

# Bridge oscillators

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A bridge oscillator is one employing both positive and negative feedback at the inputs of an operational amplifier. By this means it is possible to imitate, using only resistors and capacitors, a high-*Q* LC oscillator which manifestly behaves in the same way, i.e. with high frequency stability and low harmonic distortion; although neither of these properties can be associated with the often misnamed Wien bridge circuit shown in Fig. 1. The latter does not possess a bridge structure and only shows the properties described when modified to include negative feedback via a resistive arm as in Fig. 5. Nevertheless, it is the most common form and such oscillators are commercially available with a 10/1 variation in frequency per dial turn and overall coverage of 10<sup>6</sup>/1 from, say, 1Hz to 1MHz. They possess two major advantages over LC oscillators, viz.;

(1) They have a wideband tuning capability. Thus, whereas in an LC oscillator a 10/1 variation in *L* or *C* produces a 3 16/1 variation in frequency, a 10/1 change in the *R* or *C* of a Wien bridge network produces a 10/1 change in the oscillation frequency  
 (2) At frequencies below several kilohertz the linear inductors required for an LC oscillator become unwieldy and expensive.

The two other common forms of RC bridge circuit, the balanced form of the symmetrical twin T, Fig. 2, and the bridged T, Fig. 3, possess similar advantages over LC networks. Furthermore, with the proviso that when used in an oscillator the same amplifier is used in all three RC configurations, they produce an output with lower harmonic distortion and better frequency stability than the Wien bridge.

Bridge oscillators are not, however, exclusively of the RC type. Another form in common use is the Meacham bridge shown in Fig. 4, which employs a crystal instead of an RC network in the frequency selective arm. The existence of feedback via *R*<sub>1</sub> and *R*<sub>2</sub> increases the frequency stability and decreases the harmonic distortion compared to that of an oscillator in which the frequency is controlled by a crystal alone. The factor of improvement is of the order of the amplifier gain.

Since the behaviour of each of the three RC bridge networks is very similar the earlier sections of the ensuing discussion will give a comparison (from the standpoint of harmonic distortion and frequency stability) of oscillators in which they are incorporated.

This will be followed by an examination of the Meacham bridge. The final section will deal with the problem of amplitude stabilization

## Harmonic distortion

In a self-starting oscillator the amplitude of oscillation increases until the amplifier gain × feedback fraction is unity. In the process, the active device will, for any real output swing, be operating over a large portion of its characteristics and consequently non-linearity distortion will be introduced. The harmonics thus produced may be treated as additional signals within the feedback loop and each harmonic will be acted upon by the factor

$$K_n = \frac{H_n}{H_0} = \frac{1}{(1 - AB_n)}$$

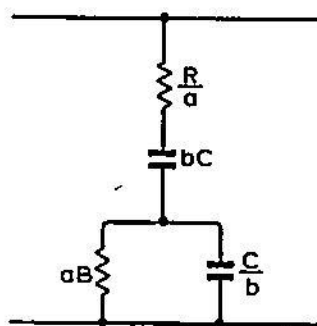


Fig. 1. Wien network, which becomes a bridge when completed by a resistive arm.

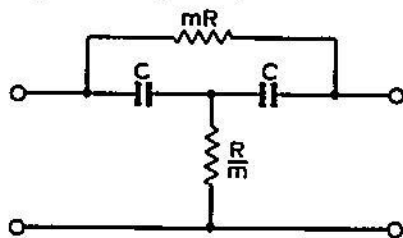


Fig. 3. Two forms of bridged T network, giving identical results.

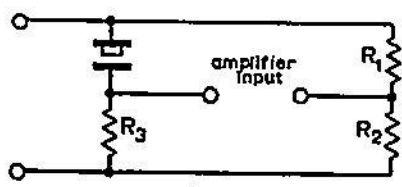


Fig. 4. Meacham bridge crystal network.

where *H*<sub>0</sub> is the harmonic distortion in the oscillator, *H*<sub>*n*</sub> the harmonic distortion in the amplifier, *A* the amplifier gain and *B*<sub>*n*</sub> the feedback fraction for the *n*th harmonic. At the frequency of oscillation, *f*<sub>0</sub>,

$$AB_0 = 1 \text{ and } K_n = \frac{1}{A(B_n - B_0)}$$

$$|K_n| = \frac{1}{|A|(B_n - B_0)} \quad (1)$$

Since it is desirable to produce an almost sinusoidal output then the harmonic distortion should be small. Each of the harmonics produced in the amplifier is modified by the factor |*K*<sub>*n*</sub>| and for a well designed network this factor should be as small as possible. For a given amplifier this will occur when *B*<sub>*n*</sub> - *B*<sub>0</sub> is large.

