



1 **Atmospheric electricity at Lerwick Geophysical Observatory**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Atmospheric electricity measurements were made at Lerwick Observatory, Shetland, between 1925 and 1985.
11 These principally provide a long series of hourly Potential Gradient (PG) measurements at an unpolluted site,
12 but also include air-earth current density measurements during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The methodology
13 employed at Lerwick to provide the PG measurements is described. There is renewed international interest in
14 such measurements, not least because the Lerwick PG data have been shown to be linked to Pacific Ocean
15 temperature anomalies. The past measurements described have characterised the Lerwick site exceptionally well
16 in atmospheric electrical terms, which also indicate its suitability for future similar measurements.

17

18 Keywords: Potential Gradient, conduction current; electrograph; ENSO;

19

20 **1. Introduction**

21 Geophysical studies in the UK have a long history, and indeed present one of the longest formal experimental
22 investigations in the natural sciences, arguably beginning with the work of William Gilbert in Tudor times
23 (Gilbert, 1600). Regular and systematic measurements have since provided a range of important insights, many
24 associated with Greenwich and Kew Observatories in London during the nineteenth century. Atmospheric
25 electrical measurements were often pursued alongside magnetic measurements. The expectation of such an
26 arrangement led to atmospheric electricity investigations being included on the geomagnetic survey ship
27 *Carnegie*, from which a significant and widely known result was found, the Carnegie curve (Harrison, 2013).

28

29 As further UK magnetic observatories were sought and built beyond London, new sites for regular atmospheric
30 electricity measurements consequently also became established, notably at Eskdalemuir in Scotland and
31 Lerwick in Shetland (Harrison, 2003). Lerwick Observatory has recently celebrated the centenary of its
32 foundation. The Observatory is located just off the main road between Lerwick and Scalloway, on rising land at
33 80 m above sea level and about 2 km from Lerwick. Figure 1 shows a general view of the Lerwick site.

34



35 Following the renewed international interest in atmospheric electricity measurements for climate research
36 (Nicoll et al., 2019), specific attention is given here to the Lerwick atmospheric electricity instrumentation,
37 which was operational from 1925 to 1984. Descriptions of the other meteorological work of the site at Lerwick
38 are available in Harper (1950) and Tyldesley (1971). The annual volumes of the *Observatories' Year Book*
39 (hereafter "OYB"), published until 1967, provide a further important resource.

40 2. Development of Lerwick Observatory

41 2.1 Foundation

42 Expansion of electrical distribution networks towards the end of the nineteenth century generated interference
43 with the work of geomagnetic observatories, requiring more remote sites beyond London to be sought
44 (Macdonald, 2018). These endeavours led to a new observatory being built at Eskdalemuir, Scotland, in 1909, at
45 which the daily recording routine also included atmospheric electricity measurements (Harrison, 2004). After
46 establishing Eskdalemuir Observatory, the quest for a more northerly site became urgent following after the end
47 of the First World War, following a request from the Norwegian government for help in undertaking research
48 into meteorological and auroral phenomena in high latitudes¹ (M. Walker, 2011). A permanent site was the
49 preferred option, for which the Shetland Isles were especially suitable, as not only were they as far north as
50 possible in the UK, but they also allowed measurements from Kew, Eskdalemuir and Shetland to lie roughly on
51 a north-south line for research on the position and pattern of the electric current systems associated with
52 magnetic disturbances.

53

54 Establishing an observatory in the Shetlands was included in the programme of the Meteorological Office in
55 1919. A radio station had been built near Lerwick in 1913 by the Admiralty, and transferred after the war to the
56 Post Office, but was little used. As it offered office space and living quarters, it was well suited to becoming the
57 intended observatory. An arrangement followed with the Air Ministry. It was agreed that the Lerwick radio
58 station site could be used as a geophysical observatory, in return for maintaining the radio equipment, which
59 itself was used for the transmission of meteorological reports and time signals². Lerwick Observatory was
60 formally opened on the 7th June, 1921 by Dr Crichton Mitchell, Superintendent of the Meteorological Office at
61 Edinburgh, with Mr Jock Crichton becoming the first officer in charge.

62

63 2.2 Infrastructure developments

64 At the Observatory's outset, there were thirteen small houses on the site. Only some of these were used,
65 allocated to the Superintendent Mr Crichton (House 1), the caretaker Mr Ridland (House 4), and a wireless
66 operator, Mr Newcomb (House 5). House 2 was used for auroral photographic work, in which the scullery was
67 used as a darkroom. House 7 was the Observatory office. House 8 also had darkrooms, intended for use with the
68 electrograph and the photographic recorder of a geomagnetic measuring cable around Loch Trebister. House 9

¹ One specific need was to provide high latitude comparative data for Roald Amundsen's arctic voyages.

² The radio heritage is embedded in the site being known locally as "Da Wireless".



69 was a workshop. Houses 12 and 13 provided staff quarters, which provided only basic comfort with official
70 furniture provided from 1926.

71

72 The early electricity supply at the site was poor, and greatly improved by installation of an oil-powered
73 generator in November 1925. Water for the Observatory was obtained from Loch Trebister by a windmill pump,
74 with the water filtered through shingle and sand. The water supply was also initially unreliable as the first pump
75 was inadequately engineered for the strong winds encountered, and an improved wind pump was installed in
76 March 1925.

