuel-air ratio required for complete combustion. Such means is in the form of a secondary air filter assembly 80 mounted on an inlet tube 82 provided in opening 84 in hood 50. The secondary air filter assembly 80 includes an upper plate 86, a lower plate 88, and a secondary air filter 90 positioned between plates 86 and 88. The secondary air filter 90 is prevented from being drawn into inlet tube 82 by means of a cylindrical screen 92 which forms a continuation of tube 82. The secondary air passes through the outer periphery of the secondary air filter 90, through screen 92 and into tube 82. The flow of secondary air through tube 82 is controlled by means of a butterfly valve 94 as is generally understood in the art.

Complete mixing of the dry gas-enriched primary air with the incoming secondary air within housing 42, is achieved by means of deflector 96 positioned at the end of tube 82. Deflector 96 includes a number of vanes 98 which are twisted to provide an outwardly-deflected circular air flow into the central mixing chamber 60 and thereby creating an increase in the turbulence of the secondary air as it combines with the fuel-enriched primary air. The deflector prevents cavitation from occurring at the upper end of the outlet tube 100.

The flow of fuel-air mixture to the engine is controlled by means of a throttle valve 104 provided in the outlet or delivery tube 100. The operation of the throttle valve 104 and butterfly valve 94 are both controlled in a conventional manner.

THE OPERATION OF THE CARBURETTR

Primary air is drawn into housing 42 through primary air inlet 56 and passes upwards through primary air filter 62 where substantially all foreign particles are removed from the primary air. The filtered primary air then flows downwards through primary air chamber 58, under baffle 54, through fuel filter reservoir 46, and upwards into central mixing chamber 60. All of the primary air passes through the vaporising filter 48 provided in reservoir 46. The vaporising filter 48 continuously breaks the primary air stream into thousands of small bubbles, reducing surface tension and increasing the air surface available for evaporation of the liquid fuel. Since the outer surface of each bubble is being constantly broken up by the vaporising filter 48 and is in constant contact with the liquid fuel as the bubble passes through the vaporising filter 48, there is a greater opportunity for evaporation of the fuel prior to entering the central mixing chamber 60. The vertical upward flow of the fuel-enriched primary air in the central mixing chamber, ensures that no liquid fuel droplets will be carried into the delivery tube 100.

The fuel-enriched primary air is thoroughly mixed with the secondary air entering through tube 82 by means of the deflector system 96 which increases the turbulence of the primary and secondary air within the central mixing chamber and prevents cavitation from occurring in delivery tube 100. The completely mixed fuel-enriched primary air and the secondary air then pass through delivery tube 100 into the inlet manifold of the engine.
The High MPG Carburettor of Thomas Ogle


FUEL ECONOMY SYSTEM FOR AN INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE

This patent describes a carburettor design which was able to produce very high mpg figures using the gasoline available in the USA at the time but which is no longer available as the oil industry does not want functional high mpg carburettors to be available to the public.

ABSTRACT

A fuel economy system for an internal combustion engine which, when installed in a motor vehicle, overcomes the need for a conventional carburettor, fuel pump and fuel tank. The system operates by using the engine vacuum to draw fuel vapours from a vapour tank through a vapour conduit to a vapour equaliser which is positioned directly over the intake manifold of the engine. The vapour tank is constructed of heavy duty steel, or the like, to withstand the large vacuum pressure and includes an air inlet valve coupled for control to the accelerator pedal. The vapour equaliser ensures distribution of the correct mixture of air and vapour to the cylinders of the engine for combustion, and also includes its own air inlet valve coupled for control to the accelerator pedal. The system utilises vapour-retarding filters in the vapour conduit, vapour tank and vapour equaliser to deliver the correct vapour/air mixture for proper operation. The vapour tank and fuel contained in it, are heated by running the engine coolant through a conduit within the tank. Due to the extremely lean fuel mixtures used by the present invention, gas mileage in excess of one hundred miles per gallon may be achieved.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Field of the Invention

The present invention is related to internal combustion engines and, more particularly, is directed towards a fuel economy system for an internal combustion engine which, when applied to a motor vehicle, overcomes the need for conventional carburettors, fuel pumps and fuel tanks, and enables vastly improved fuel consumption to be achieved.

2. Description of the Prior Art

The prior art evidences many different approaches to the problem of increasing the efficiency of an internal combustion engine. Due to the rising price of fuel, and the popularity of motor vehicles as a mode of transportation, much of the effort in this area is generally directed towards improving fuel consumption for motor vehicles. Along with increased mileage, much work has been done with a view towards reducing pollutant emissions from motor vehicles.

I am aware of the following United States patents which are generally directed towards systems for improving the efficiency and/or reducing the pollutant emissions of internal combustion engines:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patent Number</th>
<th>Inventor(s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,530,882</td>
<td>Chapin</td>
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<tr>
<td>2,312,151</td>
<td>Crabtree et al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,001,519</td>
<td>Hietrich et al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,191,587</td>
<td>Hall</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,221,724</td>
<td>Wentworth</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,395,681</td>
<td>Walker</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,633,533</td>
<td>Holzappfel</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,713,429</td>
<td>Dwyre</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,716,040</td>
<td>Herpin</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,728,092</td>
<td>Gorman, Jr.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3,749,376</td>
<td>Alm et al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,752,134</td>
<td>Hollis, Jr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,759,234</td>
<td>Buckton et al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,817,233</td>
<td>Kihn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,851,633</td>
<td>Shih</td>
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</table>
The Chapin U.S. Pat. No. 1,530,882 discloses a fuel tank surrounded by a water jacket, the latter of which is included in a circulation system with the radiator of the automobile. The heated water in the circulation system causes the fuel in the fuel tank to readily vaporise. Suction from the inlet manifold causes air to be drawn into the tank to bubble air through the fuel to help form the desired vapour which is then drawn to the manifold for combustion.

The Buckton et al U.S. Pat. No. 3,759,234 advances a fuel system which provides supplementary vapours for an internal combustion engine by means of a canister that contains a bed of charcoal granules. The Wentworth and Hietrich et al U.S. Pat. Nos. 3,221,724 and 3,001,519 also teach vapour recovery systems which utilise filters of charcoal granules or the like.

The Dwyre U.S. Pat. No. 3,713,429 uses, in addition to the normal fuel tank and carburettor, an auxiliary tank having a chamber at the bottom which is designed to receive coolant from the engine cooling system for producing fuel vapours, while the Walker U.S. Pat. No. 3,395,681 discloses a fuel evaporator system which includes a fuel tank intended to replace the normal fuel tank, and which includes a fresh air conduit for drawing air into the tank.

The Fortino U.S. Pat. No. 4,011,847 teaches a fuel supply system wherein the fuel is vaporised primarily by atmospheric air which is released below the level of the fuel, while the Crabtree et al U.S. Pat. No. 2,312,151 teaches a vaporisation system which includes a gas and air inlet port located in a vaporising chamber and which includes a set of baffles for effecting a mixture of the air and vapour within the tank. The Mondt U.S. Pat. No. 3,888,223 also discloses an evaporative control canister for improving cold start operation and emissions, while Sommerville U.S. Pat. No. 4,015,570 teaches a liquid-fuel vaporiser which is intended to replace the conventional fuel pump and carburettor that is designed to mechanically change liquid fuel to a vapour state.

While the foregoing patents evidence a proliferation of attempts to increase the efficiency and/or reduce pollutant emissions from internal combustion engines, no practical system has yet found its way to the marketplace.

**OBJECTS AND SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

It is therefore a primary object of the present invention to provide a new and improved fuel economy system for an internal combustion engine which greatly improves the efficiency of the engine.

Another object of the present invention is to provide a unique fuel economy system for an internal combustion engine which provides a practical, operative and readily realisable means for dramatically increasing the gas mileage of conventional motor vehicles.

A further object of the present invention is to provide an improved fuel economy system for internal combustion engines which also reduces the pollutant emissions.

The foregoing and other objects are attained in accordance with one aspect of the present invention through the provision of a fuel vapour system for an internal combustion engine having an intake manifold, which comprises a tank for containing fuel vapour, a vapour equaliser mounted on and in fluid communication with the intake manifold of the engine, and a vapour conduit which connect the tank to the vapour equaliser for delivering fuel vapour from the former to the latter. The vapour equaliser includes a first valve connected to it for controlling the admission of air to the vapour equaliser, while the tank has a second valve connected to it for controlling the admission of air to the tank. A throttle controls the first and second valves so that the opening of the first valve precedes and exceeds the opening of the second valve during operation.
In accordance with other aspects of the present invention, a filter is positioned in the vapour conduit to retard the flow of fuel vapour from the tank to the vapour equaliser. In a preferred form, the filter comprises carbon particles and may include a sponge-like collection of, for example, neoprene fibres. In a preferred embodiment, the filter comprises a substantially tubular housing positioned in series in the vapour conduit, the housing containing a central portion comprising a mixture of carbon and neoprene, and end portions comprising carbon, positioned on each side of the central portion.

In accordance with another aspect of the present invention, a second filter is positioned in the vapour equaliser for again retarding the flow of the fuel vapour to the engine intake manifold. The second filter is positioned downstream of the first valve and in a preferred form, includes carbon particles mounted in a pair of recesses formed in a porous support member. The porous support member, which may comprise neoprene, includes a first recessed portion positioned opposite a vapour inlet port in the vapour equaliser to which the vapour conduit is connected, while a second recessed portion is positioned opposite the intake manifold of the engine.

In accordance with still other aspects of the present invention, a third filter is positioned in the tank for controlling the flow of fuel vapour into the vapour conduit in proportion to the degree of vacuum in the tank. The filter more particularly comprises a mechanism for reducing the amount of fuel vapour delivered to the vapour conduit when the engine is idling and when the engine has attained a steady speed. The throttle acts to close the second valve when the engine is idling and when the engine has attained a steady speed, to thereby increase the vacuum pressure in the tank. In a preferred form, the third filter comprises a frame pivotally mounted within the tank and movable between first and second operating positions. The first operating position corresponds to an open condition of the second valve, while the second operating position corresponds to a closed condition of the second valve. The tank includes a vapour outlet port to which one end of the vapour conduit is connected, such that the second operating position of the frame places the third filter in communication with the vapour outlet port.

More particularly, the third filter in a preferred form includes carbon particles sandwiched between two layers of a sponge-like filter material, which may comprise neoprene, and screens for supporting the layered composition within the pivotable frame. A conduit is positioned on the third filter for placing it in direct fluid communication with the vapour outlet port when the frame is in its second operating position.

In accordance with yet other aspects of the present invention, a conduit is connected between the valve cover of the engine and the vapour equaliser for directing the oil blow-by to the vapour equaliser in order to minimise valve clatter. The tank also preferably includes a copper conduit positioned in the bottom of it, which is connected in series with the cooling system of the motor vehicle, for heating the tank and generating more vapour. A beneficial by-product of the circulating system reduces the engine operating temperature to further improve operating efficiency.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

Various objects, features and attendant advantages of the present invention will be more fully appreciated as the same become better understood from the following detailed description of the present invention when considered in connection with the accompanying drawings, in which:
**Fig. 1** is a perspective view illustrating the various components which together comprise a preferred embodiment of the present invention as installed in a motor vehicle;

![Fig. 1 Diagram](image)

**Fig. 2** is a cross-sectional view of one of the components of the preferred embodiment illustrated in Fig. 1 taken along line 2--2.

![Fig. 2 Diagram](image)
Fig. 3 is a sectional view of the vapour tank illustrated in Fig. 2 taken along line 3--3.

Fig. 4 is an enlarged sectional view illustrating in greater detail one component of the vapour tank shown in Fig. 3 taken along line 4--4.
Fig. 5 is a perspective, partially sectional view illustrating a filter component of the vapour tank illustrated in Fig. 2.

Fig. 6 is a cross-sectional view of another component of the preferred embodiment of the present invention illustrated in Fig. 1 taken along line 6–6.
Fig. 7 is a partial side, partial sectional view of the vapour equaliser illustrated in Fig. 6 taken along line 7–7.

Fig. 8 is a side view illustrating the throttle linkage of the vapour equaliser shown in Fig. 7 taken along line 8–8.

Fig. 9 is a longitudinal sectional view of another filter component of the preferred embodiment illustrated in Fig. 1.

Fig. 10 is a view of another component of the present invention.
Fig. 11 is an exploded, perspective view which illustrates the main components of the filter portion of the vapour equaliser of the present invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

Referring now to the drawings, where parts are numbered the same in each drawing, and more particularly to Fig. 1 which illustrates a preferred embodiment of the present invention as installed in a motor vehicle.

The preferred embodiment includes as its main components a fuel vapour tank 10 in which the fuel vapour is stored and generated for subsequent delivery to the internal combustion engine 20. On the top of fuel vapour tank 10 is mounted an air inlet control valve 12 whose structure and operation will be described in greater detail below.

The internal combustion engine 20 includes a standard intake manifold 18. Mounted upon the intake manifold 18 is a vapour equaliser chamber 16. Connected between the fuel vapour tank 10 and the vapour equaliser chamber 16 is a vapour conduit or hose 14 for conducting the vapours from within tank 10 to the chamber 16.

Reference numeral 22 indicates generally an air inlet control valve which is mounted on the vapour equaliser chamber 16. Thus, the system is provided with two separate air inlet control valves 12 and 22 which are respectively coupled via cables 24 and 26 to the throttle control for the motor vehicle which may take the form of a standard accelerator pedal 28. The air inlet control valves 12 and 22 are synchronised in such a fashion that the opening of the air inlet control valve 22 of the vapour equaliser 16 always precedes and exceeds the opening of the air inlet control valve 12 of the fuel vapour tank 10, for reasons which will become more clear later.
The cooling system of the vehicle conventionally includes a radiator 30 for storing liquid coolant which is circulated through the engine 20 in the well-known fashion. A pair of hoses 32 and 34 are preferably coupled into the normal heater lines from the engine 20 so as to direct heated liquid coolant from the engine 20 to a warming coil 36, preferably constructed of copper, which is positioned within vapour tank 10. I have found that the water circulation system consisting of hoses 32, 34 and 36 serves three distinct functions. Firstly, it prevents the vapour tank from reaching the cold temperatures to which it would otherwise be subjected as a result of high vacuum pressure and air flow through it. Secondly, the heated coolant serves to enhance vaporisation of the fuel stored within tank 10 by raising its temperature. Thirdly, the liquid coolant, after leaving tank 10 via conduit 34, has been cooled to the point where engine 20 may then be run at substantially lower operating temperatures to further increase efficiency and prolong the life of the engine.

Included in series with vapour conduit 14 is a filter unit 38 which is designed to retard the flow of fuel vapour from the tank 10 to the vapour equaliser 16. The precise structure of the filter unit 38 will be described in greater detail below. A thrust adjustment valve 40 is positioned upstream of the filter unit 38 in conduit 14 and acts as a fine adjustment for the idling speed of the vehicle. Positioned on the other side of filter unit 38 in conduit 14 is a safety shut-off valve 42 which comprises a one-way valve. Starting the engine 20 will open the valve 42 to permit the engine vacuum pressure to be transmitted to tank 10, but, for example, a backfire will close the valve to prevent a possible explosion. The tank 10 may also be provided with a drain 44 positioned at the bottom of the tank.

Positioned on the side of the vapour equaliser chamber 16 is a primer connection 46 which may be controlled by a dash mounted primer control knob 48 connected to tank 10 via conduit 47. A conduit 50 extends from the oil breather cap opening 52 in a valve cover 54 of the engine 20 to the vapour equaliser 16 to feed the oil blow-by to the engine as a means for eliminating valve clatter. This is believed necessary due to the extreme lean mixture of fuel vapour and air fed to the combustion cylinders of the engine 20 in accordance with the present invention.

Referring now to Fig.2 and Fig.3, the fuel vapour tank 10 of the present invention is illustrated in greater detail in orthogonal sectional views and is seen to include a pair of side walls 56 and 58 which are preferably comprised of heavy duty steel plate (e.g. 1/2" thick) in order to withstand the high vacuum pressures developed inside it. Tank 10 further comprises top wall 60 and bottom wall 62, and front and rear walls 64 and 66, respectively.

In the front wall 64 of tank 10 is positioned a coupling 68 for mating with the internal copper conduit 36. Tank 10 is also provided with a pair of vertically oriented planar support plates 70 and 72 which are positioned somewhat inside the side walls 56 and 58 and are substantially parallel to them. Support plates 70 and 72 lend structural integrity to the tank 10 and are also provided with a plurality of openings 74 (Fig.2) at the bottom of them to permit fluid communication through it. The bottom of tank 10 is generally filled with from one to five gallons of fuel, and the walls of tank 10 along with plates 70 and 72 define three tank chambers 76, 78 and 80 which are, by virtue of openings 74, in fluid communication with one another.

In the top wall 60 of tank 10 is formed an opening 82 for placing one end of vapour conduit 14 in fluid communication with the interior chamber 76 of tank 10. A second opening 84 is positioned in the top wall 60 of tank 10 over which the air inlet control valve 12 is positioned. The valve assembly 12 comprises a pair of conventional butterfly valves 86 and 88 which are coupled via a control rod 90 to a control arm 92. Control arm 92 is, in turn, pivoted under the control of a cable 24 and is movable between a solid line position indicated in Fig.2 by reference numeral 92 and a dotted line position indicated in Fig.2 by reference numeral 92'.

Rod 90 and valves 86 and 88 are journaled in a housing 94 having a base plate 96 which is mounted on a cover 98. As seen in Fig.1, the base plate 96 includes several small air intake ports or apertures 100 formed on both sides of the butterfly valves 86 and 88, which are utilised for a purpose to become more clear later on.

Rod 90 is also journaled in a flange 102 which is mounted to cover 98, while a return spring 104 for control arm 92 is journaled to cover 98 via flange 106.

Extending through the baffle and support plates 70 and 72 from the side chambers 78 and 80 of tank 10 to be in fluid communication with apertures 100 are a pair of air conduits 108 and 110 each having a reed valve 112 and 114 positioned at the ends, for controlling air and vapour flow through it. The reed valves 112 and 114 cooperate with the small apertures 100 formed in the base plate 96 to provide the proper amount of air into the tank 10 while the engine is idling and the butterfly valves 86 and 88 are closed.

Mounted to the front wall 64 of tank 10 is a pivot support member 132 for pivotally receiving a filter element which is indicated generally by reference numeral 134 and is illustrated in a perspective, partially cut away view in Fig.5. The unique, pivotable filter element 134 comprises a frame member 136 having a pin-receiving stub 138 extending along one side member of it. The actual filter material contained within the frame 136 comprises a layer of carbon particles 148 which is sandwiched between a pair of layers of sponge-like filter material which
may, for example, be made of neoprene. The neoprene layers 144 and 146 and carbon particles 148 are maintained in place by top and bottom screens 140 and 142 which extend within, and are secured by, frame member 136. A thick-walled rubber hose 150 having a central annulus 151 is secured to the top of screen 140 so as to mate with opening 82 of top wall 60 (see Fig.2) when the filter assembly 134 is in its solid line operative position illustrated in Fig.2. In the latter position, it may be appreciated that the vapour conduit 14 draws vapour fumes directly from the filter element 134, rather than from the interior portion 76 of tank 10. In contradistinction, when the filter element 134 is in its alternate operative position, indicated by dotted lines in Fig.2, the vapour conduit 14 draws fumes mainly from the interior portions 76, 78 and 80 of tank 10.

Fig.4 is an enlarged view of one of the reed valve assemblies 114 which illustrates the manner in which the valve opens and closes in response to the particular vacuum pressure created within the tank 10. Valves 112 and 114 are designed to admit just enough air to the tank 10 from the apertures 100 at engine idle to prevent the engine from stalling.

Referring now to Fig.6, Fig.7 and Fig.8, the vapour equaliser chamber 16 of the present invention is seen to include front and rear walls 152 and 154, respectively, a top wall 156, a side wall 158, and another side wall 160. The vapour equaliser chamber 16 is secured to the manifold 18 as by a plurality of bolts 162 under which may be positioned a conventional gasket 164.

In the top wall 156 of the vapour equaliser 16 is formed an opening 166 for communicating the outlet end of vapour conduit 14 with a mixing and equalising chamber 168. Adjacent to the mixing and equalising chamber 168 in wall 154 is formed another opening 170 which communicates with the outside air via opening 178 formed in the upper portion of housing 176. The amount of air admitted through openings 178 and 170 is controlled by a conventional butterfly valve 172. Butterfly valve 172 is rotated by a control rod 180 which, in turn, is coupled to a control arm 182. Cable 26 is connected to the end of control arm 182 furthest from the centreline and acts against the return bias of spring 184, the latter of which is journaled to side plate 152 of vapour equaliser 16 via an upstanding flange 188. Reference numeral 186 indicates generally a butterfly valve operating linkage, as illustrated more clearly in Fig.8, and which is of conventional design as may be appreciated by a person skilled in the art.

Positioned below mixing and equalising chamber 168 is a filter unit which is indicated generally by reference numeral 188. The filter unit 188, which is illustrated in an exploded view in Fig.11, comprises a top plastic fluted cover 190 and a bottom plastic fluted cover 192. Positioned adjacent to the top and bottom covers 190 and 192 is a pair of screen mesh elements 194 and 196, respectively. Positioned between the screen mesh elements 194 and 196 is a support member 198 which is preferably formed of a sponge-like filter material, such as, for example, neoprene. The support member 199 has formed on its upper and lower surfaces, a pair of receptacles 200 and 202, whose diameters are sized similarly to the opening 166 in top plate 156 and the openings formed in the intake manifold 18 which are respectively indicated by reference numerals 210 and 212 in Fig.6.

Positioned in receptacles 200 and 202 are carbon particles 204 and 206, respectively, for vapour retardation and control purposes.

Referring now to Fig.9, the filter unit 38 mounted in vapour conduit 14 is illustrated in a longitudinal sectional view and is seen to comprise an outer flexible cylindrical hose 214 which is adapted to connect with hose 14 at both ends by a pair of adapter elements 216 and 218. Contained within the outer flexible hose 214 is a cylindrical container 220, preferably of plastic, which houses, in its centre, a mixture of carbon and neoprene filter fibres 222. At both ends of the mixture 222 are deposited carbon particles 224 and 226, while the entire filtering unit is held within the container 220 by end screens 228 and 230 which permit passage of vapours through it while holding the carbon particles 224 and 226 in place.

Fig.10 illustrates one form of the thrust adjustment valve 40 which is placed within line 14. This valve simply controls the amount of fluid which can pass through conduit 14 via a rotating valve member 41.

In operation, the thrust adjustment valve 40 is initially adjusted to achieve as smooth an idle as possible for the particular motor vehicle in which the system is installed. The emergency shut-off valve 42, which is closed when the engine is off, generally traps enough vapour between it and the vapour equaliser 16 to start the engine 20. Initially, the rear intake valves 12 on the tank 10 are fully closed, while the air intake valves 22 on the equaliser 16 are open to admit a charge of air to the vapour equaliser prior to the vapour from the tank, thus forcing the pre-existing vapour in the vapour equaliser into the manifold. The small apertures 100 formed in base plate 96 on tank 10 admit just enough air to actuate the reed valves to permit sufficient vapour and air to be drawn through vapour conduit 14 and equaliser 16 to the engine 20 to provide smooth idling. The front air valves 22 are always set ahead of the rear air valves 12 and the linkages 24 and 26 are coupled to throttle pedal 28 such that the degree of opening of front valves 22 always exceeds the degree of opening of the rear valves 12.
Upon initial starting of the engine 20, due to the closed condition of rear valves 12, a high vacuum pressure is created within tank 10 which causes the filter assembly 134 positioned in tank 10 to rise to its operative position indicated by solid outline in Fig.2. In this manner, a relatively small amount of vapour will be drawn directly from filter 134 through vapour conduit 14 to the engine to permit the latter to run on an extremely lean mixture.

Upon initial acceleration, the front air intake valve 22 will open further, while the rear butterfly assembly 12 will begin to open. The latter action will reduce the vacuum pressure within tank 10 whereby the filter assembly 134 will be lowered to its alternate operating position illustrated in dotted outline in Fig.2. In this position, the lower end of the filter assembly 134 may actually rest in the liquid fuel contained within the tank 10. Accordingly, upon acceleration, the filter assembly 134 is moved out of direct fluid communication with the opening 82 such that the vapour conduit 14 then draws fuel vapour and air from the entire tank 10 to provide a richer combustion mixture to the engine, which is necessary during acceleration.

When the motor vehicle attains a steady speed, and the operator eases off the accelerator pedal 28, the rear butterfly valve assembly 12 closes, but the front air intake 22 remains open to a certain degree. The closing of the rear air intake 12 increases the vacuum pressure within tank 10 to the point where the filter assembly 134 is drawn up to its initial operating position. As illustrated, in this position, the opening 82 is in substantial alignment with the aperture 151 of hose 150 to place the filter unit 134 in direct fluid communication with the vapour conduit 14, thereby lessening the amount of vapour and air mixture fed to the engine. Any vapour fed through conduit 14 while the filter 134 is at this position is believed to be drawn directly off the filter unit itself.

I have been able to obtain extremely high mpg figures with the system of the present invention installed on a V-8 engine of a conventional 1971 American-made car. In fact, mileage rates in excess of one hundred miles per US gallon have been achieved with the present invention. The present invention eliminates the need for conventional fuel pumps, carburettors, and fuel tanks, thereby more than offsetting whatever the components of the present invention might otherwise add to the cost of a car. The system may be constructed with readily available components and technology, and may be supplied in kit form as well as original equipment.

Obviously, numerous modifications and variations of the present invention are possible in light of the above teachings. For example, although described in connection with the operation of a motor vehicle, the present invention may be universally applied to any four-stroke engine for which its operation depends upon the internal combustion of fossil fuels. Therefore, it is to be understood that within the scope of the appended claims the invention may be practiced otherwise than as specifically described here.
MOTOR HAVING RECIPROCATING AND ROTATING PERMANENT MAGNETS

This patent describes a motor powered mainly by permanent magnets. This system uses a rocking frame to position the moving magnets so that they provide a continuous turning force on the output shaft.

ABSTRACT
A motor which has a rotor supported for rotation about an axis, and at least one pair of rotor magnets spaced angularity about the axis and supported on the rotor, at least one reciprocating magnet, and an actuator for moving the reciprocating magnet cyclically toward and away from the pair of rotor magnets, and consequently rotating the rotor magnets relative to the reciprocating magnet.

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BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to the field of motors. More particularly, it pertains to a motor whose rotor is driven by the mutual attraction and repulsion of permanent magnets located on the rotor and an oscillator.

Various kinds of motors are used to drive a load. For example, hydraulic and pneumatic motors use the flow of pressurised liquid and gas, respectively, to drive a rotor connected to a load. Such motors must be continually supplied with pressurised fluid from a pump driven by energy converted to rotating power by a prime mover, such as an internal combustion engine. The several energy conversion processes, flow losses and pumping losses decrease the operating efficiency of motor systems of this type.

Conventional electric motors employ the force applied to a current carrying conductor placed in a magnetic field. In a d. c. motor the magnetic field is provided either by permanent magnets or by field coils wrapped around clearly defined field poles on a stator. The conductors on which the force is developed are located on a rotor and supplied with electric current. The force induced in the coil is used to apply rotor torque, whose magnitude varies...
with the magnitude of the current and strength of the magnetic field. However, flux leakage, air gaps, temperature effects, and the counter-electromotive force reduce the efficiency of the motor.

Permanent dipole magnets have a magnetic north pole, a magnetic south pole, and magnetic fields surrounding each pole. Each magnetic pole attracts a pole of opposite magnetic polarity. Two magnetic poles of the same polarity repel each other. It is desired that a motor be developed such that its rotor is driven by the mutual attraction and repulsion of the poles of permanent magnets.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

A motor according to the present invention includes a rotor supported for rotation about an axis, a first pair of rotor magnets including first and second rotor magnets spaced angularly about the axis and supported on the rotor, a reciprocating magnet, and an actuator for moving the reciprocating magnet cyclically toward and away from the first pair of rotor magnets, and cyclically rotating the first pair of rotor magnets relative to the reciprocating magnet. Preferably the motor includes a second pair of rotor magnets supported on the rotor, spaced axially from the first pair of rotor magnets, the second pair including a third rotor magnet and a fourth rotor magnet spaced angularly about the axis from the third rotor magnet. The reciprocating magnet is located axially between the first and second rotor magnet pairs, and the actuator cyclically moves the reciprocating magnet toward and away from the first and second pairs of rotor magnets.

The magnets are preferably permanent dipole magnets. The poles of the reciprocating magnet are arranged such that they face in opposite lateral directions.

The motor can be started by manually rotating the rotor about its axis. Rotation continues by using the actuator to move the reciprocating magnet toward the first rotor magnet pair and away from the second rotor magnet pair when rotor rotation brings the reference pole of the first rotor magnet closer to the opposite pole of the reciprocating magnet, and the opposite pole of the second rotor magnet closer to the reference pole of the reciprocating magnet. Then the actuator moves the reciprocating magnet toward the second rotor magnet pair and away from the first rotor magnet pair when rotor rotation brings the reference pole of the third rotor magnet closer to the opposite pole of the reciprocating magnet, and the opposite pole of the fourth rotor magnet closer to the reference pole of the reciprocating magnet.

A motor according to this invention requires no power source to energise a field coil because the magnetic fields of the rotor and oscillator are produced by permanent magnets. A nine-volt DC battery has been applied to an actuator switching mechanism to alternate the polarity of a solenoid at the rotor frequency. The solenoid is suspended over a permanent magnet of the actuator mechanism such that rotor rotation and the alternating polarity of a solenoid causes the actuator to oscillate the reciprocating magnet at a frequency and phase relation that is most efficient relative to the rotor rotation.

The motor is lightweight and portable, and requires only a commercially available portable d. c. battery to power an actuator for the oscillator. No motor drive electronics is required. Operation of the motor is practically silent.

Various objects and advantages of this invention will become apparent to those skilled in the art from the following detailed description of the preferred embodiment, when read in light of the accompanying drawings.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

These and other advantages of the present invention will become apparent to those skilled in the art from the following detailed description of a preferred embodiment when considered in the light of the accompanying drawings in which:
Fig. 1A is a side view of a motor according to this invention;
Fig. 1B is a perspective view of the motor of Fig. 1A.
**Figure 2**

Fig. 2 is a top view of the motor of Fig. 1A and Fig. 1B showing the rotor magnets disposed horizontally and the reciprocating magnets located near one end of their range of travel.

**Figure 3**
Fig. 3 is a top view of the motor of Fig. 2 showing the rotor magnets rotated one-half revolution from the position shown in Fig. 2, and the reciprocating magnets located near the opposite end of their range of travel.

Fig. 4 is a schematic diagram of a first state of the actuator switching assembly of the motor of Fig. 1.
**Figure 5**

Fig. 5 is a schematic diagram of a second state of the actuator switching assembly of the motor of Fig. 1.

**Figure 6**

Fig. 6 is cross-sectional view of a sleeve shaft aligned with the rotor shaft showing a contact finger and bridge contact plates of the switching assembly.
Fig. 7 is an isometric view showing the switching contact fingers secured on pivoting arms and seated on the bridge connectors of the switching assembly.
Fig. 8 is isometric cross sectional view showing a driver that includes a solenoid and permanent magnet for oscillating the actuator arm in response to rotation of the rotor shaft.

Fig. 9 is a top view of an alternate arrangement of the rotor magnets, wherein they are disposed horizontally and rotated ninety degrees from the position shown in Fig. 2, and the reciprocating magnets are located near an end of their range of displacement.
Fig. 10 is a top view showing the rotor magnet arrangement of Fig. 9 rotated one-half revolution from the position shown in Fig. 9, and the reciprocating magnets located near the opposite end of their range of displacement; and
Fig. 11 is a top view of the motor showing a third arrangement of the rotor magnets, which are canted with respect to the axis and the reciprocating magnets.

Fig. 12 is a graph showing the angular displacement of the rotor shaft 10 and linear displacement of the reciprocating magnets.
**Figure 13**

Fig.13 is a top view of a pair of rotor magnets disposed horizontally and reciprocating magnets located near one end of their range of travel.

**Figure 14**

Fig.14 is a top view of the motor of Fig.13 showing the rotor magnets rotated one-half revolution from the position shown in Fig.13, and the reciprocating magnets located near the opposite end of their range of travel; and
Fig. 15 is a perspective cross sectional view of yet another embodiment of the motor according to this invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

A motor according to this invention, illustrated in Fig.1A and Fig.1B includes a rotor shaft 10 supported for rotation about axis 11 on bearings 12 and 14 located on vertical supports 16 and 18 of a frame. An oscillator mechanism includes oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 pivotally supported on bearings 26, 28 and 30 respectively, secured to a horizontal support 32, which is secured at each axial end to the vertical supports 16 and 18. The oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 are formed with through holes 15 aligned with the axis 11 of rotor shaft 10, the holes permitting rotation of the rotor shaft and pivoting oscillation of arms without producing interference between the rotor and the arms.
Extending in opposite diametric directions from the rotor axis 11 and secured to the rotor shaft 10 are four plates 33, axially spaced mutually along the rotor axis, each plate supporting permanent magnets secured to the plate and rotating with the rotor shaft.

Each pivoting oscillator arm 20, 22 and 24 of the oscillator mechanism support permanent magnets located between the magnets of the rotor shaft. Helical coiled compression return springs 34 and 35 apply oppositely directed forces to oscillator arms 20 and 24 as they pivot about their respective pivotal supports 26 and 30, respectively. From the point of view of Fig.1A and Fig.1B, when spring 34 is compressed by displacement of the oscillator arm, the spring applies a force to the right to oscillator arm 20 which tends to return it to its neutral, starting position. When spring 35 is compressed by displacement of arm 24, the spring applies a force to the left to arm 24 tending to return it to its neutral, starting position.

The oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 oscillate about their supported bearings 26, 28 and 30, as they move in response to an actuator 36, which includes an actuator arm 38, secured through bearings at 39, 40 and 41 to the oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24, respectively. Actuator 36 causes actuator arm 38 to reciprocate linearly leftwards and rightwards from the position shown in Fig.1A and Fig.1B. The bearings 39, 40 and 41, allow the oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 to pivot and the strut to translate without mutual interference. Pairs of guide wheels 37a and 37b spaced along actuator arm 38, each include a wheel located on an opposite side of actuator arm 38 from another wheel of the wheel-pair, for guiding linear movement of the strut and maintaining the oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 substantially in a vertical plane as they oscillate. Alternatively, the oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 may be replaced by a mechanism that allows the magnets on the oscillator arms to reciprocate linearly with actuator arm 38 instead of pivoting above the rotor shaft 10 at 26, 28 and 30.

Fig.2 shows a first arrangement of the permanent rotor magnets 42 – 49 that rotate about axis 11 and are secured to the rotor shaft 10, and the permanent reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 which move along axis 11 and are secured to the oscillating arms 20, 22 and 24. Each magnet has a pole of reference polarity and a pole of opposite polarity from that of the reference polarity. For example, rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48, located on one side of axis 11, each have a north, positive or reference pole 54 facing actuator 36 and a south, negative or opposite pole 56 facing away from the actuator. Similarly, rotation magnets 43, 45, 47 and 49, located diametrically opposite to rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48, each have a south pole facing toward actuator 36 and a north pole facing away from the actuator. The north poles 54 of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 face to the right from the point of view seen in Fig.2 and Fig.3 and their south poles 56 face towards the left.
**Figure 4**

Fig. 4 shows a switch assembly located in the region of the left-hand end of rotor shaft 10. A cylinder, 58, preferably formed of PVC, is secured to rotor shaft 10. Cylinder 58 has contact plates 59 and 60, preferably of brass, located on its outer surface, aligned angularly, and extending approximately 180 degrees about the axis 11, as shown in Fig. 5. Cylinder 58 has contact plates 61 and 62, preferably made of brass, located on its outer surface, aligned angularly, extending approximately 180 degrees about the axis 11, and offset axially with respect to contact plates 59 and 60.

A D.C. power supply 64, has its positive and negative terminals connected electrically through contact fingers 66 and 68, to contact plates 61 and 62, respectively. A third contact finger 70, shown contacting plate 61, connects terminal 72 of a solenoid 74 electrically to the positive terminal of the power supply 64 through contact finger 66 and contact plate 61. A fourth contact finger 76, shown contacting plate 62, connects terminal 78 of solenoid 74 electrically to the negative terminal of the power supply 64 through contact finger 68 and contact plate 62. A fifth contact finger 80, axially aligned with contact plate 59 and offset axially from contact plate 61, is also connected to terminal 78 of solenoid 74.

Preferably the D.C. power supply 64 is a nine volt battery, or a D.C. power adaptor, whose input may be a conventional 120 volt, 60 Hz power source. The D.C. power supply and switching mechanism described with reference to Figs. 4 to 7, may be replaced by an A.C. power source connected directly across the terminals 72 and 78 of solenoid 74. As the input current cycles, the polarity of solenoid 74 alternates, the actuator arm 38 moves relative to a toroidal permanent magnet 90 (shown in Fig. 8), and the reciprocating magnets 50–52 reciprocate on the oscillating arms 20, 22 and 24 which are driven by the actuator arm 38.
Fig. 5 shows the state of the switch assembly when rotor shaft 10 has rotated approximately 180 degrees from the position shown in Fig. 4. When the switch assembly is in the state shown in Fig. 5, D.C. power supply 64 has its positive and negative terminals connected electrically by contact fingers 66 and 68 to contact plates 59 and 60, respectively. Contact finger 70, shown contacting plate 60, connects terminal 72 of solenoid 74 electrically to the negative terminal of the power supply 64 through contact finger 68 and contact plate 60. Contact finger 80, shown contacting plate 59, connects terminal 78 of solenoid 74 electrically to the positive terminal through contact finger 66 and contact plate 59. Contact finger 76, axially aligned with contact plate 62 and offset axially from contact plate 60, remains connected to terminal 78 of solenoid 74. In this way, the polarity of the solenoid 74 changes cyclically as the rotor 10 rotates through each one-half revolution.

Fig. 6 shows in cross-section, the cylinder 58 which is aligned with and driven by the rotor shaft 10, a contact finger 70, and the contact plates 59 – 62 of the switching assembly, which rotate with the rotor shaft and cylinder about the axis 11.

As Fig. 7 illustrates, axially spaced arms 82 are supported on a stub shaft 71, preferably made of Teflon or another self-lubricating material, to facilitate the pivoting of the arms about the axis of the shaft 71. Each contact finger 66, 68, 70, 76 and 80 is located at the end of a arm 82, and tension springs 84, secured to each arm 82, urge the contact fingers 66, 68, 70, 76 and 80 continually toward engagement with the contact plates 59 – 62.
Fig. 8 illustrates the actuator 36 for reciprocating the actuator arm 38 in response to rotation of the rotor shaft 10 and the alternating polarity of the solenoid 74. The actuator 36 includes the solenoid 74, the toroidal permanent magnet 90, an elastic flexible spider 92 for supporting the solenoid above the plane of the magnet, and a basket or frame 94, to which the spider is secured. The actuator arm 38 is secured to solenoid 74. The polarity of the solenoid 74 changes as rotor shaft 10 rotates, causing the solenoid and actuator arm 38 to reciprocate due to the alternating polarity of the solenoid relative to that of the toroidal permanent magnet 90. As the solenoid polarity changes, the actuator arm 38 reciprocates linearly due to the alternating forces of attraction and repulsion of the solenoid 74 relative to the poles of the magnet 90. The actuator arm 38 is secured to the oscillator arms 20, 22 and 24 causing them to pivot, and the reciprocating magnets 50–52, secured to the oscillator arms, to reciprocate. Alternatively, the reciprocating magnets 50–52 can be secured directly to the arm 38, so that the magnets 50–52 reciprocate without need for an intermediary oscillating component.

It is important to note at this point in the description that, when two magnets approach each other with their poles of like polarity facing each other but slightly offset, there is a tendency for the magnets to rotate to the opposite pole of the other magnet. Therefore, in the preferred embodiment of the instant invention, the angular position at which the switch assembly of the actuator 36 changes between the states of Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 is slightly out of phase with the angular position of the rotor shaft 10 to help sling or propel the actuator arm 38 in the reverse direction at the preferred position of the rotor shaft. The optimum phase offset is approximately 5–8 degrees. This way, advantage is taken of each rotor magnet's tendency to rotate about its own magnetic field when slightly offset from the respective reciprocating magnet, and the repulsive force between like poles of the reciprocating magnets and the rotor magnets is optimised to propel the rotor magnet about the rotor axis 11, thereby increasing the motor's overall efficiency.

Fig. 12 is a graph showing the angular displacement 96 of the rotor shaft 10 and linear displacement 98 of the reciprocating magnets 50–52. Point 100 represents the end of the range of displacement of the reciprocating magnets 50–52 shown in FIGS. 2 and 9, and point 102 represents the opposite end of the range of displacement of the reciprocating magnets 50–52 shown in FIGS. 3 and 10. Point 104 represents the angular position of the
rotor magnets 42 – 49 when in the horizontal plane shown in FIGS. 2 and 9, and point 106 represents the angular position of the rotor magnets 42 – 49 when rotated one-half rotation to the horizontal plane shown in Fig.3 and Fig.10. Preferably, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 and rotor magnets 42 – 49 are out of phase: the reciprocating magnets lead and the rotor magnets lag by several degrees. The reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 reach the respective extremities of their range of travel before rotor rotation moves the rotor magnets 42 – 49 into the horizontal plane.

When the reference poles 54 and opposite poles 56 of the rotor magnets 42 – 49 and reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are arranged as shown in Fig.2 and Fig.3, the rotor position is stable when the rotor magnets are in a horizontal plane. The rotor position is unstable in any other angular position, and it moves towards horizontal stability from any unstable position, and is least stable when the rotor magnets 42 – 49 are in a vertical plane. The degree of stability of the rotor shaft 10 is a consequence of the mutual attraction and repulsion of the poles of the rotor magnets 42 – 49 and reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 and the relative proximity among the poles. In Fig.2, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located at a first extremity of travel. In Fig.3, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 have reciprocated to the opposite extremity of travel, and the rotor magnets have rotated one-half revolution from the position shown in Fig.2.

When the rotor is stopped, its rotation can be easily started manually by applying torque in either direction. Actuator 36 sustains rotor rotation after it is connecting to its power source. Rotation of rotor shaft 10 about axis 11 is aided by cyclic movement of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52, their axial location between the rotor magnet pairs 42 – 43 , 44 – 45 , 46 – 47 and 48 – 49, the disposition of their poles in relation to the poles of the rotor magnets, and the frequency and phase relationship of their reciprocation relative to rotation of the rotor magnets. Actuator 36 maintains the rotor 10 rotating and actuator arm 38 oscillating at the same frequency, the phase relationship being as described with reference to Fig.12.

With the rotor magnets 42 and 49 as shown in Fig.2, when viewed from above, the north poles 54 of the rotor magnets on the left-hand side of axis 11 face a first axial direction 110, i.e., toward the actuator 36, and the north poles 54 of the rotor magnets on the right-hand side of axis 11 face in the opposite axial direction 112, away from actuator 36. When the rotor magnets 42 – 49 are located as in Fig.2, the north poles 54 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are adjacent the south poles 56 of rotor magnets 45, 47 and 49 , and the south poles 56 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are adjacent the north poles 54 of rotor magnets 44, 46 and 48.

Furthermore, when the rotor shaft 10 rotates to the position shown in Fig.2, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located at, or near, one extremity of their axial travel, so that the north poles 54 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located close to the south poles 56 of rotor magnets 45, 47 and 49, respectively, and relatively more distant from the north poles 54 of rotor magnets 43, 45 and 47, respectively. Similarly, the south poles 56 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located close to the north poles of rotor magnet 44, 46 and 48, respectively, and relatively more distant from the south poles of rotor magnets 42, 44 and 46, respectively.

With the rotor magnets 42 and 49 rotated into a horizontal plane one-half revolution from the position of Fig.1B, when viewed from above as shown in Fig.3, the north poles 54 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located adjacent the south poles of rotor magnets 42, 44 and 46, and the south poles 56 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located adjacent the north poles 54 of rotor magnets 43, 45 and 47, respectively. When the rotor 10 shaft is located as shown in Fig.3, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located at or near the opposite extremity of their
axial travel from that of Fig. 2, such that the north poles 54 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located close to the south poles 56 of rotor magnet 42, 44 and 46, respectively, and relatively more distant from the north poles of rotor magnets 44, 46 and 48, respectively. Similarly, when the rotor shaft 10 is located as shown in FIG. 3, the south poles 56 of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located close to the north poles of rotor magnet 43, 45 and 47, respectively, and relatively more distant from the south poles of rotor magnets 45, 47 and 49, respectively.

In operation, rotation of rotor shaft 10 in either angular direction is started manually or with a starter-actuator (not shown). Actuator 36 causes reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 to oscillate or reciprocate at the same frequency as the rotational frequency of the rotor shaft 10, i.e. one cycle of reciprocation per cycle of rotation, preferably with the phase relationship illustrated in Fig. 12. When the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are located as shown in Fig. 2, the rotor shaft 10 will have completed about one-half revolution from the position of Fig. 3 to the position of Fig. 2.

Rotation of the rotor 10 is aided by mutual attraction between the north poles 54 of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 and the south poles 56 of the rotor magnets 43, 45, 47 and 49 that are then closest respectively to those north poles of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52, and mutual attraction between the south poles of reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 and the north poles of the rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48 that are then closest respectively to the north poles of the reciprocating magnets.

Assume rotor shaft 10 is rotating counterclockwise when viewed from the actuator 36, and the rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48 are located above rotor magnets 43, 45, 47 and 49. With the rotor shaft 10 positioned so that the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 are approximately mid-way between the positions shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 and moving toward the position shown in Fig. 2, as rotation proceeds, the south pole of each reciprocating magnet 50 – 52 attracts downwards the north pole of the closest rotor magnet 44, 46 and 48, and the north pole 54 of each reciprocating magnet 50 – 52 attracts upwards the south pole 56 of the closest rotor magnet 45, 47 and 49. This mutual attraction of the poles causes the rotor to continue rotating counterclockwise to the position of Fig. 2.

Then the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 begin to move toward the position shown in Fig. 3, and rotor inertia overcomes the steadily decreasing force of attraction between the poles as they move mutually apart, permitting the rotor shaft 10 to continue its counterclockwise rotation into the vertical plane where rotor magnets 43, 45, 47 and 49 are located above rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48. As rotor shaft 10 rotates past the vertical plane, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 continue to move toward the position of Fig. 3, the south pole 56 of each reciprocating magnet 50 – 52 attracts downwards the north pole of the closest rotor magnet 43, 45 and 47, and the north pole 54 of each reciprocating magnet 50 – 52 attracts upward the south pole 56 of the closest rotor magnet 42, 44 and 46, causing the rotor 10 to rotate counterclockwise to the position of Fig. 3. Rotor inertia maintains the counterclockwise rotation, the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 begin to move toward the position shown in Fig. 2, and the rotor shaft 10 returns to the vertical plane where rotor magnets 43, 45, 47 and 49 are located above rotor magnets 42, 44, 46 and 48, thereby completing one full revolution.
**Fig.9** and **Fig.10** show a second arrangement of the motor in which the poles of the rotor magnets 142 – 149 are parallel to, and face the same direction as those of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52. Operation of the motor arranged as shown in **Fig.9** and **Fig.10** is identical to the operation described with reference to **Fig.2** and **Fig.3**. In the embodiment of **Fig.9** and **Fig.10**, the poles of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52 face more directly the poles of the rotor magnets 142 – 149 in the arrangement of **Fig.2** and **Fig.3**. The forces of attraction and repulsion between the poles are greater in the embodiment of **Fig.9** and **Fig.10**, therefore, greater torque is developed. The magnitude of torque is a function of the magnitude of the magnetic forces, and the distance through which those force operate.

**Fig.11** shows a third embodiment of the motor in which the radial outer portion of the rotor plates 33’ are skewed relative to the axis 11 such that the poles of the rotor magnets 42 – 49 are canted relative to the poles of the reciprocating magnets 50 – 52. Operation of the motor arranged as shown in **Fig.11** is identical to the operation described with reference to **Fig.2** and **Fig.3**.
**Fig.13** and **Fig.14** show a fourth embodiment of the motor in which each of two reciprocating magnets 50 and 51 is located on an axially opposite side of a rotor magnet pair 44 and 45. Operation of the motor arranged as shown in **Fig.13** and **Fig.14** is identical to the operation described with reference to **Fig.2** and **Fig.3**.

The direction of the rotational output can be in either angular direction depending on the direction of the starting torque.

The motor can produce reciprocating output on actuator arm 38 instead of the rotational output described above upon disconnecting actuator arm 38 from actuator 36, and connecting a crank, or a functionally similar device, in the drive path between the actuator and the rotor shaft 10. The crank converts rotation of the rotor shaft 10 to reciprocation of the actuator 30. In this case, the rotor shaft 10 is driven rotatably in either direction by the power source, and the output is taken on the reciprocating arm 38, which remains driveably connected to the oscillating arms 20, 22 and 24. The reciprocating magnets 50, 51 and 52 drive the oscillating arms 20, 22 and 24.

In the perspective cross sectional view shown in **Fig.15**, an outer casing 160 contains a motor according to this invention functioning essentially the same as the embodiment of the more efficient motor shown in **Fig.1A** and **Fig.1B**, but having a commercial appearance. The rotor includes discs 162 and 164, which are connected by an outer drum 166 of nonmagnetic material. The upper surface 167 of drum 166 forms a magnetic shield surrounding the rotor. Mounted on the lower disc 164 are curved rotor magnets 168 and 170, which extend angularly about a rotor shaft 172, which is secured to the rotor. Mounted on the upper disc 162, are curved rotor magnets 174 and 176, which extend angularly about the rotor shaft 172. The reference poles are 178, and the opposite poles are 180. A bushing 182 rotates with the rotor.

A reciprocating piston 184, which moves vertically but does not rotate, supports reciprocating magnet 186, whose reference pole 188 and opposite pole 190 extend angularly about the axis of piston 184.

A solenoid magnet 192, comparable to magnet 90 of the actuator 36 illustrated in **Fig.8**, is located adjacent a solenoid 194, comparable to solenoid 74 of **Fig.4** and **Fig.5**. The polarity of solenoid 194 alternates as the rotor rotates. Simply stated, as a consequence of the alternating polarity of the solenoid 194, the reciprocating piston 184 reciprocates which, in turn, continues to advance the rotor more efficiently, using the attraction and repulsion forces between the reciprocating magnets 186 and rotor magnets 168, 170, 174 and 176 as described above and shown in any of the different embodiments using **Fig.2**, **Fig.3**, **Fig.9**, **Fig.10**, **Fig.11**, **Fig.13** and **Fig.14**. Of course, just as the alternating polarity of the solenoid can put the motor in motion, so can the turning of the rotor, as described above. A photosensor 196 and sensor ring 198 can be used, as an alternative to the mechanical embodiment described in **Fig.4** to **Fig.7**, to determine the angular position of the rotor so as to alternate the polarity of the solenoid 194 with the rotor to correspond with the phase and cycle shown in **Fig.12**.

In accordance with the provisions of the patent statutes, the present invention has been described in what is considered to represent its preferred embodiment. However, it should be noted that the invention can be...
constructed otherwise than as specifically illustrated and described without departing from its spirit or scope. It is intended that all such modifications and alterations be included insofar as they come within the scope of the appended claims or the equivalents thereof.
The Magnetic Motor of Charles Flynn


MAGNETIC MOTOR CONSTRUCTION

This patent gives details of a permanent magnet motor which uses electromagnet shielding to achieve continuous rotation. The input power is very small with even a 9-volt battery being able to operate the motor. The output power is substantial and operation up to 20,000 rpm is possible. Construction is also very simple and well within the capabilities of the average handyman. It should be realised that the power of this motor comes from the permanent magnets and not from the small battery input used to prevent lock-up of the magnetic fields.

ABSTRACT

The present invention is a motor with permanent magnets positioned so that there is magnetic interaction between them. A coil placed in the space between the permanent magnets is used to control the magnetic interaction. This coil is connected to a source of electric potential and controlled switching so that closing the switch places a voltage across the coil and affects the magnetic interaction between the permanent magnets as to produce rotational movement of the output shaft.

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BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

The present invention is an improvement over the inventions disclosed in patent applications 07/322,121 and 07/828,703. The devices disclosed in those applications relate to means to produce useful energy using permanent magnets as the driving source. This is also true of the present invention which represents an important improvement over the known constructions and one which is simpler to construct, can be made to be self starting, is easier to adjust, and is less likely to get out of adjustment. The present construction is also relatively easy to control, is relatively stable and produces an amazing amount of output energy considering the source of driving energy that is used. The present construction makes use of permanent magnets as the source of driving energy but shows a novel means of controlling the magnetic interaction between the magnet members in a manner which is relatively rugged, produces a substantial amount of output energy and torque, and in a device capable of being used to generate substantial amounts of energy that is useful for many different purposes.

The present invention resides has a fixed support structure with one or more fixed permanent magnets such as an annular permanent magnet mounted on it with the pole faces of the permanent magnet on opposite faces of the magnet. The device has one or more relatively flat coils positioned around the edge of one of the faces of the magnet, and a shaft extends through the permanent magnet with one or more other permanent magnets attached to it. The spaced permanent magnets and the fixed permanent magnet have their polarities arranged to produce a magnetic interaction between them. The device also includes a circuit for selectively and sequentially energising the coils to control the magnetic interaction between the magnets in such a manner as to produce...
rotation between them. Various methods can be used to control the application of energy to the coils including a timer or a control mechanism mounted on the rotating shaft. This design can be made to be self-starting or to be started with some initial help to establish rotation.

OBJECTS OF THE INVENTION

It is a principal object of the present invention to teach the construction and operation of a relatively simple, motor-like device using permanent magnets in an unique manner to generate rotational or other forms of movement.

Another object is to teach the construction and operation of a relatively simple, motor-like device having novel means for coupling and/or decoupling relatively moveable permanent magnets to produce motion.

Another object is to provide novel means for controlling the coupling and decoupling of relatively moveable permanent magnets.

Another object is to make the generation of rotational energy less expensive and more reliable.

Another object is to teach a novel way of generating energy by varying magnetic interaction forces between permanent magnets.

Another object is to provide an inexpensive way of producing energy.

Another object is to provide a substitute source of energy for use in places where conventional motors, generators and engines are used.

These and other objects and advantages of the present invention will become apparent after considering the following detailed specification of preferred embodiments in conjunction with the accompanying drawings.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a side view of a magnetically powered device constructed according to the present invention.
Fig. 2 is an exploded view of the device shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 is a fragmentary side view of one of the movable magnets and the fixed magnet, in one position of the device.
Fig. 4 is a view similar to Fig. 3 but showing the relationship between the other movable magnets and the fixed magnet in the same rotational position of the device.

Fig. 5 is a fragmentary view similar to Fig. 3 but showing a repulsion interaction between the relatively movable permanent magnets.

Fig. 6 is a view similar to Fig. 4 for the condition shown in Fig. 5.
Fig. 7 is a side view showing another embodiment which is capable of producing even greater energy and torque.

Fig. 8 is a fragmentary elevational view similar to Fig. 3 for the device of Fig. 7.

Fig. 9 is a view similar to Fig. 4 for the construction shown in Fig. 7.
Fig. 10 is a view similar to Fig. 3 for the device shown in Fig. 7 but with the polarity of one of the fixed permanent magnets reversed.

Fig. 11 is a fragmentary view similar to Fig. 4 for the device as shown in Fig. 7 and Fig. 10.
Fig. 12 is a side elevational view of another embodiment of the device.
Fig. 13 is a schematic circuit diagram of the circuit for the devices of Figs. 1, 7 and 12.
Fig. 14 is a perspective view of another embodiment.

Fig. 15 is a simplified embodiment of the device showing the use of one rotating magnet and one coil positioned in the plane between the rotating and stationary magnets.
Fig. 16 is a simplified embodiment of the device showing use of one movable magnet and three coils arranged to be in a plane between the rotating and stationary magnets.

Fig. 17 is a side view of an air coil with a voltage applied across it and showing in dotted outline the field of the coil.

Fig. 18 is a view similar to Fig. 17 but showing the air coil positioned adjacent to one side of a permanent magnet showing in dotted outline the magnetic field of the permanent magnet with no electric potential applied across the air coil.
Fig. 19 is a side view similar to Fig. 18 with an electric potential applied across the air coil, showing in dotted outline the shapes of the electric field of the air coil and the magnetic field of the permanent magnet.

Fig. 20 is a side view similar to Fig. 19 but showing a second permanent magnet positioned above the first permanent magnet and showing in dotted outline the magnetic fields of the two permanent magnets when no electric potential is connected across the air coil.

Fig. 21 is a view similar to Fig. 20 but with the permanent magnets in an different relative position and with a voltage applied across the air coil, said view showing the shapes of the electro-magnetic field of the air coil and the modified shapes of the magnetic fields of the two permanent magnets; and
Fig. 22 to Fig. 25 are similar to Fig. 21 and show the electro-magnetic field of the air coil and the magnetic fields of the magnets in four different relative positions of the permanent magnets.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

In the drawings, the number 10 refers to a device constructed according to the present invention. The device 10 includes a stationary base structure including an upper plate 12, a lower plate 14, and spaced posts 16-22 connected between them.
Mounted on the upper plate 12 is a fixed permanent magnet 24 shown annular in shape which has its North pole adjacent to the upper surface of plate 12 and its South pole facing away from plate 12.
Referring to Fig.2, the permanent magnet 24 is shown having seven coils 26-38 mounted flat on its upper surface. Seven coils are shown, and the coils 26-38 have electrical connections made through plate 12 to other circuit members which will be described later in connection with Fig.13. Another member 40 is mounted on the upper surface of the lower plate 14 and a similar member 42 is mounted on the underside of the plate 12.

A shaft 44, (shown oriented vertically for convenience) extends through aligned holes in the members 42, 12 and 24. The lower end of shaft 44 is connected to disk 46 which has a pair of curved openings 48 and 50 shown diametrically opposite to each other, a little in from the edge of disc 46. The purpose of these openings 48 and 50 will be explained later on.

Shaft 44 is also connected to another disc 52 which is located on the shaft so as to be positioned adjacent to the coils 26-38. Disc 52 has a pair of permanent magnets 54 and 56 mounted on or in it positioned diametrically opposite to each other. Magnets 54 and 56 have their north and south poles oriented as shown in Fig.2, that is with north poles shown on their lower sides and their south poles on the upper sides. This is done so that there will be mutual magnetic attraction and coupling between the magnets 54 and 56 and the fixed magnet 24. The polarity of the magnets 54 and 56 and/or of the magnet 24 can also be reversed if desired for some purposes to produce relative magnetic repulsion between them.

Referring again to Fig.2, the lower plate 40 is shown having a series of phototransistors 58-70 mounted on its upper surface and spaced out as shown. These phototransistors are positioned under the centres of the coils 26-38 which are mounted on magnet 24. An equal number of infra red emitters 72-84 are mounted on the under surface of the member 42 aligned with the phototransistors. There are seven infra red emitters 72-84 shown, each of which is in alignment with a respective one of the seven phototransistors 58-70 and with one of the seven coils 26-38. This arrangement is such that when the shaft 44 and the components attached to it, including discs 46 and 52, rotate relative to the other members including magnet 24, the curved openings 48 and 50 pass under the infra red emitters and cause the phototransistors to switch on for a predetermined time interval. This establishes a sequence of energised circuits which powers coils 26-38, one at a time, which in turn, causes a momentary interruption of the magnetic interaction between one of the permanent magnets 54 and 56 and magnet 24.

When a coil is mounted on top of a permanent magnet such as permanent magnet 24 and energised it acts to concentrate the flux in a symmetrical magnetic field resulting in a non-symmetrical field when another permanent magnet is above the coil on magnet 24. This results in uneven or non-uniform forces being produced when the coil is energised and this causes a torque between the two permanent magnets, which tries to move one of the permanent magnets relative to the other.

Fig.3 shows the position when one of the magnets 54 is located immediately above one of the coils, say, coil 26. In this position there would be magnetic coupling between the magnets 54 and 24 so long as there is no voltage across the coil 26. However, if a voltage is placed across the coil 26 it will interrupt the magnetic coupling between the magnets 54 and 24 where the coil is located. This means that if there is any torque developed, it will be developed to either side of the coil 26. Without energising the coil 26 there will be full attraction between the magnets 24 and 54 and no rotational force will be produced.
Referring to Fig. 4 there is shown the relative positions of the movable magnets 54 and 56 for one position of disc 52. For example, the magnet 54 is shown located immediately above the coil 26 while the magnet 56 is shown straddling portions of the coils 32 and 34. If, in this position, coil 32 is energised but coils 34 and 26 are not energised, then the magnetic coupling between magnet 56 and magnet 24 will be oriented at an angle shown illustrated by the arrow in Fig. 4, and this attractive coupling will tend to move disc 52 to the right. Since coil 26 is not powered up, there is full coupling between magnet 54 and magnet 24 but this has no effect since it does not have a directional force. At the same time, coil 38 which is the next coil over which the magnet 54 will move, is also not powered up and so it will have no rotational effect on disc 52.

As disc 52 continues to rotate, different coils in the group 26-38 will be energised in sequence to continue to produce a rotational magnetic coupling force between disc 52 and magnet 24. It should be noted, however, that all of the rotational force is produced by interaction between the permanent magnets and none of the rotational force is produced by the coils or by any other means. The coils are merely energised in sequence to control where the magnetic interaction occurs, and this is done in a manner to cause disc 52 to rotate. It should also be understood that one, two, or more than two, permanent magnets such as the permanent magnets 54 and 56 can be mounted on the rotating disc 52, and the shape and size of the rotating disc 52 can be adjusted accordingly to accommodate the number of permanent magnets mounted in it. Also, disc 52 can be constructed of a non-magnetic material, the only requirement being that sufficient structure be provided to support the permanent magnets during rotation. This means that disc 52 need not necessarily be constructed to be round as shown in the drawing.

Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 are similar to Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 but show a construction where the permanent magnets 54 and 56 are turned over so that instead of having their north poles facing magnet 24 they have their south poles facing magnet 24 but on the opposite side of the coils such as coils 26-38. The construction and operation of the modified device illustrated by Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 is similar to that described above except that instead of producing magnetic attraction forces between the magnets 54 and 56 and the magnet 24, magnetic repulsion forces are produced, and these repulsion forces can likewise be used in a similar manner to produce rotation of the member 52, whatever its construction.
Fig. 7 shows a modified embodiment which includes all of the elements shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 but in addition has a second stationary permanent magnet 102 which is mounted above rotating disc 52 and has its coil members such as coil members 26A-38A mounted on its underside. Magnet 102 operates with the magnets 54 and 56 similarly to the magnet 24 and can operate in precisely the same manner, that is by producing attraction force between the magnet members or by producing repulsion forces between them, each being used to produce relative rotational movement between the rotor and the stator. It is also contemplated to make the construction shown in Fig. 7 so as to produce attraction forces between the magnets 54 and 56 on one side thereof and cooperating repulsion forces which add to the rotation generating forces produced on the opposite side.

Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 are similar to Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 but show the relationship between the magnets 54 and 56 and the members 24 and 102 located on opposite sides. These figures show one form of interaction between the rotating magnets 54 and 56 and the stationary magnets 24 and 102 located as shown in Fig. 7. In this construction, the device produces attractive rotating force only.
Fig. 10 and Fig. 11 are similar to Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 except that in these figures both attraction and repulsion forces are shown being produced in association with the stationary magnets on opposite sides of the rotating magnets. Note also that the coils being energised on opposite sides of disc 52 are energised in a different arrangement.

Fig. 12 is a side view similar to Fig. 7 but showing the way in which several stationary and rotating magnetic members such as the discs 24 and 102 can be mounted on the same shaft, in almost any number of repeating groups to increase the amount of torque produced by the device. In Fig. 12, the same power source and the same circuit arrangement can be used to energise the phototransistors and the infra red emitters. However, depending upon whether attraction or repulsion forces are used to produce the rotation or some combination of
them, will depend upon the order in which the coils associated with the stationary magnetic members are energised.

**Fig. 13** is a circuit diagram for the device shown in **Fig. 1** and **Fig. 2**, showing the circuit connections for the coils 26-38 and for the circuit elements associated with them. A similar circuit can be used for the construction shown in **Fig. 7** and **Fig. 12**. The circuit also includes connections to the various phototransistors and infra red emitters.

In **Fig. 13**, the circuit 120 is shown including a power supply 122 which may be a battery power supply, a rectified AC power supply or an AC or pulsed power supply. The positive side 124 of the power supply 122 is shown connected to one side of each of the coils 26-38, coil 26 and the circuits associated with it being shown in bold outline and including connections to one side of a resistor 128 and to one side of the phototransistors 58-70. The opposite side of the coil 26 is connected to one terminal of MOSFET 126. The opposite side of the resistor 128 is connected to one side of the infra red emitter 72, as well as to the corresponding sides of all of the other infra red emitters 74-84. The opposite sides of the infra red emitters 72-84 are connected by lead 130 to the negative terminal side 132 of the power supply 122. With the circuit as shown, the infra red emitters 72-84 are all continuously energised and produce light which can be detected by the respective phototransistors 58-70 when one of the openings 48 or 50 passes between them. When this happens, the respective phototransistor 58 will conduct and in so doing will apply positive voltage on the associated MOSFET 126, turning the MOSFET on, and causing the voltage of the source 122 to also be applied across the coil 26. The circuit for this is shown from the source 122 through the coil 26, through the MOSFET 126 to and through the lead 134 to the opposite side of the source 122. When the supply voltage is applied across the coil 26, it operates to limit or prevent magnetic communication between whichever one of the magnets 54 or 56 happens to be positioned adjacent to the coil 26 which is in the space between that magnet 54 or 56 and the magnet 24. This circuit is shown in bold in **Fig. 13**.

By properly timing and controlling the application of voltage to the various coils 26-38 in the manner described, the magnetic coupling between the magnets 54 and 56 and the magnet 24 can be accurately controlled and cause angular magnetic attraction between the magnet 54 (or 56) and magnet 24, which angular attraction (or repulsion) is in a direction to cause rotation of the rotating parts of the structure shown in **Figs. 1, 2, 7, and 12**. It should be understood that each of the coils 26-38 will be controlled in the same manner, that is, will have a voltage appearing across it at the proper time to control the direction of the magnetic coupling in a manner to produce rotation. The rotating portions will continue to rotate and the speed of rotation can be maintained at any desired speed. Various means can be used to control the speed of rotation such as by controlling the timing of
the DC or other voltage applied to the various coils, such as by using an alternating or pulsed current source instead of a direct current source or by loading the device to limit its rotational speed.

It is especially important to note that the energy required to operate the subject device is minimal since very little electrical energy is drawn when voltage is applied across the various coils when they are energised.

A well known equation used for conventional motor art, is:

\[ \text{Power (in watts)} = \text{Speed} \times \text{Torque} / 9.55 \]

Hence,

\[ W = S \times T / 9.55 \]

This equation has limited application to the present device because in the present device the torque is believed to be constant while the speed is the variable. The same equation can be rewritten:

\[ T = 9.55 \times W / S \quad \text{or} \quad S = 9.55 \times W / T \]

These equations, if applicable, mean that as the speed increases, the watts divided by the torque must also increase but by a factor of 9.55. Thus if torque is constant or nearly constant, as speed increases, the power output must increase and at a very rapid rate.

It should be understood that the present device can be made to have any number of stationary and rotating magnets arranged in stacked relationship to increase the power output, (see Fig.12) and it is also possible to use any desired number of coils mounted on the various stationary magnets. In the constructions shown in Figs. 1, 7, and 12 seven coils are shown mounted on each of the stationary magnets but more or fewer coils could be used on each of stationary magnet depending upon the power and other requirements of the device. If the number of coils is changed the number of light sources and photo-detectors or transistors will change accordingly. It is also important to note that the timing of the turning on of the various phototransistors is important. The timing should be such as that illustrated in Fig.4, for example, when one of the coils such as coil 32 is energised to prevent coupling in one direction between magnet 56 and magnet 24, the adjacent coil 34 will not be energised. The reasons for this have already been explained.
Fig. 14, shows another embodiment 140 of this motor. This includes a stationary permanent magnet 142 which has a flat upper surface 144 and a lower surface 146 that is circumferentially helical so that the member 142 varies in thickness from a location of maximum thickness at 148 to a location of minimum thickness at 150. The thickness of the member 142 is shown varying uniformly. Near the location of the thickest portion 148 of the permanent magnet 142 and adjacent to the surface 144 is an air coil 152 shown formed by a plurality of windings. A shaft member 154 is journaled by the bearing 156 to allow rotation relative to the stationary permanent magnet 142 and is connected to a rotating disc 158. The disc includes four spaced permanent magnets 160, 162, 164 and 166 mounted on or in it. The permanent magnets 160-166 are positioned to rotate close to the stationary permanent magnet 142 but with the coil 152 positioned between them. Coil 152 is connected into a circuit similar to that shown in Fig. 13 and so the circuit will not be described again.

The principals of operation of the device 140 shown in Fig. 14 are similar to those described above in connection with Fig. 1 and other figures. It is important to note, however, that the permanent magnets 160-166 rotate relative to the permanent magnet 142 because of the increasing coupling between them and the permanent magnet due to the increasing peripheral thickness of the permanent magnet. Thus the member 158 will rotate in a counterclockwise direction as shown, and each time one of the magnets 160-166 moves into a position adjacent to the thickest portion 148 of the fixed permanent magnet 142 the coil 152 will have voltage applied across it, otherwise there would be a tendency for the member 158 to stop or reduce the rotational force. In order to overcome this the coil 152 is energised each time one of the permanent magnets 160-166 is in the position shown. The rotating disc 158 is connected through the shaft 154 to rotating disc 168 which has four openings 170, 172, 174 and 176 corresponding to the locations of the permanent magnets 160-166 so that each time one of the permanent magnets moves to a position adjacent to the thickest portion 148 of the stationary permanent magnet 142 the coil 152 will be energised and this will reduce or eliminate the coupling between the rotating and stationary magnets that would otherwise slow the rotating portions down.

The circuit connected to the coil 152 includes the same basic elements described above in connection with Fig. 13 including varying a photocell 178, an infra red emitter 180 and a MOSFET 182 connected into a circuit such as
that shown in Fig.13. The timing of the energising of the coil 152 is important and should be such that the coil will be energised as the respective permanent magnets 160-166 move to a position in alignment or substantial alignment with the thickened portion 148 of the stationary permanent magnet 142.

Fig.15 shows a basic simplified form 190 of the present device which includes a rotary member 52A having a single permanent magnet portion 54A mounted on it. The device also has a stationary permanent magnet 24A with a single air coil 26A positioned in the space between the members 52A and 24A in the manner already described. The construction 190 is not self-starting as are the preferred embodiments such as embodiment 10 but the rotary portions will rotate continuously once the device is started as by manually rotating the rotary portions. The construction 190 will have other portions as described above but the output from the construction will be less than the output produced by the other constructions.

Fig.16 shows another simplified version 200 of the device wherein the member 52B is similar to the corresponding rotating member 52A shown in Fig.15. However, the fixed structure including the permanent magnet 24B has three windings 26B, 28B and 30B located at spaced intervals adjacent to the upper surface of it. The construction shown in Fig.16 will produce more output than the construction shown in Fig.15 but less than that of the other constructions such as that shown in Figs. 1, 2, 7 and 12. Obviously, many other variations of the constructions shown in the application are also possible including constructions having more or fewer coils, more or fewer rotating magnetic portions, more or fewer rotating members such as disc 52 and more or fewer stationary members such as magnets 24 and 142.

Figs.17-25 illustrate some of the underline principles of the present invention.

Fig.17 shows an air coil 210, positioned in space, with an electric potential applied across it. With the energising voltage applied, the electro-magnetic field of air coil 210 extends substantially equally in the space above and below the coil as shown in dotted outlined.
Fig. 18 shows the air coil 210 positioned adjacent to one side (the north side) of permanent magnet 212. In Fig. 18 no voltage is applied across the air coil 210 and therefore the coil does not produce an electro-magnetic field as in Fig. 17. Under these circumstances, the air coil 210 has no effect on the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 212 and the field of the permanent magnet is substantially as shown by the dotted outlines in Fig. 18.

Fig. 19 is similar to Fig. 18 except that in Fig. 19 the air coil 210 has an electric potential applied across it and therefore has an established electro-magnetic field shown again by dotted outline.

The electro-magnetic field of the air coil 210 modifies the magnetic field of the permanent magnet 212 in the manner shown. If coil 210 is placed in contact with, or close to the surface of, the permanent magnet and it is energised so that its polarity is opposite to that of the permanent magnet then the field produced is similar to that shown in Fig. 19. Note that the field of coil 210 and the field of the permanent magnet 212 directly beneath the air coil 210 are in opposition and therefore act to cancel one another. Coil 210 would be defined to produce a counter-magnetomotive force which acts to cancel the field of the permanent magnet 212 in the region where the air coil 210 exists and the amount of the field in that region of the permanent magnet 212 that is cancelled is the remainder of the difference in magnetomotive force between the region of the permanent magnet 212 and the counter magnetomotive force of the air coil 210. Note that, since the field of permanent magnet 212 is only altered in the region of the air coil 210, the geometric magnetic field characteristics of the permanent magnet 212 can be altered selectively based upon the size of the coil 210, the number of air coils 210 and the amount of counter magnetomotive force being produced by the air coil 210.
Fig. 20 is similar to Fig. 19 except that a second permanent magnet 214 is positioned at a location spaced above the air coil 210. In Fig. 20 no voltage is applied across the air coil 210 and therefore the air coil 210 does not have an electro-magnetic field. Thus Fig. 20 shows only the combined affect of the fields of the permanent magnets 212 and 214. Since the permanent magnets 212 and 214 are positioned so that their respective north and south poles are close together, there will be a strong attractive force between them at the location of the air coil 210.

Fig. 21 is a view similar Fig. 20 but with an electric potential applied across the air coil 210 and with the upper permanent magnet 214 displaced to the left relative to its position in Fig. 20. Note that in Fig. 21 the shape of the electro-magnetic field of the air coil 210 is concentrated and shifted somewhat to the right and upward. This shift of the electro-magnetic field concentrates the magnetic coupling between the magnets 212 and 214 to the left thereby increasing the tendency of the upper permanent magnet 214 to move to the left. A much smaller magnetic coupling occurs between the right end of the permanent magnets 212 and 214 and thus the force tending to move the permanent magnet 214 to the right is much less than the force tending to move it to the left. This is illustrated by the size of the arrows shown in Fig. 21.
Figs. 22-25 show four different positions of the upper permanent magnet 214 relative to the lower permanent magnet 212. In Fig. 22 because of the position of the upper permanent magnet 214 relative to the air coil 210 there is a concentration of the magnetic coupling force tending to move the upper permanent magnet 214 to the left. This force increases in Fig. 23 and Fig. 24 until the upper permanent magnet 214 reaches the position shown in Fig. 25 where all of the magnetic coupling is directed substantially vertically between the permanent magnets 212 and 214 and in this position there is little or no torque as a result of coupling energy between the permanent magnets 212 and 214 tending to move them relative to one another.

The principles illustrated in Figs. 17-25 are at the heart of the present invention and explain where the energy comes from to produce relative movement between the permanent magnets.
The present device has application for very many different purposes and applications including almost any purpose where a motor or engine drive is required and where the amount of energy available and/or required to produce the driving force may vary little to nil. Applicant has produced devices of the type described herein capable of rotating at very high speed in the order of magnitude of 20,000 RPMs and with substantial torque. Other lesser speeds can also be produced, and the subject device can be made to be self starting as is true of the constructions shown in Figs. 1, 2, 7 and 12. Because of the low power required to operate the device applicant has been able to operate same using a commercially available battery such as a nine volt battery.
Note: This patent is not a free-energy patent, but it does provide a suggestion for an integrated and practical system for providing power for people living in a caravan which is frequently off-grid but which occasionally is positioned where electrical mains power is available. It describes a practical system for storing wind energy for high-power electrical power supply, and so is of interest.

ABSTRACT
A power plant for mobile homes, camping trailers, and the like, capable of capturing low-powered wind energy, storing the energy in the form of compressed air, and delivering it on demand in the form of household electrical current. The device comprises a wind turbine which drives an air compressor which feeds a storage tank. When required, the compressed air drives a turbine coupled to an electrical generator. Various pressure regulators are used to control the speed of the generator. The wind turbine is also coupled to an alternator which keeps a bank of batteries charged. A DC motor running on the batteries, is used when necessary, to boost the drive of the air compressor during periods of heavy or long power drain. Provision is made for rapidly recharging the power plant from either a supply of compressed air or from an AC power source.

US Patent References:
2230526  Wind power plant  February, 1941  Claytor  290/44
2539862  Air-driven turbine power plant  January, 1951  Rushing  290/44
3315085  Auxiliary power supply for aircraft  April, 1967  Mileti et al.  290/55
3546474  Electrohydraulic Transmission of Power  December, 1979  DeCourcy et al. 290/1
4150300  Electrical and thermal system for buildings  April, 1979  VanWinkle  290/55

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
The current shortage of fossil fuel and public concern for the quality of the environment have triggered a hurried search for alternate forms of energy. The capture and use of solar energy, and its derivative, wind power, is the object of many new inventions. Due to the inefficiency of the collector device and storage media, use of these forms of energy has been limited to low-power stationery applications. Yet wind power should be adequate for any application requiring very low power or a short, occasional low to medium power supply of energy. These circumstances are encountered, for instance, in a refrigerated railroad car where occasional bursts of power are required to run the refrigerating system in order to maintain a low temperature inside the car. Similar circumstances are found in some mobile housing units such as a camping trailer. There, again, a supply of household current might be necessary for a short time between long periods of travel. In such instances, a system can be devised for accumulating energy generated by a wind turbine powered by the wind or by the air draft created by the motion of the vehicle. It is further desirable that the power system be capable of being replenished from non-polluting energy sources which can be encountered along the travel route.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
It is accordingly an object of the instant invention to provide a novel power plant for mobile homes, and the like, which captures wind energy, stores it in the form of compressed air, and delivers it on demand in the form of household electrical current.

Another object of this invention is to provide a power plant which does not discharge polluting effluents into the atmosphere.

Still another object of the invention is to provide a power plant which can be recharged by capturing the effect of the wind, or the effect of the air stream created by the movement of the vehicle.

A further object of the invention is to provide a power plant which can be recharged from a household current electrical outlet.

It is also an object of this invention to provide a power plant which can be replenished from a source of compressed air such as those found in automotive service stations.
An additional object of the invention is to provide a power plant which is responsive to a very low level of wind energy for a short period of time.

These and other objects are achieved by a power plant which comprises a wind turbine driving an air compressor. The air supply of the compressor is stored in the tank and used on demand to activate a turbine. The turbine, in turn, is coupled to a generator which creates household current. The wind turbine is also coupled to generators which charge a series of electrical batteries. On occasions when the AC power drain requires it, a motor running on the batteries is used to boost the output of the air compressor. Provision is made for driving the compressor from an outside AC power source. The air tank has a separate inlet through which it can be replenished from a source of compressed air.

THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is the general block diagram of the entire power plant;
Fig. 2 is a front elevation of the wind turbine and of its mechanical coupling to the drive shaft;

Fig. 3 is a cross-sectional view taken along line 3--3 of Fig. 2 showing the propeller linkage mechanism in the engaged position;

Fig. 4 is a view similar to the one illustrated in Fig. 3 but showing the propeller linkage mechanism in the disengaged position.
Referring now to Fig. 1, there is shown a diagramatic representation of the preferred embodiment of the invention. A wind turbine comprising a propeller 1 and an orthogonal coupling assembly 2 drives a shaft 3 connected to a centrifugal clutch 4. This type of clutch is designed to engage itself when the speed of the drive shaft 3 reaches a certain minimum preset limit. The plate of the clutch is first connected to a compressor 5 and second to two DC generators 6 and 7. Block 5 represents a adiabatic compressor requiring an input drive of approximately one-fourth horsepower.

The output of the compressors 5 is protected by a check valve and leads into a pipe 8 connected to a tank inlet pipe 9. The inlet pipe 9 feeds into a holding tank 10 capable of holding sixty gallons of compressed air under a maximum pressure of 200 pounds per square inch. The DC generators 6 and 7 supply a series of electrical batteries 23. The batteries feed a DC motor 16. The DC motor is in turn connected to a second compressor 17. The second compressor 17 is similar to the first compressor 5 and is connected through to pipe 18 to the tank inlet pipe 9. A third compressor 19 similar to the first and second compressors is also connected to the tank inlet pipe 9 through pipe 20. The third compressor 19 is powered by an AC motor 21.

A pressure limit switch assembly 14 senses the pressure in the holding tank through a pipe 13. A high pressure switch within the assembly 14 is activated when the holding tank reaches the maximum safely allowable pressure. This switch through line 15 causes the disengagement of the clutch 4 and turns off DC motor 16 and AC motor 21. A second switch within the assembly 14 is activated when the holding pressure falls below a preset limit. This second switch through line 15 turns on the DC motor 16. It can now be seen that when the tank pressure is below the lowest limit, both the first and second compressors 15, 17 will be activated. When the tank pressure goes above the lowest preset limit, only the first compressor 5 will be activated. If the holding tank pressure reaches the maximum tolerable limit all the compressors will be deactivated. The engagement speed of the centrifugal clutch 4 is set to a level corresponding to the minimum power necessary to drive the first compressor 5 and the DC generators 6 and 7. If the speed of the wind falls below that level, the shaft 3 will be free-running.

The holding tank 10 has a separate inlet 11 protected by a check valve 12. The holding tank is connected to a turbine feed tank 30 through pipe 24 controlled by valve 25. The turbine feed tank 30 is connected to the inlet of a turbine 33 through pipe 31 controlled by valve 32. The turbine 33 is powered by the expansion of the compressed air supplied by the turbine feed tank 30. The turbine 33 is similar to the compressed air motors used in certain
impactors and drills. The turbine drives an AC generator 35 designed to supply approximately five kilowatts of household current at 60 Hz and 110 volts. The turbine is turned on by means of the valve 32 controlled by an/off switch 36. The speed of the turbine 33 is determined by the pressure of the air accumulated in the turbine tank 30. The pressure is monitored by sensor 27 connected to the turbine feed tank 30 by pipe 26. Sensor 27 contains a set of high and low limits. When the turbine feed tank pressure falls below the low limit, valve 25 is opened through control line 28. When the pressure in the turbine feed tank 30 reaches the high limit, the valve 25 is closed. The high and low limit of sensors 27 are not fixed but subject to minor variations in response to the speed of the turbine 33.

The speed of the turbine 33 and of the generator 35 is monitored by speed sensor 34. The output of the speed sensor 34 is inversely proportional to the speed of the turbine 33. The speed sensor signal 29 is fed to sensor 27. If the output frequency of the generator 35 deviates from the required 60 Hz, the high and low limits of the sensor 27 are either increased or decreased. If the speed of the generator is slowed down by an increase in the load current, the high and low limits of sensor 27 are raised in order to raise the pressure in turbine feed tank 30. The turbine 33 will respond to the pressure change by increasing its rotational speed. The output of the generator 35 is made available for use through lines 38 and 40 controlled by a switch 37.

The pressure in the holding tank 10 may be boosted from two external sources. First, compressed air may be introduced through inlet 11. Second, the AC motor 21 may be connected to an external source of electrical energy through lines 39 and 40 controlled by switch 37. The external electrical source may also be applied to a battery charger 22 which supplies the series of batteries 23. In an alternate version of the preferred embodiment, it is suggested that an AC/DC converter 41 be used to drive the DC motor 16 from the external electrical supply. In such a case, the AC motor 23 and the third compressor 19 are not necessary.

The power plant just described is primarily designed to be installed on board a camping trailer. This power plant will accumulate wind (“aeolian”) energy during the periods when the wind is blowing or the trailer is in motion. The energy is stored in two forms. First, it is stored in the form of compressed air in the holding tank 10. Second, it is stored in the form of DC current in the series of batteries 23. Both storage media are ecologically clean. Furthermore, the electrical system can boost the power of the compressed air system during periods of heavy power drain or long use. For added convenience, the system can be refuelled from an external source of electrical energy such as a household outlet or from an external source of compressed air such as those found in service stations for use by vehicle drivers. It should be noted also that this power plant is versatile in that it can be driven not only from the movement of fluids such as air or water, but also from the movement of the vehicle. In the later case, the shaft 3 would be coupled directly to the wheel of the vehicle.
Referring now to Figs. 2 through 4, there is shown the details of the propeller 1 and coupling box 2. The propeller is noticeable by the fact that it is protected against bursts of wind which could damage the equipment. The hub 45 of propeller 1 is mounted on a shaft 46 by means of a conical spindle 46. The hub has a central cavity 51 matching the outline of the spindle 47. The hub 45 is held against the spindle by means of a coil spring 48 resting against an adjustable stop 49. An excess of pressure of the wind against the propeller 1 will cause the hub 45 to be pulled back against the spring 48, disengaging it from the spindle 47. At that point the propeller 1 will rotate freely without driving the shaft 46. The pressure of the coil spring 48 may be adjusted by turning the ring 50 around the threaded base of the stop 49.

The various mechanical and electro-mechanical components of the power plant such as the centrifugal clutch, compressors, generators, turbines, valves and pressure-activated switches are well known to those skilled in the art.

The speed sensor 34 may be implemented with an electronic integrator whose output signal 29 amplitude is proportional to the frequency of AC generator 35. The signal 29 is then used to modulate the sensitivity of sensor switches 27. This technique is also well known to those skilled in the electro-mechanical arts.