The more selective the feedback network

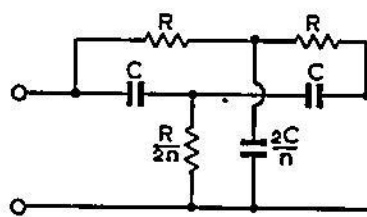


Fig. 2. Twin T RC network.

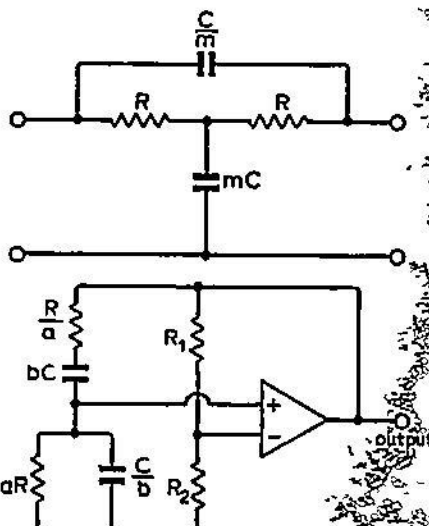


Fig. 5. General form of Wien oscillator.

the greater is the value of  $|B_o - B_n|$  and, for a given degree of amplifier distortion, the more pure will be the output wave. From this point of view, therefore, the relative quality of two oscillators can be obtained by comparing their respective  $|K_n|$  factors. Such a comparison will now be made for oscillators employing the feedback networks shown in Figs. 2, 3 and 5

**Wien bridge.** To incorporate the Wien bridge into an oscillator, the amplifier must have both an inverting and non-inverting input terminal. Since the frequency selective arm of the bridge has a maximum transmission at resonance then it is connected to the non-inverting terminal and negative feedback is applied via the resistive arm to the inverting input.

Assuming the amplifier input resistance is large compared to  $aR$  and  $R_2$ , the feedback fraction is given by Appendix 1 as

$$B = \frac{1}{(x + ju/ab)} - B_r \quad (2)$$

where  $x = 1 + \frac{1}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2}$ ,

$$u = (\omega/\omega_o - \omega_o/\omega),$$

$$B_r = \frac{R_2}{(R_2 + R_1)}$$

Substituting for  $B_o$  and  $B_n$  in Eq. (1) gives  $|K_n| = xab/A \{ (x^2/u^2 + (1/ab)^2 )^{1/2} \}$  and this takes the values shown in Table 1 for the second and third harmonics.

Table 1

	$K_2$	$K_3$
$a=b=1$	6.69/A	4.5/A
$a=b=\sqrt{3}/2$	3.39/A	2.53/A

Obviously the larger is the value of  $A$  the smaller are the factors  $K_2$  and  $K_3$ . Thus for the completely unbalanced bridge where there is no resistive feedback and the amplifier gain =  $x$  then  $K_2 = 6.69/x$ . Using an amplifier gain of 100x reduces this factor a hundredfold but requires the introduction of resistive feedback in which the feedback ratio is controllable to within 1% of  $1/x$

**Twin T.** The twin T, being a minimum transmission network, is connected in the negative feedback loop when employed in oscillator circuits. The transfer response of the unloaded network is given by references 1, 2 and 3 as

$$\frac{v_o}{v_i} = \frac{1}{1 - 4j/uu}$$

where  $u = \omega/\omega_o - \omega_o/\omega$  and  $\omega_o = n^2 CR$ . The sensitivity of this function with respect to  $n$ , i.e.  $d(v_o/v_i)/dn$  is a maximum for  $n = 1$  and this accounts for the fact that in oscillator circuits it is more generally seen in the form shown in Fig. 6. For this reason attention will be restricted to this type of network in which

$$B_n = B_r - \frac{1}{1 - 4j/uu}$$

where  $B_r = R_2/(R_1 + R_2)$ . Making the rel-

evant substitutions in Eq. 1 gives the results shown in Table 2.