77

78 Early use of the Observatory was strongly influenced by its military past. In 1925 barbed wire entanglements
79 around the site were removed and new paths constructed across the site, from material obtained by cutting
80 drains to prevent flooding. The wireless station was operated for the Air Ministry and used for emergency
81 communications by the General Post Office (GPO) in March 1925, following a cable breakage with the
82 mainland. This occurred again in March 1928. The antenna masts were finally dismantled in September 1932.

83 With the Second World War looming, a temporary radio station was re-established in July 1939, intended for
84 receiving time signals and weather reports. After the outbreak of war, black-out curtains were fitted to
85 Observatory windows: bombers were seen to pass low over the magnetic huts in an air raid on Lerwick on 22nd
86 November³. Some requisition of facilities was made by the army in 1940, which led to difficulties with the
87 water supply, not least from the use of Loch Trebister for washing. The workshop in House 9 was made into an
88 air-raid shelter in 1941.

89

90 Figure 2 shows the approximate layout of the site for the duration of the atmospheric electricity measurements:
91 office blocks and residential buildings were near to the road, with a meteorological balloon shed on the north-
92 easterly side of the site, overlooking the town of Lerwick. The meteorological enclosure was behind the office
93 blocks, with various magnetic huts situated further away along an access path. New offices were opened in
94 1960, and a substantial refurbishment led to the opening of a new building in 2013.

95

96 3. Atmospheric Electricity instruments

97 By about 1920, operating principles for standardised atmospheric electricity measurements were well
98 established. These measurements were principally to obtain the atmosphere's vertical electric field (generally
99 known in this context as the vertical potential gradient⁴, PG), but also included the electrical conductivity of air
100 and the vertical conduction current density. The PG was determined from the electric potential measured at a
101 fixed point above the surface, using a sensing electrode of some kind and an electrostatic voltmeter. The probe
102 providing the local air potential did so by actively exchanging charge with its surroundings, and hence was
103 known as an "equaliser" or "collector". Nineteenth century measurements typically used a flame probe
104 equaliser, connected to a mechanical electrometer, for example on a moveable mast at Greenwich Observatory

³ Sullom Voe, Shetland, was the first part of the UK to be bombed in the Second World War, on 13th November 1939.(Bennett, 2019)

⁴ The vertical component of the atmospheric electric field E_z and the potential gradient F are related by $E_z = -F$.



105 (Airy, 1847), and sited above the cupola at Kew Observatory (Ronalds, 1847). A flame probe sensor was,
106 however, only suitable for intermittent use. This difficulty was removed with the invention of the Kelvin water
107 dropper equaliser in 1859, which equalised the potential with the air through using a fine mist of water supplied
108 from a header tank. By keeping the tank filled with water, continuous measurements of PG became possible,
109 and permanent recordings of the variations obtained were made by projecting the electrometer's deflection onto
110 photographic recording paper (Aplin & Harrison, 2013). Following the naming convention for other
111 meteorological self-registering (or "autographic") instruments⁵, a continuous recording device for the PG was
112 known as an "electrograph", or, more specifically when a water dropper equaliser was used, the "Kelvin
113 electrograph". The paper chart records were known as *electrograms*.

114

115 For the new site at Lerwick, the intention was also to install an electrograph. From the outset, however, a
116 radioactive equaliser was considered more suitable rather than a Kelvin water dropper equaliser. The Lerwick
117 electrograph consisted of a radioactive probe exposed to the atmosphere, connected to an electrometer and chart
118 recorder, initially a Benndorf instrument (Benndorf, 1906), shown in Figure 3. A design feature of the Benndorf
119 electrometer was the mechanical linkage, in its original form using a pot of sulphuric acid with a mica vane for
120 damping of oscillations (Hatakeyama, 1934).

121

122 The electrograph systems operated in very consistent manner between 1927 and 1985, with the electrograph
123 exposure calibrated to open site exposure by comparison with a stretched wire apparatus Figure 4. Evidence of
124 the original support posts used remains, hence an almost identical arrangement in the same position could be
125 employed again. In the following sections, further information on the operation of the instrumentation is
126 summarised from different intervals during the measurements. Specific events in the history of these
127 measurements are summarised in Table 1, which illustrate the considerable care and attention to detail needed to
128 maintain the quality of the measurements. The aspects described below draw on the relevant volumes of the
129 OYB, and unpublished notes of R.A. Hamilton⁶ (Hamilton, n.d.)

130

131 3.1 1921-1929

132 In 1922 the first site for electrograph was established towards the edge of the site, with building of a small
133 wooden hut occupying about 2 m², with a ridged roof. It contained three brick pillars, one for the recording
134 electrometer, another for the clockwork mechanism, and a third for the absolute electrometer for calibrations.
135 The radioactive collector was a spiral of copper wire coated with radium within an adhesive varnish⁷. This

In fair weather, F is considered positive, and is typically 100 to 150 Vm⁻¹. During precipitation, the PG usually becomes large and variable, and generally increases positively during fog.

⁵ e.g, barograph, thermograph, anemograph, hyetograph...

⁶ Richard Alexander "Hammy" Hamilton FRSE (1912-1991), (McIntosh, 1991). Lerwick superintendent 1960-1966 and inspirational experimental scientist (Malcolm Walker, 2011), strongly influenced by Prof G.M. Dobson when a student in physics at Oxford (Ratcliffe, 1992).

