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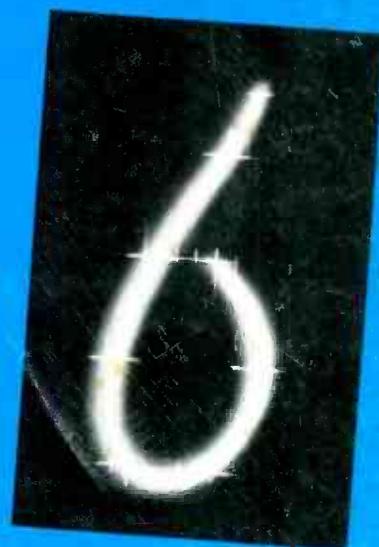
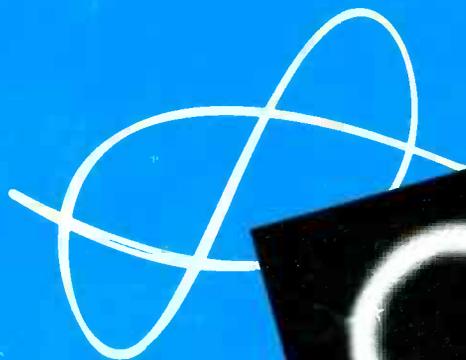
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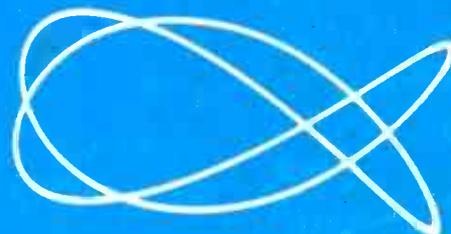
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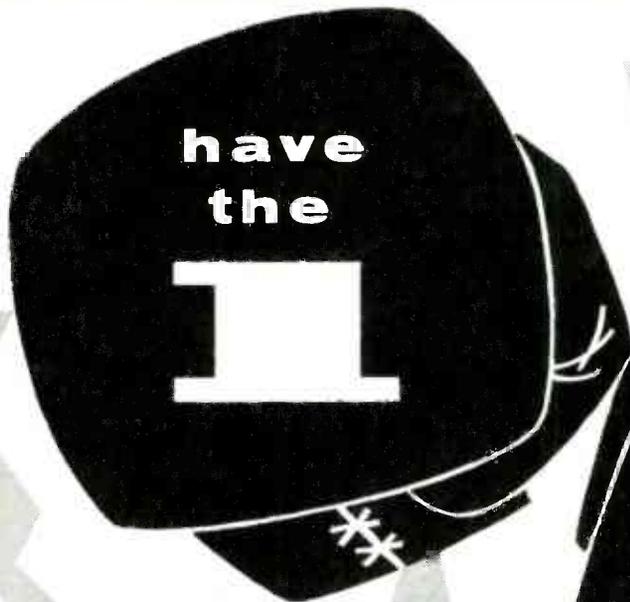
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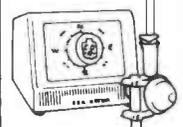
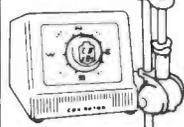
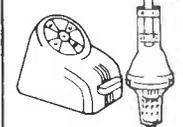
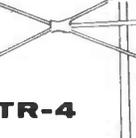
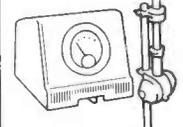
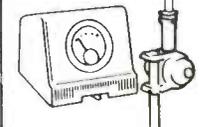


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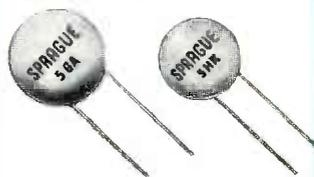
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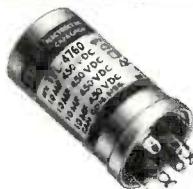


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A brief description of the method used to obtain the numerals and waveforms appearing on the cover is given on Page 57. Oscilloscope patterns by Paul C. Smith; Cover design by Glenn R. Smith.

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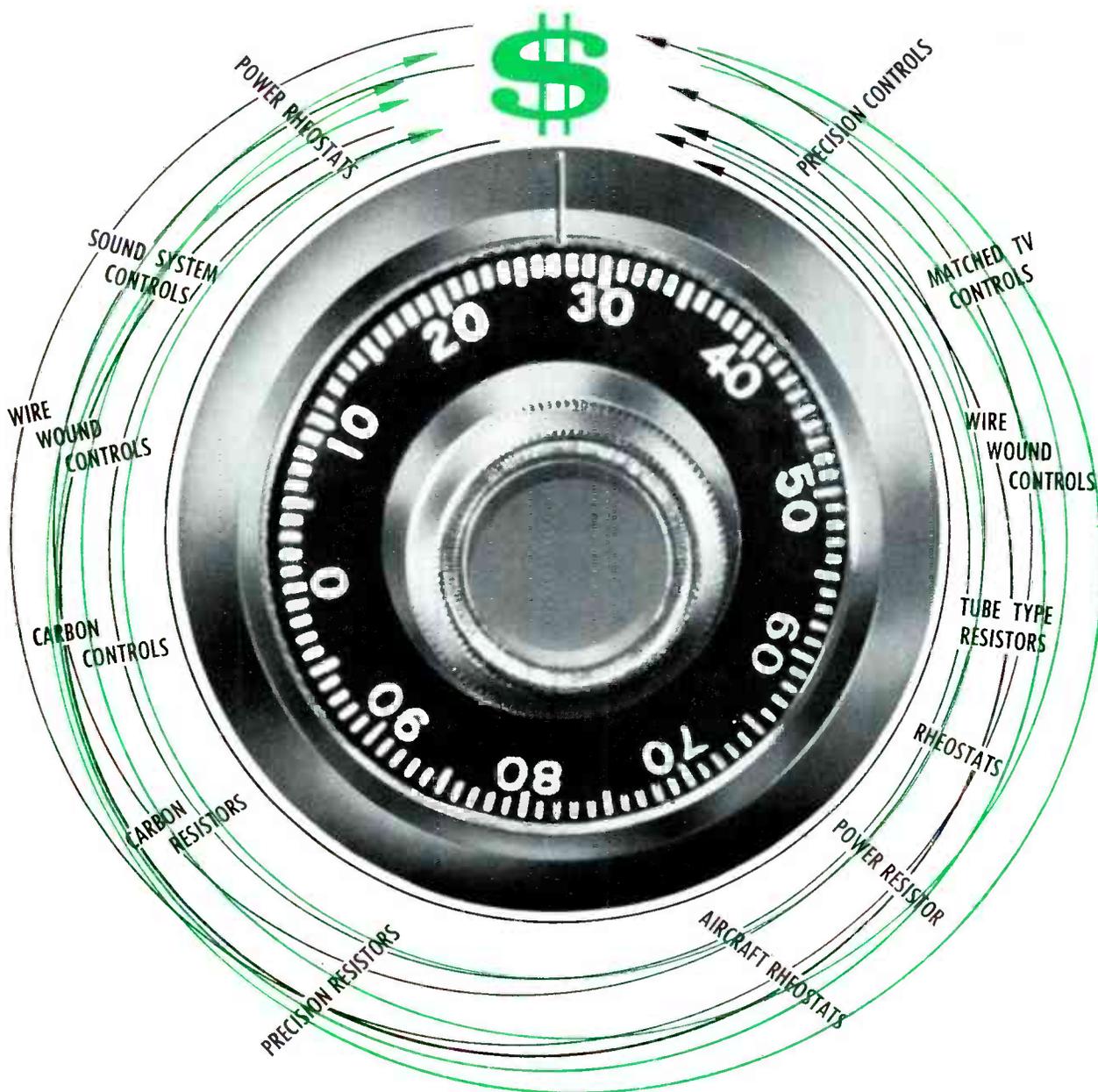
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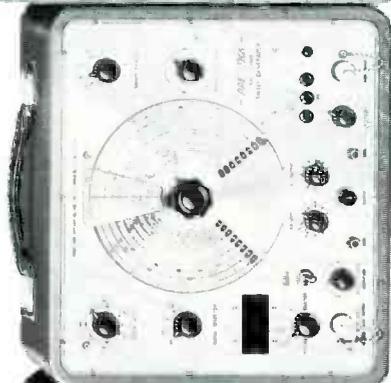
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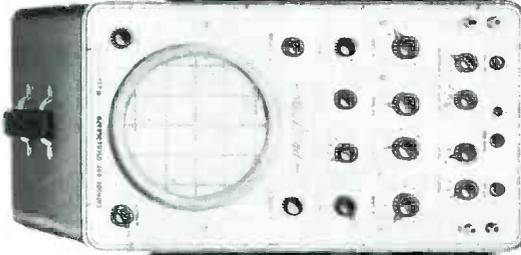
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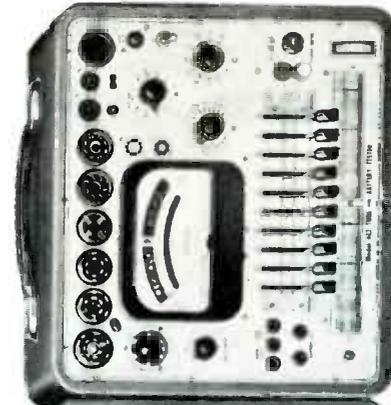
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	12QP4A	Ground conductive coating. Remove ion trap.		21AVP4A	21AVP4	None.
	12RP4	Ground conductive coating. Remove ion trap.			21AVP4B	None.
16KP4A	16KP4	None.	21EP4B	21EP4	Ground conductive coating.	
	16QP4	Ground conductive coating. Change ion trap.		21EP4A	None.	
	16RP4	Check conductive coating contact.	21FP4C	21FP4	Ground conductive coating.	
	16TP4	Space may not be sufficient in some cases.		21FP4A	None.	
	16XP4	Ground conductive coating. Change ion trap.		21YP4A	21AFP4	Ground conductive coating.
17BP4B	17BP4	Ground conductive coating.	21YP4		None.	
	17BP4A	None.	21ZP4B	21ZP4	Ground conductive coating.	
	17BP4C	None.		21ZP4A	None.	
	17JP4	Do not exceed voltage rating.	24CP4A	24CP4	None.	
17HP4B	17HP4	None.		24QP4	None.	
	17HP4A	None.		24TP4	None.	
	17RP4	None.		24XP4	Ground conductive coating.	
17LP4A	17LP4	None.	24DP4A	24DP4	None.	
	17VP4	None.		27EP4	27GP4	None.
20DP4C	20DP4A	None.	27NP4		Add filter condenser.	
	21ALP4A	21ALP4	None.	27RP4	27GP4	Ground conductive coating.
21ALP4B		None.	27NP4		None.	
21ANP4		Ground conductive coating.				
21ANP4A		Ground conductive coating.				



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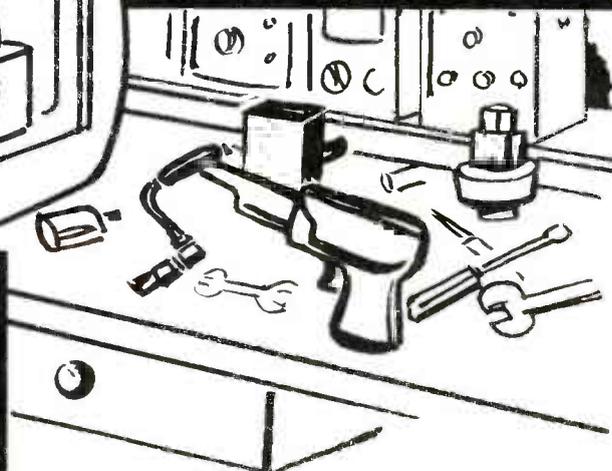
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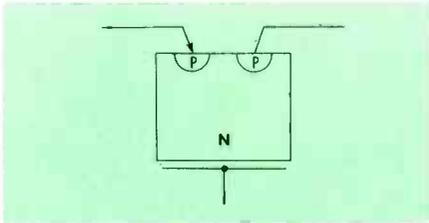
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# ShopTalk

**MILTON S. KIVER**

*President, Television Communications Institute*

Without doubt, the "hottest" item in the electronics industry today is the transistor. It is probably being subjected to more investigation in the various research laboratories than any other single electronic component. The numbers of production applications are impressive, too, with each year showing a remarkable percentage increase over the year before. Since the transistor is a component which is rightly the concern of the service industry, it might not be amiss to survey the field to see where we stand at present along the scale of transistor development.



**Fig. 1. A Point-Contact Transistor.**

At the outset, when the transistor was still largely in the hands of its conceivers at the Bell Telephone Laboratories, Inc., almost all of the developmental work was being done with point-contact transistors. In this form, shown in Fig. 1, two phosphor-bronze wires are mounted side by side on a minute rectangular germanium wafer. Separation between the wires is only about .002 in., and the wafer itself is only .02 in. thick and .05 in. square. One wire forms the emitter of the transistor, and the other wire serves as the collector. A third electrode, the base, is a metal contact plate which is deposited on the underside of the germanium wafer.

Not long after the discovery of the point-contact transistor, the junction transistor was developed. See Fig. 2. Although these two devices possess a number of features in common, they do differ enough to

exhibit separate characteristics. Perhaps the outstanding point of departure is the fact that the current gain (designated by the symbol  $\alpha$ ) is greater than unity in point-contact transistors and less than unity in junction transistors. In spite of this, junction transistors provide higher voltage and power gains because of their extremely high collector resistances; that is, the ratio between output and input resistance in a junction transistor is so much greater than the corresponding ratio in a point-contact transistor that it more than makes up for the gain of less than unity.

Junction transistors also excel in their power-handling capabilities which are tied in with the ability of the collector electrode (from which the output power is taken) to dissipate safely the heat generated by the passage of current. The contact faces between each section of a junction transistor are comparatively large and offer considerable area for the current to pass through. In a point-contact transistor, the contact area between the collector and its cat whisker is only about 0.5 mil in diameter and the funneling of current through a path this narrow causes the heat to rise rapidly. When the collector section becomes too hot, its internal resistance decreases and the average bias current in the collector increases. As a result, more heat is produced. Eventually, the action may be cumulative to the extent that it leads to the destruction of the transistor. Another contributing factor to the low power rating of the point-

contact transistor is the restricted channel through which the current flows in traveling between emitter and collector inside the transistor.

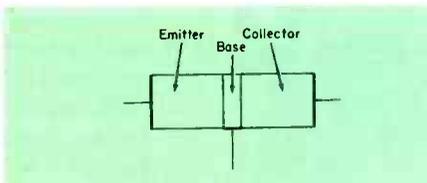
Junction transistors also possess a decided advantage in the matter of noise. Typical noise figures for these units range between 10 and 30 decibels, with most values falling near 20 decibels. The usual noise figure of point-contact transistors is two to three times higher than that of junction transistors. It should be noted that the noise figures of both types are decreasing steadily and that more and more junction transistors with noise figures near 10 decibels are appearing commercially. By comparison, the noise figure of a 6AG5 pentode (at a frequency of 1,000 cycles) is only 3 decibels.

Because of the advantages which junction transistors possess over point-contact transistors, more than 90 per cent of the present number of commercial applications involve the junction transistor. This, then, is the type that the service technician is most likely to encounter.

In the development of suitable junction transistors, two problems have received the greatest attention. These are power-handling capability and frequency response. Let us see what progress has been made with each. (It might be desirable, at this point, for the reader to reread the three transistor articles that appeared in the September-October 1953 issue and in the February and March 1954 issues of the PF INDEX.)

## Frequency Response

The frequency response of a junction transistor is governed by a number of factors. One of these factors is the time required for a signal to travel from emitter to collector. This time depends upon the



**Fig. 2. A Junction Transistor.**

\* \* Please turn to page 58 \* \*

# Replacing Components in Printed-Wiring Boards

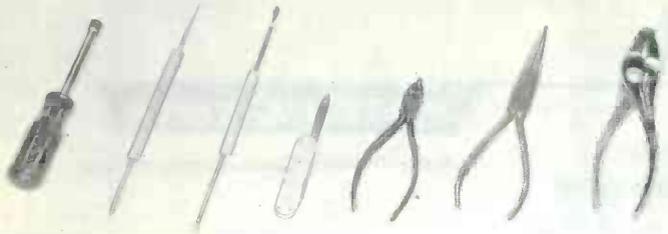
by Calvin C. Young, Jr.

The following pictorial article is intended to illustrate a procedure which may be employed in the replacement of small components in a printed- or plated-wiring board. A somewhat different procedure is recommended for some of the larger components and will be covered in a later issue.

The construction of a printed-wiring board is such that excessive heat can cause the strips to become separated from the board and can make it necessary to replace the entire board.

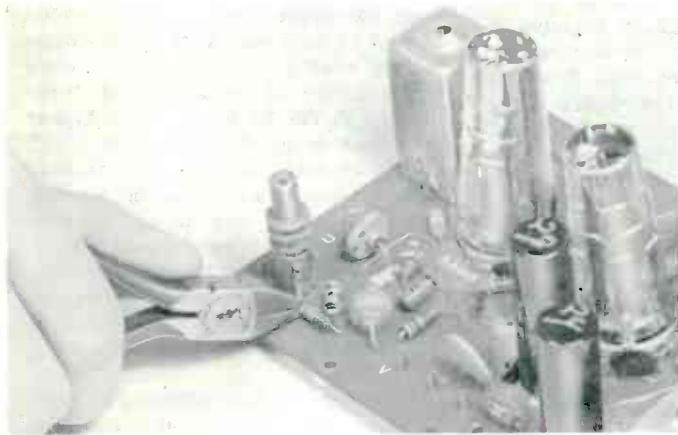
There is available a 60/40 solder which is composed of 60 per cent tin and 40 per cent lead. This solder has a melting point of only 370 degrees Fahrenheit and should be used for all work with printed-wiring boards.

Dirt and moisture on a printed-wiring board may cause leakage or shorts between the wiring strips. For this reason, always clean the wiring side of a board when servicing it.



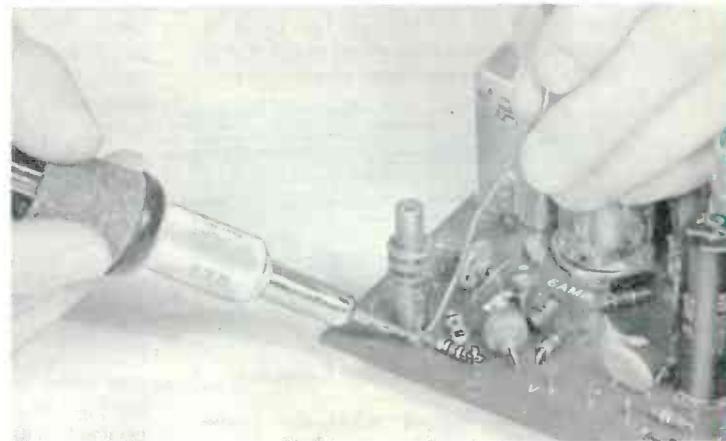
## 1. Tools and Equipment

These are the tools and equipment which should be at hand when replacing components on printed-wiring boards. (Upper row from left to right) 37½-watt pencil type of soldering iron, 60/40 solder, plastic spray, solvent, and rag. (Lower row from left to right) ¼-inch nut driver, solder pick, small wire brush, knife, diagonal cutters, long-nosed pliers, and slip-joint pliers.



## 2. Removing a Resistor

The removal of components, such as resistors that have a portion of lead wire exposed between the wiring board and the component body, may be accomplished by clipping the leads next to the body. This leaves small wire terminals to which the new component may be soldered.



## 3. Installing a New Resistor

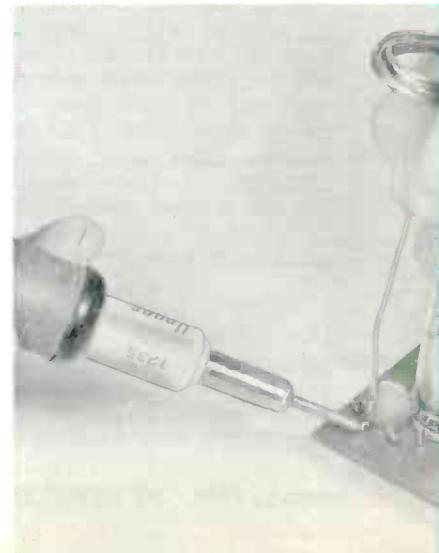
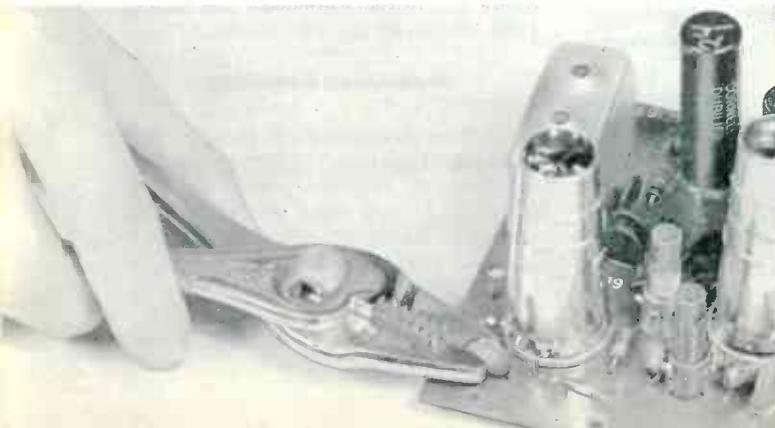
Wrap one turn of each lead wire of the new resistor around each terminal which is left after removal of the old resistor, and then solder as shown.

## 4. Removing a Disc Capacitor

The removal of components, such as disc capacitors that may not have any lead wires exposed between the component body and the wiring board, can be accomplished by breaking the component body away from the lead wires with a pair of pliers.

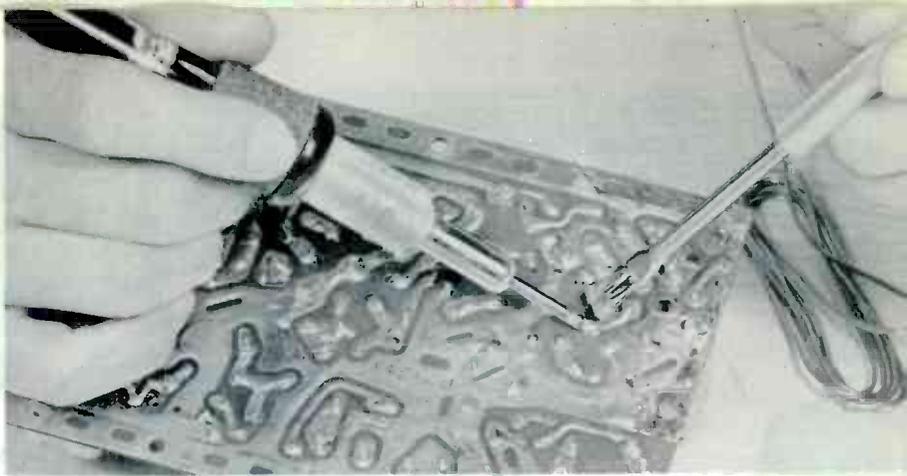
## 5. Installing a New Disc Capacitor

Twist together each lead wire of the new component with a lead wire that is left after removal of the old component. The new part should be pulled as tightly to the board as possible without damage to the component or board. Solder each connection, and clip away the excess wire with diagonal cutters.



### 6. Brush Solder from Bent Terminals

In the removal of components with several terminals or lugs which have been passed through the board and bent, it is necessary to heat each terminal and brush the excess solder away with a small wire brush.



### 7. Using a Knife

After the excess solder has been brushed away from the bent terminal, the terminal may be disconnected from the wiring foil by slipping a thin-bladed knife between the terminal and the wiring foil at the same time that the terminal is being heated with the soldering iron. This terminal may then be straightened with the long-nosed pliers so that the unit can be removed. CAUTION: Apply heat for as short a time as necessary to the terminal and not to the foil.



### 8. Cleaning With Solvent

If any soldering work is required on the foil side of the wiring board, the area that has been worked on should be cleaned with solvent after the repair work is completed. Denatured alcohol is usually satisfactory for this purpose.

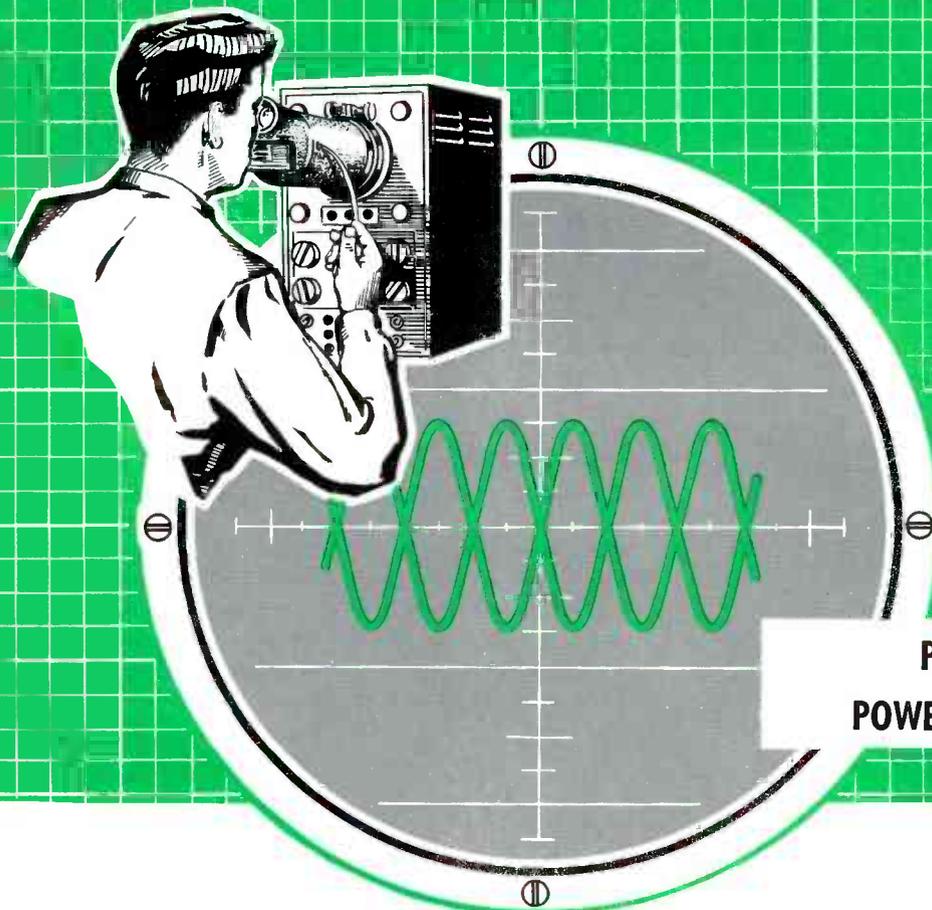


Photographs: Robert W. Reed

### 9. Spraying the Printed Board

After the board has been cleaned and inspected, the area that had been worked on should be covered with a protective coating of the type specified by the manufacturer. The purpose of the coating is to prevent dirt or moisture from causing shorts or leakage between the foil strips. Be sure that the spray does not coat tube-socket contacts nor other surfaces that are used to make electrical contact.





# Know Your Oscilloscope

## PART II POWER SUPPLIES

BY PAUL C. SMITH

The power requirements of a modern oscilloscope are usually met with a power supply which can be considered to be made up of two sections — one of low voltage (about 300 volts DC) and medium current capabilities, the other of comparatively high voltage (1,000 volts DC or higher) and low current capabilities. The low-voltage section is used to operate the amplifiers and the deflection generator. The high-voltage section furnishes the potentials for the various elements of the cathode-ray tube.

The power supply may also be called upon to deliver signals for certain types of synchronization, for retrace blanking, and for calibration purposes. In order to gain a better picture of some of the demands made upon the power supply, let us first discuss certain aspects of the operation of the cathode-ray tube.

### Electron Path Through a Cathode-Ray Tube

Fig. 1 shows a representation of a 5UP1 cathode-ray tube as it commonly appears in the schematic diagrams of oscilloscope instruction books. The order indicated for the elements, starting from the base of the tube, is the same in the diagram as for the actual tube, with the pos-

sible exception of anode No. 2. Anode No. 2 is shown connected internally to grid No. 2 and is also connected to the coated interior of the bulb of the tube, although it is not shown in that manner in the diagram. The coating extends almost to the face of the screen and serves to accelerate the electron beam on its way to the screen and also to collect the electrons of the beam after they have struck the screen.