Modifications, other than those suggested, can be made to the embodiment of the invention just described without departing from the spirit of the invention and the scope of the appended claims.
The Motionless Generator of Graham Gunderson

Graham Gunderson’s Solid-State Electric Generator is shown in US Patent Application 2006/0163971 A1 of 27th July 2006. The details are as follows:

Abstract
A solid-state electrical generator including at least one permanent magnet, magnetically coupled to a ferromagnetic core provided with at least one hole penetrating its volume; the hole(s) and magnet(s) being placed so that the hole(s) intercept flux from the permanent magnet(s) coupled into the ferromagnetic core. A first wire coil is wound around the ferromagnetic core for the purpose of moving the coupled permanent magnet flux within the ferromagnetic core. A second wire is routed through the hole(s) penetrating the volume of the ferromagnetic core, for the purpose of intercepting this moving magnetic flux, thereby inducing an output electromotive force. A changing voltage applied to the first wire coil causes coupled permanent magnet flux to move within the core relative to the hole(s) penetrating the core volume, thus inducing electromotive force along wire(s) passing through the hole(s) in the ferromagnetic core. The mechanical action of an electrical generator is therefore synthesised without the use of moving parts.

Background
This invention relates to a method and device for generating electrical power using solid state means.

It has long been known that moving a magnetic field across a wire will generate an electromotive force (EMF), or voltage, along the wire. When this wire is connected in a closed electrical circuit, an electric current, capable of performing work, is driven through this closed circuit by the induced electromotive force.

It has also long been known that this resulting electric current causes the closed circuit to become encircled with a secondary, induced magnetic field, whose polarity opposes the primary magnetic field which first induced the EMF. This magnetic opposition creates mutual repulsion as a moving magnet approaches such a closed circuit, and a mutual attraction as that moving magnet moves away from the closed circuit. Both these actions tend to slow or cause “drag” on the progress of the moving magnet, causing the electric generator to act as a magnetic brake, whose effect is in direct proportion to the amount of electric current produced.

Historically, gas engines, hydroelectric dams and steam-fed turbines have been used to overcome this magnetic braking action which occurs within mechanical generators. A large amount of mechanical power is required to produce a large amount of electrical power, since the magnetic braking is generally proportional to the amount of electrical power being generated.

There has long been felt the need for a generator which reduces or eliminates the well-known magnetic braking interaction, while nevertheless generating useful electric power. The need for convenient, economical and powerful sources of renewable energy remains urgent. When the magnetic fields within a generator are caused to move and interact by means other than applied mechanical force, electric power can be supplied without the necessity of consuming limited natural resources, thus with far greater economy.

Summary of the Invention
It has long been known that the source of the magnetism within a permanent magnet is a spinning electric current within ferromagnetic atoms of certain elements, persisting indefinitely in accord with well-defined quantum rules. This atomic current encircles every atom, thereby causing each atom to emit a magnetic field, as a miniature electromagnet.

This atomic current does not exist in magnets alone. It also exists in ordinary metallic iron, and in any element or metallic alloy which can be “magnetised”, that is, any material which exhibits ferromagnetism. All ferromagnetic atoms and “magnetic metals” contain such quantum atomic electromagnets.

In specific ferromagnetic materials, the orientation axis of each atomic electromagnet is flexible. The orientation of magnetic flux both internal and external to the material, pivots easily. Such materials are referred to as magnetically “soft”, due to this magnetic flexibility.

Permanent magnet materials are magnetically “hard”. The orientation axis of each is fixed in place within a rigid crystal structure. The total magnetic field produced by these atoms cannot easily move. This constraint aligns the field of ordinary magnets permanently, hence the name “permanent”.

The axis of circular current flow in one ferromagnetic atom can direct the axis of magnetism within another ferromagnetic atom, through a process known as “spin exchange”. This gives a soft magnetic material, like raw
iron, the useful ability to aim, focus and redirect the magnetic field emitted from a magnetically hard permanent magnet.

In the present invention, a permanent magnet's rigid field is sent into a magnetically flexible “soft” magnetic material. The permanent magnet's apparent location, observed from points within the magnetically soft material, will effectively move, vibrate, and appear to shift position when the magnetisation of the soft magnetic material is modulated by ancillary means (much like the sun, viewed while underwater, appears to move when the water is agitated). By this mechanism, the motion required for generation of electricity can be synthesised within a soft magnetic material, without requiring physical movement or an applied mechanical force.

The present invention synthesises the virtual motion of magnets and their magnetic fields, without the need for mechanical action or moving parts, to produce the electrical generator described here. The present invention describes an electrical generator where magnetic braking known as expressions of Lenz's Law, do not oppose the means by which the magnetic field energy is caused to move. The synthesised magnetic motion is produced without either mechanical or electrical resistance. This synthesised magnetic motion is aided by forces generated in accordance with Lenz's Law, in order to produce acceleration of the synthesised magnetic motion, instead of physical “magnetic braking” common to mechanically-actuated electrical generators. Because of this novel magnetic interaction, the solid-state static generator of the present invention is a robust generator, requiring only a small electric force of operate.

**Brief Description of the Drawings**

The appended drawings illustrate only typical embodiments of this invention and are therefore not to be considered limiting of its scope, as the invention encompasses other equally effective embodiments.

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**Fig.1** is an exploded view of the generator of this invention.
Fig. 2 is a cross-sectional elevation of the generator of this invention.

Fig. 3 is a schematic diagram of the magnetic action occurring within the generator of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2.
Detailed Description of the Invention

Fig. 1 depicts a partially exploded view of an embodiment of an electrical generator of this invention. The part numbers also apply in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3.

Numerals 1 represents a permanent magnet with its North pole pointing inward towards the soft ferromagnetic core of the device. Similarly, numeral 2 indicates permanent magnets (preferably of the same size, shape and composition), with their South poles aimed inward towards the opposite side, or opposite surface of the device. The letters “S” and “N” denote these magnetic poles in the drawings. Other magnetic polarities and configurations may be used with success; the pattern shown merely illustrates one efficient method of adding magnets to the core.

The magnets may be formed of any polarised magnetic material. In order of descending effectiveness, the most desirable permanent magnet materials are Neodymium-Iron-Boron ("NIB"), Samarium Cobalt, AlNiCo alloy, or
“ceramic” Strontium-Barium or Lead-Ferrite. A primary factor determining permanent magnet material composition is the magnetic flux strength of the particular material type. In an embodiment of the invention, these magnets may also be substituted with one or more electromagnets producing the required magnetic flux. In another embodiment of the invention, a superimposed DC current bias can be applied to the output wire to generate the required magnetic flux, replacing or augmenting the permanent magnets.

Numeral 3 indicates the magnetic core. This core is a critical component of the generator. The core determines the output power capacity, the optimum magnet type, the electrical impedance and the operating frequency range. The core may be any shape, composed of any ferromagnetic material, formed by any process (sintering, casting, adhesive bonding, tape-winding, etc.). A wide range of shapes, materials and processes is known in the art of making magnetic cores. Effective common materials include amorphous metal alloys (such as sold under the “Metglas” trademark by Metglas Inc., Conway, S.C.), nanocrystalline alloys, manganese and zinc ferrites as well as ferrites of any suitable element including any combination of magnetically “hard” and “soft” ferrites, powdered metals and ferromagnetic alloys, laminations of cobalt and/or iron and silicon-iron “electrical steel”. This invention successfully utilises any ferromagnetic material, while functioning as claimed. In an embodiment of the invention, and for the purpose of illustration, a circular “toroid” core is illustrated. In an embodiment of the invention, the composition may be bonded iron powder, commonly available from many manufacturers.

Regardless of core type, the core is prepared with holes, through which, wires may pass. The holes are drilled or formed to penetrate the core’s ferromagnetic volume. The toroidal core 3 shown, includes radial holes pointing towards a common centre. If, for example, stiff wire rods were to be inserted through each of these holes, these rods would meet at the centre point of the core, producing an appearance similar to a wheel with spokes. If a square or rectangular core (not illustrated) is used, then these holes are preferably oriented parallel to the core’s flat sides, causing stiff rods passed through the holes to form a square grid pattern, as the rods cross each other in the interior “window” area framed by the core. While in other embodiments of the invention, these holes may take any possible orientation or patterns of orientation, a simple row of radial holes is illustrated as one example.

Numeral 4 depicts a wire, or bundle of wires which pick up and carry the output power of the generator. Typically, this wire is composed of insulated copper, though other materials such as aluminium, iron, dielectric material, polymers and semiconducting materials may be substituted. It may be seen in Fig.1 and Fig.2, that wire 4 passes alternately through neighbouring holes formed in core 3. The path taken by wire 4 undulates as it passes in opposite direction through each adjacent hole. If an even number of holes is used, the wire will emerge on the same side of the core on which it first entered. Once all the holes are filled, the resulting pair of trailing leads may be twisted together or similarly terminated, forming the output terminals of the generator shown at numeral 5. Output wire 4, may also make multiple passes through each hole in the core. Though the winding pattern is not necessarily undulatory, this basic form is shown as an example. Many effective connection styles exist. This illustration shows the most simple.

Numeral 6 in Fig.1, Fig.2 and Fig.3, points to a partial illustration of the input winding, or inductive coil used to shift the fields of the permanent magnets, within the core. Typically, this wire coil encircles the core, wrapping around it. For the toroidal core shown, input coil 6 resembles the outer windings of a typical toroidal inductor - a common electrical component. For the sake of clarity, only a few turns of coil 6 are shown in each of Fig.1, Fig.2
In practice, this coil may cover the entire core, or specific sections of the core, including, or not including the magnets.

**Fig.2** shows the same electrical generator of **Fig.1**, looking transparently “down” through it from above, so that the relative positions of the core holes (shown as dotted lines), the path of the output wire 4, and the position of the magnets (white hatched areas for magnets under the core and green hatched areas for magnets above the core) are made clear. The few representative turns of the input coil 6 are shown in red in **Fig.2**.

The generator illustrated, uses a core with 8 radially drilled holes. The spacing between these holes is equal. As shown, each hole is displaced by 45 degrees from each of it’s adjoining holes. The centres of all of the holes lie on a common plane lying half-way down the vertical thickness of the core. Cores of any shape or size may have as few as two or as many as hundreds of holes and a similar number of magnets. Other variations exist, such as generators with multiple rows of holes, zigzag and diagonal patterns, or output wire 4 moulded directly into the core material. In any case, the basic magnetic interaction shown in **Fig.3** occurs for each hole in the core as described below.

**Fig.3** shows the same design, viewed from the side. The curvature of the core is shown flattened on the page for the purpose of illustration. The magnets are represented schematically, protruding from the top and bottom of the core, and including arrows indicating the direction of magnetic flux (the arrow heads point to the magnet’s North pole).

In practice, the free, unattached polar ends of the generator’s magnets may be left “as-is” in open air, or they may be provided with a common ferromagnetic path linking the unattached North and South poles together as a magnetic “ground”. The common return path is typically made of steel, iron or similar material, taking the form of a ferrous enclosure housing the device. It may serve the additional purpose of a protecting chassis. The magnetic return may also be another ferromagnetic core of a similar electric generator stacked on top of the illustrated generator. There can be a stack of generators, sharing common magnets between the generator cores. Any such additions are without direct bearing on the functional principle of the generator itself, and have therefore been omitted from these illustrations.

Two example flux diagrams are shown in **Fig.3**. Each example is shown in a space between schematically depicted partial input coils 6. A positive or negative polarity marker indicates the direction of input current, applied through the input coil. This applied current produces “modulating” magnetic flux, which is used to synthesise apparent motion of the permanent magnets, and is shown as a double-tailed horizontal arrow (a) along the core 3. Each example shows this double-tailed arrow (a) pointing to the right or to the left, depending on the polarity of the applied current.

In either case, vertical flux entering the core (b,3) from the external permanent magnets (1,2) is swept along within the core, in the direction of the double-tailed arrow (a), representing the magnetic flux of the input coil. These curved arrows (b) in the space between the magnets and the holes, can be seen to shift or bend (a --> b), as if they were streams or jets of air subject to a changing wind.

The resulting sweeping motion of the fields of the permanent magnets, causes their flux (b) to brush back and forth over the holes and wire 4 which passes through these holes. Just as in a mechanical generator, when the
magnetic flux brushes or “cuts” sideways across a conductor in this way, voltage is induced in the conductor. If an electrical load is connected across the ends of this wire conductor (numeral 5 in Fig.1 and Fig.2), a current flows through the load via this closed circuit, delivering electrical power able to perform work. Input of an alternating current across the input coil 6, generates an alternating magnetic field (a) causing the fields of permanent magnets 1 and 2 to shift (b) within the core 3, inducing electrical power through a load (attached to terminals 5), as if the fixed magnets (1,2) themselves were physically moving. However, no mechanical motion is present.

In a mechanical generator, induced current powering an electrical load, returns through output wire 4, creating a secondary induced magnetic field, exerting forces which substantially oppose the original magnetic field inducing the original EMF. Since load currents induce their own, secondary magnetic fields opposing the original act of induction in this way, the source of the original induction requires additional energy to restore itself and continue generating electricity. In mechanical generators, the energy-inducing motion of the generator’s magnetic fields is being physically actuated, requiring a strong prime mover (such as a steam turbine) to restore the EMF-generating magnetic fields’ motion against the braking effect of the output-induced magnetic fields (the induced field c and the inducing field b), destructively in mutual opposition, which must ultimately be overcome by physical force, which is commonly produced by the consumption of other energy resources.

The electrical generator of the present invention is not actuated by mechanical force. It makes use of the induced secondary magnetic field in such a way as to not cause opposition, but instead, addition and resulting acceleration of magnetic field motion. Because the present invention is not mechanically actuated, and because the magnetic fields do not act to destroy one another in mutual opposition, the present invention does not require the consumption of natural resources in order to generate electricity.

The present generator’s induced magnetic field, resulting from electrical current flowing through the load and returning through output wire 4, is that of a closed loop encircling each hole in the core. The induced magnetic fields create magnetic flux in the form of closed loops within the ferromagnetic core. The magnetic field “encircles” each hole in the core which carries output wire 4. This is similar to the threads of a screw “encircling” the shaft of the screw.

Within this generator, the magnetic field from output wire 4 immediately encircles each hole formed in the core (c). Since wire 4 may take an opposing direction through each neighbouring hole, the direction of the resulting magnetic field will likewise be opposite. The direction of arrows (b) and (c) are, at each hole, opposing, headed in opposite directions, since (b) is the inducing flux and (c) is the induced flux, each opposing one another while generating electricity.

However, this magnetic opposition is effectively directed against the permanent magnets which are injecting their flux into the core, but not the source of the alternating magnetic input field 6. In the present solid-state generator, induced output flux (4,c) is directed to oppose the permanent magnets (1,2) not the input flux source (6, a) which is synthesising the virtual motion of those magnets (1,2) by its magnetising action on core 3.

The present generator employs magnets as the source of motive pressure driving the generator, since they are the entity being opposed or “pushed against” by the opposing reaction induced by output current which is powering a load. Experiments show that high-quality permanent magnets can be magnetically “pushed against” in this way for very long periods of time, before becoming demagnetised or “spent”. Fig.3 illustrates inducing representative flux arrows (b) directed oppositely against induced representative flux (c).

In materials typically used to form core 3, fields flowing in mutually opposite directions tend to cancel each other, just as positive and negative numbers of equal magnitude sum to zero.

On the remaining side of each hole, opposite the permanent magnet, no mutual opposition takes place. Induced flux (c) caused by the generator load current remains present; however, inducing flux from the permanent magnets (b) is not present since no magnet is present, on this side, to provide the necessary flux. This leaves the induced flux (c) encircling the hole, as well as input flux (a) from the input coils 6, continuing its path along the core, on either side of each hole.

On the side of each hole in the core where a magnet is present, action (b) and reaction (c) magnetic flux substantially cancel each other, being directed in opposite directions within the core. On the other side of each hole, where no magnet is present, input flux (a) and reaction flux (c) share a common direction. Magnetic flux adds together in these zones, where induced magnetic flux (c) aids the input flux (a). This is the reverse of typical generator action, where induced flux (c) is typically opposing the “input” flux originating the induction.

Since the magnetic interaction is a combination of magnetic flux opposition and magnetic flux acceleration, there is no longer an overall magnetic braking or total opposition effect. The braking and opposition is counterbalanced
by a simultaneous magnetic acceleration within the core. Since mechanical motion is absent, the equivalent electrical effect ranges from idling, or absence of opposition, to a strengthening and overall acceleration of the electrical input signal (within coils 6). Proper selection of the permanent magnet (1,2) material and flux density, core 3 material magnetic characteristics, core hole pattern and spacing, and output medium connection technique, create embodiments where the present generator will display an absence of electrical loading at the input and/or an overall amplification of the input signal. This ultimately causes less input energy to be required in order to work the generator. Therefore, as increasing amounts of energy are withdrawn from the generator as output power performing useful work, decreasing amounts of energy are generally required to operate it. This process continues, working against the permanent magnets (1,2) until they are demagnetised.

In an embodiment of this invention, Fig.4 illustrates a typical operating circuit employing the generator of this invention. A square-wave input signal from a transistor switching circuit, is applied at the input terminals (S), to the primary (a) of a step-down transformer 11. The secondary winding (b) of the input transformer may be a single turn, in series with a capacitor 12 and the generator 13 input coil (c), forming a series resonant circuit. The frequency of the applied square wave (S) must either match, or be an integral sub-harmonic of the resonant frequency of this 3-element transformer-capacitor-inductor input circuit. Generator 13 output winding (d) is connected to resistive load L through switch 14. When switch 14 is closed, generated power is dissipated at L, which is any resistive load, for example, and incandescent lamp or resistive heater.

Once input resonance is achieved, and the square-wave frequency applied at S is such that the combined reactive impedance of total inductance (b + c) is equal in magnitude to the opposing reactive impedance of capacitance 12, the electrical phases of current through, and voltage across, generator 13 input coil (c) will flow 90 degrees apart in resonant quadrature. Power drawn from the square-wave input energy source applied to S will now be at a minimum.

In this condition, the resonant energy present at the generator input may be measured by connecting a voltage probe across the test points (v), situated across the generator input coil, together with a current probe around point (l), situated in series with the generator input coil (c). The instantaneous vector product of these two measurements indicates the energy circulating at the generator’s input, ultimately shifting the permanent magnets’ fields in order to create useful induction. This situation persists until the magnets are no longer magnetised.

It will be apparent to those skilled in the art that a square (or other) wave may be applied directly to the generator input terminals (c) without the use of other components. While this remains effective, advantageous regenerating effects may not be realised to their fullest extent with such direct excitation. Use of a resonant circuit, particularly with inclusion of a capacitor 12 as suggested, facilitates recirculation of energy within the input circuit, generally producing efficient excitation and a reduction of the required input power as loads are applied.
Mike Brady’s “Perendev” Magnet Motor

PERMANENT MAGNET MACHINE

ABSTRACT
The invention provides a magnetic repellent motor which comprises: a shaft (26) which can rotate around its longitudinal axis, a first set (16) of magnets (14) arranged around the shaft (26) in a rotor (10) for rotation with the shaft, and a second set (42) of magnets (40) arranged in a stator (32) surrounding the rotor. The second set of magnets interacts with the first set of magnets, and the magnets of both sets are at least partially screened so as to concentrate their magnetic field strength in the direction of the gap between the rotor (10) and the stator (32).

BACKGROUND
This invention relates to a magnetic repellent motor, or drive mechanism. Such a mechanism may be useful for driving an electrical generator, a vehicle, a ship, an aircraft, or the like.

Conventional power sources rely on fossil fuels or secondary power sources such as nuclear power, or electricity derived by whatever means, for its source of driving power. All of these sources of power suffer from disadvantages such as being the cause of pollution, requiring transportation or transmission over long distances to the point of use, and being costly to purchase. Thus, there is a need for a power source which is substantially pollution-free in operation, requiring substantially no external power, and which is simple to maintain.

SUMMARY
This invention provides a magnetic repellent motor which comprises: a shaft which can rotate about its longitudinal axis, a first set of magnets which are arranged around the shaft and which rotate with the shaft, and a second set of magnets arranged in a stator surrounding the rotor, where the second set of magnets reacts with the first set of magnets, both sets being partially screen magnetically in order to direct their magnetic field into a gap between the two sets of magnets. Thus, the interaction of at least some of the magnets of the first and second sets urge the shaft to rotate.

The interaction may be the net force of like magnetic poles repelling each other thereby urging the magnets away from each other, however, since only the rotor magnets can be moved by this urging force, the shaft is urged to rotate into a position where the repelling force is less.

The rotor may be substantially disc-shaped and the first set of magnets may be located in a peripheral region of the rotor which rotates with the shaft. The stator may be in the form of a pair of arms aligned with the rotor. These stator arms can be moved relative to each other and away from the rotor, in order to allow the gap between the rotor and the stator to be set selectively. The gap may be set manually, for example, by a hand wheel, or automatically, for example by a system of weights which move centrifugally and so form a rotational speed control which acts automatically, i.e. the smaller the gap, the greater the repulsion forces between the magnets of the rotor and stator.

Both the rotor and the stator may have more than one set of magnets. The magnets may be placed in sockets which extend towards the circumference of the rotor. These sockets may be substantially cylindrical and arranged in a plane which is perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the rotor shaft. These sockets may also be arranged at an acute angle relative to the tangent to the circumference of the rotor disc where the mouth of the cylindrical socket is located. Similarly, the stator magnet sockets may be angled relative to the inner circumference of the stator. These angles may be between 18 degrees and 40 degrees, but preferably between 30 degrees and 35 degrees.

These sockets may have a socket lining consisting at least partially of a magnetic screening material. The socket lining may line the entire extent of the sockets so that only the opening to the exterior remains unlined. In another embodiment of the invention, the magnetic screen lining may cover a substantial percentage of the whole of the socket lining, e.g. 50% of the socket lining.

The magnets may be Nd-Fe-B of dimensions which fit snugly inside the linings of the sockets. These magnets may be cylindrical in shape and have a 37 mm diameter, a 75 mm length and a magnetic strength of 360,000 gauss. The socket lining, magnetic shield and magnet may all have a hole through them to receive a securing pin, preferably positioned so that it is parallel to the longitudinal axis of the shaft.
The number of sockets in the rotor and the corresponding stator may differ so that there is not a one-to-one relationship between the sockets in the rotor and the sockets in the corresponding stator. Similarly, the number of magnets in any additional rotor/stator sets may differ from the first rotor/stator sets in order that the two sets are out of register at any given time. Some sockets may be left empty in either the rotor or the corresponding stator, or both. The motor may have one or more rotor/stator pairs of this type arranged in a stack. It is preferable for the magnets of adjacent rotors to be out of register, i.e. staggered or offset relative to each other.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a perspective view which shows one rotor disc.

Fig. 2 is a perspective view showing a stack of the Fig. 1 rotors in an assembled arrangement.
Fig. 3 is a perspective view showing a left arm of a stator.

Fig. 4 is a perspective view showing a right arm of a stator.
**Fig. 5** is a perspective view showing a stack of the stators or Fig.3 and Fig.4 in an assembled arrangement.

**Fig. 6** is a perspective view showing a socket lining of a stator or a rotor.
Fig. 7 is a perspective view showing one of the magnets.

Fig. 8 is a perspective view showing one embodiment of the magnetic repellent motor coupled to an electrical generator.
DESCRIPTION OF PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS

Referring to Fig.1, a substantially disc-shaped rotor 10, is made from a non-magnetic material. The rotor 10 has a plurality of magnet receiving zones 12, provided in it for receiving magnets 28 (shown in later figures)

of a first set 16 of magnets. The receiving zones 12 are in the form of circumferentially extending, spaced apart, and substantially cylindrical sockets 18 which are located in a plane which is perpendicular to the rotational axis 10 of the rotor and in a peripheral region of the disc.

In the region of the sockets 18, the rotor 10 also has through holes 20 in its side surfaces 22, extending parallel to the rotational axis of the rotor. The rotor 10, also has a centre hole 24, to receive shaft 28 which is shown in later figures. The sockets 18, are preferably angled at an acute angle relative to the tangent to the circumference of the rotor disc 10, at the mouth opening of the sockets 18. Ideally, this angle is between 18 and 40 degrees, and preferably between 30 and 35 degrees. In one particularly preferred embodiment, the angle is 34 degrees.

As shown in Fig.2, the sockets 18, receive (or incorporate) a socket lining 28 (shown in more detail in later figures) which is at least partially made of a magnetic screening material, whether metallic or non-metallic, for example, graphite. The socket lining 28, covers the entire extent of the sockets 18, so that only the opening to the exterior remains uncovered.
In the rotor assembly 30 of Fig.2, three rotors discs 10, have been stacked in a row on the shaft 26. The connection between the rotor discs 10 and shaft 26, as well as between the rotor discs themselves, can be established via linking means which are widely known. In general, the motor may have any number of rotor discs 10, and corresponding stators 32, since the effect of using several rotor discs 10 in parallel, is cumulative. However, it may be useful for smooth operation of the motor 1, to arrange the rotor discs 10 so that the magnets of adjacent rotor discs are staggered, or offset relative to each other.

Referring to Fig.3 and Fig.4, a stator 32 is shown. This stator is made of a non-magnetic material. The left arm 34, and the right arm 36, combine to form the stator 32. Each of the arms, 34 and 36, has a substantially semi-circular shape and is sized so as to enclose the corresponding rotor disc 10 in the radial direction, while still leaving a gap between the stator 32 and the rotor disc 10. The arms 34 and 36 of one stator 32, can be moved relative to each other and their corresponding rotor disc 10, so that the gap between the arms and the rotor disc can be set at different values.

The stator 32 has several magnet receiving zones 38, ready to accept the magnets 40, (which are shown in a later figure) of the magnet set 42. These receiving zones are again in the form of circumferentially extending, substantially cylindrical sockets 44 which are positioned in a plane which is perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of shaft 26. In the region of the sockets 44, the stator 32 has through holes 46 arranged in it's side surfaces 48, these holes extending parallel to the longitudinal axis of the shaft 26.

These sockets 44 are again angled at an acute angle relative to a tangent to the inner circumference of the stator 32 at the mouth opening of the sockets 44. This angle is preferably between 18 and 40 degrees and more preferably, between 30 and 35 degrees. The angle of the sockets 18 and 44, and the relative positioning between them, has to be adjusted to allow for a good performance of the motor.
Fig. 5 shows a stator assembly consisting of three stators designed to fit the rotor assembly of Fig. 2. As described with reference to the sockets 18 of Fig. 2, the sockets 44 receive (or incorporate) a socket lining 50 (shown in more detail in later figures), which is at least partially made of a magnetic screening material. The socket lining 50, covers the entire extent of the sockets 44 so that only the opening to the exterior remains uncovered.

Referring to Fig. 6, a socket lining 28, 50 of the rotor disc 10, or the stator 32, is shown in more detail. The socket lining 28, 50 is formed to fit into the sockets 18, 44 and may be made completely of a material which has magnetic screening properties. In one preferred embodiment, the socket lining 28, 50 is made of diamagnetic graphite and is partially surrounded by an additional shield 52 of a material having strong magnetic screening properties, e.g. stainless steel. In the embodiment shown in Fig. 6, the shield 52 surrounds about 50% of the socket lining surface.

Thus, by at least partially covering the sockets 18, 44 with a magnetic screening material, the magnetic field of the inserted magnets 14, 40 is, so to say, focussed axially with the socket 18, 44, rather than dissipated about the magnets.

Further, holes 54 through the socket linings 28, 50 are provided and these correspond to the through-holes 20 and 46 in the rotor disc 10 and the stator 32, respectively. Thus, a retaining pin 56 may be inserted after magnet 14, 40 has been put in socket 18, 44 to make a detachable fixing for magnet 14, 40 to the socket lining 28, 50 and the socket 18, 44 so as to prevent expulsion of the magnetic sources during operation.
Fig. 7 shows a typical magnetic source 14, 40 used in this motor design. The magnetic sources 18, 40 may be natural magnets, induced magnets or electromagnets. The magnetic source for example, is a Nd-Fe-B magnet which has the necessary dimensions needed to fit neatly into socket 18, 44 and socket lining 28, 50, respectively. In one preferred embodiment, the magnetic source 18, 44 is a substantially cylindrically shaped magnet with a diameter of 37 mm, a length of 75 mm and provides 360,000 gauss. However, the magnetic source 18, 44 may be shaped differently to cylindrical and may have different characteristics. In any case, the magnetic source 18, 44 must have a through-hole 58 to receive the retaining pin 56.
The magnet motor shown in Fig.8 is mounted on frame 60 and is coupled to an electrical generator 62. In this specific embodiment, the motor has three rotor discs 10 of the type already described. These are mounted on a single rotating shaft 26 and are driven by three stators 32, as already described, causing shaft 26 to rotate about its longitudinal axis. Shaft 26 may be connected to a gearbox in order to gain a mechanical advantage. The stator arms can be moved by a stepper motor 64.

The number of sockets in the rotor discs 10 and their corresponding stators 32 may differ so that there is not a one-to-one relationship between the sockets 18 in the rotor disc 10 and sockets 44 in the corresponding stator 32. Similarly, the number of magnetic sources in the stator 32 and the rotor disc 10 may differ so that a proportion of the magnetic sources 14, 40 are out of register at any given time. Some sockets may be empty, i.e. without a magnetic source, in either the rotor disc 10 or the stator 32, or both.

The sockets 18 of the rotor discs 10 can be staggered, i.e. offset relative to the sockets of adjacent rotors, or they can line up in register. Thus, the magnet motor may be time-tuned by the relative positioning of the magnetic sources 14 of adjacent rotor discs 10.

Thus, the interaction of at least some of the magnetic sources 14, 40 of the first and second set 16, 42 urges the shaft 26 to rotate. Once the shaft begins to rotate, the plurality of simultaneous interactions causes shaft 26 to continue rotating.

As mentioned before, the motor can have any number rotor discs 10 and corresponding stator sets 32. Although the precise adjustment of the motor elements is important, one may imagine other embodiments covered by this invention.
ABSTRACT
This permanent magnet disc drive consists of two basic magnetic components, one large driven flat disc containing a uniform series of identical magnet segments, and a second magnetic driving means comprising multiple oscillating magnetic pairs of opposite identical magnet segments. The magnetic mechanism simulates the action of a clock escapement mechanism in that the oscillating magnet pairs uniformly oscillate between the disc magnet segments to induce continuous disc rotation. All of the multiple oscillating magnet pairs are oscillated by a motor, or motors, which provide an eccentric movement through a suitable gear reduction unit. The small DC motors are powered by multiple arrays of silicon solar photovoltaic cells at some convenient rooftop location.

US Patent References:
4,082,969 Magnetic torque converter April, 1978 Kelly 310/103
4,100,441 Magnetic transmission July, 1978 Landery 310/103

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
At the present time the magnetic disc drive has reached the stage of development where the oscillating magnet pairs will rotate the magnetic segmented disc when the oscillations is done manually. The disc rotation is smooth and continuous when the manual oscillation is uniform and continuous, and the disc speed may be increased as the oscillation rate is increased.

Since the adequate functioning of the magnetic/mechanical-conversion concept has now been proven with a working prototype, a practical and economical self and/or external oscillation means for the oscillating magnetic pairs must now be developed. The magnetic disc drive was originally designed to be self-actuated by means of a multi-lobe cam and push rod arrangement, but this approach has not been proven successful to date.

A disadvantage for the self-actuated type of magnetic disc drive is that the disc is locked-in with a low, fixed speed output which is dependant on the natural magnetic field interaction between the involved interacting magnet segments.

A mid-diameter direct displacement multi-lobe cam was used for the first prototype, but this did not work because of the high rotational resistance imposed by the high cam lobe angles. A peripheral, direct displacement multi-lobe cam was also tried but this was not successful because of the moderate and sufficient cam lobe resistance to push rod displacement.

Other cam lobe configurations are being planned and developed to make sure that no possible trade-off to self-actuated mechanical oscillation is overlooked. Another possible approach to self-actuation for the magnetic disc drive is by the application of a twin level magnetic commutator which is directly connected to the disc drive shaft. The magnetic commutator segments alternately attract corresponding radial magnets on pull-rods which are pivoted on each of the oscillation plates of the magnetic pairs.

While auto-actuation of the magnetic disc units may be desirable for some self-contained power applications, the low, fixed speed output is not considered attractive and promising for a wide range of household power applications. Because of the inflexibility of speed output of the auto-actuated type of unit the, the development of a variable speed, externally oscillated type of disc unit is required to meet the growing demand for alternate and auxiliary power means for many applications.

The matching of a large magnetic disc drive and small solar powered DC electric motors is a nearly ideal arrangement since a single or series of small precision DC motors can be readily powered by modest arrays of silicon photovoltaic cells located at some convenient rooftop location. Small high-efficiency, ball bearing DC motors are available which, when connected to suitable gear reduction drives, can revolve a simple eccentric mechanism with sufficient power and variable speed, to cause oscillation of a series of four to six magnetic oscillating pairs of stator magnets.
This series of magnetic oscillating pairs will all be connected together with straight linkage to transmit the reciprocating motion from the driving oscillating shaft to the other oscillating shafts of the series. This is a more desirable multiple driving arrangement rather than separate small DC motors since synchronism is automatically assured, rather than more complex and less reliable electrical synchronization requirements. Because there is no locked-in synchronism for this type of external oscillation means, the multiple magnetic oscillation pairs must be of the minimum interference type, in that they must not become jammed into the disc magnet segments. Although the proper functioning of the magnetic disc unit requires that the oscillating magnet pairs must enter the disc's magnet segment interference circle, deflection means must be added to all of the oscillation plates to insure that the continuously revolving disc will readily by-pass all of the oscillating magnet pairs.

The large magnetic disc unit will consist of a basic non-magnetic circular disc, on which multiple high energy permanent magnet segments are equally spaced around the rim of the disc. The drive shaft of the disc rotates on precision ball-bearings and may be chosen to revolve in either a horizontal or a vertical plane. The disc is the driven component of the magnetic drive assembly, and it can be connected to the load or an electrical generator.

The multiple oscillating magnet pairs are the driving component of the disc drive unit and consist of flat, non-magnetic oscillation plates, on which identical high-energy permanent magnets are secured at each end of these oscillating plates. The magnet segments are placed with opposite poles exposed at the sides, relative to each other so that a north-south pole couple reacts on the disc's magnet segments. The driven disc's direction of rotation depends on the polarity of the disc's magnets in relation to the oscillating magnetic pairs.

The oscillating magnetic pairs will make a full back and forth oscillation between two adjacent local disc magnet segments so that an alternate "pull and push" effect is induced on the magnetic segmented disc. The basic synchronism between the disc's magnet segments and the multiple oscillating magnet pairs closely simulates the action of a watch or clock escapement mechanism in respect to the natural "cogging" action between the functioning components.

This general magnetic disc drive arrangement insures smooth and continuous rotation for the driven disc with an optimum of magnetic energy interchange between the oscillation stations and the magnetic disc because of near pole face to pole face exposure. It is now believed that this present type of magnetic disc drive is approaching a theoretical maximum of conversion performance possible, especially when compared with other types of magnetic/mechanical arrangements such as magnetic worm and worm discs, spur couples, mitre couples, and all types of inferior, linear magnetic devices.

The attractiveness of the basic magnetic disc and oscillating pairs is that a nearly ideal leverage factor is introduced in magnetic/mechanical conversion arrangements. Simply stated, considerably less energy is needed to oscillate the oscillating pairs than is produced from the near pole face to pole face magnetic interaction between the functioning magnetic components.

The alternating and uniform "pull and push" force imposed by the oscillating magnet pairs on the disc magnet segments produces no direct back or counter force reaction on the driving oscillating magnet segments which is the master key for a useful and practical magnetic/mechanical conversion drive. The back or counter-reacting force on the oscillating magnet pairs is taken directly by the fixed pivots of the oscillation plates, with a minimum of load penalty imposed on the drive of the oscillating magnet pairs.

All other types of rotary magnetic/mechanical conversion devices, with the possible exception of the worm and worm disc type, produce an undesirable back reaction force on the driving component and resulting ineffective performance. The magnetic worm and worm disc units have not proven to be sufficiently worthwhile for commercial applications because of the very high permanent magnetic energy necessary and due to the low speed output of these mechanisms.

When configuration comparisons are made of all types of possible magnetic/mechanical conversion devices it will be noted that the combination of a magnetic disc driven by multiple oscillating magnet pairs will stand out as a practical and useful permanent magnetic conversion arrangement. The incentive for the development of this magnetic disc drive was the direct outgrowth of overall disappointing performance of solar energy conversion efforts and the frustrations encountered with component costs, conversion efficiency and a lack of suitable energy storage means. While solar energy is being widely hailed for its future potential as a viable alternate energy source, relatively few engineers speak out about relatively poor overall cost/effectiveness due to days-on-end of overcast skies during the winter months when the energy is most needed, especially in northern latitudes.

Because of the less-than-adequate solar energy conversion outlook for the vast majority of American homeowners, other alternate, small scale, decentralised, energy sources must be explored and developed on a crash program basis. If this is not done within the next several decades we must accept the alternative of a greatly reduced standard of living because of the alarming rise in the rate of energy costs.

A - 725
This magnetic disc drive represents a practical solution in applying permanent magnetism in the development and commercialism of a decentralised, silent, fuel-free, household-sized alternate power system. While the power output from an individual magnetic disc unit may be small, the power output is constant and does not generally depend on the intensity of an external energy source, as do present solar energy systems.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The magnetic disc drive unit is comprised of a large driving disc made of non-magnetic metal on which several permanent magnets are equally spaced around the rim. The disc drive shaft rotates on trunnion supported ball bearings and may revolve in nearly any conventional position, and may be constructed with any practical large diameter.

The identical oscillating magnet pairs are the driving component of the disc drive and consist of flat, non-magnetic plates on which, pairs of identical permanent magnets are secured at both sides of the oscillation plates. These magnet pairs have opposite pole faces facing each other. The disc's direction of rotation is determined by the polarity of all the disc's magnets relative to the polarity of the oscillating magnet pairs.

The oscillating pair of magnets make a full back and forth oscillation while each rotor disc magnet passes by. This produces a pull on the disc magnet as it approaches the oscillator magnet and then when the oscillator moves that magnet away, a push force is applied to the magnet on the rotating disc by the second magnet of the oscillating pair of magnets. The synchronisation of the disc and the oscillating magnet pairs must be maintained for continuous and smooth rotation of the disc. This movement is similar to the action of a clock escapement-mechanism.

The method of moving the oscillating pairs of magnets is one or more solar-powered DC motors. These motors drive push rods which are in contact with ball bearings mounted on the oscillation plates. Since the eccentrics must move at relatively slow speeds, suitable gear reduction units must be used between the motors and the rocker arms.

In order to maintain proper synchronisation of all of the oscillating components, straight links are used to connect all of the driven oscillation shafts to the driving oscillation shaft. Four or five oscillation stations can be driven from one driver oscillation shaft so that a disc drive with a large number of oscillation stations will require several D.C. motors to drive all of the other oscillation shafts.

It is important that the multiple, identical oscillation plates and their magnet pairs be slightly shorter in width than the space between two adjacent disc magnet segments, so that an optimum pull and push force is induced on the local disc magnet segments. One side of the oscillating magnet couple "pulls" on the disc's permanent magnet and then the other oscillator magnet "pushes" the disc's permanent magnet onwards as it has been moved into place by the oscillation.

All of the oscillating magnet pairs oscillate on stationary rods, or shafts, and all of the eccentrics and DC motor drives remain fixed on a base plate. The other ends of the oscillating rods or shafts must be supported by some form of bracket to keep the oscillation plates parallel to the disc magnet segments. Each eccentric which moves a ball bearing attached to arms on the oscillation plates must make one full 360 degree revolution within the angular displacement arc between two adjacent rotor disc magnet segments. Two small pivot brackets are attached to the extreme, non-magnetic ends of the oscillation plates to allow these plates to oscillate freely with a minimum of friction.

The basic rotational relationship between the magnetic oscillating pairs, and the magnetic segmented disc, will have a bearing on the gear reduction ratio required for the gear drive unit coupled to the small DC motors. Fairly rapid oscillation is necessary to maintain a reasonably acceptable disc speed which will be required for most power applications. The size of the eccentrics which oscillate the oscillating magnet pairs will be determined by the full oscillating arc needed and the mechanical advantage required by the oscillation plate in order to cause the optimum rotation of the magnetic disc drive unit.

Proper magnetic disc drive functioning requires the pulling magnets of the oscillating magnet pairs to enter the disc's interference circle within the mutual magnetic field zone between the two local interacting magnets on the disc's rim. Since the disc will revolve continuously, the withdrawing phase of the "pulling" magnets brings the "pushing" magnets of the couple into the disc's interference circle within the mutual magnetic field zone, for effective interaction with the adjacent disc magnet segment.

All of the magnet segments on the oscillation plates which form the magnetic couples must be in line with the corresponding disc magnet segments in order to maintain an optimum interaction between them.
Because there is no natural, lock-in synchronism for this type of magnetic disc drive, the multiple magnetic oscillating magnet pairs must be of the minimum interference type, which consists of adding plastic deflectors to the oscillation plates to prevent the pulling magnets of the couple from jamming into the disc magnet segments. Since the oscillating magnet pairs must never jam into the disc and stop its rotation, the plastic deflectors will allow the oscillation plates and magnet pairs to be deflected away from all of the disc magnet segments.

The permanent magnets selected for both components of the disc drive must be uniformly identical and have the highest possible energy product or magnetic induction plus coercivity. Both of these magnetic properties will play a significant role in determining the true value of the magnetic disc drive unit. At the present time the rare-earth/cobalt permanent magnets offer the highest possible magnetic properties for this application, but their cost is very high and currently not considered cost effective for the magnetic disc drive. Since costs will also play a major role in the competitive value of the disc drive, the magnets selected must show the highest possible cost/effectiveness ratio, along with long operating life.

Rectangular ceramic permanent magnets with large flat pole faces are preferred for the disc drive prototypes, and there is no theoretical limit to the size of both interacting components. A practical limit to the actual size of the components is imposed by weight and material cost restrictions plus available space, but nearly any practical number and size of uniformly identical magnets may be used to make up the magnetic disc drive.

It will be advantageous to build up each disc magnet station into clusters of up to about twelve to twenty four individual magnets which are arranged in lengths of four or five units and double or triple widths depending on the disc diameter. A large diameter disc unit is always desirable since the torque output for the disc unit depends on the tangential magnetic force produced by all of the oscillating magnet couple stations multiplied by the disc radius.

The large diameter disc speed will be relatively slow, in the 20 to 30 r.p.m. range, so that the disc output speed must be stepped up to a useful 750 to 1200 r.p.m. speed range, by a belt drive arrangement. The magnetic disc drive output is best adapted to run an electrical generator or alternator to produce electrical power for various household purposes.

An advantage to using silicon photovoltaic solar cells on an exposed rooftop location as a power source, is that they are capable of providing a partial E.M.F. under non-sunlight/overcast sky conditions. With full sunlight exposure the electrical energy produced will run the magnetic disc drive at its maximum possible speed, with reduced sunlight levels producing a corresponding proportionate reduction in the disc output speed.

A workable option exists for using a greater number of silicon photocells than would be normally necessary for full sunlight operation. The number of cells selected would be capable of running the magnetic disc drive at full speed under overcast sky conditions, with any excess full sunlight current bypassed to storage batteries. This option is a desirable arrangement since the disc will be assured of full electrical input power each day, with battery power available to make up the loss from any dark daytime sky conditions.

The principal object of the invention is to provide the highest torque output for the large driven disc from the lowest possible torque input for the multiple oscillating magnet pairs, as a useful power step-up means for electrical generating applications.

Another object of the invention is to provide a step-up power source which can be produced at competitive costs, requires no combustible fuel and is non-polluting while running silently and continuously.

It is a further object of the invention to provide a natural energy source which has an extremely long operating life, with a maximum of operating effectiveness, component resistance to degradation, with a minimum of parts replacement and maintenance.

The various features of the invention with its basic design geometry will be more apparent from the following description and drawings which illustrate the preferred embodiment. It should be understood that variations may be made in the specific components, without departing from the spirit and scope of the invention as described and illustrated.

Referring to the Drawings:
Fig. 1 is a top, external view of the magnetic disc drive.

Fig. 2 is an external side view of the magnetic disc drive.
Fig. 3 is an enlarged top view of one oscillating magnet couple.

Fig. 4 is a top, break-away view of several oscillating magnet pairs connected together with linkage.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENT

The invention 1, is comprised of two basic components: a large driven disc 2, and multiple oscillating magnet pairs 3, which are closely interrelated and mounted on a common base plate 4.
Multiple, identical permanent magnets 2a, are equally spaced around the periphery of the large driven disc 2, by means of support angles 2b, and angle brackets 2c, which are secured to the disc 2, with standard hardware.

A drive shaft 5, is fastened to the disc 2, by means of a hub 2d, and supported by two ball bearings 6. One of the ball bearings 6, is fitted into a bore within the base plate 4, while the other ball bearing 6, is fitted into a box-base 7, which is fastened to the base plate 4, with standard hardware.

The multiple oscillating magnet pairs 3, are a flat, non-magnetic plate 3a, with opposite pole magnet segments 3b and 3c, respectively, attached to the side of the flat oscillation plate 3a. Two pivot brackets 3d, are attached to the top and bottom of the flat plate 3a, which pivot the oscillation plate 3a, on the pivot rod 8. One end of the pivot rod 8, is fitted into the base plate 4, and the opposite end is supported by an elongated Z-shaped bracket 8a.
An arm 9, is fastened to a flat face of the flat plate 3a, which supports the pin 10a, which carries the ball bearing 10, as it rolls on the eccentric disc 11. The off-centre disc 11, is fastened to the slow speed shaft of the gear reduction unit 12, which is driven by the small DC motor 13. A return tension spring 14, is connected to the oscillation plate 3a, by eyelet 3e. The opposite end of the return tension spring 14, is retained by the post 15, which is pressed into the base plate 4. Motors 13, are powered by multiple arrays of silicon photovoltaic solar cells 16. Electrical leads 16a, conduct solar converted electricity to the motors 13, with any excess current stored in the batteries 16b.

The motor driven oscillation stations become the master stations for this invention 1, from which three to five slave oscillation stations are driven. The reciprocating motion is transmitted by straight links 17, which are pinned to the link arms 18, which in turn are secured to the flat plates 3a.

All of the slave oscillation stations must be precisely adjusted to exactly the same angular position as the master driving oscillation station so that all stations are synchronised to allow proper functioning of the rotating disc 2.

For very large discs 2, with many disc magnets, several master oscillation stations, with a fixed number of slave oscillation stations will be required. All of the master oscillation driving-stations will have to be electrically synchronised to maintain overall synchronisation, with all of the eccentrics 11, set at the same angle at start-up of the disc.

Either end of the drive shaft 5, may be connected with a speed step-up belt drive arrangement, which is not shown here.

Plastic deflectors 19, are added to either side of the oscillation plates 3a, adjacent to the opposite magnets segments 3b, and 3c, their exact position depending on the direction of rotation of disc 2. These act as an anti-jamming device for the magnets.

Magnetic field bias angles 3f and 3g (Fig.3), are required for the sides of plates 3a, in order to assure an optimum “pull-push” sequence on the large drive disc 2, as the magnetic oscillation pairs 3, are actuated. The bias angle 3f, is matched to the magnet segment 3b, while bias angle 3g is matched to magnet segment 3c.

None of the load components which are external to the device, such as an electric generator or alternator, are shown as a part of this invention, since a variety of load devices and arrangements are possible for the magnetic disc drive.
This invention relates to the construction of a compressor, and more particularly to a combined fluid-operated engine and compressor.

The primary object of the invention, is the provision of a compressor of this character, wherein there is arranged an automatically counterbalanced crankshaft and fluid equalisers within a storage tank, which makes it possible for the engine to operate on constant reserve tank pressure, so as to actuate additional equipment, the pistons for the engine also being automatically balanced and suspended when the engine is operating.

Another object of the invention is the provision of an engine which is operated by air under pressure, the air being supplied by compressors which are in a bank with the engine construction.

A further object of this invention is the provision of an engine of this type of novel construction as the engine and the compressors are operated from the same crankshaft, which is of the automatically balanced type, so that high efficiency is attained.

A still further object of the invention is the provision of an engine of this character which is comparatively simple in construction, thoroughly reliable and efficient in its operation, strong, durable, and inexpensive to manufacture.

With these and other objects in view, the invention consists in the features of construction, combination and arrangement of parts as will be described more fully here, illustrated in the accompanying drawings which disclose the preferred embodiment of the invention, and pointed out in the appended Claim.

In the drawings, Fig.1 is a perspective view of the engine constructed in accordance with the invention.
Fig. 2 is a vertical transverse cross-section view through the compressor part of the engine.
Fig. 3 is a vertical cross-sectional view through the power part of the engine.

Fig. 4 is a detail elevation of the crankshaft of the engine.

Fig. 5 is an enlarged cross-sectional view through one of the electric heaters for the engine.
Fig. 6 is a vertical, longitudinal, cross-sectional view through the air storage tank, including the equaliser.

The same reference numbers are used for each individual part in every view in every drawing.

Referring to the drawings in detail, the engine in its entirety, composes a cylinder block 10 having inside it, the series of compressor cylinders 11 and the power cylinders 12. The block 10 is of the V-type and the upper ends of the cylinders are closed off by the removable heads 13 and 14 which are held in place by conventional head bolts 15. Beneath block 10 is the crank case 16, which has detachable plates 17 at opposite sides, held in place by fasteners 18, and seated so as to be leak proof. The block 10 is chambered to provide a water jacket 19 surrounding the cylinders, while at the forward end of the block are water pumps 20, circulating water through the inlet pipe 21 which leads into the jacket and the water exits from the jacket through the outlet pipe 22. Beside the pumps 20, is a fan 23 which is operated from the same belt 24 which drives the pumps.

Working inside the cylinders 11, are the reciprocating pistons 25, their rods 26 sliding through packing glands 27 and fixed to crossheads 28 which slide on their mounting guides 29 which are secured to the walls of the crank case 16. These crossheads 28 are fitted with wrist pins 30, forming a pivoting connection with the connecting rods 31, which are connected to their cranks 33 by their bearings 32. The cranks 33 form part of a counter balanced crankshaft 34, which is mounted in supports 35 attached to the crank case 16, the shaft being provided with the required bearings 36.
The inner ends of the cylinders 11 are fitted with inner end heads 37, which are provided with air intake ports 38 fitted with spring ball inlet checks 39, the air entering through passages 40 which open outside the block 10. Glands 27 are mounted in the heads 37.

The heads 13 and 37 are provided with the compressed air outlets 41 and 42, which are fitted with spring ball checks 43. The heads 13 are also provided with the central air inlets 44, which are fitted with spring checks 45. Couplings 46 attach the air outlets 41 and 42 to their outlet feed pipes 47 and 48. These pipes lead to a main conduit 49 which is located in the centre channel 50 of the block 10.

At the rear end of the block 10, mounted on shaft 36, there is a conventional flywheel 51.
Working inside the cylinders 12 are the pistons 52, with their piston rods 53 sliding through packing glands 54 and fixed in crossheads 55 which slide along their mounting guides 56, mounted on the inner walls of the crank case 16. The crossheads 55 have wrist pins 57 which provide a pivoting joint for the connecting rods 58 which are connected by their bearings 59 to their cranks 60 of the crank shaft 34, the inner ends of the cylinders 12 being closed by the inner heads 61 and their associated glands 54.

On the cylinders 12 are slide valve chests 62 in which are the slide valves 63, these being operated by throw rods 64 actuated by cams 65 and the valves controlling the admission and exhaust of air into and out of the cylinders 12, through the ports 66 and 67, and these valves 63 are provided with ports 68 for the delivery of air under pressure from the inlet passages 69 common to a pipe 70 coming from a compressed air storage tank 71.

The bottom of the crank case 16 is fitted with a removable plate 72 which is secured in place by fasteners 73, and when this plate is removed, it provides access to the crank shaft 34 and the bearings for the engine, as well as other parts inside the crank case.

Leading into the cylinders 11 are the passages 74 of a lubricating system (not shown). The compressed air storage tank 71 has inside it a double-check discharge nozzle 75, supported by member 76. Leading to this equaliser is an air inlet pipe 77 which connects through its valved section 78 to the compressed air reservoir 79.
In the equaliser 75, are the spaced spring ball checks 80 and 81, one being for the inlet side and the other for the outlet side of the equaliser. This pipe 77 is connected with the main conduit 49, while a pipe 82 connects to pipe 70. The tank is also fitted with an automatic relief valve 83 and this valve can be of any approved type.

Placed around the pipes 70 which connect to the air passages 69 (Fig.3) are electric heating units 84 to heat the pressurised air to above freezing temperature when delivered from tank 71 to the cylinders 12. Supported on the block 10 is an electric generator 85 which is driven from the shaft 34 (Fig.2) through a belt 24 (Fig.1) and this generator is included in an electric circuit which also has the heaters 84 so that these will operate from current supplied by the generator.

The compressed air storage tank 71 with the equaliser is constructed so that it is possible to pump air into it while it contains an air pressure of 200 pounds per square inch while the compressors are only pumping against 15 pounds per square inch of (atmospheric) pressure. An outside air pressure source can be coupled with the tank to augment that pressure derived from the cylinders 11 of the engine.
METHOD AND APPARATUS FOR OPERATING
AN ENGINE ON COMPRESSED GAS

ABSTRACT

The present invention relates to a method and apparatus for operating an engine having a cylinder containing a reciprocating piston driven by a compressed gas. The apparatus comprises a source of compressed gas connected to a distributor which conveys the compressed gas to the cylinder. A valve is provided to admit compressed gas to the cylinder when the piston is in an approximately Top Dead Centre position.

In one embodiment of the present invention, the timing of the opening of the valve is advanced so that the compressed gas is admitted to the cylinder progressively further before the Top Dead Centre position of the piston as the speed of the engine increases.

In a further embodiment of the present invention, a valve actuator is provided which increases the length of time over which the valve remains open to admit compressed gas to the cylinder as the speed of the engine increases.

A still further embodiment of the present invention relates to an apparatus for adapting a conventional internal combustion engine for operation on compressed gas.

US Patent References:

4,018,050 Apr., 1977 Murphy 60/412.

DESCRIPTION

BACKGROUND AND SUMMARY OF THE PRESENT INVENTION

The present invention is a method and apparatus for operating an engine using a compressed gas as the motive fluid. More particularly, the present invention relates to an apparatus for adapting a pre-existing internal combustion engine for operation on compressed gas.

Air pollution is one of the most serious problems facing the world today. One of the major contributors to air pollution is the ordinary internal combustion engine which is used in most motor vehicles today. Various devices, including many items required by legislation, have been proposed in an attempt to limit the pollutants which an internal combustion engine exhausts to the air. However, most of these devices have met with limited success and are often both prohibitively expensive and complex. A clean alternative to the internal combustion engine is needed to power vehicles and other machinery.

A compressed gas, preferably air, would provide an ideal motive fluid for an engine, since it would eliminate the usual pollutants exhausted from an internal combustion engine. An apparatus for converting an internal combustion engine for operation on compressed air is disclosed in U.S. Pat. No. 3,885,387 issued May 27, 1975 to Simington. The Simington patent discloses an apparatus including a source of compressed air and a rotating valve actuator which opens and closes a plurality of mechanical poppet valves. The valves deliver compressed air in timed sequence to the cylinders of an engine through adapters located in the spark plug holes. However, the output speed of an engine of this type is limited by the speed of the mechanical valves and the fact that the length of time over which each of the valves remains open cannot be varied as the speed of the engine increases.

Another apparatus for converting an internal combustion engine for operation on steam or compressed air is disclosed in U.S. Pat. No. 4,102,130 issued July 25, 1978 to Stricklin. The Stricklin patent discloses a device
which changes the valve timing of a conventional four stroke engine such that the intake and exhaust valves open once for every revolution of the engine instead of once every other revolution of the engine. A reversing valve is provided which delivers live steam or compressed air to the intake valves and is subsequently reversed to allow the exhaust valves to deliver the expanded steam or air to the atmosphere. A reversing valve of this type however does not provide a reliable apparatus for varying the amount of motive fluid injected into the cylinders when it is desired to increase the speed of the engine. Further, a device of the type disclosed in the Stricklin patent requires the use of multiple reversing valves if the cylinders in a multi-cylinder engine were to be fired sequentially.

Therefore, it is an object of the present invention to provide a reliable method and apparatus for operating an engine or converting an engine for operation with a compressed gas.

A further object of the present invention is to provide a method and apparatus which is effective to deliver a constantly increasing amount of compressed gas to an engine as the speed of the engine increases.

A still further object of the present invention is to provide a method and apparatus which will operate an engine using compressed gas at a speed sufficient to drive a conventional automobile at highway speeds.

It is still a further object of the present invention to provide a method and apparatus which is readily adaptable to a standard internal combustion engine, to convert the internal combustion engine for operation with a compressed gas.

Another object of the invention is to provide a method and apparatus which utilises cool expanded gas, exhausted from a compressed gas engine, to operate an air-conditioning unit and/or an oil-cooler.

These and other objects are realised by the method and apparatus of the present invention for operating an engine having at least one cylinder containing a reciprocating piston and using compressed gas as the motive fluid. The apparatus includes a source of compressed gas, a distributor connected it for conveying the compressed gas to the cylinder or cylinders. A valve is provided for admitting the compressed gas to the cylinder when the piston is in an approximately Top Dead Centre position within the cylinder. An exhaust is provided for exhausting the expanded gas from the cylinder as the piston returns to approximately the Top Dead Centre position.

In a preferred embodiment of the present invention, a device is provided for varying the duration of each engine cycle over which the valve remains open to admit compressed gas to the cylinder, dependent upon the speed of the engine. In a further preferred embodiment of the present invention, an apparatus for advancing the timing of the opening of the valve is arranged to admit the compressed gas to the cylinder progressively further and further before the Top Dead Centre position of the piston, as the speed of the engine increases.

Further features of the present invention include a valve for controlling the amount of compressed gas admitted to the distributor. Also, a portion of the gas which has been expanded in the cylinder and exhausted through the exhaust valve, is delivered to a compressor to be compressed again and returned to the source of compressed gas. A gear train can be engaged to drive the compressor selectively at different operating speeds, depending upon the pressure maintained at the source of compressed air and/or the speed of the engine. Still further, a second portion of the exhaust gas is used to cool a lubricating fluid for the engine or to operate an air-conditioning unit.

In a preferred embodiment of the present invention, the valve for admitting compressed gas to the cylinder is operated electrically. The device for varying the duration of each engine cycle, over which the intake valve remains open, as the speed of the engine increases, comprises a rotating element whose effective length increases as the speed of the engine increases, causing a first contact on the rotating element to be electrically connected to a second contact on the rotating element, for a longer period of each engine cycle. The second contact operates the valve causing it to remain in an open position for a longer period of each engine cycle, as the speed of the engine increases.

Still further features of the present invention include an adaptor plate for supporting the distributor above the intake manifold of a conventional internal combustion engine after a carburettor has been removed to allow air to enter the cylinders of the engine through the intake manifold and conventional intake valves. Another adaptor plate is arranged over an exhaust passageway of the internal combustion engine to reduce the cross-sectional area of the exhaust passageway.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
Preferred embodiments of a method and apparatus for operating an engine according to the present invention will be described with reference to the accompanying drawings in which components have the same reference numbers in each drawing.

Fig. 1 is a schematic representation of an apparatus according to the present invention arranged on an engine:

![Fig. 1](image1.png)

Fig. 2 is a side view of one embodiment of a valve actuator according to the present invention:

![Fig. 2](image2.png)
Fig. 3 is a cross-sectional view taken along the line 3--3 in Fig. 2.

Fig. 4 is a cross-sectional view of a second embodiment of a valve actuator according to the present invention.

Fig. 5 is a view taken along the line 5--5 in Fig. 4.
Fig. 6 is a cross-sectional view of a third embodiment of a valve actuator according to the present invention;

Fig. 7 is a view taken along the line 7--7 in Fig. 6.
Fig. 8 is a cross-sectional view of a gearing unit to drive a compressor according to the present invention.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS

With reference to Fig.1, an engine block 21 (shown in phantom) having two banks of cylinders with each bank including cylinders 20 having pistons 22 which reciprocate in them in a conventional manner (only one of which is shown in phantom). While the illustrated engine is a V-8 engine, it will be apparent that the present invention is applicable to an engine having any number of pistons and cylinders with the V-8 engine being utilised for illustration purposes only. A compressed gas tank 23 is provided to store a compressed gas at high pressure. It may also be desirable to include a small electric or gas compressor to provide compressed gas to supplement the compressed gas held in the tank 23. In a preferred embodiment, the compressed gas is air which can be obtained from any suitable source.

A line 25 transports the gas withdrawn from the tank 23 when a conventional shut-off valve 27 is open. In addition, a solenoid valve 29 preferably operated by a suitable key-operated engine switch (not shown) is also placed in the line 25. In normal operation, the valve 27 is maintained open at all times with the solenoid valve 29 operating as a selective shut off valve to start and stop the engine 21.

A suitable regulating valve 31 is arranged downstream of the solenoid valve 29 and is connected by a linkage 33 to a throttle linkage 35 which is operator-actuated by any suitable apparatus such as a foot pedal (not shown). The line 25 enters an end of a distributor 33 and is connected to an end of a pipe 35 which is closed at the other end. A plurality of holes, which are equal to the number of cylinders in the engine 21, are provided on either side of the pipe 35 along the length of the pipe 35.

When the present invention is used to adapt a conventional internal combustion engine for operation on compressed gas, an adaptor plate 36 is provided to support the distributor 33 in spaced relation from the usual intake opening in the intake manifold of the engine after a conventional carburettor has been removed. In this way, air is permitted to enter the internal combustion engine through the usual passageways and to be admitted to the cylinders through suitable intake valves (not shown). The adaptor plate 36 is attached to the engine block 21 and the distributor 33 by any suitable apparatus, e.g., bolts.

Each of the holes in the pipe 35 is connected in fluid-tight manner to a single line 37. Each line 37 carries the compressed gas to a single cylinder 20. In a preferred embodiment, each of the lines 37 is 1/2 inch high pressure plastic tubing attached through suitable connectors to the distributor 33 and the pipe 35. Each of the lines 37 is connected to a valve 39 which is secured in an opening provided near the top of each of the cylinders 20. In the case of a conversion of a standard internal combustion engine, the valves 39 can be conveniently screwed into a
tapped hole in the cylinder 20 typically provided for a spark plug of the internal combustion engine. In a preferred embodiment, the valves 39 are solenoid actuated valves in order to provide a fast and reliable opening and closing of the valves 39.

Each of the valves 39 is energised by a valve actuator 41 through one of a plurality of wires 43. The valve actuator 41 is driven by a shaft of the engine similar to the drive for a conventional distributor of an internal combustion engine. That is, a shaft 55 of the valve actuator 41 is driven in synchronism with the engine 21 at one half the speed of the engine 21.

A first embodiment of the valve actuator 41 (Fig.2 and Fig.3), receives electrical power through a wire 45 which is energised in a suitable manner by a battery, and a coil if necessary (not shown) as is conventional in an internal combustion engine. The wire 45 is attached to a central post 47 by a nut 49. The post 47 is connected to a conducting plate 51 arranged in a housing 53 for the valve actuator 41. Within the housing 53, the shaft 55 has an insulating element 57 secured to an end of the shaft 55 and rotates with it when the shaft 55 is driven by the engine 21. A first end of a flexible contact 59 is continuously biased against the conducting plate 51 to receive electricity from the battery or other suitable source. The other end of the contact 59 is connected to a conducting sleeve 60 which is in constant contact with a spring biased contact 61 which is arranged within the sleeve 60. The contact 61 is pressed by a spring 63 which pushes contact 61 towards a side wall of the housing 53.
With reference to Fig.3, a plurality of contacts 65 are spaced from one another and are arranged around the periphery of the housing 53 at the same level as the spring biased contact 61. Each contact 65 is electrically connected to a post 67 which extends outside of the housing 53. The number of contacts 65 is equal to the number of cylinders in the engine 21. One of the wires 43, which actuate the valves 39, is secured to each of the posts 67.

In operation, as the shaft 55 rotates in synchronism with the engine 21, the insulating element 57 rotates and electricity is ultimately delivered to successive pairs of the contacts 65 and wires 43 through the spring loaded contact 61 and the flexible contact 59. In this way, each of the electrical valves 39 is activated and opened in the proper timed sequence to admit compressed gas to each of the cylinders 20 to drive the pistons 22 on a downward stroke.

The embodiment illustrated in Fig.2 and Fig.3 is effective in causing each of the valves 39 to remain open for a long enough period of time to admit sufficient compressed gas to each of the cylinders 20 of the engine 21 to drive the engine 21. The length of each of the contacts 65 around the periphery of the housing 53 is sufficient to permit the speed of the engine to be increased when desired by the operator by moving the throttle linkage 35 which actuates the linkage 33 to further open the regulating valve 31 to admit more compressed gas from the tank 23 to the distributor 33. However, it has been found that the amount of air admitted by the valves 39 when using the first embodiment of the valve actuator 41 (Fig.2 and Fig.3) is substantially more than required to operate the engine 21 at an idling speed. Therefore, it may be desirable to provide a valve actuator 41 which is capable of varying the duration of each engine cycle over which the solenoid valves 39 are actuated, i.e., remain open to admit compressed gas, as the speed of the engine 21 is varied.
A second embodiment of a valve actuator 41 which is capable of varying the duration of each engine cycle over which each of the valves 39 remains open to admit compressed gas to the cylinders 20 dependent upon the speed of the engine 21 will be described with reference to Fig.4 and Fig.5 wherein members corresponding to those of Fig.2 and Fig.3 bear like reference numbers. The wire 45 from the electricity source is attached to the post 47 by the nut 49. The post 47 has an annular contact ring 69 electrically connected to an end of the post 47 and arranged within the housing 53. The shaft 55 rotates at one half the speed of the engine as in the embodiment of Fig.2 and Fig.3.

At an upper end of the shaft 55, a splined section 71 receives a sliding insulating member 73. The splined section 71 of the shaft 55 holds the insulating member 73 securely as it rotates with shaft 55 but permits the insulating member 73 to slide axially along the length of the splined section 71. Near the shaft 55, a conductive sleeve 72 is arranged in a bore 81 in an upper surface of the insulating element 73 generally parallel to the splined section 71.
A contact 75, biased towards the annular contact ring 69 by a spring 77, is arranged within the conductive sleeve 72 and in contact with it. The conductive sleeve 72 also contacts a conductor 79 at a base of the bore 81.

The conductor 79 extends to the upper surface of the insulating element 73 near an outer periphery of the insulating element 73 where the conductor 79 is electrically connected to a flexible contact 83. The flexible contact 83 connects, one after the other, with a series of radial contacts 85 which are positioned on an upper inside surface of the housing 53. A weak spring 87 arranged around the splined section 71 engages a stop member 89 secured on the shaft 55 and the insulating element 73 to slightly bias the insulating element 73 towards the upper inside surface of the housing 53 to ensure contact between the flexible contact 83 and the upper inside surface of the housing 53. As best seen in Fig.5, the radial contacts 85 on the upper inside surface of the housing 53 are arranged generally in the form of radial spokes extending from the centre of the housing 53 with the number of contacts being equal to the number of cylinders 20 in the engine 21. The number of degrees covered by each of the radial contacts 85 gradually increases as the distance from the centre of the upper inside surface of the housing 53 increases.

In operation of the device of Fig.4 and Fig.5, as the shaft 55 rotates, electricity flows along a path through the wire 45 down through post 47 to the annular contact member 69 which is in constant contact with the spring biased contact 75. The electrical current passes through the conductive sleeve 72 to the conductor 79 and then to the flexible contact 83. As the flexible contact 83 rotates along with the insulating member 73 and the shaft 55, the tip of the flexible contact 83 successively engages each of the radial contacts 85 on the upper inside of the housing 53. As the speed of the shaft 55 increases, the insulating member 73 and the flexible contact 83 attached to it, move upwards along the splined section 71 of the shaft 55 due to the radial component of the splines in the direction of rotation under the influence of centrifugal force. As the insulating member 73 moves upwards, the flexible contact 83 is bent so that the tip of the contact 83 extends further outwards radially from the centre of the housing 53 (as seen in phantom lines in Fig.4). In other words, the effective length of the flexible contact 83 increases as the speed of the engine 21 increases.

As the flexible contact 83 is bent and the tip of the contact 83 moves outwards, the tip remains in contact with each of the radial contacts 85 for a longer period of each engine cycle due to the increased angular width of the radial contacts with increasing distance from the centre of the housing 53. In this way, the length of time over which each of the valves 39 remains open is increased as the speed of the engine is increased. Thus, a larger quantity of compressed gas or air is injected into the cylinders as the speed increases. Conversely, as the speed decreases and the insulating member 73 moves downwards along the splined section 71, a minimum quantity of air is injected into the cylinder due to the shorter length of the individual radial contact 85 which is in contact with the flexible contact 83. In this way, the amount of compressed gas that is used during idling of the engine 21 is at a minimum whereas the amount of compressed gas which is required to increase the speed of the engine 21 to a level suitable to drive a vehicle on a highway is readily available.

Shown in Fig.6 and Fig.7, is a third embodiment of a valve actuator 41 according to the present invention. This embodiment includes a curved insulating element 91 having it’s first end able to pivot, being secured by any suitable device such as screw 92 to the shaft 55 for co-rotation with the shaft 55. The screw 92 is screwed into a tapped hole in the insulating element 91 so that a tab 94 at an end of the screw 92 engages a groove 96 provided in the shaft 55. In this way, the insulating element 91 rotates positively with the shaft 55. However, as the shaft 55...
rotates faster, the other end 98 of the insulating element 91 is permitted to pivot outwards under the influence of centrifugal force because of the groove 96 provided in the shaft 55. A spring 93, connected between the second end 98 of the element 91 and the shaft 55 urges the second end of the element 91 towards the centre of the housing 53.

A contact 99 similar to the contact 59 (Fig.2) is arranged so that one end of the contact piece 99 is in constant contact with the conducting plate 51 located centrally within the housing 53. The other end of the contact 99 engages a conductive sleeve 101 arranged in bore 102. A contact element 95 is arranged in the conductive sleeve 101 in constant contact with the sleeve 101. The bore 102 is arranged generally parallel to the shaft 55 near the second end of the curved insulating element 91. The contact 95 is biased by a spring 97 towards the upper inside surface of the housing 53 for selective contact with each of the plurality of radial contacts 85 which increase in arc length towards the outer peripheral surface of the housing 53 (Fig.6).

When the device shown in Fig.6 and Fig.7 is operating, as the shaft 55 rotates the curved insulating element 91 rotates with the shaft 55 and the second end 98 of the insulating element 91 tends to pivot about the shaft 55 due to centrifugal force. Thus, as the effective length of the contact 95 increases, i.e., as the curved insulating element 91 pivots further outwards, the number of degrees of rotation over which the contact 95 is in contact with each of the radial contacts 85 on the upper inside surface of the housing 53 increases thereby allowing each of the valves 39 to remain open for a longer period of each engine cycle, which in turn, allows more compressed gas enter the respective cylinder 20 to further increase the speed of the engine 21.

With reference to Fig.1, a mechanical advance linkage 104 which is connected to the throttle linkage 35, advances the initiation of the opening of each valve 39 such that compressed gas is injected into the respective cylinder further before the piston 22 in the respective cylinder 20 reaches a Top Dead Centre position as the speed of the engine is increased by moving the throttle linkage 35. The advance linkage 104 is similar to a conventional standard mechanical advance employed on an internal combustion engine. In other words, the linkage 104 varies the relationship between the angular positions of a point on the shaft 55 and a point on the housing 53 containing the contacts. Alternatively, a conventional vacuum advance could also be employed. By advancing the timing of the opening of the valves 39, the speed of the engine can more easily be increased.

The operation of the engine cycle according to the present invention will now be described. The compressed gas injected into each cylinder of the engine 21 drives the respective piston 22 downwards to rotate a conventional crankshaft (not shown). The movement of the piston downwards causes the compressed gas to expand rapidly and cool. As the piston 22 begins to move upwards in the cylinder 20 a suitable exhaust valve (not shown), arranged to close an exhaust passageway, is opened by any suitable apparatus. The expanded gas is then expelled through the exhaust passageway. As the piston 22 begins to move downwards again, a suitable intake valve opens to admit ambient air to the cylinder. The intake valve closes and the ambient air is compressed on the subsequent upward movement of the piston until the piston reaches approximately the Top Dead Centre position at which time the compressed gas is again injected into the cylinder 20 to drive the piston 22 downwards and the cycle begins again.

In the case of adapting a conventional internal combustion engine for operation on compressed gas, a plurality of plates 103 are arranged, preferably over an end of the exhaust passageways, in order to reduce the outlet size of the exhaust passageways of the conventional internal combustion engine. In the illustrated embodiment, a single
plate having an opening in the centre is bolted to the outside exhaust passageway on each bank of the V-8 engine, while another single plate having two openings in it, is arranged with one opening over each of the interior exhaust passageways on each bank of the V-8 engine. A line 105 is suitably attached to each of the adapter plates to carry the exhaust to an appropriate location. In a preferred embodiment, the exhaust lines 105 are made from 1.5" plastic tubing.

In a preferred embodiment, the exhaust lines 105 of one bank of the V-8 engine are collected in a line 107 and fed to an inlet of a compressor 109. The pressure of the exhaust gas emanating from the engine 21 according to the present invention is approximately 25 p.s.i. In this way, the compressor 109 does not have to pull the exhaust into the compressor since the gas exhausted from the engine 21 is at a positive pressure. The positive pressure of the incoming fluid increases the efficiency and reduces wear on the compressor 109. The exhaust gas is compressed in the compressor 109 and returned through a line 111 and a check valve 113 to the compressed gas storage tank 23. The check valve 113 prevents the flow of compressed gas stored in the tank 23 back towards the compressor 109.

A suitable pressure sensor 115 is arranged at an upper end of the tank 23 and sends a signal along a line 117 when the pressure exceeds a predetermined level and when the pressure drops below a predetermined level. The line 117 controls an electrically activated clutch 119 positioned at the front end of the compressor 109. The clutch 119 is operated to engage and disengage the compressor 109 from a drive pulley 121. Also, the signal carried by the line 117 activates a suitable valve 123 arranged on compressor housing 125 to exhaust the air entering the compressor housing 125 from the line 107 when the clutch 119 has disengaged the compressor 109 from the drive pulley 121.

In a preferred embodiment, when the pressure is the tank 23 reaches approximately 600 p.s.i., the clutch 119 is disengaged and the compressor 109 is deactivated and the valve 123 is opened to exhaust the expanded gas delivered to the compressor 109 from the line 107 to the atmosphere. When the pressure within the tank 23 drops below approximately 500 p.s.i., the sensor 115 sends a signal to engage the clutch 119 and close the valve 123, thereby operating the compressor 109 for supplying the tank 23 with compressed gas.

The pulley 121 which drives the compressor 109 through the clutch 119 is driven by a belt 127 which is driven by a pulley 129 which operates through a gear box 131. With reference to Fig.1 and Fig.8, a second pulley 133 on the gear box is driven by a belt 135 from a pulley 137 arranged on a drive shaft 139 of the engine 21. The pulley 137 drives a splined shaft 140 which has a first gear 141 and a second larger gear 143 placed on it, which rotates with the splined shaft 140. The splined shaft 140 permits axial movement of the gears 141 and 143 along the shaft 140.
In normal operation (as seen in Fig.8), the first gear 141 engages a third gear 145 arranged on a shaft 147 which drives the pulley 129. The shafts 140 and 147 are arranged in suitable bearings 149 positioned at each end of it. When the speed of the engine 21 drops below a predetermined level, a suitable sensor 151 responsive to the speed of the drive shaft 139 of the engine 21 generates a signal which is transmitted through a line 153 to a solenoid actuator 155 arranged within the gear box 131. The solenoid actuator 155 moves the first and second gears 141, 143 axially along the splined shaft 140 to the right as seen in Fig.8 so that the second, larger gear 143 engages a fourth smaller gear 157 which is arranged on the shaft 147. The ratio of the second gear 143 to the fourth gear 157 is preferably approximately 3 to 1.

In this way, when the speed of the engine 21 drops below the predetermined level as sensed by the sensor 151 (which predetermined level is insufficient to drive the compressor 109 at a speed sufficient to generate the 500-600 pounds of pressure which is preferably in the tank 23), the solenoid actuator 155 is energised to slide the gears 143, 141 axially along the splined shaft 140 so that the second, larger gear 143 engages the fourth, smaller gear 157 to drive the pulley 129 and hence the compressor 109 at a higher rate, to generate the desired pressure. When the speed of the engine increases above the predetermined level, which, in a preferred embodiment is approximately 1500 rpm, the solenoid actuator 155 is deactivated by the sensor 151 thereby moving the gears 143 and 141 to the left as seen in Fig.8 so that the first gear 141, engages again with the third gear 145 to effectuate a 1 to 1 ratio between the output shaft 139 of the engine 21 and the pulley 129.

The other bank of the V-8 engine has its exhaust ports arranged with adapter plates 103 similar to those on the first bank. However, the exhaust from this bank of the engine 21 is not collected and circulated through the compressor 109. In a preferred embodiment, a portion of the exhaust is collected in a line 159 and fed to an enlarged chamber 161. A second fluid is fed through a line 163 into the chamber 161 to be cooled by the cool exhaust emanating from the engine 21 in the line 159. The second fluid in the line 163 may be either transmission fluid contained in a transmission associated with the engine 21 or a portion of the oil used to lubricate the engine 21. A second portion of the exhaust from the second bank of the V-8 engine is removed from the line 159 in a line 165 and used as a working fluid in an air conditioning system or for any other suitable use.

It should be noted that the particular arrangement utilised for collecting and distributing the gas exhausted from the engine 21 would be determined by the use for which the engine is employed. In other words, it may be
advantageous to rearrange the exhaust tubing such that a larger or smaller percentage of the exhaust is routed through the compressor 109. It should also be noted that since the exhaust lines 105 are plastic tubing, a rearrangement of the lines for a different purpose is both simple and inexpensive.

In operation of the engine of the present invention, the engine 21 is started by energising the solenoid valve 29 and any suitable starting device (not shown), e.g., a conventional electric starter as used on an internal combustion engine. Compressed gas from the full tank 23 flows through the line 25 and a variable amount of the compressed gas is admitted to the distributor 33 by controlling the regulator valve 31 through the linkage 33 and the operator actuated throttle linkage 35. The compressed gas is distributed to each of the lines 37 which lead to the individual cylinders 20. The compressed gas is admitted to each of the cylinders 20 in timed relationship to the position of the pistons within the cylinders by opening the valves 39 with the valve actuator 41.

When it is desired to increase the speed of the engine, the operator moves the throttle linkage 35 which simultaneously admits a larger quantity of compressed gas to the distributor 33 from the tank 23 by further opening the regulator valve 31. The timing of the valve actuator 41 is also advanced through the linkage 104. Still further, as the speed of the engine 21 increases, the effective length of the rotating contact 83 (Fig.4) or 95 (Fig.6) increases thereby electrically contacting a wider portion of one of the stationary radial contacts 85 to cause each of the valves 39 to remain open for a longer period of each engine cycle to admit a larger quantity of compressed gas to each of the cylinders 20.

As can be seen, the combination of the regulating valve 31, the mechanical advance 104, and the valve actuator 41, combine to produce a compressed gas engine which is quickly and efficiently adaptable to various operating speeds. However, all three of the controls need not be employed simultaneously. For example, the mechanical advance 104 could be utilised without the benefit of one of the varying valve actuators 41 but the high speed operation of the engine may not be as efficient. By increasing the duration of each engine cycle over which each of the valves 39 remains open to admit compressed gas to each of the cylinders 20 as the speed increases, conservation of compressed gas during low speed operation and efficient high speed operation are both possible.

After the compressed gas admitted to the cylinder 20 has forced the piston 22 downwards within the cylinder to drive the shaft 139 of the engine, the piston 22 moves upwards within the cylinder 20 and forces the expanded gas out through a suitable exhaust valve (not shown) through the adapter plate 103 (if employed) and into the exhaust line 105. The cool exhaust can then be collected in any suitable arrangement to be compressed and returned to the tank 23 or used for any desired purpose including use as a working fluid in an air conditioning system or as a coolant for oil.

When using the apparatus and method of the present invention to adapt a ordinary internal combustion engine for operation with compressed gas it can be seen that considerable savings in weight are achieved. For example, the ordinary cooling system including a radiator, fan, hoses, etc. can be eliminated since the compressed gas is cooled as it expands in the cylinder. In addition, there are no explosions within the cylinder to generate heat. Further reductions in weight are obtained by employing plastic tubing for the lines which carry the compressed gas between the distributor and the cylinders and for the exhaust lines. Once again, heavy tubing is not required since there is little or no heat generated by the engine of the present invention. In addition, the noise generated by an engine according to the present invention is considerably less than that generated by an ordinary internal combustion engine since there are no explosions taking place within the cylinders.

The principles of preferred embodiments of the present invention have been described in the foregoing specification. However, the invention which is intended to be protected is not to be construed as limited to the particular embodiments disclosed. The embodiments are to be regarded as illustrative rather than restrictive. Variations and changes may be made by others without departing from the spirit of the invention. Accordingly, it is expressly intended that all such variations and changes which fall within the spirit and the scope of the present invention as defined in the appended claims be embraced thereby.
CLOSED MOTIVE POWER SYSTEM
UTILISING COMPRESSED FLUIDS

ABSTRACT
Stored energy in a compressed elastic fluid is utilised in a controlled manner to pressurise an inelastic fluid and to maintain such pressurisation. The pressurised inelastic fluid is throttled to the impeller of a prime mover. Only a portion of the output energy from the prime mover is utilised to circulate the inelastic fluid so as to maintain a nearly constant volumetric balance in the system.

DESCRIPTION
The objective of the invention is to provide a closed-loop power system which utilises the expansive energy of a compressed elastic fluid, such as air, to pressurise and maintain pressurised throughout the operational cycle of the system a second non-elastic and non-compressible fluid, such as oil. The pressurised non-elastic fluid is released in a controlled manner by a throttle to the rotary impeller of a turbine or the like, having an output shaft. This shaft is coupled to a pump for the non-elastic fluid which automatically maintains the necessary circulation needed for the operation of the prime mover, and maintains a near volumetric balance in the system between the two fluids which are separated by self-adjusting free piston devices. The pump for the non-elastic fluid includes an automatic by-pass for the non-elastic fluid which eliminates the possibility of starving the pump which depends on the discharge of the non-elastic fluid at low pressure from the exhaust of the turbine. Other features and advantages of the invention will become apparent during the course of the following detailed description.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF DRAWING FIGURES

Fig.1 is a partly schematic cross-sectional view of a closed motive power system embodying the invention.
Fig. 2 is a fragmentary perspective view of a rotary prime mover utilised in the system.

Fig. 3 is an enlarged fragmentary vertical section through the prime mover taken at right angles to its rotational axis.

Fig. 4 is an enlarged fragmentary vertical section taken on line 4--4 of Fig. 1.
Fig. 5 is a similar section taken on line 5--5 of Fig. 4.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Referring to the drawings in detail, in which the same numbers refer to the same parts in each drawing, the numeral 10 designates a supply bottle or tank for a compressed elastic fluid, such as air. Preferably, the air in the bottle 10 is compressed to approximately 1,500 p.s.i. The compressed air from the bottle 10 is delivered through a suitable pressure regulating valve 11 to the chamber 12 of a high pressure tank 13 on one side of a free piston 14 in the bore of such tank. The free piston 14 separates the chamber 12 for compressed air from a second chamber 15 for an inelastic fluid, such as oil, on the opposite side of the free piston. The free piston 14 can move axially within the bore of the cylindrical tank 13 and is constantly self-adjusting there to maintain a proper volumetric balance between the two separated fluids of the system. The free piston has the ability to maintain the two fluids, air and oil, completely separated during the operation of the system.

The regulator valve 11 delivers compressed air to the chamber 12 under a pressure of approximately 500 p.s.i. The working inelastic fluid, oil, which fills the chamber 15 of high pressure tank 13 is maintained under 500 p.s.i. pressure by the expansive force of the elastic compressed air in the chamber 12 on the free piston 14. The oil in the chamber 15 is delivered to a prime mover 16, such as an oil turbine, through a suitable supply regulating or throttle valve 17 which controls the volume of pressurised oil delivered to the prime mover.
The turbine 16 embodies a stator consisting of a casing ring 18 and end cover plates 19 joined to it in a fluid-tight manner. It further embodies a single or plural stage impeller or rotor having bladed wheels 20, 21 and 22 in the illustrated embodiment. The peripheral blades 23 of these turbine wheels receive the motive fluid from the pressurised chamber 15 through serially connected nozzles 24, 25 and 26, connected generally tangentially through the stator ring 18, as shown in Fig.3. The first nozzle 24 shown schematically in Fig.1 is connected directly with the outlet of the throttle valve 17. The successive nozzles 25 and 26 deliver the pressurised working fluid serially to the blades 23 of the turbine wheels 21 and 22, all of the turbine wheels being suitably coupled to a central axial output or working shaft 27 of the turbine 16.