⁷ In detail, the collector's copper spiral collector was soldered into the small end of a tapered copper alloy (German Silver) tube, 76 cm long, of triangular cross section. This was attached to an aluminium (Duralumin) tube, 89 cm long and 1.3 cm diameter. The tube entered through a hole, 3.8 cm diameter, into a wooden box



136 sensor was exposed to the atmosphere at about 1 m from the hut's corner. Great difficulties resulted from damp
137 around the apparatus, and, initially, from the lack of an absolute instrument for comparisons and calibration. An
138 oil stove was kept burning continuously to alleviate the damp, together with small electric bulbs near the
139 supports of the collector rod, which used sulphur insulators.

140

141 The Benndorf electrograph⁸ arrived from Kew on August 8th 1924, and a second electrostatic voltmeter to
142 provide absolute reference observations in the following year, on 30th March 1925. The electrograph system
143 consisted of an exposed collector rod connected to the Benndorf electrometer, using fine wire. Satisfactory
144 measurements could not be obtained, due both from the oil stove's fumes, and the hut being inconveniently
145 small and remote. The system was moved on 6th July 1926 to a more accessible position in the office block.
146 There, the collector rod passed through a window in the north-west wall, 1.9m m from the building's corner.
147 The copper spiral collector was 4.76 m above the ground and projected 1.23m. Timing for the electrograph was
148 taken from the Observatory's standard clock, itself synchronised by a daily time signal.

149

150 Initially, this new location for the apparatus was expected to be unsatisfactory as it was likely to encounter
151 distortion of the electric field by the buildings, and it was a large distance (236 m), from the previous site of the
152 hut, where the absolute reference measurements were still made. These concerns turned out to be much less
153 important than first anticipated. Results from the 1925 and 1926 measurements during this transition were not,
154 however, published in full, with only a short summary of the results given in the OYB for the monthly mean PG
155 at 03, 09, 15 and 21 GMT.

156

157 The absolute measurements of PG were made by the "stretched wire" method⁹, from 1926, from which an
158 exposure factor for the Benndorf electrograph was computed to give the equivalent potential over open ground.
159 The stretched wire was a horizontal length of uninsulated wire hung between insulators, many times longer than
160 the height of the posts. This allowed the potential at the height of the wire to be found, largely unaffected by the
161 distorting effects of the supports on the atmospheric electric field. At Lerwick, two stout wooden posts 211 cm
162 in height and 9.48 m apart were used to support the stretched wire, with a collector¹⁰ in the centre, exactly 1
163 metre above the ground. A standardising electrometer (of the Wulf design) was connected to one end of the wire
164 to determine the potential. Ten to twenty readings were obtained from the electrometer at minute intervals, and
165 the reduction factor deduced from comparing the mean of these values with the corresponding mean potential at
166 the collector simultaneously recorded by the Benndorf. Smoothed monthly means of the reduction factors were
167 derived to be applied to the electrograph measurements.

168

169 Ten exposure factor determinations typically were made each month, with, in 1927, values ranging from 1.31 to
170 1.43. The leakage rate of the system was, as a fraction of the rate of charging 1/20 in the winter and 1/50 in the

(dimensions 38 x 25 x 10 cm), held horizontally between the ends of two metal rods supported by sulphur insulators.

⁸ Benndorf electrometer No. 108, manufactured by L. Castagna, Vienna.

⁹ The "stretched wire" system has also been known as a "passive wire antenna".

¹⁰ At Lerwick this was initially a burning fuse, and later a radioactive (americium) source.



171 summer; this variation was included in the experiments determining the exposure factor, which was therefore
172 ~3% lower in summer than winter. In 1928 the lowest mean monthly exposure factor was 1.19 and the highest
173 1.41. An attempt was made to relate the exposure factor to the wind direction, as larger values were associated
174 with winds from the NE, S, SW, and W, in which directions the electrograph's collector had a good exposure. In
175 other directions flow was obstructed by buildings, and the extent of the reduction in the factor depended on the
176 nearness of the obstructions to the collector. However, the effect was small, with the lowest mean values 1.24
177 and 1.37 for winds from the SE NE respectively. In further experiments, three sets of PG measurements were
178 made above an even surface near sea level. Two of these experiments were at the Point of Trebister, 2 km SSE
179 of the Observatory, and the other near the Sands of Sound, 1 km to the East. In all, ten series of observations
180 were obtained. The mean electrograph exposure factor computed from these was 1.36, very similar to the values
181 obtained by the standard tests at the Observatory site.
182

183 3.2 1930-1939

184 In August 1930 a new type of collector was introduced, which consisted of polonium deposited on a copper rod,
185 about 4 cm long by 0.5 cm diameter. These rods were recoated periodically through an arrangement with the
186 Government Chemist, with a fresh collector fitted at the start of each quarter. Otherwise, PG records with the
187 Benndorf electrograph continued as before, calibrated against absolute measurements made with the stretched
188 wire and electrometer¹¹.
189

190 3.3 1940-1950

191 Benndorf electrograph measurements and standardisation with the stretched wire continued with little or no
192 change of procedure¹². Intermittent trouble was experienced with the electrograph, but recording continued with
193 only a few breaks. The general behaviour of the Benndorf electrograph was improved in 1942 after replacing the
194 sulphuric acid by glycerine, and the mica damping vane by a hook of copper wire. A new Wulf electrometer¹³
195 was received in November 1948.
196

197 3.4 1950-1970

198 Throughout this period, the PG measurements began to show anomalous reductions, which were similar at many
199 sites internationally (Stewart, 1960). It was eventually concluded that they had become affected by radioactivity
200 contamination from nuclear weapons tests (Hamilton, 1965). As part of the move to new offices in 1961, the
201 Benndorf electrograph was dismantled.
202

¹¹ The Wulf bifilar electrometers used for this were 5225 and 5716 (in 1931), and 5225 and 2965 (1932-39).