The path of the electrons through the cathode-ray tube is as follows. The electrons are emitted from the heated cathode and, being negative, are attracted toward the nearest positive element which is grid No. 2. They pass on through apertures in grid No. 2, anode No. 1, and anode No. 2; and they are subjected to the action of the deflection

plates. Finally, they strike the screen of the tube where they cause a spot or trace of light, and they are then collected by the interior coating which forms a part of anode No. 2. Thus, the electron path through the tube can be said to originate at the cathode and terminate at anode No. 2.

### Polarities of the Tube Elements

Proper operation of the cathode-ray tube requires that anode No. 1 be more positive than the cathode and that anode No. 2 be more positive than anode No. 1. Grid No. 1 is the control grid and operates at a voltage equal to or more negative than that of the cathode. Its action is similar to that of the control grid of a receiving tube — it controls the number of electrons flowing between cathode and anode. Being negative, it repels the negative electrons; and if it becomes negative enough, the electron beam will be cut off entirely.

The intensity control of the oscilloscope is usually connected to grid No. 1 of the cathode-ray tube, although it may be connected to the cathode instead. A variable intensity depends upon a variable potential difference between the cathode and grid, and this variable potential difference can be obtained if the potential

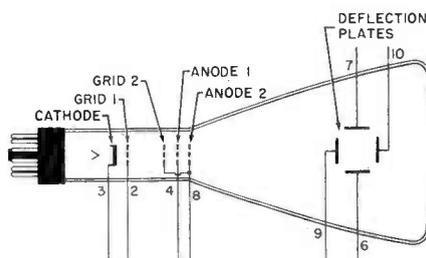


Fig. 1. Control Elements in a 5UP1 Cathode-Ray Tube.

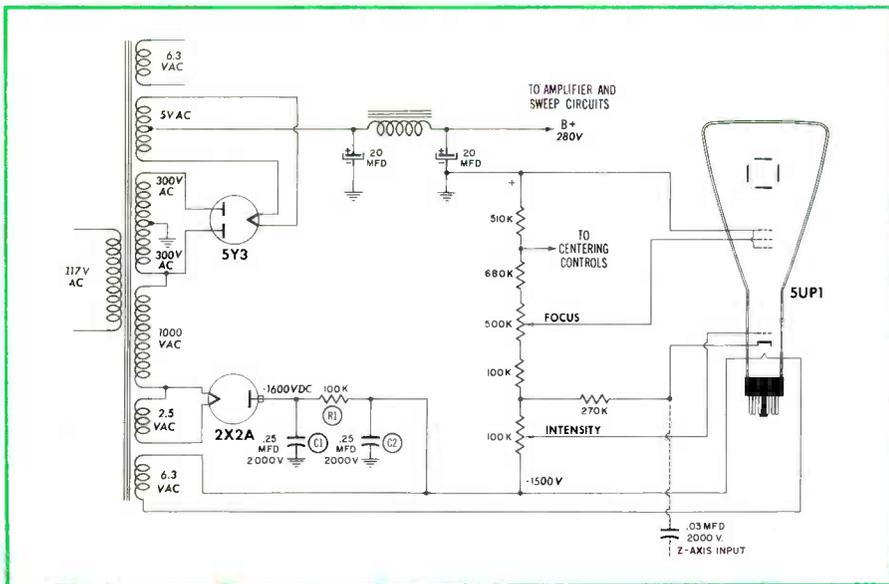


Fig. 2. Partial Schematic Diagram of the Power Supply of the Triplet Model 3441 Oscilloscope.

of one element is varied while the potential of the other element is held constant. The technician is familiar with this aspect of the operation of the cathode-ray tube through his association with TV. In some receivers, the picture-tube element to which the brightness control is connected is the control grid; in others, it is the cathode.

#### Range of Voltage for Normal Operation

As was stated previously, the necessary potentials for operation of the cathode-ray tube are furnished by the high-voltage section of the power supply. These potentials can vary over a wide range, and satisfactory operation will still be obtained. For example, the voltage at anode No. 2 of a 5UP1 tube can be from 1,000 to 2,500 volts with respect to the cathode. Operation below 1,000 volts is not recommended. No matter which voltage is chosen, there are some advantages and disadvantages. The lower voltages can be attained more easily and economically, and a higher deflection sensitivity is obtained with lower voltages. These advantages are offset by less brilliance of the spot and by poorer focusing qualities.

#### Rectifier and Filters

A partial schematic diagram of the power supply for the Triplet Model 3441 oscilloscope is shown in Fig. 2.

The low-voltage section of the power supply consists of a full-wave rectifier with capacitor and choke filtering. The high-voltage section employs half-wave rectification. The filtering is obtained by a simple resistor-capacitor network which is

adequate because little current is drawn from the high-voltage section. A 1,600-volt winding is in series with one half the low-voltage winding, and therefore a total of 1,300 volts AC is applied to the high-voltage rectifier. This voltage is high enough to make it necessary to use a high-voltage rectifier tube such as the 2X2A. After a slight voltage drop across the filter network, there is a potential of approximately 1,600 volts left to operate the 5UP1 cathode-ray tube.

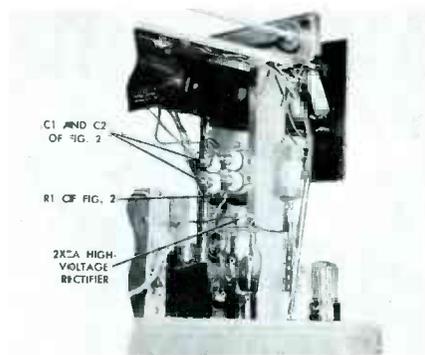


Fig. 3. Photograph Showing the High-Voltage Filter Network of the Triplet Model 3441 Oscilloscope.

A photograph showing the high-voltage filter network appears in Fig. 3. Because little current is required from the supply, the filter network can be of fairly high impedance. It can be a simple RC network with a high value of resistance and a low value of capacitance which help to reduce the physical size of the capacitors. Size is an important consideration when dealing with capacitors having a high-voltage rating. Each one of the capacitors shown has a capacity of .25 microfarad and is rated at 2,000 working volts DC.

The power transformer differs from those used in many other types of test equipment in that more windings are required and the insulation must be better in order to provide the required safety margin for the higher voltages involved. The transformer diagrammed in Fig. 2 has four filament windings instead of the two commonly found in other equipment. One of the extra windings is for the 2X2A high-voltage rectifier, and the other supplies the 5UP1 cathode-ray tube. The filament winding for the cathode-ray tube is sometimes electrostatically shielded from the other windings of the transformer.

#### Power Supplies

There is a noticeable feature about the power supply (in Fig. 2) that may seem strange to the person who is accustomed to the usual form of power supply used in radios, amplifiers, and many test instruments. This feature is that the output of the high-voltage section is negative with respect to ground. The circuits shown in Fig. 4 are diagrams of simple half-wave rectifiers and illustrate several possible arrangements. In part A of the figure, there

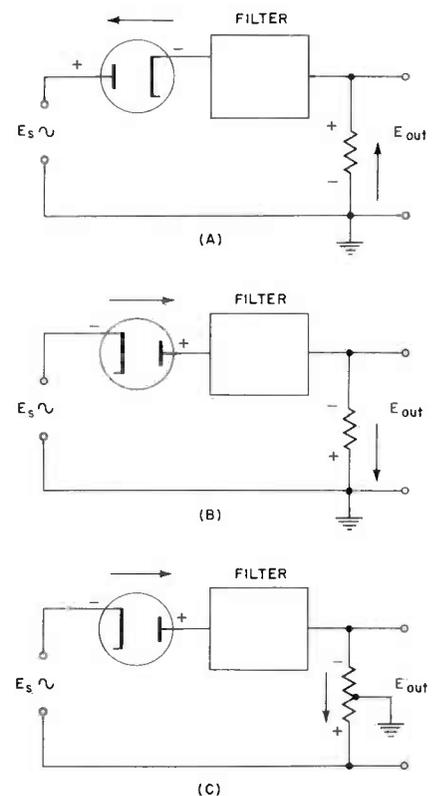


Fig. 4. Several Variations of Half-Wave Rectifier Circuits.

is shown a rectifier system with a DC output voltage that is positive with respect to ground.  $E_s$  represents the AC voltage impressed upon the system, and the resulting electron

\* \* Please turn to page 68 \* \*



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# INTERFERENCE REJECTION

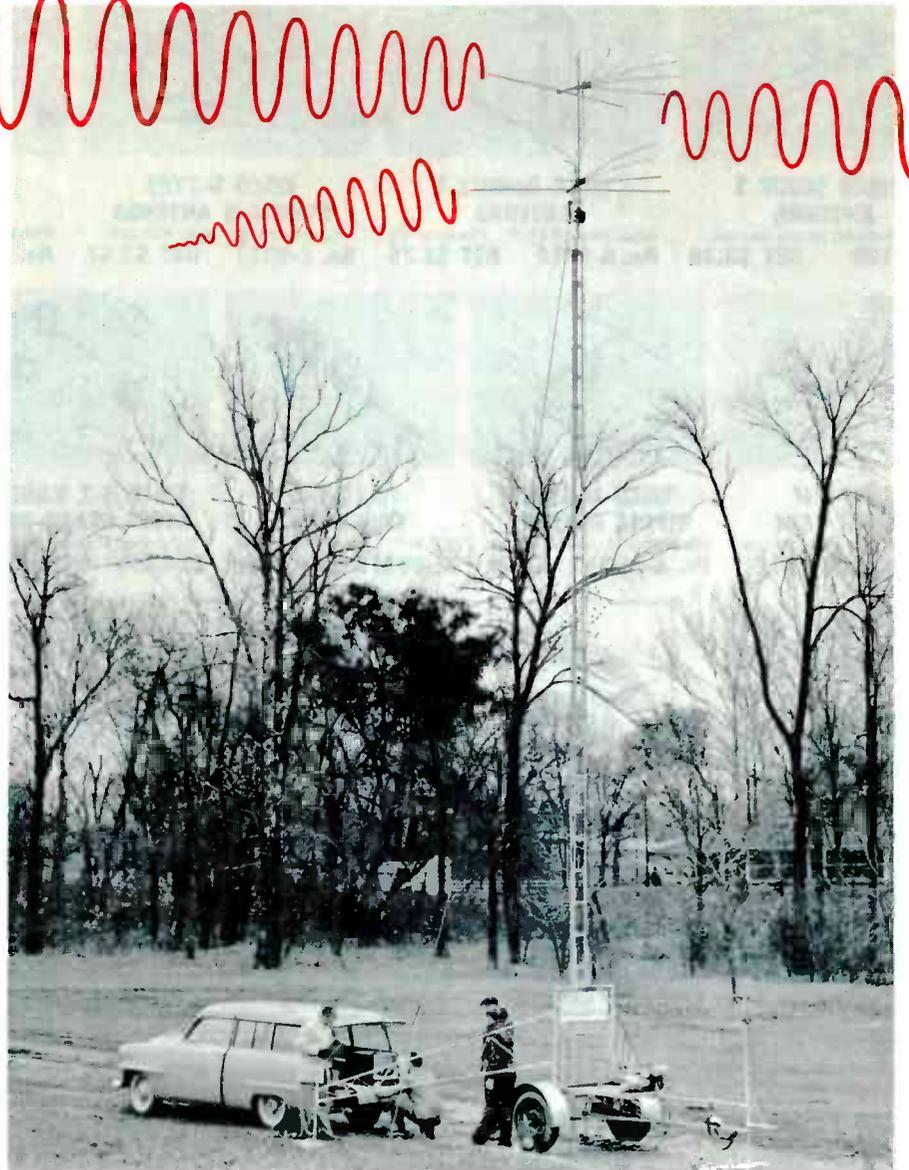
**INTRODUCING A UNIQUE  
ANTENNA SYSTEM WHICH  
IS VERY EFFECTIVE IN  
CANCELLING UNWELCOMED  
INTERFERENCE**

**by George B. Mann**

It can be said that the antenna serves as the eyes of the television receiver. The antenna is placed at some vantage point where it can intercept the desired signal. That same antenna, however, may also pick up a variety of interference signals which may affect the operation of the receiver. Whether an interference signal affects the receiver only slightly or a great amount, it is obvious that elimination of the interference signal is desirable.

Interference signals might be grouped into two classifications. In one classification would be those that occur at random frequencies or those that cover a wide band of frequencies at all times. In the second classification would be those signals that occupy a given band and have a fixed position in the spectrum. If signals in either classification fall within the band of the desired signal, the antenna normally cannot separate the wanted from the unwanted signals.

The first classification would include such interference signals as ignition noise, neon-sign radiation, and random atmospheric noise. Note that all of these signals will usually affect reception on all channels but not necessarily to the same degree.



Included in the second classification are reflected, adjacent-channel, co-channel, and FM signals and harmonics of certain transmitted signals. If these unwanted signals are picked up by the antenna and are fed to the receiver, interference may result.

There are several things which can be done in the receiver-antenna combination to cause rejection of some of the unwanted signals. For example, the receiver can be designed so that it will effectively reject any signals of reasonable amplitude provided that they fall outside the channel to which the receiver is tuned. The receiver, in other words, selects from all the signals being picked up by the antenna only those that fall in the desired band of frequencies. Although much improvement has been made in receivers during the past few years, they are limited in their ability to reject unwanted signals of high amplitude. Under some condi-

tions then, a receiver alone cannot reject certain unwanted signals. Keep in mind that the receiver cannot reject signals that fall within the desired band or channel. Once such interfering signals are fed to the receiver, they cannot be eliminated.

Another method of eliminating unwanted signals that fall outside the desired band is that of using an antenna which is tuned to a specific channel. The antenna then is a frequency-discriminating device. It will produce a greater gain in the region to which it is tuned and will produce little or no gain outside of this region. Although this method is effective in reducing certain types of interference, it requires the use of a different antenna for each channel or group of channels. Such a method could not be employed when the use of a single antenna which will cover all channels is desired.

\* \* Please turn to page 49 \* \*



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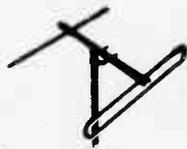
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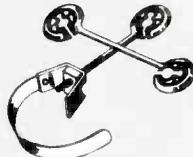
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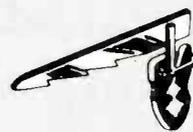
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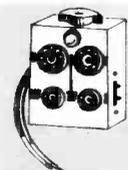
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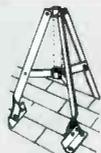
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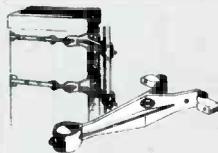
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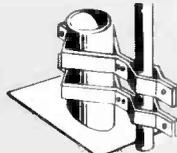
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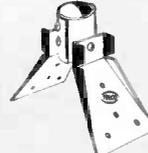
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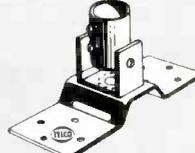
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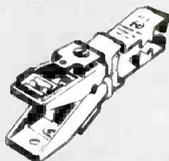
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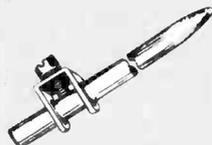
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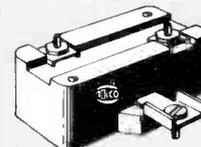
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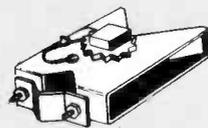
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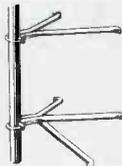
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# Examining DESIGN Features



by Leslie D. Deane

**Sentinel Model 21121T Remote-Control Television Receiver.**

### Sentinel Remote-Control Unit

In the past, there have been a number of both electromechanical and all-electronic types of remote-control units developed for television. The new Sentinel Model 21121T incorporates one of these devices utilizing an electromechanical arrangement for channel selection. The receiver and its control box are pictured in the heading at the top of this page. A 21-inch picture tube is employed in the VHF receiver which has an additional complement of fifteen receiving tubes. The receiver is of a conventional modern design using selenium rectifiers in the low-voltage power supply and a 600-ma series-filament circuit for all tubes.

A 20-foot connecting cable is supplied with the remote-control unit, and it may be placed along the baseboard or under the rug, provided that it is positioned away from areas

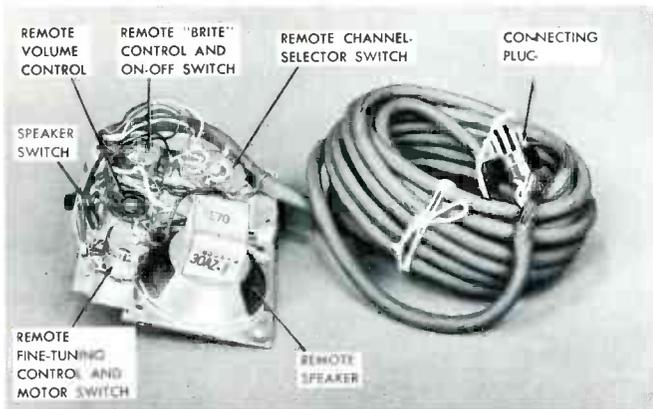
having heavy room traffic. Twenty-foot extension cables can be obtained from the manufacturer; however, the use of more than a total of forty feet of cable is not recommended.

The remote-control box is equipped with four adjustment knobs that provide control over the channel selection, brightness, fine tuning, and volume. In addition to these functions, the unit will turn the receiver on and off and will select either the speaker located in the control box or the speaker housed in the receiver. The small PM speaker located in the control box may be seen in the photograph of Fig. 1. The Sentinel receiver may be operated from the control box or by the controls on the receiver; however, to operate the channel-selector knob on the receiver, the fine-tuning knob on the control box must be placed in the maximum counterclockwise position. This position opens the motor switch mounted on the rear

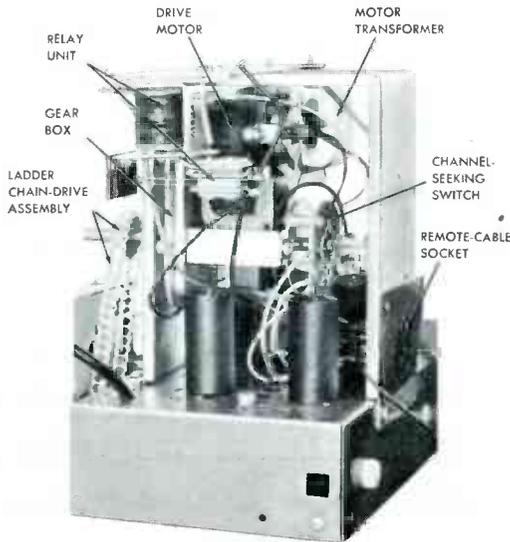
of the remote fine-tuning control and removes power from the drive mechanism of the tuner.

The receiver can be turned off by the switch located on the brightness control in the control box or by the on-off switch at the receiver. The receiver cannot, however, be operated unless both switches are turned on.

The remote-control assembly is primarily divided into two sections. One is comprised of the remote unit and the connecting cable and is shown in Fig. 1. The other section is mounted on the TV chassis and may be seen in Fig. 2. All major components of the complete remote-control assembly are indicated in these two photographs. It may be noticed in Fig. 1 that one end of the twelve-wire connecting cable is permanently attached to the remote unit and that the other end is terminated



**Fig. 1. Remote-Control Chassis and Connecting Cable Employed in the Sentinel Model 21121T.**



**Fig. 2. Remote-Control Mechanism Mounted on the Chassis of the Sentinel Model 21121T.**

with a connecting plug. The socket for this plug is conveniently located at the rear of the receiver, and it is identified in Fig. 2. The cable from the remote unit must be connected to the receiver in order for the receiver to be operated by the remote controls or by the controls on the receiver itself.

**Circuit Functions**

A schematic diagram of the circuitry involved in the Sentinel remote-control system is shown in Fig. 3. With the aid of this schematic and a few additional explanations, the reader should more clearly understand the operation of this device. The fine-tuning control R3 located in the remote unit is connected in series with the plate circuit of the oscillator tube in the tuner of the receiver. It varies the B+ voltage applied to this circuit and thus controls the frequency of the oscillator. If the fine-tuning control on the remote unit does not reach a point of adequate picture detail, then adjustment of the fine-tuning control on the receiver may be necessary. The fine-tuning knob on the remote unit also activates a motor switch. This knob must be in the maximum counterclockwise position when channels are being selected at the receiver; but when channels are being selected from the remote unit, the switch must not be in this position.

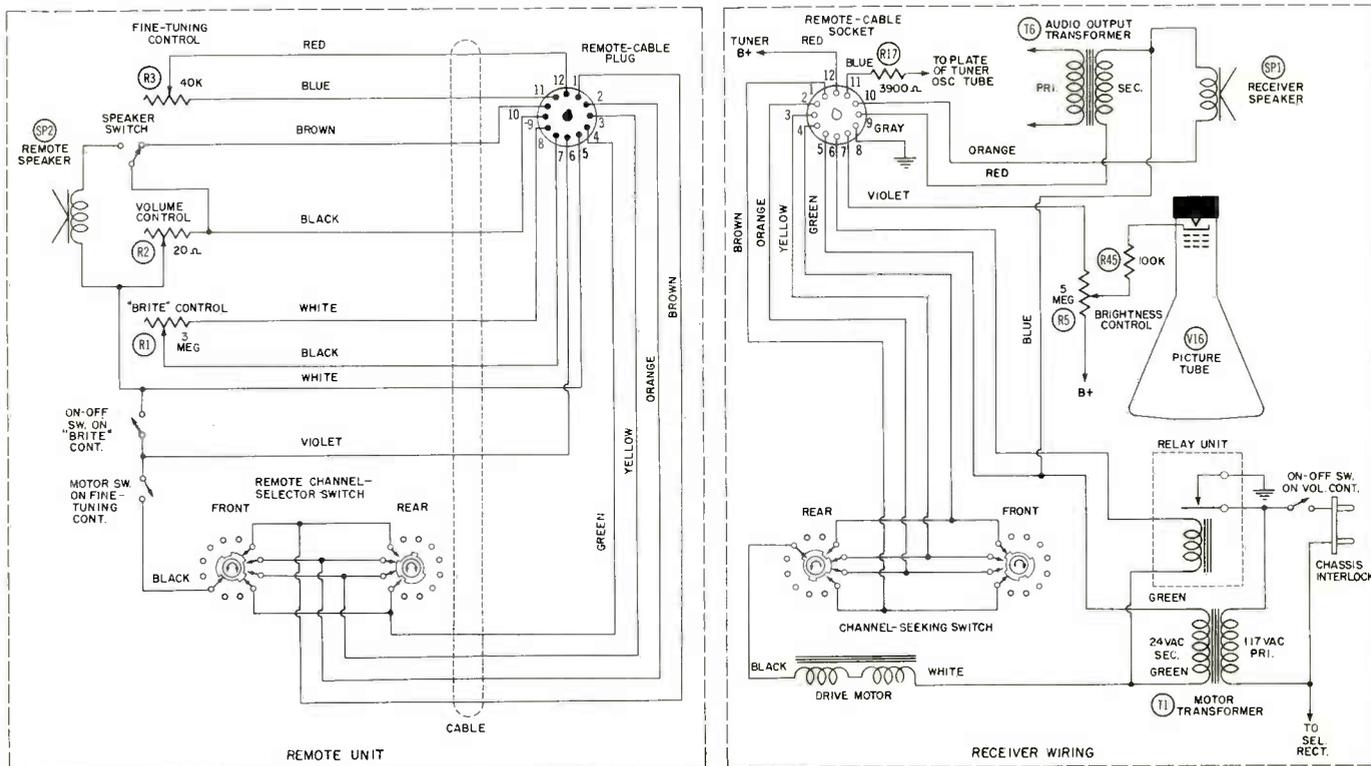
The volume control R2 is connected across the secondary of the audio output transformer. The volume control of the remote unit will furnish a proper listening range provided that the volume control on the receiver is set at its mid-position. In connection with the audio system, an additional speaker is located in the remote unit. Both speakers are controlled by a slide switch that is indicated in Fig. 1. When moved to the right, this switch operates the speaker in the remote unit; and when moved to the left, it operates the speaker in the receiver.

The brightness control R1 which is located in the remote unit is connected in series with the brightness control in the receiver. Both brightness controls vary the potential applied to the cathode of the picture tube. Picture brightness can be adjusted from the remote unit by setting the brightness control on the receiver almost to maximum position. The BRITE control knob on the remote unit may then be adjusted for the desired light intensity. Proper brightness cannot be obtained if the brightness control on the receiver is positioned at minimum or if the BRITE control on the remote unit is set at maximum. The BRITE control knob on the remote unit also turns the receiver on and off; however, the receiver switch must be turned on in order for the remote switch to function.

The channel selector of the remote unit is a 12-position, single-wafer switch with both front and rear sections. The front section has five contacts, and the rear has only four. A simplified illustration of the wiring of this selector switch and of the channel-seeking switch in the tuner is presented in Fig. 4.

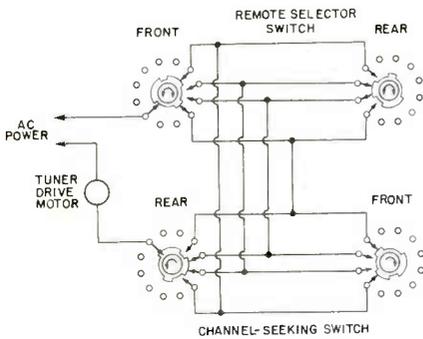
The positions of the channel-selector switch in the remote unit and the channel-seeking switch in the tuner determine the operation of the drive motor of the tuner. The motor rotates the tuner turret mechanically by means of a chain coupling between the gear box and the tuner. The gear box and chain drive are designated in the photograph of Fig. 2.

The selection of all 12 channels is accomplished even though only four wires connect the remote unit with the channel-seeking switch in the receiver. The selector switch in the remote unit may be manually rotated in either direction, but the channel-seeking switch rotates in only one direction as the motor operates. For any one setting of the channel-selector switch, the motor will operate in all positions of the channel-seeking switch except one. The two switches are so designed and wired that when the remote switch is turned to a channel the drive motor operates until the channel-seeking switch reaches a position at which the power circuit to the motor is open. The power is



**Fig. 3. Schematic Diagram of the Remote-Control System Employed in the Sentinel Model 21121T Receiver.**

removed from the motor by the open circuit, and the tuner turret comes to rest on the desired channel position.



**Fig. 4. Simplified Schematic Diagram of the Connections Between the Switches in the Sentinel Remote-Control System.**

**Servicing**

If the channel selected by the channel knob on the remote unit does not track or properly correspond with the channel position of the tuner, the unit may be adjusted as follows: loosen the two setscrews securing the chain sprocket to the drive shaft that extends from the gear box, and turn on the receiver. Then turn the fine-tuning knob of the remote unit clockwise in order to actuate the motor. Observe the channel position of the tuner, and turn the channel-selector knob on the remote unit to the corresponding channel. When the drive motor comes to rest, tighten the two setscrews of the sprocket and check the operation on other channels.

If the turret does not lock into position properly, loosen the two Phillips-head screws that hold the channel-seeking switch to the bracket. Slowly rotate the switch in either direction until the detent locks the turret in position, then tighten the two screws, and check to see that the turret locks into position on all channels. Proper tension on the drive chain must also be maintained at all times.

Should the drive chain become too slack, loosen the four Phillips-head screws which secure the motor mechanism to its mounting, and slide the assembly upward and away from the tuner until only a small amount of slack remains in the chain. Tighten the mounting screws, and check the operation. When the position of the motor assembly has been changed, it will usually be necessary to perform the tracking and locking adjustments.

Another service problem that often occurs in remote-control systems concerns dirty relay contacts. These contacts, as well as the switch contacts, may be cleaned with carbon tetrachloride or cleaners designed

for this purpose. If the relay contacts are carbonized or burnt, a piece of "crocus cloth" or very fine sandpaper may be used to resurface the contact area.

Under normal conditions, the mechanical parts of the remote-control system will require no lubrication; however, if the motor bearings become noisy, the manufacturer recommends that a few drops of fine machine oil should be applied to each bearing.

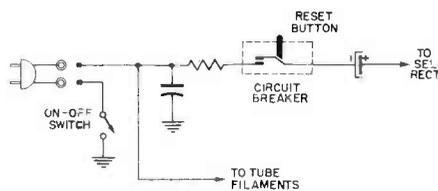
Some of the more common troubles encountered in remote-control systems often stem from damaged connecting cables. This unit is no exception; therefore, if a failure occurs, one of the first checks that should be made is an inspection of the cables. The individual wires should be checked for continuity and for a possible short between wires.