![Fig. 3](attachment:fig3.png)

Back-pressure sealing blocks 28, made of fibre, are contained within recesses 29 of casing ring 18 to prevent co-mingling of the working fluid and exhaust at each stage of the turbine. A back-pressure sealing block 28 is actually only required in the third stage between inlet 26 and exhaust 31, because of the pressure distribution, but such a block can be included in each stage as shown in Fig.1. The top surface, including a sloping face portion 30 on each block 28, reacts with the pressurised fluid to keep the fibre block sealed against the adjacent, bladed turbine wheel; and the longer the slope on the block to increase it’s top surface area, the greater will be the sealing pressure pushing it against the periphery of the wheel.

Leading from the final stage of the turbine 16 is a low-pressure working fluid exhaust nozzle 31 which delivers the working fluid, oil, into an oil supply chamber or reservoir 32 of a low pressure tank 33 which may be bolted to the adjacent end cover plate 19 of the turbine, as indicated at 34. The oil entering the reservoir chamber 32 from the exhaust stage of the turbine is at a pressure of about 3-5 p.s.i. In a second chamber 35 of the low pressure tank 33 separated from the chamber 32 by an automatically moving or self-adjusting free piston 36, compressed air at a balancing pressure of from 3-5 p.s.i. is maintained by a second pressure regulating valve 37. The pressure regulating valve 37 is connected with the compressed air supply line 38 which extends from the regulating valve 11 to the high pressure chamber 12 for compressed air.

Within the chamber 32 is a gear pump 39 or the like having its input shaft connected by a coupling 40 with the turbine shaft 27. Suitable reduction gearing 41 for the pump may be provided internally, as shown, or in any other conventional manner, to gear down the rotational speed derived from the turbine shaft. The pump 39 is supplied with the oil in the filled chamber 32 delivered by the exhaust nozzle or conduit 31 from the turbine. The pump, as illustrated, has twin outlet or delivery conduits 42 each having a back-pressure check valve 43 connected therein and each delivering a like volume of pressurised oil back to the high pressure chamber 15 at a pressure of about 500 p.s.i. The pump 39 also has twin fluid inlets. The pump employed is preferably of the type known on the market as "Hydreco Tandem Gear Pump," Model No. 151515L12BL, or equivalent. In some models, other types of pumps could be employed including pumps having a single inlet and outlet. The illustrated pump will operate clockwise or counter-clockwise and will deliver 14.1 g.p.m. at 1,800 r.p.m. and 1,500 p.s.i. Therefore, in the present application of the pump 39, it will be operating at considerably less than capacity and will be under no undue stress.
Since the pump depends for its supply of fluid on the delivery of oil at low pressure from the turbine 16 into the chamber 32, an automatically operating by-pass sleeve valve device 44 for oil is provided as indicated in Fig.1, Fig.4 and Fig.5. This device comprises an exterior sleeve or tube 45 having one end directly rigidly secured as at 46 to the movable free piston 36. This sleeve 45 is provided with slots 47 intermediate its ends. A co-acting interior sleeve 48 engages telescopically and slidably within the sleeve 45 and has a closed end wall 49 and ports or slots 50 intermediate its ends, as shown. The sleeve 48 communicates with one of the delivery conduits 42 by way of an elbow 51, and the sleeve 48 is also connected with the adjacent end of the pump 39, as shown.

As long as the chamber 32 is filled with low pressure oil sufficient to balance the low air pressure in the chamber 35 on the opposite side of free piston 36, such piston will be positioned as shown in Fig.1 and Fig.4 so that the slots 47 and 50 of the two sleeves 45 and 48 are out of registration and therefore no flow path exists through them. Under such circumstances, the oil from the chamber 32 will enter the pump and will be delivered by the two conduits 42 at the required pressure to the chamber 15. Should the supply of oil from the turbine 16 to the chamber 32 diminish so that pump 39 might not be adequately supplied, then the resulting drop in pressure in the chamber 32 will cause the free piston 36 to move to the left in Fig.1 and bring the slots 47 into registration or partial registration with the slots 50, as depicted in Fig.5. This will instantly establish a by-pass for oil from one conduit 42 back through the elbow 51 and tubes 48 and 45 and their registering slots to the oil chamber 32 to maintain this chamber filled and properly pressurised at all times. The by-pass arrangement is completely automatic and responds to a diminished supply of oil from the turbine into the chamber 32, so long as the required compressed air pressure of 3-5 p.s.i. is maintained in the chamber 35.

Briefly, in summary, the system operates as follows. The pressurised inelastic and non-compressible fluid, oil, from the chamber 15 is throttled into the turbine 16 by utilising the throttle valve 17 in a control station. The resulting rotation of the shaft 27 produces the required mechanical energy or work to power a given instrumentality, such as a propeller. A relatively small component of this work energy is utilised through the coupling 40 to drive the pump 39 which maintains the necessary volumetric flow of oil from the turbine back into the high pressure chamber 15, with the automatic by-pass 44 coming into operation whenever needed.

The ultimate source of energy for the closed power system is the compressed elastic fluid, air, in the tank or bottle 10 which through the regulating valves 11 and 37 maintains a constant air pressure in the required degree in each of the chambers 12 and 35. As described, the air pressure in the high pressure chamber 12 will be approximately 500 p.s.i. and in the low pressure chamber 35 will be approximately 3-5 p.s.i.

It may be observed in Fig.1 that the tank 33 is enlarged relative to the tank 13 to compensate for the space occupied by the pump and associated components. The usable volumes of the two tanks are approximately equal.
In an operative embodiment of the invention, the two free pistons 14 and 36 and the tank bores receiving them are 8 inches in diameter. The approximate diameters of the bladed turbine wheels are 18 inches. The pump 39 is approximately 10 inches long and 5 inches in diameter. The tank 13 is about 21 inches long between its crowned end walls. The tank 33 is 10 inches in diameter adjacent to the pump 39.

The terms and expressions which have been employed herein are used as terms of description and not of limitation, and there is no intention, in the use of such terms and expressions, of excluding any equivalents of the features shown and described or portions thereof but it is recognised that various modifications are possible within the scope of the invention claimed.
INERT GAS FUEL, FUEL PREPARATION APPARATUS AND SYSTEM FOR EXTRACTING USEFUL WORK FROM THE FUEL

ABSTRACT
An inert gas fuel consisting essentially of a precise, homogeneous mixture of helium, neon, argon, krypton and xenon. Apparatus for preparing the fuel includes a mixing chamber, tubing to allow movement of each inert gas into and through the various stages of the apparatus, a plurality of electric coils for producing magnetic fields, an ion gauge, ionises, cathode ray tubes, filters, a polarise and a high frequency generator. An engine for extracting useful work from the fuel has at least two closed cylinders for fuel, each cylinder being defined by a head and a piston. A plurality of electrodes extend into each chamber, some containing low level radioactive material. The head has a generally concave depression facing a generally semi-toroidal depression in the surface of the piston. The piston is axially movable with respect to the head from a first position to a second position and back, which linear motion is converted to rotary motion by a crankshaft. The engine's electrical system includes coils and condensers which circle each cylinder, an electric generator, and circuitry for controlling the flow of current within the system.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to closed reciprocating engines, i.e., ones which do not require an air supply and do not emit exhaust gases, and more particularly to such engines which use inert gases as fuel. It also concerns such inert gas fuels and apparatus for preparing same.

Currently available internal combustion engines suffer from several disadvantages. They are inefficient in their utilisation of the energy present in their fuels. The fuel itself is generally a petroleum derivative with an ever-increasing price and sometimes limited availability. The burning of such fuel normally results in pollutants which are emitted into the atmosphere. These engines require oxygen and, therefore, are particularly unsuitable in environments, such as underwater or outer space, in which gaseous oxygen is relatively unavailable. Present internal combustion engines are, furthermore, relatively complex with a great number of moving parts. Larger units, such as fossil-fuel electric power plants, escape some of the disadvantages of the present internal combustion engine, but not, inter alia, those of pollution, price of fuel and availability of fuel.

Several alternative energy sources have been proposed, such as the sun (through direct solar power devices), nuclear fission and nuclear fusion. Due to the lack of public acceptance, cost, other pollutants, technical problems, and/or lack of development, these sources have not wholly solved the problem. Moreover, the preparation of fuel for nuclear fission and nuclear fusion reactors has heretofore been a complicated process requiring expensive apparatus.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
Among the several objects of the present invention may be noted the provision of an engine which is efficient; the provision of an engine which does not require frequent refuelling; the provision of an engine which develops no pollutants in operation; the provision of an engine which is particularly suited for use in environments devoid of free oxygen; the provision of an engine which requires no oxygen in operation; the provision of an engine having a relatively small number of moving parts; the provision of an engine of a relatively simple construction; the provision of an engine which can be used in light and heavy-duty applications; the provision of an engine which is relatively inexpensive to make and operate; the provision of a fuel which uses widely available components; the provision of a fuel which is relatively inexpensive; the provision of a fuel which is not a petroleum derivative; the provision of a relatively simple and inexpensive apparatus for preparing inert gases for use as a fuel; the provision of such apparatus which mixes inert gases in precise, predetermined ratios; and the provision of such apparatus which eliminates contaminants from the inert gas mixture. Other objects and features will be in part apparent and in part pointed out hereinafter.
Briefly, in one aspect the engine of the present invention includes a head having a generally concave depression in it, the head defining one end of a chamber, a piston having a generally semi-toroidal depression in its upper surface, the piston defining the other end of the chamber, and a plurality of electrodes extending into the chamber for exciting and igniting the working fluid. The piston can move along its axis towards and away from the head, causing the volume of the chamber to alter, depending on the position of the piston relative to the head.

In another aspect, the engine of the present invention includes a head which defines one end of the chamber, a piston which defines the other end of the chamber, a plurality of magnetic coils wound around the chamber for generating magnetic fields inside the chamber, and at least four electrodes extending into the chamber for exciting and igniting the working fluid. The magnetic coils are generally coaxial with the chamber. The electrodes are generally equidistantly spaced from the axis of the chamber and are each normally positioned 90 degrees from the adjacent electrodes. Lines between opposed pairs of electrodes intersect generally on the axis of the chamber to define a focal point.

In a further aspect, the engine of the present invention includes a head which defines one end of a chamber, a piston which defines the other end of the chamber, at least two electric coils wound around the chamber for generating magnetic fields inside the chamber, and a plurality of electrodes extending into the chamber for exciting and igniting the working fluid. The electric coils are generally coaxial with the chamber. And the working fluid includes a mixture of inert gases.

The apparatus of the present invention for preparing a mixture of inert gases for use as a fuel includes a chamber, electric coils for generating predetermined magnetic fields inside the chamber, tubing adapted to be connected to sources of preselected inert gases for flow of the gases from the sources to the chamber, and ionisers for ionising the gases.

The fuel of the present invention includes a mixture of inert gases including approximately 36% helium, approximately 26% neon, approximately 17% argon, approximately 13% krypton, and approximately 8% xenon by volume.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

*Fig.1* is a side elevation of an engine of this invention:
*Fig.2* is a rear elevation of an engine of this invention:
Fig. 3 is a top view of an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 3](image)

Fig. 4 is a cross-sectional view generally along line 4--4 of Fig. 3 of an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 4](image)
Fig. 5 is a cross-sectional view of a cylinder of an engine of this invention:

Fig. 6 is a plan of the base of a cylinder head of an engine of this invention:
Fig. 7 is an elevation of an electrode rod of an engine of this invention:

Fig. 8 is an elevation, with parts broken away, of one type of electrode used in an engine of this invention:

Fig. 9 is a view taken generally along line 9–9 of Fig. 8:

Fig. 10 is a cross-sectional view of a second type of electrode used in an engine of this invention:

Fig. 11 is a cross-sectional view similar to Fig. 5 showing the piston in its uppermost position:
Fig. 12 is a cross-sectional view similar to Fig. 5 showing an alternative cylinder used in an engine of this invention:
Fig. 12A is a cross-sectional view similar to Fig. 5 and Fig. 12, but on a reduced scale and with parts broken away, showing an additional embodiment of a cylinder head used in an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 12A](image)

Fig. 13A and Fig. 13B are schematic diagrams of the electrical circuitry for an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 13A and Fig. 13B](image)
Fig. 14 is a schematic diagram of an alternative high-voltage ignition system for an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 14](image1.png)

Fig. 15 is a schematic diagram of an electronic switching unit for an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 15](image2.png)

Fig. 16 is a schematic diagram of a regulator/electronic switching unit for an engine of this invention:

![Fig. 16](image3.png)
Figs. 17A-17D are schematic diagrams of a fuel mixer of the present invention:
Fig. 18 is a schematic diagram of the mixing chamber portion of the fuel mixer shown in Figs. 17A-17D:

![Fig. 18](image)

Figs. 19A-19E are schematic diagrams of a portion of the electrical circuitry of the fuel mixer shown in Figs. 17A-17D:

![Fig. 19A](image)
Figs.20A-20F are schematic diagrams of the rest of the electrical circuitry of the fuel mixer shown in Figs.17A-17D.
Note: Corresponding reference characters indicate corresponding parts throughout all of the views of the drawings.
Referring to the drawings, there is shown in Fig.1 a two-cylinder engine 11 comprising a block 13 preferably of a nonmagnetic material such as aluminium, a nonmagnetic head 15, and a pair of cylinder heads 17A and 17B of a magnetisable material such as 0.1-0.3% carbon steel. Also shown in Fig.1 is a flywheel 19 attached to a crankshaft 21, a generator 23, a high-voltage coil 25, a distributor 27 attached by a gear arrangement shown in part at 29 to the crankshaft, and an electrical cable 31 which is connected to the distributor and to both cylinders. Cable 31 (see Fig.2) is also electrically connected to a switching unit 33 which preferably comprises a plurality of silicon controlled rectifiers (SCRs) or transistors. Also shown in Fig.2 is a second electrical connection of the cable to the cylinders, which connection is indicated generally at 35. Turning to Fig.3, there is shown a starter motor 37 as well as a clearer view of the connections 35 to each cylinder.

A cross section of the engine is shown in Fig.4. The cylinder heads have associated with them, pistons marked 39A and 39B, respectively, the heads and pistons define opposite ends of a pair of chambers or cylinders 41A and 41B respectively. The pistons are made of a magnetisable material. Although only two chambers are shown, the engine can include any number. It is preferred, however, for reasons set forth below, that there be an even number of cylinders. Pistons 39A and 39B move axially with respect to their corresponding heads from a first position (the position of piston 39A in Fig.4) to a second position (the position of piston 39B) and back, each piston being suitably connected to crankshaft 21. As shown in Fig.4, this suitable connection can include a connecting rod CR, a wrist pin WP, and a lower piston portion or power piston LP. The connecting rods and/or power pistons must be of non-magnetisable material. When a split piston is used, pistons 39A and 39B are suitably connected to lower piston portions LP by bolting, spring-loaded press fitting, or the like. Pistons 39A and 39B are attached 180 degrees apart from each other with respect to the crankshaft so that when one piston is at top dead centre (TDC) the other will be at bottom dead centre (BDC) and vice versa. Additional pairs of cylinders may be added as desired but the pistons of each pair should be attached to the crankshaft 180 degrees from each other. Of course, the relative position of each piston with respect to its respective head determines the volume of its chamber.
Integral with the piston bodies are walls 43 which form the walls of the chambers. Preferably, a set of air-tight bellows 45, of similar construction to that sold under the designation ME 197-0009-001 by the Belfab Company of Daytona Beach, Fla., are suitably secured between walls 43 and cylinder heads 17A and 17B respectively to form an airtight seal between each piston and its cylinder head. While walls 43 and piston 39 can be made of one magnetisable piece, a preferable and more efficient construction has walls 43 separate from piston 39 and made of a non-magnetisable material. The length of time that a given engine will run is a function of the efficacy of its sealing system. Means, such as bellows 45, for hermetically sealing the cylinders will optimise said length of time. Such a hermetic seal should be secured between walls 43 and cylinder heads 17 to form an airtight seal between them. This seal could be the airtight bellows system shown or some other sealing system such as an oil sealing system.

Cylinder bodies 47 (see Fig.4), made of nonmagnetic material such as stainless steel, extend from the point of attachment of each bellows to its cylinder head to the base of the corresponding pistons, forming sleeves for each piston in which each piston moves. Three sets of electric coils 49A, 49B, 51A, 51B, and 53A, 53B, are wound around sleeves 47, and hence around chambers 41A and 41B, respectively, for generating magnetic fields in the chambers, those coils being generally coaxial with their respective chambers. Each of these coils has an inductance of approximately 100 mH. It is preferred that 14-19 gauge wire be used to wind these coils and that the coils be coated with a suitable coating, such as #9615 hardener from Furane Plastics, Inc., of Los Angeles, California, or the coating sold by the Epoxylite Corp. of South El Monte, California under the trade designation Epoxylite 8683. Each chamber is also surrounded by a pair of capacitors, C1A, C1B and C2A, C2B wound around it, capacitors C1A, C1B having a capacitance of approximately 1.3 microfarads and capacitors C2A, C2B having a capacitance of approximately 2.2 microfarads. The coils and capacitors are potted in hardened epoxy of fibreglass material 55. The epoxy resin and hardener sold under the designations EPI Bond 121 and #9615 hardener by Furane Plastics, supra, are satisfactory, but other epoxy material which will remain stable at temperatures up to 200 degrees F would probably also be acceptable. It is preferred that a small amount of graphite such as that sold under the trade designation Asbury 225 by Asbury Graphite, Inc. of Rodeo, Calif., be included in the epoxy potting to prevent nuclear particles formed in the chamber from escaping from the apparatus. Ten to 15% graphite to epoxy by weight is more than enough.
A typical cylinder is shown in section in Fig.5, showing the piston in its fully extended position with respect to the head and showing many details on a somewhat larger scale than that of Fig.4. A set of seals 57, made of a material such as that sold under the trade designation Teflon by the DuPont Company of Delaware, is positioned between the cylinder head and wall 43 to prevent escape of the working fluid from chamber 41. A filler tube 59 with a ball valve at its lower end is used in filling the chamber with the working fluid but is closed during operation of the engine.

The cylinder head has a generally concave depression therein, indicated at 61, which defines the top end of the chamber. A plurality of electrodes for exciting and igniting the working fluid extend through the cylinder head into the chamber. Two of those electrodes, shown in section in Fig.5 and labelled 63 and 65, have tungsten points 75, while the other two, labelled 67 and 69 (see Fig.6 for electrode 69) are containers called, respectively, the anode and the cathode. The electrodes are generally equidistantly spaced from the axes of their chambers and are generally coplanar to each other, their mutual plane being perpendicular to the axes of their chambers. Each electrode is positioned 90 degrees from adjacent electrodes in this embodiment and are generally positioned so that a line from the anode to the cathode and a line between the other two electrodes intersect at a focal point generally on the axis of the chamber. The radial distance of each electrode from the focal point is fixed for a reason discussed below. The general construction of electrodes 63 and 65 is shown in Fig.6 to Fig.9. These electrodes include a conductive rod 71 (see Fig.7) preferably of brass or copper; a conductive, generally rectangular plate 73 (see Fig.6, Fig.8 and Fig.9); and tungsten point 75 mounted in a conductive base 77 generally at right angles to the plate (see Fig.8 and Fig.9).

The construction of the anode and cathode is shown in Fig.10. Each includes a conductive rod 79 and a container 81. The cathode container is substantially pure aluminium. If desired, aluminium alloys with, e.g., less than 5% copper, 1% manganese and 2% magnesium may be used. In one embodiment, the cathode container contains approximately four grams of thorium-232 and is filled with argon. In this same embodiment the anode container is copper or brass and contains approximately two grams of rubidium-37 and approximately three grams of phosphorus-15 hermetically sealed in mineral oil. In a second embodiment, the cathode is still aluminium, but it contains at least two grams of rubidium-37 in addition to the approximately four grams of thorium-232 in either argon or mineral oil. In this second embodiment, the anode is also aluminium and contains at least 4 grams of phosphorus-15 and at least 2 grams of thorium-232 in argon or mineral oil. Alternatively, mesothorium may be used for the thorium, strontium-38 may be used for the rubidium, and sulphur-16 may be used for the phosphorus. Rods 71 and 79 extend through cylinder head 17 to the exterior where electrical connections are made to the electrodes. Each rod is surrounded by one of four insulating sleeves 83, the lower portion of each of which being flared outwards to seat firmly in the cylinder head.
The piston has a generally semi-toroidal depression in its upper surface (see Fig.4, Fig.5 and Fig.11) and carries a conductive discharge point 85 of copper, brass or bronze generally along the axis of the chamber. When the piston is generally extended, the discharge point is a substantial distance from the electrodes. But when the piston is in its upper position (see Fig.11), the discharge point is positioned generally between all four electrodes and close to them, there being gaps between the electrodes and the discharge point. When the piston is in this upper position, the electrodes extend somewhat into the semi-toroidal depression in the piston's upper surface and the chamber is generally toroidal in shape. The volume of the chamber shown in Fig.11 can be from approximately 6.0 cubic inches (100 cc) or larger. Given the present state of the art, 1500 cubic inches (25,000 cc) appears to be the upper limit. A plurality of ports 87 and one-way valves 89 return working fluid which escapes from the chamber back into it, so long as a sealing system such as bellows 45 is used.

An alternative cylinder head/piston arrangement is shown in Fig.12. The main difference between this arrangement and that of Fig.5 is that the chamber walls, here labelled 43' are integrally formed with the head. As a result seals 57 are carried by the piston rather than by the head, the attachment of bellows 45 is somewhat different, and the fluid-returning valves and ports are part of the piston rather than of the head. Otherwise these arrangements are substantially the same. Preferably, the cylinders of both arrangements are hermetically sealed.

An additional embodiment of a cylinder head/piston arrangement used in the present invention is shown in Fig.12A. In this arrangement, a tapered sleeve 17C mates between cylinder head 17 and piston 39, a plurality of seals 57 are provided, and electrodes 67 and 69 have a somewhat different shape. Also, in this embodiment, a chamber 90 is provided in cylinder head 17 for storing additional working fluid, i.e., the purpose of chamber 90 is to extend the operating time between refuelling by circulating the working fluid, viz. the mixture of inert gases
described, between cylinder 41 and chamber 90 as needed so that the reactions in cylinder 41 are not adversely affected. To accomplish this, this embodiment further includes a two-way circulation valve 90B, a relief valve 90C, and duct or passageway 90D for evacuating and filling chamber 90, a duct or passageway 90E for evacuating and filling cylinder 41, a passageway 90F between chamber 90 and cylinder 41 in which two-way valve 90B is disposed, a sensor 90G and a plurality of small pressure relief holes 90H. Relief holes 90H serve to relieve the pressure on bellows 45 as the piston moves from BDC to TDC.

In larger engines holes 90H should be replaced with one way valves. Two-way valve 90B is either controlled by sensor 90G or is manually operated, as desired, to allow the circulation of gases between chamber 90 and cylinder 41. The sensor itself detects a condition requiring the opening or closing of valve 90B and signals that condition to the valve. For example, sensor 90G can measure pressure in cylinder 41 while the piston is at top dead centre. A predetermined cylinder pressure can cause a spring to compress, causing the valve to open or close as appropriate. A subsequent change in the cylinder pressure would then cause another change in the valve. Another sensor (not shown) could measure the physical location of the piston by a physical trip switch or an electric eye, or it could measure angular distance from top dead centre on the distributor or the crankshaft. The sensor must keep the gas pressure in chamber 90 at one atmosphere, plus or minus 5%, and at top dead centre, cylinder 41 should also be at that pressure. If gas is lost from the system, it is more important to maintain the proper pressure in cylinder 41. Alternatively, a small passage between cylinder 41 and chamber 90 could function in a passive manner to satisfactorily accomplish the same result. From the above, it can be seen that this embodiment utilises the hollowed out centre of the cylinder head for storing additional working fluid, which fluid is circulated between chamber 90 and cylinder 41 through a valve system comprising valve 90B and sensor 90G with the moving piston causing the gases to circulate.

The electrical circuitry for engine 11 includes (see Fig.13A) a 24 V battery B1, an ignition switch SW1, a starter switch SW2, starter motor 37, a main circuit switch SW4, a step-down transformer 93 (e.g., a 24 V to 3.5 V transformer), a switch SW6 for supplying power to ignition coil 25 (shown in Fig.13A and Fig.13B as two separate ignition coils 25A and 25B), and various decoupling diodes. The circuitry of Fig.13A also includes a high frequency voltage source or oscillator 95 for supplying rapidly varying voltage through two electronic current regulators 97A, 97B (see Fig.13B for regulator 97B) to the anode and cathode electrodes of each cylinder, and a high-voltage distributor 99 for distributing 40,000 volt pulses to the cylinders. Distributor 99 has two wipers 99A and 99B and supplies three pulses to each cylinder per cycle. Wipers 99A and 99B are 180 degrees out of phase with each other and each operates to supply pulses to its respective cylinder from TDC to 120 degrees thereafter. More pulses are desirable and therefore a better distributor arrangement (shown in Fig.14) may be used. The arrangement shown in Fig.14 includes two ignition coils 101, 103, a simple distributor 105 and a pair of magnetic ignition circuits 107 and 109, described below. Of course many other ignition systems could also be developed. For example, a single circuit might be used in place of circuits 107, 109, additional induction coils might be added to the ignition coils to assist in starting or a resistor could be added to the ignition coils to ensure a constant 40,000 volt output regardless of engine rpm. Also, a solid-state distributor could be used instead of the mechanical distributor labelled 99.
Referring back to Fig.13A, for engines of more than 1000 hp a high frequency source 95 could be used to control engine RPM. The output frequency is controlled by a foot pedal similar to an accelerator pedal in a conventional vehicle. The output frequency varies through a range of from approximately 2.057 MHz to approximately 27.120 MHz with an output current of approximately 8.4 amps. The speed of engine 11 is controlled by the output frequency of source 95. The high frequency current, as described below, is directed to each cylinder in turn by circuitry described below. For engines producing from 300 to 1000 hp (not shown), a high frequency source having a constant output of 27.120 MHz with a constant current of 3.4 amps which is continually supplied to all cylinders could be used. In this case an autotransformer, such as that sold under the trade designation Variac by the General Radio Company, controlled by a foot pedal varies the voltage to each cylinder from 5 to 24 volts DC at 4.5 amps, using power from the batteries or the alternator. The DC current from the Variac is switched from cylinder to cylinder by two small electronic switching units which in turn are controlled by larger electronic switching units. For the smallest engines (not shown), a high frequency generator could supply a constant output of 27.120 MHz with a constant current of 4.2 amps to the cylinders during starting only. Speed control would be achieved by a Variac as described above which controls the DC voltage supplied to the cylinders in turn within a range of from 5 to 24 volts at a current of 5.2 amps. In this case, once the engine is running, the full voltage needed to ignite the (smaller) quantity of gases is obtained from the electrodes in the other cylinder of the pair.

The circuitry of Fig.13A also includes the generator, a voltage regulator and relay 111, five electronic switching units 113, 115, 117, 119 and 121, electrodes 63 and 65 associated with chamber 41A (hereinafter chamber 41A is sometimes referred to as the "A" cylinder and chamber 41B is sometimes referred to as the "B" cylinder), anode 67, cathode 69, magnetic coils 49A, 51A and 53A, capacitors C1A and C2A, and various decoupling diodes. The electronic switching units can take a variety of forms. For example, one simple form (see Fig.15) includes a pair of SCRs 123 and 125. The switching unit is connected at terminal IN to the corresponding line on the input side and at terminal OUT to the corresponding line on the output side. When a voltage of 3.5 volts is supplied from the battery through a distributor, for example, to the ON terminal, SCR 125 conducts, thereby completing the circuit through the switching unit. Conversely, when 3.5 volts is applied to the OFF terminal, SCR 123 conducts and the circuit is broken. Likewise, the circuit for regulators 97A and 97B (see Fig.16) includes two SCRs 127 and 129 and a PNP transistor 131. In this circuit when SCR 127 is gated on, it forces transistor 131 into conduction, thereby completing the circuit through the regulator. When SCR 129 is gated on, the circuit through transistor 131 is broken. A number of other configurations may be used in place of those of Fig.15 and Fig.16 and not all would use SCRs. For example, one triode could be used to replace two main SCRs, or transistors could be used instead of SCRs.
A pair of low-voltage distributors 135 and 137 are also shown in Fig.13A. Distributors 135 and 137 provide gating pulses for the electronic switching units of Fig.13A and Fig.13B. Of course, solid-state distributors could also replace mechanical distributors 135 and 137.

In addition, the engine circuitry includes (see Fig.13B) five electronic switching units 143, 145, 147, 149 and 151 corresponding to units 113, 115, 117, 119 and 121 of Fig.13A, electrodes 63 and 65 of the "B" cylinder, anode 67, cathode 69, electric coils 49B, 51B and 53B, capacitors C1B and C2B, and various decoupling diodes. The circuitry of Fig.13B is generally the same as the corresponding portions of Fig.13A, so the description of one for the most part applies to both. Of course, if more than two cylinders are used, each pair of cylinders would have associated with them, circuitry such as that shown in Fig.13A and Fig.13B. The circuitry of Fig.13A is connected to that of Fig.13B by the lines L1-L17.

The working fluid and the fuel for the engine are one and the same and consist of a mixture of inert gases, which mixture consists essentially of helium, neon, argon, krypton and xenon. It is preferred that the mixture contain 35.6% helium, 26.3% neon, 16.9% argon, 12.7% krypton, and 8.5% xenon by volume, it having been calculated that this particular mixture gives the maximum operation time without refuelling. Generally, the initial mixture may contain, by volume, approximately 36% helium, approximately 26% neon, approximately 17% argon, approximately 13% krypton, and approximately 8% xenon. This mixture results from a calculation that equalises the total charge for each of the gases used after compensating for the fact that one inert gas, viz. radon, is not used. The foregoing is confirmed by a spectroscopic flashing, described below, that occurs during the mixing process. If one of the gases in the mixture has less than the prescribed percentage, it will become over-excited. Similarly, if one of the gases has more than the prescribed percentage, that gas will be under-excited. These percentages do not vary with the size of the cylinder.

Operation of the engine is as follows: At room temperature, each cylinder is filled with a one atmosphere charge of the fuel mixture of approximately 6 cubic inches (100 cc) /cylinder (in the case of the smallest engine) by means of filler tube 59. The filler tubes are then plugged and the cylinders are installed in the engine as shown in Fig.4, one piston being in the fully extended position and the other being in the fully retracted position. To start the engine, the ignition and starter switches are closed, as is switch SW6. This causes the starter motor to crank the engine, which in turn causes the wiper arms of the distributors to rotate. The starting process begins, for example, when the pistons are in the positions shown in Fig.4. Ignition coil 25 and distributor 99 (see Fig.13A) generate a 40,000 volt pulse which is supplied to electrode 65 of chamber 41A. Therefore, a momentary high potential exists between electrodes 63 and 65 and the plates on each. The discharge point on piston 39A is adjacent these electrodes at this time and sparks occur between one or more of the electrodes and the discharge point to partially excite, e.g. ionise, the gaseous fuel mixture.

The gaseous fuel mixture in cylinder 41A is further excited by magnetic fields set up in the chamber by coil 49A. This coil is connected to the output side of electronic switching unit 121 and, through switching unit 113, to the battery and the generator. At this time, i.e., between approximately 5 degrees before TDC and TDC, distributor 135 is supplying a gating signal to unit 121. Any current present on the input side of unit 121, therefore, passes through unit 121 to energise coil 49A. Moreover, high frequency current from oscillator 95 is supplied via regulator 97A to coil 49A. This current passes through regulator and relay 97A because the gating signal supplied from distributor 135 to unit 121 is also supplied to relay 97A. The current from switching unit 121 and from oscillator 95 also is supplied to the anode and the cathode. It is calculated that this causes radioactive rays (x-rays) to flow between the anode and the cathode, thereby further exciting the gaseous mixture.

As the starter motor continues cranking, piston 39A begins moving downward, piston 39B begins moving upward, and the wiper arms of the distributors rotate. (Needless to say, a solid-state distributor would not rotate. The distributor could utilise photo cells, either light or reflected light, rather than contact points). After 45 degrees of rotation, distributor 135 supplies a gating pulse to electronic switching unit 119, thereby completing a circuit through unit 119. The input to unit 119 is connected to the same lines that supply current to coil 49A. The completion of the circuit through unit 119, therefore, causes coil 51A to be energised in the same manner as coil 49A. After an additional 45 degrees of rotation, distributor 135 gates on electronic switching unit 117 which completes a circuit to the same lines. The output terminal of unit 117 is connected to coil 53A, and so this coil is energised when unit 117 is gated on. All three coils of the "A" cylinder remain energised and, therefore, generating magnetic fields in chamber 41A until piston 39A reaches BDC.

As piston 39A moves from TDC to BDC, two additional 40,000 volt pulses (for a total of three) are supplied from distributor 99 to the "A" cylinder. These pulses are spaced approximately 60 degrees apart. If more pulses are desired, the apparatus shown in Fig.14 may be used. In that case, the solenoids indicated generally at 107A, 107B and 109A, 109B are energised to create a number of rapid, high-voltage pulses which are supplied as indicated in Fig.14 to the cylinders, distributor 105 operating to supply pulses to only one of the pair of cylinders at a time.
As piston 39A reaches BDC, distributor 135 sends a pulse to the OFF terminals of electronic switching units 121, 117 and 119, respectively, causing all three coils 49A, 51A and 53A to be de-energised. At about the same time, i.e., between approximately 5 degrees before TDC and TDC for piston 39B, distributor 137 supplies a gating pulse to the ON terminals of electronic switching units 113 and 115. The power inputs to units 113 and 115 come from the generator through regulator 111 and from the battery, and the outputs are directly connected to coils 49A and 53A. Therefore, when units 113 and 115 are gated on, coils 49A and 53A are reenergised. But in this part of the cycle, the coils are energised with the opposite polarity, causing a reversal in the magnetic field in chamber 41A. Note that coil 51A is not energised at all during this portion of the cycle. Capacitors C1A and C2A are also charged during the BDC to TDC portion of the cycle. (During the TDC to BDC portion of the cycle, these capacitors are charged and/or discharged by the same currents as are supplied to the anode and cathode since they are directly connected to them).

As piston 39A moves upwards, electrodes 63 and 65 serve as pick-up points in order to conduct some of the current out of chamber 41A, this current being generated by the excited gases in the chamber. This current is transferred via line L7 to electronic switching unit 151. The same gating pulse which gated on units 113 and 115 was also supplied from distributor 137 via line L12 to gate on switching unit 151, so the current from the electrodes of chamber 41A passes through unit 151 to the anode, cathode and capacitors of chamber 41B, as well as through switching units 147 and 149 to coils 49B, 51B and 53B. Thus it can be seen that electricity generated in one cylinder during a portion of the cycle is transferred to the other cylinder to assist in the excitation of the gaseous mixture in the latter. Note that this electricity is regulated to maintain a constant in-engine current. It should be noted, that twenty four volts from the generator is always present on electrodes 63 and 65 during operation to provide for pre-excitation of the gases.

From the above it can be seen that distributors 135 and 137 in conjunction with electronic switching units 113, 115, 117, 119, 121, 143, 145, 147, 149 and 151 constitute the means for individually energising coils 49A, 49B, 51A, 51B, 53A and 53B. More particularly, they constitute the means to energise all the coils of a given cylinder from the other cylinder when the first cylinder's piston is moving from TDC to BDC and operate to energise only two (i.e., less than all) of the coils from the alternator when that piston is moving from BDC to TDC. Additionally, these components constitute the means for energising the coils with a given polarity when the piston of that cylinder is moving from TDC to BDC and for energising the first and third coils with the opposite polarity when that piston is moving from BDC to TDC.

As can also be seen, switching units 121 and 151 together with distributors 135 and 137 constitute the means for closing a circuit for flow of current from chamber 41A to chamber 41B during the BDC to TDC portion of the cycle of chamber 41A and for closing a circuit for flow of current from chamber 41B to chamber 41A during the TDC to BDC portion of the cycle of chamber 41A. Oscillator 95 constitutes the means for supplying a time varying electrical voltage to the electrodes of each cylinder, and oscillator 95, distributors 135 and 137, and regulators 97A and 97B together constitute the means for supplying the time varying voltage during a predetermined portion of the cycle of each piston. Moreover, distributor 99 together with ignition coils 25A and 25B constitute the means for supplying high-voltage pulses to the cylinders at predetermined times during the cycle of each piston.

The cycle of piston 39B is exactly the same as that of piston 39A except for the 180 degree phase difference. For each cylinder, it is calculated that the excitation as described above causes the gases to separate into layers, the lowest atomic weight gas in the mixture, namely helium, being disposed generally in the centre of each chamber, neon forming the next layer, and so on until we reach xenon which is in physical contact with the chamber walls. The input current (power) to do this is the calculated potential of the gas mixture. Since helium is located in the centre of the chamber, the focal point of the electrode discharges and the discharges between the anode and cathode is in the helium layer when the piston is near TDC. As the piston moves slightly below TDC, the electrons from electrodes 63 and 65 will no longer strike the tip of the piston, but rather will intersect in the centre of the cylinder (this is called “focal point electron and particle collision”) as will the alpha, beta and gamma rays from the anode and cathode. Of course, the helium is in this exact spot and is heavily ionised at that time. Thus the electrodes together with the source of electrical power connected thereto constitute the means for ionising the inert gas.

It is calculated that as a result of all the aforementioned interactions, an ignition discharge occurs in which the helium splits into hydrogen in a volume not larger than 2 or 3 x 10^-6 cubic millimetres at a temperature of approximately 100,000,000 degrees F. Of course this temperature is confined to a very small space and the layering of the gases insulates the cylinder walls from it. Such heat excites the adjacent helium so that a plasma occurs. Consequently, there is a minute fusion reaction in the helium consisting of the energy conversion of a single helium atom, which releases sufficient energy to drive the piston in that chamber toward BDC with a force similar in magnitude to that generated in a cylinder of a conventional internal combustion engine. Electrodes 63 and 65 extend into the argon layer while each piston is in its BDC to TDC stroke so as to pick up some of the
current flowing in that layer. It may take a cycle or two for the gases in the cylinders to become sufficiently excited for ignition to occur.

Once ignition does occur, the electrical operation of the engine continues as before, without the operation of the starter motor. Distributor 99 supplies three pulses per cycle (or more if the magnetic ignition system of Fig.14 is used) to each cylinder; and distributors 135 and 137 continue to supply "on" and "off" gating pulses to the electronic switching units. The rpm of the engine, as explained above, governed by the frequency of the current from oscillator 95 (or in the case of smaller horsepower units, by the DC voltage supplied to the cylinders from the Variac).

Because of the minute amount of fuel consumed in each cycle, it is calculated that a cylinder can run at 1200 rpm approximately 1000 hours, if not more, on a single charge of gas. Note that even at 1200 rpm, there will be intense heat occurring only 0.002% of the time. This means that input power need be applied only sporadically. This power can be supplied to a cylinder from the other cylinder of its pair by means of electronic switching units which, in the case of SCRs, are themselves triggered by low voltage (e.g. 3.5 V) current. Thus, since electrical power generated in one cylinder is used to excite the gases in the other cylinder of a pair, it is practical that the cylinders be paired as discussed above. Capacitors are, of course, used to store such energy for use during the proper portion of the cycle of each cylinder.

From the above, it should be appreciated that the engine of this invention has several advantages over presently proposed fusion reactors, such as smaller size, lower energy requirements, etc. But what are the bases of these advantages? For one, presently proposed fusion reactors use hydrogen and its isotopes as a fuel instead of inert gases. Presumably this is because hydrogen requires less excitation power. While this is true, the input power that is required in order to make hydrogen reactors operate makes the excitation power almost insignificant. For example, to keep a hydrogen reactor from short circuiting, the hydrogen gas has to be separated from the reactor walls while it is in the plasma state. This separation is accomplished by the maintenance of a near vacuum in the reactor and by the concentration of the gas in the centre of the reactor (typically a toroid) by a continuous, intense magnetic field. Accordingly, separation requires a large amount of input energy.

In the present invention, on the other hand, the greater excitation energy of the fuel is more than compensated for by the fact that the input energy for operation can be minimised by manipulation of the unique characteristics of the inert gases. First, helium is the inert gas used for fusion in the present invention. The helium is primarily isolated from the walls of the container by the layering of the other inert gases, which layering is caused by the different excitation potential (because of the different atomic weights) of the different inert gases, said excitation being caused by the action of the electrodes, anode and cathode in a magnetic field. This excitation causes the gases each to be excited in inverse proportion to their atomic numbers, the lighter gases being excited correspondingly more. Helium, therefore, forms the central core with the other four gases forming layers, in order, around the helium. The helium is secondarily isolated from the walls of the container by a modest vacuum (in comparison to the vacuum in hydrogen reactors) which is caused partially by the "choking" effect of the coils and partially by the enlargement of the combustion chamber as the piston moves from TDC to BDC. (Unexcited, the gases are at one atmosphere at TDC). Second, argon, the middle gas of the five, is a good electrical conductor and becomes an excellent conductor when (as explained below) it is polarised during the mixing process. By placing the electrodes such that they are in the argon layer, electrical energy can be tapped from one cylinder for use in the other. During a piston's movement from BDC to TDC, the gases are caused to circulate in the cylinder by the change in the polarity of the coils, which occurs at BDC.

During such circulation, the gases remain layered, causing the argon atoms to be relatively close to each other, thereby optimising the conductivity of the argon. This conductivity optimisation is further enhanced by a mild choking effect that is due to the magnetic fields. The circulation of the highly conductive argon results in a continuous cutting of the magnetic lines of force so that the current flows through the electrodes. This production of electricity is similar to the rotating copper wire cutting the magnetic lines of force in a conventional generator except that the rotating copper wire is replaced by the rotating, highly conductive argon. The amount of electricity that can be produced in this manner is a function of how many magnetic field lines are available to be cut. If one of the coils, or all three of the coils or two adjacent coils were energised, there would be only one field with electricity produced at each end. By energising the top and the bottom coil, two separate fields are produced, with electricity produced at four points.

A five coil system, if there were sufficient space, would produce three fields with the top, bottom and middle coils energised. Six points for electricity production would result. The number of coils that can be installed on a given cylinder is a function of space limitations. The recombination of gas atoms during the BDC to TDC phase causes the radiation of electrical energy which also provides a minor portion of the electricity that the electrode picks up. Additional non-grounded electrodes in each cylinder would result in more electricity being tapped off. It should be noted that during the BDC to TDC phase, the anode and the cathode are also in the argon layer and, like the electrodes, they pick up electricity, which charges the capacitors around the cylinder. Third, inert gases remain a
mixture and do not combine because of the completeness of the electron shells. They are therefore well suited to a cycle whereby they are continually organised and reorganised. Fourth, as the helium atoms are consumed, the other gases have the capacity to absorb the charge of the consumed gas so that the total charge of the mixture remains the same.

The second basis of these advantages of the present engine over proposed fusion reactors concerns the fact that hydrogen reactors develop heat which generates steam to turn turbines in order to generate electrical power. This requires tremendous input energy on a continuous basis. The present invention operates on a closed cycle, utilising pistons and a crankshaft which does not require a continuous plasma but rather an infrequent, short duration (10\(^{-6}\) second) plasma that therefore requires much less input energy. In the present invention, a plasma lasting longer than 10\(^{-6}\) second is not necessary because sufficient pressure is generated in that time to turn the engine. A plasma of longer duration could damage the engine if the heat were sufficiently intense to be transmitted through the inert gas layers to the cylinder walls. A similar heat build-up in the engine can occur if the repetition rate is increased. Such an increase can be used to increase the horsepower per engine size but at the cost of adding a cooling system, using more expensive engine components, and increasing fuel consumption. Note that even though layers of inert gases insulate the cylinder walls, there might be some slight increase in the temperature of the gas layers after a number of cycles, i.e., after a number of ignitions.

Whereas hydrogen fusion reactors cannot directly produce power by driving a piston (because of the required vacuum), the present invention uses the layered inert gases to transmit the power from the plasma to each gas in turn until the power is applied to a piston, which can easily be translated into rotary motion. The layered gases also cushion the piston from the full force of the ignition. Moreover, the fields inside the cylinder undergoing expansion cause the gases to shrink, thereby taking up some of the pressure generated by the explosion and preventing rupturing of the cylinder walls.

Turning now to Fig.17A to Fig.17D, there is shown apparatus 201 for preparing the fuel mixture for engine 11. For convenience apparatus 201 is called a mixer although it should be understood that the apparatus not only mixes the gases which form the fuel but also performs many other vital functions as well. The five constituent inert gases are introduced in precise, predetermined proportions. The mixer extracts, filters and neutralises the non-inert gases and other contaminants which may be found in the gas mixture. It also increases the potential capacity of gas atoms, discharges the krypton and xenon gases, polarises the argon gases, ionises the gases in a manner such that the ionisation is maintained until the gas has been utilised and otherwise prepares them for use as a fuel in engine 11. In particular, the mixer makes the gases easier to excite during operation of the engine. Mixing does not mean an atomic or molecular combination or unification of gases because inert gases cannot chemically combine, in general, due to the completeness of the outer shell of electrons. During mixing, the various gases form a homogeneous mixture. The mixing of the five inert gases in apparatus 201 is somewhat analogous to preparing a five part liquid chemical mixture by titration. In such a mixture, the proportions of the different chemicals are accurately determined by visually observing the end point of each reaction during titration. In apparatus 201, a visible, spectroscopic flash of light accompanies the desired end point of the introduction of each new gas as it reaches its proper, precalculated proportion. (Each gas has its own distinctive, characteristic, spectroscopic display). The ends points are theoretically calculated and are determined by pre-set voltages on each of a group of ionising heads in the apparatus, as described below.
Mixer 201 includes (see Fig.17A) an intake port, indicated generally at 203, which during operation is connected to a source 205 of helium gas, a gauge 206, glass tubing 207 comprising a plurality of branches B10-B25 for flow of the gases through the mixer, a plurality of valves V1-V11 in the branches, which valves may be opened or closed as necessary, three gas reservoirs 209, 211 and 213 for storing small quantities of helium, argon and neon gas respectively, an ionising and filtering unit 215 for filtering undesired non-inert gases and contaminants out of the fuel mixture, for regulating the gas atom electron charge and to absorb the free flowing electrons, a gas flow circulation pump 217, two ionising heads 219 and 221, and three quality control and exhaust valves V12-V14. The mixer also comprises (see Fig.17B) a high frequency discharge tube 225, a non-directed cathode ray tube 227, two more ionising heads 229 and 231, two additional gas reservoirs 233 and 235 for storing small quantities of xenon and krypton, a quadruple magnetic coil 237, a group of valves V15-V24, valves V23 and V24 being quality control and exhaust valves, and a plurality of additional glass tubing branches B26-B32.

Turning to Fig.17C, mixer 201 also includes additional ionising heads 239, 240 and 241, additional valves V25-V46, V39A and V40A, valves V29 and V32 being quality control and exhaust valves and valve V39A being a check valve, a vacuum and pressure gauge 242 between valves V35 and V36, tubing branches B34-B49 (branch B39 consisting of two parts B39A and B39B), a pair of intake ports 243 and 245 which during operation are connected to sources 247 and 249 of argon and neon gas respectively, gauges 250A and 250B, a spark chamber 251, a hydrogen and oxygen retention chamber 253 containing No. 650 steel dust in a silk filter, an ion gauge 255 (which can be an RG 75K type Ion Gauge from Glass Instruments, Inc. of Pasadena, Calif.) for removing excess inert gases from the mixture, inner and outer coils of glass tubing 257 and 259 surrounding a mixing chamber 261, a focused x-ray tube 263 for subjecting the mixture flowing through it to 15-20 millirem alpha radiation and 120-125 millirem beta radiation, a directed cathode ray tube 265, two twin parallel magnetic coils 266 and 267, and a focusing magnetic coil 269. It is important that coils 266 and 267 be immediately adjacent mixing chamber 261. And (see Fig.17D) the mixer also comprises three more ionising heads 271, 273 and 275, two entry ports 277 and 279 which during operation are connected to sources 281 and 283 of krypton and xenon respectively, gauges 284A and 284B, a high frequency discharge tube 285, a twin parallel magnetic coil 287 surrounding a polariser 289 for polarising the argon, said polarise containing fine steel particles which are polarised by coils 287 and which in turn polarise argon, a second hydrogen retention chamber 291, a pair of tubing branches B50 and B51, two filters 293 and 295 and a plurality of valves V47-V59, valves V57 and V59 being quality control and exhaust valves.

Inner and outer glass tubing coils 257 and 259 and mixing chamber 261 are shown in cross section in Fig.18. Intermediate glass coils 257 and 259 are two magnetic coils 297 and 299 having an inductance of approximately 130 mH. A yoke coil 301 is positioned in a semi-circle around mixing chamber 261. Inside mixing chamber 261 are located a pair of screens 303 and 305, insulators 307 and 309, and a pair of spark gaps indicated generally at 311 and 313. A high frequency amplitude modulated source provides 120 V AC, 60 Hz, 8.4 amp, 560 watt, 27,120 to 40,000 MHz plus or minus 160 KHz current via heavily insulated wires 315 and 317 to the chamber.
These wires are about twelve gauge, like those used as spark plug wires on internal combustion engines. Additionally, 95 volt Direct Current is supplied via a smaller (e.g. sixteen to eighteen gauge) insulated wire. As described below, the gases to be mixed and prepared flow through chamber 261 and are suitably treated therein by the action of the various fields present in the chamber.

The magnetic coils, ionisation heads, and pump 217, along with the required electrical interconnections, are schematically shown in Fig.19A to Fig.19E. More particularly, heads 239 and 241 are shown in Fig.19A, as is pump 217. Each ionising head has two electrodes with a gap between them to cause ionisation of gases flowing through the head, the electrodes being connected to a source of electrical power. Pump 217 is directly connected to a source of power (either AC or DC as required by the particular pump being used). The connections between the circuitry on Fig.19A and that on Fig.19B are shown as a plug 321, it being understood that this plug represents a suitable one-to-one connection between the lines of Fig.19A and those of Fig.19B.

The remaining ionising heads and all the magnetic coils are shown in Fig.19B. For clarity, the coils are shown in an unconventional form. Quadruple coil 237 (shown at the top of Fig.19B) has one side of each winding connected in common but the other sides are connected to different lines. Coil 223 consists of two windings in parallel. Coils 297 and 299, the ones around the mixing chamber, are shown overlapping, it being understood that coil 297 is actually interior of coil 299. Yoke coil 301, as shown, extends half-way from the bottom to the top of coils 297 and 299. Twin parallel magnetic coils 267 are connected in parallel with each other, both sides of focusing coil 269 being connected to one node of coils 267. Likewise coils 287 are connected in parallel. The connections between the lines of Fig.19B and those of Fig.19C and Fig.19D are shown as plugs 323 and 325, although other suitable one-to-one connections could certainly be made. Fig.19C shows the interconnecting lines between Fig.19B and Fig.19E. A plug 327 or other suitable one-to-one connections connects the lines of Fig.19C and Fig.19E.

A plurality of power sources, like the above-mentioned Variacs, of suitable voltages and currents as well as a plurality of relays 329, and plugs 331 are shown on Fig.19D and Fig.19E. The connections between these two Figures is shown as a plug 333. It should be appreciated that the Variacs can be adjusted by the operator as necessary to supply the desired voltages to the aforementioned coils and ionising heads. It should also be realised that the desired relays can be closed or opened as needed by connecting or disconnecting the two parts of the corresponding plug 331. That is, by use of plugs 331, the operator can control the energising of the ionising heads and magnetic coils as desired. Plugs 331 are also an aid in checking to ensure that each component is in operating condition just prior to its use. Of course, the manipulation of the power sources and the relays need not be performed manually; it could be automated.
The remaining circuitry for the mixer is shown on Fig.20A to Fig.20F. For convenience, plugs 335, 337, 339, 341, 343, 345 and 347 are shown as connecting the circuitry shown in the various Figures, although other suitable one-to-one connections may be used. The chassis of the apparatus is shown on these Figures in phantom and is grounded. The power supply for the apparatus is shown in part on Fig.20A and Fig.20D and includes an input 349 (see Fig.20D) which is connected to 120 volt, 60 Hz power during operation and an input 351 which is connected to the aforementioned high frequency generator or some other suitable source of approximately 27.120 MHz current. The power supply includes a pair of tuners 353, numerous RLC circuits, a triode 355, a pentode 357 with a ZnS screen, a variable transformer 359, an input control 361, a second variable transformer 363 (see Fig.20A) which together with a filter 365 forms a 2.0 volts (peak-to-peak) power supply 367, a pentode 369, a variable transformer 371, and a resistor network indicated generally at 373. Exemplary voltages in the power supply during operation are as follows: The anode of triode 355 is at 145 V, the control grid at 135 V and the cathode at -25 V. The voltage at the top of the right-hand winding of transformer 359 is -5 V. The anode of pentode 357 is at 143 V, the top grid is grounded (as is the ZnS screen), the bottom grid is connected to transformer 359, and the control electrode is at 143 V. The input to supply 367 is 143 volts AC while its output, as stated above, is 2 V (peak-to-peak). The anode of pentode 369 is at 60 V, the grids at -1.5 V, the control electrode at 130 V, and the cathode is substantially at ground. The output of resistor network 373, labelled 375, is at 45 V.

Also shown on Fig.20D is spark chamber 251. Spark chamber 251 includes a small amount of thorium, indicated at 377, and a plurality of parallel brass plates 379. When the gases in the mixer reach the proper ionisation, the alpha particles emitted by the thorium shown up as flashes of light in the spark chamber.

Turning now to Fig.20B, ionising and filtering unit 215 includes a pair of conductive supports 381 for a plurality of conductors 383, said supports and conductors being connected to a voltage source, an insulating support 385 for additional conductors 387, and a ZnS screen 388 which emits light when impurities are removed from the gaseous fuel mixture. Unit 215 also includes a second set of interleaved conductors indicated generally at 389, a
cold-cathode tube 391, and an x-ray tube indicated generally at 393. Also shown on Fig.20B is an RLC network 395 which has an output on a line 397 which is at 35 V, this voltage being supplied to the x-ray tube.

High frequency discharge tube 255 (see Fig.20C) has a conductive electrode 399 at one end to which high frequency current is applied to excite the gases in the mixer, and an electrode/heater arrangement 401 at the other, a voltage of 45 V being applied to an input 402 of the tube. It is desirable that a small quantity of mercury, indicated at 403, be included in tube 225 to promote discharge of the helium gas. Magnetic coils 237 have disposed therein a pair of generally parallel conductors 405 to which a high frequency signal is applied. When gas flows through coils 237 and between parallel conductors 405, therefore, it is subjected to the combination of a DC magnetic field from the coil and high frequency waves from the conductors, which conductors act as transmitting antennas. The resulting high frequency magnetic field causes the atoms to become unstable, which allows the engine to change a given atom's quantum level with much less input power than would normally be required. The volume of each gas atom will also be smaller. Also shown on Fig.20C is non-directed cathode ray tube 227. The grids of tube 227 are at 145 V, the control electrode is at ground, while the anode is at 35 V to 80 V (peak-to-peak). The purpose of non-directed cathode ray tube 227 is to add photons to the gas mixture. To generate these photons, tube 227 has a two layer ZnS coating indicated generally at 407. Chamber 261, described above, is also shown schematically on Fig.20C, along with an RLC network 409.

The power supply for the mixer (see the lower halves of Fig.20E and Fig.20F) also includes two pentodes 411 and 413, a transformer 415, and a diode tube 417. The control electrode of pentode 411 is at 5 V to 40 V (peak-to-peak), the grids are at 145 V, the anode is at 100 V, and the cathode is at 8 V to 30 V (peak-to-peak). The control electrode of pentode 413 is at 115 V, while its grids and cathode are at -33 V. The anode of tube 413 is connected to transformer 415. Also shown on Fig.20E are a relay 419 associated with ion gauge 255, and focused x-ray tube 263 associated with ionisation head 240. The upper input to tube 263 is at 45 V to 80 V (peak-to-peak).

Turning to Fig.20F, there is shown tubes 265 and 285. Directed cathode ray tube 265 is a pentode connected like tube 227. High frequency discharge tube 285 includes a phosphor screen and is connected to a high frequency source. Also shown on Fig.20F is a triode 421 with its anode at 30 V, its cathode at ground, and its control grid at -60 V; a pentode 423 with its anode at 135 V to 1000 V peak to peak, its cathode at ground, its control electrode at 143 V, its grids at 20 V; and a transformer 425. It should be understood that various arrangements of electrical components other than those described above could be designed to perform the same functions.

The operation of the mixer is best understood with reference to Fig.17A to Fig.17D and is as follows: Before and during operation, the mixer, and particularly chamber 261 is kept hermetically sealed and evacuated. To begin the mixing process, helium is admitted into the mixer via intake port 203. Then a vacuum is again drawn, by a vacuum pump (not shown) connected to valve V38, to flush the chamber. This flushing is repeated several times to completely cleanse the tubing branches of the mixer. The mixer is now ready. The ionisation heads next to mixing chamber 261 are connected to a voltage corresponding to approximately 36% of the calculated total ionising voltage, DC current is allowed to flow through magnetic coils 297 and 299 around chamber 261, and high frequency current is allowed to pass through the mixing chamber. Helium is then slowly admitted, via port 203, into the mixer. From port 203, the helium passes through ionisation head 219 into glass tubing coil 259. This glass coil, being outside magnetic coils 297 and 299, is in the diverging portion of a magnetic field. The helium slowly flowing through glass coil 259 is gently excited. From coil 259, the helium flows through branch B45 to ionisation head 275 and from there, via branch B28, to ionisation head 229 (see Fig.17B). From head 229, the gas flows through non-directed cathode ray tube 227 to high-frequency discharger 225. The high frequency discharger 225, with heating element, discharges, separates or completely neutralises the charge of any radioactive and/or cosmic particles that are in the helium atom in addition to the protons, neutrons and electrons.

The gas exits discharger 225 via branch B26 and passes to high-frequency discharger 285. The high frequency discharger 285, without heating element, disturbs the frequency of oscillation which binds the gas atoms together. This prepares the helium atoms so that the electrons can more easily be split from the nucleus during the excitation and ignition process in the engine. Discharger 285 includes a phosphorus screen or deposit (similar to the coating on a cathode ray tube) which makes discharges in the tube visible. From discharger 285, the helium passes through directed cathode ray tube 265 and focused x-ray tube 263. Directed cathode ray tube 265 produces cathode rays which oscillate back and forth longitudinally underneath and along the gas carrying tube. After that, the helium passes successively through branch B21, ionisation head 221, branch B23, twin parallel magnetic coil 266, and branch B25 into mixing chamber 261. Helium flows slowly into and through apparatus 201. The helium atoms become ionised as a result of excitation by magnetic force, high frequency vibrations and charge acquired from the ionisation heads. When sufficient helium has entered the apparatus, the ionisation energy (which is approximately 36% of the total) is totally absorbed. A spectroscopic flash of light in the mixing
chamber signals that the precise, proper quantity of helium has been allowed to enter. The entry of helium is then immediately halted by the closing of valve V3.

The next step in preparing the fuel is to add neon to the mixture. The potential on the relevant ionisation heads, particularly head 241 (see Fig.17C), is raised by the addition of approximately 26% which results in a total of approximately 62% of the total calculated potential and valve V31 is opened, thereby allowing neon to slowly enter the mixer via port 245. This gas passes through branch B36, ionisation head 241, and branch B35 directly into the mixing chamber. Since the previously admitted helium is fully charged, the neon absorbs all of the increased ionisation potential. As soon as the neon acquires the additional charge, a spectroscopic flash of light occurs and the operator closes valve V31.

In the same manner, the potential on the ionisation heads is increased by the addition of approximately 17% for a total of approximately 79% of the total calculated potential and then valve V30 is opened to admit argon into the mixer via port 243. This gas passes through branch B34, ionisation head 239, and branch B33 into mixing chamber 261. Again, when the proper amount of argon has been admitted, it emits a spectroscopic flash of light and the operator closes valve V30. Next, the potential on the ionisation heads is increased by the addition of approximately 13% to result in a total of approximately 92% of the total calculated potential and valve V56 is opened to admit xenon into the mixer via port 279. This gas passes through branch B50, ionisation head 273 and branch B47 to the mixing chamber. When the proper amount of gas has been admitted, a spectroscopic flash of light occurs signalling the operator to close valve V56. Note that there are two filter/absorber units, labelled 253 and 291. Unit 253 is connected to the neon and argon inlet branches B33 and B35 while unit 291 is connected to the krypton and xenon inlet branches B47 and B48. These two units absorb hydrogen residue and immobilise the water vapour created when the pump circulates the gases and generates vacuum states.

After all the gases are admitted in the desired proportions, all the valves are closed. (The mixture in the mixing chamber and in the adjacent tubing is at one atmosphere pressure at this time). Once this is done, the interval vacuum states.

Because of dead space in the tubing and the reaction time of the operator, it may occur that the proportions of the gases are not exactly those set forth above. This is remedied during the circulation step. As the gas flows through ionisation gauge 255, excess gas is removed from the mixture so that the correct proportions are obtained. To do this the grid of gauge 255 is subjected to 100% ionisation energy and is heated to approximately 165 degrees F. This temperature of 165 degrees F is related to xenon's boiling point of -165 degrees F in magnitude but is opposite in sign. Xenon is the heaviest of the five inert gases in the mixture. As the gas mixture flows through ionisation gauge 255, the gas atoms that are in excess of their prescribed percentages are burned out of the mixture and their charge is acquired by the remaining gas atoms from the grid of the ionisation gauge. Because the gases are under a partial vacuum, the ionisation gauge is able to adjust the gas percentages very precisely. (Note: The steps described in the last two paragraphs are repeated if the finished gases are rejected in the final quality control step described below).

The next step involves purifying the mixture so that only the five inert gases remain, absorbing any free electrons and regulating the electrical charge in the mixture. To do this, the circuit consisting of the following components is opened: Branch B44, magnetic coil 267, magnetic coil 269, ionisation head 240, branch B29, ionisation head 231, branch B24, ionisation head 219, pump 217, branches B15 and B39, magnetic coil 255, branches B38 and B42, ionisation head 275, branch B28, ionisation head 229, non-directed cathode ray tube 227, quadruple magnetic coil 272, ionisation head 221, branch B23, twin parallel magnetic coil 266, branch B25 and mixing chamber 261. When this circuit is initially opened, the pressure of the mixture drops 40-50% because some of the tubing had previously been under vacuum. Pump 217 is then started to cause the gases to be slowly and evenly mixed.

Because the gases are under a partial vacuum, the ionisation gauge is able to adjust the gas percentages very precisely. (Note: The steps described in the last two paragraphs are repeated if the finished gases are rejected in the final quality control step described below).

The next step required to prepare the mixture for bottling is polarisation of the argon. The circuit required to do this consists of the following components: mixing chamber 261, branch B44, magnetic coil 267, magnetic coil 269, ionisation head 240, cathode ray tube 265, branch B40, tubing coil 257, branches B49 and B30, ionisation head 231, branch B24, ionisation head 219, pump 217, branches B15 and B39, twin parallel magnetic coil 287 (see...
Fig. 17D), polariser 289, branch B17, ionising and filtering unit 215, branches B16, B42 and B20, ionisation head 229, cathode ray tube 227, magnetic coil 237, ionisation head 221, branch B23 and magnetic coil 266. This too is repeated at least three times. The key to the polarisation of argon is polariser 289 and twin parallel magnetic coil 287 that encircles it. Polariser 289 is a glass bottle which is filled with finely powdered soft iron which can be easily magnetised. The filled bottle is, in effect, the iron core of the coils. The iron particles align themselves with the magnetic lines of force, which lines radiate from the centre toward the north and south poles. The ionised gas mixture is forced through the magnetised iron powder by means of pump pressure and vacuum, thereby polarising the argon gas. Filters 293 and 295 are disposed as shown in order to filter metallic particles out of the gas.

The mixture is now double-checked by means of spark chamber 251 at atmospheric pressure since the fusion reaction in the engine is started at one atmosphere. Because the gases in mixing apparatus 201 are at a partial vacuum, sufficient gases must be pumped into spark chamber 251 to attain atmospheric pressure. To do this, valves V33, V36 and V40A are closed and circulating pump 217 pumps the gases in the mixing apparatus via branches B15 and B39A. Through check valve V39A into spark chamber 251 until the vacuum and pressure gauge 242 indicates that the gases within spark chamber 251 are at atmospheric pressure. Valve V34 is then closed. The spark chamber is similar to a cloud chamber. Six or more high capacity brass capacitor plates are spaced 1/8" to 1/4" apart in the chamber. A small plastic container holds the thorium 232. One side of the chamber is equipped with a thick glass window through which sparks in the chamber may be observed. If this current exactly corresponds to the ionisation current, the mixture is acceptable. A difference of greater than 5% is not acceptable. A lesser difference can be corrected by recirculating the gas in the mixer and particularly through ionisation gauge 255 as previously described in the circulation step. A second test is then given the gases that pass the first test. A calculated high frequency current is gradually imposed on the spark chamber capacitor plates. This excitation causes neutrons to be emitted from the thorium 232 which, if the mixture is satisfactory, can be easily seen as a thin thread of light in the chamber. If the mixture is not satisfactory, light discharges cannot be seen and the high frequency circuit will short out and turn off before the desired frequency is reached.

To bottle the mixture, valve V33 is opened and valves V36 and V40 are closed. During bottling polariser 289, twin parallel magnetic coil 287, ionisation unit 215 and ion gauge 255 are electrically energised (all electrical circuits are previously de-energised) to improve the stability of the mixture. The prepared gases are withdrawn from the mixing apparatus via branches B24 and B16, ionisation unit 215, branch B17, filters 293 and 295, polariser 289, twin parallel magnetic coil 287, branch B39, ion gauge 255, check valve V39A, branch B38 and spark chamber 251. If desired, after bottling the mixer may be exhausted by opening valves V12, V13, V14, V23, V24, V29, V32, V57 and V59. Of course, one can also automate the fuel preparation process to be continuous so that it would never be necessary to exhaust the gas.

In operation of mixing apparatus 201, certain operational factors must be considered. For one, no electrical devices can be on without the pump being in operation because an electrical device that is on can damage adjacent gas that is not circulating. For another, it should be noted that directed cathode ray tube 265, non-directed cathode ray tube 227 and focused x-ray tube 263 serve different functions at different points in the mixing process. In one mode, they provide hot cathode radiation, which can occur only in a vacuum. When gases are flowing through these devices, they provide a cold cathode discharge. For example, during argon polarisation and the circulation step, focused x-ray tube 263 is under vacuum and affects the gases flowing through ionisation head 240 by way of hot cathode radiation. During the introduction of the different gases into mixing apparatus 201 and during the recirculation step, the gases are flowing through focused x-ray tube 263, which affects the gases by way of a cold cathode discharge.

It is preferred that each switchable electrical component in mixing apparatus 201 be wired into a separate circuit despite the fact that one of the poles of each could be commonly wired. In a common ground circuit if one device is turned on, all of the other units may also turn on because the gases in the device are conductive. In addition, if one unit on a common circuit were energised with high frequency current, the others would also be affected. In the same vein, the high frequency current cannot be used when the cathode ray tubes, the x-ray tubes or the dischargers are heated and under vacuum because the heater filaments will burn out.

Finally, the current source, the variable rectifiers and the electrical measuring instruments must be located more than ten feet from mixing apparatus 201 because the high frequency current is harmful to the rectifiers, causing them to burn out or short out.

It is hoped that a brief summary of the concepts used by the inventor in developing the above invention will be helpful to the reader, it being understood that this summary is in no way intended to limit the claims which follow or to affect their validity. The first concept is that of using an inert gas mixture at approximately one atmosphere at TDC (at ignition) as a fuel in a thermonuclear energy production process. The second concept is the layering of...
the various inert gases, which layering is designed to confine the input energy in the innermost layers during pre-
excitement and ignition, to provide thermal insulation for the container walls during and after ignition, to transmit
power resulting from the ignition through the layers in turn to the piston, to absorb the pressure generated during
ignition to protect the cylinder walls, and to provide an orderly, predictable positioning of the argon layer during the
BDC to TDC portion of the engine cycle. The third concept of this invention involves utilizing electric current produced
in one cylinder of a pair to perform functions in the other cylinder of that pair. This concept includes the
sub-concepts of generating electric current by atomic recombination and of electric generation in place resulting
from the rotation of layered inert gases within each cylinder because of the changed polarity of the encircling coils
at BDC, from judicious placement of coils which produce magnetic field lines which are cut by a near perfect
conductor (polarised argon), and from movement of said near perfect conductor through the magnetic field.

The fourth and fifth concepts of this invention are the transformation of rapid, intense, but short duration
thermonuclear reactions into pressure that is transmitted from inert gas to inert gas until it creates linear kinetic
energy at the piston, which energy is converted into rotary kinetic energy by a crankshaft, and the use of a shaft-
driven generator to provide power to spaced field coils during the BDC to TDC portion of the cycle of each
cylinder.

The sixth concept concerns adequate pre-excitation of the inert gas fuel and more particularly involves the sub-
concepts of pre-exciting the fuel in the mixing process, of manipulation of the currents in the coils surrounding
each cylinder, of discharging the capacitors surrounding each cylinder at predetermined times in the cycles, of
causing a stream of electrical particles to flow between electrodes and a conductive discharge point on the piston,
of emitting alpha, beta and gamma rays from an anode and a cathode containing low level radioactive material to
the piston’s discharge point, of accelerating the alpha, beta and gamma rays by the application of a high-voltage
field, and of situating capacitor plates 90 degrees from the anode and cathode to slow and reflect neutrons
generated during ignition. The seventh concept involves the provision of a minute, pellet-type fission ignition, the
heat from which causes a minute fusion as the result of the ignition chamber shape and arrangement, as a result
of the collision of the alpha, beta and gamma rays and the electrical particles at a focal point in conjunction with
the discharge of the capacitors that surround the cylinder through the electrodes, and as a result of increasing the
magnetic field in the direction of the movement of each piston.
Robert Britt’s Inert Gas Engine


ATOMIC EXPANSION REFLEX OPTICS POWER SOURCE (AEROPS) ENGINE

ABSTRACT
An engine is provided which will greatly reduce atmospheric pollution and noise by providing a sealed system engine power source which has no exhaust nor intake ports. The engine includes a spherical hollow pressure chamber which is provided with a reflecting mirror surface. A noble gas mixture within the chamber is energised by electrodes and work is derived from the expansion of the gas mixture against a piston.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION
An atomic expansion reflex optics power source (AEROPS) engine, having a central crankshaft surrounded by a crankcase. The crankcase has a number of cylinders and a number of pistons located within the cylinders. The pistons are connected to the crankshaft by a number of connecting rods. As the crankshaft turns, the pistons move in a reciprocating motion within the cylinders. An assembly consisting of a number of hollow spherical pressure chambers, having a number of electrodes and hollow tubes, with air-cooling fins, is mounted on the top of each cylinder. The necessary gaskets are provided as needed to seal the complete engine assemblies from atmospheric pressure. A means is provided to charge the hollow spherical pressure chamber assembly and the engine crankcase with noble gas mixtures through a series of valves and tubes. A source of medium-voltage pulses is applied to two of the electrodes extending into each of the hollow spherical pressure chambers.

When a source of high-voltage pulses is applied from an electrical rotary distributor switch to other electrodes extending into each of the hollow spherical pressure chambers in a continuous firing order, electrical discharges take place periodically in the various hollow spherical pressure chambers. When the electrical discharges take place, high energy photons are released on many different electromagnetic frequencies. The photons strike the atoms of the various mixed gases, e.g., xenon, krypton, helium and mercury, at different electromagnetic frequencies to which each is selectively sensitive, and the atoms become excited. The first photons emitted are reflected back into the mass of excited atoms by a reflecting mirror surface on the inside wall of any particular hollow spherical pressure chamber, and this triggers more photons to be released by these atoms. They are reflected likewise and strike other atoms into excitation and photon energy release. The electrons orbiting around the protons of each excited atom in any hollow spherical pressure chamber increase in speed and expand outward from centre via centrifugal force causing the atoms to enlarge in size. Consequently, a pressure wave is developed, the gases expand and the pressure of the gas increases.

As the gases expand, the increased pressure is applied to the top of the pistons in the various cylinders fired selectively by the electrical distributor. The force periodically applied to the pistons is transmitted to the connecting rods which turn the crankshaft to produce rotary power. Throttle control valves and connecting tubes form a bypass between opposing hollow spherical pressure chambers of each engine section thereby providing a means of controlling engine speed and power. The means whereby the excited atoms are returned to normal minimum energy ground-state and minimum pressure level, is provided by disrupting the electrical discharge between the medium-voltage electrodes, by cooling the atoms as they pass through a heat transfer assembly, and by the increase in the volume area above the pistons at the bottom of their power stroke. The AEROPS engine as described above provides a sealed unit power source which has no atmospheric air intake nor exhaust emission. The AEROPS engine is therefore pollution free.

BRIEF OBJECTIVE OF THE INVENTION
This invention relates to the development of an atomic expansion reflex optics power source (AEROPS) engine, having the advantages of greater safety, economy and efficiency over those disclosed in the prior art. The principal object of this invention is to provide a new engine power technology which will greatly reduce atmospheric pollution and noise, by providing a sealed system engine power source which has no exhaust nor intake ports.
Engine power is provided by expanding the atoms of various noble gas mixtures. The pressure of the gases increases periodically to drive the pistons and crankshaft in the engine to produce safe rotary power. The objects and other advantages of this invention will become better understood to those skilled in the art when viewed in light of the accompanying drawings.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is an elevational view of the hollow spherical pressure chamber assembly, including sources of gas mixtures and electrical supply:

![Fig. 1](image1)

Fig. 2 is an elevational view of the primary engine power stroke:

![Fig. 2](image2)
Fig. 3 is an elevational view of the primary engine compression stroke:

Fig. 4 is a rear elevational view of a six cylinder AEROPS engine:
Fig. 5 is a top view of the six cylinder AEROPS engine:

![Fig. 5](image)

Fig. 6 is an electrical schematic of the source of medium-voltage:

![Fig. 6](image)
Fig. 7 is an electrical schematic of the source of high-voltage:

**DETAILED DESCRIPTION**

Referring to Fig. 1 of the drawings, the AEROPS engine comprises a hollow spherical pressure chamber 1 having an insulated high-voltage electrode 2 mounted on the top, an insulated medium-voltage electrode 3 mounted on the right, and an insulated common ground electrode 4 mounted on the left, as shown in this particular view. Electrodes 2, 3 and 4 extend through the wall of the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1 and each electrode forms a pressure seal. A plurality of hollow tubes 5 arranged in a cylindrical pattern extend through the wall of the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1, and each hollow tube is welded to the pressure chamber to form a pressure seal. The opposite ends of hollow tubes 5 extend through the mounting plate MP and are welded likewise to form a pressure seal. A plurality of heat transfer fins 6 are welded at intervals along the length of said hollow tubes 5. A bright reflecting mirror surface 7 is provided on the inner wall of the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1. A source of high-voltage 8 is periodically connected to the insulated high-voltage electrodes 2 and 4. A source of medium-voltage 9 from a discharge capacitor is connected to the insulated medium-voltage electrodes 3 and 4. A source of noble gas mixtures 10, e.g., xenon, krypton, helium and mercury is applied under pressure into the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1 through pressure regulator valve 11 and check valve 12.
Referring now to Fig. 2 of the drawings, the complete assembly 13 shown in Fig. 1 is mounted on the top of the cylinder 14 via mounting plate MP. The necessary gaskets or other means are provided to seal the engine and prevent loss of gases into the atmosphere. The piston 15 located within cylinder 14 has several rings 16 which seal against the inner wall of the cylinder. The piston 15 is connected to the crankshaft 17 by connecting rod 18. The source of noble gas mixtures 10 is applied under pressure into the crankcase 21 through pressure regulator valve 11, check valve 12 and capillary tube 19. The piston 15 is now balanced between equal gas pressures. Assuming that the engine is running and the piston 15 is just passing Top-Dead-Centre (TDC), a source of medium-voltage from a capacitor discharge system 9 (Fig. 6, a single typical capacitor section) is applied to electrodes 3 and 4. A source of high-voltage pulses from a standard ignition coil 8 (such as shown in Fig. 7) is applied to electrodes 2 and 4 and the gases within the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1 are ionised and made electrically conductive. An electrical discharge takes place between electrodes 3 and 4 through the gases in the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1.

The electrical discharge releases high energy photons on many different electromagnetic frequencies. The photons strike the atoms of the various gases, e.g., xenon, krypton, helium and mercury at different electromagnetic frequencies to which each atom is selectively sensitive and the atoms of each gas become excited. The first photons emitted are reflected back into the mass of excited atoms by the reflecting mirror surface 7. This triggers more photons to be released by these atoms, and they are reflected likewise from the mirror surface 7 and strike other atoms into excitation and more photons are released as the chain reaction progresses. The electrons orbiting around the protons of each excited atom increase in speed and expand outward in a new orbital pattern due to an increase in centrifugal force. Consequently, a pressure wave is developed in the gases as the atoms expand and the overall pressure of the gases within the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1 increases. As the gases expand they pass through the hollow tubes 5 and apply pressure on the top of piston 15. The pressure pushes the piston 15 and the force and motion of the piston is transmitted through the connecting rod 18 to the crankshaft 17 rotating it in a clockwise direction. At this point of operation, the power stroke is completed and the capacitor in the medium-voltage capacitor discharge system 9 is discharged. The excited atoms return to normal ground state and the gases return to normal pressure level. The capacitor in the medium-voltage capacitor discharge system 9 is recharged during the time period between (TDC) power strokes.
Referring now to Fig.3 of the drawings, the compression stroke of the engine is shown. In this engine cycle the gases above the piston are forced back into the hollow spherical pressure chamber through the tubes of the heat transfer assembly. The gases are cooled as the heat is conducted into the fins of the heat transfer assembly and carried away by an air blast passing through the fins. An example is shown in Fig.4, the centrifugal air pump P providing an air blast upon like fins.

![Figure 4](image)

Some of the basic elements of the invention as set forth in Fig.1, Fig.2, and Fig.3 are now shown in Fig.4 and Fig.5 which show complete details of a six-cylinder horizontally-opposed AEROPS engine.

Referring now to Fig.4 and Fig.5 of the drawings. Fig.4 is a view of the rear section of the engine showing the crankshaft, centre axis and two of the horizontally-opposed cylinders. In as much as the rear R, middle M and front F sections of the engine possess identical features, only the rear R engine section will be elaborated upon in detail in order to prevent repetition and in the interest of simplification. The crankshaft 17A consists of three cranks spaced 120 degrees apart in a 360 degree circle as shown. Both connecting rods 18A and 18B are connected to the same crank. Their opposite ends connect to pistons 15A and 15B, located in cylinders 14A and 14B respectively. Each piston has pressure sealing rings 16A and 16B. The hollow spherical pressure chamber assemblies consisting of 1A and 1D are mounted on cylinders 14A and 14B via mounting plates MP. The necessary gaskets are provided as needed to seal the complete engine assemblies from atmospheric pressure.

![Figure 5](image)

The source of gas mixtures 10A is applied under pressure to pressure regulator valve 11A and flows through check valve 12A, through check valve 12B to the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1A, and through check valve
12C to the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1D. The gas flow network consisting of capillary tubes below point 19A represents the flow of gases to the rear section R of the engine. The middle section M and the front section F both have gas flow networks identical to that consisting of capillary tubes below point 19A, while the gas flow network above is common to all engine sections. Throttle valve 20A and the connecting tubing form a variable bypass between hollow spherical pressure chambers 1A and 1D to control engine speed and power. Engine sections R, M and F each have this bypass throttle network. The three throttle valves have their control shafts ganged together. A source of medium-voltage pulses 9A is connected to medium-voltage electrodes 3A and 3D. In one particular embodiment the medium-voltage is 500 volts. A source of high-voltage pulses 8A is connected to electrode 2A through the distributor as shown. Electrode 4A is connected to common ground. Centrifugal air pumps P force air through heat transfer fins 6A and 6B to cool the gases flowing in the tubes 5A and 5B.

Fig.5 is a top view of the AEROPS engine showing the six cylinders and crankshaft arrangement consisting of the rear R, middle M and front F sections. The crankshaft 17A is mounted on bearings B, and a multiple shaft seal S is provided as well as the necessary seals at other points to prevent loss of gases into the atmosphere. The hollow spherical pressure chambers 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, 1E and 1F are shown in detail with high-voltage electrodes 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 2E, 2F and medium-voltage electrodes 3A, 3B, 3C, 3E and 3F. The common ground electrodes 4A, 4B, 4C, 4D, 4E, 4F are not shown in Fig.5 but are typical of the common ground electrodes 4A and 4D shown in Fig.4. It should be noted that the cranks on crankshaft 17A are so arranged to provide directly opposing cylinders rather than a conventional staggered cylinder design.

Fig.6 is an electrical schematic of the source of medium-voltage 9A. The complete operation of the converter is explained as follows: The battery voltage 12 VDC is applied to transformer T1, which causes currents to pass through resistors R1, R2, R3 and R4. Since it is not possible for these two paths to be exactly equal in resistance, one-half of the primary winding of T1 will have a somewhat higher current flow. Assuming that the current through the upper half of the primary winding is slightly higher than the current through the lower half, the voltages developed in the two feedback windings (the ends connected to R3 and R2) tend to turn transistor Q2 on and transistor Q1 off. The increased conduction of Q2 causes additional current to flow through the lower half of the transformer primary winding. The increase in current induces voltages in the feedback windings which further drives Q2 into conduction and Q1 into cut-off, simultaneously transferring energy to the secondary of T1. When the current through the lower half of the primary winding of T1 reaches a point where it can no longer increase due to the resistance of the primary circuit and saturation of the transformer core, the signal applied to the transistor from the feedback winding drops to zero, thereby turning Q2 off. The current in this portion of the primary winding drops immediately, causing a collapse of the field about the windings of T1. This collapse in field flux, cutting across all of the windings in the transformer, develops voltages in the transformer windings that are opposite in polarity to the voltages developed by the original field. This new voltage now drives Q2 into cut-off.
and drives Q1 into conduction. The collapsing field simultaneously delivers power to the secondary windings L1, L2, L3, L4, L5 and L6. The output voltage of each winding is connected through resistors R5, R6 and R7 and diode rectifiers D1, D2, D3, D4, D5 and D6, respectively, whereby capacitors C1, C2, C3, C4, C5 and C6 are charged with a medium-voltage potential of the polarity shown. The output voltage is made available at points 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D, 3E and 3F which are connected to the respective medium-voltage electrodes on the engine shown in Fig.4 and Fig.5.

Referring now to Fig.7 of the drawings, a conventional "Kettering" ignition system provides a source of high-voltage pulses 8A of approximately 40,000 volts to a distributor, which provides selective voltage output at 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 2E and 2F, which are connected to the respective high-voltage electrodes on the engine shown in Fig.4 and Fig.5. The distributor is driven by the engine crankshaft 17A (Fig.5) at a one to one mechanical gear ratio.

Referring again to Fig.4 and Fig.5 of the drawings, the operation of the engine is as follows: Assuming that a source of noble gas mixtures, e.g., xenon, krypton, helium and mercury is applied under pressure to the hollow spherical pressure chambers 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, 1E and 1F and internally to the crankcase 21A through pressure regulator valve 11A and check valves 12A, 12B and 12C; and the source of medium-voltage 9A is applied to electrodes 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D, 3E and 3F; and a source of high-voltage pulse 8A is applied to electrode 2A through the timing distributor, the gas mixtures in the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1A is ionised and an electrical discharge occurs immediately between electrodes 3A and 4A.

High-energy photons are released on many different electromagnetic frequencies. The photons strike the atoms of the various gases, e.g., xenon, krypton, helium and mercury at different electromagnetic frequencies to which each is particularly sensitive and the atoms of each gas become excited. The first photons emitted are reflected back into the mass of excited atoms by the internal reflecting mirror surface on the inside wall of the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1A. This triggers more photons to be released by these atoms and they are reflected likewise from the mirror surface and strike other atoms into excitation and more photons are released as the chain reaction progresses. The electrons orbiting around the protons of each excited atom in the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1A increase in speed and expand outward in a new orbital pattern due to an increase in centrifugal force. Consequently, a pressure wave is developed in the gases as the atoms expand and the overall pressure of the gases within the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1A increases.

As the gases expand they pass through the hollow tubes 5A applying pressure on the top of piston 15A. The pressure applied to piston 15A is transmitted through connecting rod 18A to the crankshaft 17A rotating it in a clockwise direction. As the crankshaft 17A rotates it pushes piston 15B via connecting rod 18B in the direction of a compression stroke, forcing the gases on the top of the piston through hollow tubes 5B into the hollow spherical pressure chamber 1D. As the gases pass through the hollow tubes 5A and 5B the heat contained in the gases is conducted into the heat transfer fins 6A and 6B, where it is dissipated by a blast of air passing through said fins from the centrifugal air pumps P. At this point of operation the power stroke of piston 15A is completed and the capacitor in the medium-voltage capacitor discharge system 9A is discharged. The excited atoms return to normal ground state and the gases return to normal pressure level. The capacitor in the medium-voltage capacitor discharge system 9A is recharged during the time period between the power strokes of piston 15A.

The above power stroke cycle occurs exactly the same in the remaining cylinders as the high-voltage firing order progresses in respect to the position of the distributor switch. In as much as the AEROPS engine delivers six power strokes per single crankshaft revolution, the crankshaft drives the distributor rotor at a one to one shaft ratio. The complete high-voltage firing order is 1, 4, 5, 2, 3, 6, whereas, the high-voltage is applied to electrodes 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 2E and 2F respectively. A means of controlling engine speed and power is provided by a plurality of throttle control valves and connecting tubes which form a bypass between opposing hollow spherical pressure chambers of each engine section.
The AEROPS engine as described above provides a sealed unit power source which has no atmospheric air intake nor exhaust emission and is therefore pollution free.
**Floyd Sweet**

Recently, some additional information on Floyd Sweet's device, has been released publicly by an associate of Floyd's who goes just by his first name of "Maurice" and who, having reached the age of seventy has decided that it is time to release this additional information.