¹² (Hamilton, n.d.) noted a suggestion from Edinburgh in 1940 that electrograph recordings should cease, but this did not occur as the superintendent, Oliver Ashford, felt that the length of the record was already sufficient for it to be worth continuing.

¹³ Wulf electrometer No. 0157



203 From January 1960, a thermionic valve electrometer designed by Dr Alan Brewer¹⁴ replaced the Benndorf
204 electrometer (Brewer, 1953) with a chart recorder added to provide the paper trace. This system is shown
205 operating in Figure 5. A comparison was made between the Benndorf and Brewer electrographs from May
206 1960, and the values correlated well. It was concluded that, although the Benndorf was a simple instrument to
207 use, its sensitivity was inconsistent across its range. In addition, the Brewer electrometer was more complicated,
208 and it was thought to be more difficult to identify malfunctions. When repairs were needed, however, the
209 electrometer valves were readily changed.

210

211 Up to October 1961, when readings were made at the stretched wire, values were subsequently taken from the
212 Benndorf or Brewer electrometer charts. After October 1961, simultaneous readings were made at the stretched
213 wire and the electrometer. The Wulf electrometer was also calibrated for each observation. Early in 1962 the
214 sulphur insulators for the electrograph collector, were replaced by PTFE which were found to be entirely
215 trouble-free.

216

217 During the electrometer comparisons from May 1960, variations in the exposure factors had been seen. This was
218 investigated by a summer student in 1964, who found a marked PG variation with the wind direction. Greater
219 PG values were found for southerly airstreams. This was probably linked to the surface radioactive deposition.
220 Some confirmation was found from the freezing of Loch Trebister in February 1966, which led to a 6% increase
221 in PG over the Loch compared with the electrograph. Further, in March, with a light wind from the south-east,
222 PG measurements were taken at the north-west and south-east ends of the loch. These showed a PG increase of
223 about 13 % as the air passed over the water, without the effects of conductivity-increasing radioactivity.

224

225 There was also a broadening of interest to make air-earth current measurements, with a proposal to make
226 continuous measurements at Kew, Eskdalemuir and Lerwick (Hamilton & Paren, 1967). Trials of air-earth
227 current¹⁵ apparatus began in 1969 (Dawson, 1978) using a well-insulated current-collecting plate, an
228 electrometer current amplifier and a recording device. Incandescent light bulbs were used to provide some local
229 heating to reduce the effects of moisture. Some analogue chart paper rolls from this period exist indicating a
230 sustained period of evaluation, but not sufficiently developed at that point to allow systematic tabulation.

231

232 3.5 1970-1985

233 The Brewer electrograph measurements continued in the established manner until July 1984. Experiments with
234 conduction current density measurements continued, using instrumentation manufactured by Saxer and Sigrist.
235 The sensor employed a collecting plate of area 0.5 m² mounted flush with the ground above a 30 cm deep slate-
236 lined pit, situated between the met enclosure and the office block. The current from the plate was measured by
237 the voltage developed across high value (10¹⁰ Ω to 10¹⁰ Ω) resistors, using a mechanical “Vibron” chopper

¹⁴ Alan W. Brewer (1915-2007), long-term collaborator of Prof G.M. Dobson at the University of Oxford, and instrument scientist.

¹⁵ The air-earth current in fair weather is also known as the vertical conduction current density, i.e. the vertical current flowing per unit area, and is typically ~ 2 pA m⁻².



238 semiconductor electrometer (see also Harrison & Nicoll, 2008). The final output voltage signal was passed to
239 the Met Office standard “MODLE” (Met Office Data Logging Equipment) recording system. Tabulations of
240 conduction current density were produced from July 1978.

241

242 4. Tabulations of data in the *Observatories Year Book*

243 The PG values were tabulated as monthly sets of daily values in the annual volumes of the *Observatories Year*
244 *Book* until 1967, and thereafter on individual summary sheets taking a similar form with hourly values until
245 1984, stored in the National Meteorological Archive. The methods selecting representative values evolved
246 during the twentieth century. Initially a geomagnetism-inspired approach was adopted, with a later method
247 becoming established for selecting “fair weather” values in the second half of the twentieth century.

248

249 During the 1930s, the OYBs were published about two years in arrears, with the 1937 volume the last to be
250 published before the war. The 1935 OYB contains photographs and a site plan, which show that, although no
251 longer used, the original atmospheric electricity hut was still in position. Due to the war, the 1938 volume was
252 published in 1955, and the 1939 volume, with the whole introductory section virtually omitted, in 1957. Because
253 of the need to catch up from the war, only very brief introductions to the measurements were included in the
254 OYB during 1950-1956. From 1957, a full introduction was included. The 1950-59 volumes were published in
255 1960 and 1961. The last OYB was that for 1967, after which the USSR became solely responsible for publishing
256 the UK Atmospheric Electricity data in their monthly issue of *Results of Ground Observations of Atmospheric*
257 *Electricity*. This arrangement began in January 1967.