If the inspection reveals no apparent trouble in the connecting cables, then a more thorough check of the switch, relay, and motor circuits should be undertaken.

In order for the Sentinel television receiver to be serviced without the remote unit connected, certain pins on the cable socket must be connected together. These are pins 5 to 6, 7 to 8, 9 to 10, and 11 to 12.

**Circuit Breaker**

The Airline Model WG-4011B television receiver incorporates a thermal type of circuit breaker which is used in place of the conventional fuse or fusible resistor. The unit lends protection to all circuit components by removing the power from the receiver in case an overloaded condition should develop.



**Fig. 5. Partial Schematic Diagram of the Power-Input Circuit Employed in the Airline Model WG-4011B Television Receiver.**

The partial schematic diagram shown in Fig. 5 illustrates the use of this unit in the new Airline chassis. The normal operating current of the receiver is approximately 1.35 amperes, and the circuit breaker is designed to cut out at 2.5 amperes. If a momentary current surge should render the receiver inoperative, it may be necessary to reset the spring-loaded breaker by pushing the red

button which is located at the rear of the receiver. If the circuit breaker continues to cut out when the receiver is turned on, a check should be made in order to determine the cause of the overloading and corrective steps should be taken.

The circuit breaker should never be bypassed in any manner because of the extreme damage that may result and the possible fire hazards involved. One of the advantages offered by using this kind of circuit protection is the fact that replacement is not necessary as in the case of the fuse or resistor.

A few of the leading television manufacturers have made use of similar items in previous designs, but circuit breakers have never become popular in the television field. What the future holds along this line only time will tell.

**CBS-Columbia Tilt-Back Chassis**

The new CBS-Columbia Model 3T615 television receiver has been designed with the service technician in mind. In order to service the wiring side of a conventional vertical chassis, it is usually necessary to remove the chassis from the cabinet. In some cases, both the chassis and picture tube must be removed individually before the unit can be serviced. Other vertical-chassis designs have the chassis and picture tube combined on one mounting board or metal frame. Even with this style of construction, it is still a difficult problem to service the wiring side of the chassis because of the proximity of the picture tube.

The CBS-Columbia tilt-back chassis has overcome many of these obstacles which are frequently encountered when servicing receivers with vertical chassis. In the Model 3T615, the chassis is mounted vertically with the small receiving tubes facing the front of the cabinet, thus placing the underchassis wiring toward the rear. The tubes and alignment points on top of the chassis are made accessible by taking off the cabinet back and removing the two wing screws located on the lower brackets which support the chassis. If the speaker leads are clamped to the side of the chassis, open the clamp and free the leads. The chassis may then be tilted backward as shown in Fig. 6. The chassis is fastened to a metal base pan by two hinged brackets which will hold the chassis at about a 45-degree angle. With the chassis in this position, the service technician can easily change

\* \* Please turn to page 70 \* \*

# DRILLING MASONRY for ANTENNA INSTALLATIONS

by  
**George B. Mann**



When the installation of an antenna is considered, a problem which often arises involves the choice of running the antenna lead-in through a masonry material or of going around it. The first thought in such a situation is that the older methods of penetrating masonry require an excessive amount of time and labor. At the present time, however, most masonry materials can be penetrated by other means in less time than might be used in running the lead-in around the material.

Rotary types of masonry bits of less than one inch in diameter will penetrate most masonry materials at drilling rates which exceed one inch per minute. The 1 1/4-inch wall of a hollow building block was penetrated by using a 1/2-inch, 550-rpm, electric drill first with a 1/2-inch pointed bit and then with a 1/2-inch coreless bit. Drilling times were only 10 seconds for the pointed bit and 7 seconds for the coreless bit. Lead-in runs can be installed over masonry surfaces such as brick, limestone, or concrete in just a little more time than is required to mount the same lead-in over other structural surfaces.

The time and labor saved on a few antenna installations will pay for the cost of the masonry bits used on the jobs. A set of three or four masonry bits of different diameters will fulfill most of the drilling requirements of all antenna installations. Such a set of bits can be purchased for less than twenty dollars.

## **Masonry Materials**

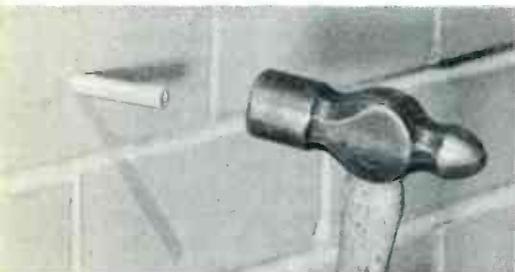
The rate at which a carbide-tipped bit becomes dull is principally determined by the abrasiveness of the material being drilled. Hard sandstone, for example, is very abrasive; and a carbide-tipped bit is dulled more rapidly when penetrating sandstone than when penetrating slate even though the latter is a harder material. This is because slate is not so abrasive as sandstone.

Materials such as granite, field stone, and hard concrete with large pieces of quartz aggregate require excessively high drilling pressures. Because of their extreme hardness, it is impractical to drill into these materials with a rotary type masonry bit.



## **DRILLING INTO BRICK**

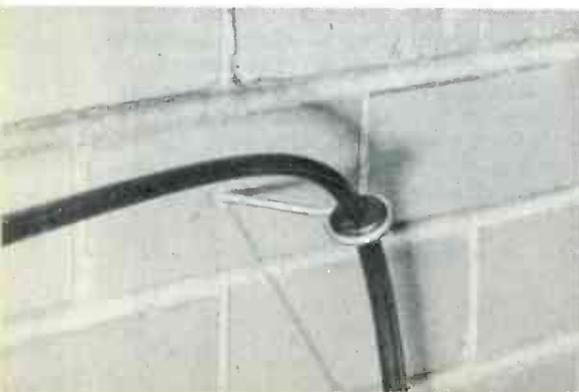
Drilling into the center of a brick provides a solid mounting for a standoff. Any masonry material of block form is much harder than mortar and can withstand much higher stress and strain. Drilling into a mortar joint should not be done. The mortar would split and crack, and water entering between the blocks would cause premature deterioration of the structure.



## **DRIVING THE PLUG**

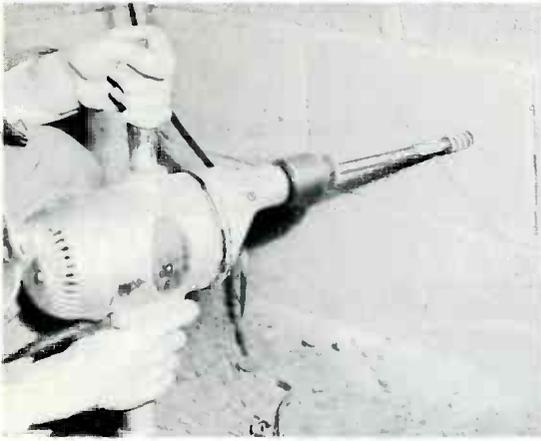
A wood plug is driven into the drilled hole and is broken off flush with the wall face. A wood-screw type of standoff is then set solidly into the plug.

**NOTE:** In solid types of masonry, the anchors for guy wires or mounting brackets should be lead expansion types in order to withstand the increased strain or weight.



## **FINISHED INSTALLATION OF STANDOFF IN BRICK WALL**

From the start of drilling to the completion of this standoff mounting, approximately one minute was required. The result is a secure mounting made with a minimum expenditure of time and labor.



### DRILLING AN ENTRANCE HOLE FOR A LEAD-IN

An entrance hole for an antenna lead-in was drilled through the foundation of this house with a 3/4-inch bit and a 1/2-inch electric drill. Less than 45 seconds were required to complete the drilling of this concrete block.

Masonry materials which have absorbed water should not be drilled until they have dried out. When pulverized masonry material is damp, it adheres to the flutes of the bit and prevents the removal of powder from the hole being drilled.

#### Sharpening Carbide Bits

The cutting edges of a carbide-tipped bit will become dulled after considerable use, and a dull masonry bit will require increased drilling pressure to keep the bit cutting. This added pressure accelerates the dulling, creates overheating, and produces mechanical stresses which can cause tip breakage. Sharpening of a dull masonry bit before excessive wear has taken place will greatly extend the useful life of the bit.

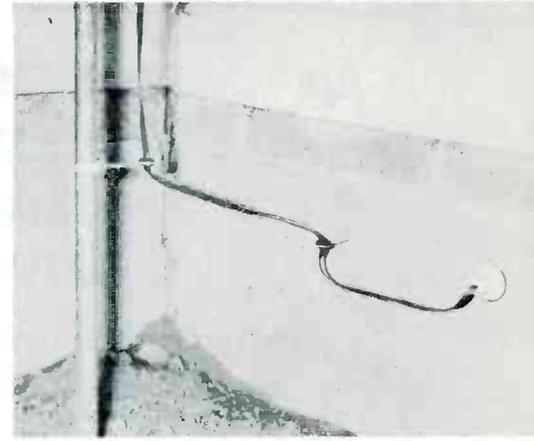
Some manufacturers recommend that their carbide-tipped bits be returned to them for sharpening. If such a recommendation is not made, the masonry bit can be sharpened by the user or at a local machine shop. Silicon-carbide wheels for use on electric grinders are available for sharpening carbide-tipped tools. The recommendations and instructions for this operation are generally published by the manufacturer of the bits.

A rotary type of masonry bit can make short work of installing guy-wire anchors, lead-in standoffs, mounting brackets, and feed-through insulators in nearly all kinds of masonry materials used in building and home construction.



### INSTALLING FEED-THROUGH BUSHING

A feed-through bushing was inserted through the wall from inside the house. Note that the rotary bit did not produce a large and unsightly break-through.



### COMPLETED LEAD-IN ENTRANCE

The lead-in was installed with a supporting stand-off and a drip loop. From the start of drilling to the completion of this installation, approximately fifteen minutes were required.

### DRILLING HOLE FOR GUY-WIRE ANCHOR

This roof parapet is constructed of hollow building blocks and has a tar-paper covering. A hole was drilled to provide an opening into which a toggle-bolt type of guy-wire anchor could be inserted. The proper point for drilling was determined by checking the locations of the mortar joints on the outside wall of the parapet.



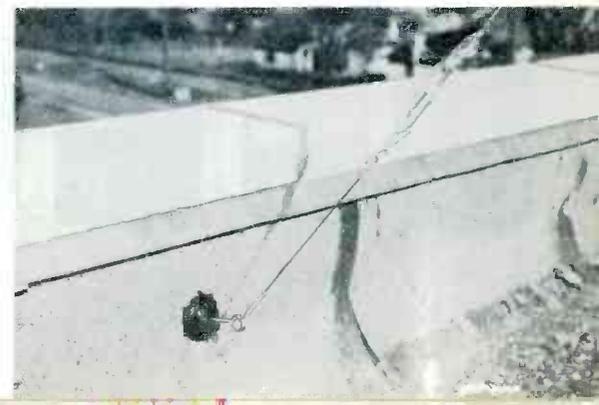
### SEALING THE TOGGLE BOLT

After the toggle bolt was firmly in place, sealing compound was applied generously around the point of penetration. This must be done to prevent water from getting into the building.

### COMPLETED INSTALLATION OF ANCHOR

This toggle bolt provides a sturdy water-tight anchor to which the roof antenna was securely guyed.

NOTE: As a safety measure, fasten guy-wire anchors to roof parapets at points as near the roof surface as possible.



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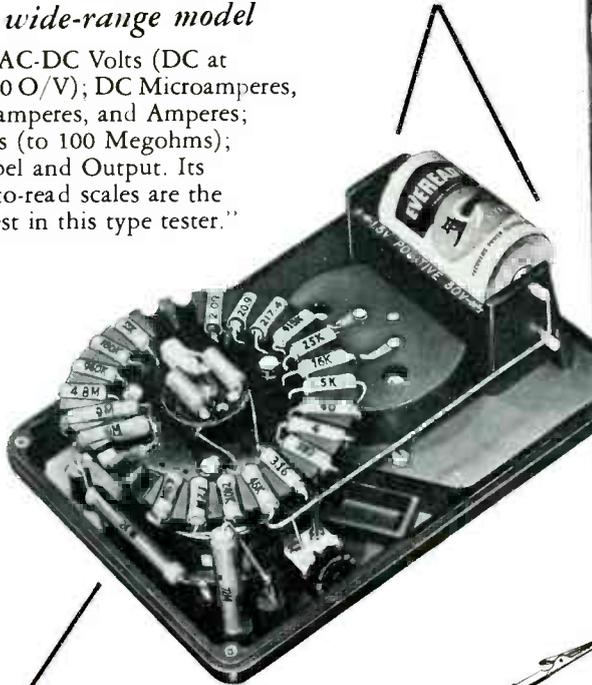
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Balanced double-spring tension grip assures permanent contact.

*"this wide-range model*

tests AC-DC Volts (DC at 20,000 O/V); DC Microamperes, Milliamperes, and Amperes; Ohms (to 100 Megohms); Decibel and Output. Its easy-to-read scales are the longest in this type tester."



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—Banana jacks and plugs on test leads are best. Alligator clips are provided to slip on test prods for extra convenience.

*for convenience in reading*

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*for most efficient meter use*

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*no slip feature*

Four rubber feet furnished as standard equipment fit in back of the case to prevent slipping on smooth surfaces.

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**631**  
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For Best Testing  
Around The Lab,  
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or Bench

**630**  
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All-Purpose  
V-O-M

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A Good Lab and  
Production Line  
V-O-M

**310**  
The Smallest  
Complete V-O-M  
With Switch

**630-T**  
For Telephone  
Service

**666-HH**  
Medium Size  
For  
Field Testing

**625-NA**  
The First V-O-M  
With 10,000  
Ohms/Volt AC

**666-R**  
Medium Size  
With  
630 Features

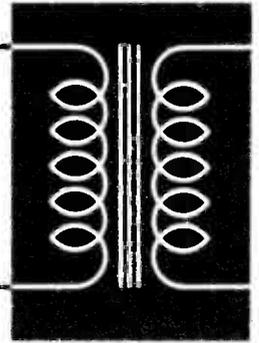
Basic explanations of transformer action assume that the voltage induced in the secondary winding is 180 degrees out of phase with the voltage in the primary. In practice, the phase shift across an untuned transformer that is wired into a circuit may either be zero or 180 degrees, depending upon the polarity of the connections in the secondary circuit. If the transformer has a tuned secondary winding, the phase angle between primary and secondary voltages at the resonant frequency will be 90 degrees; but the phase angle will vary widely when the frequency departs from resonance. The operation of phase-detecting circuits such as discriminators and ratio detectors depends upon these facts.

In certain situations, the technician may need to investigate the phase relationship of voltages in transformers. The phase difference between two voltages can be established by careful observation of Lissajous figures on an oscilloscope. It can also be established by use of an electronic switch if one is available.

An electronic switch is a laboratory instrument which is used to enable a single oscilloscope to display two waveforms at the same time. The signals are placed on two separate traces, but they are viewed at the same sweep rate.

The input circuit of an electronic switch consists of two independent amplifiers which are alternately turned on and off by gating tubes which are controlled by a square wave that is generated within the instrument. During a half cycle of the square wave, one amplifying channel is cut off and the signal in the other channel is allowed to reach the output jack. During the other half cycle of the square wave, the situation

# VOLTAGE PHASES in TRANSFORMERS



The Principles Upon Which  
Radio Detectors, Discriminators,  
and Quadrature Transformers Operate

by Thomas A. Lesh

reverses. Because of the use of DC coupling between stages in the switch, the two traces on the face of the oscilloscope can be either superimposed or separated.

The switching rate is governed by the frequency of a multivibrator which is normally free running, or it can be controlled by an external sync signal. The switching rate should be made lower than the desired sweep frequency of the oscilloscope. If switching is too rapid, the traces will assume a dotted appearance which may be confusing; then some of the details of the waveform may not be visible.

An external synchronization signal for the oscilloscope should be supplied from one of the two circuits which are being examined. If internal synchronization were used, the oscilloscope would try to synchronize its sweep with both signals at once. As a result, the phase difference between the signals would not be apparent.

A hookup which is usable for the examination of phase differences is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 1. The transformer is an IF type which has primary and secondary windings

that are tunable. The signal from the generator is fed to the primary winding through a 33K-ohm resistor so that the loading effect of the transformer on the generator will be reduced. A signal for external synchronization of the oscilloscope is taken from the generator output.

If both the primary and secondary windings of the transformer are tuned to a resonant frequency of 175 kilocycles and the frequency of the output signal of the signal generator is continuously varied at frequencies near resonance, the phase of the secondary voltage will be seen to shift with respect to that of the primary voltage. The waveforms are shown in Fig. 2. The upper waveform of each set is of the voltage across the primary, and the lower waveform is of the voltage across the secondary. A shift to the left in any waveform indicates an advance in phase.

The maximum voltage across the secondary occurs when the frequency of the incoming signal is equal to the resonant frequency of the transformer. At this point, the phase of the secondary voltage lags by 90 degrees. See Fig. 2B. The angle of lag increases as the incoming frequency rises until, at 179 kilocycles, the secondary voltage lags by nearly 180 degrees. See Fig. 2A. When the generator frequency is reduced below resonance, the phase angle decreases; and it becomes nearly zero by the time that a frequency of 171 kilocycles is reached. See Fig. 2C.

If the signal generator is set at 175 kilocycles and the secondary of the transformer is tuned through resonance, phase shifts identical with those shown in Fig. 2 will be observed. On the other hand, if the primary of the transformer is tuned through resonance, the phase difference between the primary voltage

\* \* Please turn to page 44 \* \*

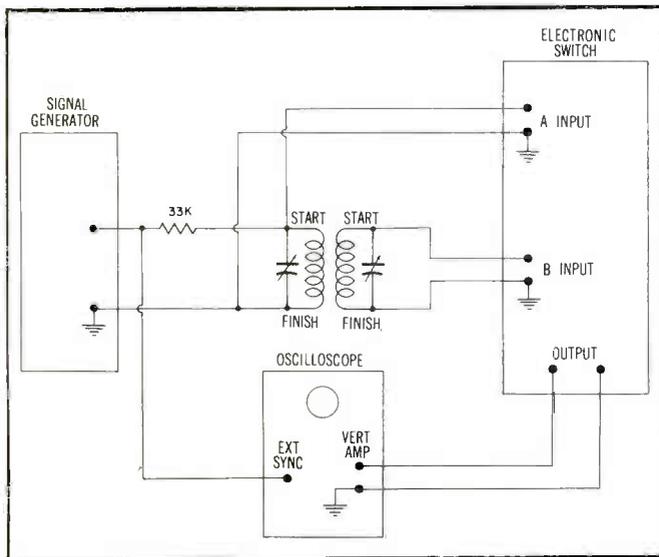


Fig. 1. Diagram of Connections for Waveform Analysis of a Tuned Transformer.

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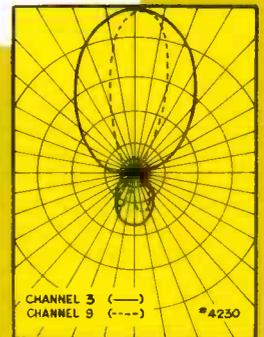
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WALSCO WIZARD Imperial equals reception of 10 element yagis on low channels, and equals a three stack 10 element (30 elements) yagi on channels 7 to 13.

Actual comparison of fringe antenna performance

Channels	Gain (db) Single Bay						
	2	4	6	7	9	11	13
WalSCO Wizard Imperial	6.1	6.9	8.2	11.9	11.6	10.8	12.6
Antenna "A" With 3 Phase Reversing Dipoles	6.3	6.6	8.1	10.5	10.2	10.6	12.4
Antenna "B" - Yagi Type with Phasing Loops	5.1	5.5	6.8	7.5	9.6	8.8	11.2
Antenna "C" - Yagi Type with Loading Coils	5.9	6.9	8.6	9.1	8.6	9.6	7.8

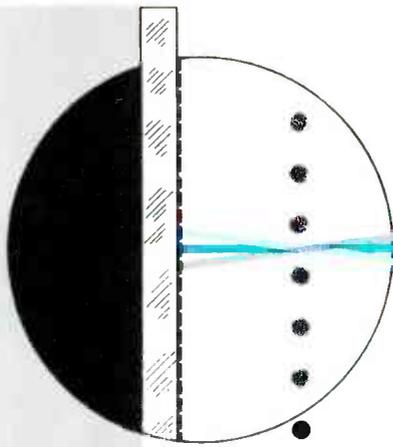


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**a NEW  
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## *in Color Picture Tubes*

### **THE GENERAL ELECTRIC POST-ACCELERATION TUBE**

**by C. P. Oliphant**

A great amount of work is being done by the tube manufacturers toward improvement of the color picture tube. A progress report was recently presented at the General Electric Company on the color picture tube that is being developed by its engineers. The following discussion covers the details of the General Electric color tube which is referred to as a "post-acceleration" tube. Post acceleration means that the beams are accelerated after they have been deflected.

The color picture tube that is being employed in color receivers at the present time is the shadow-mask type. This is a tube which employs three electron guns, a shadow or aperture mask, and a phosphor-dot screen. The guns are positioned in the neck of the tube in a triangular arrangement, and the shadow mask is positioned close to the phosphor screen. The screen has three sets of phosphor dots, one set for each electron beam.

#### **Physical Structure of Post-Acceleration Tube**

The post-acceleration tube, which is a 22-inch rectangular glass tube, is basically a three-gun type. The design, however, is rather different from that of the shadow-mask tube. The structure of the post-acceleration tube can be seen by referring to Fig. 1.

The three guns, which are of the electrostatic type, are not in a triangular arrangement but are all in one horizontal plane. Notice that just before the beams from the guns

strike the phosphor screen they pass through a grille composed of vertical wires which are parallel to each other. The grille wires are very small; they are 3-mil wires with a spacing of 28 wires per inch. The grille is the color-selecting electrode in this tube. It is constructed in such a way that more than 90 per cent of the electrons ejected from the guns strike the phosphor screen and contribute to picture brightness. This is a great increase in brightness over that produced by the shadow-mask tube.

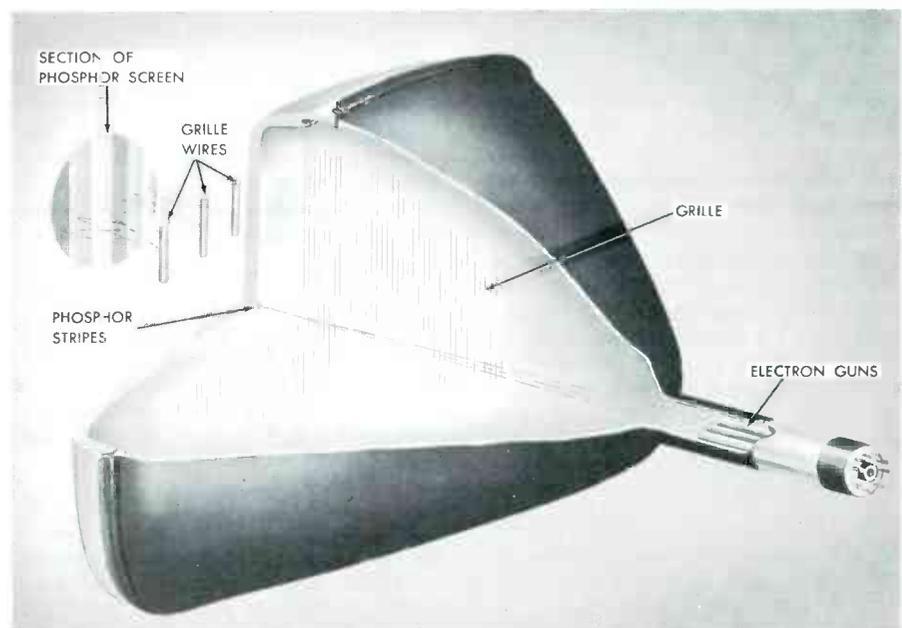
The phosphor screen is made up of three different phosphors. One phosphor emits red light, another emits green light, and the third emits blue light when energized by the electron beams. Instead of the phosphors being arranged in a dot formation as they are in the shadow-mask tube, they are arranged in lines that are vertical and parallel. There

are three times as many phosphor stripes as there are grille wires. The beams passing through the grille and striking the phosphor stripes are shown in Fig. 1.

The development program pursued at the General Electric Company has been divided into two stages. The first tube that was developed is referred to as the "sandwich" tube. The name is derived from the way in which the tube is constructed. A flat phosphor plate and a grille mounted on a frame are assembled in the form of a sandwich and are inserted in the front end of the picture-tube envelope. This sandwich tube was the one demonstrated when the General Electric progress report was presented.

A newer design of the post-acceleration tube is in the develop-

\* \* Please turn to page 52 \* \*

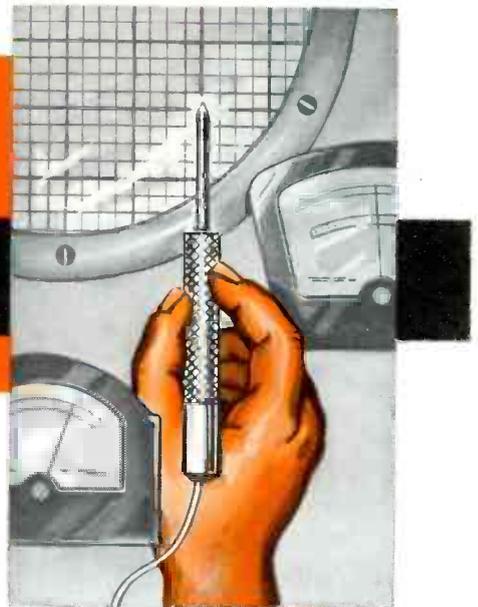


**Fig. 1. The Post-Acceleration Color Picture Tube in Development at General Electric Company.**

# Notes On

# TEST EQUIPMENT

## Presenting Information on Application, Maintenance, and Adaptability of Service Instruments



by Paul C. Smith

### Win-Tronix Model 120 Compatible Crystal Calibrator

Winston Electronics, Inc., manufactures the Win-Tronix compatible crystal calibrator shown in Fig. 1. This instrument is designed to provide an RF signal of crystal-controlled accuracy. Such a signal



Fig. 1. Win-Tronix Model 120 Compatible Crystal Calibrator.

is often needed by the technician. The instruction manual lists a number of uses for the instrument. These include use as a frequency standard, as a marker generator for RF and IF sweep curves, as a marker generator for oscilloscope timing, and as a means for comparing the relative activity of crystals.

As the word "compatible" in the name suggests, the instrument provides a signal that is particularly suitable for color TV servicing. A crystal that is mounted internally controls the 3.579545-mc frequency of this signal to an accuracy closer than 18 parts per million.

Three sockets for extra crystals are mounted on the front panel. The internal crystal or any one of the external crystals can be individually put into operation by setting the FUNCTION switch to one of its four operating positions; thus, four crystal-controlled signals including the 3.579545-mc color subcarrier can be selected by a turn of the switch.

The 3.579545-mc crystal is furnished with the instrument. Crystals for other frequencies should be obtained from the manufacturer because the crystal sockets in this instrument will not accept crystals having standard-sized pins.

The oscillator circuit of the instrument will operate from 100 kilocycles to 15 megacycles. The circuit is a Pierce oscillator which requires no adjustment for crystals with fundamental frequencies that are within this range.

The strength of the output signal is governed by a continuously variable attenuator. The output voltage is stated to be not less than 1 volt peak to peak with crystals of 100 kilocycles to 5 megacycles and not less than 1/2 volt peak to peak with crystals of 5 to 15 megacycles.

The relative activity of individual crystals of approximately the same frequency can be compared by connecting a 0-to-100 microammeter to the pin jacks on the front panel. This reading represents the oscillator grid current, and a higher reading indicates a more active crystal.

### REVIEW OF TEST INSTRUMENTS

There is such a wide variety of test instruments offered by the manufacturers that it is a problem for the service technician to choose a new piece of equipment for his shop. We shall not presume to make such a choice for the technician, but we plan to give in this column in the next few issues an orderly presentation of specifications of each model plus some discussion of a general nature to make it easier for the technician to arrive at a selection best suited for his particular needs.