Table 2

$K_2$	$K_3$
8.85/A	1.81/A

From a comparison of Tables 1 and 2 it would seem, therefore, that the twin T oscillator shows lower harmonic distortion. Unfortunately, variation of the oscillator frequency requires that three elements be altered simultaneously. In general, therefore, twin T oscillators are only used in cases of fixed frequency operation

**Bridged T.** The bridged T network may take either of the forms shown in Fig. 3, there being no difference in their behaviour. Since the circuit is a minimum transmission network it is used in the negative feedback arm as in Fig. 7 to provide the frequency selectivity necessary in an oscillator.

The feedback fraction  $B_n$  is given by:<sup>1</sup>

$$B_n = B_r - \frac{(m - 2j/uu)}{(m - j(m^2 + 2))/u}$$

where  $B_r = R_2/(R_1 + R_2)$  and  $u = (\omega/\omega_o - \omega_o/\omega)$ . Substituting for  $B_o$  and  $B_n$  in Eq. 1 gives

$$|K_n| = \frac{1}{m^3 A} (2 + m^2) \left( m^2 + \frac{(m^2 + 2)^2}{u^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

which leads to the results shown in Table 3, where the factors  $m = 2.5$  and  $m = 3$ , since they approximately correspond to the values for  $m$  where  $|K_2|$  ( $m = 2.5$ ) and  $|K_3|$  ( $m = 3$ ) are at their minimum

Table 3

$m$	$K_2$	$K_3$
1	6.69/A	6.3/A
2.5	2.55/A	2.14/A
3	3.22/A	2.08/A

**Frequency stabilization**

The frequency of oscillation is identically that for which the phase shift round the loop is zero. If some parameter of the amplifier should change and produce a phase shift then the oscillation frequency will change to re-establish the zero phase condition. For example, if the change in the amplifier produces a phase shift of, say,  $1^\circ$  and if the phase shift of the bridge network in the neighbourhood of the oscillation frequency is  $-10^\circ$  per 1000Hz then there will be an increase in the oscillation frequency of 100Hz. Obviously the greater the rate of change of phase with frequency of the bridge the greater will be its frequency stability.

The 100Hz change in oscillator frequency due to the parameter change in the amplifier was calculated on the basis that

$$\Delta f = \frac{\Delta \phi}{S_f}$$

where  $\Delta f = 100\text{Hz}$ ,  $\Delta \phi = 1^\circ = \text{phase shift}$

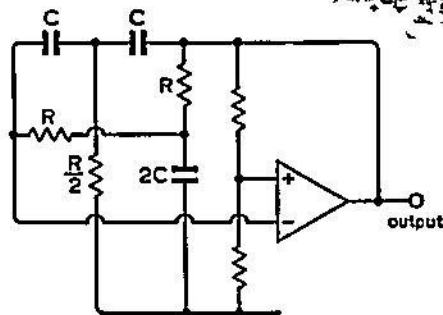


Fig. 6. Twin T oscillator.

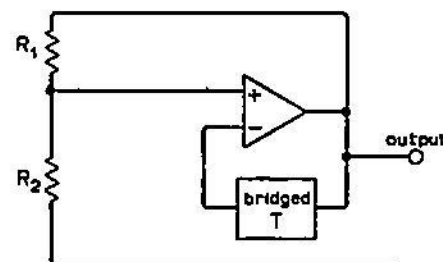


Fig. 7. Bridged T oscillator.

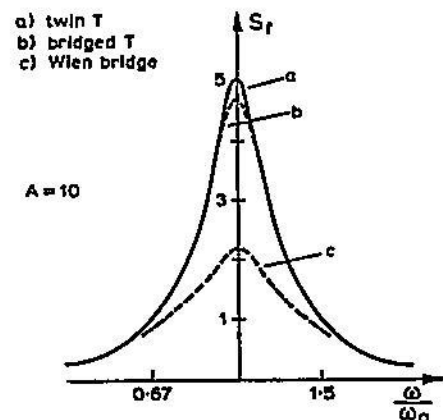


Fig. 8. Variation of frequency stability factor with frequency.

in amplifier, and  $S_f' = d\phi/df = 0.01^\circ/\text{Hz}$ , which is the rate of change of phase with frequency of the frequency-determining network. From a practical point of view it is much more important to know the fractional change in frequency i.e.  $\Delta f/f_o$ . Consequently, in making a comparison of the frequency stability of oscillation it is usual to use a stability factor  $S_f = f_o S_f'$  of the frequency selective network as the basis of the comparison. A phase shift of  $\Delta \phi$  in the amplifier then produces a fractional change of  $\Delta f/f_o = \Delta \phi/S_f$ .