Maurice says: After observing the comments made over the past year regarding the Sweet-VTA Energy Device, I decided to "come out of the woodwork" and explain what basically is NOT known regarding Floyd Sweet ("Sparky") and his energy device.

Keep in mind that I am 70 years old, quite computer illiterate, my background Being mainly Political Science (Graduate Degree); consulting with State Legislatures; Mental Health (former Executive Director of five clinics); and, acquiring Venture Capital for High Tech. Equipment (such as medical equipment) and various Projects. My story is very unusual and strange, but, nevertheless TRUE! At my age I have no one to impress with what I am about to tell you. My only interest is to correct error where possible and to make certain information known!

Remember, that I have never had any education in electronics. This was a real advantage for me because I did not have any electrical principles which I had to UN-LEARN in anything that Floyd told us. Unfortunately, one of my brothers who trained for 35 years in electronics was "blown away" when Floyd told him that "he needed to reverse the concepts which he was taught about the action of an electron and treat it like it was positive". Therefore, for Sparky's modelling, electrons were flowing and acting in the opposite direction to what was normally modelled by a trained physicist. See what I mean? The Dean of the School of Science of MIT that verified that Sparky had an MSEE degree and came third in his class of more than two hundred.

Hopefully sincere researchers will be able to obtain some useful information in what I attempt to explain in the future that will help them to duplicate what Floyd had. In this respect, one day after Floyd had repeatedly asked me: "What is this device Maurice?" and I repeatedly gave him the wrong answer, saying that it was an energy device, I finally realised that what was important to him was that he considered the device to be a TIME MACHINE - his emphasis was NOT on the energy. He told me never to forget that the most important thing was that the device was a "Time Machine".

Maurice draws attention to the fact that Floyd Sweet graduated as an M.S.E.E. from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1969 and his thesis "Dynamics of Magnetic Domains" is considered by the M.I.T. scientific community to be unparalleled in magnetic concepts. He received the coveted Dean's Award for his scientific research and his academic level in Electrical Engineering achievement ranks third in the history of the M.I.T. School of Science. He has an extraordinary talent in the area of Engineering Mathematics not to mention his concept of electromagnetic and related electrical phenomena and understanding of abstract intangibles needed to predict the unforeseen.

Maurice says: In about 1988 John, who my two brothers and I were involved with in the High Tech field realised that my brother, who was a Doctor (Doctor brother), was interested in negative energy devices for the treatment of the physical body (similar to Rife/Tesla Frequency Machines). John had formerly been employed at NASA with Floyd Sweet. John lived in California close to Floyd (Sherman Oaks).

My doctor brother and I were introduced to Floyd by John and we waited patiently for the time when we could see the VTA device. We saw it on the table at his house during various visits but it was not operating. Floyd was like many inventors who played games with you. Each time we would drive 13 hours to see him thinking we could see the device operating, but he would have some excuse for not turning it on, or he would just ignore the purpose of our visit.

On one visit, I looked over at Floyd and he was “showing off” his Barium Ferrite bar magnet. The magnet was approximately 1/2" thick, 7" long and 3" wide. He had a small piece of metal that was standing on the top of the magnet at a 45 degree angle. As I recall, he claimed that the 45 degree angle was needed in the treatment of the magnet so that it could capture Scalar waves. The magnets were mainly functioning as a “gate” for the Scalar waves. Additionally, if you placed a piece of thin “flexible” (ribbon type) metal flat on the top of the magnet, the middle of the “ribbon metal” would be “sucked down” flat at the middle of the magnet and both ends of the “ribbon metal” would be bowed-up at each end of the magnet. Also, I came to understand from another inventor that we introduced later on to Floyd that the “figure eight” design (flux flow?) on the top of the magnet played an important part in the functioning of the magnet - I don’t really know about the concept and can’t relay any additional information.
On another visit, Floyd demonstrated the flowing flux of the magnet. He had a TV monitor and he would place the magnet by the screen and you could see all the beautiful colours of the flux as it moved across the monitor screen. My electronics brother told me that Floyd had told him that he had a way of treating the magnet by calibrating the Scalar wave angle coming in using the TV monitor. A side note is that Floyd delighted in telling people, when they asked how he treated his magnets, they should get the magnets real hot first. This apparently “screwed up” the magnetism and he enjoyed doing this for some weird reason!

Finally, after 12 trips across the California Desert, Floyd agreed to show us the Device in operation. In his defence, Floyd did claim that on some earlier planned demonstrations that his magnets had been “pulverized” by artificial earthquakes coming up through Mexico. He designed some type of buffer in the Device that eliminated the problem, but, it was an on-going problem for quite a period of time. This reminds me now that I must digress because I need to tell you about the Government (or who?) involvement with us.

When we first started to visit Floyd, our phones were all “tapped” - I do not know by whom. My electronics brother worked full-time with the Air National Guard and his specialty was electronic Security, Crypto, etc. tied in with SAC bases in our area and the surrounding States. Additionally, he had set-up the “clean room” for the President of the United States when he visited our State. I mention this because even my electronics brother was doubtful in the beginning that we were all being monitored. On one occasion, my doctor brother had his complete prior telephone conversation played back to him when he answered the phone (twenty minutes later) - I think it was probably some type of “screw-up” by whoever was monitoring our phones. My biggest complaint was the consistent early morning 3am call and then a “hang-up” when you answered - for what reason I don't know other than for harassment purposes.

I give you the above information so that you can understand the seriousness of what we were involved with.

Floyd’s Energy Device was mainly three things:

1. It was a healing device - negative electricity - negative time. In theory, you could re-set the template in your DNA with this energy source and therefore cleanse the body of all impurities that your ancestors had acquired over time. Additionally, you could kill current disease (virus/bacteria) in the body by using the right frequencies, and this did not disturb any other body cells. This is why Floyd needed my doctor brother to help him arrive at the proper medical protocol for using his technology. Additionally, if you note in the Payroll Expenses attachment of this e-mail, a one-line item of expenditure is for AIDS-related materials in which Floyd and my doctor brother had a real interest. My doctor brother had an agreement with Floyd to build three medical interferometers which would all have a noble gas plasma inside them. I actually witnessed one of these devices in operation. At the end of the (approximately 20 inch long) tube-like structure you could feel a pulsing being emitted at the end of the tube on to whichever part of the body you wanted treated. My doctor brother had ordered two Interferometers from Floyd which were about 4 feet long.

2. The VTA energy device is probably the world’s worst weapon. Floyd claimed that like Nicola Tesla, you could cause “artificial earthquakes” - besides destroying buildings. As I understood from people in the intelligence world, which we de-briefed after we saw the device operate, three countries have what is called the “Tesla Cannon”; Russia, America and I never found out who the third country was. As mentioned earlier, this energy source is what disabled Floyd’s VTA equipment over many months until he got his “buffer” built into his device. Further, this is why the Federal Government had such an interest in what we were doing with Floyd during the time we spent with him.

3. The device was an Energy source for the home (could change negative energy to positive energy). It was also an energy source for the car and many other purposes. The cost of building one of these energy devices was only about US $200.00 - incredible!

**Description of the VTA device:**

On the day that we finally got to see the device operating, my doctor brother and I had finally convinced my electronics brother to accompany us to Sherman Oaks, California to see the demonstration. My doctor brother and I had made ALL the preliminary trips to see Floyd minus our electronics brother because he was literally a “doubting Thomas”, being heavily involved in the electronics field and full of Maxwell’s Theories of electronics, etc. Yes, you could say that he was a traditional electronics person. But, for this reason, we needed my electronics brother to be our DEBUNKER in case the device was not what it was portrayed to be. We had one other witness "Gary”, an associate of mine who was to bring in
the venture capital funding if the device proved to be as good as claimed.

The day when we witnessed the VTA device operating is a day which I shall never forget. To actually see a device working, which cost only $200 dollars to make and which could create all the clean energy you would ever need, was “awesome”. I know I have been “altered” ever since knowing that such a device existed. Now for a brief description of the Device:

These are not exact measurements but only approximations. The device was on what I believe to be "Plexi glass" (acrylic). Nothing was hidden. You could see everything, top and bottom through the plastic. The Plexi glass structure was approximately 18” square. We were allowed to pick-up the device and carry it around Floyd’s living room so you could see that there were no other electrical connections to it.

On top of the Plexi glass case there were three toroidal coils wound with thin windings of varnished copper wire. There were two barium ferrite bar magnets (approx. 7”x 3”x 1/2”). Present was a volt meter which displayed 120v when the device was turned on. Also, there was an ampere meter which measured the electrical currents flowing when Floyd switched different things on-and-off during the demonstration. The items used for load demonstration included the burner part of the stove, a hair dryer, a fan, and five one-hundred watt globe lights. The fascinating thing to me about the light demo was that the lights had a glow like the overhead lights in your kitchen - a very soft, COOL appearance. Not the look of a traditional bright light bulb such as you have in your lamp on a traditional night stand.

I forgot to mention that the device was started by attaching a 9-volt battery which, I understand, started the magnetic flux in motion. Floyd would then connect the “pigtail” on the device and it would become just one circular energy unit.

As Floyd put more load on the device, the ambient temperature around the device (coils) would start to get lower. Additionally, depending on how much load you added, the device would start to lose some of its weight and you then had levitation beginning to take place. I should note at this point that on one meeting with Floyd, his wife Rose, used some expletives when telling how one day, Floyd kept adding more-and-more load to the device and he almost “brought down” the Apartment Complex he lived in at Sherman Oaks. He turned off the equipment, went out on his patio and pretended that it was a California Earthquake! His neighbours never did know what he had in his apartment. In this respect, I never did find out what the big piece of equipment was in his bedroom. It literally stretched from the ceiling to the floor. It was so heavy that the floor was bowed-in and sunken and that “big sucker” had a growling noise when it was on - I never did find out what it was. It was big like some kind of transformer.

The Rest of The Story:
You are probably wondering what the article on Ron Brandt is about. It’s a long story, but after I moved Ron and his laboratory all the way from the mouth of Zion’s National Park to “someplace” Oregon to hide him out - he was using “Tachyon Beams” with his medical equipment and after only a couple of minutes the “Black Helicopters” would show up - sooo at my doctor brother’s request I moved Ron to Oregon. At the time I thought Ron was a “real flake” because when I helped him forward his mail from a small town in Southern Utah, he asked me how to spell the word “electric” so he could put in the full address of “Brandt Electric”. Further, Ron said he was only here on this Earth until 2012 - It was now 1987-88 - and then he had to leave to go to another planet! I now wanted to shoot my doctor brother who got me into this whole moving-Ron thing! My doctor brother told me that Ron had to move fast because Ron had told him that an earthquake was coming in the next few days - Right!

Well, guess what happened a few days later? The largest earthquake in many years in that particular location took place and it even wiped out the hot springs at the Resorts along the Virgin River which runs through Zion’s National Park and through the small town of Virgin where Ron lived. I since found out that Ron had invented earthquake equipment along with Philo T. Farnsworth’s (Inventor of Television) grandson and six months ahead, they had actually predicted the previous great earthquake in California and their prediction was off by only six minutes! The Government is insisting that they want the equipment, so that is one of the reasons for everyone “hiding out”.

Now, why am I giving you all this preliminary information regarding Ron Brandt? Well it seems that Ron has a Magnet Motor which weighs only 75 pounds and which can generate power equivalent to that of a 300 horsepower internal combustion engine. Also, the motor can be a retro-fit in any existing car without the need to design a whole new car. This is the connection I will explain later regarding Ron who could not even spell “electric” and Floyd who was placed 3rd in all the inventions to ever come out of MIT - All I can say is “WOW”!
**EVENTS SURROUNDING FLOYD’S DEATH:**

I will now leave it up to you to decide whether or not Floyd died of natural causes or was “taken out” by some person, group, or some Government.

In the summer of 1994, my doctor brother suddenly “passed out” at one of our Venture Capital meetings and was rushed to the hospital. After an MRI of his head, it was discovered that he had a brain tumour and it was of the worst kind (very fast growing). This seemed impossible as my doctor brother had always monitored his body daily as he did an occasional experiment on himself with certain medicines. By 11th November 1994, my doctor brother had died. He told us prior to death that “they” (whoever “they” were) had succeeded in placing the fastest growing cancer tumour into his brain - How? - I have no idea! I never did find out. What is important to the free-energy field was that my doctor brother was in daily contact with Floyd and his Associates regarding the energy devices. I was not that important and basically only accompanied my doctor brother to meetings and kind of “got lost in the woodwork”. Intellectually, I really was not a threat to anyone. I was only there at meetings to help acquire venture capital.

On the very day that my doctor brother died, my electronics brother and I were at the home of John, (Floyd’s Associate from NASA) who for some strange reason had followed my brothers and I to our home city where we lived, bought a home and took up residence there. We did not complain as he was our go-between with Floyd. But the move still seemed strange to me. The reason my electronics brother and I were with John is that John had arranged a conference call with Floyd and us, to see if there was a possibility for Floyd to make some type of energy device which could power the magnet motor that Ron Brandt had. My brothers and I had all the contractual rights to Ron’s Magnet Motor which could be used in any car. I thought to myself that now I can really find out how “real” Ron (who could not even spell “electric”) was when I matched him up with Floyd from MIT. I could not believe what I heard as Floyd and Ron conversed at the highest electronic levels - "who the 'hell' is Ron?" I thought. Floyd agreed that he would have no problem doing the prototype for Ron's Magnet Motor to power the car.

Floyd mainly worked with my electronics brother on this project as Floyd needed old vacuum tubes which my electronics brother had to acquire for the device and my electronics brother was a real “bench” person which Floyd seemed to favour over academic Electrical Engineers.

During the Spring of 1995, while Floyd was working on our energy device for the car, John (from NASA) and Floyd were elated that there was supposed to be an announcement from the White House regarding Floyd's VTA Energy Device. It seems that Floyd was a past friend of Senator John Glen (the former NASA astronaut) and he had given Glen one of the energy devices. Unfortunately, Glen gave the device to the Department of Energy, who, according to Floyd, passed the device on to General Motors. Floyd was furious and as I understood Floyd was then going to sue GM for two hundred million dollars. As far as I know Floyd never got the device back. I will always remember the extreme disappointment on the faces of Floyd and John when they realised that the trip to Washington DC for the announcement, was not going to take place.

In July 1995, Floyd let us know that the Energy Device was finished and we were to take possession of it. Floyd now lived in Desert Palms, California and that is where we would pick it up. After much thought, we decided we better not board a plane with the device as we were not sure of any magnetic effects on the instruments of the plane in having it transported - it was new technology which still had many questions to be answered. Instead, we decided to drive our car to Desert Palms and bring the device back ourselves.

Floyd called us the day before we were to leave and asked us if he could keep the device for a couple of extra days. He said he had “someone” coming (I thought he said China) and wanted to show them the device. We said ok, we would plan to pick it up when he was done.

A day later, at about 7:00 am Pacific time, there was a frantic call from Floyd's wife Violet (Floyd's wife Rose had died and he had re-married) to my electronics brother's house. My electronics brother was not at home and my sister-in-law, his wife, took the call from Violet. Violet was very traumatised when she told my sister-in-law that Floyd was dead. There was a lot of shouting going on in the background. The people who were there claimed they were from the FBI and that Floyd's equipment belonged to them. Rose was extremely confused with the death of Floyd and people she had never seen before taking all the equipment out of her house to waiting vans. She asked my sister-in-law what to do and my sister-in-law had NO idea as she was not aware of what my brothers and I had going on!
Violet also said that about 5:00 pm the previous night, two men whom she had never seen before, showed up to see Floyd. Floyd was with them for a period of time and then they left. At about 8:00 pm, Floyd was having a cup of coffee when he fell out of the chair onto the floor. She called for an ambulance and when they arrived they would not let her ride with them. Violet was 75 years old and didn’t drive. About twenty minutes later the ambulance called back to Violet and told her they didn’t think Floyd was going to “make it”!! As I understand it, Floyd’s body was cremated. How soon afterwards, I don’t know. The end result for my brothers and I is that ALL of our energy equipment that Floyd made for us was taken - By Whom??

Who were the two men who met with Floyd a few hours before his death? Was anything put in Floyd’s coffee by these men? Violet said she had never seen them before and they seemed strange!

Why could Violet not go with her husband in the ambulance? I have seen it happen many times when family is allowed, especially where age is concerned!

How did the FBI (if that is who they were) know that Floyd was dead and show up in the very early morning (about 6:00 am) just hours after he died late at night?

YOU BE THE JUDGE - ALL I KNOW IS THAT ALL OF OUR ENERGY DEVICES (MEDICAL AND CAR-MAGNET MOTOR) ARE GONE!! WHERE ARE THEY AND WHO ARE THE ONES RESPONSIBLE FOR TAKING THEM ??

Here are some of the known facts about Floyd's energy device:

The invention is a unified-field device and so combines both electromagnetic and gravitational effects in the same unit. For a tiny power input of just 0.31 milli watt, the unit produces over 500 watts of output power, which is an energy gain of more than 1,500,000. The prototype, has no moving parts, is about 6” x 6” x 4” in size and taps an inexhaustible source of energy. To date, up to one kilowatt of power has been produced in actual tests which required only tiny input power to make the device operate.

Our normal day-to-day energy is "positive energy". The energy produced by Floyd's device is "negative energy" but in spite of this, it powers ordinary equipment, producing light and heat as normal. A device like this has to have a major impact on the world as we know it, because:

1. It can be easily built. The components are quite ordinary and the cost of the materials in the demonstration prototype was only a few hundred US dollars and it was constructed in just a few hours, using simple tools and equipment.

2. The test results are so impressive that there can be no question of errors of measurement when the energy gain is of the order of 1,500,000 times.

3. It demonstrates with laboratory precision that the 'law' of Conservation of Energy does not appear to apply during the operation of this device, which is something which most scientists have difficulty in accepting.

The device has very high performance. When a 1-milli watt 60Hz sine wave is fed into it, the output powers 500 watts of standard mains-voltage light bulbs, producing both heat and light. The device has a positive-feedback loop so it’s gain is depends directly on the output load and the input power remains unchanged. So to increase the output power, all that is necessary is to connect extra light bulbs or equipment across the output.

When a motor was connected in addition to the light bulbs, the motor ran perfectly well under load and the light bulbs remained as bright as ever. Because it is a “cold electricity” device, the wires feeding the load can be very much smaller in diameter than would be normal for the load and these wires run cold at all times. When the power hits the resistance of the filament of the light bulbs, it converts into conventional "hot electricity" and the filaments perform in exactly the same way as they do when powered by "hot electricity".

In 1988, Floyd produced a paper which he considered to be very important. The following text is an attempt to reproduce the content his highly mathematical style of presentation. If you are not into complicated mathematical presentations, then just move on past and don’t worry about the following technical material, or alternatively, take a quick skim through it and don’t bother with the maths. Floyd says:

What is thought of as "empty space" actually contains almost everything in the universe. It is home to all kinds of invisible energy fields and is seething with all kinds of very real forces.
Every kind of matter produces an energy field and these energy fields interact with each other in many complicated ways, producing all sorts of additional effects. These energy fields are the "stuff" of space, or as it is sometimes described, "the virtual vacuum". Space is packed full of all sorts of things but because it does not contain air, we tend to think that there is nothing at all in it. Most people think that "vacuum" means "without air" but when scientists speak of space as "the vacuum" they do not mean that at all, and they use the word "vacuum" to describe to describe (loosely speaking) the place which is between the stars and planets of the universe, and Floyd refers to that vast place as "the vacuum", so please don't think that it has anything to do with air, as it definitely doesn't.

Floyd says: We all think that we know what light is, but the reality is that a particle of light is nothing more than a large interference in the electromagnetic field. Unless it interacts with matter or with another field, any electromagnetic field with not be changed in any way by the vacuum. Electromagnetic fields are a fundamental part of the structure of the vacuum itself. The whole universe is permeated by a constant magnetic field. That field is made up of countless numbers of North and South pole magnets in a completely random scatter.

Einstein has pointed out that $E = mc^2$ which is one way of saying that energy and matter are interchangeable (or are two different faces of the same thing). The energy everywhere in the universe is so great that new particles of matter pop into existence and drop back into their energy form many trillions of times per second. Actually, they exist for such a very short time that calling them "particles" is not really appropriate, so perhaps "virtual particles" might be a better description.

However, if we generate a moving magnetic field, it alters the random nature of this energy in the tiny part of the vacuum where we happen to be, and the vacuum energy becomes much less random and allows a very large amount of vacuum energy to be drawn into our equipment and do what we think of as "useful work" - producing heat and light, powering motors and vehicles, etc. This was proved in laboratory experiments during the week of 19th June 1988 and it is the underlying operating principle of my "Phase-Conjugated Vacuum Triode" device.

The energy produced by this device is "negative energy" which is the reverse of the energy with which we are familiar. The spark caused by a short-circuit in a negative energy system is excessively bright and cold and it produces a barely audible hiss with no explosive force. Melting of wires does not occur and this type of negative current passes through the human body with only the feeling of a chill.

Wires which carry a lot of negative energy remain cool at all times and so tiny wires can feed equipment with hundreds of watts of power. This has been demonstrated in the laboratory and the source of energy is unlimited as it is the virtual vacuum of space itself.

**The Nature of Space:**
Space itself is the ability to accommodate energy. Consider for a moment, the following illustration:
- A signal (energy) is transmitted from point "A" to point "B" which are separated by a finite distance. Consider three periods of time:
  1. The signal is launched from point A.
  2. The signal resides in the space between point A and point B.
  3. The signal arrives at point B.

If 3. occurs simultaneously with 1. we say that the signal has travelled at infinite velocity. If that were the case, then the signal never resided in the intervening space and therefore there must be no space between point A and point B and so both points A and B must be at the same location. For real space to exist between the two points, it is necessary that a signal moving between them has to get "lost" to both points, that is, out of touch with both points for a finite period of time.

Now, we know that for real space to exist between two points, a signal passing between them has to move at a finite speed between them and if it can't do that, then there can't be any space between them. If space can't accommodate a signal passing between two points, then it has no function and no reality. We are left then with the only real space, the home of the real and virtual vacuum - space which supports a finite, non-zero signal velocity.

A similar argument applies to the impedance of space. A medium can only accommodate positive energy if the medium resists it to a reasonable degree. Neither an infinitely strong spring nor an infinitely weak spring can absorb energy by being compressed. Neither an infinitely large mass nor an infinitely small mass can absorb or accommodate energy imparted by a collision and the same holds true for space.
Energy cannot enter a space of zero impedance any more than a force can bear on a mass of zero magnitude. Similarly, energy could not enter space which has an infinite impedance. It follows therefore, that real space must have:

1. Finite propagation velocity and
2. Finite impedance.

Another way of looking at this is instead of considering the actual speed of propagation of a signal through space, to consider the length of time "t" which it takes the signal to pass through that part of space. We can think of a section of space as being, say, 1 nanosecond wide if it takes a signal 1 nanosecond to traverse it. That is, the energy or signal entering that part of space, leaves it again 1 nanosecond later. Signal propagation speed in the space in which we live is at the speed of light.

General Description of Energy Transfer:
Consider energy flowing straight and level down a transmission line. The energy does not "know" the width of the channel through which it is passing. If the energy flow reaches a point where the conductivity of the channel lowers but the size and shape of the channel remain the same, then not as much energy can flow and some gets reflected back along the channel. The energy current will not "know" if (a) the conductivity has changed or (b) the geometry has changed. The energy current can change direction very easily and so as far as it is concerned, the change caused by (a) is equivalent to the change caused by (b).

The channel through which the energy flows has width and height and the width divided by the height is called the "aspect ratio" of the channel. Energy current has an aspect ratio and if that aspect ratio is forced to change, then some of the flowing energy will reflect so as to keep the overall aspect ratio unchanged.

The aspect ratio of energy current is much like the aspect ratio of space itself. While the aspect ratio of space itself can change, it's fundamental velocity of "C" the speed of light in space can't really change. That speed is just our way of visualising time delay when energy resides in a region of space. Uniform space has only two parameters:

(1) Aspect ratio and
(2) Time delay

Aspect ratio defines the shape (but not the magnitude) of any energy flow which enters a given region of space. Velocity or length define the time during which that energy can be accommodated in a region of space.

Electromagnetic Energy:
The rate of flow of energy through a surface can be calculated using "E" the Electric field, and "H" the Magnetic field intensity. The energy flow through space is E x H per unit area (of it's "conduit's" cross-sectional area) and the energy density is E x H / C where C is the speed of light in space.

If there happen to be two signals of exactly the same strength, passing through each other in opposite directions in such a way that their "H" fields cancel out, then if each has a strength of E/2 and H/2, the
energy density will be $E \times H / 2C$ and it will have the appearance of a steady E-field. In the same way, if the E fields cancel out, the result will appear to be a steady "H" field.

Modern physics is based on the faulty assumption that electromagnetics contains two kinds of energy: electric and magnetic. This leads to the Baroque view of physical reality. Under that view, energy seems to be associated with the square of the field intensity, rather than a more reasonable view that it is directly to the field intensity. It is worth remembering that neither Einstein nor most modern physicists were, or are, familiar with the concept of "energy current" described here. However, their work still survives by ignoring the energy current concept, scalar electromagnetics, the works of Tom Bearden, kaluza-Klein and others who dispute Heaviside's interpretations of Maxwell's equations.

**The Fallacy of Displacement Current:**

Conventional electromagnetic theory proposes that when an electric current flows down a wire into a capacitor, it spreads out across the plate, producing an electric charge on the plate which in turn, leads to an electric field between the plates of the capacitor. The valuable concept of continuity is then retained by postulating a displacement current "after Maxwell". This current is a manipulation of the electric field "E" between the plates of the capacitor, the field having the characteristics of electric current, thus completing the flow of electricity in the circuit. This approach allows Kirchoff's laws and other valuable concepts to be retained even though superficially, it appears that at the capacitor there is a break in the continuous flow of electric current.

The flaw in this model appears when we notice that the current entered the capacitor at only one point on the capacitor plate. We are then left with the major difficulty of explaining how the electric charge flowing down the wire suddenly distributes itself uniformly across the entire capacitor plate at a velocity in excess of the speed of light. This paradoxical situation is created by a flaw in the basic model. Work in high-speed logic carried out by Ivor Catt has shown that the model of lumped capacitance is faulty and displacement current is an artefact of the faulty model. Since any capacitor behaves in a similar way to a transmission line, it is no more necessary to postulate a displacement current for the capacitor than it is necessary to do so for a transmission line. The removal of "displacement current" from electromagnetic theory has been based on arguments which are independent of the classic dispute over whether the electric current causes the electromagnetic field or vice versa.

**The Motional E-Field:**

Of all of the known fields; electric, magnetic, gravitational and motional E-field, the only ones incapable of being shielded against are the induced motional E-field and the gravitational field. The nature of the motionally-induced electric field is quite unique. In order to understand it more fully, we must start by discarding a few misleading ideas. When magnetic flux is moved perpendicularly across a conductor, an electromotive force ("e.m.f.") is electromagnetically induced "within" the conductor. "Within" is a phrase which comes from the common idea of comparing the flow of electric current within a wire to the flow of water in a pipe. This is a most misleading comparison. The true phenomenon taking place has little been thought of as involving the production of a spatially-distributed electric field. We can see that the model's origins are likely to have arising from the operation called "flux cutting" which is a most misleading term. A better term "time-varying flux modulation" does not imply any separation of lines of flux. Truly, lines of flux always form closed loops and are expressed mathematically as line integrals.

It is a fallacy to use the term "cutting" which implies time-varying separation which does not in fact ever occur. A motionally-induced E-field is actually created within the space occupied by the moving magnetic flux described above. The field is there whether or not a conductor is present in the space. In terms of a definition, we can say that when magnetic flux of vector intensity B-bar is moved across a region of space with vector velocity V-bar, an electromagnetically induced electric field vector $B \times V$ appears in the space at right angles to both B-bar and V-bar. Therefore:

$$E = B-bar \times V-bar \quad \ldots \quad (1)$$

It is this field which is related to gravity and which is virtually unshieldable. This field may be called the Motional E-field. According to Tom Bearden, "It seems that the charged particles in the atom act like tiny magnets and their motion in the space surrounding the atom would create this motional E-field". The fields created by both the positive and negative charges would cancel to some degree, but due to the high orbital velocity of the negative electron relative to that of the positive proton, the induced field of the electron would dominate the resulting field. The field produced as a result of these charges would vary in proportion to the inverse square of the distance as gravity does. The field produced by the translational motion of the charges would vary inversely as the cube of distance. This concept totally unites the
electromagnetic and gravitational field theories and accounts for the strong and weak force within the atom.

Field Super-Position and the Vacuum Triode:
Electromagnetic induction with no measurable magnetic field is not new. It is well known that in the space surrounding a properly wound toroidal coil, there is no magnetic field. This is due to the superposition of the fields. However, when alternating current is surging through a transformer, an electric field surrounds it. When we apply the principle of super-position to the vacuum triode, it becomes more obvious how the device is operating.

The principle of super-position states that "in order to calculate the resultant intensity of superimposed fields, each field must be dealt with individually as though the others were not present". The resultant is produced by the vector addition of each of the fields considered on its own. Consider for a moment, the construction of the triode which includes two bi-filar coils located within the fields of two conditioned magnets. When the current in one half of the conductors in the coils (that is, just one strand of the twin windings in each coil) is increasing, both the current and the magnetic field follow the right-hand rule. The resulting motional E-field would be vertical to both and directed inwards. At the same time, the current in the other strand of each winding is decreasing and both the current and the magnetic field also follow the right-hand rule. The resulting motional E-field is again vertical to both, and directed inwards. So, the resultant combined field intensity is double the intensity produced by either one of the conductors considered on its own. Expressed mathematically, this is:

\[ E = (B \times V) + (-B \times -V) \]

or

\[ E = 2(B \times V) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Where: \( E \) is the electric field intensity
\( B \) is the magnetic field intensity
\( V \) is the electron drift velocity

\((B \times V)\), the first term in the equation, represents the flow of the magnetic field when the electrons are moving in one direction, while \((-B \times -V)\), the second term in the equation, defines the flow of the magnetic field when the electrons are moving in the other direction. This indicates that field intensity is directly proportional to the square of the current required by the load placed on the device. This is due to its proportional relationship with the virtual value of the magnetic field which theory states is proportional to the current. Electrometer readings were always close to parabolic, indicating that the source was of infinite capacity. It was further determined through experiment, that the magnetic field does not change with temperature. Also, there is no reason yet identified, which would lead one to believe that electron drift velocity changes. It has been found remarkable that the vacuum triode runs approximately 20°C below ambient.

Induced Electromotive Force - Positive Energy:
When an e.m.f. ("electromotive force") is applied to a closed metallic circuit, current flows. The e.m.f. along a closed path "C" in space is defined as the work per unit charge (that is, \( W / Q \)) done by the electromagnetic fields on a small test charge moved along path C. Since work is the line integral of Force ("F"), the work per unit charge is the line integral of force per unit charge (in Newtons per Coulomb) we have:

\[ \text{e.m.f.} = \int_C \frac{F}{Q} \times dl \text{ volts} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

The scalar product "\((F/Q) \times dl\)" is the product of \((F/Q) \times \cos \theta \times dl\) where \( \theta \) denotes the angle between the vectors \( F/Q \) and \( dl \).

The electric force per unit charge is the electric field intensity ("E") in volts per metre. The magnetic force per unit charge is \( V \times B \) where "V" denotes the velocity of the test charge in metres per second and "B" denotes the magnetic flux density in webers per metre squared. In terms of the smaller angle \( \theta \) between \( V \) and \( B \), the cross product of \( V \) and \( B \) is a vector having the magnitude \( VB\sin \theta \). The direction of vector \( V \times B \) is at right angles to the plane which contains vectors \( V \) and \( B \) in accordance with the right-hand rule (that is, \( V \times B \) is in the direction of the thumb while the fingers curl through the angle \( \theta \) from \( V \) towards \( B \)). Since the total force per unit charge is \( E + VB \), the total e.m.f. in terms of the fields is:
It appears from equation (4) that the e.m.f. depends on the forward velocity with which the test charge moves along the path C. This, however, is not the case. If V and dl in equation (4) have the same direction, then their associated scalar product is zero. So, only the component of V which is not aligned with dl (that is, with $\theta = 0$), can contribute to the e.m.f. This component has value only if the differential path length dl has a sideways motion. So, V in equation (4), represents the sideways motion of dl, if there is any. The fields E and B in equation (4) could well be represented as functions of time as well as functions of the space coordinates. In addition, the velocity V of each differential path length dl, may vary with time. However, equation (4) correctly expresses the e.m.f. or voltage drop along path C as a function of time. That component of the e.m.f. consisting of the line integral $V \times B$ is the motional E-field since it has value only when path C is moving through a magnetic field, traversing lines of magnetic flux. For stationary paths, there is no motional E-field and the voltage drop is simply the integral of the electric field $E$. Devices which separate charges, generate e.m.f.s and a familiar example of this is a battery which utilises chemical forces to separate charge. Other examples include the heating of a thermocouple, exposure of a photovoltaic cell to incident light or the rubbing together of different material to produce electrostatic charge separation. Electric fields are also produced by time-varying magnetic fields. This principle is already exploited extensively in the production of electrical power by the utility companies.

The line integral of electric field intensity $E$ around any closed path "C" equals $-\partial \phi / \partial t$ where $\phi$ represents the magnetic flux over any surface "S" having the closed path "C" as its contour. The positive side of the surface S and the direction of the line integral around contour C, are related by the right-hand rule (the curled fingers are oriented so as to point around the loop in the direction of integration and the extended thumb points out the positive side of the surface S). The magnetic flux $\phi$ is the surface integral of magnetic flux density $B$ as shown here:

$$\phi = \int_S E \times ds \text{ webers} \quad \text{(5)}$$

In Equation (5), the vector differential surface "ds" has an area of ds and in direction, it is perpendicular to the plane of ds, projecting out of the positive side of that surface. The partial time derivative of $\phi$ is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \int_S \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \times ds \text{ volts} \quad \text{(6)}$$

This is referred to as the magnetic current through surface S. For a moving surface S, the limits of the surface integral in equation (6) are functions of time, but the equation still applies. It is important to clarify at this point, that when we evaluate the value of $\partial \phi / \partial t$ over a surface which is moving in proximity to magnetic field activity, we treat the surface as though it were stationary for the instant under consideration. The partial time derivative of $\phi$, is the time rate of change of flux through surface S, due only to the changing magnetic field density B. Any increase of $\phi$ due to the motion of the surface in the B-field, is not included in that calculation.

Continuing this discussion leads us to note that an electric field must be present in any region containing a time-varying magnetic field. This is shown by the following equation:

$$\oint_C E \times dl = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \quad \text{(7)}$$

In this equation, $\phi$ is the magnetic flux in webers out of the positive side of any surface having path C as its contour. Combining equations (7) and (4), we are able to calculate the e.m.f. about a closed path C as shown here:
The e.m.f. around a closed path consists in general of two components. The component \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) is the variational e.m.f. and the second component is the motional E-field. In equation (9), \( (V \times B)dl \) can, by means of a vector identity, be replaced with \( B \times (V \times dl) \). \( V \) is the sideways velocity of \( d \); the vector \( V \times dl \) has magnitude \( Vdl \) and a direction normal to the surface \( ds \) swept out by the moving length \( dl \) in time \( dt \). Letting \( Bn \) denote the component of \( B \) normal to this area, we can see that the quantity \( -B \times (V \times dl) \) becomes \( -BnVdl \) and equation 9 can be re-written as:

\[
e.m.f. = \frac{-\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \oint_C Bn \cdot V \, dl \quad \cdots \quad (10)
\]

Clearly, the integral of \( BnV \) around the closed contour \( C \) with sideways velocity of magnitude \( V \) for each length \( dl \) traversed, is simply the time rate of change of the magnetic flux through the surface bounded by \( C \). This change is directly due to the passage of path \( C \) through lines of magnetic flux. Hence, the complete expression for e.m.f. in equation (10) is the time rate of change of the magnetic flux over any surface \( S \), bounded by the closed path \( C \), due to the changing magnetic field and the movement of the path through the magnetic field. Equation (10) may be written:

\[
e.m.f. = \frac{-d\phi}{dt} \quad \cdots \quad (11)
\]

Note: The distinction between equations (7) and (11) is that equation (7) contains only the variational e.m.f. while equation (11) is the sum of the variational and motional e.m.f. values. In equation (7), the partial time derivative of magnetic flux \( \phi \) is the rate of flux change due only to the time-varying magnetic field, while equation (11) includes the total time derivative of the rate of flux change due to the time-varying magnetic field and path \( C \)'s passage through the magnetic field. If the closed path \( C \) is not passing through lines of magnetic flux, then equation (7) and equation (11) are equivalent.

It is also important to point out that \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) in equation (11) does not necessarily mean the total time rate of change of the flux \( \phi \) over the surface \( S \). For example, the flux over surface \( S \) is bounded by the closed contour \( C \) of the left portion of the electric circuit shown in Fig.1.

The flux is changing as the coil is unwound by the rotation of the cylinder, as illustrated. However, since \( B \) is static, there is no variational e.m.f. and since the conductors are not modulating lines of flux, there is...
no motional e.m.f. Thus, \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) in equation (11) is zero, even though the flux is changing with time. Note that \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) was defined as representing the right hand part of the expression in equation (10) and \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) must not be interpreted more broadly than that.

In the application of the present equations, it is required that all flux densities and movements are referred to a single, specified co-ordinate system. In particular, the velocities will all be with respect to this system alone and not interpreted as relative velocities between conductors or moving lines of flux. The co-ordinate system is selected arbitrarily and the magnitudes of variational and motional fields depend upon the selection.

**Example 1:**
A fundamental electric generator is shown in Figure 2:

![Figure 2](image)

The parallel, stationary conductors, separated by distance "l", have a stationary voltmeter connected across them. The circuit is completed by a moving conductor connected to the parallel conductors by means of two sliding contacts. This conductor is connected at \( y = 0 \) at time \( t = 0 \), and it moves to the right at a constant velocity \( V = V_y \). The applied flux \( B \) is represented by dots on Fig.2 and has a magnitude of \( B = B_0 \cos By \cos wt \) ax. The unit vectors in the direction of the co-ordinate axes are ax, ay and az respectively.

Solution: Let \( S \) denote the plane rectangular surface bounded by the closed electric circuit, with a positive side selected as the side facing you. The counter-clockwise e.m.f. around the circuit is \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \) with \( \phi \) signifying the magnetic flux out of the positive side of \( S \) (As \( ds = 1 \) dy ax). The scalar product \( B \times ds \) is \( B_0 l \cos By \cos wt \) dy; integrating from \( y = 0 \) to \( y = y \) gives:

\[
\phi = B_0 l \sin By_1 \cos wt \]

With \( y_1 \) denoting the instantaneous y position of the moving wire. The counter-clockwise e.m.f. is found by replacing \( y \) with \( vt \) and evaluating \( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \). The result is:

\[
e.m.f. = wB_0 l / B \sin Bvt \sin wt - B_0 l V \cos Bvt \cos wt \]

The variational (transformer) component is determined with the aid of equation (12) and is \( wB_0 l / B \sin Bvt \sin wt \) where \( y = vt \). This is the first component on the right hand side of equation (13).

Note: \( y_1 \) was treated as a constant when evaluating the partial time derivative of \( \phi \).

The motional E-field is the line integral of \( V \times B \) along the path of the moving conductor. As \( V \times B \) is \( -B_0 v \cos By \cos wt \) ax and As \( dl \) is \( dz \) ax, evaluation of the integral \( -B_0 v \cos By \cos wt \) dz from \( Z = 0 \) to \( Z = 1 \) results in a motional E-field of \( -B_0 l v \cos By \cos wt \). This component results from modulation of the lines of flux by the moving conductor. If the voltmeter draws no current, there can be no electromagnetic force on the free electrons of the wire. Therefore, the e.m.f. along the path of the metal conductors including the moving conductor, is zero.
**Example 2:**
Suppose the conductor with the sliding taps is stationary ($V = 0$) and it is located at $y = y_1$. Also, suppose that the magnetic field $B$ is produced by a system of moving conductors which are not shown in Fig.2 and those conductors are travelling with a constant velocity $V = V_ay$. At time $t = 0$, the magnetic field $B$ is $B_0 \sin BY_ay ax$. Determine the voltage across the voltmeter.

**Solution:** There is no motional E-field because the conductors in Fig.2 are at rest (stationary) with respect to our selected co-ordinate system. However, the magnetic field at points fixed with respect to the co-ordinate system is changing with time and as a result, there is a variational e.m.f. Since the B-field at time $t = 0$ is $B_0 \sin BY_ay ax$ and has a velocity of $V = V_ay$, it can be calculated that the B-field as a function of time is $B_0 \sin [B(y-vt)] ax$. This is verified by noting that an observer located at time $t = 0$ who is travelling at the constant velocity ($V = V_ay$) of the moving current, would have a $y$ co-ordinate of $y = y + Vt$ and an accordingly different expression for $B$. He would observe a constant field where the magnetic current density is:

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = -B_0 \gamma \cos B(y - Vt) ax$$

The counter-clockwise e.m.f. can be arrived at by taking the negative of an integral of the above expression for the rectangular surface bounded by the electric circuit with the positive side facing you, with the limits of zero and $y$. The resulting e.m.f. equals:

$$B_0 \gamma [\sin B(y_1 - vt) + \sin Bvt]$$

which is the voltage across the meter.

**Induced Motional Field - Negative Energy:**
Conventional theory says that electric fields and magnetic fields are different things. Consider for a moment, a charge with an electric field around it. If the charge is moved, then a magnetic field develops and the moving charge constitutes a current. If an observer were to move along with the charge, then he would see no relative motion, no current and no magnetic field. A stationary observer would see motion, current and a magnetic field. It would appear that a magnetic field is an electric field observed from a motional reference frame. Similarly, if we take a mass with a gravity field around it, and we move the mass and create a mass current, a new field is also created. It is a different kind of gravity field with no source and no sink. It is called the "Rotational field" and is also known as the "Lense-Thirring Effect". This field and it's governing principles will form the basis for future anti-gravitational devices (see figures 1 to 4).

Within the confined area of the Vacuum Triode box, the space-time continuum is reversed by the fields which are produced in the presence of excited coherent space flux. These quanta have been attracted from, and ultimately extracted from the virtual vacuum, the infinitely non-exhaustible Diac Sea. For a more detailed mathematical format see Tom Bearden's paper "The Phase Conjugate Vacuum Triode" (23rd April 1987). Much of the theory which likely applies to the vacuum triode has been developed in the field of phase-conjugate optics.
With regards to over-unity phenomena, it is important to note that so long as positive energy is present in a positively-flowing time regime, then unity and over-unity power gains are not possible. The summation of the losses due to resistance, impedance, friction, magnetic hysteresis, eddy currents and windage losses of rotating machinery will always reduce overall efficiency below unity for a closed system. The laws of conservation of energy always apply to all systems. However, the induced motional E-field changes the system upon which those laws need to be applied. Since the vacuum triode operates in more than four dimensions and provides a link between the multi-dimensional reality of the quantum state and the Dirac Sea, we are now dealing with an open-ended system and not the "closed system" within which all conservation and thermodynamic laws were developed.

To achieve unity, the summation of all magnetic and ohmic losses must equal zero. To achieve this state, negative energy and negative time need to be created. When this is achieved, all ohmic resistance becomes zero and all energy then flows along the outside of conductors in the form of a special space field. Negative energy is fully capable of lighting incandescent lights, running motors and performing all of the functions of positive energy tested to date. When run in parallel with positive energy however, cancellation (annihilation) of opposing power types occurs. This has been fully tested in the laboratory.

Once unity has been achieved and the gate to the Dirac sea opened, over-unity is affected by loading the open gate more and more, which opens it further to the point where direct communication / interaction with the nucleus of the atom itself is achieved. Output of the vacuum triode is not proportional to the excitation input as the output produced by the device is directly proportional to the load which is placed on it. That load is the only dependent variable for device output. The triode's output voltage and frequency always remains constant due to the conditioning of the motional E-field in the permanent magnets and the small regulated excitation signal which is provided through a small oscillator. Regulation remains constant and the triode output looks into an in-phase condition ($\cos \theta = 1$) under all load characteristics.

The vacuum triode is a solid-state device consisting of conditioned permanent magnets capable of producing a motional field. This field opens the gate to the Dirac Sea from where negative energy flows into the triode's receiving coils. The coils are wound with very small-diameter wire but in spite of that, they are capable of producing more than 5 kilowatts of useful power. This in itself, is a clear indicator that the type of electrical energy collected by the device is not conventional electrical energy. The wire sizes used in the construction of the device would not be capable of carrying such large currents without excessive heat gain, however, the triode's coils actually run cooler when loaded at 5 kilowatts.

The fundamental magnets have been broken free of the binding forces which constrained them to be steady-state single-pole uniform magnetic flux devices. They are now able to simply support mass, as demonstrated with the transformer steel illustration. They can now easily be made to adopt a dynamic motional field by applying a tiny amount of excitation. Specifically, 1 milliamp at 10 volts (10 milliwatts) of excitation at 60 Hz enables the coils of the triode to receive from the Dirac Sea, more than 5,000 watts of usable negative energy. It has not yet been determined how much more energy can be safely removed.
ENERGY GENERATION APPARATUS AND METHODS
BASED UPON MAGNETIC FLUX SWITCHING

ABSTRACT
Methods and apparatus generate electricity through the operation of a circuit based on a single magnetic flux path. A magnetisable member provides the flux path. One or more electrically conductive coils are wound around the member, and a reluctance or flux-switching apparatus is used to control the flux. When operated, the switching apparatus causes a reversal of the polarity (direction) of the magnetic flux of the permanent magnet through the member, thereby inducing alternating electrical current in each coil. The flux-switching apparatus may be motionless or rotational. In the motionless embodiments, two or four reluctance switches are operated so that the magnetic flux from one or more stationary permanent magnet(s) is reversed through the magnetisable member. In alternative embodiments, the flux-switching apparatus comprises a body composed of high-permeability and low-permeability materials, such that when the body is rotated, the flux from the magnet is sequentially reversed through the magnetisable member.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION
The present invention relates to methods and apparatus wherein the magnetic flux from one or more permanent magnets is reversed repeatedly in polarity (direction) through a single flux path around which there is wound a conducting coil or coils for the purpose of inducing electricity in the coils.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
The electromechanical and electromagnetic methods involved in motional electric generators and alternators are well known. Alternators and generators often employ permanent magnets and usually have a rotor and a stator and a coil or coils in which an EMF (electromotive force) is induced. The physics involved for producing electricity is described by the generator equation \( V = \int (v \times B) \cdot dl \).

Permanent magnets made of materials that have a high coercively, a high magnetic flux density a high magnetic motive force (mmf), and no significant deterioration of magnetic strength over time are now common. Examples include ceramic ferrite magnets (Fe2O3); samarium cobalt (SmCO5); combinations of iron, neodymium, and boron; and others.

Magnetic paths for transformers are often constructed of laminated ferrous materials; inductors often employ ferrite materials, which are used for higher frequency operation for both devices. High performance magnetic materials for use as the magnetic paths within a magnetic circuit are now available and are well suited for the (rapid) switching of magnetic flux with a minimum of eddy currents. An example is the FINEMET® nanocrystalline core material made by Hitachi of Japan.

According to Moskowitz, "Permanent Magnet Design and Application Handbook" 1995, page 52, magnetic flux may be thought of as flux lines which always leave and enter the surfaces of ferromagnetic materials at right angles, which never can make true right-angle turns, which travel only in straight or curved paths, which follow the shortest distance, and which follow the path of lowest reluctance.

A "reluctance switch" is a device that can significantly increase or decrease (typically increase) the reluctance (resistance to magnetic motive force) of a magnetic path in a direct and rapid manner and subsequently restore it to its original (typically lower) value in a direct and rapid manner. A reluctance switch typically has analog characteristics. By way of contrast, an off/on electric switch typically has a digital characteristic, as there is no electricity "bleed-through." With the current state of the art, reluctance switches have magnetic flux bleed-through. Reluctance switches may be implemented mechanically, such as to cause keeper movement to create an air gap, or electrically by several means, or by other means. One electrical means is that of using control coils wound around the flux paths.

Another electrical means is the placement within the flux path of certain classes of materials that change (typically increase) their reluctance upon the application of electricity. Another electrical means is to saturate a region of the switch material so that the reluctance increases to that of air by inserting conducting electrical wires into the material as described by Konrad and Brudny in "An Improved Method for Virtual Air Gap Length Computation," in IEEE Transactions on Magnetics, Vol. 41, No. 10, October 2005.
The patent literature describes a number of constructs that have been devised to vary the amounts of magnetic flux in alternate flux paths by disproportionately dividing the flux from a stationary permanent magnet or magnets between or among alternate flux paths repeatedly for the purpose of generating electricity. The increase of flux in one magnetic path and the corresponding decrease in the other path(s) provide the basis for inducing electricity when coils are wound around the paths. The physics involved for producing electricity by these constructs is described by the transformer equation \( V = -\int dB/dt ds \). A variety of reluctance switching means have been employed to cause the flux to be increased/decreased through a particular alternate path with a corresponding increase/decrease in the other path and to do so repeatedly.

A means of switching flux along alternate paths between the opposite poles of a permanent magnet have included the flux transfer principle described by R. J. Radus, Engineers' Digest, July, 1963.

A result of providing alternate flux paths of generally similar geometry and permeability is that, under particular conditions, the alternate path first selected or the path selected for the majority of the flux will remain a "preferred path" in that it will retain more flux and the other path, despite the paths having equal reluctance. (There is not an automatic equalization of the flux among similar paths.)

Moskowitz, "Permanent Magnet Design and Application Handbook" 1995, page 87 discusses this effect with regard to the industrial use of permanent magnets to lift and release iron and steel by turning the permanent magnet on and (almost) off via reluctance switching that consists of the electric pulsing of coils wound around the magnetic flux paths (the reluctance switches).

Experimental results with four iron rectangular bars (relative permeability=1000) placed together in a square with a bar permanent magnet (flux density measured at one pole=5000 Gauss) between two of the opposing bars roughly in a centre position showed that removal and replacement of the one of the end bars that is parallel to the bar magnet will result in about 80% of the flux remaining in the bar that remained in contact. The results further showed that the preferred path must experience an increase of reluctance about 10x of that of the available alternate path before its disproportionate flux condition will yield and transfer to the alternate path.

Flynn U.S. Pat. No. 6,246,561; Patrick, et al. U.S. Pat. No. 6,362,718; and Pedersen U.S. Pat. No. 6,946,938 all disclose a method and apparatus for switching (dividing) the quantity of magnetic flux from a stationary permanent magnet or magnets between and among alternate paths for the purpose of generating electricity (and/or motive force). They provide for the increase of magnetic flux in one path with a corresponding decrease in the other path(s). There are always at least two paths.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

The present invention relates to methods and apparatus for the production of electricity through the operation of a circuit based upon a single magnetic flux path. A magnetisable member provides the flux path. One or more electrically conductive coils are wound around the member, and a reluctance or flux switching apparatus is used to control the flux. When operated, the switching apparatus causes a reversal of the polarity (direction) of the magnetic flux from the permanent magnet through the magnetisable member, thereby inducing alternating electrical current in each coil.

According to the invention, the flux switching apparatus may be motionless or rotational. In the motionless embodiments, four reluctance switches are operated by a control unit that causes a first pair of switches to open (increasing reluctance), while another pair of switches close (decreasing reluctance). The initial pair is then closed as the other pair is opened, and so on. This 2x2 opening and closing cycle repeats and, as it does, the magnetic flux from the stationary permanent magnet(s) is reversed in polarity through the magnetisable member, causing electricity to be generated in the conducting coils. An alternative motionless embodiment uses two reluctance switches and two gaps of air or other materials.

In alternative embodiments, the flux switching apparatus comprises a body composed of high-permeability and low-permeability materials, such that when the body is rotated, the flux from the magnet is sequentially reversed through the magnetisable member. In the preferred embodiment the body is cylindrical having a central axis, and the body rotates about the axis. The cylinder is composed of a high-permeability material except for section of low-permeability material that divided the cylinder into two half cylinders. At least one electrically conductive coil is wound around the magnetisable member, such that when the body rotates an electrical current is induced in the coil. The body may be rotated by mechanical, electromechanical or other forces.

A method of generating electrical current, comprises the steps of providing a magnetisable member with an electrically conductive coil wound therearound, and sequentially reversing the flux from a permanent magnet through the member, thereby inducing electrical current in the coil.
BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 is a schematic diagram of a magnetic circuit according to the invention.

Fig. 2 is a perspective view of an embodiment of the invention based upon motionless magnetic flux switches.
Fig. 3 is a detail drawing of a motionless flux switch according to the invention.

Fig. 4 is a detail drawing of a reluctance switch according to the invention.

Fig. 5 is a detail drawing of an alternative motionless flux switch according to the invention which utilizes gaps of air or other materials.
Fig. 6 is a schematic diagram of a system using a rotary flux switch according to the invention.

Fig. 7 is a detail drawing of a rotary flux switch according to the invention.

Fig. 8
Fig. 8 is a schematic diagram of a circuit according to the invention utilizing two permanent magnets and a single flux path.

Fig. 9 shows one possible physical embodiment of the apparatus with the components of FIG. 8, including a reluctance switch control unit.

Fig. 10 shows an array of interconnected electrical generators according to the invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE PREFERRED EMBODIMENTS
Fig. 1 is a schematic diagram of a magnetic circuit according to the invention utilizing a motionless flux switch. The circuit includes the following components: a permanent magnet 102, single flux path 104, conducting coils 106, 108, and four reluctance switches 110, 112, 114, 116. Under the control of unit 118, reluctance switches 110, 114 open (increasing reluctance), while switches 112, 116 close (decreasing reluctance). Reluctance switches 110, 114 then close, while switches 112, 116 open, and so on. This 2x2 opening and closing cycle repeats and, as it does, the magnetic flux from stationary permanent magnet 102 is reversed in polarity through single flux path 104, causing electricity to be generated in conducting coils 106, 108.

An efficient shape of permanent magnet 102 is a "C" in which the poles are in close proximity to one another and engage with the flux switch. The single flux is carried by a magnetisable member 100, also in a "C" shape with ends that are in close proximity to one another and also engage with the flux switch. In this, and in other embodiments, the 2x2 switching cycle is carried out simultaneously. As such, control circuit 118 is preferably implemented with a crystal-controlled clock feeding digital counters, flip-flops, gate packages, or the like, to adjust rise time, fall time, ringing and other parasitic effects. The output stage of the control circuit may use FET (Field-Effect Transistor switches) to route analog or digital waveforms to the reluctance switches as required.

Fig. 2 is a perspective of one possible physical embodiment of the apparatus using the components of Fig. 1, showing their relative positions to one another. Reluctance switches 110, 112, 114, 116 may be implemented differently, as described below, but will usually occupy the same relative position within the apparatus.
Fig. 3 is a detail drawing of the motionless flux switch. Connecting segments 120, 122, 124, 126 must be made of a high-permeability ferromagnetic material. The central volume 128 may be a through-hole, providing an air gap, or it may be filled with glass, ceramic or other low-permeability material. A super-conductor or other structure exhibiting the Meissner effect may alternatively be used.

In the embodiment depicted in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, reluctance switches 110, 112, 114, 116 are implemented with a solid-state structure facilitating motionless operation. The currently preferred motionless reluctance switch is described by Toshiyuki Ueno & Toshiro Higuchi, in the paper "Investigation on Dynamic Properties of Magnetic Flux Control Device composed of Lamination of Magnetostrictive Material Piezoelectric Material," The University of Tokyo 2004, the entirety of which is incorporated herein by reference. As shown in Fig. 4, this switch is made of a laminate of a GMM (Giant Magnetostrictive Material 42), a TbDyFe alloy, bonded on both sides by a PZT (Piezoelectric) material 44, 46 to which electricity is applied. The application of electricity to the PZT creates strain on the GMM, which causes its reluctance to increase.

Other arrangements are applicable, including those disclosed in pending U.S. Patent Application Serial no. 2006/0012453, the entire content of which is incorporated herein by reference. These switches disclosed in this reference are based upon the magnetoelectric (ME) effects of liquid crystal materials in the form of magnetostrictive and piezoelectric effects. The properties of ME materials are described, for example, in Ryu et al, "Magnetoelectric Effect in Composites of Magnetostrictive and Piezoelectric Materials," Journal of Electroceramics, Vol. 8, 107-119

Filipov et al, "Magnetoelectric Effects at Piezoresonance in Ferromagnetic-Ferroelectric Layered Composites," Abstract, American Physical Society Meeting (March 2003) and Chang et al., "Magneto-band of Stacked Nanographite Ribbons," Abstract, American Physical Society Meeting (March 2003). The entire content of each of these papers are also incorporated herein.

Further alternatives include materials that may sequentially heated and allowed to cool (or cooled and allowed to warm up or actively heated and cooled) above and below the Currie temperature, thereby modulating reluctance. Gadolinium is a candidate since its Currie point is near room temperature. High-temperature superconductors are other candidates, with the material being cooled in an insulated chamber at a temperature substantially at or near the Currie point. Microwave or other energy sources may be used in conjunction with the control unit to effectuate this switching. Depending upon how rigidly the switches are contained, further expansion-limiting `yokes' may or may not be necessary around the block best seen in Fig.4.
Fig. 5 is a detail drawing of an alternative motionless flux switch according to the invention which utilizes gaps of air or other materials. This embodiment uses two electrically operated reluctance switches 110, 114, and two gaps 113, 115, such that when the switches are activated in a prescribed manner, the flux from the magnet 102 is blocked along the switch segments containing the switches and forced through the gap-containing segments, thereby reversing the flux through the magnetisable member 100. Upon activation of the two reluctance switches 110, 114, the flux, seeking a path of significantly lower reluctance, flips back to the original path containing the (non deactivated) reluctance switches, thereby reversing the flux through the member 100. Note that the flux switches may also be electromagnetic to saturate local regions of the switch such that reluctance increases to that of air (or gap material), creating a virtual gap as described by Konrad and Brudny in the Background of the Invention.

More particularly, flux switching apparatus according to this embodiment uses a permanent magnet having a north pole 'N' and a south pole 'S' in opposing relation across a gap defining a volume. A magnetisable member with ends 'A' and 'B' is supported in opposing relation across a gap sharing the volume, and a flux switch comprises a stationary block in the volume having four sides, 1-4, with two opposing sides interfaced to N and S, respectively and with the other two opposing sides being interfaced to A and B, respectively. The block is composed of a magnetisable material segmented by two electrically operated magnetic flux switches and two gaps filled with air or other material(s). A control unit in electrical communication with the flux switches is operative to:

a) passively allow a default flux path through sides 1-2 and 3-4, then
b) actively establish a flux path through sides 2-3 and 1-4, and
c) repeat a) and b) on a sequential basis.

As an alternative to a motionless flux switch, a rotary flux switch may be used to implement the 2x2 alternating sequence. Referring to Fig.6 and Fig.7, cylinder 130 with flux gap 132 is rotated by a motive means 134. This causes the halves of cylinder 130 to provide two concurrent and separate magnetic flux bridges (i.e., a "closed" reluctance switch condition), in which a given end of magnetisable member 136 is paired up with one of the poles.
of stationary permanent magnet 138. Simultaneously, the other end of single flux path carrier 136 is paired up with the opposite pole of stationary permanent magnet 138.

Fig. 7 is a detail view of the cylinder. Each 90° rotation of the cylinder causes the first flux bridges to be broken (an "open" reluctance switches condition) and a second set of flux bridges to be created in which the given end of member 136 is then bridged with the opposite pole of stationary permanent magnet 138. A full rotation of cylinder 130 causes four such reversals. Each flux reversal within single flux path 2 causes an electric current to be induced in conducting coil(s) 140, 142. In this embodiment, it is important to keep a precise, consistent spacing between each of the "halves" of (rotating) cylinder 130 in relation to the poles of permanent magnet 138 and the ends of flux path carrier 136 as the magnetic flux bridges are provided by the cylinder 130 as it rotates.

Rotating cylinder 130 is made of high magnetic permeability material which is divided completely by the flux gap 132. A preferred material is a nanocrystalline material such as FINEMET® made by Hitachi. The flux gap 132 may be air, glass, ceramic, or any material exhibiting low magnetic permeability. A superconductor or other structure exhibiting the Meissner effect may alternatively be used.

An efficient shape of magnetisable member 136 is a "C" in which its opposing ends are curved with a same radius as cylinder 130 and are in the closest possible proximity with rotating cylinder 130. Permanent magnet 138 is also preferably C-shaped in which the opposing poles are curved with a same radius as cylinder 130 and are in the closest possible proximity with rotating cylinder 130. Manufacturing and assembly considerations may dictate other shapes.

While the embodiments described thus far utilize a single permanent magnet, other embodiments are possible according to the invention utilizing a plurality of permanent magnets while nonetheless generating a single flux path. Fig. 8 depicts a circuit utilizing two permanent magnets and a single flux path. Fig. 9 shows one possible physical embodiment of the apparatus based upon the components of Fig. 8, including a reluctance switch control unit 158.

Under the control of unit 158, reluctance switches 150, 152 open (increasing reluctance), while switches 154, 156 close (decreasing reluctance). Reluctance switches 150, 152 then close, while switches 154, 156 open, and so on. This 2x2 opening and closing cycle repeats and, as it does, the magnetic flux from stationary permanent magnets 160, 162 is reversed in polarity through the magnetisable member, causing electricity to be generated in conducting coils 166, 168.
In the preferred implementation of this embodiment, the magnets are arranged with their N and S poles reversed. The magnetisable member is disposed between the two magnets, and there are four flux switches, SW1-SW4, two between each end of the member and the poles of each magnet. The reluctance switches are implemented with the structures described above with reference to Figs. 1 to 3.

For added particularity, assume the first magnet has north and south poles, N1 and S1, the second magnet has north and south poles, N2 and S2 and the member has two ends A and B. Assuming SW1 is situated between N1 and A, SW2 is between A and S2, SW3 is between N2 and B, and SW4 is between B and S1, the control circuitry operative to activate SW1 and SW4, then activate SW2 and SW3, and repeat this process on a sequential basis. As with the other embodiments described herein, for reasons of efficiency, the switching is carried out simultaneously.

In all of the embodiments described herein the material used for the permanent magnet(s) may be either a magnetic assembly or a single magnetized unit. Preferred materials are ceramic ferrite magnets (Fe₂O₃), samarium cobalt (SmCo₅), or combinations of iron, neodymium, and boron. The single flux path is carried by a material having a high magnetic permeability and constructed to minimize eddy currents. Such material may be a laminated iron or steel assembly or ferrite core such as used in transformers. A preferred material is a nanocrystalline material such as FINEMET®. The conducting coil or coils are wound around the material carrying the single flux path as many turns as required to meet the voltage, current or power objectives. Ordinary, standard, insulated, copper magnet wire (motor wire) is sufficient and acceptable. Superconducting materials may also be used. At least some of the electricity induced in the conducting coils may be fed back into the switch control unit. In this mode of operation, starting pulses of electricity may be provided from a chemical or solar battery, as required.

Although in the embodiments of Fig.2 and Fig.6 the magnet and flux-carrying materials are flat elements lying in orthogonal planes with flux-carrying material lying outside the volume described by the magnet, the flux path may be disposed 'within' the magnet volume or configured at an angle. The physical scale of the elements may also be varied to take advantage of manufacturing techniques or other advantages. Fig.10, for example, shows an array of magnetic circuits, each having one or more coils that may be in series, parallel, or series-parallel combinations, depending upon voltage or current requirements. In each case the magnets may be placed or fabricated using techniques common to the microelectronics industry. If mechanical flux switches are used they may be fabricated using MEMs-type techniques. If motionless switches are used, the materials may be placed and/or deposited. The paths are preferably wound in advance then picked and placed into position as shown. The embodiment shown in Fig.9 is also amenable to miniaturization and replication.
Abstract:
A fluid-powered energy conversion device which converts energy in a moving fluid into mechanical energy. A rigid cylindrical frame of toroidal baffles forms an “upstream” annular or ring-shaped chamber and a “downstream” annular chamber, each of the chambers having open sides to allow the entry of the fluid. The toroidal baffles create an upstream drive vortex in an upstream central vortex chamber, and a downstream extraction vortex rotating in the opposite direction in a downstream central vortex chamber. A set of hinged louvers surround the vortex chambers and these allow the fluid to enter each chamber only in the direction of vortex rotation, and prevent the fluid from exiting through the sides of the device. The driving vortex passes through, and rotates, a turbine positioned in a central aperture between the two chambers. The turbine blades are rotated by the rotational momentum of the driving fluid vortex, plus the lift generated by each turbine blade, plus the additional momentum imparted by the vortex reversal.

US Patent References:
McDavid, Jr. – US 6,710,469
McDavid, Jr. – US 6,518,680
Walters – US 5,664,418

Description:

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

1. Technical Field of the Invention
The present invention relates generally to electrical generation and energy conversion devices, and more particularly to a fluid-powered energy conversion device which converts the energy of wind or flowing water into mechanical or electrical energy.

2. Description of Related Art
The use of wind or flowing water to provide power for various uses dates back many centuries. In modern times, wind and water have been used to generate electricity. Hydroelectric generating plants have been used to generate large quantities of electrical energy for widespread distribution. However, this requires major permanent environmental changes to the areas where dams are built and reservoirs rise. Wind-powered devices, in general, have been used to perform mechanical work, or to generate electricity, only on a limited scale. With the ever increasing demand for additional, or alternative energy sources, all possible sources are being given more scrutiny. This is particularly true for sources which are non-polluting and inexhaustible. Free-flowing hydro-electric and wind-powered systems provide such sources, and the capturing of increased energy from wind and water has received much consideration.

However, commercial hydro-electric and wind-powered electrical generation devices which are currently in use have several disadvantages. Wind-powered devices, in particular, are expensive, inefficient, dangerous, noisy, and unpleasant to be around. To capture a large volume of wind, existing wind-powered devices are very large. As a result, they cannot be distributed throughout population centres, but must be installed some distance away. Then, like dams with hydro-electric generators, the electrical energy they generate must be transmitted, at considerable cost and with considerable energy loss, to the population centres where the energy is needed.

It would be desirable to distribute smaller water-powered and wind-powered units throughout the population centres. For example, it would be desirable to have a wind-powered unit for each building structure, thus distributing the generating capacity over the entire area, and making the energy supply less vulnerable to local
events such as storms or earthquakes. Such distributed generation would also solve the most common and valid objection to wind power, namely, that the wind does not blow all the time. In a large geographical area, however, wind is almost always blowing somewhere. Therefore, with wind-powered generators which are distributed throughout the area, power could be generated in the areas where the wind is blowing, and then transmitted to the rest of the power grid. However, with existing technology, smaller units suitable for distributing throughout a population area are not efficient enough to provide a sufficient amount of energy to power a structure such as a house or office building. In addition, such units are visually obtrusive and noisy, making them unsuitable for use in residential or other highly populated settings.

Existing wind-powered electrical generation devices commonly utilise a propeller mounted on the horizontal shaft of a generator which, in turn, is mounted at the top of a tower. This is an inefficient design because energy is extracted from the wind by reducing the wind velocity as it passes through the propeller. This creates a pocket of slow-moving air centered behind the propeller, which the ambient wind blows around. Therefore, only the outer portion of the propeller blades use the wind efficiently.

To counter this effect, modern windmill designs utilise extremely long propeller blades. The use of such massive blades, however, has its own disadvantages. Firstly, the propellers are known to kill or injure thousands of large birds each year. Secondly, the massive blades can be dangerous if the device fails structurally and the propeller breaks loose. In this case, the propeller can fly a considerable distance and cause serious damage or injury to anything or anyone in its path. Thirdly, the propeller design contains an inherent gravitational imbalance. The rising blades on one side of the propeller’s hub are opposing gravity, while the descending blades on the other side of the hub are falling with gravity. This imbalance creates a great deal of vibration and stress on the device. Consequently, the device must be structurally enhanced, at great expense, to withstand the vibration and stress, and thus avoid frequent maintenance and/or replacement.

It would therefore be advantageous to have a fluid-powered energy conversion device which overcomes the shortcomings of existing devices. Such a device could utilise wind energy or the energy of flowing water to provide mechanical energy or electrical energy. The present invention provides such a device.

**SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION**

One aspect, the present invention is a fluid-powered energy-conversion device for converting energy in a moving fluid into mechanical energy. The device includes a rigid cylindrical frame which has an “upstream” annular (ring-shaped) chamber and a “downstream” annular chamber. Each of the chambers has sides which are open to allow entry of the moving fluid. A first set of baffles are mounted longitudinally in the upstream chamber, and these create a driving vortex which rotates in a first direction when the moving fluid enters the upstream chamber through the upstream chamber’s open sides. A set of hinged louvers are positioned in the openings between these baffles, creating a central vortex chamber centered on the longitudinal axis of the device.

This first set of louvers permits entry of the moving fluid into the upstream central vortex chamber only when the fluid is rotating in the first direction. They also prevent the fluid from exiting from the upstream central vortex chamber through the sides of the device. The device also includes a floor of the upstream annular chamber which slopes upwards towards the downstream chamber as the floor approaches the central longitudinal axis of the device.
This sloping floor causes the drive vortex to flow “downstream” (upwards for air) through the upstream central vortex chamber and pass through a central aperture located between the upstream annular chamber and the downstream annular chamber. A longitudinal drive shaft is mounted centrally in the central aperture, and a turbine is mounted on the drive shaft in the central aperture. The turbine is rotated by the drive vortex as the drive vortex passes through the central aperture.

The device may also include a second set of baffles longitudinally mounted in the “downstream” (upper for air) chamber which operate to create an extraction vortex which rotates in the opposite direction when the moving fluid enters the downstream chamber through the downstream chamber’s open sides. Additionally, a second set of hinged louvers may be positioned in the openings between the second set of baffles, encircling a downstream central vortex chamber. The second set of louvers permit entry of the moving fluid into the downstream central vortex chamber only when the fluid is rotating in the direction opposite to the direction of flow in the “upstream” camber. These louvers also prevent the fluid from exiting the downstream central vortex chamber through the sides of the device. In this manner, the turbine is rotated by the drive vortex as the drive vortex passes through the turbine and reverses direction to match the direction of the extraction vortex.

For high-wind conditions or when powered by water flow, the driving vortex and extraction vortex may rotate in the same direction. The first set of hinged louvers form the upstream central vortex chamber, and the second set of hinged louvers form the downstream central vortex chamber. The first set of louvers permit entry of the wind or water into the upstream central vortex chamber only when the fluid is rotating in the first direction.

**BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS**

The invention will be better understood and its numerous objects and advantages will become more apparent to those skilled in the art by reference to the following drawings, in conjunction with the accompanying specification, in which:
**FIG. 1** is a perspective view of a first embodiment of the present invention that converts wind energy to mechanical or electrical energy;

**FIG. 2** is a top plan view of the embodiment of Fig. 1

**FIG. 3** is a side elevational view of the embodiment of Fig. 1
FIG. 4 is a cross-sectional view of the embodiment of Fig.1 taken along line 4 — 4 of Fig.3 with an electrical generator installed to produce electrical energy;

FIG. 5 is a perspective view of a fluid-filled flywheel suitable for use with the present invention;
FIG. 6 is a top plan view of the fluid-filled flywheel of Fig. 5.

FIG. 7 is a cross-sectional view of an embodiment of the present invention that converts the energy of flowing water to electrical energy.

FIG. 8 is a perspective view of the embodiment of Fig. 1 with the longitudinal baffles drawn in phantom so that the annular central divider (mid-deck) and turbine can be seen.
FIG. 9 is a horizontal cross-sectional view of the embodiment of Fig. 1 taken along line 9 — 9 of Fig. 8.

FIG. 10 is a perspective view of a second embodiment of the present invention that converts wind energy to mechanical or electrical energy, with the longitudinal baffles drawn in phantom so that a set of hinged longitudinal louvers can be seen; and

FIG. 11 is a horizontal cross-sectional view of the embodiment of Fig. 10 taken along line 11 — 11.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF EMBODIMENTS

Fig.1 is a perspective view of an embodiment of the present invention which converts wind energy to mechanical or electrical energy. The energy conversion device 10 includes a stationary cowling 11 surrounding an upstream (lower) ring-shaped or doughnut-shaped chamber 12 and a downstream (upper) ring-shaped chamber 13. The cowling may be constructed of any suitable rigid material such as wood, plastic, metal, or similar. The cowling may be constructed from a transparent material, making the device visually unobtrusive. In the preferred embodiment of the present invention, the cowling is cylindrical and is constructed of a high-grade, ultraviolet-protected plastic.

The cowling 11 includes a set of longitudinal baffles which are curved and arranged in a toroidal pattern. Upstream baffles 14a are mounted in the upstream annular chamber 12, and downstream baffles 14b are mounted in the downstream annular chamber 13. In the preferred embodiment of the present invention, approximately six toroidal longitudinal baffles are mounted in each chamber. The baffles function to guide the wind into each chamber. The narrowing cross-sectional area between the baffles causes the air to accelerate as it moves toward the centre of the device, creating two high-velocity vortices (an upstream drive vortex and a downstream extraction vortex). Although the invention is described here primarily as a vertically-oriented cylinder, it should be understood that the device may be installed in other positions, such as a horizontal orientation, which results in the device having an upstream annular chamber and a downstream annular chamber which are at the same height. Alternatively, as noted below in connection with Fig.7, the device may be inverted when used in water since water vortices move more readily downwards rather than upwards.

In the embodiment illustrated in Fig.1, in which low-speed wind is the input energy source, the upstream baffles 14a and the downstream baffles 14b are curved in opposite directions. The baffles therefore create two high-velocity vortices which rotate in opposite directions. As described below in connection with Fig.4, the direction of the vortex flow is reversed in a turbine located between the upstream annular chamber 12 and the downstream annular chamber 13, thereby adding additional rotational power to the turbine. In the hydro-electrical embodiment in which flowing water is the input energy source, and in high-speed wind conditions such as when the device is mounted on a vehicle, the upstream baffles and the downstream baffles may be curved in the same direction. In those particular embodiments, therefore, the baffles create two high-velocity vortices which rotate in the same direction. The device may be converted from a low-wind device to a high-wind device by removing the counter-
rotational downstream annular chamber 13 and replacing it with a downstream annular chamber which creates a vortex rotating in the same direction as the drive vortex.

In the preferred embodiment of the present invention, plastic mesh (not shown) may surround the entry and exit openings of the cowling 11 to prevent birds, animals, or debris from entering the device 10. In addition, should the device fail structurally, any broken parts are contained by the mesh instead of flying out into the vicinity and causing damage or injury.

**Fig. 2** is a top plan view of the embodiment of Fig.1. The top of the cowling 11 includes a central aperture 21 through which the air in the extraction vortex exits the device. In the preferred embodiment, the extraction vortex exits the device rotating in a counter-cyclonic direction (clockwise in the Northern Hemisphere) so that it dissipates rather than creating potentially damaging whirlwinds. The turbine 22 is visible through the aperture. The turbine rotates around a central drive shaft 23.

**Fig. 3** is a side-elevational view of the embodiment of Fig.1 illustrating the profile of the cowling 11, the upstream annular chamber 12, the downstream annular chamber 13, and the baffles 14a and 14b. The cowling may be...
mounted on a base 31 and the base 31 may also be used to enclose additional mechanical assemblies such as a flywheel and/or an electrical generator.

**Fig. 4** is a cross-sectional view of the embodiment of **Fig.1** taken along line 4 — 4 of **Fig.3** with a flywheel 41 installed in the base 31 along with an electrical generator 42 to produce electricity. Ambient wind flows simultaneously into the upstream annular chamber 12 through upstream baffles 14a, and into the downstream annular chamber 13 through the downstream baffles 14b through the sides of the cowling 11. The baffles guide the ambient wind towards the centre of the device 10. A sloping parabolic floor (deck) 43 of the upstream annular chamber 12 causes the wind to flow downstream into the centrally mounted turbine 22 that rotates on the central drive shaft 23. The device 10 produces power by guiding ambient wind flows into two high-velocity vortices arranged upstream and downstream of the turbine which converts the wind flows to mechanical energy by turning the drive shaft 23. High-RPM and high-torque are produced by the turbine due to three primary factors:

1. Each blade of the turbine is shaped like a scoop which captures the rotational momentum of the drive vortex;
2. Each blade of the turbine has a cross-sectional shape of an airfoil that generates lift in the direction of rotation of the turbine; and
3. In low wind conditions, the reversal of the direction of the vortex rotation adds additional force to the turbine in the direction of rotation.

The large flywheel 41 may be attached to the rotating turbine drive shaft 23. In one embodiment, the flywheel may be a permanent magnet, surrounded by copper windings. The flywheel may serve both as an internal energy storage device due to its angular momentum, and as a dynamo for the generator 42 mounted under the deck 43 of the upstream annular chamber 12. A solid-state electronic regulator (not shown) may be utilised to control the electrical current load. The regulator maintains a zero load until a preset rotational velocity (RPM) is reached. The load is then increased in order to generate electricity while maintaining the RPM of the turbine at a preselected level.
In Fig. 5 is shown a perspective view of another embodiment of the flywheel 41. In this embodiment, the flywheel (shown in phantom) includes a hollow disk-shaped shell 51 which is filled with a fluid such as water. The design shown also includes a cooling fan 52 in the hub of the flywheel which rotates with the drive shaft 23 and the flywheel to produce a flow of cooling air that is used to cool the adjacent generator 42 (Fig. 4 and Fig. 7). The placement of the fan in the hub of the flywheel creates an annular chamber 53 which holds the fluid. Within the chamber, there is a set of radial bulkheads 54 extending from the interior wall 55 to the exterior wall 56 of the chamber. Each of the radial bulkheads includes hinged gates or hatches 57. In the example version shown here, each radial bulkhead has three hinged gates.

During acceleration of the flywheel 41, these gates 57 open in the opposite direction of rotation. This allows the fluid to flow through the radial bulkheads 54, reducing start-up inertia. The fluid then slowly comes up to speed due to friction with the interior and exterior walls 55 and 56 of the annular chamber, and due to the motion of the radial bulkheads through the fluid. During deceleration of the flywheel, the gates close because of the forward momentum of the fluid. This creates solid radial bulkheads and causes the flywheel to perform as a solid flywheel. The angular momentum of the flywheel then helps to maintain the angular velocity of the drive shaft 23 when the input power of the wind drops off.
**Fig. 6** is a top plan view of the fluid-filled flywheel **41** of **Fig. 5**, showing the blades of the cooling fan **52** in the hub of the flywheel, the annular chamber **53**, the radial bulkheads **54**, and the gates **57** in the closed (decelerating) position.

Thus, the fluid-filled flywheel **41** is particularly well suited for use with this energy conversion device **10** of the present invention. The fluid-filled flywheel allows rapid spin-up of the drive shaft **23** by reducing the start-up inertia, but resists deceleration like a solid flywheel. These features can significantly boost the efficiency of a wind-powered or water-powered device that operates with varying input power levels. By simply inverting the flywheel, the fluid-filled flywheel can be used with systems that spin either clockwise or counter-clockwise. As an additional feature, shipping weight is greatly reduced because the fluid can be added at the point of use.

Referring again to **Fig. 4**, an annular central divider (mid-deck) **44** divides the upstream annular chamber **12** from the downstream annular chamber **13**. The top of the mid-deck slopes away from the turbine, causing the ambient wind entering the downstream annular chamber to flow away from the turbine. This creates an area of reduced air pressure on the downstream side of the turbine **22** that increases the flow of air from the upstream annular chamber **12** through the turbine. Each blade of the turbine **22** is a curved airfoil which receives rotational impetus from the rotation of the drive vortex, the reversal of the vortex direction, and aerodynamic lift that is generated by the airfoil in the direction of rotation of the turbine.

In the preferred embodiment of the present invention, the turbine **22** and flywheel **41** may be made of metal. Further, all metal parts may be coated with, for example, plastic, chrome, or paint to prevent corrosion. As discussed above, the flywheel may be a permanent magnet or may be a fluid-filled flywheel. All bearings such as bearing **45** may be magnetic-repulsion-levitation bearings so that there is no physical contact between the moving and stationary elements of the device. The base **31** may be mounted on a support plate **46** and/or a support brace **47**, depending on the structure on which the device is mounted and the orientation of the device.

The central drive shaft **23** may also drive the cooling fan **52** that draws cooling air through vents **49** in the support plate and directs the air through the generator **42**. The heated air may exit through louvers **50** in the parabolic deck **43** of the upstream annular chamber **12** where it then mixes with the driving airflow in the upstream annular chamber to defrost the interior of the device and the turbine **22**.

The device **10** may vary in its dimensions, depending upon the specific application for which it is utilised. For example, the dimensions of a wind-powered device that is mounted on the roof of a house may be between 40 inches and 48 inches in diameter, and between 60 inches and 78 inches in height. In this configuration, the turbine **22** has a diameter approximately one-half the diameter of the exterior of the cowl **11** (i.e. approximately 20 to 24 inches in diameter). Larger versions may be utilised for larger buildings such as factories or office buildings with increased economies of scale. For example, an office building may use a device that is 20 feet in diameter and 20 feet tall with a turbine that is 10 feet in diameter. A vehicle-mounted device (for example, for a passenger car), designed for high-wind conditions, may be about 24 inches in diameter and 6 inches in height. The generator and flywheel, if any, may be mounted inside the contour of the vehicle, or on a luggage rack. A
small hydro-electric version of the device that is placed in a running stream or river may have similar dimensions
to the vehicle-mounted device. In addition, since the outflow of the hydro-electric version is directed downward, a
deflector may be utilised in shallow bodies of water to prevent erosion of the stream bed.

It should be noted that when the present invention is oriented vertically, the turbine 22, the generator 42, and the
flywheel 41 rotate around a vertical axis. Therefore, the supporting structures are not subject to the vibration and
stress produced by gravity effects in prior art devices in which propellers rotate around a horizontal axis.
Moreover, exceptional wind-conversion efficiency is realized from the present invention as it diverts and
accelerates the ambient wind flow into vortices that have several times the velocity of the ambient wind flow when
they reach the turbine. Additionally, the acceleration of the air flow into the upstream and downstream annular
chambers creates a low pressure area that pulls air into the device from an effective cross-sectional area that is
greater than the physical cross-sectional area of the device. As a result, the present invention provides a new and
improved wind-power conversion device which is quieter, safer, more efficient, and more cost effective than
existing devices.

Referring now to Fig.7, there is shown a cross-sectional view of a version of the present invention which converts
the energy of flowing water to electrical energy (i.e. a hydro-electrical device). There are three key differences
between the hydro-electrical embodiment from the low-wind-powered embodiment of Figs. 1 to 4. Firstly, the
upstream baffles 14a and the downstream baffles 14b curve in the same direction. The baffles therefore create
two high-velocity vortices which rotate in the same direction. This is a more efficient design when the fluid flowing
through the device is an incompressible fluid such as water. Secondly, the device operates more efficiently when
it is inverted and mounted vertically since water vortices move downward due to the force of gravity. The third
difference is the ratio of the height of the device to the diameter of the device. As noted above, the hydro-electric
embodiment of the device may have a height that is shorter when compared to its diameter, and may have a
height that is equal to or less than its diameter.
Fig. 8 is a perspective view of the embodiment of Fig. 1 with the toroidal longitudinal baffles 14a and 14b drawn in phantom so that the annular central divider (mid-deck) 44 and turbine 22 can be seen.

Fig. 9 is a horizontal cross-sectional view of the embodiment of Fig. 1 taken along line 9 — 9 of Fig. 8. In this view, it can be seen that the upstream annular chamber 12 is divided into a set of smaller chambers 12a through 12f by the toroidal longitudinal baffles 14a. The interior ends of the longitudinal baffles define a central vortex chamber 12g (illustrated by a dashed circle) in which the upstream vortex is formed, and from which the upstream vortex enters the turbine 22. The central vortex chamber 12g has a diameter approximately equal to the diameter of the turbine.
Fig. 10 is a perspective view of a second embodiment of the present invention that converts wind energy to mechanical or electrical energy, with the longitudinal baffles 14a and 14b drawn in phantom so that a set of hinged longitudinal louvers 61a and 61b can be seen. The hinged louvers are mounted in the openings between the longitudinal baffles. The louvers may be mounted in a circular configuration anywhere from the outside edge of the longitudinal baffles to the inside edge of the baffles. In the version shown, the louvers are longitudinally mounted at the inside edge of the baffles, around the perimeter of the central vortex chamber 12g. Each of the louvers is hinged on one side (i.e., the windward side as wind enters through the baffles) so that the louver may be opened toward the central vortex chamber by the force of the incoming wind. The width of each louver is slightly greater than the distance between louvers so that each louver slightly overlaps the hinged edge of the next louver. This prevents the louvers from opening outward.