A number of factors which will probably influence the technician in his choice are of such a nature that they will apply no matter what type of instrument is being considered. Among these would be such things as appearance, size and weight, ruggedness, versatility, long-term usefulness, and ease of operation. The size and weight of an instrument are important if the instrument is to be carried from house to house or if the amount of bench space is limited. Appearance is also important if the instrument will be used in public a great deal. As an example of long-term usefulness, we might consider a dot/bar generator. It is useful for linearity adjustments in monochrome receivers; and when color receivers become more plentiful, it will also be useful for adjustments in them.

The type of shop in which the instrument will be used may have a bearing on the choice of equipment. If there are a number of technicians in the shop, some general-purpose

equipment may be placed at each bench position and perhaps only single units of certain specialized equipment may serve the entire shop.

In addition to offering factory-assembled instruments, some manufacturers offer kits which the technician can assemble for himself. There are both advantages and disadvantages associated with the assembly and use of these kits.

Obviously, a kit can be purchased for less money than a factory-wired unit of the same make and model. The amount saved by wiring a kit unit seems to vary with the complexity of the instrument. A check of 15 different models supplied by a certain manufacturer revealed an average saving of 27 per cent of the price of the factory-wired model when compared to the kit model. Individual savings may be as high as 48 per cent or as low as 14 per cent, depending upon the instrument. There may be certain other advantages to the technician if he assembles his own equipment; it should make him more familiar with construction details and theory of operation of the instrument. This knowledge will make him better qualified to service the equipment if that becomes necessary.

It seldom happens that any operation or circumstance will present all advantages and no disadvantages, and that is certainly true in the case of kits. First, there is the aspect of the time necessary for assembling a kit. If the technician is extremely busy, his time may be worth more to him for his regular duties than the amount of money he saves in assembling a kit. There is the possibility that he may make some error in the wiring, an error which may not necessarily prevent the instrument from operating but which might reduce the efficiency of operation. Since he would have no way of knowing that the instrument was not up to the manufacturer's standards of performance, he may continue to use it unaware of its deficiency. Some parts may be damaged during assembly and may have to be replaced, adding to the over-all cost of the instrument.

Among the instruments to be covered in this and following issues will be multimeters, VTVM's, RF and sweep generators, oscilloscopes, and others. This first coverage will deal with multimeters.

#### MULTIMETERS

Some of the more important points to consider when examining

a multimeter are: (1) ranges offered, (2) meter rating in ohms per volt, (3) size and readability of the meter scale, and (4) simplicity of operation. Other considerations are also important, but we would say that these four are basic.

There should be an adequate number of ranges for each function; otherwise, the scales will be found to be excessively crowded. With a sufficient number of overlapping ranges, most measurements can be made so that the pointer will come to rest in the middle portion of a scale. It is generally agreed that measurements are more accurate in this region of a meter scale.

The ohm-per-volt rating should be high enough so that loading of the circuits to which the meter is applied will be at a minimum. A high rating in ohms per volt means that a sensitive meter movement is used, but this in turn will usually mean a higher-priced meter.

Other considerations which will interest the prospective buyer are portability, ruggedness, resistance of the meter window to breakage, ease of battery replacement, inclusion of decibel scales, frequency response to AC signals, protection against being overloaded, parallax correction, high-current ranges, and availability of probes and other accessories.

The following multimeters with the manufacturers' specifications are grouped according to the respective manufacturers.

#### Electronic Instrument Co., Inc. (EICO)

##### EICO MODEL 536

#### RANGES (31)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 7 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 1 megohm in 3 ranges; AC and DC CURRENT, 0 to 1 ampere in 4 ranges each (lowest range, 0 to 1 milliamperes); DECIBELS, -20 to +69 db in 6 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 400-microampere movement; 3-inch meter; size of case, 6 1/2 by 3 3/4 by 2 3/4 inches.

##### EICO MODEL 526

Same as Model 536 but with 1% precision resistors.

#### EICO MODEL 565

#### RANGES (31)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 6 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 20 megohms in 3 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 10 amperes in 5 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 100 microamperes); DECIBELS, -12 to +55 db in 5 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 1000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 4 1/2-inch meter; size of case, 6 3/4 by 5 1/4 by 3 inches.

#### EICO MODEL 555

Same as Model 565 but with 1% precision resistors.

#### EICO MODEL 566

#### RANGES (38)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 7 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 1 megohm in 3 ranges; AC and DC CURRENT, 0 to 1 ampere in 4 ranges each (lowest range, 0 to 1 milliamperes); DECIBELS, -20 to +69 db in 6 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 400-microampere movement; 4 1/2-inch meter; size of case 6 3/4 by 5 1/4 by 3 inches.

#### EICO MODEL 556

Same as Model 566 but with 1% precision resistors.

#### The Hickok Electrical Instrument Co.

##### HICKOK MODEL 450

#### RANGES (34)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 6 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 100 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 10 amperes in 7 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 50 microamperes); DECIBELS, -30 to +55 db in 5 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 5-inch meter; size of case, 8 1/2 by 5 3/4 by 2 1/2 inches.

\* \* Please turn to page 34 \* \*

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BENTON HARBOR 7, MICHIGAN

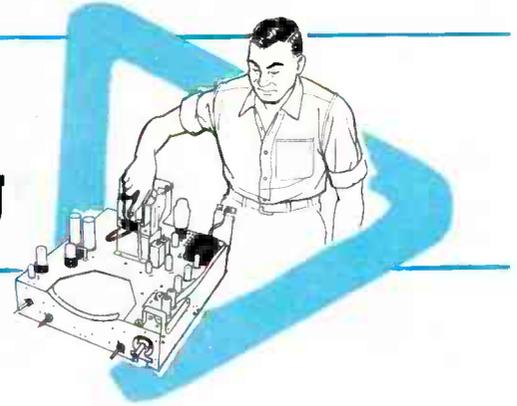


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# In the Interest of . . .

## Quicker Servicing

by Calvin C. Young, Jr.



Small problems that occasionally arise can sometimes cause the service technician a great deal of trouble, and this trouble is due largely to lack of experience with the particular problem. Several of the less familiar small problems are presented in the following discussion.

### Water Under TV Receiver Cabinet

Recently a very disturbed customer called to report that there was a puddle of water under her TV set. This customer thought that the water had come from within the receiver since there was no window near enough to allow water to run into the house and under the TV set. The technician accepted the customer's complaint with some doubt in his mind but nevertheless agreed to make the call.

Upon arrival at the customer's home, the technician's first move was to look under the set; and sure enough, the pool of water was there. In order to get room to inspect this water-spouting monster, the technician took hold of the TV receiver and

proceeded to move it away from the wall. In this process, the lead-in wire was grasped; and the technician immediately noticed that it was wet. Since this lead-in was of the tubular type, the technician suspected that the water was entering from this source.

Examination of the antenna system revealed that several mistakes had been made when the antenna and lead-in had been installed, and these mistakes can be seen in the drawing shown in Fig. 1. Notice that there is no drip loop at the point where the lead-in enters the house and that the top of the tubular lead-in was not sealed. These two mistakes in the original installation caused all of the trouble. Not only was water getting into the house from this source, but a considerable portion of the received signal was being lost because of the water that was standing inside the lead-in. This loss could mean no reception at all in fringe, near fringe, or UHF areas. It is much easier to seal the tubular lead-in and to form the correct drip loop when the antenna system is initially installed.

### Arcing Within the Deflection Yoke

Failure of the deflection yoke is not too uncommon because of the large pulse signals that are developed across the yoke windings. These same large pulses also have the effect of causing failures that at first may appear to occur in the yoke windings when actually one of the damping components inside the yoke may have failed. These damping components should always be checked thoroughly before the yoke is replaced. This will help guard against unnecessary replacement of the yoke.

Because of the very limited space available for the damping components and for all of the wires to the yoke coils, the large pulses will



Fig. 2. Short Between Wire and Terminal in Deflection Yoke.

sometimes cause trouble in the wiring itself. You will notice in Fig. 2 that the wires are sometimes run against some of the terminals and are therefore a frequent source of shorts and arcing troubles. Part of the reason for the troubles is that, in many cases, the wire which touches the terminal has had its insulation damaged by the soldering iron when that terminal was soldered. This could occur in a repair shop as well as in the factory; therefore, when any soldering or replacing of components within the yoke housing is done, extreme care should be exercised not to damage any of the wiring insulation.

### Capacitor Failure in High-Voltage Doubler Circuits

A large number of the Model 630 and other earlier TV receivers were made with a doubler circuit that developed the high voltage. A sample schematic diagram of one of these doubler circuits is shown in Fig. 3. In some cases, the 500-mmf capacitors (C1, C2, and C3 in Fig. 3) are of a type with pigtailed. In other

\* \* Please turn to page 65 \* \*

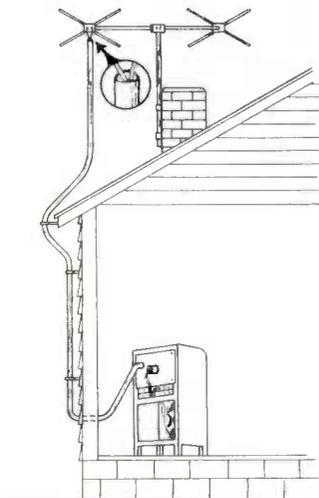


Fig. 1. Improper Installation of Lead-in Wire.

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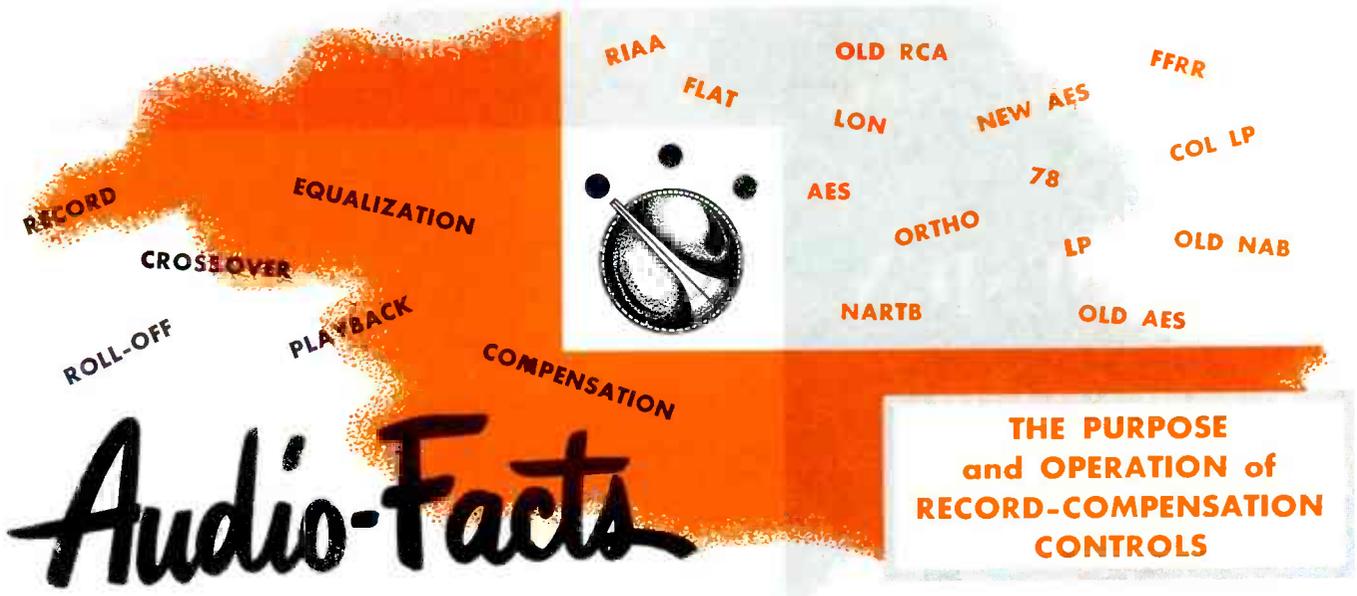
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# Audio-Facts

## THE PURPOSE and OPERATION of RECORD-COMPENSATION CONTROLS

by Robert B. Dunham

The record-compensation controls found on phono preamplifiers continue to puzzle many audio enthusiasts. There is no wonder that this is true in some cases because, on one preamplifier, this control may have a single knob which turns to only two or three operating positions; whereas, another unit may have two knobs, one or more levers, or as many as ten slide switches for the same purpose. For those persons not familiar with record compensation, things are made more complicated by the markings on these controls. To name a few of the position markings, we have LP, AES, LON, 78, FFRR, 500, NARTB, RIAA, NEW ORTHO, OLD AES, and COL.

Record-compensation controls have nearly always been used in high quality music systems to enable the operator to obtain the best reproduction from records, but many listeners wonder why these controls are necessary. Some basic reasons why compensation is necessary were discussed in this column in the November-December 1952 issue of the PF INDEX in which we wrote about recording and playback characteristics. But that was a long time ago when considered in the light of the progress made in the field of audio in the home since then. Because of this progress and the improvements that have been made and the tendency of some listeners to ignore record compensation, some more information on the subject should be appropriate.

Records have been improved in most respects, and the equipment with which to reproduce them has also been improved. It seems logical, since we have better records and improved wide-range playback equip-

ment, that equalization to compensate for record characteristics has become more important.

It is true that we now have a standard playback curve, but we still have to compensate for it; and we still have the recordings that were cut according to other curves before the standard curve was adopted.

Let's start at the beginning of recording. Why do we have to have playback compensation when we play a record? What is a playback curve, and why do we have it? Why is the playback curve different for different records? We have playback curves because we have recording curves. Here we go again!

The inherent characteristics of a cutting head cause the stylus which cuts the groove in the master record to respond in a different manner to different frequencies. Equalization must be employed in the circuits that feed the cutting head in order to compensate for some of the characteristics so that a satisfactory recording can be made. When plotted against frequency, the results of this equalization form a recording curve.

In the earliest years of disc recording, all recordings were made by the acoustical method. The sound waves moved a diaphragm which in turn moved the cutting stylus by means of a mechanical hookup and caused it to cut a modulated groove in the disc. This modulation was cut in the form of a wiggle as the cutting stylus was moved in a lateral to-and-fro motion. Because of the natural physical laws which governed the action of the acoustical cutting head,

low tones caused the stylus to cut wider (or higher-amplitude) wiggles than did the high tones. If the frequency of the signal was doubled (raised one octave), the amplitude of the signal recorded on the record was reduced by one half.

When a disc recorded by the acoustical method was played back with an acoustical reproducer, the signal was flat or reproduced with its original values (depending upon the limitations of the system). The same natural laws that governed the cutter also governed the reproducer, and therefore the signal was automatically restored to its original proportions.

The same conditions held true when electrical recording was introduced and when magnetic recording heads were used to cut the records. The amplitude of the recorded signal increased as the frequency of the signal decreased. When the disc recorded by a magnetic cutting head was played back with a magnetic pickup cartridge, the signal was flat and sounded normal. These results were due to the inherent constant-velocity characteristic of the cutting head and the cartridge.

### Constant Velocity

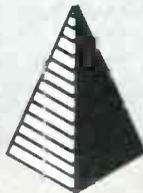
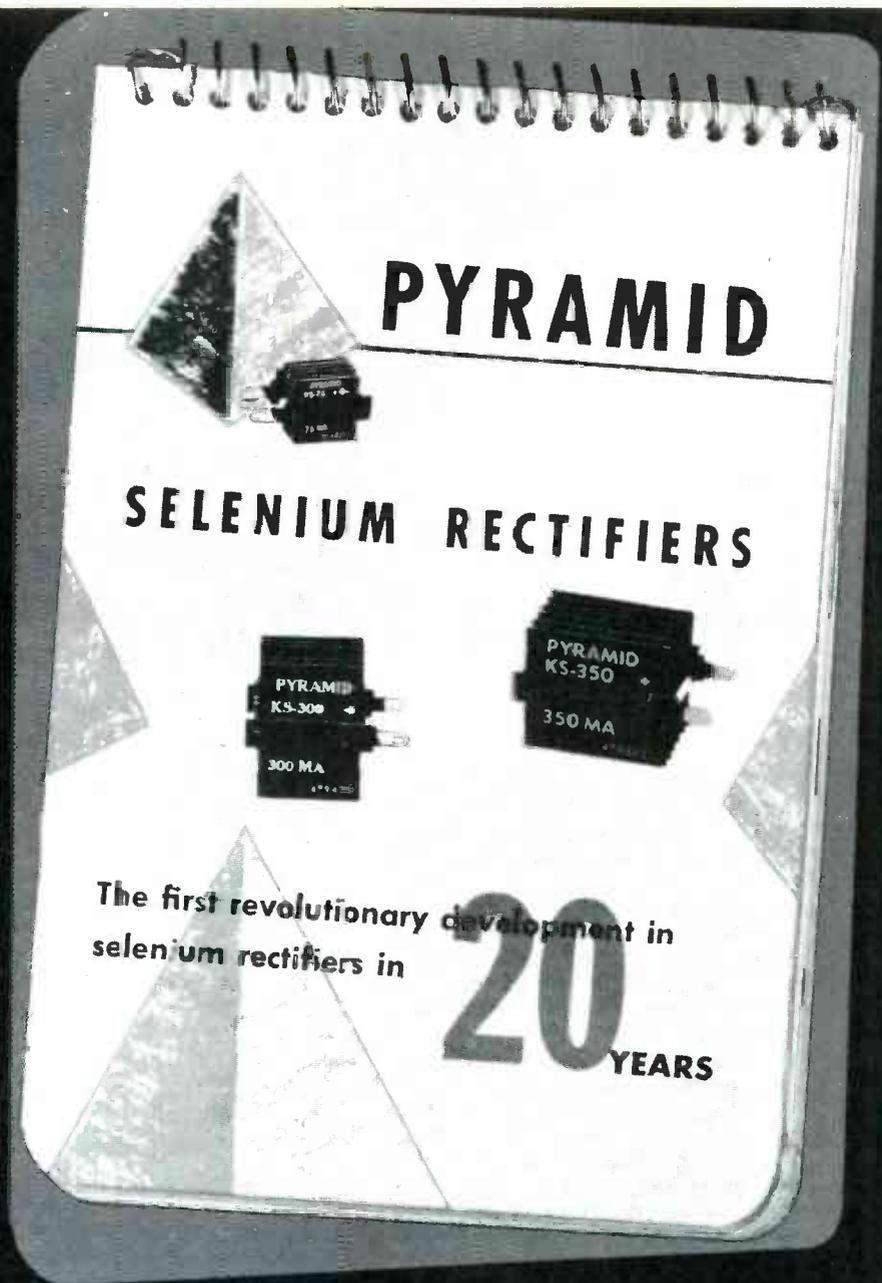
Now, that last statement in which we mentioned constant velocity is where we lose a lot of readers, if we have not already lost them. We can hear them say, "Constant velocity! Who cares about constant velocity? All we were wondering about is why we have to turn a knob marked RECORD COMPENSATION."

\* \* Please turn to page 54 \* \*

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# Dollar and Sense Servicing

by *John Markus*

Editor-in-Chief, McGraw-Hill Radio Servicing Library

**GUESSING.** When a TV set goes bad, who fixes it? No one has to our knowledge made a nationwide consumer survey on this question yet, but here's our guesstimate:

Full-time service technician	85%
Part-time servicetechnician	10%
Owner himself	2%
Nobody	3%

We see no cause for worry or excitement in this picture. The part-time man is an essential part of the picture because, in many instances, he is getting his apprenticeship of practical servicing experience while still making enough money at a regular job to support his family.

Repairs are rarely made by the owner, although this category might seem more important than it really is because the chap who fixes his own set once or twice lets the whole world know about it. Let the owners play; they'll come back to you "dragging their tails behind them" the first time they hit a tough one, if you treat them halfway decently.

The nobody item means that the owner has decided the set isn't worth fixing again. Chances are that he's bought a new set and was using the old one as a second set as long as it kept on running. When it quit, he may or may not have had an estimate on repairs. This nobody-fix figure indicates that the percentage of two-set households isn't climbing as fast as predicted.

From the standpoint of practical economics, old TV sets should be left dead the same as old radios. It seems a shame to see fine old radio consoles gathering dust in basements and just waiting for someone to haul them off to the dump, but there's no real money for service technicians in this sad picture. The same holds true for TV. Even if you could run through these old 10- and 12-inchers a hundred at a time on a production-

line basis with a good assortment of other oldies which could be cannibalized to get special parts no longer available, you'd have trouble getting labor charges out of the deal. Furthermore, for the customers who might be attracted by low-cost old sets, the receivers would be poor bargains because of the imminent failure of over-age parts.



**QUESTION.** Are you interested in getting additional service business? If so, you might consider the following suggestion. After you've finished a home call; make a habit of asking something like this: "Have you any other TV sets, radios, or phonographs that need looking at?"

Point out the advantages of getting them all fixed at once, since the minimum charge for a home call applies only to the first set. Point out that you have a large stock of spare tubes and parts in your truck so that you can handle the work in the home most of the time. Sometimes, a 30-second sales talk can bring real results. Of course, your schedule must be flexible enough so that these extra jobs won't make you unduly late for the next appointment.



**OVERSEAS.** Each new television-conscious tourist in England comes back with enthusiasm for the superior quality of British TV images. The British still use 405-line standards, whereas the American standard is 525 lines; so, theoretically our pictures should be much better. The answer does not lie in the sets but in the British camera-pickup equipment and the expert way it is operated.

**SUICIDE.** One of the best ways to cut your own throat is to start cutting prices!

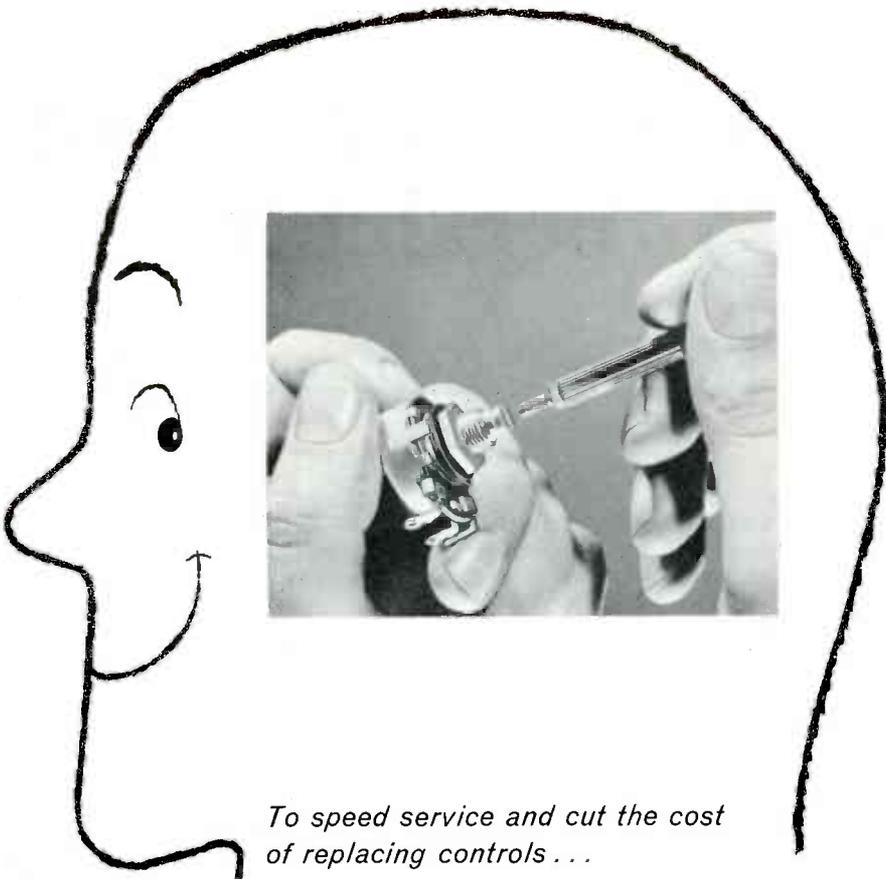


**COLOR COMMENTS.** Instruction in tuning is an essential for color TV if it is to succeed with the public, even though the new RCA sets have only two additional front-of-the-set controls for color. Printed instructions furnished by manufacturers will need to be a lot clearer than they are, and the service technician who makes the installation will have to go over these instructions several times with each and every member of the family if a color set is to be given a fair chance to show what it can do.

In our own case, we watched mistuned color pictures for two weeks before discovering the critical interlocking relationships between the fine-tuning, contrast, and brightness controls and the two color controls. The contrast adjustment is particularly important. The ritual of adjustment has to be repeated for each color program if the set is used for black and white in between.

As to programming, color gives a new third-dimensional quality that contributes greatly to enjoyment. Despite poor camera performance, color makes the ball a lot easier to follow in football games. But before the general public should be asked to get enthusiastic about color even at the hoped-for under-\$500 figure, there'll have to be a lot of improvement in studio and transmitter equipment. Today almost every change in the focus and in the switching of cameras alters the color balance and therefore makes performers blush at too-frequent intervals and makes blues change to greens or purples most distractingly.

**JOHN MARKUS**



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## Notes on Test Equipment

(Continued from page 27)

### HICKOK MODEL 455

#### RANGES (22)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1200 volts in 6 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 100 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 10 amperes in 6 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 50 micro-amperes).

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 50-microampere movement; 5-inch meter; size of case, 8 1/2 inches long by 5 7/8 inches wide. Height is 3 inches tapering to 1 3/4 inches. The meter movement and all circuit components are protected from being overloaded by a cutout and fuse system. This model is designed to lie flat on the bench and has an inclined, curved meter face for convenience in reading.

### HICKOK MODEL 456

Similar to Model 455 but with the following differences. The sensitivity on AC ranges is 1000 ohms per volt. Five DECIBEL ranges from -18 to +57 db are included. The instrument is frequency compensated for accuracy over the entire audio range.

### Phaotron Instrument and Electronics Co.

### PHAOSTRON MODEL 555

#### RANGES (43)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1500 volts in 7 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 10 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 15 amperes in 11 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 50 micro-amperes); AC CURRENT, 0 to 15 amperes in 8 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 1.5 milliamperes); DECIBELS, -10 to +56 db in 6 ranges.

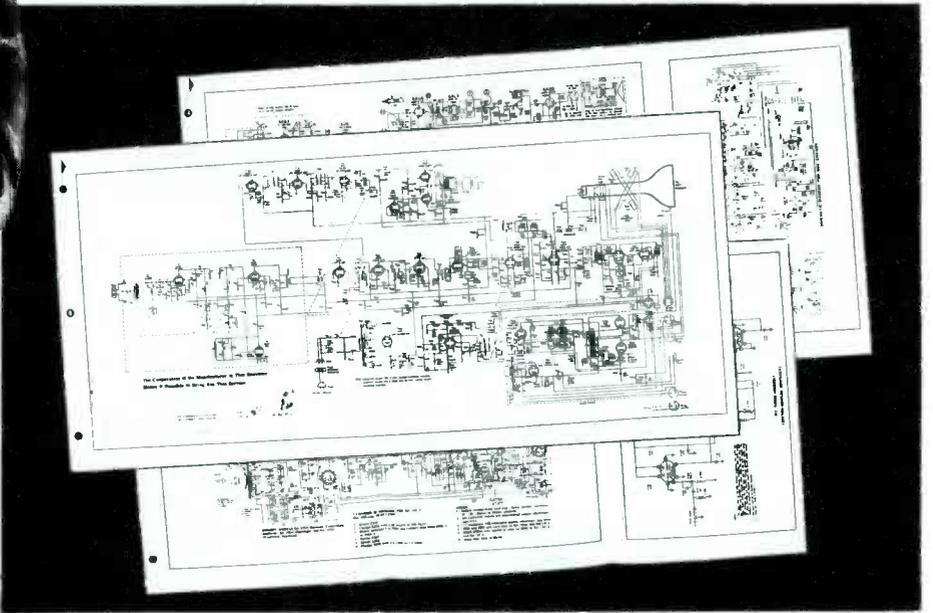
#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 2000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 4 7/8-inch meter scale; size of metal case, 6 1/8 by 4 5/8 by 2 1/8 inches. The function switch has a TRANSIT position in which a shunt is placed across the meter movement for protection during transportation.



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## Precision Apparatus Company, Inc.

### PRECISION SERIES 40

#### RANGES (31)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 6 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 5 megohms in 3 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 600 milliamperes in 4 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 0.6 milliampere); DECIBELS, -22 to +70 db in 6 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 400-microampere movement; 3-inch meter; size of case 3 3/4 by 6 1/4 by 2 1/2 inches.

### PRECISION SERIES 120

#### RANGES (44)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 8 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 20 megohms in 5 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 12 amperes in 7 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 60 microamperes); DECIBELS, -20 to +77 db in 8 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 40-microampere movement; 5 1/4-inch meter; size of case, 5 3/8 by 7 by 3 1/8 inches. The function switch has a TRANSIT position in which a shunt is placed across the meter movement for protection during transportation.