As shown in Appendix 2,  $S_f$  for each of the three networks so far considered has a maximum value of 0.5A for the twin T, 0.47A for the bridged T and 0.22A for the Wien bridge. When  $S_f$  is plotted as a function of  $f/f_o$ , for  $A = \text{constant} = 10$ , the curves take on the form shown in Fig. 8. Increasing  $A$  produces curves with a similar shape but with a higher peak value and a faster rate of fall off. It can be seen from these curves that, again, the twin T, inherently, gives the best oscillator.

**Meacham bridge.** The Meacham bridge oscillator shown in Fig. 9 combines the

properties of a high-Q LC circuit and an almost balanced bridge network to effect an extremely precise frequency standard, with the highest stability of any circuit yet devised. The positive feedback is frequency dependent attaining a maximum at the series resonant frequency of the crystal. Assuming there is no phase shift in the amplifier, oscillation takes place at this frequency

Using the equivalent series model of the crystal the feedback fraction  $B_{mb}$  is given by:

$$B_{mb} = \frac{R_3}{(R_3 + r + j\omega L + 1/j\omega C)} - B_r$$

where  $B_r = R_2/(R_1 + R_2)$ . Substituting  $N = r/R_3 = 1/(LC)^2$  and  $Q = L/r$  this becomes

$$B_{mb} = \frac{1}{(N+1) + jNQ\omega} - B_r$$

This equation is of the same form as Eq. (2) for the Wien bridge, the factors  $N+1$  and  $QN$  being analogous to  $x$  and  $1/ab$  respectively. By analogy it follows that the factor  $K_n$  for the Meacham bridge may be obtained using the earlier results and replacing  $x$  and  $ab$  by their analogies. Hence

$$K_n = \frac{(N+1)}{AQN} \left\{ \frac{(N+1)^2}{u^2} + Q^2 N^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

For all harmonics  $u = (\omega/\omega_0 - \omega_0/\omega) > 1$  so that  $(N+1)/u^2 > (N+1)$ . Furthermore, since  $Q$  is very large (typically 20,000) and providing  $N$  is not too much smaller than unity this approximates to

$$K_n = \frac{(N+1)}{NA}$$

which is completely independent of the resistive side of the bridge.

In a similar manner by substituting for  $x = (N+1)$  and  $QN = 1/ab$  the expression for the frequency stability factor  $S_f$  at the frequency of oscillation is (Appendix 2)

$$S_f = -\frac{(2QNA)}{(N+1)^2}$$

This function is geometrically symmetrical about  $N = 1$  and has a maximum value of  $-QA/2$  at this point.

**Amplitude stabilization**

The amplitude stability of an oscillator is the sensitivity of the oscillation amplitude  $V_o$  to variations in temperature, supply voltage etc. In particular, the amplitude stability factor is defined as

$$S\mu = \frac{\Delta V_o/V_o}{\Delta\mu/\mu}$$

where  $\mu$  is the parameter within the oscillator which is subject to variation. Obviously, the lower the value of  $S\mu$  the more stable will be the output amplitude and frequently amplitude control elements are used to provide the necessary stabilization.

To demonstrate the function of these control elements imagine that the feedback resistor  $R_2$  of the Wien bridge network increases with the voltage across it. If the output amplitude should increase then  $R_2$  and hence the feedback fraction  $R_2/(R_1 + R_2)$  will increase. This reduces the voltage fed back and causes a decrease in output.

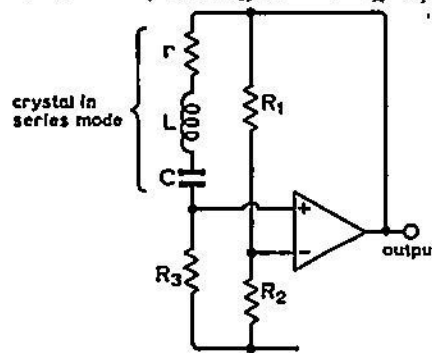


Fig. 9. Meacham bridge oscillator, showing the crystal as a tuned circuit.