In Fig. 11 there is shown a horizontal cross-sectional view of the embodiment of Fig. 10 taken along line 11 — 11. During operation, wind blowing in the direction shown from the outside of the energy conversion device is funnelled by the toroidal longitudinal baffles 14a into upstream chambers 12a and 12b. The baffles block the wind from entering the other chambers 12c through 12f. The wind flows through chambers 12a and 12b, and enters
the central vortex chamber 12g by opening the hinged longitudinal louvers 61a which are mounted between the baffles in the openings defining chambers 12a and 12b. The remaining louvers remain closed, preventing the wind from exiting through the sides of the device. Thus, the wind-activated louvers are, in effect, one-way valves allowing the wind to flow into the central vortex chamber through the sides of the device, but only allowing the wind to exit through the top of the chamber, and through the turbine 22.

Referring again to Fig.10, it can be seen that the longitudinal louvers 61a mounted in the upstream chamber 12 are hinged on the opposite side from the louvers 61b mounted in the downstream chamber 13. This is because the vortex in the downstream chamber rotates in the opposite direction from the vortex in the upstream chamber, and the downstream toroidal baffles 14b funnel the wind into the louvers 61b in the opposite direction. Like the louvers 61a in the upstream chamber 12, the louvers 61b in the downstream chamber 13 act as one-way valves allowing the wind to flow into the central vortex chamber through the sides of the device, but only allowing the wind to exit through the top of the chamber, and out of the device. This configuration helps to maintain the strength of both the upstream and the downstream vortices during operation of the device.

It should be recognized that some degree of improved energy-conversion performance may be obtained in a configuration in which there are toroidal baffles 14a and hinged louvers 61a only in the upstream annular chamber 12 because this ensures that all of the wind or other fluid entering the sides of the upstream chamber flows through the turbine. The addition of toroidal baffles 14b in the downstream annular chamber 13 provides additional improved performance, particularly when the direction of rotation of the downstream vortex is opposite the direction of the upstream vortex. Optimum energy-conversion performance is provided by a device having oppositely configured toroidal baffles 14a and 14b, and oppositely hinged louvers 61a and 61b, for both the upstream annular chamber 12 and the downstream annular chamber 13.

It is to be understood that even though numerous characteristics and advantages of the present invention have been set forth in the foregoing description, the disclosure is illustrative only, and changes may be made in detail, especially in matters of size, shape, and arrangement of parts within the principles of the invention to the full extent indicated by the broad general meaning of the terms in which the appended claims are expressed.
The ‘Hotsabi’ Booster

Here are the full step-by-step instructions for making a very simple single-cell booster design from “HoTsAbl” - a member of the Yahoo 'watercar' forum group. This is a very neat and simple electrolysis booster unit which has raised the average mpg from 18 to 27 (50% increase) on his 1992 5-litre Chevy Caprice.

Caution: This is not a toy. If you make and use one of these, you do so entirely at your own risk. Neither the designer of the booster, the author of this document or the provider of the internet display are in any way liable should you suffer any loss or damage through your own actions. While it is believed to be entirely safe to make and use a booster of this design, provided that the safety instructions shown below are followed, it is stressed that the responsibility is yours and yours alone.

The unit draws 15 amps which is easily handled by the existing vehicle alternator. The construction uses ABS (Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene) plastic tubing with an electrolyte containing Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH – sold in America as “Red Devil” lye, 1 teaspoon mixed into 8 litres of distilled water) and the gas-mixture produced is fed directly into the air intake filter of the car engine. The electrodes are stainless steel with the negative electrode forming a cylinder around the positive electrode.

The circuit is wired so that it is only powered up when the car ignition switch is closed. A relay feeds power to the electrolyser which is three inches (75 mm) in diameter and about 10 inches (250 mm) tall. The electrolyser circuit is protected by a 30-amp circuit breaker. The electrolyser has several stainless steel wire mesh screens above the water surface:

The output of the electrolyser is fed to a steam trap, also fitted with several stainless steel wire mesh screens, and then on via a one-way valve into a safety bubbler. The bubbler also has stainless steel wire mesh screens which
the gas has to pass through before it exits the bubbler. The gas is then passed through an air-compressor style water trap to remove any remaining moisture, and is injected into the air intake of the vehicle. Although not shown in the diagram, the containers are protected by pop-out fittings which provide extra protection in the extremely unlikely event of any of the small volumes of gas being ignited by any means whatsoever.

The ammeter is used to indicate when water should be added to the electrolyser, which is typically, after about 80 hours of driving and is done through a plastic screw cap on the top of the electrolyser cap (shown clearly in the first photograph). This unit used to be available commercially but the designer is now too busy to make them up, so he has generously published the plans free as shown here.

The designer says: please read all of these instructions carefully and completely before starting your project. This project is the construction of an electrolyser unit which is intended to improve the running of a vehicle by adding gases produced by the electrolysis of water, to the air drawn into the engine when it is running. There is no magic about this. The 'HHO' gas produced by the electrolysis acts as an igniter for the normal fuel used by the vehicle. This produces a much better burn quality, extracting extra energy from the normal fuel, giving better pulling power, smoother running, cooler engine operation, the cleaning out of old carbon deposits inside the engine and generally extending the engine life.

**ELECTROLYSER PARTS LIST**

1. One 7 inch long x 3 inch diameter piece of ABS tubing cut with square ends - de-burr the edges
2. One 3 inch (75 mm) diameter ABS Plug - clean out the threaded cap
3. One Threaded adaptor DWV 3 inch (75 mm) diameter HXFPT threaded cap ("DWV" and "HXFPT" are male and female threaded sewer-type plastic caps)
4. One 3 inch (75 mm) diameter ABS cap
5. One 4 inch (100 mm) Stainless steel cap screw 1/4 x 20
6. Two stainless steel 1 inch long (25 mm) 1/4 x 20 cap screw
7. One 10/32 inch x 1/4 inch stainless steel screw
8. Five washers and Eight stainless steel nuts 1/4 x 20
9. One piece of stainless steel shimstock 11 inch x 6 inch 0.003 inch thick
10. One piece of stainless steel 14 gauge wire mesh 8 inch x 3 inch
11. One 3/8 inch nylon plug
12. One ¼ inch x ¼ inch NPT (National Pipe Tap) barbed fitting
13. Plumbers tape

**TOOLS LIST**

1. Hand drill
2. Tin Snips (for cutting steel mesh and shimstock)
3. ¼ inch NPT tap and 5/16 inch drill bit
4. 3/8 inch NPT tap and ½ inch drill bit
5. 10/32 inch tap and 1/8 inch drill bit
6. One clamp and a piece of 1 inch x 1 inch wood strip
7. Hexagonal key "T-handle" wrench to fit the capscrew
8. Philips screwdriver
9. Small adjustable wrench
Cut and fit shimstock into ABS tubing, 11 inch works well as this gives a 1 inch overlap.

For drilling, use a strip of wood. Be sure that the shimstock is flush with at least one edge of the tube. Use the flush edge as the bottom of the electrolyser.

Clamp securely and drill two 0.165 inch holes, one on either side, perpendicular to each other, as best you can. These holes will be tapped 1/4 inch x 20
The shimstock holes need to be reamed out to accept the capscrew.

Note: This is why 2 holes are drilled (to facilitate assembly). Next, attach the electrode inside the barrel. It is important to us a stainless steel nut inside to seat the capscrew.

Note that the shimstock is flush with the bottom of the tube. Final assembly for the electrodes. Note that the capscrews each have stainless steel nuts inside the barrel to seat to the shimstock. The screw on the left will be used as the Negative battery connection to the cell while the screw on the right merely seats the shimstock.
The upper component is a Threaded Adaptor DWV 3 inch HXFPT. The lower component is a 3 inch ABS Plug, clean out the threaded cap. Prepare the top cap and plug: Drill and tap a 3/8 inch diameter NPT in the centre of the threaded cap (this is the main filling plug). Drill and tap a 1/4 inch NPT on the side (to take the barbed fitting).

Prepare the bottom cap: Drill and tap 1/4 inch x 20 hole in the centre. Install the capscrew with a stainless steel nut. Tighten and install a washer and stainless steel nut outside.
This is the Positive battery connection.

This is the finished cell shown here upside down. Assemble the unit using ABS glue.
Next, prepare the stainless steel mesh. Cut it carefully to fit inside the threaded cap. Use at least 3 pieces.

After fitting the mesh tightly into the cap, mount it with a 10/32 inch stainless steel screw on the opposite side to the 1/4 inch tapped hole for the barbed fitting. This is a flame arrestor, so make CERTAIN that the entire inside is covered tightly. Note that the sides wrap up. Turn each layer to cross the grain of the mesh in the successive layers.
Use white "plumber's tape" on all threaded fittings.

This unit has raised the average miles-per-gallon performance of my 1992 5-litre Chevy Caprice from 18 to 27 mpg which is a 50% increase. It allows a very neat, professional-looking installation which works very well:
All of the 3/8 inch plastic fittings including one way valves, come from Ryanherco and are made of Kynar to withstand heat. The water trap is from an air compressor. The 3/16 inch tubing or hose is also high-heat type from automatic transmission coolant lines. I use Direct Current and limited with a thermal breaker and LYE mixture adjustment. If you need help then e-mail hotsabi (at) gmail (dot) com (put “e-cell” in the title of your mail).

Comments by Patrick Kelly:

This design is very simple to construct, but as it is just a single cell with the whole of the vehicle’s voltage placed across it, a good deal of the electrical power goes in heating the electrolyte rather than making the wanted hydroxy gas.

If there is sufficient space to fit two in, then using two allows you use half the current and that halves the heat generated in the units and doubles the length of time between topping up the unit with water:

![Diagram](image)

Please don’t get the impression that if a small amount of HHO gas produces a very beneficial effect on the running of a vehicle, that adding much more HHO gas will give even better results, as that is not the case. Each vehicle is different and will have a different optimum flow rate of HHO gas and if that optimum rate is exceeded, then although the mpg improvement may actually be reduced rather than increased. If in doubt, start will a low current (with more dilute electrolyte) which will produce less gas and see what the mpg results are. Then try a slightly stronger mix and check the mpg over several gallons of fuel. This will allow you to determine the booster current at which your particular vehicle operates best. This is not a competition to see who can produce the highest gas output, instead, it is a process to find out what the highest mpg your vehicle can give when using this simple booster design.

Mixing the electrolyte: Please remember that the sodium hydroxide or ‘lye’ (Lowes store: Roebic ‘Heavy Duty’ Crystal Drain Opener) is a strongly caustic substance which needs to be treated with care.

Always store it in a sturdy air-tight container which is clearly labelled "DANGER! - Sodium Hydroxide". Keep the container in a safe place, where it can’t be reached by children, pets or people who won’t take any notice of the label. If your supply of sodium hydroxide is in a strong plastic bag, then once you open the bag, you should transfer all its contents to a sturdy, air-tight, plastic storage container, which you can open and close without risking spilling the contents. Hardware stores sell plastic buckets with air tight lids that can be used for this purpose.

When working with dry flakes or granules, wear safety goggles, rubber gloves, a long sleeved shirt, socks and long trousers. Also, don’t wear your favourite clothes when handling hydroxy solution as it is not the best thing to get on clothes. It is also good practice to wear a face mask which covers your mouth and nose. If you are mixing solid sodium hydroxide with water, always add the hydroxide to the water, and not the other way round, and use a plastic container for the mixing, preferably one which has double the capacity of the finished mixture. The mixing should be done in a well-ventilated area which is not draughty as air currents can blow the dry hydroxide around.

When mixing the electrolyte, never use warm water. The water should be cool because the chemical reaction between the water and the hydroxide generates a good deal of heat. If possible, place the mixing container in a larger container filled with cold water, as that will help to keep the temperature down, and if your mixture should “boil over” it will contain the spillage. Add only a small amount of hydroxide at a time, stirring continuously, and if you stop stirring for any reason, put the lids back on all containers.

If, in spite of all precautions, you get some hydroxide solution on your skin, wash it off with plenty of running cold water and apply some vinegar to the skin. Vinegar is acidic, and will help balance out the alkalinity of the hydroxide. You can use lemon juice if you don’t have vinegar to hand - but it is always recommended to keep a bottle of vinegar handy.
**The ‘Smacks’ Booster**

The Smack’s Booster is a piece of equipment which increases the mpg performance of a car or motorcycle, and reduces the harmful emissions dramatically. It does this by using some current from the vehicle’s battery to break water into a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gasses called “hydroxy” gas which is then added to the air which is being drawn into the engine. The hydroxy gas improves the quality of the fuel burn inside the engine, increases the engine power, cleans old carbon deposits off the inside of an old engine, reduces the unwanted exhaust emissions and improves the mpg figures under all driving conditions, provided that the fuel computer does not try to pump excess fuel into the engine when it detects the much improved quality of the exhaust.

This hydroxy booster is easy to make and the components don’t cost much. The technical performance of the unit is very good as it produces 1.7 litres of hydroxy gas per minute at a very reasonable current draw. This is how to make and use it.

**Caution: This is not a toy. If you make and use one of these, you do so entirely at your own risk. Neither the designer of the booster, the author of this document or the provider of the internet display are in any way liable should you suffer any loss or damage through your own actions. While it is believed to be entirely safe to make and use a booster of this design, provided that the safety instructions shown below are followed, it is stressed that the responsibility is yours and yours alone.**

**The Safety Gear**

Before getting into the details of how to construct the booster, you must be aware of what needs to be done when using any booster of any design. Firstly, hydroxy gas is highly explosive. If it wasn’t, it would not be able to do it’s job of improving the explosions inside your engine. Hydroxy gas needs to be treated with respect and caution. It is important to make sure that it goes into the engine and nowhere else. It is also important that it gets ignited inside the engine and nowhere else.

To make these things happen, a number of common-sense steps need to be taken. Firstly, the booster must not make hydroxy gas when the engine is not running. The best way to arrange this is to switch off the current going to the booster. It is not sufficient to just have a manually-operated dashboard On/Off switch as it is almost certain that switching off will be forgotten one day. Instead, the electrical supply to the booster is routed through the ignition switch of the vehicle. That way, when the engine is turned off and the ignition key removed, it is certain that the booster is turned off as well.

So as not to put too much current through the ignition switch, and to allow for the possibility of the ignition switch being on when the engine is not running, instead of wiring the booster directly to the switch, it is better to wire a standard automotive relay across the oil pressure sending unit and let the relay carry the booster current. If the engine stops running, the oil pressure drops and if the booster is connected as shown, then this will also power down the booster.

An extra safety feature is to allow for the (very unlikely) possibility of an electrical short-circuit occurring in the booster or its wiring. This is done by putting a fuse or contact-breaker between the battery and the new circuitry as shown in this sketch:
If you choose to use a contact-breaker, then a light-emitting diode ("LED") with a current limiting resistor of say, 680 ohms in series with it, can be wired directly across the contacts of the circuit breaker. The LED can be mounted on the dashboard. As the contacts are normally closed, they short-circuit the LED and so no light shows. If the circuit-breaker is tripped, then the LED will light up to show that the circuit-breaker has operated. The current through the LED is so low that the electrolyser is effectively switched off when the contact breaker opens. This is not a necessary feature, merely an optional extra:

![Diagram of contact-breaker setup]

In the first sketch, you will notice that the booster contains a number of metal plates and the current passing through the liquid inside the booster (the "electrolyte") between these plates, causes the water to break up into the required hydroxy gas mix. A very important safety item is the "bubbler" which is just a simple container with some water in it. The bubbler has the gas coming in at the bottom and bubbling up through the water. The gas collects above the water surface and is then drawn into the engine through an outlet pipe above the water surface. To prevent water being drawn into the booster when the booster is off and cools down, a one-way valve is placed in the pipe between the booster and the bubbler.

If the engine happens to produce a backfire, then the bubbler blocks the flame from passing back through the pipe and igniting the gas being produced in the booster. If the booster is made with a tightly-fitting lid rather than a screw-on lid, then if the gas in the bubbler is ignited, it will just blow the lid off the bubbler and rob the explosion of any real force. A bubbler is a very simple, very cheap and very sensible thing to install. It also removes any traces of electrolyte fumes from the gas before it is drawn into the engine.

You will notice that the wires going to the plates inside the electrolyser are both connected well below the surface of the liquid. This is to avoid the possibility of a connection working loose with the vibration of the vehicle and causing a spark in the gas-filled region above the surface of the liquid, and this volume is kept as low as possible as another safety feature.

**The Design**

The booster is made from a length of 4-inch diameter PVC pipe, two caps, several metal plates, a couple of metal straps and some other minor bits and pieces.

This is not rocket science, and this booster can be built by anybody. A clever extra feature is the transparent plastic tube added to the side of the booster, to show the level of the liquid inside the booster without having to unscrew the cap. Another neat feature is the very compact transparent bubbler which is actually attached to the booster and which shows the gas flow coming from the booster. The main PVC booster pipe length can be adjusted to suit the available space beside the engine.
Bubbler connections close up:
This booster uses cheap, standard electrical stainless steel wall switch covers from the local hardware store and stainless steel straps cut from the handles of a wide range of stainless steel food-preparation ladles:

![Image of booster components]

The electrical cover plates are clamped together in an array of eight closely-spaced pairs of covers. The plates are held in a vise and the holes drilled out to the larger size needed. The covers are further treated by being clamped to a workbench and dented using a centre-punch and hammer. These indentations raise the gas output from 1.5 lpm to 1.7 lpm as the both increase the surface area of the cover and provide points from which the gas bubbles can drop off the cover more easily. The more indentations the better.

The active surfaces of the plates - that is, the surfaces which are 1.6 mm apart from each other, need to be prepared carefully. To do this, these surfaces are scored in an X-pattern using 36-grade coarse sandpaper. Doing this creates miniature sharp-crested bumps covering the entire surface of each of these plates. This type of surface helps the hydroxy bubbles break away from the surface as soon as they are formed. It also increases the effective surface area of the plate by about 40%. I know that it may seem a little fussy, but it has been found that fingerprints on the plates of any electrolyser seriously hinder the gas production because they reduce the working area of the plate quite substantially. It is important then, to either avoid all fingerprints (by wearing clean rubber gloves) or finish the plates by cleaning all grease and dirt off the working surfaces with a good solvent, which is washed off afterwards with distilled water. Wearing clean rubber gloves is by far the better option as cleaning chemicals are not a good thing to be applying to these important surfaces.
Shown above are typical hand tools used to create the indentations on the plates. The active plate surfaces – that is, the surfaces which are 1.6 mm apart – are indented as well as being sanded.

An array of these prepared plates is suspended inside a container made from 4-inch (100 mm) diameter PVC pipe. The pipe is converted to a container by using PVC glue to attach an end-cap on one end and a screw-cap fitting on the other. The container then has the gas-supply pipe fitting attached to the cap, which is drilled with two holes to allow the connecting straps for the plate array to be bolted to the cap, as shown here:
In order to ensure that the stainless steel straps are tightly connected to the electric wiring, the cap bolts are both located on the robust, horizontal surface of the cap, and clamped securely both inside and out. A rubber washer or rubber gasket is used to enhance the seal on the outside of the cap. If available, a steel washer with integral rubber facing can be used.
As the stainless steel strap which connects the booster plates to the negative side of the electrical supply connects to the central section of the plate array, it is necessary to kink it inwards. The angle used for this is in no way important, but the strap should be perfectly vertical when it reaches the plates.
The picture above shows clearly the wall plates being used and how the bubbler is attached to the body of the booster with super-glue. It also shows the various pipe connections. The stainless steel switch-cover plates are 2.75 inch x 4.5 inch (70 mm x 115 mm) in size and their existing mounting holes are drilled out to 5/16 inch (8 mm) diameter in order to take the plastic bolts used to hold the plates together to make an array. After a year of continuous use, these plates are still shiny and not corroded in any way.

Three stainless steel straps are used to connect the plate array together and connect it to the screw cap of the booster. These straps are taken from the handles of cooking utensils and they connect to the outer two plates at the top and the third strap runs across the bottom of the plate array, clear of the plates, and connects to both outside plates as can be seen in the diagrams.

The plates are held in position by two plastic bolts which run through the original mounting holes in the plates. The arrangement is to have a small 1.6 mm gap between each of eight pairs of plates. These gaps are produced by putting plastic washers on the plastic bolts between each pair of plates.

The most important spacing here is the 1.6 mm gap between the plates as this spacing has been found to be very effective in the electrolysis process. The way that the battery is connected is unusual in that it leaves most of the plates apparently unconnected. These plate pairs are called “floaters” and they do produce gas in spite of looking as if they are not electrically connected (they are connected through the electrolyte).

Stainless steel nuts are used between each pair of plates and these form an electrical connection between adjacent plates. The plate array made in this way is cheap, easy to construct and both compact and robust. The electrical straps are bolted to the screw cap at the top of the unit and this both positions the plate array securely and provides electrical connection bolts on the outside of the cap while maintaining an airtight seal for the holes in the cap.
Another very practical point is that the stainless steel straps running from the screw cap to the plate array, need to be insulated so that current does not leak directly between them through the electrolyte. The same applies to the strap which runs underneath the plates. This insulating is best done with shrink-wrap. Alternatively, good quality tool dip (McMaster Carr part number 9560t71) is an effective method, but if neither of these methods can be used, then the insulating can be done by wrapping the straps in electrical insulating tape. Using that method, the tape is wrapped tightly around the straps, being stretched slightly as it is wrapped. The section running underneath the covers is insulated before the array is assembled.
The PVC housing for the booster has two small-diameter angle pipe fittings attached to it and a piece of clear plastic tubing placed between them so that the level of the electrolyte can be checked without removing the screw cap. The white tube on the other side of the booster is a compact bubbler which is glued directly to the body of the booster using super-glue in order to produce a single combined booster/bubbler unit. The bubbler arrangement is shown here, spread out before gluing in place as this makes the method of connection easier to see.
The half-inch diameter elbows at the ends of the one-inch diameter bubbler tube have their threads coated with silicone before being pushed into place. This allows both of them to act as pressure-relief pop-out fittings in the unlikely event of the gas being ignited. This is an added safety feature of the design.

This booster is operated with a solution of Potassium Hydroxide also called KOH or Caustic Potash which can be bought from various suppliers such as:

http://www.essentialdepot.com/servlet/the-13/2-lbs-Potassium-Hydroxide/Detail
http://www.aaa-chemicals.com/pohy2posa.html or
http://www.nuscentscandle.com/PHFLAKES.html

To get the right amount in the booster, I fill the booster to its normal liquid level with distilled water and add the Hydroxide a little at a time, until the current through the booster is about 4 amps below my chosen working current of 20 amps. This allows for the unit heating up when it is working and drawing more current because the electrolyte is hot. The amount of KOH is typically 2 teaspoonfuls.

It is very important to use distilled water as tap water has impurities in it which make a mess which will clog up the booster. Also, be very careful handling potassium hydroxide as it is highly caustic. If any gets on you, wash it off immediately with large amounts of water, and if necessary, use some vinegar which is acidic and will offset the caustic splashes.

The completed booster usually looks like this:
But, it can be built using different materials to give it a cool look:

And attached to a cool bike:

The final important thing is how the booster gets connected to the engine. The normal mounting for the booster is close to the carburettor or throttle body so that a short length of piping can be used to connect the booster to the intake of the engine. The connection can be to the air box which houses the filter, or into the intake tube. The closer to the butterfly valve the better, because for safety reasons, we want to reduce the volume of hydroxy gas
hanging around in the intake system. You can drill and tap a 1/4" (6 mm) NPT fitting into the plastic inlet tubing with a barbed end for connecting the 1/4" (6 mm) hose.

The shorter the run of tubing to the air ductwork of the engine, the better. Again, for safety reasons, we want to limit the amount of unprotected hydroxy gas. If a long run of 3 feet (1 metre) or more must be used due to space constraints, then it would be a good idea to add another bubbler at the end of the tube, for additional protection. If you do this, then it is better to use a larger diameter outlet hose, say 3/8” or 5/16” (10 mm or 8 mm).

If you don’t have the necessary tools or workspace, then I will make one of these boosters for you. You can see the details on the Smack’s web site at http://www.smacksboosters.110mb.com. The parts needed to build this booster with it’s bubbler can be found locally or ordered from web sites.

**Powering your Booster**

Use wire and electrical hardware capable of handling 20 amps DC, no less. Overkill is OK in this situation, so I recommend using components that can handle 30 amps. Run your power through your ignition circuit, so that it only runs when the vehicle is on. A 30 amp relay should be used to prevent damaging the ignition circuit which may not be designed for an extra 20 amp draw. Make sure to use a properly rated fuse, 30 amps is ideal. You can use a toggle switch if you like for further control. As an added safety feature, some like to run an oil pressure switch to the relay as well, so the unit operates only when the engine is actually running. It is very important that all electrical connections be solid and secure. Soldering is better than crimping. Any loose connections will cause heat and possibly a fire, so it is up to you to make sure those connections are of high quality. They must be clean and tight, and should be checked from time to time as you operate the unit just to be sure the system is secure.

**Adjusting the Electrolyte**

Fill your booster with distilled water and NaOH (sodium hydroxide) or KOH (potassium hydroxide) only. No tap water, salt water or rainwater! No table salt or baking soda! These materials will permanently damage the booster!

First, fill the booster with distilled water about 2" from the top. Add a teaspoon of KOH or NaOH to the water and then slide the top into place. Do not tighten it for now, but leave the top loose and resting in place. Connect your 12V power supply to the leads and monitor the current draw of the unit. You want 16 amps flowing when the booster is cold. As the water heats up over time, the current draw will increase by around 4 amps until it reaches about 20 amps, and this is why you are aiming for only 16 amps with a cold system.

If the current is too high, dump out some electrolyte and add just distilled water. If the current is too low, add a pinch or two at a time of your catalyst until the 16 amps is reached. Overfilling your booster will cause some of the electrolyte to be forced up the output tube, so a liquid level tube was added to monitor electrolyte level.

The booster generally needs to be topped off once a week, depending on how long it is in operation. Add distilled water, then check your current draw again. You may observe a drop in current over the course of a few refills, and this is normal. Some of the catalyst escapes the cell suspended in water vapour droplets, so from time to time you may need to add a pinch or two. The water in the bubbler acts to scrub this contaminant out of the gas as well. I highly recommend installing an ammeter to monitor current draw as you operate your booster.

**Mounting the Booster**

Choose a well ventilated area in the engine compartment to mount your booster. Since every vehicle design is different, I leave it up to you to figure out the best method to mount it. It must be mounted with the top orientated upwards. Large 5" diameter hose clamps work well, but do not over tighten them or the PVC may deform. I recommend mounting the booster behind the front bumper in the area usually present between it and the radiator. Support the weight of the unit from the bottom with a bracket of your design, then use two hose clamps to secure the unit, one near the top and one near the bottom. Never install the unit in the passenger compartment for safety reasons.

**Output hose and Bubbler**

The bubbler on the side of the unit should be filled about 1/3 to 1/2 full of water - tap water is fine for the bubbler. The check valve before the bubbler is there to prevent the bubbler water from being sucked back into the booster when it cools and the gases inside contract. Make sure the bubbler level is maintained at all times. Failure to do so could result in an unwanted backfire explosion. That water inside the bubbler is your physical shield between the stored hydroxy volume in the generator and the intake of your engine. Install the output hose as close to the carburettor/throttle body as close as possible by making a connection into the intake tube/air cleaner.
Try to make the hose as short as possible to reduce the amount of gas volume it contains. I recommend using the same type of 1/4" poly hose that is used on the unit.

Here is a list of the parts needed to construct the booster and bubbler if you decide to build it yourself rather than buying a ready-made unit:

**The Main Parts Needed**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4-inch diameter PVC pipe 12-inches long</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Forms the body of the booster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-inch diameter PVC pipe end-cap</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Closes the bottom of the booster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-inch diameter PVC pipe screw cap</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The top of the booster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-degree Quick Connect Outlet fitting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3/8&quot; O.D. Tube x 1/4&quot; NPT from Hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level indicator Nylon barbed tube fitting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1/4&quot; Tube x 1/8&quot; NPT Part Number 2974K153 or from your local hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarter-inch I.D. Poly sight tube</td>
<td>8&quot;</td>
<td>Water-level indicator tubing - Hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stainless steel switch covers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>The plate array components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stainless steel straps 12-inches long</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>The electrical connections to the plates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/4&quot; Inside Diameter Clear poly tube</td>
<td>12-inch</td>
<td>From your local hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot; stainless steel bolts 1.25&quot; long</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Electrical strap connection to the top cap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot; stainless steel nuts &amp; washers</td>
<td>6 each</td>
<td>To fit the steel bolts in the cap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot; diameter nylon threaded rod</td>
<td>8&quot; min.</td>
<td>Nylon Threaded Rod 5/16&quot;-18 Thread. McMaster Carr Part No 98831A030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot; inch nylon washers 1.6 mm thick</td>
<td>1-pack</td>
<td>Nylon 6/6 Flat Washer 5/16&quot;, Pack of 100 McMaster Carr Part No 90295A160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot;-18 s/s jam nuts (7/32&quot; thick)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>McMaster Carr Part No 91841A030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 degree Bubbler Fittings</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1/4&quot; Barbed Tube 1/2&quot; NPT. McMaster Carr Part No 2974K156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check valve</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/4&quot; tube, McMaster Carr Part No 47245K27 or from your local Hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PVC glue</td>
<td>1 tube</td>
<td>Same colour as the PVC pipe if possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/16&quot; Neoprene sealing washer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>McMaster Carr Part No 94709A318 or from your local Hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool dip – 14.5 oz</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>McMaster Carr Part No 9560I71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optional: Light Emitting Diode</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10 mm diameter, red, with panel-mounting clip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarter-watt resistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>470 ohm (code bands: Yellow, Purple, Brown)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now, having shown how this very effective booster and bubbler are constructed, it should be pointed out that if you use it with a vehicle fitted with an Electronic Control Unit which monitors fuel injection into the engine, then the fuel-computer section will offset the gains and benefits of using this, or any other, booster. The solution is not difficult, as the fuel-computer can be controlled by adding in a little circuit board to adjust the sensor signal fed to the computer from the oxygen sensor built into the exhaust of the vehicle. Ready-built units are available for this or you can make your own. If you want to make your own, then the web site document [http://www.free-energy-info.com/D17.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/D17.pdf) shows you how and as well, points to Eagle-Research, the suppliers of alternative, ready-made units, also stocked by The Hydrogen Garage.

Quite an amount of testing and experimenting has been carried out by many of the people who have made copies of this booster and two variations which have been found to be helpful are shown here:

Firstly, in spite of the very restricted space inside the housing, it is possible to introduce two extra wall plates, one at each end of the plate stack. These plates are spaced 1.6 mm apart using plastic washers and this triple-plate group causes an extra voltage drop across the sub-set of three plates. The construction is then as shown here:
The second modification is wrapping the plate array in 4-inch shrink-wrap. This wrapping extends around the sides of the plates and helps by cutting out some of the unwanted electrical leakage paths through the electrolyte. This arrangement is shown here:

Enjoy using this booster and do your part in cutting greenhouse gas emissions. 

*Eletrik*

Smack's Booster is a trademarked name, and the design is patent-pending but remains fully disclosed for public use.

Date of release of this copy of the document: 3rd July 2008
Background Information

Many people find the plate arrangement of the Smack’s Booster, rather difficult to understand, so this additional section is just to try to explain the operation of the cell. This has nothing to do with actually building or using a Smack’s Booster, so you can just skip this section without missing anything.

The Smack's Booster plate arrangement does look confusing. This is mainly because Eletrik has squeezed two identical sets of plates into one container as shown here:

This arrangement is two identical sets of plates positioned back-to-back. To make it easier to understand the operation, let's just consider just one of the two sets of plates.

Here, you have just the electrical Plus linked to the electrical Minus by a set of four pairs of plates in a daisy chain (the technical term is: connected "in series" or "series-connected"). Easily the most electrically efficient way for doing this is to exclude all possible current flow paths through the electrolyte by closing off around the edges of all the plates and forcing the current to flow through the plates and only through the plates.

Unfortunately, this is very difficult to do in a cylindrical container and it has the disadvantage that it is difficult to keep the unit topped up with water and difficult to maintain the electrolyte level just below the top of the plates.
So, a compromise is reached where the current flow around and past the plates is combatted by strategic spacing of the plates:
This diagram shows the way that the plates are connected. The red lines show paths of unwanted current flow which produce almost no gas. This wasted current flow is opposed by the useful current flow across gap “A” in the diagram.

To favour the flow across the 1.6 mm gap “A”, an attempt is made to make the waste flows as long as possible by comparison. This is done by the gap “B” being made as large as possible, limited only by the size of the booster housing.

The voltage applied to the cell (13.8 volts when the engine is running) divides equally across the four plate pairs, so there will be one quarter of that voltage (3.45 volts) across each plate pair.

If you look again at the original diagram, you will see that there are two of these sets of four plate pairs, positioned back-to-back in the container. Each of these acts separately, except for the fact that there are additional current leakage paths through the electrolyte between the plates of one set and the plates of the second set.

There is a steady voltage drop progressively across the array of plates. Remember that they are connected in pairs in the middle due to the metal-to-metal connection created by the steel nuts between the plates:

![Voltage Drops Diagram]

VOLTAGE DROPS FOR A 12-VOLT SUPPLY

It is often difficult for people to get the hang of how the voltage drops across a chain of resistors (or matrix of plates). The voltages are relative to each other, so each plate pair thinks that it has a negative electrical connection on one plate and a positive connection on the other plate.
For example, if I am standing at the bottom of a hill and my friend is standing ten feet up the hill, then he is ten feet above me.

If we both climb a hundred feet up the mountain and he is at a height of 110 feet and I am at a height of 100 feet, he is still ten feet above me.

If we both climb another hundred feet up the mountain and he is at a height of 210 feet and I am at a height of 200 feet, he is still ten feet above me. From his point of view, I am always ten feet below him.

The same thing applies to these plate voltages. If you one plate is at a voltage of +3 volts and the plate 1.6 mm away from it is at a voltage of +6 volts, then the 6 volt plate is 3 volts more positive than the 3 volt plate, and there is a 3 volt difference across the gap between the two plates. The first plate looks to be 3 volts negative to the 6 volt plate when it “looks” back at it.

You can also say that the +3 volt plate is 3 volts lower than the +6 volt plate, so from the point of view of the +6 volt plate, the +3 volt plate is 3 volts lower down than it, and it therefore “sees” the other plate as being at -3 volts relative to it.

In the same way, my friend sees me as being at -10 feet relative to him, no matter what height we are on the mountain. It is all a matter of being "higher up" whether in terms of height above sea level on a mountain or in terms of higher up in voltage inside a booster.

Now, having shown how this booster and bubbler are constructed, it should be pointed out that if you use it with a vehicle fitted with an Electronic Control Unit which monitors fuel injection into the engine, then the fuel-computer section will offset the mpg gains and benefits of using this, or any other, booster. The solution is not difficult, as the fuel-computer can be controlled by adding in a little circuit board to adjust the sensor signal fed to the computer from the oxygen sensor built into the exhaust of the vehicle, to allow for the improved quality of the fuel being burnt in the engine. This is necessary because the exhaust will be so much cleaner than it used to be, that the computer will think that the engine is being starved of fuel (which it most definitely isn’t. With a booster, the engine runs cleaner, cooler and more smoothly and it has enhanced pulling power called “torque”. Ready-built units are available for correcting the oxygen sensor signal for the improved situation, or alternatively, you can make your own.
Dealing with the Vehicle Computer

When an mpg improving device such as an electrolyser is fitted to a vehicle, the result does not always produce better mpg figures. Older vehicles which are fitted with a carburettor will see an immediate improvement. This is not the case for more recent vehicles which come with computer control of the fuel sent to the engine.

When an electrolyser is attached to the engine, it causes the fuel burn inside the cylinders to be greatly improved, with a corresponding improvement in engine performance. Unfortunately, the fuel computer is expecting the same amount of unburnt oxygen to come out of the engine, and when it doesn’t detect it, the computer increases the fuel flow rate in an attempt to get back to it’s normal, inefficient method of running. That action cancels the mpg improvement produced by the electrolyser unless something is done to adjust the operation of the computer.

In the most simple terms, most vehicles which have an Electronic Control Unit (“ECU”) to control the fuel flow are fitted with one of two types of exhaust sensor. The majority have a “narrowband” sensor while the remainder have a “wideband” sensor. The ideal mix of air to fuel is considered to be 14.7 to 1. A narrowband sensor only responds to mixtures from about 14.2 to 1 through 14.9 to 1. The sensor operates by comparing the amount of oxygen in the exhaust gas to the amount of oxygen in the air outside the vehicle and it generates an output voltage which moves rapidly between 0.2 volts where the mixture is too lean, and 0.8 volts when it passes below the 14.7 to 1 air/fuel mix point where the mixture is too rich (as indicated by the graph shown below). The ECU increases the fuel feed when the signal level is 0.2 volts and decreases it when the signal voltage is 0.8 volts. This causes the signal voltage to switch regularly from high to low and back to high again as the computer attempts to match the amount of “too lean” time to the amount of “too rich” time.

![Sensor Output Graph](image)

A simple control circuit board can be added to alter the sensor signal and nudge the fuel computer into producing slightly better air/fuel mixes. Unfortunately, there is a severe downside to doing this. If, for any reason, the fuel mix is set too high for an extended period, then the excess fuel being burnt in the catalytic converter can raise the temperature there high enough to melt the internal components of the converter. On the other hand, if the circuit board is switched to a mix which is too lean, then the engine temperature can be pushed high enough to damage the valves, which is an expensive mistake.

Over-lean running can occur at different speeds and loads. Joe Hanson recommends that if any device for making the mix leaner is fitted to the vehicle, then the following procedure should be carried out. Buy a “type K” thermocouple with a 3-inch stainless steel threaded shank, custom built by ThermX Southwest of San Diego. This temperature sensor can measure temperatures up to 1,800 degrees Fahrenheit (980 degrees Centigrade). Mount the thermocouple on the exhaust pipe by drilling and tapping the pipe close to the exhaust manifold, just next to the flange gasket. Take a cable from the thermocouple into the driver’s area and use a multimeter to show the temperature.

Drive the vehicle long enough to reach normal running temperature and then drive at full speed on a highway. Note the temperature reading at this speed. When a leaner mix is used, make sure that the temperature reading
under exactly the same conditions does not exceed 180 degrees Fahrenheit (100 degrees Centigrade) above the
pre-modification temperature.

David Andruczyk recommends an alternative method of avoiding engine damage through over-lean fuel/air
mixtures, namely, replacing the narrowband oxygen sensor with a wideband sensor and controller. A wideband
oxygen sensor reads a very wide range of Air/Fuel ratios, from about 9 to 1 through 28 to 1. A normal car engine
can run from about 10 to 1 (very rich) to about 17.5 to 1 (pretty lean). Maximum engine power is developed at a
mix ratio of about 12.5 to 1. Complete fuel combustion takes place with a mix of about 14.7 to 1, while the mix
which gives minimum exhaust emissions is slightly leaner than that.

Unlike narrowband sensors, wideband sensors need their own controller in order to function. There are many of
these units being offered for sale for retro-fitting to existing vehicles which have just narrowband oxygen sensor
systems. David’s personal recommendation is the Innovate Motorsports LC-1 which is small, and uses the very
reasonably priced LSU-4 sensor. This wideband controller can be programmed. Most controllers have the ability
to output two signals, the wideband signal suitable for running to a gauge or new ECU, plus a synthesised
narrowband signal which can feed an existing ECU. The trick is to install a wideband sensor, with the LC-1
controller and then reprogram it to shift the narrowband output to achieve a leaner mix as shown here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Air/Fuel Mix</th>
<th>Wideband Output</th>
<th>Original Narrowband Output</th>
<th>Shifted Narrowband Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 to 1</td>
<td>9 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 to 1</td>
<td>10 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 1</td>
<td>11 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 to 1</td>
<td>12 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 1</td>
<td>13 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 to 1</td>
<td>14 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6 to 1</td>
<td>14.6 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.8 to 1</td>
<td>14.8 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to 1</td>
<td>15 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Rich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.5 to 1</td>
<td>15.5 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 1</td>
<td>16 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 1</td>
<td>18 to 1</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
<td>Mix is too Lean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This system allows you to set the narrowband “toggle point” very precisely on an exact chosen air/fuel ratio. This
is something which it is nearly impossible to do accurately with a circuit board which just shifts a narrowband
oxygen signal as you just do not know what the air/fuel ratio really is with a narrowband sensor.

However, for anyone who wants to try adding a circuit board to alter a narrowband sensor signal to produce a
leaner mix on a vehicle, the following description may be of help. It is possible to buy a ready-made circuit board,
although using a completely different operating technique, from the very reputable Eagle Research, via their
website: http://www.eagle-research.com/products/pfuels.html where the relevant item is shown like this:
This unit generates a small voltage, using a 555 timer chip as an oscillator, rectifying the output to give a small adjustable voltage which is then added to whatever voltage is being generated by the oxygen sensor. This voltage is adjusted at installation time and is then left permanently at that setting. Eagle Research also offer for sale, a booklet which shows you how to build this unit from scratch if you would prefer to do that.

I understand that at the present time, the purchase price of this device is approximately US $50, but that needs to be checked if you decide to buy one. Alternatively, instructions for building a suitable equivalent circuit board are provided later on in this document.

If you wish to use a circuit board with a narrowband oxygen sensor, then please be aware that there are several versions of this type of sensor. The version is indicated by the number of connecting wires:

- Those with 1 wire, where the wire carries the signal and the case is ground (zero volts)
- Those with 2 wires, where one wire carries the signal and the other wire is ground.
- Those with 3 wires, where 2 (typically slightly thicker) wires are for a sensor heater, and 1 for the signal while the case is ground.
- Those with 4 wires (the most common on current model cars), where there are 2 (slightly heavier) for the sensor heater, 1 for the signal, and 1 for the signal ground.
- (Sensors with 5 wires are normally wideband devices.)

Look in the engine compartment and locate the oxygen sensor. If you have difficulty in finding it, get a copy of the Clymer or Haynes Maintenance Manual for your vehicle as that will show you the position. We need to identify the sensor wire which carries the control signal to the fuel control computer. To do this, make sure that the car is switched off, then

For 3 and 4 wire sensors:
- Disconnect the oxygen sensor wiring harness,
- Set a multimeter to a DC voltage measurement range of at least 15 volts,
- Turn on the ignition and probe the socket looking for the two wires that provide 12 volts.
- These are the heater wires, so make a note of which they are,
- Shut the ignition off, and reconnect the oxygen sensor.
The two remaining wires can now be treated the same as the wires from a 2-wire sensor, one will carry the sensor signal and one will be the signal ground (for a single wire sensor, the signal ground will be the engine block). Jesper Ingerslev points out that the Ford Mustang built since 1996 has 2 oxygen sensors per catalytic converter, one before the converter and one after. Some other vehicles also have this arrangement. With a vehicle of this type, the circuit board described here should be attached to the sensor closest to the engine.

Find a convenient place along the wires. Don’t cut these wires, you will cut the sensor wire here at a later time, but not now. Instead, strip back a small amount of the insulation on each wire. Be careful to avoid the wires short-circuiting to each other or to the body of the vehicle. Connect the DC voltmeter to the wires (the non-heater wires). Start the engine and watch the meter readings. When the engine is warmed up, if the oxygen sensor is performing as it should (i.e. no engine check lights on), the voltage on the meter should begin toggling between a low value near zero volts and a high value of about 1 volt. If the meter reading is going negative, then reverse the leads. The black multimeter lead is connected to the signal ‘ground’ (zero volts) and the red lead will be connected to the wire which carries the signal from the sensor. Connect a piece of insulated wire to the stripped point of the sensor wire and take the wire to the input of your mixture controller circuit board. Connect a second insulated wire between the signal ‘ground’ wire, or in the case of a 1-wire sensor, the engine block, and the circuit board zero-volts line. Insulate all of the stripped cables to prevent any possibility of a short-circuit:

More specific detail

However, the situation is by no means a simple one which allows a single simple adaption which will work on every vehicle for many years. Les Pearson has been investigating this situation in depth for three years along with a friend who is an Electronics Engineer. Having built and tested EFIES, the oxygen sensor circuit shown below, several versions of MAP controllers, coolant/air temperature hacks, professional systems, etc. and discovered that many vehicle ECUs (“Electronic Control Units”) learnt to adapt to the new conditions and return to the highly inefficient excess fuel injection condition. This return to the original fuel injection is different for each design of ECU and there are many different designs.

Les says: “To understand the solution, first you have to understand the dilemma with all the other ECU control tricks. The EFIES, MAP adjusters, temp hacks etc. do get good results for a short time, and then the performance deteriorates again. Why should this be? It is because the ECU learns to deal with the new situation with them in place. This is because the ECU knows that the feedback from most of it’s controls, and sensor’s are not linear, nor should they be. All of the electronics, and adjustment methods used by the Hydrogen On Demand people are linear, and that is not an adequate way to deal with the problem.

For example, we may add a couple of hundred millivolts to the oxygen (“lambda”) sensor signal in order to return an unduly rich signal to the ECU, and so make it respond with a lower level of fuel injection. This makes the ECU
think that the Air/Fuel Ratio is say, 15:1 or 20:1. Now the mass air maps are all wrong, we need to show less air so that the ECU adds less fuel in order to match the fuel trims. We now need to adjust the ignition timing to take advantage of this combustion change. The problem is that all the EFIEs, MAP/MAF adjusters, and attempts at changing timing by manipulating air temp are a static fixed offset, producing just a single change.

An Air/Fuel Ratio of 20:1 is not appropriate under moderate or heavy acceleration when you don't, and usually can't, add enough hydroxy gas to allow for these conditions. A set 15% to 20% leaner setting across the entire fuel map is not appropriate at all loads, and engine speeds. Adding 50 to 75 degrees F to the air temp is not appropriate when the outside air is already at 110 degrees F. The ECU knows this and makes appropriate changes to it's long-term settings, and so it cancels out the changes which our electronic additions have made.

While it may be OK for an experimenter, and mechanic with all the tools at his disposal to play with these techniques, and retune his engines every week or so in order to get great mileage, it is not realistic to expect the average person to do this. The cost in equipment alone, would undermine any fuel savings. Also, most people don't even change their oil at appropriate intervals.

This was my train of thought as I pondered a solution, and began searching. My search was for a control solution which could firstly, alter the air-flow readings, lambda readings, and ignition timing and secondly, respond to changes in engine speed and engine load. To my surprise I found several products already on the market which are capable of doing this, and which have been available for quite some time. People in the engine-tuning industry have been using them for years. They are custom programmable, piggy-back chips. Several companies make them, and while most do not advertise O2 ("lambda") sensor control, many are quite capable of altering it.

We became a distributor for one brand which seemed to be the best fit for our purposes, and we began testing. The results are perfect. We started with an 2002 Saturn SL. The average mpg for this car started at 26 mpg (highway and city combined). We installed the chip, tested several tuning methods, and found the one which worked best. The car now averages 44-46 mpg. This is not special 'grandma driving' to try, and coax a few extra miles per gallon. This is a courier vehicle for a local printer, and it is driven daily like it was stolen. We have all the same benefits of increased torque (pulling power), better throttle response, etc. The car has been driven around for three months now with our programmed chip installed, and it achieves the mid-40s in mpg all of the time. There are no code changes needed, no start-up problems, no driving problems of any kind whatsoever. If you weren't told, you would never know that hydroxy gas was being added, except for the fact that you can go over 500 miles on a single tank of fuel.

The only problem is that this is definitely not a do-it-yourself solution. You need a laptop computer with proprietary software to tune the chip, and the scanning, and diagnostic equipment to know when you have it tuned correctly. However, I have thought of a do-it-yourself solution. It still requires you to buy a few electronic kits, and you need a lot of know-how, but we are circumventing a highly sophisticated control architecture, so anyone who thinks it will be easy, is delusional. The main item is a Digital Fuel Adjuster or "DFA" kit from JayCar electronics based in Australia. Their website is http://www.jaycar.com. The adjuster kit number is KC5385, and you have to have the hand controller to program it, that kit number is KC3586. At the present time, the Adjuster kit costs USD $49.50, and the controller kit is USD $39.50. The adjuster doesn't have an enclosure supplied, but the controller does. You need one controller and two adjusters. The controller can be reused to program multiple adjusters. Once you have the kits, it will take several days of soldering to build them, and it is definitely not a beginner's first-time project.

After the two adjusters and the controller have been built, the first one is wired in to the MAP/MAF sensor signal as shown in the instructions guide. Next the second DFA is used on the oxygen sensor signal. If there are two oxygen sensors, then the DFA is wired through the common ground for the upstream sensors ONLY. This places the voltage offsets in tandem, which makes it unnecessary to use two DFAs (or EFIEs for that matter) for "lambda" control. Now control has been established over fuel maps, and a "lambda" control which is responsive to engine load has been achieved. I believe that these kits also come with an option to make them responsive to rpm.

For ignition timing, the temperature offsets will probably still be necessary, but now you have a fuel control which if tuned properly, the ECU will not learn its way around. I have found that the maps for "lambda" control are very simple. Tune for the leanest Air/Fuel Ratio appropriate at very low loads, and increase the fuel richness a bit in increments as the load increases. As you get close to full throttle, but before you switch to open-loop operation, your lambda offset should be zero (the stock setting). To tune the air-flow or fuel maps, watch the OBD II scan gauge, and decrease the MAP signal so that your short term fuel trim ("STFT" on a scanner) is no greater than about ± 7% at each load interval. Drive for about 20 minutes, and check that your long term fuel trim ("LTFT") never goes beyond the "7s" either. Now the ECU cannot "see" your changes because the fuel map, and lambda readings "agree" at every load range.
The Jaycar kits are not as sophisticated as the chip sets, but they are about 20% of the cost, if you want to put the

time and effort into them. The adjuster itself simply adds to, or subtracts from, whatever voltage runs across

them, and it can be set to change that offset value in correspondence to whatever voltage value is present at the

signal input pin. You would of course put your TPS signal to the signal input pin. The device itself is very

versatile, and could be used for many different applications. If you wanted to use one to control a Pulse-Width

Modulator attached to a cell, then that would be possible and it would provide a variable gas rate that responds to

changes in engine load. I hope you can put this to good use, and feel free to spread the word around. Perhaps

you know someone who could build a similar device or give us a schematic to build one, after looking at a JayCar kit.

The only drawback to the kits is that rpm sampling gets a little complex, and while I don't think it is absolutely

necessary, it would be beneficial. Although the kits have only 125 data points between the "closed", and "fully

open" throttle settings, and do not interpolate between data points, they seem to work very well. The professional

chip sets have 96,000 data points between CT ("Closed Throttle"), and WOT ("Wide-Open Throttle"), and they do

logically interpolate between set data points. The professional chip sets run about $650 USD programmed, and

installed.

I plan to market a pre-programmed chip capable of making any hydroxy system work. While I plan to have a

profitable venture with the professional pre-programmed architecture, I also believe in the open source do-it-

yourself community, which is where I got started. The chips I plan to sell will be a 'plug and play' device. You

send me the info on the type of vehicle you are modifying, and the efficiency data of your cell, and I'll be able to

send you the info on the type of vehicle you are modifying, and the efficiency data of your cell, and I'll be able to

tell you a chip that will make your ECU work with those conditions. The Do-it-yourself version would be quite
time consuming but, would work for less than one quarter of the price.

I think that the "more is better" hydroxy gas idea that a lot of people are stuck in, is seriously flawed. There is
definitely a point of diminishing returns. I tune most systems to deliver about 1 lpm. The lower the amperage you

can do this at, of course the better. I have found that not only does it take more amperage to produce higher

volumes at a less effective rate of return, but it does not add much to the efficiency of the "boosting". With the

cells which I build I get 1 lpm of hydroxy gas at about 8 to 10 amps. I'm using direct DC with a 5-cell, 6 plate

array, similar to a "Smack's Booster", but with better plate isolation in the bath. We've spent thousands

developing fancier, and slightly more efficient cells. We've used PWMs to get better production, and be able to
teminate gas production with duty cycle. We had a really, really advanced system. Then I applied Occam's razor to it. We can make enough gas to support ultra-lean combustion above fairly low load conditions - so what good is it to be able to decrease when you barely make enough already? The PWM does help, and is relatively inexpensive so we kept that component if the customer wants, but we don't change the duty cycle.

The 6 plate "Smacks" style cell works fine. It is small, easy to build, and is efficient enough for the production we

need. Engine control was the biggest issue. I can get great mileage with just a little hydroxy gas, if I can control

what fuel table the ECU looks at every load range, and rpm. The problem with EFIEs, and MAP/MAF adjusters is

that they tell the computer to look at inappropriate fuel tables at higher load ranges. The ECU picks up on that,

adjusts it's long-term fuel trims, and goes back to an unmodified state. If I can make the ECU look at very lean

tables at cruise, and then more or less unmodified tables at higher loads it never "sees" the trick. Since we only

make enough hydroxy gas to affect low loads anyway, that is all I need to be concerned with. You could think of it

as an ultra-lean cruise mode: when you aren't at low cruise you aren't changing anything. When you are cruising

you are running at a very lean Air-Fuel Ratio. So far, it works great.

The super fancy system that used a PWM with a duty-cycle controlled by our chip, and made up to 3 lpm at

20amps would have cost over USD $2500 just for the parts, and equipment to cover production cost, and turn a

profit, and it only gained us about 10% efficiency. The system we are working on now should be less than USD

$1500 as a 'turn-key' system. Our little Saturn just came back at 88mpg on a carefully driven run with this system.

I have tried adding just 0.6 lpm or so, and letting the ECU trim out to compensate. This has given me mixed

results. Sometimes I can get 25% to 30% reduction in consumption, and sometimes it makes no difference at all.

It has a lot to do with the ECU's programming, and the driver's habits. I don't really know why it doesn't work all

the time theoretically it should. The hydroxy gas makes the petrol more volatile so you should be getting more

energy per gram of fuel. That should correlate to higher exhaust gas temperatures, and the ECU should see that and take away some fuel, but sometimes it does just the opposite. The ECU sees a lean condition due to increased Exhaust Gas Temperature at the manifold, and lower temperature at the catalytic converter, and so it richens up the air-fuel mix.

Another possible option that I have not explored would be an EFIE designed to change it's output to a set voltage

controlled by the vehicle's throttle position sensor. The challenge here is that it is not a linear change. The steps

between load sites would not be equal. They would need to be able to be manually set for what the application

needed. The DFAs allow you to do this, and can add voltage just like an EFIE. You can use one DFA for

MAP/MAF control, and one for oxygen sensor control. So even with a modified EFIE you would need a DFA or
something similar to provide non-linear MAP/MAF control”. You can contact Les at lesperson (at) hotmail (dot) com.

**Construction**

If you wish to build an oxygen sensor controller circuit, then here is a suggestion as to how you might do it. This description assumes very little knowledge on the part of the reader, so I offer my apologies to those of you who are already expert in these matters. There are many different ways to design and construct any electronic circuit and each electronics expert will have his own preferred way. In my opinion, the way shown here is the easiest for a newcomer to understand and build with the minimum of tools and materials.

The circuit shown here, is taken from the website [http://better-mileage.com/memberadx.html](http://better-mileage.com/memberadx.html), and is discussed here in greater detail. This circuit can be constructed on a printed circuit board or it can be built on a simple single-sided stripboard as shown here:

Stripboard (often called “Veroboard”), has copper strips attached to one side of the board. The copper strips can be broken where it is convenient for building the circuit. Component leads are cut to length, cleaned, inserted from the side of the board which does not have the copper strips, and the leads attached to the copper strips using a solder joint. Soldering is not a difficult skill to learn and the method is described later in this document.

When all of the components have been attached to the stripboard and the circuit tested, then the board is mounted in a small plastic case as shown here:

Insulating posts can be made from a short pieces of plastic rod with a hole drilled through its length. The mounting bolt can self-tap into a hole drilled in the case, if the hole is slightly smaller than the diameter of the bolt threads. Alternatively, the holes can be drilled slightly larger and the bolt heads located outside the case with nuts used to hold the board in place. This style of mounting holds the circuit board securely in place and gives some clearance between the board and the case.
You will need building equipment, namely, a soldering iron, a 12 volt power supply such as a battery pack and an accurate digital volt meter for this project. If the 12 volt supply is a main-powered unit, then it needs to be a well-filtered, voltage-stabilised unit. Lastly, you will need a variable voltage source that can go from 0 to 1 volt to imitate the output from the vehicle’s oxygen sensor when testing the completed circuit board. This is simple enough to make, using a resistor and a variable resistor.

A series of components will be needed for the circuit itself. These can be bought from a number of different suppliers and the ordering details are shown later in this document. Shown above is a resistor. The value of the resistor is indicated by a set of three colour bands at one end of the body. The reason for doing this rather than just writing the value on the resistor, is that when the resistor is soldered in place, its value can be read from any angle and from any side. The component list shows the colour bands for each of the resistors used in this circuit. If you want more information on basic electronics, then read the Electronics Tutorial which can be found at http://www.free-energy-info.co.uk/Chapter12.pdf

Other components which you will be using, look like this:

The MPSA14 and the BC327 devices are transistors. They each have a “Collector”, a “Base” and an “Emitter” wire coming out of them. Please notice that the two packages are not identical, and take care that the right wire is placed in the correct hole in the stripboard before soldering it in place.
The 1N4007 diode has a ring marked at one end of the body. The ring indicates the flat bar across the symbol as shown on the circuit diagram, and in that way it identifies which way round the diode is placed on the stripboard.

The Light-Emitting Diode (the “LED”) will be familiar to most people as it is used so extensively in equipment of all types.

The toggle switch has six contacts - three on each side. The centre contact is connected to one of the two outer contacts on its side, which one, depends on the position of the switch lever.

The two capacitors (which are called “condensers” in very old literature) look quite different from each other. The electrolytic capacitor has it’s + wire marked on the body of the capacitor, while the ceramic has such a small value that it does not matter which way round it is connected.

The main component of the circuit, is an integrated circuit or “chip”. This is a tiny package containing a whole electronic circuit inside it (resistors, capacitors, diodes, whatever, ...). Integrated circuit chips generally look like this:

A very common version of this package has two rows of seven pins each and it goes by the grandiose name of “Dual In Line” which just means that there are two rows of pins, each row having the pins in a straight line. In our particular circuit, the chip has eighteen pins, in two rows of nine.

Now to the circuit itself. If you find it hard to follow, then take a look at the electronics tutorial on the web site as it shows the circuit diagram symbol for each component and explains how each device works.

The circuit contains three capacitors, eight resistors, two diodes, one LED, one IC chip, two transistors, one toggle switch and two types of component not yet described, namely: two preset resistors and one rotary switch.

The preset resistor is very small and is adjusted using a flat bladed screwdriver. It is used for making an adjustable setting which is then left unchanged for a long time. The Rotary switch has a central contact which is connected to a row of outer contacts in turn when the shaft is rotated from position to position. The switch shaft is made of plastic and so can easily be cut to the length needed to make a neat installation, and the knob is locked in place by tightening its grub screw against the flat face of the shaft, although some knobs are designed just to push tightly on to the shaft. There is a wide range of knob styles which can be used with this switch, so the choice of knob is dictated by personal taste.

This is the circuit diagram:
Electronic circuits are normally “read” from left to right, so we will look at this circuit that way. The first components are the 100 microfarad, 35 volt electrolytic capacitor with the tiny 100 nF capacitor across it. These are put there to help iron out any variations in the voltage supply. The BZX85C zener diode is a 24-volt type and it protects the integrated circuit from voltage spikes coming along the +12-volt line from other equipment in the vehicle, preventing the circuit from being fed more than 24 volts for even a fraction of a second as that would damage the integrated circuit.

The next item is the On/Off dashboard switch. When switched to its Off position as shown here:

the connection from the oxygen sensor is passed straight through to the vehicle’s fuel computer, bypassing the circuit board completely. This switch allows the whole circuit to be switched Off should you want to do this for any reason.

In it’s On position, as shown in the circuit diagram, the varying voltage signal coming from the oxygen sensor is passed into the circuit, and the output voltage from the circuit is passed back to the fuel computer, instead of the original sensor voltage. This allows the circuit to manipulate the voltage sent to the fuel computer.

The next set of components (four resistors, one ceramic capacitor and one preset resistor) shown here:
are needed to feed the incoming sensor voltage to the Integrated Circuit chip, and make the chip operate in the way that we want, (the chip manufacturer allows more than one way for the chip to work). You can just ignore these components for now, just understand why they are there.

The Integrated Circuit chip has ten outputs, coming out through Pins 1 and 10 through 18 inclusive:

If the input voltage coming from the oxygen sensor is low, then all of these ten outputs will have low voltages on them. When the input voltage rises a little, the voltage on Pin 10 suddenly rises to a high value, while the other output pins still have low voltages.

If the input voltage rises a little higher, then suddenly the voltage on Pin 11 rises to a high value. At this point, both Pin 10 and Pin 11 have high voltage on them and the other eight output pins remain at low voltage.

If the input voltage rises a little higher again, then suddenly the voltage on Pin 12 rises to a high value. At this point, Pin 10, Pin 11 and Pin 12 all have high voltage on them and the other seven output pins remain at low voltage.

The same thing happens to each of the ten output pins, with the voltage on Pin 1 being the last to get a high voltage on it. The circuit is arranged so that Pin 10 provides the output signal for the richest air/fuel mixture for the vehicle, and the mix gets progressively leaner as the output on Pins 11, 12, ... etc. are selected to be fed to the fuel computer.

As there is the possibility of engine damage if the fuel mix is too lean, only six of the outputs are taken on into the circuit. However, if the engine is being fed hydroxy gas from an electrolyser to improve both the miles per gallon performance and reduce emissions to zero, then it is likely that the engine will run cooler than before and engine damage is most unlikely to occur. It is quite safe to leave the remaining output pins of the Integrated Circuit chip unconnected. However, if this unit is to be used with the Nitrogen Hydroxide cell described in the D18.pdf document, then it is quite safe to connect Pins 16, 17, 18 and 1 and set the rotary switch to ten positions.

The output pin to be used by the remainder of the circuit is selected by the rotary switch mounted on the dashboard:
A standard single-pole rotary wafer switch has twelve positions but the switch operation can be restricted to any lesser number of positions by placing the end-stop lug of the switch just after the last switch position required. This lug comes as standard, fits around the switch shaft like a washer, and is held in place when the locking nut is tightened on the shaft to hold the switch in place. The lug projects down into the switch mechanism and forms an end-stop to prevent the switch shaft being turned any further. With six switch positions, the circuit provides five levels of leaner air/fuel mix which can be selected. This should be more than adequate for all practical purposes.

The next section of the circuit is the BC327 transistor amplifier stage which provides the output current for the fuel computer:

Here, the switch “SW1” connects to one of the output pins of the Integrated Circuit. When the voltage on that pin goes low, it causes a current to flow through the transistor Base/Emitter junction, limited by the 2.7K (2,700 ohm) resistor. This current causes the transistor to switch hard On, which in turn alters the voltage on its Collector from near 0 volts to near +12 volts. The 2.7K resistor is only there to limit the current through the transistor and to avoid excessive loading on the output pin of the IC.

The transistor now feeds current to the LED via the two 1N4007 diodes and the 1K (1,000 ohm) resistor. This causes the Light Emitting Diode to light brightly. The 1K resistor is there to limit the amount of current flowing through this section of the circuit.

Part of the voltage across the LED is fed back to the fuel computer:

By moving the slider contact on the preset resistor “VR2”, any output voltage can be fed to the fuel computer. This voltage can be anything from the whole of the voltage across the LED, down to almost zero volts. We will use VR2 to adjust the output voltage when we are setting the circuit up for use. In this circuit, VR2 is acting as a
“voltage divider” and it is there to allow adjustment of the output voltage going from the circuit to the fuel computer.

The final section of the circuit is the MPSA14 transistor and its associated components:

This circuit is a timer. When the circuit is first powered up (by the vehicle’s ignition key being turned), the 470 microfarad capacitor “C1” is fully discharged (if it isn’t, then the oxygen sensor will already be hot). As it is discharged and one side is connected to the +12 volt line, then the other side (point “A”) looks as if it is also at +12 volts. This provides a tiny current to the Base/Emitter junction of the MPSA14 transistor, through the high resistance 470K (470,000 ohm) resistor. The MPSA14 transistor has a very high gain and so this tiny current causes it to switch hard on, short-circuiting the LED and preventing any voltage developing across the LED.

As time passes, the tiny current flowing through the MPSA14 transistor, along with the tiny current through the 3.9M (3,900,000 ohm) resistor “R1”, cause a voltage to build up on capacitor “C1”. This in turn, forces the voltage at point “A” lower and lower. Eventually, the voltage at point “A” gets so low that the MPSA14 transistor gets starved of current and it switches off, allowing the LED to light and the circuit to start supplying an output voltage to the fuel computer. The purpose of the section of the circuit is to shut off the output to the fuel computer until the oxygen sensor has reached it’s working temperature of 600 degrees Fahrenheit. It may be necessary to tailor this delay to your vehicle by altering the value of either “R1” or “C1”. Increasing either or both will lengthen the delay while reducing the value of one or both, will shorten the delay.

We want the time delay to occur if the engine is off for some time, but not to occur if the engine is switched off only briefly. For this to happen, it is suggested that a diode is placed across the timing resistor. This will have no effect when the circuit is powered up, but it will discharge the capacitor when the circuit is powered down. We can slow down the rate of discharge by putting a high-value resistor in series with the discharge diode and that would make the circuit:

**Circuit Operation:**

Now that we have looked at each part of the circuit separately, let us look again at the way that the circuit operates. The main component is the LM3914 integrated circuit. This device is designed to light a row of Light Emitting Diodes (“LEDs”). The number of LEDs lit is proportional to the input voltage reaching it through it’s Pin 5. In this circuit, the integrated circuit is used to provide a reduced voltage to be fed to the fuel computer, rather than to light a row of LEDs. When the operating switch is set in it’s ON position, the sensor voltage is fed to Pin 5 through a 1 megohm resistor.

The sensitivity of this circuit is adjusted, so that when 500 millivolts (0.5 volts) is applied to Pin 5, the output on Pin 10 is just triggered. This is done by adjusting the 10K linear preset resistor “VR1” while placing a test voltage of 500 millivolts on Pin 5. This LM3914 Integrated Circuit is normally switched so that it samples the sensor voltage. The LM3914 chip provides ten separate output voltage levels, and the circuit is arranged so that any one of several of these can be selected by the rotary switch “SW1”. These output voltages range from 50 millivolts on Pin 1 to 500 millivolts on Pin 10, with each output position having a 50 millivolt greater output than it’s neighbouring pin. This allows a wide range of control over the sensor feed passed to the fuel computer.

The input resistor/capacitor circuit provides filtering of the sensor signal. Because this circuit draws very little current, it is easily knocked out of correct operation through it’s input line picking up stray electrical pulses produced by the engine, particularly the vehicle’s ignition circuit. When the exhaust sensor heats up, the signal becomes cleaner and then the circuit starts operating correctly. The circuit includes a delay so that after start up, the output is held low for a few minutes to simulate a cold sensor. The sensor must be operating correctly before we send signals to the computer. The most common problem, if we don’t have this delay, is that the output will be
high simply from the noise on the signal line. The computer will think the sensor is working, because it is high, and will cut back the fuel to make the signal go low. If that were to happen, we would end up with an over-lean fuel input to the engine, producing very poor acceleration.

The front panel LED is not just to show that the device is operating, but forms a simple voltage regulator for the output signal to the computer. When the engine is warmed up and running normally, the LED is lit when the output is high, and not lit when the output is low, so this LED should be flashing on and off.

The earth connection for the oxygen sensor is the exhaust system, which is firmly bolted to the engine. The computer earth is the vehicle body. A difference of just 0.5 volts can make a large difference to the mixture. If the engine is not securely earthed to the vehicle body, then a voltage difference can exist between the two, and in this situation a voltage difference of just 0.5 volts would normally go unnoticed. We can’t afford to have that sort of voltage difference when trying to control the mixture accurately, so some investigation and adjustment is needed.

To do this, start the engine, switch the headlights on to high beam, then measure the voltage between the engine and the body. Use a digital volt meter. Any more than 50 millivolts (0.05 volts) means that there is a bad earth connection which need cleaning and tightening. Modern cars usually have more than one connection so look around. If you have trouble achieving a really good connection, then earth your circuit board directly on the engine rather than connecting it to a point on the bodywork of the vehicle. The most important item is to have a good quality signal voltage coming from the sensor, since the operating range consists of quite low voltages. The components and tools needed for building this circuit are shown later, but for now, consider the setting up and testing of the unit so as to understand better what is needed.

**Adjusting on the Bench**

When the circuit has been constructed to the testing stage, that is, with all components in place except for the timing capacitor “C1”, and before the power is turned on, plug the Integrated Circuit chip into its socket mounted on the board. Be very careful doing this as the chip can be destroyed by static electricity picked up by your body. Professionals wear an electrical earth wrist strap when handling these devices, so it would be a good idea to touch a good earth point such as a metal-pipe cold water system just before handling the chip.

It is vital that you install the IC chip, the correct way round or it may be damaged. The circuit board layout shows which way round it goes. The chip has a semi-circular indentation at one end to show which end is which, so be careful that the indentation is positioned as shown on the board layout in the section which shows how the board is built. Some manufacturers use a dot rather than a semi-circular indentation to mark the end of the chip which has Pin 1 in it.

Make up the test voltage device. We need something to give us an adjustable voltage in the range 0 to 1 volt. A very easy way to get this is to use a 10K resistor and a 1K variable resistor (called a “potentiometer” by some people) and connect them across the 12 volt battery, as shown here:
This gives us a voltage in the correct range when the shaft of the variable resistor is turned. Power up the circuit board by switching the 12 volt battery through to the board. Adjust the test-voltage source to 500 millivolts (0.5 volts) and apply it to the board’s input (where the sensor connection will be made when it is installed in the vehicle). Set the switch to the “Richest” position, that is, with the switch connected to Pin 10 of the chip.

Now, using a flat-blade screwdriver, adjust the sensitivity control preset resistor “VR1” so that the output LED is just lit. Leave the preset resistor in that position and adjust the test voltage lower and higher to test that the LED turns on and off in response to the varying voltage at the input to the circuit. The LED should come on at 0.5 volts, and go off just below 0.5 volts. The other outputs, which can be selected by the rotary switch “SW1”, will be about 50 millivolts lower for each position of the switch away from it’s “Richest” setting on Pin 10.

Now, with the output high and the LED lit, use a flat-bladed screwdriver to adjust the preset resistor “VR2” to set the output voltage being sent to the computer to about 1.0 volts. When this has been set, lower the input voltage so that the LED goes out. The output voltage should now be at zero volts. If this is what happens, then it shows that the circuit is operating correctly.

If this board is not in place, the sensor will cause the fuel computer to make the fuel mixture richer so as to maintain a 500 millivolt voltage from the sensor. With the circuit in place and set to its “Richest” setting, exactly the same thing happens. However, if the rotary switch is moved to its next position, the fuel computer will maintain the fuel feed to maintain a 450 millivolt output, which is a leaner fuel-to-air mixture. One step further around and the fuel computer will make the mix even leaner to maintain a 400 millivolt output from the circuit board, which the fuel computer thinks is coming from the exhaust oxygen sensor.

If your circuit board does not operate as described, then power it down and examine the circuit board again, looking for places where the solder connections are not perfect. There may be somewhere where the solder is bridging between two of the copper strips, or there may be a joint which looks as if it is not a good quality joint. If you find one, don’t solder anywhere near the IC chip as the heat might damage the chip. If necessary, earth yourself again, remove the chip and put it back into the anti-static packaging it came in, before repairing the board. If the components are all correctly positioned, the copper tracks broken at all the right places and all solder joints looking good and well made but the board still is not working correctly, then it is likely that the IC chip is defective and needs to be replaced.

Next, install the delay capacitor “C1”. Set the test voltage above 500 millivolts and turn the power on again. It should take about three minutes for the LED to come on. If you want to shorten this delay, then change the timing resistor “R1” for a resistor of a lower value. To lengthen the delay, replace the timing capacitor “C1” with a capacitor of larger value. If you find that the oxygen sensor heats up quickly, then you can reduce the length of the delay. Having too long a delay is not ideal, since the computer will be adding extra fuel to make the mixture richer.

It is suggested that the rotary switch should be set to have only six switch positions (by moving it’s end-stop lug washer), so initially, connect the IC chip output pins 10 through 15 to the switch. You can choose to connect the wires to the switch so that the mixture gets richer when you turn the knob clockwise, or if you prefer, you can wire it in the reverse order so that the mixture gets richer when you turn the knob counter-clockwise.

**Testing in the Car**

You can now test the device in the vehicle but don’t install it yet. Look in the engine compartment and locate the oxygen sensor. If you have difficulty in finding it, get a copy of the Clymer or Haynes Maintenance Manual for your vehicle as that will show you the position. If your vehicle has two sensors, then select the one nearest to the engine. If your sensor has five wires running to it, then it is a “wideband” sensor which measures both the oxygen content and the amount of unburnt fuel, and unfortunately, the type of circuit described here will not control it.
Start the vehicle and allow the oxygen sensor to warm up for a couple of minutes. Remember that there is a delay built in to the circuit, so after a few minutes you should see the LED start to flash. Rev the engine and the LED will stay on. When you release the throttle, the LED will go out for a while. A flashing LED is what you want to see. The rate of flashing will be somewhere between 1 and 10 times per second, most likely around 2 per second. Confirm that the LED goes out when you switch off the circuit board On/Off switch mounted on the dashboard.

Now comes the exciting bit, cutting the oxygen sensor wire and inserting the controller. Turn the engine off and cut the wire in a convenient place. Use crimp connectors on the wire ends. Use a matching pair on the wire which you just cut, in case you need to reconnect it, as shown here:

When set up like this, the male connector furthest on the left could be plugged into the female connector furthest on the right and the circuit board removed. Be sure to insulate the sensor and fuel computer plug/socket connections to make quite sure that neither of them can short-circuit to any part of the body. There is no need to insulate the earth connection as it is already connected to the body of the vehicle. Although not shown in the diagram, you could also put a male and female crimp connector pair on the earth cable. If your sensor has only one wire coming from it, then you best earth connection is to a solder-tag connector placed under a bolt on the engine. If you do that, be sure to clean all grease, dirt, rust, etc. off the underside of the bolt head and the area around the bolt hole. Push a paper towel into the bolt hole before doing this to make sure that no unwanted material ends up in the bolt hole and use wet-and-dry paper to really clean the surfaces. The objective here is to make sure that there is a very good electrical connection with shiny metal faces clamped firmly together.

**Installing the Controller**

Now, install the circuit board in the vehicle. For the 12 volt supply, find a connection which is switched on and off by the vehicle’s ignition switch. Don’t drive the car yet, do this test in the driveway. With the front panel switch in it’s “Off” position, start the car and check that it runs normally. Set the front panel rotary switch to the Richest position (connected to the IC’s Pin 10) and switch the circuit board toggle switch to it’s “On” position. The car is now running with a modified oxygen sensor signal although the mixture is still the same. The vehicle performance should be completely normal. Drive the vehicle with this setting for a while to prove that the system is working reliably before changing to any of the lower settings. When you are satisfied that everything is in order, try the next leanest setting on the Rotary switch and see how it runs.

It is important that there should be no hesitation in the engine performance and no knocking or “pinking” as that is an indication that the mix is too lean and the engine is liable to overheat. This circuit is intended for use with an electrolyser, so your electrolyser should be set up and working for these tests. The electrolyser will tend to make the engine run cooler and offset any tendency towards overheating.

**Building the Circuit Board**

Although the above information has been presented as if the board has already been built, the actual construction details have been left until now, so that you will already have an understanding of what the circuit is intended to do and how it is used.

It is likely that you will know somebody (neighbour, friend, relative,...) who has the necessary equipment and skills. If so, borrow the equipment, or better still, recruit the person to help with the construction. It is very likely that anybody owning the equipment would be very interested in your project and more than willing to help out.

However, the rest of this document will be written on the assumption that you cannot find anybody to help and have had to buy all of the necessary equipment. This project is not difficult to build, so you will almost certainly be successful straight off.
The tools which you will need, are:

1. A soldering iron with a fine conical tapering tip (probably 15 watts power rating)
2. Some “Multicore” resin solder. This is special solder for electronics construction work and is quite different from plumber’s solder which is not suitable for this job.
3. A pair of long-nosed pliers (for holding component wires when soldering them in place)
4. Something for cutting and cleaning wires and stripping off insulation coverings. I personally prefer a pair of “nail” scissors for this job. Others prefer a pair of wire cutters and some sandpaper. You get whatever you feel would be the best tool for doing these tasks.
5. A 1/8 inch (3 mm) drill bit (for making bolt holes in the stripboard and for breaking the copper strips where needed) and a 3/8 inch (9 mm) drill and bit for mounting the switches on the plastic box.
6. A coping-saw or similar small saw for cutting the rotary switch shaft to the optimum length.
7. A small screwdriver (for tightening knob grub screws).
8. A crimping tool and some crimp connectors.
9. A multimeter (preferably a digital one) with a DC voltage measuring range of 0 to 15 volts or so.
10. (Optional) a magnifying glass of x4 or higher magnification (for very close examination of the soldering)

**Soldering**

Many electronic components can be damaged by the high temperatures they are subjected to when being soldered in place. I personally prefer to use a pair of long-nosed pliers to grip the component leads on the upper side of the board while making the solder joint on the underside of the board. The heat running up the component lead then gets diverted into the large volume of metal in the pair of pliers and the component is protected from excessive heat. On the same principle, I always use an Integrated Circuit socket when soldering a circuit board, that way, the heat has dissipated fully before the IC is plugged into the socket. It also has the advantage that the IC can be replaced without any difficulty should it become damaged.

If you are using CMOS integrated circuits in any construction, you need to avoid static electricity. Very high levels of voltage build up on your clothes through brushing against objects. This voltage is in the thousands of volts range. It can supply so little current that it does not bother you and you probably do not notice it. CMOS devices operate on such low amounts of current that they can very easily be damaged by your static electricity. Computer hardware professionals wear an earthing lead strapped to their wrists when handling CMOS circuitry. There is no need for you to go that far. CMOS devices are supplied with their leads embedded in a conducting material. Leave them in the material until you are ready to plug them into the circuit and then only hold the plastic body of the case and do not touch any of the pins. Once in place in the circuit, the circuit components will prevent the build up of static charges on the chip.

Soldering is an easily-acquired skill. Multi-cored solder is used for electronic circuit soldering. This solder wire has flux resin contained within it and when melted on a metal surface, the flux removes the oxide layer on the metal, allowing a proper electrical and mechanical joint to be made. Consequently, it is important that the solder is placed on the joint area and the soldering iron placed on it when it is already in position. If this is done, the flux can clean the joint area and the joint will be good. If the solder is placed on the soldering iron and then the iron moved to the joint, the flux will have burnt away before the joint area is reached and the resulting joint will not be good.

A good solder joint will have a smooth shiny surface and pulling any wire going into the joint will have no effect as the wire is now solidly incorporated into the joint. Making a good solder joint takes about half a second and certainly not more than one second. You want to remove the soldering iron from the joint before an excessive amount of heat is run into the joint. It is recommended that a good mechanical joint be made before soldering when connecting a wire to some form of terminal (this is often not possible).

The technique which I use, is to stand the solder up on the workbench and bend the end so that it is sloping downwards towards me. The lead of the component to be soldered is placed in the hole in the stripboard and gripped just above the board with long-nosed pliers. The board is turned upside down and the left thumb used to clamp the board against the pliers. The board and pliers are then moved underneath the solder and positioned so that the solder lies on the copper strip, touching the component lead. The right hand is now used to place the soldering iron briefly on the solder. This melts the solder on the joint, allowing the flux to clean the area and producing a good joint. After the joint is made, the board is still held with the pliers until the joint has cooled down.

Nowadays, the holes in the stripboard are only 1/10 inch (2.5 mm) apart and so the gaps between adjacent copper strips is very small indeed. If you solder carefully, there should be no problem. However, I would recommend that when the circuit board is completed, that you use a magnifying glass to examine the strip side of the board to make quite sure that everything is perfectly ok and that solder does not bridge between the copper...
strips anywhere. Before powering up the circuit, double-check that all of the breaks in the copper strips have been made correctly. Here is a possible layout for the components on the stripboard:

If this board is turned over horizontally, the underside will look like this:

This shows where the breaks in the copper strips need to be made using a 1/8 inch (3 mm) drill bit.
To construct this circuit, cut a piece of stripboard which has 18 strips, each with 32 holes. That is a board size of about two inches (50 mm) by just over three inches (85 mm). Mount the components on the board, working from one end as the installation is easier if you have a clear board to work across. If you are right-handed, then start at the left hand side of the board and work towards the right, installing all components as you go. If you are left-handed, then mount the components starting with the right hand side of the board and working towards the left hand side.

Having said that, it is probably easier if you put all of the wire jumpers in place as the first step. The best wire for this is solid core wire of the type used in telephone wiring, as it is easy to cut, easy to remove the insulation and it lies flat on the board, clear of all of the other holes. So, start with the wire jumpers and then install the electronic components working across the board.

The jumper wires lie flat on the board, and like the other components, have about 2 mm of clean wire projecting through the copper strip before the solder joint is made.

The wires coming off the board should be of the type which have several thin wires inside the insulation, as these are more flexible and withstand the vibration of a vehicle in motion, better than solid core wire. If you have just one reel of wire, then be sure to label the far end of each piece mounted on the board, the moment you have soldered it in place. These labels will help avoid errors when mounting in the case, if you do not have different coloured wires.

The completed circuit board can be mounted in a small plastic box of the type which has a lid held in place by screws. It may be convenient to screw or bolt the case to the underside of the dashboard and then screw the lid in place, covering the mounting screws.

The components in this circuit are not critical and any near-match alternatives can be used. In the event that the MPSA14 Darlington-pair transistor is not available, then two general-purpose high-gain silicon transistors like the BC109 or 2N2222A can be substituted. Just connect them like this:
The emitter of the first transistor is connected to base of the second and the two collectors are connected together. If the transistors have metal cases, then make sure the emitter/base connection cannot touch either case as the cases are often connected internally to the collectors. If each transistor has a gain of only 200, then the pair will have a combined gain of 40,000 times. That means that the base current need only be 40,000 times less than the collector current of the second transistor.

The BC327 transistor can be replaced by almost any other silicon PNP transistor in this circuit as the gain does not need to be great and the power rating is very small. The following is a list of the main electronic components needed for the construction of this circuit as described here. There are several suppliers who are able to supply all of these components and the most suitable depends on where you are located. If there is any difficulty, try an internet search, and if that fails, ask for help in one or more of the Yahoo enthusiast groups such as 'watercar', 'hydroxy' or any of the electronics Groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Qty.</th>
<th>US Supplier</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black plastic box with lid, size about 4&quot; x 3&quot; x 2&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-1803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stripboard: 18 strips, 32 holes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>0302PB16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Double Pole Double Throw toggle switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>275-636</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fuse holder, panel mounting, 1.25&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse, 2 amp slow-blow 1.25&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>270-1262 ?? (3 A)</td>
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<td>Rotary wafer switch, 12-way single pole</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>17ROT1-12</td>
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<td>Knob for the rotary switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>274-424</td>
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<tr>
<td>LED, any colour, 5 mm diameter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-041</td>
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<td>IC socket, 18 pin DIL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-1992</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miniature preset resistor, 10K linear</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-282</td>
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<tr>
<td>LM3914 LED bar driver Integrated Circuit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>LM3914</td>
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<td>BC327 PNP transistor</td>
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<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>2N2905</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPSA14 Darlington pair transistor</td>
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<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>MPSA14</td>
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<td>1N4007 Diode or equivalent</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>276-1103 (2 pack)</td>
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<td>Electronix Express</td>
<td>1N5359</td>
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<td>470 microfarad, 35 volt (or higher) axial lead aluminium foil electrolytic capacitor</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>272-1016</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 nF (0.1 microfarad) ceramic disc capacitor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>272-135 (2 pack)</td>
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<td>10 megohm 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Brown,Black,Blue)</td>
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<td>470K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Yellow,Purple,Yellow)</td>
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<td>(Radio Shack)</td>
<td>use two 1M in parallel or 271-1133 (5 pack 1/2 watt)</td>
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<td>2.7K 1/4 watt carbon resistor (Bands: Red,Purple,Red)</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
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<td>Radio Shack</td>
<td>271-1311 (5 pack)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Connecting wire: stranded and solid core</td>
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<td>Local supplier</td>
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Electronix Express  http://www.elexp.com/index.htm
Radio Shack  http://www.radioshack.com/home/index.jsp
For a UK supplier:

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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Qty.</th>
<th>European Supplier</th>
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<td>Stripboard: 18 strips, 32 holes</td>
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<td>335-010</td>
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<td>Double Pole Double Throw toggle switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>218-028</td>
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<td>Fuse holder, panel mounting 31 mm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>187-115</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fuse, 2 amp 31 mm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>190-220</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rotary wafer switch, 12-way single pole</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>210-012</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knob for the rotary switch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>060-22X</td>
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<tr>
<td>LED, any colour, 5 mm diameter</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>711-540</td>
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<td>IC socket, 18 pin DIL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>110-180</td>
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<td>Miniature preset resistor, 10K linear</td>
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<td>998-310</td>
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<tr>
<td>LM3914 LED bar driver Integrated Circuit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>LM3914</td>
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<tr>
<td>BC327 PNP transistor</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>BC327</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPSA14 Darlington pair transistor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ESR</td>
<td>MPSA13</td>
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<tr>
<td>1N4007 Diode or equivalent</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>1N4007</td>
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<td>BZX85C zener diode, 24 volt version</td>
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<td>726-240</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>054-116</td>
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<td>Reel of solid core (or local phone wire)</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>055-111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ESR  http://www.esr.co.uk Tel: 01912 514 363

While the components listed above are the parts needed to construct the electronics board, the following items may be needed in addition when testing and installing the board in a vehicle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rubber or plastic grommets</td>
<td>To protect wires from rubbing against the edges of the holes in the box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crimp “bullet” connectors</td>
<td>Male and female, one pair for each sensor wire cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mounting bolts, nuts and spacers</td>
<td>To hold the circuit board securely, clear of the box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double-sided adhesive tape</td>
<td>For mounting the box on the dash. Alternatively, hardware items for this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse-box connector</td>
<td>For connecting to the fuse box to give an ignition-switched 12V supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K resistor and 1K Linear variable resistor</td>
<td>For bench testing with voltages of up to 1 volt, if these components are not already to hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimeter</td>
<td>For general checking of voltages, continuity, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I should like to express my sincere thanks to the various members of the 'watercar' Group who provided the technical information and patient support which made this document possible.