258

259 All atmospheric electricity measurements ceased at Lerwick Observatory in 1984, with the last monthly
260 tabulation for July 1984.

261

262 4.1 Basic data record

263 The daily values included hourly mean values obtained over 60 min periods, centred at the exact hour GMT up
264 until 1931 and the half-hour thereafter. The equivalent PG in the open was provided, which was obtained by
265 multiplying the chart reading by reduction factor. Values were given for 03, 09, 15 and 21 GMT, and hourly on
266 undisturbed days. When it was difficult to obtain a stable reading, typically due to precipitation, the entry was
267 marked as “z”, with a “+”, “-”, or “±” added to indicate the likely polarity of the mean value. In the tabulations,
268 two sets of mean values were provided, that of

269

(a) All hours with positive values.

270

(b) The means for all days on which all the four six-hourly values were recorded.

271 Values during hours when the trace passed off the top of the chart were included in (a), the upper limit of
272 registration being taken as the value for that period, i.e. essentially a saturation value. The range of the
273 electrograph was about $\pm 1500 \text{ Vm}^{-1}$.

274



275 **4.2 Classification by “Electrical character”**

276 Initially, the classification of the atmospheric electricity data was strongly influenced by the practices in
277 magnetic recording, specifically that of assigning a description to the day’s trace as quiet or disturbed.
278 Following that approach, the typical variations found in a day’s recordings were classified by means of an
279 “electric character figure”, according to

- 280 0 - a day (midnight to midnight) with no negative PG recorded,
- 281 1 - a day with negative PG excursions totalling less than three hours,
- 282 2 - a day with negative PG totalling more than three hours.

283 In 1927, “electric character letters” were added to the classification system. These were intended to show, in any
284 of the hourly periods of the day:

- 285 *a* - that the PG range did not exceed 1000 V/m
- 286 *b* - that the PG exceeded 1000 V/m at least once, but less often than six times
- 287 *c* - that the PG exceeded 1000 V/m in six or more times.

288 From 1927, the symbols “>” and “<” were introduced to designate that, during the measurement period, the PG
289 had exceeded the range of the electrograph. When the measurement was estimated due to a defect, the values
290 were enclosed in brackets.

291

292 From 1928, the electrical character description of each day was extended to include the duration of negative
293 potential for each day. If the electrograph record failed but no precipitation had fallen, it was assumed that the
294 PG had remained positive; if, however, precipitation fell during no record, no estimate was made except when
295 the missing segment was sufficiently small and any precipitation sufficiently continuous to allow reasonable
296 interpolation.

297

298 In the OYB, a table of the greatest PG values (positive or negative) was given and a list of when the PG was
299 negative for prolonged periods with only short excursions positive. From 1936 onwards Lerwick sent, to
300 Edinburgh, for forwarding to Mr Gish¹⁶ in Washington, annual tables giving the annual frequency of days of
301 character 0, 1, 2, and a monthly total duration of negative PG.

302

303 **4.3 Classification by “Fair Weather”**

304 In January 1957 the classification approach for the PG was fundamentally changed, to use the weather
305 conditions at the time of the measurement. This offered an independent method classification method for
306 identifying times with minimal local effects on the measurements (Harrison & Nicoll, 2018). An hour was
307 regarded as having “fair weather” (FW) conditions if four conditions were fulfilled:

- 308 (1) there were no hydrometeors
- 309 (2) there was no low stratus cloud
- 310 (3) there was less than three-eighths cumuliiform cloud

¹⁶ Oliver H. Gish (1900-1988), geophysicist working on atmospheric electricity and staff member of the Department of Terrestrial Magnetism at the Carnegie Institution of Washington. His work especially concerned the vertical column resistance of air, initially determined by the first stratospheric balloon flight, *Explorer II*. (Gish, 1944; Gish & Sherman, 1936)



311 (4) the mean hourly wind speed was less than 8 ms^{-1} .
312

313 Hours failing to meet the full FW criteria, but during which no hydrometeors (i.e. rain, snow, hail...) were
314 observed, were also marked. A great advantage of this FW approach, was, as these classifications were applied
315 to each hour, daily mean values could still be determined even if the day was partially disturbed. Many more
316 daily mean values could be obtained despite disturbed conditions. From January 1957 to December 1966 when
317 both classification systems were in use, the 1879 daily values were found using the FW classification system,
318 but only 807 days by using the daily character figure method.

319

320 Continuous air-earth current measurements are available in the Met Office archive as tabulated data from July
321 1978 to July 1984. These are provided as hourly values in a similar manner to the PG, with values given for
322 hours which qualified as “Fair Weather” or “No Hydrometeors”.

323

324

325 5. Scientific findings from the Lerwick atmospheric electricity data

326 Little has been written about the overall scientific importance of the Lerwick atmospheric electricity data, but it
327 is clearly an important atmospheric science dataset which deserves full digitisation and further study. In the first
328 decade of data, the PG measurements at Lerwick corroborated those obtained by the *Carnegie* in 1928 on its
329 final voyage, although this was probably unknown until relatively recently (Harrison, 2004). In the 1940s, the
330 contributions of the Lerwick PG to the analyses made by the Carnegie Institution of Washington’s scientists
331 helped strengthen the evidence for what subsequently became known as the global atmospheric electric circuit.