### PRECISION SERIES 858

#### RANGES (54)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 8 ranges at 20,000 ohms per volt and in 8 ranges at 1000 ohms per volt; AC and OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 8 ranges each at 1000 ohms per volt; RESISTANCE, 0 to 600 megohms in 6 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 12 amperes in 8 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 60 microamperes); DECIBELS, -26 to +70 db in 8 ranges.

#### OTHER FEATURES

Movement rated at 50 microamperes; 4 5/8-inch meter. Ranges are selected by push buttons rather than by rotary switches. The meter is available as Series 858-P and Series 858-L. Series 858-P is in a portable, hardwood case with a compartment for the test leads. The case is 9 by 10 by 4 1/2 inches. Series 858-L is in a Bakelite case measuring 7 1/2 by 8 1/2 by 3 inches.

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**KT-32 TRI-PLEX KIT**

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**KT-21 CONCERTO-15 KIT**  
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**KT-22 CONCERTO-12 KIT**

2-way system. Excellent performance in scaled-down size (recommended enclosure as small as 6 cu. ft.). Like KT-21 except 12" "woofer". 16 ohms. 25 watts. \$73.00



**KDU-10 TREASURE CHEST DUETTE KIT**  
2-way system. Special 8" "woofer", compression driver "tweeter" and frequency division for compact reproducer (1 1/2 cu. ft. Duette enclosure or 2 1/2 cu. ft. Bass-Ultraflex type.) Includes wiring materials. 8 ohms. 20 watts. \$24.75

**KDU-11 TABLE DUETTE KIT**

2-way system. Specially designed for chair side or table TV use. May also be used in 1 1/2 cu. ft. Duette enclosure. Heavy duty 6" x 9" "woofer", compression driver "tweeter", frequency division unit and wiring materials. 3-4 ohms. 20 watts. \$23.75



**KDU-12 BUDGET DUETTE KIT**  
2-way system. For maximum results at lowest cost. May be installed in table or 1 1/2 cu. ft. regular Duette or in 2 1/2 cu. ft. Bass-Ultraflex enclosures. 6" x 9" "woofer", direct radiator "tweeter", frequency dividing unit plus wiring materials. 3-4 ohms. 15 watts. \$10.50

**KTX-1 RANGE EXTENDER SUPERTWEETER KIT**

Adds smooth, clean highs from 4000-cycles to limits of audibility to any single unit, coaxial or 2-way system. Complete with crossover network, balance control and cable. For systems rated up to 35 watts. \$43.75



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## PRECISION SERIES 866

Similar to Series 858 but with the following differences: sensitivities for DC voltage, 5000 and 1000 ohms per volt; RESISTANCE, 0 to 200 megohms; lowest DC current range, 0 to 300 microamperes; 9-inch meter; the instrument is supplied in a standard panel mount 19 by 12 1/4 inches with dust cover.

### Simpson Electric Company

#### SIMPSON MODEL 221

#### RANGES (25)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 6 ranges each; OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 1000 volts in 5 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 20 megohms in 3 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 10 amperes in 5 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 100 microamperes).

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 1000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 5 1/2-inch meter; size of case, 12 3/4 by 10 1/8 by 5 5/8 inches. A different, full-length scale comes into view in the meter window when a different range is selected by means of the range switch. A compartment is provided in the case for the test leads.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 230

#### RANGES (12)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1000 volts in 4 ranges; AC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1000 volts in 3 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 100,000 ohms in 2 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 250 milliamperes in 3 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 10 milliamperes).

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt DC and 400 ohms per volt AC; 3-inch meter; size of case, 3 by 5 7/8 by 2 1/2 inches.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 240

#### RANGES (14)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 3000 volts in 5 ranges; AC VOLTAGE, 0 to 3000 volts in 4 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 300,000 ohms in 2 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 750 milliamperes in 3 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 15 milliamperes).

#### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 3-inch meter;

size of case, 3 by 5 7/8 by 2 1/2 inches.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 260

##### RANGES (30)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 6 ranges each; OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 1000 volts in 5 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 20 megohms in 3 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 10 amperes in 5 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 100 microamperes); DECIBELS, -12 to +55 db in 5 ranges.

##### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 1000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 4 1/2-inch meter; size of case, 5 1/4 by 7 by 3 1/8 inches. The rigid handle permits the meter to be propped to the best viewing angle.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 260RT

Electrically similar to the Model 260 but mounted in a roll-top safety case which has a compartment for storing the test leads.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 262

##### RANGES (33)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 4000 volts in 7 ranges; AC VOLTAGE, 0 to 800 volts in 5 ranges; OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 160 volts in 4 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 50 megohms in 6 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 16 amperes in 7 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 80 microamperes); DECIBELS, -12 to +45.5 db in 4 ranges.

##### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 7-inch meter; size of case, 7 15/16 by 6 by 2 15/16 inches.

#### SIMPSON MODEL 269

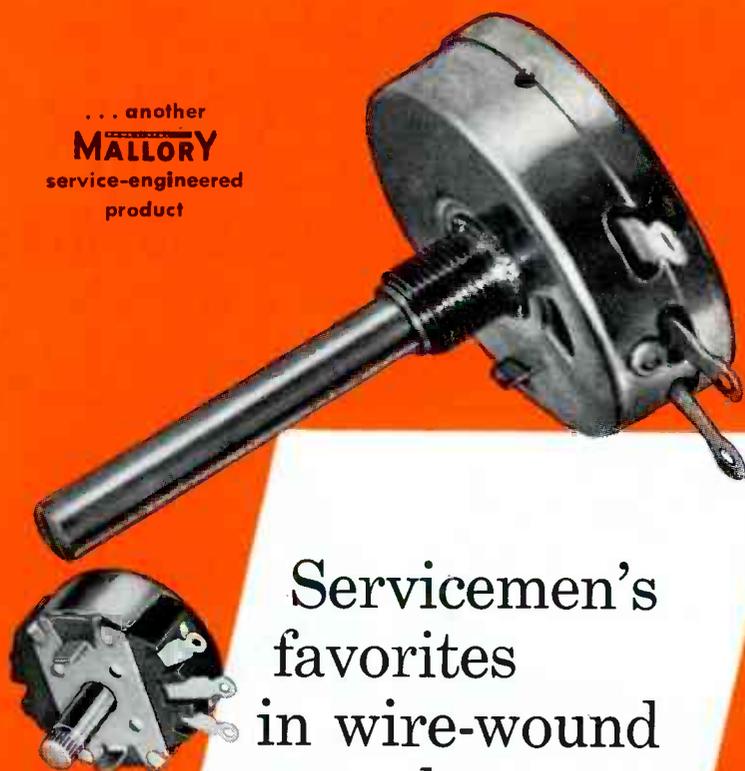
##### RANGES (33)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 4000 volts in 7 ranges; AC VOLTAGE, 0 to 800 volts in 5 ranges; OUTPUT VOLTAGE, 0 to 160 volts in 4 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 200 megohms in 6 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 16 amperes in 7 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 16 microamperes); DECIBELS, -12 to +45.5 db in 4 ranges.

##### OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 100,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC;

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service-engineered  
product



## Servicemen's favorites in wire-wound controls

You're sure of giving your customers the best when you use Mallory wire-wound controls. The choice of servicemen and manufacturers everywhere, they have set the standards of the industry for value and performance.

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**RELIABLE  
TV  
PERFORMANCE**

# AMPHENOL ACCESSORIES

7-inch meter; size of case, 7 15/16 by 6 by 2 15/16 inches.

SIMPSON MODEL 355

RANGES (14)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1200 volts in 5 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 10 megohms in 4 ranges.

OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 10,000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; size of case, 2 3/4 by 4 1/2 by 1 inches. Ranges are selected by placing the test leads into the proper jacks.

Triplet Electrical Instrument Co.

TRIPLETT MODEL 630

RANGES (34)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLT - AGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 6 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 100 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 12 amperes in 5 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 60 microamperes); DECIBELS, -30 to +70 db in 7 ranges.

OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 5 1/2-inch meter; size of case, 3 7/32 by 5 1/2 by 7 1/2 inches.

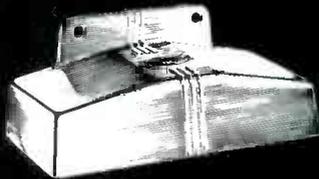
TRIPLETT MODEL 630NA

RANGES (70)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 8 ranges at 10,000 ohms per volt and 0 to 3000 volts in 8 ranges at 20,000 ohms per volt; AC VOLTAGE, 0 to 6000 volts in 6 ranges at 5000 ohms per volt and 0 to 3000 volts in 6 ranges at 10,000 ohms per volt; OUTPUT VOLTAGE, same as AC VOLTAGE ranges but with series capacitor added; RESISTANCE, 0 to 100 megohms in 6 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 12 amperes in 12 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 60 microamperes); DECIBELS, -30 to +70 db in 12 ranges.

OTHER FEATURES

Size of case, 3 5/16 by 5 1/2 by 7 1/2 inches; 5 1/2-inch meter. Meter movement is protected against being overloaded. The instrument is frequency compensated from 35 cps to



TELE-COUPLERS

## TELE-COUPLERS

For effective coupling to one antenna in multiple-set installations, Tele-Couplers are a 'natural' for plus sales with the present trend toward two set families. Network is in an all weather protective case—may be mounted indoors or outdoors. UHF, VHF, VHF/UHF, FM.

114-088 2 SET TELE-COUPLER List \$3.75  
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Combine different frequency antennas into a single down-lead with an AMPHENOL Isonet, Duonet or Trisonet. Isonet: VHF/UHF; Duonet: Lo-VHF/Hi-VHF; Trisonet: Lo-VHF/Hi-VHF/UHF. All in durable, protective cases for mast mounting. Lowest-loss performance.

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ISOLATING NETWORKS

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Interference below 50 mc which appears on the set as tearing lines, herringbone or dark bands will be eliminated with the AMPHENOL High Pass Filter. Easily attached, this accessory has been used to clear up low frequency interference in thousands of installations.

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EXTRA VALUE AT NO EXTRA COST! This amazing new capacitor — that meets specifications so tough that no previously existing paper tubular could approach them—is a *premium* tubular at the price of an ordinary one. See your Sangamo Distributor today!

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## **SAHARA-PACK!**

ALL-WEATHER, LOW-VOLTAGE STARTS! New dry-air canning developed by Vokar reduces moisture inside vibrator during manufacture. Moisture cannot condense on tungsten points causing corrosion during shipping or storage.

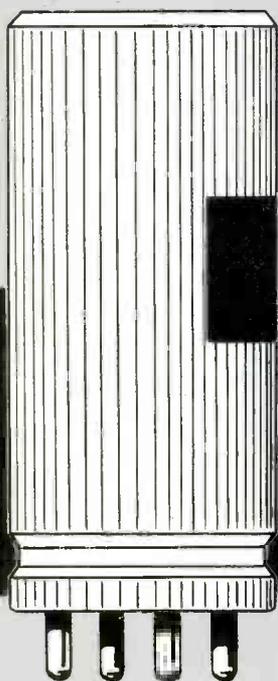
## **VAPOR-BLOCK COATING!**

NO EARLY-LIFE FAILURES! Applied to points by hand, Vapor-Block Coating eliminates pitting and arcing during vital first hours of vibrator operation. Result: Sure Starts! Longer Life! Higher Output!

## **SWING-SUSPENSION!**

SUPER-SILENT PERFORMANCE! Noise level is reduced to absolute minimum — whisper quiet! No hum to affect radio performance. Swing-Suspension design also means less hash, less heat!

VOKAR VIBRATORS — preferred by leading manufacturers of auto radios.



### **VOKAR QUALITY BRAND VIBRATORS\***

Produced under the same quality conditions that made Imperial quality famous!

\*Unpackaged



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# VOKAR

**VOKAR CORPORATION**

**DEXTER 3, MICHIGAN**

20 kilocycles on all ranges up to and including the 300-volt range.

## **TRIPLETT MODEL 631**

RANGES (31)

AC, DC, and OUTPUT VOLT - AGE, 0 to 1200 volts in 5 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 150 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 12 amperes in 6 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 60 microamperes); DECIBELS, -30 to +56 db in 6 ranges.

### **OTHER FEATURES**

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; 5 1/2-inch meter; size of case, 3 7/32 by 5 1/2 by 7 1/2 inches. This instrument also functions as a battery-operated VTVM. The VTVM specifications will be discussed at a later date in a coverage of VTVM's.

## **TRIPLETT MODEL 666R**

RANGES (16)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 5000 volts in 5 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 3 megohms in 3 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 1 ampere in 3 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 10 milliamperes).

### **OTHER FEATURES**

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt for AC or DC voltage; 3-inch meter; size of case, 3 1/16 by 5 7/8 by 2 9/16 inches.

## **TRIPLETT MODEL 310**

RANGES (23)

AC and DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 1200 volts in 5 ranges each; RESISTANCE, 0 to 20 megohms in 4 ranges; DC CURRENT, 0 to 600 milliamperes in 4 ranges (lowest range, 0 to 600 microamperes); DECIBELS, -30.8 to +56.8 in 5 ranges.

### **OTHER FEATURES**

Sensitivity, 20,000 ohms per volt DC and 5000 ohms per volt AC; 50-microampere movement; size of case, 2 3/4 by 4 1/4 by 1 3/16 inches. Ranges are selected by a lever switch. The meter is internally shielded against RF fields.

Weston Electrical Instrument Corp.

WESTON MODEL 564, TYPE 3-C

RANGES (8)

DC VOLTAGE, 0 to 600 volts in 4 ranges; RESISTANCE, 0 to 1 megohm in 4 ranges.

OTHER FEATURES

Sensitivity, 1000 ohms per volt; size of case, 5 33/64 by 3 45/64 by 2 9/16 inches. The ranges are selected by placing the test leads into the proper jacks.

In addition to the specifications for each model listed, there will be other points which the prospective owner can check by direct examination of the instrument at the parts distributor. He can see how the general appearance of the instrument will fit in with the appearance of the equipment which he already has; he can get a good idea of the quality of the construction of the instrument; and he has a chance to operate the controls, to check the position of jacks, and to see the type of connectors used on the test leads.

When the technician goes shopping for a multimeter, he might evaluate his requirements in the following manner. For general-purpose work in low-impedance circuits, a meter with moderate sensitivity and relatively few ranges might be satisfactory. If the meter is to be used in certain industrial applications for which it must be carried about a great deal, a good carrying case is important and the meter itself must be rugged enough to stand up under hard use. Some types of meter cases have straps or belt loops which permit the user to have both hands free to operate the meter controls and the equipment that is being serviced.

If the meter is to be used in high-impedance circuits, a high sensitivity is desirable so that the circuits will not be excessively loaded. A microampere range would be necessary for measuring low current values such as the value of the beam current in a TV picture tube. A high current range of approximately ten amperes would be useful to the technician who works with automobile radios; and if he intends to service audio equipment, he will be interested in the decibel and output ranges and in the response of the meter to audio frequencies.

PAUL C. SMITH

January, 1956 - PF REPORTER

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- Makes complete tube test in as little as 12 seconds per tube—faster than any other tester!
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- Laboratory accuracy right in the home! Large 4½" plastic meter has two scales calibrated 0-6,000 and 0-18,000 micromhos.
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**Tests over 95%**  
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Handsome, rugged, luggage style carrying case, covered in durable, black leatherette. Removable slip-hinged cover. Size: 15½ x 14½ x 5¾ in. For 105-125 volts, 60 cycle, A.C. Net wt. 12 lbs.

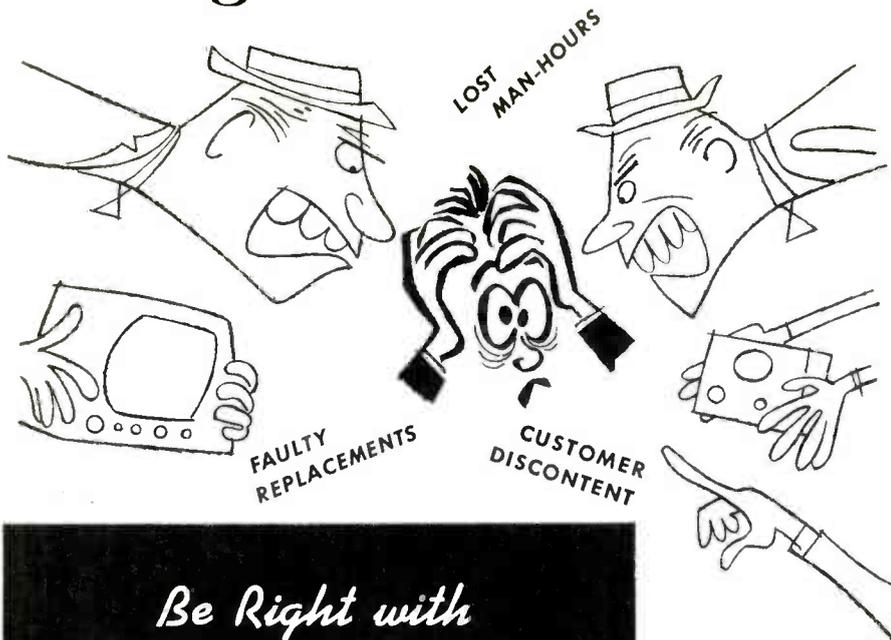
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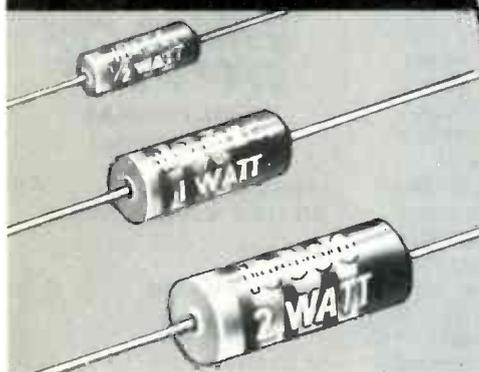
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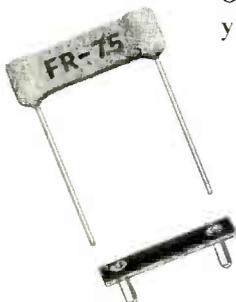
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**BROWN DEVIL® RESISTORS**  
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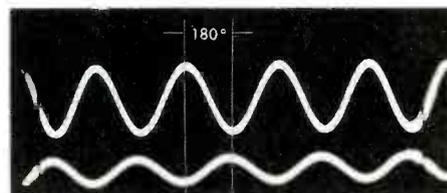
OHMITE MANUFACTURING COMPANY  
3644 Howard St., Skokie, Ill.  
(Suburb of Chicago)

## Voltage Phases in Transformers

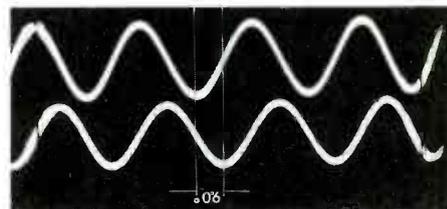
(Continued from page 23)

and the secondary voltage will remain unchanged.

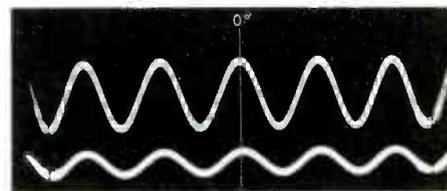
The preceding description applies to a transformer in which the two coils are wound in the same direction and placed side by side on the coil form and in which the "start" and "finish" leads of both coils are connected as shown in Fig. 1. If the leads to the B-channel of the switch were interchanged, the secondary voltage would appear to lead the primary voltage by 90 degrees when the input is at the resonant frequency.



(A) With an Input of 179 Kilocycles.



(B) With an Input of 175 Kilocycles (Resonant Frequency).



(C) With an Input of 171 Kilocycles.

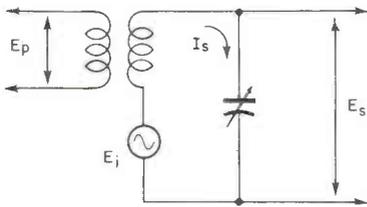
**Fig. 2. Waveforms Showing Voltage Phases in a Tuned Transformer.**

At an input frequency somewhat higher than resonance, the two voltages would be in phase; and at an input frequency somewhat lower than resonance, they would be 180 degrees out of phase.

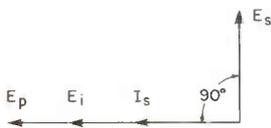
A grounded center tap can be added to the secondary winding in order to permit two output voltages of opposite polarity to be obtained. At the resonant frequency, one voltage will lag the primary voltage by 90 degrees and the other will lead by 90 degrees. The internal connections of the secondary winding determine which output will lead and which one will lag.

The complex behavior which produces this variable phase shift in a tuned transformer will be more easily explained with the aid of the vector diagrams of Fig. 3. The connections of the transformer are as they were in Fig. 1, and therefore the secondary voltage will lag the primary voltage when the transformer is tuned to resonance.

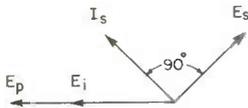
The phase of the vector for the primary voltage  $E_p$  will be taken as the reference phase in each diagram, and the vector will always be shown pointing to the left along a horizontal axis. Clockwise shift of the vectors will represent a lag in time.



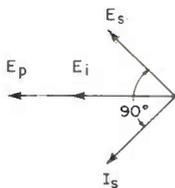
(A) Circuit.



(B) Input Frequency Is Equal to Resonant Frequency.



(C) Input Frequency Is Higher Than Resonant Frequency.



(D) Input Frequency Is Lower Than Resonant Frequency.

**Fig. 3. Equivalent Circuit of a Tuned Transformer and Vector Diagrams for Different Input Frequencies.**

A voltage is induced in the secondary winding of the transformer by the magnetic field which is developed by the flow of electrons in the primary; and when the transformer is connected as it is in this case, the induced voltage  $E_i$  is in phase with the primary voltage  $E_p$ .

The secondary winding and the capacitor across its terminals may be

# HICKOK

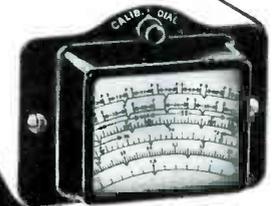


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**MODEL 690  
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Has crystal controlled frequency coverage from 4.25 to 225 MC, all on fundamentals. Provides dual markers with any TV Sweep Generator. The 45 inches of dial can easily be self-calibrated to within crystal accuracy (.05%). Features picture and sound frequencies directly calibrated on the dial. There is no counting of beats—no interpolation—no remembering of frequencies. Has complete RF coverage up through channel 83. Through use of the 690 it is now possible to view two markers at once on the response curve.

**300%  
MAGNIFICATION**



This unit features another HICKOK FIRST—A Non-Parallax shadow type dial provides a 300% magnification of scale, permitting exact settings for most accurate readings, and can be viewed from any angle without error.

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For Black & White or Color



**MODEL 691  
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This unit heterodynes the outputs of the 690 and 695 so as to prevent overloading. The 691 provides a marker visible at all times (including trap points) and will not change in amplitude or distort the response curve.



**MODEL 695  
SWEEP GENERATOR:**

A completely new All-Electronic Sweep Generator. There are no moving parts to produce vibration or to wear out. This unit features a sweep signal that is absolutely linear and without amplitude modulations.

The 695 is triple shielded to insure minimum leakage. Signal can be attenuated to 3 microvolts. Bias voltage is variable from 0 to 12 volts. Extra strong signal permits accurate front-end alignment.

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considered as a small, self-contained circuit which is series resonant. The voltage generated in the secondary winding by the magnetic field is not the output voltage. Instead, the induced voltage  $E_i$  generates a current  $I_s$  within the resonant circuit. This current charges the capacitor, and the voltage developed across the capacitor is the output voltage  $E_s$ .

When the frequency of the primary voltage  $E_p$  is equal to the resonant frequency of the tuned circuit in the secondary, the inductive and capacitive reactances are cancelled within the tuned circuit. Then the impedance of the secondary circuit is purely resistive; and the current  $I_s$  will be in phase with the induced voltage  $E_i$ , as shown in Fig. 3B. Since the voltage across a capacitor lags by 90 degrees the current which produces it, the output voltage  $E_s$  will lag  $I_s$  by that amount; therefore,  $E_s$  will also lag  $E_i$  and  $E_p$  by 90 degrees.

When the frequency of the primary voltage  $E_p$  is higher than the resonant frequency of the secondary circuit, the inductive reactance within the secondary circuit is greater than the capacitive reactance. The current  $I_s$  therefore lags the voltage  $E_i$  by some angle. The voltage  $E_s$  still lags  $I_s$  by 90 degrees, and therefore  $E_s$  lags  $E_i$  and  $E_p$  by more than 90 degrees. These phase relationships are shown in Fig. 3C.

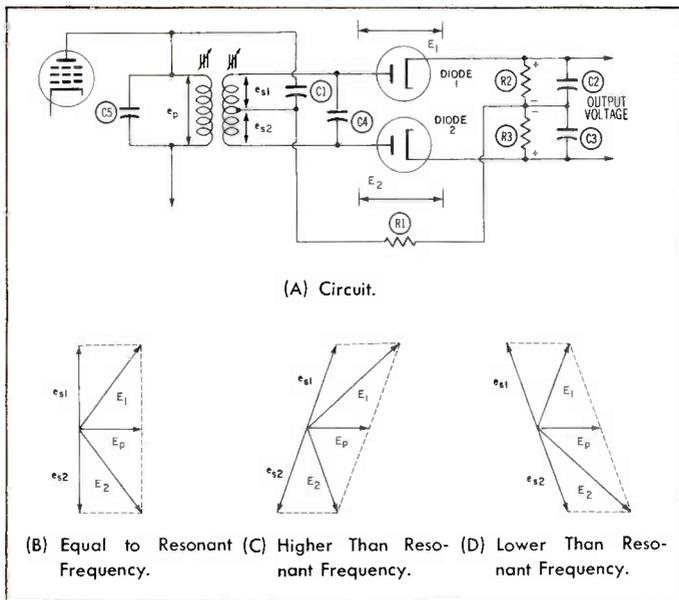
The greater the difference between the frequency of voltage  $E_p$  and the resonant frequency of the transformer, the more nearly inductive the secondary circuit becomes. The phase difference between  $E_p$  and  $E_s$  rapidly reaches 180 degrees as the frequency of  $E_p$  is increased.

If the frequency of  $E_p$  is lower than the resonant frequency of the transformer, the results diagrammed in Fig. 3D will be produced. The reactance of the secondary circuit becomes capacitive, and  $I_s$  leads  $E_i$ . The voltage  $E_s$  lags  $I_s$  as before, and  $E_s$  therefore lags  $E_i$  and  $E_p$  by an angle which is less than 90 degrees. This angle eventually becomes zero degrees.

#### Discriminator

The phase shift produced by changes in frequency is the basis of the Foster-Seeley type of discriminator used to demodulate FM signals. A schematic diagram of a typical Foster-Seeley circuit is shown in Fig. 4A.

The secondary winding of the discriminator is tuned and is center-



**Fig. 4. Foster-Seeley Discriminator and Vector Diagrams for Different Input Frequencies.**

tapped in order that two induced voltages  $e_{s1}$  and  $e_{s2}$ , each with a phase difference of 90 degrees with respect to the primary voltage, may be obtained. The center tap is also connected to the primary circuit through the DC blocking capacitor C1. This connection supplies a reference voltage that is a sample of the primary voltage. The capacitively coupled voltage is not shifted in phase because the reactance of the capacitor is extremely low at the frequency of the primary voltage.

The voltage  $E_1$  or  $E_2$  which is fed to each diode is the vectorial sum of the reference voltage plus the induced voltage in the half of the secondary winding connected to that diode. The manner in which these voltages add is illustrated by the vectors in Figs. 4B, 4C, and 4D. The vector of the reference voltage is shown pointing to the right along a horizontal axis. Counterclockwise rotation of the vectors represents an advance in time.

When the incoming signal is at the resonant frequency of the secondary circuit, the voltage  $e_{s1}$  leads the primary reference voltage  $e_p$  by 90 degrees, and voltage  $e_{s2}$  lags  $e_p$  by 90 degrees. See Fig. 4B. The resultant voltages  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  at the plates of the diodes are equal in amplitude. The diodes conduct equally, and the positive voltage across R2 in the cathode circuit of one diode is equal to the negative voltage across R3 in the cathode circuit of the other diode. The audio-output voltage of the discriminator is taken across R2 and R3 in series and is zero.