An alternative: As the signal coming from the oxygen sensor to the vehicle’s ECU fuel computer needs to be raised slightly to allow for the much cleaner exhaust produced when a booster is being used, an alternative solution has been suggested and tested. The idea is to add a small, adjustable voltage to the signal already coming from the oxygen sensor. This voltage can be from a single ‘dry-cell’ battery and adjusted with a variable resistor.
The circuit shown here allows a voltage anywhere from zero to 0.5 volts to be added to the oxygen sensor signal. This must not be done unless a booster is running. Using it without a booster is liable to lead to engine overheating and possible valve damage. This, of course, applies to the previous oxygen sensor signal adjusting circuit as well.

**Please Note:** This document has been prepared for information purposes only and must not be construed as an encouragement to build any new device nor to adapt any existing device. If you undertake any kind of construction work, then you do so entirely at your own risk. You, and only you, are responsible for your own actions. This document must not be seen as an endorsement of this kind of adaptation nor as providing any kind of guarantee that an adaptation of this kind would work for you personally. This document merely describes what has been achieved by other people and you must not consider it as being a foolproof blueprint for replication by anyone else.
Suggested Design Features for High-power DC Electrolysers

The objective of this document is to present the relevant facts involved in DC electrolysis and provide practical suggestions for the physical construction, preparation and use of such devices.

Disclaimer
The contents of this document are presented for information purposes only. The author, Patrick J. Kelly does not recommend that anyone actually build any device based on this information and should anyone do so against his wishes, then it must be clearly understood that no responsibility attaches to Patrick J. Kelly as a result of those actions. By way of example, should somebody decide to construct an electrolyser based on this information and then drop the electrolyser on his toe, then Patrick J. Kelly is in no way liable for any resulting injury or damage to the electrolyser.

Background:
The very famous Michael Faraday who performed meticulous experimentation, investigated electrolysis and determined what current was needed to convert any given quantity of water into hydrogen and oxygen gasses. Teachers of science, quote Michael’s results as being the final word on DC electrolysis.

In the last few years, Bob Boyce of the USA has researched DC electrolysis further and has achieved results which have been typically, 216% those of Faraday. This does not mean that Faraday was wrong, just that his results apply to the particular conditions under which he performed his tests. Essentially, he placed two metal electrodes in an electrolyte and passed electrical current between them, measuring the gas produced during each of his tests. From that information, he was able to deduce the relationship between current and gas production (under those conditions).

Bob Boyce had a different objective during his investigations, namely to determine if there was any way to raise the gas production per amp of current. His first step was to test various types of metal for the electrodes. Laboratory investigations tend to pick platinum for electrode use, but in fact, that is the worst possible metal to use as it acts as a catalyst to recombine hydrogen and oxygen gasses, and so has an in-built opposition to electrolysis. After much testing, 317L-grade was found to be an excellent choice, but due to its limited availability and high cost, 316L-grade is generally used instead.

The loss factors involved in electrolysis were then examined by following the path of the current. These are:
1. Resistance to current flow through the metal electrodes, (typically in the form of plates).
2. Resistance to flow between the electrode and the electrolyte.
3. Resistance to flow through the electrolyte itself.

These electrical losses produce heat, which in limited amounts is not a problem other than through wasted energy, but if left uncontrolled, causes considerable problems, namely the production of steam and hot water vapour which dilute the hydroxy gas and reduce the energy content of the output, and in extreme cases, melting or weakening the case material. Examining each of these, Bob found:

1. Resistance to current flow through the metal plates is something which can’t be overcome easily and economically, and so has to be accepted as an overhead. Generally speaking, the heating from this source is low and not a matter of major concern.
2. Resistance to flow between the electrode and the electrolyte is an entirely different matter, and major advances can be made in this area. After extensive testing, Bob discovered that a major improvement can be made if a catalytic layer is developed on the active plate surface. Details of how this is done are provided below.

3. Resistance to flow through the electrolyte itself can be minimised by using the best catalyst at its optimum concentration, and controlling the current flow by using an electronic circuit. The options here are the use of a Pulse-Width Modulator (or “PWM”) circuit or a Constant-current Circuit. A PWM circuit switches the current off for any chosen percentage of the time. This reduces the average current flowing through the electrolyte and so controls the gas output rate. This circuit is manually set and adjusted as necessary. The Constant-current circuit maintains any chosen current through the electrolyte automatically. Another factor is the distance which the current has to flow through the electrolyte - the greater the distance, the greater the resistance. Reducing the inter-plate gap to a minimum improves the efficiency. However, practical factors come into play here as bubbles have to have sufficient space to escape between the plates, and in a compact series-connected electrolyser, the electrolyte volume between successive plates is severely restricted if the plates are over close to each other. Bob’s chosen compromise spacing is 3 mm. or one eighth of an inch.

These factors allow a doubling of Faraday’s results, or to put it another way, give Faraday’s gas output for less than half the current which he found it necessary to use. The best catalyst known at this time is potassium hydroxide or KOH. This is 20% more efficient in use than the next most suitable catalyse sodium hydroxide or NaOH. It is quite possible that a better catalyst may be discovered in the future, which would lower the current requirement further for any required gas output rate. The plate area is important for long electrode life and a plate area of at least 4 square inches per amp of current will give extended plate life. There is an advantage in having the plates wider than they are tall as this provides more electrolyte surface area.

The creation of the very important catalyst layer on the working faces of the electrode plates is as follows: The first step is to treat both surfaces of every plate to encourage gas bubbles to break away from the surface of the plate. This could be done by grit blasting, but if that method is chosen, great care must be taken that the grit used does not contaminate the plates. Stainless steel plates are not cheap and if you get grit blasting wrong, then the plates will be useless as far as electrolysis is concerned. A safe method which Bob much prefers is to score the plate surface with coarse sandpaper. This is done in two different directions to produce a cross-hatch pattern. This produces microscopic sharp peaks and valleys on the surface of the plate and those sharp points and ridges are ideal for helping bubbles to form and break free of the plate.
Bob uses a 6-inch x 48-inch belt sander which is great for preparing the plates and he uses it all the time now with 60 or 80 grit. Always wear rubber gloves when handling the plates to avoid getting finger marks on the plates. Wearing these gloves is very important as the plates must be kept as clean and as grease-free as possible, ready for the next stages of their preparation.

Any particles created by the sanding process should now be washed off the plates. This can be done with clean tap water (not city water though, due to all the chlorine and other chemicals added), but only distilled water is used for the final rinse.

The next step in the preparation process is to make up a weak solution of sodium hydroxide. This is done by adding small amounts of the sodium hydroxide to water held in a container. The container must not be glass as most glass containers are made from glass of insufficient quality to allow mixing of electrolyte in them. Sodium hydroxide (“caustic soda” often sold as drain cleaner) is always used for plate cleansing.

While both Potassium Hydroxide (KOH) and Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH) are excellent materials, they both are highly caustic and so need to be treated with care. In the following section, the mixing of KOH is described, but the same precautions also apply when mixing NaOH. So be very methodical and careful when making up a solution of either:

Always store the hydroxide in a sturdy air-tight container which is clearly labelled “DANGER! - Potassium Hydroxide”. Keep the container in a safe place, where it can’t be reached by children, pets or people who won't take any notice of the label. If your supply of KOH is delivered in a strong plastic bag, then once you open the bag, you should transfer all its contents to sturdy, air-tight, plastic storage containers, which you can open and close without risking spilling the contents. Hardware stores sell large plastic buckets with air tight lids that can be used for this purpose.

When working with dry hydroxide flakes or granules, wear safety goggles, rubber gloves, a long sleeved shirt, socks and long trousers. Also, don’t wear your favourite clothes as a hydroxide solution is not the best thing to get on clothes. It is also good practice to wear a face mask which covers your mouth and nose. If you are mixing solid hydroxide with water, always add the hydroxide to the water, and not the other way round, and use a plastic container for the mixing, preferably one which has double the capacity of the finished mixture. The mixing should be done in a well-ventilated area which is not draughty as air currents can blow the dry hydroxide around.

When mixing the electrolyte, never use warm water. The water should be cool because the chemical reaction between the water and the hydroxide generates a good deal of heat. If possible, place the mixing container in a larger container filled with cold water, as that will help to keep the temperature down, and if your mixture should “boil over” it will contain the spillage. Add only a small amount of hydroxide at a time, stirring continuously, and if you stop stirring for any reason, put the lids back on all containers.

If, in spite of all precautions, you get some hydroxide solution on your skin, wash it off with plenty of running cold water and apply some vinegar to the skin. Vinegar is acidic, and will help balance out the alkalinity of the hydroxide. You can use lemon juice if you don't have vinegar to hand - but it is always recommended to keep a bottle of vinegar handy.
Plate Cleansing:
Plate cleansing is always done with NaOH. Prepare a 5% to 10% (by weight) NaOH solution and let it cool down. A 5% solution ‘by weight’ is 50 grams of NaOH in 950 cc of water. A 10% solution ‘by weight’ is 100 grams of NaOH in 900 cc of water. As mentioned before, never handle the plates with your bare hands, but always use clean rubber gloves. Put the sanded and rinsed plates into the slots in the electrolyser case. Fill the electrolyser with the NaOH solution until the plates are just covered.

A voltage is now applied across the whole set of plates by attaching the leads to the outermost two plates. This voltage should be at least 2 volts per cell, but it should not exceed 2.5 volts per cell. Maintain this voltage across the set of plates for several hours at a time. The current is likely to be 4 amps or more. As this process continues, the boiling action will loosen particles from the pores and surfaces of the metal. This process produces hydroxy gas, so it is very important that the gas is not allowed to collect anywhere indoors (such as on ceilings).

After several hours, disconnect the electrical supply and pour the electrolyte solution into a container. Rinse out the cells thoroughly with distilled water. Filter the dilute NaOH solution through paper towels or coffee filters to remove the particles. Pour the dilute solution back into the electrolyser and repeat this cleaning process. You may have to repeat the electrolysis and rinsing process many times before the plates stop putting out particles into the solution. If you wish, you can use a new NaOH solution each time you cleanse, but you can go through a lot of solution just in this cleaning stage if you choose to do it that way. When cleansing is finished (typically, after three days), do a final rinse with clean distilled water. It is very important that during cleansing, during conditioning and during use, that the polarity of the electrical power is always the same. In other words, don’t swap the battery connections over as that destroys all the preparation work and requires the cleansing and conditioning processes to be carried out all over again.

Plate Conditioning:
Using the same concentration of NaOH solution as in cleansing, fill the electrolyser with the dilute solution up to 1/2" below the tops of the plates. Do not overfill the cells. Apply about 2 volts per cell and allow the unit to run. Remember that very good ventilation is essential during this process. The cells may overflow, but this is ok for now. As water is consumed, the levels will drop. Once the cells stabilise with the liquid level at the plate tops or just below, monitor the current draw. If the current draw is fairly stable, continue with this conditioning phase continuously for two to three days, adding just enough distilled water to replace what is consumed. If the solution changes colour or develops a layer of crud on the surface of the electrolyte, then the cell stack needs more cleansing stages. Do not allow the cells to overflow and overflow at this point. After two to three days of run time, pour out the dilute NaOH solution and rinse out the electrolyser thoroughly with distilled water. When the plates are conditioned, bubbles will not stick to them but will break away freely. The catalytic layer causes the plates to take on a bronze colouring.

Cell Operation:
Mix up a full-strength 28% ‘by weight’ solution of potassium hydroxide, that is 280 grams of KOH added to 720 cc of water. Fill the electrolyser of this design to about an 8-inch depth, which leaves some 4-inches of freeboard to help contain splashes caused by the very high rate of electrolysis. The DC voltage applied to the electrolyser will be about 2 volts per cell, so this 150-cell electrolyser will have about 300 volts applied to it. This voltage is generated by rectifying the 220 volt AC mains.

Troubleshooting:
1. Abnormally low current is caused by improper plate preparation or severe contamination. Take the plates out of the electrolyser and start over again from plate preparation.
2. Abnormally high current is caused by high leakages between cells. This will require the re-building or tightening up of the plate array case.
3. If current starts high and then drops off, this means that the plates are contaminated. Take the plates out of the electrolyser and start over again from plate preparation.
4. Any time there is uneven voltage distribution between cells in a series cell, it means that there is either a large variation in surface preparation from cell to cell, or there is ion leakage between the cells. Surface preparation issues will tend to show up as one or more cells having higher voltage, but not in any specific order. Ion leakage (also called bypass leakage) shows up as uneven voltage distribution, typically higher at the end cells.

Voltage distribution should be even, and within a few hundredths of a volt. Variation of tenths of a volt means that
there is a major problem. Make sure that your plate array is clamped tightly. Check for any place at all for liquid to flow, as this will allow ion leakage to bypass your central "floating" plates.

The Gas Produced:
Schoolteachers will tell you that the electrolysis of water produces hydrogen gas (H₂) and oxygen gas (O₂). While this is true, it is only part of the story. Water dissolves things so well that "pure" water really does not exist. Rain falling from the sky will have absorbed atmospheric gasses on its way down and is no longer “pure” by the time it reaches the ground.

As it flows along the surface of the ground and through the fabric of the landscape, it absorbs minerals of all descriptions, and as it flows down streams the splashing causes it to absorb more atmospheric gasses (which is just as well for the fish living in that water). If it reaches a water treatment plant, it will be injected with chlorine to kill the bacteria in it, and possibly fluorine to “improve the teeth” of the people who drink it.

Tap water is an electrolyte, but one where you don't know what is in it. Tap water samples taken in different towns will contain a very different mix of additives while samples taken in different countries will have even greater differences between them.

Most people would be inclined to say “who cares?” but this is an important matter when electrolysis of water is being considered. If you use tap water for electrolysis, then as the electrolysis proceeds, the “pure” water is removed as a mixture of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas. This releases the air dissolved in the water, so mixed with the hydroxy gas is an unknown amount of air which is 78% Nitrogen. The dissolved solids and any solids in suspension in the water, get left behind and they collect in the bottom of the electrolyser. As a large proportion of naturally occurring landscape has iron salts in it, a good deal of these may collect in the bottom of the electrolyser. One common element is iron oxide, commonly known as “rust” and although it is not the best, it is a conductor of electricity, so it has been known for electrolyser plates to get shorted out by a conductive layer building up between the plates. This short-circuits the plates, cuts the gas production and generates excess heat - generally, a condition to be avoided.

For this reason, it is strongly recommended that the working KOH electrolyte be made up with either distilled water or de-ionised water, and the water used for replacing the water lost through electrolysis also be distilled or de-ionised water. It should be realised that even when using distilled water, the hydroxy gas produced will also have dissolved air in it.

Supplying Water:
Surprisingly, supplying water to replace that which has been converted to hydroxy gas, is not a simple task. Firstly, there is a 5 psi gas pressure inside the electrolyser and so a one-way valve needs to be placed in the water supply line in order to prevent the gas pressure pushing the water out and letting gas escape through the water supply apparatus.

In addition, there is considerable difficulty in knowing when water is needed and how much should be introduced into the electrolyser and added to that is the difficulty in adding exactly the same amount to each of the 150 cells which are only 3 mm wide. While it is not essential that each of the 150 cells has exactly the same electrolyte level, it is very important that the added water is exactly the same amount for each cell, otherwise the cell electrolyte levels will get progressively out of step. There is a degree of automatic balancing of the levels in that a fuller cell is likely to produce slightly more gas and so use slightly more water, thus balancing the levels, but this slight difference cannot be relied on to offset unevenly supplied water.

Recently, Ed Holdgate and Tom Thayer designed a double-pipe arrangement for the water supply and it is said to work adequately, so using a slightly longer version of their design may well be a satisfactory solution. However, this part of the design should be considered as an area for careful checking under working conditions and possible future modification to provide an enhanced operation. Overall the operation would be:

![Diagram of electrolyser and water supply system]

The problem of assessing the correct electrolyte level is made more difficult by the severe bubbling caused by the electrolysis which will have the surface of the liquid in constant vertical motion. Optical sensing is not likely to be effective. Overall weight of the electrolyser is a possible guide but is an unusual approach to the problem and so is probably not a first choice. The normal approach is to use two wires as a sensor as electrical conduction will
take place when they are connected by electrolyte. However, this environment with low conductivity electrolyte being splashed all over the place makes for the possibility of somewhat erratic operation, but in spite of that, it is probably the best method.

For this style of sensor a pair of stiff stainless steel wires insulated in shrink wrap or a narrow plastic tube is run down between two of the central plates and positioned on opposite sides of the gap as shown here:

The electronic circuit being fed by this sensor will have a delay of several seconds so that bubbling does not cause false triggering of the water feed. In other words, the electronic sensor circuit will only power the water pump if the electrical connection through the electrolyte between the two sensor wires is lost for several consecutive seconds.

**Physical Construction:**

To a casual glance, the physical construction of a high-performance electrolyser looks simple but the reality is that it is anything but that. A low-performance electrolyser can have sloppy construction. There are some difficulties which have to be overcome in order to get a top performance.

1. It is vital to avoid having any kind of bypass path for the electrical current which would allow it to flow from the negative terminal to the positive terminal without passing through the electrode plates. While this sounds easy to achieve, it is not actually so.

2. It is important to extract the hydroxy gas from the electrolyser while leaving all of the electrolyte behind. This sounds obvious, but in high gas volume operations it is not a trivial thing to achieve.

3. It is important that the temperature of the electrolyser does not rise to an unacceptable level which could cause damage to the electrolyser case or fittings, or which could generate steam or excess water vapour which would dilute the hydroxy gas and lower the efficiency of the fuel.

4. It is important that there is no possibility of a spark being generated inside the electrolyser by a loose electrical connection.

The Bob Boyce electrolyser design is a very convenient construction for the user but it calls for precision construction to 0.0003” accuracy which is well outside the scope of amateur builders. A DC electrolysis unit does not have the need for this degree of accuracy and so I would suggest an adaptation of Bob Boyce’s style of construction for small boosters. This builds up an array of plates clamped together with threaded rods and held apart by U-shaped insulating spacers.

The spacers need to be made of a material which is slightly flexible so that when clamped between two steel plates it forms a completely watertight seal. The material also need to be wholly resistant to the strongly caustic KOH solution being used as an electrolyte.
This plate array can be a self-contained unit with the end plates reinforced against flexing with either a thick piece of acrylic plastic or by making them out of thick stainless steel. All metal components inside the electrolyser need to be made of the same grade of metal, otherwise galvanic erosion will take place as the whole inside of the electrolyser will have a damp conductive gas in it. The arrangement could be like this:

Here an evenly spaced ring of bolt holes to take 8 mm bolts is drilled around three edges of each of the 151 plates. The holes will be 8.5 mm in diameter if 8 mm threaded plastic rods are used. The spacing of the holes is just under two inches as 3 mm clearance is needed at the edges and the stainless steel plates supplied may not be exactly 2 feet by 1 foot but one sixteenth of a metric size plate. The exact plate size is not critical nor is the exact spacing of the threaded rods.

It may be preferred to use stainless steel threaded rods rather than the less robust plastic rods, in which case the hole diameter will be increased, probably to 10 mm or the threaded rod diameter reduced to 6 mm as the whole length of the rod running through the plates will be encased in plastic sleeving in order to prevent electrical contact between the plates and the rods as shown here:

The 150 gaskets match the edges of the plates and have a width of 6 mm greater than the diameter of the hole drilled for the rods which clamp the plate array together:
Applying this style of construction produces a compact plate array with the desired plate spacing, low accuracy components which can be obtained quite readily. The electrical connections to the end plates are TIG welded straps as shown here:

A rectangular hole is cut through the acrylic backing plate to allow a TIG welded strap of thick stainless steel to project through it and provide a good electrical connection. The strap is bolted through the outer case using a stainless steel bolt and a gasket to ensure that it will not allow gas to escape.

An outer case of thick acrylic can be used to house the plates, water-supply pipe, etc. and contain the hydroxy gas, forcing it to enter the gas supply pipe feed to the generator engine. The outer case is never made from any kind of metal no matter how attractive the idea seems. While the possibility of an explosion inside the electrolyser is most unlikely, safety is the number one priority and if an explosion were to take place inside a metal-cased electrolyser, then it would act like a landmine, scattering lethal shrapnel in every direction. Pop-off lids, and
shatter discs seem attractive options to many people, but these are useless with hydroxy gas which contains the ideal proportions of hydrogen fuel and oxygen, which when ignited produce a shock-wave so fast that these devices do not have time to operate. An electrolyser of the size and proportions suggested here contains far too much hydroxy gas to be contained by any kind of metal casing.

**Baffle System:**

It must be assumed that the high rate of gas production will cause splashing and even with having some four inches of plate above the surface of the electrolyser, that tiny droplets will be projected upwards above the plates. It is essential that these droplets are trapped and that any KOH vapour mixed with the hydroxy gas is removed before the gas is fed to the engine.

A set of baffles above the plates can be used to intercept any droplets and return them to the electrolyte again, and two bubblers can be used to wash any KOH vapour out of the hydroxy gas and protect both the engine and prevent a serious explosion in the unlikely event of a malfunction of the generator engine. The baffles can be made of acrylic and could be like this:

![Baffle System Diagram]

Ideally, the lower end of the lowest baffle plate is grooved so that there is a ridge on the underside of the baffle located just above each body of electrolyte so that any drips land directly where they should.

**The Outer Case:**

As this electrolyser design is built up from the separate self-contained components of the plate array, the water supply pipe pair and the baffle plate array, it is necessary to enclose these in an outer case as shown above. It could easily be thought that this case is of little consequence and so could be constructed from almost any material, but this is not so as the case has to be able to withstand prolonged exposure to strong KOH electrolyte and to be robust enough not to break if an attempt to pick it up off the floor.

A construction of this general size will have a substantial weight as it contains some 300 square feet of stainless steel sheet, plus more than three cubic feet of electrolyte weighing about 248 pounds or 113 Kg. So the plates and electrolyte will weigh about 1,000 pounds or 460 Kg. and therefore if it is intended that the electrolyser is to be picked up and moved, it will be necessary to place it on a pallet or use a steel plate under the case with angle irons at the corners and a central lifting point for a hoist.

Considering these facts, the case should be constructed from acrylic sheet 25 mm thick. Acrylic sheets can be connected together with a solvent which the supplier of the acrylic can provide. This does not ‘glue’ the sheets together but actually combines them into one integral piece with no join. Surprisingly, this actually calls for a high degree of precision in cutting the sheets which are to be joined together as the requirement is for a perfect mating of the two surfaces before the solvent is applied. It might be noted that Ed Holdgate who has high quality machine tools, years of experience and a high level of personal skill, sub-contracts the jointing of the acrylic components which go to make up a Bob Boyce electrolyser case.

**Bubblers:**

A fact which is easily overlooked is the sheer volume of gas coming off an electrolyser of this size. It is one thing to calculate the diameter of pipe needed to carry the gas flow, but another to realise that the same gas flow needs
to pass continuously through a bubbler and the bubbler design has to accommodate that volume and yet ensure that all of the gas comes into intimate contact with the water.

Perhaps then the first step is to establish a suitable pipe size for the gas flow. At this point in time it is not known exactly what efficiency and performance can be expected from this particular design operating on 300 volts and 30 amps of current. It is probably safe to predict that the gas rate will not exceed 250 litres per minute which is 4.2 litres per second.

Passing through a standard 90 mm (3.5”) diameter pipe of 63 sq. cm. cross-sectional area that would require a flow rate of 66 cm. per second or just over two feet per second. While that is possible and 10 bar pipe of that diameter is available at £4.40 plus VAT per metre.

The next standard pipe size is 110 mm (4.3") which has a cross-sectional area of 95 sq. cm. which would give a flow rate of 44 cm./sec. or just under 1.5 ft/sec. which is a perfectly reasonable rate of flow. The cost of that pipe in 10-bar rating is just over £6 plus VAT per metre.

The next standard pipe size is 160 mm (6.3") which has a cross-sectional area of 201 sq. cm. which would give a flow rate of 21 cm./sec. or just under 0.8 ft/sec. and the cost of that pipe in 10-bar rating is just over £14.23 plus VAT per metre.

These figures indicate that cost is not a significant factor and while moving from a reasonably convenient 90 mm diameter pipe to the much less convenient 160 mm size more than halves the flow rate, there does not seem to be any reason to go over the 90 mm size. The actual gas pressure in the electrolyser will be held down to 5 psi (0.36 bar) as compressing hydroxy gas is not a particularly safe thing to do. Consideration should be given to using piping which is specifically constructed to carry hydrogen, but it seems unlikely that it would be readily available in the larger sizes needed.

So, basing the bubbler dimensions on a 90 mm diameter pipe, the bubbler arrangement might be like this:

The objective being to ensure that there is a very large number of small bubbles streaming up through a considerable depth of water. The most suitable dimensions are a matter of opinion but as space is not an issue I would suggest the following:

The cross-sectional area of the inner diameter of the small diameter pipes laid on the bottom of the bubbler should exceed the cross-sectional area of the main incoming pipe. For clarity, the above diagram shows just six of these pipes but there is no reason why there should not be a much larger number. If there were just six pipes and an incoming pipe of diameter of 90 mm, then the small pipe diameter would be 18 mm internal diameter or greater.

It would also be good if the cross-sectional area of the holes drilled in these smaller pipes exceeded the cross-sectional area of the small pipe. As there should be a very large number of small holes, it is highly likely that it desirable target will be met quite easily.

I would suggest that the depth of water above the top of the small pipes be eight inches or 200 mm and that perhaps half of that depth be allowed between the water surface and the top of the container. The outlet pipe is
shown with a baffle, but with stationary operation, constant flow and the dimensions suggested, it is unlikely that it will have any significant work to do.

The piping between the electrolyser and the bubbler, and between the first bubbler and the second one, should be kept as short as is reasonable.

**Controlling Current Flow:**

In a DC electrolyser such as this one, the gas flow rate is directly proportional to the current flowing through the electrolyte. The amount of gas per amp of current is highly dependent on the electrical efficiency of the construction (something which the casual onlooker will not see). It does no harm to stress again that the plate cleansing and conditioning are of major importance. It is very difficult for most people to be patient during the preparation stages as they are impatient to see their construction performing, but it is vitally important for that performance that the construction and preparation are carried out fully and without haste, as with high-quality painting, the finished quality depends to a major extent on the preparation work undertaken before the finishing coats are applied. So too with electrolysers, the output efficiency depends heavily on the quality of the preparation work.

However, as the current flow is the controlling factor in the rate of gas production, having a circuit which holds the current flow steady even if conditions such as temperature were to alter. It is, of course, vital to have safety devices which cut off the electrolyser if the generator stops running. The high-power, high-voltage, constant-current circuit prototype being proposed for this application is intending to use the oil pressure of the generator as an indication of engine shutdown. It is also proposed that a 5 psi pressure switch be used to cut the electrical power if the internal pressure rises above its design level. However, the pressure switch is liable to be ineffective in this instance as the potential rate of gas production is so high and the gas is fed into open air side of the air filter which will allow it to escape and that would be dangerous unless the air intake is fed from a pipe which connects to the open air, in which case, excess hydroxy gas would escape harmlessly into the open where it would quickly disperse and cease to be a danger.

The proposed electrical supply arrangement is then:

**Enhancements:**

It has been remarked that high operating temperatures in the electrolyser are not welcome because of the production of steam and hot water vapour. In passing, the electrolyser could be placed in a water-cooled jacket or bath to keep the temperature down. This is not likely to be necessary as the electrolyser design is very efficient with two volts per cell, the best electrolyte and conditioned catalyst interface layers between the plates and the electrolyte.

Steam and hot water vapour are not wanted as they are not capable of expanding further and so they just take up space inside the engine cylinders, space which would much better be filled with a useful fuel like hydroxy gas. However, it is a very different matter if instead of steam a fine spray of water droplets is introduced instead. When
combustion takes place inside the cylinder, the temperature rises suddenly and those water droplets convert instantly into flash-steam, creating increased pressure on the piston, raising the engine power and doing it without using any fuel at all. It also lowers the running temperature of the engine which is generally beneficial and tends to give longer engine life.

Producing fine water droplets is not particularly easy, but some aquarium outlets, pet shops and garden centres can supply a “pond fogger” which does exactly that at low cost and low input current. It is distinctly possible that feeding the output of one or more of these into the air entering the engine may give an improvement in performance and fuel economy.
The High-Power Devices of Don Smith.

One of the most impressive developers of free-energy devices is Don Smith, who has produced many spectacular devices, generally with major power output. These are a result of his in-depth knowledge and understanding of the way that the environment works. Don says that his understanding comes from the work of Nikola Tesla as recorded in Thomas C. Martin's book "The Inventions, Researches, and Writings of Nikola Tesla" ISBN 0-7873-0582-0 available from http://www.healthresearchbooks.com, and various other book companies. This book can be downloaded from http://www.free-energy-info.tuks.nl as a pdf file, but a paper copy is much better quality and easier to work from.

Don states that he repeated each of the experiments found in the book and that gave him his understanding of what he prefers to describe as the 'ambient background energy' which is called the 'zero-point energy field' elsewhere in this eBook. Don remarks that he has now advanced further than Tesla in this field, partly because of the devices now available to him and which were not available when Tesla was alive.

Don stresses two key points. Firstly, a dipole can cause a disturbance in the magnetic component of the 'ambient background' and that imbalance allows you to collect large amounts of electrical power, using capacitors and inductors (coils). Secondly, you can pick up as many powerful electrical outputs as you want from that one magnetic disturbance, without depleting the magnetic disturbance in any way. This allows massively more power output than the small power needed to create the magnetic disturbance in the first place. This is what produces a COP>1 device and Don has created nearly fifty different devices based on that understanding.

Although they get removed quite frequently, there is one video which is definitely worth watching if it is still there. It is located at http://www.metacafe.com/watch/2820531/don_smith_free_energy/ and was recorded in 2006. It covers a good deal of what Don has done. In the video, reference is made to Don's website but you will find that it has been taken over by Big Oil who have filled it with innocuous similar-sounding things of no consequence, apparently intended to confuse newcomers. A website which is run by Conny Öström of Sweden is http://www.johnnyfg.110mb.com/ and it has brief details of his prototypes and theory. You will find the only document of his which I could locate, here http://www.free-energy-info.com/Smith.pdf in pdf format, and it contains the following patent on a most interesting device which appears to have no particular limit on the output power. This is a slightly re-worded copy of that patent as patents are generally worded in such a way as to make them difficult to understand.

Patent NL 02000035 A 20th May 2004 Inventor: Donald Lee Smith

TRANSFORMER GENERATOR MAGNETIC RESONANCE INTO ELECTRIC ENERGY

ABSTRACT
The present invention refers to an Electromagnetic Dipole Device and Method, where wasted radiated energy is transformed into useful energy. A Dipole as seen in Antenna Systems is adapted for use with capacitor plates in such a way that the Heaviside Current Component becomes a useful source of electrical energy.

DESCRIPTION
Technical Field:
This invention relates to loaded Dipole Antenna Systems and their Electromagnetic radiation. When used as a transformer with an appropriate energy collector system, it becomes a transformer/generator. The invention collects and converts energy which is radiated and wasted by conventional devices.
Background Art:
A search of the International Patent Database for closely related methods did not reveal any prior art with an interest in conserving radiated and wasted magnetic waves as useful energy.

DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION
The invention is a new and useful departure from transformer generator construction, such that radiated and wasted magnetic energy changes into useful electrical energy. Gauss meters show that much energy from conventional electromagnetic devices is radiated into the ambient background and wasted. In the case of conventional transformer generators, a radical change in the physical construction allows better access to the energy available. It is found that creating a dipole and inserting capacitor plates at right angles to the current flow, allows magnetic waves to change back into useful electrical (coulombs) energy. Magnetic waves passing through the capacitor plates do not degrade and the full impact of the available energy is accessed. One, or as many sets of capacitor plates as is desired, may be used. Each set makes an exact copy of the full force and effect of the energy present in the magnetic waves. The originating source is not depleted of degraded as is common in conventional transformers.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS
The Dipole at right angles, allows the magnetic flux surrounding it to intercept the capacitor plate, or plates, at right angles. The electrons present are spun such that the electrical component of each electron is collected by the capacitor plates. Essential parts are the South and North component of an active Dipole. Examples presented here exist as fully functional prototypes and were engineer constructed and fully tested in use by the Inventor. In each of the three examples shown in the drawings, corresponding parts are used.

Fig.1 is a View of the Method, where N is the North and S is the South component of the Dipole.

Here, 1 marks the Dipole with its North and South components. 2 is a resonant high-voltage induction coil. 3 indicates the position of the electromagnetic wave emission from the Dipole. 4 indicates the position and flow direction of the corresponding Heaviside current component of the energy flow caused by the induction coil 2. 5 is the dielectric separator for the capacitor plates 7. 6 for the purposes of this drawing, indicates a virtual limit for the scope of the electromagnetic wave energy.
In Fig.2A 1 is the hole in the capacitor plates through which the Dipole is inserted and in Fig.2B it is the Dipole with its North and South poles shown. 2 is the resonant high-voltage induction coil surrounding part of the Dipole 1. The dielectric separator 5, is a thin sheet of plastic placed between the two capacitor plates 7, the upper plate being made of aluminium and the lower plate made of copper. Unit 8 is a deep-cycle battery system powering a DC inverter 9 which produces 120 volts at 60 Hz (the US mains supply voltage and frequency, obviously, a 240 volt 50 Hz inverter could be used here just as easily) which is used to power whatever equipment is to be driven by the device. The reference number 10 just indicates connecting wires. Unit 11 is a high-voltage generating device such as a neon transformer with its oscillating power supply.

Fig.3 is a Proof Of Principal Device using a Plasma Tube as an active Dipole. In this drawing, 5 is the plastic sheet dielectric separator of the two plates 7 of the capacitor, the upper plate being aluminium and the lower plate copper. The connecting wires are marked 10 and the plasma tube is designated 15. The plasma tube is four feet long (1.22 m) and six inches (150 mm) in diameter. The high-voltage energy source for the active plasma dipole is marked 16 and there is a connector box 17 shown as that is a convenient method of connecting to the capacitor plates when running tests on the device.
Fig. 4 shows a Manufacturer's Prototype, constructed and fully tested. 1 is a metal Dipole rod and 2 the resonant high-voltage induction coil, connected through wires 10 to connector block 17 which facilitates the connection of it's high-voltage power supply. Clamps 18 hold the upper edge of the capacitor packet in place and 19 is the base plate with it's supporting brackets which hold the whole device in place. 20 is a housing which contains the capacitor plates and 21 is the point at which the power output from the capacitor plates is drawn off and fed to the DC inverter.

**BEST METHOD OF CARRYING OUT THE INVENTION**

The invention is applicable to any and all electrical energy requirements. The small size and it's high efficiency make it an attractive option, especially for remote areas, homes, office buildings, factories, shopping centres, public places, transportation, water systems, electric trains, boats, ships and 'all things great and small'. The construction materials are commonly available and only moderate skill levels are needed to make the device.

**CLAIMS**

1. Radiated magnetic flux from the Dipole, when intercepted by capacitor plates at right angles, changes into useful electrical energy.

2. A Device and Method for converting for use, normally wasted electromagnetic energy.

3. The Dipole of the Invention is any resonating substance such as Metal Rods, Coils and Plasma Tubes which have interacting Positive and Negative components.

4. The resulting Heaviside current component is changed to useful electrical energy.

***************

This patent does not make it clear that the device needs to be tuned and that the tuning is related to its physical location. The tuning will be accomplished by applying a variable-frequency input signal to the neon transformer and adjusting that input frequency to give the maximum output.

Don Smith has produced some forty eight different devices, and because he understands that the real power in the universe is magnetic and not electric, these devices have performances which appear staggering to people trained to think that electrical power is the only source of power.
The device shown below is physically quite small and yet it has an output of 160 kilowatts (8000 volts at 20 amps) from an input of 12 volts 1 amp (COP = 13,333):

This is a device which can be placed on top of a table and is not a complicated form of construction, having a very open and simplistic layout. However, some components are not mounted on this board. The twelve volt battery and connecting leads are not shown, nor are the ground connections, the step-down isolation transformer and the varistor used to protect the load from over-voltage by absorbing any random induced voltage spikes which might occur.

The device shown above has various subtle points glossed over in spite of this being one device which Don says that we should be able to reproduce ourselves. Let me state here that reproducing this seemingly simple design of Don's is not an easy thing to do and it is not something which can be thrown together by a beginner using whatever components happen to be at hand at the time. Having said that, with careful study and commonsense application of some obvious facts, it should be possible to make one of these devices, but more of these things later on when a much more detailed description of this device is given.

Another of Don's devices, somewhat similar to the one described in his patent, is shown here:

This is a larger device which uses a plasma tube four feet (1.22 m) long and 6 inches (150 mm) in diameter. The output is a massive 100 kilowatts. This is the design shown as one of the options in Don's patent. Being an
Electrical Engineer, none of Don's prototypes are in the "toy" category. If nothing else is taken from Don's work, we should realise that high power outputs can be had from very simple devices.

There is one other brief document "Resonate Electrical Power System" from Don Smith which says:

Potential Energy is everywhere at all times, becoming useful when converted into a more practical form. There is no energy shortage, only grey matter. This energy potential is observed indirectly through the manifestation of electromagnetic phenomenon, when intercepted and converted, becomes useful. In nonlinear systems, interaction of magnetic waves amplify (conjugate) energy, providing greater output than input. In simple form, in the piano where three strings are struck by the hammer, the centre one is impacted and resonance activates the side strings. Resonance between the three strings provides a sound level greater than the input energy. Sound is part of the electromagnetic spectrum and is subject to all that is applicable to it.

"Useful Energy" is defined as "that which is other than Ambient". "Electric Potential" relates to mass and it's acceleration. Therefore, the Earth's Mass and Speed through space, gives it an enormous electrical potential. Humans are like the bird sitting unaware on a high voltage line. in nature, turbulence upsets ambient and we see electrical displays. Tampering with ambient, allows humans to convert magnetic waves into useful electricity.

Putting this in focus, requires a look at the Earth in general. During each of the 1,440 minutes of each day, more than 4,000 displays of lightning occur. Each display yields more than 10,000,000 volts at more than 200,000 amperes in equivalent electromagnetic flux. This is more than 57,600,000,000,000 volts and 1,152,000,000,000 amperes of electromagnetic flux during each 24 hour period. This has been going on for more than 4 billion years. The USPTO insist that the Earth's electrical field is insignificant, goes the way of their other claims. Coulomb's Law requires the squaring of the distance of the remote reading, multiplied by the recorded intensity. Therefore, the Earth's field has a corrected value of 1,900 x 1,000 x 1,000 = 1,900,000,000 gamma.

There is a tendency to confuse "gamma ray" with "gamma". "Gamma" is ordinary, everyday magnetic flux, while "gamma ray" is high-impact energy and not flux. One gamma of magnetic flux is equal to that of 100 volts RMS. To see this, take a Plasma Globe emitting 40,000 volts. When properly used, a gamma meter placed nearby, will read 400 gammas. The 1,900,000,000 gamma just mentioned, is the magnetic ambient equivalent of 190,000,000 volts of electricity. This is on a "Solar Quiet" day. On "Solar Active" days it may exceed five times that amount. The Establishment's idea that the Earth's electrical field is insignificant, goes the way of their other great ideas.

There are two kinds of electricity: "potential" and "useful". All electricity is "potential" until it is converted. The resonant-fluxing of electrons, activates the electrical potential which is present everywhere. The intensity/CPS of the resonant-frequency-flux rate, sets the available energy. This must then be converted into the required physical dimensions of the equipment being used. For example, energy arriving from the Sun is magnetic flux, which solar cells convert to DC electricity, which is then converted further to suit the equipment being powered by it. Only the magnetic flux moves from point "A" (the Sun) to point "B" (the Earth). All electrical power systems work in exactly the same way. Movement of Coils and Magnets at point "A" (the generator) fluxes electrons, which in turn, excite electrons at point "B" (your house). None of the electrons at point "A" are ever transmitted to point "B". In both cases, the electrons remain forever intact and available for further fluxing. This is not allowed by Newtonian Physics (electrodynamics and the laws of conservation). Clearly, these laws are all screwed up and inadequate.

In modern physics, USPTO style, all of the above cannot exist because it opens a door to overunity. The good news is that the PTO has already issued hundreds of Patents related to Light Amplification, all of which are overunity. The Dynode used to adjust the self-powered shutter in your camera, receives magnetic flux from light which dislodges electrons from the cathode, reflecting electrons through the dynode bridge to the anode, resulting in billions of more electrons out than in. There are currently, 297 direct patents issued for this system, and thousands of peripheral patents, all of which support overunity. More than a thousand other Patents which have been issued, can be seen by the discerning eye to be overunity devices. What does this indicate about Intellectual Honesty?

Any coil system, when fluxed, causes electrons to spin and produce useful energy, once it is converted to the style required by its use. Now that we have described the method which is required, let us now see how this concerns us.
The entire System already exists and all that we need to do is to hook it up in a way which is useful to our required manner of use. Let us examine this backwards and start with a conventional output transformer. Consider one which has the required voltage and current handling characteristics and which acts as an isolation transformer. Only the magnetic flux passes from the input winding to the output winding. No electrons pass through from the input side to the output side. Therefore, we only need to flux the output side of the transformer to have an electrical output. Bad design by the establishment, allowing hysteresis of the metal plates, limits the load which can be driven. Up to this point, only potential is a consideration. Heat (which is energy loss) limits the output amperage. Correctly designed composite cores run cool, not hot.

A power correction factor system, being a capacitor bank, maintains an even flow of flux. These same capacitors, when used with a coil system (a transformer) become a frequency-timing system. Therefore, the inductance of the input side of the transformer, when combined with the capacitor bank, provides the required fluxing to produce the required electrical energy (cycles per second).

With the downstream system in place, all that is needed now is a potential system. Any flux system will be suitable. Any amplification over-unity output type is desirable. The input system is point "A" and the output system is point "B". Any input system where a lesser amount of electrons disturbs a greater amount of electrons - producing an output which is greater than the input - is desirable.

At this point, it is necessary to present updated information about electrons and the laws of physics. A large part of this, originates from me (Don Smith) and so is likely to upset people who are rigidly set in the thought patterns of conventional science.

**Non-Ionic Electrons**

As a source of electrical energy, non-ionic electrons doublets exist in immense quantities throughout the universe. Their origin is from the emanation of Solar Plasma. When ambient electrons are disturbed by being spun or pushed apart, they yield both magnetic and electrical energy. The rate of disturbance (cycling) determines the energy level achieved. Practical methods of disturbing them include, moving coils past magnets or vice versa. A better way is the pulsing (resonant induction) with magnetic fields and waves near coils.

In coil systems, magnetic and amperage are one package. This suggests that electrons in their natural non-ionic state, exist as doublets. When pushed apart by agitation, one spins right (yielding Volts-potential electricity) and the other spins left (yielding Amperage-magnetic energy), one being more negative than the other. This further suggests that when they reunite, we have (Volts x Amps = Watts) useful electrical energy. Until now, this idea has been totally absent from the knowledge base. The previous definition of Amperage is therefore flawed.

**Electron Related Energy**

Left hand spin of electrons results in Electrical Energy and right hand spin results in Magnetic Energy. Impacted electrons emit visible Light and heat.
Useful Circuits, Suggestions for Building an Operational Unit

1. Substitute a Plasma Globe such as Radio Shack's "Illumna-Storm" for the source-resonant induction system. It will have about 400 milligauss of magnetic induction. One milligauss is equal to 100 volts worth of magnetic induction.

2. Construct a coil using a 5-inch to 7-inch (125 to 180 mm) diameter piece of PVC for the coil former.

3. Get about 30 feet (10 m) of Jumbo-Speaker Cable and separate the two strands. This can be done by sticking a carpet knife into a piece of cardboard or wood, and then pulling the cable carefully past the blade to separate the two insulated cores from each other. (PJK Note: "Jumbo-Speaker Cable" is a vague term as that cable comes in many varieties, with anything from a few, to over 500 strands in each core).

4. Wind the coil with 10 to 15 turns of wire and leave about 3 feet (1 m) of cable spare at each end of the coil. Use a glue gun to hold the start and finish of the coil.

5. This will become the "L - 2" coil shown in the Circuits page.

6. When sitting on top of the Plasma Globe (like a crown) you have a first-class resonant air-core coil system.

7. Now, substitute two or more capacitors (rated at 5,000 volts or more) for the capacitor bank shown on the Circuits page. I use more than two 34 microfarad capacitors.

8. Finish out the circuit as shown. You are now in business !

9. Voltage - Amperage limiting resistors are required across the output side of the Load transformer. These are used to adjust the output level and the desired cycles per second.
**Don Smith's Suggestions:** Get a copy of the "Handbook of Electronic Tables and Formulas", published by Sams, ISBN 0-672-22469-0, also an Inductance/Capacitance/Resistance meter is required. Chapter 1 of Don's pdf document has important time-constant (frequency) information and a set of reactance charts in nomograph style ("nomograph": a graph, usually containing three parallel scales graduated for different variables so that when a straight line connects values of any two, the related value may be read directly from the third at the point intersected by the line) which makes working, and approximating of the three variables (capacitance, inductance and resistance) much easier. If two of the variables are known, then the third one can be read from the nomograph.

For example, if the input side of the isolation transformer needs to operate at 60 Hz, that is 60 positive cycles and 60 negative cycles, being a total of 120 cycles. Read off the inductance in Henries by using an Inductance meter attached to the input side of the isolation transformer. Plot this value on the (nomographic) reactance chart. Plot the needed 120 Hz on the chart and connect these two points with a straight line. Where this line crosses the Farads line and the Ohms line, gives us two values. Choose one (resistor) and insert it between the two leads of the transformer input winding.

The Power Correction Factor Capacitor (or bank of more than one capacitor) now needs adjusting. The following formula is helpful in finding this missing information. The capacitance is known, as is the desired potential to pulse the output transformer. One Farad of capacitance is one volt for one second (one Coulomb). Therefore, if we want to keep the bucket full with a certain amount, how many dippers full are needed? If the bucket needs 120 volts, then how many coulombs are required?

\[
\frac{\text{Desired Voltage}}{\text{Capacitance in Microfarads}} = \text{Required frequency in Hz}
\]

Now, go to the nomograph mentioned above, and find the required resistor jumper to place between the poles of the Correction Factor Capacitor.

An earth grounding is desirable, acting as both a voltage-limiter and a transient spike control. Two separate earths are necessary, one at the Power Factor Capacitor and one at the input side of the isolation transformer. Off-the-shelf surge arrestors / spark gaps and varistors having the desired voltage/potential and amperage control are commonly available. Siemens, Citel America and others, make a full range of surge arrestors, etc. Varistors look like coin-sized flat capacitors. Any of these voltage limiters are marked as "V - 1" in the following text.
It should be obvious that several separate closed circuits are present in the suggested configuration: The power input source, the high-voltage module, a power factor capacitor bank combined with the input side of the isolation transformer. Lastly, the output side of the isolation transformer and its load. None of the electrons active at the power source (battery) are passed through the system for use downstream. At any point, if the magnetic flux rate should happen to vary, then the number of active electrons also varies. Therefore, controlling the flux rate controls the electron (potential) activity. Electrons active at point "A" are not the same electrons which are active at point "B", or those at point "C", and so on. If the magnetic flux rate (frequency Hz) varies, then a different number of electrons will be disturbed. This does not violate any Natural Law and it does produce more output energy than the input energy, should that be desirable.

A convenient high-voltage module is a 12 volt DC neon tube transformer. The Power Factor Correction Capacitors should be as many microfarads as possible as this allows a lower operating frequency. The 12-volt neon tube transformer oscillates at about 30,000 Hz. At the Power Correction Factor Capacitor bank we lower the frequency to match the input side of the isolation transformer.

Other convenient high-voltage sources are car ignition coils, television flyback transformers, laser printer modules, and various other devices. Always lower the frequency at the Power Factor Correction Capacitor and correct, if needed, at the input side of the isolation transformer. The isolation transformer comes alive when pulsed. Amperage becomes a part of the consideration only at the isolation transformer. Faulty design, resulting in hysteresis, creates heat which self-destructs the transformer if it is overloaded. Transformers which have a composite core instead of the more common cores made from many layers of thin sheets of soft iron, run cool and can tolerate much higher amperage.
Resonate Electromagnetic Power System

Power Source:  
- B-1 Gelcell, 12 Volt, 7 Amp Hour  
- D-1 Kick back protection for L-1  
- L-1 Bertonee, NPS-12D8, constant burn Neon Tube transformer, Bertonee, Boston, MS

Power Conditioner: C-1, Capacitor or Capacitor Bank, 8,000 microfarads for 480 volts DC. R-1, Resistor used to set electron pump rate, frequency of the capacitor. Maintains the desired voltage level required to operate the system.

Voltage Control: V-1, Varistor, limits the voltage as required for the Output Transformer L-2. (480 V @ 60 Amps)

Output Transformer: Isolation Type, (L-2 / L-3) with R-2 (resistor) correcting the output frequency to 60 CPS, being 60 UP and 60 DN (120 total). (28.8 KVA)

Useful Timing Formulas:

\[ T = \text{frequency in cycles per second} \]
\[ C = \text{capacitance in microfarads} \]
\[ L = \text{Inductance in millihenries} \]
\[ R = \text{resistance in ohms} \]

Therefore: \[ T = \frac{RC}{L} \] and \[ T = \frac{L}{R} \]
The information shown above, relates to the small Suitcase Model demonstrated at the 1996 Tesla Convention, presented as Don Smith's Workshop. This unit was a very primitive version and newer versions have atomic batteries and power output ranges of Gigawatts. The battery requirement is low level and is no more harmful than the radium on the dial of a clock. Commercial units of Boulder Dam size are currently being installed at several major locations throughout the world. For reasons of Don's personal security and contract obligations, the information which he has shared here, is incomplete.


Chapman and Bartels, "Geomagnetism", 3 vol., Oxford University Press, 1940


PJK: I am most definitely not an expert in this area. However, it is probably worth mentioning some of the main points which Don Smith appears to be making. There are some very important points being made here, and grasping these may make a considerable difference to our ability to tap into the excess energy available in our local environment. There are four points worth mentioning:

1. **Voltage**
2. **Frequency**
3. Magnetic / Electric relationship
4. **Resonance**

### 1. Voltage

We tend to view things with an 'intuitive' view, generally based on fairly simple concepts. For example, we automatically think that it is more difficult to pick up a heavy object than to pick up a light one. How much more difficult? Well, if it is twice as heavy, it would probably be about twice as much effort to pick it up. This view has developed from our experience of things which we have done in the past, rather than on any mathematical calculation or formula.

Well, how about pulsing an electronic system with a voltage? How would the output power of a system be affected by increasing the voltage? Our initial 'off-the-cuff' reaction might be that the power output might be increased a bit, but then hold on... we've just remembered that Watts = Volts x Amps, so if you double the voltage, then you would double the power in watts. So we might settle for the notion that if we doubled the voltage then we could double the output power. If we thought that, then we would be wrong.

Don Smith points out that as capacitors and coils store energy, if they are involved in the circuit, then the output power is proportional to the **square** of the voltage used. Double the voltage, and the output power is four times greater. Use three times the voltage and the output power is nine times greater. Use ten times the voltage and the output power is one hundred times greater!
Don says that the energy stored, multiplied by the cycles per second, is the energy being pumped by the system. Capacitors and inductors (coils) temporarily store electrons, and their performance is given by:

**Capacitor formula:** \[ W = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times Hz \] where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules (Joules = Volts x Amps x seconds)
- \( C \) is the capacitance in Farads
- \( V \) is the voltage
- \( Hz \) is the cycles per second

**Inductor formula:** \[ W = 0.5 \times L \times A^2 \times Hz \] where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules
- \( L \) is the inductance in henrys
- \( A \) is the current in amps
- \( Hz \) is the frequency in cycles per second

You will notice that where inductors (coils) are involved, then the output power goes up with the square of the current. Double the voltage and double the current gives four times the power output due to the increased voltage and that increased output is increased by a further four times due to the increased current, giving sixteen times the output power.

2. **Frequency.** You will notice from the formulas above, that the output power is directly proportional to the frequency "Hz". The frequency is the number of cycles per second (or pulses per second) applied to the circuit. This is something which is not intuitive for most people. If you double the rate of pulsing, then you double the power output. When this sinks in, you suddenly see why Nikola Tesla tended to use millions of volts and millions of pulses per second.

However, Don Smith states that when a circuit is at its point of resonance, resistance in the circuit drops to zero and the circuit becomes effectively, a superconductor. The energy for such a system which is in resonance is:

**Resonant circuit:** \[ W = 0.5 \times C \times V^2 \times (Hz)^2 \] where:
- \( W \) is the energy in Joules
- \( C \) is the capacitance in Farads
- \( V \) is the voltage
- \( Hz \) is the cycles per second

If this is correct, then raising the frequency in a resonating circuit has a massive effect on the power output of the device. The question then arises: why is the mains power in Europe just fifty cycles per second and in America just sixty cycles per second? If power goes up with frequency, then why not feed households at a million cycles per second? One major reason is that it is not easy to make electric motors which can be driven with power delivered at that frequency, so a more suitable frequency is chosen in order to suit the motors in vacuum cleaners, washing machines and other household equipment.
However, if we want to extract energy from the environment, then we should go for high voltage and high frequency. Then, when high power has been extracted, if we want a low frequency suited to electric motors, we can pulse the already captured power at that low frequency.

It might be speculated that if a device is being driven with sharp pulses which have a very sharply rising leading edge, that the effective frequency of the pulsing is actually determined by the speed of that rising edge, rather than the rate at which the pulses are actually generated. For example, if pulses are being generated at, say, 50 kHz but the pulses have a leading edge which would be suited to a 200 kHz pulse train, then the device might well see the signal as a 200 kHz signal with a 25% Mark/Space ratio, the very suddenness of the applied voltage having a magnetic shocking effect equivalent to a 200 kHz pulse train.

3. Magnetic / Electric relationship. Don states that the reason why our present power systems are so inefficient is because we concentrate on the electric component of electromagnetism. These systems are always COP<1 as electricity is the 'losses' of electromagnetic power. Instead, if you concentrate on the magnetic component, then there is no limit on the electric power which can be extracted from that magnetic component. Contrary to what you might expect, if you install a pick-up system which extracts electrical energy from the magnetic component, you can install any number of other identical pick-ups, each of which extract the same amount of electrical energy from the magnetic input, without loading the magnetic wave in any way. Unlimited electrical output for the 'cost' of creating a single magnetic effect.

The magnetic effect which we want to create is a ripple in the zero-point energy field, and ideally, we want to create that effect while using very little power. Creating a dipole with a battery which has a Plus and a Minus terminal or a magnet which has North and South poles, is an easy way to do create an electromagnetic imbalance in the local environment. Pulsing a coil is probably an even better way as the magnetic field reverses rapidly if it is an air-core coil, such as a Tesla Coil. Using a ferromagnetic core to the coil can create a problem as iron can't reverse it's magnetic alignment very rapidly, and ideally, you want pulsing which is at least a thousand times faster than iron can handle.

Don draws attention to the "Transmitter / Receiver" educational kit "Resonant Circuits #10-416" which was supplied by The Science Source, Maine. This kit demonstrated the generation of resonant energy and it's collection with a receiver circuit. However, if several receiver circuits are used, then the energy collected is increased several times without any increase in the transmitted energy. This is similar to a radio transmitter where hundreds of thousands of radio receivers can receive the transmitted signal without loading the transmitter in any way. In Don's day, this kit was driven by a 1.5 volt battery and lit a 60-watt bulb which was supplied. Not surprisingly, that kit has been discontinued and a trivial kit substituted.

If you get the Science Source educational kit, then there are some details which you need to watch out for. The unit has two very nice quality plastic bases and two very neatly wound coils each of 60 turns of 0.47 mm diameter enamelled copper wire on clear acrylic tubes 57 mm (2.25") in diameter. The winding covers a 28 mm section of the tube. The layout of the transmitter and receiver modules does not match the accompanying instruction sheet and so considerable care needs to be taken when wiring up any of their circuits. The circuit diagrams are not shown, just a wiring diagram, which is not great from an educational point of view. The one relevant circuit is:

Before you buy the kit, it is not mentioned that in order to use it, you now need a signal generator capable of producing a 10-volt signal at 1 MHz. The coil has a DC resistance of just 1.9 ohms but at a 1 MHz resonant frequency, the necessary drive power is quite low.

A variable capacitor is mounted on the receiver coil tube, but the one in my kit made absolutely no difference to the frequency tuning, nor was my capacitance meter able to determine any capacitance value for it at all, even
though it had no trouble at all in measuring the 101 pF capacitor which was exactly the capacitance printed on it. For that reason, it is shown in blue in the circuit diagram above. Disconnecting it made no difference whatsoever.

In this particular kit, standard screw connectors have had one screw replaced with an Allen key headed bolt which has a head large enough to allow finger tightening. Unfortunately, those bolts have a square cut tip where a domed tip is essential if small diameter wires are to be clamped securely. If you get the kit, then I suggest that you replace the connectors with a standard electrical screw connector strip.

In tests, the LED lights up when the coils are aligned and within about 100 mm of each other, or if they are close together side by side. This immediately makes the Hubbard device spring to mind. Hubbard has a central "electromagnetic transmitter" surrounded by a ring of "receivers" closely coupled magnetically to the transmitter, each of which will receive a copy of the energy sent by the transmitter:

Don points to an even more clearly demonstrated occurrence of this effect in the Tesla Coil. In a typical Tesla Coil, the primary coil is much larger diameter than the inner secondary coil:

If, for example, 8,000 volts is applied to the primary coil which has four turns, then each turn would have 2,000 volts of potential. Each turn of the primary coil transfers electromagnetic flux to every single turn of the secondary winding, and the secondary coil has a very large number of turns. Massively more power is produced in the secondary coil than was used to energise the primary coil. A common mistake is to believe that a Tesla Coil can't produce serious amperage. If the primary coil is positioned in the middle of the secondary coil as shown, then the amperage generated will be as large as the voltage generated. A low power input to the primary coil can produce kilowatts of usable electrical power as described in chapter 5.

4. Resonance. An important factor in circuits aimed at tapping external energy is resonance. It can be hard to see where this comes in when it is an electronic circuit which is being considered. However, everything has its own resonant frequency, whether it is a coil or any other electronic component. When components are connected together to form a circuit, the circuit has an overall resonant frequency. As a simple example, consider a swing:
If the swing is pushed before it reaches the highest point on the mother's side, then the push actually opposes the swinging action. The time of one full swing is the resonant frequency of the swing, and that is determined by the length of the supporting ropes holding the seat and not the weight of the child nor the power with which the child is pushed. Provided that the timing is exactly right, a very small push can get a swing moving in a substantial arc. The key factor is, matching the pulses applied to the swing, that is, to the resonant frequency of the swing. Get it right and a large movement is produced. Get it wrong, and the swing doesn't get going at all (at which point, critics would say "see, see ...swings just don't work - this proves it !!"). This principle is demonstrated in the video at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=irwK1VfoiOA.

Establishing the exact pulsing rate needed for a resonant circuit is not particularly easy, because the circuit contains coils (which have inductance, capacitance and resistance), capacitors (which have capacitance and a small amount of resistance) and resistors and wires, both of which have resistance and some capacitance. These kinds of circuit are called "LRC" circuits because "L" is the symbol used for inductance, "R" is the symbol used for resistance and "C" is the symbol used for capacitance.

Don Smith provides instructions for winding and using the type of air-core coils needed for a Tesla Coil. He says:

1. Decide a frequency and bear in mind, the economy of the size of construction selected. The factors are:
   (a) Use radio frequency (above 20 kHz).
   (b) Use natural frequency, i.e. match the coil wire length to the frequency - coils have both capacitance and inductance.
   (c) Make the wire length either one quarter, one half of the full wavelength.
   (d) Calculate the wire length in feet as follows:
      - If using one quarter wavelength, then divide 247 by the frequency in MHz.
      - If using one half wavelength, then divide 494 by the frequency in MHz.
      - If using the full wavelength, then divide 998 by the frequency in MHz.
   For wire lengths in metres:
      - If using one quarter wavelength, then divide 75.29 by the frequency in MHz.
      - If using one half wavelength, then divide 150.57 by the frequency in MHz.
      - If using the full wavelength, then divide 304.19 by the frequency in MHz.

2. Choose the number of turns to be used in the coil when winding it using the wire length just calculated. The number of turns will be governed by the diameter of the tube on which the coil is to be wound. Remember that the ratio of the number of turns in the "L - 1" and "L - 2" coils, controls the overall output voltage. For example, if the voltage applied the large outer coil "L - 1" is 2,400 volts and L - 1 has ten turns, then each turn of L - 1 will have 240 volts dropped across it. This 240 volts of magnetic induction transfers 240 volts of electricity to every turn of wire in the inner "L - 2" coil. If the diameter of L - 2 is small enough to have 100 turns, then the voltage produced will be 24,000 volts. If the diameter of the L - 2 former allows 500 turns, then the output voltage will be 120,000 volts.

3. Choose the length and diameter of the coils. The larger the diameter of the coil, the fewer turns can be made with the wire length and so the coil length will be less, and the output voltage will be lower.

4. For example, if 24.7 MHz is the desired output frequency, then the length of wire, in feet, would be 247 divided by 24.7 which is 10 feet of wire (3,048 mm). The coil may be wound on a standard size of PVC pipe or alternatively, it can be purchased from a supplier - typically, an amateur radio supply store. If the voltage on each turn of L - 1 is arranged to be 24 volts and the desired output voltage 640 volts, then there needs to be 640 / 24 = 26.66 turns on L - 2, wound with the 10 feet of wire already calculated.

   Note: At this point, Don's calculations go adrift and he suggests winding 30 turns on a 2-inch former. If you do that, then it will take about 16 feet of wire and the resonant point at 10-feet will be at about 19 turns, giving an output voltage of 458 volts instead of the required 640 volts, unless the number of turns on L - 1 is reduced to give more than 24 volts per turn. However, the actual required diameter of the coil former (plus one diameter of the wire) is 10 x 12 / (26.67 x 3.14159) = 1.43 inches. You can make this size of former up quite easily if you want to stay with ten turns on the L - 1 coil.

5. Connect to the start of the coil. To determine the exact resonant point on the coil, a measurement is made. Off-the-shelf multimeters are not responsive to high-frequency signals so a cheap neon is used instead. Holding one wire of the neon in one hand and running the other neon wire along the outside of the L - 2 winding, the point of brightest light is located. Then the neon is moved along that turn to find the brightest point along that turn, and when it is located, a connection is made to the winding at that exact point. L - 2 is
now a resonant winding. It is possible to increase the ("Q") effectiveness of the coil by spreading the turns out a bit instead of positioning them so that each turn touches both of the adjacent turns.

6. The input power has been suggested as 2,400 volts. This can be constructed from a Jacob's ladder arrangement or any step-up voltage system. An off-the-shelf module as used with lasers is another option.

7. Construction of the L - 1 input coil has been suggested as having 10 turns. The length of the wire in this coil is not critical. If a 2-inch diameter PVC pipe was used for the L - 2 coil, then the next larger size of PVC pipe can be used for the L - 1 coil former. Cut a 10-turn length of the pipe (probably a 3-inch diameter pipe). The pipe length will depend on the diameter of the insulated wire used to make the winding. Use a good quality multimeter or a specialised LCR meter to measure the capacitance (in Farads) and the inductance (in henrys) of the L - 2 coil. Now, put a capacitor for matching L - 1 to L - 2 across the voltage input of L - 1, and a spark gap connected in parallel is required for the return voltage from L - 1. A trimmer capacitor for L - 1 is desirable.

8. The performance of L - 2 can be further enhanced by attaching an earth connection to the base of the coil. The maximum output voltage will be between the ends of coil L - 2 and lesser voltages can be taken off intermediate points along the coil if that is desirable.

This frequency information can be rather hard to understand in the way that Don states it. It may be easier to follow the description given by one developer who says:

I have noticed that any machine can be made a super machine just by adding a bipolar capacitor across the coil. Nothing else is needed. With the correct capacitor the coil becomes Naturally Resonant and uses very little Amperage. Each machine uses a different size capacitor. The correct capacitor size can be calculated by dividing the speed of light by the coil's wire length first to get the coil's Natural Frequency and then dividing the voltage to be used by that frequency. The result is the correct size for the capacitor. Your machine will then be very powerful even working from a 12V car battery, no other additions needed.

My coil's wire length is 497.333 meters.
299000000 m/sec / 497.333 m = 600000 Hz.
12V / 600000 = 0.00002 or 20 microfarads. A beautiful Naturally Resonant Tank circuit. You can use this with any coil for overunity!

Once we have a Naturally Resonant Coil/Capacitor combination we can bring the frequency down to 50 Hz by calculating for the Power Factor Correction:

\[
\text{Hz} = \text{Resistance} \times \text{Farads}
\]

so \[ 50 \div 0.00002 = 2500000 \]
and \[ R = 2500000 \text{ or } 2.5 \text{ Meg Ohms.} \]

We then place all three components in parallel and our coil should give us a 50 Hz output.

Don provides quite an amount of information on one of his devices shown here:
Without his description of the device, it would be difficult to understand its construction and method of operation. As I understand it, the circuit of what is mounted on this board is as shown here:

This arrangement has bothered some readers recently as they feel that the spark gap should be in series with the L1 coil, like this:

This is understandable, as there is always a tendency to think of the spark gap as being a device which is there to protect against excessive voltages rather than seeing it as an active component of the circuit, a component which is in continuous use. In 1925, Hermann Plauson was granted a patent for a whole series of methods for converting the high voltage produced by a tall aerial system into useable, standard electricity. Hermann starts off by explaining how high voltage can be converted into a convenient form and he uses a Wimshurst static electricity generator as an example of a constant source of high voltage. The output from a rectified Tesla Coil, a Wimshurst machine and a tall aerial are very much alike, and so Hermann’s comments are very relevant here. He shows it like this:

Here, the output of the Wimshurst machine is stored in two high-voltage capacitors (Leyden jars) causing a very high voltage to be created across those capacitors. When the voltage is high enough, a spark jumps across the spark gap, causing a massive surge of current through the primary winding of the transformer, which in his case is a step-down transformer as he is aimed at getting a lower output voltage. Don’s circuit is almost identical:
Here the high voltage comes from the battery/inverter/neon-tube driver/rectifiers, rather than from a mechanically driven Wimshurst machine. He has the same build up of voltage in a capacitor with a spark gap across the capacitor. The spark gap will fire when the capacitor voltage reaches its designed level. The only difference is in the positioning of the capacitor, which if it matched Hermann's arrangement exactly, would be like this:

which would be a perfectly viable arrangement as far as I can see. You will remember that Tesla, who always speaks very highly of the energy released by the very sharp discharge produced by a spark, shows a high-voltage source feeding a capacitor with the energy passing through a spark gap to the primary winding of a transformer:

However, with Don's arrangement, it can be a little difficult to see why the capacitor is not short-circuited by the very low resistance of the few turns of thick wire forming the L1 coil. Well, it would do that if we were operating with DC, but we are most definitely not doing that as the output from the neon-tube driver circuit is pulsing 35,000 times per second. This causes the DC resistance of the L1 coil to be of almost no consequence and instead, the coil's "impedance" or "reactance" (effectively, it's AC resistance) is what counts. Actually, the capacitor and the L1 coil being connected across each other have a combined "reactance" or resistance to pulsing current at this frequency. This is where the nomograph diagram comes into play, and there is a much easier to understand version of it a few pages later on in this document. So, because of the high pulsing frequency, the L1 coil does not short-circuit the capacitor and if the pulsing frequency matches the resonant frequency of the L1 coil (or a harmonic of that frequency), then the L1 coil will actually have a very high resistance to current flow through it. This is how a crystal set radio receiver tunes in a particular radio station, broadcasting on it's own frequency.
Anyway, coming back to Don's device shown in the photograph above, the electrical drive is from a 12-volt battery which is not seen in the photograph. Interestingly, Don remarks that if the length of the wires connecting the battery to the inverter are exactly one quarter of the wave length of the frequency of the oscillating magnetic field generated by the circuit, then the current induced in the battery wires will recharge the battery continuously, even if the battery is supplying power to the circuit at the same time.

The battery supplies a small current through a protecting diode, to a standard off-the-shelf "true sine-wave" inverter. An inverter is a device which produces mains-voltage Alternating Current from a DC battery. As Don wants adjustable voltage, he feeds the output from the inverter into a variable transformer called a "Variac" although this is often made as part of the neon-driver circuit to allow the brightness of the neon tube to be adjusted by the user. This arrangement produces an AC output voltage which is adjustable from zero volts up to the full mains voltage (or a little higher, though Don does not want to use a higher voltage). The use of this kind of adjustment usually makes it essential for the inverter to be a true sine-wave type. As the power requirement of the neon-tube driver circuit is so low, the inverter should not cost very much.

The neon-tube driver circuit is a standard off-the-shelf device used to drive neon tube displays for commercial establishments. The one used by Don contains an oscillator and a step-up transformer, which together produce an Alternating Current of 9,000 volts at a frequency of 35,100 Hz (sometimes written as 35.1 kHz). The term "Hz" stands for "cycles per second". Don lowers the 9,000 volts as he gets great power output at lower input voltages and the cost of the output capacitors is a significant factor. The particular neon-tube driver circuit which Don is using here, has two separate outputs out of phase with each other, so Don connects them together and uses a blocking diode in each line to prevent either of them affecting the other one. Not easily seen in the photograph, the high-voltage output line has a very small, encapsulated, Gas-Discharge Tube spark gap in it and the line is also earthed. The device looks like this:

![Image of a neon-tube driver circuit](image)

Please note that when an earth connection is mentioned in connection with Don Smith's devices, we are talking about an actual wire connection to a metal object physically buried in the ground, whether it is a long copper rod driven into the ground, or an old car radiator buried in a hole like Tariel Kapanadze uses. When Thomas Henry Moray performed his requested demonstration deep in the countryside at a location chosen by the sceptics, the light bulbs which formed his demonstration electrical load, glowed more brightly with each hammer stroke as a length of gas pipe was hammered into the ground to form his earth connection.

It should be remarked that since Don purchased his neon-tube driver module that newer designs have generally taken over completely, especially in Europe, and these designs have built in "earth-leakage current" protection which instantly disables the circuit if any current is detected leaking to ground. This feature makes the unit completely unsuitable for use in a Don Smith circuit because there, the transfer of current to the ground is wholly intentional and vital for the operation of the circuit.

The output of the neon-tube driver circuit is used to drive the primary "L1" winding of a Tesla Coil style transformer. This looks ever so simple and straightforward, but there are some subtle details which need to be considered.

The operating frequency of 35.1 kHz is set and maintained by the neon-tube driver circuitry, and so, in theory, we do not have to do any direct tuning ourselves. However, we want the resonant frequency of the L1 coil and the capacitor across it to match the neon-driver circuit frequency. The frequency of the "L1" coil winding will induce exactly the same frequency in the "L2" secondary winding. However, we need to pay special attention to the ratio of the wire lengths of the two coil windings as we want these two windings to resonate together. A rule of thumb followed by most Tesla Coil builders is to have the same weight of copper in the L1 and L2 coils, which means that the wire of the L1 coil is usually much thicker than the wire of the L2 coil. If the L1 coil is to be one quarter of the length of the L2 coil, then we would expect the cross-sectional area of the L1 coil to be four times that of the wire of the L2 coil and so the wire should have twice the diameter (as the area is proportional to the square of the radius, and the square of two is four).
Don uses a white plastic tube as the former for his "L1" primary coil winding. As you can see here, the wire is fed into the former, leaving sufficient clearance to allow the former to slide all the way into the outer coil. The wire is fed up inside the pipe and out through another hole to allow the coil turns to be made on the outside of the pipe. There appear to be five turns, but Don does not always go for a complete number of turns, so it might be 4.3 turns or some other value. The key point here is that the length of wire in the "L1" coil turns should be exactly one quarter of the length of wire in the "L2" coil turns.

The "L2" coil used here is a commercial 3-inch diameter unit from Barker & Williamson, constructed from uninsulated, solid, single-strand "tinned" copper wire (how to make home-build versions is shown later on). Don has taken this coil and unwound four turns in the middle of the coil in order to make a centre-tap. He then measured the exact length of wire in the remaining section and made the length of the "L1" coil turns to be exactly one quarter of that length. The wire used for the "L1" coil looks like Don's favourite "Jumbo Speaker Wire" which is a very flexible wire with a very large number of extremely fine uninsulated copper wires inside it.

You will notice that Don has placed a plastic collar on each side of the winding, matching the thickness of the wire, in order to create a secure sliding operation inside the outer "L2" coil, and the additional plastic collars positioned further along the pipe provide further support for the inner coil. This sliding action allows the primary coil "L1" to be positioned at any point along the length of the "L2" secondary coil, and that has a marked tuning effect on the operation of the system. The outer "L2" coil does not have any kind of tube support but instead, the coil shape is maintained by the stiffness of the solid wire plus four slotted strips. This style of construction produces the highest possible coil performance at radio frequencies. With a Tesla Coil, it is most unusual to have the L1 coil of smaller diameter than the L2 coil.
The "L2" coil has two separate sections, each of seventeen turns. One point to note is the turns are spaced apart using slotted strips to support the wires and maintain an accurate spacing between adjacent turns. It must be remembered that spacing coil turns apart like this alters the characteristics of the coil, increasing its "capacitance" factor substantially. Every coil has resistance, inductance and capacitance, but the form of the coil construction has a major effect on the ratio of these three characteristics. The coil assembly is held in position on the base board by two off-white plastic cable ties. The nearer half of the coil is effectively connected across the further half as shown in the circuit diagram above.

One point which Don stresses, is that the length of the wire in the "L1" coil and the length of wire in the "L2" coil, must be an exact even division or multiple of each other (in this case, the "L2" wire length in each half of the "L2" coil is exactly four times as long as the "L1" wire length). This is likely to cause the "L1" coil to have part of a turn, due to the different coil diameters. For example, if the length of the "L2" coil wire is 160 inches and "L1" is to be one quarter of that length, namely, 40 inches. Then, if the "L1" coil has an effective diameter of 2.25 inches, (allowing for the thickness of the wire when wound on a 2-inch diameter former), then the "L1" coil would have 5.65 (or 5 and 2/3) turns which causes the finishing turn of "L2" to be 240 degrees further around the coil former than the start of the first turn - that is, five full turns plus two thirds of the sixth turn.

The L1 / L2 coil arrangement is a Tesla Coil. The positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil, adjusts the voltage to current ratio produced by the coil. When the "L1" coil is near the middle of the "L2" coil, then the amplified voltage and amplified current are roughly the same. The exact wire ratio of these two coils gives them an almost automatic tuning with each other, and the exact resonance between them can be achieved by the positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil. While this is a perfectly good way of adjusting the circuit, in the build shown in the photograph, Don has opted to get the exact tuning by connecting a capacitor across "L1" as marked as "C" in the circuit diagram. Don found that the appropriate capacitor value was around the 0.1 microfarad (100 nF) mark. It must be remembered that the voltage across "L1" is very high, so if a capacitor is used in that position it will need a voltage rating of at least 9,000 volts. Don remarks that the actual capacitors seen in the photograph of this prototype are rated at fifteen thousand volts, and were custom made for him using a "self-healing" style of construction. As has already been remarked, this capacitor is an optional component. Don also opted to connect a small capacitor across the "L2" coil, also for fine-tuning of the circuit, and that component is optional and so is not shown on the circuit diagram. As the two halves of the "L2" coil are effectively connected across each other, it is only necessary to have one fine-tuning capacitor. However, Don stresses that the "height" length of the coil (when standing vertically) controls the voltage produced while the coil "width" (the diameter of the turns) controls the current produced.
The exact wire length ratio of the turns in the "L1" and "L2" coils gives them an almost automatic synchronous tuning with each other, and the exact resonance between them can be achieved by the positioning of the "L1" coil along the length of the "L2" coil. While this is a perfectly good way of adjusting the circuit, in the 1994 build shown in the photograph, Don has opted to get the exact tuning by connecting a capacitor across "L1" as marked as "C" in the circuit diagram. Don found that the appropriate capacitor value for his particular coil build, was about 0.1 microfarad (100 nF) and so he connected two 47 nF high-voltage capacitors in parallel to get the value which he wanted. It must be remembered that the voltage across "L1" is very high, so a capacitor used in that position needs a voltage rating of at least 9,000 volts. Don remarks that the actual capacitors seen in the photograph of this prototype are rated at fifteen thousand volts, and were custom made for him using a “self-healing” style of construction.

Don has also connected a small capacitor across the "L2" coil, and that optional component is marked as "C2" in the circuit diagram and the value used by Don happened to be a single 47nF, high-voltage capacitor. As the two halves of the "L2" coil are effectively connected across each other, it is only necessary to have one capacitor for "L2":

There are various ways of dealing with the output from the "L2" coil in order to get large amounts of conventional electrical power out of the device. The method shown here uses the four very large capacitors seen in the photograph. These have an 8,000 or 9,000 volt rating and a large capacity and they are used to store the circuit power as DC prior to use in the load equipment. This is achieved by feeding the capacitor bank through a diode which is rated for both high voltage and high current, as Don states that the device produces 8,000 volts at 20 amps, in which case, this rectifying diode has to be able to handle that level of power, both at start-up when the capacitor bank is fully discharged and "L2" is producing 8,000 volts, and when the full load of 20 amps is being drawn.

This capacitor bank is fed through a diode which is rated for both high voltage and high current, as Don states that the device produces 8,000 volts at 20 amps, in which case, this rectifying diode has to be able to handle that level of power, both at start-up when the capacitor bank is fully discharged and "L2" is producing 8,000 volts, and when the full load of 20 amps is being drawn. The actual diodes used by Don happen to be rated at 25 KV but that is a far greater rating than is actually needed.
In passing, it might be remarked that the average home user will not have an electrical requirement of anything remotely like as large as this, seeing that 10 kW is more than most people use on a continuous basis, while 8 KV at 20 A is a power of 160 kilowatts. As the neon-tube driver circuit can put out 9,000 volts and since the L1 / L2 coil system is a step-up transformer, if the voltage fed to the capacitor bank is to be kept down to 8,000 volts, then the Variac adjustment must be used to reduce the voltage fed to the neon-tube driver circuit, in order to lower the voltage fed to the L1 / L2 coil pair, typically, to 3,000 volts.

A very astute and knowledgeable member of the EVGRAY Yahoo EVGRAY forum whose ID is "silverhealtheu" has recently pointed out that Don Smith says quite freely that he does not disclose all of the details of his designs, and it is his opinion that a major item which has not been disclosed is that the diodes in the circuit diagrams shown here are the wrong way round and that Don operates his voltages in reverse to the conventional way. In fact, the circuit diagram should be:

![Circuit Diagram]

He comments: "the diodes leaving the Neon-tube Driver may need to be reversed as we want to collect the negative polarity. The spark gap will then operate on ambient inversion and the spark will look and sound totally different with a much faster crack and producing very little heat and even becoming covered in frost is possible.

The Variac should be raised up just enough to get a spark going then backed off slightly. Any higher voltage is liable to make the Neon-tube Driver think that it has a short-circuit condition, and the new electronic designs will then shut down automatically and fail to operate at all if this method is not followed.

When running, C, L1 and L2 operate somewhere up in the Radio Frequency band because the Neon-tube Driver only acts as a tank-circuit exciter. The large collection capacitor C3, should fill inverted to earth polarity as shown above. The load will then be pulling electrons from the earth as the cap is REFILLED back to ZERO rather than the joules in the capacitor being depleted.

Also remember that the Back-EMF systems of John Bedini and others, create a small positive pulse but they collect a super large NEGATIVE polarity spike which shoots off the bottom of an oscilloscope display. This is what we want, plenty of this stored in capacitors, and then let the ambient background energy supply the current when it makes the correction."

This is a very important point and it may well make a really major difference to the performance of a device of this nature.

One reader has drawn attention to the fact that Don’s main document indicates that there should be a resistor "R" across the L1 coil as well as the capacitor "C" and he suggests that the circuit should actually be as shown above, considering what Don said earlier about his “suitcase” design. Another reader points out that the wire in the output choke shown in the photograph below appears to be wound with wire that is far too small diameter to carry the currents mentioned by Don. It seems likely that a choke is not needed in that position except to suppress possible radio frequency transmissions from the circuit, but a more powerful choke can easily be wound using larger diameter wire.
When the circuit is running, the storage capacitor bank behaves like an 8,000 volt battery which never runs down and which can supply 20 amps of current for as long as you want. The circuitry for producing a 220 volt 50 Hz AC output or a 110 volt 60 Hz AC output from the storage capacitors is just standard electronics. In passing, one option for charging the battery is to use the magnetic field caused by drawing mains-frequency current pulses through the output "choke" coil, shown here:

The output current flows through the left hand winding on the brown cylindrical former, and when the photograph was taken, the right-hand winding was no longer in use. Previously, it had been used to provide charging power to the battery by rectifying the electrical power in the coil, caused by the fluctuating magnetic field caused by the pulsing current flowing through the left hand winding, as shown here:

The DC output produced by the four diodes was then used to charge the driving battery, and the power level produced is substantially greater than the minor current drain from the battery. Consequently, it is a sensible precaution to pass this current to the battery via a circuit which prevents the battery voltage rising higher than it should. A simple voltage level sensor can be used to switch off the charging when the battery has reached its optimum level. Other batteries can also be charged if that is wanted. Simple circuitry of the type shown in chapter 12 can be used for controlling and limiting the charging process. The components on Don's board are laid out like this:
Don draws attention to the fact that the cables used to connect the output of "L2" to the output of the board, connecting the storage capacitors on the way, are very high-voltage rated cables with special multiple coverings to ensure that the cables will remain sound over an indefinite period. It should be remarked at this point, that the outer 3" diameter coil used by Don, is not wound on a former, but in order to get higher performance at high frequencies, the turns are supported with four separate strips physically attached to the turns - the technique described later in this document as being an excellent way for home construction of such coils.

Please bear in mind that the voltages here and their associated power levels are literally lethal and perfectly capable of killing anyone who handles the device carelessly when it is powered up. When a replication of this device is ready for routine use, it must be encased so that none of the high-voltage connections can be touched by anyone. This is not a suggestion, but it is a mandatory requirement, despite the fact that the components shown in the photographs are laid out in what would be a most dangerous fashion were the circuit to be powered up as it stands. Under no circumstances, construct and test this circuit unless you are already experienced in the use of high-voltage circuits or can be supervised by somebody who is experienced in this field. This is a "one hand in the pocket at all times" type of circuit and it needs to be treated with great care and respect at all times, so be sensible.

The remainder of the circuit is not mounted on the board, possibly because there are various ways in which the required end result can be achieved. The one suggested here is perhaps the most simple solution:

The voltage has to be dropped, so an iron-cored mains-frequency step-down transformer is used to do this. To get the frequency to the standard mains frequency for the country in which the device is to be used, an oscillator is used to generate that particular mains frequency. The oscillator output is used to drive a suitable high-voltage semiconductor device, be it an FET transistor, an IGBT device, or whatever. This device has to switch the working current at 8,000 volts, though admittedly, that will be a current which will be at least thirty six times lower than the final output current, due to the higher voltage on the primary winding of the transformer. The available power will be limited by the current handling capabilities of this output transformer which needs to be very large and expensive.

As the circuit is capable of picking up additional magnetic pulses, such as those generated by other equipment, nearby lightning strikes, etc. an electronic component called a "varistor" marked "V" in the diagram, is connected
across the load. This device acts as a voltage spike suppressor as it short circuits any voltage above its design voltage, protecting the load from power surges.

Don also explains an even more simple version of the circuit as shown here:

This simplified circuit avoids the need for expensive capacitors and the constraints of their voltage ratings, and the need for electronic control of the output frequency. The wire length in the turns of coil "L2" still needs to be exactly four times the wire length of the turns in coil "L1", but there is only one component which needs to be introduced, and that is the resistor "R" placed across the primary winding of the step-down isolation transformer. This transformer is a laminated iron-core type, suitable for the low mains frequency, but the output from "L2" is at much higher frequency. It is possible to pull the frequency down to suit the step-down transformer by connecting the correct value of resistor "R" across the primary winding transformer (or a coil and resistor, or a coil and a capacitor). The value of resistor needed can be predicted from the American Radio Relay League graph (shown as Fig.44 in Don's pdf document which can be downloaded using http://www.free-energy-info.com/Smith.pdf). The sixth edition of the Howard Sams book "Handbook of Electronics Tables and Formulas" (ISBN-10: 0672224690 or ISBN-13: 978-0672224690) has a table which goes down to 1 kHz and so does not need to be extended to reach the frequencies used here. The correct resistor value could also be found by experimentation. You will notice that an earthed dual spark gap has been placed across "L2" in order to make sure that the voltage levels always stay within the design range.