332

333 The most significant contribution of the Lerwick PG data during the time of the measurements was explaining
334 the large observed reduction in PG as due to nuclear weapons test contamination. Lerwick’s data was important
335 for this, as, unlike the companion site at Eskdalemuir, it was well removed from possible sources of
336 radioactivity from the nuclear site at Windscale. It can only have been alarming for the scientists at Lerwick in
337 the 1950s to see major changes in a quantity which had shown consistent values for the previous three decades.
338 It is very much to their credit that the measurements were continued and investigated to find and report the
339 cause (Hamilton, 1965). Although much less well known, it is not unreasonable to compare this analysis of
340 unexpected change with the discovery of the ozone hole over Antarctica in the 1980s. In both cases, data that
341 were initially thought to be unsatisfactory for an unknown reason were explored for an explanation. Ultimately,
342 extraordinary possibilities were justified by extraordinary evidence, and international agreements followed to
343 address the environmental effects¹⁷.

344

345 Since then, the thoroughness of the past atmospheric electricity and meteorological measurements made at
346 Lerwick has allowed investigation of effects of enhanced radioactivity on the weather, leading to the finding of
347 a small associated increase in rainfall (Harrison et al., 2020). A further discovery in the Lerwick PG data from

¹⁷ The Partial Nuclear Test Ban treaty banning atmospheric nuclear tests was signed in 1963, and the Montreal Protocol phasing out ozone depleting substances in 1989.



348 the 1970s has been its strong link to climate, specifically to variations in Pacific Ocean temperatures associated
349 with the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (Harrison et al., 2011). This illustrates the special value of data from a
350 site where local influences are small, allowing global effects – in this case internal variability in the climate
351 system - to be uncovered.

352 The decision to cease the atmospheric electricity measurements in 1984 almost certainly followed directly from
353 the end of the measurements associated with the closure of Kew Observatory in 1981. In the announcement
354 about Kew¹⁸, mention is made of the loss of “a few specialist measurements (such as atmospheric
355 electricity...and air pollution)”. The 1984 cessation of Lerwick’s measurements occurred when the value of long
356 data series was relatively poorly appreciated in terms of environmental change, and came, unfortunately, shortly
357 before the 1986 Chernobyl reactor accident for which the value of PG measurements would have been
358 demonstrated again. Nevertheless, even with the truncated data set, it has been possible to derive new scientific
359 results, and Lerwick must be considered an exceptionally well characterised and suitable site for any future
360 atmospheric electricity monitoring.

361

362 6. Conclusions

363 Atmospheric electricity measurements in the UK have a long history, and were competently pursued at Kew,
364 Eskdalemuir and, especially, Lerwick over a long time. They are now of renewed relevance because of the
365 broader interest in climate-related quantities, which the Lerwick data have demonstrated includes the global
366 atmospheric electric circuit. For climate-related atmospheric electricity research, the PG measurements at
367 Lerwick are especially valuable because of the minimal interference from air pollution. The well-characterised
368 atmospheric electrical properties of Lerwick Observatory obtained over the majority of the twentieth century
369 strongly support the prospects of further measurements there, with the modern durable instrumentation now
370 available¹⁹.

371

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374 electrometer previously used at the Serra do Pilar Observatory, shown in Figure 3. Figure 4a, 4b and Figure 5
375 are archive material from Lerwick Observatory. Help was also provided by Met office staff: Norrie Lyall,
376 current Station Manager, Paul Nelson and Graeme Marlton. Daniel Bennett (BBC Shetland) provided further
377 historical sources.

378

379 Sources

380 Scans of the annual volumes of the *Observatories Year Book* for Lerwick are available at
381 http://www.geomag.bgs.ac.uk/data_service/data/yearbooks/ler.html .

382

¹⁸ *Meteorological Magazine* **109**, 215 (1980)

¹⁹ Importantly, modern all-weather field mills (e.g. Bennett & Harrison, 2007), and stretched wire measurements (e.g. Harrison, 1997), no longer have any need to use radioactivity.



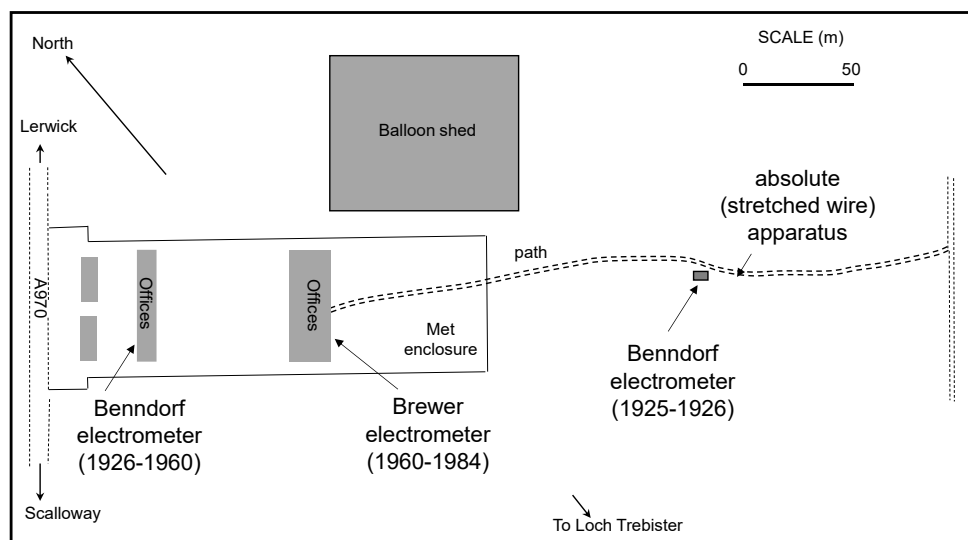
383 **Figures and Tables**



384

385 Figure 1 The meteorological site and office buildings viewed from the south-east end, in the early 1990s.
386 (Photograph provided by Alan Gair).