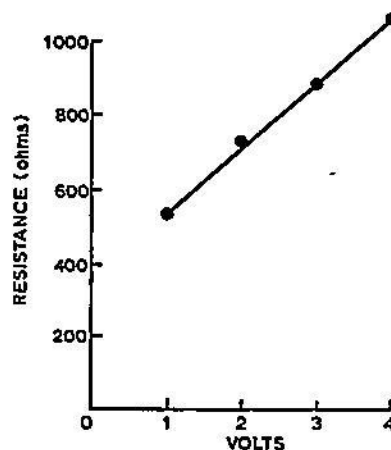


Fig. 10. Characteristics of a 6V, 0.36W tungsten-filament bulb.

One form the stabilization element may take is a tungsten filament lamp. Typically these lamps have a characteristic of the form shown in Fig. 10 in which case over a wide voltage range the resistance  $R_2$  is given by:

$$R_2 = R_0 + KV_r; V_r = \text{volts across lamp.}$$

Under oscillatory conditions

$$B_r = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{A} \right) \text{ and } B_r V_o = V_r$$

therefore

$$dB_r = \frac{KR_1}{(R_0 + KV_r + R_1)^2} dV_r = \frac{dA}{A^2}$$

But

$$\frac{R_1}{R_0 + KV_r + R_1} = 1 - B_r = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{A} \approx \frac{2}{3} \text{ for large } A.$$

Hence

$$\frac{dA}{A} \approx \frac{2KA}{3(R_0 + R_1 + KV_r)^2} dV_r$$

and

$$S_A = \frac{dA/A}{dV_r/V_o} = \frac{2K}{3A(R_1 + R_0 + KV_r)} \frac{dV_o}{dV_r} V_o$$

Since  $V_r \approx 1/3V_o$  then  $dV_r = 1/3dV_o$  and

$$S_A = \frac{2KV_o}{9A(R_1 + R_0 + KV_r)}$$

In the limit as  $K$  tends to infinity then  $S_A$  tends to a maximum of  $2/3A$ .

The amplitude control element may take many different forms. In the Meacham bridge circuit the resistor  $R_2$  needs to increase as  $V_o$  increases. Practically this may be accomplished using an f.e.t. The output voltage is rectified and used to control the drain-source resistance of the f.e.t. Quantitatively the stabilization factor may be assessed in a manner similar to that used for the Wien bridge.

**Appendix 1**

For the Wien bridge the voltage,  $v_r$ , fed back is given by:

$$v_r = \frac{\frac{aR}{(aR+b/j\omega C)} \frac{b}{j\omega C}}{\frac{1}{j\omega bC} + \frac{R}{a} + \frac{aR}{(aR+b/j\omega C)} \frac{b}{j\omega C}} - B_r$$

$$= \frac{abR}{(a/b)R + (b/a)R + abR + 1/j\omega C + j\omega CR} - B_r$$

$$= \frac{1}{\left( 1 + 1/a^2 + 1/b^2 + \frac{j\omega CR - j/\omega CR}{ab} \right)} - B_r$$

$$= \frac{1}{x + ju/ab} - B_r \tag{A1}$$

where  $x = 1 + 1/a^2 + 1/b^2$ ,  $u = (\omega/\omega_0 - \omega_0/\omega)$  and  $\omega_0 = 1/CR$ .

**Appendix 2**

From Appendix 1 it follows that at the frequency of oscillation

$$B_{wb} = \frac{1}{x} - B_r$$

Also, at this frequency the loop gain,  $AB_{wb} = 1$  so that  $B_{wb} = 1/A$ . It follows that  $B_r = 1/x - 1/A$ . Substituting for this factor in Eq. A1 gives

$$B_{wb} = \frac{\frac{x}{A} + \frac{ju}{ab} (1/A - 1/x)}{x + ju/ab} \tag{A2}$$

The loop gain  $AB_{wb} = [AB_{wb}] \phi$  where  $\phi = \text{phase shift}$ . Assuming there is no phase shift in the amplifier,  $\phi = \phi_{wb}$  (phase shift of  $B_{wb}$ ). Hence from Eq. A2

$$\phi_{wb} = \tan^{-1} \frac{Au}{xab} (1/A - 1/x) - \tan^{-1} (u/xab)$$

$$S_f = f_\omega \frac{d\phi}{d\omega} = \left[ \frac{A}{xab} \left\{ \frac{1}{A} - \frac{1}{x} \right\} \right]$$

$$\times \left\{ \frac{1}{1 + \{Au/xab(1/A - 1/x)\}^2} \right\} - \left( \frac{1}{xab} \right) \left( \frac{1}{1 + u^2/x^2 a^2 b^2} \right) \times [1 + \omega_0^2/\omega^2] \tag{A3}$$