Don also explains an even more simple version which does not need a Variac, high voltage capacitors or high voltage diodes. Here, a DC output is accepted which means that high-frequency step-down transformer operation can be used. This calls for an air-core transformer which you would wind yourself from heavy duty wire. Mains loads would then be powered by using a standard off-the-shelf inverter. In this version, it is of course, necessary to make the "L1" turns wire length exactly one quarter of the "L2" turns wire length in order to make the two coils resonate together. The operating frequency of each of these coils is imposed on them by the output frequency of the neon-tube driver circuit. That frequency is maintained throughout the entire circuit until it is rectified by the four diodes feeding the low-voltage storage capacitor. The target output voltage will be either just over 12 volts or just over 24 volts, depending on the voltage rating of the inverter which is to be driven by the system. The circuit diagram is:

As many people will find the nomograph chart in Don's pdf document very difficult to understand and use, here is an easier version:
The objective here is to determine the “reactance” or ‘AC resistance’ in ohms and the way to do that is as follows:

Suppose that your neon-tube driver is running at 30 kHz and you are using a capacitor of 100 nF (which is the same as 0.1 microfarad) and you want to know what is the AC resistance of your capacitor is at that frequency. Also, what coil inductance would have that same AC resistance. Then the procedure for finding that out is as follows:
Draw a straight line from your 30 kHz frequency (purple line) through your 100 nanofarad capacitor value and carry the line on as far as the (blue) inductance line as shown above.

You can now read the reactance ("AC resistance") off the red line, which looks like 51 ohms to me. This means that when the circuit is running at a frequency of 30 kHz, then the current flow through your 100 nF capacitor will be the same as through a 51 ohm resistor. Reading off the blue "Inductance" line that same current flow at that frequency would occur with a coil which has an inductance of 0.28 millihenries.
I have recently been passed a copy of Don's circuit diagram for this device, and it is shown here:

The 4000V 30mA transformer shown in this circuit diagram, may use a ferrite-cored transformer from a neon-tube driver module which steps up the voltage but it does not raise the frequency as that is clearly marked at 120 Hz pulsed DC. You will notice that this circuit diagram is drawn with Plus shown below Minus (which is most unusual).

Please note that when an earth connection is mentioned in connection with Don Smith's devices, we are talking about an actual wire connection to a metal object physically buried in the ground, whether it is a long copper rod driven into the ground, or an old car radiator buried in a hole like Tariel Kapanadze used, or a buried metal plate. When Thomas Henry Moray performed his requested demonstration deep in the countryside at a location chosen by the sceptics, the light bulbs which formed his demonstration electrical load, glowed more brightly with each hammer stroke as a length of gas pipe was hammered into the ground to form his earth connection.

Don also explains an even more simple version of his main device. This version does not need a Variac (variable voltage transformer) or high voltage capacitors. Here, a DC output is accepted which means that high-frequency step-down transformer operation can be used. This calls on the output side, for an air-core (or ferrite rod core) transformer which you would wind yourself from heavy duty wire. Mains loads would then be powered by using a standard off-the-shelf inverter. In this version, it is of course, very helpful to make the "L1" turns wire length exactly one quarter of the "L2" turns wire length in order to make the two coils automatically resonate together. The operating frequency of each of these coils is imposed on them by the output frequency of the neon-tube driver circuit. That frequency is maintained throughout the entire circuit until it is rectified by the four diodes feeding the low-voltage storage capacitor. The target output voltage will be either just over 12 volts or just over 24 volts, depending on the voltage rating of the inverter which is to be driven by the system.

As the circuit is capable of picking up additional magnetic pulses, such as those generated by other equipment, nearby lightning strikes, etc. an electronic component called a "varistor" marked "V" in the diagram, is connected across the load. This device acts as a voltage spike suppressor as it short-circuits any voltage above its design voltage, protecting the load from power surges. A Gas-Discharge Tube is an effective alternative to a varistor.

This circuit is effectively two Tesla Coils back-to-back and the circuit diagram might be:
It is by no means certain that in this circuit, the red and blue windings are wound in opposing directions. The spark gap (or gas-discharge tube) in series with the primary of the first transformer alters the operation in a somewhat unpredictable way as it causes the primary to oscillate at a frequency determined by its inductance and its self-capacitance, and that may result in megahertz frequencies. The secondary winding(s) of that transformer must resonate with the primary and in this circuit which has no frequency-compensating capacitors, that resonance is being produced by the exact wire length in the turns of the secondary. This looks like a simple circuit, but it is anything but that. The excess energy is produced by the raised frequency, the raised voltage, and the very sharp pulsing produced by the spark. That part is straightforward. The remainder of the circuit is likely to be very difficult to get resonating as it needs to be in order to deliver that excess energy to the output inverter.

When considering the "length" of wire in a resonant coil, it is necessary to pay attention to the standing wave created under those conditions. The wave is caused by reflection of the signal when it reaches the end of the wire OR when there is a sudden change in the diameter of the wire as that changes the signal reflection ability at that point in the connection. You should pay attention to Richard Quick's very clear description of this in the section of his patent which is included later on in this chapter. Also, remember what Don Smith said about locating the peaks of the standing wave by using a hand-held neon lamp.

One very significant thing which Don pointed out is that the mains electricity available through the wall socket in my home, does not come along the wires from the generating station. Instead, the power station influences a local 'sub-station' and the electrons which flow through my equipment actually come from my local environment because of the influence of my local sub-station. Therefore, if I can create a similar influence in my home, then I no longer need that sub-station and can have as much electrical energy as I want, without having to pay somebody else to provide that influence for me.

A Practical Implementation of one of Don Smith's Designs

The objective here, is to determine how to construct a self-powered, free-energy electrical generator which has no moving parts, is not too expensive to build, uses readily available parts and which has an output of some kilowatts. However, under no circumstances should this document be considered to be an encouragement for you, or anyone else to actually build one of these devices. This document is presented solely for information and educational purposes, and as high voltages are involved, it should be considered to be a dangerous device unsuited to being built by inexperienced amateurs. The following section is just my opinions and so should not be taken as tried and tested, working technology, but instead, just the opinion of an inexperienced writer.

However, questions from several different readers indicate that a short, reasonably specific description of the steps needed to attempt a replication of a Don Smith device would be helpful. Again, this document must not be considered to be a recommendation that you actually build one of these high-voltage, potentially dangerous devices. This is just information intended to help you understand what I believe is involved in this process.

In broad outline, the following steps are used in the most simple version of the arrangement:

1. The very low frequency and voltage of the local mains supply is discarded in favour of an electrical supply which operates at more than 20,000 Hz (cycles per second) and has a voltage of anything from 350 volts to 10,000 volts. The higher voltages can give greater overall output power, but they involve greater effort in getting the voltage back down again to the level of the local mains voltage in order for standard mains equipment to be used.

2. This high-frequency high voltage is used to create a series of very rapid sparks using a spark gap which is connected to a ground connection. Properly done, the spark frequency is so high that there is no audible sound caused by the sparks. Each spark causes a flow of energy from the local environment into the circuit. This energy is not standard electricity which makes things hot when current flows through them, but instead this energy flow causes things to become cold when the power flows through them, and so it is often called "cold" electricity. It is tricky to use this energy unless all you want to do is light up a series of light bulbs (which incidentally, give out a different quality of light when powered with this energy). Surprisingly, the circuit now
contains substantially more power than the amount of power needed to produce the sparks. This is because additional energy flows in from the ground as well as from the local environment. If you have conventional training and have been fed the myth of “closed systems”, then this will seem impossible to you. So, let me ask you the question: if, as can be shown, all of the electricity flowing into the primary winding of a transformer, flows back out of that winding, then where does the massive, continuous flow of electricity coming from the secondary winding come from? None of it comes from the primary circuit and yet millions of electrons flow out of the secondary in a continuous stream which can be supplied indefinitely. So, where do these electrons come from? The answer is ‘from the surrounding local environment which is seething with excess energy’ but your textbooks won’t like that fact as they believe that the transformer circuit is a ‘closed system’ – something which probably can’t be found anywhere in this universe.

3. This high-voltage, high-frequency, high-power energy needs to be converted to the same sort of hot electricity which comes out of a mains wall socket at the local voltage and frequency. This is where skill and understanding come into play. The first step is to lower the voltage and increase the available current with a step-down resonant transformer. This sounds highly technical and complicated, and looking at Don Smith’s expensive Barker & Williamson coil, makes the whole operation appear to be one for rich experimenters only. This is not the case and a working solution can be cheap and easy. It is generally not convenient to get the very high voltage all the way down to convenient levels in a single step, and so, one or more of those resonant transformers can be used to reach the target voltage level. Each step down transformer boosts the available current higher and higher.

4. When a satisfactory voltage has been reached, we need to deal with the very high frequency. The easiest way to deal with it is to use high-speed diodes to convert it to pulsing DC and feed that into a capacitor to create what is essentially, an everlasting battery. Feeding this energy into a capacitor converts it into conventional “hot” electricity and a standard off-the-shelf inverter can be used to give the exact voltage and frequency of the local mains supply. In most of the world, that is 220 volts at 50 cycles per second. In America it is 110 volts at 60 cycles per second. Low-cost inverters generally run on either 12 volts or 24 volts with the more common 12 volt units being cheaper.

So, let’s take a look at each of these step in more detail and see if we can understand what is involved and what our options are:

1. We want to produce a high-voltage, high-frequency, low-current power source. Don Smith shows a Neon-Sign Transformer module. His module produced a voltage which was higher than was convenient and so he used a variable AC transformer or “Variac” as it is commonly known, to lower the input voltage and so, lower the output voltage. There is actually no need for a Variac as we can handle the higher voltage or alternatively, use a more suitable Neon-Sign Transformer module.

However, we have a problem with using that technique. In the years since Don bought his module, they have been redesigned to include circuitry which disables the module if any current flows out of it directly to earth, and as that is exactly what we would want to use it for, so most, if not all of the currently available neon-sign transformer modules are not suitable for our needs. However, I’m told that if the module has an earth wire and that earth wire is left unconnected, that it disables the earth-leakage circuitry, allowing the unit to be used in a Don Smith circuit. Personally, I would not recommend that if the module is enclosed in a metal housing.

A much cheaper alternative is shown here: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RDDRe_4D93Q](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RDDRe_4D93Q) where a small plasma globe circuit is used to generate a high-frequency spark. It seems highly likely that one of those modules would suit our needs:
An alternative method is to build your own power supply from scratch. Doing that is not particularly difficult and if you do not understand any electronics, then perhaps, reading the beginner’s electronics tutorial in chapter 12 ([http://www.free-energy-info.com/Chapter12.pdf](http://www.free-energy-info.com/Chapter12.pdf)) will fill you in on all of the basics needed for understanding (and probably designing your own) circuits of this type. Here is a variable frequency design for home-construction:

One advantage of this circuit is that the output transformer is driven at the frequency set by the 555 timer and that frequency is not affected by the number of turns in the primary winding, nor it’s inductance, wire diameter, or anything else to do with the coil. While this circuit shows the rather expensive IRF9130 transistor, I expect that other P-channel FETs would work satisfactorily in this circuit. The IRF9130 transistor looks like this:

The circuit has a power supply diode and capacitor, ready to receive energy from the output at some later date if that is possible and desired. The 555 circuit is standard, giving a 50% Mark/Space ratio. The 10 nF capacitor is there to maintain the stability of the 555 and the timing section consists of two variable resistors, one fixed resistor and the 1 nF capacitor. This resistor arrangement gives a variable resistance of anything from 100 ohms to 51.8K and that allows a substantial frequency range. The 47K (Linear) variable resistor controls the main tuning and the 4.7K (Linear) variable resistor gives a more easily adjustable frequency for exact tuning. The 100 ohm resistor is there in case both of the variable resistors are set to zero resistance. The output is fed through a 470 ohm resistor to the gate of a very powerful P-channel FET transistor which drives the primary winding of the output transformer.

The output transformer can be wound on an insulating spool covering a ferrite rod, giving both good coupling between the windings, and high-frequency operation as well. The turns ratio is set to just 30:1 due to the high
number of primary winding turns. With a 12-volt supply, this will give a 360-volt output waveform, and by reducing the primary turns progressively, allows the output voltage to be increased in controlled steps. With 10 turns in the primary, the output voltage should be 3,600 volts and with just 5 turns 7,200 volts. The higher the voltage used, the greater the amount of work needed later on to get the voltage back down to the output level which we want.

Looking at the wire specification table, indicates that quite a small wire diameter could be used for the oscillator output transformer’s secondary winding. While this is perfectly true, it is not the whole story. Neon Tube Drivers are very small and the wire in their output windings is very small diameter indeed. Those driver modules are very prone to failure. If the insulation on any one turn of the winding fails and one turn becomes a short-circuit, then that stops the winding from oscillating, and a replacement is needed. As there are no particular size constraints for this project, it might be a good idea to use enamelled copper wire of 0.45 mm or larger in an attempt to avoid this insulation failure hazard. No part of the transformer coil spool should be metal and it would not be any harm to cover each layer of secondary winding with a layer of electrical tape to provide additional insulation between the coil turns in one layer and the turns in the layer on top of it.

A plug-in board layout might be:

Please remember that you can’t just stick your average voltmeter across a 4 kV capacitor (unless you really do want to buy another meter) as they only measure up to about a thousand volts DC. So, if you are using high voltage, then you need to use a resistor-divider pair and measure the voltage on the lower resistor. But what resistor values should you use? If you put a 10 Megohm resistor across your 4 kV charged capacitor, the current flowing through the resistor would be 0.4 milliamps. Sounds tiny, doesn’t it? But that 0.4 mA is 1.6 watts which is a good deal more than the wattage which your resistor can handle. Even using this arrangement:

the current will be 0.08 mA and the wattage per resistor will be 64 mW. The meter reading will be about 20% of the capacitor voltage which will give a voltmeter reading of 800 volts. The input resistance of the meter needs to be checked and possibly, allowed for as the resistance in this circuit is so high (see chapter 12). When making a measurement of this type, the capacitor is discharged, the resistor chain and meter attached, and then, and only then, is the circuit powered up, the reading taken, the input power disconnected, the capacitor
discharged, and the resistors disconnected. High-voltage circuits are highly dangerous, especially so, where a capacitor is involved. The recommendation to wear thick rubber gloves for this kind of work, is not intended to be humorous. Circuits of this type are liable to generate unexpected high-voltage spikes, and so, it might be a good idea to connect a varistor across the meter to protect it from those spikes. The varistor need to be set to the voltage which you intend to measure and as varistors may not be available above a 300V threshold, two or more may need to be connected in series where just one is shown in the diagram above. The varistor should not have a higher voltage rating than your meter.

2. We now need to use this high voltage to create a strategically positioned spark to a ground connection. When making an earth connection, it is sometimes suggested that connecting to water pipes or radiators is a good idea as they have long lengths of metal piping running under the ground and making excellent contact with it. However, it has become very common for metal piping to be replaced with cheaper plastic piping and so any proposed pipe connection needs a check to ensure that there is metal piping which runs all the way into the ground.

The spark gaps shown can be commercial high-voltage gas discharge tubes, adjustable home-made spark gaps with stainless steel tips about 1 mm apart, car spark plugs, or standard neon bulbs, although these run rather hot in this application. A 15 mm x 6 mm size neon bulb operates with only 90 or 100 volts across it, it would take a considerable number of them connected in series to create a high voltage spark gap, but it is probably a misconception that the spark gap itself needs a high voltage. Later on in this chapter, there is an example of a very successful system where just one neon bulb is used for the spark gap and an oscillating magnetic field more than a meter wide is created when driven by just an old 2,500 volt neon-sign transformer module. If using a neon bulb for the spark gap, then an experienced developer recommends that a 22K resistor is used in series with the neon in order to extend it’s working life very considerably.

This circuit is one way to connect the spark gap and ground connection:

This is an adaption of a circuit arrangement used by the forum member “SLOW-N-EASY” on the Don Smith topic in the energeticforum. Here, he is using a ‘LowGlow’ neon transformer intended for use on a bicycle. The diodes are there to protect the high-voltage power supply from any unexpected voltage spikes created later on in the circuit. The spark gap is connected between the primary winding of a step-up transformer and the earth connection. No capacitor is used. Seeing this circuit, we immediately think of Don Smith’s large and expensive coils, but this experimenter does not use anything like that. Instead, he winds his transformer on a simple plastic former like this:
And to make matters ‘worse’ the primary winding wire is just 9 inches (228.6 mm) long and the secondary just 36 inches (914.4 mm) long, the primary being wound directly on top of the secondary. Not exactly a large or expensive construction and yet one which appears to perform adequately in actual tests.

This is a very compact form of construction, but there is no necessity to use exactly the same former for coils, nor is there anything magic about the nine-inch length of the L1 coil, as it could easily be any convenient length, say two feet or 0.5 metres, or whatever. The important thing is to make the L2 wire length exactly four times that length, cutting the lengths accurately. It is common practice to match the weight of copper in each coil and so the shorter wire is usually twice the diameter of the longer wire.

The circuit above, produces a cold electricity output of high voltage and high frequency. The voltage will not be the same as the neon transformer voltage, nor is the frequency the same either. The two coils resonate at their own natural frequency, unaltered by any capacitors.

3. The next step is to get the high voltage down to a more convenient level, perhaps, like this:

![Diagram](image)

Here, an identical transformer, wound in exactly the same way, is used in reverse, to start the voltage lowering sequence. The wire length ratio is maintained to keep the transformer windings resonant with each other.

Supposing we were to wind the L2 coil of this second transformer in a single straight winding and instead of winding just one L1 winding on top of it, two or more L1 identical windings were placed on top of it – what would happen?:

![Diagram](image)

Now for a comment which will seem heretical to people steeped in the present day (inadequate) level of technology. The power flowing in these transformers is cold electricity which operates in an entirely different way to hot electricity. The coupling between these coils would be inductive if they were carrying hot electricity and in that case, any additional power take-off from additional L1 coils would have to be ‘paid’ for by additional current draw through the L2 coil. However, with the cold electricity which these coils are actually carrying, the coupling between the coils is magnetic and not inductive and that results in no increase in L2 current, no matter how many L1 coil take-offs there are. Any additional L1 coils will be powered for free. However, the position of the coils relative to each other has an effect on the tuning, so the L1 coil should be in the middle of the L2 coil, which means that any additional L1 coils are going to be slightly off the optimum tuning point.
Anyway, following through on just one L1 coil, there is likely to be at least one further step-down transformer needed and eventually, we need conversion to hot electricity:

- Probably the easiest conversion is by feeding the energy into a capacitor and making it standard DC. The frequency is still very high, so high-speed diodes (such as the 75-nanosecond UF54008) are needed here although the voltage level is now low enough to be no problem. The DC output can be used to power an inverter so that standard mains equipment can be used. It is not necessary to use just one (expensive) large-capacity inverter to power all possible loads as it is cheaper to have several smaller inverters, each powering its own set of equipment. Most equipment will run satisfactorily on square-wave inverters and that includes a mains unit for powering the input oscillator circuit.

- PVC pipe is not a great material when using high-frequency high-voltage signals, and grey PVC pipe is a particularly poor coil former material. The much more expensive acrylic pipe is excellent, but if using PVC, then performance will be better if the PVC pipe is coated with an insulating lacquer (or table tennis balls dissolved in acetone as shown on YouTube).

- However, there are some other factors which have not been mentioned. For example, if the L1 coil is wound directly on top of the L2 coil, it will have roughly the same diameter and so, the wire being four times longer, will have roughly four times as many turns, giving a step-up or step-down ratio of around 4:1. If, on the other hand, the coil diameters were different, the ratio would be different as the wire lengths are fixed relative to each other. If the L2 coil were half the diameter of the L1 coil, then the turns ratio would be about 8:1 and at one third diameter, 12:1 and at a quarter diameter 16:1 which means that a much greater effect could be had from the same wire length by reducing the L2 coil diameter. However, the magnetic effect produced by a coil is linked to the cross-sectional area of the coil and so a small diameter is not necessarily at great advantage. Also, the length of the L1 coil wire and number of turns in it, affect the DC resistance, and more importantly, the AC impedance which affects the amount of power needed to pulse the coil.

- It is also thought that having the same weight of copper in each winding gives an improved performance, but what is not often mentioned is the opinion that the greater the weight of copper, the greater the effect. You will recall that Joseph Newman (chapter 11) uses large amounts of copper wire to produce remarkable effects. So, while 9 inches and 36 inches of wire will work for L1 and L2, there may well be improved performance from longer lengths of wire and/or thicker wires.

- We should also not forget that Don Smith pointed out that voltage and current act (out of phase and) in opposite directions along the L2 coil, moving away from the L1 coil:

- It has been suggested that a greater and more effective power output can be obtained by splitting the L2 coil underneath the L1 coil position, winding the second part of L2 in the opposite direction and grounding the junction of the two L2 windings. Don doesn’t consider it necessary to reverse the direction of winding. The result is an L2 winding which is twice as long as before and arranged like this:
Here, the additional high-voltage diodes allow the two out of phase windings to be connected across each other. You will notice that this arrangement calls for two separate earth connections, both of which need to be high-quality connections, something like a pipe or rod driven deeply into moist soil or alternatively, a metal plate or similar metal object of substantial surface area, buried deep in moist earth, and a thick copper wire or copper braid used to make the connection. These earthing points need to be fairly far apart, say, ten metres. A single earth connection can’t be used as that would effectively short-circuit across the L1/L2 transformer which you really do not want to do.

With this arrangement, the outline circuit becomes:

The thick earth wiring is helpful because in order to avoid the earth wire being included in the resonant wire length, you need a sudden change in wire cross-section:

These are just some ideas which might be considered by some experienced developer who may be thinking of investigating Don Smith style circuitry.

To give you some idea of the capacity of some commercially available wires when carrying hot electricity, this table may help:
It is recommended that the wire have a current carrying capacity of 20% more than the expected actual load, so that it does not get very hot when in use. The wire diameters do not include the insulation, although for solid enamelled copper wire, that can be ignored.

There is a most impressive video and circuit shown at http://youtu.be/Q3vr6qmOwLw where a very simple arrangement produces an immediately successful performance for the front end of Don's circuitry. The circuit appears to be:

Here, a simple Neon Sign Transformer module which has no earth connection, is used to produce a 2.5 kV voltage with a frequency of 25 kHz and a maximum output current capacity of 12 mA. There is no difficulty in constructing the equivalent to that power supply unit. The two outputs from the module are converted to DC by a chain of four 1N4007 diodes in series in each of the two outputs (each chain being inside a plastic tube for insulation).

This output is fed through an optional 22K resistor via a neon lamp to a microwave oven capacitor which happens to be 874 nF with a voltage rating of 2,100 volts. You might feel that the voltage rating of the capacitor is too low for the output voltage of the neon sign module, but the neon has a striking voltage of just 90 volts and so the capacitor is not going to reach the output voltage of the power supply. The resistors are solely to extend the life of the neons as the gas inside the tube gets a considerable jolt in the first nanosecond after switch-on. It is unlikely that omitting those resistors would have any significant effect, but then, including them is a trivial matter. The second neon feeds the primary of the resonant transformer which is only shown in notional outline in the diagram above as the developer suggests that the primary acts as a transmitter and that any number of receiving coils can be used as individual secondaries by being tuned to the exact frequency of that resonating primary.

In the video showing this arrangement, the developer demonstrates the fluctuating, high-frequency field which extends for some four feet (1.2 m) around the coil. He also remarks that the single neons in his arrangement could each be replaced with two neons in series. In test which I ran, I found that I needed two neons in series ahead of the capacitor in order to get continuous lighting of the output neon. Also, one of the diodes needed to be reversed so that one faced towards the input and one away from it. It did not matter which diode was reversed as both configurations worked. Again, please note that this presentation is for information purposes only and it is NOT a recommendation that you should actually build one of these devices. Let me stress again that this is a high-voltage device made even more dangerous by the inclusion of a capacitor, and it is quite capable of killing...
you, so, don’t build one. The developer suggests that it is an implementation of the “transmitter” section of Don’s Transmitter/multiple-receivers design shown below. However, before looking at that design, there is one question which causes a good deal of discussion on the forums, namely, if the centre-tap of the L2 secondary coil is connected to ground, then should that earth-connection wire length be considered to be part of the quarter length of the L1 coil? To examine this possibility in depth, the following quote from Richard Quick’s very clear explanation of resonance in his US patent 7,973,296 of 5th July 2011 is very helpful.

However, the simple answer is that for there to be exact resonance between two lengths of wire (whether or not part, or all of those lengths of wire happen to be wound into a coil), then one length needs to be exactly four times as long as the other, and ideally, half the diameter as well. At both ends of both lengths of wire, there needs to be a sudden change in wire diameter and Richard explains why this is. But, leaving that detailed explanation for now, we can use that knowledge to explain the above simplified system in more detail. Here is the circuit again:

One very important point to note is that no earth connection is required and in spite of that, the performance shown on video is very impressive. While an earth connection can feed substantial power into the circuit, not needing one for the front end is an enormous advantage and potentially, opens the way for a truly portable device. Another very important point is the utter simplicity of the arrangement where only cheap, readily available components are used (and not many of those are needed). The resistors for extending the life of the neon bulbs are not shown, but they can be included if desired and the circuit operation is not altered significantly by having them there. If a higher spark voltage is wanted, then two or more neon bulbs can be used in series where these circuit diagrams show just one.

A point to note is that the lower diode is shown reversed when compared to the previous diagram. This is because the power supply shown is any generic power supply which drives a simple output coil which does not have a centre tap. The neon supply of the earlier diagram appears to have two separate outputs which will, presumably, be out of phase with each other as that is common practice for neon-sign driver modules. If you wish, the two diodes shown here could be replaced by a diode bridge of four high-voltage, high-speed diodes.

The wire lengths of L1 and L2 are measured very accurately from where the wire diameter changes suddenly, as indicated by the red dashed lines. The L2 wire length is exactly four times as long as the L1 wire length and the L2 wire diameter is half of the L1 wire diameter.

How long is the L1 wire? Well, how long would you like it to be? It can be whatever length you want and the radius of the L1 coil can be whatever you want it to be. The theory experts will say that the L1 coil should resonate at the frequency of the power feeding it. Well, good for them, I say, so please tell me what frequency that is. It is not going to be the frequency of the power supply as that will be changed by at least one of the neon bulbs. So, what frequency will the neon bulb produce? Not even the manufacturer could tell you that as there is quite a variation between individual bulbs which are supposedly identical.

Actually, it doesn’t matter at all, because the L1 coil (and the L2 coil if you measure them accurately) has a resonant frequency all of its own and it will vibrate at that frequency no matter what the frequency feeding it happens to be. A coil resonates in very much the same way that a bell rings when it is struck. It doesn’t matter how hard you strike the bell or how rapidly you strike it – the bell will ring at it’s own natural frequency. So the L1 coil will resonate at it’s own natural frequency no matter what rate the voltage spikes striking it arrive, and as the L2 coil has been carefully constructed to have exactly that same frequency, it will resonate in synchronisation with the L1 coil.

This means that the length of the wire for the L1 coil is the choice of the builder, but once that length is chosen it determines the length of the wire for the L2 coil as that is exactly four times as long, unless the builder decides to use an arrangement which has L2 wound in both the Clockwise and counter-clockwise directions, in which case, each half of the L2 coil will be four times the length of the wire in the L1 coil, like this:
Mind you, there is one other factor to be considered when deciding what the most convenient wire length for L1 might be, and that is the number of turns in the L1 coil. The larger the ratio between the turns in L1 and the turns in L2, the higher the voltage boost produced by the L1/L2 transformer, and remember that the length of L2 is fixed relative to the length of L1.

So, a possible circuit style might be:

There are some important points to remember. One is that there must be a sudden change of wire diameter at both ends of each L1 coil and at the ends of each L2 coil. If there isn’t, then the connecting wire length will form part of the coil and if there is some change in diameter but not very much, then it is anybody’s guess what the resonant wire length for that coil will be. There can be as many step-down isolation air-core L1/L2 transformers as desired and these do not need to be particularly large or expensive.

The builder of this circuit put it together in just a few minutes, using components which were to hand, including the microwave oven capacitor marked “C” in the diagrams above. That capacitor is isolated on both sides by the neon bulb spark gaps and so it will have no modifying effect on the resonant frequency of any of the coils in this circuit. But it is vital to understand that the energy stored in that capacitor can, and will, kill you instantly if you were to touch it, so let me stress once again that this information is NOT a recommendation that you actually build this circuit. The DC output from the circuit is intended to power a standard inverter, which in turn, would be perfectly capable of powering the high voltage, high frequency input oscillator.

One final point is that as demonstrated in the video, the oscillating magnetic field produced by the L1 coil can power several identical L2 coils, giving several additional power outputs for no increase in input power, because the coupling is magnetic and not inductive as mentioned earlier in this chapter. Please notice that neither the L1 coil nor the L2 coil has a capacitor connected across it, so resonance is due solely to wire length and no expensive high-voltage capacitors are needed to get every L1/L2 coil pair resonating together. One possible arrangement might be like this:
Where two of the L2 coils are shown connected together to give increased output power. This arrangement uses low-voltage inexpensive components for the output stages and there is no obvious limit to the amount of output power which could be provided. As the circuit operates at high frequency throughout, there is no particular need for additional L2 coils to be placed physically inside the L1 coil:

![Diagram of L1 and L2 coils connected together]

However, there can be an advantage to this arrangement in that the wire length of the L1 coil is greater, which in turn makes the wire length of each L2 coil greater (being four times longer). This gives greater flexibility when planning the turns ratio of the L1/L2 transformer. The voltage step-up or step-down of that transformer happens to be in the ratio of the turns, in spite of the fact that this is not inductive coupling and so standard transformer technology does not apply.

When you choose the number of turns and coil diameter for L1, that also gives the length of the L2 wire. In order to get the desired output voltage, if perhaps, the step-down ratio is needed to be an amount of 46:1, then you need 46 times the number of L1 turns on the L2 coil. That means that you know both the wire length and number of turns wanted in the L2 coil. But, as each turn will have a length of 3.14159 times the diameter, it follows then that the wanted diameter is the wire length per turn, divided by 3.14159. The wire sits on top of the tube on which it is wound and so has a greater diameter by one wire thickness, so the calculated tube diameter needs to be reduced by one wire diameter. For example, if the length per turn is 162 mm and the wire diameter 0.8 mm, then the tube diameter would be 162 / 3.14159 – 0.8 which is 50.766 mm (just over two inches).

So, if we have resonant standing-wave voltages in our L2 coil and some of that signal passes through the wire connecting one end of the coil to the earth, then what will happen? The best way to check it is to test the way which a prototype behaves, however, if I may express an opinion, I would suggest that the signal passing down the earth wire will be absorbed when it reaches the earth and that will prevent the signal being reflected back to the L2 coil to upset its operation.

Another device of Don's is particularly attractive because almost no home-construction is needed, all of the components being available commercially, and the output power being adaptable to any level which you want. Don particularly likes this circuit because it demonstrates COP>1 so neatly and he remarks that the central transmitter Tesla Coil on its own is sufficient to power a household.
The coil in the centre of the board is a power transmitter made from a Tesla Coil constructed from two Barker & Williamson ready-made coils. Three more of the inner coil are also used as power receivers. The outer, larger diameter coil is a few turns taken from one of their standard coils and organised so that the coil wire length is one quarter of the coil wire length of the inner coil ("L2").

As before, a commercial neon-tube driver module is used to power the "L1" outer coil with high voltage and high frequency. It should be understood that as power is drawn from the local environment each time the power driving the transmitter coil "L1" cycles, that the power available is very much higher at higher frequencies. The power at mains frequency of less than 100 Hz is far, far less than the power available at 35,000 Hz, so if faced with the choice of buying a 25 kHz neon-tube driver module or a 35 kHz module, then the 35 kHz module is likely to give a much better output power at every voltage level.

The "L1" short outer coil is held in a raised position by the section of white plastic pipe in order to position it correctly relative to the smaller diameter "L2" secondary coil.

The secondary coils are constructed using Barker & Williamson's normal method of using slotted strips to hold the tinned, solid copper wire turns in place.
As there are very slight differences in the manufactured coils, each one is tuned to the exact transmitter frequency and a miniature neon is used to show when the tuning has been set correctly.

The key feature of this device is the fact that any number of receiver coils can be placed near the transmitter and each will receive a full electrical pick up from the local environment, without altering the power needed to drive the Tesla Coil transmitter - more and more output without increasing the input power - unlimited COP values, all of which are over 1. The extra power is flowing in from the local environment where there is almost unlimited amounts of excess energy and that inflow is caused by the rapidly vibrating magnetic field generated by the central Tesla Coil. While the additional coils appear to just be scattered around the base board, this is not the case. The YouTube video http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TiNEHZRm4z4&feature=related demonstrates that the pick-up of these coils is affected to a major degree by the distance from the radiating magnetic field. This is to do with the wavelength of the signal driving the Tesla Coil, so the coils shown above are all positioned at exactly the same distance from the Tesla Coil. You still can have as many pick-up coils as you want, but they will be mounted in rings around the Tesla Coil and the coils in each ring will be at the same distance from the Tesla Coil in the centre.

Each of the pick up coils act exactly the same as the "L2" secondary coil of the Tesla Coil transmitter, each picking up the same level of power. Just as with the actual "L2" coil, each will need an output circuit arrangement as described for the previous device. Presumably, the coil outputs could be connected in parallel to increase the output amperage, as they are all resonating at the same frequency and in phase with each other. Each will have its own separate output circuit with a step-down isolation transformer and frequency adjustment as before. If any output is to be a rectified DC output, then no frequency adjustment is needed, just rectifier diodes and a smoothing capacitor following the step-down transformer which will need to be an air core or ferrite core type due to the high frequency. High voltage capacitors are very expensive. The http://www.richieburnett.co.uk/parts.html web site shows various ways of making your own high-voltage capacitors and the advantages and disadvantages of each type.

There are two practical points which need to be mentioned. Firstly, as the Don Smith devices shown above feed radio frequency waveforms to coils which transmit those signals, it may be necessary to enclose the device in an earthed metal container in order not to transmit illegal radio signals. Secondly, as it can be difficult to obtain high-voltage high-current diodes, they can be constructed from several lower power diodes. To increase the voltage rating, diodes can be wired in a chain. Suitable diodes are available as repair items for microwave ovens. These typically have about 4,000 volt ratings and can carry a good level of current. As there will be minor manufacturing differences in the diodes, it is good practice to connect a high value resistor (in the 1 to 10 megohm range) across each diode as that ensures that there is a roughly equal voltage drop across each of the diodes:

![Resistor Chain Diagram]

If the diode rating of these diodes were 4 amps at 4,000 volts, then the chain of five could handle 4 amps at 20,000 volts. The current capacity can be increased by connecting two or more chains in parallel. Most constructors omit the resistors and find that they seem to get satisfactory performance.

The impedance of a coil depends on it’s size, shape, method of winding, number of turns and core material. It also depends on the frequency of the AC voltage being applied to it. If the core is made up of iron or steel, usually
thin layers of iron which are insulated from each other, then it can only handle low frequencies. You can forget about trying to pass 10,000 cycles per second ("Hz") through the coil as the core just can't change its magnetic poles fast enough to cope with that frequency. A core of that type is ok for the very low 50 Hz or 60 Hz frequencies used for mains power, which are kept that low so that electric motors can use it.

For higher frequencies, ferrite can be used for a core and that is why some portable radios use ferrite-rod aerials, which are a bar of ferrite with a coil wound on it. For higher frequencies (or higher efficiencies) iron dust encapsulated in epoxy resin is used. An alternative is to not use any core material and that is usually referred to as an "air-core" coil. These are not limited in frequency by the core but they have a very much lower inductance for any given number of turns. The efficiency of the coil is called it's "Q" (for "Quality") and the higher the Q factor, the better. The resistance of the wire lowers the Q factor.

A coil has inductance, and resistance caused by the wire, and capacitance caused by the turns being near each other. However, having said that, the inductance is normally so much bigger than the other two components that we tend to ignore the other two. Something which may not be immediately obvious is that the impedance to AC current flow through the coil depends on how fast the voltage is changing. If the AC voltage applied to a coil completes one cycle every ten seconds, then the impedance will be much lower than if the voltage cycles a million times per second.

If you had to guess, you would think that the impedance would increase steadily as the AC frequency increased. In other words, a straight-line graph type of change. That is not the case. Due to a feature called resonance, there is one particular frequency at which the impedance of the coil increases massively. This is used in the tuning method for AM radio receivers. In the very early days when electronic components were hard to come by, variable coils were sometimes used for tuning. We still have variable coils today, generally for handling large currents rather than radio signals, and we call them "rheostats" and some look like this:

These have a coil of wire wound around a hollow former and a slider can be pushed along a bar, connecting the slider to different winds in the coil depending on it's position along the supporting bar. The terminal connections are then made to the slider and to one end of the coil. The position of the slider effectively changes the number of turns of wire in the part of the coil which is being used in the circuit. Changing the number of turns in the coil, changes the resonant frequency of that coil. AC current finds it very, very hard to get through a coil which has the same resonant frequency as the AC current frequency. Because of this, it can be used as a radio signal tuner:

If the coil's resonant frequency is changed to match that of a local radio station by sliding the contact along the coil, then that particular AC signal frequency from the radio transmitter finds it almost impossible to get through the coil and so it (and only it) diverts through the diode and headphones as it flows from the aerial wire to the earth wire and the radio station is heard in the headphones. If there are other radio signals coming down the aerial wire, then, because they are not at the resonant frequency of the coil, they flow freely through the coil and don't go through the headphones.
This system was soon changed when variable capacitors became available as they are cheaper to make and they are more compact. So, instead of using a variable coil for tuning the radio signal, a variable capacitor connected across the tuning coil did the same job:

![Radio Receiver Circuit Diagram](image)

While the circuit diagram above is marked “Tuning capacitor” that is actually quite misleading. Yes, you tune the radio receiver by adjusting the setting of the variable capacitor, but, what the capacitor is doing is altering the resonant frequency of the coil/capacitor combination and it is the resonant frequency of that combination which is doing exactly the same job as the variable coil did on its own.

This draws attention to two very important facts concerning coil/capacitor combinations. When a capacitor is placed across a coil “in parallel” as shown in this radio receiver circuit, then the combination has a very high impedance (resistance to AC current flow) at the resonant frequency. But if the capacitor is placed “in series” with the coil, then there is nearly zero impedance at the resonant frequency of the combination:

![Parallel and Series Capacitor Impedance](image)

This may seem like something which practical people would not bother with, after all, who really cares? However, it is a very practical point indeed. Remember that Don Smith often uses an early version, off-the-shelf neon-tube driver module as an easy way to provide a high-voltage, high-frequency AC current source, typically, 6,000 volts at 30,000 Hz. He then feeds that power into a Tesla Coil which is itself, a power amplifier. The arrangement is like this:

![Neon-Tube Driver and Tesla Coil](image)

People who try to replicate Don’s designs tend to say “I get great sparks at the spark gap until I connect the \( L_1 \) coil and then the sparks stop. This circuit can never work because the resistance of the coil is too low”. If the resonant frequency of the \( L_1 \) coil does not match the frequency being produced by the neon-tube driver circuit, then the low impedance of the \( L_1 \) coil at that frequency, will definitely pull the voltage of the neon-tube driver down to a very low value. But if the \( L_1 \) coil has the same resonant frequency as the driver circuit, then the \( L_1 \) coil (or the \( L_1 \) coil/capacitor combination shown on the right, will have a very high resistance to current flow through it and it will work well with the driver circuit. So, no sparks, means that the coil tuning is off. It is the same as tuning a radio receiver, get the tuning wrong and you don’t hear the radio station.

This is very nicely demonstrated using simple torch bulbs and two coils in the YouTube video showing good output for almost no input power: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kQdcwDCBoNY](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kQdcwDCBoNY) and while only one resonant pick-up coil is shown, there is the possibility of using many resonant pick-up coils with just the one transmitter.

With a coil (fancy name “inductor” and symbol “L”), AC operation is very different to DC operation. The coil has a DC resistance which can be measured with the ohms range of a multimeter, but that resistance does not apply when AC is being used as the AC current flow is not determined by the DC resistance of the coil. Because of this, a second term has to be used for the current-controlling factor of the coil, and the term chosen is “impedance” which is the feature of the coil which “impedes” AC current flow through the coil.
The impedance of a coil depends on its size, shape, method of winding, number of turns and core material. It also depends on the frequency of the AC voltage being applied to it. If the core is made up of iron or steel, usually thin layers of iron which are insulated from each other, then it can only handle low frequencies. You can forget about trying to pass 10,000 cycles per second (“Hz”) through the coil as the core just can’t change its magnetic poles fast enough to cope with that frequency. A core of that type is ok for the very low 50 Hz or 60 Hz frequencies used for mains power, which are kept that low so that electric motors can use it.

For higher frequencies, ferrite can be used for a core and that is why some portable radios use ferrite-rod aerials, which are a bar of ferrite with a coil wound on it. For higher frequencies (or higher efficiencies) iron dust encapsulated in epoxy resin is used. An alternative is to not use any core material and that is usually referred to as an “air-core” coil. These are not limited in frequency by the core but they have a very much lower inductance for any given number of turns. The efficiency of the coil is called it’s “Q” (for “Quality”) and the higher the Q factor, the better. The resistance of the wire lowers the Q factor.

Constructing High-Quality Coils.
The Barker & Williamson coils used by Don in his constructions are expensive to purchase. Some years ago, in an article in a 1997 issue of the “QST” amateur radio publication, Robert H. Johns shows how similar coils can be constructed without any great difficulty. The Electrodyne Corporation research staff have stated that off-the-shelf solid tinned copper wire produces three times the magnetic field that un-tinned copper does, so perhaps that should be borne in mind when choosing the wire for constructing these coils.

These home-made coils have excellent “Q” Quality factors, some even better than the tinned copper wire coils of Barker & Williamson because the majority of electrical flow is at the surface of the wire and copper is a better conductor of electricity than the silver tinning material.

The inductance of a coil increases if the turns are close together. The capacitance of a coil decreases if the turns are spread out. A good compromise is to space the turns so that there is a gap between the turns of one wire thickness. A common construction method with Tesla Coil builders is to use nylon fishing line or plastic strimmer cord between the turns to create the gap. The method used by Mr Johns allows for even spacing without using any additional material. The key feature is to use a collapsible former and wind the coil on the former, space the turns out evenly and then clamp them in position with strips of epoxy resin, removing the former when the resin has set and cured.

Mr Johns has difficulty with his epoxy being difficult to keep in place, but when mixed with the West System micro fibres, epoxy can be made any consistency and it can be applied as a stiff paste without any loss of it’s properties. The epoxy is kept from sticking to the former by placing a strip of electrical tape on each side of the former.
I suggest that the plastic pipe used as the coil former is twice the length of the coil to be wound as that allows a good degree of flexing in the former when the coil is being removed. Before the two slots are cut in the plastic pipe, a wooden spreader piece is cut and it's ends rounded so that it is a push-fit in the pipe. This spreader piece is used to hold the sides of the cut end exactly in position when the wire is being wrapped tightly around the pipe.

Two or more small holes are drilled in the pipe beside where the slots are to be cut. These holes are used to anchor the ends of the wire by passing them through the hole and bending them. Those ends have to be cut off before the finished coil is slid off the former, but they are very useful while the epoxy is being applied and hardening. The pipe slots are cut to a generous width, typically 10 mm or more.

The technique is then to wedge the wooden spreader piece in the slotted end of the pipe. Then anchor the end of the solid copper wire using the first of the drilled holes. The wire, which can be bare or insulated, is then wrapped tightly around the former for the required number of turns, and the other end of the wire secured in one of the other drilled holes. It is common practice to make the turns by rotating the former. When the winding is completed, the turns can be spaced out more evenly if necessary, and then a strip of epoxy paste applied all along one side of the coil. When that has hardened, (or immediately if the epoxy paste is stiff enough), the pipe is turned over and a second epoxy strip applied to the opposite side of the coil. A strip of paxolin board or strip-board can be made part of the epoxy strip. Alternatively, an L-shaped plastic mounting bracket or a plastic mounting bolt can be embedded in the epoxy ready for the coil installation later on.

When the epoxy has hardened, typically 24 hours later, the coil ends are snipped off, the spreader piece is tapped out with a dowel and the sides of the pipe pressed inwards to make it easy to slide the finished coil off the former. Larger diameter coils can be wound with small-diameter copper pipe.

The coil inductance can be calculated from:

\[ L = \frac{d^2 n^2}{18d + 40l} \]

Where:
- \( d \) is the coil diameter in inches measured from wire centre to wire centre
- \( n \) is the number of turns in the coil
- \( l \) is coil length in inches (1 inch = 25.4 mm)

Using this equation for working out the number of turns for a given inductance in micro henrys:

\[ n = \sqrt{\frac{L(18d + 40l)}{d}} \]

A Russian Implementation of Don Smith's Design

Here is an attempt to translate a document from an unknown author on a Russian forum:

**Assembly Instructions for the Free-Energy Generator**

**Part 1: Accessories and materials**
1) The High-voltage power supply 3000V 100 – 200 W.
It is possible to use transformers from neon lamps, or any similar radio amateur designs with high EFFICIENCY of transformation and stabilisation of a desired current. Here is a possible implementation using the fly-back transformer from an old CRT TV set:

2) High-frequency resonant system L1/L2
The coil L1 is wound using a high-quality audio speaker cable with a cross-sectional area of 6.10 sq. mm, or alternatively, home-made litz wire. The litz wire or speaker cable length with connecting leads is about 2 meters.

The turns are wound on a plastic drain pipe of 50mm diameter, the number of turns is 4 or 5 (wound to the left, that is, counter-clockwise). Don't cut the rest of the winding wire, instead, pass it through the middle of the tube, and use it to connect the winding to the spark-gap and capacitor of the primary circuit. Example of the construction:

The secondary coil L2 of the resonant circuit, is wound using solid uninsulated copper wire with a diameter of 2 mm to 3 mm, preferably silver-plated (tinned wire is not so good). The secondary coil is wound with a diameter of about 75 mm. This coil has a tap in the middle. Both halves of the coil are wound in the same clockwise direction (to the right).
The approximate number of turns between 2 sets of 16 turns, to 2 sets of 18 turns. The coil must be wound without using a coil former.

These coils should be mounted in such a way as to prevent the flow of high-frequency high-voltage current to other parts of the circuit or components. The ends of the coil wires are clamped in terminal blocks mounted on the base plate, ready for connection to the other circuit components. The ratio of the wire lengths in coils L1 and L2 is 1 to 4, including the length of the connecting wires reaching to the other circuit components. A possible implementation of the secondary coil is shown here:

High-voltage diodes (chains) can be purchased ready-made or can be constructed from individual single diodes. The resulting diode chains should have a current rating of not less than 10 amperes at a voltage of 25 kV to 30 kV. It may be necessary to put several diode chains in parallel in order to meet this current rating requirement. Here are examples of these high-voltage diode chains:
The resonance capacitors (for coils L1, L2) in the primary circuit, need to have a voltage rating of at least 4 kV, the capacitance depends on the frequency of the secondary circuit (28 nF was used by the author for a resonant frequency of 600 kHz). The capacitor must be high quality with minimal dielectric losses and good charge retention.

Usually a composite capacitor bank of low-power capacitors is used. The most appropriate types of Russian capacitors are the K78-2, K78-15, K78-25 or similar types, as these types can easily handle the impulse currents of the discharge.

For the capacitor of the secondary circuit it is better to use any of the above types of capacitors, but the composite voltage must be not less than 10 kV. Excellent working Russian capacitors are the KVI-3 type, or even better, the K15-y2 type.

The secondary coil plus a capacitor form a resonant circuit. The capacitor used in the secondary circuit depends on the desired resonant frequency (the author used a KVI-3 type of 2200 pF and a 10 kV rating).

Here is a photograph of the capacitor used in the secondary circuit:

The high-frequency smoothing choke was used, wound in such a way as to get the minimum value of stray, parasitic capacitance in the inductor windings. The inductance range of this inductor is 100 - 200 micro-Henry, and using a partitioned winding helps to keep the coil capacitance low. The wire diameter to use is 1.5 to 2.0 mm enamelled copper wire. Here is a photograph of one implementation of this choke:
These windings can be made on a PVC pipe with a diameter from 50 mm to 75 mm.

For the storage capacitor bank you can use capacitors with a voltage rating of anything from 5 kV to 15 kV with a total capacity of about 2 microfarads. Suitable Russian oil-filled capacitors, include all types of K41-1, K75-53 and others. This is the circuit diagram of the device:

Diodes VD1, VD2 – high-voltage composites.
Diode VD5 needs to be an ultrafast type rated at 1200 V, 30-150 Amps.
Choke L3 is any kind with an open magnetic core, wound with wire of not less than 6 sq. mm., and giving a 1.5 milli-Henry inductance.
The load (an inverter or a DC motor) requires a low input voltage of 12V to 110 volts (lower voltage - high power output)

When building and experimenting be sure to take all Safety Precautions as you will be working with more than 1000 Volts.

Video Links showing this device running an angle-grinder and an electric motor are:
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NC3EYDYAXDU #
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sckdMe3HCw#
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OaqZ52dGMn4#

The “SISG” module shown in the circuit above is an attempt to build a solid-state version of a spark gap. In this version of Don Smith’s designs by ‘Dynatron’ he wanted the equivalent of a diac or a dinistor. A dinistor is basically a thyristor or SCR without the gate. It starts conducting very suddenly if the voltage on its terminals exceeds its design value and it stops conducting if the voltage drops to almost zero or the circuit is disconnected, forcing the current to become zero. Diacs or dinistors are hard to find for very high voltages over 5000V, so Dynatron tried to build equivalent circuits which could be used at high voltage and any one of those designs is what is indicated by the box marked “SISG”.
Sergei’s Dynatron circuitry

Russian experimenters are well advanced in their investigations of this type of circuitry. Here is an attempted translation from Russian to English, made, I believe by the energetic forum member “Davi” of Georgia. While I believe this translation to be reasonably accurate, as I can only understand English, I have no way of knowing if it is accurate. The information comes from an interview with Sergei concerning his Tariel Kapanadze style circuitry:

We begin to draw the schematic diagram

We use a line-scan transformer and point-contact diodes.
We add in an earth ground, a capacitor, a discharger, and a second transformer winding.

Notice this rectangle.

In the transformer we have an alternating voltage cycles. If we have a threshold voltage -control device, such as a discharger, then positive charges will be pumped from the earth-ground connection, through the diodes. This flow is first, through a one diode, and then through the other diode. That means that the secondary winding of the transformer will accumulate a positive charge. Consequently, you do not need a charged capacitor. Instead of the spark gap which Don Smith used, you can put a small choke coil of 100-200 millihenrys or a 100 ohm resistor and either of those work just fine. The usual spark gap will work perfectly well but it does not have a long working life. A resistor can be used and it will work. Vacuum or gas-discharge tubes work well. The voltage here is around 1000 volts.

While you can eliminate the spark gap, but when you do have one, the pumping of charges from the ground works better – it turns out to be something like a fork Avramenko plug. The transformer winding acts on the ground charge with the aid of the voltages developed in it.
The secondary winding of the resonant transformer, destroys the dipole, according to Don Smith. As he explained, the upper plate of the capacitor develops a high voltage from the charges drawn in through the earth connection. This high voltage is then discharged through a diode or a spark gap.

The ground charge enters the secondary winding, and due to its self-capacitance, accumulates a high voltage on the winding. The diodes used in this location need to be high quality diodes which have a low capacitance. For example, Don Smith used diodes which have a capacitance of just 4 pF.
At this point, the pumping scheme will look like this, and I think that it will not change.

The second coil is exactly the same as the first coil.

For the time delay we use a choking coil. The capacitor is an electrolytic type and we use a spark gap to feed an isolation transformer. To ensure that there will be no feedback of unwanted voltage spikes, we connect a 6 kV 20 to 50 A high-voltage diode in parallel with the primary winding of the isolation transformer. This can be arranged by connecting three 1000V diode bridges together like this:
Three 1000V diode bridges can be connected to withstand a voltage of 6 kV.

The spark gap is inserted in the positive wire, the same as the first spark gap. Why is this?

Here we have a separation of electrons.

We collect electrons both from the air and from out of the ground. We push the negatively charged electrons into the ground, and so a positive charge accumulates in our capacitor.
The ground wire carries the negative charges into the earth (which is an expansion tank).

If you connect the spark gap between the earth and the upper end of the transformer which is positively charged, then the primary winding wire will get warm, and the efficiency falls. When correctly connected the primary winding can be constructed with wires which are 0.5 -1.0 mm diameter and the wires remain cold.

If we have achieved the splitting of the electron-positron pair, then if you put them in a discharger, or in a transistor, or whatever, only the radiation remains. However, the really important fact is that the magnetic component passes through the primary winding of the transformer, and it induces a strong magnetic field in the secondary winding.

Don Smith said that if you connect two batteries together and one is say, 30 volts, and the other 10 volts. The 30-volt battery passing 10-volt, the electrons in each battery resist each other. It appears that they do not "like each other" if one can describe it that way.

The same thing happens in an ordinary transformer. The current flowing in the secondary winding resists the flow of current in the primary winding - back EMF. But the following question is relevant: at the instant when the negative ion-electrons just start to flow in the primary winding, the interaction between the primary and secondary windings is absent. Because of this we get a huge load-carrying capacity in the secondary winding, practically without changing the inductance of the primary winding, well, if it is changed then that will be not more than 10% to 20%.
Generally, the minimum load impedance will kill the inductance causing the frequency to change. But this does not happen here, because the primary current flow is of another kind, which is not affected by the current flowing in the secondary winding. That is, moving a small number of electrons in the primary can cause a large number of electrons to flow in the secondary winding. The thicker the wire of the secondary, the more excited electrons there will be there and so, the greater the current flow in the secondary.

The mass of the secondary electrons does not depend on the mass of the primary electrons. The diameter of the secondary winding is not limited. For example, if you use a 110 mm. tube for the secondary, then the velocity of the electrons flowing through the winding will be the same as if it were wound with a wire diameter of just 1 mm or 2 mm. This is because the current flow is not impeded by the resistance.

The magnetic field of the secondary winding does not interact with the magnetic field of the primary winding. However, the primary magnetic field accelerates the electron moving in the secondary winding, i.e. This produces an asymmetric transformation.

Naturally, here we need very good insulation.

Roughly speaking, if there is a small hole in the wire insulation, then the vaporous electrons in the primary winding will hold the equivalent vaporous electrons in the secondary winding, and that will squeeze the heavy electrons in the secondary winding. Consequently, there must be an anti-static screen in the form of a coil, or aluminium foil that is connected to ground.

So, all the positively charged particles should go into the ground

If you want to ground the output transformer, then do it through a resistor connected to a ground point which is at least 10 metres away from the first grounding point in the circuit. The farther apart the grounding points are, the better, say, 10 to 30 metres apart. In principle, the length of the ground between the two ground connections can be considered to be an isolation capacitor between those two points in the circuit.
The big question is, of course, what should be the ratio of the primary winding turns to the secondary winding turns - 1:4? but here is some good advice:

Accurately measure the total length of the secondary winding and make the primary winding wire length exactly one quarter of the wire length of the secondary winding. The connecting wires are not considered in this measurement, and it is better to make them thinner. If, for example, the primary wire has a cross-sectional area of 8 sq. mm, then make the connecting wires 2.5 sq. mm. in cross sectional area.

In other words, here are the terminals of the secondary winding.

The oscillation amplitude increases massively at the resonant frequency. Why is that?
Because of the change in impedance at the junction between the two wires, the connection becomes a node and this is reflected in the anti-nodes, and the primary waveform remains a standing wave.

You will recall that Don Smith used a very thick cable but he reduced it to become a thin connection at each end. That thick-to-thin change causes a reflection of the wave. The secondary winding has LC resonance but the inductor depends on its wave resonance length.

In fact, what we have here is a Tesla transformer, i.e. voltage, current.

You will recall that even in the green box of Tariel Kapanadze with its thick pipe coil, that thin wires go from the pipe to the spark gap. Changing the impedance of the wire at the junction between the two different cross-sectional areas - That's it! That raises the efficiency, and so the spark gap works better.

Ideally, you want to use a vacuum spark gap.

Unfortunately, our spark is not dispersed in the secondary winding. The spark might be triggered at anything from 50 kV up to 100 kV. We have a great 'Q-factor' (coil 'Quality' factor) in our winding! However, once the spark has occurred we get a roll-back of current moving in the reverse direction through the winding, although it is
always less powerful than the forward action. This reverse pulse also passes through the spark gap, effectively shunting, the input circuit and so, decreasing the output Q of the circuit. The circuit’s output voltage is reduced. The resonant frequency drifts and so the output power drops. Although this effect can be seen when using an air gap, it is much better to use either a vacuum spark gap or a spark gap which is enclosed in a tube filled with hydrogen gas.

You can put a diode in series with the spark gap.

If that is done, then the reverse current will not pass. The diode must be able to withstand a reverse voltage of 10 to 20 kV. We ordered a hydrogen diode with power handling capacity of 120 watts. It’s turn-on time is 0.1 ms, off time is less than 1 ms. We connected the current transformer using 24 ohm resistor. The result was a pure current transformer on the load, and without any interference. Let’s see what we have done on the discharger. Take a look - the spark gap was lit up with a blue colour.
On the oscilloscope, we see dampened oscillations.

There must be only one oscillation, and the remaining excess. The 5 extra vibrations short-circuit the secondary winding, and prevent it from operating normally.

Clicking the inductor - capacitor recharges, but the current does not go back. (it stops at zero)

Picture voltage "U".
Picture current "I".
That is how such a process should be, but otherwise - buffeting vibration. (need a hydrogen diode)
Isolation transformer.

The isolation transformer is made up of rings. The primary winding is 2 bifilar layers wound in one direction. The secondary winding is with wire which has 10 sq. mm. cross sectional area, but today we will rewind it. The screen is made of foil - ordinary Scotch tape. But the screening must not form a complete turn as it must not be a closed-loop. Here, aluminium Scotch tape is used. Now short-circuit the secondary winding, and enable the device.
We check with a screwdriver, and there is practically no output. If you add an anti-static barrier, i.e. gasket between the primary and shield. It should be made from a good insulator, such as PTFE. It is possible to use cellophane which, being like acrylic is also a very good insulator. I shorted outputs, so as not to clatter. If you remove the jumper, the coil is bursting with no load like this. (We hear a crash, and after 3 seconds it stops) Sergey: We'll see what it was. (Blue spark coil pierced).

That's it! The experiment's completed. Blown diode bridge - Accident. Accidentally shorted to ground. Well, that's all. It is desirable, of course, have a good ground connection. The threshold-limiting device is a choke.

What can I say?
In principle, you can use the CISC module instead of a spark gap. In this circuit, the very sharp rise time of the driving waveform pulse fronts is not necessary, because the inductance is large.

If the transformer has an iron core, then the rate of charging of the capacitor will be very fast, at, for example, 50 Hz. At that low rate, you can omit the discharger. In Don Smith’s design where a neon tube driver is used, a diode and even a diac can be used instead of a spark gap. It will even work with a direct connection.

Then the impulses are often, but with smaller amplitude. Naturally, the better, when we divide the frequency, i.e. for two of the primary pulse charges the capacitor of the secondary.

Then the amount of energy in the pulses is summed.
Here they are superimposed on one another, in a linear fashion.

\[ C = \frac{Q}{U} \text{ and } U = \frac{Q}{C} \]

The capacitance is a constant. If we increase the number of charging pulses per second, then because the secondary coil at resonance increases the amplitude of the pulses, we get increased power. At 5 times more power, because there are 5 times the number of charging pulses passed to the capacitor, we get a squaring of the voltage-energy. That is an energy increase of 25 times.

Raising the spark frequency by, say a factor of 10, will give an energy gain of a factor of 100.

Well, I’m telling you, place a spark gap here in order to – INTERRUPT. Otherwise, the inductor will not be able to speed up and pass more pulses into the capacitor.
Gentlemen! Make it and test it.
The Rosemary Ainslie Energy-Collection System

For many years now, people studying science-related subjects in universities around the world, have been told things which are at best, out of date, and at worst, deliberately incorrect. For example, a common starting point for analysis is to assume "a closed system" although it is perfectly clear that there is no such thing on the planet.

With few exceptions, calculations are generally based on the assumption that energy does not flow into a system or a device from the outside. The influence of sunlight is one of the few external inputs recognised, and it's effect on solar panels, producing rainfall, causing winds, etc. are admitted because these things are so obvious to the average person that there is no denying them.

These same people fight tooth and nail to persuade people that "space" is empty and that there is nothing in it. This is, of course, ridiculous, since light passes through space, as do radio waves, X-rays, cosmic particles, and other things. It is certainly a weird notion that distant objects can affect each other if there is absolutely nothing in between them. It would be a neat trick to explain the effect of gravity if there is absolutely nothing in the gap between them.

The matter has long since left the realm of common sense as the British scientist Harold Aspden has demonstrated with laboratory measurements, the presence of an "unknown" field which acts like an incompressible gas. What his work has demonstrated is now known as "the Aspden Effect" and the experimental results are as follows:

Harold was running tests not related to this subject. He started an electric motor which had a rotor mass of 800 grams and recorded the fact that it took an energy input of 300 joules to bring it up to its running speed of 3,250 revolutions per minute when it was driving no load.

The rotor having a mass of 800 grams and spinning at that speed, its kinetic energy together with that of the drive motor is no more than 15 joules, contrasting with the excessive energy of 300 joules needed to get it rotating at that speed. If the motor is left running for five minutes or more, and then switched off, it comes to rest after a few seconds. But, the motor can then be started again (in the same or opposite direction) and brought up to speed with only 30 joules provided that the time lapse between stopping and restarting is no more than a minute or so. If there is a delay of several minutes, then an energy input of 300 joules is needed to get the rotor spinning again.

This is not a transient heating phenomenon. At all times the bearing housings feel cool and any heating in the drive motor would imply an increase of resistance and a build-up of power to a higher steady state condition. The experimental evidence is that there is something unseen, which is put into motion by the machine rotor. That "something" has an effective mass density 20 times that of the rotor, but it is something that can move independently and take several minutes to decay, while the motor comes to rest in a few seconds.

Two machines of different rotor size and composition reveal the phenomenon and tests indicate variations with time of day and compass orientation of the spin axis. One machine, the one incorporating weaker magnets, showed evidence of gaining strength magnetically during the tests which were repeated over a period of several days. This clearly shows that there is an unseen medium which interacts with everyday objects and actions.

Bob Boyce of the USA developed a toroidal transformer pulsing system which he uses for the electrolysis of water. His system is notable for the fact that he gets efficiency levels more than 1,000% that of Michael Faraday who set the standard for university teaching on the subject. One of the most likely explanations for this seemingly massive outperforming of Faraday's maximum possible gas output results is that Faraday was perfectly correct and excess energy is flowing into Bob's system from the outside.

There is extremely strong evidence that this is so, because five independent experimenters have demonstrated this inward energy flow, using Bob's toroidal transformer to charge batteries. One man who lives in South Africa has a young daughter who drives her small electric car around each day. The car is powered by one 18 Amp-Hour lead-acid battery. There is nothing unusual about this as these miniature cars are readily available around the world. There is also nothing unusual that the child's father charges up the battery overnight, so that the little girl can drive around the next day. What is most unusual is the fact that the battery charging is powered by the battery which is being charged. According to university teaching, the charging is a "closed system" and so it is not physically possible for that to happen.

The little girl does not know this and drives around happily each day. The battery in her car has been recharged this way more than thirty times. This would appear to be direct evidence of energy flowing into the charging system from the outside. Achieving this is not an easy thing to do, quite apart from the fact that most sensible people are very reluctant to have the output of any system fed back to the input of that same system as that is positive feedback which easily leads to power runaway. The preference is to have one twelve volt battery charge a separate forty-eight volt battery bank because doing that avoids any possibility of excessive feedback.
As with most systems, the practical details are a key feature. In this case, the toroid is a MicroMetals 6.5 inch iron-dust toroid which is precision hand-wound with three separate windings of solid, silver-plated copper wire with a teflon covering. These three windings are pulsed in turn with a complex waveform signal, creating a high-speed rotating magnetic field which has no moving parts. A rotating magnetic field like that has long been known to produce excess power with a RotoVerter system constructed from two off-the-shelf 3-phase motors, having a power output well in excess of the power input needed to make it run.

This inflow of outside power is a feature of Rosemary Ainslie’s heating system. Rosemary has designed and laboratory-tested a heating system which can have substantially more output power than the input power needed to run it. She achieves this by pulsing a heating element in an unusual way using this circuit:

Most circuits which draw energy in from the local environment, generally need to be tuned to achieve resonant operation. It is also found that a waveform rich in harmonics is needed to produce the best results. For example, Ronald Classen recently produced an analysis of the operation of Bob Boyce’s electrolyser toroid pulsing. Bob’s circuit generates three separate waveforms, one at about 42.8 kHz, and two harmonics, one at around 21.4 kHz and the other at about 10.7 kHz. He examined the operation with the two harmonics slaved exactly to the master frequency and then with the two harmonics free-running and not quite synchronised, so that a random pattern of harmonic pulses were generated. Surprisingly, he found that the random arrangement gave much higher gains than the "precision" circuit.
The same sort of situation is found here in the Ainslie circuit as very precise adjustment of the "Gate" preset resistor "R1" has a major effect on the circuit performance while the other two, R4 and R7, are used to adjust the frequency of the pulses and the ratio of "On" time to "Off" time. Like almost every other circuit which produces a greater power output than the input power required to make it operate, very careful adjustment is needed. The characteristics of the "Load" heating element "R3" are also very important. With some configurations, there is no excess power generated, while with others there is a very marked increase in power and the prototype apparatus produced power outputs in excess of four times the input power.

A quick glance at the circuit diagram makes it appear that there is no significant connection between the NE555 timer chip and the IRFPG50 FET transistor. This is not the case as the arrangement as shown generates transients which modify the oscillation of the NE555 chip. This is presumably due to the nature of the current draw by the gate of the FET or through induced currents caused by the pulsing of the inductive load heater coil "R3". We tend to think of FET transistors as having next to no current flowing into the gate, but the IRFPG50 FET can draw up to a massive 6 amps for the Gate to Source current flow. The NE555N chip supplying that gate current (with no current-limiting resistor between the two devices) can supply a maximum of only 200 mA (or possibly 300 mA at a push) which is only 5% of the possible current draw by the FET. The circuit of the NE555N chip is:

![Circuit Diagram](image)

From this it appears that the direct coupling of the output could allow some modification of the chip timing and waveform if the output current draw is well above the design value, the internal resistors preventing destruction of the chip and reducing the effect so that it just modifies the functioning of the chip.

This is also suggested by the fact that the adjustment of the "Grid" variable resistor, which controls the NE555N current draw, is the most critical adjustment of the circuit. Supporting that idea is the fact that the required chip operation does not take place if the "Grid" resistor setting is too high or too low. Presumably, the setting has to be an exact amount so that the NE555N chip operation is altered to make it generate waveforms not envisaged by the chip designers. The physical separation of the "Load" resistor and the circuit board may also be important as there is almost certainly a magnetic feedback element as well.

I would love to tell you that the circuit operates in the way that the circuit diagram would suggest, with the timing and Mark-Space values controlled as expected by the 555 chip designers. However, that is definitely not the case. If the 24V battery is disconnected, then the NE555 chip section of the circuit performs exactly as expected. If the "R1" GATE resistor is at the correct setting and the 24V battery is then connected, the result is that the normal running of the NE555 chip is overridden and the circuit immediately switches into a completely different type of operation. The Mark-Space ratio is forced into an approximately 55% setting and the pulsing rate is bounced to over 500 kHz (well beyond the capability of the NE555 chip, as many actual chips can't even reach 45 kHz in practice) with this waveform:
which you will note has repeating pairs of pulses, neither of which is a square wave. The overall circuit is clearly not operating as an NE555 chip circuit any longer but is oscillating in an unexpected way. This high radio-frequency pulsing produces electromagnetic waves which radiate out from the load resistor, an effect which is seen on a nearby television set. This is not really surprising, as the circuit should really be presented like this:

This is because the 10 ohm "resistor R3" is actually a coil of wire. The specification for this component shows that it has a length of 150 mm (6"), a diameter of 32 mm (1.25") and is an air-core coil, wound with 48 turns of resistance wire with a 1 mm gap between each turn. The lack of a core, allows the coil to oscillate at this high frequency, and any coil driven at that frequency radiates radio waves.

It is almost certain that these electromagnetic waves are inducing voltages in the wiring surrounding the NE555 chip circuit, causing it to run wildly outside its design. The wire-wound adjustment resistors are little coils which have the potential for picking up transmitted waves. This pickup mechanism is strongly supported by the fact that only an NE555N chip will operate in this way and three other makes of 555 chip which were tested, failed to produce this runaway action. The higher runaway frequency is important for achieving power gain. Don Smith states that the extra power being drawn into a circuit is proportional to the square of the pulse frequency. If this is correct, then moving the pulse rate up to over 500,000 per second will have a major energy effect and explain why tuning the circuit into this high-speed mode is important.

The practical method of tuning the circuit into its self-oscillating non-symmetrical, power-gaining mode is by monitoring the voltage of the "V1" 24V battery. When the circuit is out of tune, the battery voltage gets pulled down quite noticeably. When the circuit is tuned correctly, there is a slight increase in the battery voltage. If the circuit has been built as described, using an NE555N timer chip and a high inductance load "resistor" coil, then tuning the circuit is performed as follows: Connect a digital voltmeter across the 24-volt power supply and note the exact reading. Set the "ON" preset resistor to its minimum value of zero ohms. Set the "OFF" preset resistor to its maximum value of 10K ohms. These resistors are generally left at these settings throughout.

The "GATE" resistor is now adjusted very carefully, watching the voltmeter reading. As the circuit comes to its best possible tuning, the battery voltage will rise. Pick the resistor setting which gives the highest battery reading. The rise in battery voltage is caused by the inflow of external energy. Some of this flows through the "LOAD" causing heating effects which can be 17 times greater than would normally be expected. Part of the inflowing energy flows back into the power supply, and that flow lowers the current draw from the 24V battery, which in turn, allows it to show a higher voltage reading. This mechanism is exactly the same as described by Tom Bearden when explaining the operation of John Bedini's battery-charging pulse circuits - part into the load and part back into the power supply.

Although it is not mentioned in the Parts List, it is very important to mount the FET transistor on a heat sink as the current flowing through it causes it to heat up. Also important is to use a mica gasket between the FET and the heat sink. A mica gasket is a thin layer of mica which electrically insulates the FET from the heat sink while still acting as an extremely good conductor of the FET heat to the heat sink. This is necessary because the "Drain"
the FET and if the FET is not insulated from the heat sink, then the heat sink acts as a radio aerial and radiates an embarrassingly large level of radio waves. The heat sink can be a simple sheet of aluminium, or it can be a commercial finned design of which there are many from which to choose. A suggested physical layout for this circuit is given towards the end of this document, and can be used if you are inclined so to do.

This is a circuit which cries out for replication and investigation by both experienced and inexperienced experimenters. There are no expensive components in the circuit and the circuitry could hardly be any more simple than it is. If this circuit can be scaled up to operate as a household heater it would mean that electrical heating costs could be reduced to a tiny fraction of what they are at the present time. That sort of cost reduction would make a major difference to a very large number of people, which makes this circuit very interesting indeed.

A website which has a considerable amount of interesting information on this design and the history surrounding it can be found at: http://www.free-energy.ws/rosemary-ainslie.html

The operating methods which are used in this style of circuitry are describe in considerable detail in a patent application (WO 99/38247) has been filed for this system. Reading those descriptions can be helpful, so here is a digest of part of that patent:

Patent: WO 99/38247 Date: 22nd January 1999 Inventor: Rosemary A. Ainslie

ABSTRACT
A method of achieving high efficiency of energy usage which includes passing current through an inductor, causing the current to be repeatedly interrupted, thereby generating a back EMF in the inductor and thereafter, harnessing the back EMF so generated, to supply energy to an energy-receiving or processing device. The frequency of interruptions should be 40 Hz or more and is achievable by rectifying the current. The invention extends to apparatus for harnessing such back EMF and energy generating means comprising an inductor and a current interruptor connected to an energy-receiving device.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION
The invention relates to a method of harnessing back EMF for use in powering a load or replenishing a depletable energy source and extends to apparatus used in performing the method.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION
Conventional switching circuits are well known in electrical energy conversion technology, and switch mode systems have been employed to enhance energy utilisation efficiencies. The concept of absorbing electrical energy released by the collapse of auto-electronic emissions from a discharge tube is disclosed in US 5,449,989. This document discloses a circuit which includes an output port connected to a current sink which is able to absorb at least a substantial portion of such emissions. The current sink may be an electric motor or a secondary battery.

The concept of applying a back EMF in electrical circuitry is also known. For example, in US 5,521,476 there is disclosed a control circuit for a disc drive motor, in which back EMF blocking circuitry is employed to prevent dissipation of a back EMF through a power supply. By contrast, publication WO 9,613,892 discloses the use of a back EMF to trigger a response in a control system for a mechanical system, so that driving pulses are generated to accomplish a desired displacement motion.

In the present invention, to achieve high energy efficiencies, greater than unity in relation to a conventional test circuit, a back EMF which is generated in an inductor, is harnessed so as to return energy associated with the EMF, to a depletable energy source which is supplying such a circuit, or to a load included in the same primary circuit as the energy source. It is envisaged that a wide range of electrical supply sources will derive benefit from the invention disclosed below.

A first aspect of the invention is a method of harnessing back EMF in an electrical circuit in order to increase the efficiency of energy usage to 90% or more, (compared to a Resistor-Temperature v Wattage calibration circuit). This is done by arranging the circuit so that it contains an inductor and an energy-receiving device configured so
that the current flowing through the inductor generates a back EMF whose energy is used to provide both additional energy to the circuit itself, and the back EMF energy to the energy-receiving device.

In a preferred form of the method, the back EMF is generated by interrupting the current flow through the inductor, ideally, interrupting and restoring the current flow repeatedly and rectifying the current. The rate of interruptions should be at least 40 times per second and preferably 50 or more times per second. The duty cycle of the interruption should be at least 50% and ideally be 75%. That is, the current flow through the inductor is "On" for 50% to 95% of the time and "Off" for 50% to 5% of the time.

In a further preferred form of the invention, a back EMF is generated which is large enough to cause the comparative energy efficiency to be at least unity. This can be achieved by setting and controlling a suitable value for a variable selected from one or more of:
- The frequency of interruptions from the wave rectifier;
- The duty cycle;
- The thickness of the wiring in the circuit;
- The efficiency of the inductor core,
the value being set in accordance with the operational requirements of the desired application.

In another preferred form of the invention, the energy-receiving device is either an energy-requiring load, and/or an energy storage device, ideally a replenishable source of either DC or AC electrical energy. Ideally, the method also includes providing at least one inductive load associated with each receiving device. The inductor may be a transformer or other suitable inductive device.

A second aspect of the invention is a method of restoring electrical energy to a source, which is done by providing a closed circuit containing a source of electrical energy which passes current through the inductor, creating an extruded magnetic field around the inductor, which field is then collapsed, creating a back EMF which is then fed to the source with an energy usage efficiency factor of 1 or more when compared to a Resistor Temperature Versus Wattage Calibration Circuit.

This feedback of energy can be to an energy-requiring load or to an energy storage device.

In a further preferred form of the invention, the bias-changing mechanism is a wave rectifier and the method of use is to make the wave rectifier output interrupt the electric current.

Ideally, the inductor used should have a solid core which is capable of inducing a magnetic moment associated with a collapsing magnetic field.

The method used in this invention includes selecting a value for:
- The frequency of interruptions from the wave rectifier;
- The duty cycle;
- The thickness of the wiring in the circuit;
- The efficiency of the inductor core,
so that the magnitude of the back EMF generated when the magnetic field collapses, is in a predetermined range which suits the requirements of the energy-receiving device and its intended use.

In one preferred form of the invention, the inductor is a transformer with a primary winding large enough to create sufficient voltage from the back EMF, to feed power back into the circuit. If the current feeding the inductor is AC, then the current interruptor can be a diode or a triac.

A further aspect of the invention is an apparatus comprising an inductor having a core suitable for the generation of back EMF from collapsing magnetic fields, and an electrical circuit containing that inductor, a replenishable energy source, and energy-receiving device and means for changing orbital bias of a magnetic field set up in use and associated with the inductor, both it and the source with variable frequency and variable Mark-Space ratio, being configured to operate the inductor, and arranged so that the magnetic field of the inductor is made to collapse and be restored repeatedly, thereby generating electrical energy, the circuit being capable of conducting the energy and providing it to the energy-receiving device.
A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Fig. 1 illustrates schematically, a circuit to which the invention may be applied.

Fig. 2 illustrates an electrical generator which may be used with this invention.
Fig. 3A illustrates a control circuit which is described in Example 1 below, and Fig. 3B illustrates a test circuit, the performance of which is compared with the circuit shown in Fig. 3A.
Fig. 4 illustrates the test circuit described in Example 2 below.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

By connecting an inductor in a load-bearing circuit and causing back EMF to be established in the inductor, there may be created a voltage of sufficient magnitude to restore energy to the circuit's source of power and so reduce
its rate of depletion. It is not suggested that the load would consume less energy, but that additional energy from the back EMF can be supplied to either the load or the power source supplying that load.

The circuit can be supplied with either DC or AC power and while the inductor may be any suitable inductor, the use of a transformer is preferred. An alternative is a winding or a choke, preferably containing a core capable of inducing a magnetic moment associated with a collapsing magnetic field - typically an iron core, but it could be any suitable liquid or gaseous medium or combination with or without additional solids.

To generate back EMF, the current flowing through the inductor needs to be interrupted repeatedly which can be done by any suitable means. A preferred method is the use of a variable-duty cycle chopper. If the current is AC, then the interruption can be caused by using a wave rectifier such as a diode or a triac. If the current is DC, then the current interruption is achieved by the use of an oscillator, MOSFET or an equivalent means whereby a fluctuating magnetic field in the inductor can be created.

The method of recycling energy which is the substance of this invention has the following steps:

1. Setting up a circuit containing an inductor which has an extruded magnetic field and which is arranged in such a way as to allow electrical energy to be passed both to and from the inductor, and
2. Changing the orbital bias of the magnetic field around the inductor, causing the collapse of the magnetic field and the creation of the back EMF current.

These two steps are repeated in rapid succession and when the current flowing through the inductor is interrupted, an alternative circuit is provided in order to direct the back EMF current to the desired destination. Preferred inductor core materials are iron and other ferrous materials.

The circuit does not need to be complicated but it needs to be able to either interrupt or reverse the current through the inductor as already described. The invention will now be described in greater detail by referring to the diagrams:

In Fig.1, the wave rectifying diode 14 is placed in series with a primary inductor 12, and acts as an interruptor of the electrical current supplied to the circuit. If a sine wave or square wave waveform is applied to the circuit through points 16 and 18, a pulsing DC waveform is created in the winding of inductor 12. The interruption of each waveform cycle in the inductor winding 12, induces a fluctuating magnetic field in the iron core 20 inside the inductor.

It is thought that the back EMF causes a reverse waveform in the inductor winding 12 which is a full sine wave in the case of an alternating current powered circuit, or a full square wave if the circuit is powered by DC pulses. The inductor 12, may be connected with a load (not shown) in series or in parallel at any of the points marked 18.

Depending on the frequency of the interruptions, the duty cycle, the thickness of the wiring and the efficiency of the core, the voltage across the inductor 12 may be conducted through a closed circuit to be used in powering the load or returned to the power source. It is desirable, though not essential, that the frequency of interruptions should be not less than 40 Hz although 500 Hz or higher is more appropriate for some applications.

An example of a suitable closed circuit employing such a system is a battery powering a lamp. A transformer may be connected in series with the lamp along with a current chopper which has a variable duty cycle. The output from the transformer can be routed through a diode, a high value resistor and a capacitor all in series. Here, when the chopper service is on, the current flows through the load and transformer. Repeated opening and closing of the current-chopper system causes the generation of electric current in the transformer secondary and that current is passed back to the battery, exceeding the current draw.
Fig. 2 shows another variation of the circuit where a primary winding 30, having for example, 220 turns around a cylindrical core 32, made of a ferrous metal such as iron or an iron alloy, is associated with a secondary winding 34 of about the same number of turns. The secondary winding is wound around the core adjacent to, or on top of the primary winding 30, producing a magnetic coupling between the windings, enhanced by the core 32. The circuit input 36 is connected to an AC source 38, typically a 220V 50Hz mains supply. The circuit output is taken from the secondary winding 40. A diode 42 is connected in series with the primary winding 30, causing the full-wave AC input to become a pulsating input to that primary winding.

On each positive-going half cycle, the primary winding induces a corresponding current in the secondary winding 34. However, when, due to the blocking effect of diode 42, the magnetic field resulting from the current in the primary winding 30 collapses, the resulting back EMF in the primary winding induces a corresponding negative-going waveform in the secondary winding 34. Hence the output 40 from the secondary winding is a full-wave AC waveform.

Although this description is for a circuit with one inductor, it is clear that additional inductors could be used to achieve even greater enhancements in system performance. For example, two or more primary windings could be wired in parallel where just one is shown in Fig. 2 above, each providing a separate, independent full-wave AC output. Alternatively, more than one secondary winding can be placed on the transformer core, utilising the magnetic coupling of the core.

Example 1: Two tests were conducted on two wire-wound, 10-watt resistors manufactured by Philips. The resistors have identical surface areas. The object of the test was to compare the rate of current draw of a standard "Resistor temperature Versus Wattage Calibration Circuit" (the "control") indicated in Fig. 3A:
to a test using a switching device and an inductor as indicated in Fig.3B. The same battery was used in both tests. The control test shown in Fig.3A, had a thermocoupled 68 ohm resistor 40, and a sensing resistor 42, placed in series with the battery terminals 44. All measurements were made after the temperature of resistor 42 had reached its maximum value of 95°C. The current was measured as being 196 mA and as the battery voltage was 12.28 volts that represents a power level of 2.406 watts.

The test circuit shown in Fig.3B, had a MOSFET switching circuit transistor 56 driven by a square wave signal (shown in green) whose Mark/Space ratio was adjusted until the load resistor 42 reached its highest value of 93°C and all quoted measurements were made after that time. The pulsing signal was running at 5kHz with an "On" time of 22.87% and an "Off" time of 77.13% of the time. The current flow was measured as 171.8 mA which represents a power input of 2.109 watts. The room temperature remained the same during the entire test period.

Allowing for a 5% error in the measurements, this result shows an energy output which is 8.6% greater than the power input, or COP=1.086.

Example 2: The following tests were conducted to prove that subject to specific circuit configurations, an inductor is able to enhance energy efficiency to levels beyond the standard capabilities of an electrical power supply source. The tests also indicate that if a resistor is placed in series with a power supply and an inductor as shown in the Test Circuit, then the correct wattage analysis of that power may be calculated as the energy source voltage multiplied by the amperage (V x I) and that I^2R no longer holds as a base calculation of the wattage and power generated in this particular system.
With reference to Fig.4, the Test Circuit 60 comprised a 47 ohm, 10 watt, Philips wire-wound resistor 62, placed in series with two 6-volt batteries, 64, and 66 connected in parallel. A inductor 68, was placed in series with load resistor 62. A positively-biased diode 72, was placed in parallel with the inductor 68 and above an n-channel MOSFET transistor switching device, 74. This wire was then taken back to the positive terminal of the batteries. The battery voltage was measured at 6.12 volts.

The duty cycle was adjusted to a 50:50 Mark-Space ratio, giving equal times for the On condition and the Off condition. The load resistor reached a temperature of 30°C and the ambient room temperature was 22°C. The waveforms for the three sensing resistors SR1, SR2 and SR3 are shown in Fig.4 below the circuit diagram.

The voltage waveform across the SR1 sensing resistor in series with the load resistor 62, is roughly triangular but followed an exponential rise and fall during the On and Off periods of each cycle. The voltage did not fall below zero. The peak positive voltage was measured as 0.006 volts which corresponds to approximately 0.169 watts which is less than would be expected from the temperature of the load resistor. It would be expected that 0.375 watts would be required to produce the measured 30°C of the load resistor 62.

The voltage waveform across the SR2 sensing resistor placed in series with battery 1, marked 64, was roughly triangular in form with some exponential curvature as shown. The average current draw from the battery was measured and calculated to be 0.025 amps, which is a power draw of 0.153 watts.

The voltage waveform across the SR3 sensing resistor placed in series with battery 2, marked 66, showed a waveform with equivalent amounts above and below the zero voltage level. The On voltage peak was 0.0055 volts and the Off voltage peak was -0.0055 volts (i.e. below zero volts). No power was being drawn from this battery and in fact, the shape of the two sections of the waveform indicate that there was actually a slight degree of charging on this battery although this was ignored as being too small to be significant.

The inescapable conclusion from these tests is that to achieve identical heating of the load resistor, the standard circuitry required 0.0612 amps while the test circuit required only 0.025 amps. This means that the pulsing circuit is more than 100% more efficient than the conventional circuit. These measurements represent a Coefficient Of Performance of 2.45 as the output power is 2.45 times the input power.

These two examples shown here do not necessarily represent optimised values and further gains may be attained by using two or more inductors, two or more energy sources or energy storage and its switching circuitry, and other measures.