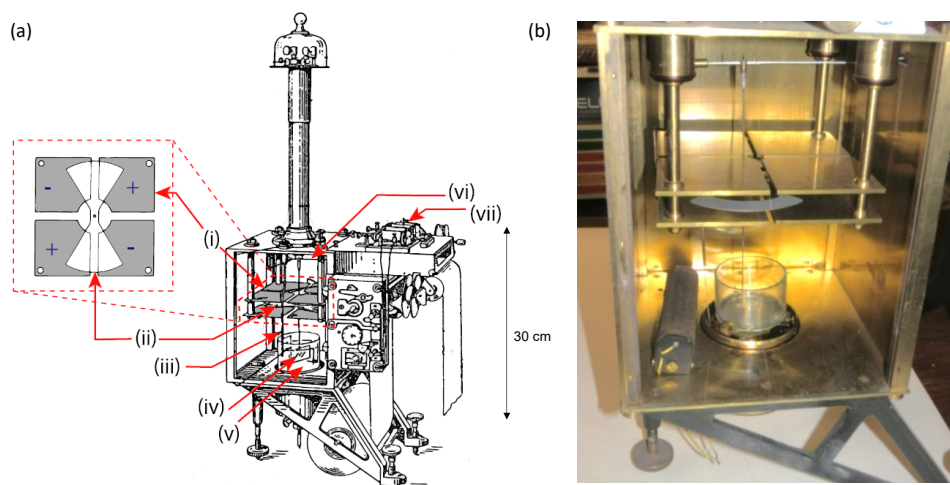
387



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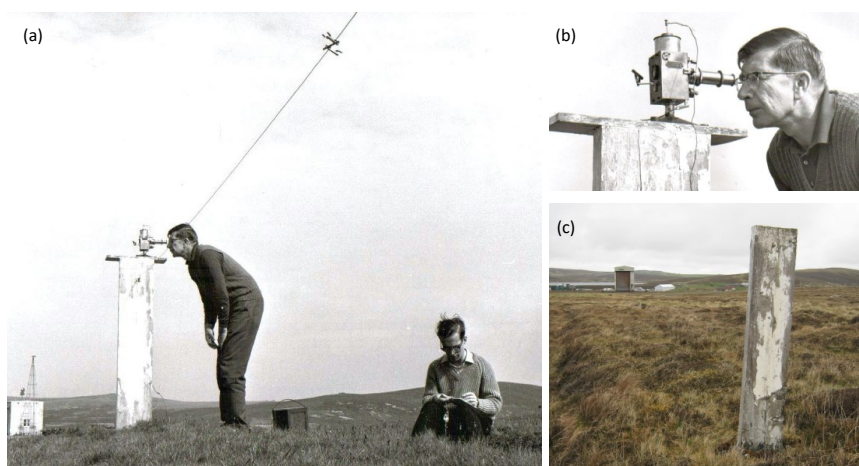
389 Figure 2 Layout of the Lerwick Observatory site, from about 1961, based on OYB descriptions. The principal
390 positions of the atmospheric electricity sensors at different times through the measurement series are given.

391



392

393 Figure 3 The Benndorf Electrometer. (a) Schematic view of a device with recording paper, modified from
394 (Nagamachi et al., 2022), of the different components of the device showing: (i) plate electrodes, (ii) quadrant
395 plate, (iii) connection wire, (iv) mica plate, (v) sulphuric acid pot, (vi) pen connecting rod, (vii) pen pressure
396 adjuster. (b) Internal view of the Benndorf electrometer used at the Serra do Pilar Observatory, Porto, showing
397 the acid pot and plate electrodes. (Photograph by Giles Harrison).



398

399 Figure 4. (a) Use of a stretched wire, insulated at each end, to determine the potential at 1m in the open (c1963)
400 with an electrometer. The Lerwick radiosonde balloon shed is in the background and a radioactive source has
401 been clipped to the midpoint of the wire. Observatory superintendent Richard Hamilton is operating the
402 electrometer, with a student assistant. (b) Detail of the electrometer and crocodile clip connections. (c) One of
403 the stretched wire posts still survives intact, with the remains of the electrometer support post in (a) also evident
404 (image from May 2022). Photographs in (a) and (b) from Lerwick Observatory archive, (c) provided by Norrie
405 Lyall, Lerwick Observatory.