When plotted as a function of  $\omega/\omega_0$ ,  $S_f$  takes a maximum value when this ratio is unity. Under this condition Eq. A3 simplifies to give

$$S_f = \frac{2}{xab} (-A/x) \\ = -0.22A \text{ when } a = b = 1.$$

Similarly for the twin T

$$B_r = 1/A$$

$$B_n = \frac{(1/A-1)-4j/Au}{(1-4j/u)}$$

$$\phi_n = \tan^{-1}(4/u(A-1)) + \tan^{-1}(4/u)$$

$$S_f = \{1 + \omega_0^2/\omega^2\} \left\{ \frac{-4}{u^2(A-1) + 16/(A-1)} \right\} \\ \frac{4}{u^2 + 16}$$

At  $\omega = \omega_0$ ,  $u = 0$  and  $S_f = -A/2$ .  
Finally, for the bridged T

$$B_r = 1/A + 2/(m^2 + 2)$$

$$B_n = \frac{\{m/A - m^3/(m^2 + 2)\} - j(m^2 + 2)/Au}{m - j(m^2 + 2)/u}$$

$$\phi_n = \tan^{-1}(m^2 + 2)/A\omega x \\ + \tan^{-1}(m^2 + 2)/m\omega,$$

$$\alpha = m/A - m^3/(m^2 + 2)$$

$$S_f = \{1 + \omega_0^2/\omega^2\} \left\{ \frac{(m^2 + 2)}{Ax} \right\}$$

$$\times \left\{ \frac{1}{u^2 + (m^2 + 2)^2/A^2\alpha^2} \right\}$$

$$\frac{(m^2 + 2)/m}{u^2 + \{(m^2 + 2)/m\}^2}$$

Substituting  $m = 2.5$  and  $\omega = \omega_0$  (i.e.  $u = 0$ ) gives  $S_f = -0.47A$ .

#### References

1. Mehta, B. M., *Electron Engg.*, Sept. 1967, p. 582.
2. Girling, F. E. J. and E. F. Good, *Wireless World*, Oct. 1969, p. 461
3. Valley, G. E. and H. Wallman, "Vacuum Tube Amplifiers", McGraw-Hill, New York (1948), Chapter 10
4. Strauss, L., "Wave Generation and Shaping", Second Ed., McGraw-Hill (1970), Chapter 16.
5. Clarke, K. K. and D. T. Hess, "Communication Circuits", Addison-Wesley, 1971, Chapter 6.

## Books Received

Radio Wave Propagation, by Arnel Picquerand, is suitable for radio engineers who want a better understanding of the phenomena. The initial chapters of the book summarize the present state of our knowledge of wave propagation as far as it concerns the telecommunications engineer. Following chapters give graphs which can be used for the calculation of the principal parameters of communication circuits. An appendix gives a brief review of those concepts of mathematical physics required for the comprehension of the theoretical discussions in this book. Price £10. Pp. 343. Macmillan, 4 Little Essex Street, London WC2 RLF.

Electrotechnology Basic Theory and Circuit Calculations for Electrical Engineers, by M. G. Say, starts with a chapter on units and physical quantities. A second chapter deals with the physical nature of electric charge and conduction and then explains the effects in practical terms. A third chapter deals with network analysis, starting with basic circuit parameters and outlining some of the short-cut techniques devised to solve particular groups of problems. The book concludes with a chapter on special techniques of circuit analysis. Price £1.70. Pp. 176. Newnes-Butterworths Ltd, Borough Green, Sevenoaks, Kent TN15 8PH.