Example 3: A further set of tests was conducted to investigate the relationship between power supplied by the battery marked as 82 and power dissipated by a resistor R1 in the circuit of Fig.5.
This is to test the efficiency of the energy conversion as the duty cycle of the FET switch $Q_1$ is adjusted. This circuit includes an inductor $L$, which has equal primary and secondary windings and a 350 VA rated core. The circuit also contains a positively-biased diode $D$ and other components mentioned below. The tests were conducted with “On” times of 90%, 80%, 70%, 60% and 50% and the results are shown in this table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duty Cycle %</th>
<th>$V_{1-3}$ Average Current A</th>
<th>$V_{1-2}$ DC V</th>
<th>Battery Power W</th>
<th>$V_{1-3}$ RMS mV</th>
<th>RMS Current A</th>
<th>$V_{3-4}$ RMS mV</th>
<th>Load Power W</th>
<th>$P_{load} / P_{batt}$ ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>1.390</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>17.46</td>
<td>102.5</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>20.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>12.64</td>
<td>9.657</td>
<td>73.1</td>
<td>1.462</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>11.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>5.304</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>1.022</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>5.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>2.011</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.299</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The important thing to note from these figures is the way that the ratio of the output power to the input power (which is the Coefficient Of Performance or "COP"), shown in the final column, varies with the Mark-Space ratio shown in the first column. For all On time ratios over 60% in this very simple circuit, the COP is greater than 1 which conventional science swears is "impossible" in spite of it being demonstrated over and over again by different people and different styles of apparatus.

Rosemary Ainslie's techniques shown here where the back-EMF pulses are harnessed and used to perform useful functions, achieve COP values from 4 to 17 in tests performed to date.

John Bedini's captured back-EMF battery-charging circuits have been replicated with high-voltage battery banks being charged by one 12V battery and yielding COP=11 results.

The pulse motor design of Robert Adams which utilises the back-EMF pulses and other techniques, reaches COP figures of 8 or higher, depending on the quality of the build and the accuracy of the adjustments.

Thane C. Heins demonstrates on video [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RbRPCt1-WwQ&feature=channel](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RbRPCt1-WwQ&feature=channel) a very simple transformer arrangement which produces COP=3.77 a result which you can easily check out for yourself.

Rosemary's neat technique which produces this energy gain has every appearance of being a more easily adjusted method of producing the gains of the Tesla Switch which has to have a substantial inductive load in order to get its COP>1 performance and which is very tricky to adjust.

It should be stressed at this point that it is physically impossible to draw more energy out of a circuit than the

---

*Figure 5*
energy flowing into that circuit. Energy can't be destroyed or created and you can't have more than 100% of anything, anywhere, any time. But Rosemary Ainslie and others have demonstrated very clearly that carefully designed and operated circuits definitely put out more energy than the user puts into the circuit. I do not know of any way to prove where that extra energy comes from, but it definitely comes from somewhere, flowing into the circuit from outside. However, let's not concern ourselves with trying to discover the source of this extra power and instead, just learn how to capture and use it for our own benefit.

So, let's recap on how Rosemary's circuitry is set up and used. The initial basic circuit which gives an energy gain is:

![Diagram of the initial basic circuit](image)

Here, a mains-powered light bulb has two components connected in its normal circuit. The first component is a diode "D" and the second a transformer "T":

![Diagram showing diode and transformer](image)

The diode has a very low resistance to current flow in one direction and a very high resistance to current flow in the other direction. We tend not to think about it, but the ordinary mains current flowing through a light bulb switches its direction of flow dozens of times per second - actually, sixty times per second in the USA and fifty times per second in most other parts of the world.

If we put a diode in the circuit as shown in the diagram above, it gets in the way of every second surge of current through the bulb. This causes the current flow to be in only one direction and there are fifty or sixty gaps per second in the flow of current through the bulb. This pulsing current flow passes through the left hand transformer winding (shown in blue in the diagram), called the "primary" winding, and it generates a voltage and current flow in the other winding of the transformer (shown in black in the diagram and called the "secondary" winding).

The two lines drawn between the two windings indicate that the transformer has some kind of magnetic core. Having a core in a transformer can be a very mixed blessing. It will work very well if there is no core material - generally called an "air-core" transformer. Energy gains in a circuit like this, increase with increased voltage and even more so with increased rate of pulsing (called the signal "frequency"). An air-core coil or transformer will operate at very high frequencies, limited mainly by the wire diameter. Most powerful transformers are usually supplied with an iron core as that improves their magnetic coupling at the very low pulse rates used with mains power. That iron core has very limited frequency performance as it is limited by how fast the iron can alter its direction of magnetisation. It is unlikely that you would get good performance even at the low frequency of one
thousand pulses per second ("1 kHz"). As each of these pulses feeds a little packet of extra energy into the circuit, obviously, you would like as many as possible per second, so that the energy inflow is very great. You will notice in Rosemary's patent, that she mentions raising the pulse rate to five hundred per second to increase the power gain.

However, that does not matter here as we are using a mains electrical supply which is just creeping along at well under one hundred pulses per second in order to explain the technique in a simple form. Anyway, the voltage generated in the secondary winding of the transformer is a full-wave voltage waveform just like the original mains waveform with no gaps in it. This energy in the secondary winding could be used for a wide range of different purposes. The one shown here is the charging of a battery or a bank of batteries arranged to work at almost any voltage. Contrary to popular belief, the voltage used to charge a battery is not particularly important provided it is high enough, but what is very important is the current flow into the battery, and that needs to be controlled carefully. Ed Gray demonstrated that charging with a high voltage was a perfectly good method and he used a capacitor to control the current flow into the battery. Eventually, he gave up doing that and used an ordinary car alternator to charge the battery as it was difficult to get the capacitor value just right to achieve the desired current.

Rosemary uses the same technique but adds in a resistor "R" to make sure that the charging current never becomes excessive. The diode "D" converts the alternating voltage in the transformer winding to positive pulses, that is, pulses where the voltage rises above zero volts and never falls below zero volts. This is the sort of voltage which we need for feeding to the positive terminal of a battery.

In passing, while the capacitor "C" does act as a current-limiting device, it may also act as a conversion device as extra energy flowing into the circuit from outside can be of a somewhat different type to the electrical current drawn from the mains, and a capacitor is a well-proven method of converting the incoming energy into the more familiar conventional form.

So, looking at the circuit again, the mains is converted to a pulsing 50% Mark-Space ratio current flow through the primary winding of the transformer "T". When that flow cuts off suddenly, there is an inflow of energy into the winding from outside the circuit, forming what is called a "back-EMF" brief voltage pulse in the opposite direction. This fills in the pulse gaps in the secondary winding, giving it a full-wave waveform in spite of the primary being fed only half of that waveform.

The secondary power has the negative pulses (below zero volts) chopped off by the diode on the battery side, giving a series of positive pulses at the same frequency as the mains. The capacitor "C" and the resistor "R" control the current feed to the battery and allow it to charge at a suitable rate.

So, that is the basic circuit - simple and elegant and very effective in use. But, it does not stop there as that basic...
idea can be used in various other ways. For example, like this:

This is the same circuit, but two transformer primary windings are connected across each other (called being wired "in parallel"). The operation is exactly the same as before except that two copies of the mains waveform are made by the magnetic coupling of the transformer windings. Each is "rectified" into positive-going pulses and fed to the battery, creating a larger charging current. An alternative version of this is:

In this variation, the transformer is wound with one primary and two secondary windings. The magnetic coupling of the transformer core generates copies of the mains waveform in both of the secondary windings. Each are rectified and fed to the battery as before.

If this circuit was being built using standard off-the-shelf transformers, it might be easier to use two separate transformers connected "in series". This would depend on the application and the windings of the particular transformers to be used.

The diagrams show up to now have all suggested charging one or more batteries, but this has just been for the convenience of presenting a simple application. As is pointed out by Rosemary, it is perfectly possible to drive some other load such as a heater or a motor using these additional power take-off connections. However, for our continuing description of the circuit options, we will stay with battery charging. So, using two standard transformers, the circuit would be as shown here:
All of the Ainslie circuits mentioned so far have used the mains, but there is very considerable scope for circuits and arrangements which do not use the mains at all. Admittedly, a certain amount of electronic construction work is needed, but the results can be very rewarding. For example, instead of charging a battery bank, it is quite possible to charge the battery which is driving the circuit itself.

Now, before you start to say that this is an impossibility, please remember the little girl and her small electric car battery. Her father found that if he left the charging circuit on too long that he needed to put a bulb in as a load in order to avoid over-charging the battery, and that battery (appears to be) what powers the charging process. In all of these systems, please remember that additional energy flows into the circuit from the local environment, so charging a battery which is driving the circuit is perfectly possible. For example, Robert Adams of New Zealand ran his motor for a ten-hour test and the battery voltage was exactly the same after the test as it was before the test started. If you think that is spectacular, then consider John Bedini’s self-charging motor. John ran that non-stop in his workshop for more than three years!! So please don’t try to tell me that this sort of thing is impossible because that’s what you have been told. Self-charging can definitely be achieved if you know what you are doing.

Here is an Ainslie self-powering circuit:

Here, the signal generator, which is probably just a simple 555 timer circuit, produces a train of pulses with a Mark-Space ratio of more than 50% On time. That signal is used to switch a transistor On and Off in rapid succession. The transistor type is deliberately not shown as it can be an NPN silicon transistor, an FET type of transistor, a Darlington pair, or one of those fancy new IGBT devices. Whatever the type chosen, the lamp will be switched on and off so rapidly that it will light up. The fluctuating current through the transformer "T" will produce an alternating voltage in its secondary winding and that will pass through the diode, resistor "R" and capacitor "C" to charge the battery in spite of the fact that the battery is powering the signal generator circuit and the lamp.

Obviously, all of the other options and variations discussed above in connection with a mains-powered version of
the circuitry will apply equally well to a battery-powered version. If running from a battery or a bank of batteries and high voltage is wanted, then an off-the-shelf inverter can be used to generate the high voltage used for the mains supply.

If you would like to test the operation of the circuit and the design generally, here is a stripboard layout which might be used:

![Stripboard Layout Image]

**Key:** 🔄 = a break in the copper strip on the underside of the board + = a hole

The preset resistors are high power units looking like this:

![Resistor Image]

These are adjusted with a flat screwdriver inserted into the slot at the end of the shaft although they could have a knob attached. It takes ten full turns of the shaft to move across the full range of the resistor. If you are adjusting the Mark-Space ratio and the ratio goes up when you turn the shaft to the left but want that to happen when you turn the shaft to the right, then just swap over the wires going to the outermost terminals of the resistor and that will reverse the effect when you turn the shaft. You can stick the base of the resistor directly to the stripboard using "Impact" Evostick or any similar adhesive and that will hold it securely but still allow you to prise it off the board at a later date if you should need to.

There is no need to use knobs as the circuit will be set up, adjusted for best performance and then left untouched. The circuit can be built using stripboard like this:
The view above is of the underside of the board as that shows the copper strips running horizontally between the holes. The copper strip is quite thin and can easily be broken using the tip of a drill bit or alternatively, a modelling knife. The spacing of the holes is arranged to match the pin spacing of standard Integrated Circuits such as the NE555 timer chip used in this circuit. The only place where the strips need to be broken in the layout above are between the pins of the NE555 chip and if you didn't do that, then the four pairs of pins would be short-circuited together, preventing the chip from operating. It is a good idea to use an 8-pin IC socket soldered to the board as that prevents any heat damage to the NE555N chip during soldering, the IC being plugged in after the soldering has cooled down. It also has the advantage that if the chip ever gets damaged, then plugging another one in is a very easy thing to do. After the board is completed, it is also probably worth running a solder layer along the copper strips which carry some current, that is the plus and minus strips and the strip between pin 3 of the NE555N and the point where the connection to the variable resistor is made. You will notice that the layout of the board includes four holes to take mounting bolts. When these are drilled, the strips under the board need to be cleared away to make sure that no short-circuits can occur when the bolts are in place. The board mounting is like this:

Suppose we wish to replicate and test this circuit:

We need to remember that this is just the outline for a practical circuit and that it does not show the normal extra items like and On / Off switch and a fuse or circuit-breaker which are essentials for any circuit which contains a powerful battery. Please remember that you can't see current flow and if there is an accidental short-circuit, the first you may know of it is smoke!! That tends to be expensive, especially if some of the components are pricey and/or hard to get.
If we work with the Ainslie pulsing circuit shown at the beginning of this document, then a physical layout convenient for experimenting might be:

The "heat sink" shown in the diagram above, is just a piece of aluminium bent to raise the centre section slightly and allow good air circulation and clearance for the FET's locking nut. The FET is bolted securely to this plate in order to allow the aluminium plate to let the FET run cooler than it otherwise would. The lamp would be a 12V car type and while many people just solder directly to the bulb as shown here, there is no reason why a bulb socket should not be used. Car accessory shops usually have low-cost "reversing lights" which are a small plastic housing, a bulb socket, a bulb and two pieces of wire already attached to the bulb holder - very convenient, especially since it is very easy to change over to bulbs of different ratings for different tests and the bulbs themselves are cheap.

This circuit is of course, the same as the driver circuit for the heating element circuit. The green link wire shown in the diagram above gets replaced with the 30-watt 0.25 ohm resistor and the resistor should be positioned so that it is in the air, well clear of everything else as it may get hot during operation in spite of its very low resistance value.

Disclaimer: It must be understood that this document is presented for information purposes only and it must not be construed as being an encouragement to either build or experiment with this or any other circuit. The people who have investigated, designed, built or described this circuitry are in no way liable for any loss or damage caused by your actions, should you decide to experiment with this or any other circuit. Should you choose to do that, the responsibility for your actions rests entirely with you alone. This document, while presented in good faith, does not warrant that all attempted replications of the circuits described in it will definitely perform in the same way as those which were investigated during the tests which form the basis for this description.
The Wood Gas Generator

Construction of a Simplified Wood Gas Generator for Fueling Internal Combustion Engines in a Petroleum Emergency

By:
H. LaFontaine, Biomass Energy Foundation, Inc. Miami, Florida
And:
F. P. Zimmerman, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Energy Division
FEMA Interagency Agreement Number: EMW-84-E-1737 Work Unit: 3521 D
For:

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ABSTRACT: CONSTRUCTION OF A SIMPLIFIED WOOD GAS GENERATOR FOR FUELING INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES IN A PETROLEUM EMERGENCY

H. LaFontaine, G. P. Zimmerman

This report is one in a series of emergency technology assessments sponsored by the Federal
Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). The purpose of this report is to develop detailed, illustrated instructions for the fabrication, installation, and operation of a biomass gasifier unit (i.e., a 'producer gas' generator, also called a 'wood gas' generator) that is capable of providing emergency fuel for vehicles, such as tractors and trucks, in the event that normal petroleum sources were severely disrupted for an extended period of time. These instructions have been prepared as a manual for use by any mechanic who is reasonably proficient in metal fabrication or engine repair. This report attempts to preserve the knowledge about wood gasification that was put into practical use during World War II. Detailed, step-by-step fabrication procedures are presented for a simplified version of the World War II, Embowered wood gas generator. This simple, stratified, downdraft gasifier unit can be constructed from materials that would be widely available in the United States in a prolonged petroleum crisis. For example, the body of the unit consists of a galvanized metal garbage can atop a small metal drum; common plumbing fittings throughout; and a large, stainless steel mixing bowl for the grate. The entire compact unit was mounted onto the front of a farm tractor and successfully field tested, using wood chips as the only fuel. Photographic documentation of the actual assembly of the unit as well as its operation is included.

**Executive Summary**

This report is one in a series of emergency technology assessments sponsored by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). The purpose of this report is to develop detailed, illustrated instructions for the fabrication, installation, and operation of a biomass gasifier unit (i.e. a "producer gas" generator, also called a "wood gas" generator) which is capable of providing emergency fuel for vehicles, such as tractors and trucks, should normal petroleum sources be severely disrupted for an extended period of time. These instructions have been prepared as a manual for use by any mechanic who is reasonably proficient in metal fabrication or engine repair.

Fuel gas, produced by the reduction of coal and peat, was used for heating as early as 1840 in Europe and by 1884 had been adapted to fuel engines in England. Prior to 1940, gas generator units were a familiar, but not extensively utilized, technology. However, petroleum shortages during World War II led to widespread gas generator applications in the transportation industries of Western Europe. (Charcoal burning taxis, a related application, were still common in Korea as late as 1970.) The United States, never faced with such prolonged or severe oil shortages, has lagged far behind Europe and the Orient in familiarity with and application of this technology.

However, a catastrophic event could disrupt the supply of petroleum in this country so severely that this technology might be critical in meeting the energy needs of some essential economic activities, such as the production and distribution of food. In occupied Denmark during World War II, 95% of all mobile farm machinery, tractors, trucks, stationary engines, and fishing and ferry boats were powered by wood gas generator units. Even in neutral Sweden, 40% of all motor traffic operated on gas derived from wood or charcoal. All over Europe, Asia, and Australia, millions of gas generators were in operation between 1940 and 1946.

Because of the wood gasifier’s health risks from toxic fumes, most of such units were abandoned when oil again became available in 1945. Except for the technology of producing alternate fuels, such as methane or alcohol, the only solution for operating existing internal combustion engines, when oil and petroleum products are not available, has been these simple, inexpensive Gasifier units.

This report attempts to preserve the knowledge about wood gasification that was put into practical use during World War II. In this report, detailed step-by-step procedures are presented for constructing a simplified version of the WWII wood gas generator; this simple, stratified, downdraft Gasifier unit (shown schematically in Fig.S-1) can be constructed from materials which would be widely available in the United States in a prolonged petroleum crisis. For example, the body of the unit consists
of a galvanized metal garbage can atop a small metal drum; common plumbing fittings are used throughout; and a large, stainless steel mixing bowl is used for the grate. A prototype Gasifier unit was fabricated from these instructions (see Fig. S-2); this unit was then mounted onto the front of a farm tractor and successfully field tested, using wood chips as the only fuel (see Fig. S-3). Photographic documentation of the actual assembly of the unit, as well as its operational field test, is included in the body of this report.

These wood gas generators need not be limited to transportation applications. Stationary engines can also be fueled by wood gasifiers to run electric generators, pumps, and industrial equipment. In fact, the use of wood gas as a fuel is not even restricted to gasoline engines; if a small amount of diesel fuel is used for ignition, a properly adjusted diesel engine can be operated primarily on wood gas introduced through the intake manifold.

### Principles of solid fuel gasification

All internal combustion engines actually run on vapor, not liquid. The liquid fuels used by gasoline engines are vaporized before they enter the combustion chamber above the pistons. In diesel engines, the fuel is sprayed into the combustion chamber as fine droplets which burn as they vaporize.

The purpose of a Gasifier, then, is to transform solid fuels into gaseous ones and to keep the gas free of harmful constituents. A gas generator unit is simultaneously an energy converter and a filter. In these twin tasks lie its advantages and its difficulties. In a sense, gasification is a form of incomplete combustion-heat from the burning solid fuel creates gases which are unable to burn completely because of the insufficient amounts of oxygen from the available supply of air. The same chemical laws which govern combustion processes also apply to gasification.

There are many solid biomass fuels suitable for gasification - from wood and paper to peat, lignite, and coal, including coke derived from coal. All of these solid fuels are composed primarily of carbon with varying amounts of hydrogen, oxygen, and impurities, such as sulfur, ash, and moisture. Thus, the aim of gasification is the almost complete transformation of these constituents into gaseous form so that only the ashes and inert materials remain. In creating wood gas for fueling internal combustion engines, it is important that the gas not only be properly produced, but also preserved and not consumed until it is introduced into the engine where it may be appropriately burned.

Gasification is a physicochemical process in which chemical transformations occur along with the conversion of energy. The chemical reactions and thermochemical conversions which occur inside a wood gas generator are too long and too complicated to be covered here; however, such knowledge is not necessary for constructing and operating a wood Gasifier. By weight, gas (wood gas) produced in a Gasifier unit contains approximately 20% hydrogen (H₂), 20% carbon monoxide (CO), and small amounts of methane, all of which are combustible, plus 50 to 60% nitrogen (N₂). The nitrogen is not combustible; however, it does occupy volume and dilutes the wood gas as it enters and burns in an engine. As the wood gas burns, the products of combustion are carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water vapor (H₂O).

One of the by-products of wood gasification is carbon monoxide, a poisonous gas. The toxic hazards associated with breathing this gas should be avoided during refueling operations or prolonged idling, particularly in inadequately ventilated areas. Except for the obvious fire hazard resulting from the combustion processes inside the unit, carbon monoxide poisoning is the major potential hazard during normal operation of these simplified Gasifier units.

### THE STRATIFIED DOWNDRAFT GASIFIER
Until the early 1980s, wood gasifiers all over the world (including the World War II designs) operated on the principle that both the fuel hopper and the combustion unit be absolutely airtight; the hopper was sealed with a top or lid which had to be opened every time wood was added. Smoke and gas vented into the atmosphere while wood was being loaded; the operator had to be careful not to breathe the unpleasant smoke and toxic fumes.

Over the last few years, a new Gasifier design has been developed through cooperative efforts among researchers at the Solar Energy Research Institute in Colorado, the University of California in Davis, the Open University in London, the Buck Rogers Company in Kansas, and the Biomass Energy Foundation, Inc., in Florida. This simplified design employs a balanced, negative-pressure concept in which the old type of sealed fuel hopper is no longer necessary. A closure is only used to preserve the fuel when the engine is stopped. This new technology has several popular names, including "stratified, downdraft gasification" and "open top gasification." Several years of laboratory and field-testing have indicated that such simple, inexpensive gasifiers can be built from existing hardware and will perform very well as emergency units.

A schematic diagram of the stratified, downdraft Gasifier is shown in Fig. S-1. During operation of this Gasifier, air passes uniformly downward through four zones, hence the name stratified:

1. The uppermost zone contains unreacted fuel through which air and oxygen enter. This region serves the same function as the fuel hopper in the older, World War II designs.
2. In the second zone, the wood fuel reacts with oxygen during pyrolysis. Most of the volatile components of the fuel are burned in this zone and provide heat for continued pyrolysis reactions. At the bottom of this zone, all of the available oxygen from the air should be completely reacted. The open top design ensures uniform access of air to the pyrolysis region.
3. The third zone is made up of charcoal from the second zone. Hot combustion gases from the pyrolysis region react with the charcoal to convert the carbon dioxide and water vapor into carbon monoxide and hydrogen.
4. The inert char and ash, which constitute the fourth zone, are normally too cool to cause further reactions; however, because the fourth zone is available to absorb heat or oxygen as conditions change, it serves both as a buffer and as a charcoal storage region. Below this zone is the grate. The presence of char and ash serves to protect the grate from excessive temperatures.

The stratified, downdraft design has a number of advantages over the World War II gasifier designs. The open top permits fuel to be fed more easily and allows easy access. The cylindrical shape is easy to fabricate and permits continuous flow of fuel. No special fuel shape or pretreatment is necessary; any blocky fuel can be used.

The foremost question about the operation of the stratified, downdraft gasifier concerns char and ash removal. As the charcoal reacts with the combustion gases, it eventually reaches a very low density and breaks up into a dust containing all of the ash as well as a percentage of the original carbon. This dust may be partially carried away by the gas and might eventually begin to plug the gasifier. Hence, it must be removed by shaking or agitation. When the stratified gasifier unit is used to power vehicles, it is automatically shaken by the vehicle's motion.

An important issue in the design of the stratified, downdraft gasifier is the prevention of fuel bridging and channeling. High-grade biomass fuels, such as wood blocks or chips, will flow down through the gasifier because of gravity and downdraft air flow. However, other fuels (such as shredded chips, sawdust, and bark) can form a bridge, which will obstruct continuous flow and cause very high temperatures. Bridging can be prevented by stirring, shaking, or by agitating the grate or by having it
agitated by the vehicle's movement. For prolonged idling, a hand-operated shaker has been included in the design in this report.

A prototype unit of the stratified, downdraft gasifier design (see Figs. S-2 and S-3) has been fabricated according to the instructions in this report; however, it has not been widely tested at this time. The reader is urged to use his ingenuity and initiative in the construction of his own wood gas generator. As long as the principle of air tightness in the combustion regions, in the connecting piping, and in the filter units is followed, the form, shape, and method of assembly is not important.

The wood gasifier design presented in this report has as its origin the proven technology used in World War II during actual shortages of gasoline and diesel fuel. It should be acknowledged that there are alternate technologies (such as methane production or use of alcohol fuels) for keeping internal combustion engines in operation during a prolonged petroleum crisis; the wood gasifier unit described in this report represents only one solution to the problem.
Fig. S-2. The prototype wood gas generator unit mounted onto a tractor.

Fig. S-1. Schematic view of the stratified, downdraft gasifier.
WHAT IS A WOOD GAS GENERATOR AND HOW DOES IT WORK?

This report is one in a series of emergency technology assessments sponsored by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). The purpose of this report is to develop detailed, illustrated instructions for the fabrication, installation, and operation of a biomass gasifier unit (i.e., a "producer gas" generator, also called a 'wood gas' generator) that is capable of providing emergency fuel for vehicles, such as tractors and trucks, in the event that normal petroleum sources were severely disrupted for an extended period of time. These instructions have been prepared as a manual for use by any mechanic who is reasonably proficient in metal fabrication or engine repair.

INTRODUCTION

Fuel gas, produced by the reduction of coal and peat, was used for heating, as early as 1840 in Europe, and by 1884 it had been adapted to fuel engines in England. Before 1940, gas generator units were a familiar, but not extensively utilized, technology. However, petroleum shortages during World War II led to widespread gas generator applications in the transportation industries of Western Europe. (Charcoal-burning taxis, a related application, were still common in Korea as late as 1970.)

The United States, never faced with such prolonged or severe oil shortages, has lagged far behind Europe and the Orient in familiarity with and application of this technology; however, a catastrophe could so severely disrupt the supply of petroleum in this country that this technology might be critical in meeting the energy needs of some essential economic activities, such as the production and distribution of food. This report attempts to preserve the knowledge about wood gasification as put into practical use during World War II. Detailed, step-by-step procedures are presented in this report for constructing a simplified version of the World War II, Imbert wood gas generator.

This simple, stratified, downdraft gasifier unit can be constructed from materials that would be widely available in the United States in a prolonged petroleum crisis. For example, the body of the unit consists of a galvanized metal garbage can atop a small metal drum; common plumbing fittings
throughout; and a large, stainless steel mixing bowl for the grate. A prototype gasifier unit was fabricated from these instructions. This unit was then mounted onto the front of a gasoline-engine farm tractor and successfully field tested, using wood chips as the only fuel; see Fig. 1-1 (all figures and tables are presented at the end of their respective sections). Photographic documentation of the actual assembly of the unit, as well as its operational field test, is included in this report.

The use of wood gas generators need not be limited to transportation applications. Stationary engines can also be fueled by wood gasifiers to run electric generators, pumps, and industrial equipment. In fact, the use of wood gas as a fuel is not even restricted to gasoline engines; if a small amount of diesel fuel is used for ignition, a properly adjusted diesel engine can be operated primarily on wood gas introduced through the intake manifold.

However, this report is concerned with the operation of four-cylinder gasoline engines rated from 10 to 150 horsepower. If more information is needed about operating gasifiers on other fuels (such as coal, charcoal, peat, sawdust or seaweed), a list of relevant literature is contained in the Bibliography at the end of this report.

The goal of this report is to furnish information for building a homemade wood gas generator made out of ordinary, available hardware, in order to get tractors, trucks, and other vehicles operating without delay, if a severe liquid fuel emergency should arise. Section 1 describes gasification principles and wood gas generators, in general, and gives some historical background about their operation and effectiveness. Section 2 contains detailed step-by-step instructions for constructing your own wood gas generator unit; illustrations and photographs are included to prevent confusion. Section 3 contains information on operating, maintaining, and trouble-shooting your wood gas generator; also included are some very important guidelines on safety when using your gasifier system.

The wood gasifier design presented in this report has as its origin the proven technology used in World War II during actual shortages of gasoline and diesel fuel. It should be acknowledged that there are alternate technologies (such as methane production or use of alcohol fuels) for keeping internal combustion engines in operation during a prolonged petroleum crisis; the wood gasifier unit described in this report represents only one solution to the problem.

**PRINCIPLES OF SOLID FUEL GASIFICATION**

All internal combustion engines actually run on vapor, not liquid. The liquid fuels used in gasoline engines are vaporized before they enter the combustion chamber above the pistons. In diesel engines, the fuel is sprayed into the combustion chamber as fine droplets which burn as they vaporize. The purpose of a gasifier, then, is to transform solid fuels into gaseous ones and to keep the gas free of harmful constituents. A gas generator unit is, simultaneously, an energy converter and a filter. In these twin tasks lie its advantages and its difficulties.

The first question many people ask about gasifiers is, ‘Where does the combustible gas come from?’ Light a wooden match; hold it in a horizontal position; and notice that while the wood becomes charcoal, it is not actually burning but is releasing a gas that begins to burn brightly a short distance away from the matchstick. Notice the gap between the matchstick and the luminous flame; this gap contains the wood gas which starts burning only when properly mixed with air (which contains oxygen).

By weight, this gas (wood gas) from the charring wood contains approximately 20% hydrogen (\(H_2\)), 20% carbon monoxide (CO), and small amounts of methane, all of which are combustible, plus 50 to 60% nitrogen (\(N_2\)). The nitrogen is not combustible; however, it does occupy volume and dilutes the wood gas as it enters and burns in an engine. As the wood gas burns, the products of
combustion are carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water vapor (H₂O).

The same chemical laws which govern combustion processes also apply to gasification. The solid, biomass fuels suitable for gasification cover a wide range, from wood and paper to peat, lignite, and coal, including coke derived from coal. All of these solid fuels are composed primarily of carbon with varying amounts of hydrogen, oxygen, and impurities, such as sulphur, ash, and moisture. Thus, the aim of gasification is the almost complete transformation of these constituents into gaseous form so that only the ashes and inert materials remain.

In a sense, gasification is a form of incomplete combustion; heat from the burning solid fuel creates gases which are unable to burn completely, due to insufficient amounts of oxygen from the available supply of air.

In the matchstick example above, as the wood was burned and pyrolyzed into charcoal, wood gas was created, but the gas was also consumed by combustion (since there was an enormous supply of air in the room).

In creating wood gas for fueling internal combustion engines, it is important that the gas not only be properly produced, but also preserved and not consumed until it is introduced into the engine where it may be appropriately burned. Gasification is a physicochemical process in which chemical transformations occur along with the conversion of energy. The chemical reactions and thermochemical conversions which occur inside a wood gas generator are too long and too complicated to be covered here. Such knowledge is not necessary for constructing and operating a wood Gasifier. Books with such information are listed in the Reference Section (see, for example, Reed 1979, Vol. II; or Reed and Das 1988).

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The use of wood to provide heat is as old as mankind; but by burning the wood we only utilize about one-third of its energy. Two-thirds is lost into the environment with the smoke. Gasification is a method of collecting the smoke and its combustible components. Making a combustible gas from coal and wood began around 1790 in Europe. Such manufactured gas was used for street lights and was piped into houses for heating, lighting, and cooking. Factories used it for steam boilers, and farmers operated their machinery on wood gas and coal gas. After the discovery of large petroleum reserves in Pennsylvania in 1859, the entire world changed to oil - a cheaper and more convenient fuel. Thousands of gas works all over the world were eventually dismantled.

Wood gas generators are not technological marvels that can totally eliminate our current dependence on oil, reduce the impacts of an energy crunch, or produce long-term economic relief from high fossil fuel prices, but they are a proven emergency solution when such fuels become unobtainable in case of war, civil upheaval, or natural disaster. In fact, many people can recall a widespread use of wood gas generators during World War II, when petroleum products were not available for the civilian populations in many countries. Naturally, the people most affected by oil and petroleum scarcity made the greatest advancements in wood gas generator technology.

In occupied Denmark during World War II, 95% of all mobile farm machinery, tractors, trucks, stationary engines, fishing and ferry boats were powered by wood gas generators. Even in neutral Sweden, 40% of all motor traffic operated on gas derived from wood or charcoal (Reed and Jantzen 1979). All over Europe, Asia, and Australia, millions of gas generators were in operation between 1940 and 1946.
Because of the wood gasifier's somewhat low efficiency, the inconvenience of operation, and the potential health risks from toxic fumes, most of such units were abandoned when oil again became available in 1945. Except for the technology of producing alternate fuels, such as methane or alcohol, the only solution for operating existing internal combustion engines, when oil and petroleum products are not available, has been these simple, inexpensive Gasifier units.

The World War II, Imbert Gasifier

The basis operation of two gasifiers is described in this and the following section. Their operating advantages and disadvantages will also be discussed. This information is included for the technically interested reader only; it is intended to give the reader more insight into the subtleties of the operating principles of the wood gas generator described in this manual. Those readers who are anxious to begin construction of their own wood gas generator may skip the material below and proceed directly to Sec.2 without any loss of continuity.

The constricted hearth, downdraft Gasifier shown in Fig. 1-2 is sometimes called the 'Imbert' Gasifier after its inventor, Jacques Imbert; although, it has been commercially manufactured under various names. Such units were mass-produced during World War II by many European automotive companies, including General Motors, Ford, and Mercedes-Benz. These units cost about $1500 (1985 evaluation) each.

However, after World War II began in 1939, it took six to eight months before factory-made gasifiers were generally available. Thousands of Europeans were saved from certain starvation by home-built, simple Gasifier units made from washing machine tubs, old water heaters, and metal gas or oxygen cylinders. Surprisingly, the operation of these units was nearly as efficient as the factory-made units; however, the homemade units lasted for only about 20000 miles with many repairs, while the factory-made units operated, with few repairs, up to 100,000 miles.

In Fig. 1-2 the upper cylindrical portion of the Gasifier unit is simply a storage bin or hopper for wood chips or other biomass fuel. During operation, this chamber is filled every few hours as needed. The spring-loaded, airtight cover must be opened to refill the fuel hopper; it must remain closed and sealed during Gasifier operation. The spring permits the cover to function as a safety valve because it will pop open in case of any excessive internal gas pressure.

About one-third of the way up from the bottom of the Gasifier unit, there is a set of radially directed air nozzles; these allow air to be injected into the wood as it moves downward to be gasified. In a gas generator for vehicle use, the down stroke of the engine's pistons creates the suction force which moves the air into and through the Gasifier unit; during startup of the Gasifier, a blower is used to create the proper airflow. The gas is introduced into the engine and consumed a few seconds after it is made. This gasification method is called "producer gas generation," because no storage system is used; only that amount of gas demanded by the engine is produced. When the engine is shut off, the production of gas stops.

During normal operation, the incoming air burns and pyrolyzes some of the wood, most of the tars and oils, and some of the charcoal that fills the constricted area below the nozzles. Most of the fuel mass is converted to gas within this combustion zone. The Imbert Gasifier is, in many ways, self-adjusting. If there is insufficient charcoal at the air nozzles, more wood is burned and pyrolyzed to make more charcoal. If too much charcoal forms, then the charcoal level rises above the nozzles, and the incoming air burns the charcoal. Thus, the combustion zone is maintained very close to the nozzles.
Below this combustion zone, the resulting hot combustion gases - carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water vapor (H₂O) - pass into the hot charcoal where they are chemically reduced to combustible fuel gases: carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrogen (H₂).

The hearth constriction causes all gases to pass through the reaction zone, thus giving maximum mixing and minimum heat loss. The highest temperatures are reached in this region.

Fine char and ash dust can eventually clog the charcoal bed and will reduce the gas flow unless the dust is removed. The charcoal is supported by a movable grate which can be shaken at intervals. Ash buildup below the grate can be removed during cleaning operations. Usually, wood contains less than 1% ash (by weight). However, as the charcoal is consumed, it eventually collapses to form a powdery charcoal/ash mixture which may represent 2 to 10% (by weight) of the total fuel mass.

The cooling unit required for the Imbert Gasifier consists of a water filled precipitating tank and an automotive radiator type gas cooler. The precipitating tank removes all unacceptable tars and most of the fine ash from the gas flow, while the radiator further cools the gas. A second filter unit, containing a fine mesh filtration material, is used to remove the last traces of any ash or dust that may have survived passage through the cooling unit. Once out of the filter unit, the wood gas is mixed with air in the vehicle's carburetor and is then introduced directly into the engine's intake manifold.

The World War II, Imbert Gasifier requires wood with a low moisture content (less than 20% by weight) and a uniform, blocky fuel in order to allow easy gravity feed through the constricted hearth. Twigs, sticks, and bark shreds cannot be used. The constriction at the hearth and the protruding air nozzles present obstructions to the passage of the fuel and may create bridging and channeling followed by poor quality gas output, as unpyrolyzed fuel falls into the reaction zone. The vehicle units of the World War II era had ample vibration to jar the carefully sized wood blocks through the Gasifier.

In fact, an entire industry emerged for preparing wood for use in vehicles at that time (Reed and Jantzen 1979). However, the constricted hearth design seriously limits the range of wood fuel shapes that can be successfully gasified without expensive cubing or pelletizing pretreatment. It is this limitation that makes the Imbert Gasifier less flexible for emergency use. In summary, the World War II Imbert Gasifier design has stood the test of time and has successfully been mass produced. It is relatively inexpensive, uses simple construction materials, is easy to fabricate, and can be operated by motorists with a minimum amount of training.

The Stratified, Downdraft Gasifier

Until the early 1980's, wood gasifiers all over the world (including the World War II designs) operated on the principle that both the fuel hopper and the combustion unit be airtight; the hopper was sealed with a top or lid that bad to be opened every time wood was added. Smoke and gas vented into the atmosphere while new wood was being loaded; the operator bad to be careful not to breathe the unpleasant smoke and toxic fumes.

Over the last few years, a new gasifier design has been developed through cooperative efforts among researchers at the Solar Energy Research Institute in Colorado, the University of California in Davis, the Open University in London, the Buck Rogers Company in Kansas, and the Biomass Energy Foundation, Inc., in Florida (Reed and Das 1988). This simplified design employs a balanced, negative-pressure concept in which the old type of sealed fuel hopper is no longer necessary. A closure is only used to preserve the fuel when the engine is stopped.

This new technology has several popular names, including 'stratified, downdraft gasification' and
'open top gasification.' Two years of laboratory and field testing have indicated that such simple, inexpensive gasifiers can be built from existing hardware and will perform very well as emergency units. A schematic diagram of the stratified, downdraft Gasifier is shown in Fig. 1-3. During operation of this gasifier, air passes uniformly downward through four zones, hence the name 'stratified.'

1. The uppermost zone contains unreacted fuel through which air and oxygen enter. This region serves the same function as the fuel hopper in the Imbert design.

2. In the second zone, the wood fuel reacts with oxygen during pyrolysis. Most of the volatile components of the fuel are burned in this zone and provide heat for continued pyrolysis reactions. At the bottom of this zone, all of the available oxygen from the air has completely reacted. The open top design ensures uniform access of air to the pyrolysis region.

3. The third zone is made up of charcoal from the second zone. Hot combustion gases from the pyrolysis region react with the charcoal to convert the carbon dioxide and water vapor into carbon monoxide and hydrogen.

4. The inert char and ash, which constitute the fourth zone, are normally too cool to cause further reactions; however, since the fourth zone is available to absorb heat or oxygen as conditions change, it serves both as a buffer and as a charcoal storage region. Below this zone is the grate. The presence of char and ash serves to protect the grate from excessive temperatures.

The stratified, downdraft design has a number of advantages over the World War II, Imbert Gasifier. The open top permits fuel to be fed more easily and allows easy access. The cylindrical shape is easy to fabricate and permits continuous flow of fuel. No special fuel shape or pretreatment is necessary; any blocky fuel can be used.

The foremost question about the operation of the stratified, downdraft Gasifier concerns char and ash removal. As the charcoal reacts with the combustion gases, it eventually reaches a very low density and breaks up into a dust containing all of the ash as well as a percentage of the original carbon. This dust may be partially carried away by the gas; however, it might eventually begin to plug the Gasifier, and so it must be removed by shaking or agitation. Both the Imbert gasifiers and the stratified concept have a provision for shaking the grate; when they are used to power vehicles, they are automatically shaken by the vehicle's motion.

An important issue in the design of the stratified, downdraft gasifier is the prevention of fuel bridging and channeling. High-grade biomass fuels such as wood blocks or chips will flow down through the gasifier under the influence of gravity, and downdraft air flow. However, other fuels (such as shredded wood, sawdust, and bark) can form a bridge that will prevent continuous flow and cause very high temperatures. Obviously, it is desirable to use these widely available biomass residues. Bridging can be prevented by stirring, shaking, or by agitating the grate or by having it agitated by the vehicle's movement. For prolonged idling, a hand-operated shaker has been included in the design.

A prototype design of the stratified, downdraft gasifier design has been developed. The detailed but simple design is described and illustrated in Sect. 2; however, it has not been widely tested at this time. The reader is urged to use his ingenuity and initiative in constructing his own wood gas generator. As long as the principle of air-tightness in the combustion regions, in the connecting piping, and in the filter units is followed, the form, shape, and method of assembly is not important.
BUILDING YOUR OWN WOOD GAS GENERATOR

The following fabrication instructions, parts lists, and illustrations describe the prototype Gasifier unit shown schematically in Fig. 1-3. These instructions are simple and easy to follow. The dimensions
in the following plans are given in inches rather than in millimeters to make construction easier for those who might be unfamiliar with the metric system and to allow the builder to take advantage of available, alternate construction materials. It will be obvious to the experienced engineer, mechanic, or builder that most of the dimensions (for example, plate thicknesses and clean-out diameters) are not critical to the acceptable performance of the finished Gasifier unit.

The prototype Gasifier unit described in the following text was actually constructed and field tested on a gasoline engine farm tractor (a 35-hp, John Deere 1010 Special); see Fig. 2-1. The unit operated very well, and on par with the European, World War II designs, but it has not had the test of time nor the millions of operating hours like the older Imbert design. This new stratified design was developed for the construction of simple, inexpensive emergency wood gas generator units. The prototype design below should be considered to be the absolute minimum in regard to materials, piping and filter arrangement, and carburetor system connections.

The Gasifier unit, as described below, is designed to maintain proper cooling, even at moderate vehicle speeds. If this unit is to be used on stationary engines or on slow-moving vehicles, a gas cooler and a secondary filter must be placed in the piping system between the generator unit and the carburetor. The ideal temperature for the wood gas at the inlet to the carburetor manifold would be 70°F, with acceptable peaks of 140 to 160°F. For every 10 degrees above 70°F, an estimated 1% horsepower is lost. Cooler gas has higher density and, therefore, contains more combustible components per unit volume.

The millions of wood gasifiers built during World War II proved that shape, form, and construction material had little or no effect on the performance of the unit. Judicious substitution or the use of scavenged parts is, therefore, quite acceptable. What is important is that:

1. The fire tube dimensions (inside diameter and length) must be correctly selected to match the rated horsepower of particular engine which is to be fueled,
2. Air-tightness of the gas generator unit and all connecting piping must be maintained at all times, and
3. Unnecessary friction should be eliminated in all of the air and gas passages by avoiding sharp bends in the piping and by using piping sizes which are not too small.

BUILDING THE GAS GENERATOR UNIT AND THE FUEL HOPPER

Figure 2-2 shows an exploded view of the gas generator unit and the fuel hopper; the list of materials is given in Table 2-1 (all figures and tables mentioned in Sect. 2 are presented at the end of Sect. 2). Only the dimensions of the fire tube (Item 1A) must be reasonably close; all other dimensions and materials can be substituted as long as complete air-tightness is maintained. In the following instructions, all item numbers refer both to Fig. 2-2 and to Table 2-1.

The prototype unit described in this report was constructed for use with a 35-hp gasoline engine; the unit has a fire tube diameter of 6 in. (as determined from Table 2-2). A gas generator unit containing a fire tube up to 9-in. diameter (i.e., a gasifier unit for fueling engines up to about 65 hp) can be constructed from the following instructions. If your engine requires a fire tube diameter of 10 in. or more, use a 55-gal drum for the gas unit and another 55-gal drum for the fuel hopper.

The following fabrication procedure is very general and can be applied to the construction of gas generator units of any size; however, the specific dimensions which are given in the parts list and in the instructions below are for this particular prototype unit. All accompanying photographs were taken
1. Using the displacement or horsepower rating of the engine to be fueled by the gasifier unit, determine the dimensions (inside diameter and length) of the fire tube (Item 1A) from Table 2-2. Fabricate a cylindrical tube or cut a length of correctly sized pipe to match the dimensions from Table 2-2. (For the prototype gasifier unit illustrated in this report, a 6-in.-diam firetube was used; its length was 19 in.)

2. The circular top plate (Item 2A) should be cut to a diameter equal to the outside diameter of the Gasifier housing drum (Item 3A) at its top. A circular hole should then be cut in the center of the top plate; the diameter of this hole must be equal to the outside diameter of the fire tube. The fire tube (Item 1A) should then be welded at a right angle to the top plate (Item 2A) as shown in Fig. 2-3.

3. The grate (Item 4A) should be made from a stainless steel mixing bowl or colander. Approximately 125 holes with diameters of ½ in. should be drilled in the bottom and up the sides of the mixing bowl; see Fig. 2-4. A U-bolt (Item 5A) should be welded horizontally to the side of the grate, 2 inches from its bottom. This U-bolt will be interlocked with the shaker mechanism (Item 12A) in a later step.

4. The support chains (Item 6A) are to be attached to the grate in three evenly spaced holes drilled under the lip of the mixing bowl or colander; see Fig. 2-5. These chains are to be connected to the top plate (Item 2A) with eye bolts (Item 7A), as shown in Fig. 2-6. Each eyebolt should have two nuts, one on each side of the top plate, so that the eye bolts can be adjusted to the proper length. When assembled, the bottom of the firetube should be 1.25 in. above the bottom of the mixing bowl.

5. A hole equal to the outside diameter of the ash clean out port (Item 8A) should be cut into the side of the gasifier housing drum (Item 3A); the bottom edge of this hole should be about ½ in. from the bottom of the drum. Because of the thin wall thickness of oil drums and garbage cans, welding is not recommended; brazing such parts to the drums or cans will ensure both strength and airtightness (see Fig. 2-7).

6. Two holes, equal to the outside diameters of the ignition ports (Item 10A), are to be cut with their centers at a distance from the top of the housing drum (Item 3A) equal to the firetube length less 7 in. (19 in. less 7 in. equals 12 in. for this prototype unit); the holes should be placed opposite each other as shown in Fig. 2-2. The ignition ports should be attached to the wall of the housing drum by brazing.

7. When the ash clean out port (Item 8A) and the ignition ports (Item 10A) have been attached to the wall of the gasifier housing drum (Item 3A), they should then be closed with pipe caps, Items 9A and 11A respectively. The threads of the pipe caps should be first coated with high temperature silicone (Item 27A) to ensure airtightness. An optional steel crossbar welded to the pipe cap will reduce the effort required to open these caps later.

8. The shaker assembly (Item 12A) is shown in Fig. 2-8. The 1/2-in. pipe (Item 1AA) should be brazed into the side of the housing drum (Item 3A), 1.5 inches from the bottom of the drum; the length of this pipe which protrudes into the drum must be chosen so that the upright bar (Item 2AA) is in line with the U-bolt (Item 5A) on the grate. Likewise, the length of the upright bar must be selected so as to connect into the U-bolt.

9. Weld the upright bar (Item 2AA) to the head of the bolt (Item 3AA). The threaded end of the bolt should be ground down or flattened on one side, as shown in Fig. 2-9, to positively interlock with a slot to be drilled and filed in the handle (Item 4AA). The handle can be formed or bent into any desired or convenient shape.

10. A hole should be drilled in the pipe cap (Item 7AA) so that there is a close fit between this hole and the bolt (Item 3AA). The close fit will help to ensure air-tightness.

11. Before assembling the shaker, as shown in Fig. 2-8, coat the bolt (Item 3AA) with a small amount of grease. Before inserting the bolt, fill the pipe (Item 1AA) with high temperature silicone (Item 27A) to ensure airtightness.
27A) to ensure air-tightness. Tighten the nuts (Item 6AA) so that the position of the handle (Item 4AA) is maintained by friction, yet is capable of being turned and agitated during clean-out or stationary operation.

12 Fabricate the supports (Item 13A) for the Gasifier unit housing drum (Item 3A) out of rectangular, iron bar stock. The shape and height of the support flanges must be determined by the frame of the vehicle to which the gasifier is to be mounted. The supports can either be bolted to the bottom and side with the 114-in. bolts (Item 14A) or can be brazed directly to the drum; see Fig. 2-10. Remember to seal all bolt holes for air-tightness.

13 Completely cover the bottom of the housing drum (Item 3A) with ½ in. of hydraulic cement (Item 28A). The cement should also be applied to the inside of the drum for about 5 inches up the inside walls near the bottom. All edges should be rounded for easy ash removal.

14 The fuel hopper (Item 15A) is to be made from a second container with its bottom up as shown in Fig. 2-11. Remove the bottom, leaving a 1/4-in. lip around the circumference.

15 A garden hose (Item 17A) should be cut to a length equal to the circumference of the fuel hopper (Item 15A) and should then be, slit along its entire length. It should be placed over the edge of the fuel hopper from which the bottom was removed. This will prevent injury to the operator when adding wood fuel to the unit. To insure close fit of the garbage can lid (Item 16A), a piece of weather stripping (Item 18A) should be attached under the lid where it makes contact with the fuel hopper.

16 Cut four support bars (Item 19A) to lengths 2.5 in. longer than the height of the fuel hopper (Item 15A). Drill a 3/8-in. hole in each end of all four support bars; these holes should be centered 3/4 in. from the ends. Bend 2 in. of each end of these support bars over at a right angle; then, mount them evenly spaced around the fuel hopper (Item 15A) with 1/4-in. bolts (Item 20A). One of the bends on each support bar should be as close to the lower edge of the fuel hopper as possible.

17 Cut four metal triangular standoffs (Item 21A) and braze, weld, or rivet them flat against the edge of the garbage can lid (Item 16A) as shown in Fig. 2-12; they must be aligned with the four support bars (Item 19A) attached to the fuel hopper. During operation, the garbage can lid must have a minimum 3/4-in. opening for air passage; the standoffs should provide this clearance, where they are engaged into the holes in the top edges of the support bars (Item 19A); see Fig. 2-13.

18 Two eye-hooks (Item 22A) should be attached to opposite sides of the garbage can lid (Item 16A). Two screen door springs (Item 23A) should be attached to the garbage can handle-s and used under tension to keep the top lid (Item 16A) either open or closed.

19 Cut the oil drum lock ring (Item 24A) to the exact circumference of the top plate (Item 2A) so that it will fit snugly around the Gasifier unit housing drum (Item 3A).

20 Cut four 2 by 2 by 1/4-in. tabs (Item 25A); then, braze these tabs to the lock ring (Item 24A), evenly spaced and in alignment with the support bars (Item 19A) on the fuel hopper. Drill a 3/8-in. hole in each tab to align with the holes in the fuel hopper support bars (Item 19A). The lock ring is shown in Fig. 2-14.

21 The connecting pipe (Item 29A) between the Gasifier unit and the filter unit should be attached to the gasifier housing drum (Item 3A) at a point 6 in. below the top of the drum. This pipe must be a minimum of 2-in. in diameter and should be at least 6 ft long for cooling purposes. At least one of the ends of this pipe must be removable for cleaning and maintenance. On this prototype unit, an airtight electrical conduit connector was used; this connection is visible in Fig. 2-1. Many similar plumbing devices are available and can be used if they are suitable for operation at 400 F and above. The pipe can also be welded or brazed directly to the housing drum.

22 When assembling the Gasifier unit, the upright bar (Item 2AA) on the shaker assembly must be placed inside the U-bolt (Item 5A) on the grate.

23 The lock ring will then clamp the gasifier unit housing drum (Item 3A) and the top plate (Item
2A) together. The fuel hopper support bars (Item 19A) must be attached to the tabs (Item 25A) on the 
lock ring with bolts (Item 26A). High temperature silicone (Item 27A) should be applied to all edges to 
make an airtight connection. The lock ring connections are shown in the lower portion of Fig. 2-13.

BUILDING THE PRIMARY FILTER UNIT

Figures 2-15 and 2-16 show exploded views of the primary filter unit; the list of materials is 
given in Table 2-3 (all figures and tables mentioned in Sect. 2 are presented at the end of Sect. 2). In the 
following instructions, all item numbers refer to either Fig. 2-15 or 2-16 and to Table 2-3.

The prototype primary filter unit was made from a 5-gal paint can. That size seems to be 
sufficient for gasifiers with fire tubes up to 10 in. in diameter. If a fire tube diameter of more than 10 
in. is required, then a 20-gal garbage can or a 30-gal oil drum should be used. The Filter unit could be 
fabricated in any shape or form as long as air-tightness and unobstructed flow of gas are provided. If a 
5-gal container is used, it must be clean and free of any chemical residue. The top edge must be straight 
and without any indentations. If an alternate container can be found or fabricated, a larger diameter 
will permit longer operation between cleanings.

The piping (Item 29A in Figs 2-2 and 2-15) which connects the gas generator unit to the 
primary filter should be considered to be a necessary part of the cooling system and should never have 
an inside diameter less than 2 inches. A flexible automotive exhaust pipe was used on the prototype 
filter unit described below; it was shaped into a semicircular arc so that increased length would achieve 
a greater cooling effect. The fabrication procedure for the filter unit follows:

1. A hole equal to the outside diameter of the drain tube (Item 13B in Fig. 2-15) should be cut into 
the side of the filter container (Item 1B); the bottom edge of this hole should be about ½ in. from the 
inside bottom of the container.

2. The drain tube (Item 13B) should be inserted into the previously cut hole in the filter container 
and should be positioned so that its non-threaded end is near the center of the container and is about ½ 
in. off the bottom. Once this position has been ensured, braze (do not weld) the drain pipe into the side 
of the filter container. Close the threaded, exterior end of the drain pipe with the pipe cap (Item 14B).

3. Coat the bottom of the filter container (Item 1B) with a 1/2-in. layer of hydraulic cement (Item 
28A), taking care not to plug or obstruct the end of the drain tube (Item 13B) with cement (i.e., fill 
the drain tube with a paper, styrofoam, or other easily removable, but rigid material). The cement should 
also be applied for about 1.5 in. up the inside walls of the container near its bottom. Round the edges 
slightly; the cement is to provide a pathway for any liquid condensate to drain out through the drain 
tube. The cement must be allowed to harden before proceeding with the fabrication steps below. Remove the filler material from the drain tube when the cement has hardened.

4. A circular bottom plate (Item 2B) should be cut to a diameter ½ in. smaller than the inside 
diameter of the filter container (Item 1B). This will allow for heat expansion and easy removal for 
cleaning. This bottom plate should be drilled with as many 3/4-in. holes as are practical for the size of 
the plate. Three evenly spaced 3/8-in. holes should also be drilled around the edge of the bottom plate 
for the spacer bolts (Item 3B).

5. Fig. 2-16 shows the detail of using three bolts (Item 3B) as spacers for the bottom plate (Item 
2B). The length of the bolts should be adjusted to provide a clearance of about 2-in. between the layer 
of cement in the bottom of the container (Item 1B) and the bottom plate (Item 2B).

6. A rectangular divider plate (Item 4B) should be cut to a width 1/4 in. less than the inside 
diameter of the filter container (Item 1B) and to a height 2.5 in. less than the inside height of the
container. This divider plate should then be welded at a right angle to the centerline of the bottom plate (Item 2B) as shown in Fig. 2-17.

7 Cut a piece of high-temperature hydraulic hose (Item 5B) to a length equal to the circumference of the filter container. It should be slit along its entire length and then placed over the top edge of the filter container (Item 1B) to ensure air-tightness.

8 A circular lid (Item 6B) should be cut equal to the outside diameter of the filter container (Item 1B). Three holes should be cut into this lid for the exhaust pipe (Item 29A) from the Gasifier unit, the blower (Item 7B), and the filter exhaust pipe (Item 1OB) to the engine manifold. Note the arrangement of these holes: the pipe (Item 29A) from the Gasifier unit must enter the lid on one side of the divider plate (Item 4B); the blower (Item 7B) and the filter exhaust pipe (Item 1OB) to the engine manifold must be located on the other side of the divider plate. This arrangement can be seen in Fig. 2-18.

9 The connecting pipe (Item 29A) between the gasifier unit and the filter unit should be attached to the lid (Item 5B) of the filter container. At least one of the ends of the connecting pipe (Item 29A) must be removable for cleaning and maintenance. On this prototype unit, an airtight electrical conduit connector was used. Many similar plumbing devices are available and can be used if they are suitable for operation at 400 F and above. The pipe can also be welded or brazed directly to the lid.

10 Attach the blower (Item 7B) to the filter container lid (Item 6B). On the prototype gasifier illustrated in this report, a heater blower from a Volkswagen automobile was used. Connections for a vertical extension tube (Item SB) will have to be fabricated as shown in Fig. 2-19. A closing cap (Item 9B) is required for the blower exhaust tube. A plumbing cap of steel or plastic with a close fit can be used or fabricated to fit. The vertical extension and the closing cap are visible in Fig. 2-1.

11 The gas outlet (Item 10B) to the carbureting unit on the engine should be 1.25 in. minimum diameter. In fabricating this connection, all abrupt bends should be avoided to ensure free flow of gas. Using plumbing elbows is one solution. The gas outlet (Item 10B) can either be welded or brazed to the lid (Item 6B) of the filter container or an airtight, electrical conduit connector can be used.

12 Latching devices (Item 11B) should be welded or brazed to the lid (see Fig. 2-20) and to the sides (see Fig 2-21) of the filter container. An air-tight connection between the lid and the filter container must be maintained.

13 Cut two lengths of high-temperature hydraulic hose (Item 12B) equal to the height of the divider plate (Item 4B); cut a third length of hose equal to the width of the divider plate. Slit each hose along its entire length. Place the first two hoses on each side of the divider plate, and place the third hose along the top edge of the divider plate as shown in Fig. 2-17.

14 Insert the divider plate (Item 4B) into the filter container (Item 1B), making sure that the hoses (Item 12B) create an airtight seal along all sides. By changing the length of the spacer bolts (Item 3B), adjust the height of the divider plate so that it is exactly flush with the top of the filter container. Make sure that the lid (Item 5B) will seat flatly and tightly against the top edge of the divider plate.

15 Fill the filter container (Item 1B) on both sides of the divider plate with wood chips, the same kind as would be used for fuel in the Gasifier unit. After carefully packing and leveling these wood chips, place the lid (Item 6B) on the filter container, and close the latches tightly.

**BUILDING THE CARBURETOR WITH THE AIR AND THROTTLE CONTROLS**

Figures 2-22 and 2-23 show exploded views of the carbureting unit; the list of materials is given in Table 2-4 (all figures and tables mentioned in Sect. 2 are presented at the end of Sect. 2). In the following instructions, all item numbers refer both to Figs. 2-22 and 2-23 and to Table 2-4. The following is a simple and easy way to assemble a carburetor to achieve both air mixture and throttle control. It can be mounted to either updraft or downdraft manifolds by simply turning the unit over.
Most of the fabrication procedure below is devoted to the assembly of two butterfly valves: one for the throttle valve and one for the air mixture valve. The remainder of the carburetor unit can be assembled from ordinary, threaded plumbing parts.

The inside diameter of the piping used in the carburetor unit must be related to the size of the engine and should never be smaller than the intake opening on the engine manifold. If in doubt on the inside diameter for the pipe and/or hose sizes, always go with a larger diameter. This will reduce friction losses and will give longer operating hours between cleanings.

When the wood gas leaves the filter unit it should normally be below 180°F. About 2 ft from the filter container, an automotive water hose can be connected to the pipe on the carbureting unit. This rubber hose will keep engine vibration from creating air leaks in the filter unit or in the connecting piping. The hose must be a fairly new item; such hoses have a steel spring inside to keep them from collapsing when negative pressure is applied. The spring will soon rust if it has first been subjected to water and then to the hot wood gas enriched with hydrogen.

The fabrication procedure for the assembly of two butterfly valves follows:

1. The manifold adapter (Item 1C in Fig. 2-22) must be fitted with bolts and/or holes for mounting onto the engine's existing intake manifold. Because gasoline engines are produced with so many different types of intake manifolds, ingenuity and common sense must be used to modify the manifold adapter (Item 1C) for each different engine to be operated on wood gas. A gasket (Item 7C) should be cut to match the shape of the engine intake fitting.

2. The butterfly valve (Item 3C) is shown in Figs. 2-24 and 2-25; two such valves are required. A 3/8-in. hole should be drilled through the diameter of each valve body (Item 1CC) at the midpoint of its length.

3. The valve plate (Item 2CC) must be oval in shape with the dimensions given in Table 2-4. An oval valve plate must be used so that, in the closed position, the valve will be about 10° off center. This will ensure that the valve will come to a complete stop in the closed position.

4. The edges of the valve plate (Item 2CC), around the longer diameter of the oval, should be beveled to provide a positive, airtight closure. Two evenly spaced, 1/4-in. holes should be drilled along the shorter diameter of the oval plate.

5. The valve support rod (Item 3CC) should be filed or ground flat on one side as shown in Fig. 2-24; the flat area must begin 1/4 in. from one end and must continue for a distance equal to the inside diameter of the valve body (Item 1CC).

6. Two 3/16-in. holes should be drilled into the flat area of the valve support rod (Item 3CC); these holes must align with the holes in the valve plate (Item 2CC). They must also be tapped (with threads) to accept the valve plate screws (Item 4CC).

7. The butterfly valve (Item 3C) should be assembled by first placing the valve support rod (Item 3CC) through the hole in the valve body (Item 1CC). The valve plate (Item 2CC) should be dropped into one end of the valve body and then inserted into the flat area of the valve support rod. The two screws (Item 4CC) should be used to attach the valve plate to the support rod. Check to see that the assembled valve plate rotates freely and seats completely in the closed position.

8. A nut (Item 6CC) should be welded flat against one side of the throttle arm (Item 5CC) near its end. A 1/8-in. hole should be drilled into the side of the nut and must be threaded to accept the set screw (Item 7CC). At least one hole should be drilled into the throttle arm for attachment of the engine throttle control or air control linkages.

9. Place the nut (Item 6CC) on the throttle arm over the end of the valve support rod (Item 3CC) and use the set screw (Item 7CC) to secure the assembly. The throttle arm can be placed in any convenient orientation. Assembled butterfly valves are shown in Fig. 2-26.
The remaining parts of the carburetor assembly should be screwed together as shown in Fig. 2-27. Pipe thread compound should be used to make airtight connections. The assembled carburetor unit should be attached to the engine's intake manifold as shown in Fig. 2-28.

This prototype Gasifier was designed to operate if gasoline were unavailable; but, if dual operation on wood and gasoline is desired, the elbow (Item 2C) could be replaced with a tee, allowing a gasoline carburetor to also be mounted.

The arm on the butterfly valve (Item 3C) which is closest to the elbow (Item 2C) is to be connected to the foot- (or, on tractors, hand-) operated accelerator. The other butterfly valve is to be used as the air mixture control valve and can be operated with a manual choke cable. If the engine has an automatic choking device, then a hand operated choke cable should be installed. Both butterfly valves and their connecting control linkages must operate smoothly with the ability to adjust the valve yet keep it stationary in the selected position during operation. The linkages must close the valves airtight when the engine is off.

The air inlet (Item 6C) should be connected by an extension hose or pipe, either iron or plastic, to the existing engine's air filter in order to prevent road dust or agricultural residue from entering the engine.

The wood gas inlet (Item 5C) is to be connected to the outlet piping (Item 10B as shown in Fig. 2-15) from the wood gas filter unit. Part of this connection should be a high-temperature rubber or neoprene hose to absorb engine vibration.
Fig. 2-2. Exploded, schematic diagram of the wood gas generator unit and the fuel hopper.
Fig. 2-3. The fire tube and circular top plate of the gasifier unit.

Fig. 2-4. Drilling holes into the stainless steel mixing bowl to be used for the grate. Note the match in the foreground.
Fig. 2-5. Chains attached to the lip of the stainless steel mixing bowl.

Fig. 2-6. Connect the mixing bowl to the top plate with chains. Note that the diesel ignitor "glow plugs" shown in this photograph were included for experimentation only; they were abandoned in the final prototype design.
Fig. 2.7. *Braze, do not weld*, the plumbing fittings to the thin walled drums.
Fig. 2-8. Exploded, schematic diagram of the grate shaking mechanism.
Fig. 2-9. Parts for the shaker assembly. Note the flattened portion of the bolt (at extreme left) which positively locks into the handle (third from right). At the extreme right is a "poker bar" which engages into the hole in the top of the handle to operate the shaker mechanism; the shaker handle will get very hot during normal gasifier operation.

Fig. 2-10. The support frame can be brazed or bolted to the side of the gasifier unit. All bolts should be sealed air tight.
Fig. 2-11. Containers used in constructing the prototype gasifier unit. At right, a 20-gal garbage can (the fuel hopper) is shown on top of a 30-gal metal drum (the gasifier unit housing). The 5-gal paint can, at left, is used as the filter container.
Fig. 2-12. Cover for the fuel hopper. Note the foam weatherstripping (#3) attached to the underside of the lid where it contacts the fuel hopper. Attach four standoffs (#2) to the lid (#1) as shown.

Fig. 2-13. Operating configuration of the fuel hopper and its cover.
Fig. 2-14. Lock ring and welded tabs. Also pictured inside the lock ring (#1): the ash cleanout cover cap (#2), and the ignition cover cap (#3).
Fig. 2-15. Exploded, schematic diagram of the filter unit.
Fig. 2-16. Detail of the standoffs for the bottom plate of the filter unit.
Fig. 2-17. Divider plate (#1) and bottom plate (#3), with standoffs (#4), for the filter unit. Note the high-temperature hose lining the sides of the divider plate.
Fig. 2-18. Circular lid (#1) for the Filter unit. Note the arrangement of the holes; divider plate would roughly run from 10 o'clock position to 4 o'clock position (assuming 12 o'clock is taken to be at the rear of the photograph). Also shown are the conduit connectors (#2 and #3) and accompanying nuts (#4 and #5) for inside the lid.

Fig. 2-19. Blower (#1) with exhaust extension assembly. Note adapter coupling (#2), pipe nipple (#3), and elbow (#4) for vertical exhaust pipe.
Fig. 2-20. Assembled and installed blower (#1), extension assembly (#4), and conduit connectors for gas inlet (#2) and outlet (#3) on lid of filter unit. Note hook attachments at edge of lid for latches.
Fig. 2-21. Filter container (#1) showing latches (#2) for lid and hose (#3) around top.
Fig. 2-22. Exploded, schematic diagram of the carbureting unit and control valves.
Fig. 2-23. Schematic diagram of a butterfly control valve.
Fig. 2-24. Parts required for the butterfly valve.

Fig. 2-25. Butterfly valve assembly. Note that the valve has been assembled outside of the valve body for clarity.
Fig. 2-26. Assembled butterfly valves.

Fig. 2-27. Assembled carburetion unit. Note the gasket on the closet flange.
Table 2-1.

List of materials for the gasifier unit and the wood fuel hopper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal pipe, tube, or other, open-ended metal cylinder; diameter and length from Table 2-2; minimum wall thickness of 1/4 in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Circular metal plate with thickness of 1/8 in.; diameter equal to outside diameter of Item 1A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30-gal metal oil drum or metal container with approximate dimensions of 18 in. (diameter) by 29 in. (height); container must have a bottom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10-quart stainless steel mixing bowl, container, or other stainless steel bowl with approximately 14-in. diameter and 6-in. depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-in. metal U-bolt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3/16-in. metal chain with 1-in. links; 7 ft total length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1/4-in. eyebolts, 3 in. length with two nuts for each eyebolt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4-in. metal pipe nipple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal pipe, cap for Item 8A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-in. metal pipe nipple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Metal pipe cap for Item 10A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12A</td>
<td></td>
<td>Shaker assembly; see Fig. 2-8.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal 1/2-in. pipe; 6 in. length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iron bar stock; square or round, 1/2 in.; 6 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/2-in. bolt; 8 in. long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iron bar stock; rectangular, 1/4 by 1 in.; 10 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/2-in. flat washer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6AA</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1/2-in. nuts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7AA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal pipe cap or bushing for Item 1AA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iron bar stock; rectangular, 1/4 by 2 in.; 10 ft length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14A</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1/4-in. bolts; 31/4 in. length; with nuts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20-gal metal garbage can or metal container with approximate dimensions of 18 in. (top diameter) by 24 in. (height); bottom is not required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lid for 20-gal garbage can.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Garden hose; 1/2 to 5/8 in. diameter; length equal to circumference of Item 15A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Foam weather stripping with adhesive backing; 1/4 by I in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iron bar stock; rectangular, 1/4 by 2 in.; 10 ft length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1/4-in. bolts; 3/4 in. length; with nuts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Metal triangles; 2 by 2.5 in., 1/8 to 1/4 in. thick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Metal eye hook.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Screen door spring, 14 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lock ring for 30-gal (or larger) oil drum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Metal squares; 2 by 2 in., 1/4 in. thick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3/8-in. bolts; 3 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tube of high temperature silicone or liquid high temperature gasket material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60-lb. sack of hydraulic or other waterproof cement [such as SEC-PLUG (tm), which is manufactured by the Atlas Chemical Company, Miami, FL]. 2-in. pipe, electrical conduit, flexible automobile exhaust pipe, or other metal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tubing; 6-ft minimum length. Pipe must be able to withstand temperatures of 400°F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Table 2-2.

**Fire tube dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inside diameter (inches)</th>
<th>Minimum length (inches)</th>
<th>Engine power (hp)</th>
<th>Typical engine displacement (cubic inches)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*A fire tube with an inside diameter of less than 6 in. would create bridging problems with wood chips*
and blocks. If the engine is rated at or below 15 horsepower, use a 6-in. minimum fire tube diameter and create a throat restriction in the bottom of the tube corresponding to the diameter entered in the above table.

NOTES:

For engines with displacement rated in liters, the conversion factor is 1 liter = 61.02 cubic inches. The horsepower listed above is the SAE net brake horsepower as measured at the rear of the transmission with standard accessories operating. Since the figures vary when a given engine is installed and used for different purposes, such figures are representative rather than exact. The above horsepower ratings are given at the engine’s highest operating speed.

Table 2-3.
List of materials for the primary filter unit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5-gal metal can or other metal container with minimum dimensions of 11.5-in. diameter and 13 in. tall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Circular metal plate; diameter equal to ½ in. smaller than inside diameter of Item 1B; thickness of 1/8 in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3/8-in. bolts; 3 in. length with two nuts for each bolt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rectangular metal plate; width equal to 1/4 in. smaller than inside diameter of Item 1B; 1/8 in. thick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Item 1B; height equal to 2.5 in. smaller than internal height of Item 1B; 1/8 in. thick.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High-temperature hose, 3/8 to 5/8 in. diameter; length equal to circumference of Item 1B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Circular metal plate; diameter equal to outside diameter of Item 1B; thickness of 1/8 in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12-volt blower (automotive heater type); case and fan must be all metal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal extension pipe for blower outlet, including elbows and connections for vertical orientation; 1 ft. minimum length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cap for Item 8B; plastic is acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. metal pipe, electrical conduit, automotive exhaust pipe, or other metal tubing; 2 ft minimum length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Metal latch for securely connecting Items 1B and 6B together. Such devices as suitcase or luggage catches, bail-type latches, window sash catches (with strike), or wing-nut latches are acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>High-temperature hose, 3/8 to 5/8 in. diameter; length equal to three times the height of Item 4B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal 1/2-in. pipe, threaded on one end; 8 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal pipe cap for Item 13B.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OPERATING AND MAINTAINING YOUR WOOD GAS GENERATOR

USING WOOD AS A FUEL

Because wood was used extensively as generator fuel during World War II, and since it is plentiful in most parts of the populated United States, it merits particular attention for use as an emergency source of energy. When used in gas generators, about 20 lb of wood have the energy equivalence of one gallon of gasoline. Wood consists of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and a small amount of nitrogen.

As a gas generator fuel, wood has several advantages. The ash content is quite low, only 0.5 to 2% (by weight), depending on the species and upon the presence of bark. Wood is free of sulfur, a contaminant that easily forms sulfuric acid which can cause corrosion damage to both the engine and the gas generator. Wood is easily ignited a definite virtue for the operation of any gas generator unit.

The main disadvantages for wood as a fuel are its bulkiness and its moisture content. As it is a relatively light material, one cubic yard of wood produces only 500 to 600 lbs. of gas generator fuel. Moisture content is notoriously high in wood fuels, and it must be brought below 20% (by weight) before it can be used in a gas generator unit. By weight, the moisture in green wood runs from 25 to 60%, in air-dried wood from 12 to 15%, and in kiln-dried wood about 8%.

Moisture content can be measured quite easily by carefully weighing a specimen of the wood, placing it in an oven at 220o F for thirty minutes, re-weighing the specimen, and re-heating it until its weight decreases to a constant value. The original moisture content is equivalent to the weight lost.

The prototype unit in this manual (with a 6-in.-diam firetube) operated well on both wood chips (minimum size: 3/4 by 3/4 by 1/4 in.) and blocks (up to 2-in. cubes); see Fig. 3-1 (all figures and tables mentioned in Sect. 3 are presented at the end of Sect. 3). Larger sizes could be used, if the firetube

Table 2-4.
List of materials for the carbureting unit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. closet flange.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. male-to-female 45&quot; pipe elbow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Butterfly valve; see Fig. 2-23.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1CC</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.25-in. pipe nipple or threaded length of pipe, 3-in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2CC</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Oval metal plate; 1/16 in. thick; short dimension equal to inside diameter of Item 1CC; long dimension equal to 1.02 times the short dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3CC</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3/8-in. diameter rod; 2.5 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4CC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3/16-in. screws; 3/16 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6CC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7/16-in. nut.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7CC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/8-in. set screw.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. tee with all female threads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. pipe nipple or threaded length of pipe, 3 in. length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25-in. pipe or hose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gasket material; sized to cover Item 1C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tube of pipe compound or Teflon tape for sealing threaded assemblies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
diameter is increased to prevent bridging of the individual pieces of wood; of course, a throat constriction would then have to be added to the bottom of the firetube so as to satisfy the dimensions in Table 2-2 in Sect. 2.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS AND ENGINE MODIFICATIONS

To start the fire in the gasifier, the blower must be used to create a suction airflow through the wood in the hopper and downward in the firetube. If an especially high horse power engine is to be fueled by the gasifier unit, then it might be necessary to install two such blowers and run them simultaneously during start-up. When the wood gas leaves the gasifier unit, all the oxygen pulled down with the air through the firetube has been chemically converted and is contained in carbon monoxide (CO) and water (H20). The wood gas is unable to burn without being mixed with the proper amount of additional oxygen.

If an air leak develops below the grate area, the hot gas will burn while consuming the available oxygen and will create heat; this will almost certainly destroy the gasifier unit if it is not detected soon. If an air leak develops in the filter unit or in the connecting piping, the gas will become saturated with improper amounts of oxygen and will become too dilute to power the engine. Therefore airtightness from the gasifier unit to the engine is absolutely essential.

Ideally, as the wood gas enters the engine manifold it should be mixed with air in a ratio of 1:1 or 1.1:1 (air to gas) by volume. The carbureting system described in this report will provide this mixture with a minimum of friction losses in the piping. The throttle control valve and the air control valve must be operable from the driver's seat of the vehicle. The engine's spark plug gaps should be adjusted to between 0.012 and 0.015 in.; the ignition timing should be adjusted to 'early.'

INITIAL START-UP PROCEDURE

Initially, you will need to add charcoal to the grate below the fire tube. Subsequent operation will already have the grate full of charcoal which has been left over from the previous operating period. Fill the fire tube with charcoal to a level 4 in. above the grate. Fill the hopper with air-dried wood; then, proceed with the routine start-up directions below. Charcoal produced for outdoor barbecue grills is not well suited for gas generator use. To produce a better grade of charcoal, place a rag soaked in alcohol on the grate, or place 3 to 5 pages of newspaper on the grate, then fill the fire tube to a height of 10 to 12 in. with well-dried wood. Have all the valves closed and let the fire tube act as a chimney until the wood is converted to charcoal.

ROUTINE START-UP PROCEDURE

1. Agitate the grate shaker handle for at least twenty seconds to shake down the cCharcoal from the previous operating period.
2. Open the ash clean out port and remove the ashes from the generator housing drum. Lubricate the threads of the clean out port with high-temperature silicone, and close the cover of the clean out port so that it is airtight.
3. Fill the hopper with wood fuel, and tamp the fuel down lightly. Either leave the lid completely off the fuel hopper, or adjust the opening around the lid to a 3/4-in. (or larger) clearance.
4. Close the carburetor's air control valve and remove the cover from the blower exhaust on top of the filter unit. Start the blower, and let it run for thirty seconds to avoid explosion of residual gas in the system. Then, with the blower still operating, proceed with the next step.
5. Open the ignition port, and ignite a 12- by 12-in. piece of newspaper; with a long stick or wire, push the burning sheet of newspaper into the grate; see Fig 3-2. Close the ignition port. If no smoke appears at the blower's exhaust port, repeat the start-up sequence from Step (5). If repeated attempts fail.
new charcoal should be added to the unit as described in Sect. 3.3, above, and the start-up ignition sequence should be repeated.

6. After a few minutes of smoky exhaust, test the gas at the, blower exhaust by safely and carefully attempting to ignite it, see Fig. 3-3. When the gas burns consistently well, stop the blower and replace the cover on the blower exhaust.

7. Open the carburetor's air control valve, adjust the engine's accelerator, and start the engine in a normal manner. Let the engine warm up slowly (two to five minutes). If the engine fails to start or dies repeatedly, restart the blower and repeat the ignition sequence from Step (4).

DRIVING AND NORMAL OPERATION

Shift gears so as to keep the engine speed (rpm) high at all times. Remember that it is the vacuum created by the pistons that provides the force which moves the gas from the gasifier unit into the engine. Refill the hopper with wood (as shown in Fig 3-4) before it is completely empty, but avoid refilling just before the end of engine operation. Periodically shake down the ashes from the grate. If your system is equipped with a gas cooler, drain water from the cooler from time to time.

Under operation in dry weather, the gasifier can be operated without the lid on the fuel hopper. However, when the Gasifier unit is shut down the hopper must be covered to prevent air from continuing to burn the wood in the hopper. Under wet-weather operation, the cover must be placed on the fuel hopper, and then lifted up and rotated about 2 in. until the triangular pieces line up with the holes in the support bars. The tension of the screen door springs will then hold the lid closed. See Fig 3-5 for clarification.

SHUTTING DOWN THE GASIFIER UNIT

When shutting down the gasifier unit, turn off the ignition switch and open the carburetor's air control valve for ten seconds to relieve any pressure from within the system. Then, completely close the air control valve, and place the cover tightly on the fuel hopper. When restarting after a short stopover, let the engine warm up briefly. After longer stops (up to one hour), tamp down the wood lightly and try to use the blower for restarting without relighting the wood fuel. After very long stops (over two hours) the charcoal must be ignited again.

ROUTINE MAINTENANCE

Periodically check all nuts on the gasifier unit, the fuel hopper, the filter unit, and the carburetor for snugness; check all penetrations and fittings for airtightness. In addition, perform the following maintenance activities as scheduled:

Daily Maintenance

Open the ash clean out port of the gasifier housing drum and remove the ashes after shaking the grate for at least thirty seconds. Replace the cover of the port after coating the threads with high-temperature silicone to ensure airtightness. Open the drain tube, at the bottom of the filter container and allow any liquid condensate to drain out; remember to close the drain tube when finished.

Weekly Maintenance (or every 15 hours of operation)

Clean out the gasifier housing drum, the fuel hopper, and the filter. Rinse out the piping and connections to and from the filter. Replace the wood chips inside the filter. (The used wood chips from the filter can be dumped into the fuel hopper and burned to produce wood gas.) Use high-temperature silicone on all pipe connections and on the filter lid to ensure air tightness.
Bi-weekly Maintenance (or every 30 hours of operation)

Make sure that all pipe connections are secure and airtight. Check and tighten all mounting connections to the vehicle chassis. Check for rust on the outside of the gas generator housing drum, especially on the lower region. Coat with high-temperature protective paint as necessary.

OPERATING PROBLEMS AND TROUBLE-SHOOTING

A discussion of problems and their related causes and cures is contained in the trouble-shooting guide of Table 3-1. Many operational problems can be traced to failure to maintain the air tightness of all piping connections and fittings; the piping should be routinely checked to prevent such problems.

HAZARDS ASSOCIATED WITH Gasifier OPERATION

Unfortunately, gas generator operation involves certain problems, such as toxic hazards and fire hazards. These hazards should not be treated lightly; their inclusion here, at the end of this report, does not mean that these hazards are unimportant. The reader should not underestimate the dangerous nature of these hazards.

Toxic Hazards

Many deaths in Europe during World War II were attributed to poisoning from wood gas generators. The danger of 'generator gas poisoning' was one of the reasons that such gasifiers were readily abandoned at the end of World War II. It is important to emphasize that 'generator gas poisoning' is carbon monoxide (CO) poisoning. Acute 'generator gas poisoning' is identical with the symptoms that may develop if a heating stove damper is closed too early, or if a gasoline vehicle is allowed to idle in a poorly ventilated garage. Table 3-2 shows how poisoning symptoms develop according to the concentration of carbon monoxide in breathable air. It is important to note that rather brief exposures to very small concentrations of carbon monoxide result in undesirable physiological effects.

In case of carbon monoxide poisoning, first aid should consist of the following procedures:

1. Move the victim quickly out into the open air or to a room with fresh air and good ventilation. All physical exertion on the part of the victim must be avoided.
2. If the victim is unconscious, every second is valuable. Loosen any tight clothing around the neck. If breathing has stopped, remove foreign objects from the mouth (false teeth, chewing gum, etc.) and immediately give artificial respiration.
3. Keep the victim warm.
4. Always call a physician.
5. In case of mild carbon monoxide poisoning without unconsciousness, the victim should be given oxygen if possible.

Technical Aspects of 'Generator Gas Poisoning'

Generator gas poisoning is often caused by technical defects in the functioning of the gas
generator unit. When the engine is running, independent of the starting blower, the entire system is under negative pressure created by the engine's pistons; the risk of poisoning through leakage is therefore minimal. However, when the engine is shut off, formation of wood gas continues, causing an increase of pressure inside the generator unit. This pressure increase lasts for approximately 20 minutes after the engine is shut off.

For this reason, it is not advisable to stay in the vehicle during this period. Also, the gas generator unit should be allowed to cool for at least 20 minutes before the vehicle is placed in an enclosed garage connected with living quarters. It should be emphasized that the gas formed during the shutdown period has a carbon monoxide content of 23 to 27% and is thus very toxic.

**Fire Hazard**

The outside of a gas generator housing drum may reach the same temperature as a catalytic converter on today's automobiles. Care should be taken when operating in areas where dry grass or combustible material can come into contact with the housing drum of the gas generator unit. If a gas generator unit is mounted on a personal car, bus, van or truck, a minimum 6-in. clearance must be maintained around the unit. Disposal of ashes must only be attempted after the unit has cooled down (to below 150°F). Such residue must be placed away from any combustible material and preferably be hosed down with water for absolute safety.
Fig. 3-2. Ignite a single piece of newspaper to start the gasifier unit. Push the flaming newspaper through the igniter port and directly into the grate. (At the right of the photo, note the battery which is operating the blower atop the filter unit.)

Fig. 3-3. Igniting the exhaust gas will demonstrate that the gasifier unit is working properly.
Fig. 3-4. Refill the fuel hopper before it becomes two-thirds empty.

Fig. 3-5. The lid must be used to cover the fuel hopper in wet weather or when shutting the unit down.
Table 3-1.

**Trouble-shooting your wood gas generator**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trouble</th>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Remedy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Start up takes too long</td>
<td>Dirty system or clogged pipes.</td>
<td>Clean the Gasifier unit and all the connecting piping.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blower is too weak</td>
<td>Check the blower and test the battery's charge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wet or poor quality charcoal</td>
<td>Check charcoal and replace or refill to proper level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wood fuel bridges in the fire tube.</td>
<td>Lightly tamp down the wood fuel in the hopper and fire tube or replace the fuel with smaller-sized chips.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engine will not start.</td>
<td>Insufficient gas</td>
<td>Use the blower longer during start up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wet wood fuel.</td>
<td>Vent steam and smoke through the fire tube and fuel hopper for several minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect fuel-air mixture.</td>
<td>Regulate the carburetor's air control for proper mixing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engine starts, but soon dies</td>
<td>Not enough gas has been produced.</td>
<td>Use low RPM while starting engine and do not rev engine for several minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Air channels through fire tube.</td>
<td>Tamp down wood fuel lightly in hopper. Do not crush charcoal above the grate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engine loses power under load</td>
<td>Restricted gas flow in piping.</td>
<td>Reduce air mixture valve setting. Check for partial blockage of unit or piping.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leaks in system.</td>
<td>Check all covers and pipes for air tightness.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carbon monoxide contentt of inhaled air (%)</th>
<th>Physiological effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>Possible mild frontal headache after two to three hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>Frontal headache and nausea after one to two hours; occipital (rear of head) headache after 2.5 to 3.5 hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>Headache, dizziness, and nausea in 45 min; collapse and possible unconsciousness in who hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>Headache, dizziness, and nausea inn 45 min; collapse and possible unconsciousness in two hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>Headache and dizziness in 5 to 10 min; unconsciousness and danger of death in 30 min.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.640</td>
<td>Headache and dizziness in 1 to 2 min; unconsciousness and danger of death in 10 to 15 min.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.280</td>
<td>Immediate physiological effect; unconsciousness and danger of death in 1 to 3 min.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>