The leading phase angle of voltage  $e_{s1}$  is decreased when the incoming frequency increases; and

at the same time, the lagging phase angle of voltage  $e_{s2}$  is increased. Voltage  $E_1$  is larger than  $E_2$  (as shown in Fig. 4C), diode 1 conducts more than diode 2, and the drop across R2 is greater than that across R3; therefore, the output voltage is positive.

A decrease in the input frequency causes voltage  $e_{s1}$  to lead  $e_p$  by a larger angle and causes  $e_{s2}$  to lag  $e_p$  by less than 90 degrees. See Fig. 4D. Diode 2 will conduct more heavily, and the output voltage will be negative.

The frequency of the primary voltage  $e_p$  varies at an audio rate during frequency modulation. It swings equally above and below the resonant frequency of the transformer. The degree of frequency change determines the degree of amplitude of the demodulated signal because the conduction of the diodes is most unequal when  $e_p$  is farthest off resonance. The more unequal the

conduction, the greater the difference voltage across R2 and R3.

The ratio detector, another FM detector circuit, differs from the discriminator in the arrangement of the diodes and the load resistors; but it is very much like the discriminator with regard to the operation of the transformer.

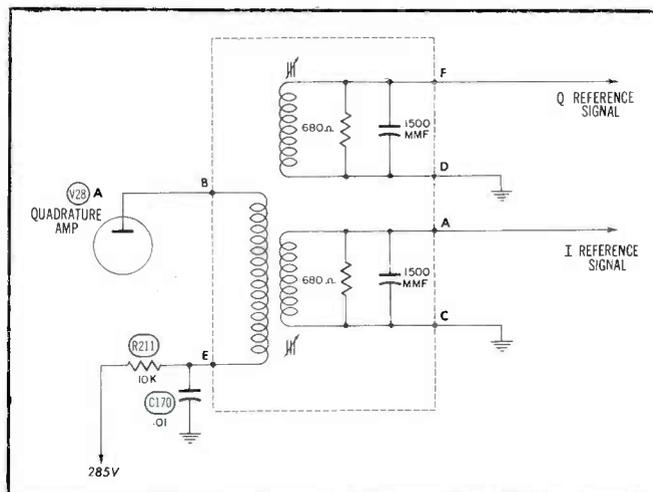
The gated-beam discriminator, the most recently designed type of FM detector, includes a tuned circuit called the quadrature coil which is physically very different from the transformer in the conventional detector circuits. Its function is nevertheless similar to that of the transformer. The changes in phase of the voltage across the tuned circuit indirectly produce variations in the audio output.

### Quadrature Transformer

Another interesting usage of the phase shift across a resonant transformer is in color television. The output of the 3.58-mc local oscillator in the chrominance section of the receiver has to be converted into two voltages which are 90 degrees out of phase. These two voltages are used as CW reference signals for the demodulation of the chrominance portion of the color signal.

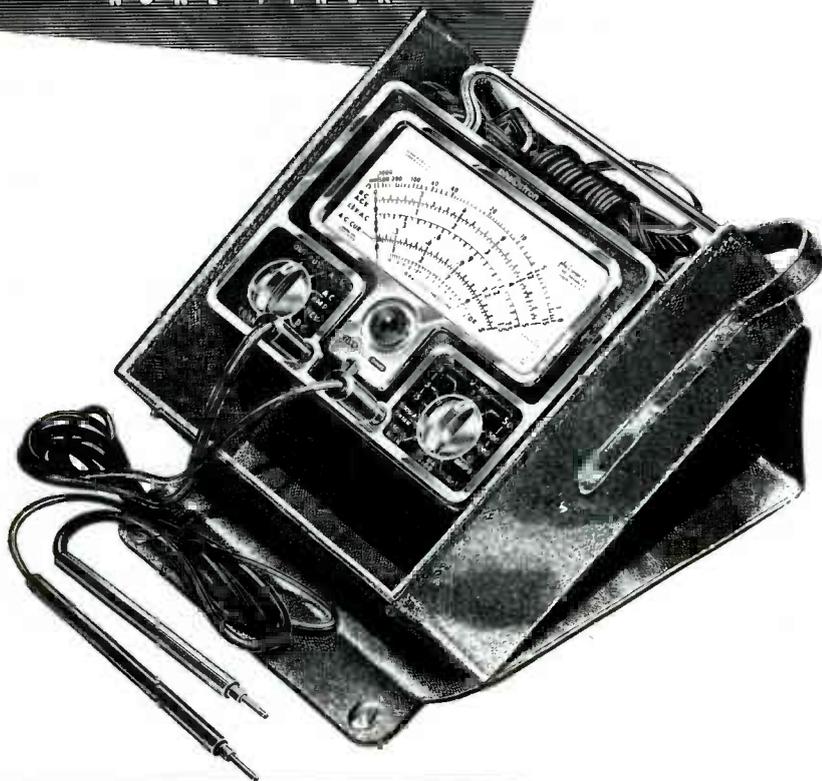
A component known as a quadrature transformer produces the required phase shift. This transformer is shown schematically in Fig. 6 as it is used in the RCA Victor Model CT-100 color receiver. The primary winding of this transformer is part of the plate circuit of the quadrature amplifier V28A which stage is driven by the 3.58-mc oscillator. The I winding of the transformer is made up of ten turns of wire wound directly over the primary winding and tightly coupled to it. The Q winding is identical to the I winding, but it is wound on the coil

**Fig. 5. Circuit of Quadrature Transformer in RCA Victor Model CT-100 Color Receiver.**



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form at some distance from the primary winding. As a result, the Q winding is loosely coupled to the primary winding. A tuning slug is inserted into each end of the coil form; the bottom slug tunes the I winding, and the top slug tunes the Q winding.

During the alignment of the color receiver, the quadrature transformer is tuned as though it were made up of two separate transformers. One transformer is composed of the primary and I windings, and the other is composed of the I and Q windings. The I winding acts as the secondary of the first transformer and as the primary of the second transformer.

The bottom slug for the I winding is first adjusted for maximum voltage across the I winding. In a conventional type of tuned transformer, the phase of the signal in the secondary winding would shift with respect to the phase of the signal in the primary while the winding was being tuned; but in the quadrature transformer, the phase of the signal in the I winding is kept from shifting by the action of the feedback loop composed of the phase detector, the reactance tube, and the 3.58-mc oscillator. While the I winding is being tuned, it can be observed that the hues in the color picture do not change. This is visual evidence of the fact that the phase of the I signal does not shift.

After the bottom slug has been adjusted, the top slug is rotated until a dip occurs in the voltage across the I winding. This dip corresponds to a maximum transfer of energy from the I winding to the Q winding, and it occurs when the Q winding is tuned to the resonant frequency of 3.58 megacycles. At this condition of resonance, the Q voltage lags the I voltage by 90 degrees. If the Q winding is not correctly tuned, the phase difference between the I and Q signals will be other than 90 degrees — anything from zero to 180 degrees, depending upon the setting of the upper tuning slug.

A slight adjustment of the Q slug causes a radical change in the hues of the color picture. The great variety of hues are visual evidence of the changing phase relationship between the I signal and Q signal as the Q winding is tuned through resonance. Unless the phase of the Q signal is maintained at 90 degrees behind the phase of the I signal, it is impossible to have correct color rendition.

by **THOMAS A. LESH**

## Interference Rejection

(Continued from page 15)

So far, our discussion has dealt with the problem of rejecting signals that lie outside the desired band or channel. Although in some instances these signals can be particularly troublesome, the interference signals that are most difficult to eliminate are those that occur at the same frequencies as the wanted signal. The most common of these are reflected signals and co-channel interference. At first glance, it would seem that nothing could be done to eliminate such unwanted signals because they occur at the same frequencies as the wanted signal. How can the receiver or antenna determine which signal is preferred by the viewer?

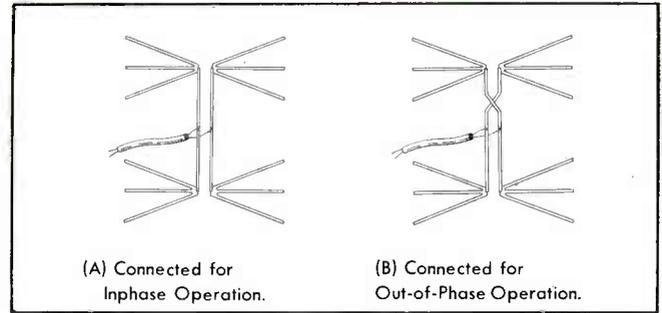
The majority of all interference signals are man made. Ignition, motor, and neon-sign noises are obviously in this category. Although co-channel, adjacent-channel, and most reflected signals are usually not considered as man-made interference, they actually are. All of these interference signals will arrive at an antenna from fixed directions (provided that the source is not moving, of course). The same can be said of wanted signals. This important characteristic makes possible the construction of an antenna system that will discriminate against unwanted interference.

One such system is an antenna which has a high front-to-back ratio to eliminate unwanted signals coming in on the back side of the antenna. Another system is an antenna which has a narrow horizontal-directivity pattern to eliminate reflected signals. Although these systems are effective in many instances, there are cases in which a more flexible system is desired. A highly desirable system would be one which would eliminate an interference signal regardless of its approach angle with respect to the wanted signal.

### I.R.I.S.

A system which will select and cancel an interference signal has been developed and is being marketed by the Holloway Electronics Corporation. The system is termed I.R.I.S. (Infinite Rejection Interference System) and utilizes a unique phasing arrangement between two identical antennas that are vertically stacked. Rejection of a signal by this system requires that the signal delivered to the transmission line by one antenna must be equal in amplitude but 180 degrees out of phase with the signal delivered to the transmission line by the second antenna.

Fig. 1. Front Views of Stacked Antennas



The phasing harness used in this system is not connected in the same manner as the conventional stacking harness. The normal connection between stacked antennas and the transmission line is shown in Fig. 1A. The connection shown in Fig. 1B is the one used in the I.R.I.S. Note that the leads between the two antennas are transposed and that the feed point for the transmission line is at the center of the stacking harness. Many installers have no doubt inadvertently connected stacked antennas in this manner only to find that all signals were canceled stacked of the improper connection. How then can this system work if all signals are canceled?

The secret lies in the fact that the two antennas are not pointed in the same direction. In fact, the antennas are so arranged that one can be rotated while the other remains stationary! Fig. 2 shows the arrangement that was used by our field crew when the system was field tested. Although it seems fantastic that such a method of operation could be normal, a discussion of a practical application should prove helpful in understanding the theory of operation of the system.

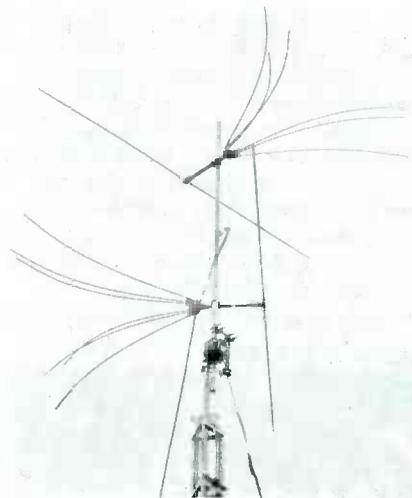
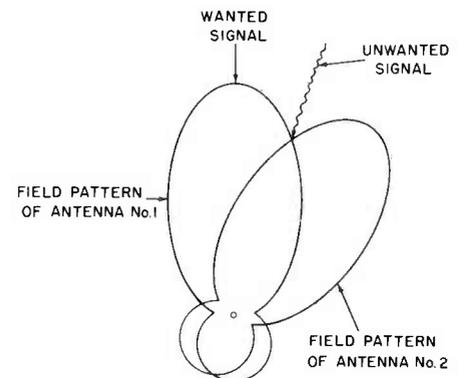


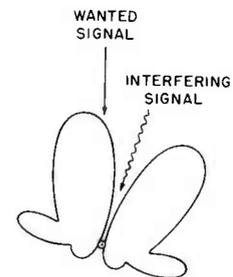
Fig. 2. Holloway EXPO-I.R.I.S. Model XO2R Antenna With Mounting Brackets and Stacking Harness Installed for I.R.I.S. Operation.

### Rejection of Reflected Signals

The problem of rejecting an unwanted reflected signal is encountered very frequently. Let us assume that certain conditions exist and see how the system under discussion could be employed to eliminate the interference.



(A) Individual Antenna Patterns.



(B) Resultant Pattern.

Fig. 3. Field Patterns of Antennas Positioned So That They Will Reject a Certain Unwanted Signal.

Fig. 3A illustrates the path of the wanted signal as well as the path of the unwanted signal. The field patterns of the two antennas are also shown. Note that antenna No. 1 is positioned so that maximum pickup of the wanted signal will be obtained. This constitutes the first step.

The next step involves the rotation of antenna No. 2 so that the unwanted signal will be rejected. Such a condition will result with antenna No. 2 positioned as shown in Fig. 3A. The unwanted signal is being picked up by both antennas. The sig-

nal voltages produced at the terminals of both antennas are of equal amplitude, and these voltages are of the same polarity because the unwanted signal is arriving on the front side of each antenna. Because of the fact that the antennas are connected together in an out-of-phase condition, the unwanted signal is canceled out.

Let us consider what happens to the wanted signal. This signal is shown coming in on the main lobe of antenna No. 1; therefore, maximum gain in this antenna will result. This same signal will also be picked up by antenna No. 2; but because antenna No. 2 is not aimed directly at the

source of the wanted signal, less gain will result. Because of the fact that the signal voltage contributed from antenna No. 2 is out of phase with that from antenna No. 1, some cancellation will result. The difference in amplitudes of the signals developed, in this particular instance, on the two antennas is the resultant amplitude. In order to understand more clearly how the wanted signal is picked up by the antenna and how the unwanted signal is rejected, let us analyze the resultant field pattern of the two antennas.

Fig. 3B is the resultant field pattern of the two antennas when they

are positioned as shown in Fig. 3A. Note that the wanted signal is picked up on one of the major lobes and that the unwanted signal is rejected because of the sharp null in the field pattern. It should be kept in mind that the null can be made to appear at any point in the pattern by rotation of one antenna with respect to the other. There are, in effect, an infinite number of resultant field patterns that can be obtained with the system.

### Rejection of Co-Channel Signals

Another trouble that is frequently encountered is co-channel interference. Fig. 4 illustrates the field patterns of the two antennas in this system when the antennas are positioned to reject a particular co-channel signal. Note that the unwanted signal arrives on the back side of each antenna and produces voltages of equal amplitude and phase in both antennas. Because of the out-of-phase connection between the two antennas, however, the unwanted signal is rejected before it is fed to the transmission line. Adjacent-channel signals and other controlled RF transmissions can also be rejected in the same manner.

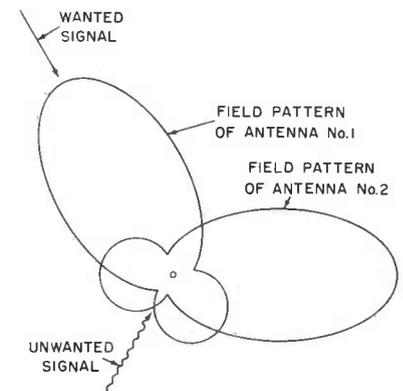


Fig. 4. Field Patterns of Antennas Arranged So That Interference From the Back Will Be Rejected.

### Rejection of Other Interference Signals

Interference caused by diathermy machines, induction furnaces, neon signs, and other fixed sources of noise can be rejected by the use of this antenna system. This is accomplished by positioning the antennas so that the wanted signal will be received and the noise will be canceled in the same manner as that described for co-channel and reflected signals.

The fixed antenna (antenna No. 1 in Figs. 3 and 4) can also be used to cancel a signal. For example,

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Fig. 5. Installing Antennas and Harness on Mast Assembly. ▲



Fig. 6. Attaching Mast Assembly to Tower. ▶

in a certain receiving location there may be a signal which produces interference on one channel only. At the time of installation, the antenna which is fixed in its position can be set to cancel the interference when this channel is being received. The second antenna can then be rotated for best reception when other channels are desired. From the standpoint of signal reception, it makes no difference which antenna is receiving the desired signal because the two are identical; but the placement of the fixed antenna is important inasmuch as interference cancellation is produced by the combined effects of both antennas.

There are three possible ways of installing the I.R.I.S. They are: (1) fixed mounting of both antennas, (2) fixed mounting of one antenna and the use of a rotator for the other one, and (3) the use of two rotators, one for each antenna.

The first method could be employed when only one interfering signal is encountered and when adequate pickup of all wanted signals is possible. The second method is desirable when greater flexibility is needed because of the presence of more than one interfering signal or because of the need for greater gain for a particular wanted signal. The third method provides for greatest flexibility because an infinite number of resultant field patterns are possible.

Actually, there is a fourth way of mounting the antennas whereby the two antennas are permanently positioned on a single rotating mast.

This method, however, does not provide the flexibility of the second and third methods which were previously described.

#### Our Field Tests of I.R.I.S.

Although the theory upon which the I.R.I.S. is based seemed perfectly feasible to us, we wanted to check firsthand the results that could be obtained with the system. Two antennas, a phasing harness, and two brackets for mounting the antennas were supplied to us by Holloway Electronics Corporation; and we proceeded to conduct a series of field tests. The pictures shown in Figs. 5 and 6 were taken at one of the test locations.

Fig. 5 shows the crew in the process of installing the antennas and harness on the mast assembly. During the tests, a single rotator was used to rotate the top antenna. This accounts for the apparent misalignment of the two antennas. Fig. 6 shows the mast assembly being attached to the tower. The brackets and short mast which can be seen near the rotator hold the sleeve to which the lower antenna is attached. The mast on which the upper antenna is mounted passes through the sleeve and into the rotator.

Our tests showed that nearly all forms of radiated signals picked up by the antenna elements could be rejected through the use of one or more combinations of antenna positions. One of the tests involved the rejection of adjacent-channel interference. The lower antenna was

headed toward a distant channel-5 station. The local channel-6 station created a great amount of interference which prevented satisfactory reception of channel 5. The top antenna was rotated, and at one point the local channel-6 interference was eliminated. Although channel 5 was very weak, an acceptable picture was obtained after the interference was eliminated.

For another test, we set up at a location where a ghost signal was present. We were able to rotate one antenna and to eliminate the ghost completely. At still another location, it was found that two different stations on the same channel were being received simultaneously. By rotating the antenna, we were able to select either signal without interference from the other.

During the tests, it was found that strong local interference was sometimes picked up on the lead-in. In order that the system could be checked properly, we twisted the lead-in to reduce this pickup. It should be kept in mind that the I.R.I.S. will reject only those signals which are induced in the antenna elements.

The field tests of this system were considered to be successful inasmuch as it was possible to reject many types of interference; moreover, the assembling and operation of the antennas did not prove to be highly involved. The I.R.I.S. can be used in all locations where the elimination of interference is needed.

GEORGE B. MANN

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## A New Development in Color Picture Tubes

(Continued from page 25)

mental stages. This tube is referred to as the "P.O.F." tube. These letters stand for "phosphor on the face plate." The main difference in the two types of tubes is that, in the P.O.F. tube, the phosphor stripes are placed directly on the face plate. The grille wires may either be fastened to a ledge which is formed on the face plate (as shown in Fig. 1) or may be mounted on a lightweight frame which can be placed behind the face plate as a subassembly.

### Operational Theory

In normal operation, the cone and the final electrode of each gun are held at a potential of about 6 1/2 kilovolts and the grille is held at a potential that is approximately 200 volts lower than 6 1/2 kilovolts. The phosphor screen has a potential of approximately 25 kilovolts.

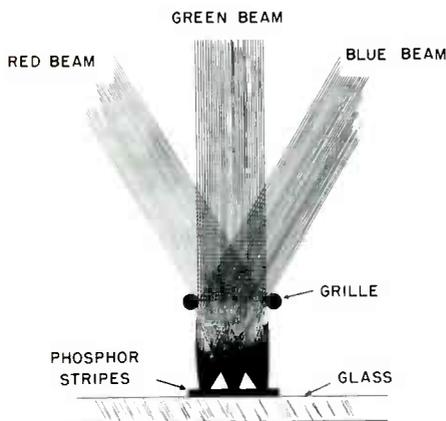
Because the beams are accelerated after the point of deflection, the deflection requirements are not so rigid as they are in the shadow-mask tube. Since the final gun electrodes and the cone are at a potential of only 6 1/2 kilovolts, much less power is needed for deflection in the post-acceleration tube than in the shadow-mask tube which has a 25-kv beam. The required deflection power is cut approximately in half, and therefore the physical size of the yoke is greatly reduced.

As the electron beams enter the region of the grille, two effects take place. First, the central portion of each beam no longer travels in a straight line but assumes a parabolic path. Second, a focusing action takes place. These effects are illustrated in Fig. 2. It should be pointed out that several artistic liberties were taken in the drawing of Fig. 2 so that the beams in the region of the grille could be shown better. For instance, the angular separation of the beams entering the grille is actually less than 1 degree although it is shown larger in the figure.

The trajectories of the beams are changed when they pass through the grille because of the increased attraction of the potential of the phosphor screen. This action can be compared to that of a ball which has been thrown. The ball travels in a straight line until it is acted upon by the gravitational force of the earth. When this happens, the ball follows a parabolic path to the ground.

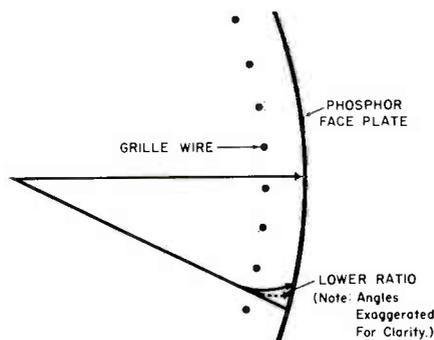
With the proper potentials applied, each pair of grille wires forms

an electron lens which is cylindrical and through which the electrons pass. This lens has the effect of reducing the size of the beam in the horizontal dimension. The beam is reduced in width by a factor of approximately seven. The focusing action causes the width of the beam to be much smaller than the width of the phosphor stripe. A guard band is therefore formed on either side of the landing area of the beam, and these guard bands allow the beam to move about on a particular stripe without striking an adjacent stripe. Color purity, therefore, can be maintained quite easily. The wide guard bands permit increased allowances in the mechanical tolerances during manufacture and in the electrical tolerances during operation.



**Fig. 2. Drawing Showing How the Beams Are Acted Upon When They Enter the Grille Region.**

Since no vertical focusing is obtained by the action of the grille wires, vertical resolution in the picture is governed by the size of the beam before it reaches the grille. A new gun structure capable of producing the required current with the desired beam size has been produced.



**Fig. 3. Drawing Showing the Effect of a Change in the Ratio of the Screen Voltage to the Grille Voltage.**

The drawing in Fig. 3 shows more clearly the trajectories of the

electrons between the grille and the screen and also shows one of the new circuit requirements of the post-acceleration tube. It is not only necessary to have a high voltage for the screen, but it is also necessary to apply a lower voltage to the grille. This low voltage is not difficult to obtain because the grille draws little current. The absolute magnitudes of the screen and grille voltages are of little consequence as long as the ratio between them is correct; therefore, the ratio between the two voltages must be regulated. The trajectories of the electrons between the grille and the screen as well as the properties of the cylindrical lenses mentioned earlier are dependent upon this ratio. A tube has been developed for the purpose of this regulation, and the regulation should be good to within 5 per cent of the ratio to which the tube itself is designed.

The problem of convergence is of major concern in any picture tube that employs three electron guns. A gun assembly which places the three beams in essentially the same plane has theoretical and practical advantages as far as convergence is concerned. It is necessary to apply convergence dynamically at both the horizontal and vertical rates, but a complete separation of functions is possible with the single-plane construction. In the case of the triangular gun construction, the beams are interdependent. With the three beams in the same plane, the two outside beams can be varied with respect to the center beam. It is possible to move the beams electrostatically or electromagnetically in both directions, horizontally and vertically. Combinations are also possible. For instance, the receiver that was demonstrated in the progress report employed electrostatic dynamic convergence in the horizontal and vertical planes and electromagnetic static positioning in the horizontal plane. Fewer convergence controls are needed for the post-acceleration tube, and the number of critical convergence adjustments is therefore low.

In the post-acceleration tube, there is a loss of contrast produced by secondary electrons which hit the screen in a random manner and which cause the excitation of a white background. This action results from the post-acceleration principles involved and from the fact that only a single grille is used. The contrast is greatly improved by sacrificing some of the brightness through the use of safety glass which has a high attenuation factor. By sacrificing brightness, the contrast ratio of the post-acceleration

tube is only slightly lower than that of the shadow-mask tube. When the two tubes are compared in a completely darkened room, the difference in the contrast in their pictures is noticeable and the shadow-mask tube has better contrast. With only a slight increase in room illumination, this difference in contrast becomes hardly noticeable. In a room that has illumination as bright as that in a show room, the picture on the post-acceleration tube can be seen very easily because of the great amount of brightness produced by the tube; and it is actually easier to see more contrast in it than in the receiver with the shadow-mask tube.

The effects of external magnetic fields in the post-acceleration tube are about the same as they are in the shadow-mask tube. Since the beams travel at a lower velocity, they are more easily affected; but in the vertical direction, color purity can easily be maintained since continuous vertical stripes of the same color are being used. Any magnetic field which would cause a shift in the vertical direction can therefore be neglected, but if any magnetic field causes a horizontal shift of the beams, color impurity will usually result. Methods have been devised so that the fields which cause a horizontal shift will be counteracted.

### Summary

Although the post-acceleration tube is basically a three-gun tube, it offers three main advantages — increased brightness, increased operating tolerances, and the possibility of decreased cost of the receiver circuitry. According to the designers, it is believed that the post-acceleration tube can exist in the same market with the shadow-mask tube because equipment manufacturers can change from the shadow-mask tube to the post-acceleration tube with relatively few changes in circuitry. The critical convergence adjustments which are necessary for any multigun tube are decidedly less complicated in the post-acceleration tube. The transition, education, and training problems for the set manufacturer, distributor, dealer, and service technician in switching from the shadow-mask tube to the post-acceleration tube are not serious.

It was emphasized, when the progress report was given, that the post-acceleration tube is still in the developmental stage and that it may not be ready for production until 1957.

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## Audio Facts

(Continued from page 31)

It may sound as if we are straying away from practical considerations, but actually we are not. Recording on discs is largely a mechanical process. Heads and pickups for magnetic recording operate on both mechanical and electrical principles. Such terms as constant velocity are commonly used when discussing the basic principles involved in the recording and playback processes. They do mean something; and when their meaning is understood, recording characteristics are more easily understood.

A magnetic cutter is a constant-velocity device because it is a highly damped unit that is sensitive to current. It is a current-operated device. Current flowing through the coil of a recording head causes the stylus to move in a manner similar to the operation of an electric motor in which current passing through the motor causes the rotor to turn. The flow of current is what makes it operate.

Velocity by definition is amplitude multiplied by frequency. Since it is the nature of a magnetic cutter to operate at a constant velocity if the frequency of the signal fed to it at a constant level changes, the amplitude of the signal recorded on the disc must change because the velocity is constant and cannot change. If the frequency goes up, the amplitude goes down; if the frequency goes down, the amplitude goes up. If we plot this change in amplitude against the change in frequency, we have our first recording curve shown in Fig. 1. Since no other factors have been considered, we find it is a straight line. One thing to remember is that this line represents an increase in amplitude of 256 times within an 8-octave drop in frequency.

Old recording and playback systems such as the old acoustical systems, for example, were restricted enough in range and were peaked in response in such a way that recordings could be cut and played back satisfactorily (within the limits of the system) with no modifications of the constant-velocity characteristic. As the systems were improved, it became possible to record and play back the very low and the very high frequencies. This improved response meant that the curve shown in Fig. 1 could not be employed unless modified.

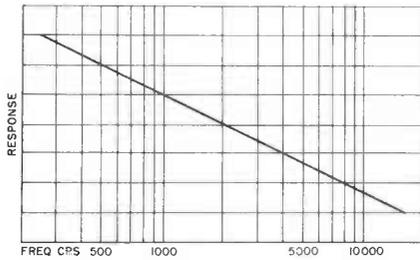
Since amplitude increases as the frequency is lowered, low tones cause the stylus to make such wide swings that the grooves it cuts cannot be accommodated on the record. Very little music could be recorded on a disc because the grooves would have to be spaced so far apart. Besides that, it would be found that a recording head would produce a lot of distortion if it had to handle such large signals. The same thing would happen when the pickup tried to follow or track the highly modulated grooves.