406



407

408 Figure 5. Readings being taken from the Brewer valve electrometer's chart recorder, by Monty Georgeson, a
409 scientific assistant at Lerwick observatory from 1966. *Photograph from Lerwick Observatory archive.*

410

411



412 Table 1 Summary of events in operation of the Lerwick atmospheric electricity apparatus

date	Aspect	source ²⁰
1921 June 7th	Lerwick Observatory opened	OYB28 p24
1926	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benndorf electrograph installed (no 108). • Initially housed in a small wooden hut, oil stove heated. Collector rod passed through NE corner of hut. (p23) • Scale factor 0.78, determined against stretched wire with burning fuse and electroscope or electrometer. (p24). • Instrument is “sluggish” in comparison with a Kelvin water dropper, especially when calm, although such circumstances unusual at the Lerwick site (p24). • Summary data available Jan to July (p25) 	OYB26; OYB27 p24
1926 6 th to 24 th July	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hut inconveniently small and generated oil fumes so Benndorf electrograph moved to NW corner of office block. (Scale factor of new site 1.53). • New position 236 m from position of absolute determinations of reduction factor 	OYB26 p23 and p24; OYB27 p24
1926 24 th July	Benndorf instrument sent for overhaul (from 24 th July to Dec)	OYB26 p23
1927	Electrograph collector passed through a window in north wall, 1.9m from corner of building. Collector is 4.76m above the ground and protrudes 1.23m from window. Consists of a copper spiral 5cm long coated with radium salt.	OYB27 p24
1928	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mean exposure factor for the year 1.31, 3% lower than for the mean of the 1927 factors, also found to vary slightly with wind direction. • Rise time to half scale deflection is 69 s (from 140 tests during 1927); 10x slower than Eskdalemuir water dropper • Leak tests show half the potential lost in 38.5 mins. (Insulation is worse during Aug to Oct due to insects, excluding these gives a half time of 50mins). 	OYB28 p27
1928 June 26 th	Collector replaced after gale damage	OYB28 p26
1928 Dec 7th	More rapid collector installed. Time to half deflection 48 s (from 13 tests)	OYB28 p26
1929	Tests on collector – time to half deflection 45 s	OYB29 p24
1930 June	Tests on collector – time to half deflection 33 s	OYB30 p24
1930 Aug 16 th	Collector changed from the previous spiral of wire carrying radium sulphate, to a copper rod (5 cm by 0.5cm, tapped at 2BA) with polonium plated on the unthreaded end for 12 mm. (These were to be recoated periodically by the Government Chemist, with a fresh one fitted at the beginning of each quarter).	OYB30 p23
1930 September	Tests on new collector – time to half scale deflection 4 s	OYB30 p25
1941 Dec	Insulation had been poor for several days. Amber insulation cleaned with alcohol (10 th Dec). Still bad, so sanded and painted with ether (12 th Dec). Insulation good from then on.	Handwritten notebook from Lerwick, unnamed
1942 Jan 2 nd	Collector changed “after seal test”	
1942 May 13 th	Corrosion evident in instrument. Resistance coils open-circuit, sent for repair; quadrant electrometer working throughout.	
1942 May 16 th	Acid spilled inside electrometer. Rubber amber lightly after sandpaper all metal parts. “Leak normal after reassembly.”	
1942 May 26 th	Leak high. Amber supporting acid pot treated with alcohol.	
1942 June 4 th	Battery renewed 1550	
1942 June 20 th	Seals test 0934. Ribbon reversed. Restarted 1015.	
1942 Aug 13 th	Platform supporting acid pot again loose. Dismantled. Platform secured then soldered to the screw heads already attached to the	

²⁰ OYByy refers to the annual volume of the *Observatories Year Book* for the year 19yy.



	amber.	
1942 Aug 16 th - 22 nd	Leak high every day. Amber cleaned and sandpaper until satisfactory.	
1942 Sep 2 nd	Leak high. Amber cleaned.	
1942 Sep 4 th	Leak high. Amber cleaned.	
1953 January	Collector blown away in a blizzard. New one dispatched within 24 hours. Lost one ultimately recovered, bent but serviceable.	Nature 4466, 965 (1955).
1959	Tests on new collectors show that they have 80 to 200 μCi . Fresh collectors have a half time of 4 to 6 s. This decreased with operating time, probably due to weather damage. Regular replacement leads to half-times not exceeding 20 s.	OYB57 p14 OYB57 p15
1959 22 nd Oct to 24 th Oct	Ion production rate from b ionisation measurements made at 5cm over wet grass. Found to be about 10 ion pairs $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$	(Stewart, 1960)
1961 Jan 1st	Brewer thermionic valve electrograph (Brewer, 1953) (which had been running in parallel), fully replaced the Benndorf electrograph.	OYB61 p13
1961 July 13 th	Brewer electrograph moved into new building. Boom projects 58 cm from NE wall of electrograph room, at 2.06 m above the ground, and 160 m from the absolute PG measurements site.	OYB61 p13
1962 August 31 st	Collector boom and recorder moved from a temporary position in anemometer room	(Hamilton, n.d.)
1963 January	Collector boom and recorder installed in the Ozone extension.	
1969	Trials begin of air-earth current apparatus.	(Dawson, 1978)
1978 July	Monthly tabulated values of air-earth current density begin	(Harrison & Nicoll, 2008)
1979 Jan to 1980 Jan	Overlapping period of air-earth current measurements at Kew and Lerwick; median values in fair weather 1.2 pA m^{-2} and 2.5 pA m^{-2} respectively	(Harrison & Nicoll, 2008)
1984 July	Last month of tabulated data of PG and air-earth current density	(Harrison & Nicoll, 2008)

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