Electronic Circuit Analysis, by Wade, Edwards and Clark, has been designed for technical college students. An engineering approximation approach is used to provide an understanding of practical electronic circuits. The basic circuit theories required are Ohm's law, Kirchhoff's laws, Thévenin's and Norton's theorems. Numerous diagrams and worked examples are included to illustrate the analytical techniques employed. Price £12 (£8.25 paper back). Pp. 640. John Wiley and Sons Ltd, Baffins Lane, Chichester, Sussex.

Slow Scan Television Handbook is suitable for the amateur interested in s.s.t.v. After a brief historical introduction the book explains the basic principles involved together with some popular circuits used in s.s.t.v. A chapter on monitors gives several full circuit diagrams and parts lists. Subsequent chapters deal with flying spot scanners, live vidicon cameras, colour equipment and applications of audio filters. The book concludes with chapters on test gear and commercial equipment. Price £2 plus 20p postage and packing. Pp. 248. British Amateur Television Club, c/o "White Orchard", 64 Showell Lane, Penn, Wolverhampton, Staffs WV4 4TT.

Questions and Answers Integrated Circuits, by R. G. Hibberd, is a pocket book aimed at helping students or technicians understand i.c.s. The sections in the book are: basic aspects of i.c.s., i.c. technology, digital, linear and m.o.s. i.c.s., m.s.i. and l.s.i. and applications. Price 75p. Pp. 96. Butterworth & Co Ltd, Borough Green, Sevenoaks, Kent TN15 8PH.

The Bruneval Raid, by George Millar, is not a technical book, but a well-researched description of the events leading up to the decision to capture an intact German radar ground station in 1941. British and German scientists had reached a comparable state of knowledge in the development of radar, but the German ground systems were beginning to constitute a problem for Bomber Command. It became known that a station existed near Le Havre at Bruneval, and Combined Operations pulled off the raid, which was useful not only in the acquisition of the relevant information, but in supplying a very necessary boost to morale at a particularly dismal period of the war. Price £2.50. Pp. 208. Bodley Head Ltd, 9 Bow Street, London WC2.

Now available from RCA is the 74 series of data books which comprise COS/MOS Digital Integrated Circuits—SSD-203B, Thyristors, Rectifiers and Diacs—SSD-205B, Power Transistors and Power Hybrid Circuits—SSD-204B, RF Power Devices—SSD-205B, Linear Integrated Circuits and MOS Devices application notes—SSD-202B, and Linear Integrated Circuits and MOS Devices Selection Guide—SSD-207B. All the volumes are priced at £1.50 or £6 for the set of six. RCA Ltd, Sunbury-on-Thames, Middx TW16 7HW.

Logical Design of Switching Circuits, by Douglas Lewin, is a tutorially-written book intended as a text for courses on logical design with an engineering approach rather than the more usual mathematical treatment being adopted. The book initially explains the principles of switching and the design of combinational switching circuits and sequential circuits. Subsequent chapters deal with circuit implementation, automatic design, and logic design with complex integrated circuits. A final chapter gives an introduction to computers and computer programming. Throughout the book problems with worked solutions are provided to aid private study. All the logic symbols in the book follow the American MILSPEC system. Price £4.75. Pp. 404. Thomas Nelson & Sons Ltd, 36 Park Street, London W1Y 4DE.

Basic Audio Systems, by Norman H. Crowhurst, Mobile Radio Handbook, by Leo G. Sands, and Rapid Radio Repair, by G. Warren Heath, priced at £1.60 (£1.50 Mobile Radio Handbook) are the latest additions to the Foulsham-Tab series. Foulsham-Tab & Co Ltd, Yeovil Road, Slough, Bucks.

Pioneer of Science and Discovery: Michael Faraday and Electricity, by Brian Bowers, is the story of Faraday from early life to retirement. Although it is not a technical book, many of Faraday's experiments are explained together with photographs and diagrams. Price £2.25. Pp. 96. Priory Press Ltd, 101 Gray's Inn Road, London WC1X 8TX.

Electrical Indicating Instruments, by G. F. Tagg, is suitable for engineers concerned with the design and manufacture of instruments. This book describes general instruments as well as providing information on components and the overall performance. After a chapter on general principles, the suspension and control systems are discussed followed by a chapter on damping and response times. Subsequent chapters deal with permanent magnets and the book concludes with chapters on dynamometer, thermal and electrostatic instruments. Price £6. Pp. 227. Butterworth & Co Ltd, Borough Green, Sevenoaks, Kent TN15 8PH.