### Constant Amplitude

To overcome this tendency to overmodulate at the lower frequencies, the recording circuit is equalized so that the signal fed to the cutter is progressively attenuated as it goes lower in frequency below a certain frequency (the crossover frequency). This attenuation has the effect of counteracting the constant-velocity characteristic (of increasing amplitude as frequency is lowered), and it keeps the width of the groove within usable limits.

Because of the low-frequency equalization introduced into the recording circuit, recording below the crossover frequency follows the constant-amplitude characteristic. If a signal lower in frequency than the

crossover frequency is fed at a constant level into the equalized recording circuit, the cutter will cut a groove in which the modulation is maintained at a constant amplitude even though the frequency of the signal varies. This permits the recording of the very low frequencies which we now enjoy on our present-day discs.



**Fig. 1. Typical Response Curve Showing Change in Amplitude With Change in Frequency When Velocity Remains Constant.**

### Pre-emphasis

Compensating for low frequencies is not the complete story because the recording circuits are also equalized at the higher frequencies. The higher frequencies above the crossover frequency are boosted or pre-emphasized. This boost of the high frequencies is possible because the constant-velocity characteristic of the cutter causes the width of the grooves to decrease as the frequency increases.

Much of the record noise that otherwise would be heard when a record is played is eliminated if a sufficient amount of high-frequency pre-emphasis is employed when the record is cut. This is possible because most of the surface noise is composed of random high frequencies. If the high-frequency signal is recorded at a high level, the modulation which is cut in the grooves will be of such amplitude that the signal will override or mask the noise produced by surface irregularities.

### RIAA Curve

The curve shown in Fig. 2 is a good example of a recording curve because most new records are cut according to the characteristics shown by this curve. It is the RIAA (Record Industry Association of America, Inc.) recording curve which has been adopted as the standard of the recording industry in this country. The curve is identical to the RCA NEW ORTHOPHONIC curve. The curves formerly used by the AES (Audio Engineering Society) and the NARTB (National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters) have been modified to conform to the RIAA curve; therefore, the RIAA, NEW ORTHOPHONIC, NARTB, and AES curves are now identical. The attenuation of the low frequencies and the boost of the high frequencies can be seen. The crossover frequency is at 500 cps and not at the 1,000-cps point where the response is zero.

Since a recording cut by an uncompensated magnetic cutter would be flat when played back by a magnetic pickup, we can see that if the recorder were equalized (as shown in Fig. 2) the playback circuit would also have to be equalized. The purpose of the record-compensation control is to make the selection of the necessary equalization possible. For accurate reproduction of the original signal, the playback equalization must follow the playback curve which is the opposite of the recording curve employed when the original signal was recorded.

When a record which was recorded according to the RIAA curve shown in Fig. 2 is played with a magnetic

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pickup, the circuit fed by the pickup must be equalized to comply with the playback curve shown in Fig. 3. This is the standard RIAA playback curve which is the opposite of the RIAA recording curve. The required amount of equalization in decibels is plotted against frequency in cycles per second.

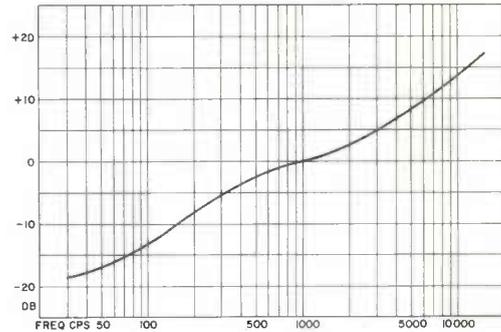


Fig. 2. RIAA Recording Curve.

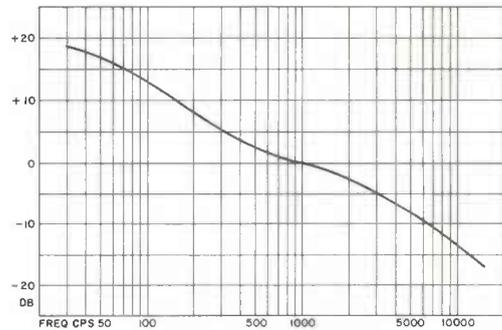


Fig. 3. RIAA Playback Curve.

The following table lists the exact values of the playback characteristics of the RIAA curve. The crossover frequency is 500 cps.

Frequency (cps)	Response (db)	Frequency (cps)	Response (db)
15,000	-17.17	3,000	-4.76
14,000	-16.64	2,000	-2.61
13,000	-15.95	1,000	0
12,000	-15.28	700	+1.23
11,000	-14.55	400	+3.81
10,000	-13.75	300	+5.53
9,000	-12.88	200	+8.22
8,000	-11.91	100	+13.11
7,000	-10.85	70	+15.31
6,000	-9.62	50	+16.96
5,000	-8.23	30	+18.61
4,000	-6.64		

The multiposition record-compensation controls found on most preamplifiers are very useful because they provide proper equalization for the many different recording curves used before the recording companies adopted the standard curve. Before 1954, when the RIAA curve was adopted, each recording company used its own recording curve. Most companies used different curves upon different occasions. Crossover frequency varied anywhere from 300 to 800 cycles per second.

### Comparison of Playback Curves

Four playback curves are superimposed on the RIAA playback curve in Fig. 4 to illustrate how they varied before they were standardized. This comparison indicates that if the proper playback curve is not used,

the response will be unbalanced because the correct amounts of bass boost and high-frequency roll-off are not applied. The quality of reproduction will suffer because it is surprising how sensitive the ear is to small amounts of unbalance.

Although most of the recent recordings are made according to the RIAA curve, some are still cut according to other curves. Since we are also still using records that were cut before the RIAA curve existed, we have to be able to adjust the playback compensation in order to obtain satisfactory reproduction.

Fig. 4 reveals that some curves or portions of some curves differ very little from the RIAA curve. Because of this, it is sometimes possible to get a satisfactory response by making some small adjustments of the tone controls if the record-compensation control on the pre-amplifier being used does not have a position for a particular playback curve.

Although magnetic pickup cartridges have been used in so many high quality home music systems, many crystal and ceramic cartridges are also used. Because of the constant-amplitude characteristic and the comparatively high output of the cartridges, they are usually connected to an uncompensated high-level input rather than to the magnetic-cartridge input on a preamplifier. A crystal or ceramic cartridge is a constant-amplitude device because it develops voltage or is a voltage-operating device; therefore, it develops a high output at low frequencies and supplies its own bass boost. In this way, it can be used to play a record without the compensation normally required for a magnetic cartridge.

This arrangement has its advantages; but when the crystal or ceramic cartridge bypasses the phonopreamplifier section, it cannot make use of the record

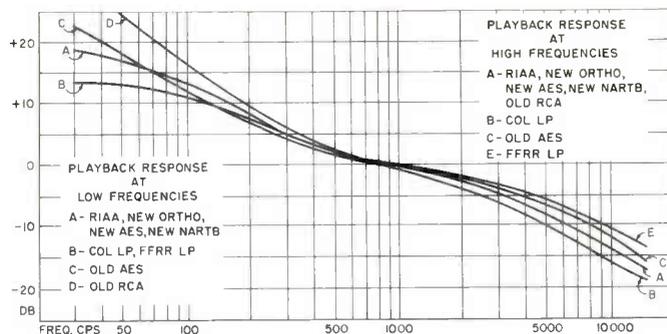


Fig. 4. Comparison of Standard RIAA Playback Curve With Some Curves Used Before Standard Curve Was Adopted.

compensation (for various playback curves) which the preamplifier provides. This situation has been changed to some extent by the availability of crystal and ceramic cartridges that have been modified, usually by a built-in compensating network, so that they can be plugged into inputs intended for use with magnetic cartridges. The flexibility of operation provided by the record-compensation control is a desirable feature which increases the versatility of these particular cartridges.

The adoption of the RIAA playback curve as a standard has simplified the problems of playback equalization, especially for new recordings. Equalization is still required for new recordings, and sometimes listening conditions can influence the response to such an extent that some adjustment is necessary. Of course, we still have the records made according to the old curves; therefore, we cannot eliminate the record-compensation control.

ROBERT B. DUNHAM

## ABOUT THE COVER

The numerals and the waveforms which make up this month's cover were photographed directly from the face of an oscilloscope screen. The reader will recognize the waveforms as the familiar Lissajous figures seen in many oscilloscope textbooks and instruction manuals.

In order that the Lissajous figures could be obtained, two sine-wave generators were used to drive the vertical and horizontal amplifiers of the oscilloscope. The 60-cycle sine-wave sweep of the oscilloscope itself could have been used for the horizontal signal; but the voltage from the power line had a slight irregularity, and this showed up in the figures. Simple frequency ratios such as 1 to 2, 1 to 3, 2 to 3, and 3 to 4 were maintained between the two sine-wave signals.

The numerals were a little more difficult to obtain. Apparatus for developing a display of numerals has been designed; but since nothing of that nature was at hand, a little ingenuity was necessary to obtain numerals 5, 6, and 9. The numeral 1 was very easily obtained; a mere horizontal or vertical trace was sufficient. The numeral 5 was developed lying on its side and was the result of applying a sine-wave signal to an electronic switch that had one amplifier channel set for zero amplification. The straight-line portion at the top of the 5 was obtained by misadjusting the sweep-stability control of the oscilloscope. The numerals 6 and 9 result from a 2-to-1 Lissajous figure with the oscilloscope blanking phase adjusted to blank out the appropriate portion of the figure.

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## Shop Talk

(Continued from page 9)

thickness of the base section. The carriers which the emitter injects into the base section must cross this thin layer to reach the collector. In a p-n-p transistor, the carriers from the emitter are holes (rarified spaces having positive charges); and in an n-p-n transistor, electrons perform this function. In either case, the carriers travel across the base by a process of diffusion requiring some small but finite (or measurable) time. If all the injected carriers were to require exactly the same travel time, the net effect would simply be a delay of the output signal with respect to the input signal.

Not all of the carriers take the same path, and consequently the carriers (holes or electrons) corresponding to a particular part of the input signal do not all arrive at the same time at the collector. When the signal frequency is low, this time difference of arrival can be ignored. As we increase the signal frequency, however, some of the carriers that arrive late begin to interfere with the carriers that represent the next portion of the signal. Disturbance and cancellation effects result, and the amplitude of the output signal begins to fall off. The dispersive effect becomes more and more pronounced as the signal frequency rises, and the output signal continues to decrease.

To minimize this effect, the base section should be made very narrow; but as we make the base section narrower, we steadily decrease the reverse voltage which can be applied between the emitter and the collector. With exceedingly thin base layers, irregularities in thickness or in the distribution of impurities may also make it easier for a short circuit to occur between collector and emitter. This short-circuit effect is called "electrical punch through."

Another factor that wields considerable influence on the extent of transistor frequency response is the resistance of the base section. This base resistance is common to both input (emitter-to-base) and output (base-to-collector) circuits; consequently, it introduces a certain amount of degeneration just as an unbypassed cathode resistor does in a vacuum-tube amplifier. This feedback or degeneration reduces the output impedance of the device. It also leads to an increase in the overall output capacitance of the transistor, and both effects serve to reduce the voltage and power gain of the unit. It would thus be desirable

if the resistance of the base section were reduced to a minimum, and one way to do this would be to increase the thickness of the base. This, however, would run directly counter to the conclusion reached above — that the base should be made thinner so that carrier-diffusion time would be reduced. Some sort of compromise or change in construction is therefore required. Both approaches have been employed.

Transistors also possess internal capacitances; and these exert a very important influence on frequency response, too. If we consider a p-n-p transistor, for example, a cross-sectional view might appear like that shown in Fig. 3. At the far left is the emitter section followed by the base section and then the collector section. Between each two consecutive sections is a p-n junction. When there are no bias voltages applied to the transistor, the width of both p-n junctions is the same; moreover, there is a tendency for holes in the emitter section to cross over into the base section and a similar tendency for electrons in the base section to diffuse into the emitter section.

As soon as a relatively small number of electrons and holes do cross a boundary, an unbalance of charge is created in both sections. The emitter section tends to become

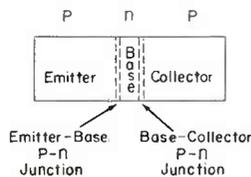


Fig. 3. Two p-n Junctions in a Junction Transistor.

more negative (because of the loss of holes and the gain of some electrons), and the base section tends to become more positive (because of the loss of electrons and the acquisition of holes). All further tendency of this action to continue is thus rather quickly discouraged by the electrostatic potential which is built up across the junction. Since there is a charge existing across the junction and in consequence a small potential difference, we have in essence a small capacitance. The capacitance is that of a parallel-plate capacitor having a plate separation equal to the thickness of the junction layer. In similar fashion, there exists a capacitance between the base section and the collector section at their junction.

The width or spread of the two junctions will change when bias voltages are applied. For example,

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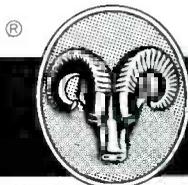


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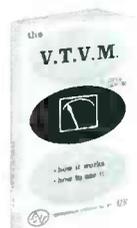
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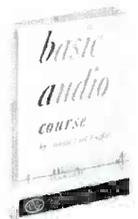
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since the base-to-emitter junction is biased in the forward direction, the width of this junction becomes narrow. On the other hand, the base-to-collector junction is biased in reverse, and the width of this junction increases. See Fig. 4. The latter effect occurs because the applied voltage appears principally across this junction and strengthens the existing electrostatic field by widening the junction so that more fixed donor and acceptor charges will be brought into the field. During the course of operation, the bias voltages at both junctions will vary with the signal and will cause both capacitances to vary, also.

To keep the effect of the emitter capacitance slight, a low base resistance is required because the base resistance is essentially in series with this capacitance. (Emitter resistance is part of this input circuit,

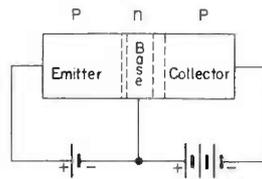


Fig. 4. Application of Proper Biasing Voltages Causes Width Changes in p-n Junctions.

too; but emitter resistance is usually much lower than base resistance.) As a matter of fact, the combination of base resistance and emitter-to-base capacitance forms a low-pass filter of the type shown in Fig. 5. To raise the highest frequency which this filter will allow to pass, the resistance and capacitance should both be as small as possible. In the case of the collector capacitance, a low value is also desirable because this capacitance shunts the output circuit. The collector capacitance can be reduced by making the area of the collector smaller, but this reduces the maximum current and power ratings of the transistor. Collector capacitance can also be reduced by the application of a higher collector voltage, since the greater the reverse voltage the wider the spread of the base-to-collector junction. The limit to which collector voltage can be increased is governed by the width and internal resistivity of the base layer.

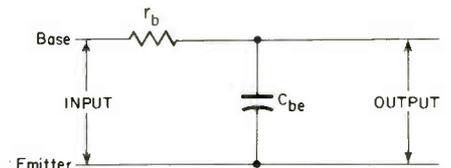


Fig. 5. Simplified Input Circuit of a Junction Transistor.

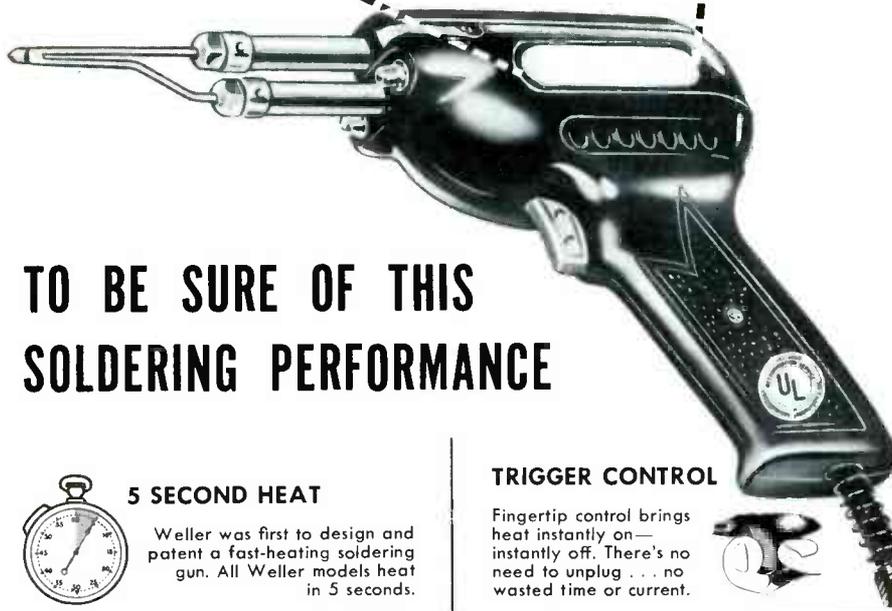
The foregoing are some of the principal factors that govern the frequency response of a transistor. It is apparent that what is good for one ailment is frequently not good for another, and so an inevitable amount of compromise is necessary. Next month, we shall discuss the forms some of these compromises take.

#### REVIEW

So much progress has been made in evolving new circuit designs that the service technician is easily led to overlook the very substantial progress that has also taken place in the form and substance of the basic electronic components themselves. It is desirable, therefore, to pause periodically and take a closer look at some of these components. In the present instance, attention will be directed toward fixed capacitors.

An article in which such an examination has been made appeared in the August 1955 issue of Radio & Television News magazine. The author is W. H. Buchsbaum, and the article is entitled, "Fixed Capacitors." Radio & Television News magazine is published monthly by the Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, 366 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. Subscription rates for the United

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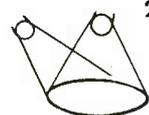


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CAPACITOR TYPES	AVAILABLE CAPACITANCES	AVAILABLE VOLTAGES (Volts)
CERAMIC	0.5 mmfd to 0.01mfd	300 to 5000
MICA	1.0 mmfd to 0.1 mfd	200 to 5000
PAPER	100.0 mmfd to 1.0 mfd	100 to 1000
OIL (Dykonal or Pyronol) IN METAL CASES	0.01 mfd to 20.0 mfd	400 to 5000
ELECTROLYTIC	2.0 mfd to 2000.0 mfd	6 to 500
TRANSMITTING AND HIGH-VOLTAGE	0.005 mfd to 4.0	600 to 20000

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The increase in the number of different capacitor types is due largely to two factors: the development of newer materials and the more stringent demands which the electronics industry and the armed forces are making on the ability of capacitors to operate reliably at higher ambient temperatures in smaller and smaller enclosures. This latter feature is particularly important to the technician in his repair work. If the interior of a receiver becomes very warm — a condition that occurs in many television receivers, particularly in color television sets — then not only must close attention be paid to the value and voltage rating but to the rec-

ommended operating temperature of the capacitor as well. In fact, the voltage rating is dependent upon this temperature; and if a unit is operated in a receiver in which the temperature is higher than that for which the capacitor is rated, then the maximum voltage rating must be lowered. This is known as "derating" or the reduction of a certain operating characteristic to a lower value.

There are other features of a capacitor that the technician must consider. For example, there is the capacitance value and the associated tolerance of the unit. The latter property is particularly important in critical circuits. Mica capacitors and some small ceramic units have tolerances of  $\pm 5$  or  $\pm 10$  per cent and are labeled accordingly. Other types of ceramic capacitors, especially some disc types, have tolerances of  $-20$  and  $+ 80$  per cent. This gives them considerable leeway in value and limits their use to applications, such as those of bypassing and coupling, which are not especially critical from the standpoint of capacitance value. It would obviously not be desirable to employ such units in frequency-selective circuits. Paper capacitors generally fall into the  $\pm 20$ -per-cent class, and electrolytics often have a  $-20$  and a  $+ 50$ -per-cent tolerance.

When it comes to voltage ratings, most service technicians concern themselves only with the DC working voltage. For most uses, this is sufficient. It is well to remember that capacitors also possess an AC voltage rating and that if this rating is exceeded, the capacitor can be just as decisively damaged as if its DC voltage rating were exceeded.

So much for the general features of capacitors. Now let us examine the various types which are available to the service technician. Table I lists the approximate ranges of values for the major capacitor types. These types are usually named according to the dielectric material used.

#### Mica Capacitors

Mica capacitors have been with us for a long time, practically as far

TABLE I

Capacitor Types and Their Approximate Ranges of Values.



536K Multimeter Kit \$12.90  
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425K 5" Scope  
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SPECIFICATIONS	CJ-30	CJ-14
Input pwr (cont.)	15 w	5 w
Input imp.	4 or 8 $\Omega$	4, 8 or 45 $\Omega$
Response (cps)	250-9,000	400-10,000
Dispersion	120° x 60°	170° x 60°
Bell Size	14" x 6"	9 1/2" x 5 1/2"
Over-all length	14"	8 1/2"

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back as anyone can remember. They are constructed of two interleaved sets of either aluminum, tin, or silver foil; and the sets are separated from each other by thin sheets of mica. Each set of foil goes to one terminal and its pigtail wire. The entire unit is then molded in a Bakelite insulator and is color coded.

The most common tolerance of a mica capacitor is  $\pm 20$  per cent. Mica units of  $\pm 5$  per cent (recognized by a gold dot on the case) and  $\pm 10$  per cent (as indicated by a silver dot) as well as a special silver mica capacitor are available. The latter possesses high stability when subjected to temperature changes and is especially useful in such critical circuits as the horizontal-oscillator stage of a television receiver.

Mica capacitors are generally obtainable in voltage ratings of 300, 500, or 1,000 volts and higher.

#### Ceramic Capacitors

A ceramic capacitor is one of the newer types and embodies a ceramic material that possesses a high dielectric constant. Generally speaking, the higher the dielectric

constant of a material, the greater its sensitivity to heat. This means that the capacitance of such units will fluctuate with temperature unless special precautions are taken during the manufacturing process to limit this variation.

In general, there are three types of ceramic capacitors. There is a "High-K" type which features a relatively large capacitance in a small volume. There is also a low-inductance type for UHF circuits and a temperature-compensating type. The two most popular kinds of temperature-compensating capacitors are the NPO and the N capacitors. (There is also a P capacitor, but it is not employed very often.)

An NPO ceramic capacitor has a temperature coefficient of approximately zero — its capacitance does not vary with temperature. These units are used most widely for bypassing and coupling purposes. An N capacitor possesses a negative coefficient — its capacitance decreases as the temperature rises. This particular characteristic is desirable in resonant circuits so that the tendency of such circuits to go lower in frequency with increasing

temperature will be counteracted. (Capacity reduction tends to increase the resonant frequency.)

An N capacitor has a number following the N designation — for example, N750. This notation means that for each degree centigrade of temperature rise, the capacitance will decrease 750 parts for each million parts of its value.

Additional types of ceramic capacitors include the button types for VHF and UHF bypassing and coupling and a wide variety of special types for equipment going to the armed services.

#### Paper Capacitors

A number of new variations of the familiar paper capacitors have also appeared. These variations feature such things as molded bodies, metalized paper, and metal casings with end seals of glass. The molded and metal casings serve to provide greater protection against heat and moisture. The major constructional difference between conventional paper and metalized-paper capacitors lies in the replacement of the separate



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layers of metallic foil with an extremely thin metallic film which is deposited directly on the lacquered surface of the paper dielectric by a high-vacuum vaporizing process. The lacquer coating considerably improves the dielectric strength and the insulation resistance of the paper. The metallic films most commonly used are zinc and aluminum.

Most molded paper capacitors are rated for operation up to 85 degrees centigrade, and this is satisfactory for most radio and TV applications. If higher temperatures are encountered, the voltage rating of the capacitor will have to be lowered in accordance with the manufacturer's specifications. For example, here is what one manufacturer recommends:

Temperature (degrees centigrade)	Reduction in Operating Voltage From Rated Voltage (per cent)
55	0
60	5
65	10
70	15
75	20
80	25
85	35
90	50
95	65

The DC polarity of paper capacitors is not usually important; however, most such units are marked to indicate the outside foil in one way or another. The reason for the marking of the lead to the outside foil is that a minimum capacitance to ground may be obtained in certain applications. In audio and video amplifiers, the coupling capacitor often goes from a high to a low impedance circuit; and in such cases, the outside foil should be connected to the circuit where the impedance is low.

### Impregnated Capacitors

Another place where paper appears is in impregnated capacitors in which special oils (such as Pyranol, mineral oil, and Dykanol) are used to impregnate the paper and to provide sturdy electrical and physical characteristics. These units are generally assembled in hermetically sealed cases. Capacitance values range from about .01 to 20 microfarads with voltage ratings from 400 to 5,000 volts.

### Electrolytic Capacitors

The construction of electrolytic capacitors is completely different

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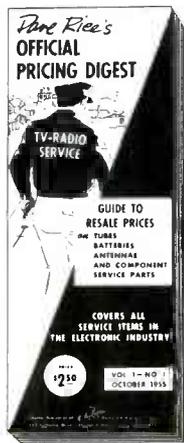
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from that of any of the other fixed units. In electrolytic capacitors, the capacitive action depends upon the formation of a thin dielectric film on a metallic surface (generally aluminum) by a liquid or paste material. The metallic surface forms one electrode, and the liquid or paste serves as the other electrode; the two are separated by the dielectric film.

Most electrolytic capacitors possess a definite polarity, and the markings must be carefully observed when these units are connected into a circuit. This is true even when using an electrolytic capacitor as a coupling capacitor for signals of low frequency. A typical example is in the output of a cathode follower in which the cathode is positive. The positive terminal of the electrolytic must be connected to the cathode.

If an electrolytic capacitor has been standing unused for some time, either in a receiver or on a shelf, it will be found that a leakage current higher than normal would be obtained upon application of a voltage. After several minutes, the current should decrease to a value of a few milliamperes. This process is known as "forming" whereby the thickness of the dielectric film is re-established by the passage of current. (If the high leakage current persists, the unit is defective.)

Heat has a very detrimental effect on electrolytic capacitors. It causes the leakage current to increase and the capacitance to decrease, and it materially shortens the life of the unit. If heat is a problem in a certain receiver, it is generally best to use an electrolytic capacitor with a metal rather than a cardboard casing. The metal dissipates the heat faster and therefore helps to maintain a lower operating temperature. In such cases, it is also desirable to employ a capacitor with a voltage rating of 50 to 100 volts higher than the peak voltages in the circuit.

Because of their construction, electrolytic capacitors have a fairly high internal inductance. If the capacitor is used in a filter circuit or for bypassing frequencies higher than 10 kilocycles, a paper capacitor of low value should be shunted across the electrolytic capacitor so that the effect of the inductance will be reduced.

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## In the Interest of Quicker Servicing

(Continued from page 29)

cases, they are of a door-knob type. When a capacitor of the pigtail type fails, it is a good idea to change all three of the capacitors as a safety precaution. This will prevent a later call back that might otherwise have been necessary. If the door-knob type of capacitor is employed and if the voltage rating of each capacitor provides for a sufficient margin of safety, replacement of the one defective capacitor should be adequate. If, however, the voltage rating of each capacitor does not provide for a sufficient margin of safety, then all of the capacitors should be replaced. It would also be a good idea to replace both of the tubes in a high-voltage doubler circuit if either of

them is defective. This is a good preventive measure.

### Mounting Transformers Without Drilling New Holes

It has always been somewhat of a perplexing problem to mount replacement chokes and transformers because many of the standard replacement units have different center-to-center spacings for the mounting bolts or rivets. Sometimes the original unit is riveted into place; and in order to replace the unit, it is necessary to drill out the rivets.

It may or may not be easy to drill a different mounting hole for the replacement unit. In a good many cases, the manufacturer has attached the original unit with self-tapping screws. In these cases particularly, it would save time if the replacement unit could be mounted without having

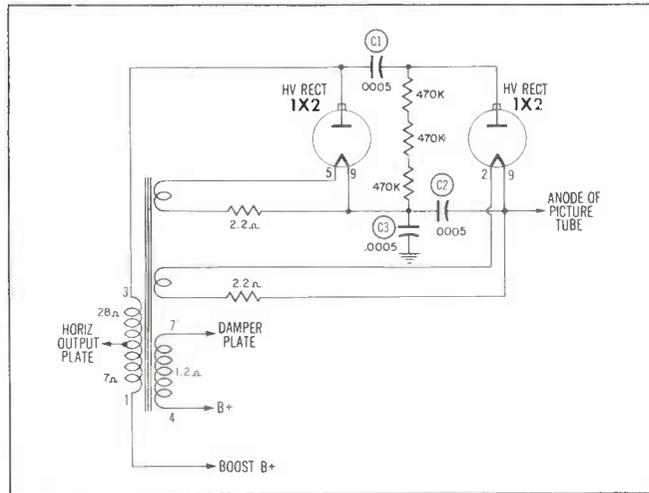


Fig. 3. Schematic Diagram of a High-Voltage Doubler Circuit.

(Advertisement)



MODEL 648		MODEL 715/115	
TUBE TEST FIL.	CIRCUIT D	PLATE TEST E	FIL. X. PLATE YZ
5V3	5.0 13	5 13W	3S 8
		8 13W	6S 8
6BQ8	6.3 126	AC79	25 50R
		125 4	22Z 33
		123 8	22Z 33
6BW4	6.3 126	15W 4	2S 9
		15W 9	5S 9
6CL5	6.3 A124	B579 22Z	8JNS 9

Latest Chart Form 648-15

TUBE TYPE	SEC.	A	B	C	D	CATH.	SHORTS	E
5V3	D	5.0	2	-	4	-	-	10
6BQ8	D	5.0	2	-	6	-	-	8
	D	6.3	4	-	1	9	-	16
	D	6.3	4	-	7	9	-	16

Latest Chart Form 49-3

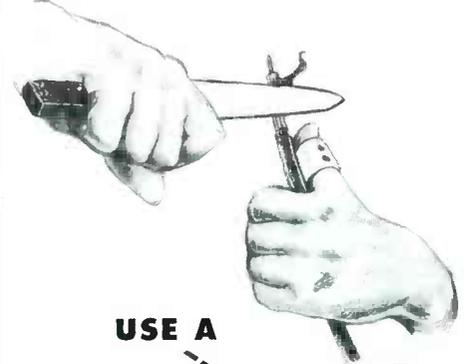
to drill a new mounting hole. The adapter shown in Fig. 4 makes this possible. This adapter is manufactured by the Gramer-Halldorson Transformer Corporation, 2734 Pulaski Road, Chicago 39, Illinois, and is available at electronic parts distributors.

As may be seen in the figure, this adapter is very simple and consists of a slotted strap and a 6-32 bolt and nut. In Fig. 5A, the adapter is shown installed with a replacement unit that has narrower mounting centers than the original unit. In Fig. 5B, the replacement unit has wider mounting centers. Since it takes only



Fig. 4. Adapter for Mounting Transformer.

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Fig. 5A. Adapter Connected for Narrower Mounting Centers.



Fig. 5B. Adapter Connected for Wider Mounting Centers.

a few seconds to install this adapter plate for either use, a saving of time may be realized.

### Corona and Arcing Problems With Metal Picture Tube

Corona discharge and high-voltage arcing are problems which occur in receivers using metal picture tubes and which are sometimes very difficult to find and solve because of their nature. Corona discharge is very difficult to see even in a darkened room, and it is practically impossible to trace to its source by its sound.

A large number of TV receivers that employ 16-inch metal-cone picture tubes or larger are currently in use. Corona and arcing in these receivers, especially in those that are several years old, presents quite a problem. By consulting the drawing shown in Fig. 6, you will notice that there is a plastic ring around the front of the picture tube. This ring has two functions: it supports the front of the tube, and it provides insulation to guard against arcing of the high voltage to the chassis or other objects. Although it is not shown in Fig. 6, the plastic insulating ring around the front of the tube may have a corrugated surface or a system of ribs to provide a long leakage path for the high voltage. This is done so that a minimum amount of surface leakage or corona discharge will occur.

In Fig. 6, it may be seen that the rear of the picture-tube cone has a slight bulge. This is actually the place at which the metal cone is sealed to the glass neck of the tube. It may also be seen that several rubber bumpers provide a cushion between the tube and the metal yoke-

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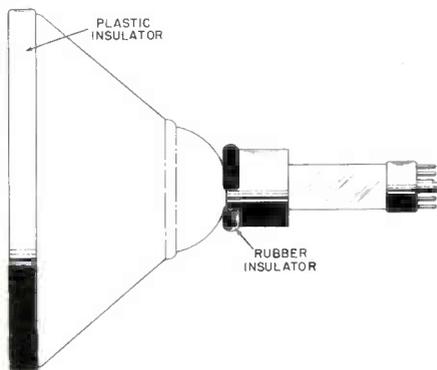
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mounting bracket. These rubber bumpers have another function — they furnish insulation between the metal yoke-mounting bracket and the picture tube.

Corona discharge occurs when the high voltage which is present on the metal cone of the tube leaks across the bulge at the neck of the tube and then leaks to the metal yoke-mounting bracket. This becomes possible when the small rubber bumpers become covered with a layer of dirt that is somewhat oily or moist or when the insulating ability of the bumpers is lost through deterioration.



**Fig. 6. Drawing of Metal-Cane Picture Tube Showing Front Plastic Mounting Ring and Rear Rubber Bumpers.**

This condition may best be remedied by replacement of the rubber bumpers and a thorough cleaning of the picture tube itself.

When a serious arcing condition occurs, it will usually be caused by a breakdown of the plastic ring that is around the front of the picture tube. This kind of failure will be most noticed in receivers in which the tube is mounted to the chassis and is secured with a metal strap around the plastic ring. Such a case was recently encountered in a 19-inch Motorola receiver. The high voltage actually burned a hole through the plastic ring. This hole looked as if it might have been burned with a hot object, but it was actually caused by arcing of the high voltage through the plastic ring to the metal support ring. An attempt was made to tape the metal ring, but a repair in this manner proved impractical; and it was necessary to replace the plastic ring.

Dirt causes a great deal of corona and arcing trouble because it collects moisture. A moist layer of dirt is a fairly good conductor and will, in many cases, provide a path for the high voltage to a point near enough to ground that arcing or corona discharge will result. As mentioned earlier, a thorough cleaning of the affected area can help to combat this problem.

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Sales of 24-inch sets are perking up, and some predict that this size will be the hottest seller next year. In general, look for good business in 1956; hang onto your good service technicians; and keep up your stocks. Also, give serious thought to boosting at the first of the year — your labor rate for service — say 5 or 10 per cent — to keep it in line with generally increasing labor rates in other industries.

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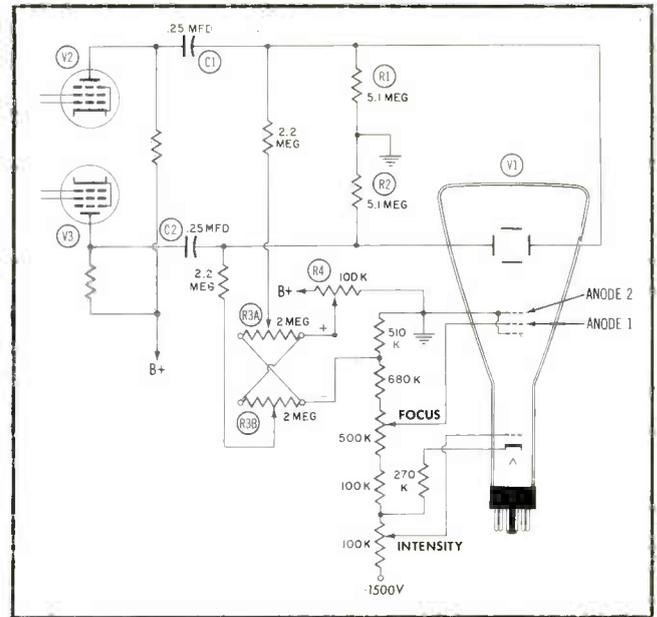
## Know Your Oscilloscope

(Continued from page 13)

flow is indicated by the arrows. The rectifier conducts only when its plate or anode is positive with respect to its cathode. In part B of Fig. 4, the rectifier has been reversed and the DC output voltage is therefore negative with respect to ground. The ground connection could be made as in Fig. 4C, thus giving DC supply points of both negative and positive polarity with respect to ground.

Most oscilloscopes use the arrangement shown in Fig. 4B for the high-voltage supply, with minor variations occurring in some cases. Some of the reasons for this choice will be discussed. In Fig. 5, the circuit of Fig. 2 has been redrawn. The rectifiers and filter sections have been omitted; the final stages and the positioning controls for one of the amplifier channels are shown. R1 together with R2 forms the ground return for one pair of deflection plates, and the AC output from V2 and V3 is developed across these two resistors. This is a push-pull deflection system in which a negative-going signal is applied to one deflection plate of a pair at the same time that a positive-going signal is applied to the other plate.

**Fig. 5. Partial Schematic Diagram Showing the Positioning Control and High-Voltage Divider Network of an Oscilloscope (Triplett Model 3441).**



With the circuit arrangement shown in Fig. 4, the DC potential of neither deflection plate will vary greatly from ground potential. Any variation that may be present will be due to the action of the positioning controls R3A and R3B. These controls are ganged together and are wired in such a manner that any rotation of the common shaft will shift the slider of one control toward a

more positive potential and at the same time will shift the slider of the other control toward a more negative potential. As a result, the deflection plates have push-pull action for the DC positioning voltage as well as for the AC signal.

The following advantages result from the choice of a negative high-voltage supply. (1) The deflec-

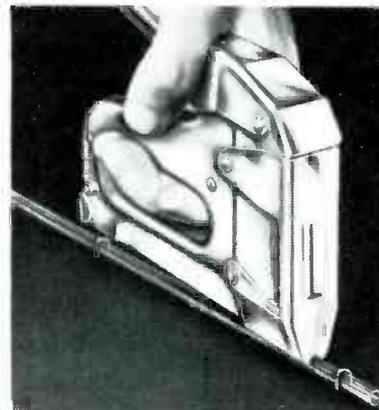
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tion plates can be operated at a DC potential close to that of anode No. 2. This is desirable because the defocusing effect which is obtained if the two potentials differ greatly is eliminated. (2) Capacitors C1 and C2 can be of a fairly low voltage rating. (3) The circuit can be more easily adapted to DC connection between deflection plates and amplifiers. (4) Less insulation is needed between the positioning controls and the chassis or the front panel.

Contrast the preceding conditions with those that would be obtained if the polarity of the high-voltage supply were reversed. (1) Anode No. 2 will be at a high positive potential to ground. As a result, there will be an extreme difference in potential between the deflection plates and anode No. 2 if the DC connections are made from the amplifier to the deflection plates. (This condition was mentioned as being undesirable.) (2) If blocking capacitors C1 and C2 are used, the deflection plates and anode No. 2 can be at nearly the same potential; but the voltage rating of the capacitors must be high. Capacitors of that value and rating would be bulky and expensive. (3) The horizontal- and vertical-positioning controls should be insulated from the chassis and the front panel as a protective measure against the high voltage.

The choice of polarity for the high-voltage supply does not affect the voltage rating of the filter capacitors C1 and C2 of Fig. 2. Regardless of the polarity, the voltage rating of these capacitors must be high. In summary, the advantages seem to lie mainly with the high-voltage supply of negative polarity; and the majority of commercially produced oscilloscopes employ this system.

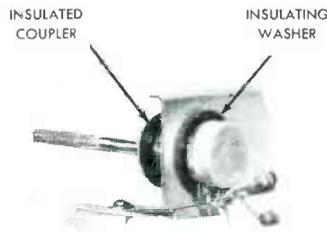
**Insulation of Front-Panel Controls**

It can be seen in Fig. 5 that the focus and intensity controls are at points of fairly high potential at the negative end of the dividing network; consequently, the manufacturers take precautions to insulate these controls from the chassis and from the front panel. The method used in the Triplet Model 3441 oscilloscope is shown in Fig. 6. Insulating washers are used between each control and the mounting bracket. An insulating coupler is used between the shaft of the control and the long metal shaft running to the front panel.

**Beam Intensification**

The 5UP1 cathode-ray tube has been used as an example throughout the preceding paragraphs because it is popular with oscilloscope manu-

facturers; however, other cathode-ray tubes are also used in oscilloscopes, and some of them require a power supply slightly different from those discussed so far. There



**Fig. 6. One Method of Insulating Between a Control and the Chassis.**

is an intensifier anode in the 5ABP1 tube and in the 5CP1A tube. This anode (called anode No. 3) may sometimes be operated at a potential that is as much as 2,000 volts positive with respect to ground; and at the same time, the control grid may be as much as 2,000 volts negative with respect to ground. The action of the intensifier anode is to accelerate greatly the electrons in the beam after they have passed between the deflection plates. A brighter spot results; yet the deflection sensitivity is not seriously affected. Because of the increased velocity of the electrons in the beam, a higher scanning rate can be used. In order to obtain the positive high voltage for the intensifier anode, another half-wave rectifier system can be added.

With all these high-voltage sources present within the case, the operator should be very careful when examining the interior of oscilloscopes. The instruction manuals caution against operating the oscilloscope while the chassis is outside of its case. Before touching any part of the interior of an oscilloscope, the operator should make sure that the filter capacitors are not charged.

**PAUL C. SMITH**

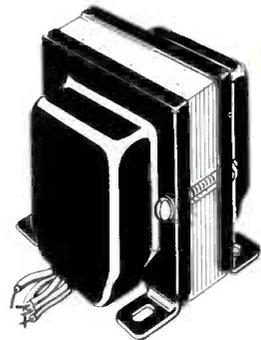
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## Examining Design Features

(Continued from page 19)

tubes or replace other components on the top of the chassis. Should the receiver require service on just the wiring side of the chassis, the technician need not tilt the chassis. By merely removing the fiber board which covers the back side of the vertical chassis, all of the under-chassis wiring and components are exposed. The photograph of Fig. 7 illustrates the easy access once the cabinet back has been removed.



Fig. 6. The CBS-Columbia Tilt-Back Chassis illustrating the Ease of Access for Tube Replacement.



Fig. 7. The CBS-Columbia Model 3T615 Television Receiver With Cabinet Back Removed and With the Fiber Board Which Covers the Wiring Side of the Chassis Partially Removed.

A rather odd feature of the new CBS-Columbia Model 3T615 receiver is the manner in which the individual oscillator slugs are adjusted. The Standard Coil tuner employed in this receiver is mounted at a 45-degree angle with respect to the base pan and is not part of the tilt-back chassis assembly. The oscillator adjustment is accessible through a hole in the base pan. The alignment tool must be inserted through this hole from the bottom side of the cabinet at a 45-degree angle in order to enter the adjustment hole which is in the front of the tuner.

The electrical design of the receiver is somewhat conventional and uses two selenium rectifiers in

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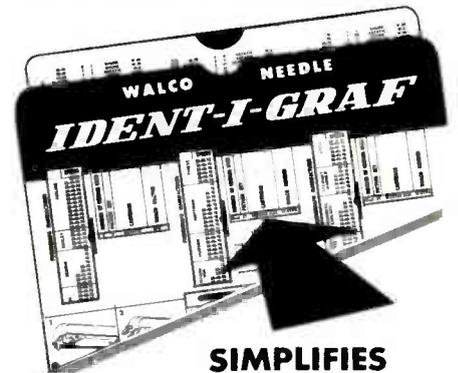
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the low-voltage supply and a series-filament arrangement for 600-milli-ampere tubes. The chassis utilizes a stagger-tuned, 40-mc IF strip with a crystal detector. It also incorporates a LOCAL-DISTANT switch to compensate for variations in the signal strength of near and far stations.

**Pocket-Size Transistor Radio**

The small chassis pictured with a tape measure in Fig. 8 is the Mitchell Model 1103 AM portable radio. The unit is completely transistorized, and miniature parts are used throughout. The entire unit is so compact that it may be conveniently carried in a man's shirt pocket. This radio, complete with battery, weighs only twelve ounces.

All components except the volume control and tuning capacitor are mounted on a small printed-wiring board. The center portion of the board is cut out for the speaker magnet. All the resistors are mounted vertically, and capacitors of the smallest possible size are used to conserve space.



Fig. 8. The Mitchell Model 1103 Transistorized Portable Radio Chassis.

The antenna coil is wound on a flat ferrite form and provides a tuned circuit of high Q-factor. Body capacitance has little effect on the antenna coil; and for a portable receiver of this size, the antenna coil is not exceptionally directional. A transistor and a miniature oscillator coil make up the essential components of the converter stage. The IF transformers used in this receiver are of the tuned-primary, untuned-secondary type. The IF stages are practically identical; however, only the first stage is controlled by AVC. The AVC voltage is derived from the output of the crystal-detector stage. Direct coupling is used between the crystal detector and the volume control. The resistance of the volume control is low so that it will match the input impedance of the audio output transistor.

The output transistor is properly biased in order to compensate for any variations in ambient tempera-

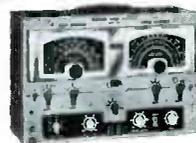
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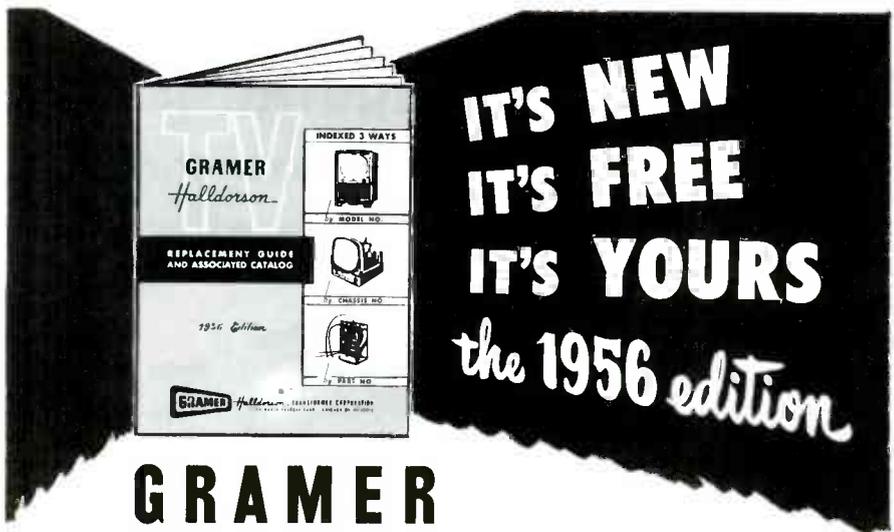
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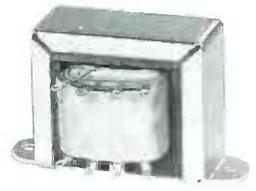
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ture or fluctuations in battery voltage either of which could adversely affect normal operation of the output stage.

A miniature output transformer matches the impedance of the output transistor to a small 2 3/4-inch speaker. The speaker responds with reasonable fidelity and adequate volume for such a small unit. A hearing-aid earphone is available as an accessory item and may be plugged into a jack provided on one side of the receiver. The power supply for this receiver is made up solely of one small 22 1/2-volt battery. Life expectancy for the battery is rated at 20 to 30 hours, depending upon the frequency and duration of use. The on-off switch is connected in the negative side of the battery line; and when the receiver is on, contact is made by a strip of metal which rides against a small metal disc. The disc is part of the shaft of the volume control and is grounded to the chassis. When the shaft is turned to the off position, a piece of plastic protruding from the knob of the volume control separates the metal strip from the disc and thus the electrical contact is broken.

#### Push-Button Power Switch

The rather odd-looking photograph presented in Fig. 9 is a close-up view of the push-button type on-off switch employed in the new Motorola Model 21K41R television receiver. This push button is one of the newest features now appearing on the front panel of this Motorola receiver.

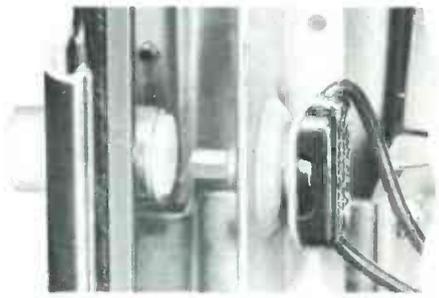


Fig. 9. Push-Button Power Switch Employed in the Motorola Model 21K41R Television Receiver.

The switch itself is of a conventional design and has a current rating of one ampere at 250 volts or three amperes at 125 volts. The Motorola chassis utilizes a power transformer in the low-voltage supply, and the switch is connected in series with one side of the primary winding. It can be seen in Fig. 9 that the switch is mounted on the front of the chassis a short distance from the white plastic button which is attached to the mask assembly.

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NOTE: PCB Denotes Production Change Bulletin.

Production Change Bulletin Nos. 1 Through 63 Are All Contained in Set No. A-200
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Denotes Television Receiver.

5 Denotes Schematic Coverage Only.

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AIRLINE-Cont.

Table listing various electronic components and models under the AIRLINE-Cont. section, including part numbers and descriptions.

AIRLINE-Cont.

Table listing various electronic components and models under the AIRLINE-Cont. section, including part numbers and descriptions.

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Table listing various electronic components and models under the AIRLINE-Cont. section, including part numbers and descriptions.

ALLSTATE-Cont.

Table listing various electronic components and models under the ALLSTATE-Cont. section, including part numbers and descriptions.

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Table listing various electronic components and models under the ANDREA section, including part numbers and descriptions.

NOTE: PCB Denotes Production Change Bulletin.

Production Change Bulletin Nos. 1 Through 63 Are All Contained in Set No. A-200

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NOTE: PCB Denotes Production Change Bulletin.

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Table listing various electronic components and models under the 'GENERAL ELECTRIC-Cont.' section, including items like 21C208-UHF, 21C210, 21C212, etc.

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Table listing various electronic components and models under the 'GENERAL ELECTRIC-Cont.' section, including items like 41F4, 41F5, 41F6, etc.

GLOBE

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HALLCRAFTERS-Cont.

Table listing various electronic components and models under the 'HALLCRAFTERS-Cont.' section, including items like 5R60, 5R61, 5R62, etc.

HALLCRAFTERS-Cont.

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Production Change Bulletin Nos. 1 Through 63 Are All Contained in Set No. A-200 Production Change Bulletin Nos. 64 Through 104 Are All Contained in Set No. A-250

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NOTE: PCB Denotes Production Change Bulletin. Production Change Bulletin Nos. 1 Through 63 Are All Contained in Set No. A-200. Production Change Bulletin Nos. 64 Through 104 Are All Contained in Set No. A-250. S Denotes Schematic Coverage Only.

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NOTE: PCB Denotes Production Change Bulletin. Production Change Bulletin Nos. 1 Through 63 Are All Contained in Set No. A-200 Denotes Television Receiver. Production Change Bulletin Nos. 64 Through 104 Are All Contained in Set No. A-250 Denotes Service Coverage Only.

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(CM-1) indicates service data also available in Howard W. Sams 1947 Record Changer Manual. (CM-2) indicates service data available in Howard W. Sams 1948 Record Changer Manual. (CM-3) indicates service data available in Howard W. Sams 1949, 1950 Record Changer Manual. (CM-4) indicates service data available in Howard W. Sams 1951, 1952 Record Changer Manual. (CM-5) indicates service data available in Howard W. Sams 1953 Record Changer Manual. (CM-6) indicates service data available in Howard W. Sams 1953, 1954 Record Changer Manual.

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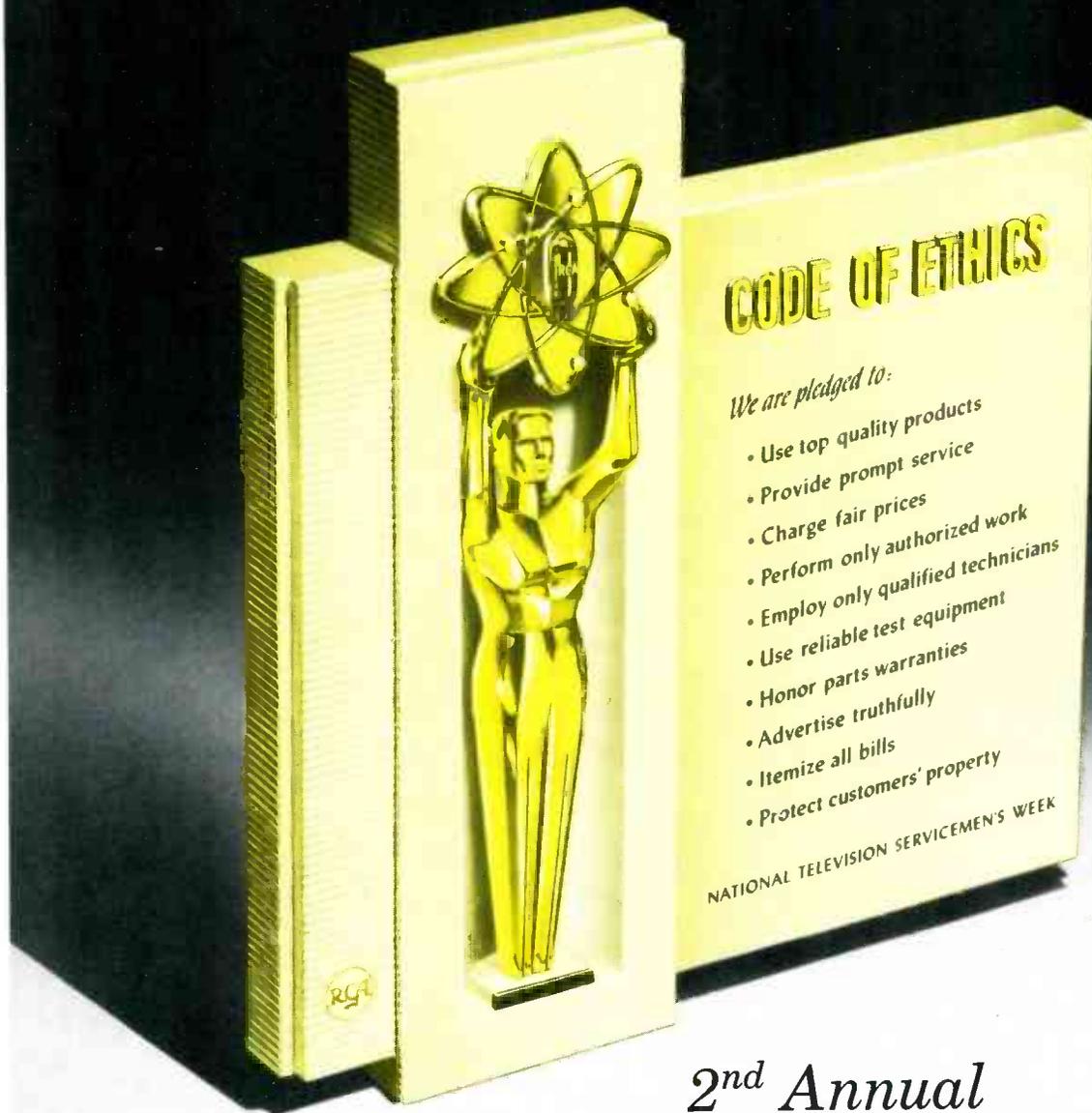
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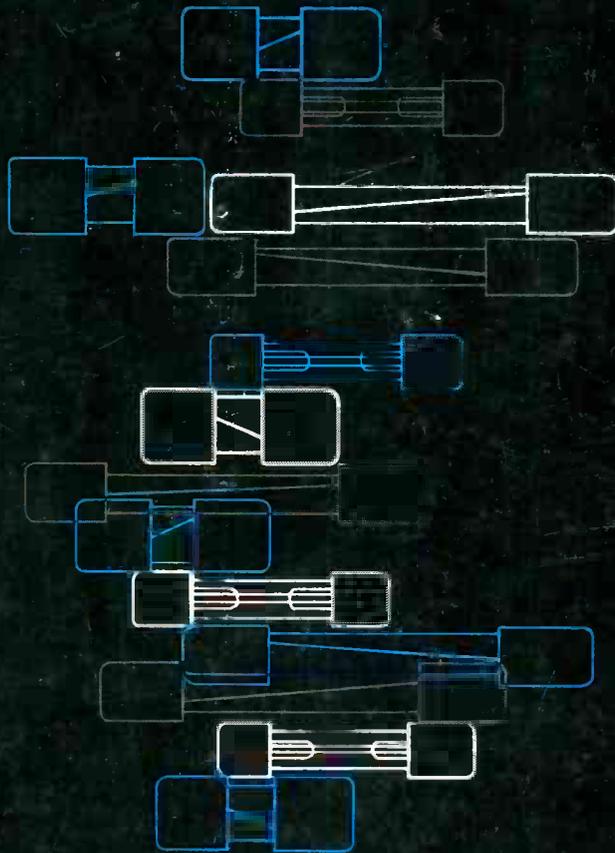
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